

A SINGLE PHASE PV INVERTERS TOPOLOGY WITH A SERIES CONNECTED ENERGY BUFFER

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ABSTRACT—Module integrated converters (MICs) have been under rapid development for single-phase grid-tied photovoltaic applications. The capacitive energy storage implementation for the double-line-frequency power variation represents a differentiating factor among existing designs. This paper introduces a new topology that places the energy storage block in a series-connected path with the line interface block. This design provides independent control over the capacitor voltage, soft-switching for all semiconductor devices, and the full four-quadrant operation with the grid. The proposed approach is analyzed and experimentally demonstrated.

Index Terms—AC module, bidirectional power transfer, cycloconverter, dc-ac power converters, distributed power generation, double line-frequency ripple, grid-connected PV systems, high frequency ac-link, module integrated converter (MIC), multiport circuit, photovoltaic (PV) inverter, photovoltaic power systems, resonant power converters, single-phase energy storage, single-phase inverters, single-stage inverters, switching circuits, zero voltage switching.

INTRODUCTION

GRID-TIED inverters for photovoltaic systems represent a rapidly developing area. Module-integrated converters (MICs), sometimes known as microinverters, are designed to interface a single, low-voltage (25–40 V, typically) panel to the ac grid [1]–[5]. Such converters provide a number of benefits: ease of installation, system redundancy, and increased energy capture in partially shaded conditions [6]. MICs typically target single-phase electrical systems

(e.g., at 240 V), and are typically restricted to the unity power factor operation [8]. Therefore, the converter must deliver average power plus a time-varying power component at twice the line frequency, while drawing a constant power from the PV module. Fig. 1 illustrates the power transfer versus time for the grid and the PV module, with the shaded area between the curves indicating the temporal energy storage required for the inverter. To model this transfer of energy through the converter, a generalized Three-port system can be used. The constant power source

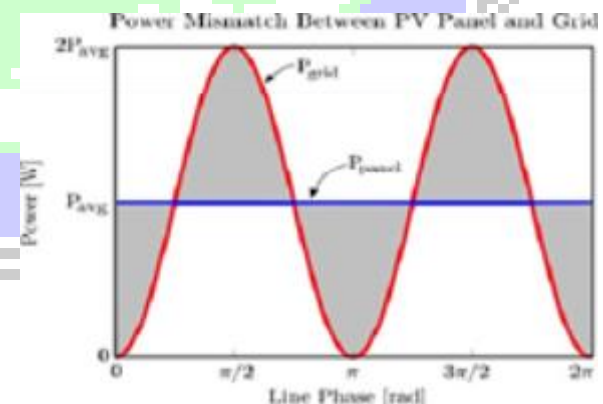


Fig. 1. Power flow mismatch between the grid and a constant power source results in the shaded area, representing the required energy storage.

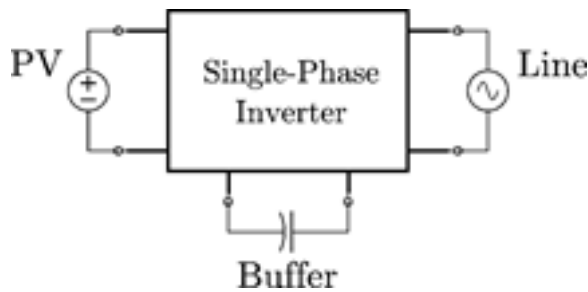


Fig. 2.

Generalized grid-connected power converter, visualized as a three-ports system.

Of the PV and the sinusoidal power load of the grid are illustrated in Fig. 2, and can be written as

$$P_{pv} = P_{avg}$$

When no reactive power is transferred. The energy storage buffer must absorb and deliver the difference in power between these two ports; specifically, inverters investigated in the past (see the literature review) can be classified by the location and the operation of the energy storage buffer within the converter. Most single-stage topologies, such as flyback and ac-link converters, place capacitance in parallel with the PV panel. This is an ineffective low-complexity implementation, but to avoid interfering

With the maximum peak-power tracking (MPPT) efficiency, substantial energy storage is required to limit the voltage ripple across the panel. A second common method involves two complete cascaded conversion stages, providing energy storage at an intermediate dc bus. This arrangement can be implemented with less energy storage than the previous method, as a large voltage fluctuation on the intermediate bus can be tolerated

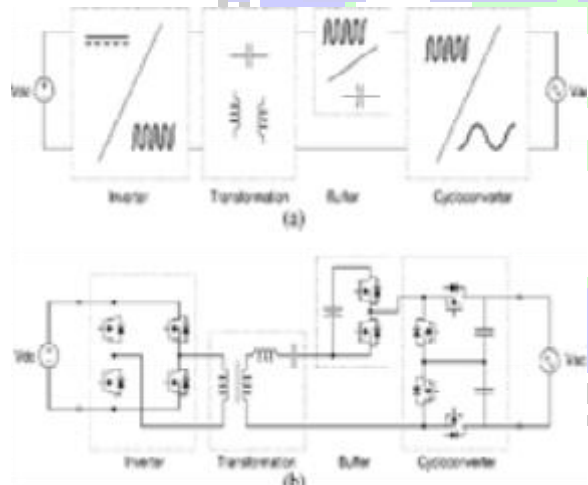


Fig. 3. Proposed photovoltaic module-integrated converter: (a) block diagram and (b) schematic

Without impacting the MPPT operation. The removal of the energy storage from the input also improves the transient response for peak-power tracking, as the PV module voltage can be controlled with a much higher bandwidth. One drawback common to both of the energy storage methods described previously involves the typical use of electrolytic capacitors for the dc energy storage. Electrolytic

capacitors are traditionally selected due to their high energy density, but suffer from the stigma of long-term failure rates. As MICs are typically mounted on the frame or backsheet of the PV module assembly, the high temperatures can accelerate aging processes for many of the internal components. To address this, focus

is placed on improving converter efficiency (i.e., reduction in thermal output) and transitioning to the use of higher-reliability capacitors. Recent developments in converter topologies have included “third-port” systems, providing active control of the energy storage stage, independent of the input and output voltages. This reduces the required energy storage, and provides the opportunity for less energy-dense film capacitors to be used.

The power converter presented in this paper implements a new type of third-port topology, where the energy storage (buffer) block is placed “in series” with the line voltage interface. The topology achieves high efficiencies with its continuous constant power operation, zero-voltage switching (ZVS) capability for all devices, and reduced volt-seconds applied to the high-frequency transformer.

II. PROPOSED SOLUTION

The block diagram and schematic in Fig. 3 illustrate the four functional blocks of the converter: the high-frequency resonant inverter, transformation stage, energy buffer, and cycloconverter. Each is connected electrically in series, with a common high-frequency resonant current linking them together. At first glance, this series-connected configuration would seem to impose a heavy conduction-loss penalty. However, scaling up device sizes appropriately can reduce this impact, and

The switching losses associated with large MOSFET devices can be greatly reduced through soft-switching techniques. Additionally, the resistive channel structure allows current to flow both directions through the device, allowing for bidirectional power flow in each block of the converter. This is in contrast with devices such as IGBTs, SCRs, and diodes which allow current flow in a single direction and impose a fixed on-state voltage drop. Additionally, the figure-of-merit for MOSFETs has improved steadily since their introduction, particularly with the recent charge-compensation principles. This has allowed high-voltage silicon MOSFETs to surpass the “silicon Limit” and become viable for voltage ranges once relegated to low-frequency IGBTs. Additionally, the emergence of wide-band gap FET-based device structures, implemented in SiC and GaN, have the potential to meet these same voltage levels

While dramatically reducing the on-state resistance and undesirable device parasitics. This historical semiconductor device progress, combined with these and other anticipated future developments, are a motivating factor in the elimination of p-n junction devices in the topology. This study shows that this approach provides high efficiency with presently available devices, and is

anticipated to scale with the improvements in device technology. Even with the departure from traditional converter design, the well-known methods and algorithms for MPPT, Grid synchronization and islanding detection can continue to be used.

To place the series-buffer topology in context, a comparative listing of both commercial and academic work is presented in Table I. At the expense of slightly higher complexity, the proposed converter provides a number of additional capabilities while achieving an efficiency that matches presently available designs.

III. TOPOLOGY OPERATION AND ANALYSIS

At a very high level, the converter operation is closely related to the ac-link family of topologies. Here, the switching waveforms of all three series-connected blocks are responsible for generating the intermediate high-frequency current waveform.

This can be seen in Fig. 4, where each active switching block is replaced with an idealized square-wave voltage source, and connected in series with the resonant circuit. To modulate power flow through the converter, each block uses the resulting series current as a reference, to which it readjusts its switching waveform appropriately.

The interdependence of the resonant current and switching behavior of the three blocks presents a challenge for directly evaluating the full converter operation. To ease this, the analysis is performed with two simplifying approximations: 1) the quality factor of the series resonant circuit is sufficiently high to approximate it as a sinusoidal current source operating at the switching frequency; and 2) the voltage at each terminal of the converter (PV, buffer, and line) changes slowly enough, relative to the switching frequency, that they can be approximated as constant over a switching cycle. With these, the converter can then be decoupled into the two circuits in Fig. 5, separated such that the dc-connected inverter and transformation blocks are grouped into the *primary* side, and the buffer and cycloconverter are grouped into the *secondary* side. This permits the two

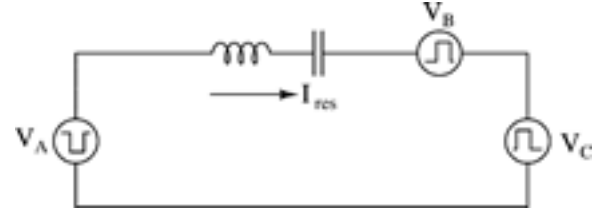


Fig. 4. Proposed topology of Fig. 3, where each active switching block is replaced with a square-wave voltage source. The applied voltage of all three blocks results in a high-frequency series current which links each block together.

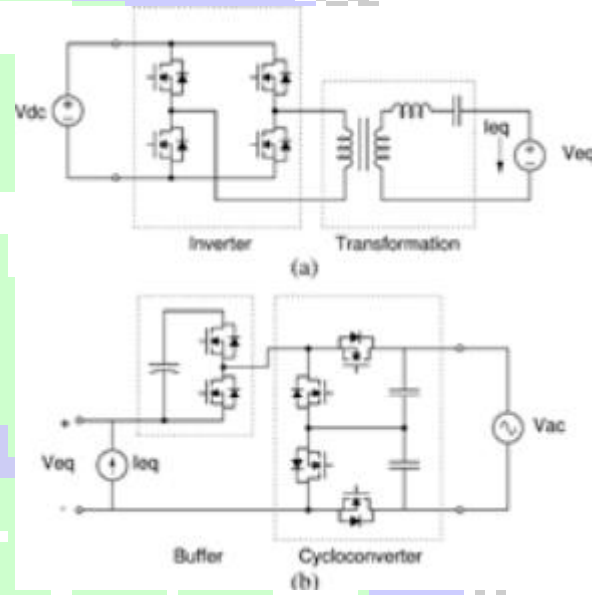


Fig. 5. Equivalent circuits representing the (a) primary and (b) secondary sides, decoupled by approximating the output of the transformation stage as a current source. Circuits to be analyzed separately, which motivates the design process outlined in this section.

A. Switch Modulation

Both the primary and secondary sides of the converter are constructed from a number of canonical totem-pole structures. The buffer is composed of one such block, where the energy storage voltage is represented as unipolar, while the line-interfaced cycloconverter is composed of two such blocks, in a common source layout (each providing operation under opposite voltage polarities).

The modulation of power through the simple circuit in Fig. 6 is accomplished by controlling the switching of the voltage waveform $v(t)$ relative to the series resonant current $i(t)$. This is shown in Fig. 7 where the resonant current

	This Work	[1]	[10]	[24]	[25]	[26]	[27]	[28]	[30]
Topology	Series-Buffer	Boost + Inverter	Boost + Bridge	Boost + Bridge	Ac-Link	Boost-Buffer	Ac-Link	Boost-Buffer	Ac-Link
Energy Storage	Inductor	Capacitor	Inductor	Inductor	Inductor	Inductor	Inductor	Inductor	Inductor
Input Voltage (V)	25-40	25-30	25-30	25-30	25-40	25-30	25-30	25-40	25-40
Rated Power (W)	200	115	200	115	200	200	200	115	200
CDC Efficiency (%)	93	90	93	93	93	93	93	93	93
Reactive Power	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Complexity	High	Low	Low	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	High

All values are specified with a nominal 250-240V, 50-60 Hz main interface

¹ Infineon Energy MOSFETs

² Solidity Power IGBTs

³ Texas Instruments MOSFETs

and

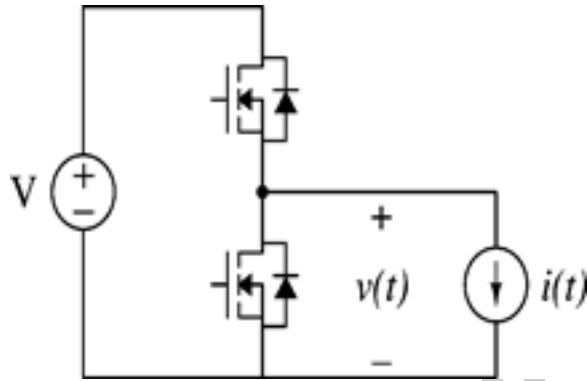
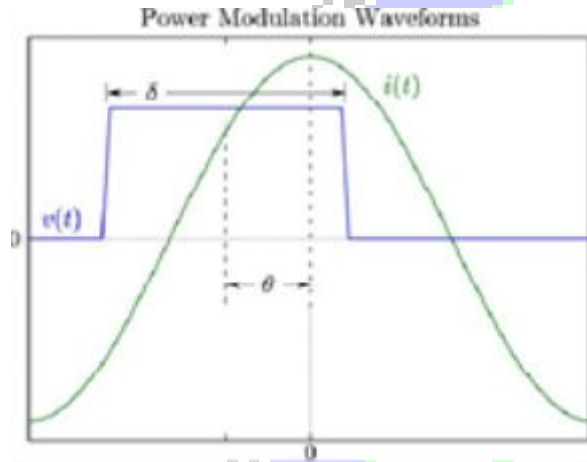


Fig. 6. Constituent sub circuit of the buffer and cycloconverter blocks from Fig. 5(b).



in Fig. 7, illustrating the control parameters δ and θ . Switching-voltage waveforms are illustrated with the variables δ and θ , corresponding to duty-cycle and phase-shift parameters, respectively. The average power delivery over a switching cycle can then be expressed as a function of these components through
Where δ and θ are expressed in radians.

This same result can also be reached by representing the voltage and current waveforms as phasor quantities (at the switching frequency). It is important to note that for a given voltage, current, and power requirements, a continuum of solutions exist for the control variables, providing the flexibility to implement additional constraints, such as soft-switching transitions.

B. Resonant Current Magnitude

In addition to the switching parameters, the resonant current magnitude in (4) remains as an additional parameter for

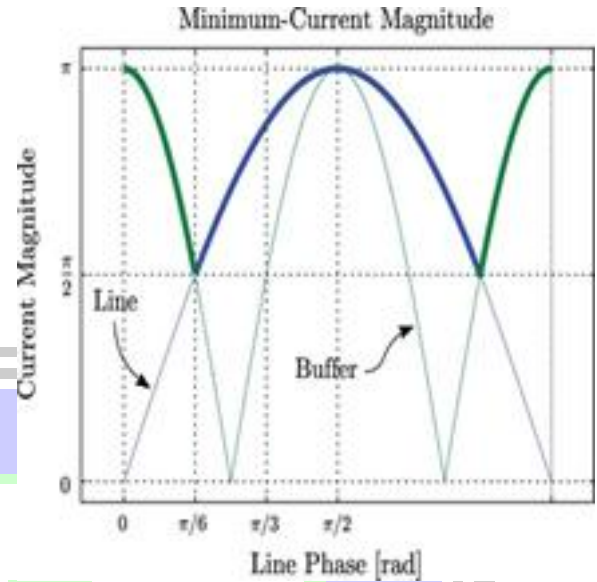


Fig. 8. Minimum resonant current magnitude requirements for the buffer block and cycloconverter, including the bold line indicating the envelope of current that meets both constraints.

C. Transformation and Inverter Design

With an understanding of the behavior of the secondary side of the converter, the primary-side circuit in Fig. 5(a) can be considered with the objective of obtaining an inverter and transformation

Combination capable of synthesizing the required resonant current, as defined in the preceding section. The transformation stage is designed to provide impedance appropriate for the primary side driving circuit; in this case it is desired to present a positive reactance at the switching frequency for the bridge

Converter to achieve the desired ZVS conditions. Additionally,

The magnitude of the impedance must be managed such that the inverter is capable of operating over the full required voltage and power range. The varying control and behavior of the secondary half of the converter results in a dynamic load over a line cycle. Using phasors, the secondary-side circuit can be approximated as a complex impedance at the switching frequency, as shown in

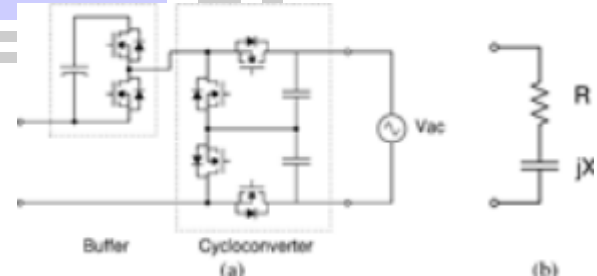


Fig. 10. (a) Buffer block and cycloconverter can be approximated as (b) the complex load impedance.

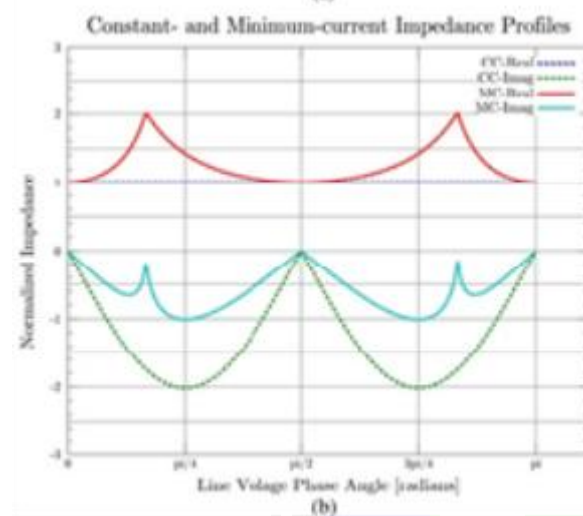
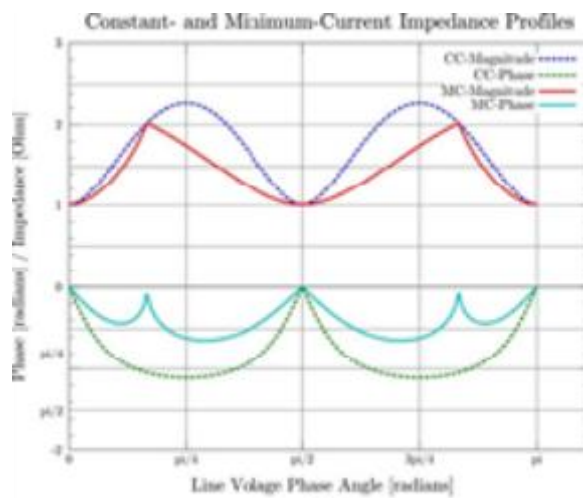


Fig. 11. Complex impedance of the buffer-block and cycloconverter are shown to vary over a line cycle based on the constant- or minimum-current drive method. Both the (a) magnitude/phase and (b) real/reactive relationships are presented.

Fig. 10. The equivalent impedance $Z = VC + VB/I$

of this stage is calculated and shown in Fig. 11 for both the constant and minimum-current envelopes considered previously.

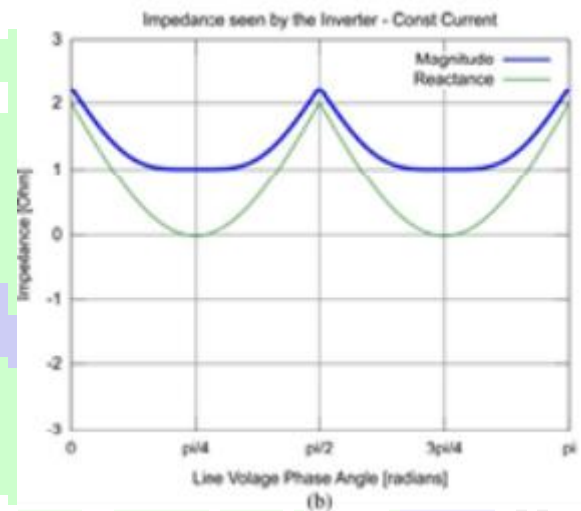
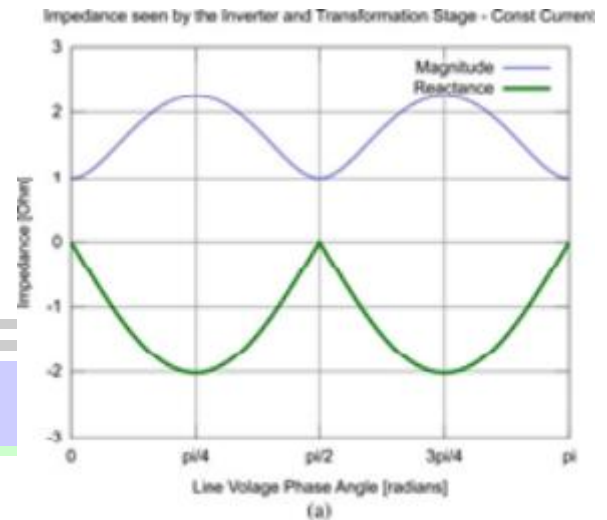


Fig. 12. Normalized load impedance, at the switching frequency, presented to the full-bridge inverter by (a) buffer-block, and cycloconverter stages, and (b) Including the series-resonant tank. Without the inductance of the resonant tank, the reactance presented to the inverter prevents zero-voltage switching.

The lower reactive impedance for the minimum current envelope can be understood by the length of time the blocks' phase deviate from alignment with the resonant current (0 or π). The minimum-current operation always maintains one block in phase with the current, maximizing the power factor of the resonant tank, while the constant-current method results in higher reactance.

In the transformation block, the negative reactance of the secondary side is offset by selecting the components of the series resonant tank to compensate. The resulting impedance changes,

As shown Fig. 12, where the minimal required positive compensating reactance is provided. In this case, the peak magnitude

Remains the same; however, its overall shape has changed. To

constrained domain of the phase variables to perform a

drive this compensated load, the inverter is operated as a phase-shift full-bridge, where its applied voltage is defined in phasor form as

$$V = 2V/\pi \sin(\delta/4) e^{j\theta} \quad (12)$$

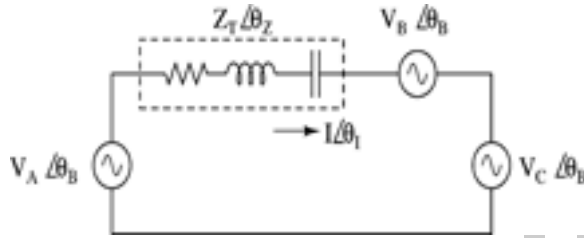


Fig. 13. Phasor equivalent of the circuit shown in Fig. 4, which approximates the operation of each active block as a sinusoidal voltage source.

Where δ represents the duty cycle and θ is the phase of the voltage relative to the resonant current waveform. With control of this driving voltage, and the flexibility in selecting the transformer turns ratio and the resonant tank component values, a transformation stage and inverter can be created which is capable of synthesizing the required resonant current.

D. Control Parameter Solutions

With the control parameters for each block defined, the interdependence between them can be investigated by considering the operation of all blocks together. To simplify the analysis, the equivalent circuit in Fig. 13 illustrates the converter in phasor form, with the voltages normalized to allow the transformation stage to be lumped into a single-series element $zT = R + jXT$, implicitly dependent on the switching frequency (f_{sw}). The series current can then be defined in terms of the circuit voltages and tank impedance, such that

$$I = 1/ZT e^{j\theta_Z} (V_A e^{j\theta_A} + V_B e^{j\theta_B} + V_C e^{j\theta_C})$$

and the power delivery for a given voltage source k is expressed as

$$P_k = 1/2 Re$$

For a single block, this power transfer equation requires seven parameters: the switching frequency, and the magnitude and phase for the three voltage sources. This list can be reduced by choosing to define one phase as the reference, eliminating it as an

unknown. Additionally, having implemented phase-shift modulation for the buffer and cycloconverter, in combination with

their measurable terminal voltages, results in known voltage magnitudes for V_B and V_C . This leaves the switching frequency f_{sw} , phases θ_B , and θ_C , and the effective driving voltage of the full-bridge V_A . The single-phase power flow requirements for the converter, given in (1)–(3), provide two independent constraints and the remaining two are imposed by selecting an appropriate value for the switching frequency f_{sw} and full bridge pulse-width δA (for control of V_A). To solve for θ_B and θ_C , one can take advantage of the inherently

direct search. Implementing an iterative solver is also effective, but often complicated by the existence of multiple solutions. With a solution method in place for finding the unknown phase angles, it is repeated for additional combinations of the

A. Simulation Results

The operation and performance of the converter is measured in two different configurations. First, the converter is operated in dc–dc mode, stepped over a set of discrete operating points approximating an ac output. Second, the converter is operated in stand-alone dc–ac mode. In both configurations the converter is fed with constant voltage at its input, and pre-populated lookup tables are used by the converter for the hardware control parameters. The oscilloscope waveform captures in Fig. 15 are used to illustrate the switching-level operation of the converter at three

points in the line cycle, with an output power of 100 W, an input voltage of 32 V, and a buffer voltage of 170 V. Starting at the zero crossing of the line, a line phase of 0° (0 V), Fig. 15(a) shows the buffer block absorbing power, with its switching waveform nearly in-phase with the negative portion of the resonant current. The second capture occurs at a line phase of 30° (170 V), where the buffer block and cycloconverter are each absorbing 50 W from the source, with voltage waveform switching complementary to each other. At a line phase of 90° (340 V), shown in Fig. 15(c), the buffer and source are each providing 100 W to the cycloconverter, which is providing 200 W out.

In the dc–dc operation, the converter's efficiency over a line cycle was measured for five average-power levels, at an input voltage of 32 V.

These results, shown in Fig. 16, demonstrate efficiencies above 91% for all conditions, with peaks above 98%.

These are power stage efficiencies, and the inclusion of the gate drive and auxiliary power accounts for an additional loss of 1–1.8%.

This was also performed at two additional input voltages, resulting in an approximate CEC efficiency of 95.5%.

The converter was also operated in the full dc–ac mode, into a 60 Hz 240 Vac line simulator, with an input voltage and power

Fig. 16. Simulation obtained dc input and (unfiltered) ac

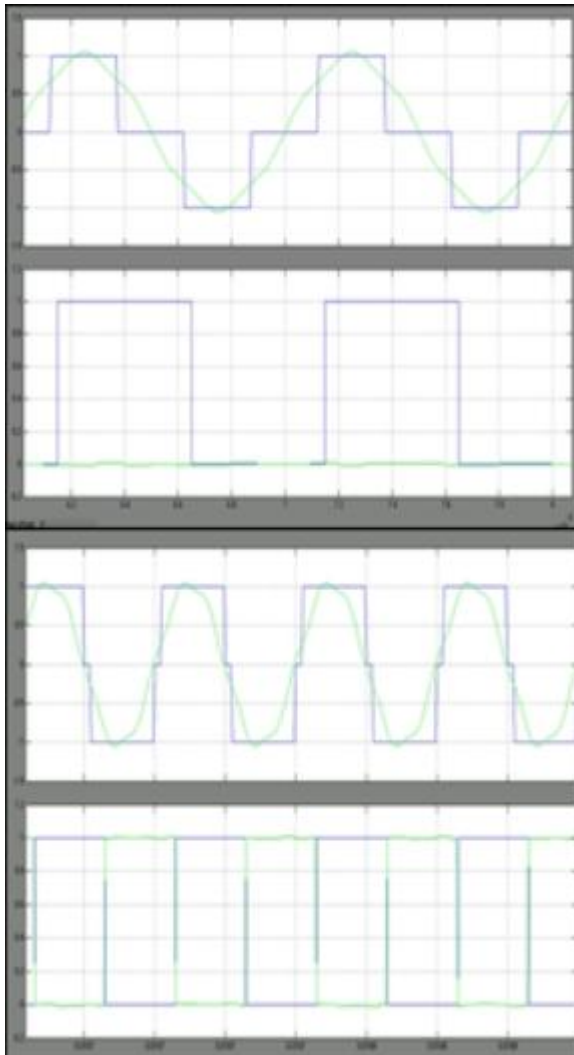
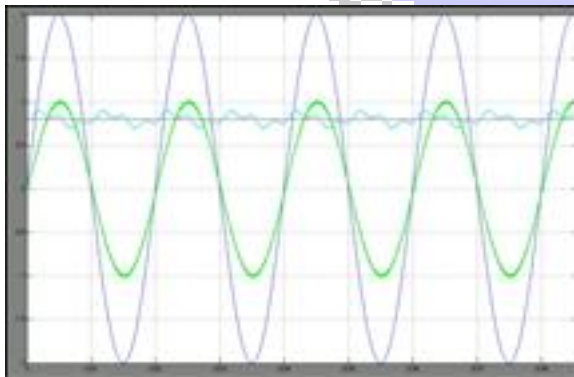


Fig. 15. Converter operation with 32V input, 100W average power, at three points in the line cycle: (a) 0° , 0V; (b) 30° , 170 V; (c) 90° , 340 V. Waveform channel number and color key; (1) blue: current, (2) red: full-bridge, (3) green: buffer-block, and (4) purple: cycloconverter. Channels 1 and 2 are referenced to the top marker, while channels 3 and 4 are referenced to the bottom marker.



output waveforms, at an input voltage of 32V. Waveform channel number and color key; (1)

Blue: input current, (2) red: output current, (3) green: input voltage, (4) purple: output voltage. Channels 2 and 4 are referenced to the center marker, while channels 1 and 3 are referenced to the bottom marker.

a control parameter lookup-table, indexed by its output voltage measurement.

This dc-ac operation results in a 95.3% efficiency, including all gate and auxiliary power. The voltage and current waveform measurements for the dc input and ac output of the converter are shown in Fig. 17. The ideal waveforms would have a constant input voltage and input current with a sinusoidal output current in-phase with the output voltage; however, the measured results deviate slightly from this. The largest contributor to the discrepancy comes from the uncompensated delay associated with voltage measurement, and more significantly, the time duration required to update the converter operating parameters;

a total delay of 1ms. This update latency primarily manifests itself as an unintended phase-shift in the output current relative to the line voltage (reactive power transfer), ultimately reflecting back as input-power ripple (seen as current ripple). This unintended operation also illustrates the well-behaved nature of the cycloconverter near the line zero crossings, where the opposing half-bridge circuits can be operated synchronously to prevent short-circuit conditions when the voltage polarity may be uncertain [9]. The residual current ripple drawn by the converter, intentional or not, must be suppressed to maintain a fixed point on the PV module I - V curve. This can be achieved with a relatively small additional capacitance at the input, stabilizing the voltage for

MPPT. It is expected that effective compensation of the control loop delay will reduce, if not negate, the input ripple and this extra energy storage.

V. CONCLUSION

The converter design and implementation presented in this paper has demonstrated a new topology with an energy-storage buffer in the series-connected path with the line interface. It has an increased complexity relative to traditional designs, but allows control over the energy storage voltage and ripple, permitting the use of electrolytic or film capacitors. It also maintains the capability of reactive power transfer and high efficiency, as demonstrated.

The presented bench prototype provides verification of the functionality and performance of the design process. While not the primary focus, the standalone

dc-ac test demonstrated 95.3% efficiency under representative operating conditions (100W, 32V input, 240V output), all inclusive. Further improvements on these successful results are expected with optimized magnetic and online tuning of control parameters.

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