

# A Reduced Switch Count, Self-Balanced, 13-Level Inverter Based on a Dual T-Type Configuration

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**Abstract**—A new dual T-type 13-level inverter topology is presented in this article, featuring less power switches, gate drivers, and diodes, than inverters based on traditional multilevel topologies, such as neutral point clamped, flying capacitor, T-type and cascaded H-bridge, or previously proposed reduced switch count 13-level inverter topologies. Moreover, no additional circuits are required to equalize the voltage of capacitors present in each pole, nor complex modulation strategies, leading to a reduction of cost and power losses. Exploiting a nearest level modulation technique, the proposed topology performs well in terms of efficiency and total harmonic distortion, as confirmed by experimental tests.

**Index Terms**—High efficiency, multilevel inverter (MLI), nearest level modulation (NLM), total harmonic distortion.

## I. INTRODUCTION

MULTILEVEL inverters (MLIs) are today an attractive alternative to conventional two-level inverters (TLIs) in medium voltage electrical power transmission and high-speed drives. MLI topologies in general feature a reduced distortion of output ac voltages and currents than TLI operating at the same switching frequency, as well as lower voltage gradients, lower switching stresses and lower switching power losses [1], [2], [3], [4], [5]. Furthermore, MLI are effective in reducing transient overvoltage at the terminals of motor windings, harmonic losses in the cables, common mode disturbance currents [6], [7] and power losses on grid side sine-filters [8]. On the other hand, MLI require a higher amount of power switches than conventional TLI, although with lower voltage ratings. This is a key disadvantage of MLI topologies because the higher the amount of power switches, the higher the cost and circuital complexity. Progress in semiconductor technology led to availability of low-cost

high-power switches, making possible the realization of very efficient MLI based on traditional topologies, such as neutral point clamped (NPC), T-type, flying capacitor (FC), cascaded H-bridge (CHB), modular multilevel inverter, [9], [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [16], [17], or their derivatives. On any kind of MLI the smaller the amount of output voltage levels, the higher the output voltage and current total harmonic distortions (THD) indexes achieved for a given switching frequency. Therefore, on simpler and cheaper MLI, operating at low switching frequency and with a small number of output voltage levels, quite high THD occurs, leading to additional power losses and torque oscillations in case of electric motor drives. Several possible solutions have been proposed to improve the output current THD<sub>i</sub> on MLI [18], [19], [20]. Among them, line reactors and tuned harmonic filters are simple passive measures, which gained popularity because of the low cost, even if they are poorly flexible and could generate resonance issues. Active techniques based on the injection of suitable current harmonics by auxiliary converters are more expensive but provide an effective harmonic attenuation, as well as some additional functions as power factor correction. MLI can also take benefit from high switching frequency pulsewidth modulation (PWM) strategies [21], [22], [23], although at the cost of increased switching losses. MLI using open-end winding configurations have been recently also developed, where the ac machine is fed by two separate power converters sharing the load, in order to improve the harmonic content of phase voltages and currents. Such an approach produces a lower stator current distortion than a conventional MLI topologies switching at the fundamental frequency, while requiring less power switches than PWM multilevel inverters featuring the same THD [24], [25], [26].

A distinct disadvantage of MLI over TLI is that the more output voltage levels, the more power switches are required. Hence, a large effort has been exerted in last years to develop special topologies with a reduced power switch count [10], [11], [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], [37]. Among them, 13-levels topologies have been developed to reduce the 24 power switches per pole required on conventional 13-levels NPC, T-Type and FC inverters. A 13-level inverter has been presented in [29] using only nine power switches per pole. However, ten isolated dc power sources are required, achieving only limited benefits in terms of complexity of the system, cost, and size. Other reduced switch count 13-level inverters have been proposed in [30], [31], [32] and [34] featuring respectively 14, 13, 11, and 16 power switches per pole, while a 13-Level

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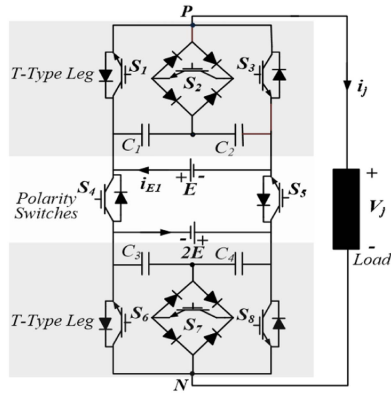


Fig. 1. Pole of the 13-LDT topology.

Switched-Capacitor Inverter with a single dc source has been proposed in [33] featuring 3 capacitors and 15 power switches per pole. In this case, a suitable capacitor voltage control strategy is however necessary to balance the capacitor voltages. An envelope type modular inverter has been proposed in [35] featuring only ten power switches per pole, although requiring four isolated dc power sources. Finally, a 13-level inverter with self-balanced switched-capacitor has been investigated in [36] consisting of two series connected 7-level modules, requiring 16 power switches per pole.

This article presents a novel asymmetrical 13-level dual T-type (13-LDT) inverter topology featuring only eight power switches per pole, and two isolated power sources, thus requiring less power switches, gate drivers, and diodes, than 13-level inverters based on traditional and previously developed reduced switch count topologies [38]. A key feature of the proposed topology is that it does not need any additional circuit to stabilize the voltage of the four capacitors equipping each pole, leading to a reduction of circuital complexity and cost. A detailed analysis of the proposed topology is provided in the article, as well as a comparison with standard and reduced switch count 13-level configurations. As confirmed by simulation and experimental tests, the proposed 13-LDT inverter operated at low switching frequency according to the nearest level modulation (NLM) technique [39], achieves high efficiency and low output voltage THDs.

## II. THE PROPOSED 13-LDT TOPOLOGY

A pole of the proposed 13-LDT topology encompasses eight switches, as shown in Fig. 1. It consists of two three-level T-type sections, two isolated dc voltage sources  $E$ ,  $2E$ , four capacitors  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$ ,  $C_4$  and two switches  $S_4$  and  $S_5$ . Each T-type section includes two bidirectional switches  $S_2$  and  $S_7$  which consist of an IGBT embedded in a diode bridge. This configuration has the advantage of reducing the complexity of the system and its cost compared to common-collector or common-emitter solutions. The disadvantage is that three devices are conducting whenever the switch is turned on. In this article, it was decided to minimize the cost since the losses are already low thanks to a low frequency modulation. For the safe operation of the proposed structure,

 TABLE I  
 13-LDT INVERTER POLE SWITCHING CONFIGURATIONS

sc	$S_1$	$S_2$	$S_3$	$S_4$	$S_5$	$S_6$	$S_7$	$S_8$	$V_o$
1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	$3E$
2	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	$2.5E$
3	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	$2E$
4	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	$1.5E$
5	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	$E$
6	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	$E$
7	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	$0.5E$
8	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	$0.5E$
9	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	$0$
10	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	$0$
11	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	$-0.5E$
12	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	$-E$
13	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	$-E$
14	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	$-1.5E$
15	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	$-2E$
16	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	$-2E$
17	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	$-2.5E$
18	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	$-3E$

the couples of switches  $(S_1, S_2)$ ,  $(S_1, S_3)$ ,  $(S_2, S_3)$ ,  $(S_4, S_5)$ ,  $(S_6, S_7)$ ,  $(S_6, S_8)$ , and  $(S_7, S_8)$  are operated with a suitable dead time to prevent short-circuiting of the dc voltage sources.

If the ratio between the voltage sources changes, the number of output voltage levels varies from 9 to 17. More specifically, for the voltage ratio equal to 1/1, 2/1 and 3/1, the corresponding voltage levels generated by the inverter at its output are respectively, 9, 13, and 17. However, by increasing the voltage ratio, the voltage stress on power switches  $S_6$ ,  $S_7$ , and  $S_8$  increases, generating an uneven power losses distribution. A good tradeoff between THD, distribution of power losses and number of output voltage levels is achieved by considering 13 voltage levels. Thus, the two dc voltage sources are set at  $E$  and  $2E$ , and  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$ ,  $C_4$  voltages are set respectively at  $0.5E$ ,  $0.5E$ ,  $E$ ,  $E$ . Table I and Fig. 2 deal with 13-LDT pole switching configurations and corresponding output voltage  $V_o$ . Redundant switching combinations exist, named as: 3-4, 6-7, 9-10, 12-13, and 15-16, which generates same output voltage.

Switches  $S_4$  and  $S_5$  are operated at the fundamental frequency, to determine the polarity of the output voltage  $V_o$ . When  $S_4$  is OFF and  $S_5$  is ON, the output voltage  $V_o$  is positive. Otherwise, the output voltage is negative. Zero-voltage level is obtained by turning on  $S_3$ ,  $S_5$ ,  $S_8$  or  $S_1$ ,  $S_4$ ,  $S_6$ .

Pole modules can be connected according to a wye, or an open-end winding configuration, to realize a 13-LDT three-phase inverter, as shown in Fig. 3.

Several multilevel modulation techniques have been developed with the goal to achieve the lowest possible THD. They can be divided into two categories, low switching frequency modulation techniques and high frequency PWM. In general, low switching frequency modulation techniques face output voltage THD issues by increasing the number of output voltage levels, while the use of high frequency PWM techniques yield to an increase of the switching frequency; some hybrid approaches have been also presented in the literature [26]. The low switching frequency modulation techniques feature a quite low number of switching events per period of the output

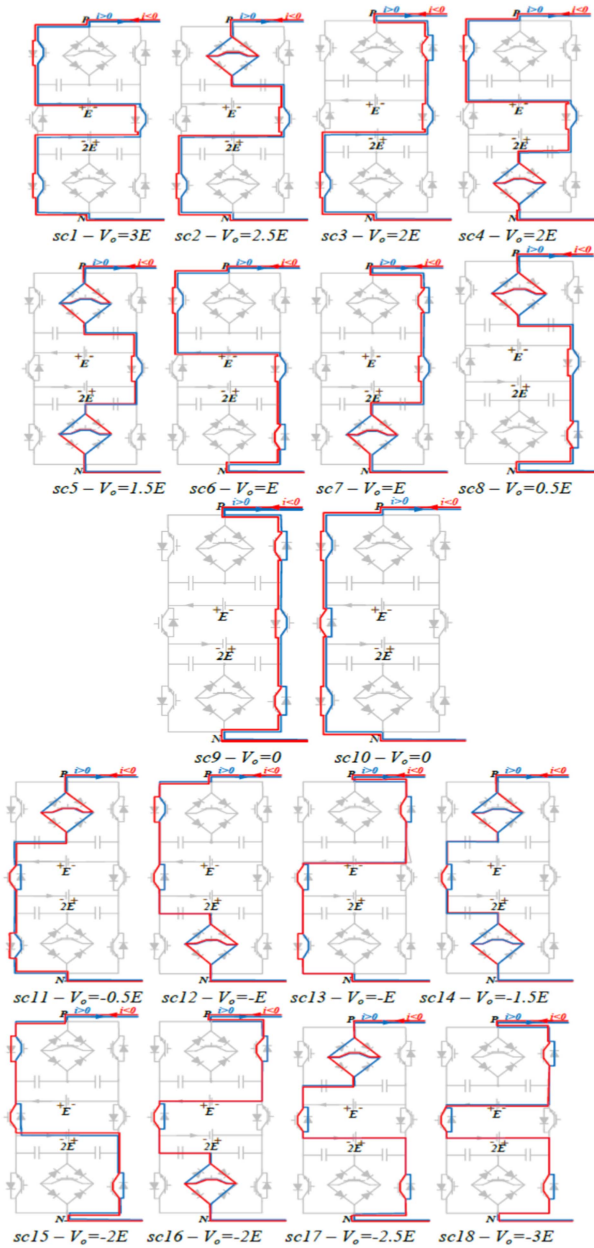


Fig. 2. 13-LDT inverter pole switching configurations.

voltage, leading to lower switching power losses. Among the numerous modulation strategies, the selective harmonic elimination (SHE) and NLM have been implemented in the 13-LDT inverter.

SHE is a well-known technique which achieves the elimination of specific low-order harmonics from the output voltage waveform by suitably selecting the firing angles of power switches. These are determined by solving a system of trigonometric equations carried out from the Fourier expansion of the inverter output voltage waveform. The higher number of firing angles managed per period, the higher the number of harmonics eliminated, but also the higher the number of equations to be solved. On-line processing these equations is computationally intensive, thus, firing angles are offline precomputed and stored

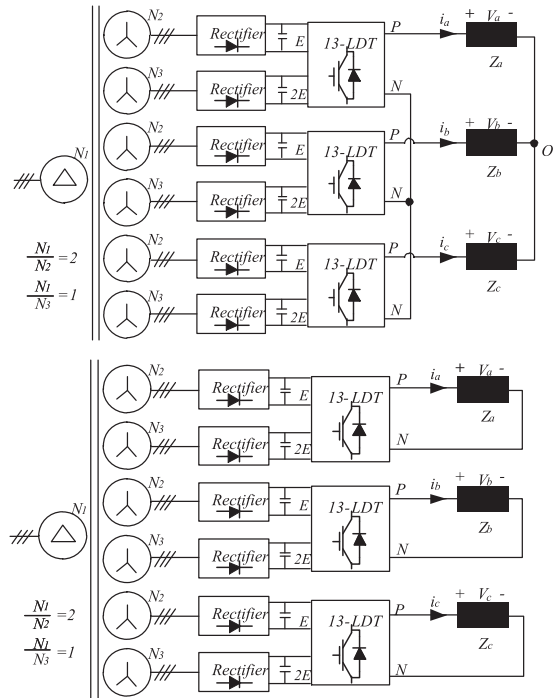


Fig. 3. 13-LDT three-phase configurations: up) wye, down) open-end winding.

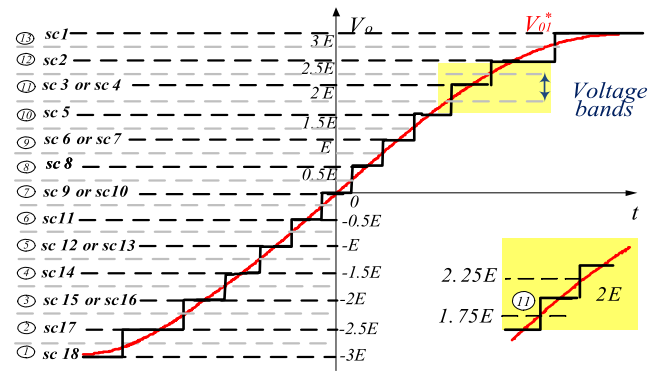
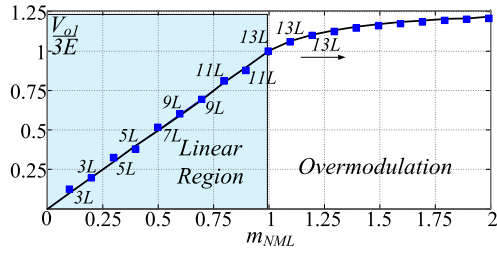
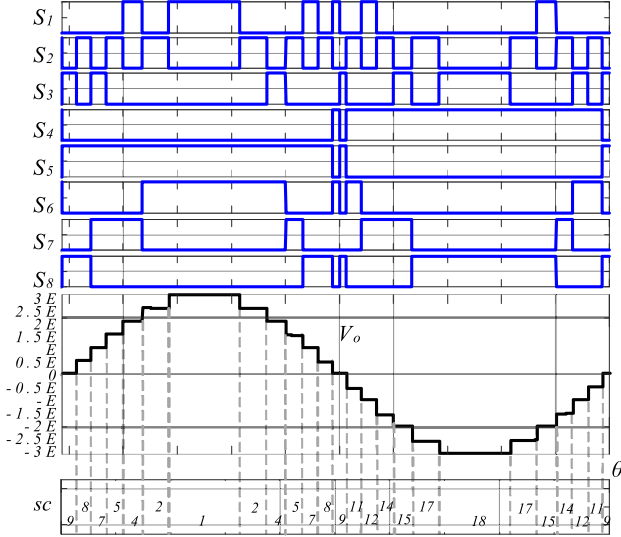


Fig. 4. 13-LDT NLM: voltage bands and switching table.

in a look-up table. A hybrid SHE-PWM technique has been also proposed in [26] for a multilevel open-winding inverter structure.

In the NLM strategy the inverter switching pattern is selected to generate the output voltage as close as possible to the reference fundamental phase voltage  $V_{o1}^*$ . Fig. 4 displays the voltage levels in case of the 13-LDT topology, where 12 voltage bands are defined, each one located around one of the 13 possible levels of the output phase voltage. The inverter switching configuration is then selected according to the switching pattern of Fig. 6, by detecting in which of the 13 bands falls the actual reference voltage  $V_{o1}^*$ .

The ratio between the magnitude of the output voltage fundamental harmonic  $V_{o1}$  and the maximum output voltage ( $3E$ ) has been determined by simulation as function of the modulation


 Fig. 5. 13-LDT NLM:  $V_{01}/3E$  vs. modulation index  $m_{NLM}$ .

 Fig. 6. 13-LDT NLM: Switching pattern and output voltage  $V_o$ .

index  $m_{NLM}$ , which is defined as the ratio between the magnitude of the reference output voltage  $V_{01}^*$  and the maximum output voltage. As shown in Fig. 5, a linear relationship exists for  $m_{NLM} \leq 1$ , while a nonlinear behavior occurs for higher values of the modulation index, due to overmodulation. The amount of voltage levels used by NLM is a function of the modulation index, as the amount of voltage levels used to synthesize the reference voltage increases with the increase of  $m_{NLM}$ . While three voltage levels are used for low  $m_{NLM}$ , this number progressively increases up to reaching thirteen levels for  $m_{NLM}$  close to 1. The switching pattern related to a fundamental period  $T_o$  of  $V_{01}^*$  at unitary  $m_{NLM}$  is shown in Fig. 6. The number of switching events occurring in  $T_o$  differs from device to device, leading to different switching frequencies, which vary with  $m_{NLM}$ , as shown in Fig. 7. The THD is also affected by  $m_{NLM}$ , as shown in Fig. 8. However, the NLM features a lower  $THD_v$  compared to SHE for almost the entire linear modulation index interval.

### III. CAPACITOR VOLTAGES SELF-BALANCE

Two pairs of capacitors,  $C_1, C_2$ , and  $C_3, C_4$  are present in a pole of the 13-LDT inverter. The voltage at the terminals of each pair of capacitors is determined by the two dc power sources. A key feature of this topology is the automatic balancing of the voltage between each pair of capacitors, leading to achieve

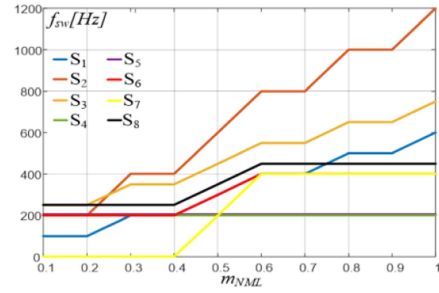
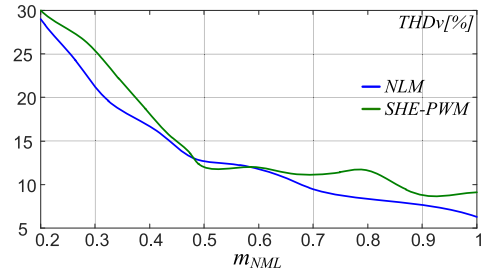

 Fig. 7. Switching frequency of 13-LDT devices versus  $m_{NLM}$  ( $f_o = 50$  Hz).

 Fig. 8. Output voltage  $THD_v$  versus  $m_{NLM}$ .

TABLE II  
SWITCHING COMBINATIONS VS. CAPACITOR CURRENTS

sc	$V_o$	$i_{c1}$	$i_{c2}$	$i_{c3}$	$i_{c4}$	$i_o > 0$		$i_o < 0$	
						Discharge	Charge	Discharge	Charge
1	3E	0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
2	2.5E	$i_o$	$-i_o$	0	0	$C_2$	$C_1$	$C_1$	$C_2$
3	2E	0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
4		0	0	$i_o$	$-i_o$	$C_4$	$C_3$	$C_4$	$C_3$
5	1.5E	$i_o$	$i_o$	$-i_o$	$-i_o$	$C_2 C_4$	$C_1 C_3$	$C_1 C_3$	$C_2 C_4$
6	E	0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
7		0	0	$i_o$	$-i_o$	$C_4$	$C_3$	$C_3$	$C_4$
8	0.5E	$i_o$	$-i_o$	0	0	$C_2$	$C_1$	$C_1$	$C_2$
9	0	0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
10		0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
11	-0.5E	$-i_o$	$i_o$	0	0	$C_2$	$C_1$	$C_1$	$C_2$
12	-E	0	0	0	0	$C_4$	$C_3$	$C_3$	$C_4$
13		0	0	$i_o$	$-i_o$	/	/	/	/
14	-1.5E	$-i_o$	$i_o$	$-i_o$	$i_o$	$C_2 C_4$	$C_1 C_3$	$C_1 C_3$	$C_2 C_4$
15	-2E	0	0	0	0	/	/	/	/
16		0	0	$i_o$	$-i_o$	$C_4$	$C_3$	$C_3$	$C_4$
17	-2.5E	$-i_o$	$i_o$	0	0	/	/	/	/
18	-3E	0	0	0	0	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_2$	$C_1$

null average capacitor currents in each fundamental period  $T_o$ , without using extra circuits or special modulation techniques. In fact, according to Table I and Fig. 2, the capacitors  $C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4$  are charged and discharged when the inverter takes specific switching configurations (sc), as shown in Table II. Due to the symmetry of the output voltage waveform in a fundamental period  $T_o$ , positive and negative voltage levels feature same magnitude at steady state, for the same amount of time, leading to null average capacitors currents. As an example, Fig. 9 shows the current  $i_{C1}$  of the capacitor  $C_1$  for  $m_{NLM} = 1$ .  $i_{C1}$  is mirrored in the second half of the fundamental period with respect to the first half period, leading to a null integral over  $T_0$  (charge

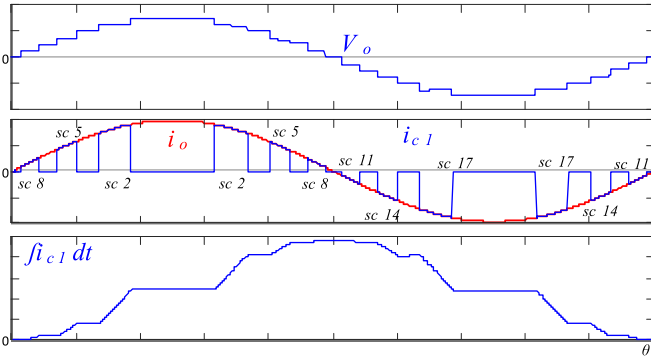


Fig. 9. Steady state: Output voltage  $V_o$ ,  $i_{c1}$ , and integral of  $i_{C1}$  ( $m_{NLM} = 1$ ).

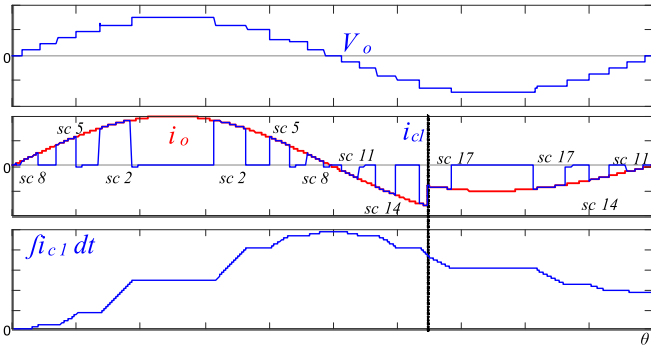


Fig. 10. Load change: output voltage  $V_o$ ,  $i_{c1}$ , and integral of  $i_{C1}$  ( $m_{NLM} = 1$ ).

balance). At steady state, the voltage  $v_{c1}$  of the capacitor  $C_1$  in  $T_0$  is given by

$$v_{C1} = v_{C1(0)} + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^{2\pi} i_{C1} d\theta. \quad (1)$$

As a consequence, the average voltage value of  $C_1$  is constant at steady state. However, changes in modulation index or load can cause small voltage unbalances because of different charging and discharging times during transients, as shown in Fig. 10. Small variations of capacitors voltages do not significantly impair the performance of the inverter, as a voltage balance is automatically accomplished when the inverter takes switching configurations in which  $C_1, C_2$  (sc8&sc11) or  $C_3, C_4$  (sc7 & sc12) are charged/discharged. For example, when the inverter output voltage falls inside the band 8, the switching configuration sc8 is selected, then, if  $i_o > 0$ ,  $C_1$  is charged and  $C_2$  is discharged. As shown in Fig. 11 the lower/higher is  $v_{c1}$  than  $v_{c2}$  and the more/less  $C_1$  is charged and  $C_2$  is discharged, hence reducing the voltage unbalance. A simulation of the automatic correction of a voltage unbalance is shown in Fig. 12.

The ripple  $\Delta v_C$  superimposed to the dc capacitor voltages is depending on the value of capacitance  $C$ , modulation index  $m_{NLM}$ , load current  $I_o$  and phase shift  $\varphi$ . Fig. 13 shows the estimated voltage ripple carried out from simulations, performed considering the system specifications given in Table III. A light effect of  $\varphi$  on  $\Delta v_C$  is observed at low load, below 1%, while

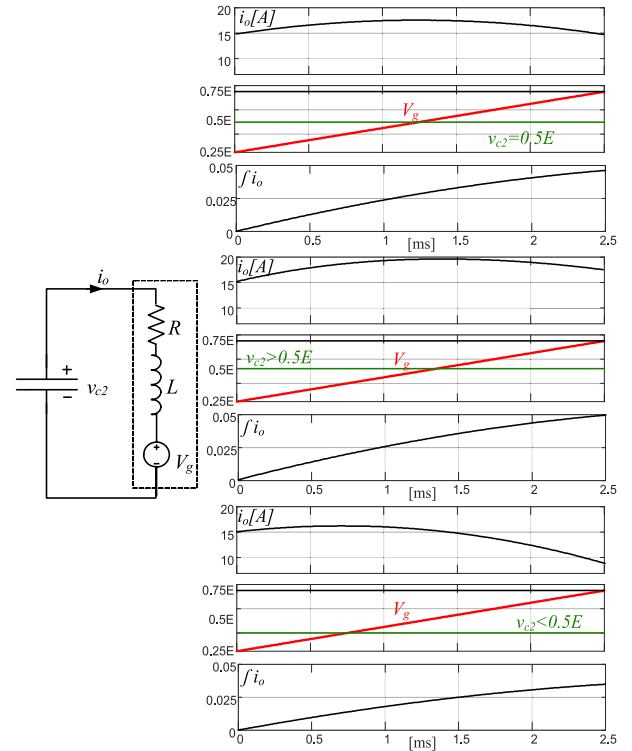


Fig. 11. (left) Equivalent circuit of a single inverter pole, for sc8. (right)  $i_o$ ,  $v_g$  and  $\int i_o$ , for  $v_{c2} = .5E$ ,  $v_{c2} > .5E$  and  $v_{c2} < .5E$ .

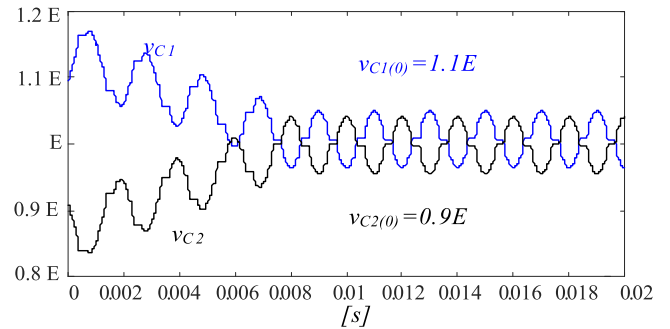


Fig. 12. Self-equalization at the terminals of capacitors  $C_1, C_2$ , starting from an unbalance condition.

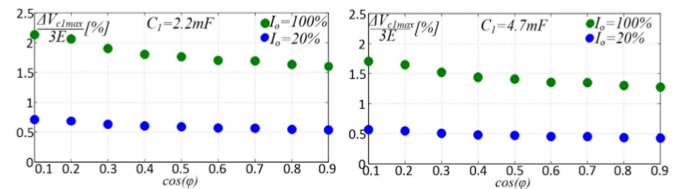
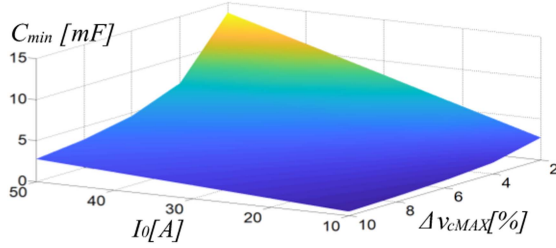


Fig. 13. Estimated voltage ripple on  $C_1$  versus power factor for  $I_o = 20\%$  and  $I_o = 100\%$ . (a)  $C = 2.2 \text{ mF}$ . (b)  $C = 4.7 \text{ mF}$ .

TABLE III  
SIMULATION PARAMETERS

Rated Power [kVA]	$E_n$ [V]	$I_n$ [A]	$C_n$ [mF]	$f_n$ [Hz]
42	400 V	50	2.2	50


 Fig. 14.  $C_{\min}$  versus  $I_o$  and  $\Delta v_{C\text{MAX}}$ .

a larger variation occurs as the load current increases but still remains below the 2.5%. The minimum capacitance value  $C_{\min}$  can be established by imposing a limit to the voltage ripple  $\Delta v_{C\text{MAX}}$ :

$$C_{\min} = \frac{1}{\Delta v_{C\text{MAX}}} \left[ \max \left( \int_0^{2\pi} i_c d\theta \right) - \min \left( \int_0^{2\pi} i_c d\theta \right) \right] \quad (2)$$

where  $i_c$  is the current flowing through each capacitor.

Fig. 14 deals with  $C_{\min}$  versus  $I_o$  and  $\Delta v_{C\text{MAX}}$ . The higher the load current, the higher the capacitance required to limit the capacitor voltage ripple for a given load current  $I_o$ .

#### IV. 13-LDT VERSUS OTHER 13-LEVEL TOPOLOGIES

A comparison between the proposed 13-LDT and other 13-levels topologies can be played in terms of THDs, amount of power switches  $N_{\text{sw}}$ , gate drivers  $N_{\text{gd}}$ , capacitors  $N_{\text{Cap}}$ , power diodes  $N_{\text{dioid}}$ , dc power supplies  $N_{\text{dc}}$  and total standing voltage (TSV). conventional NPC, T-Type, CHB, FC 13-level inverters presented in [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], [37] have been considered in the following comparison.

##### A. Total Harmonic Distortions

Whenever all configurations are driven by NLM, same THD<sub>v</sub> of the output voltage is obtained for any load condition. Differently, the THD<sub>v</sub> value changes with the type of modulation technique. Table IV gives the THDs of voltages and currents evaluated simulating the topologies presented in [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], and [37] with their respective modulation strategies and with the system specifications given in Table III.

The THDs have been calculated taking up to 49th-order of harmonics. The switching frequency is set at 5 kHz in case of PWM modulation, while 50 Hz is considered for NLM, fundamental switching modulation and power balance modulation (PBM). All simulations have been performed at unitary modulation index with the same RL load (47 Ω, 2.5 mH). Although the values of THD<sub>v</sub> changes according to the modulation technique, a similar THD<sub>i</sub> is observed for all configurations. It worth noting that NLM is the easiest modulation technique among the ones considered in [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], and [37], featuring lower computational effort, without the necessity of using look-up tables.

 TABLE IV  
 THDs COMPARISON AT UNITARY MODULATION INDEX

Configuration	Modulation	THD <sub>i</sub> (%)	THD <sub>v</sub> (%)
Foti et al. [26]	Hybrid	3.1	5.01
Samadaei et al. [27]	NLM	3.12	5.35
Taghvaie et al. [28]	PWM	3.25	6.9
Panda et al. [29]	SHE	3.37	6.5
Alishah et al. [30]	FSF	3.26	7.57
Mahato et al. [31]	PWM	3.25	8.9
Vasuki et al. [32]	NLM	3.12	5.35
Anand and Singh [33]	PWM	3.95	6.9
Roy et al. [34]	FSF	3.26	7.57
Samadaei et al. [35]	SHE	3.05	4.54
Peng et al. [36]	PBM	3.16	5.43
Iqbal et al. [37]	PWM	3.25	6.9
13-LDT	NLM	3.12	5.35

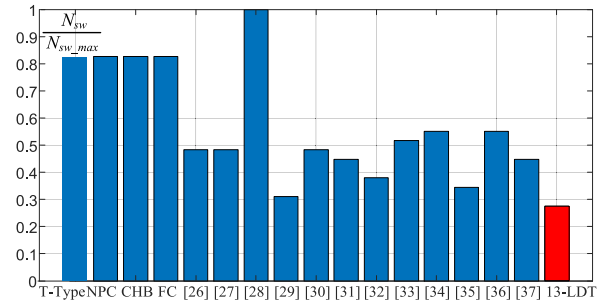


Fig. 15. Number of switches.

##### B. Cost Function Analysis

The cost function CF of (3) has been used to compare the proposed 13-LDT with the other 13-levels topologies investigated in [26], [27], [28], [29], [30], [31], [32], [33], [34], [35], [36], and [37]. The cost function takes into account the amount of power switches  $N_{\text{sw}}$ , gate drivers  $N_{\text{gd}}$ , capacitors  $N_{\text{Cap}}$ , power diodes  $N_{\text{dioid}}$ , dc power supplies  $N_{\text{dc}}$ , and TSV

$$\text{CF} = \frac{N_{\text{sw}} + N_{\text{GD}} + N_{\text{Diod}} + N_{\text{cap}} + \alpha \text{TSV}}{13} N_{\text{DC}} \quad (3)$$

where  $\alpha$  presents the weightage of the TSV. The amount of each components category composing the considered configurations have been normalized with respect to the corresponding highest value. Hence, the lower is the result obtained by a topology in evaluating a specific parameter, the better is the estimated specific performance. As an example, among all the considered topologies, the 13-LDT topology requires 8 power switches per pole, while that proposed in [28] requires the largest amount of power switches, namely 29 per pole; therefore, the score achieved by the proposed 13-LDT topology in terms of amount

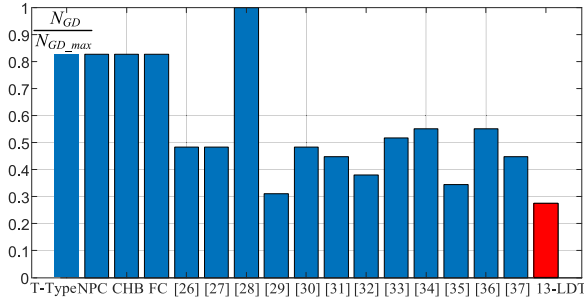


Fig. 16. Number of gate drivers.

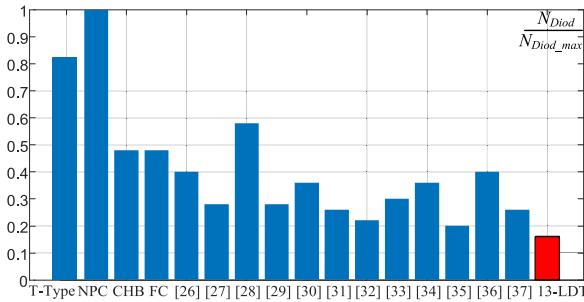


Fig. 17. Number of diodes.

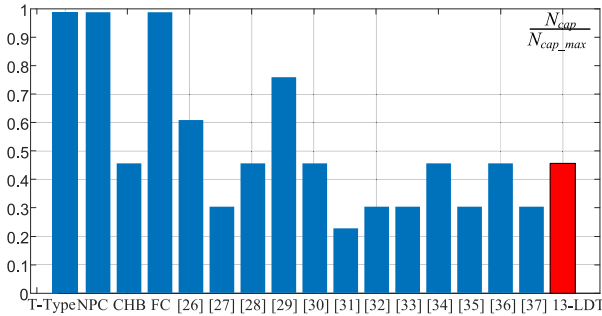


Fig. 18. Number of capacitors.

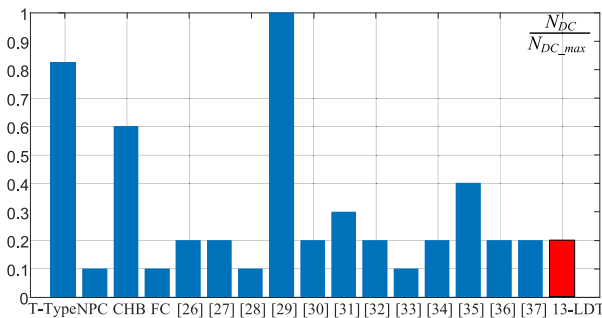


Fig. 19. Number of isolated DC sources.

of power switches is

$$n_{sw\_13-LDT} = \frac{N_{sw\_13-LDT}}{N_{sw\_22}} = \frac{8}{29} = 0.276. \quad (4)$$

Figs. 15–20 provide a comparison of the 13-LDT with the other 13-level topologies.

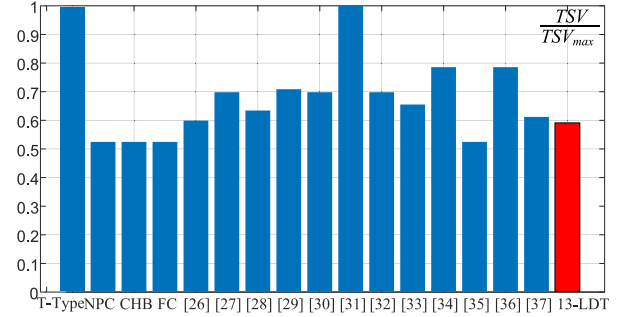


Fig. 20. TSV for the considered 13 level topologies.

TABLE V  
PEAK VOLTAGES SUSTAINED BY 13-LDT DEVICES

Power Switch	Highest voltage blocked by the switch	Condition
$S_1$	E	$S_3$ ON
$S_2$	0.5E	$S_7$ ON or $S_3$ ON
$S_3$	E	$S_7$ ON
$S_4$	3E	$S_5$ ON
$S_5$	3E	$S_4$ ON
$S_6$	2E	$S_8$ ON
$S_7$	E	$S_6$ ON or $S_8$ ON
$S_8$	2E	$S_6$ ON
<b>Total</b>	<b>13.5E</b>	

With regards to the TSV, it is a quality figure for multilevel converters taking into account the number of devices and voltage rating requirements. It is given by the sum of the highest voltages supported by all the switches, normalized to the highest level of the output voltage that can be generated. Table V gives the highest voltage sustained by the 8 switches composing the 13-LDT pole and the condition for which it occurs. The TSV of a pole of the 13-LDT topology then is

$$TSV_{13-LDT} = \frac{13.5 E}{3 E} = 4.5. \quad (5)$$

Fig. 20 displays the TSV values of the 13-level topologies. The results of this comparison are given in Table VI, highlighting the smallest value of CF achieved in the proposed inverter, for both  $\alpha = 0.5$  and  $\alpha = 1.5$ . Table VI gives the maximum blocking voltage (MBV) and the voltage balancing capability. The proposed 13-LDT topology performs better than others in terms of number of switches, number of gate drivers, number of diodes, while is around average in terms of number of capacitors, number of isolated dc power supplies and TSV. As a general remark the 13-LDT topology is effective in reducing the complexity of the power circuit, with a largely reasonable penalization in terms of TSV and number of capacitors.

### C. Cost Analysis

The results obtained in Table VI must be confirmed by a cost analysis taking into account also the power system of each configuration. Each isolated independent voltage source needs an ac transformer and an ac/dc rectifier. Thus, in case of more of one isolated voltage sources, more of one ac/dc converters and more windings transformer are needed. Many solutions can be

TABLE VI  
 COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT 13-L TOPOLOGIES

Topology	$N_L$	$N_{sw}$	$N_{gd}$	$N_{cap}$	$N_{dc}$	$N_{diod}$	TSV	MBV	Balancing	CF	
										$\alpha=0.5$	$\alpha=1.5$
13-L NPC	13	24	24	12	1	22	4	0.16	No-self	6.76	7.07
13-L CHB	13	24	24	0	6	0	4	0.16	No-self	23	24.9
13-L FC	13	24	24	12	1	0	4	0.16	No-self	4.76	5.07
13-L T-Type	13	24	24	12	1	0	7.66	1	No-self	4.91	5.5
Foti et al. [26]	13	14	14	6	2	10	4.57	0.25	No-self	6.7	7.5
Samadaei et al. [27]	13	14	14	2	2	0	5.33	2	Self	5.02	5.84
Taghvaie et al. [28]	13	29	29	5	1	6	4.84	1	Self	5.13	5.5
Panda et al. [29]	13	9	9	0	10	5	5.41	1	No-self	19.86	24.22
Alishah et al. [30]	13	14	14	4	2	4	5.33	1	Self	5.94	6.76
Mahato et al. [31]	13	13	13	0	3	0	7.66	1	/	7.8	9.57
Vasuki et al. [32]	13	11	11	0	4	0	5.33	1	Self	5.58	5.63
Anand and Singh [33]	13	15	15	3	1	0	5	0.5	Self	4.84	5.45
Roy et al. [34]	13	16	16	4	2	2	6	0.33	Self	6.3	7.23
Samadaei et al. [35]	13	10	10	0	4	0	3.33	0.83	/	6.66	7.69
Peng et al. [36]	13	16	16	4	2	4	5.33	0.5	Self	6.56	7.38
Iqbal et al. [37]	13	13	13	2	2	0	4.67	1.5	/	4.66	5.38
<b>13-LDT</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>1</b>	Self	<b>4.65</b>	<b>5.34</b>

considered about the type of the ac transformer. It is possible to use  $N_{DC}$  number of transformers or a multiwinding transformer with  $N_{DC}$  number of windings. However, in [40] has been demonstrated that in case of more of one dc-link input, a multi-winding transformer is more efficient in terms of lower weight, losses and cost of using more of one two windings transformer, with the same rated power. Even in [40], the weight of the core and copper versus the number of secondary windings  $N_{coil}$  have been found and shown in Fig. 21. The cost of the transformer that take into account only the cost of core and windings, has been obtained by considering the average cost of copper (8.34 €/kg) and core (2.34 €/kg). The minimum cost is obtained for three windings. Table VII shows the total cost which includes the cost of power switches, power diodes, capacitors, gate drives, ac/dc rectifier and ac transformer. About the ac/dc, a three-phase uncontrolled diode rectifier equipped with 6 power diodes has been considered for each  $N_{DC}$  isolated voltage source. The results confirm that the proposed configuration is less expensive thank to lower CF and lower cost of a three-winding transformer.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL ASSESSMENT

Performance of the 13-LDT inverter has been assessed by experimental tests with a 1.5 kVA scale prototype. The experimental setup is shown in Fig. 22. The power converter is equipped with ST Microelectronics IGBT STGB10H60DF

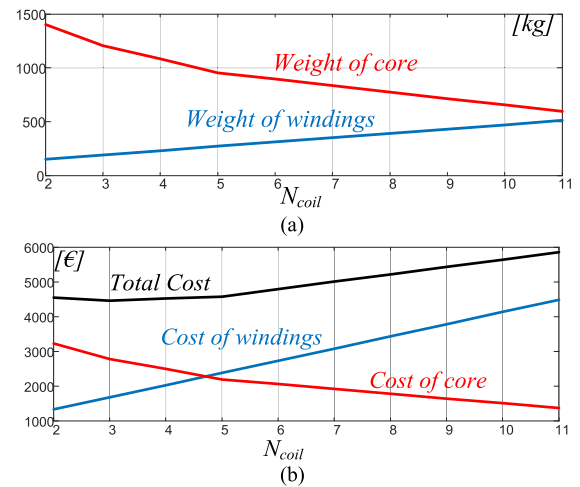


Fig. 21. Cost of the transformer. (a) Weight of transformer's core and winding versus number of secondary windings. (b) Cost of transformer's core and copper versus number of secondary windings.

600 V/20 A switches. Modulation and control are accomplished through a dSpace Scalexio rapid prototyping board. A dead time equal to  $2\mu\text{s}$  has been introduced to safely switch complementary devices. RC snubber circuits ( $R = 5.7 \Omega$ ,  $C = 2.2 \mu\text{F}$ ) have been installed in parallel to the power switches of the converter prototype to reduce the voltage spikes.

TABLE VII  
COST COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT 13-L TOPOLOGIES ENABLING TO PROVIDE 800 V MAXIMUM OUTPUT VOLTAGE

Components	Rating	Unit Price	Topologies																
			NPC	CHB	FC	NPP	[26]	[27]	[28]	[29]	[30]	[31]	[32]	[33]	[34]	[35]	[36]	[37]	13-LDT
IGBT IGW25T120FKSA1	1200 V, 50 A	5.46 €	/	/	/	2	/	2	/	4	/	4	2	/	/	4	/	2	2
IGBT IGP50NG0TXKSA1	600 V, 50 A	4.73 €	/	/	/	/	/	12	/	/	14	9	9	15	6	6	16	11	2
IGBT FGD3040G2-F085	300 V, 41 A	1.01 €	24	24	24	22	14	/	29	5	/	/	/	/	10	/	/	/	4
Diode IDP30E120XKSA1	1200V, 50 A	3.08 €	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	20
Diode IDW50E60FKSA1	600 V, 50 A	3.22 €	/	/	/	/	6	12	6	/	16	/	12	6	14	24	16	/	/
Diode VS-60APH03-N3	300 V, 50 A	4.22 €	22	/	/	/	10	/	6	65	/	18	/	/	/	/	/	12	/
Capacitor	300 V, 2.2 mF	42.80 €	12	/	12	12	/	2	/	/	4	/	2	3	/	/	4	2	/
Capacitor	400 V, 2.2 mF	48.72 €	/	/	/	/	6	2	5	/	/	/	2	/	4	/	/	/	4
Gate drive HCPL-316J-000E	/	6.77 €	24	24	24	24	14	12	29	9	14	13	11	15	16	10	16	13	8
DC supplies NMH0515SC	/	10.64 €	24	24	24	24	14	12	29	9	14	13	11	15	16	10	16	13	8
Three-Phase Transformer 10kVA – Number of three-phase primary+secondary windings	2 Coils	4556 €	1	/	1	1	/	/	1	/	/	/	/	1	/	/	/	/	/
	3 Coils	4462 €	/	/	/	/	1	1	/	/	1	/	1	/	1	/	1	1	1
	4 Coils	4530 €	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	1	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
	5 Coils	4793 €	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	1	/	/	/
	7 Coils	5218 €	/	1	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
11 Coils	5855 €	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	1	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	
<b>Tot. Cost €</b>			5604	5659	5511	5520	5074	4960	5378	6312	4995	4897	4929	5035	5019	5094	5039	4888	<b>4882</b>

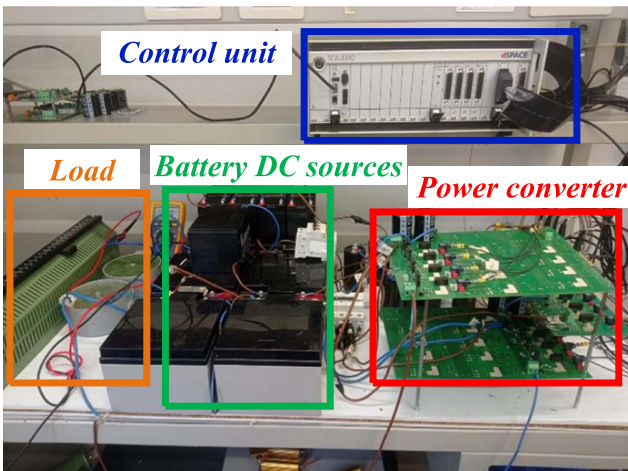


Fig. 22. Experimental system.

A variable  $RL$  load is exploited to set the output loads. Two isolated dc sources,  $E = 48$  V and  $2E = 96$  V supply the inverter. Thus, the maximum output voltage is  $3E = 144$  V. Each power supply delivers power proportionally to its rated voltage. The capacitance of the four capacitors has been determined, according to the procedure reported in Section III, achieving a good compromise between cost and residual voltage ripple. Main parameters of the experimental system are given in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII  
POWER SYSTEM SPECIFICATIONS

IGBT STGB10H60DF	$V_n = 600$ V, $i_n = 20$ A, $V_{gs} = \pm 15$ V
Capacitors	2.2 mF
Variable $RL$ Load	$R = 0 \div 47$ $\Omega$ and $L = 0 \div 0.51$ H

Fig. 23 shows the inverter output voltage waveform and gate signals for the eight IGBT devices. The bidirectional device  $S_2$  switches several times more than the other devices, reaching, according to Fig. 7(a) switching frequency equal to 1200 Hz, when the inverter generates an AC output voltage at 50 Hz, while devices  $S_4$  and  $S_5$  switch only two times per fundamental period  $T_0$ .

Experimental tests have been carried out using both NLM and SHE. Fig. 24 shows the output voltage and load current obtained by implementing the NLM at unitary modulation index, with  $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95$  and  $Z = 11.4 + j3.74$   $\Omega$ .

Harmonic spectra of the voltage and current are shown in Fig. 25. The THDs of the output voltage is 5.3%, according to Fig. 8, while the  $THD_i$  of the current is 1.2%. Even though by using the SHE is possible to eliminate the 3th, 5th, 7th, 9th, and 11th harmonics, the THDs are higher and respectively equal to 9% and 2.1%, Fig. 26. This last test has been taken without  $RC$  snubbers to observe the small voltage spikes during dead time. Harmonic spectra in this last case are displayed in Fig. 27.

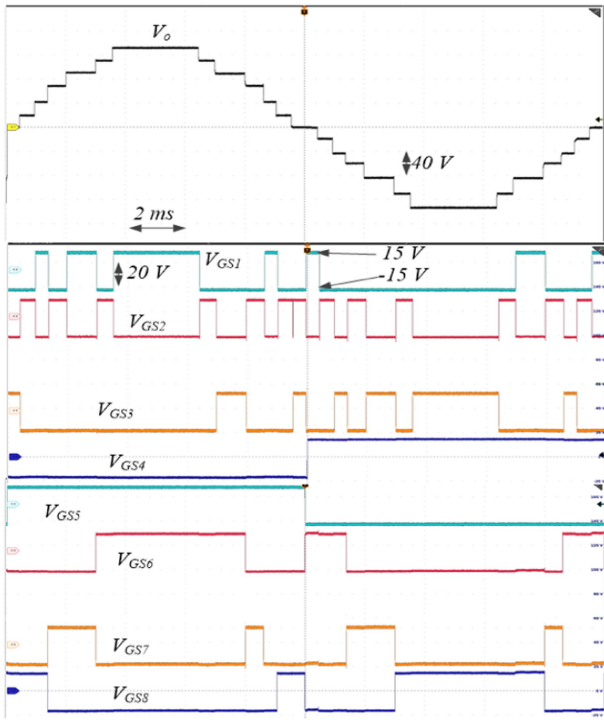


Fig. 23. NLM ( $f_o = 50$  Hz): output voltage  $V_o$  and gate signals.

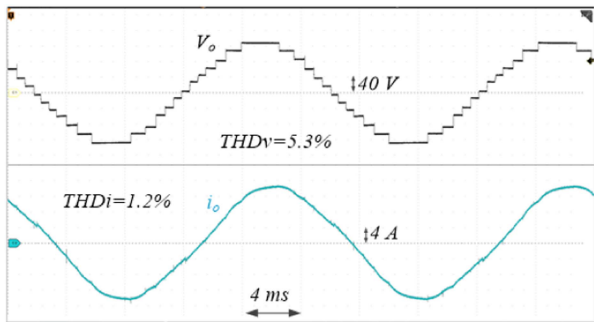


Fig. 24. NLM [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 1, f_o = 50$  Hz]:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

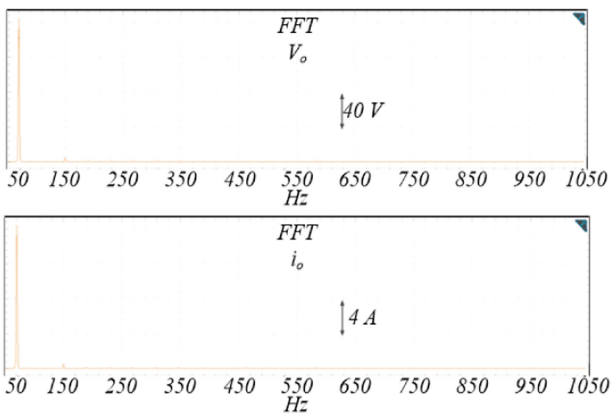


Fig. 25. NLM [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 1, f_o = 50$  Hz]: (up)  $V_o$  FFT, (down)  $i_o$  FFT.

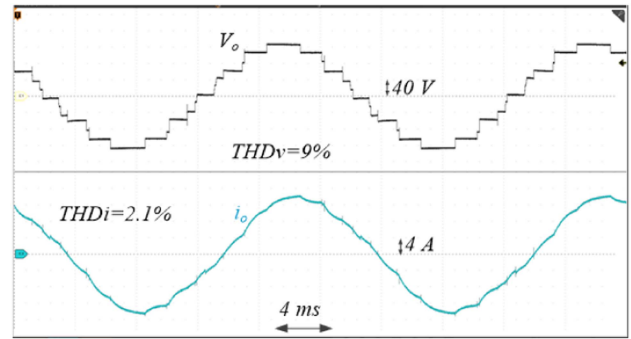


Fig. 26. SHE [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 1, f_o = 50$  Hz]:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

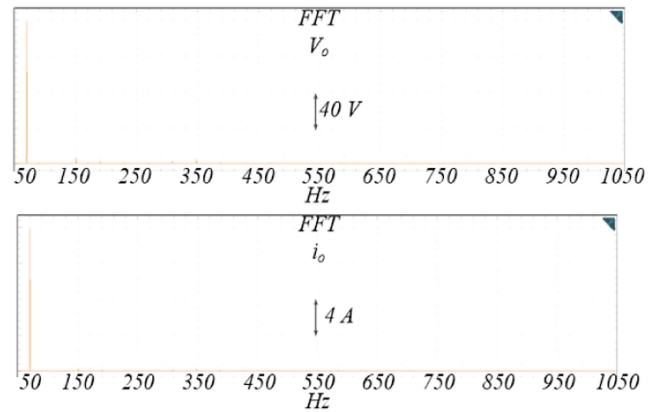


Fig. 27. SHE [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 1, f_o = 50$  Hz]: (up)  $V_o$  FFT, (down)  $i_o$  FFT.

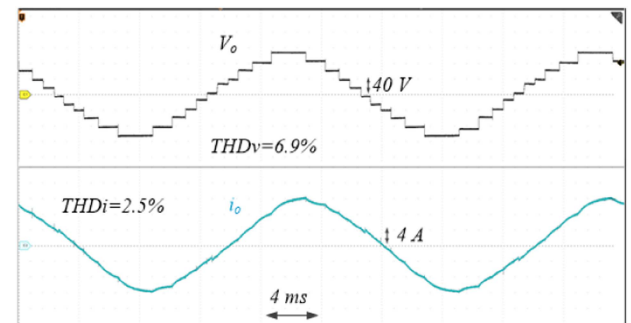


Fig. 28. NLM [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 0.8, f_o = 50$  Hz]:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

All the other figures were taken with the snubbers working. Similar differences have been achieved also at  $m_{NLM} = 0.8$ , as shown in Figs. 28 –31. In these last tests the peak output voltage of the fundamental harmonic is equal to 144 V when  $m_{NLM} = 1$  and 115 V when  $m_{NLM} = 0.8$ .

Dynamic performance of the proposed topology has been also assessed. Fig. 32 shows the output voltage and current when a load is changed from  $Z = 11.4 + j3.74 \Omega$  to  $Z = 12.6 + j12.85 \Omega$ . As a consequence, the load current drops from 12 A to 8 A while the power factor changes from 0.95 to 0.7. The same, a variation of power factor from 0.95 to 0.2 is instead shown in Fig. 33, by

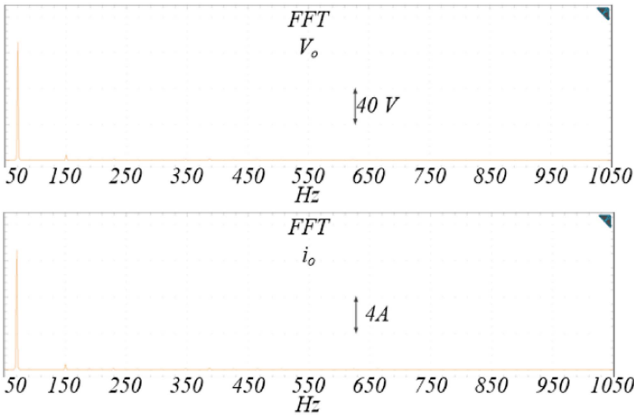


Fig. 29. NLM [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 0.8, f_o = 50$  Hz]: (up)  $V_o$  FFT, (down)  $i_o$  FFT.

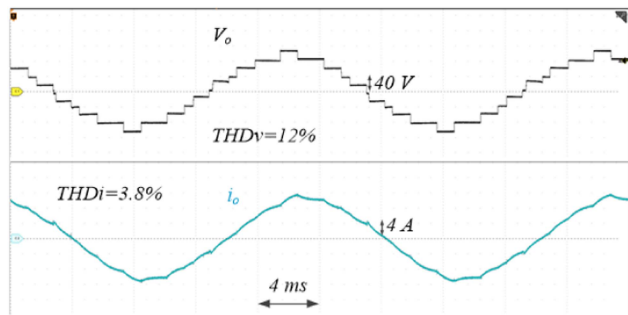


Fig. 30. SHE [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 0.8, f_o = 50$  Hz]:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

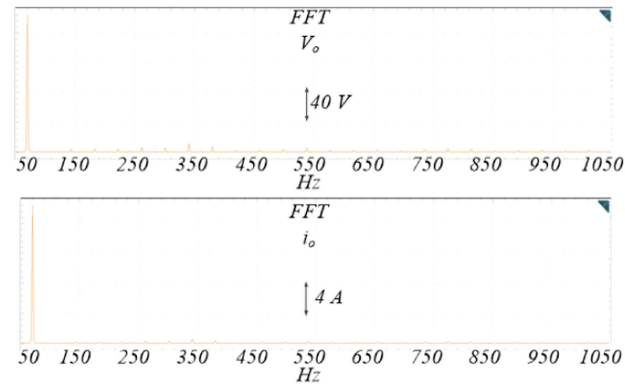


Fig. 31. SHE [ $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95, m_{NLM} = 0.8, f_o = 50$  Hz]: (up)  $V_o$  FFT, (down)  $i_o$  FFT.

confirming the good working at low power factor. The response to a variation of the modulation index from 1 to 0.8 with  $Z = 11.4 + j3.74\Omega$  is shown in Fig. 34. The output voltage levels drop from 13 to 11, with a limited impact on the harmonic current content, which still remains close to sinusoidal. Figs. 35–38 deal with capacitor voltages. According to Table II, when the inverter is in the switching configurations 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17, the voltages at the terminals of capacitors  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  vary, while they remain constant when the inverter is in the other switching

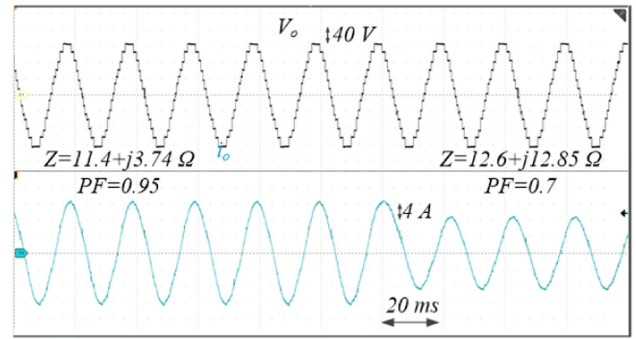


Fig. 32. NLM—Load variation ( $m_{NLM} = 1, 50$  Hz), PF from 0.95 to 0.7:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

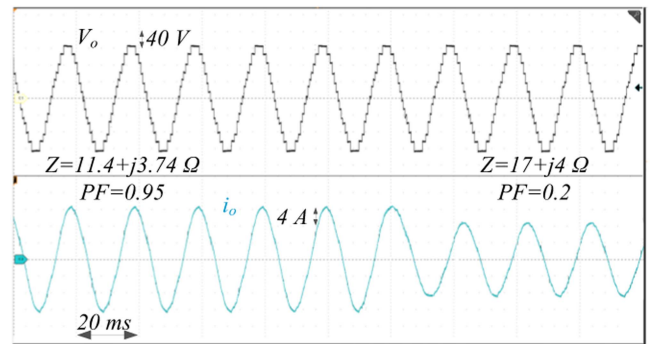


Fig. 33. NLM—Load variation ( $m_{NLM} = 1, 50$  Hz) PF from 0.95 to 0.2:  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

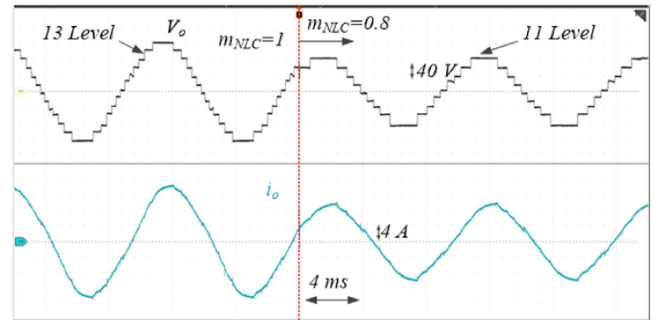


Fig. 34. NLM—Modulation index variation from 1 to 0.8 (50 Hz):  $V_o$  and  $i_o$ .

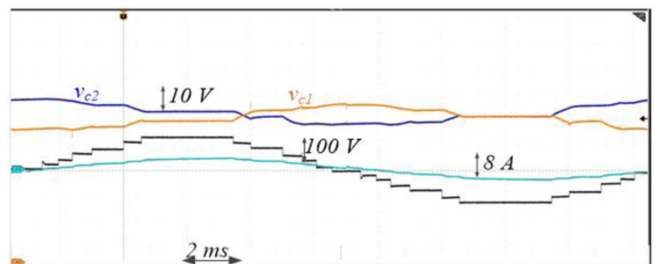


Fig. 35. Voltages on  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  ( $m_{NLC} = 1, \cos(\varphi) = 0.95, 50$  Hz).

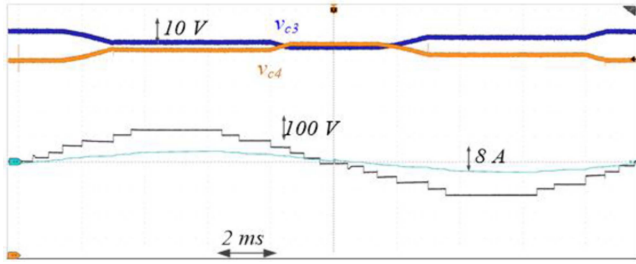


Fig. 36. Voltages on  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  ( $m_{NLC} = 1$ ,  $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95$ , 50 Hz).

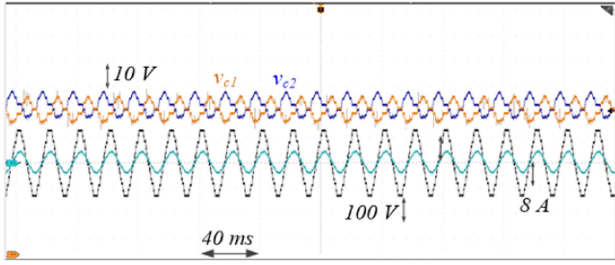


Fig. 37. Voltages measured at the terminals of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  ( $m_{NLC} = 1$ ,  $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95$ , 50 Hz).

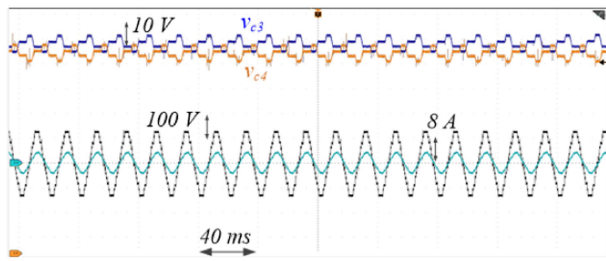


Fig. 38. Voltages measured at the terminals of  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  ( $m_{NLC} = 1$ ,  $\cos(\varphi) = 0.95$ , 50 Hz).

configurations. Similarly, the voltages at the terminals of  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  vary if the inverter switches are set in configuration 4, 5, 7, 13, 14, and 16, while they are constant when the inverter switches are set on the other switching configurations.

As shown in Figs. 37 and 38, the average voltage of the four capacitors is constant at steady state. The capacitors voltage ripple have been measured at different values of capacitance and power factor at rated current, as shown in Fig. 39. The power factor doesn't impact the voltage ripple as much as the capacitance value.

The efficiency  $E_f$  of the 13-LDT inverter can be evaluated as

$$E_f = \frac{P_L}{P_{in}} \quad (6)$$

where  $P_{in}$  is the power supplied by the two dc sources and  $P_L$  is the power fed to the load. Efficiency versus output power is diagrammed in Fig. 40. The max value of efficiency is achieved at full load ( $E_f = 99.3\%$ ), while it drops to 94.2% at light load.

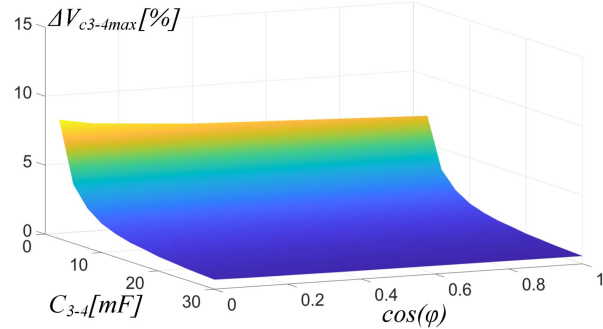
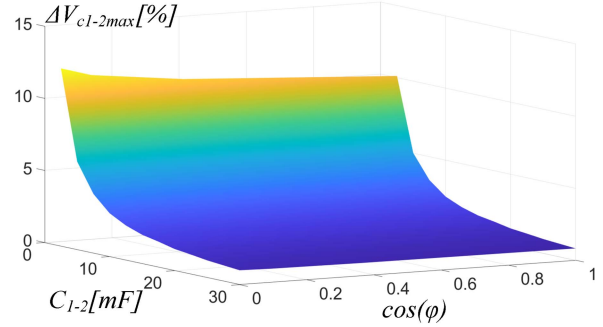


Fig. 39. Capacitor voltage ripple versus capacitance value and power factor, at rated current.

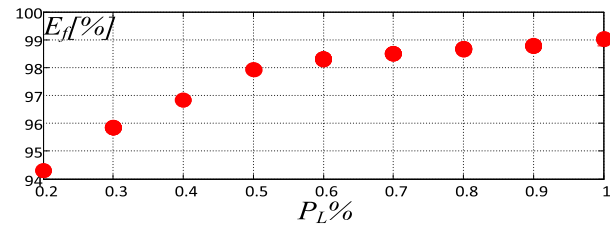


Fig. 40. NLM—inverter efficiency versus output power.

## VI. CONCLUSION

A dual T-type-based 13-Level Inverter has been proposed in this article, which performs better than other conventional and previously developed reduced switch-count topologies in terms of number of switches, number of gate drivers and number of diodes. A key feature of the proposed topology is an easy self-balancing of the voltage between dc-bus capacitors, leading to achieve null average capacitor currents in a period  $T_o$ , without requiring the introduction of extra circuits, nor special modulation strategies. Exploiting an NLM technique, the proposed topology outperforms high efficiency and low total harmonic distortion in a wide operating range. Experimental validation confirmed the feasibility and effectiveness of the proposed power conversion unit.

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