

A Battery Charging Method With Natural Synchronous Rectification Features for Full-Bridge *CLLC* Converters

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Abstract—The *CLLC* converter is a promising topology for bidirectional power conversation applications, such as vehicle-to-grid (V2G) systems and battery energy storage (BES) systems. Battery charging is one of the most important functions of the *CLLC* converter in V2G and BES applications. Synchronous rectification (SR) is of vital importance in these applications because it can increase efficiency. In this article, a battery charging method with natural SR features is proposed for the full-bridge *CLLC* converter. The proposed method consists of a parameter matching design procedure and SR control. A novel SR principle is adopted in this article. Different from the current SR methods, the parameter design process is taken into consideration for the SR realization. After the parameter matching design procedure, the required ON-state time of the secondary side switches for the SR is nearly fixed during the whole charging process. As a result, the SR drive signal can be generated directly according to the switching frequency. No sensor detection or software estimation is needed, allowing natural SR to be realized. A lab-level prototype was built to verify the proposed method. The experimental results show an obvious efficiency improvement (up to 2.11%) over the uncontrolled rectification, and the SR of the proposed method is nearly the same as complete SR (with maximum efficiency difference of 0.31%) during the whole battery charging process.

Index Terms—Battery charging, *CLLC* converter, parameter matching design, synchronous rectification (SR).

I. INTRODUCTION

THE *CLLC* converter is a high-frequency and high-efficiency isolated bidirectional dc/dc converter, which has drawn attention from academia and industry in recent years. The *CLLC* converter has excellent soft-switching characteristics

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[1], [2]. As a result, it is regarded as a promising topology for bidirectional power transmission.

The application fields of the *CLLC* converter include uninterrupted power supply systems, dc distribution systems, vehicle-to-grid (V2G) systems, battery energy storage (BES) systems, more electric aircraft, and reversible solid oxide fuel cell systems [1]–[7]. One of the research questions of the *CLLC* converter in V2G and BES systems is topology improvement. Three-level *CLLC* topology and the three-phase *CLLC* topology are proposed for off-board bidirectional electric vehicle (EV) chargers in [8] and [9]. Several two-stage *CLLC* topologies are proposed for BES systems in [10]–[12]. In order to achieve higher frequency, higher efficiency, and higher power density, advanced wide band gap devices and magnetic technologies are introduced to the *CLLC* converter [9], [13]–[19]. Several works about gallium nitride (GaN) and silicon carbide (SiC) based *CLLC* converters for V2G and BES systems are reported in [13]–[17]. The power rate and switching frequency for such converters reach up to 22 kW and 1 MHz, respectively. In [9], [18], and [19], planar transformer designs and magnetic integration methods are proposed for the *CLLC* converter to improve the power density.

Another hot research topic relating to *CLLC* converters is synchronous rectification (SR). SR can significantly increase efficiency by reducing conduction loss on the secondary side body diodes, which is very important for V2G and BES applications.

The existing research on SR for the *CLLC* converter can be summarized into sensor detection-based methods [1], [20]–[24] and software estimation-based methods [25]–[28]. A common disadvantage of the sensor detection-based method is that an extra cost must be paid for sensors and corresponding analog circuits. In [20], an SR method using the third winding voltage and the drain–source voltage is proposed, but this method has complex implementation. To reduce the system complexity, two improved SR methods are proposed [21], [22]. The method in [21] only needs to sense the drain–source voltage of one switch, and the method in [22] measures the inductor voltage instead of the drain–source voltage. The methods in [20]–[22] are voltage-based methods. The application of voltage-based methods is limited by the withstand voltage (less than 200 sV) of sensor chips. In addition, both the drain-source voltage and inductor voltage will oscillate after the secondary side current reaches zero, which may cause incorrect SR drive signals. To

overcome the limitations of voltage-based methods, researchers proposed several current-based methods [1], [23], [24]. The key of the current-based method is the detection of the zero current crossing point. The detection is realized by using a current transformer in [1] and a shunt resistor in [23] and [24]. However, due to the bandwidth limitation of the sensor and the performance limitation of the digital controller, the phase delay of detection is unavoidable. The higher the switching frequency is, the larger the phase delay will be. As a result, current-based SR methods are not suitable for high-frequency applications.

The largest advantage of software-estimation SR over sensor-detection SR is that the SR drive signal is generated by software calculation using the current and voltage information at the input and the output side. As a result, no extra sensors are needed, which means no extra costs need to be paid. In [25], a phase tracking method is proposed to estimate the phase difference between the primary and the secondary side current in the half-bridge *CLLC* converter. The phase difference can be calculated by an analytic formula so that the method is easy to implement. However, the method is based on the first harmonic approximation (FHA) model, so the estimation is inaccurate as the switching frequency changes. In addition, this method only applies to the half-bridge *CLLC* converter. For higher power-rate applications (e.g., V2G systems and BES systems), a full-bridge *CLLC* is necessary. In [26], an improved version of the phase tracking method based on the extended harmonic model (EHA) is proposed. The estimation accuracy is improved, but the calculation process is much more complex and relies on a look-up table. This method also cannot be adopted for the full-bridge topology. In [27], a simplified ON-state time estimation method for the secondary side switch is proposed. The calculation is simple and the method works for the full-bridge *CLLC* converter. However, as the method is based on the FHA model, its accuracy relies on tuning the ON-state time offset value, making the method inconvenient to implement. In order to solve accuracy problems, a digital sensorless SR method is proposed in [28]. The method is based on the time domain model [29] of the full-bridge *CLLC* converter, so estimation accuracy is guaranteed. However, the time-domain model of the *CLLC* converter does not have an analytic solution, so the calculation relies on numerical iteration, which is time consuming and impractical for real-time calculation. To simplify the calculation, 3-D polynomial fitting is used [28]. However, 3-D polynomial fitting is also very complex, and a large amount of predetermined data need to be calculated and stored in the controller. As a result, implementation of this method is also complex and inconvenient.

In this article, a battery charging method with natural SR features is proposed for the full-bridge *CLLC* converter. Our method focuses on the realization of SR in the battery charging process, which is one of the most important functions of the *CLLC* converter in V2G and BES applications.

The proposed battery charging method consists of a parameter matching design procedure and SR control. Different from the current SR principle, which generates the SR drive signal by sensor-detection or software-estimation, a novel SR principle is used in the proposed method. The parameter design process is taken into consideration in the SR realization.

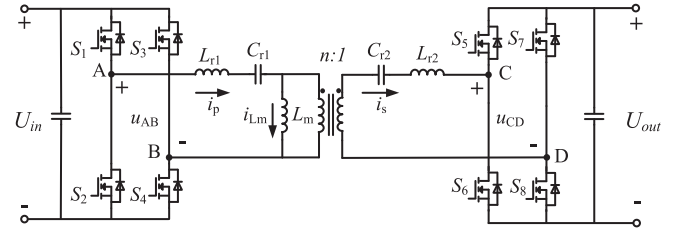


Fig. 1. Topology of the full-bridge *CLLC* converter.

The converter is designed to work under the PO Mode [29]. The key of SR in the PO Mode is to generate the SR drive signal according to the length of the P Mode stage. A special working condition where the length of the P Mode stage is fixed at π is derived, and the analytic expression of output $U-I$ characteristics is obtained under this condition. A parameter matching design procedure based on the analytic $U-I$ characteristics is proposed for resonant tank design. The actual working condition of the *CLLC* converter based on the parameter matching is very close to the derived special working condition during the whole battery charging process. As a result, the actual length of the P Mode can be seen as fixed at π . Then, a simple SR control is proposed, and the SR drive signal is generated directly according to the switching frequency. No sensor-detection or software-estimation is needed. Because of this, the proposed battery charging method has natural SR features. The SR effect of the proposed method is also analyzed in detail and is verified by experimental results.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. In Section II, the SR problem of the full-bridge *CLLC* converter is introduced in detail, including the controlled variable D_s (the duty cycle of the secondary side drive signal), as well as the time domain estimation method of D_s and its difficulty in practical implementation. In Section III, the core ideal of the proposed battery charging method is explained. Then, the special working condition where the length of the P Mode stage is fixed at π is derived, and the relationship between the length of the P Mode stage and the output current is analyzed. After that, the parameter matching design procedure and the SR control of the proposed battery charging method are discussed and analyzed. In Section IV, experimental results are provided to verify the natural SR of the proposed battery charging method. Finally, Section V concludes this article.

II. SYNCHRONOUS RECTIFICATION IN FULL-BRIDGE *CLLC* CONVERTERS

A. Controlled Variable in the Synchronous Rectification of Full-Bridge *CLLC* Converters

Fig. 1 shows the topology of a full-bridge *CLLC* converter. S_1 to S_4 are the primary side switches, and S_5 to S_8 are the secondary side switches. The primary side, secondary side current, and magnetizing are indicated by i_p , i_s , and i_{Lm} , respectively. The positive directions of voltage and current used in the analysis are also given, and the transformer turns ratio is n .

Suppose the switching frequency f_s of the *CLLC* converter is not larger than its resonant frequency f_r ($f_s \leq f_r$). Under this

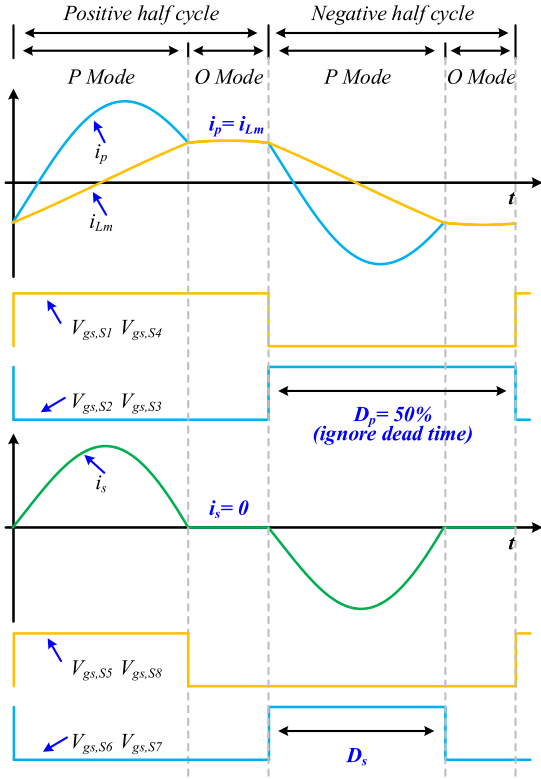


Fig. 2. Waveforms of the CLLC converter in PO Mode.

condition, the CLLC converter works under the PO mode. The PO Mode consists of a P Mode stage and an O Mode stage. The P Mode stage and the O Mode stage are defined as follows:

If the input voltage (i.e., u_{AB} in Fig. 1) and output voltage (i.e., u_{CD} in Fig. 1) of the resonant tank have the same polarity, the converter works in the P Mode stage. If the secondary side current (i.e., i_s in Fig. 1) maintains at zero so that the secondary side part of the resonant tank does not participant the resonance process, the converter works in the O Mode stage. Waveforms of the CLLC converter under the PO Mode are illustrated in Fig. 2.

In Fig. 2, D_p is the duty cycle of the primary side drive signals ($V_{gs,S1}$, $V_{gs,S2}$, $V_{gs,S3}$, and $V_{gs,S4}$), while D_s is the duty cycle of the secondary side drive signals ($V_{gs,S5}$, $V_{gs,S6}$, $V_{gs,S7}$, and $V_{gs,S8}$). The operating process of the PO Mode in the positive half cycle is symmetrical to that in the negative half cycle. Take the positive half cycle for example. In P Mode stage, i_p is larger than i_{Lm} so that i_s is positive. In O Mode stage, i_p equals to i_{Lm} so that i_s is zero.

Since i_p does not have a zero-value stage, D_p is fixed at 50%. In this analysis, the dead time is quite small compared with the switching period; hence, the impacts of the dead time are ignored for simplicity. In practical implementation, the dead time is necessary for soft switching and safety. The actual value of D_s is slightly less than 50%. From Fig. 2 it can be found that i_s is zero in O Mode stage. On one hand, $V_{gs,S5}$ to $V_{gs,S8}$ must be zero in O Mode stage to ensure the converter operates correctly. On the other hand, in order to realize the SR, i_s should go through the MOSFET channel in P Mode stage. $V_{gs,S5}$ and $V_{gs,S8}$ should

be at a positive level during the P Mode stage in the positive half cycle, while $V_{gs,S6}$ and $V_{gs,S7}$ should be at a positive level during the P Mode stage in the negative half cycle. As a result, D_s is not a fixed value. D_s can be calculated as

$$D_s = \frac{t_{P \text{ Mode}}}{2T_s} \quad (1)$$

where T_s is the switching period and $t_{P \text{ Mode}}$ is the length of the P Mode stage in a switching period.

From the analysis above, it can be known that in the SR of the CLLC converter, the controlled variable is the duty cycle of the secondary side drive signal, D_s .

B. Time-Domain Estimation of D_s and Its Difficulties in Practical Implementation

The value of D_s varies with the working condition of the CLLC converter. The key of performing the SR in the CLLC converter is the fast and accurate estimation of D_s .

The specific value of D_s under a given working condition can be calculated using the time domain operation method [29]. The base value for the voltage, the current, and the impedance are defined in (2). The transformer turns ratio n is set as 1 for simplicity

$$z_{\text{base}} = \sqrt{\frac{L_{r1}}{C_{r1}}} = \sqrt{\frac{L_{r2}}{C_{r2}}}; \quad u_{\text{base}} = U_{\text{in}}; \quad i_{\text{base}} = \frac{u_{\text{base}}}{z_{\text{base}}} \quad (2)$$

Then, the per-unit form time-domain expressions of i_p , i_s , u_{cr1} , and u_{cr2} in P Mode stage and O Mode stage can be expressed as (3) and (4), respectively

$$\begin{cases} i_p(\phi) = P_1 \cos\phi - P_2 \sin\phi + k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1\phi) + P_3 \cos(k_1\phi) \\ i_s(\phi) = P_1 \cos\phi - P_2 \sin\phi - k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1\phi) - P_3 \cos(k_1\phi) \\ u_{cr1}(\phi) = P_1 \sin\phi + P_2 \cos\phi - P_4 \cos(k_1\phi) + \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1\phi) + 1 \\ u_{cr2}(\phi) = P_1 \sin\phi + P_2 \cos\phi + P_4 \cos(k_1\phi) - \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1\phi) - M \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{cases} i_p(\phi) = O_1 \cos(k_2\phi) - O_2 k_2 \sin(k_2\phi) \\ u_{cr1}(\phi) = O_2 \cos(k_2\phi) + \frac{O_1}{k_2} \sin(k_2\phi) + 1 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where $\phi = 2\pi f_r t$, $f_r = 1/(2\pi\sqrt{L_{r1}C_{r1}}) = 1/(2\pi\sqrt{L_{r2}C_{r2}})$, $k = L_m/L_{r1}$, $k_1 = \sqrt{1/(1+2k)}$, $k_2 = \sqrt{1/(1+k)}$, and $M = U_{\text{out}}/U_{\text{in}}$. P_1 , P_2 , P_3 , P_4 , O_1 , O_2 , and M are undetermined variables.

As the primary side current i_p , the secondary side current i_s , the voltage across the primary side resonant capacitor u_{Cr1} , and the voltage across the secondary side resonant capacitor u_{Cr2} are all consecutive, the following boundary conditions should be satisfied:

$$\begin{cases} i_{p,P}(0) + i_{p,O}(\phi_2) = 0 \\ i_{s,P}(0) = 0 \\ u_{cr1,P}(0) + u_{cr1,O}(\phi_2) = 0 \\ u_{cr2,P}(0) + u_{cr2,O}(\phi_1) = 0 \\ i_{p,P}(\phi_1) - i_{p,O}(0) = 0 \\ i_{s,P}(\phi_1) = 0 \\ u_{cr1,P}(\phi_1) - u_{cr1,O}(0) = 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where the subscript P means the corresponding variable used the expression in (3), and the subscript O means the corresponding

variable used the expression in (4). ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are the lengths of the P Mode stage and the O Mode stage, respectively. ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are also undetermined variables.

Combining (3), (4), and (5), equations as shown in (6) can be derived. There are 7 equations (F_1 to F_7) and 9 undetermined variables ($P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, O_1, O_2, M, \phi_1$, and ϕ_2) in (6). There are more undetermined variables than equations, so extra equations are needed. In practice, the switching frequency f_s is a known variable to the controller because f_s is determined by the controller. Moreover, the voltage gain M is also known because the voltage sensor of the converter can get the value of the input voltage U_{in} and the output voltage U_{out} , and M can be calculated

$$\begin{cases} F_1 = P_1 + P_3 + O_1 \cos(k_2\phi_2) - O_2 k_2 \sin(k_2\phi_2) = 0 \\ F_2 = P_1 - P_3 = 0 \\ F_3 = P_2 - P_4 + 1 + O_2 \cos(k_2\phi_2) + \frac{O_1}{k_2} \sin(k_2\phi_2) + 1 = 0 \\ F_4 = P_2 + P_4 - M + P_1 \sin\phi_1 + P_2 \cos\phi_1 \\ + P_4 \cos(k_1\phi_1) - \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1\phi_1) - M = 0 \\ F_5 = P_1 \cos\phi_1 - P_2 \sin\phi_1 + k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1\phi_1) \\ + P_3 \cos(k_1\phi_1) - O_1 = 0 \\ F_6 = P_1 \cos\phi_1 - P_2 \sin\phi_1 - k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1\phi_1) \\ - P_3 \cos(k_1\phi_1) = 0 \\ F_7 = P_1 \sin\phi_1 + P_2 \cos\phi_1 - P_4 \cos(k_1\phi_1) + \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1\phi_1) \\ + 1 - (O_2 + 1) = 0. \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Assuming the value of M is M_0 , the following two equations are derived:

$$\begin{cases} F_8 = \phi_1 + \phi_2 - \frac{f_r}{f_s} \pi = 0, \\ F_9 = M - M_0 = 0. \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Combining (6) and (7), ϕ_1 can be solved accurately. The mode duration $t_{P \text{ Mode}}$ can be calculated as

$$t_{P \text{ mode}} = \frac{\phi_1}{\pi f_r}. \quad (8)$$

Denote $f_n = f_s / f_r$. Combining (1) and (8), the duty cycle of the secondary side PWM D_s can be calculated as

$$D_s = \frac{\phi_1 f_s}{2\pi f_r} = \frac{\phi_1}{2\pi} f_n. \quad (9)$$

However, it is difficult to solve ϕ_1 from F_1 to F_9 because items related to ϕ_1 (i.e., $\sin\phi_1, \cos\phi_1, \sin(k_1\phi_1)$, and $\cos(k_1\phi_1)$) are all in the form of trigonometric functions, which are highly nonlinear items. As a result, it is difficult to obtain an analytic expression for ϕ_1 . The specific value of ϕ_1 can only be obtained from numerical iteration, which is very complex and impractical for real-time calculation in an embedded controller.

In summary, D_s can be estimated accurately using the time domain model F_1 to F_9 , but the time consumption of the calculation is large so that the practical implementation estimation is difficult.

III. PROPOSED BATTERY CHARGING METHOD WITH NATURAL SYNCHRONOUS RECTIFICATION FEATURES

A. Core Idea of the Proposed Method

From the analysis above, it has been shown that the real-time estimation of D_s is hard because of the complex numerical calculation required for solving time domain equations. The

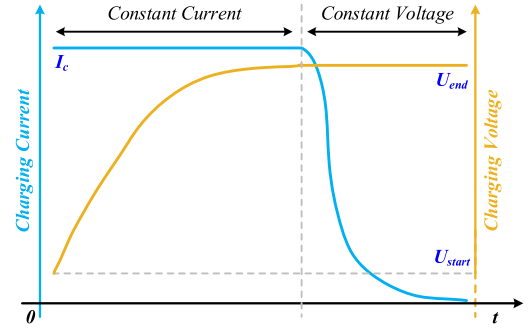


Fig. 3. Typical battery charging curve.

numerical solving process is not likely to be simplified, which raises the following question: Is it possible to get the value of D_s without doing complex numerical calculations?

The numerical solving process is unavoidable because the working condition is not constrained and is unknown for the controller. For a certain value of the output voltage, the output current may be of any value. As a result, the estimation method for D_s must be a general method that applies for any possible working condition.

However, in battery charging applications, the working condition of the converter is constrained. The typical battery charging curve is illustrated in Fig. 3.

As shown in Fig. 3, the charging process consists of a constant current (CC) charging stage and a constant voltage (CV) charging stage. Usually, the battery is charged from its start charging voltage U_{start} . Before the battery voltage reaches the end charging voltage U_{end} , the charging current is constant at I_c , and the converter works under CC mode. After the battery voltage reaches U_{end} , the converter should work under constant voltage mode, maintaining the output voltage at U_{end} . During this stage, the charging current will decrease gradually. When the charging current decreases to zero, the charging process ends.

The working condition during the CC stage is fully constrained. The value of the output current at any value of output voltage is known in advance. The working condition during the CV stage is partly constrained. Although the specific value of output current is unknown, it is less than I_c . Because the working condition in the battery charging application is constrained, it is possible to use a simple special-purpose method to realize SR instead of the complex general-purpose method discussed in Section II.

The core idea of the proposed method is as follows: find special working conditions where the length of the P Mode stage is constant. Match those special working conditions with the working condition of battery charging as much as possible by parameter design. Thus, D_s can be obtained directly from (9) without equation-solving or sensor-detection. As a result, natural SR is realized.

B. Derivation of the Working Conditions Where the Length of the P Mode Stage Is π

From Section II, it can be known that the difficulty of solving ϕ_1 comes from trigonometric items related to ϕ_1 . In order to simplify the equations, the value of ϕ_1 is fixed at π . Then,

trigonometric items related to ϕ_1 are as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \sin \phi_1 = 0 & \cos \phi_1 = 1, \\ \sin(k_1 \phi_1) = \sin(k_1 \pi) & \cos(k_1 \phi_1) = \cos(k_1 \pi). \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

With (10), (6) can be simplified as follows:

$$\begin{cases} F_1 = P_1 + P_3 + O_1 \cos(k_2 \phi_2) - O_2 k_2 \sin(k_2 \phi_2) = 0 \\ F_2 = P_1 - P_3 = 0 \\ F_3 = P_2 - P_4 + 1 + O_2 \cos(k_2 \phi_2) + \frac{O_1}{k_2} \sin(k_2 \phi_2) + 1 = 0 \\ F_4 = P_2 + P_4 - M - P_2 + P_4 \cos(k_1 \phi_1) \\ - \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1 \phi_1) - M = 0 \\ F_5 = -P_1 + k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1 \pi) + P_3 \cos(k_1 \pi) - O_1 = 0 \\ F_6 = -P_1 - k_1 P_4 \sin(k_1 \pi) - P_3 \cos(k_1 \pi) = 0 \\ F_7 = -P_2 - P_4 \cos(k_1 \pi) + \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1 \pi) - O_2 = 0. \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Based on (11), P_1 , P_2 , P_3 , P_4 , O_1 , O_2 , and M can be expressed as trigonometric functions of ϕ_2

$$\begin{cases} P_1 = -\frac{k_1 k_2 \sin(k_1 \pi) \sin(k_2 \phi_2)}{A} \\ P_2 = -1 \\ P_3 = -\frac{k_1 k_2 \sin(k_1 \pi) \sin(k_2 \phi_2)}{A} \\ P_4 = \frac{k_2 \sin(k_2 \phi_2) (\cos(k_1 \pi) + 1)}{A} \\ O_1 = \frac{2k_1 k_2 \sin(k_1 \pi) \sin(k_2 \phi_2)}{A} \\ O_2 = \frac{2k_1 \sin(\pi k_1) (\cos(k_2 \phi_2) - 1)}{A} \\ M = \frac{k_2 \sin(k_2 \phi_2) (\cos(k_1 \pi) + 1)}{A} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where $A = k_2 \sin(k_2 \phi_2) - 2k_1 \sin(k_1 \pi) + 2k_1 \sin(k_1 \pi) \cos(k_2 \phi_2) + k_2 \cos(k_1 \pi) \sin(k_2 \phi_2)$.

Combining (3), (10), and (12), the per-unit value of the output current $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} I_{o,\text{unit}} &= \int_0^{\phi_1} i_s d\phi \\ &= \frac{-2P_4 \sin\left(\frac{k_1 \pi}{2}\right)^2 \pm \frac{P_3}{k_1} \sin(k_1 \pi)}{\phi_1 + \phi_2} \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi + \phi_2} = \frac{2}{\pi} f_n. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

In (12), the expression of M can be rewritten as

$$\frac{\cos(k_2 \phi_2)}{\sin(k_2 \phi_2)} - \frac{1}{\sin(k_2 \phi_2)} = \frac{k_2 [\cos(k_1 \pi) + 1]}{2k_1 \sin(k_1 \pi)} \left(\frac{1}{M} - 1\right). \quad (14)$$

Define

$$B = \frac{k_2 [\cos(k_1 \pi) + 1]}{2k_1 \sin(k_1 \pi)} \left(\frac{1}{M} - 1\right). \quad (15)$$

Then, (14) can be further rewritten as

$$(1 + B^2) \cos^2(k_2 \phi_2) - 2 \cos(k_2 \phi_2) + (1 - B^2) = 0. \quad (16)$$

Equation (16) is a simple quadratic equation so that ϕ_2 can be solved as

$$\phi_2 = \frac{1}{k_2} \arccos\left(\frac{1-B^2}{1+B^2}\right). \quad (17)$$

Combining F_8 with (17), the following can be derived:

$$f_n = \frac{f_s}{f_r} = \frac{k_2 \pi}{k_2 \pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B^2}{1+B^2}\right)}. \quad (18)$$

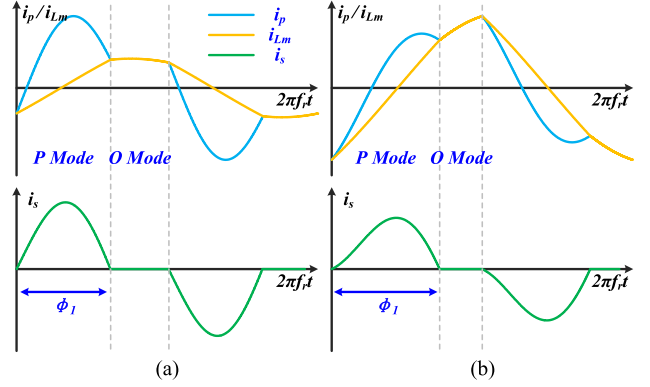


Fig. 4. Steady state waveforms when $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is (a) 0.3 and (b) 0.1.

Combining (13) with (18), $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ can be further expressed as

$$I_{o,\text{unit}} = \frac{2k_2}{k_2 \pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B^2}{1+B^2}\right)}. \quad (19)$$

Since the input voltage U_{in} is constant, the voltage gain M is in proportion to the output voltage U_{out} . As a result, (19) shows the relationship between $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ and U_{out} (the output U-I characteristics) when the length of the P Mode stage is fixed at π . Conversely, if $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ and U_{out} are controlled using the relationship shown in (19), the length of the P Mode stage will be fixed π . These are the special working conditions where the length of the P Mode stage ϕ_1 is constant. The constant value of ϕ_1 is π .

C. Relationship Between the Length of the P Mode Stage and the Output Current

Using the method proposed in Section II, the other undetermined variables (P_1 , P_2 , P_3 , P_4 , O_1 , O_2 , M , and ϕ_1) in F_1 to F_9 can also be solved. As a result, the steady state waveforms of the CLLC converter under a given working condition can be obtained. Fig. 4 shows the steady-state waveforms of two different working conditions. In Fig. 4, the values of k and M are 5 and 1.45, respectively. In Fig. 4(a), the value of $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is 0.3. In Fig. 4(b), $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is 0.1. The voltage gain of the two working conditions is the same.

In Fig. 4, the length of the P Mode stage when $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is 0.1 is longer than that of the working condition when $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is 0.3. The curve of the relationship between $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ and ϕ_1 is plotted, as shown in Fig. 5.

From Figs. 4 and 5, it can be known that if the voltage gain M (i.e., the output voltage U_{out}) is fixed, the smaller $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ is, the larger ϕ_1 will be. In Fig. 5, the slope of the curve is small around the region where ϕ_1 is about π . That means in working conditions that satisfy (19), the increment of ϕ_1 is relatively small if $I_{o,\text{unit}}$ decreases.

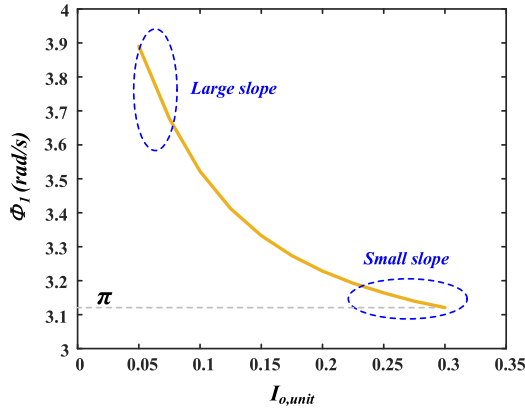


Fig. 5. Curve of the relationship between $I_{o,unit}$ and ϕ_1 .

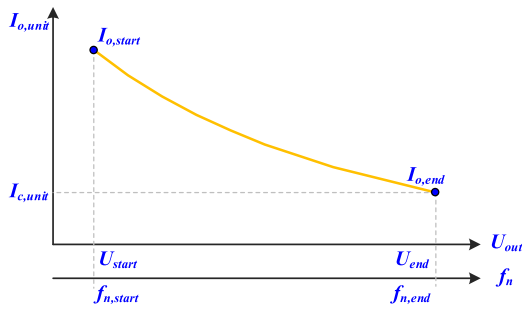


Fig. 6. Output U - I curve when ϕ_1 is fixed at π .

D. Parameter Matching Design Procedure of the Proposed Battery Charging Method

In (19), if U_{out} increases, M will increase, so B will decrease. Finally, $I_{o,unit}$ will decrease. As a result, the output U - I characteristics expressed by (19) is a drop curve as shown in Fig. 6.

In Fig. 6, $f_{n,start}$ and $f_{n,end}$ are the values of f_n when U_{out} is U_{start} and U_{end} , respectively. $I_{o,start}$ and $I_{o,end}$ are the values of $I_{o,unit}$ when U_{out} is U_{start} and U_{end} , respectively. According to Fig. 3, the charging current between U_{start} and U_{end} is a constant value. In order to match the output U - I characteristics with the working conditions of the battery charging process, the following condition should be satisfied:

$$I_{o,end} \geq I_{c,unit} \quad I_{c,unit} = \frac{I_c}{i_{base}} \quad (20)$$

$I_{c,unit}$ is the per-unit value of I_c . In order to realize the abovementioned matching of the working condition, a parameter matching design procedure for the resonant tank is proposed.

The flowchart of the proposed parameter matching design procedure is illustrated in Fig. 7.

The proposed parameter matching design procedure needs the following design indices in advance: U_{start} , U_{end} , I_c , U_{in} , $f_{n,start}$, $f_{n,end}$, and f_r .

U_{start} , U_{end} , and I_c are related to the characteristics of the battery, which can be obtained from the datasheet. U_{in} is related to the specific application, while $f_{n,start}$, $f_{n,end}$, and f_r are tradeoff parameters. Large f_r can help increase the power density, but

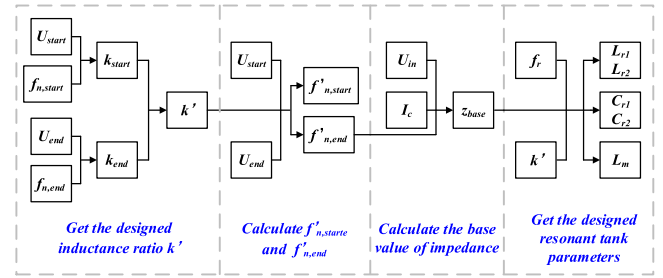


Fig. 7. Flowchart of the proposed parameter matching design procedure.

the switching loss may increase. Choosing smaller $f_{n,start}$ and $f_{n,end}$ will result in a narrower range of the switching frequency, but inductance ratio k will be smaller. As a result, the conduction loss may increase.

The proposed parameter matching design procedure is as follows.

- 1) Get the designed inductance ratio k' . Inductance ratio k influences the slope of the voltage gain curve (M v.s. f_n). The larger k is, the larger the slope of the voltage gain curve will be [2]. Under the condition that constraints of $f_{n,start}$ and $f_{n,end}$ are satisfied, k should be as big as possible to decrease the conduction loss.
 - a) Calculate k_{start} , which is the maximum value of k that makes U_{out} equal to U_{start} when f_n is no less than $f_{n,start}$. The value of k_{start} can be calculated by solving the following problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max k \\ & \text{s.t. } f_{n,start} \geq \frac{k_2\pi}{k_2\pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B(U_{start})^2}{1+B(U_{start})^2}\right)} \quad (21) \end{aligned}$$

where $B(U_{start})$ is the value of B when U_{out} equals U_{start} .

- b) Calculate k_{end} , which is the maximum value of k that makes U_{out} equal to U_{end} when f_n is no less than $f_{n,end}$. The value of k_{end} can be calculated by solving the following problem:

$$\begin{aligned} & \max k \\ & \text{s.t. } f_{n,end} \geq \frac{k_2\pi}{k_2\pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B(U_{end})^2}{1+B(U_{end})^2}\right)} \quad (22) \end{aligned}$$

where $B(U_{end})$ is the value of B when U_{out} equals to U_{start} .

- c) Calculate k' , where

$$k' = \min(k_{start}, k_{end}). \quad (23)$$

- 2) Calculate $f'_{n,start}$ and $f'_{n,end}$, which are the actual values of f_n under inductance ratio k' when U_{out} is U_{start} and U_{end} , respectively. Values of $f'_{n,start}$ and $f'_{n,end}$ are as

follows:

$$\begin{cases} f'_{n,start} = \frac{k'_2 \pi}{k'_2 \pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B(U_{start})^2}{1+B(U_{start})^2}\right)} \\ f'_{n,end} = \frac{k'_2 \pi}{k'_2 \pi + \arccos\left(\frac{1-B(U_{end})^2}{1+B(U_{end})^2}\right)} \\ k'_2 = \sqrt{1/1 + k'^2} \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

Since k' is the smaller of k'_{start} and k'_{end} , $f'_{n,start}$ and $f'_{n,end}$ satisfy the following conditions:

$$f'_{n,start} \geq f_{n,start}, \quad f'_{n,end} \geq f_{n,end}. \quad (25)$$

3) Calculate the base value of the impedance, z_{base} .

Combining (18) with (19), the relationship of $I_{o,unit}$ and f_n is obtained as

$$I_{o,unit} = \frac{2}{\pi} f_n. \quad (26)$$

The value of $I_{o,end}$ is set at $I_{c,unit}$ for the best matching, so that $I_{c,unit}$ can be expressed as

$$I_{c,unit} = I_{o,end} = \frac{2}{\pi} f'_{n,end}. \quad (27)$$

Then, the base value of current i_{base} can be calculated as

$$i_{base} = \frac{I_c}{I_{c,unit}} = \frac{\pi}{2f'_{n,end}} I_c. \quad (28)$$

Finally, z_{base} can be calculated as

$$z_{base} = \frac{U_{in}}{i_{base}} = \frac{2f'_{n,end} U_{in}}{\pi I_c}. \quad (29)$$

4) Calculate the designed resonant tank parameters. Based on (2) and (4), the following equation group is derived:

$$\begin{cases} z_{base} = \sqrt{\frac{L_{r1}}{C_{r1}}}, \quad f_r = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sqrt{L_{r1}C_{r1}})}, \quad k' = \frac{L_m}{L_{r1}} \end{cases} \quad (30)$$

Primary side resonant tank parameters can be calculated by solving (30)

$$\begin{cases} C_{r1} = \frac{I_c}{4f'_{n,end} f_r U_{in}} \\ L_{r1} = \frac{f'_{n,end} U_{in}}{\pi^2 f_r I_c} \\ L_m = \frac{k' f'_{n,end} U_{in}}{\pi^2 f_r I_c} \end{cases} \quad (31)$$

Secondary side resonant tank parameters can be calculated as

$$C_{r2} = n^2 C_{r1} \quad \text{and} \quad L_{r2} = \frac{L_{r1}}{n^2} \quad (32)$$

where n is the transformer turns ratio.

A design case is also provided to demonstrate the proposed parameter matching design method. In the design case, a battery pack containing 30 LiPo cells connected in series is considered. The capacity of the battery pack is 3 Ah. Then, the start charging voltage U_{start} is 210 V, the end charging voltage U_{end} is 294 V, and the constant charging current I_c is 3 A. The input voltage U_{in} is set at 200 V. The transformer turns ratio is set at 1. Details of the design indices and the designed resonant tank parameters are listed in Table I.

TABLE I
DESIGN CASE OF THE PROPOSED PARAMETER MATCHING DESIGN METHOD

The design indices			
U_{start}	210V	U_{end}	294V
I_c	3A	f_r	70kHz
$f_{n,start}$	0.9	$f_{n,end}$	0.7
U_{in}	200V		
The design results			
L_{r1}/L_{r2}	67.82uH	C_{r1}/C_{r2}	76.22nF
L_m	223.8uH	k'	3.3
$f'_{n,start}$	0.94	$f'_{n,end}$	0.70

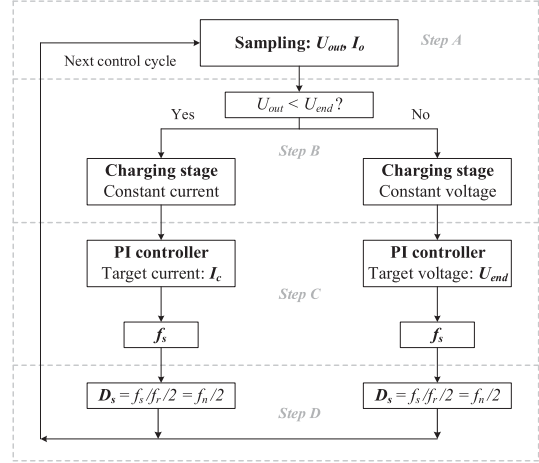


Fig. 8. Step-by-step flowchart of the natural SR control in proposed battery charging method.

E. Synchronous Rectification Control of the Proposed Battery Charging Method

The step-by-step flowchart of the natural SR control in proposed battery charging method is illustrated in Fig. 8. The implementation of the natural SR control consists four steps in a control cycle.

Step A: Sampling. The latest values of U_{out} and I_o are sampled from sampling circuit.

Step B: Judging the charging stage. If U_{out} is less than U_{end} , set the charging stage as CC charging stage. Otherwise, set the charging stage as CV charging stage.

Step C: Close loop regulation. If the converter works under CC charging stage, I_o is regulated by a proportional–integral (PI) controller. The target value for I_o is I_c . If the converter works under CV charging stage, U_{out} is regulated by a PI controller. The target value for U_{out} is U_{end} . Switching frequency, f_s , is updated by the PI controller.

Step D: Calculating and setting D_s . From (9), D_s can be calculated as

$$D_s = \frac{f_s}{2f_r} = \frac{f_n}{2}. \quad (33)$$

From (33), it can be known that D_s is only related to the per-unit value of the switching frequency. As a result, the calculation of D_s is very easy, and the time consumption of the calculation can be ignored. From the analysis in Section III-D, it can be

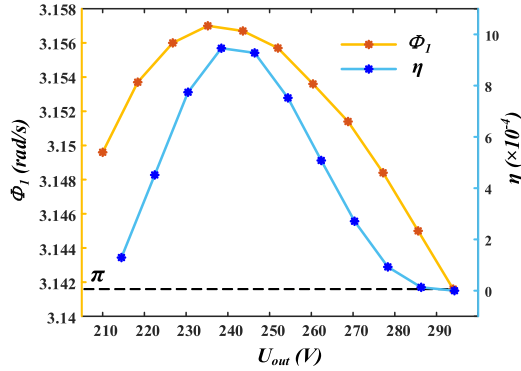


Fig. 9. Curves of ϕ_1 and η during the CC charging stage.

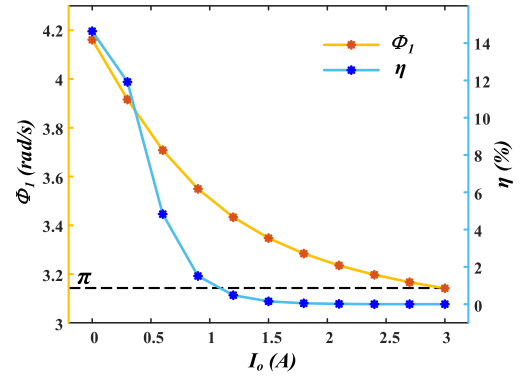


Fig. 10. Curves of ϕ_1 and η during the CV charging stage.

known that for the matching-designed resonant tank, the actual working conditions of the battery charging process are close to but not the same as the special working conditions expressed by (19).

In the CC charging stage, I_o is less than the output current calculated by (19) according to Fig. 6. The closer U_{out} is to U_{end} , the smaller the difference will be. In the CV stage, I_o is less than $I_{o,end} \times i_{base}$, and the difference will become larger as the charging process goes on because I_o will finally decrease to zero, according to Fig. 3.

Since I_o in the actual charging process is less than the required output current in (19), the actual length of the P Mode stage will be longer than π , according to Section III-C. As a result, a part of the secondary side current will go through the body diodes. However, the SR errors of the proposed method are very small. The SR effect of the proposed method is almost the same as complete SR. The detailed evaluation of the SR effect of the proposed method is provided as follows.

Taking the design case in Table I as an example, the evaluation can be performed in two aspects. The first is to analyze the difference between the actual value of ϕ_1 and π . The other is to calculate the ratio of $i_{s,RMS,diode}$ to $i_{s,RMS}$, where $i_{s,RMS,diode}$ is the rms value of the secondary current that goes through the diodes, and $i_{s,RMS}$ is the rms value of the secondary current. Define this ratio as η ; η can show the amount of the current that is not synchronous rectified directly and is calculated as follows:

$$\eta = \frac{i_{s,RMS,diode}}{i_{s,RMS}}. \quad (34)$$

Using the method proposed in Section II, the actual value of ϕ_1 and the value of η during the CC charging stage and the CV charging stage can be calculated. The results are illustrated in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10, respectively.

According to the article presented in [30], usually more than 95% of the charging energy is transmitted in the CC stage. As a result, the effect of SR during the CC stage is of vital importance. In Fig. 9, the maximum value of ϕ_1 is less than 3.158 (i.e., the maximum error of D_s is less than 0.52%). The estimation error for D_s in the method is very small.

In addition, as shown in Fig. 2, the waveform of i_s during the P Mode stage is like a sine wave. The value of i_s near the end of the P Mode stage is very small (near zero), so the value of

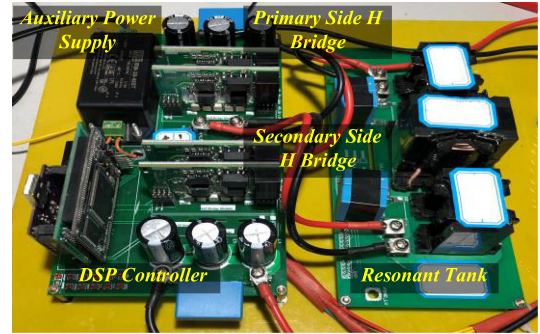


Fig. 11. Figure of the lab-level prototype.

$i_{s,RMS,diode}$ and η will be even smaller. In Fig. 9, the maximum value of η is less than 10×10^{-4} . Thus, $i_{s,RMS,diode}$ is negligible compared to $i_{s,RMS}$. As a result, in the CC charging stage, the SR effect of the proposed battery charging method is nearly the same as complete SR.

In the CV charging stage, the actual value of ϕ_1 becomes larger than π as I_o decreases, according to Fig. 10. However, the SR effect of the proposed method is not influenced much. Since only about 5% of the charging energy is transmitted in the CV charging stage, the decrease of the SR effect in the CV stage does not have significant influence on the whole charging process.

Furthermore, even in the CV stage, η is less than 2% when I_o is between 1 and 3 A, according to Fig. 10. For this range, $i_{s,RMS,diode}$ is also negligible compared to $i_{s,RMS}$. When I_o is less than 1 sA, η increases rapidly. But even for the working condition that I_o is about zero, η is also less than 15%, which means most of the secondary current (more than 85%) is going through the MOSFET channel instead of the body diode. Besides, when I_o is small, the share of the loss caused by $i_{s,RMS,diode}$ in the total loss will decrease, so the increase of η does not have significant influence on efficiency.

F. Summary and Comparison

The proposed battery charging method with natural SR features consists of a parameter matching design procedure and simple SR control.

TABLE II
SYNCHRONOUS RECTIFICATION PERFORMANCE COMPARISON

	Voltage-based SR method [20-22]	Current-based SR method [1, 23, 24]	Estimation method based on FHA model [25, 27]	Estimation method based on EHA and time domain model [26, 28]	The proposed method
Type	General purpose	General purpose	General purpose	General purpose	Special purpose
Cost	High	High	Low	Low	Low
Extra sensor	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
High-voltage application	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
High-frequency application	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Influence by oscillation	Large	Small	Small	Small	Small
Calculation complexity	Low	Low	Low	High	Low
System complexity	High	High	Low	Low	Low
Accuracy	High	High	Low	High	High
Implementation	Simple	Simple	Simple	Complex	Simple

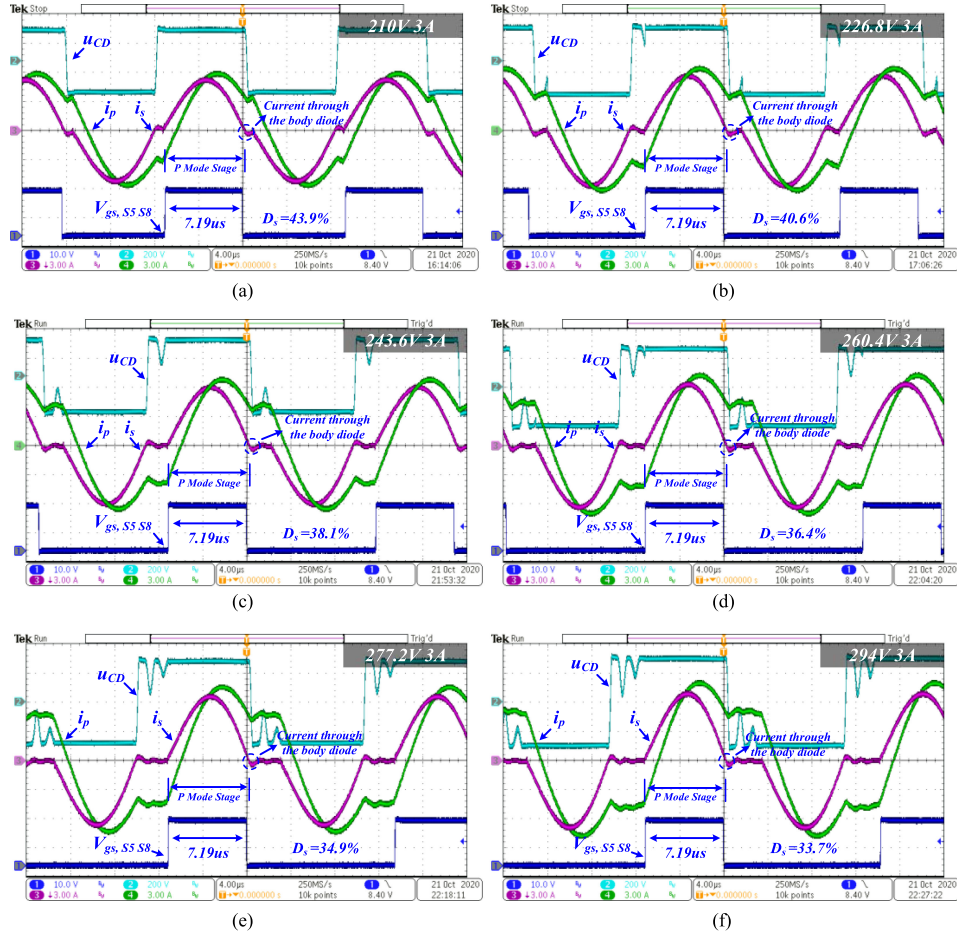


Fig. 12. Waveforms during the CC charging stage. U_{out} is (a) 210, (b) 226.8, (c) 243.6, (d) 260.4, (e) 277.2, and (f) 294 V.

With the proposed parameter matching design procedure, the working condition of the converter during the battery charging process is very similar to the working condition that ϕ_1 is constant at π . As a result, SR can be realized by (33) easily without sensor detection or the software estimation. Natural SR is realized.

Performances of SR of the proposed battery charging method and of existing SR methods are compared in Table II.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL VERIFICATION

A lab-level prototype is built to verify the proposed battery charging method, shown in Fig. 11. The parameters of the prototype are shown in Table III.

The prototype is built according to the design results in Table I. The actual resonant frequency is 69.5 kHz, so the time length of the P Mode stage when ϕ_1 is π is 7.19 μ s. In the experimental verification, the working condition of the charging process is the same as the working condition defined in Table I. Experimental

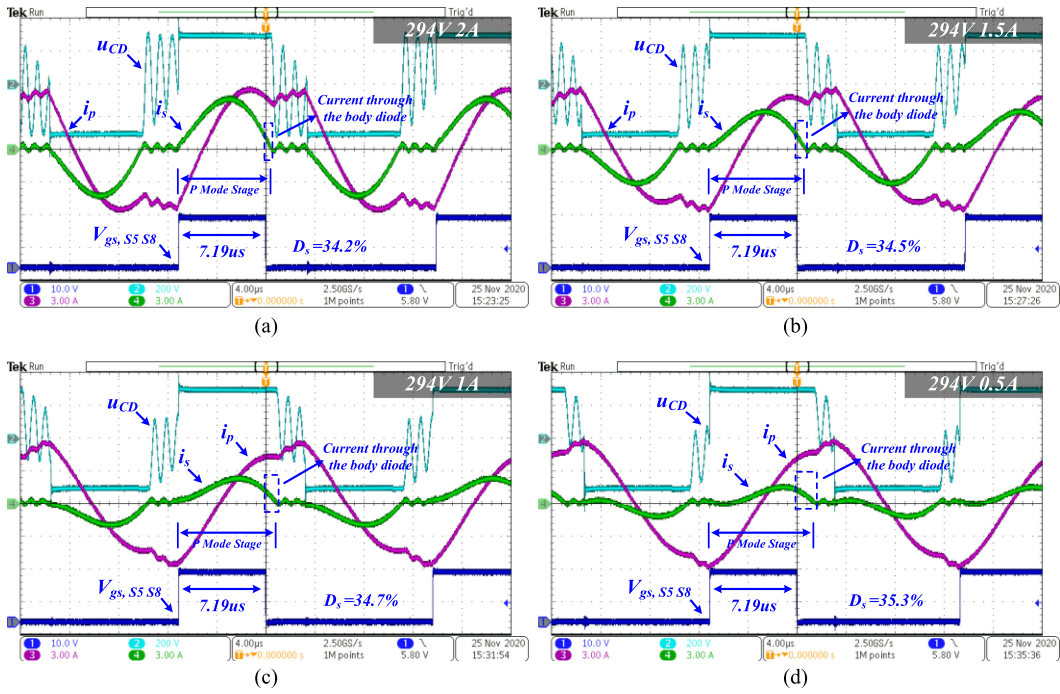


Fig. 13. Waveforms during the CV charging stage. I_o is (a) 2, (b) 1.5, (c) 1, and (d) 0.5 A.

TABLE III
PARAMETERS OF THE LAB-LEVEL PROTOTYPE

General parameters			
DSP controller	TMS320F28335	MOSFET	C3M0120090J
Resonant tank			
Turns ratio	1	L_m	224 μ H
L_{r1}/L_{r2}	68 μ H	C_{r1}/C_{r2}	77 nF
Resonant frequency		69.5 kHz	
Time length of the P Mode stage when ϕ_1 is π		7.19 μ s	

waveforms of the converter under different working conditions during the CC and the CV charging stage are illustrated in Figs. 12 and 13.

In Fig. 12(a)–(f), the output current I_o is constant at 3 A and the output voltage U_{out} is 210, 226.8, 243.6, 260.4, 277.2, and 294 V. In Fig. 13(a)–(d), U_{out} is constant at 294 V and I_o is 2, 1.5, 1, and 0.5 A. From Fig. 12, it can be known that as U_{out} increases from 210 to 294 V, the switching frequency f_s decreases (i.e., the period of gate drive signals $V_{gs, S5}$ and $V_{gs, S8}$ increases), and from Figs. 12(f) and 13, it can be known that as I_o decreases from 3 to 0.5 A, f_s increases. At the same time, the positive pulse width of $V_{gs, S5}$ and $V_{gs, S8}$ is fixed at 7.19 μ s, which is the time length of the P Mode stage when ϕ_1 is π in the designed prototype. D_s changes from 43.9% to 33.7% when output voltage increases from 210 to 294 V in CC charging stage, and D_s changes from 35.3% to 33.7% when output current increases from 0.5 to 3 A in CV charging stage. As a result, D_s decreases as f_s decreases and vice versa, which is consistent with (33). From the analysis above, it is confirmed that the proposed SR control was operating correctly during the CC charging stage and the CV charging stage.

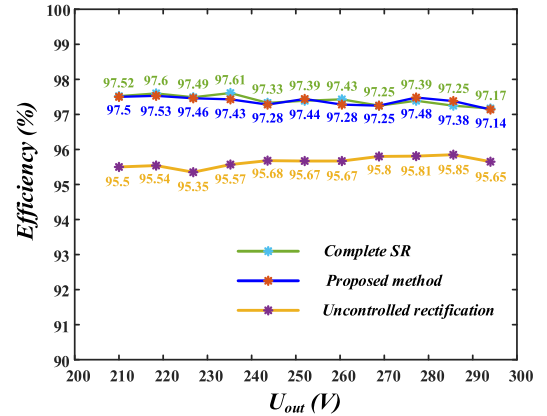


Fig. 14. Comparison of SR effect in the CC charging stage.

In Fig. 12, the actual time length of the P Mode stage was very close to 7.19 μ s, and the current through the body diode (marked by the blue dotted cycle) was very small compared to the synchronous rectified part of i_s . The experimental results are consistent with the analysis in Section III-E.

The comparison of SR effect in the CC charging stage is illustrated in Fig. 14. In Fig. 14, the output current I_o was 3 A while the output voltage U_{out} varied from 210 to 294 V. The complete SR was realized by manually changing D_s to make all of i_s go through the MOSFET channel. Uncontrolled rectification means D_s is zero so that all of i_s goes through the body diode.

In Fig. 14, there is a significant efficiency increase (1.45%–2.11%) between the proposed method and uncontrolled rectification. The efficiencies of the proposed method and of complete SR are nearly the same (maximum efficiency difference is 0.18%)

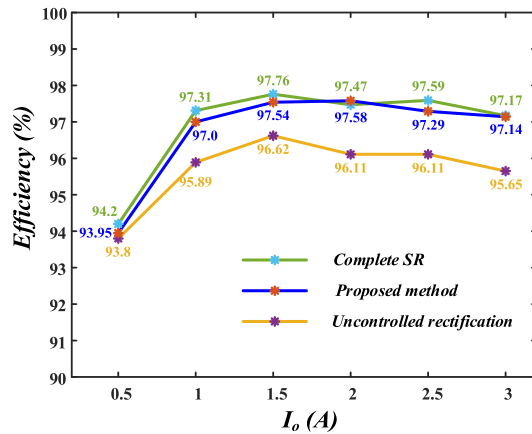


Fig. 15. Comparison of SR effect in the CV charging stage.

during the entire CC charging stage. The experimental results verify that the proposed method can achieve SR as well as complete SR.

In Fig. 13, the actual time length of the P Mode stage increases as I_o decreases. Since the positive pulse width of $V_{gs, S5}$ and $V_{gs, S8}$ is fixed at $7.19 \mu s$, the share of the current through the body diode (marked by the blue dotted square) increases gradually. The results are consistent with the analysis proposed in Sections III-C and E.

A comparison of SR effect in the CC charging stage is illustrated in Fig. 15. In Fig. 15, the output voltage U_{out} is 294 V while the output current I_o varies from 0.5 to 3 A. In Fig. 15, there is also a significant efficiency increase (0.92%–1.49%) between the proposed method and uncontrolled rectification when $I_o \geq 1$ A. The SR effect of the proposed method is also apparent in the CV charging stage.

When I_o is 0.5 A, efficiency of the three methods is similar and decreases significantly compared to efficiency when $I_o \geq 1$ A. This shows that SR is not the major limiting factor of efficiency in light load conditions. As a result, the relatively large D_s estimation error in light load conditions does not have a significant negative influence on efficiency, which is consistent with the analysis in Section III-E.

Furthermore, the efficiency of the proposed method and complete SR is also very close (maximum efficiency difference is 0.31%). The experimental results verify that the proposed method has a SR effect comparable to complete SR during the entire CV charging stage.

V. CONCLUSION

In this article, a novel battery charging method with natural SR features is proposed for the full-bridge *CLLC* converter. The proposed method consists of a parameter matching design procedure and SR control. After the parameter matching design procedure, SR can be realized naturally without sensor detection or software estimation. The effectiveness of the proposed method is verified by experimental results. The contribution of this article can be summarized as follows.

- 1) A novel SR principle is proposed and implemented. The parameter design process is taken into consideration for SR realization.
- 2) The proposed battery charging method provides a complete and integrated solution for the *CLLC* converter in battery charging-related applications. Traditionally, the parameter design and SR are two independent processes in the *CLLC* converter design. In the proposed method, the two processes are integrated. Once the parameter design is finished using the proposed parameter matching design procedure, the SR is realized naturally. As a result, a considerable amount of time and effort spent on the parameter design and the SR tuning process can be saved.

APPENDIX

Variable	Physical meaning
f_r	Resonant frequency.
f_s	Switching frequency.
D_p	Duty cycle of primary side switches.
D_s	Duty cycle of secondary side switches.
k	Inductance ratio.
k_1	Scale factor of the lower eigen frequency in P mode to f_r .
k_2	Scale factor of the eigen frequency in O mode to f_r .
P_1 to P_4	Undetermined coefficients of time-domain expressions in P mode.
O_1 and O_2	Undetermined coefficients of time-domain expressions in O mode.
ϕ_1	Length of P mode stage.
ϕ_2	Length of O mode stage.
M	Voltage gain.
I_c	Constant charging current.
U_{start}	Start charging voltage.
U_{end}	End charging voltage.

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