Keywords: Active Rectifier, Battery Charger, Electric Vehicle, Power Quality.

Abstract: An experimental comparison of single-phase active rectifiers for electric vehicle (EV) battery chargers is presented and discussed. Active rectifiers are used in on-board EV battery chargers as front-end converters to interface the power grid aiming to preserve the power quality. In this paper, four topologies of active rectifiers are compared: traditional power-factor-correction; symmetrical bridgeless; asymmetrical bridgeless; and full-bridge full-controlled. Such comparison is established in terms of the requirements for the hardware structure, the complexity of the digital control system, and the power quality issues, mainly the grid current total harmonic distortion and the power factor. Along the paper these comparisons are presented and verified through experimental results. A reconfigurable laboratorial prototype of an on-board EV battery charger connected to the power grid was used to obtain the experimental results.

1 INTRODUCTION

The acceptance of the electric vehicle (EV) around the world, represents a new paradigm for the transportation sector and for the actual and future power grids (Rajashekara, 2013), (Raghavan, 2012). Nevertheless, a full electric mobility scenario is a huge challenge that is dependent of key technological issues (Ferreira, 2014), (Khaligh, 2010), (Inoa, 2011). From the point of view of the transportation sector, the EV contributes significantly to reduce the greenhouse gas emissions, mainly through the reduction of the oil consumtion (Milberg, 2011), (Ferreira, 2013). However, it depends on the main electricity sources (Ferreira, 2013). On the other hand, from the point of view of the power grids, the EV represents a new type of dynamic electrical appliance that is plugged-in to consume energy randomly along the day. Moreover, the EV can contribute to worsen the power quality (Lopes, 2011), (Wirasingha, 2011), (Monteiro, 2016). Analysing this last aspect, and taking into account the global state of the electric mobility, the EV should be charged from the power grid considering the electrical installation constrains and with high levels of power quality, mainly, reduced current harmonic distortion and high power factor (Monteiro, 2011). Such requirements should be considered for on-board and off-board EV chargers (Gautam, 2012), (Monteiro, 2014), i.e., when the EV is charged from single-phase electrical installations (e.g., plugged-in at home) or from three-phase electrical installations (e.g., plugged-in at fast charging stations) (Clement, 2010). Besides the charging process, from the moment that the EV is plugged-in to the power grid, using bidirectional chargers is possible establish a bidirectional energy flow, i.e., the EV can dynamically operate in the power grid consuming or delivering energy (Kramer, 2008), (Monteiro, 2016). This interactivity with the power grid is an important key technology to enable the electric mobility into smart grids (Monteiro, 2010), (Escudero-Garzás, 2012). In this context, technical solutions to the EV introduction into the power grids are presented in (Rei, 2010), coordinated strategies for the EV charging aiming to maximize the efficiency are presented in (Clement, 2009), and a comprehensive analysis about the EV coordinated and uncoordinated charging strategies is presented in (Freire, 2010).

Concerning EV battery chargers, this paper presents an experimental comparison of four active rectifiers for on-board EV battery chargers in terms of power quality, where the current harmonic distortion and the power factor are the main issues addressed. A comparison of dc-dc converters operating in discontinuous conduction mode for
active rectifiers is presented in (Wei, 1998), and a comprehensive review of control strategies for active rectifiers considering the main advantages and disadvantages is presented in (Yang, 1998). Active rectifiers are used in EV chargers in order to obtain a sinusoidal grid current in phase with the power grid voltage. However, comparing with the traditional solutions based in the ac-dc diode bridge rectifier, the power hardware is much more complex and requires a digital control platform, increasing the costs and the power density of the implementation. The impact of the EV introduction in residential electrical installations in terms of power quality is presented in (Lambert, 2002). Detailed studies about this subject are presented in (Morcos, 2002), where, for instance, is shown that the GM EV1 presents a total harmonic distortion (THD) that varies from 3% to 28.11% and a power factor from 1 to 0.96 according to the battery state-of-charge.

In this context, the main contribution of this paper is an experimental comparison of single-phase active rectifiers for EV battery chargers. Section II presents the power hardware structure of the active rectifiers under comparison. This section describes the hardware structure of the active rectifiers under comparison. A reconfigurable 3.6 kW on-board EV battery charger was used to obtain the different structures. Such EV charger is composed by a front-end ac-dc converter and by a back-end dc-dc converter with a shared dc-link capacitor. Figure 1 shows the four single-phase active rectifiers under comparison.

The traditional power-factor-correction (PFC) active rectifier (cf. Figure 1(a)) is composed by full-bridge diode rectifier followed by a boost dc-dc converter. As shown, this active rectifier requires five diodes and a single totally controlled semiconductor, in this case an insulated-gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) is used. The circuit to control the IGBT can be directly connect to the control circuit, i.e., it is not necessary isolation between the power circuit and the control circuit. This can be an important advantage of this active rectifier comparing with the others. The symmetrical bridgeless active rectifier (cf. Figure 1(b)) is...
composed by two legs, each one formed by a diode and by an IGBT. Similarly to the previous active rectifier, the circuit to control the IGBTs can be directly connect to the control circuit, i.e., it is not necessary isolation between the power circuit and the control circuit, once the emitter of both IGBTs is connected to the same point. On the other hand, the asymmetrical bridgeless active rectifier (cf. Figure 1 (c)) is composed by a leg formed by two diodes and by a leg formed by two IGBTs. In this active rectifier is necessary isolation between the drivers circuit of both IGBTs, representing a disadvantage of this active rectifier comparing with the previous. Finally, the full-bridge full-controlled active rectifier (cf. Figure 1 (d)) is composed by two legs, each one formed by two IGBTs. In this active rectifier is also necessary to establish isolation between the drivers of the IGBTs, i.e., only the drivers of the IGBTs $S_2$ an $S_4$ can be referred to the same point.

3 CONTROL ALGORITHMS OF THE ACTIVE RECTIFIERS UNDER COMPARISON

This section presents a detailed explanation about the control algorithms of the active rectifiers under comparison.

3.1 Traditional Power Factor Correction (PFC)

Concerning power quality, the main requirements of the EV battery chargers are sinusoidal grid current and unitary power factor. The most used active rectifier to accomplish with such requirements is the traditional PFC, i.e., a full-bridge diode rectifier followed by a dc-dc boost converter operating with controlled input current and controlled output voltage. It is important to note that there are some PFC converters that are used only to operate with controlled power factor, as example, the flyback topology proposed in (Ma, 2010) and the full-bridge topology proposed in (Moschopoulos, 2003). An extended review about PFC converters based in the boost converter is presented in (Garcia, 2003), and a concrete case of a PFC boost-type for EV chargers is proposed in (Lee, 2011). The PFC active rectifier operates in unidirectional mode and is classified as a two-level converter, i.e., the voltage between the points $x$ and $y$, identified in Figure 1 (a) can assume the levels 0 and $+v_{dc}$. When the IGBT is off, the voltage $v_{xy}$ (collector-emitter voltage in the IGBT) is $+v_{dc}$, and when the IGBT is on, the voltage $v_{xy}$ is 0. Therefore, the maximum voltage applied to the IGBT is $+v_{dc}$. The output voltage of the full-bridge diode rectifier is the power grid voltage rectified and, due to the input inductance and the control algorithm, the grid current is sinusoidal and in phase with the power grid voltage.

3.2 Symmetrical and Asymmetrical Bridgeless

In the previous item, section 3.1, it was introduced the traditional PFC composed by a full-bridge diode rectifier followed by a dc-dc boost converter, i.e., an active rectifier that requires two power stages. However, these stages can be rearranged in order to form an active rectifier without the full-bridge diode rectifier. Such topologies are identified in the literature as bridgeless or dual-boost. A review about active rectifiers with single stage is presented in...
(Huber, 2008). The main bridgeless active rectifiers identified in the literature are the symmetrical and asymmetrical (Martínez, 1996), (Lim, 1999). Comparing with the traditional PFC, bridgeless active rectifiers requires one more IGBT, but less three diodes. However, it should be noted that the hardware project of such topologies is more complex once is required the double of the IGBTs drivers. On the other hand, comparing both bridgeless structures, the symmetrical bridgeless has as main advantage comparing with the asymmetrical the simplicity of the IGBTs drivers as well as the Impossibility of short circuits in the same leg when both IGBTs are on. A comparison between the symmetrical and the asymmetrical bridgeless active rectifiers, highlighting the benefits of the symmetrical is presented in (Choi, 2007). Comparing with the traditional PFC, the switching losses are very similar once each IGBT is switched during each half-cycle of the power grid voltage (positive and negative) and the IGBT of the traditional PFC is switched in both half-cycles. Similarly to the traditional PFC, symmetrical and the asymmetrical bridgeless active rectifiers operate in unidirectional mode, but can be controlled to produce three distinct voltage levels, i.e., the voltage $v_{xy}$ can assume the values $+v_{dc}$, 0 and $-v_{dc}$. For the symmetrical bridgeless active rectifier, during the positive half-cycle of the power grid voltage, when the IGBT $S_1$ is on and the IGBT $S_2$ is off, the voltage $v_{xy}$ is 0, and when both IGBTs are off the voltage $v_{xy}$ is $+v_{dc}$. On the other hand, during the negative half-cycle of the power grid voltage, when the IGBT $S_1$ is off and the IGBT $S_2$ is on, the voltage $v_{xy}$ is 0, and when both IGBTs are off the voltage $v_{xy}$ is $-v_{dc}$. For the asymmetrical bridgeless active rectifier the reasoning is the same, only changing the position of the IGBTs. For both converters, the maximum voltage applied to each IGBT is $+v_{dc}$.

### 3.3 Full-Bridge Full-Controlled

The full-bridge active rectifier is composed by two legs of IGBTs. This active rectifier can produce three distinct voltage levels, i.e., the voltage $v_{xy}$ can assume the values of $-v_{dc}$, 0 and $+v_{dc}$. During the positive half-cycle of the power grid voltage, when the IGBTs $S_1$ and $S_3$ are off and the IGBTs $S_2$ and $S_4$ are on, the voltage $v_{xy}$ is 0 (changing the state of all the IGBTs the voltage $v_{xy}$ is also 0), and when the IGBTs $S_1$ and $S_2$ are on and the IGBTs $S_3$ and $S_4$ are off, the voltage $v_{xy}$ is $-v_{dc}$. The maximum voltage applied to each IGBT is $v_{dc}$. The main advantage of this active rectifier comparing with the previous is the possibility to operate in bidirectional mode, i.e., the EV charger can be used to transfer energy from the batteries to the power grid. This is an important characteristic considering the future scenarios of smart grids.

### 4 EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

This section presents the experimental validation considering the active rectifiers described in the previous items. The reconfigurable laboratorial prototype of the on-board EV battery charger used to obtain the experimental results is shown in Figure 4, and the main characteristics of the experimental validation are presented in Table I. The experimental results were obtained in laboratorial environment with a Tektronix TPS 2024 digital oscilloscope.

For the traditional PFC active rectifier, Figure 5 shows the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$), the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$), and the grid current ($i_g$) during a time interval of 50 ms. As expected, the grid current ($i_g$) is sinusoidal and in phase with the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$), and the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$) is controlled. As it can be seen, the grid current ($i_g$) has lower THD% than the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$) due to the control algorithm, i.e., instead of use the real instantaneous values of power grid voltage a phase-locked loop (PLL) algorithm is used. Figure shows the harmonic spectrum of the grid current and a measured THD% of 3.25%.

For the symmetrical bridgeless active rectifier, Figure 6 shows the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$), the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$), and the grid current ($i_g$) during a time interval of 50 ms. As for the previous active rectifier, the grid current ($i_g$) is sinusoidal and in phase with the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$), and the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$) is controlled. In this case, the grid current ($i_g$) has also lower THD% than the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$) due to the PLL algorithm. Nevertheless, in this case grid current ($i_g$) has a THD% greater than with the traditional PFC active rectifier. Figure 7 shows the harmonic spectrum of the grid current and a measured THD% of 5.88%. For the asymmetrical bridgeless active rectifier,

Figure 7 shows the power grid voltage ($v_{pg}$), the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$), and the grid current ($i_g$) during
Figure 3: Experimental results of the traditional power factor correction topology: Power grid voltage ($v_g$); Dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$); Grid current ($i_g$).

Figure 4: Experimental results of the traditional power factor correction topology: Harmonic spectrum of the grid current and measured THD%.

Figure 5: Experimental results of the symmetrical bridgeless topology: Power grid voltage ($v_g$); Dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$); Grid current ($i_g$).

Figure 6: Experimental results of the symmetrical bridgeless topology: Harmonic spectrum of the grid current and measured THD%.

Figure 8 shows the harmonic spectrum of the grid current and a measured THD% of 5.98%. Finally, for the full-bridge active rectifier, Figure 9 shows the power grid voltage ($v_g$), the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$), and the grid current ($i_g$) during a time interval of 50 ms. In the same way as the previous cases, the grid current ($i_g$) is sinusoidal and in phase with the power grid voltage ($v_g$), the dc-link voltage ($v_{dc}$) is controlled, and the grid current ($i_g$) has lower THD% than the power grid voltage ($v_g$) due to the PLL algorithm. Comparing with the symmetrical bridgeless active rectifier, this active rectifier presents a grid current ($i_g$) with higher THD%.

Figure 10 shows the harmonic spectrum of the grid current and a measured THD% of 2.13%.

5 CONCLUSIONS

An experimental comparison of single-phase active rectifiers for EV battery chargers was presented. Four topologies of active rectifiers were considered for comparison: traditional power factor correction (PFC); symmetrical bridgeless; asymmetrical bridgeless; and full-bridge full-controlled. Considering the hardware structure, the PFC requires less IGBTs, but more diodes, and the full-bridge full-controlled requires more IGBTs but no one diode. Moreover, the full-bridge full-controlled allows the operation mode in bidirectional mode, which can be an important feature for EV battery chargers in a smart grid.
scenario. Analysing the power quality issues in terms of the grid current THD%, the full-bridge full-controlled is the best, presenting the lower value (2.13%), and the bridgeless asymmetrical is the worst, presenting the higher value (5.98%). Along the paper the comparison between the active rectifiers is presented through experimental results using a reconfigurable developed laboratorial prototype of an on-board EV battery charger.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work has been supported by COMPETE: POCI-01-0145-FEDER-007043 and FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia within the Project Scope: UID/CEC/00319/2013. This work is financed by the ERDF – European Regional Development Fund through the Operational Programme for Competitiveness and Internationalisation - COMPETE 2020 Programme, and by National Funds through the Portuguese funding agency, FCT - Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia, within project SAICTPAC/0004/2015-POCI-01-0145-FEDER-016434.

REFERENCES


424


