

# Communication-Free Pulsed Power Distribution and Tracking Method for Hybrid Energy Storage System Based on Active Disturbance Rejection Control

Lunbo Deng<sup>1</sup>, Student Member, IEEE, Guohua Zhou<sup>1</sup>, Senior Member, IEEE, Yanglong Li<sup>1</sup>,  
and Zhengge Chen<sup>1</sup>, Member, IEEE

**Abstract**—A dc microgrid is encountering the stability issues caused by emerging pulsed power loads (PPLs). A hybrid energy storage system (HESS) helps to suppress dc bus fluctuation due to periodical power demand of PPL within a short time. A common practice is to handle transient and steady power separately with high-power-density and high-energy-density units. This article proposes a novel communication-free pulsed power distribution method for the HESS consisting of battery and supercapacitor (SC) units; the battery unit only provides dc power, while the SC unit provides an ac component of pulsed power. To track the high-frequency ac component, active disturbance rejection control (ADRC) is applied to the SC unit. Taking dual-active-bridge converters as the interfaces, a detailed design process is presented. Besides, the frequency-domain model illustrates the mechanism of dc–ac power distribution, and a comparison with proportional–integral control shows the advantage of ADRC in fast ac power tracking. With the proposed control strategy, the current surge to the battery unit is significantly reduced and the droop characteristics are unaffected when PPL works. Finally, an HESS testbench supplying 10–150 Hz 1 kW PPL is built to verify the proposed pulsed power distribution and tracking method.

**Index Terms**—Active disturbance rejection control (ADRC), dual-active-bridge (DAB) converter, hybrid energy storage system (HESS), power distribution, pulsed power load (PPL).

## I. INTRODUCTION

ENERGY and environmental concerns give rise to the development of a microgrid that integrates a distributed generator (DG), an energy storage system (ESS), and loads. The technology of dc microgrid is receiving increasing attention because there are no issues on reactive power and frequency regulation; hence, keeping the stability of dc bus voltage through the ESS and its interface converter is the priority [1], [2].

However, with a variety of loads connecting to the dc microgrid, controlling the bus within an acceptable voltage is

becoming a challenge. The power pulsed loads (PPLs), such as industrial electrolysis, electroplating, wastewater purifying, phased-array radar, and plasma source device [3], [4], [5], have the features of instantaneous and periodical peak power and may deviate the dc bus from its rated voltage. Although they are usually equipped with dedicated pulsed power supplies, the pulsed current inevitably flows into the dc bus, leading to voltage fluctuation. It is feasible but not economic to parallel high-capacity capacitors to the bus, while it also brings the risk of high short-circuit current. Another approach is to employ the ESS to balance the power difference, which requires an appropriate controller with fast-tracking ability. The linear–quadratic regulator (LQR) control with state feedback demonstrates the performance beyond proportional–integral (PI) control; however, its dynamic performance is degraded when high parameter uncertainties exist [6]. Model–predictive control (MPC) exhibits very fast response performance and is applied to the battery ESS for supporting shipboard dc microgrid [7], making the bus voltage almost immune to 20 Hz PPL. However, there is still a paradox that the less the bus voltage is affected, the more pulsed power the ESS provides, which greatly reduces the battery life [8]. Hence, an auxiliary energy storage device is needed to improve the robustness of bus voltage and, meanwhile, reduce the impact on battery service life from PPL. A supercapacitor (SC) unit is usually preferred because of its high-power-density and durable properties [9].

Effective power distribution is essential to a hybrid energy storage system (HESS). Most research works treat the HESS as a whole; namely, the two interface converters share all information. The method based on a low-pass filter (LPF) is widely used; the battery controller calculates the total power demand and then sends the transient power reference to the SC controller [10]. An HESS optimization strategy is applied to minimize energy consumption [11], but stabilizing the bus voltage is not the primary goal. MPC-based and deadbeat-control (DBC)-based hybrid power sources are proposed in [12] and [13], respectively. They both need a high-speed central processing unit to calculate the optimal power distribution and maintain bus voltage; however, the heavy calculation burden limits their applications in high-frequency converters. A virtual impedance [14] and a virtual notch filter [15] are proposed to suppress the bus voltage fluctuation; they both take a load current feedforward

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The authors are with the School of Electrical Engineering, Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu 611756, China (e-mail: denglb\_pece@my.swjtu.edu.cn; eegzhou@swjtu.edu.cn; lyfswjtu@my.swjtu.edu.cn; zgc@swjtu.edu.cn).

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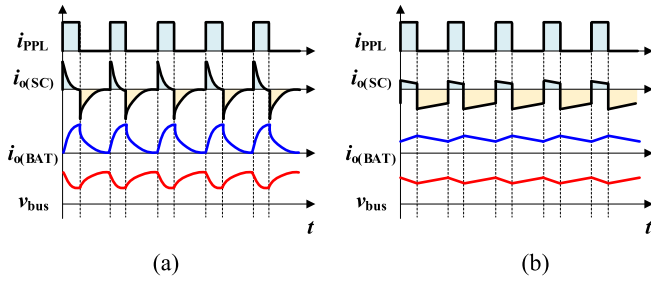


Fig. 1. Power distribution methods for the HESS. (a) Steady-transient distribution. (b) DC-AC distribution.

technique and introduce pulsed current into specific capacitor packs. The abovementioned strategies share information of all power conversion units, which requires that the two kinds of energy storage units must be installed very near to each other for real-time communication and information exchange.

Owing to the distributed property of a dc microgrid, the distributed and decentralized control strategies through local calculation instead of centralized calculation are developed. A hierarchical control of HESS is proposed for both the centralized and distributed cases, proving that centralized control has higher control accuracy but suffers from lower reliability in case of communication delay and failure [16]. The concept of virtual capacitor is introduced into droop control, which takes the integral value of the output current into the closed-loop feedback path; when the load current changes, the SC converter could respond transient power immediately, and the battery converter responds the steady part [17], [18], [19].

However, the existing methods for the HESS supplying PPL do not utilize the full capacity of the SC. As shown in Fig. 1(a), when supplying PPL, the output current of the battery converter  $i_{o(\text{BAT})}$  supplies a large periodical component, and the output current of the SC converter  $i_{o(\text{SC})}$  only exists for a short time. It means that the battery still provides the peak power; besides, a battery unit with such a large capacity is much more expensive than the SC unit [20]. What is more, the droop characteristics of the battery converter would cause periodical fluctuation to the dc bus. This kind of power distribution method is called steady-transient distribution in this article.

The concept of dc-ac power distribution that was used in pulsed power supplies [21] is a potential solution for the issues by steady-transient distribution. The dc-ac power distribution is illustrated in Fig. 1(b). The SC converter provides most of the ac current, leading to higher utilization of SC and less bus fluctuation; meanwhile, the current surge to the battery unit is greatly reduced.

The challenges are that the HESS is communication-free in a distributed dc microgrid, and the total load current is not easy to obtain. In addition, dc-ac distribution needs a high-bandwidth control strategy for high-frequency ac current tracking.

The main contributions of this article are as follows.

- 1) Through the proposed current estimator, communication-free control is realized with only local measurement.
- 2) The concept of dc-ac distribution is first introduced in the dc microgrid with the HESS, with a detailed design process.

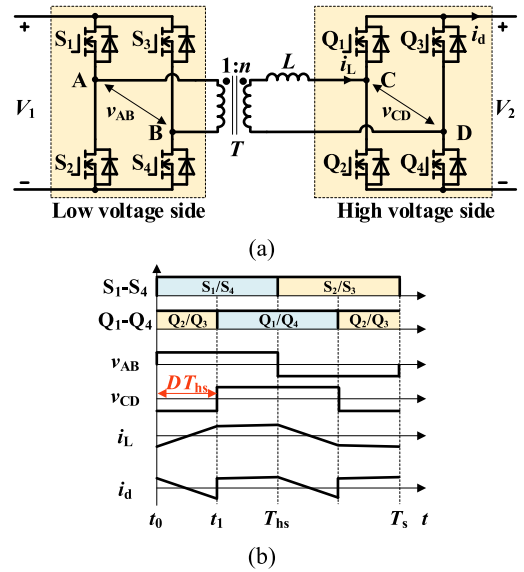


Fig. 2. DAB converter. (a) Circuit. (b) Key waveforms.

- 3) The reduction of dc bus fluctuation by PPL is explained by a frequency-domain model, which consists of impedance and a newly defined controlled current source.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. In Section II, an HESS with a dual-active-bridge (DAB) converter as the interface is established, and the load current estimation and ac current extraction algorithm are presented. In Section III, the SC controller design based on active disturbance rejection control (ADRC) [22] is derived, and the SC converter could perform as a current source automatically tracking the ac component. In Section IV, the frequency-domain analysis explains the power distribution mechanism in this application. Section V verifies the proposed pulsed power distribution and tracking method with a low-voltage testbench. In Section VI, detailed comparisons related to power distribution and tracking methods are provided. Finally, Section VII concludes this article.

## II. SYSTEM SIMPLIFICATION AND AC POWER ESTIMATION

### A. Architecture of HESS With DAB Interface Converters

The circuit of the DAB converter is depicted in Fig. 2(a); there are two full bridges and an auxiliary inductor  $L$  set in high-voltage side. Fig. 2(b) presents the waveforms with single-phase-shift modulation, the switches in each half-bridge are complementary, and  $S_1/S_3$  and  $Q_1/Q_3$  are complementary. Define  $D$  as the phase-shift ratio,  $T_{\text{hs}}$  as half a switching period, and the time difference  $DT_{\text{hs}}$  between  $S_1$  and  $Q_1$  changes inductor current  $i_L$ , rectified current  $i_d$ , and power flow. The transferred power from  $V_1$  to  $V_2$  is as follows [23]:

$$P = \begin{cases} \frac{nV_1V_2}{2f_sL} D(1-D), & D \in [0, 0.5] \\ \frac{nV_1V_2}{2f_sL} D(1+D), & D \in [-0.5, 0] \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where  $n$  is the turn ratio of the transformer and  $f_s$  is the switching frequency. Positive and negative phase-shift ratios lead to positive and reverse power flows, respectively.

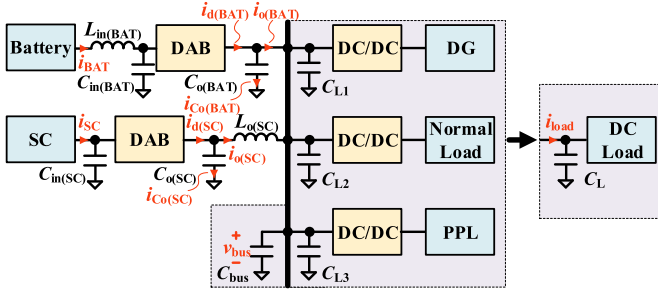


Fig. 3. Architecture of HESS with DAB interface converters.

The architecture of the dc microgrid with HESS and DAB interface converters is depicted in Fig. 3, which contains a DG, normal load, and PPL. As the HESS compensates the total power mismatch between the DG and all loads, the dc microgrid model can be simplified to an HESS supplying a lumped load, as the dashed box in Fig. 3. With the following proposed control strategy, the SC converter is to be simulated to a current source; hence, there is an additional filter inductor, i.e.,  $L_{o(SC)}$ , set at the output port. Meanwhile, another filter inductor  $L_{in(BAT)}$  set at the input port of the battery converter plays the role of smoothing current ripple for battery life extension [24].

### B. AC Component Estimation of Load Current

Although the loads are modeled as lumped, it is not practical to detect total load current, since the loads may be installed in different locations. To extract the ac component, a load current estimator is discussed first.

The steady-state function of the battery converter with droop control is

$$V_{o(BAT)} = V_{nom} - R_{dr} I_{o(BAT)} \quad (2)$$

where  $V_{o(BAT)}$  and  $I_{o(BAT)}$  are the output voltage and current of the battery converter, respectively,  $V_{nom}$  is the nominal bus voltage, and  $R_{dr}$  is the droop coefficient.

According to Fig. 3, the current of HESS always equals equivalent load current, namely,

$$i_{load} = i_{o(BAT)} + i_{o(SC)} = I_{d(BAT)} + i_{C_o(BAT)} + i_{o(SC)} \quad (3)$$

where  $i_{load}$ ,  $i_{o(BAT)}$ , and  $i_{o(SC)}$  are the total load current, the output current of the battery converter, and the output current of the SC converter, respectively. Besides,  $i_{d(BAT)}$  is the rectified current of the battery converter and  $I_{d(BAT)}$  is its average value;  $i_{C_o(BAT)}$  is the current through the output capacitor of the battery converter.

When the power supply and consumption reach a balance, the bus voltage keeps steady; thus,  $i_{C_o(BAT)}$  is considered as zero. With the droop characteristics,  $I_{d(BAT)}$  is replaced with

$$I_{d(BAT)} = I_{o(BAT)} = (V_{nom} - V_{bus})/R_{dr} \quad (4)$$

where  $v_{bus}$  is the bus voltage, and all the capital letters indicate average values of their counterparts.

When the load power changes,  $i_{C_o(BAT)}$  is calculated as

$$i_{C_o(BAT)} = C_{o(BAT)} \frac{dv_{bus}}{dt} \quad (5)$$

where  $C_{o(BAT)}$  is the output capacitance of the battery converter.

According to (2)–(5), the real load current  $i_{load}$  and its estimated value  $i_{load(EST)}$  can be derived as

$$\begin{aligned} i_{load}(s) &= (V_{nom} - V_{bus})/R_{dr} - sC_{o(BAT)}v_{bus}(s) \\ &\quad + i_{o(SC)}(s) \quad (6) \\ i_{load(EST)}(s) &= \frac{V_{nom}}{R_{dr}} - \frac{v_{bus}(s)}{R_{dr}} - C_{o(BAT)}v_{bus}(s) \frac{\omega_D^2 s}{(s + \omega_D)^2} \\ &\quad + i_{o(SC)}(s) \\ &\triangleq \frac{V_{nom}}{R_{dr}} - v_{bus}(s) \left( \frac{1}{R_{dr}} + C_{o(BAT)} G_{2diff}(s) \right) \\ &\quad + i_{o(SC)}(s) \quad (7) \end{aligned}$$

where  $G_{2diff}(s)$  is a second-order differentiator and  $\omega_D$  is its corner angular frequency.

Equation (7) needs only local real-time information of  $v_{bus}$  and  $i_{o(SC)}$ ; in addition, the invariable information of  $V_{nom}$ ,  $R_{dr}$ , and  $C_{o(BAT)}$  is known beforehand. Because a typical differentiator  $s$  magnifies noises as its high-frequency gain is close to infinity, a second-order differentiator is adapted here, whose frequency-domain characteristics are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} G_{2diff}(0^+) &= \frac{\omega_D^2 s}{(s + \omega_D)^2} \Big|_{s \rightarrow 0^+} = s \\ G_{2diff}(+\infty) &= \frac{\omega_D^2 s}{(s + \omega_D)^2} \Big|_{s \rightarrow +\infty} = \frac{\omega_D^2}{s}. \quad (8) \end{aligned}$$

When the angular frequency is lower than  $\omega_D$ ,  $G_{2diff}(s)$  acts as a typical differentiator, while when the angular frequency is higher than  $\omega_D$ ,  $G_{2diff}(s)$  approximates to an integrator with gain, which could attenuate high-frequency noise.

To extract the ac component of load current, a high-pass filter (HPF)  $G_{HPF}(s)$  is added

$$G_{HPF}(s) = \frac{s}{s + \omega_H} \quad (9)$$

where  $\omega_H$  is the corner angular frequency of the HPF. Assume that a unit current pulse happens, the high-pass component is supplied by the SC unit, and the rest part is supplied by the battery unit. The ripple of  $i_{o(BAT)}$  after the first pulse can be calculated as

$$\Delta i_{o(BAT)} = 1 - e^{-\omega_H t_{PPL}} \leq 1 - e^{-\omega_H \frac{D_{PPL(max)}}{f_{PPL(min)}}} \quad (10)$$

where  $t_{PPL}$  is the pulse duration,  $D_{PPL(max)}$  is the maximum PPL duty cycle, and  $f_{PPL(min)}$  is the minimum PPL frequency. In this article,  $D_{PPL(max)}$  is 30%; a recommendation selection  $\omega_H \leq 0.2\pi f_{PPL(min)}$  leads to  $\Delta i_{o(BAT)}$  less than 20% of pulse current. One may select a much lower  $\omega_H$  for less  $\Delta i_{o(BAT)}$ ; however, it also results in very slow response of the HPF [21].

The steady component cannot pass through the HPF; hence, the ac current reference of the SC converter can be simplified as

$$\begin{aligned} i_{ref(SC)}(s) &= i_{load(EST)}(s) G_{HPF}(s) \\ &= \left[ -v_{bus}(s) \left( \frac{1}{R_{dr}} + C_{o(BAT)} G_{2diff}(s) \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + i_{o(SC)}(s) \right] G_{HPF}(s). \quad (11) \end{aligned}$$

### C. Digital Implementations of AC Current Extraction

The bilinear transformation is applied to (11) to obtain

$$G_{2\text{diff}}(z) = G_{2\text{diff}}(s) \Big|_{s=\frac{2}{T_s} \frac{1-z^{-1}}{1+z^{-1}}} = \frac{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 z^{-2}}{1 + \alpha_2 z^{-1} + \alpha_3 z^{-2}}$$

$$G_{\text{HPF}}(z) = G_{\text{HPF}}(s) \Big|_{s=\frac{2}{T_s} \frac{1-z^{-1}}{1+z^{-1}}} = \frac{\alpha_4 + \alpha_5 z^{-1}}{1 + \alpha_6 z^{-1}}$$

$$i_{\text{ref(SC)}}(z) = \left( -\frac{v_{\text{bus}}(z)}{R_{\text{dr}}} + i_{\text{o(SC)}}(z) - C_{\text{o(BAT)}} v_{\text{bus}}(z) G_{2\text{diff}}(z) \right) G_{\text{HPF}}(z) \quad (12)$$

where  $T_s$  is the switching and sampling period and  $\alpha_0$ – $\alpha_6$  are expressed as

$$\alpha_0 = 2T_s \omega_D^2 / (\omega_D T_s + 2)^2, \quad \alpha_1 = -2T_s \omega_D^2 / (\omega_D T_s + 2)^2$$

$$\alpha_2 = 2(\omega_D T_s - 2) / (\omega_D T_s + 2), \quad \alpha_3 = (\omega_D T_s - 2)^2 / (\omega_D T_s + 2)^2$$

$$\alpha_4 = 2 / (\omega_H T_s + 2), \quad \alpha_5 = -2 / (\omega_H T_s + 2)$$

$$\alpha_6 = (\omega_H T_s - 2) / (\omega_H T_s + 2). \quad (13)$$

The discretized equations are shown as

$$i_{\text{ref(SC)}}[k] = \alpha_4 x[k] + \alpha_5 x[k-1] - \alpha_6 i_{\text{ref(SC)}}[k-1] \quad (14)$$

where  $k$  denotes the  $k$ th sampling instant and

$$x[k] = \frac{-v_{\text{bus}}[k]}{R_{\text{dr}}} + i_{\text{o(SC)}}[k] - C_{\text{o(BAT)}} v_{\text{bus\_2diff}}[k]$$

$$v_{\text{bus\_2diff}}[k] = \alpha_0 v_{\text{bus}}[k] + \alpha_1 v_{\text{bus}}[k-2] - \alpha_2 v_{\text{bus\_2diff}}[k-1] - \alpha_3 v_{\text{bus\_2diff}}[k-2]. \quad (15)$$

### III. ADRC-BASED AC CURRENT TRACKING

With the ac component extracted, the ac current is set as the reference of the SC converter  $i_{\text{ref(SC)}}$ . The widely used PI control is powerless in this application of tracking high-frequency  $i_{\text{ref(SC)}}$ . Though one could substantially increase open-loop crossover frequency for faster tracking ability, however, an enough phase margin (PM) is not guaranteed. In this section, ADRC is applied to the SC converter to satisfy both desired tracking ability and pulsed power distribution.

#### A. Modeling of SC Converter for Current Tracking

The SC converter is different from the general DAB model with a resistive load [25], there are an extra output inductor  $L_{\text{o(SC)}}$  and a dc voltage bus at the output port; in addition, the control target is tracking varying  $i_{\text{ref(SC)}}$ , instead of regulating voltage.

Considering the case of forward power flow, the piecewise linear equivalent circuits of the DAB converter are depicted in Fig. 4; owing to the symmetry of  $i_{\text{L}}$  and  $i_{\text{d}}$ , it is sufficient to consider half a switching period. Note that the equivalent series resistor (ESR)  $R_{\text{Co}}$  in the output capacitor branch is taken into consideration; because  $C_{\text{o}}$  and  $L_{\text{o}}$  form

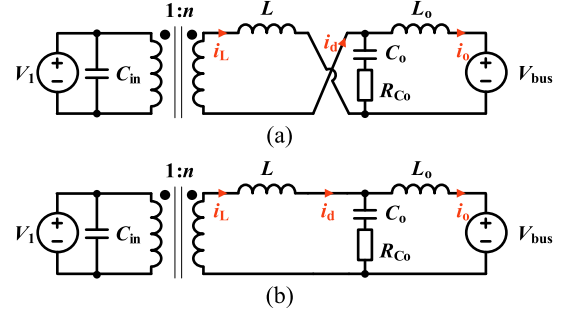


Fig. 4. Piecewise linear equivalent circuits in half a switching period. (a)  $t_0$ – $t_1$ . (b)  $t_1$ – $T_{\text{hs}}$ .

an  $LC$  filter, the ESR actually reduces the risk of undamped oscillations.

The current of an auxiliary inductor  $i_{\text{L}}$  is not regarded as a state variable because its average value equals zero in a complete switching period [25]; the reduced second-order state functions are

$$C_{\text{o}} \frac{dv_{\text{Co}}}{dt} = I_{\text{d}} - i_{\text{o}}$$

$$L_{\text{o}} \frac{di_{\text{Lo}}}{dt} = v_{\text{Co}} + R_{\text{Co}}(I_{\text{d}} - i_{\text{o}}) - V_{\text{bus}} \quad (16)$$

where  $I_{\text{d}}$  is the average value of  $i_{\text{d}}$  from  $t_0$  to  $T_{\text{hs}}$ , and it can be derived with the help of (1), as follows:

$$I_{\text{d}} = \frac{nV_1}{2f_s L} D(1 - D). \quad (17)$$

The small-signal model can be derived through adding small disturbance into (16) and taking out the average part [26]. The state space of the small-signal model is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{d\hat{v}_{\text{Co}}}{dt} \\ \frac{d\hat{i}_{\text{Lo}}}{dt} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{1}{C_{\text{o}}} \\ \frac{1}{L_{\text{o}}} & -\frac{R_{\text{Co}}}{L_{\text{o}}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{v}_{\text{Co}} \\ \hat{i}_{\text{Lo}} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{T_{\text{hs}} n V_1}{L C_{\text{o}}} (2D - 1) & 0 \\ -\frac{R_{\text{Co}} T_{\text{hs}} n V_1}{L C_{\text{o}}} (2D - 1) & -\frac{1}{L_{\text{o}}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{d} \\ \hat{v}_{\text{bus}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\triangleq A \begin{bmatrix} \hat{v}_{\text{Co}} \\ \hat{i}_{\text{Lo}} \end{bmatrix} + [B_0 \quad B_1] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{d} \\ \hat{v}_{\text{bus}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{i}_{\text{o}} = [0 \quad 1] \begin{bmatrix} \hat{v}_{\text{Co}} \\ \hat{i}_{\text{Lo}} \end{bmatrix} \triangleq C \begin{bmatrix} \hat{v}_{\text{Co}} \\ \hat{i}_{\text{Lo}} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (18)$$

According to the control theory, the transfer function from  $d$  to  $i_{\text{o}}$  can be derived as

$$G_{i_{\text{o,d}}}(s) = C(sE - A)^{-1} B_0 = \frac{T_{\text{hs}} n V_1 (1 - 2D)(C_{\text{o}} R_{\text{Co}} s + 1)}{(C_{\text{o}} L_{\text{o}} s^2 + C_{\text{o}} R_{\text{Co}} s + 1)L} \quad (19)$$

where  $E$  is a second-order identity matrix.

#### B. Principle of ADRC for the SC Converter

By transforming the transfer function into differential equation form and introducing a disturbance  $\omega$  into it, the standard

ADRC form can be derived as

$$\ddot{i}_o(\text{SC}) = -a_0\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) - a_1\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) + a_2\dot{d} + bd + \omega \quad (20)$$

where

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{L_o(\text{SC})C_o(\text{SC})}, \quad a_1 = \frac{R_{C_o}(\text{SC})}{L_o(\text{SC})}$$

$$a_2 = \frac{T_{\text{hs}}nV_1(1-2D)R_{C_o}(\text{SC})}{L_{\text{SC}}C_o(\text{SC})}, \quad b = \frac{T_{\text{hs}}nV_1(1-2D)}{L_{\text{SC}}C_o(\text{SC})L_o(\text{SC})}. \quad (21)$$

Note that  $b$  is highly related to  $D$ , indicating that the dynamic behavior is affected by the operation point. ADRC has the mechanism to eliminate the effect of different operation points by substituting  $b = b_0 + \Delta b$ , where  $b_0$  represents a presupposed operation point and  $\Delta b$  represents the mismatches caused by varying operation points, modeling errors, and parameters uncertainties, which would be compensated by the Luenberger observer. In this article, the SC converter runs in a bidirectional power flow mode; hence,  $D = 0$  is the best compromise when calculating  $b_0$ .

By combining  $-a_0\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) - a_1\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) + a_2\dot{d}$ , disturbance  $\omega$ , and modeling mismatches  $\Delta bd$  with the so-called generalized disturbance  $f$ , the differential equation of (20) changes to

$$\ddot{i}_o(\text{SC}) = b_0d - \underbrace{a_0\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) - a_1\dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) + \Delta bd + a_2\dot{d} + \omega}_f. \quad (22)$$

The crucial concept of ADRC is that if  $f$  can be eliminated, the open-loop transfer function of  $G_{i_o(\text{SC})\_d}(s)$  will be transformed to a second-order integrator system  $b_0/s^2$ ; then, a simple proportional-differential (PD) controller is enough to balance the tracking and stability performance.

According to the differential equation (22), a newly defined state space with the extended state variable  $f$  is derived as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \dot{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \dot{f} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ f \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ b_0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} d + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \dot{f}$$

$$\triangleq A_e \begin{bmatrix} i_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ f \end{bmatrix} + B_e d + E_e \dot{f}$$

$$i_o(\text{SC}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ f \end{bmatrix} \triangleq C_e \begin{bmatrix} i_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ f \end{bmatrix} \quad (23)$$

where  $A_e$ ,  $B_e$ ,  $C_e$ , and  $E_e$  are extended state-space matrices.

Then, a Luenberger observer is set up in the extended state space

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \dot{\hat{\hat{i}}}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \dot{\hat{f}} \end{bmatrix} = A_e \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{f} \end{bmatrix} + B_e d + \begin{bmatrix} l_{\text{ob}1} \\ l_{\text{ob}2} \\ l_{\text{ob}3} \end{bmatrix} (i_o(\text{SC}) - \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}))$$

$$= (A_e - L_{\text{ob}}C_e) \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) \\ \hat{f} \end{bmatrix} + B_e d + L_{\text{ob}}i_o(\text{SC}) \quad (24)$$

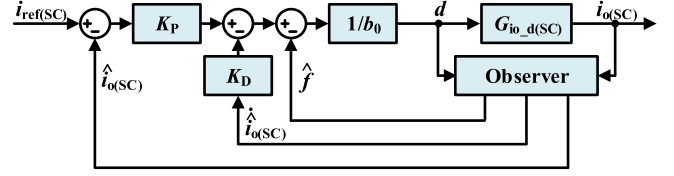


Fig. 5. ADRC-based current tracking of the SC converter.

where  $L_{\text{ob}} = [l_{\text{ob}1}, l_{\text{ob}2}, l_{\text{ob}3}]^T$  is the observer vector and the symbol  $\hat{\cdot}$  presents the estimated value. Note that  $\dot{f}$  does not exist in this observer, which is a common practice in ADRC because  $f$  can always be estimated by the correction function of  $L_{\text{ob}}$  [27], [28], [29], [30].

One can design a PD control law as follows:

$$d = \frac{K_P (i_{\text{ref}}(\text{SC}) - \hat{i}_o(\text{SC})) - K_D \dot{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) - \dot{f}}{b_0} \quad (25)$$

with which the closed-loop dynamics is a typical second-order oscillation element if  $\dot{f} \approx f$  holds, and it is easy to adjust the dynamic behavior by tuning  $K_P$  and  $K_D$ , i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{i}_o(\text{SC}) &= b_0d + f = K_P (i_{\text{ref}}(\text{SC}) - \hat{i}_o(\text{SC})) - K_D \dot{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}) - \dot{f} + f \\ &\approx K_P (i_{\text{ref}}(\text{SC}) - \hat{i}_o(\text{SC})) - K_D \dot{\hat{i}}_o(\text{SC}). \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

With (26), the ADRC-based current tracking of the SC converter is depicted in Fig. 5.

### C. Parameter Design of ADRC

The closed-loop dynamic behavior of (26) is transformed to frequency-domain form

$$G_{i_o(\text{SC})\_ref}(s) = \frac{i_o(\text{SC})(s)}{i_{\text{ref}}(\text{SC})(s)} \approx \frac{K_P}{s^2 + K_D s + K_P}$$

$$\triangleq \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2} \quad (27)$$

where  $\omega_n$  and  $\zeta$  are the oscillation angular frequency and the damping coefficient, respectively. To ensure a smooth current tracking dynamics without overshoot at all operation points,  $\zeta$  is set to 1.2 in this article; hence

$$K_P = 0.17K_D^2 \triangleq \omega_n^2. \quad (28)$$

In (27), there are two separated poles located at the real axis in the  $s$ -plane; if we ignore the one further away from the origin, the time-domain unit step response of (27) is simplified with

$$h(t) = 1 - e^{(-\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t}. \quad (29)$$

Define the settle time  $t_{\text{set}}$  as the unit step response time that the output reaches 0.98 from 0; with a presupposed  $\zeta$ ,  $\omega_n t_{\text{set}}$  can be derived by solving

$$h(t_{\text{set}}) = 1 - e^{(-\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t_{\text{set}}} = 0.98. \quad (30)$$

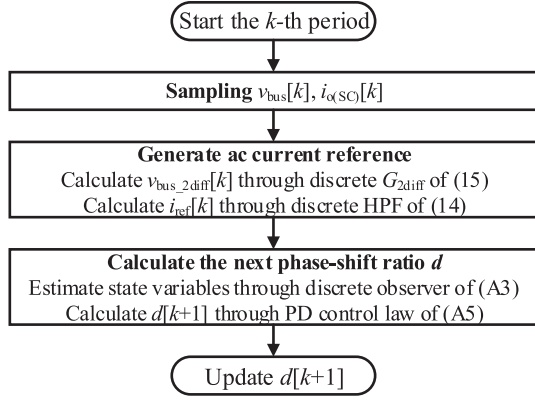


Fig. 6. Flowchart of the SC controller.

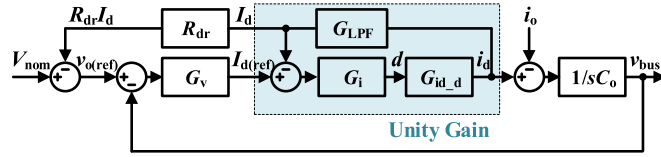


Fig. 7. Droop control scheme of the battery converter.

Then,  $K_P$  and  $K_D$  can be derived using (28)–(30) as

$$K_P \approx \frac{51.84}{t_{\text{set}}^2}, \quad K_D \approx \frac{17.46}{t_{\text{set}}}. \quad (31)$$

Above discussions are based on the assumptions that the Luenberger observer is fast enough to estimate  $f$ , which means that the bandwidth of the observer  $\omega_{\text{ob}}$  should be much larger than  $\omega_n$ . With the bandwidth-parameterization method [31], the triple poles of the observer (24) are located at the same position in the  $s$ -plane, i.e.,  $(-\omega_{\text{ob}}, 0)$ . The characteristic polynomial of the observer (24) is

$$\det(sE - (A_e - L_{\text{ob}}C_e)) = s^3 + l_{\text{ob}1}s^2 + l_{\text{ob}2}s + l_{\text{ob}3} \\ \triangleq (s - (-\omega_{\text{ob}}))^3 \quad (32)$$

where

$$l_{\text{ob}1} = 3\omega_{\text{ob}}, \quad l_{\text{ob}2} = 3\omega_{\text{ob}}^2, \quad l_{\text{ob}3} = \omega_{\text{ob}}^3 \quad (33)$$

generally  $\omega_{\text{ob}} = (3 \sim 10)\omega_n$ , which is a compromise between fast observation and high-frequency noise sensitivity [32].

All the parameters of the SC controller can be calculated once  $t_{\text{set}}$  and the presupposed phase-shift ratio  $D$  are determined, including  $b_0$ ,  $K_P$ ,  $K_D$ , and  $l_{\text{ob}1}$ – $l_{\text{ob}3}$ .

The discrete ADRC derivation and controller law can be found in the Appendix. Fig. 6 shows the complete flowchart of the SC controller.

#### D. Droop Characteristics of the Battery Converter

Like any other DAB converter with double-loop control, the battery converter commonly takes  $I_d$  as the inner current loop [33], and the control block is shown in Fig. 7. The inner current loop is regarded as unity gain since its bandwidth should be

TABLE I  
PARAMETERS OF CONVERTERS

Parameters	Values	Parameters	Values
Nominal input voltage $V_1$	48 V	Turns ratio of transformer 1:n	1:2
Nominal bus voltage $V_{\text{nom}}$	100 V	Auxiliary inductance $L$	20 $\mu\text{H}$
Switching frequency $f_s$	50 kHz	Equivalent bus capacitance $C_L$	400 $\mu\text{F}$
Input capacitance $C_{\text{in}}$ and ESR	400 $\mu\text{F}/50 \text{ m}\Omega$	Output capacitance $C_o$ and ESR	400 $\mu\text{F}/50 \text{ m}\Omega$
Input inductance $L_{\text{in}}$ and ESR (battery converter)	4.7 $\mu\text{H}/10 \text{ m}\Omega$	Output inductance $L_o$ and ESR (SC converter)	4.7 $\mu\text{H}/10 \text{ m}\Omega$

\*Unless otherwise stated, the battery converter and the SC converter share these parameters.

TABLE II  
PARAMETERS OF CONTROLLERS

Controller parameters of the battery converter			
Parameters	Values	Parameters	Values
PI compensator of outer voltage loop $G_v(s)$	1.45 + 32.4/s	PI compensator of inner current loop $G_i(s)$	0.02 + 32.4/s
Cutoff angular frequency of $G_{\text{LPF}}$ for $I_d$	6.28E3 rad/s	Droop coefficient $R_{\text{dr}}$	1V/A
Controller parameters of the SC converter			
Parameters	Values	Parameters	Values
Corner angular frequency of second-order differentiator $\omega_D$	18.84E3 rad/s	Corner angular frequency of HPF $\omega_H$	3.14 rad/s
$b_0$	2.55E10	Observer $l_{\text{ob}1}$ – $l_{\text{ob}3}$	1.88E5/1.18E10/2.47E14
$K_P$	2.07E8	$K_D$	3.49E4

designed to be much higher than that of the outer voltage loop. The only difference from common droop control is replacing  $i_o$  with  $I_d$  in the droop feedback path, which helps to reduce a current sensor.

With a reasonable voltage compensator, the closed-loop bandwidth of the voltage loop could be designed as  $\omega_v(\text{BAT}) = 1/(R_{\text{dr}}C_o(\text{BAT}))$ ; then, closed-loop output impedance  $Z_{\text{oc}(\text{BAT})}(s)$  is shaped to approximately an LPF [34], i.e.,

$$Z_{\text{oc\_APX}(\text{BAT})}(s) = \frac{R_{\text{dr}}\omega_v(\text{BAT})}{s + \omega_v(\text{BAT})}. \quad (34)$$

#### IV. FREQUENCY-DOMAIN ANALYSIS

Assume that the minimum pulse time is 1 ms, which satisfies a large number of PPLs [35], [36], [37]; there should be enough time margin when selecting  $t_{\text{set}}$ . Since in the control strategy of the SC converter, the dynamic behavior of  $i_{o(\text{SC})}$  is no longer a simple step response with a constant current reference, but a varying reference, one should accelerate the tracking dynamic to compensate the time delay from the ac current estimation algorithm of (12)–(15). In this article,  $t_{\text{set}}$  is set to 0.5 ms, the corresponding  $\omega_n$  is 1.44E4 rad/s, and  $\omega_{\text{ob}}$  is selected as 6.28E4 rad/s to attenuate the switching and sampling ripple noises with frequency higher than 10 kHz. Other parameters are listed in Tables I and II.

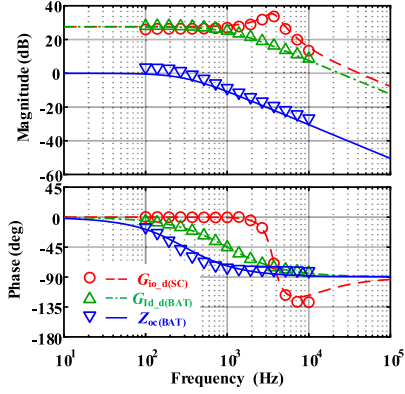


Fig. 8. Modeling verification of transfer functions related to the DAB converter ( $D = 0.25$ ).

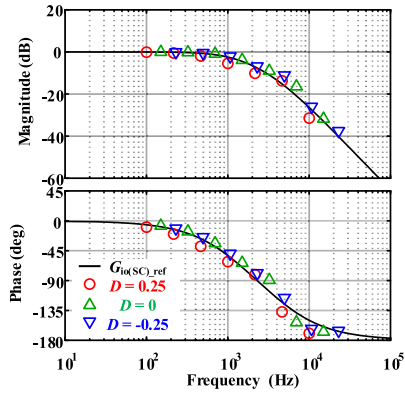


Fig. 9. Verifications of transfer functions  $G_{io(SC)_{ref}}$  at different operation points.

### A. Modeling Verification

Fig. 8 shows the theoretical models and simulation results by the MATLAB/Simulink frequency-sweeping tool. The sweeping results marked by discrete symbols always follow the analytical ones represented by lines, proving that those transfer functions are accurate enough for controller design.

As analyzed before, the observer has the compensation mechanism that makes the current tracking performance consistent even at different operation points. In Fig. 9, the solid line is the theoretical bode plot of  $G_{io(SC)_{ref}}$  when  $\zeta$  equals 1.2; the discrete symbols are frequency-sweeping results, and they match well.

### B. Frequency-Domain Analysis on Power Distribution and Droop Characteristics

The whole system is further simplified in Fig. 10. As (11) and (27) imply, the SC converter acts as an adaptive current source (ACS) that only tracks ac current. The closed-loop output impedance of the battery converter  $Z_{oc(BAT)}$  can be simplified as  $Z_{oc\_APX(BAT)}$  in (34), and its low-pass characteristics are exactly in line with a voltage source with  $R_{dr}$  and  $C_{o(BAT)}$ . Define  $CTR_{(SC)}(s)$  and  $CTR_{(BAT)}(s)$  as the current transfer ratio from  $i_{load}$  to  $i_{o(SC)}$  and  $i_{d(BAT)}$ , respectively, which indicate

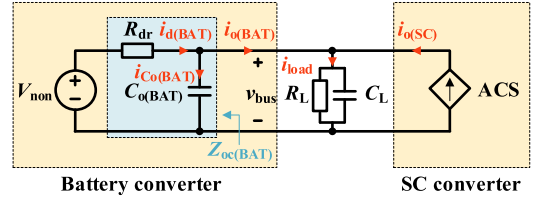


Fig. 10. Simplified system model.

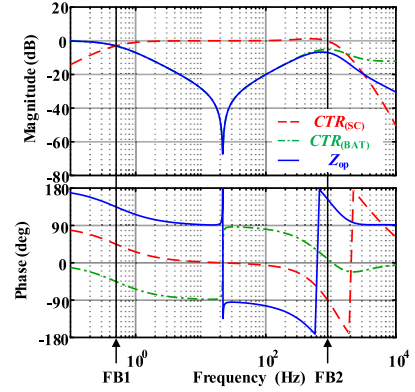


Fig. 11. Bode plots of  $CTR_{(SC)}(s)$ ,  $CTR_{(BAT)}(s)$ , and  $Z_{op}(s)$  with ADRC.

how much current the SC and battery converters provide to the load. Define  $Z_{op}(s)$  as the parallel output impedance of the two converters, and it determines how the dc bus responds to load current. The following expressions are derived from Fig. 10:

$$\begin{aligned} i_{load}(s) &= i_{o(BAT)}(s) + i_{o(SC)}(s) \\ v_{bus}(s) &= -i_{o(BAT)}(s)Z_{oc(BAT)}(s) \\ &\approx -i_{o(BAT)}(s)Z_{oc\_APX(BAT)}(s) \\ i_{o(SC)}(s) &= i_{load(EST)}(s)G_{HPF}(s)G_{io(SC)_{ref}}(s) \\ i_{o(BAT)}(s) &= i_{d(BAT)}(s) + i_{C_o(BAT)}(s). \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

$CTR(s)$  and  $Z_{op}(s)$  with ADRC can be derived as

$$\begin{aligned} CTR_{(SC)}(s) &= \frac{i_{o(SC)}(s)}{i_{load}(s)} = \frac{\Delta_1 \Delta_2}{1 - \Delta_1 + \Delta_1 \Delta_2} \\ CTR_{(BAT)}(s) &= \frac{i_{o(BAT)}(s)}{i_{load}(s)} = \frac{1 - \Delta_1}{1 - \Delta_1 + \Delta_1 \Delta_2} \\ Z_{op}(s) &= \frac{v_{bus}(s)}{i_{load}(s)} = \frac{-Z_{oc\_APX(BAT)}(s)(1 - \Delta_1)}{1 - \Delta_1 + \Delta_1 \Delta_2} \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_1 &= G_{HPF}(s)G_{io(SC)_{ref}}(s) \\ \Delta_2 &= Z_{oc\_APX(BAT)}(s) \left[ \frac{1}{R_{dr}} + C_{o(BAT)}G_{2diff}(s) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

Fig. 11 shows  $CTR_{(SC)}(s)$ ,  $CTR_{(BAT)}(s)$ , and  $Z_{op}(s)$ , in which frequency domain is divided into three frequency bands (FBs), where FB1 and FB2 are at 0.5 and 900 Hz, respectively.

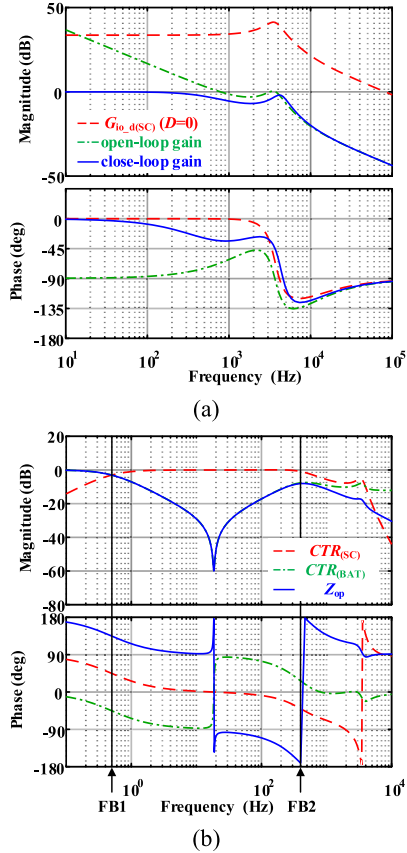


Fig. 12. Frequency-domain characteristics with the PI-compensated SC converter. (a) Bode plots of  $G_{io\_d}(SC)$ , open-loop, and closed-loop gains. (b) Bode plots of  $CTR_{(SC)}(s)$ ,  $CTR_{(BAT)}(s)$ , and  $Z_{op}(s)$ .

$CTR_{(SC)}(s)$  shows relatively lower gain than  $CTR_{(BAT)}(s)$  when the frequency is lower than FB1, verifying that the very low frequency power is mostly supplied by the battery converter. From FB1 to FB2,  $|CTR_{(SC)}(s)|$  is much larger than  $|CTR_{(BAT)}(s)|$ , leading to that the ac power is mainly supplied by the SC converter. When the frequency is higher than FB2,  $|CTR_{(SC)}(s)|$  reduces; because the SC converter could not track the ac current with such high frequency, improving FB2 is crucial to track high-frequency current.

In addition, the dc gain of  $Z_{op}(s)$  equals  $20lgR_{dr}$ , indicating that the droop characteristics of the battery converter are unaffected, even though adding an SC unit to the system.

### C. Comparison With a PI Compensator

ADRC shows desired future that the dynamic behaviors are almost coincident at varying operation points, which is favorable for the SC converter, since it frequently changes the operation point when PPL occurs. However, if the PI compensator is used, one should consider PM at different operation points. Fig. 12(a) shows an example of PI design at the operation point  $D = 0$ , following the principle of PM larger than  $60^\circ$ , and the compensator is  $0.008 + 90/s$ . The PI compensator necessarily lowers crossover frequency to avoid the resonance peak; finally, the closed-loop bandwidth is about 300 Hz.

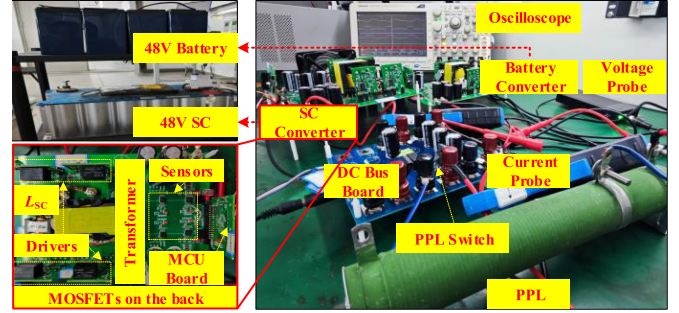


Fig. 13. Experimental testbench.

As a comparison of Fig. 11, Fig. 12(b) shows  $CTR(s)$  and  $Z_{op}(s)$  with the PI-compensated SC converter, where FB1 and FB2 are at 0.5 and 400 Hz, respectively; apparently, FB2 of PI control is much lower than that of ADRC, leading to a poorer high-frequency ac current tracking performance.

## V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

An experimental testbench is established, as depicted in Fig. 13. The parameters are the same as in Tables I and II. The battery pack consists of four 12 V lead-acid cells in series, and the SC with the capacitance of 165 F is from Maxwell Technology. The converters are controlled by two independent microcontrol units (MCUs) of TMS320F280049 from Texas Instruments, and there is no communication between them. A  $10 \Omega$  slide rheostat simulates the PPL and is controlled by a periodically switching MOSFET. The normal load is simulated by an electrical load.

### A. Steady Power Distribution and Tracking Performance

Fig. 14(a)–(c) depicts the steady waveforms of the proposed pulse power distribution with ADRC; the duty cycle of PPL is 30%, and the peak power is about 1 kW. When the PPL requires 10 A peak current for an instant, the SC converter immediately outputs 7 A peak current; when the PPL stops intermittently, the output current SC converter  $i_{o(SC)}$  stays at  $-3$  A, proving that the SC converter provides almost all the ac current of PPL. The battery converter, by contrast, only provides a very small portion of pulsed power; the negligible fluctuation of  $i_{BAT}$  could confirm it.

Fig. 14(d)–(f) shows the waveforms when the PI compensator is used instead of ADRC. Taking Fig. 14(c) and (f), i.e., the cases of 150 Hz PPL as examples, the SC converter with the PI compensator shows much slower current tracking performance; hence, the battery converter needs to provide more pulse power.

Fig. 15 illustrates similar comparative results when PPL duty cycle is reduced to 15%; the tracking current of the SC converter ranges from  $-1.5$  to 8.5 A. In Fig. 15(c), the tracking time of ADRC is about 1 ms, reaching the peak current just before the PPL stops intermittently. However, in Fig. 15(f), the SC converter with the PI compensator could not reach peak current in time, resulting in larger ac power supply by the battery converter and larger dc bus fluctuation.

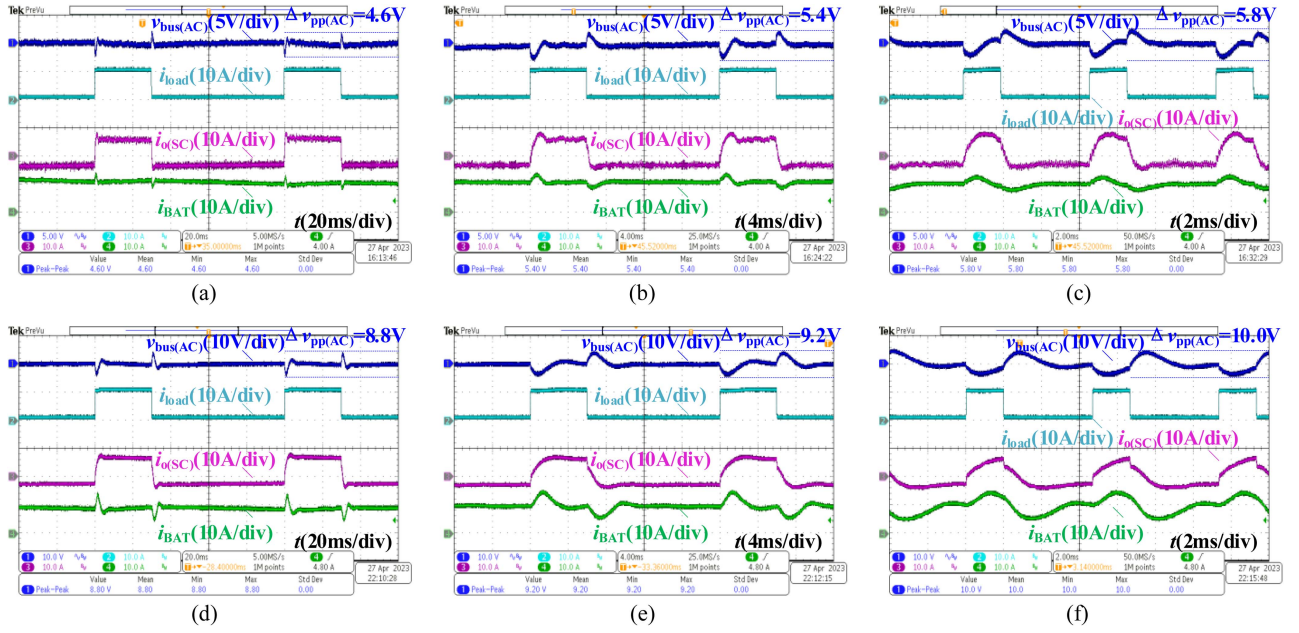


Fig. 14. Steady test; PPL duty cycle is 30%. (a) 10 Hz, ADRC. (b) 50 Hz, ADRC. (c) 150 Hz, ADRC. (d) 10 Hz, PI. (e) 50 Hz, PI. (f) 150 Hz, PI.

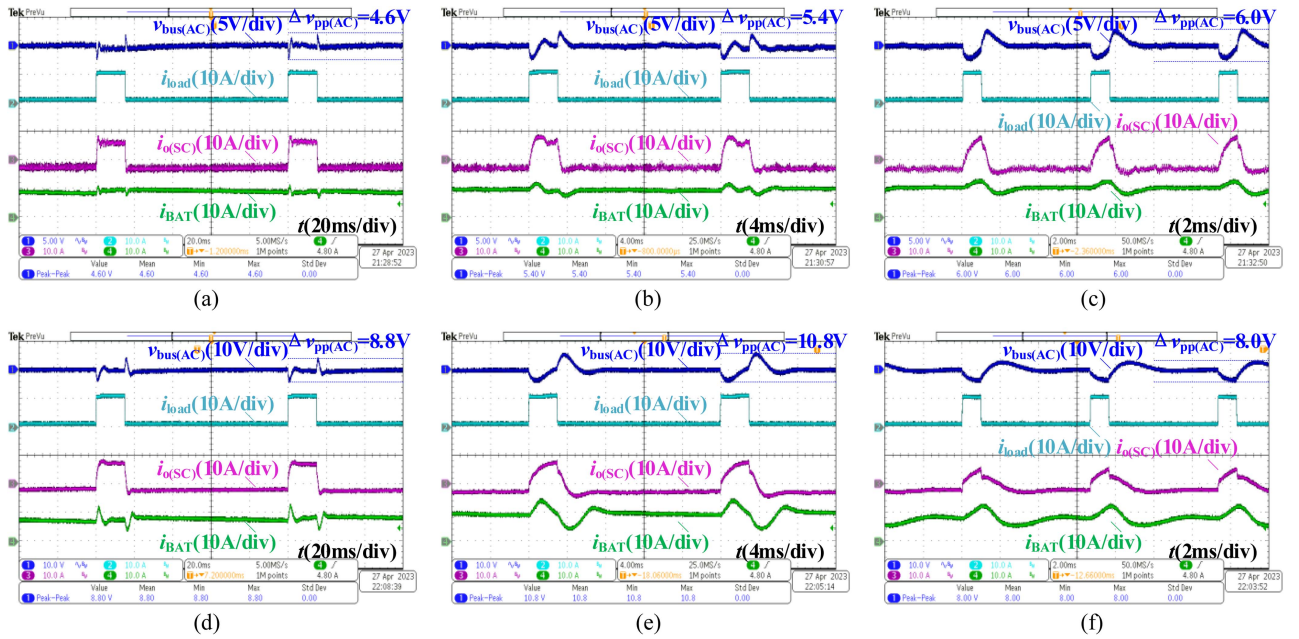


Fig. 15. Steady test; PPL duty cycle is 15%. (a) 10 Hz, ADRC. (b) 50 Hz, ADRC. (c) 150 Hz, ADRC. (d) 10 Hz, PI. (e) 50 Hz, PI. (f) 150 Hz, PI.

To clearly compare the influence of different controls to the dc bus, the ac coupling of the oscilloscope is used while measuring bus voltage fluctuation (the first channels in Figs. 14 and 15). Table III lists the peak-to-peak dc bus voltage fluctuation; ADRC demonstrates advantages over the PI compensator under all tested PPLs. However, in the case of 150 Hz PPL frequency and 15% duty cycle, ADRC demonstrates a smaller performance advantage, because neither of them could track the pulse less than 1 ms.

TABLE III  
DC BUS FLUCTUATION COMPARISON WITH DIFFERENT CONTROLS

PPL characteristics		Controls		Bus voltage fluctuation reduction by ADRC
Frequency	Duty cycle	ADRC	PI	
10 Hz	30%	4.6 V	8.8 V	47.7%
	15%	5.4 V	9.2 V	41.3%
50 Hz	30%	5.8 V	10.0 V	42.0%
	15%	4.6 V	8.8 V	47.7%
150 Hz	30%	5.4 V	10.0 V	46.0%
	15%	6.0 V	8.0 V	25.0%

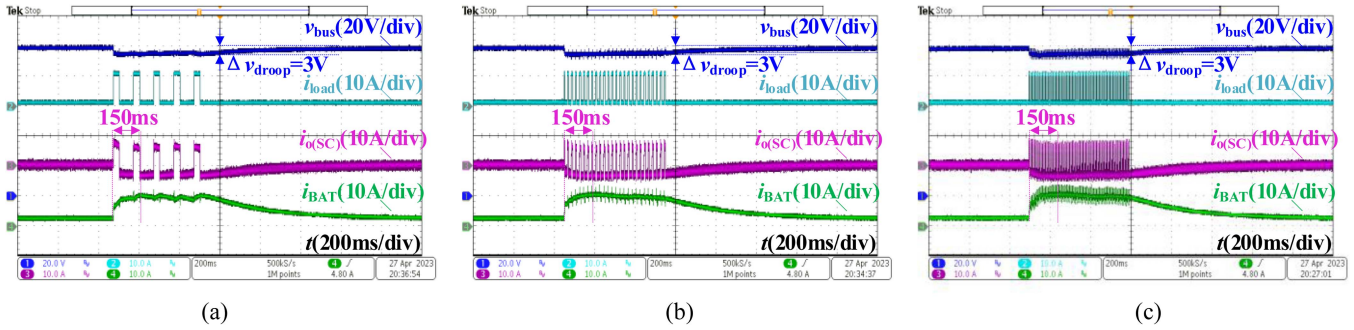


Fig. 16. Dynamic test; PPL duty cycle is 30%. (a) 10 Hz. (b) 50 Hz. (c) 150 Hz.

TABLE IV  
COMPARISON OF POWER DISTRIBUTION METHODS

Power distribution methods	Steady-transient distribution		DC–AC distribution
Implementation	LPF [10], [38]	Virtual capacitor [17],[18], [39]	Adaptive current source (this article)
Design complexity	Low	High	Medium
Implementation complexity	Low	Low	Medium
Communication	Not free	Free	Free
Adapt to PPL	Not	Only adaptation to very low frequency PPL	Adaptation to PPL with wide frequency range
Constraints	LPF with very low corner frequency deteriorates the recovery of bus voltage	Impedance-based parameter design requires repeated debugging [17]	Performance highly relies on the power tracking method
Applications	Centralized dc microgrid without PPL	Distributed dc microgrid with/without very low frequency PPL	Distributed dc microgrid affected by PPL

### B. Dynamic Power Distribution and Tracking Performance

Fig. 16 depicts the dynamic distribution and tracking waveforms under different PPL frequencies; the duty cycle and PPL running time are fixed at 30% and 500 ms, respectively. About 150 ms after the first power pulse, the ac component estimation algorithm gets the ac current reference, and the SC converter has caught up with it; meanwhile, the battery converter provides more dc power to maintain power balance. Because the dc current of PPL is 3 A and the droop coefficient  $R_{dr}$  is set to 1 V/A, the bus voltage reduces by 3 V. When PPL stops, the bus voltage is restored to the original value. The experimental results indicate that the droop characteristics of the battery converter are unaffected when PPL is in the system.

### C. Dynamic Performance When Only Normal Load Works

Fig. 17 shows the waveforms when only normal load is in the system. When the normal load jumps from 1 to 4 A, the SC converter immediately supplies transient power, and battery current  $i_{BAT}$  rises slowly until a new steady state, avoiding the transient current surge outflowing the battery pack. Owing to the droop characteristics, there is a 3 V bus voltage reduction.

The experimental result indicates that the proposed power distribution method is not only for PPL but also suitable for the case where PPL stops and only normal load works.

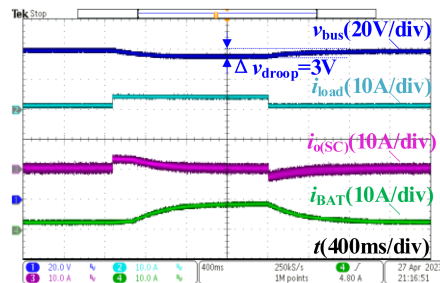


Fig. 17. Experimental waveform when only normal load works.

## VI. COMPARISONS AND DISCUSSIONS

The proposed control strategy is a combination of power distribution and tracking methods. Table IV compares the power distribution methods. The methods based on the LPF and the virtual capacitor require SC converter handling transient power, which is only a small part of varying power, resulting in that these methods can only be used when the load contains no or very low frequency periodical power; otherwise, most of the periodical power would be still provided by the battery unit. On the contrary, with the dc–ac distribution, all periodical power is handled by the SC unit; thus, the advantages of the HESS are fully exploited.

However, dc–ac distribution necessarily requires a fast controller for the SC converter, because it always tracks step power

TABLE V  
COMPARISON OF POWER TRACKING METHODS

Power tracking methods	LQR [6]	MPC [38], [41], [42]	DBC [40], [43]	ADRC (this article)
Design complexity	Medium	High	Low	Medium
Implementation complexity	Low	High	Low	Medium
Performance	Slow and accurate	Fast and with steady error [41]	Fast and with overshoot	Fast and accurate
Robustness	Robust, parameter mismatch is acceptable	Medium, relies on model accuracy, needs additional compensation [42]	Poor, heavily relies on parameter accuracy, needs additional parameter identification [43]	Robust, parameter mismatch is eliminated by the observer

if PPL occurs. Table V compares ADRC with other advanced controls. Though the nonlinear controllers, such as MPC and DBC, show outstanding performance, however, the performance often deteriorates due to model and parameter inaccuracies. Besides, the calculation burdens of MPC and DBC with parameter identification require a very high performance MCU. In contrast, ADRC shows better tracking performance than PI control and LQR control, with the robustness against model and parameter uncertainties.

Therefore, the combination of dc–ac power distribution and ADRC could be a simple and effective method for the HESS supplying PPL in a distributed dc microgrid.

## VII. CONCLUSION

This article proposed a communication-free pulsed power distribution and tracking method for the HESS in a dc microgrid, which is based on the concept of dc–ac component. A well-designed SC converter with ADRC could track ac component of PPL, and the battery converter only provided the dc component, avoiding the dc bus suffering from large-scale and periodical fluctuation. Moreover, the droop characteristics of the battery converter were unaffected. With the frequency-domain analysis, the principle of power distribution mechanism was illustrated. The experimental results of two DAB converters supplying 10–150 Hz PPL validated the effectiveness of the proposed power distribution method, system modeling, and controller designs.

## APPENDIX

This appendix provides a brief derivation of discrete-time ADRC, and a more detailed derivation can be found in [27] and [32].

To avoid confusion, the superscript  $\sim$  represents the predicted state variables based on the model, and the superscript  $\wedge$  represents the corrected ones by the observer. The prediction and correction processes are expressed as

$$\tilde{x}[k] = A_d \hat{x}[k-1] + B_d d[k-1] \quad (\text{A1})$$

$$\hat{x}[k] = \tilde{x}[k] + L_d (y[k] - C_d \tilde{x}[k]) \quad (\text{A2})$$

where  $\tilde{x} = [\tilde{i}_{o(\text{SC})} \ \dot{\tilde{i}}_{o(\text{SC})} \ \tilde{f}]^T$ ,  $\hat{x} = [\hat{i}_{o(\text{SC})} \ \dot{\hat{i}}_{o(\text{SC})} \ \hat{f}]^T$ ,  $A_d$ ,  $B_d$ , and  $C_d$  are transformed from their discrete-time counterparts in (24) through zero-order-hold discretization, and  $L_d$  is the discrete gain vector of the current observer.

Substituting (A1) into (A2), the complete discrete observer is derived as

$$\hat{x}[k] = (A_d - L_d C_d A_d) \hat{x}[k-1] + (B_d - L_d C_d B_d) d[k-1] + L_d y[k]. \quad (\text{A3})$$

The desired observer poles in the  $s$ -plane are designed at  $(-\omega_{ob}, 0)$  and then mapped to the  $z$ -plane via  $z_{ob} = e^{-\omega_{ob} T_s}$ . Similar to the continue observer that the poles are set in a same location, the discrete observer follows that

$$\det(zE - (A_d - L_d C_d A_d)) \triangleq (z - z_{ob})^3. \quad (\text{A4})$$

By solving (A4),  $L_d$  is obtained. According to the control law in (25), the phase-shift ratio calculated in the  $k$ th period is

$$d[k] = \frac{K_P (i_{\text{ref}(\text{SC})}[k] - \hat{i}_{o(\text{SC})}[k]) - K_D \dot{\hat{i}}_{o(\text{SC})}[k] - \hat{f}[k]}{b_0}. \quad (\text{A5})$$

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**Lunbo Deng** (Student Member, IEEE) was born in Sichuan Province, China, in 1996. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering and automation in 2018 from Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu, China, where he is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering.

He is a visiting scholar with McMaster University, Hamilton, ON, Canada, from 2023 to 2024. His current research interests include modeling and control of a bidirectional converter in energy storage systems and microgrids.



**Guohua Zhou** (Senior Member, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in electronic and information engineering and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu, China, in 2005, 2008, and 2011, respectively.

From March 2010 to September 2010, he was a Research Assistant with the Department of Electronic and Information Engineering, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Kowloon, Hong Kong. From 2010 to 2011, he was a Visiting Scholar (also a joint Ph.D. student) with the Center for Power Electronics Systems, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA, USA. He is currently a Professor with the School of Electrical Engineering, Southwest Jiaotong University. His current research interests include modulation and control techniques of power electronics systems, modeling and stability analysis of switching power converters, and renewable energy applications of power electronics.

Dr. Zhou was the recipient of the National Excellent Doctoral Dissertation of China in 2014. He became a Fellow of the Institution of Engineering and Technology in 2018. He is an Associate Editor for *CPSS Transactions on Power Electronics and Applications*.



**Yanglong Li** was born in Sichuan Province, China, in 1999. He received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering and automation in 2021 from Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu, China, where he is currently working toward the M.S. degree in electrical engineering.

His research interests include high-efficiency isolated dc–dc converters.



**Zhengge Chen** (Member, IEEE) received the B.S. and M.S. degrees in electrical engineering from Southwest Jiaotong University (SWJTU), Chengdu, China, in 2013 and 2016, respectively, and the Ph.D. degree in energy technology from Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark, in 2021.

He was an Assistant Engineer with Huawei Technologies Company, Ltd., Shenzhen, China, from 2016 to 2017. He was a Research Assistant with The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, in 2017.

He was a Visiting Scholar with Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA, USA, in 2020. He is currently an Assistant Professor with SWJTU. Since February 2023, he has also been a Mainland–Hong Kong Joint Postdoctoral Fellow with the City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong. His research interests include power converter topology and control, component modeling, magnetic integration, and reliability analysis.