

# Development of Soft-Switching PWM Full Bridge DC–DC Converter with Charging Applications



Meenavalli Harikrishna, Madugula Satya Harish, M.Veera ChandraKumar

**Abstract:** This paper proposes a high-frequency-link soft switching pulse-width dc–dc converter for battery chargers. Zero-voltage switching of power switches is achieved from light load to full load. Reverse recovery losses can be reduced in the secondary side output diodes without using any additional circuit components. Zero-current switching of output diodes is achieved by using the series-resonant circuit in the secondary side. The circulating current in the primary side full-bridge circuit can be changed by the operation modes of the output diode current. As a result, a high efficiency can be achieved for EV on-board battery chargers. The performance of the proposed converter is evaluated throughout Matlab Simulation results for a 2.0-kW circuit

**Keywords :** DC–DC Converter, High Frequency Link, Battery Charger

## I. INTRODUCTION

As generally recognised electric vehicles can achieve higher energy conversion efficiency, motor-regenerative braking capability, fewer local exhaust emissions, and less acoustic noise and vibration, as compared to gas-engine vehicles. The battery has an important role in the development of electric vehicles (EVs) and plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (PHEVs).



Fig.1 Electric vehicle and its main modules

An EV shown in Fig.1 [1] is a vehicle propelled by electricity, unlike the conventional vehicles on road today which are major consumers of fossil fuels. This electricity can be either produced

outside the vehicle and stored in a battery or produced on board with the help of fuel cells (FC's). The development of EV's started as early as 1834 when the first battery-powered EV (tricycle) was built by Thomas Davenport [2], which appeared to be appalling, as it even preceded the invention of the ICE based on gasoline or diesel fuel. The development of EV's was discontinued as they were not very convenient and efficient to use as they were very heavy and took a long time to recharge. Moreover, from the end of the year 1910, they also became more expensive than ICE vehicles. This led to the development of gasoline-based vehicles. However, there are concerns over the depletion of fossil fuel and green house gases causing long term global crisis like climatic changes and global warming. These concerns are shifting the focus back to development of automotive vehicles which use alternative fuels for operations. The development of such vehicles has become imperative not only for the scientists but also for the governments around the globe as can be substantiated by the Kyoto Protocol which has a total of 183 countries ratifying it (As on January 2009). The BEV has been since few years a very attractive research area both by car manufacturers and scientific researchers. The system architecture of HEV/EV

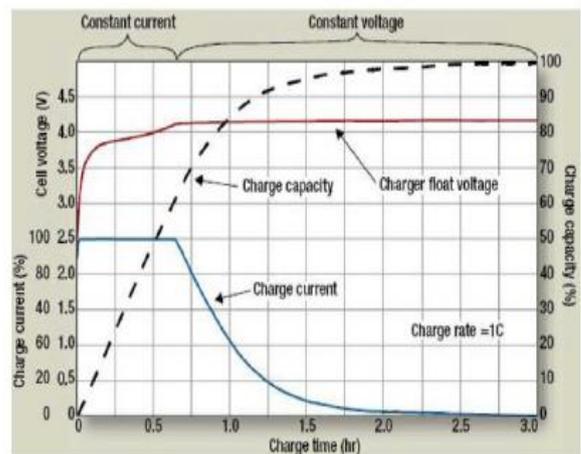


Fig. 2 Typical charging profile of Li-Ion cell

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## B. Charger Classifications

Since the inception of the first EVs, there have been many different charging systems proposed. Due to many different configurations so far the chargers, it is required to classify them based on some common design and application features. Table 1.1 [6] lists five different methods of classifying chargers. Battery charger classification



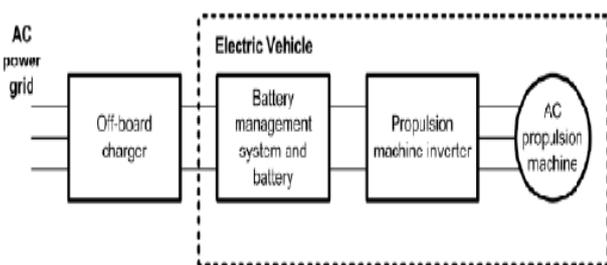
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| CLASSIFICATION TYPE  | OPTIONAL                          |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| TOPOLOGY             | DEDICATED, INTEGRATED             |
| LOCATION             | ON BOARD, OFF BOARD               |
| CONNECTION TYPE      | CONDUCTIVE, INDUCTIVE, MECHANICAL |
| ELECTRICAL WAVEFORMS | AC, DC                            |
| POWER LEVEL          | LEVEL 1, LEVEL 2, LEVEL 3         |

The chargers can be classified based on the circuit topologies [7]. A dedicated circuit solely operates to charge the battery. In comparison, the traction inverter drive can serve as the charger at the same time when the vehicle is not working and plugged into the grid for charging. This option is commonly known as integral/integrated chargers. A second classification is the location of the charger. Carrying the charger on-board greatly increases the charging availability of the vehicle. Off-board chargers can make use of higher amperage circuits and can charge a vehicle in a considerably shorter amount of time.

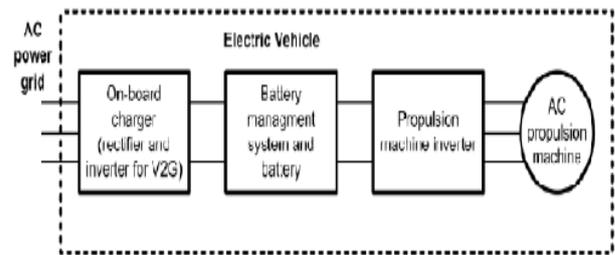
### A. Typical Battery Charging Profile

A battery is a device which converts chemical energy directly into electricity. It is an electrochemical galvanic cell or a combination of such cells which is capable of storing chemical energy. Batteries are more desirable for the use in vehicles, and particular traction batteries are most commonly used by EV manufacturers. Traction batteries include Lead Acid type, Nickel and Cadmium, Lithium ion/polymer, Sodium and Nickel.



**Fig.3 Block diagram of off-board charger**

For off-board charger shown in Fig.3 [7], the charger is an external unit, rather than a component of the EV. Furthermore, an off-board charger produces a high DC voltage. The internal battery management system (BMS) must be able to charge the battery using charge voltage. The major drawback of this topology is that the charger is not integrated in the EV, hence it is impossible to charge the battery of an EV without an appropriate charger which provides the needed high DC voltage on site.

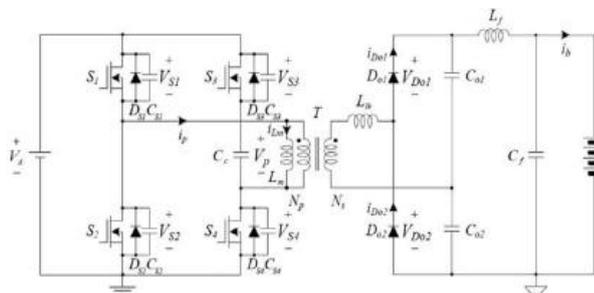


**Fig.4 Block diagram of on-board charger**

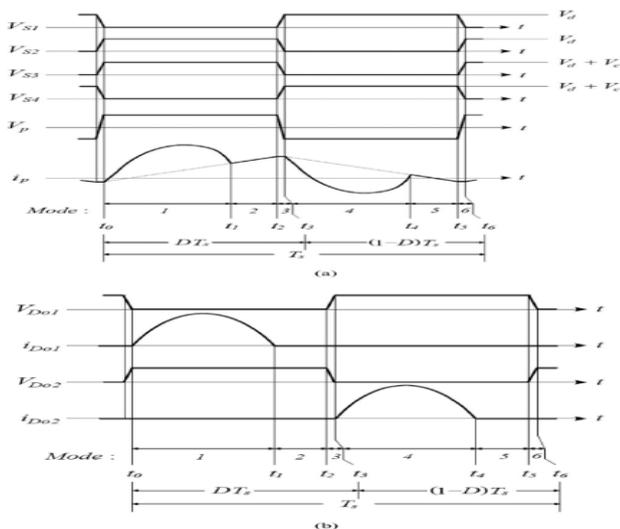
For on-board charger shown in Fig 4 (7) The charger is a component of the EV. The EV can be charged almost everywhere using a single phase or three phase supply. The major drawback of this topology is that this simple on-board charger requires an additional DC/AC inverter. One inverter enables the vehicle to grid (V2G) capability and the second drives the AC propulsion machine. Third is the connection method [8] conductive charging contains metal-to-metal contact inductive charging contacts AC grid to vehicle indirectly via a take-a-part high frequency transformer and mechanical charging the depleted battery pack with a Full one in battery swap stations. Fourth, the electrical waveform at the connection port of the vehicle to the grid can be either a DC connection or an AC connection. Currently, the PHEVs and EVs in the market employ an AC connection type. However, in the future, the availability and commonality of the DC sources may change the connection type. Fifth, the charger can deliver power in a unidirectional way by just charging the battery. More advanced designs introduce bidirectional power transfer. Again, all of the chargers in the market employ unidirectional chargers. Last, three charging levels have been defined for EVs and PHEVs. These are detailed in Table 3.2. Level 1 and level 2 charging are assumed to be the normal charging levels which will take place where the vehicle will sit for a substantial amount of time such as the home or office. However, the drawback of charging a vehicle with these normal charging levels is that it can take 4 to 20 hours depending on available power, battery size, and SOC of the battery, and this is not a viable option when long travel distances are considered. The solution to this lengthy charging time issue is the level 3 fast charging. Level 3 charging makes battery-powered vehicles more competitive against conventional ICE vehicles by charging the battery in less than 30 minutes. Typically, level 3 charging is accomplished via an off-board charger by means of converting three-phase 480V AC to a regulated DC. Although there have not been any adopted standards for level 3 charging in the US or internally other than Japan, a Japanese protocol known as CHAdeMO is gaining international recognition. CHAdeMO supplies the vehicle with a regulated DC voltage requiring an external charging station, and interfaces directly with the vehicle battery and battery management system (BMS).

Alternatively, several European automakers are focusing on supplying vehicles directly with 3-phase and processing it via an on-board battery charger [17].

## II. PROPOSED CONVERTER



**Fig.5. Circuit diagram of the proposed dc-dc converter.** Fig5 shows the circuit diagram of the proposed converter. The primary side circuit consists of power switches (S1, S2, S3, and S4), clamping capacitor (Cc), and transformer (T). Power switches are considered ideal switches except body diodes DS1–DS4 and output capacitors CS1–CS4. The transformer T has the magnetizing inductor  $L_m$  and leakage inductor  $L_{lk}$  with the turns ratio of 1:N where  $N = N_s / N_p$ . The secondary side circuit consists of the rectifier circuit (Do1, Do2, Llk, Co1, and Co2) and output filter ( $L_f$ ,  $C_f$ ). A series resonance between  $L_{lk}$ ,  $Co_1$ , and  $Co_2$  makes the output diodes to be turned ON and OFF at zero current.  $V_d$  is the input voltage of the proposed converter, which is generated by the front-end PFC converter.  $V_b$  is the battery voltage. Because the output filter has small values, the voltage  $V_t$  across the secondary side circuit is considered to be  $V_b$  for one switching period  $T_s$  ( $=1/f_s$ ). Fig. 4 shows the switching waveforms of the proposed converter for  $T_s$ . S1 (S2) and S4 (S3) are turned ON and OFF, simultaneously. S1 (S3) and S2 (S4) operate complementarily with a short dead time. The converter has six switching modes.



**Fig.6. Switching waveforms of the proposed converter for  $T_s$ . (a) Wave forms of the primary side circuit. (b) Waveforms of the secondary side circuit .during  $T_s$ .**

The duty ratio  $D$  is based on the on-time of S1 and S4. Then, the duty ratio of S2 and S3 is  $1-D$ . Before  $t = t_0$ , S2 and S3 have been turned OFF. The voltages  $V_{S1}$  and  $V_{S4}$  have been zero when the primary current  $i_p$  flows through body diodes DS1 and DS4.

**Mode 1 [ $t_0$ ,  $t_1$ ]:** At  $t = t_0$ , S1 and S4 are turned ON at zero voltage. Since the voltage across  $L_m$  is  $V_d$ , the magnetizing inductor current  $i_{Lm}$  increases linearly as follows:

At the secondary side,  $NV_d$  is applied to the secondary winding of  $T$ . When the output diode  $i_{Do1}$  is turned ON, a series resonance between  $L_{lk}$ ,  $Co_1$ , and  $Co_2$  occurs. The output diode current  $i_{Do1}$  is expressed as follows:

$$i_{Do1}(t) = \frac{V_b - NV_d - V_{Co1}}{Z_r \sqrt{L_{lk}/2C_r}} \sin \omega_r (t - t_0)$$

where  $V_{Co1}$  is the voltage across  $Co_1$ .  $\omega_r$  is the angular resonant frequency as follows:

$$\omega_r = 2\pi f_r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2L_{lk}C_r}}$$

Here,  $C_r$  is the capacitor as  $C_r = Co_1 = Co_2$ . Then, the primary current  $i_p$  is expressed as follows:

$$i_p(t) = i_p(t_0) + \frac{V_d}{L_m} (t - t_0) + N i_{Do1}(t)$$

**Mode 2 [ $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ ]:** At  $t = t_1$ , the half-resonant period of  $i_{Do1}$  is finished.  $i_{Do1}$  is zero before  $Do1$  is turned OFF.  $Do1$  can be turned OFF at zero current without any voltage overshoots and oscillations.

**Mode 3 [ $t_2$ ,  $t_3$ ]:** At  $t = t_2$ , S1 and S4 are turned OFF. The primary current  $i_p$  charges CS1 and CS4 and discharges CS2 and CS3.  $V_{S1}$  increases from zero to  $V_d$  while  $V_{S4}$  increases from zero to  $V_d + V_c$ .  $V_{S3}$  decreases from  $V_d + V_c$  to zero while  $V_{S2}$  decreases from  $V_d$  to zero. Since the switch output capacitor  $C_s$  ( $=CS_1 = CS_2 = CS_3 = CS_4$ ) is very small, the time interval during this mode is considered negligible compared to  $T_s$ .

**Mode 4 [ $t_3$ ,  $t_4$ ]:** At  $t = t_3$ , S2 and S3 are turned ON at zero voltage. Since the voltage across  $L_m$  is  $-(V_d - V_c)$ , the magnetizing inductor current  $i_{Lm}$  decreases linearly as follows:

$$i_{Lm}(t) = i_{Lm}(t_3) - \frac{(V_d - V_c)}{L_m} (t - t_3)$$

At the secondary side,  $N(V_d - V_c)$  is reversely applied across the secondary winding of  $T$ . When the output diode  $Do2$  is turned ON, a series resonance between  $L_{lk}$ ,  $Co_1$ , and  $Co_2$  occurs. The output diode current  $i_{Do2}$  is expressed as follows:

$$i_{Do2}(t) = \frac{N(V_d - V_c) + V_{Co2}}{Z_r} \sin \omega_r (t - t_3)$$

$$i_p(t) = i_p(t_3) - \frac{(V_d - V_c)}{L_m}(t - t_3) - N i_{Do2}(t).$$

where  $V_{Co2}$  is the voltage across  $Co2$ . The primary current  $i_p$  is expressed as follows: according to different input voltage conditions and  $CS4$ .  $VS1$  decreases from  $V_d$  to zero while  $VS4$  decreases from  $V_d + V_c$  to zero.  $VS3$  increases from zero to  $V_d + V_c$  while  $VS2$  increases from zero to  $V_d$ . The next switching cycle begins when  $S1$  and  $S4$  are turned ON at zero voltage again.

### III. CONVERTER FEATURES

#### A. ZVS Condition

By the voltage–second balance relation on  $L_m$  during  $T_s$ , the voltage  $V_c$  is expressed as follows:

$$V_c = \frac{2D - 1}{1 - D} V_d.$$

For the voltage–second balance relation on the secondary winding of  $T$  during  $T_s$ , the following relation between  $V_d$  and  $V_b$  is obtained as follows:

$$\frac{V_b}{V_d} = \frac{N}{1 - D}.$$

The EV on-board battery charger commonly has a PFC converter and a high-frequency-link dc–dc converter. The PFC converter typically generates a high dc-link voltage around 380–400 V for the input voltage of the dc–dc converter [20]. In case of the PSM FB dc–dc converters, the voltage stresses of all power switches are clamped to the input voltage. Thus, high-voltage switching devices such as 600-V switches should be used for the primary side power switches. In case of the proposed converter,  $S1$  and  $S2$  are clamped to  $V_d$  while  $S3$  and  $S4$  are clamped to the sum of  $V_d$  and  $V_c$ . The proposed converter can reduce the voltage stress of power switches. Fig. 5 shows the relation between the duty ratio  $D$  and voltage stresses of  $S3$  and  $S4$  according to different input voltage conditions. Switch voltage stresses of  $S3$  and  $S4$  can be lower than  $V_d$  when  $D$  is below 0.5. It is beneficial in two-stage applications like EV on-board battery chargers because the use of popular high-performance 500–600 V power switches is clearly ensured. From (8) and (9), the voltage across the clamping capacitor can be expressed as

$$V_c = \frac{2D - 1}{N} V_b.$$

Fig. 6 shows the graph for the relation between the duty ratio and the clamping capacitor voltage. It can be positive or negative by the duty ratio. The EV battery pack voltage typically ranges from 250 to 450 V for the output voltage of the battery charger [16]. Thus, the maximum clamping

capacitor voltage can be decided by the allowable battery voltage range and its corresponding duty ratio. Power switches are turned ON at zero voltage at

Modes 1 and 4. From Mode 1, the following relation is obtained:

$$i_{Lm}(t_1) = i_{Lm}(t_0) + \frac{V_d}{L_m} DT_s.$$

Supposed that the proposed converter is lossless with a unity efficiency, the average value of the magnetizing inductor current  $i_{Lm}$  can be represented as follows:

$$\frac{i_{Lm}(t_1) + i_{Lm}(t_0)}{2} = N i_b$$

where  $i_b$  is the battery current. From (10) and (11),

$$i_{Lm}(t_0) = N i_b + \frac{V_d}{2L_m} DT_s$$

ZVS of  $S2$  and  $S3$  is naturally achieved by the energy stored in  $L_m$ . Meanwhile, ZVS of  $S1$  and  $S4$  can be achieved when the energy stored in  $L_m$  is larger than the energy stored in  $CS1$  through  $CS4$ . To achieve ZVS of  $S1$

$$\frac{1}{2} L_m i_{Lm}^2(t_0) > \frac{1}{2} (C_{S1} + C_{S3}) V_d^2 + \frac{1}{2} (C_{S2} + C_{S4}) (V_d + V_c)^2$$

#### B. ZCS Condition

All output diodes are naturally turned ON at zero current at Modes 1 and 4. The diode currents  $i_{Do1}$  and  $i_{Do2}$  should be zero before  $Do1$  and  $Do2$  are turned OFF. The half-resonant period of the series resonance during Modes 1 and 4 should be finished before each output diode is turned OFF. The following condition should be satisfied for ZCS of output diodes as follows:

$$\sin[\omega_c D_{max} T_s] = 0, \quad \text{if } D_{max} \leq 0.5$$

$$\sin[\omega_c (1 - D_{max}) T_s] = 0, \quad \text{if } D_{max} > 0.5$$

where  $D_{max}$  is the maximum duty ratio.  $\omega_c$  is the critical angular resonant frequency as  $\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$ .  $f_c$  is the critical resonant frequency of the series-resonant circuit. For zero-current turn-off of output diodes, the resonant frequency  $f_r$  should be higher than the critical resonant frequency  $f_c$ . Then, the resonant capacitor  $C_r$  should be determined as follows:

$$C_r < \frac{1}{\omega_c^2 L_{lk}} = \frac{D_{max}^2 T_s^2}{\pi^2 L_{lk}}, \quad \text{if } D_{max} \leq 0.5$$

$$= \frac{(1 - D_{max})^2 T_s^2}{\pi^2 L_{lk}}, \quad \text{if } D_{max} > 0.5.$$

#### C. Charger System

The charging time and lifetime of the battery have a strong dependency on the characteristics of the battery charger [18]–[20].

Several manufacturers are working worldwide on the development of various types of battery modules for electric and hybrid vehicles. However, the performance of battery modules depends not only on the design of modules, but also on how the modules are used and charged. In this sense, battery chargers play a critical role in the evolution of this technology.

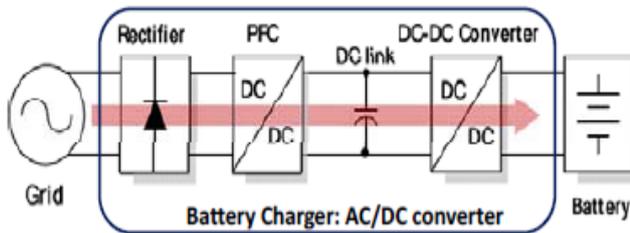


Fig.7 Battery charger system

The conventional battery charger system is shown in Fig. .6 [44]. Because batteries have a finite energy capacity, PHEVs and BEVs must be recharged on a periodic basis ,typically by connecting to the power grid. The charging system for these vehicles consists of an AC/DC rectifier to generate a DC voltage from the AC line, followed by a DC/DC converter to generate the DC voltage required by the battery pack. Additionally, advanced charging systems might also communicate with the power grid using power line.

IV. CONTROL STRATEGY

A. Pulse-Width Modulation

Pulse width modulation (PWM) techniques for two level inverters have been studied extensively during the past decades many different PWM methods have been developed to achieve the following aims. modulation range, reduced switching loss. lesser total harmonics distortion in the specturnof switching waveform easy implementation. less memory space and computation time on implementation in digital process for the proposed work . The two most widely used PWM scheam for multi-level inverters are the carrier PWM technique and space vector based PWM techniques Pulse width modulation is a method of controlling the output voltage of an inverter. In this method a control signal is compared with a repetitive signal, typical a triangular signal. To make the converter work in an inverter mode the control signal should have a sinusoidal shape. This control signal can vary a bit and this will be discussed in [13]. At a constant switching frequency the time period of the triangular signal is also constant since this signal gives the switching frequency. This is given in equation (2.1).

$$f_{sw} = \frac{1}{T_{tri}} \quad (3.1)$$

The frequency of the control signal gives the frequency of the desired fundamental output voltage. For a two-level converter there are two switches in one bridge leg and the upper switch will be on when the control signal is greater than the triangular signal. If

uni polar switching is chosen the lower switch will be off when the upper is on, which means that it will be off when the control signal is greater than the triangular signal. Switch number 2 will be on when the control signal is lower than the triangular and hence the upper switch will be off. This is shown in the figure below.

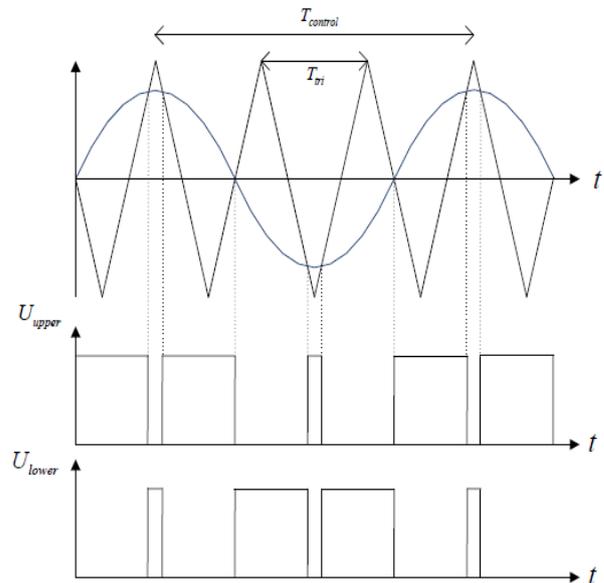


Fig 8: PWM with bipolar switching pattern As it will be seen in the next subchapters the control is a bit more complicated when a three level converter is being used. More about two-level converter control is to be found . There are a few parameters that need to be defined when PWM is discussed.

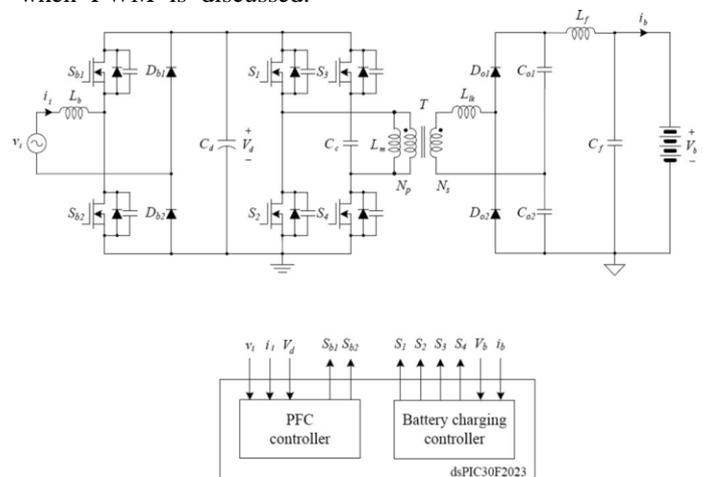


Fig.9. Circuit diagram of the over all system.

V. SIMULATION RESULTS

A2.0-kW prototype circuit of the proposed converter has been designed with a PFC converter. Fig. 9 shows the circuit diagram of the overall system. The bridgeless boost rectifier [23], [24] has been used for the PFC converter. It generates the dc-link voltage V<sub>d</sub> around 380–400V from 60Hz/230 V<sub>rms</sub> grid voltage.



## Development of Soft-Switching PWM Full Bridge DC–DC Converter with Charging Applications

The proposed dc–dc converter charges the battery pack with in the output voltage range from 250 to 450 V. The key circuit parameters of the proposed dc–dc converter are as follows

- Switch output capacitor CS : 500 pF;
- Clamping capacitor Cc: 1  $\mu$ F;
- Transformer turns ratio N: 0.5
- Magnetizing inductor Lm: 100  $\mu$ H;
- Leakage inductor Llk: 3.5  $\mu$ H;
- Resonant capacitor Cr: 1  $\mu$ F;
- output filter inductor Lf : 30  $\mu$ H;
- output filter capacitor Cf : 20  $\mu$ F.

Fig. 7 shows the photograph of the designed prototype system. The hardware circuit of the prototype system is divided into two parts: the microcontroller-based control circuit and power circuit. S1 = S2 = S3 = S4 = FCH76N60NF and Do1 = Do2 = HFA50PA60C are used for switching devices. Power switches operate at a constant switching frequency of 50 kHz with a dead time of 330 ns. The transformer T is designed by using the ferrite core EE 7066. The transformer has the primary winding turns of  $N_p = 20$  and secondary winding turns of  $N_s = 10$ .  $L_{lk} = 3.5 \mu\text{H}$  and  $C_r = 1 \mu\text{F}$  are used for  $f_r = 60 \text{ kHz}$  so that the output diode current should be in DCM. Fig. 8 shows the Matlab Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc–dc converter for 2.0 kW. when the output diode current is in the DCM. Fig. 7(a) shows the gating signals  $v_{gs1}$  and  $v_{gs2}$ , primary current  $i_p$ , and switch voltages  $V_{S1}$  and  $V_{S2}$  when the battery voltage is regulated as  $V_b = 350 \text{ V}$ . The duty ratio  $D$  is 0.45. Before the gating signals are applied to S1 and S2, switch voltages  $V_{S1}$  and  $V_{S2}$  are zero, respectively. ZVS of S1 and S2 is achieved. Switch voltages  $V_{S1}$  and  $V_{S2}$  are clamped to input voltage of 380 V. It is observed that the resonant frequency  $f_r$  is 60 kHz for  $L_{lk} = 3.5 \mu\text{H}$  and  $C_r = 1 \mu\text{F}$ . Because the output diode current is in the DCM, the circulating current in the primary side exists. Fig. 10 shows the Matlab Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc–dc converter for 2.0 kW when the output diode current is in the CCM. It shows the gating signals  $v_{gs1}$  and  $v_{gs2}$ , primary current  $i_p$ , and switch voltages  $V_{S1}$  and  $V_{S2}$  when the battery voltage is regulated as  $V_b = 350 \text{ V}$ . For the CCM operation of the output diode current, the resonant capacitor  $C_r = 2.2 \mu\text{F}$  is used with  $L_{lk} = 3.5 \mu\text{H}$ . The resonant frequency  $f_r$  is close to 40 kHz. Because the output diode current is in the CCM, no circulating current occurs, minimizing conduction losses in the primary side. Fig 11 shows the Matlab Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc–dc converter at light-load condition. Fig. 10(a) shows  $v_{gs1}$ ,  $v_{gs2}$ ,  $i_p$ ,  $V_{S1}$ , and  $V_{S2}$  for 50 W. Fig. 10(b) shows  $v_{gs3}$ ,  $v_{gs4}$ ,  $V_c$ ,  $V_{S3}$ , and  $V_{S4}$  for 50 W. Before the gating signals are applied to power switches, switch voltages are zero. ZVS of power switches is achieved from light-load to full-load conditions. Fig. 14 shows the Matlab Simulation waveforms when the battery charging controller is

applied to the proposed converter. The proposed converter has been tested to charge Li-ion batteries.

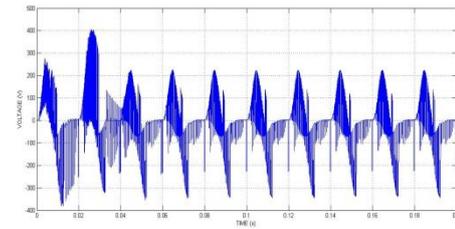


Fig.10. Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc–dc converter for Transformer Primary Voltage.

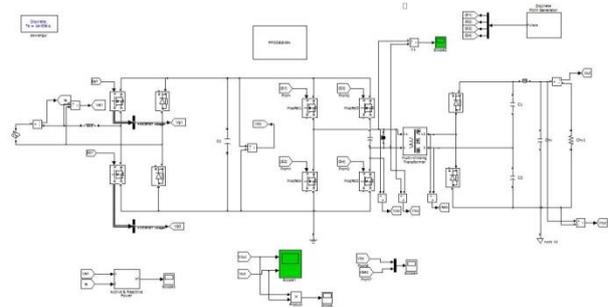


Fig.11. Simulation diagram of proposed model

Fig. 14(a) shows the battery voltage  $V_b$  and battery current  $i_b$  when the proposed converter operates at a constant current mode. When the battery power changes from 1.6 to 1.3 kW, the battery current is constantly regulated as  $i_b = 4 \text{ A}$  as the battery voltage  $V_b$  changes from 400 to 325 V. Fig. 14(b) shows the battery voltage  $V_b$  and battery current  $i_b$  when the proposed converter operates at a constant voltage mode. When the battery power changes from 0.8 to 1.6 kW, the battery voltage is constantly regulated as  $V_b = 400 \text{ V}$  as the battery current  $i_b$  changes from 2 to 4 A

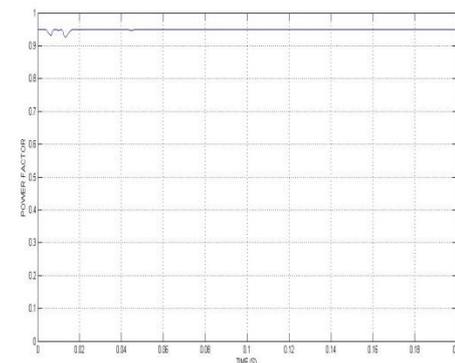


Fig. 12. Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc–dc converter for Power Factor (P.F).

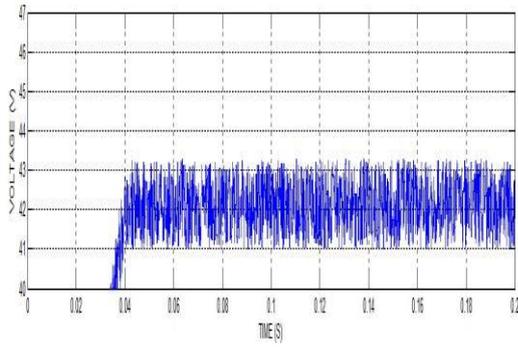


Fig.13 Simulation waveforms of the existing dc-dc converter voltage ripple content

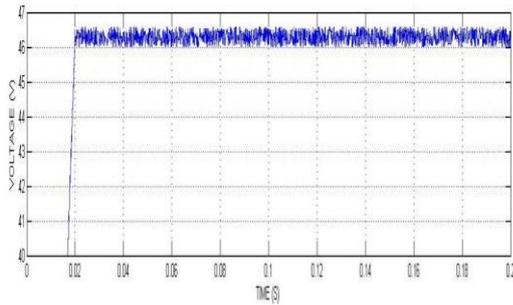


Fig.14 Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc-dc converter voltage ripple content in this proposed converter will reduce voltage ripple in 2V and improve the voltage level in standard voltage

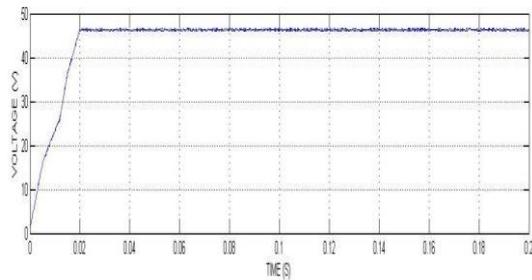


Fig. 15. Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc-dc converter for Output Voltage (Vout).

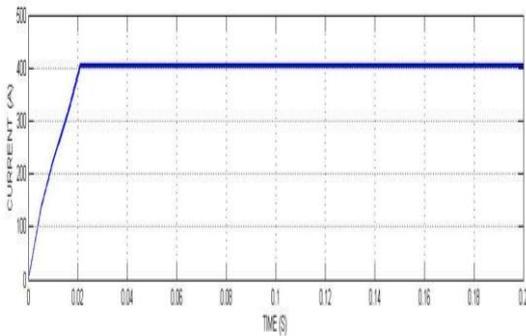


Fig. 17. Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc-dc converter for Output Current (Iout).

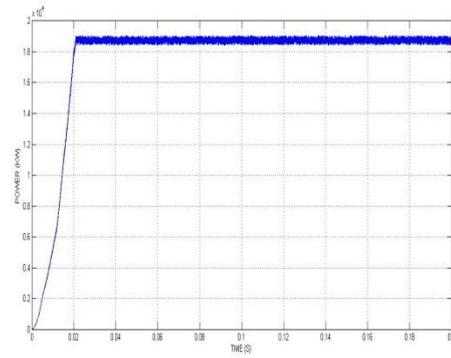


Fig. 19. Simulation waveforms of the proposed dc-dc converter for Output Power (Pout).

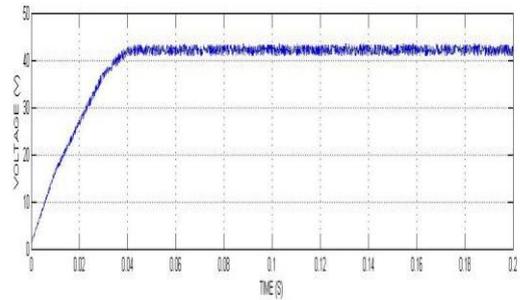


Fig. 16. Simulation waveforms of the existing dc-dc converter for Output Voltage (Vout).

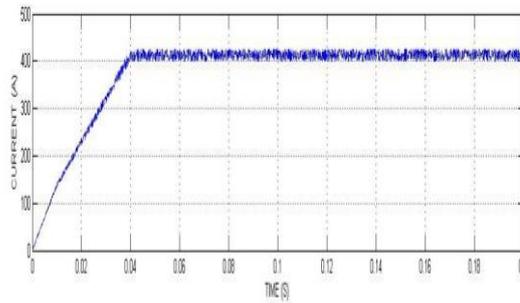


Fig. 18. Simulation waveforms of the existing dc-dc converter for Output Current (Iout).

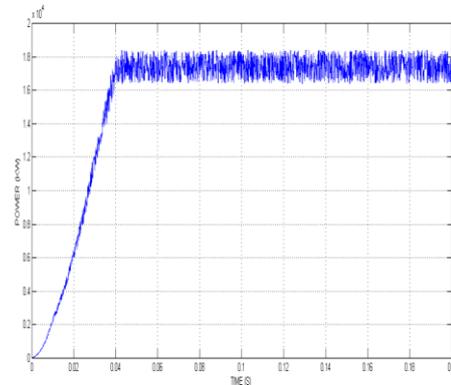


Fig. 20. Simulation waveforms of the existing dc-dc converter for Output Power (Pout).

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed a high-efficiency soft-switching PWM dc–dc converter for high-frequency-link battery chargers. ZVS of power switches is achieved by using a complementary PWM. Wide range soft-switching operation is achieved without using any additional switching circuits. Furthermore, ZCS of output diodes is achieved by effectively using a series resonance between the transformer leakage inductor and secondary side rectifier circuit components. Reverse-recovery losses of output diodes are eliminated without using any additional circuit components. It has been investigated that the circulating current in the primary side can be changed by the operation modes of the output diode current. The converter control strategy has been suggested, including its digital implementation. The performance of the proposed converter has been verified throughout Matlab simulation results for a 2.0-kW prototype circuit. Matlab simulation results confirm that the proposed converter improves the power efficiency compared to the previous converters. The proposed converter achieves a peak efficiency of 98.3% at 15 kW and a high-efficiency of 98.0% at 19 kW. .

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