

# Model predictive control for isolated DC/DC power converters with transformer peak current shaving

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**Abstract**— In this paper a Model Predictive Control, suitable for isolated DC/DC power converters and featuring optimization on converter operations, is proposed. The control is designed based on a specific a current-fed DC/DC converter topology, named Active-Bridge-Active-Clamp converter. This topology is particularly suitable for batteries interface, utilizing its interleaved structure in order to achieve an effective current ripple cancellation at the low voltage terminals. However, the increased complexity of the ABAC converter requires a specific modulation implementation and a detailed converter modeling. For such reasons, the operating principle of the ABAC converter is firstly introduced and mathematical models of the ABAC are developed in this paper. Subsequently, a Model Predictive Control is proposed and implemented aiming to achieve terminal current regulation, improve dynamic performance and reduce current stress in a wide DC voltage operating range, whilst maintaining a fixed switching frequency and a reduced prediction horizon. Simulation results for a 10kW ABAC converter are provided to validate the theoretical claims.

**Keywords**—*Model Predictive Control (MPC), Isolated DC/DC power converter.*

## I. INTRODUCTION

A DC voltage level of 270V is currently being adopted in modern civil aircrafts [1] like, for example, the Airbus A380 and the Boeing B-787 and in fighters like the Lockheed Martin F-35. Many large aircrafts use a combination of voltage levels, with 28VDC frequently being used to power flight critical avionics [2], to interface with batteries or fuel cells [3]. Therefore, a high step up/down DC/DC converter is needed to interface the high and low DC buses.

Amongst other DC/DC converters [4], Dual-Active-Bridge (DAB) is often investigated for its bidirectional power flow and galvanic isolation [3]. The DAB also features high efficiency when input and output voltages are kept at their nominal values, benefited from the inherent Zero Voltage Switching (ZVS) in all switches on both sides of the transformer [5]. However, large current ripple is expected on the Low Voltage (LV) converter side [6], requiring large passive filters. In addition, active suppression techniques are needed to mitigate potential resonances between LV terminal and LV source/load [7]. Deriving from the S-DAB proposed in [8], a current-fed DAB named Active-Bridge-Active-Clamp (ABAC) is introduced in papers [9]–[11]. The term active bridge describes the full H-Bridge on the primary side of the transformer, and active clamps describe the four clamping circuits on the secondary side of the transformer. The ABAC topology provides bidirectional power transfer ability and extra degree of freedom to effectively cancel the LV side current ripple. Furthermore, in terms of efficiency and power density, the ABAC converter represents a viable alternative to classical

DAB in MEA applications [9], [12]. The ABAC converter can be intuitively modulated in a single phase shift mode mentioned in [13]. Although the application of this modulation is straightforward, it presents many disadvantages at light load and, in general, in operating condition different from the nominal one. Therefore, Phase-Shift-Modulations (PSM) are investigated in [11]. However, the transformer voltage DC bias and output currents DC variations may be present in the ABAC converter. These effects can be mitigated by a specific modulation design [11].

On the other hand Model Predictive Control (MPC) may offer a cost effective solution for this application, allowing online calculation of the optimal converter operating point. In fact, MPC is often considered for power electronics converter control for the several advantages it can provide, such as easy inclusion of nonlinearities and constraints, fast dynamics and simple digital implementation. In particular, Finite Control Set Model Predictive Control (FCS-MPC) has been intensively investigated in AC power conversion [14]–[16]. The applications of MPC in DC/DC converters are reported in [17]–[21]; The authors in [17], [21] propose the implementation of FCS-MPC in a boost converter with the receding horizon. However this approach results in a larger current ripple than a PI-PWM based approach. In [18], authors have compared a Continuous Control Set MPC (CCS-MPC) with a hysteresis control in a boost converter. Although the dynamics performances are similar in those two control approaches, the voltage overshoot is completely avoided by using CCS-MPC control. In [19] a single step prediction CCS-MPC is implemented, together with an outer PI loop to regulate the output voltage of a buck converter. This shows better response performance than a PI-PWM based control. The authors in [20] include switching losses and transformer current Root-Mean-Square (RMS) value into the cost function, which is evaluated for different modulation techniques. This approach can achieve optimal efficiency in a wide operating range, but it presents similar dynamics performance to PI controllers.

This paper is organised as follow: in Section II, the operation principle of the ABAC converter featuring the improved PSM techniques is briefly introduced. In Section III, the average model, small signal model and discrete models of the ABAC converter are presented. In Section IV, a MPC aiming to regulate LV current is proposed and described in detail. Validations to the theoretical claims are carried out in simulation presented in Section V. Finally Section VI concludes the paper.

## II. OPERATION PRINCIPLES WITH PSM

The schematic of the ABAC converter is presented in Fig. 1. A full H-Bridge is connected to the HV side of the

transformer while four clamp half bridge circuits are configured at LV side. The four clamp circuits together with four LV side output inductors construct an interleaved structure similar to the multiphase interleaved boost converter [22]. Current ripple on  $I_{LV}$  can be effectively cancelled if proper modulation is applied [11] for the ABAC converter.

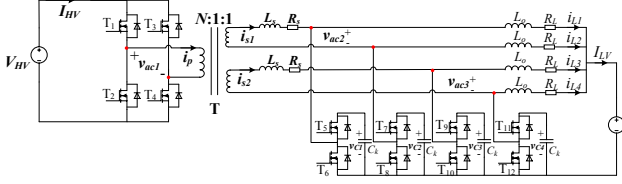


Fig. 1. The schematic of the ABAC converter.

The Phase Shift Modulation (PSM) technique applied to this converter is described in Fig. 2 where all the relevant waveforms are shown [11]. Using this modulation technique DC voltage offset at the transformer terminals are suppressed as well as unbalances in the output inductors currents. It is also important to highlight that duty cycle of all the switches over one switching period is fixed at 50%. As a result the clamp capacitors voltage  $V_c$  presents a steady state voltage equal to twice the LV side terminal voltage  $V_{LV}$ , i.e.  $V_c=2V_{LV}$ .

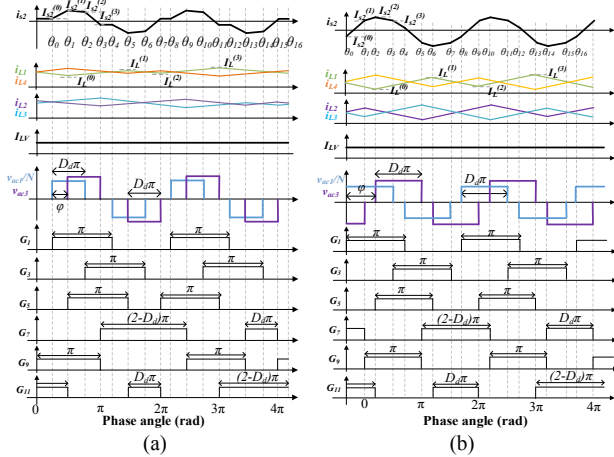


Fig. 2. Typical waveforms for operation (a)  $0 < \phi / \pi < \min\{1-D_d, D_d\}$  (Mode IV) and (b)  $1-D_d < \phi / \pi < D_d$  (Mode III) using the proposed PSM scheme where  $G_1$ - $G_{12}$  drive  $T_1$ - $T_{12}$  with  $G_7=G_1$ ,  $G_2=G_3=\text{not}(G_1)$ ,  $G_6=\text{not}(G_5)$ ,  $G_8=\text{not}(G_7)$ ,  $G_{10}=\text{not}(G_9)$  and  $G_{12}=\text{not}(G_{11})$ .

As can be seen from Fig. 2, taking  $G_7$  as an example, the sum of the active period in one switching cycle is  $\pi$ . It is important to highlight that since the switches  $T_7$  (driven by signal  $G_7$ ) and  $T_9$  (driven by signal  $G_9$ ) are always complementarily switched, therefore the LV currents  $i_{L2}$  and  $i_{L3}$  are always interleaved. The same behaviour can be observed on switches  $T_5$  and  $T_{11}$ . Therefore,  $I_{LV}$  ideally does not present any current ripple at any operating points. In the meantime, the clamp circuits generate also the transformer secondary port voltages  $v_{ac2}$ ,  $v_{ac3}$ . The combinations of  $G_5$  and  $G_7$  also  $G_9$  and  $G_{11}$  are used to generate  $v_{ac2}$  and  $v_{ac3}$ , respectively. Specifically, taking the upper secondary as an example, the transformer secondary voltage  $v_{ac2}$  can be generated as  $v_{ac2}=v_c(G_5-v_cG_7)$ . In half switching cycle, the active states of both voltages  $v_{ac1}$  and  $v_{ac3}$ ,  $v_{ac3}$  present the same period of  $\pi D_d$ , where  $D_d$  can vary from 0 to 1. Additionally the outer phase shift  $\phi$  between transformer primary and secondary voltages, can be varied from 0 to  $2\pi$ .  $D_d$  and  $\phi$  can be independently controlled in order to optimize the operation of the converter.

The power contour plot of the ABAC is shown in Fig. 3 [23], featuring power transfer from HV to LV sources. Although bidirectional power flow is also possible, it is not discussed in this paper for brevity. The operation of the converter is divided into four regions. Each region represents a different mode of operation. However, the converter is predominately working in Mode III and Mode IV due to significant loss increase in Mode I and II. As can be seen from Fig. 3, along each power contour line, numerous combinations of  $\phi$  and  $D_d$  exist to transfer the same power. This provides the degree of freedom to optimize the operation of the ABAC converter with PSM. Although many optimization objectives are possible [24]–[26], transformer peak current is selected as our minimization target.

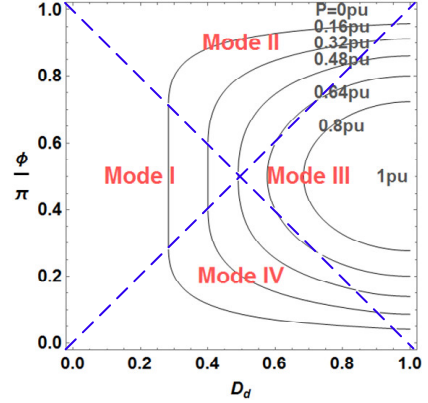


Fig. 3. Power contour plot of the ABAC with illustration on constraints of different operation modes.

### III. MODELLING OF THE ABAC

The small signal model and the discrete model of the ABAC converter, which are needed for the PI and MPC control design, are derived in this section. Firstly, a switching average model is developed as shown in Fig. 4 where state variables and the controllable current sources are highlighted in red and violet, respectively. In particular  $i_{C1}$ - $i_{C4}$  are controlled by varying  $\phi$  and  $D_d$ . It is important to highlight that the switching average is carried out in two switching period  $2T_s$  due to the feature of the PSM shown in Fig. 2.

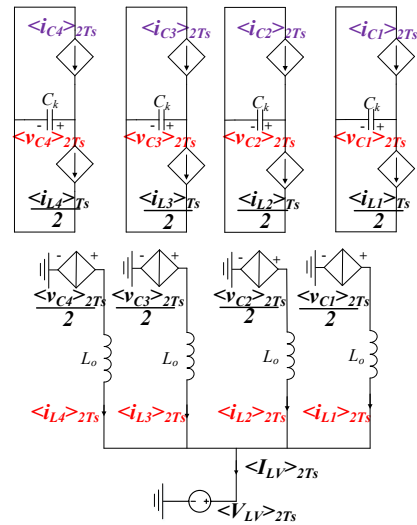


Fig. 4. The averaged model of the ABAC converter.

The dynamic and output equations of the ABAC converter are illustrated in equations (1) and (2).

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d \langle v_{Cm} \rangle_{2T_s}}{dt} = f_{1m} = -\frac{1}{2C_k} \langle i_{Lm} \rangle_{2T_s} + \frac{1}{C_k} \langle i_{Cm} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \frac{d \langle i_{Lm} \rangle_{2T_s}}{dt} = f_{2m} = \frac{1}{2L_o} \langle v_{Cm} \rangle_{2T_s} - \frac{1}{L_o} \langle V_{LV} \rangle_{2T_s} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$(m=1,2,3,4)$

$$\langle I_{LV} \rangle_{2T_s} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle v_{C1} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle v_{C2} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle v_{C3} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle v_{C4} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle i_{L1} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle i_{L2} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle i_{L3} \rangle_{2T_s} \\ \langle i_{L4} \rangle_{2T_s} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

The expression of the controllable current sources depends on the mode of operation as illustrated in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3. Taking Mode IV in Fig. 2(a) as an example, the controllable current source can be derived as:

$$\langle i_{Cm} \rangle_{2T_s} = \frac{\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} i_{s2}(\theta) d\theta + \int_{\theta_7}^{\theta_{11}} i_{s2}(\theta) d\theta}{2T_s} = \frac{\int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} i_{s2}(\theta) d\theta}{T_s} \quad (3)$$

Therefore, the expressions for each mode can be calculated based on (3) as:

$$\langle i_{Cm_{IV}} \rangle_{2T_s} = \frac{1}{8Nf_s L_s} \langle V_{HV} \rangle_{2T_s} D_\varphi (2D_d - D_\varphi) \quad (4)$$

$$\langle i_{Cm_{III}} \rangle_{2T_s} = \frac{1}{8Nf_s L_s} \langle V_{HV} \rangle_{2T_s} [2D_\varphi - 2D_\varphi^2 - (D_d - 1)^2] \quad (5)$$

where,  $m$  represent the index 1 to 4,  $D_\varphi$  is defined as  $\varphi/\pi$  and  $f_s$  is the switching frequency.

#### A. The small signal model of the ABAC converter

The small signal model of the ABAC converter is derived in this subsection. The values of the two control variables  $D_d$  and  $\varphi$  are chosen in order to minimize transformer peak current. This optimization is carried out offline, thus reducing the number of control variables required in the controller design, which is described in the following section. The control variables trajectories which minimize the peak transformer current are shown in Fig. 5. The relationships between  $D_d$  and  $\varphi$  are derived as follows:

$$D_\varphi = \begin{cases} \frac{2r_V - 1}{2r_V + 1} D_d, & D_d < \frac{2r_V + 1}{4r_V} \\ \frac{1}{2r_V - 1} D_d + \frac{3 - 2r_V}{2 - 4r_V}, & D_d > \frac{2r_V + 1}{4r_V} \end{cases} \quad \text{when } r_V > 0.5 \quad (6)$$

$$D_\varphi = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - 2r_V}{1 + 2r_V} D_d, & D_d < \frac{1 + 2r_V}{2} \\ \frac{2r_V - 1}{1 - 2r_V} D_d + \frac{6r_V - 1}{4r_V - 2}, & D_d > \frac{1 + 2r_V}{2} \end{cases} \quad \text{when } r_V < 0.5 \quad (7)$$

where,  $r_V$  is defined as the voltage ratio  $NV_{LV}/V_{HV}$ .

Substituting equations (6) and (7) into equation (1), and performing a Jacobian linearization of the model, the following small signal state space matrix is obtained:

$$\begin{pmatrix} d \tilde{v}_{C1} / dt \\ \vdots \\ d \tilde{i}_{L1} / dt \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = A \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{v}_{C1} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{i}_{L1} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} + B D_d \quad (8)$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_{11}}{\partial \langle v_{C1} \rangle_{2T_s}} \Big|_{v_{cm}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{11}}{\partial \langle i_{L1} \rangle_{2T_s}} \Big|_{i_{lm}} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \frac{\partial f_{21}}{\partial \langle v_{C1} \rangle_{2T_s}} \Big|_{v_{cm}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{21}}{\partial \langle i_{L1} \rangle_{2T_s}} \Big|_{i_{lm}} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_{11}}{\partial D_d} \Big|_{D_d} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{21}}{\partial D_d} \Big|_{D_d} & \cdots \end{pmatrix}^T \quad (10)$$

Finally, the open loop transfer function is defined as:

$$G = \frac{\tilde{I}_{LV}}{D_d} \quad (11)$$

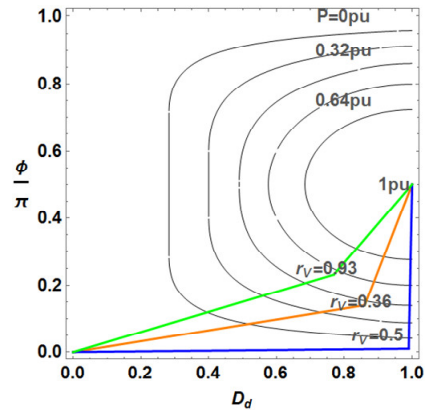


Fig. 5. Minimized transformer peak current trajectories

In order to validate the analytical small signal model, Fig. 6 shows the analytical bode plots of  $G$ , compared with the simulated non-linear model response in 100 different frequencies, using circuit parameters illustrated in Table I. The results shows good matching between the models.

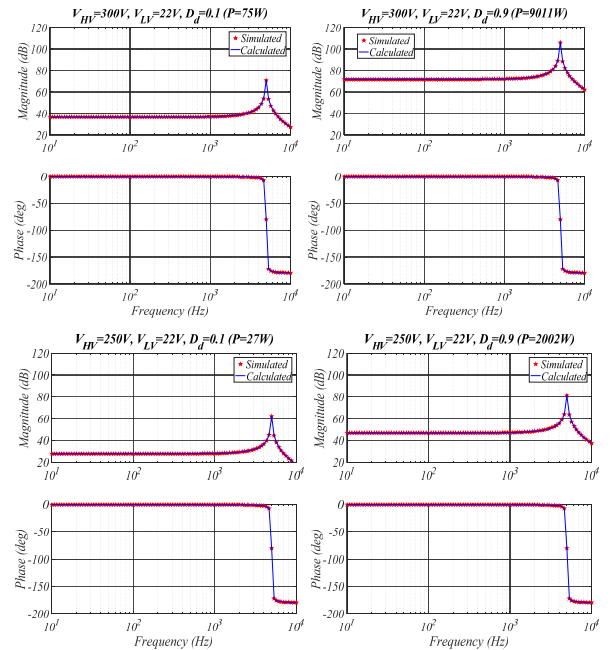


Fig. 6. Open loop bode plot of converter transfer function from the control variable to the output.

From Fig.6 it can be noted a resonance peak at high frequency, which is caused by the resonance between clamp

capacitors and output inductors. According to Nyquist stability criteria, the PI controller has to suppress this peak amplitude below 0db to ensure stability. As can also be observed from the Fig. 6, the small signal model varies under different operating conditions. The variation in the small signal model requires different design of the PI parameters at each operating point in order to ensure fast dynamic performances and stability. For above reasons, a globally designed controller is desired in the ABAC converter when wide voltage operating range is desired.

### B. The discrete model of the ABAC converter

The aim of the designed MPC controller is to regulate the LV converter side current  $I_{LV}$  at a desired reference value. The averaged model of (1) is modified into (12).

$$\frac{d^2 \langle I_{LV} \rangle_{2T_s}}{dt^2} = -\frac{1}{4L_o C_k} \langle I_{LV} \rangle_{2T_s} + \frac{1}{2L_o C_k} \sum_{m=1}^4 \langle i_{Cm} \rangle_{2T_s} \quad (12)$$

Therefore, the Euler backward discretization to equation (12) can be carried out and the instantaneous LV current can be predicted as:

$$I_{LV}[k+1] = \lambda_1 I_{LV}[k] + \lambda_2 I_{LV}[k-1] + \lambda_3 \sum_{m=1}^4 i_{Cm}[k] \quad (13)$$

where

$$\lambda_1 = 2 - \frac{1}{4C_k L_o f_s^2}, \quad \lambda_2 = -1, \quad \lambda_3 = \frac{1}{2C_k L_o f_s^2} \quad (14)$$

$$\sum_{m=1}^4 i_{Cm\_M5}[k] = \frac{1}{2Nf_s L_s} V_{HV}[k] D_\phi[k] (2D_d[k] - D_\phi[k]) \quad (15)$$

$$\sum_{m=1}^4 i_{Cm\_M6}[k] = \frac{1}{2Nf_s L_s} V_{HV}[k] (2D_\phi[k] - 2D_o^2[k] - (D_d[k] - 1)^2) \quad (16)$$

By imposing equation (12) equal to zero, the steady state LV current  $I_{LV}^*[k]$  is obtained as follows:

$$I_{LV}^*[k] = 2 \sum_{m=1}^4 i_{Cm}[k] \quad (17)$$

For the MPC design described in the next section the derivative of  $D_d$  with respect to  $D_\phi$  at constant power is also required and calculated as follows:

$$\left. \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \right|_{P=P_{const}} \begin{cases} \frac{\partial P(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_\phi}{\partial P(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_d} = \frac{1 - D_d}{2D_\phi - 1}, \text{ModeIII} \\ \frac{\partial P(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_\phi}{\partial P(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_d} = \frac{D_\phi}{D_\phi - D_d}, \text{ModeIV} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

Similarly the derivative of  $D_d$  with respect to  $D_\phi$  at constant transformer peak current is calculated as follows:

$$\left. \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \right|_{I_{peak}=I_{peak\_const}} = \frac{\partial I_{peak}(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_\phi}{\partial I_{peak}(D_d, D_\phi) / \partial D_d} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{V_{HV}}{4NV_{LV}}, r_V < 0.5 \\ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{NV_{LV}}{V_{HV}}, r_V > 0.5 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

## IV. THE PROPOSED MPC

Based on the model developed in Section III.B, the cost function is thus derived as follows:

$$ct = \alpha_1 (I_{LVref} - I_{LV}^*[k+2])^2 + \alpha_2 (I_{LV}[k+2] - I_{LV}[k+1])^2 + \alpha_3 \left( \left. \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \right|_{P=P_{const}} - \left. \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \right|_{I_{peak}=I_{peak\_const}} \right)^2 \quad (20)$$

where,  $I_{LVref}$  is the LV current reference value and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$  are weighing factors that are selected empirically.

The two control variables  $D_d$  and  $D_\phi$  that minimize the cost function (20), can be obtained from the proposed MPC controller with  $D_\phi$  ranges from 0 to 1 for buck operations, and  $D_d$  ranges from 0 to 1. In order to achieve a control algorithm which is practically implementable on standard commercial microcontrollers, the proposed MPC evaluates a limited control variable set at each sampling instant, with a prediction horizon of two sampling period, in order to take into account the computational delay. In fact, if control precision (the smallest phase shift value that can be controlled in digital controllers) of  $\Delta_d$  is defined, there are  $N_\phi = \pi/\Delta_d$  and  $N_d = \pi/\Delta_d$  points to be evaluated for both variables respectively. A total number of  $N_\phi * N_d$  points have to be evaluated in each control cycle. This is usually not feasible in practical implementations. Alternatively, in one control period, only a limited control variables set of 9 points is assessed around the previous operating point  $(a, b)$  as shown in Fig. 7.

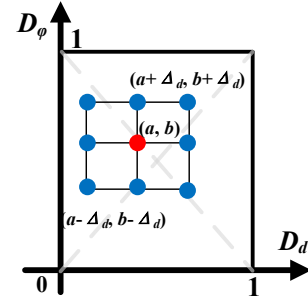


Fig. 7. The minimal search span of the control variables.

In the proposed cost function (20), the first term regulates the steady state current to the reference value. The reason for not using the instantaneous current is to avoid oscillation in steady state caused by the resonance between clamp capacitors and output inductors as indicated in Fig. 6. However, applying solely the first term, overshoot in the controller step response may be present. Aiming to suppress the overshoot, the second term is proposed in the cost function (20). Essentially, the second term limit the slope of  $I_{LV}$  [27], in order to avoid the effects of the resonance between clamp capacitors and output inductors during transients. The third term is implemented to minimize the peak transformer current value. Minimal peak current points can be found at the tangent points of the constant power contour lines and the peak current contour lines. It can be demonstrated that the cost function in (20) present only one equilibrium point for each operating conditions, related to the control variable trajectories of Fig. 5.

## V. SIMULATION RESULTS

The proposed MPC controller is designed and implemented in PLECS. The control diagram is shown in Fig. 8 with the circuit parameters listed in Table I. Only terminal voltages on the HV and LV side, together with the LV terminal current need to be measured. The LV current  $I_{LV}$  is controlled to follow its reference value  $I_{LVref}$ . The controller outputs are the phase shifts  $D_d$  and  $D_\phi$  necessary to implement the PSM already described in Fig. 2. These phase shifts are then fed into the modulation algorithm, which generates the driving signals  $G1-G12$ . This MPC controller is developed based on the system global parameters, suitable for the operating ranges listed in Table I. The control implementation is straightforward and requires only the

online calculation of equations (13), (17), (18), (19) and (20) for the desired control set. Considering a minimal control set of 9 points, as illustrated in Fig. 7, the computational burden is reduced when compared to other MPC techniques, which requires a long prediction horizon [17], [21]. The weighing factors are empirically designed as  $\alpha_1=1$ ,  $\alpha_2= 60$ ,  $\alpha_3= 50$ .

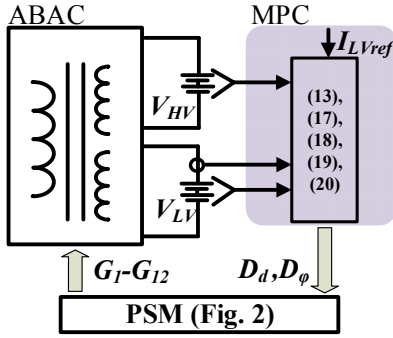


Fig. 8. The control block of the proposed MPC in the ABAC converter.

| Symbol     | Description               | Value     |
|------------|---------------------------|-----------|
| $V_{HV}$   | HV range                  | 170-300 V |
| $V_{HV}^*$ | Nominal HV voltage        | 270V      |
| $V_{LV}$   | LV range                  | 22-30 V   |
| $V_{LV}^*$ | Nominal LV voltage        | 28V       |
| $P^*$      | Rated power               | 10 kW     |
| $f_s$      | Switching frequency       | 100 kHz   |
| $N$        | Transformer turn ratio    | 5         |
| $C_k$      | Clamp capacitance         | 150 uF    |
| $L_s$      | Power transfer inductance | 500 nH    |
| $L_o$      | Output inductance         | 1.65 uH   |

### A. The dynamic performance of the proposed MPC

The dynamic performance using the proposed MPC is simulated under different voltage conditions shown in Fig. 9. It can be observed that there are no overshoot in the controlled variable  $I_{LV}$ . The controller presents fast dynamic performances for the application, with the longest settling time equal to 3.9ms in the simulation.

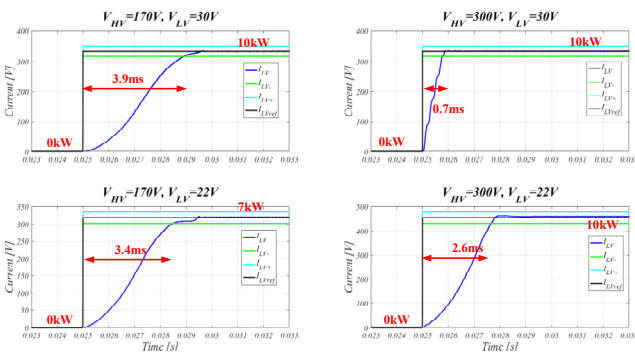


Fig. 9. Transients under different voltage operating conditions using the proposed MPC.  $I_{LV}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

It is worth mentioning that, if faster dynamic is required in other applications, the control set can be increased. However the computational burden increase accordingly to the control set size, and more advanced digital control platforms may be required.

### B. Comparison of using instantaneous model and steady state model

If the instantaneous current model (13) is used to track the reference value in the cost function as illustrated in (21), large oscillation on the LV current is present as shown in Fig. 10.

$$ct = \alpha_1 (I_{LVref} - I_{LV}[k+2])^2 + \alpha_3 \left( \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \Big|_{P=P_{const}} - \frac{\Delta D_d}{\Delta D_\phi} \Big|_{I_{peak}=I_{peak\_const}} \right)^2 \quad (21)$$

It can be noted from Fig. 10 that the steady state oscillation frequency correspond to the resonance frequency already analysed in Fig. 6.

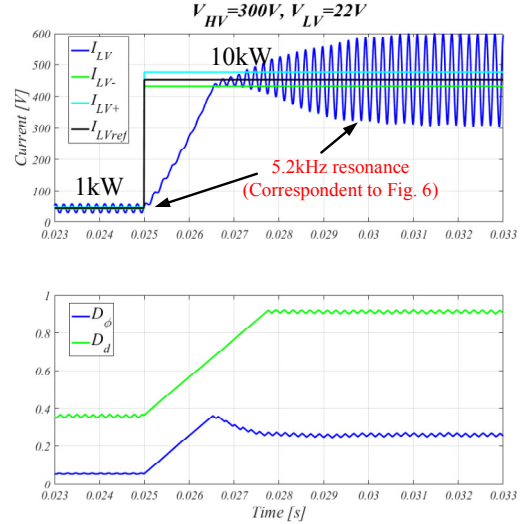


Fig. 10. The oscillation issue by using instantaneous current in the first term of the cost function.  $I_{LV}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

For such reason, the steady state model of equation (17) is implemented in the controller using the cost function already described in equation (20). In fact, using the proposed MPC controller the steady state oscillations are suppressed as shown in Fig. 11.

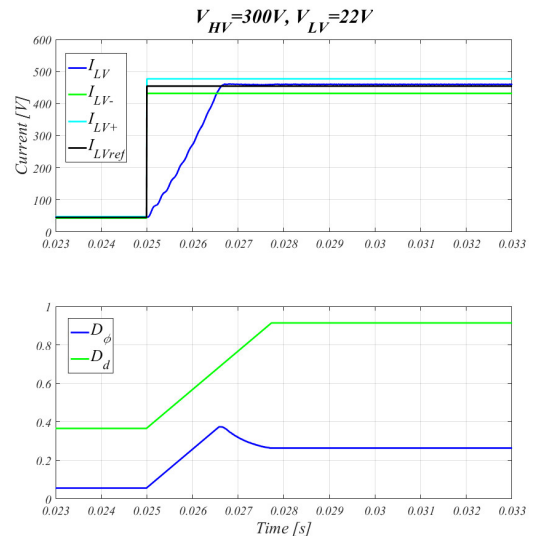


Fig. 11. The proposed MPC using steady state model in the first term of the cost function (20).  $I_{LV}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

### C. Effectiveness of the second term-overshoot suppression

When a larger control set is used, as discussed in Section V.A, the transient response can be improved, as shown in middle plot of Fig. 12. However, this may result in a current overshoot during transients. This effect is also caused by the resonance between clamp capacitors and output inductors, as already discussed in Section III.A and V.B. Therefore, the second cost function term is used to limit the current variation over one sampling period. Simulation results including this cost function term and using a control variables set of 9 and 441 points are also shown in the upper and lower plot of Fig. 12, respectively. When the second term is enabled, it can be noticed that overshoot and oscillations are eliminated, resulting in fast dynamic performances which mainly depends of the computational burden allowed by the practical implementation.

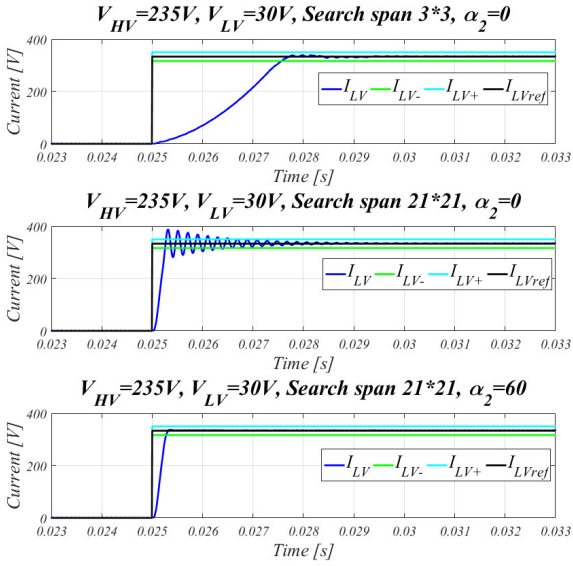


Fig. 12. Dynamic improvement by increasing the search span, and verification of the effectiveness of the second term.  $I_{LV}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

### D. Effectiveness of the third term-peak current shaving

Fig. 13 shows a transition from 0kW to 10kW under voltage condition 300V/22V. It can be observed that from point A to point B, the  $I_{LV}$  presents small oscillations around its steady state value, while the transformer peak current is being reduced. Fig. 14 shows the trajectory of the two control variables. Firstly  $D_d$  and  $D_\phi$  are increased linearly, in order to reach the desired  $I_{LV}$  value. During this interval, the first term in (20) has the highest impact on the cost function. However, when  $I_{LV}$  reaches its reference value  $I_{LVref}$ , the first term in (20) presents a lower value than the third cost function term (from A to B in Fig. 14) and the transformer peak current is effectively reduced. Additional simulation results are shown in Fig. 15, where the ABAC converter is operated considering 170V and 28V terminal voltages and 1kW power transferred in buck mode. In Fig. 15 the third cost function term is firstly disabled by setting the weighing factor  $\alpha_3$  to zero. When this term is enabled, a transformer peak current reduction can be observed. The correspondent operation trajectory is shown in Fig. 16 where the operating point slides from C to D on the power contour line as illustrated in Fig. 3 to find the minimal transformer peak operating point.

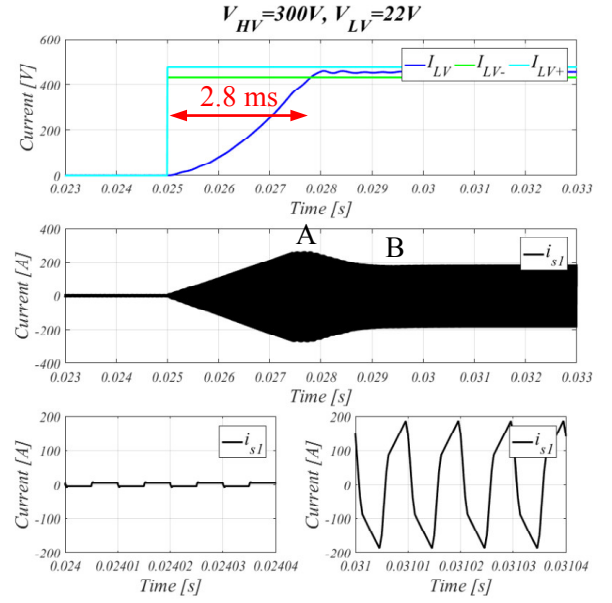


Fig. 13. Transformer peak current shaving from A to B. Working under 300V/22V voltage condition, and transition is performed from 0kW to 10kW.  $I_{LV-}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

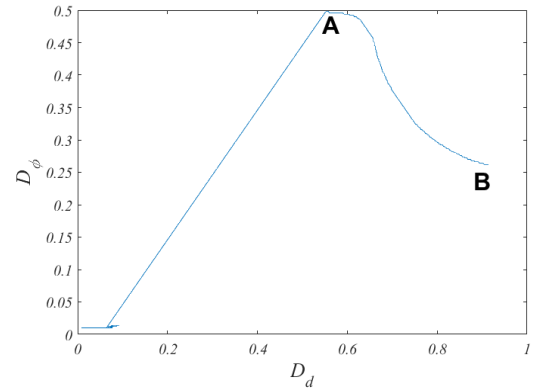


Fig. 14. Demonstration on the transition trajectory accordant to Fig. 9.

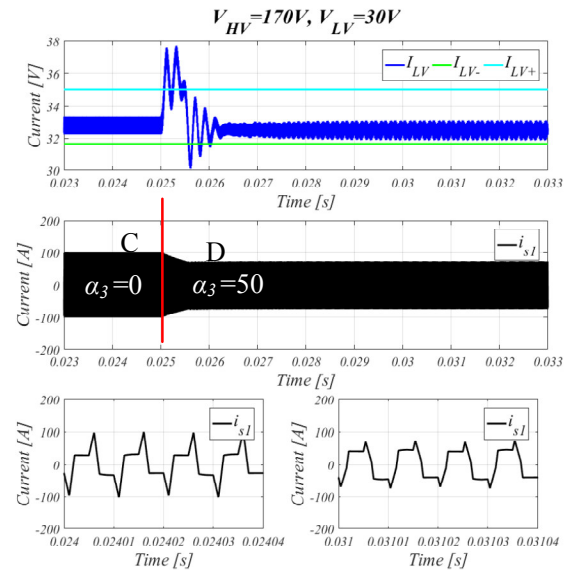


Fig. 15. Transformer peak current shaving from C to D. Working under 170V/30V and 1kW.  $I_{LV-}$  and  $I_{LV+}$  are the 95% and 105% limit with respect to the reference  $I_{LVref}$ .

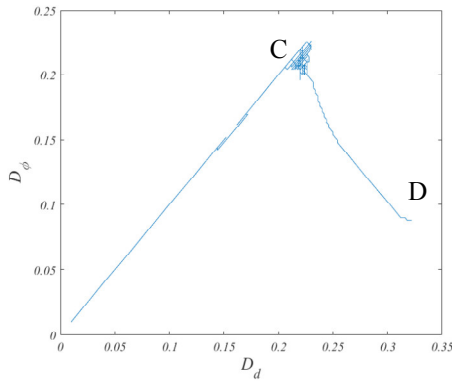


Fig. 16. Demonstration on the transition trajectory accorspondant to Fig. 11.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, a MPC technique is proposed with the aim of controlling the LV converter side current. The proposed technique is particularly suitable for applications where the converter model changes accordingly to different operating conditions, such for the ABAC converter presented in this paper. Moreover the proposed controller presents fast transient response without noticeable overshoot and it is capable of optimizing various control objectives when enough degree of freedom are provided by the system. The proposed MPC controller presents a straightforward implementation on commercial control platforms and is applicable to other isolated DC/DC power converters topologies especially suitable for isolated DC/DC converters such as Dual Active Bridge, Triple Active Bridge and many others.

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