

UNIVERSITY OF OVIEDO



DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT OF 20KW BIDIRECTIONAL DC-DC CONVERTER USING SILICON CARBIDE TECHNOLOGY

by

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ABSTRACT

This Master's thesis presents the design and prototype development of a 20KW Bidirectional DC-DC converter using silicon Carbide MOSFETs. The first part of this thesis presents the theoretical background of SiC material and SiC MOSFETs. This is followed by general theory on Bidirectional DC-DC converters. Subsequently the step by step procedures and design consideration of Power stage, Driver circuit and the Control system of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is discussed briefly. In power stage design, Silicon carbide MOSFETs from different manufacturers (WOLFSPEED and UNITED SILICON CARBIDE) are compared. Moreover the details of selection and sizing of SiC MOSFETs, capacitors, resistors, inductors and the heatsink is presented in detail. The gate driver circuit is appropriately designed so that the Bidirectional DC-DC converter can work for both UF3C120040K4S, United Silicon Carbide MOSFETs and C3M003090K, Wolfspeed Cree third generation SiC MOSFETs. In addition to this Average Current Control technique is used for controlling the inductor current. The schematics and PCB of the DC-DC converter has been made using Cadstar Software. Moreover the components are mounted properly and prototype is developed. The Bidirectional DC-DC converter is tested for operation. Firstly a laboratory circuit enabling double-pulse test is built and the switching behaviour of UF3C120040K4S and C3M003090K SiC MOSFETs are analysed. Next to this the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is tested for BOOST and BUCK operation. Finally results from software simulation and laboratory experiment are presented in detail.

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DEDICATION

To

*My beloved Wife **Sumeya Mahmoud Teyib***

And

*My Grandmother **Temima Mehdi Helifa***

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ABBREVIATIONS

Acronym	Definition
AC	Alternating Current
ADC	Analog to Digital Converter
BDC	Bidirectional DC-DC Converter
BJT	Bipolar Junction Transistor
BOM	Bill of Materials
D	Duty Cycle
DC	Direct Current
DPT	Double-Pulse Test
DSP	Digital Signal Processor
DUT	Device Under Test
EMC	Electromagnetic Compatibility
EMI	Electromagnetic Interference
ESR	Equivalent Series Resistance
FRD	Fast-Recovery Diode
fsw	Switching Frequency
GaN	Gallium Nitride
HEV	Hybrid electric vehicles
IBDC	Isolated Bi-directional DC-DC converters
IC	Interconnected Circuit
IGBT	Insulated-Gate Bipolar Transistor
JFET	Junction Gate Field-Effect Transistor
MOSFET	Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistor
NBDC	Non-isolated Bi-directional DC-DC converters
PCB	Printed Circuit Board
PV	Photovoltaic
PWM	Pulse-Width Modulation
RMS	Root Mean Square
SBD	Schottky Barrier Diode
SCP	Short-Circuit Protection
Si	Silicon
SiC	Silicon Carbide
SMD	Surface-Mount Device

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In today's world the energy sector is giving much attention to Renewable energy sources. Renewable energy sources are clean and inexhaustible. However wind and solar energy are intermittent in nature and they are unsuitable for standalone operation. They require smart systems for their sustainable operation. One solution to this intermittency problem is to use energy storage system along with such renewable energy sources to compensate fluctuations and maintain a smooth and continuous power flow to the load. The energy storage system stores excess energy and provide it at times of deficiency.

Smart power electronics converters with a capability of bidirectional power flow are required in order to properly integrate an energy storage system, such as a battery bank and super capacitors, along with a PV and wind installation. Bidirectional DC-DC converters (BDC) have bidirectional power flow capability and they are getting much attention in systems which require a two way power flow like energy storage application in renewable energy systems, fuel cell energy systems, hybrid electric vehicles (HEV), dc motor drives and uninterruptible power supplies (UPS) [3-5].

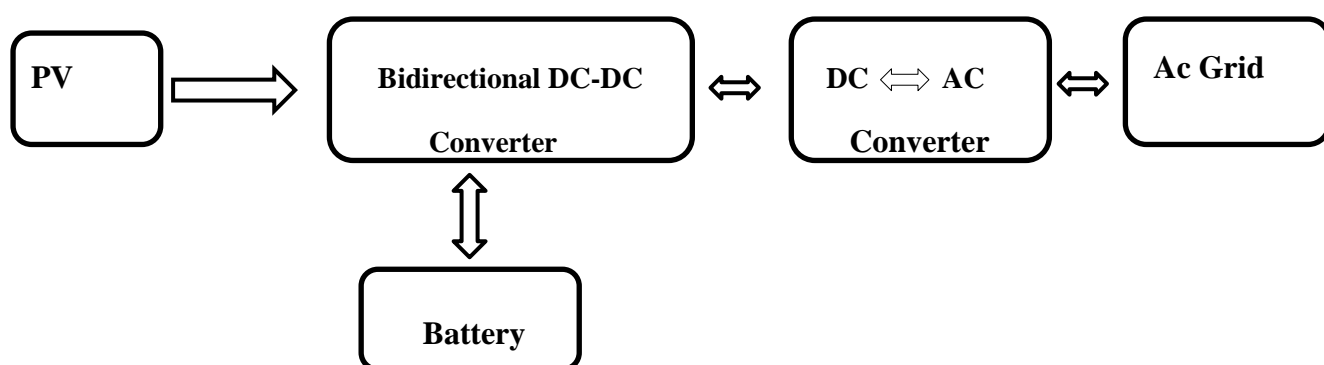


Figure 1.1 Typical Bidirectional DC-DC converter application in integrating PV system and battery storage with AC grid

Basically BDCs can be classified into Non-isolated Bidirectional DC-DC converters (NBDC) and Isolated Bi-directional DC-DC converters (IBDC) types. Non-isolated BDCs (NBDC)

are a derivation of normal boost type and buck type DC-DC converters by replacing diodes by controllable power switches. Since they don't have transformers for isolation purpose, they have better efficiency, less size, less weight and low cost compared to IBDC and applicable in systems where weight or size is the main concern. IBDC have transformer for isolation system and voltage matching so that they are less efficient, more complex and have higher weight and size. IBDC are preferable where system requires galvanic isolation [3].

The efficiency and size of the DC-DC converter is a great concern in today's power electronics applications. Silicon MOSFETs and IGBTs are used for most power electronics converters at different power rating and voltage levels. However they are reaching their limit in terms of switching frequency, efficiency, voltage rating and power density due to the nature of the materials. Si-based power devices have limited performance related to inherent material characteristics, which make them unable to meet future demands, especially in high-voltage, high-efficiency, and high-power density applications. Wide Band Gap (WBG) semiconductor materials, also known as the third generation semiconductor materials, typically represented by Gallium Nitride (GaN), Aluminium Nitride (AlN) and Silicon Carbide (SiC), are getting much attention in today's Power electronic converters due to their wide band gap nature, their high electron saturation velocity and high thermal conductivity. These critical characteristics enable the power devices to operate at higher voltage, higher temperature and higher switching frequencies than their Si-based counterparts and enable the power converter applications to be lower in volume and higher efficiency [1-3].

In this thesis work the design and implementation of 20Kw Non Isolated Bidirectional DC-DC converter using SiC technology is presented. Theoretical background of SiC MOSFETs and DC-DC converters as well as different design consideration, software simulations and laboratory experiment results are presented in the coming chapters

1.2 Objectives and Deliverables

The main objective of this thesis work is the design and prototype development of 20KW Bidirectional DC-DC converter using SiC technology. The specific objective includes:

- Design of Power stage of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter
- Design of the driver circuit and control circuit
- Prototype development and test the operation of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter

The main Deliverables of this thesis work are:

- Simulation models
- Complete DC-DC converter evaluation board
- Project report including design procedures, Simulation results and experimental results

1.3 Structure of the Report

Chapter Two explains the state of art of SiC MOSFETs and Bidirectional DC-DC converters. Chapter 3 explains the methodology of the thesis work. In chapter four the detail design of the DC-DC converter and software simulations are presented. Chapter five explains the experimental results. Finally chapter six presents conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

2. STATE OF THE ART OF SiC MOSFETs AND BIDIRECTIONAL DC-DC CONVERTERS

2.1 Silicon Carbide semiconductor

2.1.1 Material properties and advantages

Power electronics is an enabling technology found in most renewable energy generation systems. SiC has become the material of choice for next generation power semiconductor devices to replace existing Si technology. It is a compound semiconductor comprised of silicon (Si) and carbon (C). SiC has a band gap of three times higher than that of Si materials and this results a number of advantages over conventional Si materials. The field strength of SiC is around 10 times higher than that of Si, which makes SiC an excellent choice for high voltage application or for the same voltage size, the size of SiC is 10 times lower than that of Si devices. Since smaller devices switch faster, SiC devices capable of working at higher switching frequency which in turn reduces the size of the required filter [1][26]. Moreover SiC semiconductor die is much thinner due to its high dielectric strength and is doped to a much higher level, leading to lower losses. SiC has thermal conductivity about 3 times higher than that of silicon. Therefore, heat dissipation by the losses can be conducted from the semiconductor with a much lower temperature drop across the semiconductor material [27].

The larger bandgap also means SiC devices can operate at higher temperatures. The guaranteed operating temperature of current SiC devices is from 150°C - 175°C. This is mainly due to thermal reliability of packages. When properly packaged, they can operate at 200°C and higher. This property results in significant cost reduction of the cooling system since less expensive cooling materials and methods can be used. Even in the extremely high ambient temperature, enough temperature difference can be obtained to take the heat out of the semiconductor package. The ambient air temperature can be as high as 100°C without any concern [2][5]. Another important feature of SiC is its High current density. The current density of SiC is 2 to 3 times the maximum current density of silicon devices. This property will reduce cost and will, over time, help to offset some of the cost disadvantages of the SiC device [2].

Table 2. 1 Main properties of Si and SiC[27]

Properties	Si	4H-SiC
Energy bandgap [eV]	1.12	3.26
Thermal conductivity [W/cm°C]	1.5	3.7
Saturated electron drift velocity [cm/s]	1×10^7	2×10^7
Electron mobility [cm ² /Vs]	1400	1000
Electric breakdown field [V/cm]	2×10^5	20×10^5
Dielectric constant	11.7	9.7

2.2 Basic Structure Of SiC MOSFETs

The SiC MOSFET has three external terminals called drain (D), source (S) and gate (G). The Gate to source voltage (the voltage applied between gate and source terminal) controls the current flow from drain to source terminal. The basic structure and the symbol of an n-channel DMOS MOSFET is given in Figure 2.1

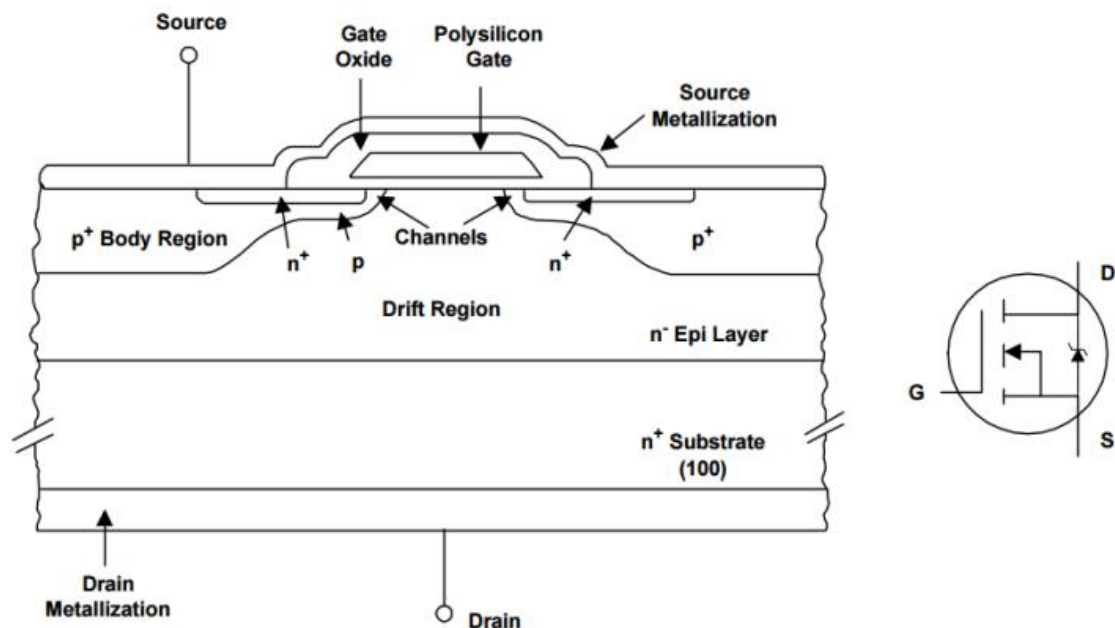


Figure 2. 1 Basic structure of the n-channel DMOS MOSFET[27]

Positive voltage applied on the gate terminal with respect to source (V_{gs}) causes negative charges to accumulate on the surface of the channel in the body region so that a conducting channel will form in the body region. This will allow current to flow between the drain and source terminals. VDMOS (vertical-diffused metal-oxide semiconductor) or simply DMOS

(double-diffused metal-oxide-semiconductor) is the most common power MOSFET structure. [27]

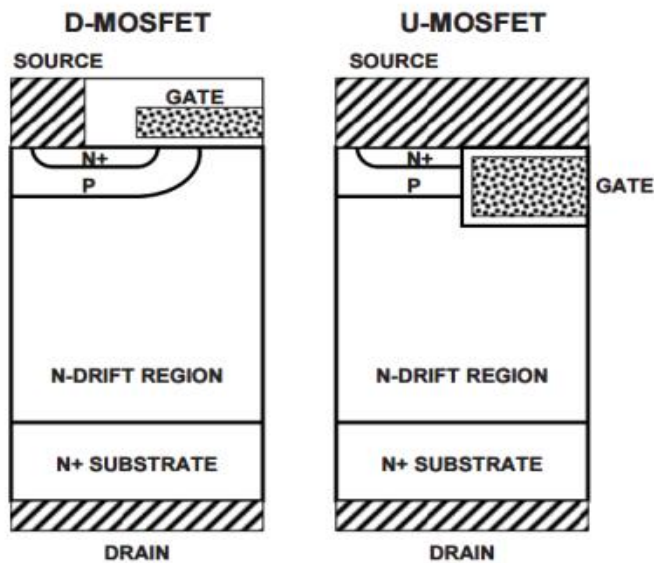


Figure 2. 2 Power MOSFET structures [27]

However there are also other structures including VMOS and UMOS. The DMOS and UMOS structures are shown in Figure 2.2

The DMOS structure was the first available Si power MOSFET structure, which was made available in the 1970s. In the 1990s, the UMOS or Trench MOSFET was introduced in order to reduce the on-state resistance in the Si power MOSFET. The first available SiC power MOSFET was introduced in 1994 and had UMOS structure, also called vertical trench MOSFETs. In the development of SiC MOSFETs in high power applications, the UMOS structure encountered problems related to increasing the voltage rating. Because of the trench-positioned gate layer, the peak voltage across the SiO₂ insulation layer (gate oxide) can become so high that it causes breakdown of the oxide layer at the trench corners. This problem was solved by removing the trenches and using the planar DMOS structure, even though this increases the on-state resistance of the SiC power MOSFET. By this transition from UMOS to DMOS, the blocking capability of the MOSFET was tripled. The DMOS structure is the dominating topology in SiC power MOSFETs [27].

2.2.1 SiC MOSFET Parasitic Capacitance

Due to their structure, MOSFETs have a parasitic capacitance, as indicated in Fig.2.3. The parasitic capacitance highly affects the switching behaviour of a MOSFET and they should be carefully considered while choosing the operating switching frequency. The drain and source of a MOSFET are insulated from the gate by the gate oxide film. A PN junction is

formed between the drain and source with substrate intervening, and a parasitic ("body") diode is present. The gate-source capacitance C_{gs} and gate-drain capacitance C_{gd} in the diagram below are determined by the capacitance of the gate oxide film. The drain-source capacitance C_{ds} is the junction capacitance of the parasitic diode.

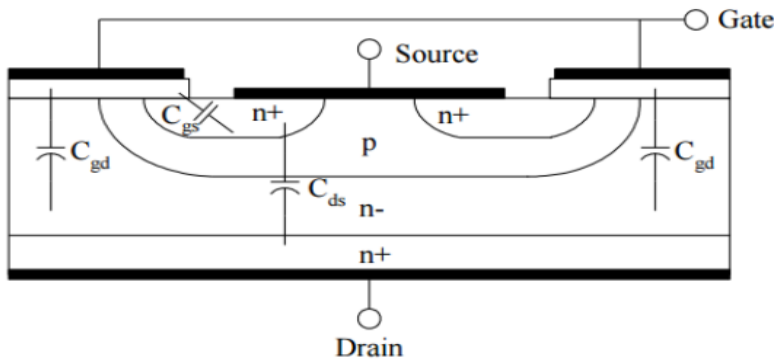


Figure 2.3 Intrinsic capacitance in the n-channel DMOS MOSFET [27]

In MOSFET datasheet three parameters C_{iss} , C_{oss} , C_{rss} are provided. C_{iss} is the input capacitance, which is the sum of gate-source capacitance C_{gs} and the gate-drain capacitance C_{gd} . It is the capacitance of the MOSFET as a whole, as seen from the input. Charging and discharging the input capacitance controls the switching on and switching off of the MOSFET.

C_{oss} is the output capacitance, obtained by adding the drain-source capacitance C_{ds} and the gate-drain capacitance C_{gs} , and is the total capacitance on the output side. If C_{oss} is large, a current arising due to C_{oss} flows at the output even when the gate is turned off, and time is required for the output to turn off completely [29].

C_{rss} is Reverse Transfer Capacitance which is equal to the gate to drain capacitance C_{gd} . The reverse transfer capacitance is measured between drain and gate with source connected to ground. This is often referred to as the Miller capacitance. It affects the voltage rise time and fall time during switching [29].

C_{oss} and C_{rss} are highly dependent on the drain-source voltage V_{ds} and this makes difficult to exactly determine the switching losses. Fig.2.4 shows the dependence of parasitic capacitances on the V_{ds} voltage for typical Cree C3M0065100K Silicon Carbide Power MOSFET [29]

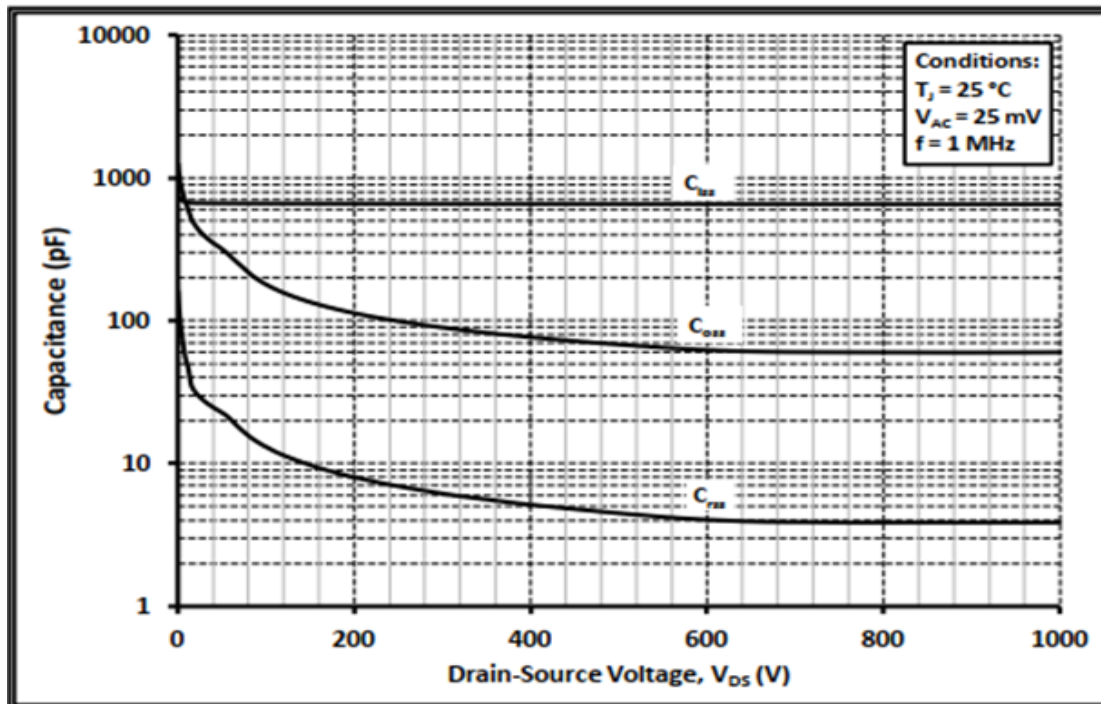


Figure 2.4 Capacitance Vs Drain to Source voltage V_{ds} of Cree C3M0065100K SiC MOSFET [25]

2.3 Characteristics of SiC MOSFETS

2.3.1 Gate driver voltage V_{gs} and R_{dson}

Since SiC has dielectric breakdown field strength 10 times higher than that of Si, high breakdown voltage devices can be achieved with a thin drift layer with high doping concentration. This means, at the same breakdown voltage, SiC devices have quite low specific on-resistance (on-resistance per unit area). Now a days SiC MOSFETs with as low as 16 mili ohm on-resistance are coming to the market [18-20].

Although SiC-MOSFETs have lower drift layer resistance than Si-MOSFETs, the lower carrier mobility in SiC means their channel resistance is higher. For this reason, the higher the gate voltage, the lower the on-resistance. The on-resistance of a MOSFET reduces with increase in gate driver voltages. But once the specified gate driver voltage is reached the on resistance will saturate and further increasing the gate drive voltage will not decrease the on resistance. Resistance becomes progressively saturated as V_{gs} gets higher than 20V. SiC-MOSFETs do not exhibit low on-resistance with the gate voltage V_{gs} of 10 to 15V which is applied to typical IGBTs and Si-MOSFETs. It is recommended to drive SiC-MOFETs with

V_{gs} set to 15-20V in order to obtain adequately low on-resistance. It is not recommended to use SiC-MOSFETs with V_{gs} below 13V as doing so may cause thermal runaway. Another factor is temperature. Even if it is not significant as that of Si MOSFETs, the on-resistance of a SiC MOSFET also increases with an increasing in temperature [18]. The effects of gate driver voltage and temperature for specific Cree C3M0065100K Silicon Carbide Power MOSFET shown in Fig.2.5

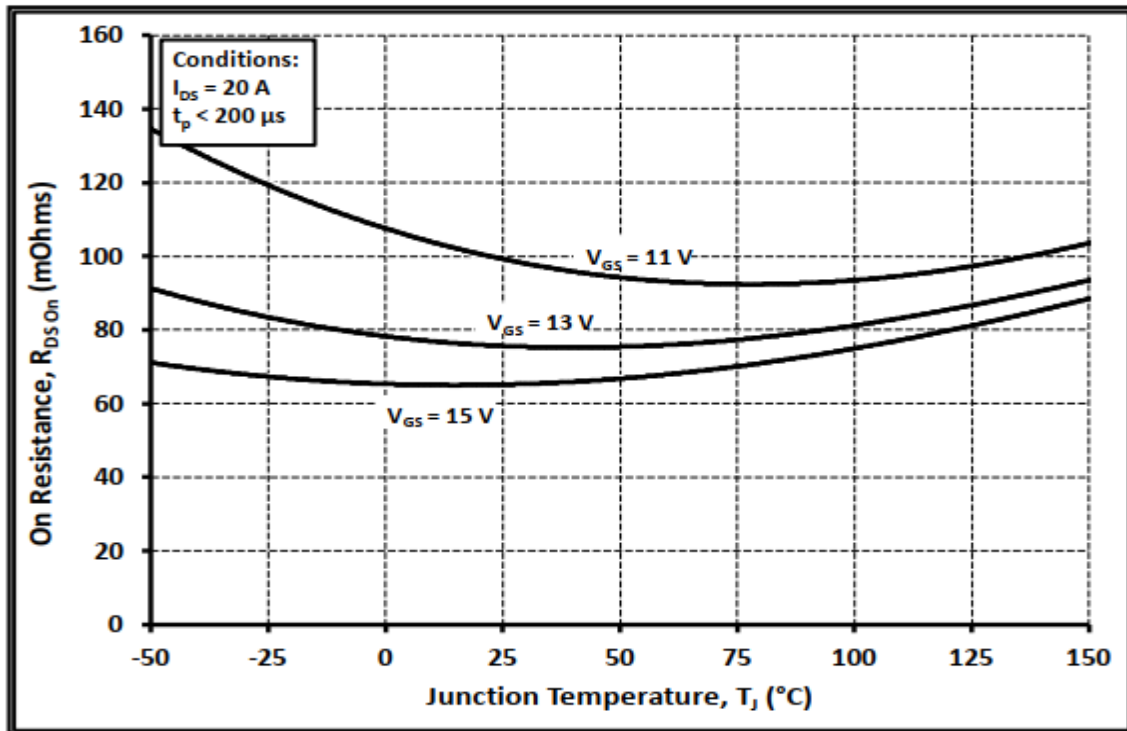


Figure 2.5 on resistance Vs. Temperature for various Gate Voltage of Cree C3M0065100K SiC MOSFET[25]

2.3.2 Vds-Id characteristics

The gate-to-source voltage V_{gs} has a great impact on the on-state drain-to-source resistance $R_{ds(on)}$ of the MOSFET, and thus the drain current I_d , as can be seen in Fig. 2.6. This is because an increased gate-to-source voltage increases the field effect of the gate. Thus, the on state resistance of the MOSFET is inversely proportional to the magnitude of the positive bias gate-to-source voltage $V_{gs(on)}$. The MOSFET is said to be in its ohmic region when the magnitude of the drain-to-source voltage V_{ds} influences the drain current, which is only the case for low drain-to-source voltages. The ohmic region gets wider when the gate-to-source voltage increases. In the active region of the MOSFET, the drain current is independent of drain-to source voltage. In this region, the drain current only depends on the gate-to-source

voltage. The last region is called the cut-off region, which is the region where the MOSFET is blocking all drain current. This region is explained using Fig.2.6 [27].

The I-V characteristics of a SiC MOSFET are presented in Fig. 2.6

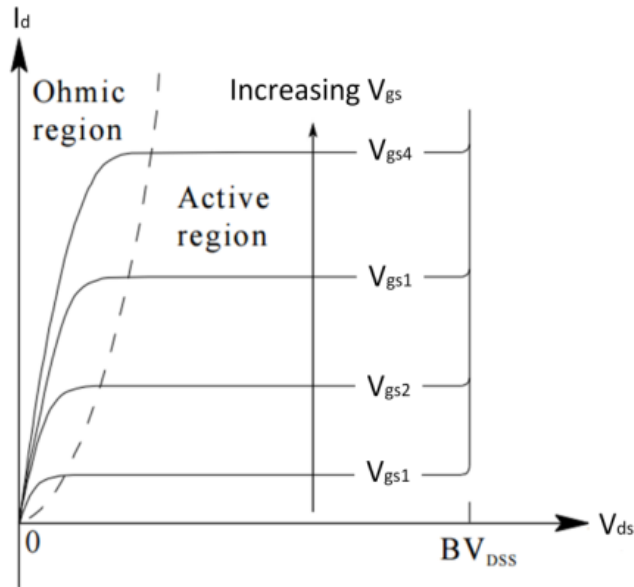


Figure 2.6 I-V characteristics of SiC MOSFET [27]

For low gate-to-source voltages, there is no drain current flowing. This is because the field effect from the gate terminal is not high enough to induce conduction in the channel between drain and source. The region with no conduction is called the cut-off region. At the threshold voltage $V_{gs(th)}$, the gate-to-source voltage gets high enough to form a conducting channel between gate and source. Fig.2.7 presents the actual and the linearized transfer characteristics [27].

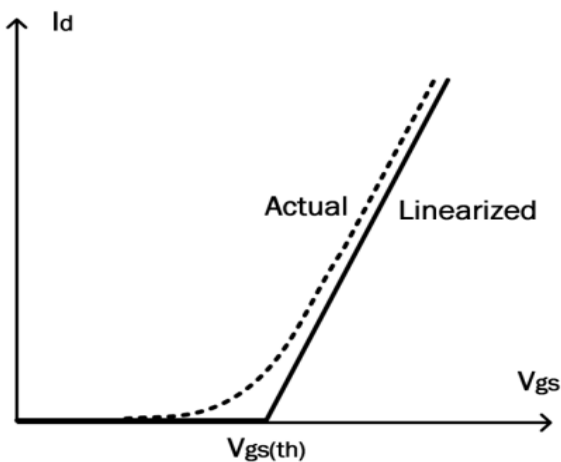


Figure 2.7 Gate-to-Source voltage transfer characteristics [27]

2.3.3 SiC MOSFET Switching Characteristics

In this section the approximate switching characteristics of SiC MOSFETs are presented. The turn-on and turn-off switching characteristics are presented as follows for a MOSFET circuit shown in Fig.2.8

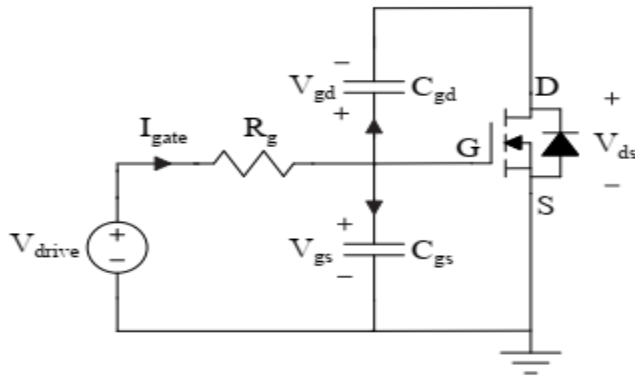


Figure 2.8 MOSFET gate charging and discharging equivalent circuit

2.3.3.1 Turn-On Switching Characteristics

The turn-on switching transient will be investigated as follows. The turn on transient is divided to four time intervals as shown in Fig.2.9

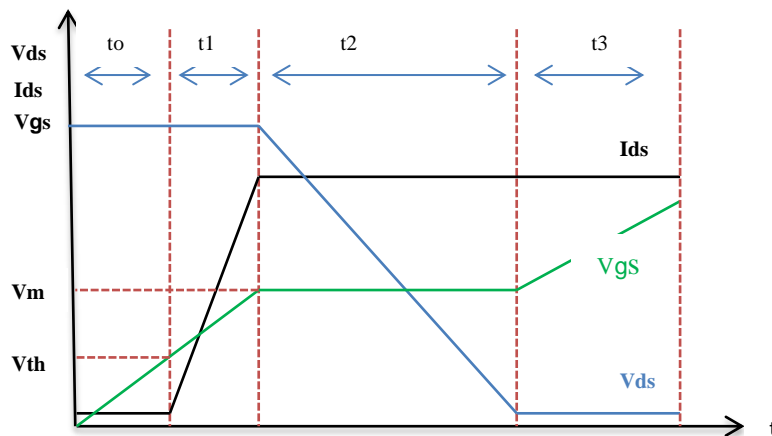


Figure 2. 9 Turn -on switching characteristics

When a gate drive voltage (V_{drive}) is applied, a gate current will start to flow to the capacitor C_{gs} through the external gate resistor R_g . The charge supplied to C_{gs} makes the gate-to-source voltage V_{gs} to rise from zero to its threshold value (V_{th}) at time t_0 . Therefore once the V_{gs} voltage reaches the threshold voltage, the drain current begins to rise while the gate-to-source voltage increases further. The MOSFET is now in its active region. The drain

current will continue to rise along with V_{gs} (as $R_{ds(on)}$ decreases), until it reaches the specific current I_{ds} at time t_1 . At this point, the capacitance C_{gs} is completely charged and the gate voltage now remains constant at Miller plateau voltage V_m , while V_{ds} reduces from $V_{ds,max}$ to switch-on value, $V_{ds,on}$, during t_2 . $V_{ds,on}$ is the product of MOSFET on-state resistance, $R_{ds(on)}$ and I_{ds} . At time t_3 , the MOSFET enters its ohmic region and the drain-to-source voltage only depends on the on-state gate resistance. The gate voltage increases further to gate driver supply level, to fully saturate the MOSFET.

2.3.3.2 Turn-Off Switching Characteristics

The turn off switching characteristics is shown in Fig.2.10. During turn off, a negative voltage is applied across the gate resistor R_g and the gate -source voltage (V_{gs}) decreases to the Miller voltage V_m (saturation region) during. This process is assumed to be lossless, since V_{ds} and the drain current i_d are approximately constant. At time t_0 V_{ds} starts to rise from $V_{ds(on)}$ and reaches $V_{ds,max}$ at time t_1 , while gate-source voltage is constant at V_m . At time t_1 , V_{ds} voltage becomes constant at $V_{ds,max}$ while both V_{gs} and I_{ds} starts to decrease. At time t_3 V_{gs} is reduced to V_{th} and I_{ds} becomes zero.

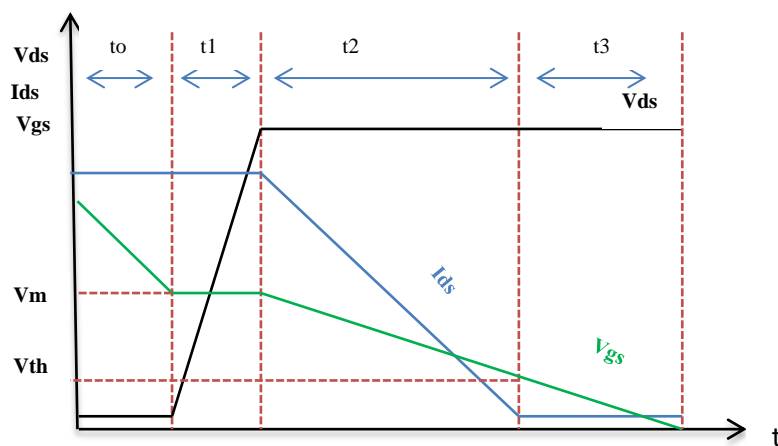


Figure 2.10 Turn –off switching characteristics

Note that the actual turn on and turn-off switching characteristics often include a considerable voltage and current overshoot due to stray inductance L_s in the circuit, and a high drain current derivative di/dt ($V_{os} = L_s \cdot di/dt$) and $\frac{dv}{dt}$ of a MOSFET[27].

2.3.3.3 Switching and conduction loss of SiC MOSFET

Power loss in a SiC MOSFET comes from two sources. The first source of power loss is due to on –resistance ($R_{DS(ON)}$) of SiC MOSFET. The on-resistance dissipates power as current is

conducted through the device. This kind of loss is called conduction loss. These conduction losses are inversely proportional to the size of the SiC MOSFET; the larger the switching transistor, the lower its $R_{DS(ON)}$ and, therefore, its conduction loss.

Conduction losses can be determined as follows

$$P_c = I_{drms}^2 \times R_{DS(ON)} \quad (2.1)$$

Where P_c is conduction loss and I_{drms} is the rms value of Drain current

The rms value of the drain current can be determined as follows

$$I_{drms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i_s(t)^2 dt} \quad (2.2)$$

The SiC MOSFET conducts for the time of DT , where D is the duty cycle and T is the period as shown in Fig.3.2 Then the rms current becomes:-

$$I_{drms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T_s} \int_0^{DT_s} I_s^2 dt} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T_s} [I_s^2 \times DT_s]} \quad (2.3)$$

$$= I_s \sqrt{D} \quad (2.4)$$

And the conduction loss becomes:-

$$P_c = I_s^2 \times D \times R_{DS(ON)} \quad (2.5)$$

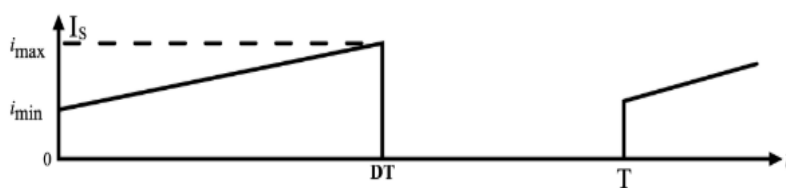


Figure 2.11 MOSFET current [13]

The other source of power loss is through switching losses. As the MOSFET switches on and off, its intrinsic parasitic capacitance stores and then dissipates energy during each switching transition. The losses are proportional to the switching frequency and the values of the parasitic capacitances. As the physical size of the MOSFET increases, its capacitance also increases; so, increasing MOSFET size also increases switching loss.

These sources of power loss create a significant challenge for power supply designers. While a larger MOSFET will exhibit less on-resistance and consequently lower conduction loss – its larger area drives up parasitic capacitance and switching loss. In many cases, moving to a larger MOSFET to reduce conduction loss will result in so much increased switching loss that it outweighs the conduction loss savings. Designers typically try to achieve a balance between conductive and switching losses for a particular application.

The switching loss can be estimated from turn on and turn off energy given in the specific MOSFET datasheet as follows

$$P_{on} = E_{on} \times f_s \tag{2.6}$$

$$\text{And } P_{off} = E_{off} \times f_s \tag{2.7}$$

Where P_{on}/P_{off} are the turn on/ off Power losses,

E_{on} / E_{off} are the turn on/off energy losses and f_s is the switching frequency. The total switching power loss becomes:-

$$P_{sw} = P_{on} + P_{off} \tag{2.8}$$

The turn on and turn off energy losses are highly dependent on the gate resistance. Gate resistor versus turn on /off energy loss graph is provided in the datasheet of a given MOSFET. Therefore careful manipulation of those graphs is required in order to get approximate switching power loss. Moreover the drain current versus energy loss graphs are also given in the datasheet which is really helpful to determine the exact energy losses corresponding to the required drain current level.

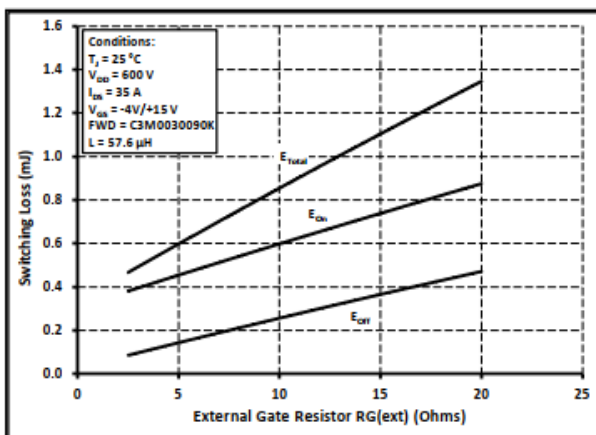


Figure 25. Clamped Inductive Switching Energy vs. $R_{G(ext)}$

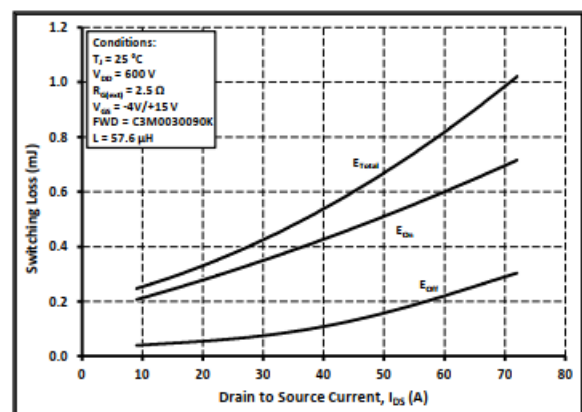


Figure 24. Clamped Inductive Switching Energy vs. Drain Current ($V_{DD} = 600V$)

Figure 2.12 (a) switching energy vs. External gate resistor (b) switching energy vs drain current[25]

Therefore by reading the approximate turn on/off energies for the required drain current and gate resistors, the total switching loss can be determined by using the Equation 2.8. Careful determination of power loss is required in order to select appropriate heat sink.

2.4. Bidirectional DC-DC converters

Bidirectional DC-DC converters allow two way power flows as shown in Fig.2.13. Normal DC-DC converters such as buck and boost converters does not allow the bidirectional power flow rather power flow is only in one direction. This limitation is due to the presence of the diode in those converters which allow current flow in one direction only. By replacing those diodes by controllable power switches like MOSFETs and IGBTs, the unidirectional DC-DC converters can be changed to Bidirectional DC- DC converters [14-15]

Basically BDCs can be classified into two

1. Non-isolated Bi-directional DC-DC converters (NBDC) and
2. Isolated Bi-directional DC-DC converters (IBDC) types.

Non-isolated BDCs (NBDC) are simpler than isolated BDCs (IBDC) and can achieve better efficiency. However, galvanic isolation is required in many applications and mandated by different standards. The complexity of IBDCs stems from the fact that an ac link must be present in their structure in order to enable power transfer via a transformer [3][16].

2.4.1 Non-isolated BDC

Non-isolated BDC are transformer-less DC-DC converters. They are a derivation of normal boost type and buck type DC-DC converters by replacing diodes by controllable power switches. Since they don't have transformers for isolation purpose, they have better efficiency, less size, less weight and low cost compared to IBDC. Thus, in the high power or spacecraft power system applications, where weight or size is the main concern, they are more preferable [9-12].

Fig.2.13a. shows the structure of NBDC converters and Fig.2.13b. Shows the inductor waveforms associated with Fig.2.13a. In the buck mode of operation, i.e. when the power is transferred from the high voltage (HV) to the low voltage (LV) side, Q1 is the active switch while Q2 is kept off. In the boost mode, i.e. when the power is transferred from LV to HV side, Q2 acts as a controlled switch and Q1 is kept off. The inductor is the main energy

transfer element in this converter. In each switching cycle it is charged through source side active switch for the duration of :-

$$T_{on}=DT \tag{2.9}$$

Where $T=1/f_{sw}$ is the switching period and D is the duty cycle.

$$\text{This energy is then discharged to load during } T_{off}= (1-D) T \tag{2.10}$$

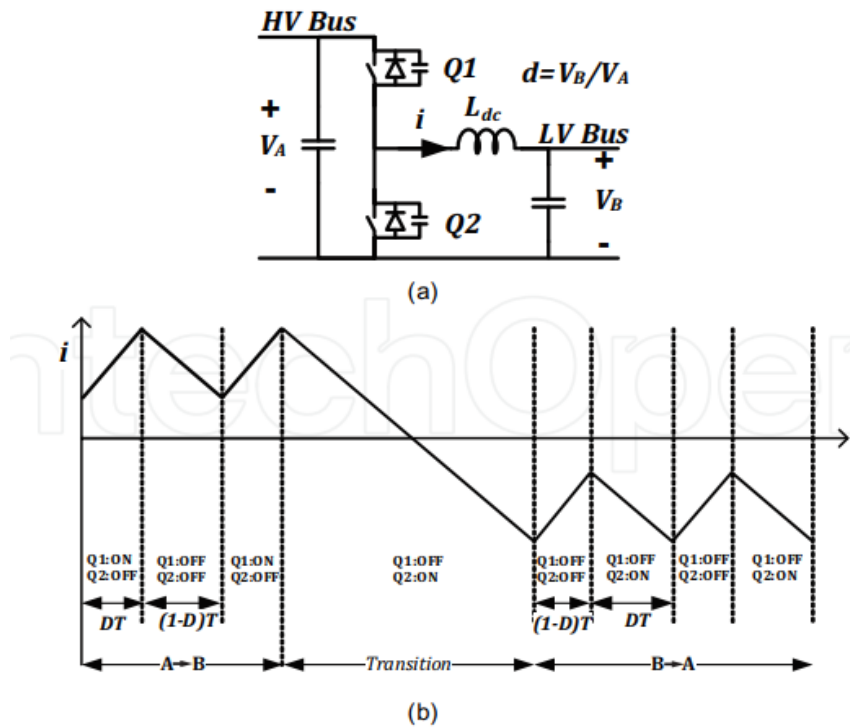


Figure 2.11 (a) Basic NBDC (b) operating waveforms [3]

2.4.2 Isolated BDC (IBDC)

This kind of BDC is preferable when application requires galvanic isolation between multi-source systems in order to assure personnel safety, noise reduction and correct operation of protection systems. IBDC have transformer associated with their structure which is used for isolation and voltage matching purposes since Voltage matching is also needed in many applications.

The structure of IBDCs is shown in Fig.2.14. It consists of high-frequency switching DC-AC converters, AC-DC converters and a high-frequency transformer. The transformer is mainly used for galvanic isolation between two sources and voltage matching. Converter A which is the DC-AC converter converts the dc source to high frequency ac source or vice versa for the transformer and converter B converts the output of the transformer to DC power or vice

versa. Both converter A and Converter B should be Bidirectional in order to allow the power flow in both directions [2-4].

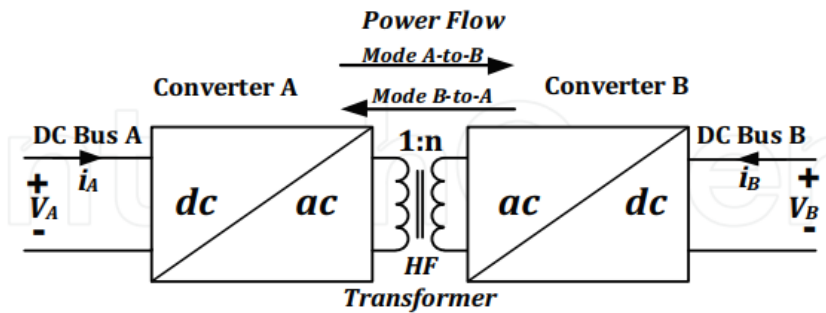


Figure 2.12 Basic structure of IBDC [3]

Isolated Bidirectional DC -DC converters can be broadly classified into two categories on the basis of their configuration:

- A current fed isolated Bidirectional DC-DC converter has an inductor at its terminals which acts like a current source like a conventional boost converter with an inductor at the input terminals.
- A voltage fed isolated bidirectional DC-DC converter as shown in the Fig.2.15 has a capacitor at its terminals which acts like a voltage source like a conventional buck converter with a capacitor at its input terminals.

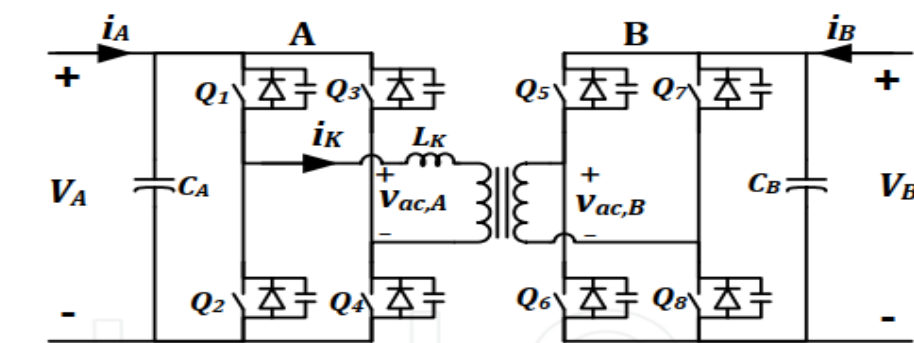


Figure 2.13 Dual Bridge Isolated Voltage Fed Bidirectional DC-DC Converter [3]

Compared to Non-isolated Bidirectional DC -DC converters, the presence of the transformer in isolated Bidirectional DC-DC converters makes them to be more complex in structure, more bulky, less efficient, costlier and heavier. Though this paper the non-isolated half bridge bidirectional DC-DC converter is used for this project [4-8].

2.5 Summary

In this chapter the state of art of SiC MOSFETs and Bidirectional DC-DC converters are discussed briefly. The important features of SiC materials have been discussed. In addition to this the main characteristics of SiC MOSFETs are briefly presented in this chapter. Moreover the Literature review of Bidirectional DC-DC converters is also presented in detail. In chapter three the design consideration and procedures of Bidirectional DC-DC converters will be presented in detail.

CHAPTER THREE

3. CONVERTER DESIGN METHODOLOGY

3.1 Power Circuit Design Steps

This part explains the steps to size the required converter components. The circuit diagram in Fig.3.1 is used to model the Non-Isolated Bidirectional DC-DC converter. Assuming boost operation, the output current and equivalent Load resistor can be determined as follows.

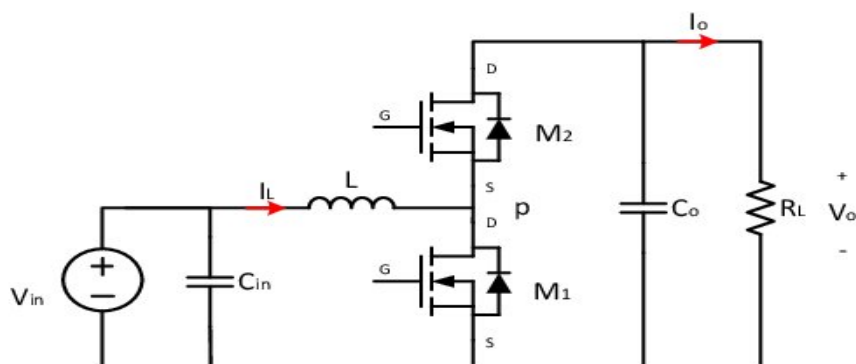


Figure 3. 1 Boost Converter [27]

$$\text{The high voltage side current (in boost operation ,the output current) } I_0 = \frac{P}{V_0} \quad (3.1)$$

$$\text{and the equivalent load resistance } R_L = \frac{V_0}{I_0} \quad (3.2)$$

Where P is output power and V_0 is the output voltage at high voltage side

The required inductor can be determined as

$$L = \frac{V_{in} \times D}{f_s \times \Delta I_L} \quad (3.3)$$

Where V_{in} is input voltage at low voltage side

f_s is switching frequency

ΔI_L inductor ripple current and

$$D \text{ is the Duty cycle which is } D = \frac{V_0 - V_{in}}{V_0} \quad (3.4)$$

The inductor ripple current should be appropriately selected and in most application it is chosen between 20 to 40 percent of the inductor current [13].

The input and output capacitors can be determined as follows [13]

$$C_0 = \frac{I_{out} \times D}{f_s \times \Delta V_o} \quad (3.5)$$

Where ΔV_o is the output voltage ripple

Again the input capacitor is also determined as

$$C_{in} = \frac{I_L \times D}{f_s \times \Delta V_{in}} \quad [13] \quad (3.6)$$

Where ΔV_{in} is the input voltage ripple

Ripple voltage is taken between 1-5 % in most power converter designs [13].

Additionally the capacitors should handle the RMS value of inductor ripple current which is

$$I_{L_{rms}} = \frac{I_{Lp-p}}{2 \times \sqrt{3}} \quad (3.5)$$

3.2 Heat Sink Design

After determining the power losses, the next step is selecting heat sink. The switching and conduction losses of the switching devices create a heat. This heat should be properly rejected to the air in order to assure the proper operation of the switching devices. Therefore as that of an electrical system, thermal system should also be carefully designed and equivalent thermal model should be modelled for analysis in thermal domain. The heat flow can be modelled by analogy to an electrical circuit where heat flow is represented by current, temperatures are represented by voltages, heat sources are represented by constant current sources, and absolute thermal resistances are represented by resistors.

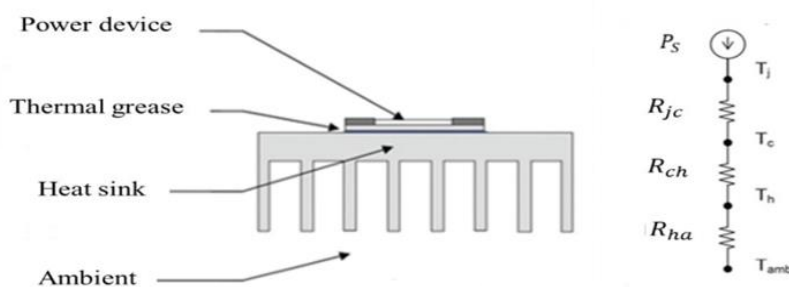


Figure 3.2 Diagram of (a)cross-section of SiC device on heat sink and (b) thermal model [27]

The circuit in Fig.3.2a is typical cross-sectional view of a packaged SiC power device mounted on a heat sink and Fig.3.2b shows the equivalent steady-state thermal circuit.

The junction to case thermal resistance is given in the datasheet of the MOSFETS. From the equivalent circuit of Fig.3.4b,

$$R_{th\ Jc} = R_{jc} + R_{ch} + R_{ha} \quad (3.8)$$

And
$$T_j - T_a = R_{th\ Jc} \times P_{loss} \quad (3.9)$$

Where T_j is the device junction temperature and T_a is the ambient temperature

R_{jc} :- junction to case thermal resistance

R_{ch} :- case to heat sink thermal resistance (it depends on the type of material to be used)

R_{ha} :- heat sink to ambient thermal resistance

The thermal Resistance of the heat sink can be determined as follows:-

$$R_{ha} = R_{th\ Jc} - R_{jc} + R_{ch} \quad (3.10)$$

Based on the value of R_{ha} appropriate heat sink can be selected.

3.3 Driver circuit design steps and considerations

The turning on and turning off of MOSFET is accomplished by charging and discharging gate capacitor. Charging the gate capacitor turns the power device on and allows current flow between its drain and source terminals, while discharging it turns the device off and a large voltage may then be blocked across the drain and source terminals. The minimum voltage when the gate capacitor is charged and the device can just about conduct is the threshold voltage (V_{th}). For operating an IGBT/power MOSFET as a switch, a voltage sufficiently larger than V_{th} should be applied between the gate and source/emitter terminals. SiC MOSFET requires 15-20V during turn on. However the output of digital controllers or PWM signals from a microcontroller is not enough to drive power MOSFETs since the voltage is in a range of 0 to 5V. Thus, an interface is needed between the logic/control circuitry and the high power device. Gate drivers change voltage levels from microcontroller to the required gate drive voltage so that the Power MOSFET will be fully on and off [17-20].

The gate driver circuit has three main parts as shown in Fig.3.3. The DC power supply provides enough sources for the Gate driver IC and Isolation system. Some gate drivers don't

need isolation however it is highly recommended for SiC MOSFET gate drivers. Most isolation system is separate from the driver IC however now a days there are ICs with internal isolation system which will save space and time [22][28].

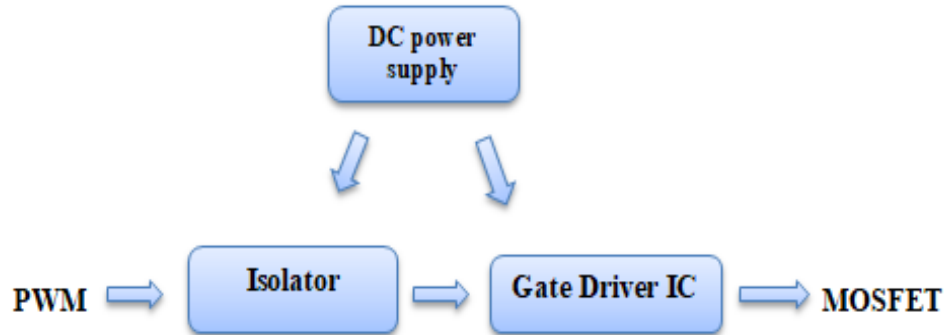


Figure 3.3 Components of gate driver circuit

The following features are required for SiC MOSFET Gate drivers

3.3.1 Wide range of Gate voltages

The gate driver IC has to fulfil the range of positive and the negative gate voltage for optimized operation of the SiC MOSFET. The positive gate-source voltage defines the on-state $R_{DS(on)}$ of the SiC MOSFET. Increasing Positive gate voltage will result in reduction of $R_{DS(on)}$ resistance which in turn results low conduction losses. Currently most SiC MOSFETs available in the market requires in a range of 15-25V positive gate voltage in order to perform efficiently. A lower gate voltage level is of course possible, but it results in an increase of the steady-state channel resistivity and therefore higher conduction losses. Table 3.1 shows the different gate-source voltage requirements and limits of currently available SiC MOSFETs.

In addition to the positive gate voltage requirements, the gate driver should also provide the required negative voltage for turning off the MOSFET properly. The minimum gate-source threshold voltage $V_{gs(th)}$ of SiC MOSFET devices can be lower than 2 V at 25°C in some cases. Therefore, minor ground bouncing can lead to an uncontrolled turn-on of the MOSFET when using an off-state voltage of zero Volts. This situation could get more critical if one takes the temperature drift of the gate-source voltage threshold into account. A negative turn-off gate voltage can relax the situation and keeps the MOSFET in off-state even in noisy environments. On the other hand, it is known that too low negative gate voltages can limit the lifetime of such MOSFETs. The level of the negative gate voltage depends on the gate-source

threshold voltage as well as on the required gate charge for turning on the MOSFET. Thus, the driver ICs for SiC MOSFET should have the capability of managing a small negative gate voltage in order to provide a safe and stable off-state condition of SiC MOSFET [17][18].

3.3.2 Output current Requirement

The gate driver should source the peak current requirements of the gate of the power MOSFET and it must be high enough to drive the lowest chosen gate resistor value with the highest chosen gate voltage swing. The peak current requirement can be calculated as follows

$$I_p = \frac{\Delta V_G}{R_{Gext} + R_{int}} \quad (3.11)$$

Where ΔV_G Is the difference between the positive and negative gate source voltage R_{Gext} and R_{int} are the required external and internal gate resistor respectively.

3.3.3 Input-Output Delay Time

There is a small delay between input and output of the gate driver IC. This delay varies with temperature and should be as low as possible. However the significance of this propagation delay for dead time calculations is less compared to the turn on and turn of delays of power MOSFET.

Table 3. 1 Gate to source voltage limits for different SiC MOSFET



3.3.4 Other considerations

In addition to the points mentioned above the gate driver should also operate at different temperature ranges. The maximum junction temperatures of most available Driver IC's are 150oC which enables the gate driver to work at harsh environment. In addition to this the gate driver IC should have also high level of insulation voltage which is usually recommended above 2500vrms for high power switching device applications. Moreover the Driver IC is also required to have under voltage lock out, short circuit protection and over voltage protection features which guarantee for safety operation [22-24].

3.4 Control system design

Closed-loop feedback system is implemented in most switching power supplies to provide stable power under various transient and load conditions. There are two types of feedback methodology,

1. Voltage mode control (VMC) and
2. Current mode control (CMC).

3.4.1 Voltage mode control (VMC)

This methodology provides simple, straight-forward feedback architecture for the control path. A scaled value of the output voltage is used as the feedback signal. However the output voltage regulation requires sensing a change in output voltage and propagation through the entire feedback signal and filter before the output is appropriately compensated. This can generate unacceptably slow response for systems that desire high levels of regulation. The feedback compensation of the supply requires a higher level of analysis to address the two poles introduced by the output low-pass filter. Additionally, the feedback component values must be adjusted since different input voltages affect the overall loop gain [21].

3.4.2 Current mode control (CMC)

Current mode control addresses the above short-falls of voltage mode control by using the inductor current waveform for control. This signal is included with the output voltage feedback loop as a second, fast response control loop. While current mode control addresses some of the drawbacks of VMC, it introduces challenges that can affect the circuit performance. The addition of the current feedback loop increases the complexity of the control/feedback circuit and circuit analysis. Stability across the entire range of duty cycles

and sensitivity to noise signals are other items that need to be considered in the selection of current mode control [21][30].

The two most common methodologies used in circuit design are peak and average current mode control.

3.4.2.1 Peak Current Mode Control

Peak current mode control (PCMC) utilizes the current waveform directly as the ramp waveform into the PWM-generation comparator instead of an externally generated sawtooth- or triangle-signal like VMC. The upslope portion of the inductor current or high-side transistor current waveform is used to provide a fast response control loop in addition to the existing voltage control loop. As shown in Fig 3.4(a), the current signal is compared with the output of the voltage error amplifier to generate the PWM control signal for the power supply [21].

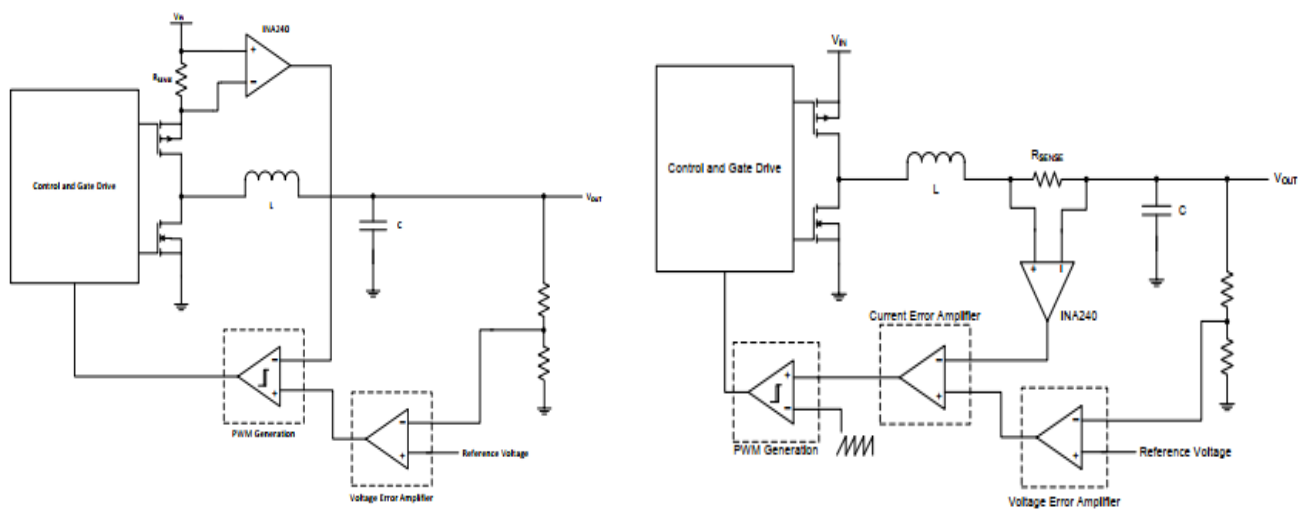


Figure 3.4(a) Peak current control scheme (b) average current control scheme [21]

Peak current control mode have poor noise immunity ,need slop compensation and has Peak to average current error. Moreover the peak current control only controls inductor current and it is mostly effective only in controlling the output current of buck converter since the inductor is in the output side in buck converter. However it cannot be used in boost converter output current control [21].

3.4.2.2 Average Current Mode Control

Average current mode control (ACMC) utilizes the inductor current waveform and an additional gain and integration stage before the signal is compared to an externally provided ramp waveform (similar to VMC). This allows improved immunity to noise and removes the need for slope compensation. Fig.3.4(b) shows a block diagram of ACMC operation for a buck converter. In this project the Average Current Mode Control method is used and the details of the design procedures can be referred in [30].

3.4.3 MOSFET Dead Time

In a system which has a Complementary PWM signals dead time is required in order to protect cross conduction. When one MOSFET is on the other MOSFET should be kept off .if the two complementary switching devices are on at the same time there will be a short circuit from power to ground which causes large current spikes even for short a duration causes. The current spike increases thermal output of switching devices which causes wears out of the switching devices and blow up the whole circuit. Therefor dead time should be provided so that the two complementary switching devices will not be on at the same time the dead time and ensures that one switching device has fully turned off before the other complementary switching device starts to turn on. The grey area between one signal turning off and the other one turning on, shown in Fig.3.5 is the dead time.

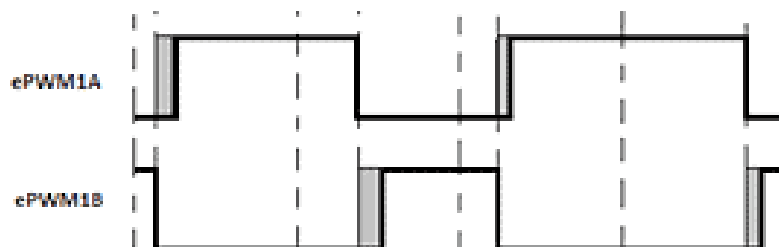


Figure 3.5 Dead time added on the complementary PWM signals [21]

Even if adding dead time has an advantage of protecting large surge currents and short circuit, it has also a disadvantage. The more dead time added the less efficient the converter will be, since during that period it's not actually doing anything at all. But, if the dead time is too short the converter will suffer short circuit and heating. Therefore proper dead time should be tuned by considering the characteristics of the switching devices (MOSFET or IGBT, for instance).

There are so many options to put dead time in the DC-DC converter. The dead time can be added by using Digital controllers like DSP or it can be implemented by using Schmitt trigger IC and RC circuits. The simple dead time circuit is shown in Fig.3.6 by using Schmitt trigger IC and RC circuits.

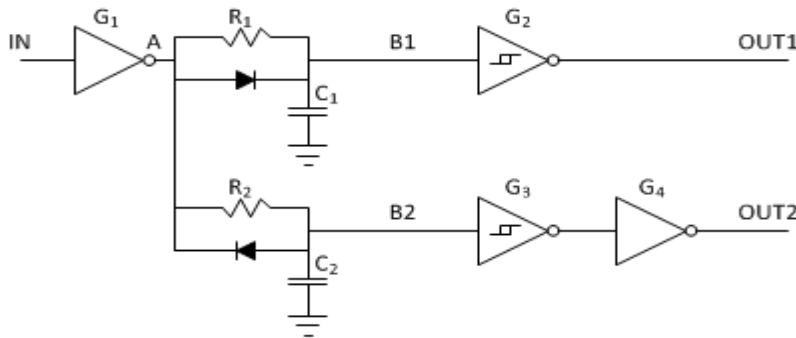


Figure 3. 6 Dead time circuit using Schmitt trigger and RC components [29]

3.5 PCB design considerations

It is expected that every switching power supply should provide clear and stable power to the loads. Unfortunately, this does not always happen. A common problem of switching power supplies is unstable switching waveforms. If the problem is related to the printed circuit board (PCB) layout, identifying the cause can be difficult and it is always necessary to prepare proper PCB layout at the early stage of a switching supply design. A good layout design optimizes supply efficiency, alleviates thermal stress, and most importantly, minimizes the noise and interactions among traces and components [31].

In designing PCB the length of conduction path should be minimized as much as possible. If the board has embedded DC-DC supplies, the supply output should be located close to the load devices in order to minimize the interconnection impedance and the conduction voltage drop across the PCB traces to achieve best voltage regulation, load transient response and system efficiency. In designing power stage of a converter careful attention should be given to the current traces. The large current traces should be short and wide to minimize PCB inductance, resistance and voltage drop. This is especially critical for the traces with high di/dt pulsating current flow.

On a multilayer PCB board, it is highly desirable to place the DC ground or DC input or output voltage layers between the high current power component layer and the sensitive small signal trace layer. The ground and/or DC voltage layers provide AC grounds to shield the small signal traces from noisy power traces and power components. As a general rule, the

ground or DC voltage planes of a multilayer PCB should not be segmented. If the segmentation is unavoidable, the number and length of traces in these planes must be minimized. The traces should also be routed in the same direction as the high current flow direction to minimize the impact [27][31].

PCBs can be designed using computer software, e.g. CadSoft Eagle and Altium. The component package footprints should be carefully designed and drawn in order not to face problems during mounting of components. It is also necessary to choose appropriate clearance and creepage. If necessary, using Vias can also reduce complexity making soldering easier [27].

When a PCB design is ready for manufacturing, it can be manufactured through different methods. Popular solutions are etching and milling. PCB milling often gives the most accurate result for small and detailed PCBs [27].

CHAPTER FOUR

4. CASE –STUDY

In this part the details of the Design of 20KW Bidirectional DC-DC converter is presented. The DC-DC converter should have less weight and less loss as much as possible and have targeted efficiency of above 98%. Proper switching frequency should also be selected by considering the Switching losses of the MOSFETs and the required size of the inductor. The high voltage side or the dc link voltage is required to be 800V and the low voltage side is 400V. In addition to this proper control system should be implemented in order to control the inductor current. In most of the converter designs here at Zigor Corporation, the inductor current ripple is taken as 33% of the average inductor current and the voltage ripple is 1%. Therefor in this thesis work the same amount of current and voltage ripple is considered.

4.1 Power circuit Design

4.1.1 Choosing SiC MOSFETs

SiC MOSFETs from three different manufacturers (Wolfspeed, United Silicon Carbide and Infineon) are compared based on the switching losses and their on resistance. However SiC MOSFETs from Infineon are desired for large current and power applications and in this thesis work we considered only SiC MOSFETs from the other two manufacturers.

The turn on and turn off energy losses and on resistances of the MOSFETs are taken from their datasheet. The switching and conduction losses are determined based on Equation.2.5-2.8. Moreover connecting two MOSFETs in parallel has also an advantage of reducing switching and conduction losses since the current is divided in to two of the MOSFETs and the conduction loss is proportional to the square of the drain current. Taking account of the minimum R_D on resistance, second generation C2M0040120D and third generation C3M003090K Cree MOSFETs from Wolfspeed and UF3C120040K4S from United Silicon Carbide's Cascode products, are considered in this project. The result is summarized on Table 4.1. Based on the results in Table 4.1 third generation Cree MOSFET (C3M003090K) has less switching losses compared to 2nd generation Cree MOSFET (C2M0040120D) and United Silicon carbide MOSFETs. However, C3M003090K and UF3C120040K4S MOSFETs are selected for this project and the DC-DC converter is designed in order to work for both MOSFETs.

Table 4. 1 Comparison of switching energy losses for Different SiC MOSFETs

			Fsw	Eon	Eoff	Pon	Poff	Switchingloss	Pconduction	Ploss total
Cree Mosfets from wolfspeed	C2M0040120D	Single	20000	1.40E-03	3.00E-04	2.80E+01	6.00E+00	6.80E+01	6.25E+01	1.31E+02
			25000	1.40E-03	3.00E-04	3.50E+01	7.50E+00	8.50E+01	6.25E+01	1.48E+02
			30000	1.40E-03	3.00E-04	4.20E+01	9.00E+00	1.02E+02	6.25E+01	1.65E+02
			35000	1.40E-03	3.00E-04	4.90E+01	1.05E+01	1.19E+02	6.25E+01	1.82E+02
		20000	6.00E-04	2.50E-04	1.20E+01	5.00E+00	6.80E+01	15.625	8.36E+01	
		25000	6.00E-04	2.50E-04	1.50E+01	6.25E+00	8.50E+01	15.625	1.01E+02	
	30000	6.00E-04	2.50E-04	1.80E+01	7.50E+00	1.02E+02	15.625	1.18E+02		
	35000	6.00E-04	2.50E-04	2.10E+01	8.75E+00	1.19E+02	15.625	1.35E+02		
	C3M003090K	Parallel	20000	4.10E-04	8.20E-05	8.20E+00	1.64E+00	3.94E+01	18.75	5.81E+01
			25000	4.10E-04	8.20E-05	1.03E+01	2.05E+00	4.92E+01	18.75	6.80E+01
			30000	4.10E-04	8.20E-05	1.23E+01	2.46E+00	5.90E+01	18.75	7.78E+01
			35000	4.10E-04	8.20E-05	1.44E+01	2.87E+00	6.89E+01	18.75	8.76E+01
20000			9.00E-04	3.00E-04	1.80E+01	6.00E+00	9.60E+01	87.5	1.84E+02	
25000			9.00E-04	3.00E-04	2.25E+01	7.50E+00	1.20E+02	87.5	2.08E+02	
30000	9.00E-04	3.00E-04	2.70E+01	9.00E+00	1.44E+02	87.5	2.32E+02			
35000	9.00E-04	3.00E-04	3.15E+01	1.05E+01	1.68E+02	87.5	2.56E+02			
United Silicon Carbide	UF3C120040K4S	Single	20000	6.00E-04	1.50E-04	1.20E+01	3.00E+00	6.00E+01	21.875	8.19E+01
			25000	6.00E-04	1.50E-04	1.50E+01	3.75E+00	7.50E+01	21.875	9.69E+01
			30000	1.69E-03	3.50E-04	5.07E+01	1.05E+01	1.22E+02	21.875	1.44E+02
			35000	1.68E-03	3.50E-04	5.88E+01	1.23E+01	1.42E+02	21.875	1.64E+02
	UF3C120040K4S	Parallel	20000	6.00E-04	1.50E-04	1.20E+01	3.00E+00	6.00E+01	21.875	8.19E+01
			25000	6.00E-04	1.50E-04	1.50E+01	3.75E+00	7.50E+01	21.875	9.69E+01
			30000	1.69E-03	3.50E-04	5.07E+01	1.05E+01	1.22E+02	21.875	1.44E+02
			35000	1.68E-03	3.50E-04	5.88E+01	1.23E+01	1.42E+02	21.875	1.64E+02

4.1.2. Selecting Switching frequency, the required inductor, Capacitors and Heat sink

Minimizing inductor size and switching loss are our design constraint. Both are dependent on the switching frequency. As discussed in chapter 3 the size of the inductor is inversely proportional to the switching frequency. To make rough estimation, firstly the size of the required inductor is compared with the respective switching frequency according to Equation 3.3 and the result is summarized in Table 4.2. As it can be seen clearly higher switching frequencies decrease the required size of inductor significantly.

Table 4. 2 Size of inductor for various frequencies

Switching Frequency(KHz)	Inductor Size(uH)
20	606
25	484
30	404
35	346
40	303

However higher switching frequencies will lead to noise and higher switching losses as summarized on Table 4.1 which in turn requires larger Heat sink. Therefore by taking in to account of the required inductor size, switching losses and available cores to make the inductors here at Zigor Corporation, 35KHz switching frequency is selected for our design.

After choosing the switching frequency, the next step is sizing inductor, capacitors and selecting the heat sink. The mathematical details of Bidirectional DC-DC converter are

discussed in chapter three. All the calculations are made for boost operation (since the parameters can be used for buck operation). Therefore the output current and equivalent Load resistor can be determined as follows in Boost operation

$$I_0 = \frac{P}{V_0} = \frac{20,000}{800} = 25\text{A} \quad (4.1)$$

$$R_L = \frac{V_0}{I_0} = \frac{800}{25} = 32\Omega \quad (4.2)$$

The average inductor current is 50A. The Duty cycle is 0.5 and considering 33% inductor current ripple, the required inductor is sized as

$$L = \frac{V_{in} \times D}{f_s \times \Delta I_L} \quad (4.3)$$

$$= \frac{400 \times 0.5}{35,000 \times 0.33 \times 50} = 346\mu\text{H} \quad (4.4)$$

The required inductor is designed in our workshop using K8020E040 E shape magnetic core as shown below.

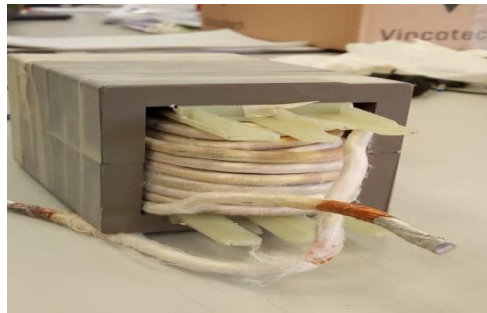


Figure 4. 1 Designed inductor

Again considering 1% output voltage ripple, the required output capacitor is sized as follows

$$C_0 = \frac{I_{out} \times D}{f_s \times \Delta V_0} \quad (4.5)$$

$$= \frac{25 \times 0.5}{35,000 \times 0.01 \times 800} = 44.6\mu\text{F} \quad (4.6)$$

In this design two Metallized Polypropylene Film capacitors to be connected in parallel each with 25A ripple current and 25uF capacitance is selected from KEMET.

Again the input capacitor is also determined as

$$C_{in} = \frac{I_L \times D}{f_s \times \Delta V_{in}} \quad (4.7)$$

$$= \frac{50 \times 0.5}{35,000 \times 0.01 \times 400} = 180 \mu\text{F} \quad (4.8)$$

The RMS value of inductor ripple current is

$$I_{L\text{rms}} = \frac{I_{Lp-p}}{2 \times \sqrt{3}} \quad (4.9)$$

$$= \frac{0.33 \times 50}{2 \times \sqrt{3}} = 4.61 \text{A} \quad (4.10)$$

Therefore four Aluminium Electrolytic capacitors (two in series and two in parallel) each with 220uF is selected from KEMET.

In the Heat Sink selection, the MOSFET losses (both switching and conduction losses) of UF3C120040K4S is considered since the losses from Wolfspeed Cree C3M003090K MOSFET is lower. The total switching and conduction losses of four UF3C120040K4S (two per each leg) is 164W as presented in Table.4.2. Each MOSFET contributes 1/4th of the total Power loss. The circuit in Fig.4.2 represent the hit sink equivalent circuit. The junction to case thermal resistance is taken from the datasheet of UF3C120040K4S United Silicon Carbide MOSFET and it is 0.27°C/W. The maximum junction temperature of the MOSFETs is 170°C but for safety factor and longer time operation it is limited to 150°C in this project. Moreover the ambient temperature is assumed to 40°C

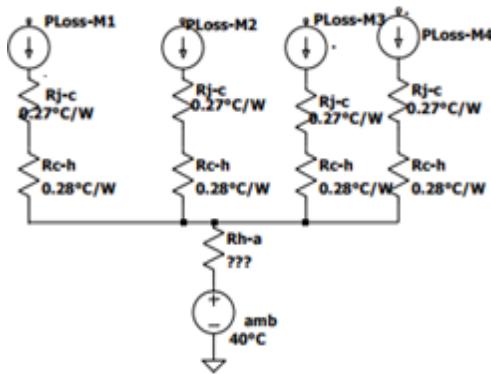


Figure 4. 2 Heat sink thermal equivalent circuit

The junction to ambient thermal resistance is calculated as

$$R_{th\ J-a} = \frac{T_j - T_a}{P_{loss}} \quad (4.11)$$

$$= \frac{150 - 40}{164} = 0.67^\circ\text{C/W} \quad (4.12)$$

To determine the thermal resistance of the heat sink, the parallel combinations of the circuit at Fig 4.2 should be solved

$$\text{Hence, } R_{th \text{ J-a}} = R_{j-c} + R_{c-h} + R_{h-a} \quad (4.13)$$

$$R_{j-c} + R_{c-h} = 1/4 \times (0.27 + 0.28) \text{ } ^\circ\text{C/W} = 0.1375 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C/W} \quad (4.14)$$

Therefore the thermal resistance of the required heat sink becomes

$$R_{h-a} = R_{th \text{ J-c}} - R_{j-c} + R_{c-h} \quad (4.15)$$

$$= 0.67 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C/W} - 0.1375 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C/W} = 0.5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C/W} \quad (4.16)$$

Based on this the heat sink CR201-75 from Ohmite is selected

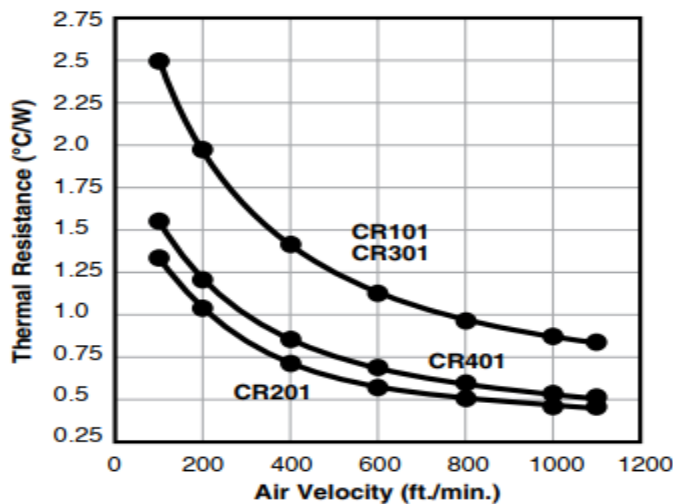


Figure 4.3 Thermal Resistance Curve of CR Series Heat sink

CR 201 Heat sink has 0.5 °C/W thermal resistance at the air velocity of 800 ft./mm as shown in Fig.4.3. Therefore fan is required in order to provide the required air flow.

4.2 Driver circuit design

Another design constraint is the gate driver circuit. The gate driver should supply enough power and required voltage levels for both UF3C120040K4S (United Silicon Carbide MOSFET) and C3M003090K (Wolfsped Cree) third generation SiC MOSFET. The maximum range of gate voltage for Cree C3M003090K MOSFET is -8/+19 and that of UF3C120040K4S is -25/+25. The recommended voltage ranges from Wolfsped manufacturers for C3M003090K MOSFET is -3/+18 and from Unites Silicon Carbide manufacturers the recommended voltage is -5/+15. Since the design in this project is for both

Wolfspeed and Unites Silicon Carbide MOSFETs, a voltage range of -3/+15 is selected. Therefore the gate driver should supply +15 volt for turn on and -3V for turning off.

Again the manufacturers from Wolfspeed recommend to use 3-5 Ω external gate resistor and United Silicon Carbide manufacturers recommend to use 10 Ω external gate resistor. The peak current required for both types of SiC MOSFETs determined as follows

For C3M003090K Wolfspeed MOSFET, the internal gate resistance is 3 Ω and the peak current is $I_{peak} = \frac{\Delta V_{Gs}}{R_{Gint}+R_{Gex}}$ (4.17)

$$= \frac{+15-(-3)}{3+3} = 3.12A \quad (4.18)$$

Again for UF3C120040K4S Unites Silicon Carbide MOSFETs, the internal gate resistance is 4.5 Ω . The peak current is

$$I_{peak} = \frac{\Delta V_{Gs}}{R_{Gint}+R_{Gex}} = \frac{+15-(-3)}{4.5+10} = 1.31A \quad (4.19)$$

Since the peak current required by UF3C120040K4S is lower than C3M003090K MOSFETs, the gate driver is designed based on the C3M003090K MOSFETs. Moreover the gate driver should be capable of supplying two MOSFETs in parallel and the peak current rating of the gate driver should be greater than $2 \times 3.12A$.

Based on this SIC1182K gate driver from Power integrations is selected. It is a single channel gate driver and has a capacity of supplying $\pm 8A$ peak output current. Moreover it has reinforced galvanic isolation and important features like advanced active clamping (at turn-off phase), short-circuit protection, overvoltage protection, under voltage lock-out (UVLO). Therefore for this project two SIC1182K gate driver IC's (one per each leg) are selected.

In addition to this DC power supply for gate driver circuit is selected. The turn on and turn off energy requirements of the gate is

$$E_{on} = E_{off} = 1/2 \times C_{gs} \times V_{gs}^2 \quad (4.20)$$

Where C_{gs} is the gate-to- source capacitance and V_{gs} is the applied drive voltage

The total energy dissipation becomes

$$E_t = E_{on} + E_{off} = C_{gs} \times V_{gs}^2 \quad (4.21)$$

And the Power dissipation becomes

$$P = E_t \times F_{sw} = C_{gs} \times V_{gs}^2 \times F_{sw} \quad (4.22)$$

Approximately the power dissipation can be determined as

$$P = Q_g \times V_{gs} \times F_{sw} \quad (4.23)$$

Therefore by taking the datasheet values of Q_g as 87nC

$P = 87\text{nC} \times 18\text{V} \times 35000\text{Hz} = 0.05\text{W}$ DC power supply having a capacity of 2W from RECOM is selected. Moreover the input voltage of the Driver IC should be +15/-3V in order to get the required gate driver voltage. Therefore the selected DC power supply has output voltage of +15/-3V. For each gate driver IC, one DC power supply is selected. Small inductors and capacitors are used in each power supply in order to filter out the high frequency components. The schematic diagram of the power stage circuit and driver circuit of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is shown in Fig.4.5.

4.3. Control circuit design

As mentioned before the control circuit is based on average current control method. The details of the calculations and formulas are found in [31]. The formulas and details of the calculation can be referred there. The control loop is designed for buck operation to control the inductor current (output current).

4.3.1 Current loop design

Sawtooth slope;

$$\frac{dV_s}{dt} = \frac{V_s}{T_s} \quad (4.24)$$

Where V_s is the amplitude of the Sawtooth voltage and T_s is period. Therefore

$$\frac{dV_s}{dt} = 4\text{V}/1/35\text{KHZ} = 0.14\text{V}/\mu\text{sec} \quad (4.25)$$

To sense the inductor current CQ-2335, High-Speed Small Current Sensor is selected. Hence from the datasheet of the selected current sensor sensitivity is taken which is:

$$\frac{dVi}{dt} = 25\text{mV/A} \quad (4.26)$$

the rate of change of inductor current is $\frac{dIL}{dt} = V_o/L = 400/350\mu\text{H} = 1.142\text{A}/\mu\text{sec}$ (4.27)

$$\frac{dVi}{dt} = \frac{dVi}{dIL} \times \frac{dIL}{dt} = 25\text{mV/A} \times 1.142\text{A}/\mu\text{sec} = 0.0285\text{V}/\mu\text{sec} \quad (4.28)$$

The current amplifier gain is

$$\text{GC}_{\text{Amax}} = \frac{V_i}{V_{\text{CA}}} = \frac{dVs}{dt} / \frac{dVi}{dt} = 0.14\text{v}/0.0285 = 4.5 \quad (4.29)$$

Back off some percent to allow additional down slop and take 4 as GCA

$$\frac{R_{fi}}{R_{ii}} = \text{GCA} = 2 \quad (4.30)$$

Then the following resistance values are chosen $R_{ii}=5\text{K}$ and $R_{fi}=20\text{K}$

The cross over frequency is:

$$F_c = \frac{f_s}{2\pi D} \quad (4.31)$$

$$= \frac{35000}{2 \times 3.14 \times 0.5} = 11.14\text{Khz} \quad (4.32)$$

$$C_{iv} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times \frac{f_c}{2} \times R_{fi}} = 1.428\text{nF} \quad (4.33)$$

4.3.2 Voltage loop Design

Inductor current downslope (during OFF time), converted into an equivalent voltage downslope by R_c , the output capacitor ESR

$$\frac{dIL}{dt} = V_o/L = 400/350\mu\text{H} = 1.142\text{A}/\mu\text{sec} \quad (4.34)$$

$$\frac{dVv}{dt} = \text{ESR} \times \frac{dIL}{dt} = 2.8\text{m}\Omega \times 1.142\text{A}/\mu\text{sec} = 3.2\text{mV}/\mu\text{sec} \quad (4.35)$$

Because of slope limitations at the PWM comparator, the Sawtooth slope at the VA output must be limited to 1/2 the slope across dvi/dt [31].

Thus the voltage amplifier gain at f_s is

$$\text{GV}_{\text{Amax}} = \frac{V_{vA}}{V_i} = \frac{dVi}{dt} / 2 \frac{dVv}{dt} = \frac{28.5\text{Mv}}{2 \times 3.2\text{mV}} = 4.5 \quad (4.36)$$

Taking GVA to 4 gives $R_{fv} = 4K$ and $R_{fi} = 1k$

$$C_{fv} = C_{iv} = \frac{1}{(2\pi \times f_c \times R_{fv})} = 3.5nF \quad (4.37)$$

4.3.3 Dead time circuit

In order to protect cross conduction, dead time circuit is designed as shown in Fig.4.3. The dead time circuit is connected to the average current controller PWM signal. 74HC240 inverting octal buffer IC and RC circuit is used in order to add the dead time. Moreover NAND gate is used in order to enable and disable the octal buffer so that the high and low leg PWM signals can be controlled (turned on/off) using the toggle switch.

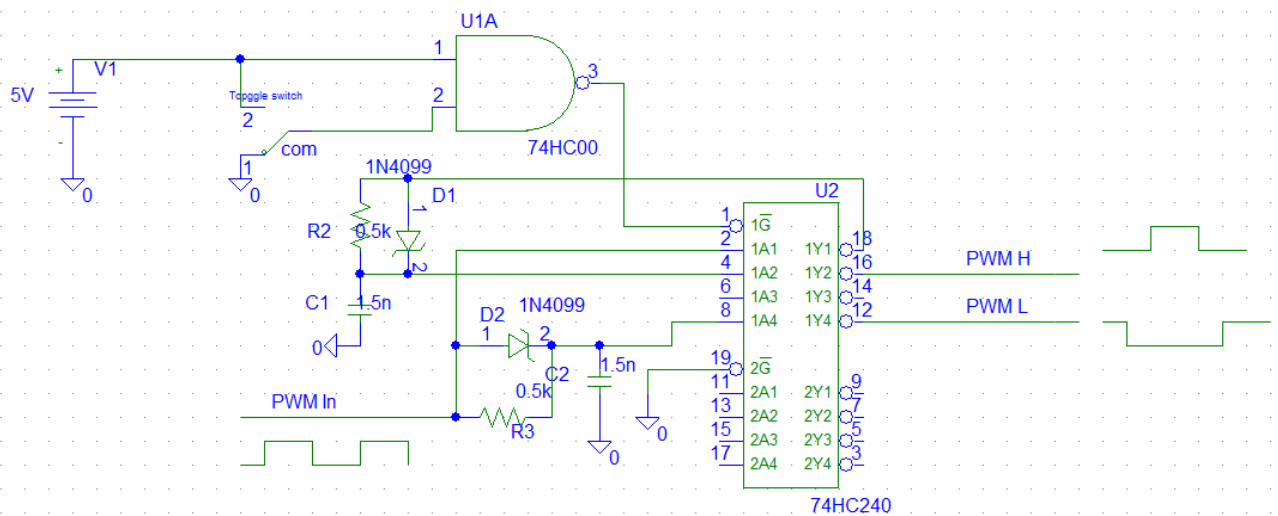


Figure 4. 4 Schematic circuit used to generate Dead time

4.4. PCB design

In this project a total of two PCB is required. One PCB is for power stage and driver circuit. The other PCB is for control system. However due to time and material limitation the PCB is designed only for power stage and driver circuit. The control system is designed by using breadboards. The PCB having two layers (Top and bottom layers) is designed using CADSTAR software. Gate drivers are made closer to the MOSFETs. Moreover the DC power supply for the gate drivers are close enough to the Gate driver IC in order to minimize the interconnection impedance and the conduction voltage drop across the PCB traces to achieve best voltage regulation . Most of the components are placed on the Top layer. Only the heat sink and the SiC MOSFETs are placed on the bottom layer. Careful attention is given to the length of the traces in order to minimize voltage drop. Rule of thumb is used to determine the size of the traces which is 1mm per Ampere. In addition to this short and wide traces are used for the power stage to minimize PCB inductance, resistance and voltage drop.

Careful attention was given for the clearance of the traces. The Top and bottom PCB design is shown in Fig.4.7 and Fig 4.8. Finally the components are placed as shown in Fig.4.9.

4.5 Double pulse test Set Up

Double pulse test is used to study and analyse the switching behaviour of switching devices. This test helps to determine the switching power losses of SiC MOSFETs. In half bridge MOSFETs, one MOSFET is replaced with a diode and double pulse is applied to the other MOSFETs as shown in Fig.4.5a.

Generally the double pulse is designed in order to supply pulses with different on time as shown in Fig.4.5b

At the instant t_1 the DUT is turned on and the inductor is charged up to the desired current level. The time t_1 should be enough to set up the inductor current at required level according to the following formulas

$$\text{At time } t_1, \text{ the inductor voltage } V_L = V_{DC} = L \frac{dI_L}{dt} \quad (4.38)$$

$$\text{From this } \Delta t_1 = L \times I_L / V_{DC} \quad (4.39)$$

Where L is load inductance and I_L is an inductor current

t_2 and t_3 can be chosen each to half of the period or $1/\text{switching frequency}$

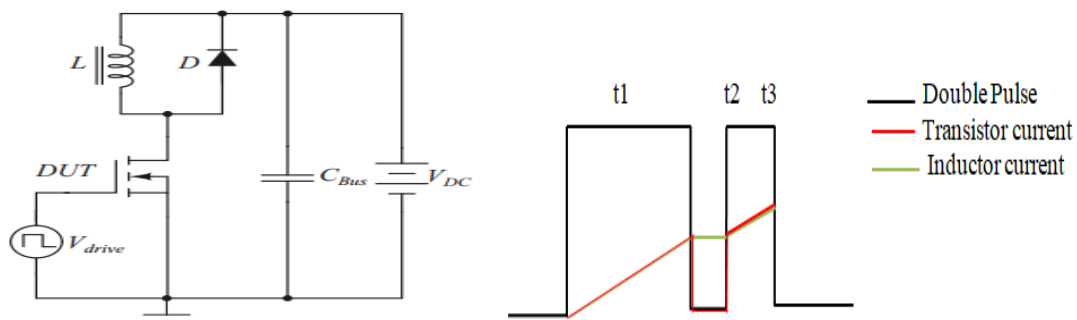


Figure 4. 5 (a) Double pulse test circuit (b) wave form of applied pulse ,transistor current and inductor current

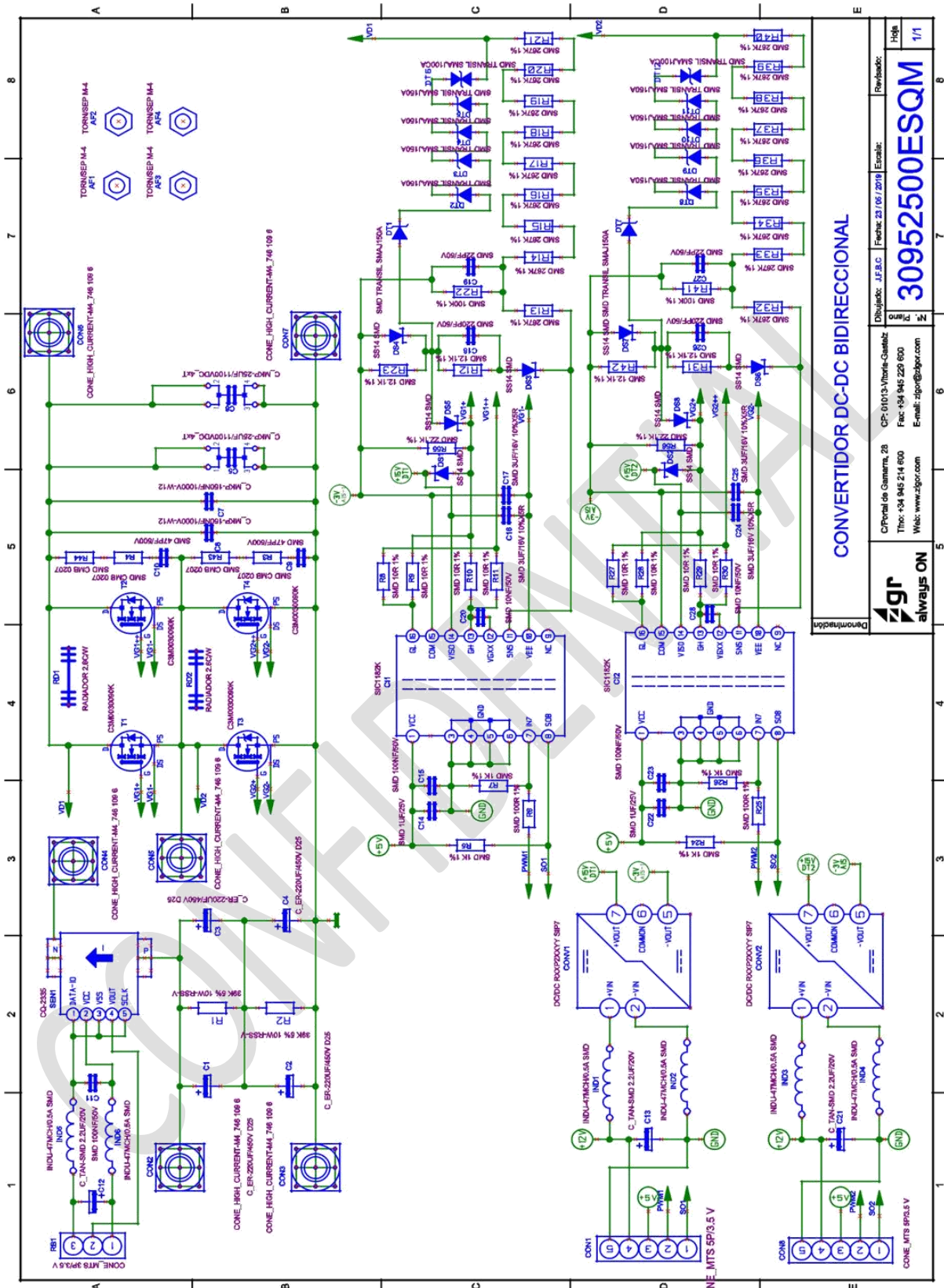


Figure 4. 6 schematics of the power circuit and driver circuit of the DC-DC converter

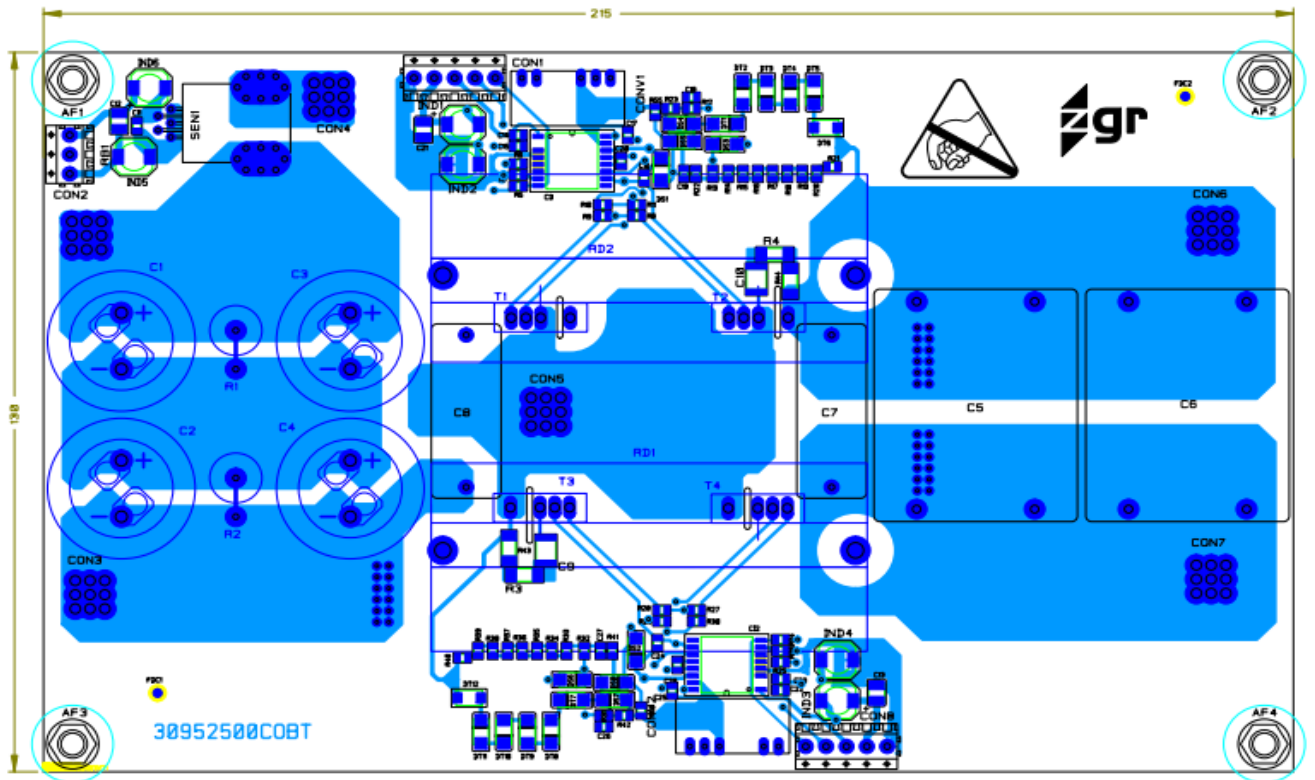


Figure 4. 7 Top layer the PCB

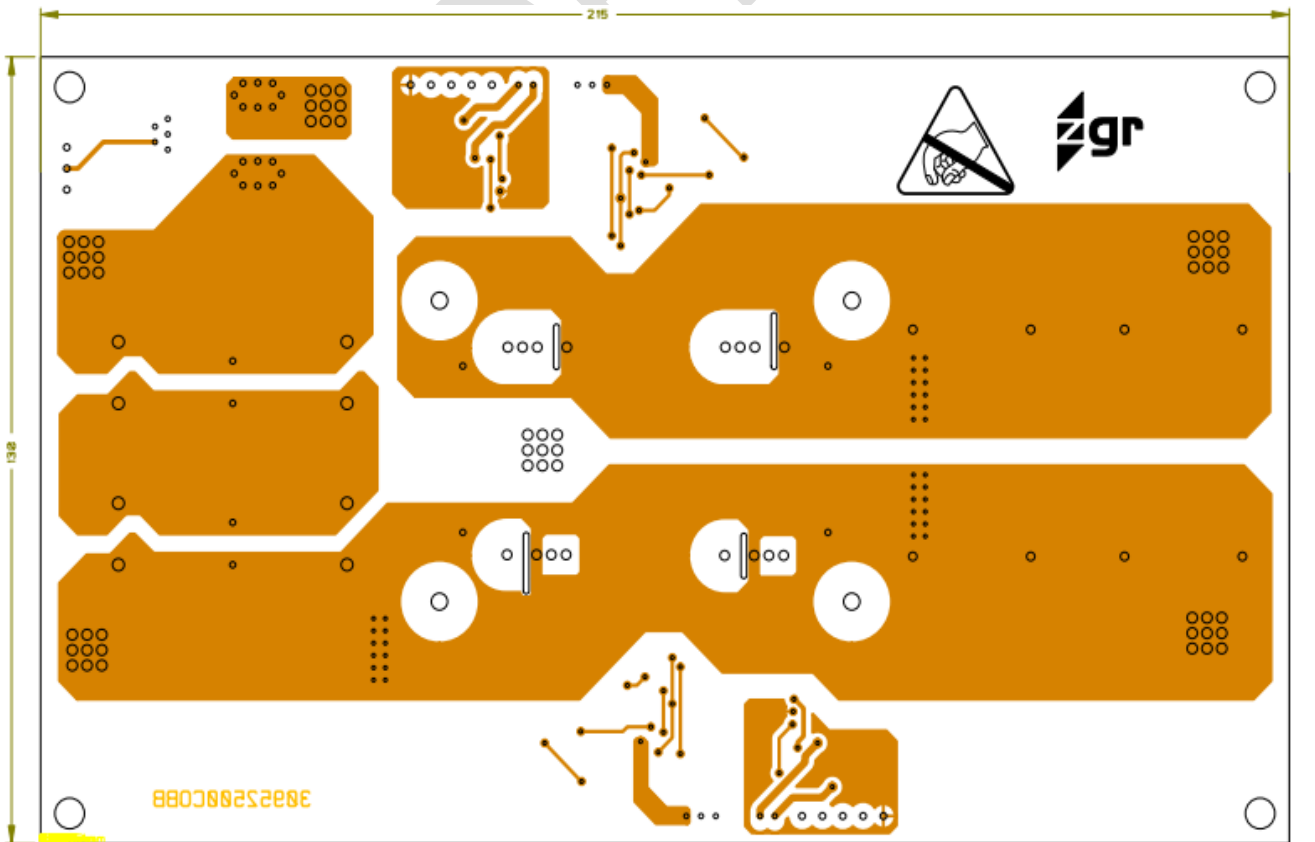


Figure 4. 8 Bottom layer of the PCB

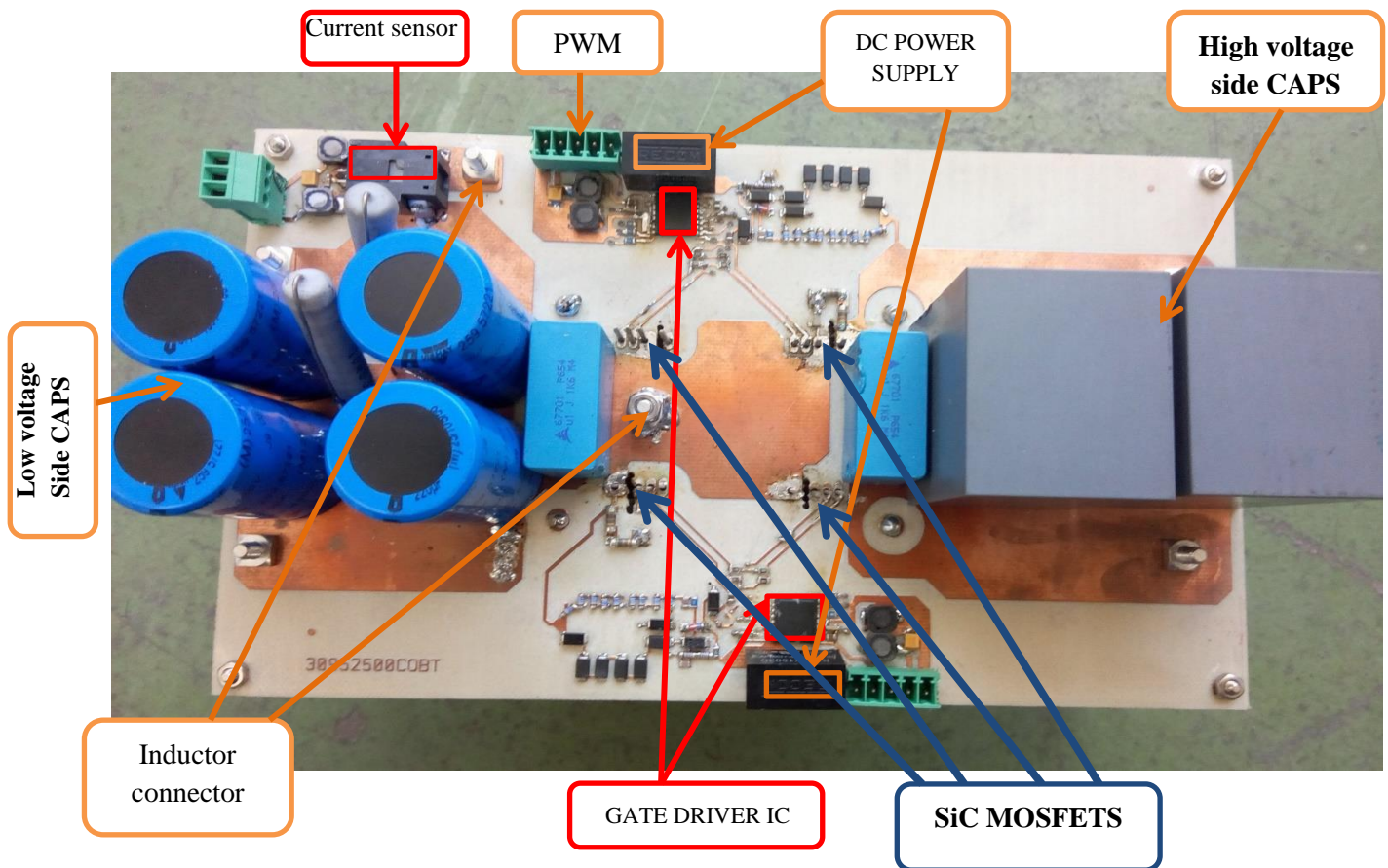


Figure 4. 9 DC-DC converter prototype

At t_2 the DUT is turned off and the inductor current freewheels in the diode. At this time the inductor current is almost constant. At t_3 the DUT is turned on again and the inductor charges for small time again.

The switching transient of the MOSFETs can be easily analysed and the switching power losses can be determined by integrating the resulting wave forms during turn on and turn off transition times.

The required Double pulse can be generated from Tektronix dual channel Function Generator or by using any other Double pulse signal generating circuit. In this project the Double pulse generating circuit is made by using 555IC as shown in Fig.4.10

The values of the on and off times of the Double pulse can be adjusted by properly selecting the resistances and capacitance values of R_2, R_6, R_7, R_8, C_2 and C_6 according to the following equations .

$$t_1 = 1.1 \times C_6 \times (R_7 + R_8) \quad (4.40)$$

$$t_2 = 0.693 \times C_6 \times R_7 \quad (4.41)$$

$$t_1 + t_2 + t_3 = 1.1 \times C_2 \times R_2 \quad (4.42)$$

Rearranging the above three equations and using t_1 value from equation 4.34, the values of R_2 , R_7 and R_8 can be determined as

$$R_2 = (t_1 + t_2 + t_3) / 1.1 \times C_2 \quad (4.43)$$

$$R_7 = t_2 / 0.693 \times C_6 \quad (4.44)$$

$$\text{And } R_8 = (t_1 / 1.1 - t_2 / 0.693) / C_6 \quad (4.45)$$

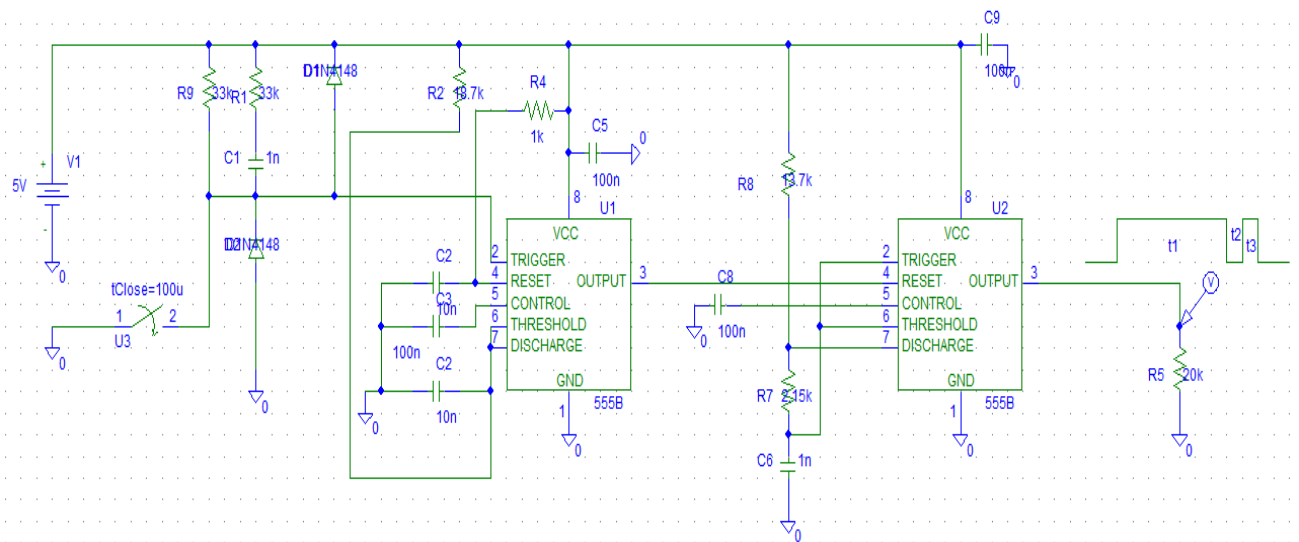


Figure 4. 10 Schematics of double pulse generator circuit

The required resistor values for each test current and test voltage are summarized on Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Double pulse generator circuit reference values of resistors and capacitors for required time values

L	VL	IL	T1	T2	T3	R2	R7	R8	C2	C6
3.60E-04	30	5	6.00E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	8051.948052	2.06E+03	3.39E+03	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	100	15	5.40E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	7506.493506	2.06E+03	2.85E+03	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	200	20	3.60E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	5870.12987	2.06E+03	1.21E+03	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	300	25	3.00E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	5324.675325	2.06E+03	6.66E+02	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	400	30	2.70E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	5051.948052	2.06E+03	3.93E+02	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	500	35	2.52E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	4888.311688	2.06E+03	2.29E+02	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	600	40	2.40E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	4779.220779	2.06E+03	1.20E+02	1.00E-08	1.00E-08
3.60E-04	700	45	2.31E-05	1.42857E-05	1.42857E-05	4701.298701	2.06E+03	4.25E+01	1.00E-08	1.00E-08

4.6. Software simulation

In this project Pspice, LTSpice XVII and MATLAB Simulink software are used for simulation. In order to simulate SiC MOSFETs using those software, their library files should be integrated to the library of the simulation software and symbol for SiC MOSFETs should be created first. The Model and library files of SiC MOSFETs can be downloaded from their manufacturers. Therefore firstly the appropriate Model and library files of SiC MOSFETs are downloaded from United SiC and WELFSPEED manufacturers and the symbol of those MOSFETs are created in Pspice and LTSpice Softwares. After creating the symbol, the power circuit of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is modelled as shown in Fig.4.11

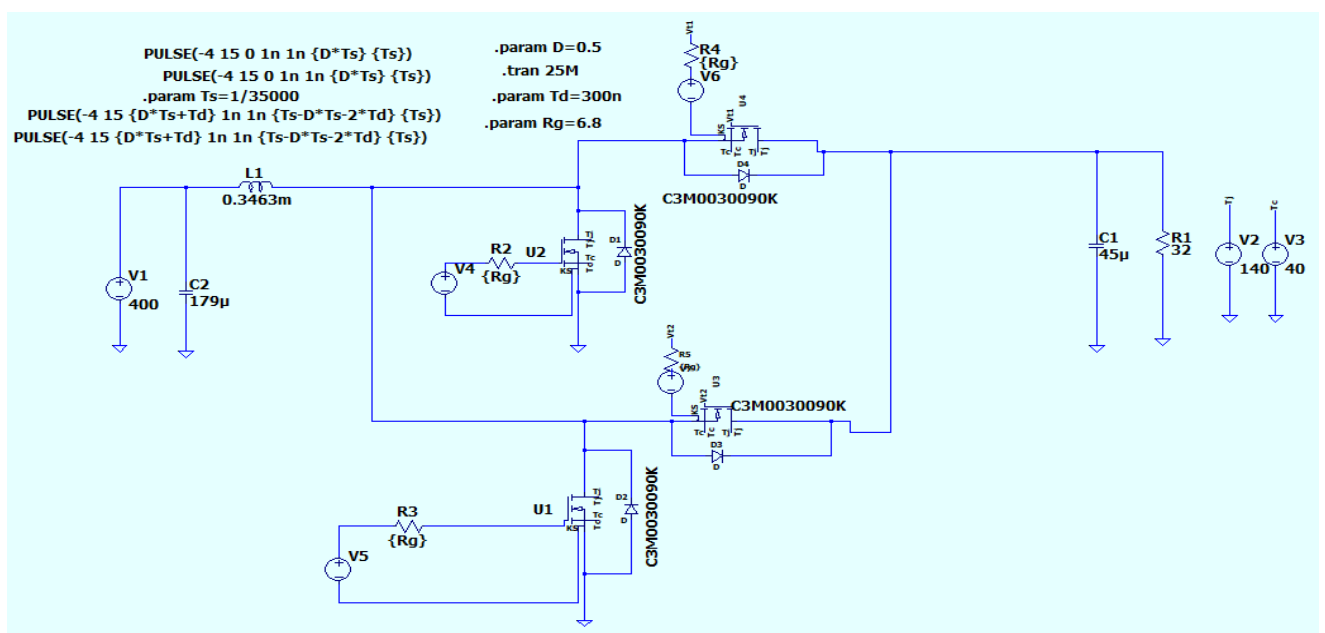


Figure 4. 11 LTSpice Circuit Model of the DC-DC converter power circuit

The Bidirectional DC-DC converter is tested by generating pulses with switching frequency of 35KHz and duty cycle of 0.5. The practical parameters are appropriately inserted. Moreover 500ns delay time for upper and lower leg pulses are considered in order to avoid cross conduction losses. It was not possible to add the control circuit and simulate them together with the power circuit due to convergence problem of Pspice and LTSpice Softwares. Therefore the control circuit is tested using MATLAB SIMULINK Software. The turn on and turn off characteristics of the MOSFETs are shown in Fig.4.13 and Fig.4.14. The on and off delay times are almost the same as datasheet values.

The inductor current ripple is as expected and it is around 33% of the average inductor current as shown in Fig.4.12 (a). Moreover the input-output voltage wave forms (boost operation) are also presented in Fig.4.12 (b).

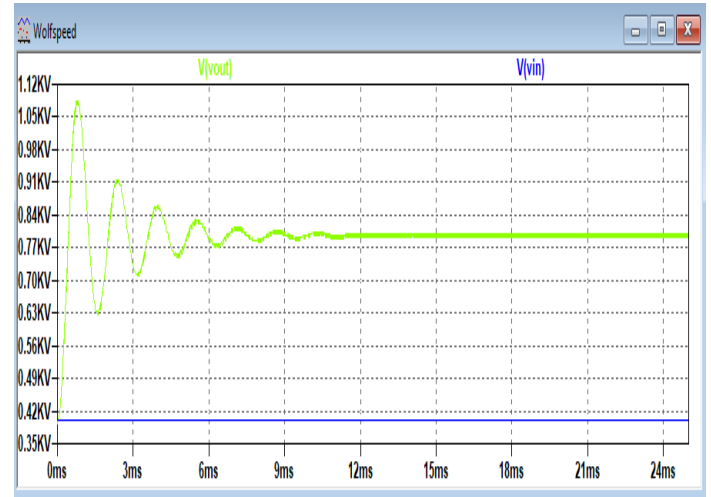
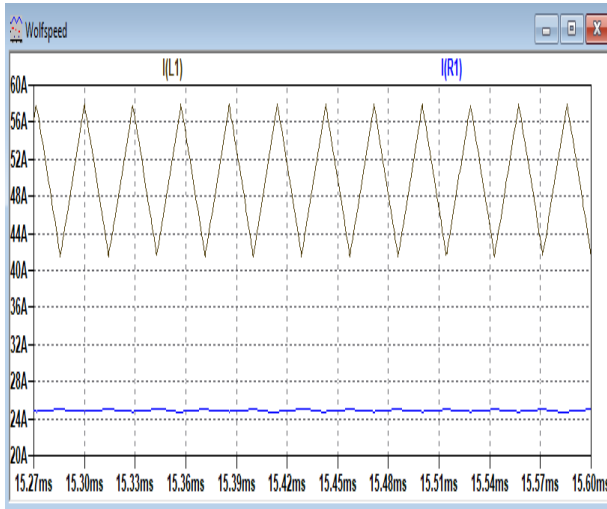


Figure 4. 12 (a) inductor ripple current converter

(b) input-output voltage of the DC- DC

The MOSFET Turn on and turn off characteristics are shown in Fig 4.13 (a) and (b). The drain to source voltage and drain current are shown during turn on and turn off of Cree C3M0065100K SiC third generation MOSFET. The turn on and turn off delay times are almost the same as datasheet values.

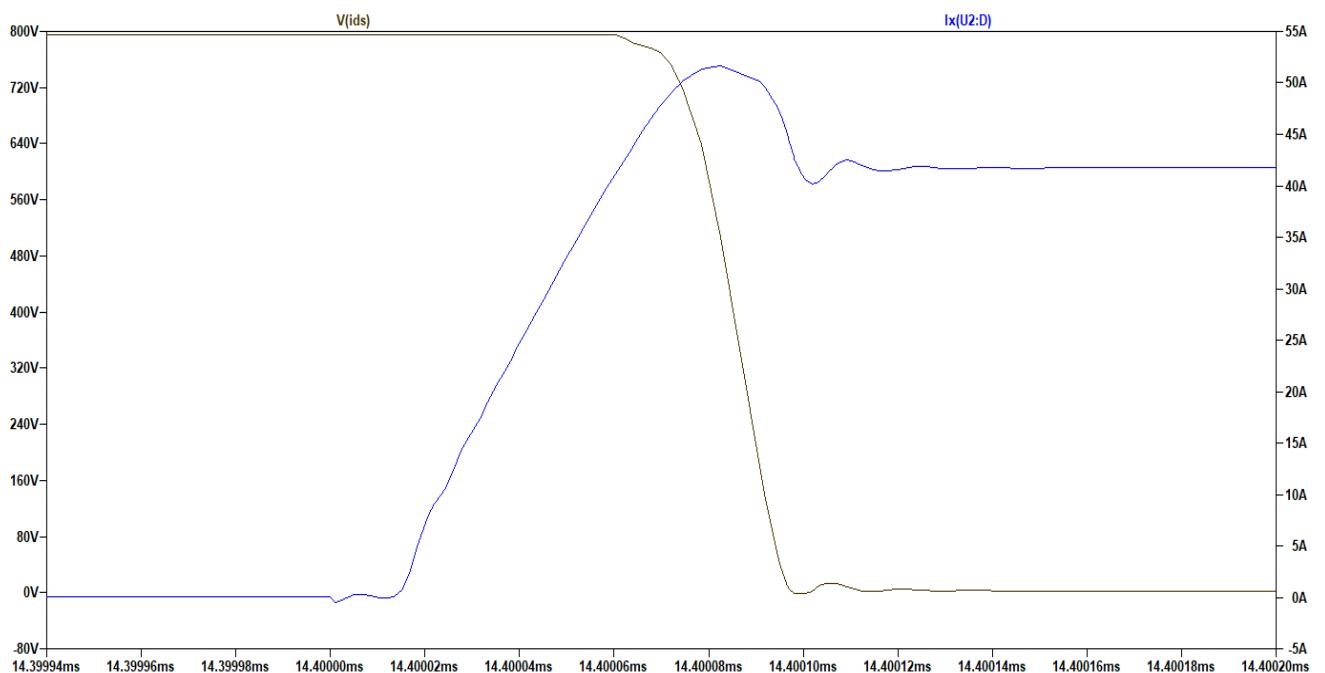


Figure 4. 13 Vds vs.Ids graph of Cree C3M0065100K SiC during turn on

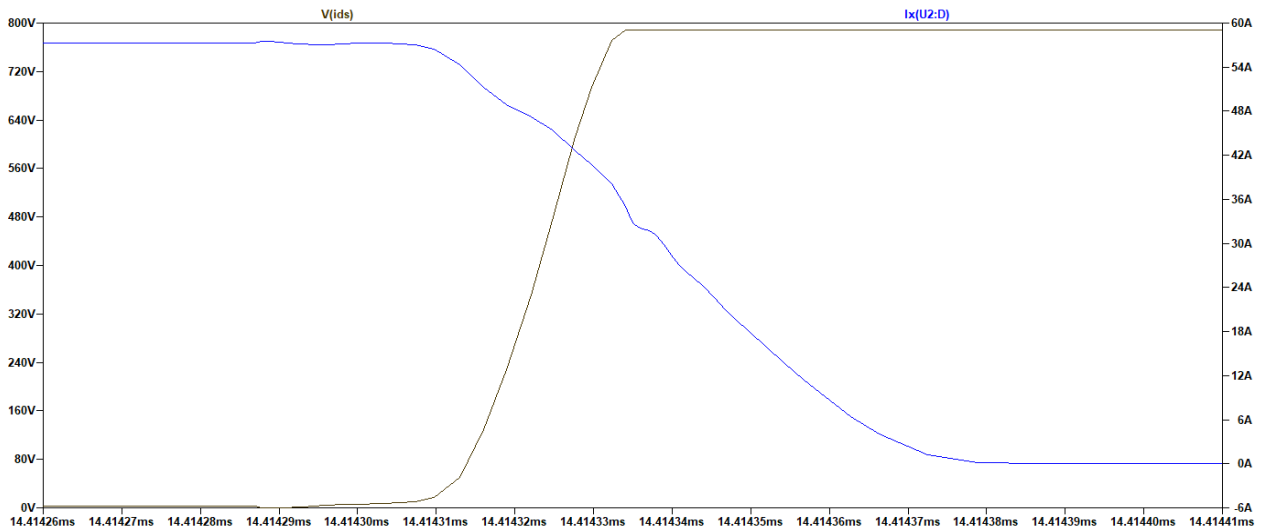


Figure 4. 14 Vds vs.Ids graph of Cree C3M0065100K SiC during turn off

As described before it was very difficult to simulate both the power circuit and control circuit using PSpice and LTspice softwares due to convergence problem. Therefore the control circuit is tested using MATLAB Simulink software. The circuit shown in Fig.4.15 below is built in MATLAB Simulink

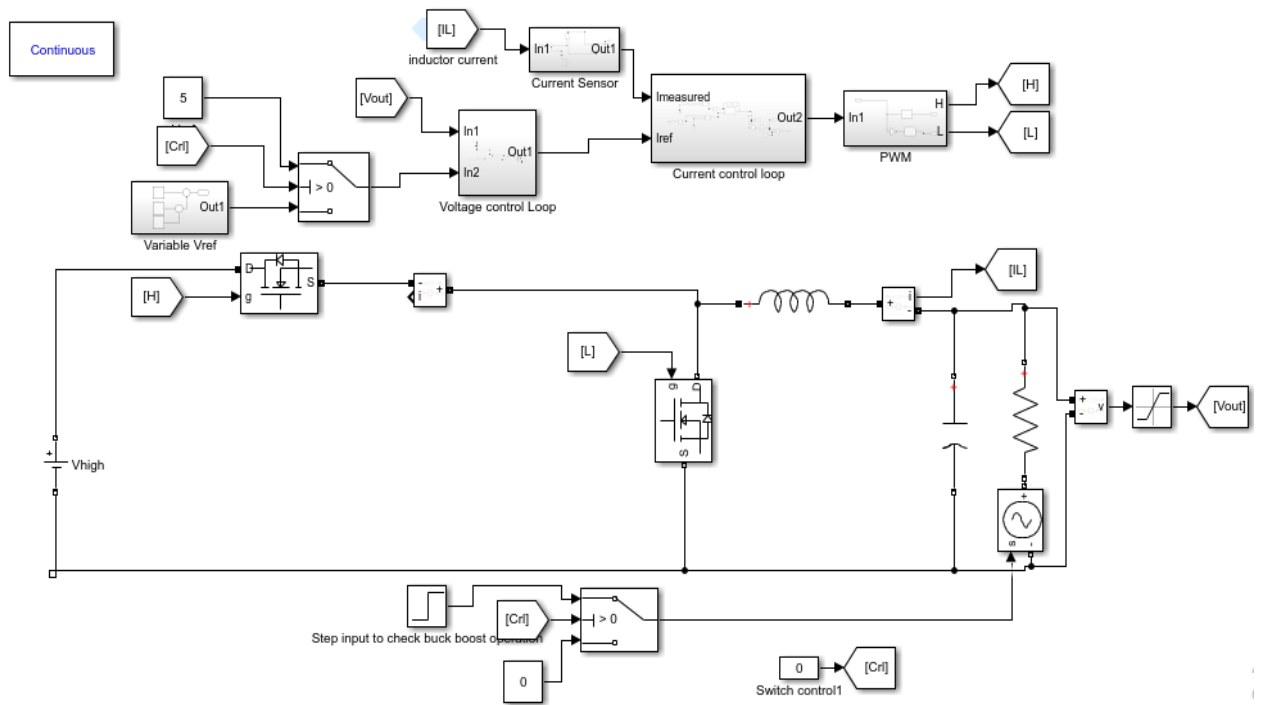


Figure 4.15 Simulink Model of Average current control scheme of the DC-DC converter

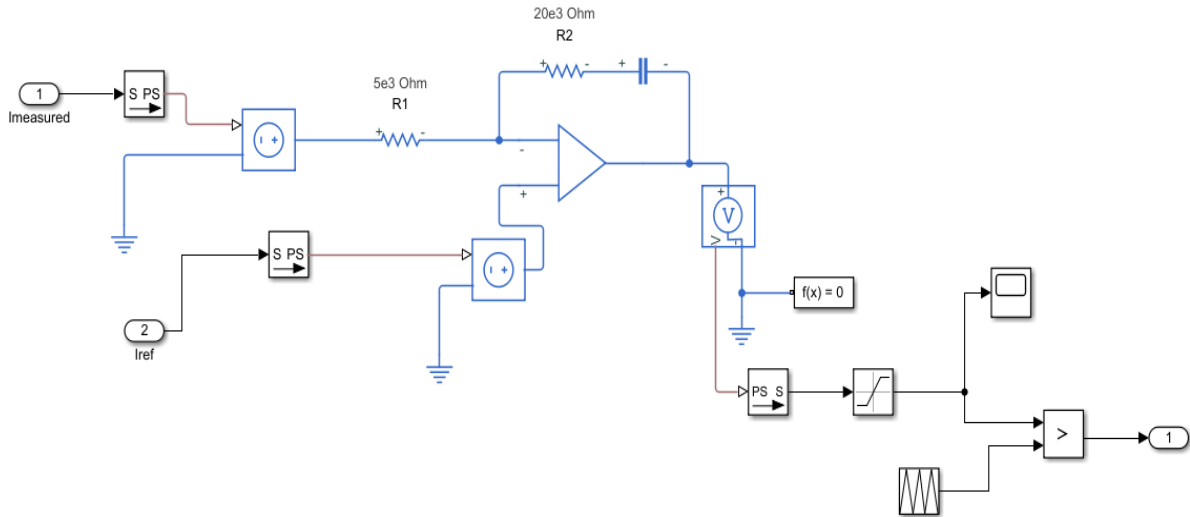


Figure 4. 16 Simulink model of current control loop

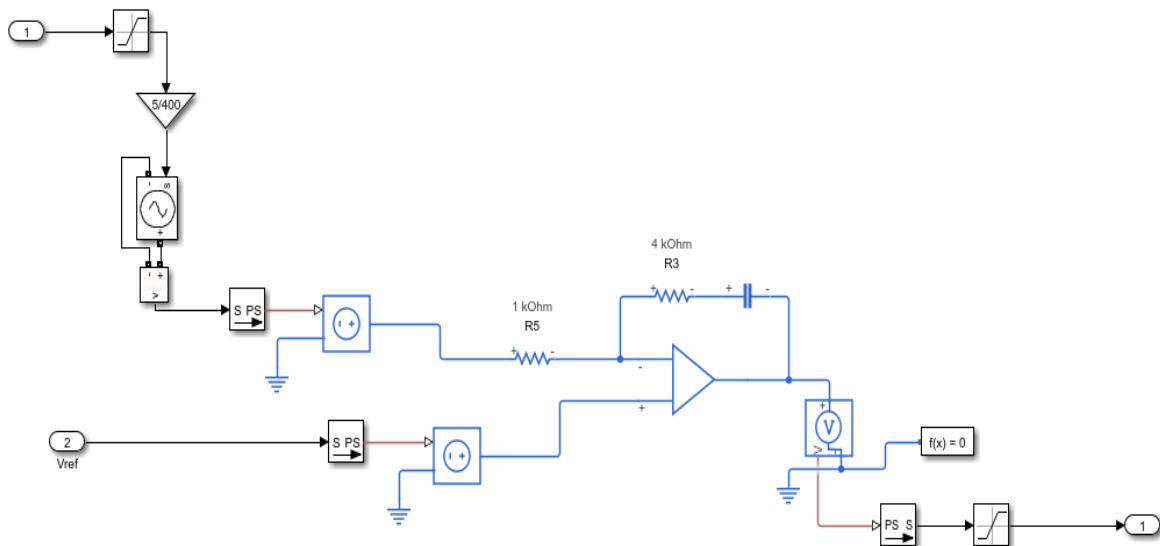


Figure 4. 17 Simulink model of voltage control loop

First the inductor current is controlled in buck operation. The reference voltage is varied in order to see the inductor current variation as shown in Fig.4.18. As it can be seen clearly, the inductor current is controlled by varying the reference voltage. Increasing the reference voltage above 5V increased the inductor current and decreasing the reference voltage below 5V also decreased the inductor current. 5V is taken as the reference voltage for rated average inductor current of 50A.

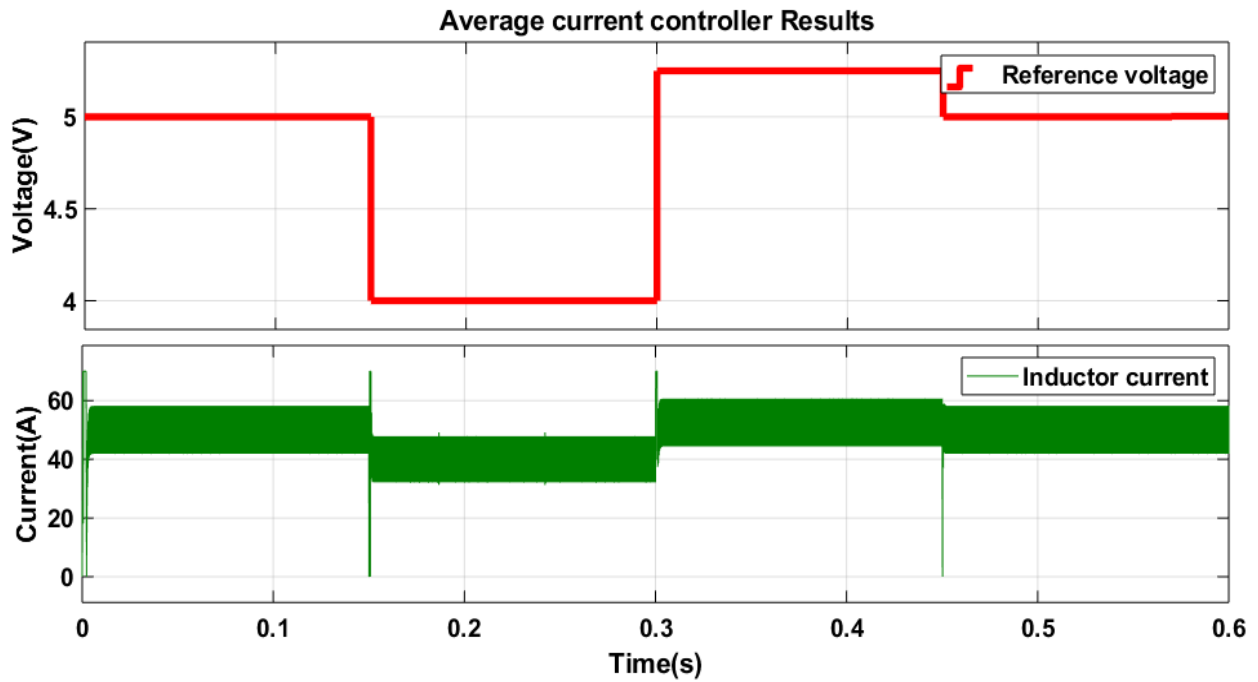


Figure 4.18 Voltage loop Reference voltage and inductor current wave form

In addition to this the control system is also tested for Buck- boost Operation. In order to reverse the inductor current, step voltage is applied on the low voltage side which varies from 200V to 600V as shown in Fig.4.19(a). Therefore when the step voltage is above 400V, the inductor current is reversed and the converter works as a boost converter as shown in Fig.4.19(b). Moreover the reference voltage at this case is 5V so that the inductor current is at rated value of 50A.

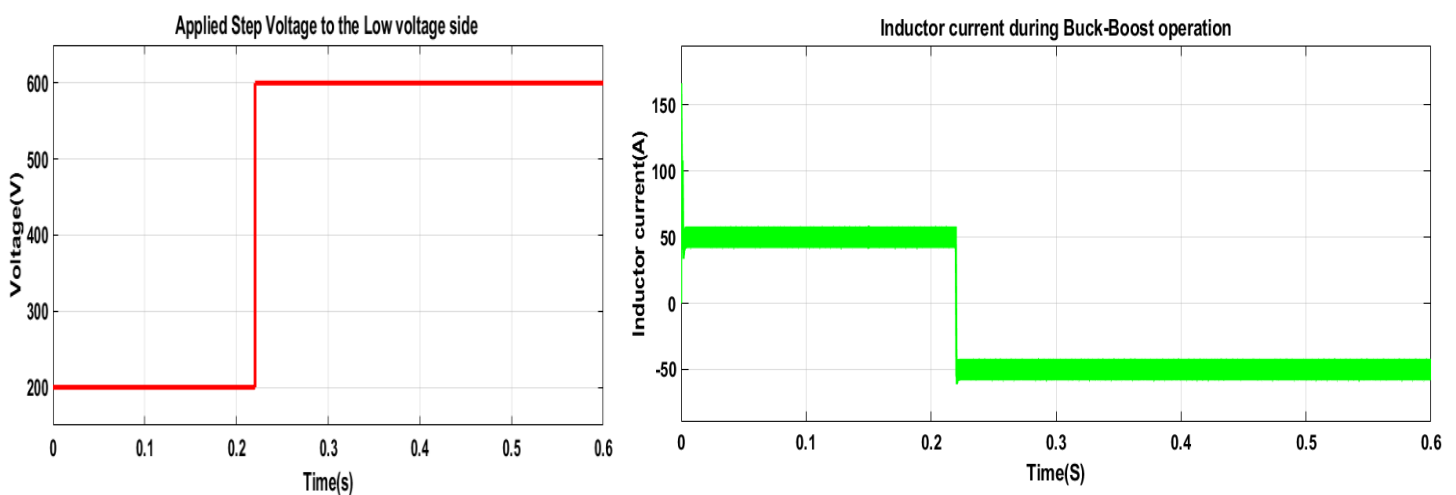


Figure 4.19(a) Step voltage (b) Average current control loop simulation result showing bidirectional control

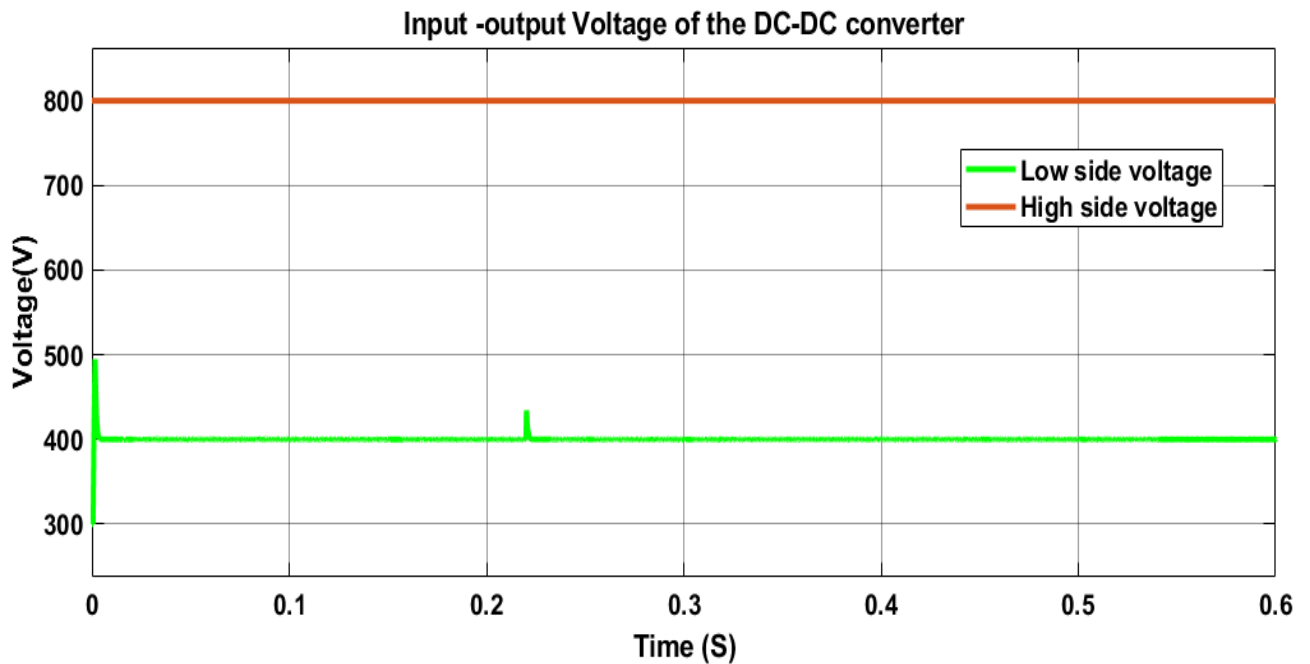


Figure 4. 20 Low and High voltage side voltages

In Fig.4.20 it can be seen that the controller keeps the output voltage (During buck operation) to 400V.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter the detail design of the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is presented. The main parts of the DC-DC converter which are power circuit, Driver circuit and Control circuits are designed appropriately and checked with Software simulations. This chapter also covered component choice and schematic design. Finally the PCB design and prototype development are also presented in this chapter. In the next chapter the laboratory Experiment result will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5

5. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Measuring Instruments

In the laboratory experiment, it is of interest to measure the drain-to-source voltage, the Gate-to-source voltage, drain current, inductor current and input-output voltages. TDS 2024B Oscilloscope from Tektronix is used to capture all waveforms. It has a bandwidth of 200MHz and it is able to capture 2 GS/s. The Oscilloscope has four channels, which enable to measure four different parameters at the same time. Moreover it has different triggering options and complex mathematical operations.

In order to measure the Gate to source voltage, HAMEG instruments differential voltage probe is used in order to protect grounding of the source terminal. It measures the voltage difference between Gate and source terminals (since we have a negative turn off voltage). Single-ended probe is not used because they measures voltage difference between a single point and ground which in turn will ground the source terminal of the MOSFET. The drain to source voltage is measured by using HP 10074A Probe. For measuring the inductor current, TCP202 Current probe with 011606 Tektronix probe power supply is used. The gain of the current probe is 0.76V/A

5.2 Power supplies

The gate driver circuit of the DC-DC converter needs 5V and 12V DC power supply. Moreover small variable voltage DC power supply is required for testing the DC-DC converter operation. FA-275 Triple power supply is used to supply the required voltages for the gate driver circuit. It has 5V fixed output and 0-30V variable voltage output.

Another power supply used in this laboratory test is SUNZET 25. It has a capacity of providing 25KW DC power with the voltage range of 0-1700V. This SUNZET power supply has a USB port to be connected to the computer so that the output voltage and current can be easily controlled and adjusted. In this lab test this power supply is used to supply power during double pulse test and the final test of the DC-DC converter



Figure 5.1 SUNZET 25KW DC Power supply

5.3 Testing the Gate driver Circuit

First the driver circuit is tested without the power circuit by using square wave generated from Tektronix AFG310 arbitrary function generator. The function generator is adjusted to supply square wave with 35KHz switching frequency. Moreover the high level of the square wave is adjusted to 4.5V-5V as shown in Fig.5.2 according to the data sheet of the gate driver IC. In order to protect short circuit inside the gate driver IC, the low voltage level of the square wave is adjusted to a small positive voltage which is around 700mV. The square wave signal is applied to the input of the gate driver IC. At this time no power is applied to the power circuit. Fig.5.3 (a) shows the generated square wave and the resulting gate driver IC output voltage. Channel one in Fig.5.3 (a) shows the Gate to Source voltage (V_{gs}) which is the output of the gate driver IC. Channel Two shows the generated square wave signal from the Function generator. As it can be seen clearly the peak voltage output or the turn on voltage of the gate driver IC is 15.6V and the negative voltage output is -3.6V.



Figure 5. 2 Function generator set up

This gate driver IC output voltage is within the acceptable voltage range of our design as explained in Chapter four which is +18/-5V. In addition to this the input-output delay of the Gate driver IC is also tested. As it can be seen in Fig.5.3 (b) the turn on input-output delay of the gate driver IC was around 260ns which is the same as datasheet values. Therefore the gate driver IC is working properly and it is ready to be used.

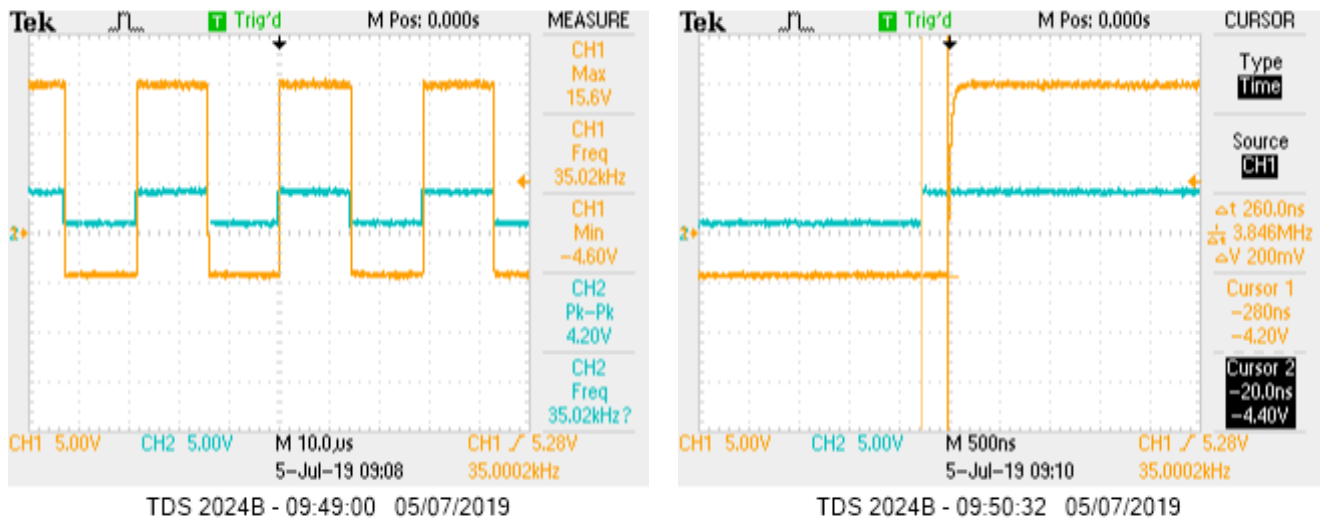


Figure 5. 3 (a) Gate Driver IC input-output wave form (b) Gate Driver IC input-output delay

5.4 Testing the dead time Generating Circuit

The dead time generating circuit is designed to have 500ns dead time between the upper and lower leg PWM signals. The circuit is easily implemented using white Bread board as shown in Fig.5.4.

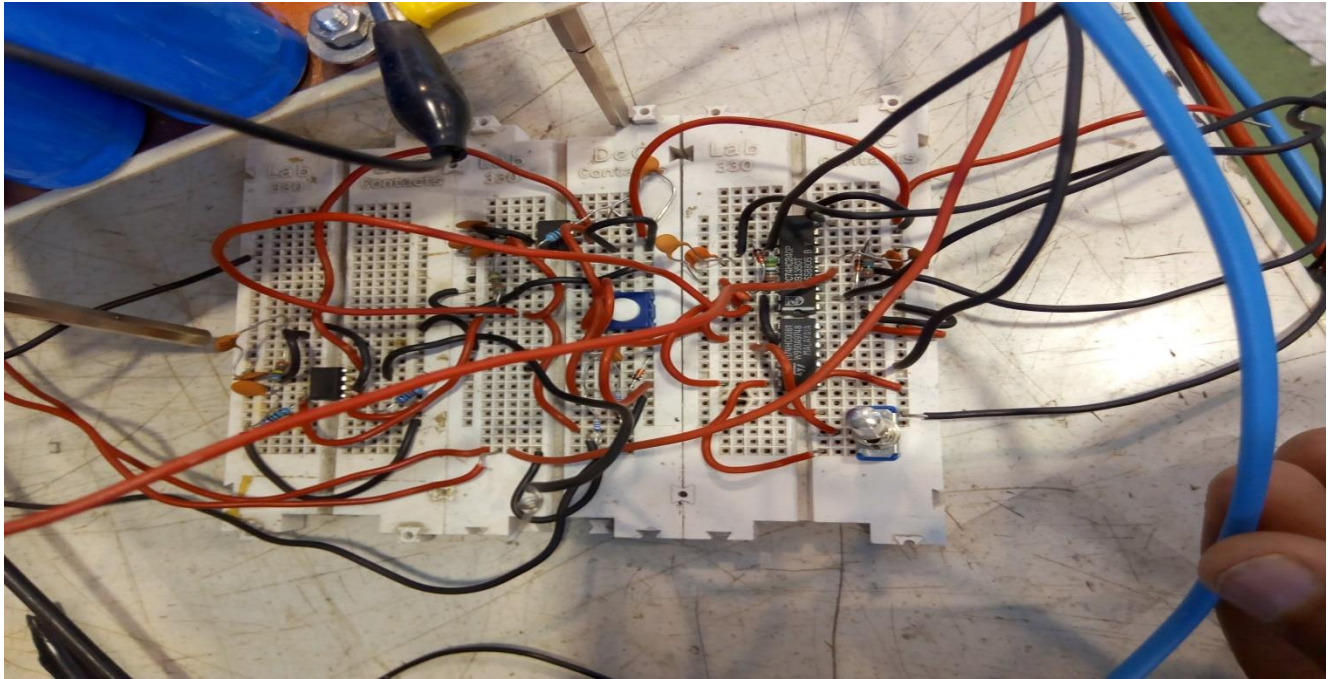


Figure 5. 4 Dead time bread board circuit

The upper and lower leg PWM signals have been carefully checked to have enough deadtime. As it can be seen clearly in Fig.5.6 the dead time is around 480ns.

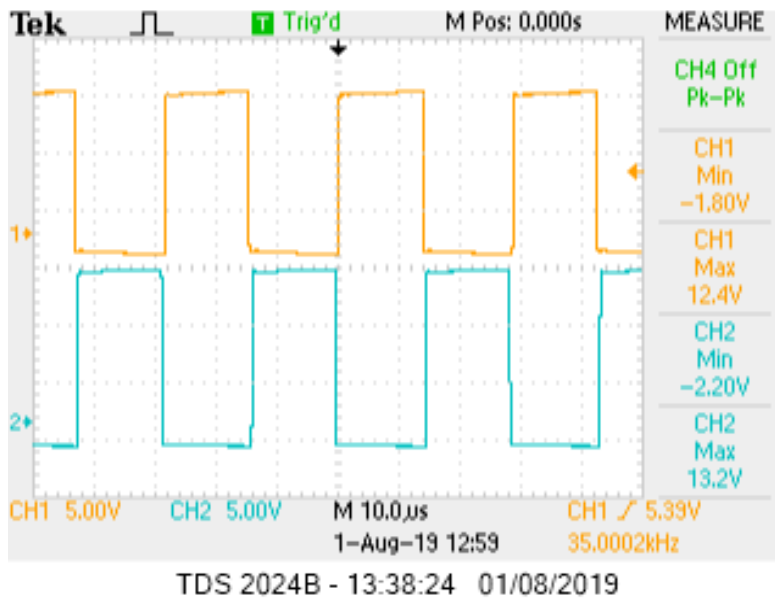


Figure 5. 5 Upper and Lowe leg PWM signals

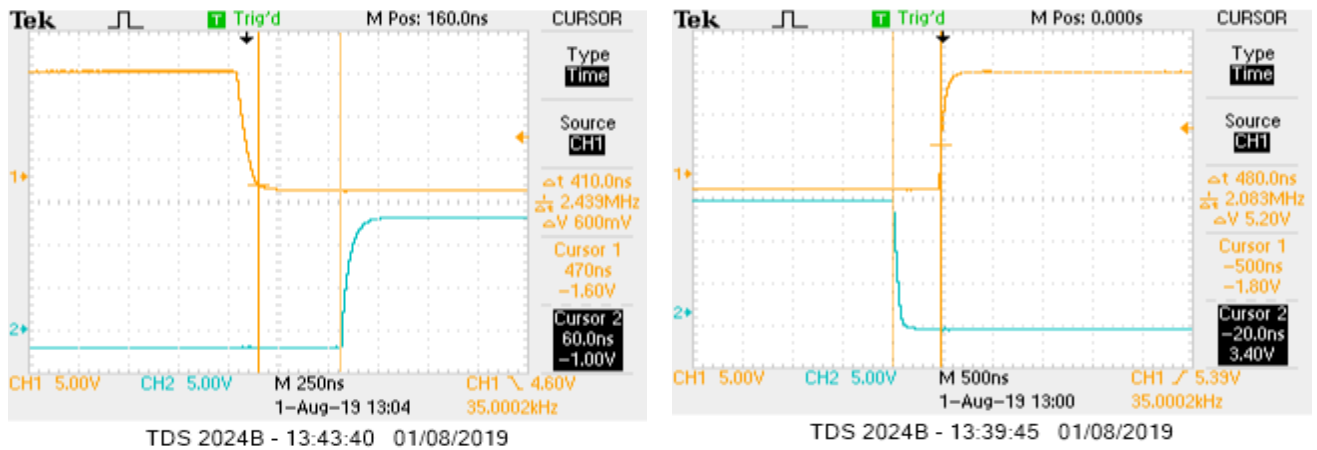


Figure 5. 6 Dead time between upper and lower leg PWM signals

5.5 Double Pulse Test

Another test performed in this project is Double pulse test. This test is performed in order to see the switching behaviour of the SiC MOSFETs specially the turn on and turn off characteristics. The required Double pulse signal is generated by using the circuit shown in Fig.4.9. First the resistance and capacitance values are adjusted to get the required duty cycle as explained in chapter 4. The generated Double pulse is shown in Fig.5.7

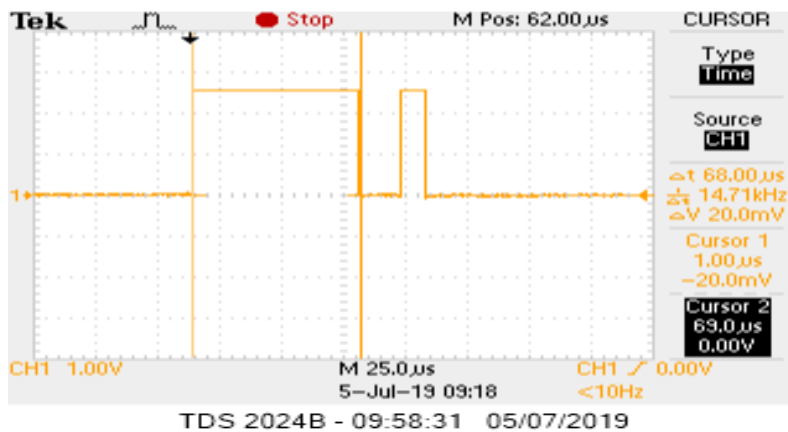


Figure 5. 7 Double pulse waveform

The double pulse test is performed with small voltage and small current. The top and bottom leg MOSFETs are tested separately. At the beginning 30V and 5A source is applied to the power circuit using SUNZET power supply. Vgs, Vds and inductor current are measured using oscilloscope as shown in Fig.5.8

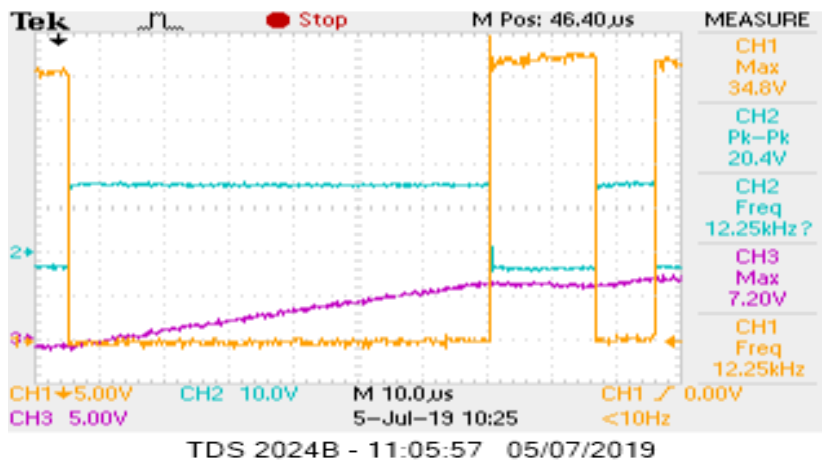


Figure 5. 8 Inductor current, Vgs and Vgd during double pulse test

In Fig.5.8 channel one measured the Drain to source voltage V_{ds} . Channel two measured Gate to source voltage V_{gs} and channel three measured the inductor current. As explained in chapter four, the inductor current increases during turn on, keeps almost at constant level during small turn off time and increased again during the second turn on interval.

In addition to this the turn on and turn off behaviour of the SiC MOSFETs are also analysed as shown in Fig.5.9 (a) and (b). Fig.5.9 (a) shows the turn on characteristics. Channel one measured the Drain to Source Voltage and Channel two measured the Gate to source voltage. During turn on V_{ds} switches from 30V to 0 and V_{gs} switches from -3V to 15 volt and the turn on characteristics of the MOSFETs is almost stable. During Turn off, V_{ds} switches from 0v to peak voltage of 52.2V. There is high ringing of the Gate to source voltage and too much overshoot on the Drain to source voltage. It is always necessary to minimize ringing of the gate to source voltage and Drain to source voltage. Too much ringing will cause the MOSFETs to turn on and off many times within a single period and increase the switching loss which in turn heats up the MOSFET. The worst case the MOSFET will blow up.

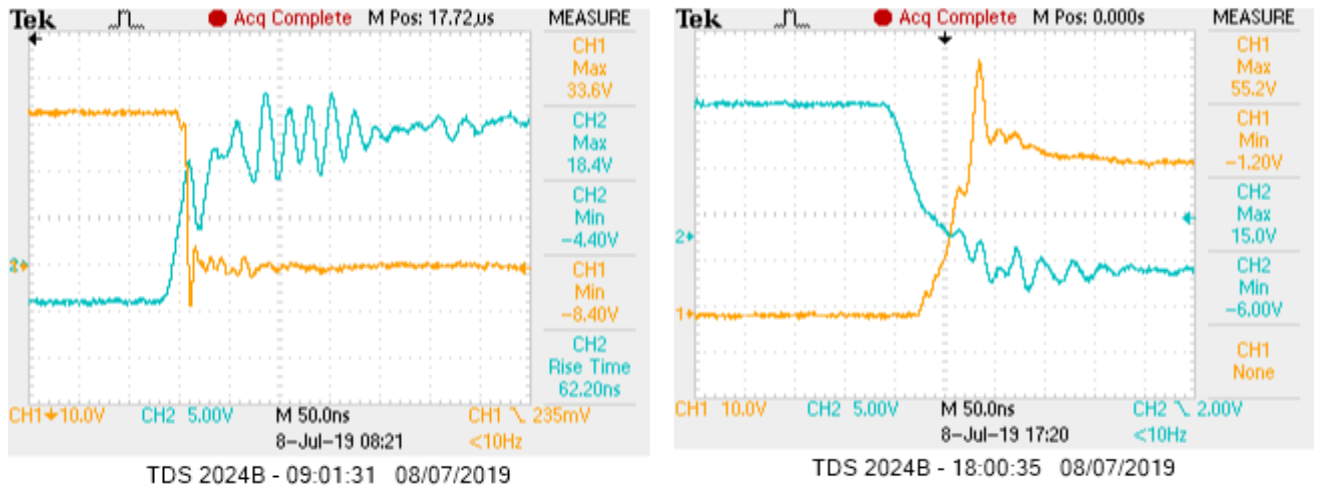


Figure 5.9 Vds and Vgs graphs during (a)Switch on transient (b) switch off transient at 30V test voltage

In order to improve this ringing snubber capacitor is added. Previously it was 120pF. The new snubber capacitor with 1nF capacitance is added and the double pulse test with the same configuration and voltage is tested again. The turn on and turn off switching transients are shown in Fig.5.10. As it can be seen clearly both the Vgs voltage ringing and Vds Voltage overshoot are reduced.

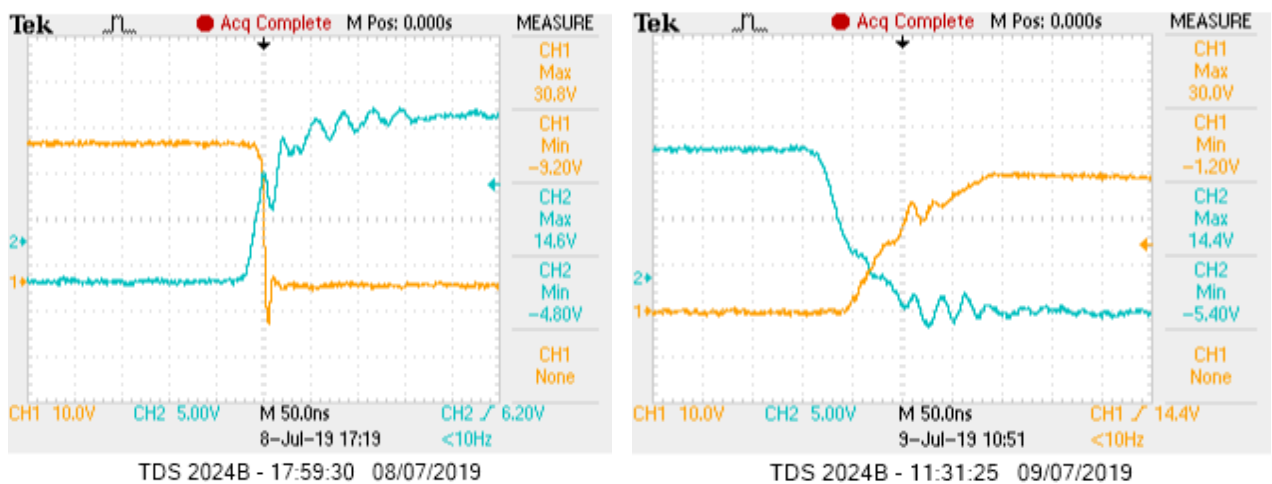


Figure 5. 10 Vds and Vgs graphs at 30V test voltage after snubber capacitor is added (a) Switch on transient (b) switch off transient

Again the voltage and current level is increased. The Double pulse test is held by increasing the test voltage up to 700V in the range of 100V. The turn on/off characteristics is shown in Fig.5.11

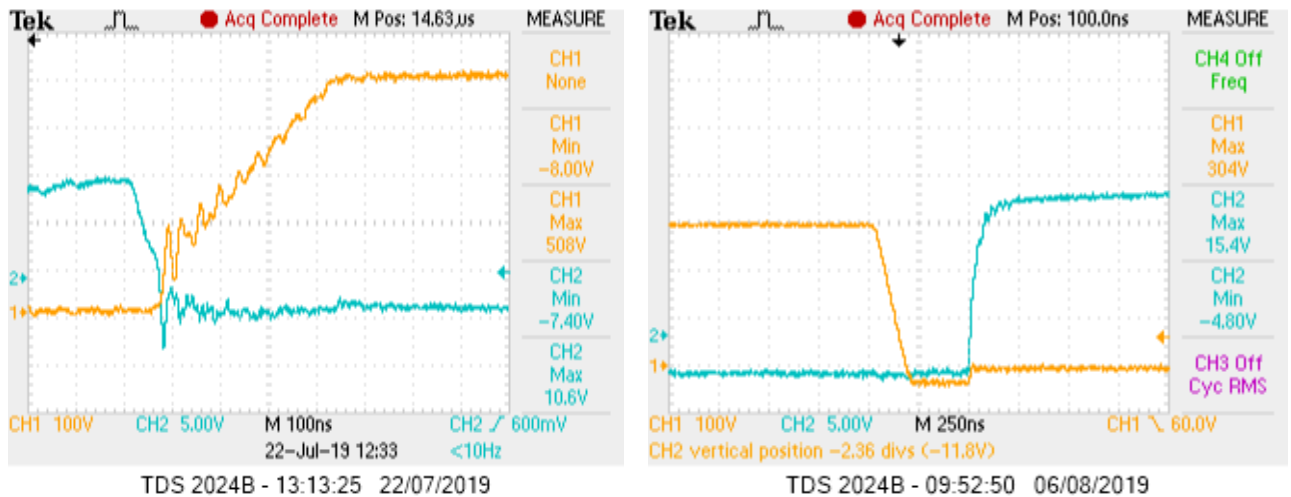


Figure 5. 11 Vds and Vgs voltage (a) Switch off transient at 500V test voltage (b) switch on transient at 300V test voltage

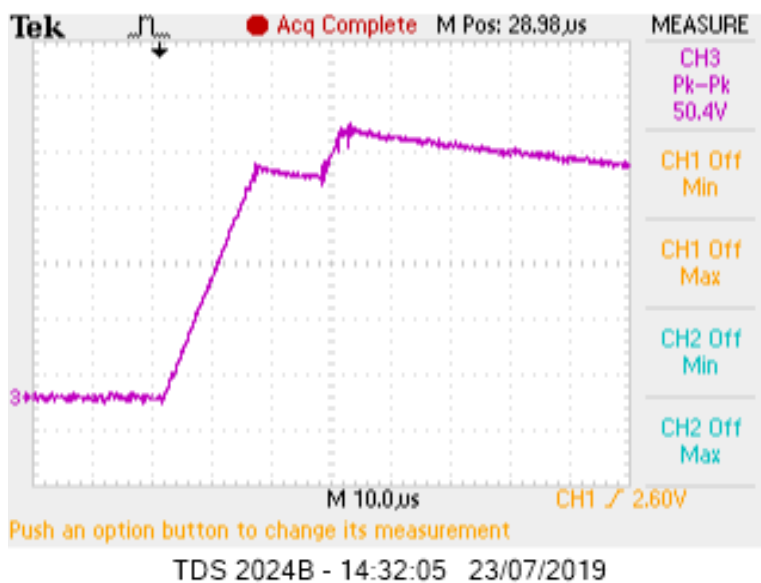


Figure 5. 12 Inductor current at 700V test voltage during double pulse test

Fig 5.12 shows the inductor current during the double pulse at 700V test voltage. The peak inductor current is around 40A. Therefore the double pulse results are fine and the DC-DC converter is ready to be tested for Boost and Buck operation.

5.6 Testing the operation of the DC-DC converter

In this step the Bidirectional DC-DC converter is tested for operation. The converter is tested first for Boost operation and next for Buck operation. The details are presented as follows

5.6.1 Boost Operation

In order to test the Boost operation of the DC-DC converter, DC voltage from SUNZET power supply is adjusted and connected to the low voltage side of the DC-DC converter. Due to two of the MOSFETs failed during Double pulse test because of ringing and overshoot, the DC-DC converter is tested only in its half of the power capacity (tested for less than 10KW). A parallel of four resistors each 200Ω is connected to the high voltage side in order to get an equivalent resistance of 50Ω as shown in Fig.5.13. The low voltage side voltage, high voltage side voltage and inductor current is measured by using the oscilloscope.

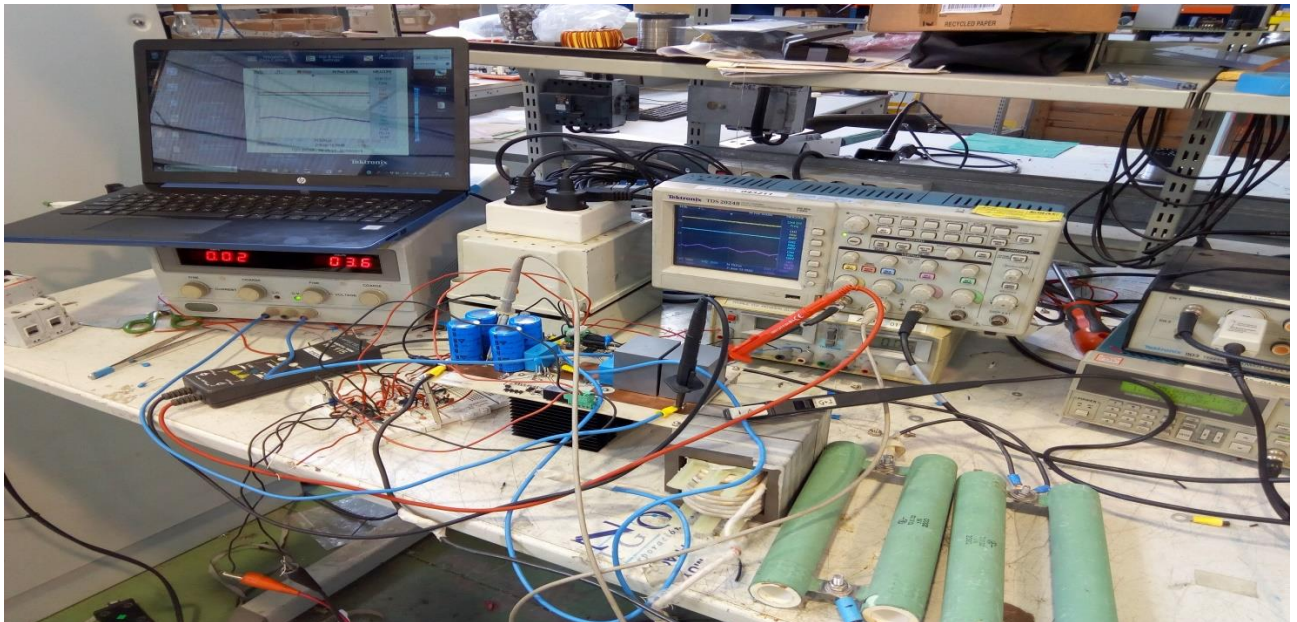


Figure 5. 13 Boost Operation Test Set-Up

Firstly the DC-DC converter is tested with low voltage. To begin the test, 30V is applied to the low voltage side. Then the low voltage side voltage is increased gradually up to 380V. The low voltage side voltages, High voltage side voltages and the inductor current wave forms are recorded as shown in Fig.5.14(a) and(b). Channel one in Fig.5.14 measured the input voltage, channel two measured the output voltage and channel three measured the inductor current. As it can be seen clearly in Fig.5.14(a) the DC-DC Converter boosts the voltage from 30V to 60V. Again the DC-DC converter increased the voltage level from 380V to 680V as shown in Fig.5.14(b). In this case the duty cycle is approximately 0.442 and the average inductor current is around 25A. Therefore as mentioned before the DC-DC

converter in Boost operation is tested for its half of the capacity which is $P=380V \times 25 = 9.5Kw$.

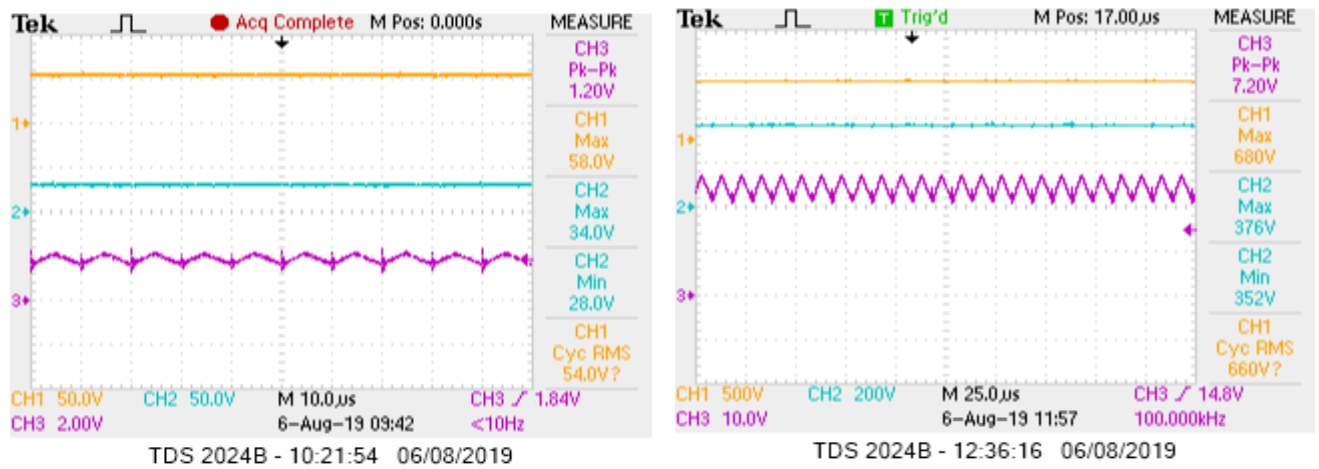


Figure 5. 14 Boost operation (a)30v to 58V (b)380V to 680 V

The gate driver voltage and the inductor current is measured together as shown in Fig.5.15 in order to check the switching frequency. The switching frequency is 35KHz as expected.

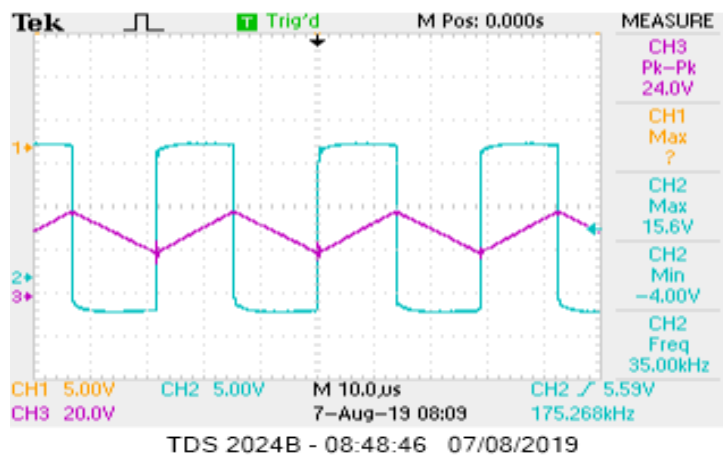


Figure 5. 15 Gate driver voltage and inductor current waveform

5.6.2 Buck Operation

During Buck operation test, the same resistor is connected to the low voltage side of the DC-DC converter as shown in Fig.5.16. Firstly 30V is applied to the high voltage side of the DC-DC converter. As it can be seen in Fig.5.17(a),the DC-DC converter scales down the 30V input to 14V. Moreover, the inductor current reverses its direction since the connection of the

current probe was not changed (as it was used for boost operation testing). Again the input voltage level is increased from 30V up to 400V using SUNZET power supply. In this case the DC-DC converter scales down the voltage 376 to 176V Fig.5.17(b).

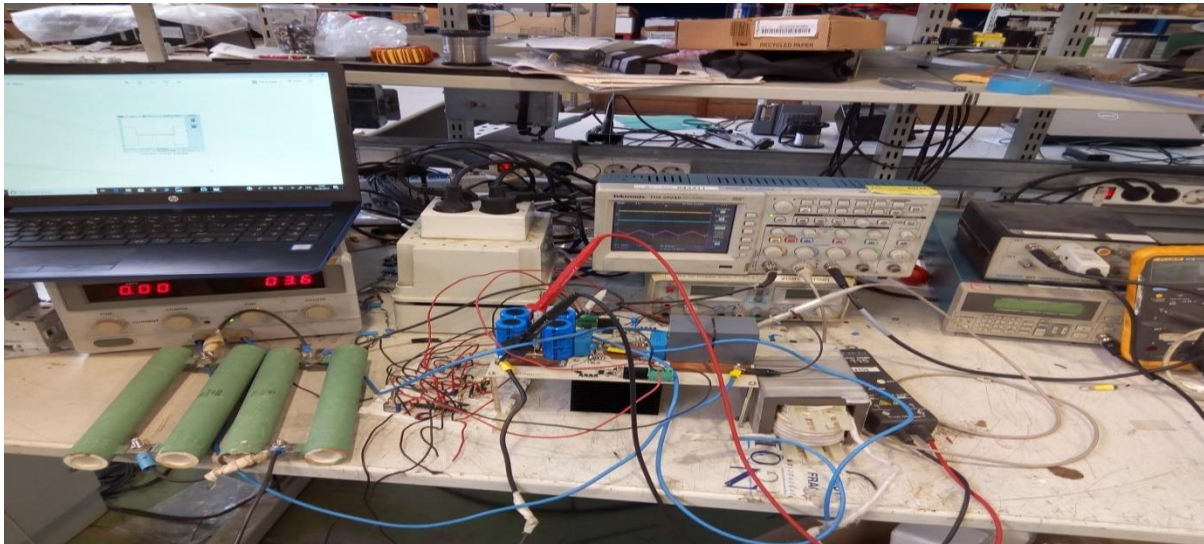


Figure 5. 16 Buck operation Set-Up

Moreover the average inductor current from Fig 5.17(b) is around 3.6A which is nearly equal to $176V/50\Omega = 3.52A$. Therefore it can be easily concluded that the designed Bidirectional DC-DC converter is working properly as a Boost converter and Buck converter.

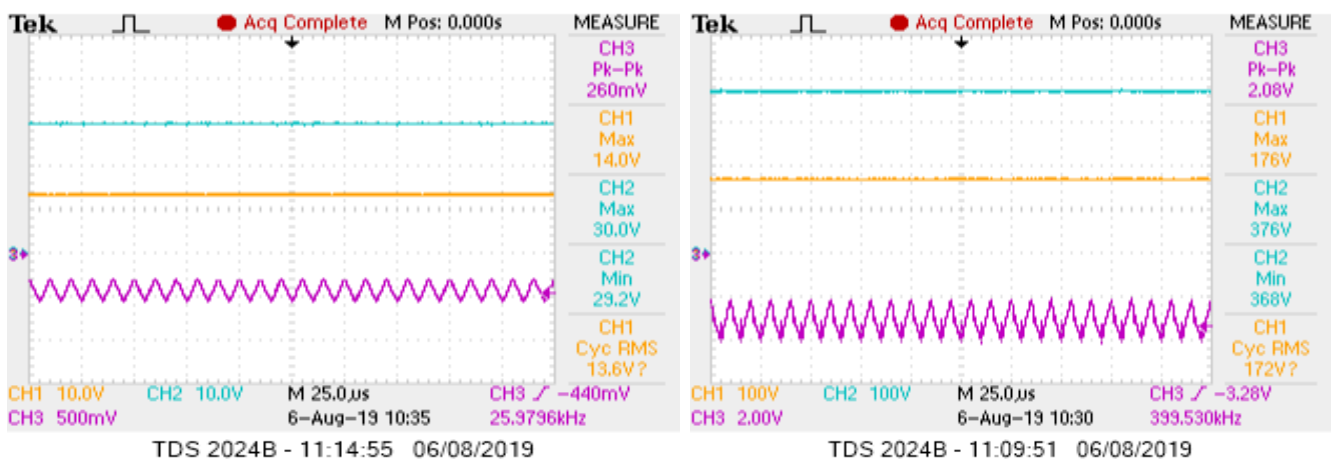


Figure 5. 17 Buck operation (a)30V to 14V

(b) step-down from 380V to 180V

CHAPTER 6

6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

6.1 Conclusion

In this thesis work the design of 20KW Bidirectional DC-DC converter is presented. The DC-DC converter has a capacity of 20KW and designed using Silicon Carbide MOSFETs. The step by step design procedures, design Considerations and Mathematical calculations have been presented. The three main parts of the DC-DC converter which are the power circuit, driver circuit and Control circuit are designed properly. In addition to this the PCB design and prototype development was also a part of this thesis work.

In this thesis work both software simulation and laboratory experiment results are discussed briefly. LTspice, PSpice and MATLAB Simulink software are used for simulation. The laboratory experiment results are presented in step by step. First the driver circuit is tested by generating square wave from function generators. Next double pulse test have been performed on the DC-DC converter. Finally the Buck and Boost operation of the DC-DC converter is presented in detail.

Both the laboratory and simulation result shows that the designed Bidirectional DC- DC converter performed as expected. The double pulse test results are fine. The DC-DC converter boosts the voltage from 380V to 680V during Boost operation and it step down the 376V to 176V during Buck operation. Moreover the designed DC-DC converter is much smaller in size compared to the conventional 25KW SUNZET DC Power supply.

6.2 Future Work

This thesis work is a part of “Silicon Carbide Solutions” project which is funded by BASQUE GOVERNMENT and EUROPEAN UNION through the European Regional Development Fund 2014-2020 at Zigor Corporation. In this project, Zigor Corporation would like to become familiarize with SiC materials and manufacture power converters using this advanced power electronics devices. The main goal of the project is to manufacture solar inverters using SiC technology with less size and better efficiency. This thesis work is the beginning of the project since DC-DC converters are required to integrate PV panels with

solar inverters. Zigor Corporation also wants to test and manufacture power converters with high switching frequency and low cost. Therefore the future works will include

- Improving the switching frequency to 100KHz
- Minimizing Cost of the project
- Development of solar inverters using Silicon carbide technologies

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