

Design, Control and Analysis of a Novel Multilevel Converter with a Reduced Switch Count

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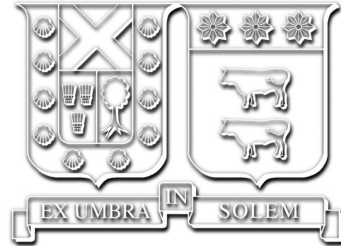
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Abstract

Multilevel converters are used in a wide range of applications, such as drives, energy conversion and distributed generation. This Thesis proposes a new multilevel converter topology that allows increasing the number of output voltage levels with a fewer required power semiconductors than in standard multilevel topologies such as Active Neutral Point Clamped (ANPC), Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC) and Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC).

The proposed topology consists of a cascaded connection of basic units called *main cells*, which are composed of three power switches, one flying capacitor and two output switches for each output phase.

In this Thesis, the comparisons are made between the proposed topology and conventional topologies such as ANPC and SMC. Points of comparison include the required number of power switches, voltage stress across the switches, power distribution, capacitors' size and energy storage.

To verify the performance of the proposed multilevel topology, extensive simulations and experimental studies were carried out on a 3-phase 5-level converter.

Resumen

Los convertidores de potencia multinivel son empleados en una amplia gama de aplicaciones, incluyendo: máquinas y accionamientos, conversión de energía y generación distribuida. Esta Tesis propone una nueva topología de convertidor multinivel que permite incrementar el número de niveles de tensiones a la salida del convertidor empleando un reducido número de semiconductores de potencia en comparación con topologías multinivel convencionales, tales como el convertidor Active Neutral Point Clamped (ANPC), el convertidor Flying Capacitor (FCC) y el convertidor Stacked Multicell (SMC).

Esta topología está conformada por la conexión en cascada de unidades básicas llamadas *celdas principales*, que se componen por un condensador flotante y tres semiconductores de potencia, y dos semiconductores de potencia para seleccionar la salida de tensión correspondiente a cada fase del sistema.

En este trabajo se discute el número de semiconductores de potencia requeridos, el estrés de tensión a los que son sometidos, la distribución de potencia a través de ellos y la energía almacenada en los condensadores flotantes en comparación con topologías estándares y comerciales como los son el ANPC y el SMC.

La validación de la topología multinivel propuesta es verificada a través de simulaciones y resultados experimentales en un prototipo trifásico de 5 niveles.

Kurzfassung

Mehrstufige Wechselrichter finden ein breites Anwendungsspektrum. Sie werden beispielsweise als Antriebsumrichter, in der Energieversorgung oder für verteilte Erzeugungsanlagen genutzt. Verglichen mit etablierten Schaltungen wie dem Active Neutral Point Clamped (ANPC) Converter, dem Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC) oder dem Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC) erreicht die in dieser Arbeit vorgestellte, neuartige Umrichter-Topologie eine erhöhte Stufenzahl der Ausgangsspannung bei reduzierter Anzahl an benötigten Leistungsschaltern.

Die vorgeschlagene Topologie besteht aus einer kaskadierten Verbindung aus Basiszellen, den „Main Cells“ und jeweils zwei Leistungsschaltern für jede Ausgangsphase. Die Basiszellen sind aus drei Leistungsschaltern und einem Flying Capacitor aufgebaut. Sie erzeugen eine variable Zwischenkreisspannung für die angeschlossenen Ausgangsphasen.

In dieser Arbeit wird ein Vergleich zwischen der vorgestellten Topologie und den etablierten Schaltungen ANPC, FCC und SMC durchgeführt. Die Vergleichskriterien beinhalten die Anzahl an benötigten Leistungshalbleitern, die Sperrspannung über den einzelnen Schaltern, die Verlustleistungsverteilung sowie die in den Kondensatoren gespeicherte Energie und deren Kapazität.

Die Verhaltensweisen der vorgeschlagenen Topologie werden in umfangreichen Simulationen und experimentellen Untersuchungen eines dreiphasigen 5-Level Wechselrichters analysiert.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Voltage Source Converters (VSC) today have a wide variety of applications [1–3], such as:

- Industry: Pumps, ventilators, conveyors, mills, etc.
- Transportation: Trains, trucks, cars, airplane.
- Transmission and distribution of energy: wind farms, HVDC, STATCOMs, active filters, etc.
- Drives: Load side and grid side converter.

VSCs can behave as a rectifier (VSR- *Voltage Source Rectifier*) or as an inverter (VSI- *Voltage Source Inverter*) depending on the direction of the power flow. Therefore, it is a fully bidirectional structure.

Because of its simple structure and mature technology, the two-level VSC has been the most attractive option for industries [4]. However, the two-level VSC provides a poor voltage quality. Large harmonic content of the output voltage of a two-level VSC hampers its application in supplying sensitive loads and also in grid-connected energy conversion systems where strict grid codes should be followed. Adding harmonic filters to the output of a two-level VSC to improve the power quality results in a complex, expensive and bulky system that is less attractive for industrial applications.

Multilevel VSCs provide several voltage steps by which a more sinusoidal voltage waveform can be constructed. Multilevel converters have emerged as an attractive solution for power electronics applications due to their numerous merits over classical two-level converters; these advantages include better output voltage waveform quality, lower harmonic distortion of the input and output currents, reduced filter size, lower common-mode voltages, reduced electromagnetic interference, reduced torque ripple in drive applications and the feasibility of fault tolerant operation [5].

Multilevel converters consist of an array of semiconductor devices and capacitive voltage sources, which can generate output voltage waveforms with multiple steps by appropriate switching. With the increase in the number of output voltage levels or steps, the staircase output waveform approaches a sinusoidal waveform.

The 3-level Neutral Point Clamped (NPC) converter is one of the classical multilevel topologies [6]. The NPC has become popular due to its simple structure, but it has not been extended to higher-level operation due to excessive losses of clamping diodes, uneven distribution of losses in inner and outer devices and the need to balance the capacitor voltages [7].

The concept of multicell converters introduced 20 years ago, allowed an important advance in the domain of medium voltage (3kV, 4.5kV, 6.6kV) and high power (several MW) applications. The development of static converters dedicated to high power applications is currently expanding. By using a series of connected commutation cells, the converters' input voltage can easily be increased and the waveform improved while using smaller components with better properties. The Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC) is an example of these topologies [8, 9].

The Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC) is a novel multilevel converter topology in the same line as the flying capacitor converter; it allows converters to reach output voltage, output power and performances still higher than the classical multicell FCC [10].

Like the FCC, the SMC uses flying capacitors and the voltage across these flying capacitors have to be balanced to allow for a correct operation of multicell topologies. When Pulse Width Modulation (PWM) techniques are used, it is necessary to study natural balancing properties of the SMC converter, and when Model Predictive Control (MPC) is used, it is possible to control these internal voltages directly. Some external circuits (such as the RLC filter) can be used to increase the effectiveness of the voltage balancing.

Multilevel converters are a good candidate for supplying sensitive loads and being used in the grid-tied system, due to their good power quality, higher efficiency and superior electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) [11, 12]. Different structures of multilevel converters have been reported in the literature in recent years. This thesis proposes a new multilevel converter structure that reduces the necessary number of power switches and flying capacitors to generate the same number of output levels as in classical topologies such as FCC, SMC and NPC.

The new multilevel topology is called Reduced Multilevel Converter (RMC); it consists of a cascaded connection of basic units called main cells (MC) and a 3-phase output inverter stage. The RMC is a multilevel inverter with a single DC-bus configuration. Every MC is formed by three power switches and one capacitor. The MCs work as a DC-DC multilevel converter, generating a variable *dc-link* as their output. The output inverter stage can be any inverter with a single DC-bus configuration like the 2L-VSI, Neutral Point Clamped (NPC), ANPC, T-type [13], FCC or Stacked Multicell Converter. However, in this work, the basic 2L-VSI is used so as to identify RMC's real contributions.

The upcoming chapters of this dissertation are organized as follows:

Chapter 2 presents a brief description of the main multilevel converter with a single DC-bus configuration that will be used to compare the performance of the RMC. These topologies are the Neutral Point Clamped (NPC) converter, the 5-level Active Neutral Point Clamped (5L-ANPC) converter, the Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC) and the Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC).

Chapter 3 presents the description of the proposed topology in this dissertation, the Reduced Multilevel Converter, its basic properties, operation principles and mathematical

model.

Chapter 4 gives a brief summary of Model Predictive Control (MPC), the control strategy used to control the proposed topology. This chapter describes the principal advantages and disadvantages of the MPC strategy and its implementation scheme.

Chapter 5 presents a simulation analysis of the proposed topology compared with the multilevel converters described in chapter 2. The analysis is made considering the system's response, i.e. output currents, output voltages, capacitor voltage balance, harmonic spectrum, total harmonic distortion and dynamic characteristic, and the characteristics of the structure, i.e. blocking voltage, switching frequency, switching and conduction losses, storage energy and size of the inner capacitors.

Chapter 6 presents an experimental validation of the designed topology using a 5L-RMC prototype.

Finally, Chapter 7 provides a brief summary of the whole dissertation and discusses some extended research ideas that can be carried out in the future.

Chapter 2

Multilevel Converters

Nowadays, multilevel inverters are a well accepted and mature technology for power electronic applications. In this work, the following types of multilevel inverters will be considered:

Neutral Point Clamped (NPC) converter: A three-level NPC converter will be considered as the startup point to understand multilevel converters.

Active Neutral Point Clamped (ANPC) converter: A five-level ANPC converter will be considered as a comparison point for 5-level commercial topologies.

Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC): An FCC will be considered as the classical flying capacitor topology.

Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC): An SMC will be discussed as a flying capacitor commercial topology.

2.1. Neutral Point Clamped (NPC) Converter

The NPC converter was introduced in the early 1980s [6]. Today, the NPC topology has become very popular in industry and academic research all over the world. Some commercial examples are ACS1000 (ABB), MV Simovert (Siemens), TMdrive-70 (TMEIC-GE), Silcovert-TN (Ansaldo), MV7000 (Converteam) and IngeDrive MV500 (IngeTeam). NPC inverters can be found in industry using IGCT (Integrated Gate Commutated Thyristor), IEGT (Injection Enhanced Gate Transistor), and medium-voltage IGBT (Insulated Gate Bipolar Transistor).

2.1.1. The power circuit

Fig 2.1 presents the power circuit of this topology. Each phase of the inverter has four power switches that are composed of a power transistor with an antiparallel diode. In addition, two clamping diodes (D_{1x} , D_{2x} , $x \in \{a, b, c\}$) are used to connect the output terminal to the medium point (N) of the *dc-link* capacitors. This configuration allows the

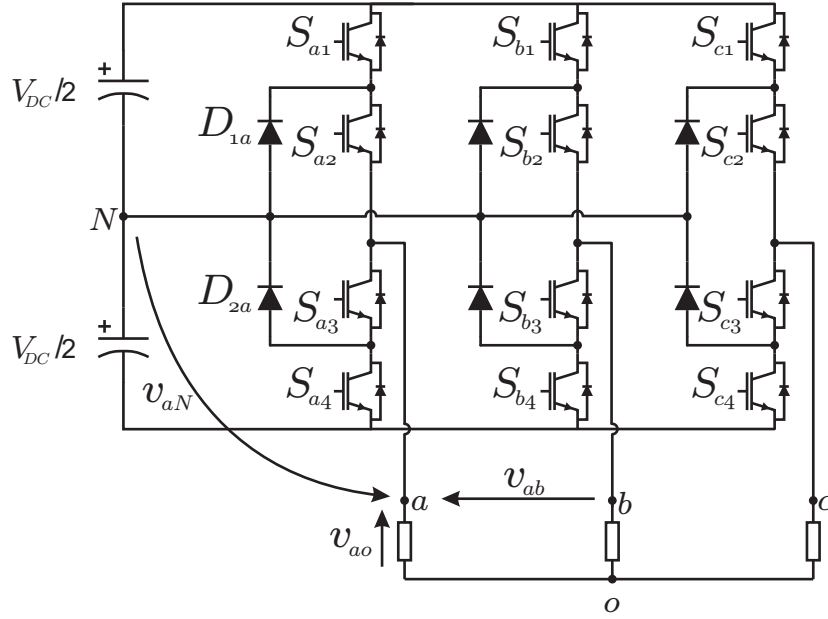


Figure 2.1. Three Phase Inverter 3-level NPC.

Table 2.1

SWITCHING STATES FOR ONE PHASE OF THE NPC INVERTER

Switching State ($S_{x1}, S_{x2}, S_{x3}, S_{x4}$)	Output Voltage v_{xN}
(1,1,0,0)	$V_{DC}/2$
(0,1,1,0)	0
(0,0,1,1)	$-V_{DC}/2$

power circuit to generate three voltage levels at the output terminal of phase x with respect to the neutral point N , considering the switching combinations given in Table 2.1. When $S_{xi} = 0$, the power switch S_{xi} is OFF, and when $S_{xi} = 1$, the power switch is ON, for all $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

Fig. 2.2 shows the levels of voltages generated at the NPC inverter output. The main parameters for the simulation setup are $V_{DC} = 200V$ and carrier PWM period $T_c = 1ms$. Since NPC has three levels between the output terminal and the neutral point of the inverter (v_{xN}), it will have $k = 2m - 1$ levels in the line-to-line voltages (v_{ab}), with m the number of levels at the output of inverter (v_{xN}). Therefore, the voltage v_{xo} will have $2k - 1$ levels.

2.1.2. Vectors generated by the inverter

For the three-phase inverter, 27 switching states are generated. Each switching state is represented by three possible values denoted by +, 0 and - that represent the switching combinations that generate $V_{DC}/2$, 0, and $-V_{DC}/2$ respectively, at the output of the inverter phase.

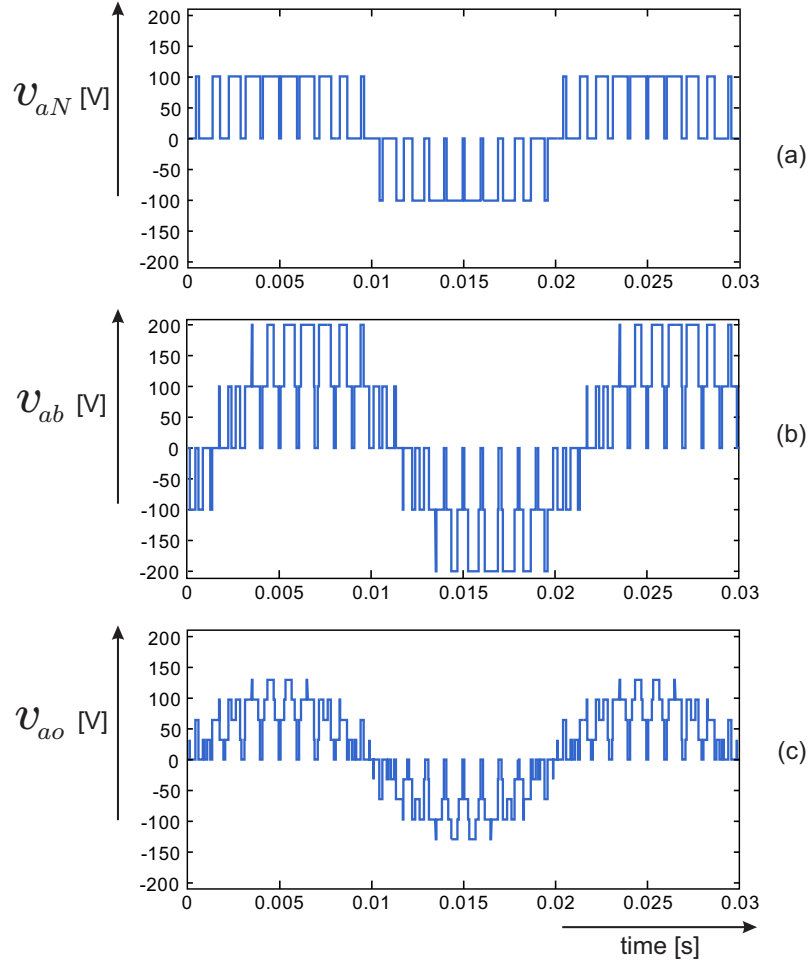


Figure 2.2. NPC inverter output: (a) Voltage v_{aN} ; (b) Voltage v_{ab} ; (c) Voltage v_{ao} .

Considering that the space vector is defined for the output voltage:

$$\mathbf{v}_s = \frac{2}{3} [v_{aN}(t) + av_{bN}(t) + a^2 v_{cN}(t)] \quad (2.1)$$

$$a = e^{j\frac{2\pi}{3}} = -\frac{1}{2} + j\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad (2.2)$$

$$a^2 = e^{j\frac{4\pi}{3}} = -\frac{1}{2} - j\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad (2.3)$$

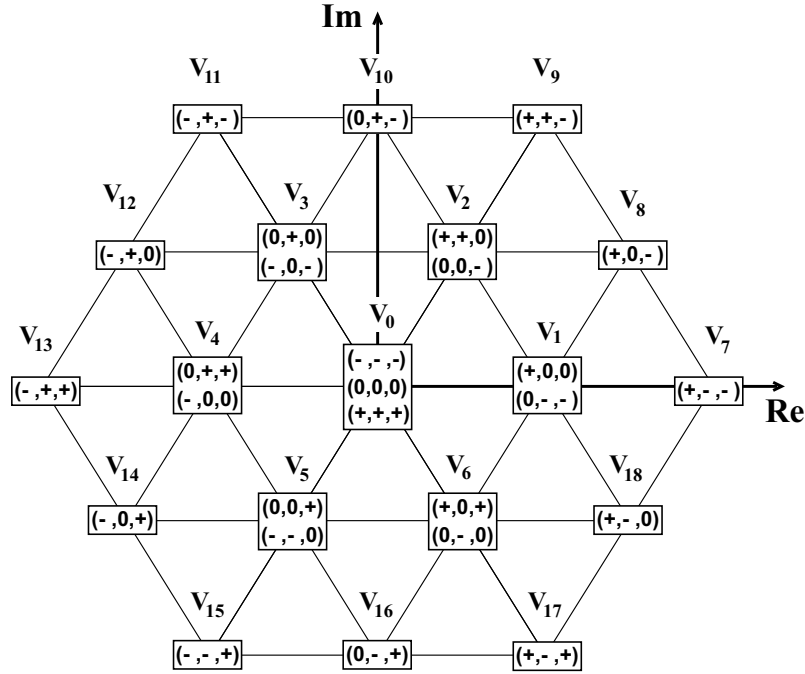


Figure 2.3. Space vectors of NPC.

and the definition of voltage states is described by:

$$S = (S_a, S_b, S_c) \quad (2.4)$$

$$S_{a,b,c} \in \{+, 0, -\} \quad (2.5)$$

State $+$ $\rightarrow S_{x1}, S_{x2}$ are on

State 0 $\rightarrow S_{x2}, S_{x3}$ are on

State $-$ $\rightarrow S_{x3}, S_{x4}$ are on

for $x = a, b, c$

The 27 switching states produce 19 different voltage vectors, as shown in Fig. 2.3. Some switching states are redundant, generating the same voltage vector. For example, vector V_0 can be generated by three different switching states: $(+,+,+)$, $(0,0,0)$, and $(-,-,-)$.

$$\mathbf{V}_0 = \frac{2}{3} \left[\frac{V_{DC}}{2} + a \frac{V_{DC}}{2} + a^2 \frac{V_{DC}}{2} \right] \quad (2.6)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_0 = \frac{2}{3} [0 + a0 + a^2 0] \quad (2.7)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_0 = \frac{2}{3} \left[\frac{-V_{DC}}{2} + a \frac{-V_{DC}}{2} + a^2 \frac{-V_{DC}}{2} \right] \quad (2.8)$$

Voltage vectors \mathbf{V}_1 to \mathbf{V}_6 can be generated by two different switching states, that is, they present redundant switching states.

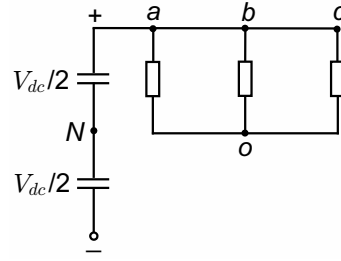


Figure 2.4. Switching state for V_0 . $S = \{+, +, +\}$.

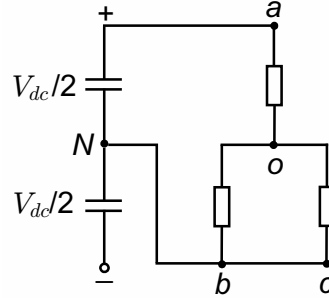


Figure 2.5. Switching state for V_1 . $S = \{+, 0, 0\}$.

Fig. 2.4 shows the configuration of the load considering a passive load (resistors) for switching a state vector V_0 , with $S = \{+, +, +\}$, and Fig. 2.5 shows the configuration for switching a state vector V_1 , with $S = \{+, 0, 0\}$.

2.1.3. The classical modulation

The classic PWM modulation is a special technique called: *Level Shifted PWM*. The LS-PWM used in this work consists of an Alternate Opposition Disposition [14].

Fig 2.6 shows the block diagram for connecting the signals to the power switches using a LS-PWM modulation, while Fig. 2.7 shows the waveforms for the classic LS-PWM modulation.

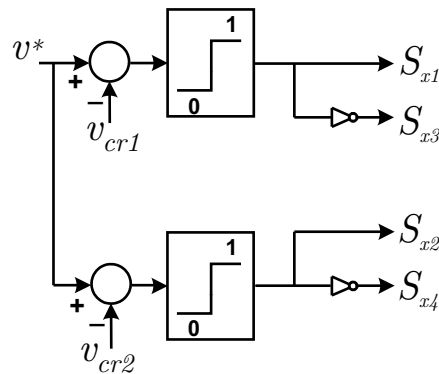


Figure 2.6. Block diagram of Level Shifted-PWM modulation.

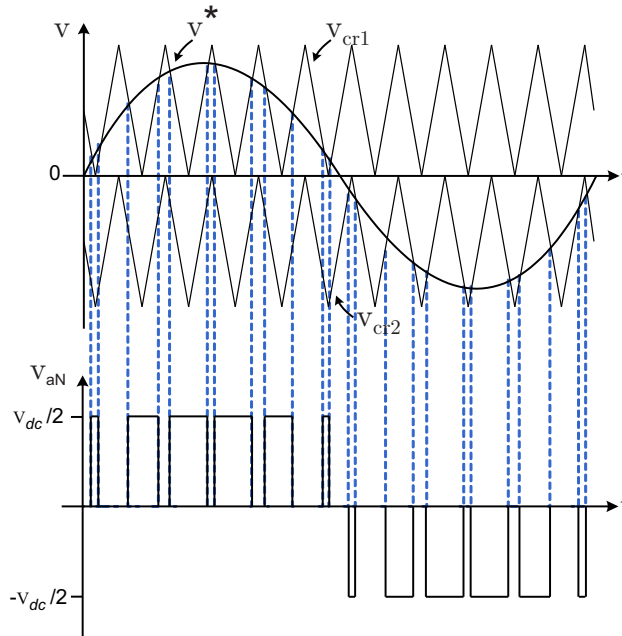


Figure 2.7. *Classic Level Shifted-PWM modulation.*

2.1.4. Summary

The main advantages and disadvantages of this topology can be summarized as follows.

Advantages :

- As a widely used topology, there is sufficient information in the literature about its applications [14–18]. This means that the NPC is a mature technology, which is a decisive factor in establishing a new technology in the industry.
- It only needs one source of DC voltage to power the entire inverter. The mid-points can be obtained using capacitors.

Disadvantages :

- There is an unequal distribution of losses between the inner and outer switching devices in each converter leg.
- An increasing number of clamping diodes is needed for higher number of levels.
- Depending on how the *dc-link* voltage, V_{DC} , is obtained, imbalances may arise between the capacitors. This drawback can be mitigated by modifying the control strategy [19–21].
- At higher number of levels, it is problematic to maintain the proper balance of voltage in capacitors. Therefore, the control law becomes more complex [22–26].

2.2. Active Neutral Point Clamped (ANPC) Converter

The design of the multilevel converters allows for several output levels. However, such circuits often come at the price of far higher complexity. For example, to generate 5 output voltage levels in the NPC it is necessary to use additional clamping diodes, capacitors and the corresponding control and charging circuitry, which is a complex control strategy, and even so, a more complex control might not be sufficient to operate an NPC with more than 3 levels. An alternative approach is to connect converters in series. This again adds to the complexity of the *dc-link* supply circuit due to the need for galvanic separation of the supplies and thus costly transformers [27, 28].

This issue can be solved by the 5-level ANPC that incorporates an additional capacitor per output phase. ABB commercializes the 5L-ANPC with its ACS 2000 model.

2.2.1. The power circuit

Fig. 2.8 presents the power circuit of this topology. Each phase of the inverter has one capacitor and eight power switches, two of them are used to connect the medium point (N) of the *dc-link* capacitors.

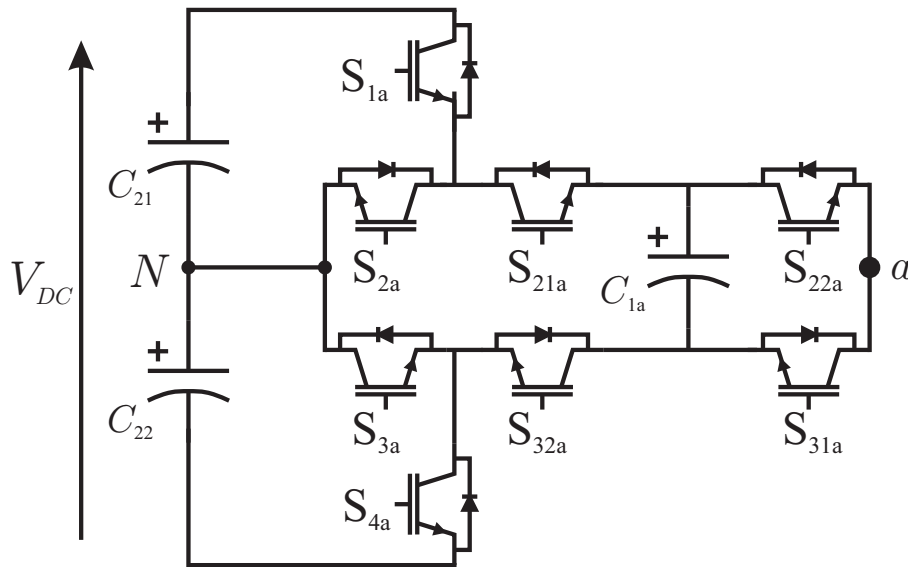


Figure 2.8. 1-Phase 5-level ANPC Inverter.

The configuration of the ANPC enables the generation of five voltage levels at the output terminal of phase a , with respect to the neutral point N , considering the switching combinations given in Table 2.2. This topology needs a direct control over the inner voltage in the flying capacitor to ensure the correct performance, keeping the inner capacitor voltage to $V_{DC}/4$.

The power switches in 5L-ANPC do not have the same blocking voltage. The power switches S_{22a} , S_{31a} , S_{21a} and S_{32a} block $V_{DC}/4$, and the switches S_{1a} , S_{2a} , S_{3a} , and S_{4a} block $V_{DC}/2$.

2.2.2. Vectors generated by the inverter

Fig. 2.9 shows the possible switching states for phase a of ANPC, where power switches shown in grey are OFF and power switches in black are ON.

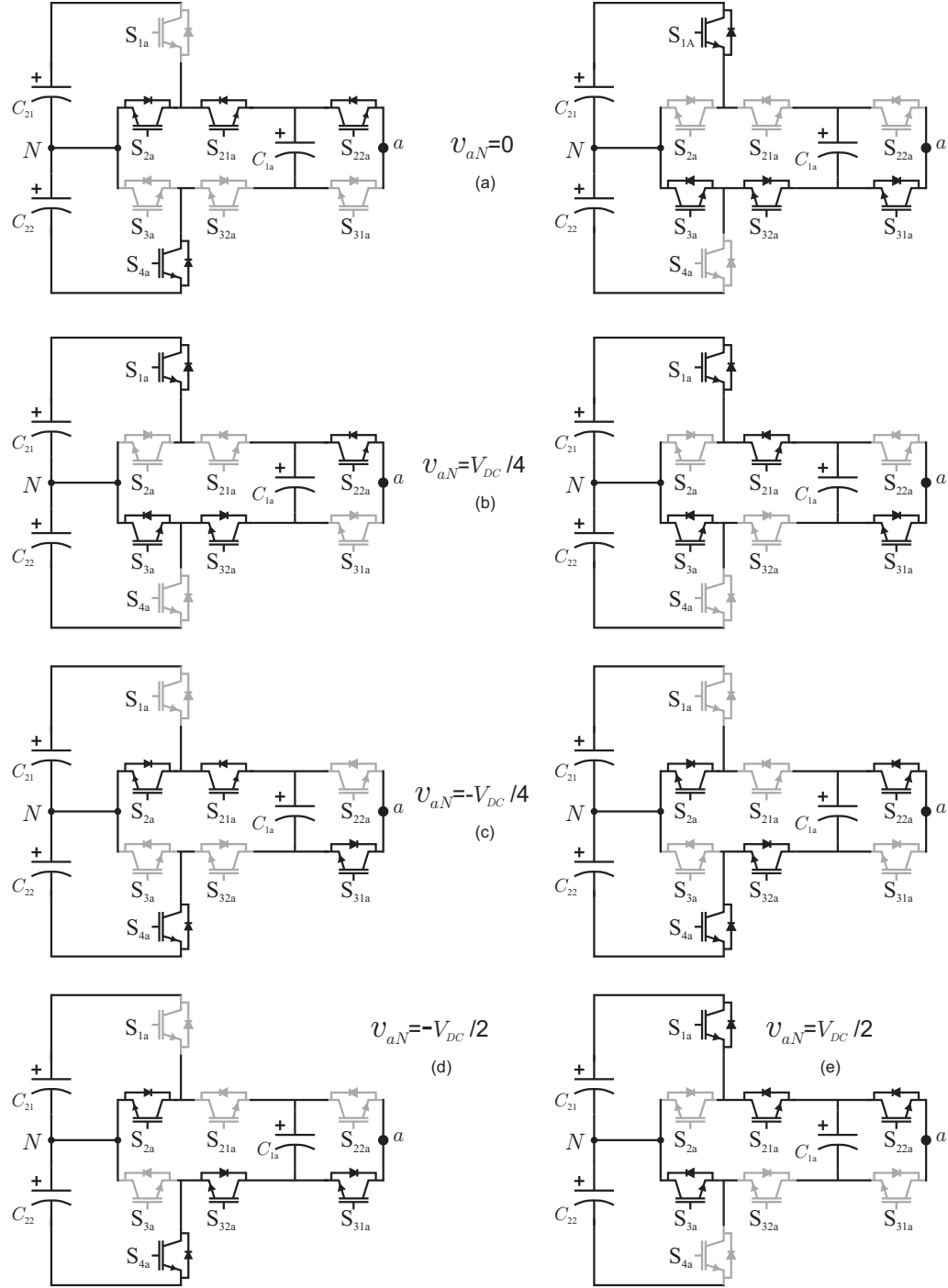


Figure 2.9. Possible switching states of an 5L-ANPC: (a) Output voltage: 0; (b) Output voltage: $V_{DC}/4$; (c) Output voltage: $-V_{DC}/4$; (d) Output voltage: $-V_{DC}/2$; (e) Output voltage: $V_{DC}/2$.

Table 2.2
SWITCHING STATES FOR ONE PHASE OF THE ANPC INVERTER.

Voltage	Switches states								Output voltage
	S_{1a}	S_{2a}	S_{3a}	S_{4a}	S_{21a}	S_{32a}	S_{22a}	S_{31a}	
V_1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	$-V_{DC}/2$
V_2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	$-V_{DC}/4$
V_3	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	$-V_{DC}/4$
V_4	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0
V_5	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
V_6	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	$V_{DC}/4$
V_7	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	$V_{DC}/4$
V_8	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	$V_{DC}/2$

Fig. 2.9-(a) shows the circuit for voltages V_4 and V_5 indicated in Table 2.2, Fig. 2.9-(b) shows the circuit for voltages V_6 and V_7 , Fig. 2.9-(c) shows the circuit for voltages V_2 and V_3 , Fig. 2.9-(d) shows the circuit for vector V_1 and finally, Fig. 2.9-(e) shows the circuit for vector V_8 indicated in Table 2.2.

It is possible to see that vectors V_2 , V_3 , V_6 and V_7 , have an influence on the inner voltage, charging or discharging the inner capacitor as a function of the output current.

For the three-phase inverter, $8^3 = 512$ switching states are generated. The 512 switching states produce 125 different voltage vectors, as shown in Fig. 2.10.

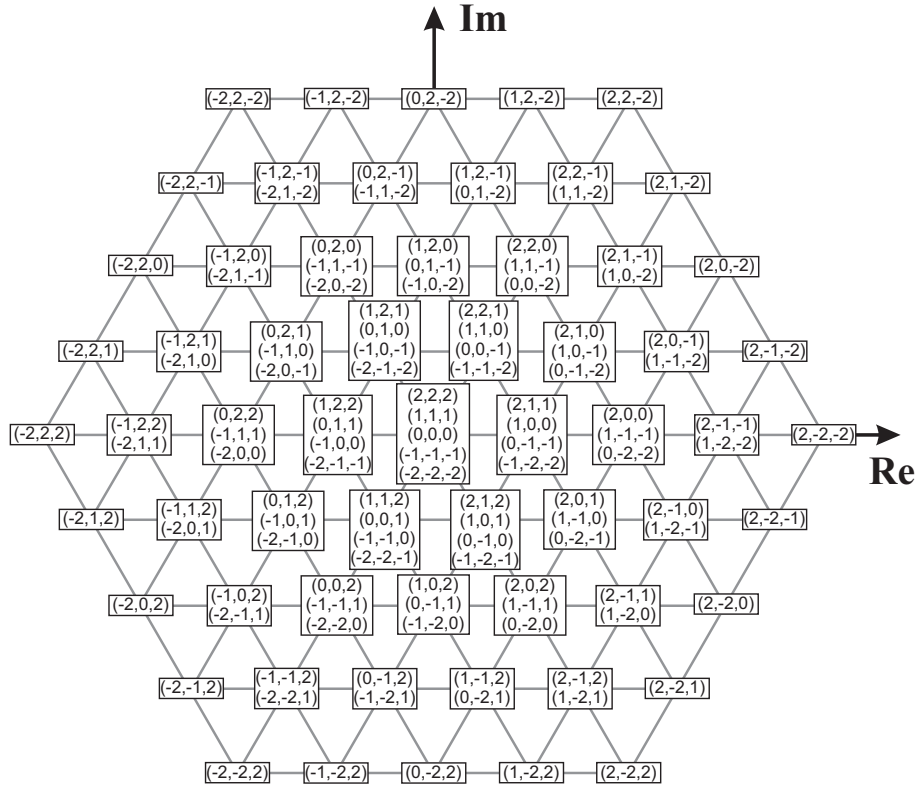


Figure 2.10. Space vectors of 5L-ANPC.

Some voltage vectors are redundant. For example, vector $\mathbf{V} = 0$ can be generated by five different voltage states (S): (2,2,2), (1,1,1), (0,0,0), (-1,-1,-1), and (-2,-2,-2). Where:

$$S = (S_a, S_b, S_c) \quad (2.9)$$

$$S_{a,b,c} \in \{2, 1, 0, -1, -2\} \quad (2.10)$$

$$\text{State 2} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/2$$

$$\text{State 1} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State 0} \rightarrow v_{aN} = 0$$

$$\text{State -1} \rightarrow v_{aN} = -V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State -2} \rightarrow v_{aN} = -V_{DC}/2$$

2.2.3. The classical modulation

The classic modulation used in the 5L-ANPC is a Phase Shifted-PWM (PS-PWM) with $\phi = 180^\circ$.

From Table 2.2, it can be seen that pair of power switches (S_{22a}, S_{31a}), (S_{21a}, S_{32a}), (S_{1a}, S_{2a}), and (S_{3a}, S_{4a}) are complementary switch pair and S_{1a} and S_{3a} require the same switching signal.

It can also be observed that S_{1a} and S_{3a} are turned OFF when the output voltage is negative and turned ON when the output voltage is positive. So, the switch pairs (S_{1a}, S_{2a}), and (S_{3a}, S_{4a}) can be operated at fundamental frequency based on the polarity of the phase voltage.

A classic PS-PWM can be used to control the switch pairs (S_{22a}, S_{31a}) and (S_{21a}, S_{32a}).

Fig 2.11 shows the block diagram for connecting the signals to the power switches using the PWM modulation, while Fig. 2.12 shows the waveforms for the classic modulation for a 5L-ANPC.

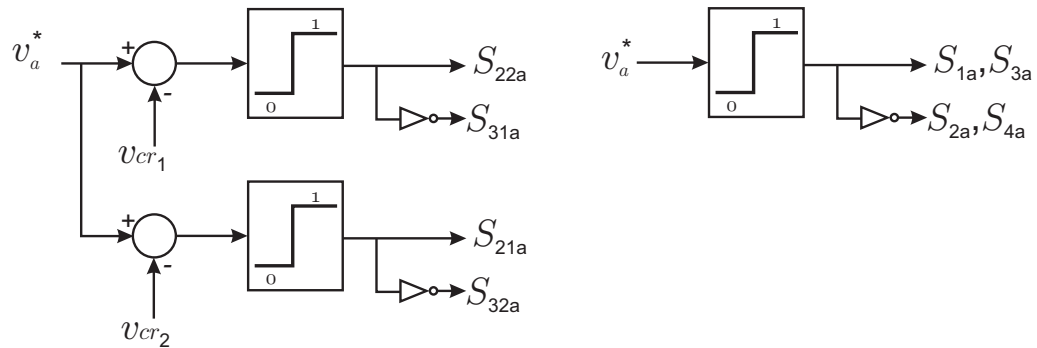


Figure 2.11. Block diagram of PS-PWM modulation for a 5L-ANPC.

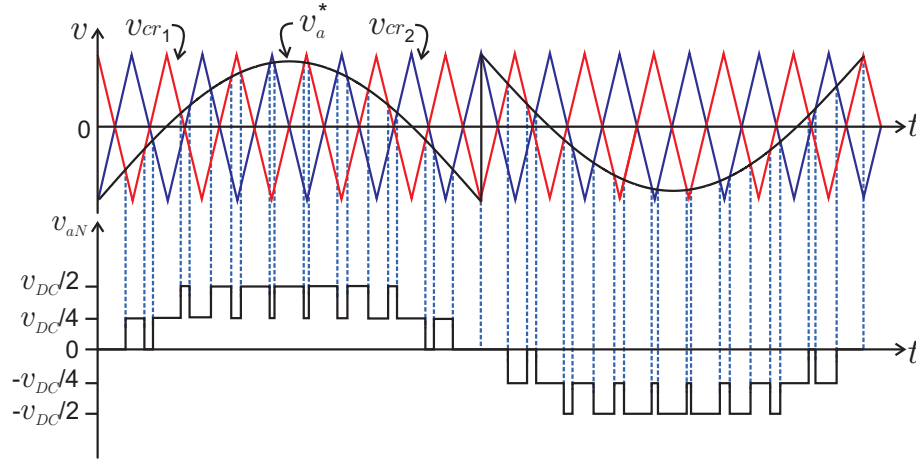


Figure 2.12. *Classic PWM modulation for a 5L-ANPC.*

2.2.4. Summary

The main advantages and disadvantages of this topology can be summarized as follows.

- Advantages:**
- It is more suitable for high-performance medium voltage motor drives [29–37].
 - It can overcome the limitations of the NPC inverter by reducing the total number of capacitors necessary to generate five levels, which makes it easy to balance all voltages.
 - It only needs one source of DC voltage to power the entire inverter. The mid-points can be obtained using capacitors.
- Disadvantages:**
- Depending on how the voltage *dc-link*, V_{DC} , is obtained, imbalances may arise between the capacitors. Modifying the control output switches can mitigate this drawback.
 - Since it has a larger number of semiconductor devices, it has higher conduction losses.
 - To go to medium voltage applications, it is necessary to duplicate power switches S_{1A} , S_{2A} , S_{3A} and S_{4A} in all phases to get the same blocking voltage in all semiconductors.

2.3. Flying Capacitor Converter (FCC)

The FCC topology was developed in the 1990s [8], and it uses several floating capacitors instead of clamping diodes to share the voltage stress among devices and to achieve different voltage levels in the output.

The FCC topology can be extended, achieving more levels in the output phase by the connection of more cells in tandem (see Fig. 2.13). Nowadays, the FCC has a reduced industrial presence, but some commercial products can be found such as the ALSPA VDM6000 converter by Alstom [38, 39].

2.3.1. The power circuit

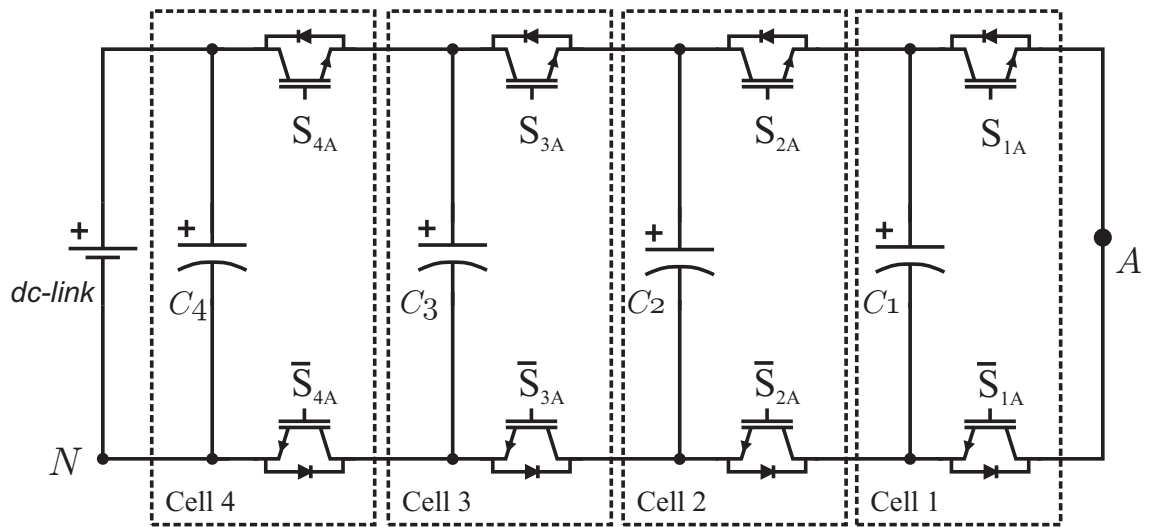


Figure 2.13. 1-Phase Inverter 5-level FCC.

Fig. 2.13 shows the topology for a 5-level single-phase FCC, which is composed by the tandem connection of four basic units called *cells*.

Each cell requires a capacitor and two power switches, which must be operated complementarily. In most works, the capacitor voltages ratio is set as $v_{C1} : v_{C2} : v_{C3} : v_{C4} = 1 : 2 : 3 : 4$. When this condition is reached, the converter generates a 5-level voltage waveform between the output terminal *A* and the inverter neutral point *N*. Other voltage ratios have been proposed in literature [40–42]; however, the standard 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 ratio presents the advantage of evenly spreading the voltage stress across the power switches.

Additionally, this standard ratio can be naturally achieved with a simple Phase Shifted Pulse Width Modulation (PS-PWM) strategy, i.e., in an open-loop manner [43, 44].

2.3.2. Vectors generated by the inverter

Every cell of FCC can generate two possible states. In the case of a 5-level FCC with four cells, the total possible states are: $2^4 = 16$. Table 2.3 shows the possible states of the multilevel converter and the influence of the inner voltage on the output value.

Table 2.3
SWITCHING STATES FOR ONE PHASE OF THE FCC.

Voltage	Switches' states				Output voltage	Output voltage [V]
	S_{4a}	S_{3a}	S_{2a}	S_{1a}		
V_1	0	0	0	0	0	0
V_2	0	0	0	1	v_{C1}	$V_{DC}/4$
V_3	0	0	1	0	$v_{C2} - v_{C1}$	
V_4	0	1	0	0	$v_{C3} - v_{C2}$	
V_5	1	0	0	0	$v_{C4} - v_{C3}$	
V_6	0	0	1	1	v_{C2}	$V_{DC}/2$
V_7	0	1	1	0	$v_{C3} - v_{C1}$	
V_8	1	1	0	0	$v_{C4} - v_{C2}$	
V_9	0	1	0	1	$v_{C3} - v_{C2} + v_{C1}$	
V_{10}	1	0	0	1	$v_{C4} - v_{C3} + v_{C1}$	
V_{11}	1	0	1	0	$v_{C4} - v_{C3} + v_{C2} - v_{C1}$	
V_{12}	0	1	1	1	v_{C3}	$3V_{DC}/4$
V_{13}	1	1	1	0	$v_{C4} - v_{C1}$	
V_{14}	1	1	0	1	$v_{C4} - v_{C2} + v_{C1}$	
V_{15}	1	0	1	1	$v_{C4} - v_{C3} + v_{C2}$	
V_{16}	1	1	1	1	v_{C4}	V_{DC}

The redundancy in the voltage states V_2 , V_3 , V_4 and V_5 for output level $V_{DC}/4$ and the redundancy in the voltage states V_6 , V_7 , V_8 , V_9 , V_{10} and V_{11} for output level $V_{DC}/2$ and finally, the redundancy in the voltage states V_{12} , V_{13} , V_{14} and V_{15} for output level $3V_{DC}/4$ achieve an appropriate combination of switching states that ensures the correct inner voltage and the desired output voltage, charging or discharging the inner capacitor as necessary.

For the 3-phase 5-level FCC there are $16^3 = 4096$ possible switching states. These switching states produce 125 different voltage vectors, as shown in Fig. 2.14.

Some voltage vectors are redundant, the vector $\mathbf{V} = 0$ can be generated by five different voltage states (S): (4,4,4), (3,3,3), (2,2,2), (1,1,1), and (0,0,0). Considering:

$$S = (S_a, S_b, S_c) \quad (2.11)$$

$$S_{a,b,c} \in \{4, 3, 2, 1, 0\} \quad (2.12)$$

$$\text{State 4} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}$$

$$\text{State 3} \rightarrow v_{aN} = 3V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State 2} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/2$$

$$\text{State 1} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State 0} \rightarrow v_{aN} = 0$$

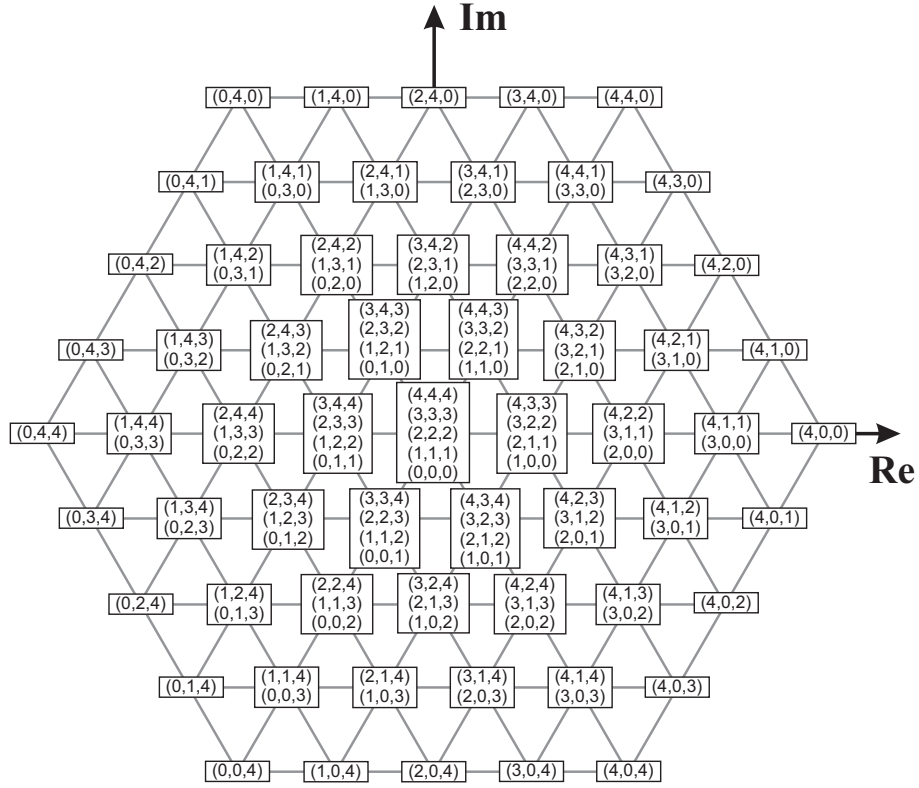


Figure 2.14. Space vectors of 5L-FFC.

2.3.3. The classical modulation

The classic PWM modulation of the FCC that allows the inner voltage to be balanced is a special technique called: *Phase Shifted PWM* (PS-PWM). The phase shifted between the carrier signal in an FCC is given by the expression:

$$\phi = \frac{360}{N_c} \quad (2.13)$$

where N_c is the number of cells in the topology. In the case of the 5-level FCC, $\phi = 90^\circ$.

Fig 2.15 shows the block diagram that generates the signals to the power switches employing a PS-PWM modulation, where v_a^* is the reference signal for the output phase a and v_{cr_i} for all $i \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ are the carrier signals. Fig. 2.16 shows the classic PS-PWM waveform.

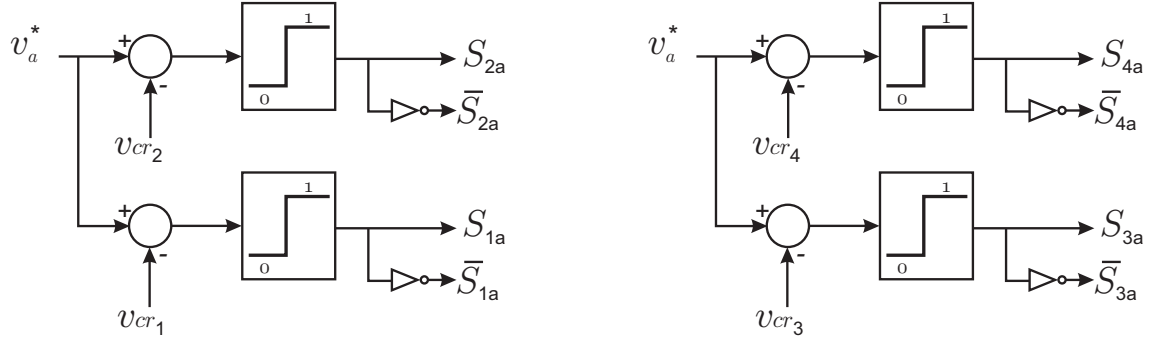


Figure 2.15. Block diagram of PS-PWM modulation for a 5-level FCC.

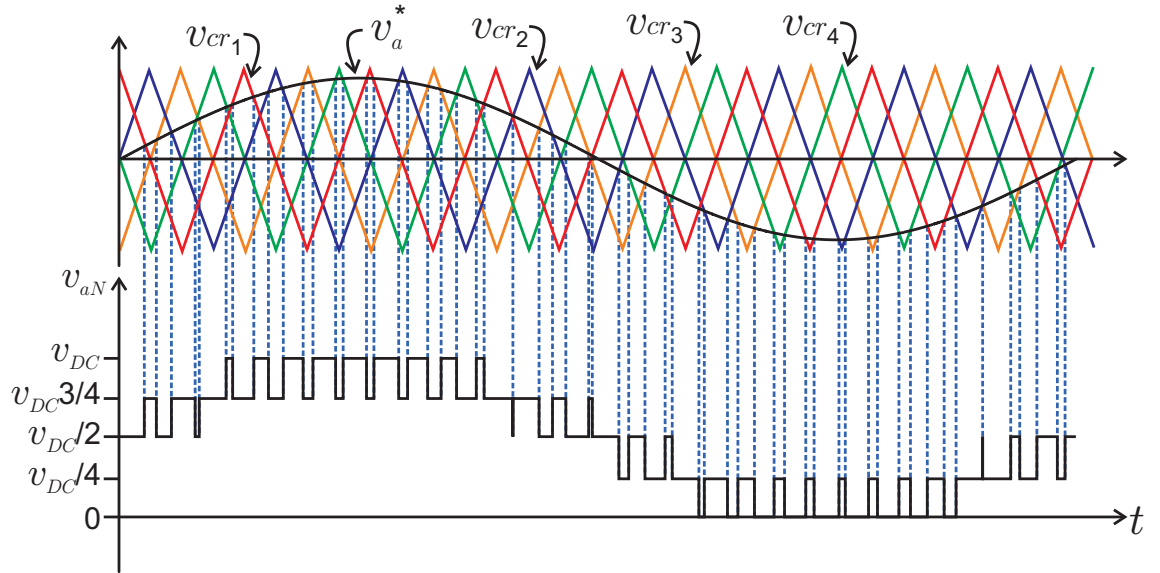


Figure 2.16. Classic Phase Shifted-PWM modulation.

2.3.4. Summary

The main advantages and disadvantages of this topology can be summarized as follows.

- Advantages:**
- The large number of capacitors provides a source of energy storage, which augments the system's ability to deal with momentary loss of power from the grid.
 - In case of failure, removing cells does not decrease the maximum voltage applied; the only consequences are the reduction of levels obtained at the output, the increase of blocking voltage in the semiconductors and the voltage in the capacitors.
 - FCC has a modular configuration, which makes it a *scalable* converter.

- Disadvantages:**
- The number, size and voltage rating of capacitors increases with the number of levels; in addition to increasing the size of the inverter, these are some of the components that make the FCC of lesser life and higher cost.

- The main capacitor must be designed to withstand the maximum voltage. In the case of a very high voltage, it is necessary to resort to configurations of the arrangement of capacitors.
- The stray inductances from large commutation loops cause high voltages overshoots.
- Like the NPC configuration, in this inverter special considerations must be taken in the implementation of the control to ensure a correct balance of the voltages of the flying capacitors. [45, 46]

2.4. Stacked Multicell Converter (SMC)

Today, the 3-phase 5-level SMC topology has a commercial application in medium voltage with the MV6 series from GE Power Conversion.

2.4.1. The power circuit

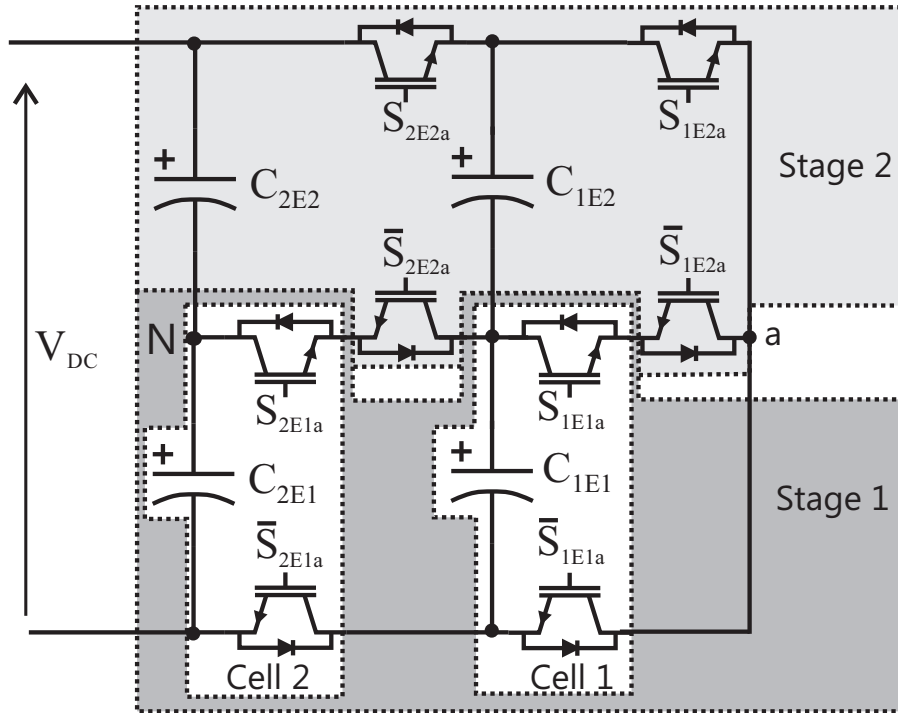


Figure 2.17. Topology of one phase of a Stacked Multicell Converter 2x2.

Fig. 2.17 presents the power circuit of the 5L-SMC converter for one phase; it is based on a hybrid association of elementary commutation cells. Each of these cells requires a capacitor and two power switches, which must be operated complementary.

Each stage (n cells stacked vertically) of the full converter can be viewed as a classical multicell converter (Flying Capacitor Converter) having p commutation cells in series.

Fig. 2.17 shows the particular case when $p = 2$ cells (horizontal) and $n = 2$ stages (vertical). For this converter, four flying capacitors C_{iEj} with $i \in \{1, 2\}$ and $j \in \{1, 2\}$ appear, where i indicates the number of the respective cell (cells put horizontally) while j indicates the number of the respective stages (cells put vertically). Each voltage across these capacitors is then equal to $V_{C_{iEj}} = \frac{i \cdot E}{n \cdot p}$ with $E = V_{DC}$ the input voltage of the converter.

2.4.2. Vectors generated by the inverter

The SMC 2x2 shown in Fig. 2.17 has $N_{states} = 9$ different states and $N_{levels} = 5$ different levels in the output. These 9 configurations and their respective levels consi-

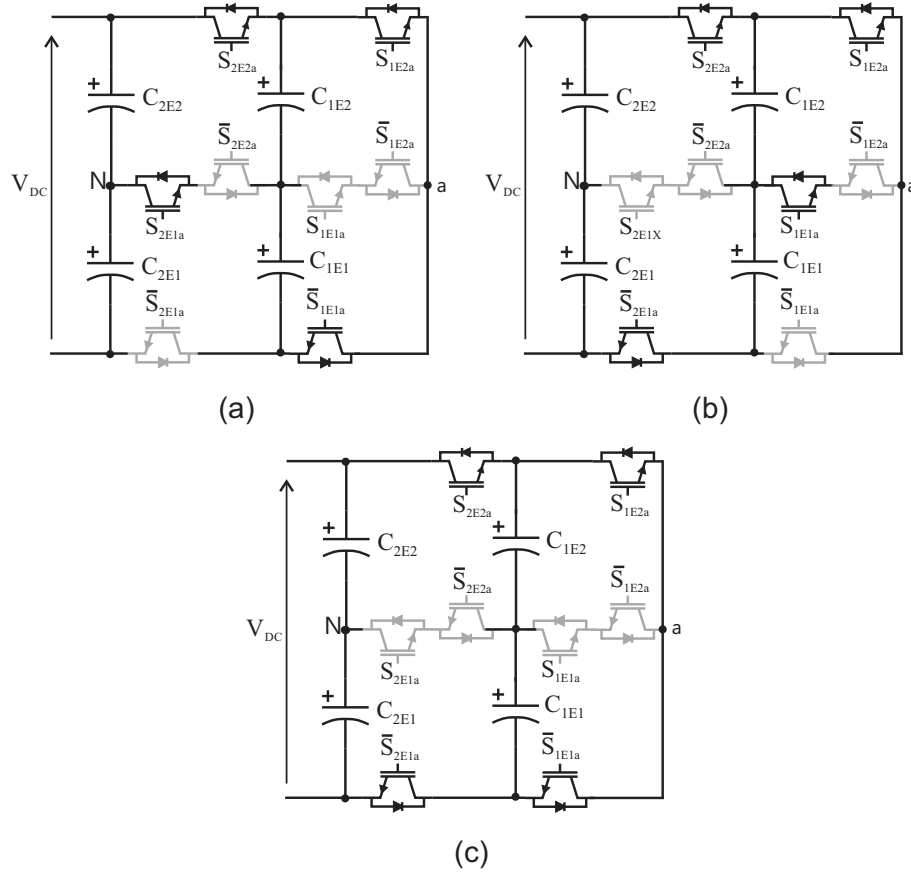


Figure 2.18. Switching states not allowed in a SMC 2x2: (a) Short circuit in cell 1; (b) Short circuit in cell 2; (c) Short circuit in both cells.

dering the particular case of the SMC 2x2, $V_{C_{2E2a}} = V_{C_{2E1a}}$; $V_{C_{1E2a}} = V_{C_{1E1a}}$; $E = V_{DC}$ and $V_{DC} : V_{C_{2E1a}} : V_{C_{1E1a}} = 4 : 2 : 1$, are shown in Table 2.4 where $S_{iEja} = 1$ when switch S_{iEja} is ON, and $S_{iEja} = 0$ when switch S_{iEja} is OFF.

Each power switch can take only two possible states, so, if SMC has four switches (not considering the complementary pair) then it will have $N_{states} = 4^2 = 16$ possible states. However, this argument is invalid, because there are seven switching states that are not allowed. The state when the switch of the upper stage is ON ($S_{jE2a} = 1$) and the switch of the lower stage is OFF ($S_{jE1a} = 0$) (see Fig. 2.18) generates a short circuit through both capacitors of the stage j . Consequently, the total states for each cell of both stages (ex. cell 1 of the stage 1 and cell 1 of the stage 2) is 3 instead of $N_{states_{cell1}} = 2^2 = 4$, so the total number of states of an SMC 2x2 will be $N_{states} = 3^2 = 9$ because it has three states for each cells and has two cells.

Generalizing, the number of possible states of the circuit is then equal to:

$$N_{states} = (n + 1)^p \quad (2.14)$$

The number of levels in an SMC for the output voltage is equal to:

Table 2.4
SWITCHING STATES FOR ONE PHASE OF THE STACKED MULTICELL CONVERTER 2X2

Voltage	State ($S_{2E2a}, S_{2E1a}, S_{1E2a}, S_{1E1a}$)	Output Voltage v_{aN}	Output Voltage v_{aN} [V]
V_1	(0,0,0,0)	$-V_{C_{2E1a}}$	$-V_{DC}/2$
V_2	(0,0,0,1)	$V_{C_{1E1a}} - V_{C_{2E1a}}$	$-V_{DC}/4$
V_3	(0,0,1,1)	$V_{C_{1E2a}} + V_{C_{1E1a}} - V_{C_{2E1a}}$	0
V_4	(0,1,0,0)	$-V_{C_{1E1a}}$	$-V_{DC}/4$
V_5	(0,1,0,1)	0	0
V_6	(0,1,1,1)	$V_{C_{1E2a}}$	$V_{DC}/4$
V_7	(1,1,0,0)	$V_{C_{2E2a}} - V_{C_{1E2a}} - V_{C_{1E1a}}$	0
V_8	(1,1,0,1)	$V_{C_{2E2a}} - V_{C_{1E2a}}$	$V_{DC}/4$
V_9	(1,1,1,1)	$V_{C_{2E2a}}$	$V_{DC}/2$

$$N_{levels} = (np) + 1 \quad (2.15)$$

The 3-phase 5L-FCC has $9^3 = 729$ switching states, and these 729 switching states produce 125 different voltage vectors, the same as in 5L-ANPC, as shown in Fig. 2.10.

2.4.3. The classical modulation

It is necessary to define the global referential signal called v_{rg} . This signal corresponds to the reference for the output voltage of the converter.

Based on this v_{rg} signal and on the number of stages ($n = 2$), n signals of internal references (called v_{rEj}) can be generated. These signals v_{rEj} will be sent to each stage ($n = 2$) of the converter, and then each signal v_{rEj} is modulated with the PS-PWM strategy for each stage.

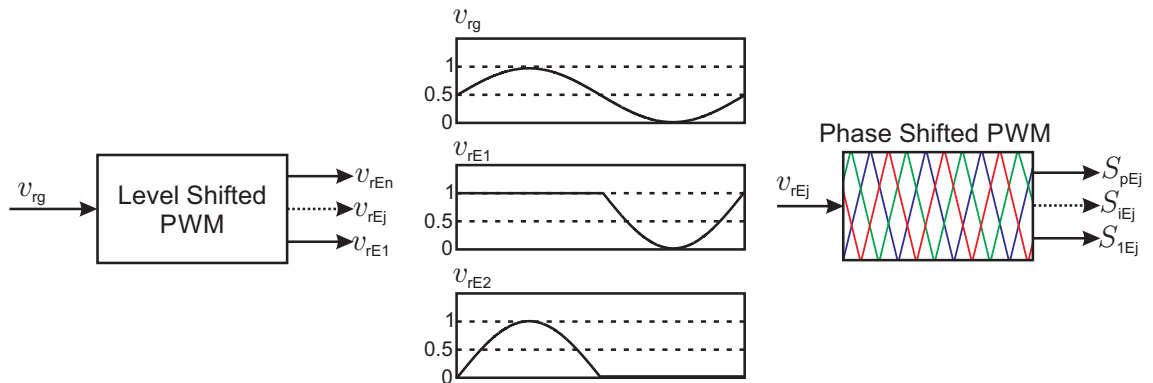


Figure 2.19. Steps in the classical modulation of the SMC.

Consequently, the classical modulation of the SMC requires two steps. The first step

modulates the v_{rg} signal for each stage of the SMC (in vertical) to determinate the internal reference signals (called v_{rEj}), and the second step modulates the v_{rEj} signals for each cell of each stages (in horizontal). The resulting modulation is a Mixed Shifted-PWM, which is composed of a Phase Shifted-PWM (PS-PWM) determined for the numbers of cells that compose each stage (two horizontal cells in the case of the SMC 2x2), and a Level Shifted-PWM (LP-PWM) determined by the numbers of stages that compose the converter (two vertical stages in the case of the SMC 2x2).

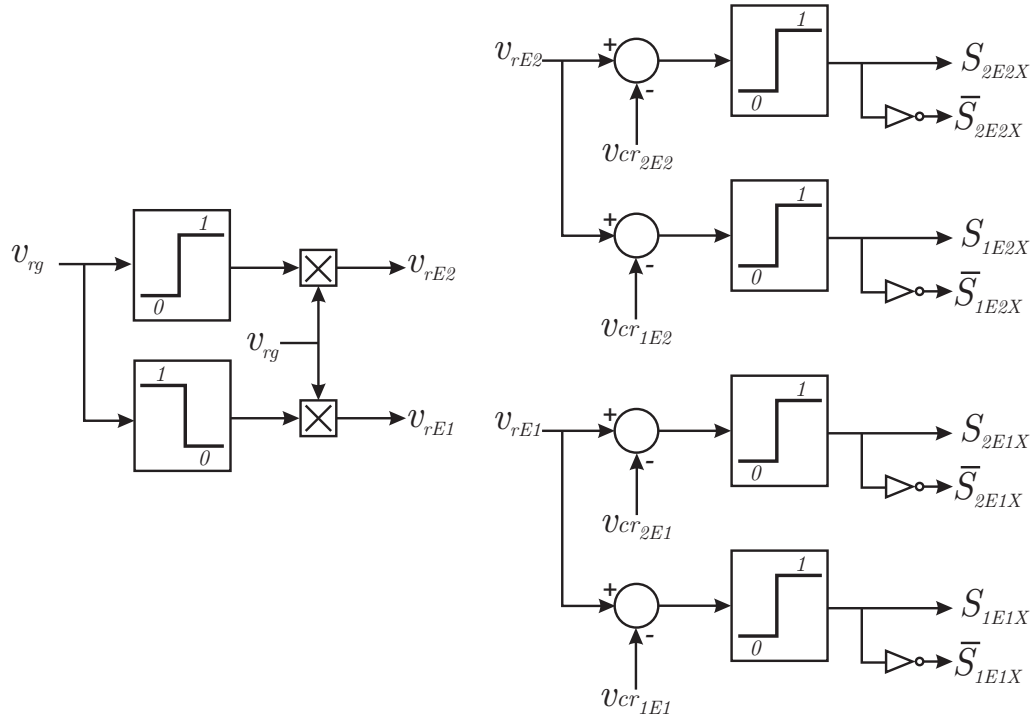


Figure 2.20. Block diagram of the classical modulation for an SMC 2x2.

Fig. 2.19 shows the steps for the classical modulation of an SMC with n stages and p cells where the first step to determinate the voltage reference for each vertical stage (v_{rEj}) is an LS-PWM.

Fig. 2.20 shows the block diagram of the classical modulation for an SMC with 2 stacks and 2 cells. Fig. 2.21 shows the classical modulation in the particular case of a 2x2 SMC .

2.4.4. Summary

The main advantages and disadvantages of this topology can be summarized as follows.

Advantages: ■ The capacitors are smaller than those used in FCC. In 5L-SMC, two capacitors blocking $V_{DC}/4$ and two blocking $V_{DC}/2$ are necessary, and 5L-FCC requires one capacitor blocking $V_{DC}/4$, one blocking $V_{DC}/2$, one blocking $3V_{DC}/4$ and finally one for the *dc-link* (V_{DC}).

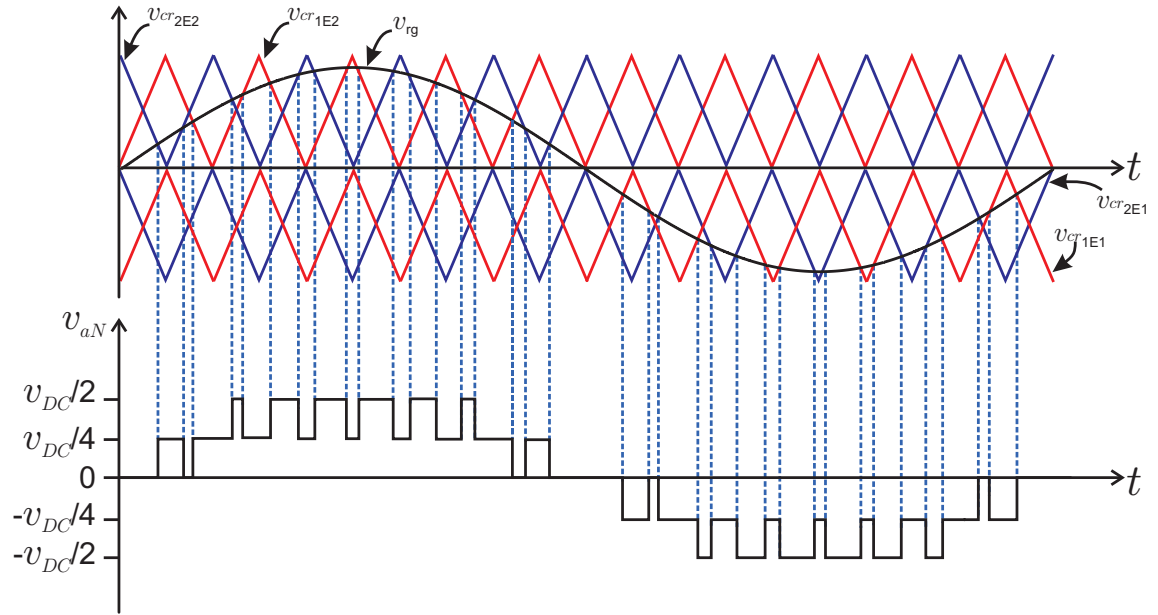


Figure 2.21. Classical modulation of a SMC 2x2.

- It has a large number of levels to the output of converter with good current and power dynamics.
- The number of degrees of freedom increases in relation to the levels per cell.
- The converter has a modular configuration feature that makes it a scalable converter.

Disadvantages: ■ This topology has more power semiconductors per cell than in a classical multicell converter.

- There are a lot of flying capacitors that need to be balanced.

Chapter 3

Reduced Multilevel Converter

The Reduced Multilevel Converter (RMC) [47] structure concept is composed of a variable *dc-link* converter and a 3-phase output inverter stage, like the one shown in Fig. 3.1 for a 5-level configuration using a 2L-VSI. The variable *dc-link* structure is composed of a cascaded connection of basic units called *DC-cells* which is shown in Fig. 3.2.

Every DC-cell is formed by three power switches and one capacitor; when the power switch in series with the capacitor (S_{Ck}) is ON, the upper and lower switches (S_{pk} and S_{nk}) must to work in a complementary way to avoid a short circuit.

One way to understand how this topology works is to imagine it as two parts that work together. The first part (the DC-cells) works as a DC-DC multilevel converter, generating a variable *dc-link* between the points p and n , and the second part (output inverter) works as a DC-AC inverter connected to a variable *dc-link* and can be any inverter with a single DC-bus configuration like the 2L-VSI, NPC, 3L-ANPC, 5L-ANPC, T-type (SMC 1x2) [13], FCC, or SMC.

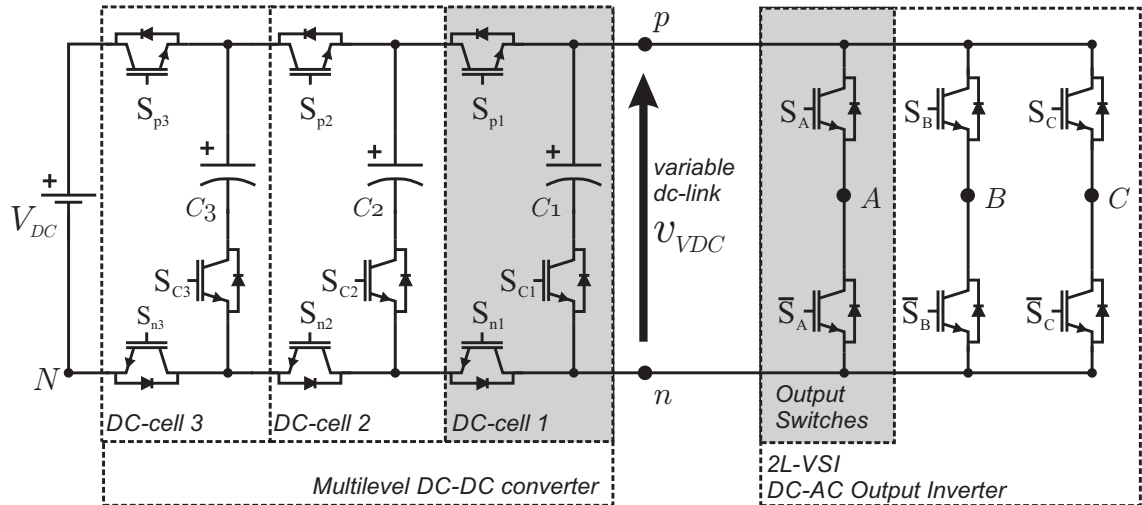


Figure 3.1. Five Level Reduced Multilevel Converter (5L-RMC), with 3 DC-cell and a 2L-VSI output inverter.

In this work, the basic 2L-VSI is used for simplicity. The 2L-VSI is connected to the

variable *dc-link* and can choose the output voltage between two options: v_{pN} or v_{nN} as shown in Fig. 3.1.

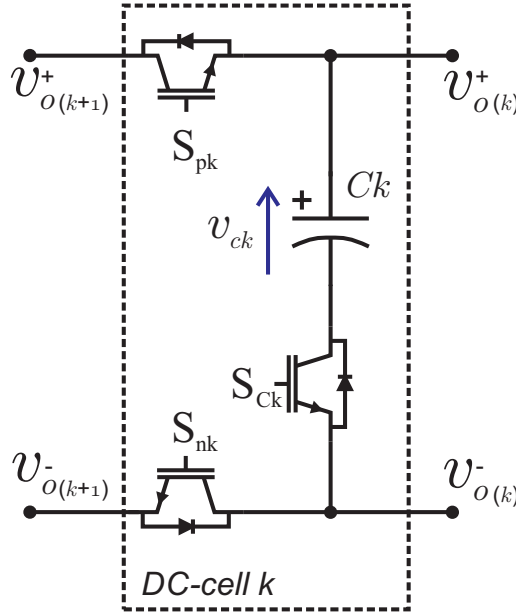


Figure 3.2. Generic DC-cell k of RMC.

3.1. Basic properties

The RMC is a modular multicell structure, much like the FCC and SMC; this means that it is possible to increase or decrease the number of levels by connecting or disconnecting DC-cell units following the multicell arrangement.

Every main cell, see Fig. 3.2, has three possible conduction states. These are shown in Table 3.1, where $S_{pk} = 1$ means that the power switch pk is ON and $S_{pk} = 0$ means that it is OFF, for all power switches S_{pk} , S_{nk} and S_{Ck} .

Table 3.1
DC-CELL RMC: POSSIBLE SWITCHING STATES

Switching State			Output Potential	
S_{pk}	S_{nk}	S_{Ck}	$v_{o(k)}^+$	$v_{o(k)}^-$
1	1	0	$v_{o(k+1)}^+$	$v_{o(k+1)}^-$
0	1	1	$v_{o(k+1)}^- + v_{ck}$	$v_{o(k+1)}^-$
1	0	1	$v_{o(k+1)}^+$	$v_{o(k+1)}^+ - v_{ck}$

Hence, each additional DC-cell incorporates three possible switching states for the DC-DC multilevel part of the converter and the total possible states can be expressed as an equation in function of the number of DC-cells ($N_{DC-cell}$) as follows:

$$N_{states_{DC-DC}} = 3^{N_{DC-cell}} \quad (3.1)$$

In the case of the RMC shown in Fig. 3.1, there are 3 DC-cells, and the possible switching states for the DC-DC multilevel part are $3^3 = 27$.

A 2L-VSI is used for the DC-AC inverter part, and there are two power switches for each output phase. These two switches work in a complementary way; when $S_x = 1$, i.e. it is ON, the switch $\bar{S}_x = 0$, is OFF. This is necessary, because $S_x = 1$ and $\bar{S}_x = 1$ at the same time generates a short circuit in the variable dc-link, that is, in the dc-link or in one of the inner capacitors.

The possible switching states for each phase is 2. Therefore, the number of possible states in function of the number of output phases (N_{OP}) can be described by:

$$N_{states_{DC-AC}} = 2^{N_{OP}} \quad (3.2)$$

In the case of the RMC shown in Fig. 3.1, there are 3 output phases, and the possible switching states for the DC-AC part is $2^3 = 8$.

The total number of possible states of the whole converter is given by the multiplication of the number of states in the DC-DC multilevel part and in the DC-AC part as in equation (3.3):

$$N_{states} = N_{states_{DC-DC}} * N_{states_{DC-AC}} \quad (3.3)$$

For the case of a 5-level, 3-phase RMC shown in Fig. 3.1, the total possible states are $N_{states} = 27 * 8 = 216$.

The number of output voltages (N_{OV}) between the output phase (A , B or C) and the neutral point of the converter (N) is given by:

$$N_{OV} = N_{DC-cell} + 2 \quad (3.4)$$

As long as the inner voltage in the capacitors follows the relationship given by:

$$v_{Ck} = k \frac{V_{DC}}{N_{DC-cell} + 1} \quad (3.5)$$

All possible combinations of these 216 possible switching states generate 65 output voltage vectors, which are shown in Fig. 3.3. The voltage vectors are described by the variable S as follow:

$$S = (S_A, S_B, S_C) \quad (3.6)$$

$$S_{a,b,c} \in \{4, 3, 2, 1, 0\} \quad (3.7)$$

$$\text{State 4} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}$$

$$\text{State 3} \rightarrow v_{aN} = 3V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State 2} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/2$$

$$\text{State 1} \rightarrow v_{aN} = V_{DC}/4$$

$$\text{State 0} \rightarrow v_{aN} = 0$$

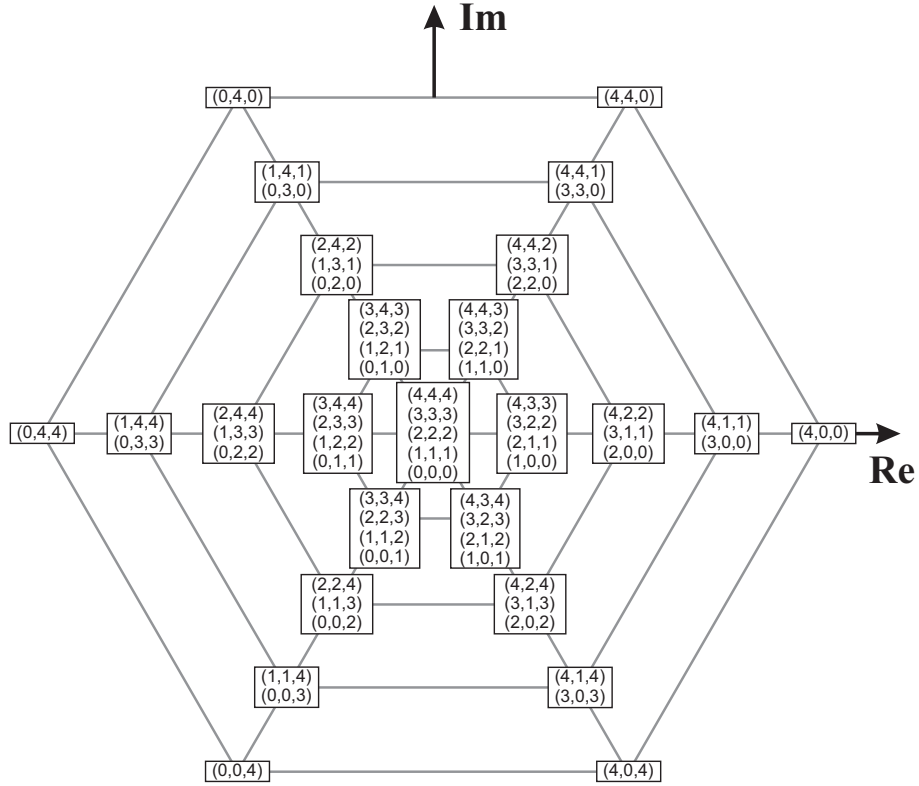


Figure 3.3. Total possible output voltage vector in 5L-RMC.

There are 54 possible switching states for the voltage vector zero, 18 possible switching states for all possible voltage vectors in the first ring, six possible switching states for all voltage vectors in the second ring, two for the third ring and only one possible switching state for the vectors in the final ring, as is summarized in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
REDUNDANT SWITCHING STATES FOR ALL POSSIBLE OUTPUT VOLTAGE LEVELS

Number of Possible Switching States	Output voltage Magnitude
54	0 [V]
$18 \cdot 6 = 108$	$V_{DC}/6$ [V]
$6 \cdot 6 = 36$	$V_{DC}/3$ [V]
$2 \cdot 6 = 12$	$V_{DC}/2$ [V]
$1 \cdot 6 = 6$	$2V_{DC}/3$ [V]

Table 3.3 presents the 27 possible switching states of the 3DC-cell RMC with the 54 possible output voltages for one phase (choosing $S_x = 1$ or $S_x = 0$ for the 2L-VSI).

Switching states in voltage $V_2 - V_5$ in Table 3.3 are redundant and generate the output voltage $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$ and $v_{nN} = 3V_{DC}/4$. Voltages $V_6 - V_7$ are redundant switching states that generate the output voltage $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/2$. Switching states in voltage V_8 generate the output voltage $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$. Switching states in voltage $V_9 - V_{13}$ generate the output voltage $v_{pN} = 3V_{DC}/4$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/2$ with the voltages

Table 3.3
SWITCHING STATES FOR 3-MCS 5-LEVEL REDUCED MULTILEVEL CONVERTER.

Voltage	Switchings States						Output Voltage	
	S_{p3}	S_{C3}	S_{p2}	S_{C2}	S_{p1}	S_{C1}	$S_x = 1 (v_{pN})$	$S_x = 0 (v_{nN})$
V_1	1	0	1	0	1	0	V_{DC}	0
V_2	1	0	1	0	1	1	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C1}$
V_3	1	0	1	1	1	1	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C1}$
V_4	1	1	1	0	1	1	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C1}$
V_5	1	1	1	1	1	1	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C1}$
V_6	1	1	1	1	1	0	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C2}$
V_7	1	0	1	1	1	0	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C2}$
V_8	1	1	1	0	1	0	V_{DC}	$V_{DC} - v_{C3}$
V_9	1	0	1	1	0	1	$V_{DC} - v_{C2} + v_{C1}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C2}$
V_{10}	1	1	1	1	0	1	$V_{DC} - v_{C2} + v_{C1}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C2}$
V_{11}	1	1	0	1	1	1	$V_{DC} - v_{C3} + v_{C2}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C3} + v_{C2} - v_{C1}$
V_{12}	0	1	1	0	1	1	v_{C3}	$v_{C3} - v_{C1}$
V_{13}	0	1	1	1	1	1	v_{C3}	$v_{C3} - v_{C1}$
V_{14}	1	1	0	1	1	0	$V_{DC} - v_{C3} + v_{C2}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C3}$
V_{15}	0	1	1	1	1	0	v_{C3}	$v_{C3} - v_{C2}$
V_{16}	0	1	1	0	1	0	v_{C3}	0
V_{17}	1	1	1	0	0	1	$V_{DC} - v_{C3} + v_{C1}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C3}$
V_{18}	1	1	0	1	0	1	$V_{DC} - v_{C3} + v_{C1}$	$V_{DC} - v_{C3}$
V_{19}	0	1	1	1	0	1	$v_{C3} - v_{C2} + v_{C1}$	$v_{C3} - v_{C2}$
V_{20}	1	0	0	1	1	1	v_{C2}	$v_{C2} - v_{C1}$
V_{21}	0	1	0	1	1	1	v_{C2}	$v_{C2} - v_{C1}$
V_{22}	1	0	0	1	1	0	v_{C2}	0
V_{23}	0	1	0	1	1	0	v_{C2}	0
V_{24}	1	0	1	0	0	1	v_{C1}	0
V_{25}	1	0	0	1	0	1	v_{C1}	0
V_{26}	0	1	1	0	0	1	v_{C1}	0
V_{27}	0	1	0	1	0	1	v_{C1}	0

pairs $V_9 - V_{10}$ and $V_{12} - V_{13}$ each being redundant.

Switching states in voltage $V_{14} - V_{15}$ generate the output voltages $v_{pN} = 3V_{DC}/4$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$. Voltage V_{16} generates the output voltages $v_{pN} = 3V_{DC}/4$ and $v_{nN} = 0$. Switching states in voltage $V_{17} - V_{21}$ generate the output voltages $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/2$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$ with voltages $V_{17} - V_{18}$ and voltages $V_{20} - V_{21}$ being redundant. Switching states in voltage $V_{22} - V_{23}$ are redundant and generate the output voltages $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/2$ and $v_{nN} = 0$. And finally, switching states in voltage $V_{24} - V_{27}$ are redundant and generate the output voltage $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/4$ and $v_{nN} = 0$.

This redundant switching states are summarized in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
REDUNDANT SWITCHING STATES FOR 3DC-CELL RMC

Switching States	Output Voltage	
	v_{pN}	v_{nN}
$V_2 - V_5$	V_{DC}	$3V_{DC}/4$
$V_6 - V_7$	V_{DC}	$V_{DC}/2$
V_8	V_{DC}	$V_{DC}/4$
V_1	V_{DC}	0
$V_9 - V_{13}$	$3V_{DC}/4$	$V_{DC}/2$
$V_{14} - V_{15}$	$3V_{DC}/4$	$V_{DC}/4$
V_{16}	$3V_{DC}/4$	0
$V_{17} - V_{21}$	$V_{DC}/2$	$V_{DC}/4$
$V_{22} - V_{23}$	$V_{DC}/2$	0
$V_{24} - V_{27}$	$V_{DC}/4$	0

3.2. Operation principle

From the 27 allowed variable dc-link switching states, only 10 generate different voltage potentials in the output terminals (the 17 others generate redundant levels) for a three DC-cell RMC.

All combinations of these DC-DC multilevel voltages using a 2L-VSI in the DC-AC stage give a total of 216 possible output voltage space vectors. They are shown in Fig. 3.4, which includes the number of their redundancies.

Fig. 3.5 shows a selection of the 10 different dc-link level generation possibilities. Fig. 3.5-(a) to Fig. 3.5-(d) show the possible combinations for $v_{nN} = 0$ and $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/4$, $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/2$, $v_{pN} = 3V_{DC}/4$, and $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$, respectively. Fig. 3.5-(e) to Fig. 3.5-(g) show possible combinations for $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$, $v_{nN} = 3V_{DC}/4$, $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/2$, and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$, respectively. Fig. 3.5-(h) and Fig. 3.5-(i) show possible combinations of $v_{pN} = 3V_{DC}/4$ and: $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$, and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/2$, respectively. Finally, Fig. 3.5-(j) shows the combination of DC-DC voltage of $v_{pN} = V_{DC}/2$ and $v_{nN} = V_{DC}/4$.

To generate five voltage levels with the same voltage step (dv/dt), the voltages in the inner capacitors must follow the following ratio: $v_{C4} : v_{C3} : v_{C2} : v_{C1} = 4 : 3 : 2 : 1$, with $v_{C4} = V_{DC}$.

For simplicity and a better explanation, the operation principle of the 1DC-cell RMC, which is a 3-level topology, will be analyzed. The possible DC-DC voltage combinations in a 3-level RMC is shown in Fig. 3.6. In this case, the inner voltage on capacitor C_1 is set to $V_{DC}/2$.

Fig. 3.6-(a) and Fig. 3.6-(b) generate the same voltage in the variable *dc-link* ($v_{VDC} = v_{C1} = V_{DC}/2$). However, the possible output voltages are different; for v_{pN} the output voltage is $V_{DC}/2$ or V_{DC} , and for v_{nN} the output voltage is 0 or $V_{DC}/2$. Finally, in Fig. 3.6-(c) the switching states generate a v_{VDC} equal to the main *dc-link*, i.e. $v_{VDC} = V_{DC}$, and

the output voltages can be $v_{pN} = V_{DC}$ or $v_{nN} = 0$.

Using these combinations of switching states, it is possible to have whichever of the 3 possible output voltages 0 , $V_{DC}/2$ or V_{DC} . This freedom allows, for example, to have two output phases with different modulation indices (m_A and m_B), phases or frequencies, as is shown in Fig. 3.7-(a), (b) and (c), respectively.

This characteristic of the operation ensures the same behavior as in standard multilevel converters such as the FCC (see section 2.3), where one independent converter connected at the same *dc-link* is used for every phase. However, the reduction of necessary components in the proposed topology has a cost. In this case, a lower number of power switches means fewer possible switching states and therefore, fewer possible combinations are able to balance the inner voltage. A consequence can be seen in Fig. 3.7, where it is sometimes necessary to make a double step in the output voltage (from $v_{AN} = 0$ to $v_{AN} = V_{DC}$) to achieve the desired inner voltage in the capacitor.

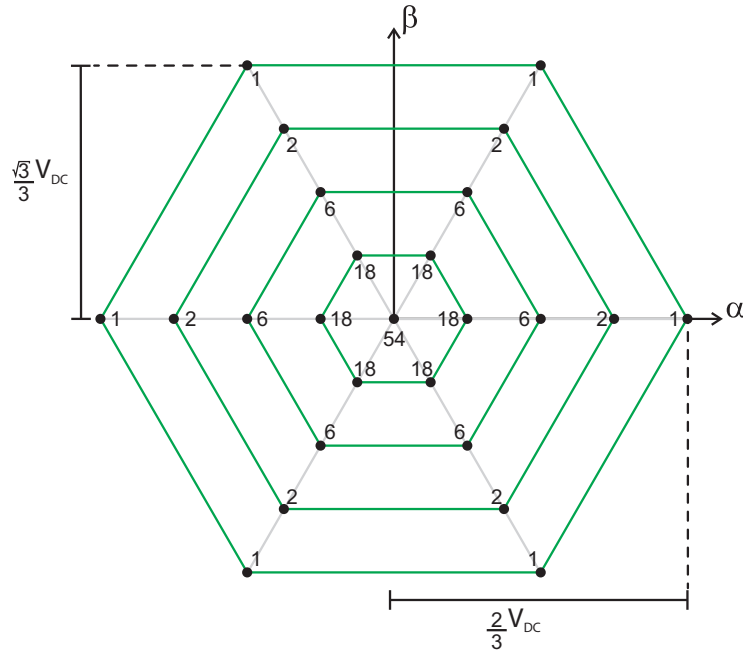


Figure 3.4. Output voltage space vectors generated by the RMC, including their numbers of redundancies.

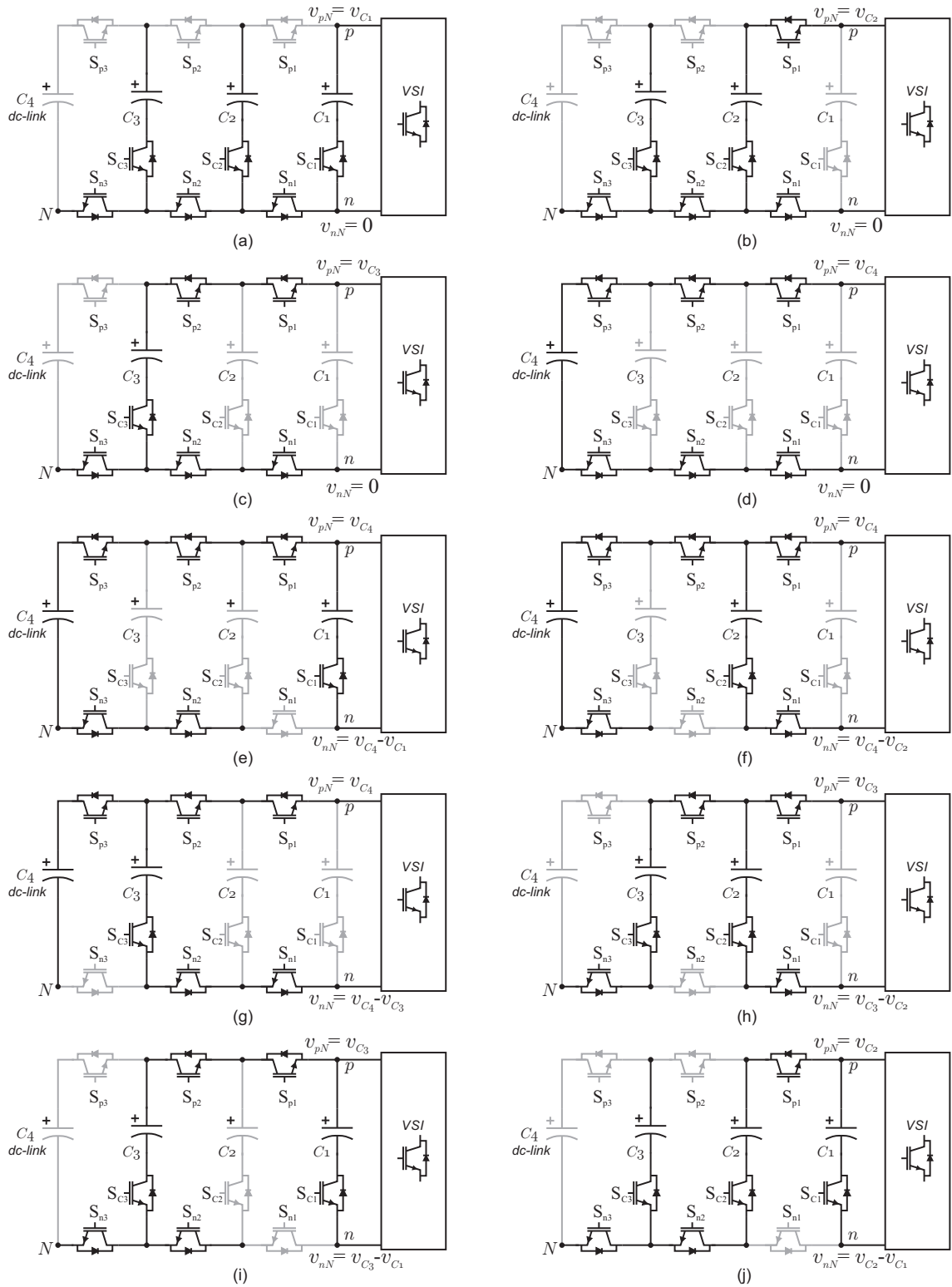


Figure 3.5. Different DC-cell switching states (only non-redundant states are shown) and their respective output potentials for a 5L-RMC.

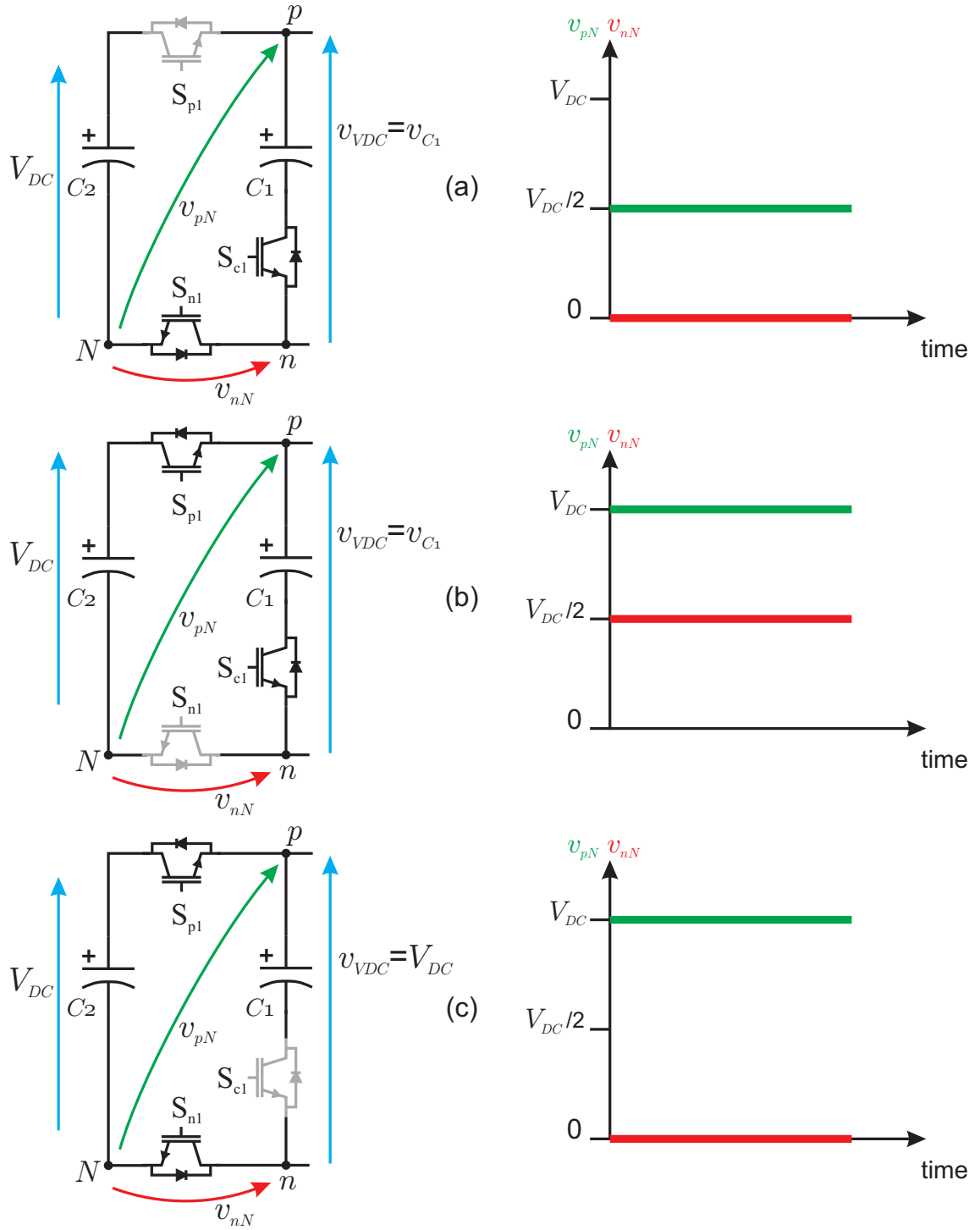


Figure 3.6. Possible DC-DC voltage combinations in 1DC-cell RMC.

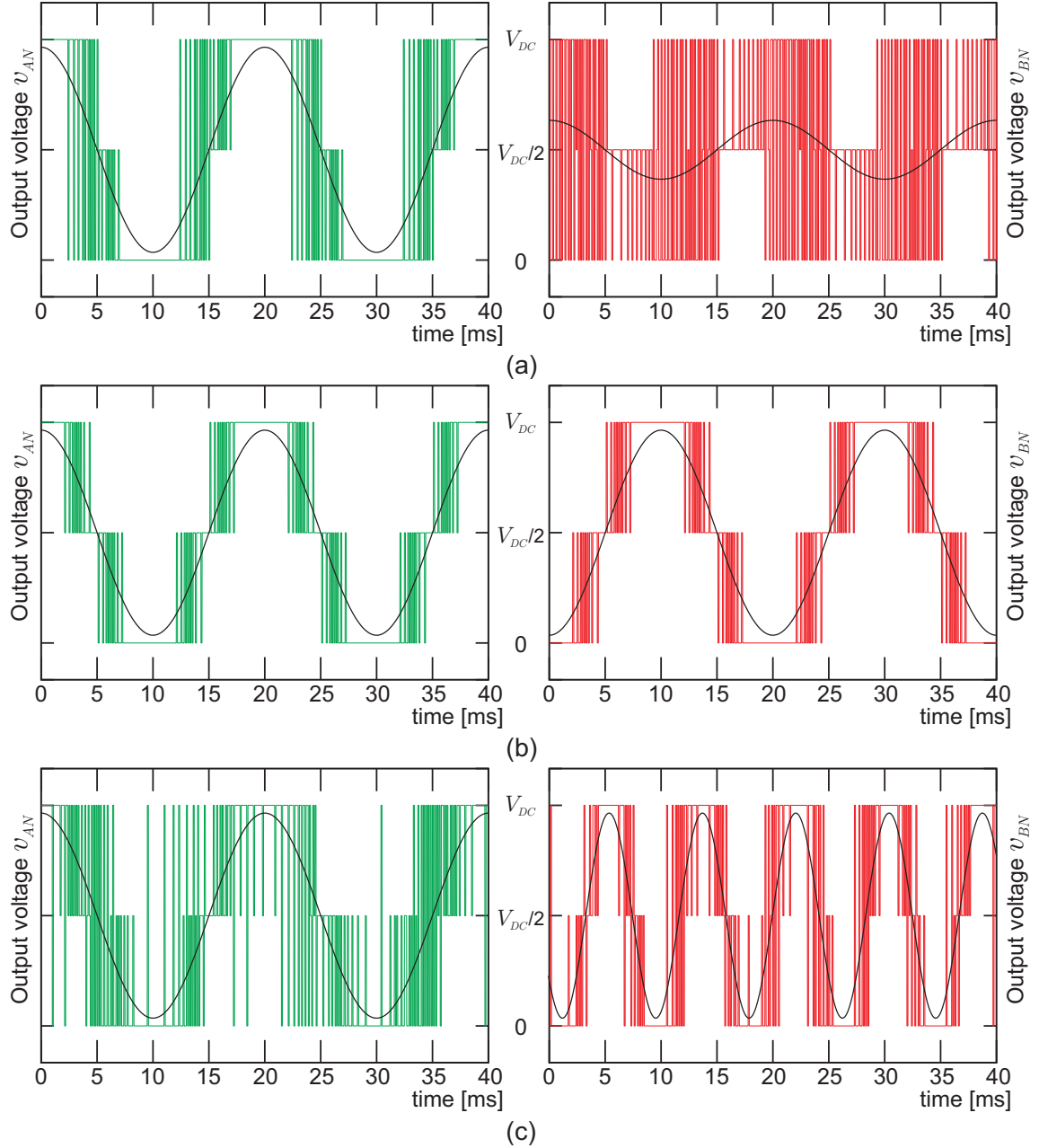


Figure 3.7. Output voltage of the 3L-RMC: (a) $m_A = 0,87$, $m_B = 0,3$; (b) $m_A = m_B = 0,87$ with $\phi_A = 0^\circ$, $\phi_B = 180^\circ$ and (c) $m_A = m_B = 0,87$ with $f_A = 50\text{Hz}$, $f_B = 120\text{Hz}$.

The 1DC-cell RMC has three power switches; all power switches can take only two possible states ON or OFF, thus the total switching states in 1DC-cell RMC is $2^3 = 8$ as is shown in Table 3.5.

It is possible see that states S_1 , S_2 , S_3 and S_4 , are not recommended because they generate an indeterminate output voltage at one or both output points. Besides that, the state S_8 generates a short circuit through the flying capacitor and the source (C_2). Consequently, in the 1DC-cell RMC, there are only 3 possible switching states (see Fig. 3.6).

Table 3.5
1DC-CELL RMC: SWITCHING STATES

State	Switching State			Output Voltage	
	S_{p1}	S_{n1}	S_{C1}	v_{pN}	v_{nN}
S1	0	0	0	indeterminate	
S2	0	0	1	indeterminate	
S3	0	1	0	indeterminate	0
S4	1	0	0	V_{DC}	indeterminate
S5	0	1	1	v_{C1}	0
S6	1	0	1	V_{DC}	v_{C1}
S7	1	1	0	V_{DC}	0
S8	1	1	1	short circuit	

From the possible switching states (S5, S6 and S7) one can see that power switches S_{p1} and S_{n1} work in a complementary way only when power switch S_{C1} is ON.

3.2.1. Analysis of constraints

An important constraint in this topology is the voltage that the power switches need to block. The blocking voltage of the transistor in a DC-cell depends on the voltage $v_{o(k+1)}^+ - v_{o(k+1)}^-$, which can change. However, there is a maximum voltage that the transistors need to block, given by:

$$\hat{v}_{block, S_{ik}} = V_{DC} - v_{Ck} \quad (3.8)$$

where S_{ik} is the power switch i in DC-cell k for all $i \in \{p, n, C\}$, and v_{Ck} is the voltage of the capacitor in DC-cell k . In the case of the output switches (S_x, \bar{S}_x with $x \in \{A, B, C\}$), the maximum blocking voltage is the full dc-link voltage.

The maximum blocking voltages of the transistors are summarized in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6
MAXIMUM BLOCKING VOLTAGE IN RMC

\hat{v}_{block}	Power Switch
$\frac{V_{DC}}{4}$	S_{p3}, S_{n3}, S_{C3}
$\frac{V_{DC}}{2}$	S_{p2}, S_{n2}, S_{C2}
$\frac{3V_{DC}}{4}$	S_{p1}, S_{n1}, S_{C1}
V_{DC}	$S_A, \bar{S}_A, S_B, \bar{S}_B, S_C, \bar{S}_C$

3.2.2. Implementation in Medium Voltage

The device blocking voltage is a disadvantage that prevents this topology from being used in medium voltage applications. Nevertheless, multilevel converters have now been used extensively in low voltage applications such as PV inverters, UPS systems and wind power conversion systems (all below 690 V); the most appropriate application is a subject of further research and exploration.

However, one solution to implement this topology in medium voltage applications is to use power semiconductors with different rating voltages for cases that require a higher voltage to be blocked. Another option for blocking a higher voltage would be to connect additional semiconductors in series.

3.2.3. Remark about the number of output levels

The number of output levels in the RMC structure depends of the number of DC-cells and/or the number of output levels of the DC-AC output inverter stage. For example, the 3DC-cell RMC shown in fig. 3.1 with a T-Type topology in the DC-AC output inverter stage results in an RMC topology with 9 levels instead of 5 levels. Besides that, the blocking voltage limitation will be overcome and the maximum blocking voltage will be $3V_{DC}/4$ in the power switches in the DC-cell 1.

3.3. Mathematical model

The best way to understand the behavior of a system is the mathematical description. In the case of the RMC, the equations that describe the properties of the converter are the output voltage and the inner capacitor voltage equations.

The output voltages, considered between the output point (A , B , or C in Fig. 3.1) and the neutral point of the converter N , can be expressed as a function of the switching states and inner voltages.

There are two ways to find this expression; one is to use the circuits given in Fig. 3.5 considering a 2L-VSI as a DC-AC stage and then to find an expression for each voltage. For example, the voltage in the capacitor C_1 is going to appear in the output voltage vector only if S_{C1} is ON ($S_{C1} = 1$) and $S_{p1} \neq S_x$ for $x \in \{A, B, C\}$, which can be written as:

$$v_{xN}(v_{C1}) = v_{C1}S_{C1}(S_x - S_{p1}) \quad (3.9)$$

A similar relationship can be derived for all inner voltages. For example, the voltage in C_2 is going to appear in the output voltage vector only if S_{C2} is ON and $S_{p2} \neq S_x$ if S_{C1} is OFF ($S_{C1} = 0$), but if S_{C1} is ON the condition changes to $S_{p2} \neq S_{p1}$. Equation (3.10) describes the influence of v_{C2} in the output voltage, and Eq. (3.11) shows its reduced expression.

$$v_{xN}(v_{C2}) = v_{C2}S_{C2}((1 - S_{C1})(S_x - S_{p2}) + S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_{p2})) \quad (3.10)$$

$$= v_{C2}S_{C2}(S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_{p2} - S_x + S_{p2}) + (S_x - S_{p2}))$$

$$v_{xN}(v_{C2}) = v_{C2}S_{C2}(S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x) + (S_x - S_{p2})) \quad (3.11)$$

A second way to find the output voltage expression is to use the possible switching states for the DC-cells. The 27 possible switching states for the DC-cells are given in table 3.3; there are 54 considering one phase of 2L-VSI.

To determine the expression for the output voltage, one must formulate expressions for all inner voltages.

For example, from Table 3.3 it is possible to see that the vectors that include v_{C1} in the output voltage are: $(-)V_2 - V_5$ (v_{nN}), $(+)V_9 - V_{10}$ (v_{pN}), $(-)V_{11} - V_{13}$ (v_{nN}), $(+)V_{17} - V_{19}$ (v_{pN}), $(-)V_{20} - V_{21}$ (v_{nN}), and $(+)V_{24} - V_{27}$ (v_{pN}). The symbol $-$ or $+$ represents the sign of the voltage v_{C1} in the output voltage.

The common factor in these vectors is S_{C1} . In all 18 possible voltages $S_{C1} = 1$. Furthermore, the other switching states that are constants in these vectors are S_7 and S_x .

Every time that $S_{p1} = 1$ and $S_x = 0$, $-v_{C1}$ appears in the output voltage, and when $S_{p1} = 0$ and $S_x = 1$, $+v_{C1}$ appears in the output voltage. Any other combination of these switches does not generate an output voltage with v_{C1} , i.e. $S_{p1} = S_x$.

Thus, it is possible to describe the influence of v_{C1} in the output voltage by:

$$v_{xN}(v_{C1}) = v_{C1}S_{C1}(S_x - S_{p1}) \quad (3.12)$$

Following these steps it is possible to find analogue expressions for V_{DC} , v_{C3} and v_{C2} .

For example, for the case of V_{DC} there two main groups of output vectors with this voltage: (1) when V_{DC} is generated in v_{pN} and v_{nN} , which are $V_2 - V_{11}$, V_{14} , and $V_{17} - V_{18}$, and (2) when V_{DC} is generated only in v_{pN} , which is V_1 .

It is not easy to determine the common factor in this case, but in a first approximation, it is possible to discard the switching states which do not present V_{DC} in the output voltages by multiplying $S_{p3}S_{C3}$. This decision reduces the output voltages with presences of V_{DC} from $V_1 - V_{11}$, V_{14} , and $V_{17} - V_{18}$ to $V_1 - V_3$, V_7 , and V_9 .

One can see that the common factor in these 5 switching states is $(1 - S_{C3})$. This factor prevents the previous switching states from having an influence, but this is also the common factor of the undesirable switching states (output voltage without V_{DC}). It is therefore necessary to be more precise describing this voltage.

For example, by multiplying $S_{p2}S_{C2}$ when $S_{C3} = 0$ it is possible to discard the undesirable switching states. This decision reduces the output voltages with presences of V_{DC} from $V_1 - V_3$, V_7 , and V_9 to V_1 and V_2 .

One can see that the common factor in these two switching states could be $(1 - S_{C2})$. This factor prevents the previous switching states from having an influence, but this

common factor allows the switching states V_{24} , which is a not a desired switching state in this case, so again, it is necessary to be more precise.

V_{DC} is only present in V_1 in v_{pN} , so one condition could be for S_x to consider this switching state. This condition also considers the influence of v_{pN} in V_2 and in V_{24} . Hence, it is now necessary to consider the influences of v_{nN} in V_2 and eliminate the influences of v_{pN} in V_{24} .

The common factor of V_2 and V_{24} could be $(1 - S_{C1})$, and it is possible multiply it by the factor $(S_{p1} - S_x)$ in order to add the influence of v_{nN} in V_2 ; this also eliminates the influence of v_{pN} in V_{24} and ensures the absence of v_{nN} in V_{24} .

Thus, the influence of V_{DC} in the output voltage can be written as:

$$v_{xN}(V_{DC}) = V_{DC} \left((1 - S_{C3})(S_{p2}S_{C2} + (1 - S_{C2})(S_x + S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x))) + S_{p3}S_{C3} \right) \quad (3.13)$$

Finally, the output voltage can be expressed by the equation (3.14).

$$\begin{aligned} v_{xN} = & V_{DC} \left((1 - S_{C3})(S_{p2}S_{C2} + (1 - S_{C2})(S_x + S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x))) + S_{p3}S_{C3} \right) \\ & + v_{C3}S_{C3} \left((1 - S_{C2})(S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x) + (S_x - S_{p3})) + S_{C2}(S_{p2} - S_{p3}) \right) \\ & + v_{C2}S_{C2} (S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x) + (S_x - S_{p2})) \\ & + v_{C1}S_{C1} (S_x - S_{p1}) \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

Where $x \in \{A, B, C\}$, v_{C1} , v_{C2} and v_{C3} are the inner voltages of the capacitors C_1 , C_2 and C_3 , respectively.

These voltages can be expressed as shown in equations (3.15)– (3.17).

$$v_{C3} = \frac{-1}{C_3} \int \sum_{x=A}^C \left(S_{C3} \left((1 - S_{C2})(S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x) + (S_x - S_{p3})) + S_{C2}(S_{p2} - S_{p3}) \right) i_x \right) dt \quad (3.15)$$

$$v_{C2} = \frac{-1}{C_2} \int \sum_{x=A}^C \left(S_{C2} (S_{C1}(S_{p1} - S_x) + (S_x - S_{p2})) i_x \right) dt \quad (3.16)$$

$$v_{C1} = \frac{-1}{C_1} \int \sum_{x=A}^C \left(S_{C1} (S_x - S_{p1}) i_x \right) dt \quad (3.17)$$

While equations (3.14)–(3.17) cover the behavior of the converter, the mathematical model of the whole system consists of converter and load equations. In this work, a passive load $L - R$ is considered; it is describe by:

$$v_{xN} = Ri_x + L \frac{di_x}{dt} + v_{oN} \quad (3.18)$$

$$v_{oN} = \frac{v_{AN} + v_{BN} + v_{CN}}{3} \quad (3.19)$$

$$x \in \{A, B, C\} \quad (3.20)$$

where R and L are the load parameters and the point o is the neutral point of the three-phase load.

3.4. The Classic Modulation

It is not easy to implement a classic modulation in RMC. Phase-Shifted PWM or Level-Shifted PWM or a combination of both modulation strategies cannot achieve a correct modulation in all cases, even if the inner capacitor is replaced by a voltage source. Due to the switched DC-cell capacitors, there it is not straightforward way to implement a carrier based PWM scheme.

However, it is possible to use Pulse Width Modulation in a 3-phase 3-level RMC considering the following conditions:

- In a 3-phase balanced system, the sum of the three output voltages is zero, and when one output voltage is positive the other two output voltages are negative. Likewise, when one output voltage is negative, the other two are positive.
- The switching state (1,1,0) for (S_{p1}, S_{n1}, S_{C1}) will be used when a negative output voltage level and a positive output voltage level are active.
- The switching state (1,0,1) for (S_{p1}, S_{n1}, S_{C1}) will be used when a positive output voltage level and the zero output voltage level are active.
- The switching state (0,1,1) for (S_{p1}, S_{n1}, S_{C1}) will be used when a negative output voltage level and the zero output voltage level are active.

Fig. 3.8 shows the block diagram for the PWM modulation implemented in a 3-phase 3-level RMC. To understand the modulation scheme, it is a good idea to separate it into two parts, one for the multilevel DC-DC converter (DC-cell part) and another for the DC-AC output inverter (2L-VSI).

In a 3L-RMC with 1 DC-cell, the DC-cell PWM could be broken down into three steps (see Fig. 3.8). In the first step, a new variable, v_{ref} is defined, which will be modulated to determinate the control signal for the switch S_{C1} . This new variable, v_{ref} , selects the minimum reference value between the maximum positive value and the minimum negative value. For example, if in the moment $t = k$, the references' values are: $v_A^*(k) = 0,7[\text{p.u}]$, $v_B^*(k) = -0,6[\text{p.u}]$ and $v_C^*(k) = -0,1[\text{p.u}]$, then the value for the new variable is $v_{ref}(k) = 0,6[\text{p.u}]$.

The second step modulates the reference signal v_{ref} using the carrier signal v_{cr1} ; the output of this modulation is the signal S_{C1} and S_{p1n1} ; this last signal is a new defined signal to determine when both switches must be ON, S_{p1} and S_{n1} , (1,1,0). Finally, the third step is used to determine the control signals for S_{p1} and S_{n1} . The first part of this step is used to determine which is the sign of the largest reference signal, for example, in the previous case, the sign of the largest reference signal is positive ($v_A^*(k) = 0,7[p.u]$) and the output of this modulation step must be between the positive output voltage level and the zero output voltage level (1,0,1). Thus, the next block of the third step defines S_{p1} and S_{n1} considering when S_{C1} is ON or OFF and if it is necessary to use the positive output voltage level or the negative output voltage level.

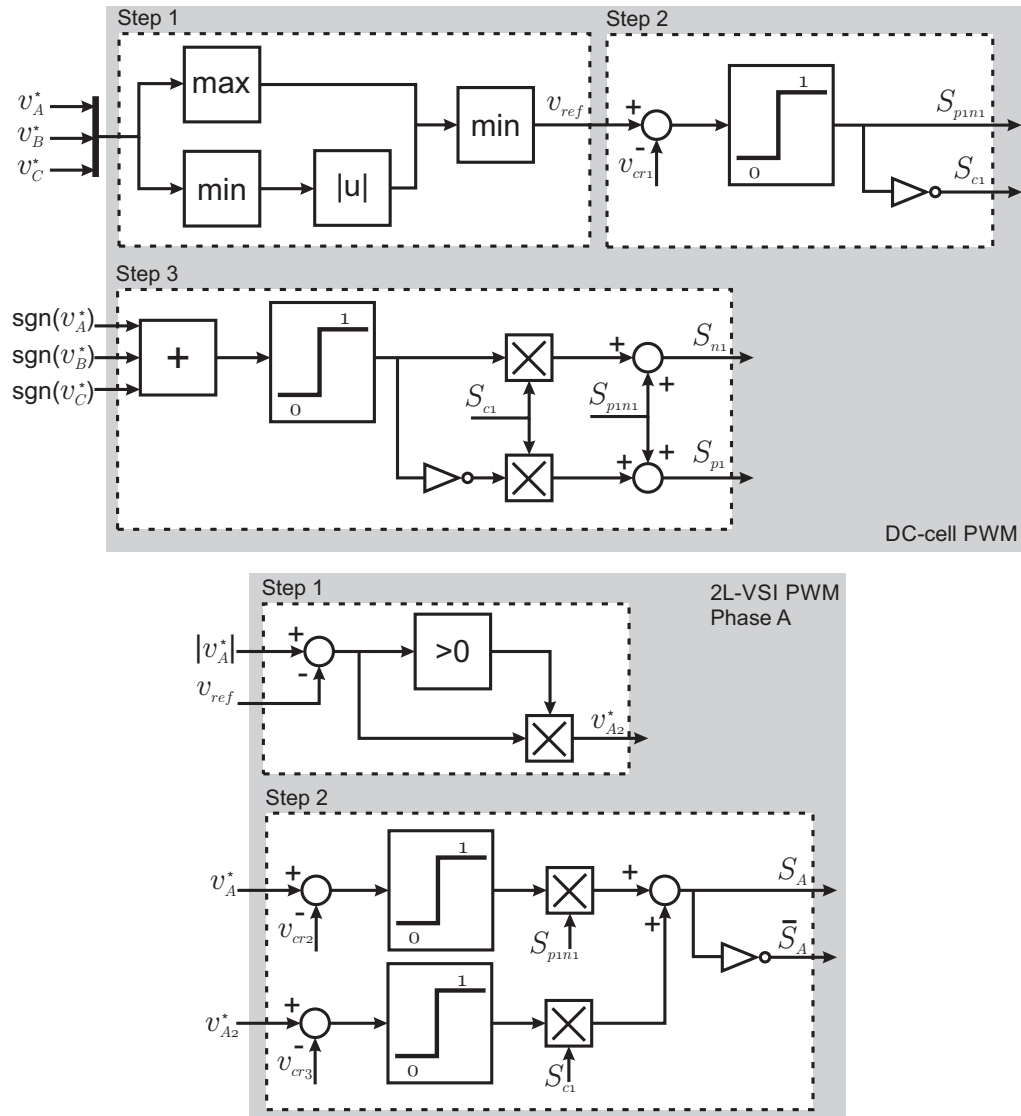


Figure 3.8. Block diagram of PWM modulation for a 3L-RMC.

For the 2L-VSI, modulation could be separated into two steps (see Fig. 3.8). In the first step, a new variable, v_{x2}^* , is defined for all $x \in \{A, B, C\}$. This new variable is zero if the magnitude of the reference signal is less than the variable v_{ref} defined in the DC-cell modulation stage. For example, in the previous case, the reference value for the phase A

is $v_A^*(k) = 0,7[\text{p.u}]$, which is larger than $v_{ref}(k) = 0,6[\text{p.u}]$, and consequently $v_{A2}^*(k) = 0,1$.

Finally, the second step has two parts, the upper part is the normal PWM for a 2L-VSI; here, the reference signal v_A^* is compared with the carrier signal v_{cr2} . The output of this part is selected only when $S_{p1n1} = 1$, i.e when RMC is working as a standard 2L-VSI. The lower part of this step is the modulation of the new reference signal v_{x2}^* using the carrier signal v_{cr3} ; this modulation is selected only when the active positive (or negative) output voltage and the zero output voltage could be selected (1,0,1) (or (0,1,1)).

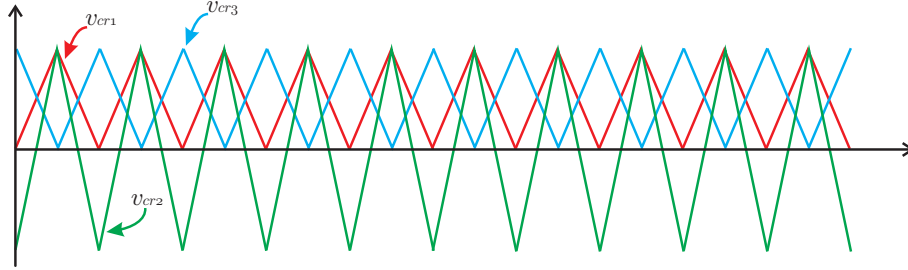


Figure 3.9. Carrier signals in the PWM modulation for a 3L-RMC.

Fig. 3.9 shows the carrier signal for the modulation, the carrier signal used to modulate the control signal S_{C1} and the carrier signal used to modulate the control signal S_A and \bar{S}_A when $S_{C1} = 1$ are Phase-Shifted PWM with 180° shift, see v_{cr1} and v_{cr3} in Fig. 3.9. And finally, the carrier signal used to modulate the control signal S_A and \bar{S}_A when $S_{C1} = 0$ is the typical carrier signal used to modulate a 2L-VSI (see v_{cr2} in Fig. 3.9).

Fig. 3.10 shows the response of an open-loop system using PWM in a 3L-RMC. Two different cases are shown: in **Case I** instead of a flying capacitor a dc-source is used to generate the inner voltage of the converter, and in **Case II** a flying capacitor is used to generate the inner voltage of the converter.

In **Case I**, the modulation strategy achieves sinusoidal output currents and a 3-level output voltage (v_{AN}). In **Case II**, however, the modulation strategy is not able to ensure a correct balanced value of the inner voltage in the flying capacitor, and as a consequence, the flying capacitor is discharged and the 3L-RMC is now a 2L topology.

From these results, it is possible to conclude that with an active control over the inner voltage in the flying capacitor (v_{C1}) it could be possible to have a modulation strategy working properly even with a flying capacitor instead of a dc-source to generate the converter's inner voltage.

This control could be made using an injection of zero-sequence in the reference signals or an injection of a third harmonic. Nevertheless, in this work, an appropriate control strategy for the inner voltage to solve the discharged voltage problem was not found; this is a topic for future research.

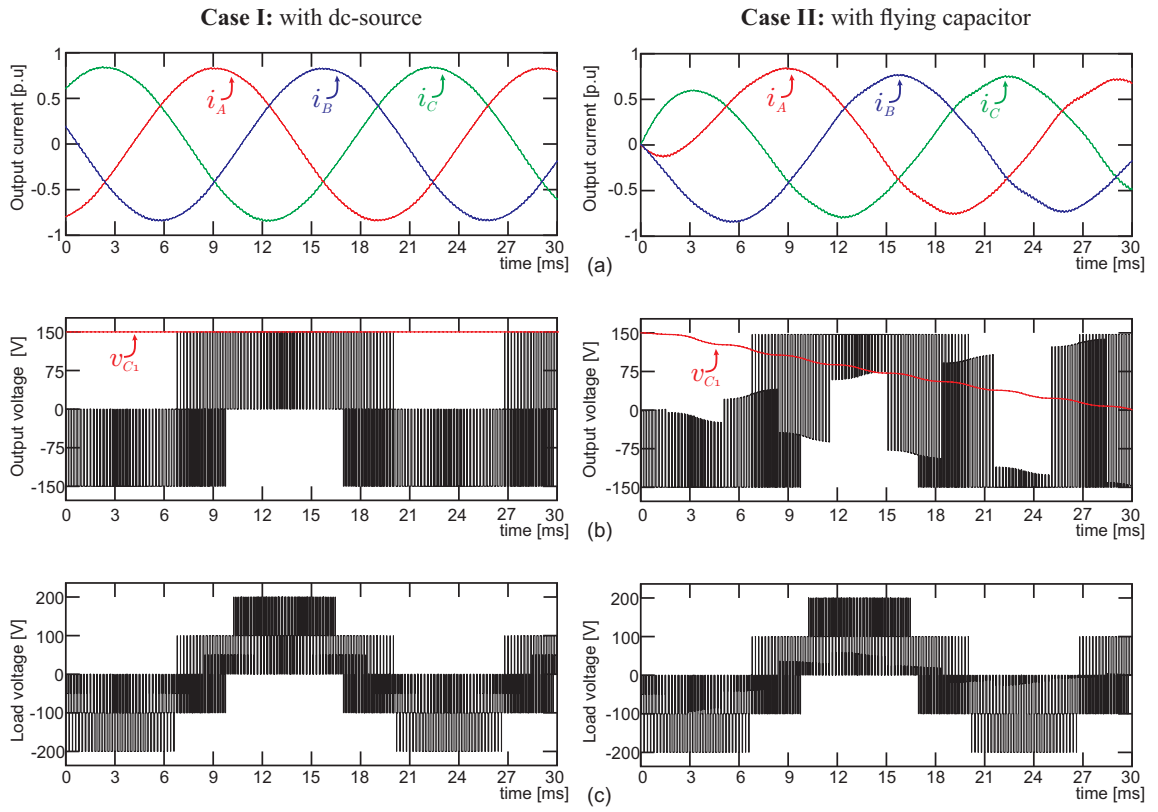


Figure 3.10. 3-phase RMC with PWM: (a) Output current; (b) Output voltage V_{AN} with inner voltage v_{C1} ; (c) Load voltage V_{Ao} .

Chapter 4

Control Strategy: Model Predictive Control

Model Predictive Control (MPC) is considered one of the most important advanced control techniques in power electronics. MPC was proposed in the late 1970s and has since developed considerably [48–51].

In general, MPC formulates a problem of linear programming or finite quadratic programming in each sampling interval. These optimization problems can become large and the computational cost associated with solving them online can be inconvenient [52].

The term MPC does not designate a specific control strategy, but rather a wide range of control methods that employ an explicit use of a process model to obtain, through the minimization of the cost function, the control signal [49, 50].

The ideas that all of the MPC families present, to a greater or lesser degree, are basically:

- Explicit use of a model to predict the output of the process at a future point in time (horizon or prediction window).
- Calculation of the control sequence for the entire prediction horizon and minimization of a cost function.
- Application of only the first control signal of the obtained sequence.
- At each evaluation time, the prediction window is shifted to the future, applying only the first sequence control signal calculated at each stage, thus using a moving horizon strategy.

4.1. Classification of MPC

The MPC can be classified into at least two major categories according to the nature of the system input. These categories are EMPC (Explicit Model Predictive Control) and FCS-MPC (Finite Control Set-Model Predictive Control) [53].

4.1.1. Explicit Model Predictive Control (EMPC)

As previously mentioned, solving the optimal MPC problem involves a high computational cost, which makes it unattractive for applications that require optimum input in a few microseconds, such as in the control of power converters.

In this context, the control technique called EMPC has arisen in order to reduce the computational cost, solving the optimal problem explicitly but off-line. To this end, EMPC considers continuous and bounded constraints of states and system inputs. Thus, it is possible to obtain a partition of the input space in n regions. The number of regions obtained depends on the number of states and inputs of the system, as well as on the prediction horizon. Therefore, for each partition it obtains an explicit solution (hence its name) for the local optimal controller of the form:

$$\kappa_i = F_i(x_k - x^*) + G_i. \quad (4.1)$$

In particular, for the so-called terminal region X_f , which is the region containing the reference, the solution is given by:

$$\kappa_f = K(x_k - x^*) + u^*, \quad (4.2)$$

where K can be obtained analytically and u^* is the steady state input required to hold x^* . Note that this expression corresponds to a linear regulator.

Consequently, each local controller can be implemented off-line in a table in the memory of the digital control platform. Then, in the on-line implementation, the EMPC algorithm only has to determine in which partition the system is located, $x(k)$, and then apply the optimal input, κ_i , associated with that region.

To better illustrate how EMPC works, an example is shown in Fig. 4.1 for a two-input system. In this case, six regions have been obtained, and the terminal region, X_f , which contains the system reference $x^*[x_1^* \ x_2^*]^T$, has been highlighted in green. In addition, it can be seen that the state is bounded, $x_i \in [0, x_{i\text{máx}}]$.

With regard to the use of EMPC for power converters, this control technique considers the duty cycle (or modulation index) as input of the system. Therefore, for this type of strategy, the input of the system belongs to a set of bounded continuous control, for example, $d_i(t) \in [0, 1]$. The cost function used considers the reference tracking error at each sampling time. Once the minimization of this error is carried out it is necessary to use a modulator to control the switches of the power converter in order to apply the optimum input to the plant.

When using a PWM modulation, the typically sinusoidal actuation is compared to a high frequency triangular signal (carrier signal), generating a pulsed voltage waveform at the output of the converter. The mean value of the voltage applied, within the period of the carrier signal corresponds to the value of the desired performance.

EMPC performs well during steady state as long as there are no modeling errors, so it can follow the reference without problems. The switching frequency in the EMPC is constant in the electrical variables due to the use of a traditional PWM modulator.

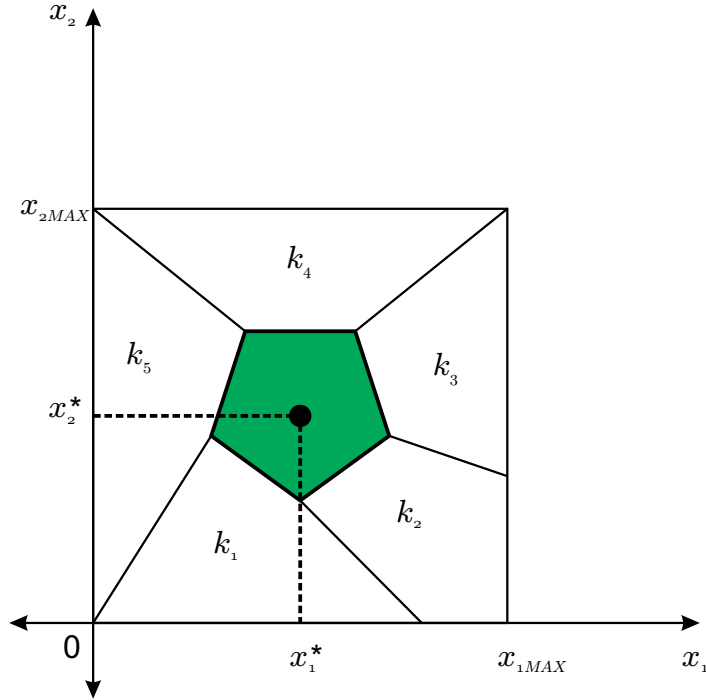


Figure 4.1. *Structure of an explicit predictive control.*

4.1.2. Finite Control Set - Model Predictive Control (FCS-MPC)

One of the most attractive predictive control formulations is FCS-MPC [42, 51, 54–58], also known as direct MPC [59]. In this case, the prediction strategy takes the states of the power switches directly into account as system control inputs.

Due to the fact that the power switches can only adopt two states, usually 1 or 0 (ON-OFF), the input is restricted to belonging to a finite set of possible combinations, hence its name FCS-MPC (Finite Control Set-Model Predictive Control). From a certain initial value of the system's states, a finite number of predictions can be obtained for the different electrical variables in each sampling period, which are associated with the finite number of combinations of the inputs. Each of these predictions is evaluated through a cost function, and then the combination of switches that minimizes this function is applied during the following sampling period. In this way, the predictive strategy does not require a modulation step as in the case of EMPC.

In summary, FCS-MPC is a control technique that calculates the control action by solving an optimal control problem based on predictions of the future behavior of the system at each sampling instant and on a finite horizon.

Due to the FCS-MPC control strategy's characteristics, it results in an easy-to-understand strategy that can be implemented, in general, in a varied set of power converters and machines, regardless of their complexity. FCS-MPC is able to incorporate complex constraints and nonlinearities to the predictive model. Likewise, this predictive control technique allows, without major difficulties and choosing a correct cost function, different minimization criteria to be evaluated, and seeks the best performance that satisfies all of them [49, 50, 56, 60–65].

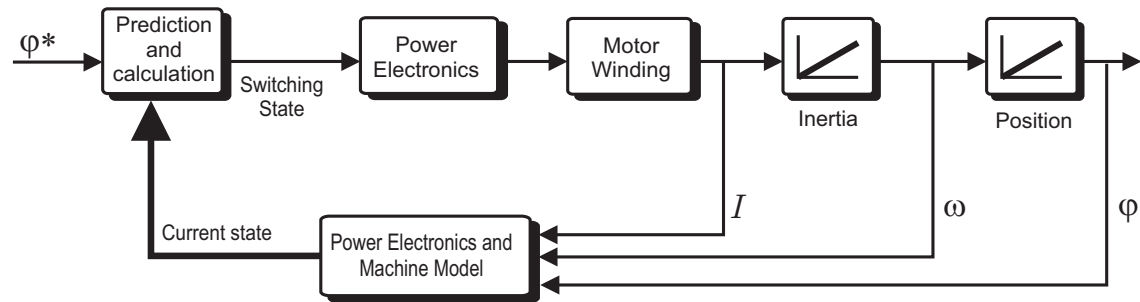


Figure 4.2. *Structure of a direct predictive control.*

Fig. 4.2 shows the typical structure of a predictive position control of a machine. The drive's control variables, for example, machine current, velocity ω and angle φ , are entered into the model of the machine and the power electronics. The information derived from this model is given to the block called "prediction and calculation", which can be considered as the heart of the predictive control system. By comparing the current state of the machine with the reference value of the position of the drive, the correct state of the power switches that meet the optimization criterion implemented will be chosen, which, for example, can be to minimize the switching frequency, minimize current distortion or minimize ripple in the torque [66].

For each switching state, the behavior of the system can be predicted so that the behavior of the inverter and the machine can be calculated in advance, allowing the calculation of the prediction [67, 68].

The FCS-MPC control has demonstrated its flexibility and good dynamic properties in power electronics, not only for controlling the waveform of the current but also in other aspects, such as commutation losses and common mode voltage reduction [69, 70].

Although the FCS-MPC strategy may present certain advantages when compared to EMPC or linear control techniques, the following practical aspects should be kept in mind at the time of implementation:

- The computational effort increases as the number of switching elements (e.g. multilevel converters [61, 65]).
- Designing the cost function, especially if it should consider more than one control goal, requires the use of weight factors. [50]
- Variation of model parameters.
- Non-zero error at steady state. [71]
- High sensitivity to measurement noise.
- The variable switching frequency of the different power semiconductors. [72]

4.2. Summary

MPC presents a number of advantages over other methods and control strategies, among which the following stand out:

- FCS-MPC is particularly attractive to engineers because no in-depth knowledge of control is required since the concepts involved are very intuitive.
- It can be used to control a wide variety of processes, from relatively simple to complex ones, including systems with long delay, non-minimal or unstable phases.
- Multivariate cases can be handled easily.
- It allows for the compensation of dead times.
- It is capable of following complex references.
- It manages to compensate for the measurable disturbances by naturally incorporating the feed-forward into the control.
- In the case of unconstrained linear control systems, the resulting control is easy to implement in a linear control law.
- For linear systems with bounded constraints, the EMPC can be used to obtain a family of linear controllers for different system partitions.
- Its extension for the treatment of constraints is conceptually simple and can be included systematically during the design process.

By way of comparison, Table 4.1 summarizes the main features of both predictive control strategies, FCS-MPC and EMPC.

Table 4.1
OPERATING CHARACTERISTICS OF FCS-MPC (LEFT) AND EMPC (RIGHT).

FCS-MPC	EMPC
Very fast response to transients.	Rapid response to transients. Faster than the linear controller but slower than FCS-MPC.
Variable switching frequency. Wide spread and variable signals spectrum.	A fixed switching frequency can be obtained, achieving a well-defined spectrum.
Non-zero error in steady state.	Good steady state performance.
It manages to face more complex objectives of control.	It is not as flexible as the FCS-MPC. It is complicated to achieve more than one goal in control.
No modulation stage required.	Modulation stage required.
Requires a model to perform prediction.	Requires an invertible model.

4.3. MPC implementation strategy

The methodology of all controls belonging to the MPC family is characterized by the strategy represented in Fig. 4.3 and detailed in the following steps:

1. The future output for a given horizon, N , called the prediction horizon, is predicted at every instant t using the system model. These predicted outputs $y(t+k, t)$ for $k = 1 \dots N$, depend on the known values up to the instant t (previous inputs and outputs) and the future control signal $u(t+k, t)$ with $k = 0 \dots N-1$. These control signals will be calculated and sent to the system.
2. The set of future control signals, $\vec{u} = \{u(t, t), \dots, u(t+N-1, t)\}$, is calculated through the optimization of a certain criterion keeping the process as close as possible to the reference trajectory, $w(t+k)$, which can be the signal itself or a close approximation of it. These criteria generally take the form of a quadratic function of the error between the predicted output signal and the predicted reference path, $(w(t+k) - y(t+k, t))^2$, known as the cost function to be optimized (g). The control effort, in many cases, is included in the cost function. If the optimization criterion is quadratic, the model is linear and there are no restrictions, it is possible to obtain an explicit solution, just as in a Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR). Otherwise, an iterative optimization method should be employed or *off-line* solutions such as the EMPC should be used.
3. Only the first entry of the control sequence, $\vec{u}(t)$, this is $u(t, t)$, is sent to the process while the remaining calculated control signals $u(t+1, t), \dots, u(t+N-1, t)$, are discarded, because at the next sampling time $y(t+1)$ is again measured (or estimated). Step 1 is repeated with this new value and the entire control sequence $\vec{u}(t+1) = \{u(t+1, t+1), \dots, u(t+N, t+1)\}$ is updated. Thus, $u(t+1, t+1)$ is calculated (its value will initially be different from the value $u(t+1, t)$ due to the new information available) giving way to the concept of the mobile horizon.

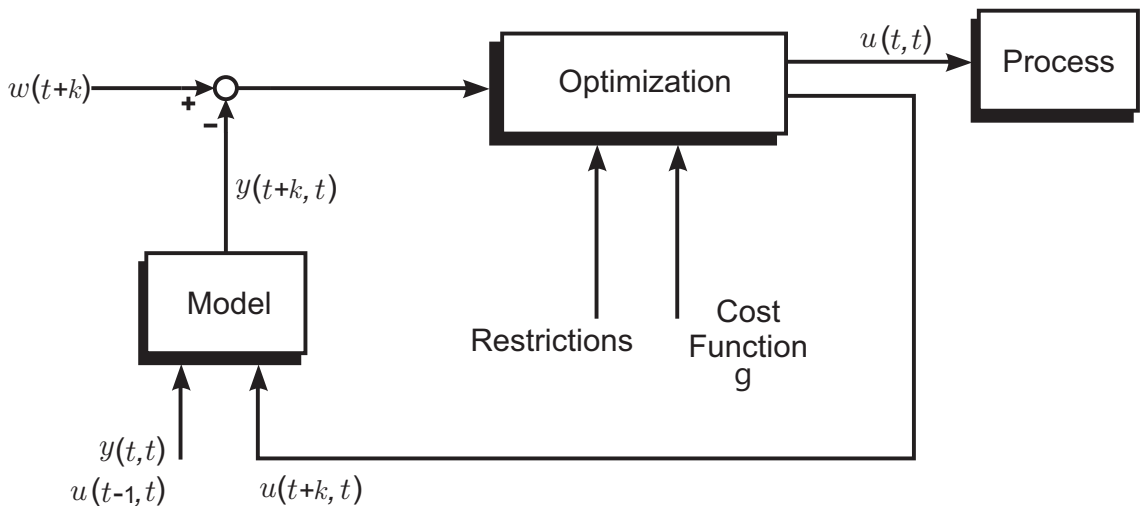


Figure 4.3. Predictive Control Strategy.

It is possible to make a simile between the strategy of the MPC and the control strategy used in driving an automobile. Assume a driver who knows perfectly the desired reference trajectory for a finite control horizon (for example, the journey that must be made daily from his house to his work), and taking into account the characteristics of the car decides the control action. He knows, for example, that he must follow the following sequence: first accelerate, then turn left, then brake at the junction and speed up again, finally turning right and stopping at his place of work.

However, just as in a predictive control strategy, only the first control action is taken into account at each time of “*sampling*”, because as in the control strategy, the driver may encounter new contingencies with each step he takes, despite knowing beforehand what would be the “*ideal*” path to follow.

For example, following the above-mentioned sequence, suppose that after accelerating for the first time, a dog crosses its path before the driver is able to turn the corner; then, the driver must choose to avoid the dog, changing the trajectory, or to brake waiting for the road to clear. This is why the procedure is repeated again for the next control decision as the horizon shifts, establishing a new sequence of actions to follow based on the events given at each sampling time.

4.4. FCS-MPC applied to a Reduced Multilevel Converter

There is not a simple modulation scheme that can manage the inner voltages of the converter and ensure a correct balancing of the capacitor’s voltages in an open loop control strategy. For this reason, the most simple control strategy that allows multiple control objectives to be handled without a modulation stage is FCS-MPC.

MPC strategies operate in discrete time with a fixed sampling frequency $f_s = T_s^{-1}$; thus, it is necessary to obtain a discrete time model of the whole system, converter and load, Eq. (3.14) – (3.20). To obtain this model of the RMC converter described in Chapter 3, first, the three inner voltages and the output current are considered as system states. This is:

$$x(k) = [v_{C3}(k) \ v_{C2}(k) \ v_{C1}(k) \ i_A(k) \ i_B(k) \ i_C(k)]^T \quad (4.3)$$

$$u(k) = [S_1 \ S_2 \ S_3 \ S_4 \ S_5 \ S_6 \ S_7 \ S_8 \ S_9 \ S_A \ S_B \ S_C]^T \quad (4.4)$$

Equation (4.3) represents the system states and equation (4.4) represents the control outputs. Therefore, equations (3.14) – (3.20) can be discretized using the forward Euler method and rewritten for an FCS-MPC control strategy as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
v_{xN}^{k+1} = & V_{DC} \left((1 - S_{C3}^k) \left(S_{C2}^k S_{p2}^k + (1 - S_{C2}^k) \left(S_{C1}^k (S_{p1}^k - S_x^k) + S_x^k \right) \right) + S_{p3}^k S_{C3}^k \right) \\
& + \mathbf{v}_{C3}^k S_{C3}^k \left((1 - S_{C2}^k) \left(S_{C1}^k (S_{p1}^k - S_x^k) + (S_x^k - S_{p3}^k) \right) + S_{C2}^k (S_{p2}^k - S_{p3}^k) \right) \\
& + \mathbf{v}_{C2}^k S_{C2}^k \left((S_x^k - S_{p2}^k) + S_{C1}^k (S_{p1}^k - S_x^k) \right) \\
& + \mathbf{v}_{C1}^k S_{C1}^k (S_x^k - S_{p1}^k)
\end{aligned} \tag{4.5}$$

$$v_{oN}^{k+1} = \frac{v_{AN}^{k+1} + v_{BN}^{k+1} + v_{CN}^{k+1}}{3} \tag{4.6}$$

$$i_x^{k+1} = H_1 i_x^k + H_2 (v_{xN}^{k+1} - v_{oN}^{k+1}) \tag{4.7}$$

$$v_{C1}^{k+1} = \mathbf{v}_{C1}^k - \sum_{x=A}^C \left(\frac{T_s}{2C_1} (i_x^{k+1} + i_x^k) (S_{C1}^k (S_x^k - S_{p1}^k)) \right) \tag{4.8}$$

$$v_{C2}^{k+1} = \mathbf{v}_{C2}^k - \sum_{x=A}^C \left(\frac{T_s}{2C_2} (i_x^{k+1} + i_x^k) \left(S_{C2}^k \left((S_x^k - S_{p2}^k) + S_{C1}^k (S_{p1}^k - S_x^k) \right) \right) \right) \tag{4.9}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
v_{C3}^{k+1} = & \mathbf{v}_{C3}^k - \sum_{x=A}^C \left(\frac{T_s}{2C_3} (i_x^{k+1} + i_x^k) \left(S_{C3}^k \left((1 - S_{C2}^k) \left(S_{C1}^k (S_{p1}^k - S_x^k) \right. \right. \right. \right. \\
& \left. \left. \left. + (S_x^k - S_{p3}^k) \right) + S_{C2}^k (S_{p2}^k - S_{p3}^k) \right) \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{4.10}$$

$$x \in \{A, B, C\} \tag{4.11}$$

where \mathbf{v}_{C3}^k , \mathbf{v}_{C2}^k , \mathbf{v}_{C1}^k and i_x^k denote the measured values of the inner voltages and the output current at the instant k , being:

$$\begin{aligned}
H_1 &= e^{-T_s \frac{R}{L}} \\
H_2 &= \frac{1}{R} (1 - H_1)
\end{aligned}$$

with T_s the sampling period used.

The equations (4.5), (4.10), (4.9) and (4.8) present multiplications of states by inputs, which make the whole system nonlinear.

In addition to the clear nonlinearity present, the computational cost to calculate the output using the FCS-MPC control strategy is quite high; in the case of 5-level 3-phase RMC, there are 216 possible switching states which should be evaluated, see Eq. (3.3).

In the proposed topology, the control objectives are the balancing of inner capacitor voltages and the control of the output currents. As discussed in Section 3.2 of Chapter 3 in , for a 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 ratio, the reference for the internal voltages of the RMC converter are:

$$v_{C1}^* = \frac{V_{DC}}{4} \quad , \quad v_{C2}^* = \frac{V_{DC}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad v_{C3}^* = 3 \frac{V_{DC}}{4}$$

To incorporate all control objectives, the error signal is defined as:

$$e(k) \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} v_{C1}^*(k) - v_{C1}(k) \\ v_{C2}^*(k) - v_{C2}(k) \\ v_{C3}^*(k) - v_{C3}(k) \\ i_A^*(k) - i_A(k) \\ i_B^*(k) - i_B(k) \\ i_C^*(k) - i_C(k) \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.12)$$

A prediction horizon $N = 1$ has been established, defining the cost function as:

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 \\ + \lambda_1 \left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_2 \left(v_{C2}^* - v_{C2}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_3 \left(v_{C3}^* - v_{C3}^{k+1}\right)^2 \quad (4.13)$$

where λ_1 , λ_2 and λ_3 are weighting factors that determine the relative importance of the respective errors. These weighting factors are calculated in function of the normalized values of the variables.

Although the analytical solution to this problem is not trivial, an optimal system input can easily be obtained by evaluating all possible combinations of S_i in the cost function (4.13). Finally, the combination of switches S_i that minimizes (4.13) of the analyzed model is applied during the next sampling period.

Fig. 4.4 shows the block diagram for the FCS-MPC strategy. Here, (1) represents the block of the estimation and prediction stages of the control strategy; (2) represents the cost function evaluation considering all 216 possible states (the equation for g is given in Eq. (4.13)); and finally, (3) represents the power circuit with the measurements of the inner voltages in the converter and the output currents in the load.

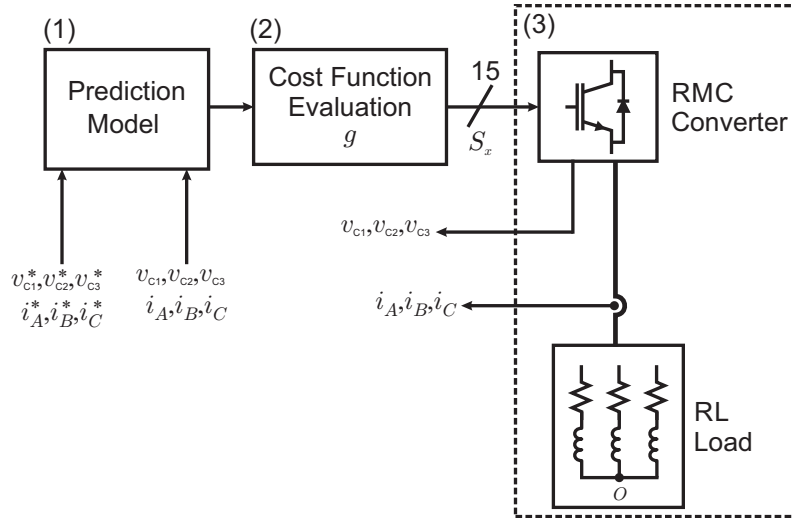


Figure 4.4. Control scheme for FCS-MPC.

Chapter 5

RMC: Analysis and Performance

To verify the proposed topology's behavior and performance, the RMC 3-level and 5-level topologies will be simulated. The simulation is carried out using the software PLECS[®].

The simulation results will be compared with commercial topologies. For the case of the 3-level topology, RMC will be compared with the NPC (chapter 2, section 2.1) and the 1-cell 2-stack SMC, which is known as the T-Type converter (chapter 2, section 2.4). For the case of 5-level topology, RMC will be compared with the ANPC (chapter 2, section 2.2) and a 2-cell 2-stack SMC.

The comparison will be done considering different aspects that could be cataloged in two big groups: the response of the system and the characteristics of the structure.

The principal points considered in both categories are described below.

System Response:

- Output currents
- Output voltages (v_{xN})
- Capacitor voltage balance
- Harmonic spectrum for output voltage and output current
- Total Harmonic Distortion
- Dynamic characteristic

Characteristics of the structure:

- Blocking voltage
- Switching frequency
- Switching and conduction losses
- Energy storage and size of the inner capacitors

5.1. System Response

Since the proposed converter does not have a modulation stage that allows balancing the inner voltage, the control strategy used will be FCS-MPC (chapter 4).

In order to have a fair comparison and despite the fact that all of the commercial topologies being analyzed have a well-studied modulation stage, all topologies simulated in this section will be controlled by FCS-MPC changing the cost function in accordance with the specific requirements of the different topologies.

The circuit analyzed considers the converter and a passive load (RL). Since the RMC has a blocking voltage limitation (see chapter 3 subsection 3.2.1) the dc-link voltage is set to 700V. For the FCS-MPC strategy, a 10kHz sampling frequency is high enough to ensure that the performance of the control strategy will be acceptable, and the differences between the system responses could be attributed to the converter topology instead of the control strategy. The most relevant parameters of the converter and control are detailed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
SIMULATION PARAMETERS

Parameter	Value
Voltage <i>dc-link</i>	700 V
Load Resistance	16 Ω
Load Inductance	30 mH
Inner Capacitors	330 μ F
Sampling period	100 μ s

5.1.1. 3-Level Topologies

5.1.1.a. Cost Function Definition

The cost function for RMC is defined by the equation:

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda \left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1}^{k+1}\right)^2 \quad (5.1)$$

The cost function for NPC and the T-type converter are the same; they are defined by equation (5.2):

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_1 \left(\left(v_C^* - v_{C1}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_C^* - v_{C2}^{k+1}\right)^2 \right) \quad (5.2)$$

where v_{C1}^* in equation (5.1) is the reference value for the inner voltage of the converter, and the variable v_C^* in equation (5.2) is the reference value for the dc-link capacitor

voltages. The weighting factor λ_1 is calculated in function of the normalized value of the variables.

5.1.1.b. Simulation Results

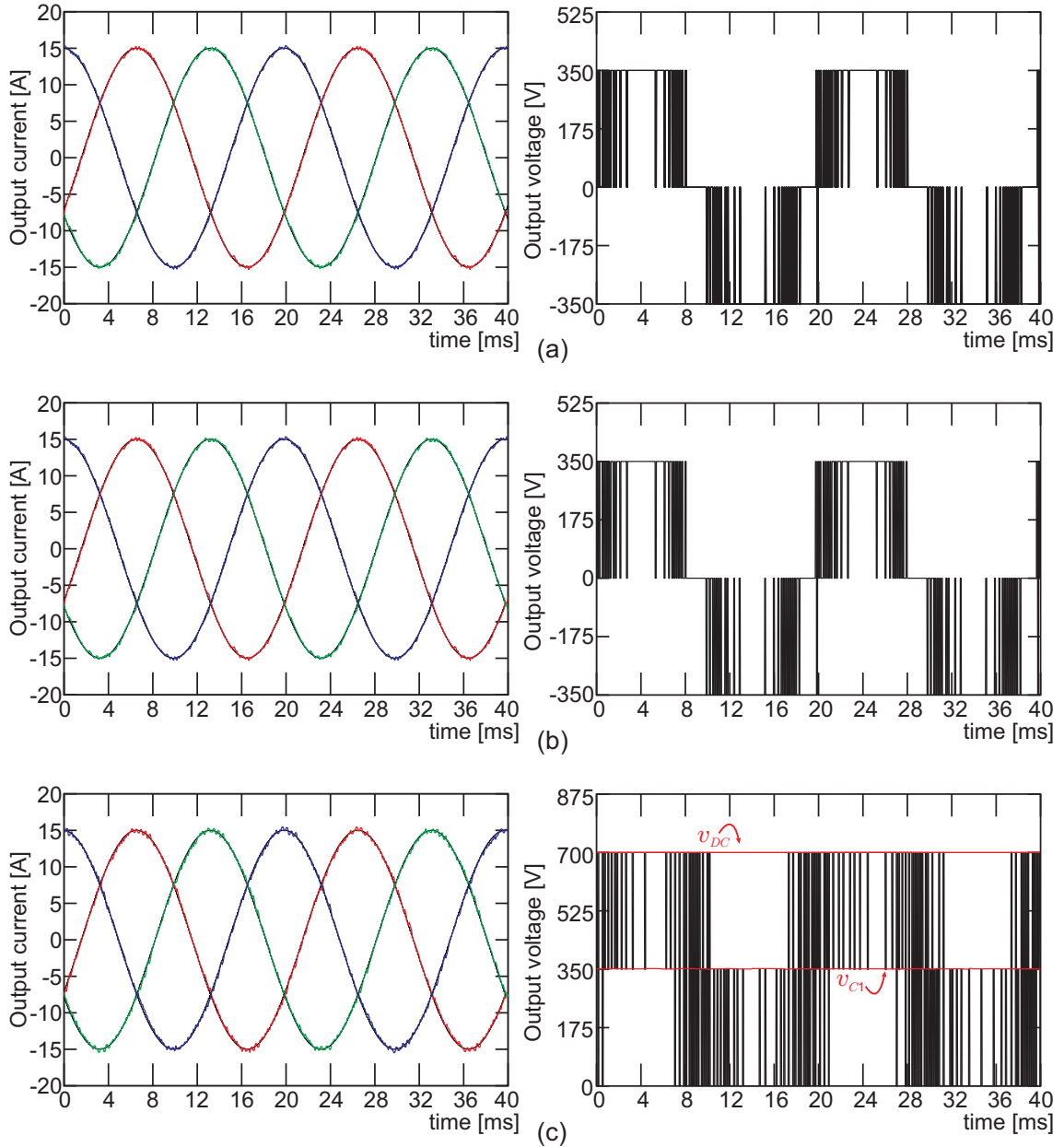


Figure 5.1. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Steady-state for $\hat{i} = 15A$: (a) NPC converter; (b) T-type converter; (c) RMC converter.

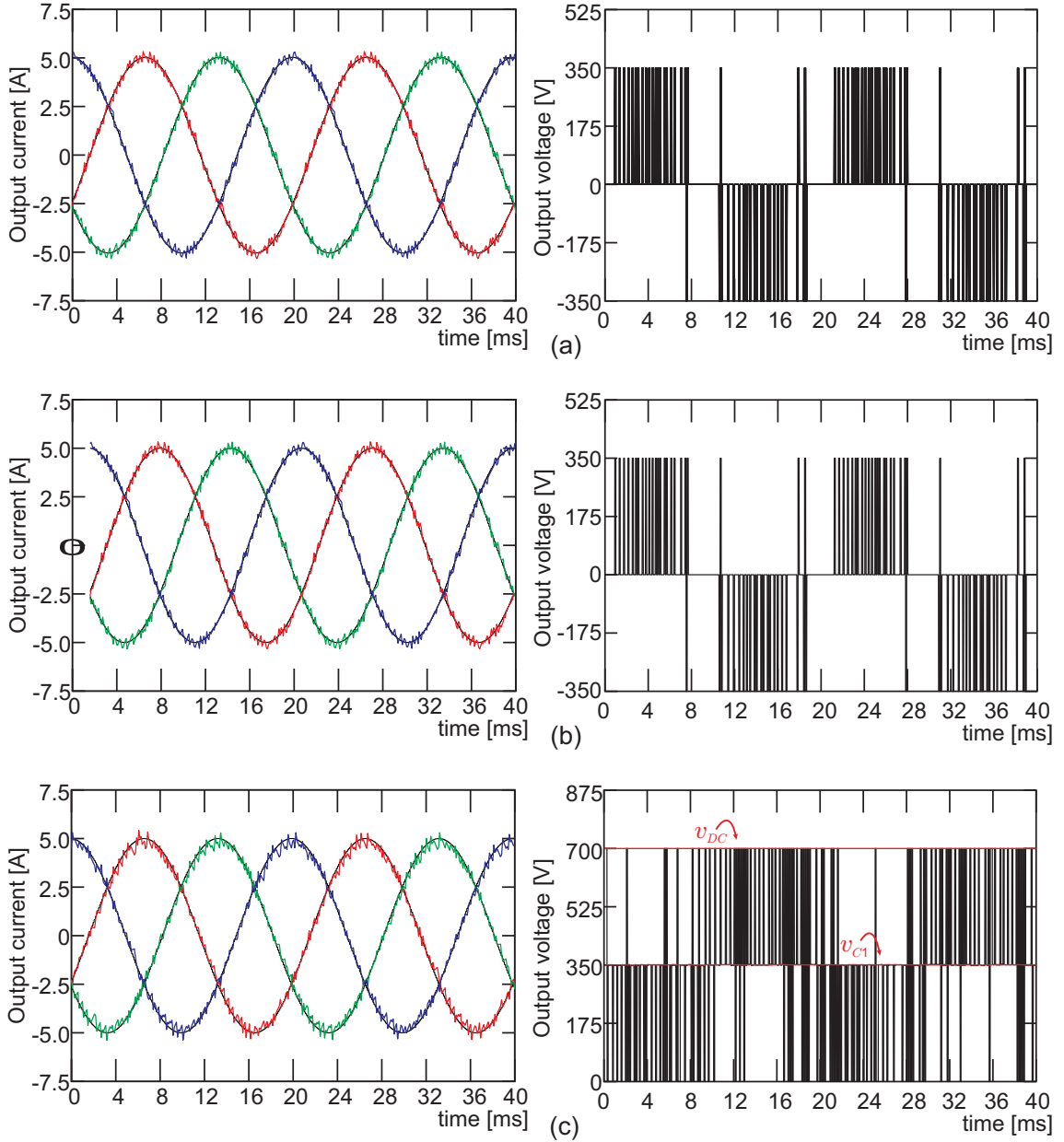


Figure 5.2. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Steady-state for $\hat{i} = 5A$: (a) NPC converter; (b) T-type converter; (c) RMC converter.

Fig. 5.1 and Fig. 5.2 show the steady-state behavior of the systems with 3-level topologies for two different operation points. Fig. 5.1 shows the steady-state for an output current reference of $97\%I_{nom}$, and Fig. 5.2 shows the output variables for an output current reference of $32\%I_{nom}$.

The NPC and T-type converter (Fig. 5.1-(a),(b) and Fig. 5.2-(a),(b)) achieve a sinusoidal waveform in the output currents with a maximum current ripple of 1.1 % of the nominal value.

The RMC topology (Fig. 5.1-(c)), also achieves a sinusoidal waveform in the output currents, but it presents a higher ripple in the current than the NPC and T-type converters,

which is 1.8 % of the nominal value. This difference in the output current is a consequence of the output voltage, which has a higher switching frequency than NPC or a T-type converter. The switching frequency in the output voltage is 5200Hz for RMC and 4800Hz for NPC and T-type; in all three cases, the switching frequency is calculated as the average of the number of commutations in one period of the fundamental.

However, the three converters balance the capacitor voltages and achieve three-level output voltages in both operation points. Beyond that, the Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) for the output current and output voltage is shown in Table 5.2, and it is possible to see in these results that there are no big differences between the RMC, NPC and the T-type topology. Therefore, RMC's performance is comparable to the NPC and T-type; it is neither better nor worse, but these results show that the 3L-RMC works.

Table 5.2
THD FOR 3-LEVEL TOPOLOGIES

Topology	Current THD		Voltage THD	
	15A	5A	15A	5A
NPC	1.32 %	4.03 %	48.4 %	54.3 %
T-type	1.32 %	4.02 %	48.3 %	54.8 %
RMC	1.55 %	4.31 %	48.8 %	55.2 %

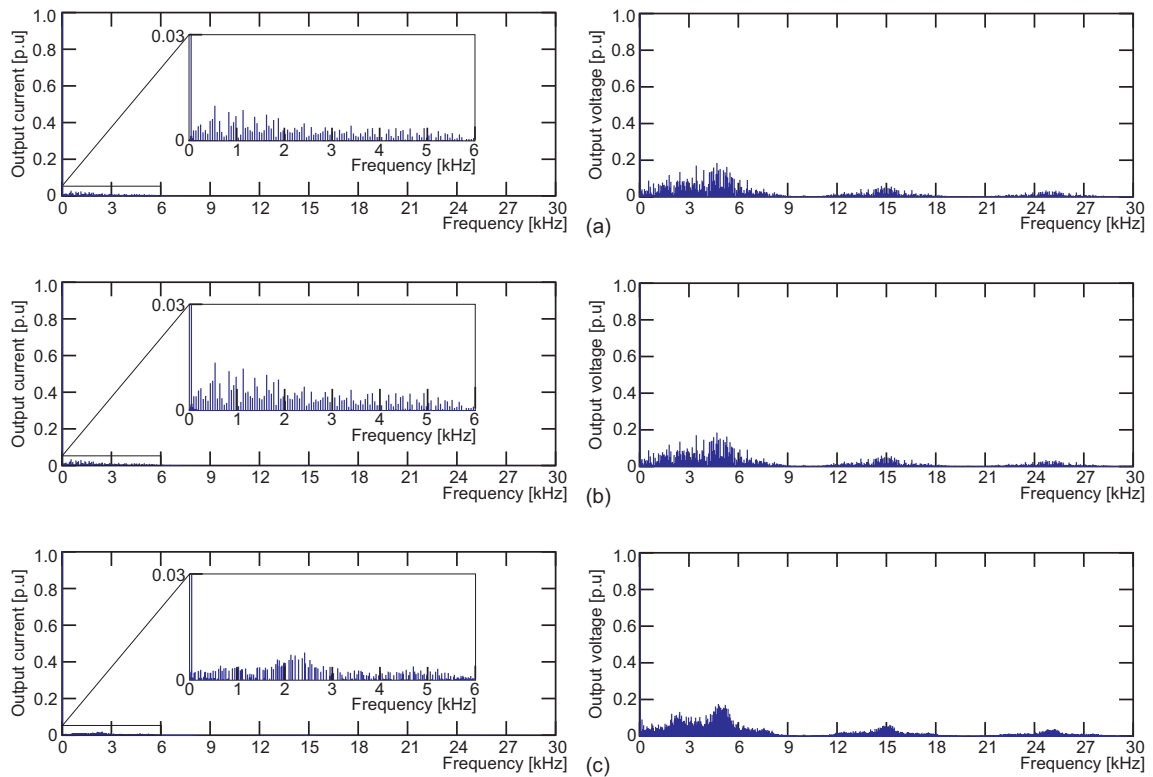


Figure 5.3. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}) spectrum for $\hat{i} = 15A$: (a) NPC converter; (b) T-type converter; (c) RMC converter.

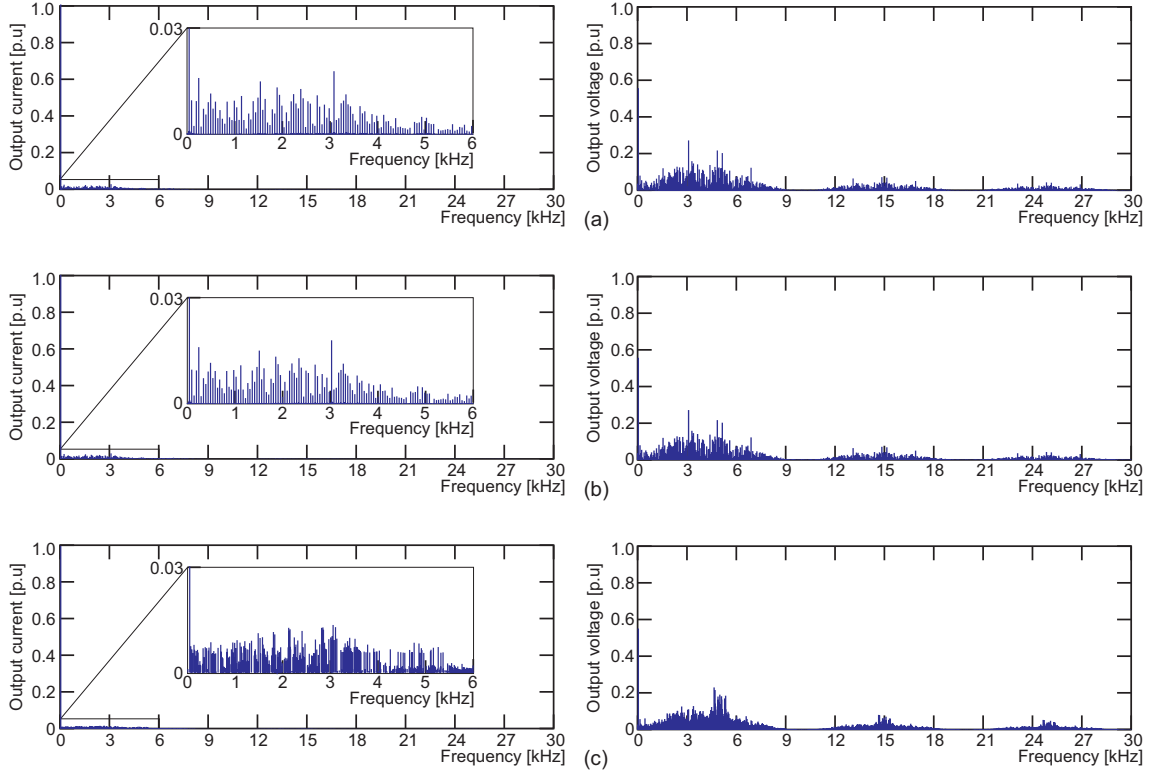


Figure 5.4. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}) spectrum for $\hat{i} = 5A$: (a) NPC converter; (b) T-type converter; (c) RMC converter.

Fig. 5.3 and Fig. 5.4 show the harmonic spectrum for the output current and output voltage in phase A. The current spectra show the characteristic spectrum of a FCS-MPC controller, which has a widespread spectrum and changes significantly for the different operation points. However, in the output voltage spectrum, the harmonics are concentrated around the frequency 5kHz and its multiples; 5kHz is half of the sampling frequency.

Finally, to verify the dynamic behavior of the system, Fig. 5.5 shows the system response after a step in the current references, from $\hat{i}_X = 15A$ to $\hat{i}_X = 5A$ with a phase shift of 180° . In this case, the NPC converter takes 2.18ms to achieve the new value, the T-type converter 2.19ms and the RMC converter 2.18ms. None of the 3L converters present a big perturbation in the output current during the transient; this is a characteristic of the dynamic response of the FCS-MPC, and the type of topology used does not have a big impact in this performance. In addition, in the case of RMC, the control of the inner voltage is fast enough to ensure no perturbation in the desired value of the flying capacitor voltage of the converter.

A remark on these results is that the RMC topology works in both cases, steady-state and dynamic performance, and its results are quite comparable with other 3-level inverters considering the same control strategy and load.

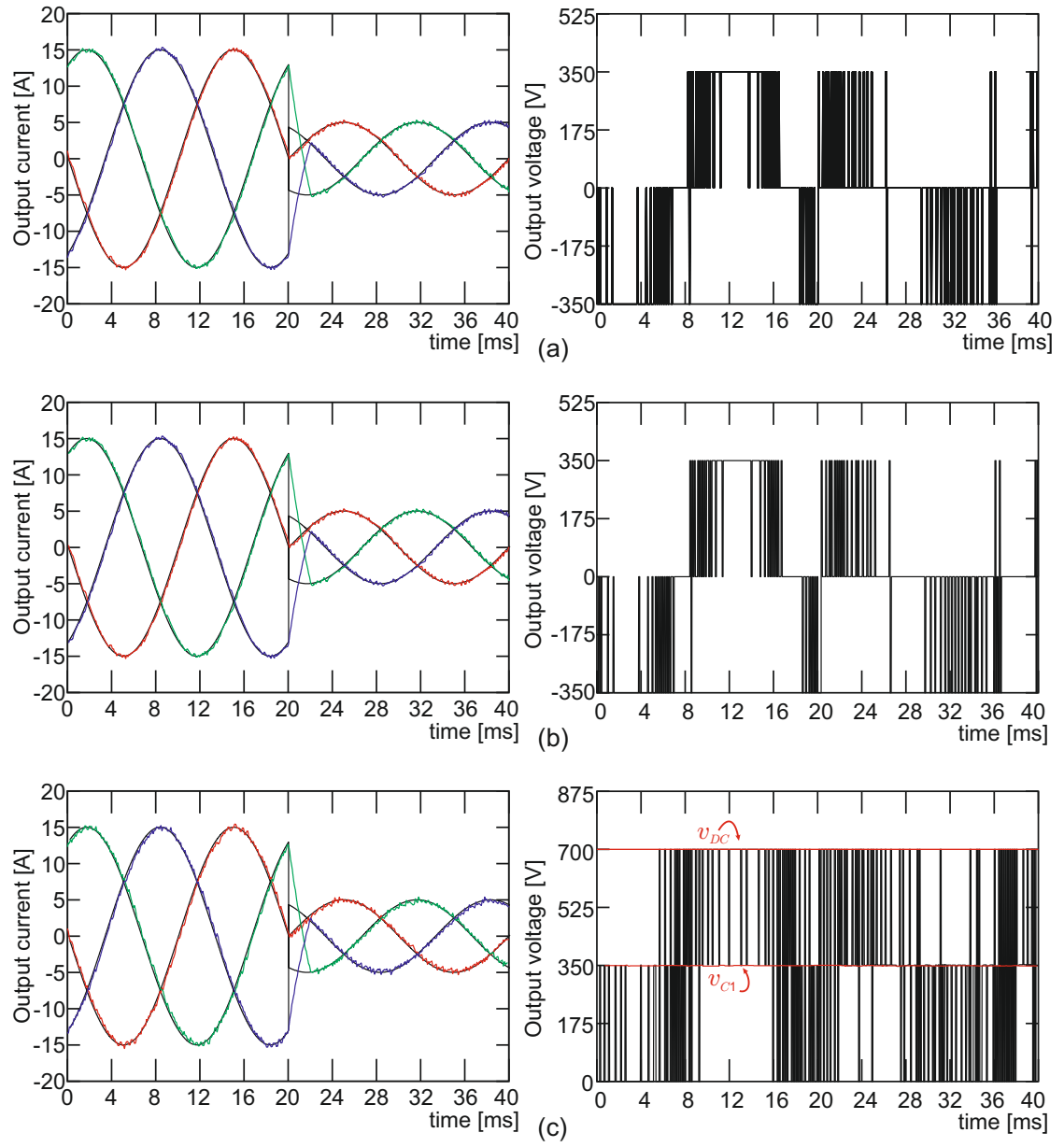


Figure 5.5. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Dynamic response: (a) NPC converter; (b) T-type converter; (c) RMC converter.

5.1.2. 5-Level Topologies

5.1.2.a. Cost Function definition

The cost function for RMC is defined by the equation (4.13) (Chapter 4).

In the case of ANPC, the cost function needs to add the term for the inner voltage of C_{1X} ; it is defined by the equation:

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_1 \left(\left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1A}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1B}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1C}^{k+1}\right)^2 \right) \quad (5.3)$$

where v_{C1}^* is the reference value for the inner voltage of the converter and λ_1 is the weighting factor and is calculated as a function of the normalized value of the variables.

For the case of SMC, the cost function needs to add the term for the inner voltage of C_{1E1} and C_{1E2} ; it is defined by the equation:

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_1 \left(\left(v_{C11}^* - v_{C11A}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C11}^* - v_{C11B}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C11}^* - v_{C11C}^{k+1}\right)^2 \right) + \lambda_2 \left(\left(v_{C12}^* - v_{C12A}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C12}^* - v_{C12B}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(v_{C12}^* - v_{C12C}^{k+1}\right)^2 \right) \quad (5.4)$$

where v_{C11}^* and v_{C12}^* are the reference values for the inner voltages of the converter. Furthermore, $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ are the weighting factors and are calculated as a function of the normalized values, i.e $\lambda_1 = I_{nom}/V_{Cnom}$.

5.1.2.b. Simulation Results

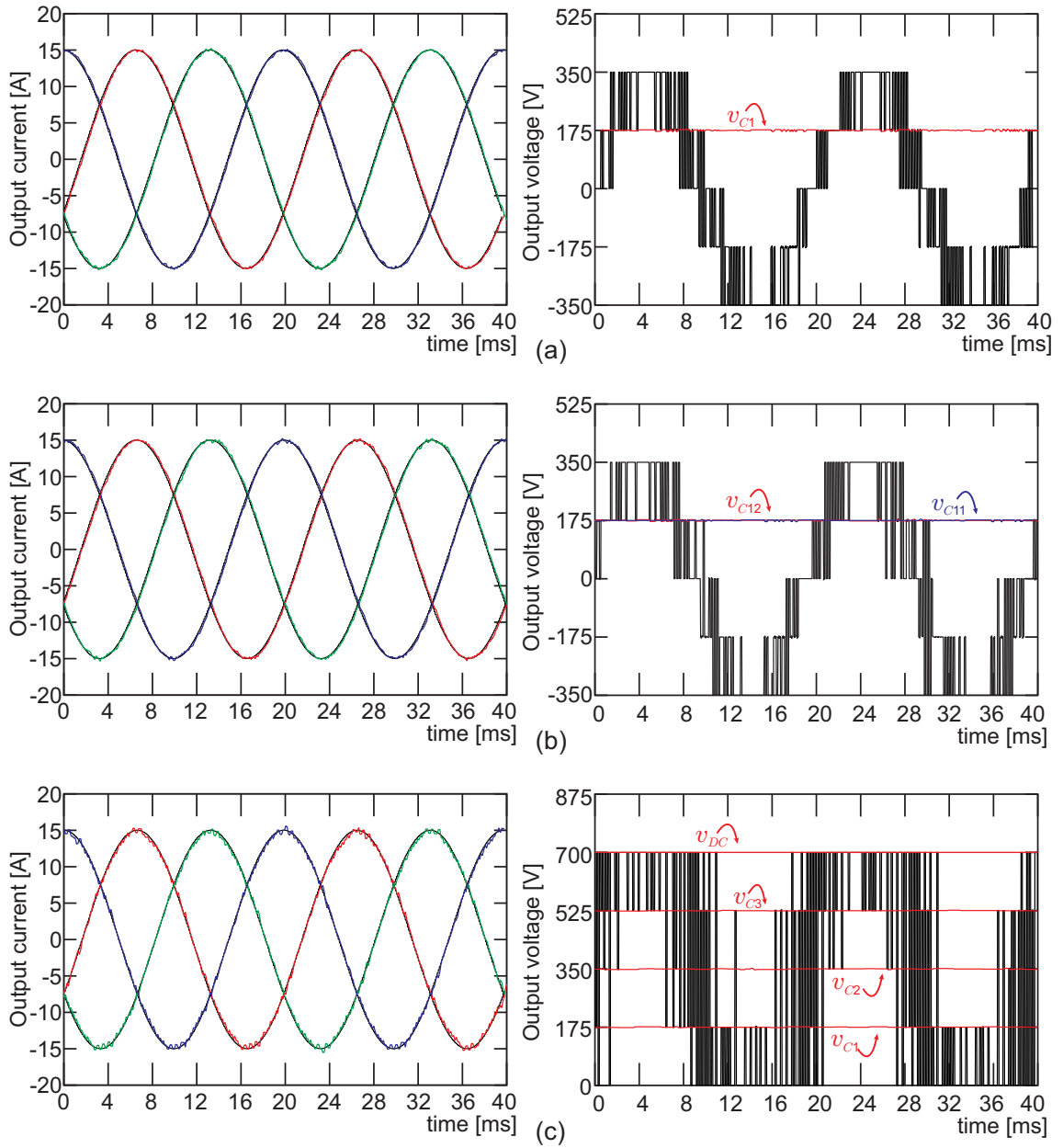


Figure 5.6. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Steady-state for $\hat{i} = 15A$: (a) ANPC converter; (b) SMC converter; (c) RMC converter.

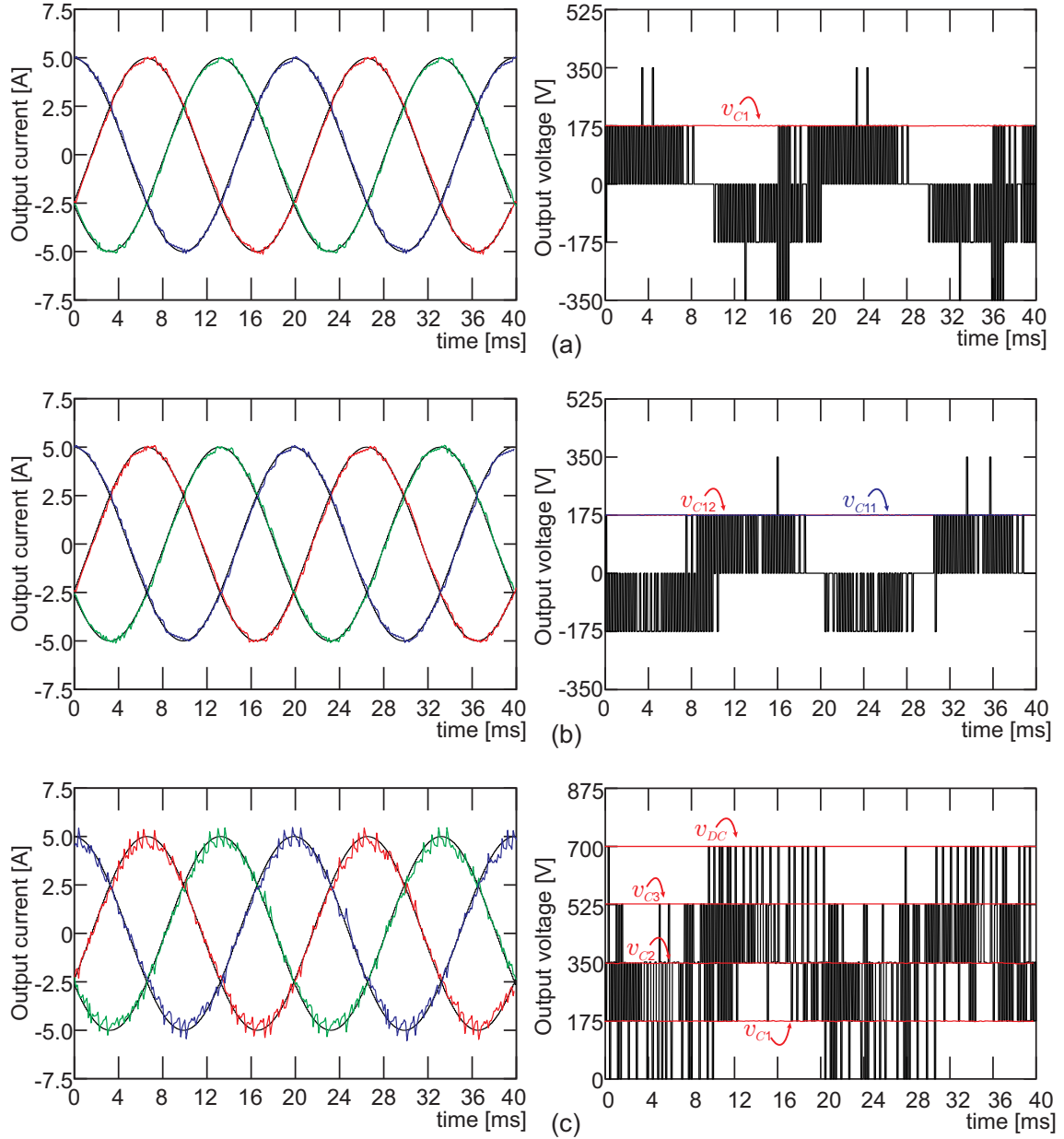


Figure 5.7. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Steady-state for $\hat{i} = 5A$: (a) ANPC converter; (b) SMC converter; (c) RMC converter.

Fig. 5.6 and Fig. 5.7 show the steady-state behavior of the systems with 5-level topologies for two different operation points. Fig. 5.6 shows the steady-state for an output current reference of $97\%I_{nom}$, and Fig. 5.7 shows the output variables for an output current reference of $32\%I_{nom}$.

The ANPC and SMC converter (Fig. 5.6-(a),(b) and Fig. 5.7-(a),(b)) achieve a sinusoidal waveform in the output currents with a maximum current ripple of 0.8% of the nominal value. The RMC topology (Fig. 5.6-(c)), also achieves a sinusoidal waveform in the output currents, but the ripple in the output current is 1.1% of the nominal value for high reference values and 2.05% for low reference values. Since the 5L-RMC has fewer

switching states than ANPC or SMC, the FCS-MPC has fewer options to choose from, and as a consequence, RMC presents a higher ripple in the output currents.

The switching frequency in the output voltage of the ANPC and SMC converters is 3900Hz, and for RMC it is 4050Hz; the switching frequency is calculated as the average of the number of commutations in one period of the fundamental.

ANPC, SMC and RMC each present a balanced inner voltage, achieving five-level output voltages. However, when the reference value is small, ANPC and SMC use only three levels to generate the desired output voltage (inner vectors in Fig. 2.10 in chapter 2), but RMC needs to use the five levels to achieve the desired output voltage. This is due to the number of vectors that are able to balance the inner voltages.

The Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) for the output current and output voltage is shown in Table 5.3, and it is possible to see that there are not big differences between the RMC, ANPC and the SMC topologies. As RMC uses five voltage levels in cases of low reference currents, the THD of RMC in this case presents a lower value than the THD for ANPC and SMC in the same case, but it is possible to see that this does not have a big impact in the THD of the current. For ANPC, the current THD is 2.36 %, and for RMC is 2.37 %.

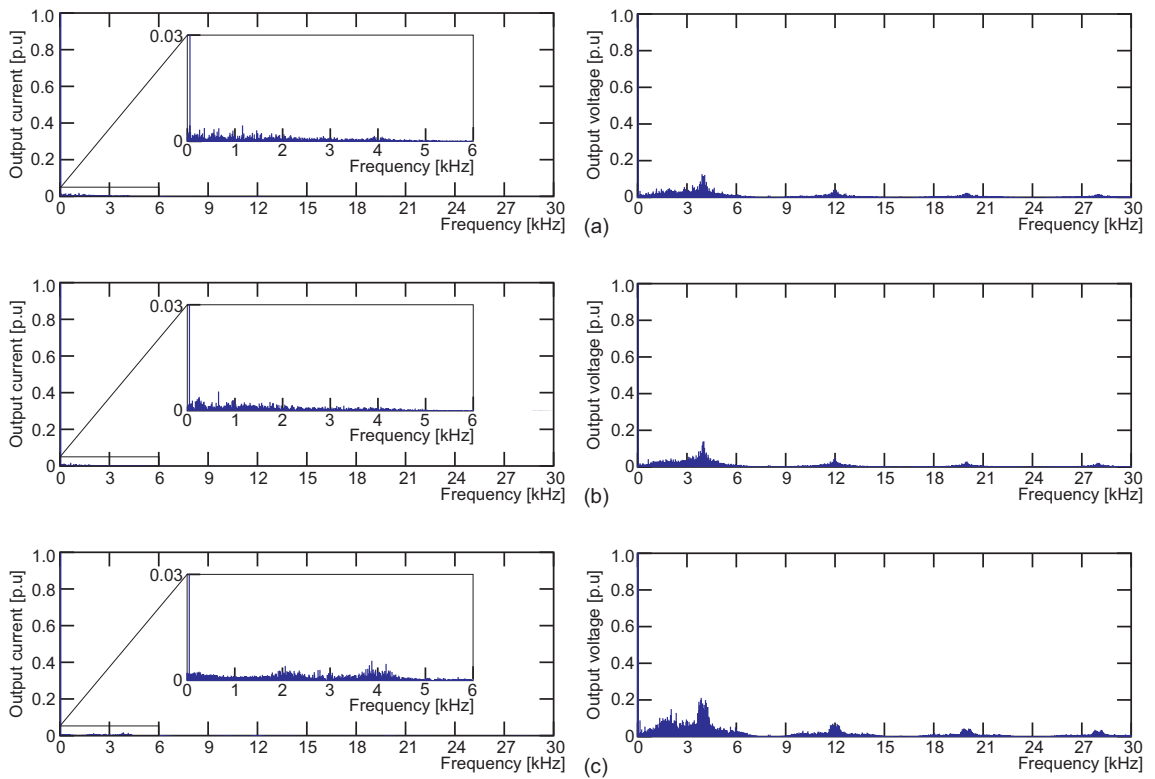


Figure 5.8. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}) spectrum, for $\hat{i} = 15A$: (a) ANPC converter; (b) SMC converter; (c) RMC converter.

Table 5.3
THD FOR 5-LEVEL TOPOLOGIES

Topology	Current THD		Voltage THD	
	15A	5A	15A	5A
ANPC	1.02 %	2.36 %	37.6 %	43.3 %
SMC	1.08 %	2.45 %	37.5 %	43.7 %
RMC	1.09 %	2.37 %	37.9 %	40.1 %

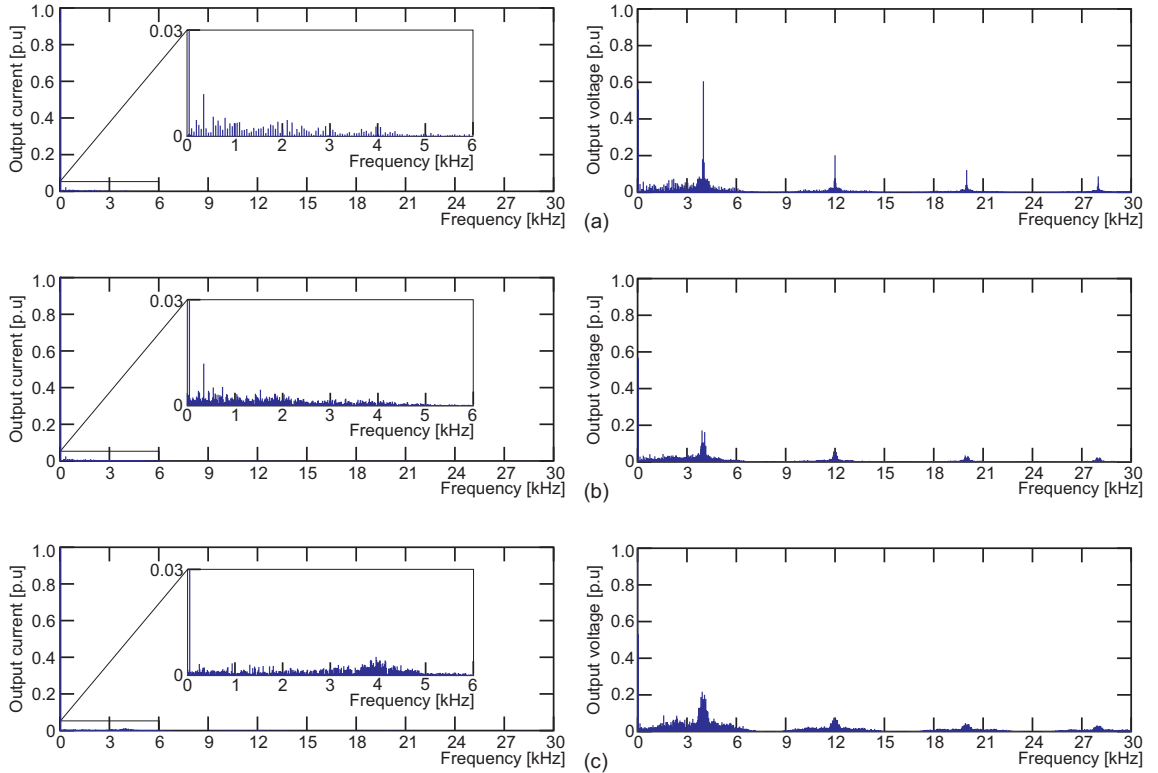


Figure 5.9. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}) spectrum, for $\hat{i} = 5A$: (a) ANPC converter; (b) SMC converter; (c) RMC converter.

Fig. 5.8 and Fig. 5.9 show the harmonic spectrum for the output currents and output voltages in phase A. Comparable to the spectrum for the 3-level topologies, the output current spectrum is widely spread and changes significantly for the different operation points. In the RMC's output current spectrum, it is possible to see that the spectrum is concentrated around the 4kHz. In the cases of ANPC and SMC, the current spectrum has a bigger harmonic of 350Hz.

In the output voltage spectrum, the harmonics are more concentrated around the 4kHz and its multiples than in the case of 3-level topologies, a clear effect of the increase of the number of the converter's output voltage levels. For low reference values in the ANPC topology, it is possible to see that there is a big harmonic around the switching frequency (4kHz).

Finally, to verify the dynamic behavior of the system, Fig. 5.10 shows the system response after a step in the current references; it is the same step as that used in the case of the 3-level topologies. The dynamic response in the ANPC converter takes 1.99ms to achieve the new value; SMC takes 2.01ms and the RMC converter 1.98ms. In addition, FCS-MPC achieves a balanced inner voltage even during the transient.

Consequently, RMC is scalable to a 5-level topology with a comparable performance in steady and transient states to other topologies, like ANPC and SMC.

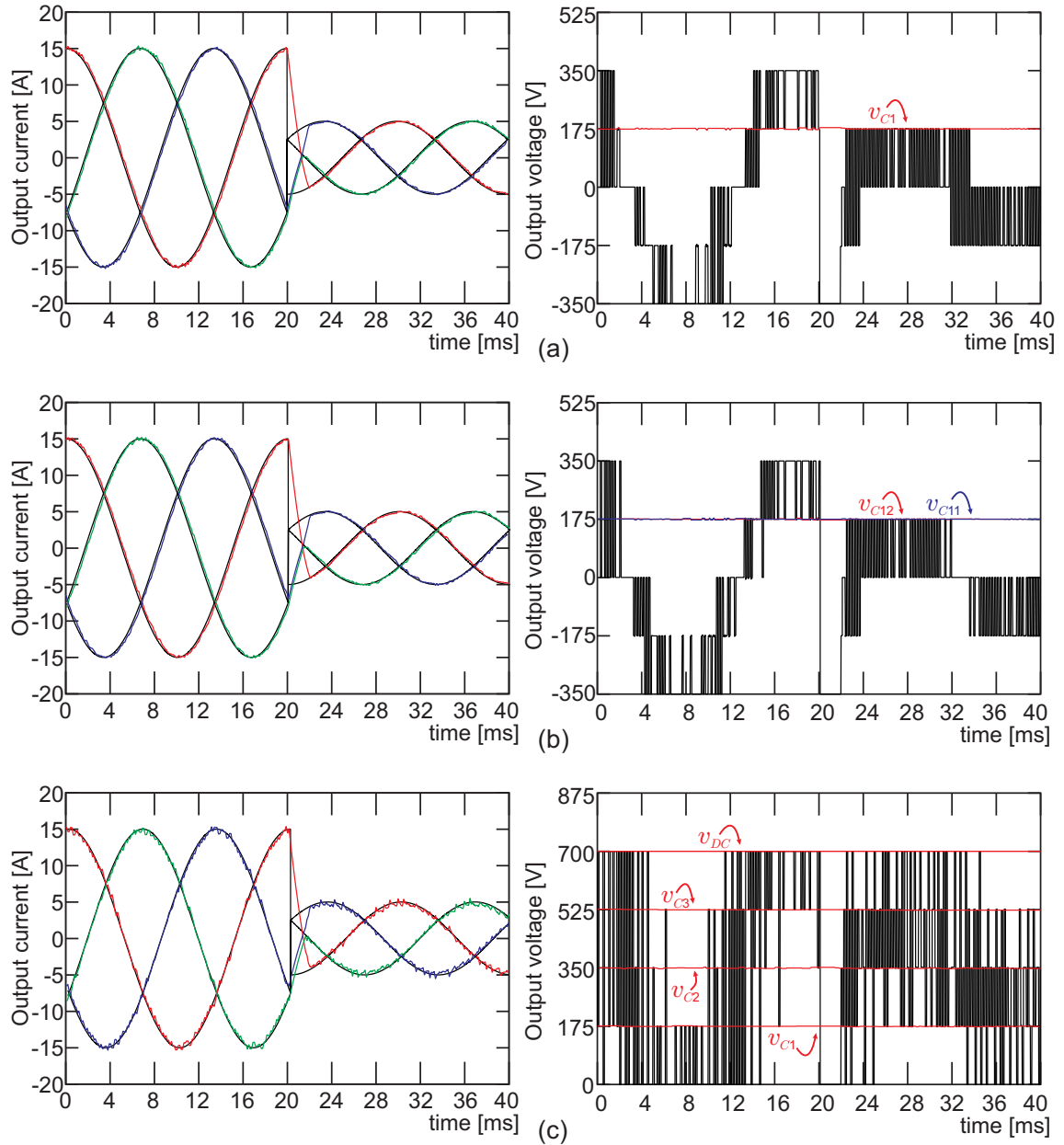


Figure 5.10. Output currents and output voltage (v_{AN}). Dynamic response: (a) ANPC converter; (b) SMC converter; (c) RMC converter.

5.2. Characteristics of the Structure

5.2.1. Blocking voltage

Table 5.4 shows the blocking voltage maximum and minimum for the different topologies simulated. In the case of RMC, the output switches need to block the full *dc-link*. In the T-type converter and the SMC, the switches with maximum blocking voltage are the top and bottom ones (S_{1E2X} , S_{2E2X} , \bar{S}_{1E1X} , \bar{S}_{2E1X}). Finally, in the ANPC converter, the switches: S_{1A} , S_{2A} , S_{3A} and S_{4A} , are going to block half of the *dc-link* voltage.

Fig. 5.11 shows the blocking voltage in a 3L-RMC with $V_{DC} = 700V$. The 3L-RMC has one DC-cell, which in turn has three power switches (S_{p1} , S_{n1} and S_{C1}) that block half the *dc-link* voltage as is shown in Fig. 5.11-(a). Nevertheless, the output switches (2L-VSI stage) are going to block the full *dc-link* voltage when $S_{p1} = 1$, $S_{n1} = 1$ and $S_{C1} = 0$, and they will block half of the *dc-link* voltage when $S_{p1} = 1$ (or $S_{p1} = 0$), $S_{n1} = 0$ (or, $S_{n1} = 1$) and $S_{C1} = 1$, as shown in Fig. 5.11-(b).

Fig. 5.12 shows the blocking voltage in the 5L-RMC for one period of the fundamental output voltage. The 5L-RMC has three DC-cells in the DC-DC stage, and the switches in the third DC-cell (S_{p3} , S_{n3} and S_{C3}) will block a quarter of the *dc-link* voltage as is shown in Fig. 5.12-(a). However, power switches in the second DC-cell (S_{p2} , S_{n2} and S_{C2}) will sometimes block a quarter of the *dc-link* voltage and at other times will block half. Power switches in the first DC-cell (S_{p1} , S_{n1} and S_{C1}) will sometimes block three quarters, half or a quarter of the *dc-link* voltage. Finally, the power switches in the output stage (2L-VSI) some times need to block the full *dc-link* voltage, three quarters, half or a quarter of the *dc-link* voltage, as shown in Fig. 5.12-(b).

Table 5.4
BLOCKING VOLTAGE FOR MULTILEVEL TOPOLOGIES

Topology	Blocking Voltage	
	maximum	minimum
NPC	$V_{DC}/2$	$V_{DC}/2$
T-type	V_{DC}	$V_{DC}/2$
RMC 3-level	V_{DC}	$V_{DC}/2$
ANPC	$V_{DC}/2$	$V_{DC}/4$
SMC	$V_{DC}/2$	$V_{DC}/4$
RMC 5-level	V_{DC}	$V_{DC}/4$

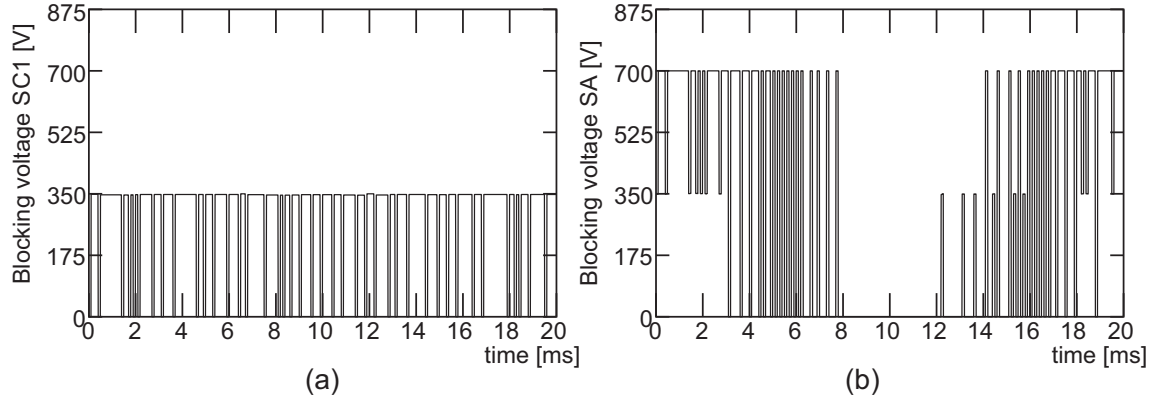


Figure 5.11. Blocking voltage in 3-level RMC: (a) Switch S_{C1} ; (b) Switch S_A .

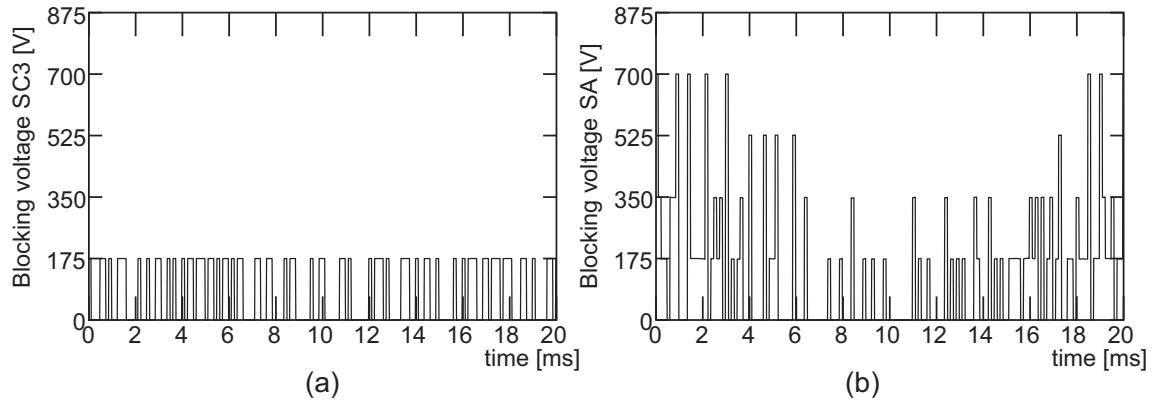


Figure 5.12. Blocking voltage in 5-level RMC: (a) Switch S_{C3} ; (b) Switch S_A .

5.2.2. Switching frequency

Table 5.5 shows the average switching frequency for the different topologies simulated. To calculate the average switching frequency, all commutations in one period of the fundamental signal are considered.

The switching frequency shown in Table 5.6 is calculated as follows:

$$\bar{F}_{sw} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{F}_{sw}(S_i) \quad (5.5)$$

where $\bar{F}_{sw}(S_i)$ is the average switching frequency for the generic power switch S_i . For example, in RMC there are $N = 15$ power switches and $S_i \in \{S_{pk}, S_{nk}, S_{Ck}, S_x, \bar{S}_x\}$ for $k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $k \in \{A, B, C\}$.

In this work, FCS-MPC is used to control the system, and the cost function used is that given in the previous section, where the output currents and the inner voltages of the converters are controlled. An additional term to ensure a fixed switching frequency was not included because the focus of this study is to analyze the topologies for a similar performance (similar system response with the same sampling frequency).

In the previous section (5.1), RMC was shown to have a comparable system response to that of the other topologies. Now an important point to review is the switching frequency that is necessary to achieve this performance. However, as the control objective of FCS-MPC is not the switching frequency, this will change in function of the reference value of the current; the switching frequency will be higher for a low reference value when FCS-MPC is used, especially in 5L topologies, because the control uses fewer voltage levels (3 instead of 5) to generate the desired output voltage.

From the results shown in Table 5.5, it is possible to see that for high reference values, the RMC topology has a switching frequency that is comparable to that of the other topologies, for both their 3-level and 5-level versions. Nevertheless, for a low reference value, RMC presents a higher switching frequency in both cases; it is important to remember that in the 5L-RMC, the converter uses five levels even for a low reference value, so the difference in the switching frequency in a 5L-RMC is due the converter and not the control strategy as is the case of the ANPC and SMC.

Nevertheless, RMC has an acceptable switching frequency in comparison to the other topologies; for low reference values, the switching frequency is an acceptable value, and for the five-level topology it is even less than ANPC's switching frequency.

Since RMC has fewer possible switching states than other topologies, FCS-MPC decides on an exotic commutation pattern to ensure the tracking error in the control objectives. As a consequence, the RMC has different switching frequencies in its power switches, as shown in Table 5.6.

The switches S_{C3} , S_{C2} and S_{C1} are the switches that are connected in series with the flying capacitor in the DC-cells, and it is possible to see in Table 5.6 that these switches have a higher switching frequency than the other switches of the same DC-cell, which is congruent with the necessity to balance the inner voltages.

Table 5.5
AVERAGE SWITCHING FREQUENCY

Topology	Switching Frequency/Sampling Frequency	
	15A	5A
NPC	0.11	0.12
T-type	0.11	0.12
RMC 3-level	0.12	0.17
ANPC	0.12	0.21
SMC	0.11	0.16
RMC 5-level	0.11	0.18

Table 5.6
SWITCHING FREQUENCY IN 5-LEVEL RMC

Switch	Switching Frequency	
	15A	5A
S_{p3}	1200Hz	1350Hz
S_{n3}	950Hz	1650Hz
S_{C3}	2050Hz	2100Hz
S_{p2}	850Hz	1600Hz
S_{n2}	800Hz	1700Hz
S_{C2}	1650Hz	1850Hz
S_{p1}	450Hz	1700Hz
S_{n1}	550Hz	1800Hz
S_{C1}	1000Hz	1900Hz
S_A	1300Hz	2000Hz

5.2.3. Switching and conduction losses

The PLECS® thermal tools are used to determine the total power losses (switching and conduction) in the different converters.

PLECS® models thermal structures and calculates switching and conduction losses in switches by means of lookup tables based on manufacturer information or experimental measurements.

For a fair comparison, the simulation is carried out with the active devices according to the needs in every topology (this is blocking voltage and current rating). For more details about the loss calculations, please refer to Appendix A.

Fig.5.13 shows the total power losses for the different output current values. It is possible to see that for 3-level topologies, the proposed converter has more power losses until $0,55I_{nom}$ output current; after this point, the proposed topology has fewer power losses. NPC and the T-type converter have similar power losses for low output current, and after $0,5I_{nom}$, 3L-RMC and NPC have comparable power losses.

Fig.5.13-(b) shows the total power losses for the 5-level topologies. The three topologies studied have almost the same power losses until $0,7I_{nom}$. After this operation point, the 5L-RMC has fewer power losses, and SMC has 30 % more power losses than ANPC and 5L-RMC.

Thus, the proposed topology has comparable power losses and depending on the output current, is more efficient than other multilevel converts.

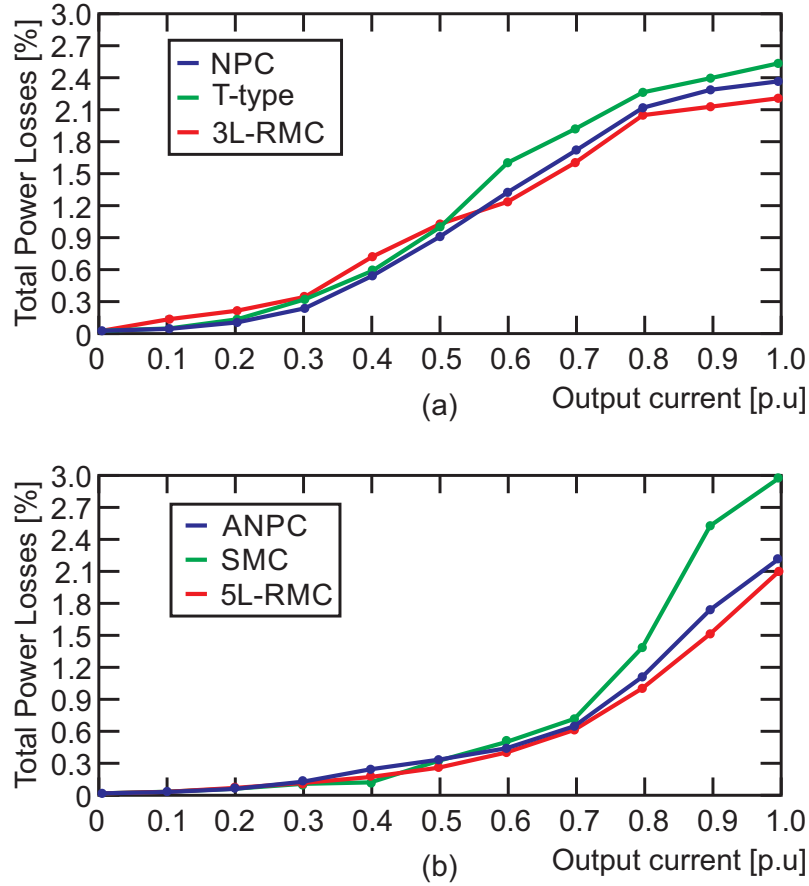


Figure 5.13. Switching and conduction power losses for: (a) 3-level topologies, (b) 5-level topologies.

5.2.4. Energy storage and size of the inner capacitors

The energy stored in the converter is given by:

$$\sum_{num. \text{ of capacitor}} \frac{1}{2} CV^2 \quad (5.6)$$

with C the capacitance value and V the voltage across the capacitor.

The capacitance value is calculated to have a determinate ripple in the inner voltage. The capacitance is calculated using the equation (5.7).

$$C = \frac{1}{\Delta_v} \hat{i} T_s \quad (5.7)$$

Here, T_s is the sampling period, \hat{i} the maximum current through the capacitor and Δ_v the voltage variation in the capacitor.

Table 5.7 shows the minimum capacitance in the different topologies to accomplish a maximum ripple of 5% (Δ_v) in all inner capacitors.

Table 5.7
CAPACITANCE SIZE

Topology	Capacitor	Capacitance [μ F]	Capacitor Voltage
ANPC	C_{1X}	171.4	$V_{DC}/4$
SMC	C_{1E1}	171.4	$V_{DC}/4$
	C_{1E2}	171.4	$V_{DC}/4$
RMC	C_1	171.4	$V_{DC}/4$
	C_2	85.7	$V_{DC}/2$
	C_3	57.1	$3V_{DC}/4$

Table 5.8 shows the total energy stored in the different topologies simulated. The energy stored in the converter has a direct relationship with the size of the inner capacitors. Thus, inner capacitors in RMC are not bigger than the inner capacitors in SMC.

Table 5.8
CAPACITANCE SIZE

Topology	Energy Stored [kWh]
NPC	0
T-type	0
3-level RMC	2.92
ANPC	2.19
SMC	4.38
5-level RMC	4.38

5.3. Comments

The RMC topology is similar in terms of behavior and structural characteristic to the standard and commercial topologies like NPC, ANPC and SMC.

However, RMC has fewer active components than these other topologies. Fig. 5.14 shows the different three-level topologies, and Fig. 5.15 shows the different five level topologies.

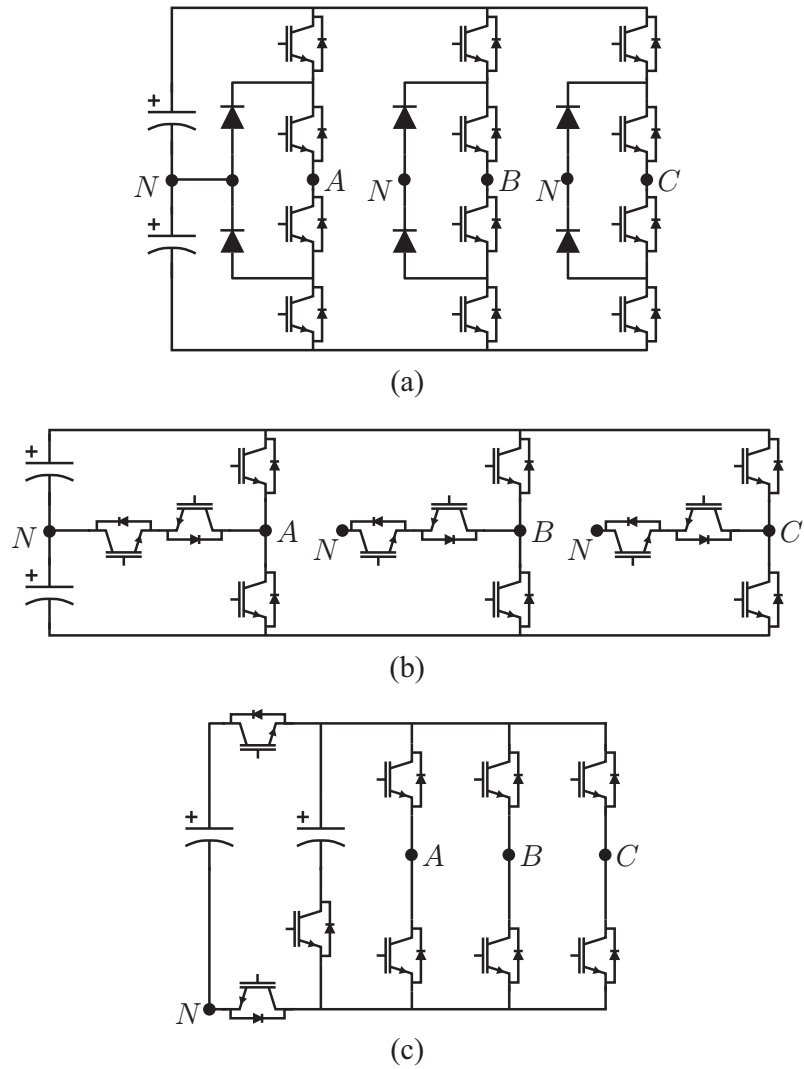


Figure 5.14. Three-level converters: (a) NPC; (b) T-type; (c) 3L-RMC.

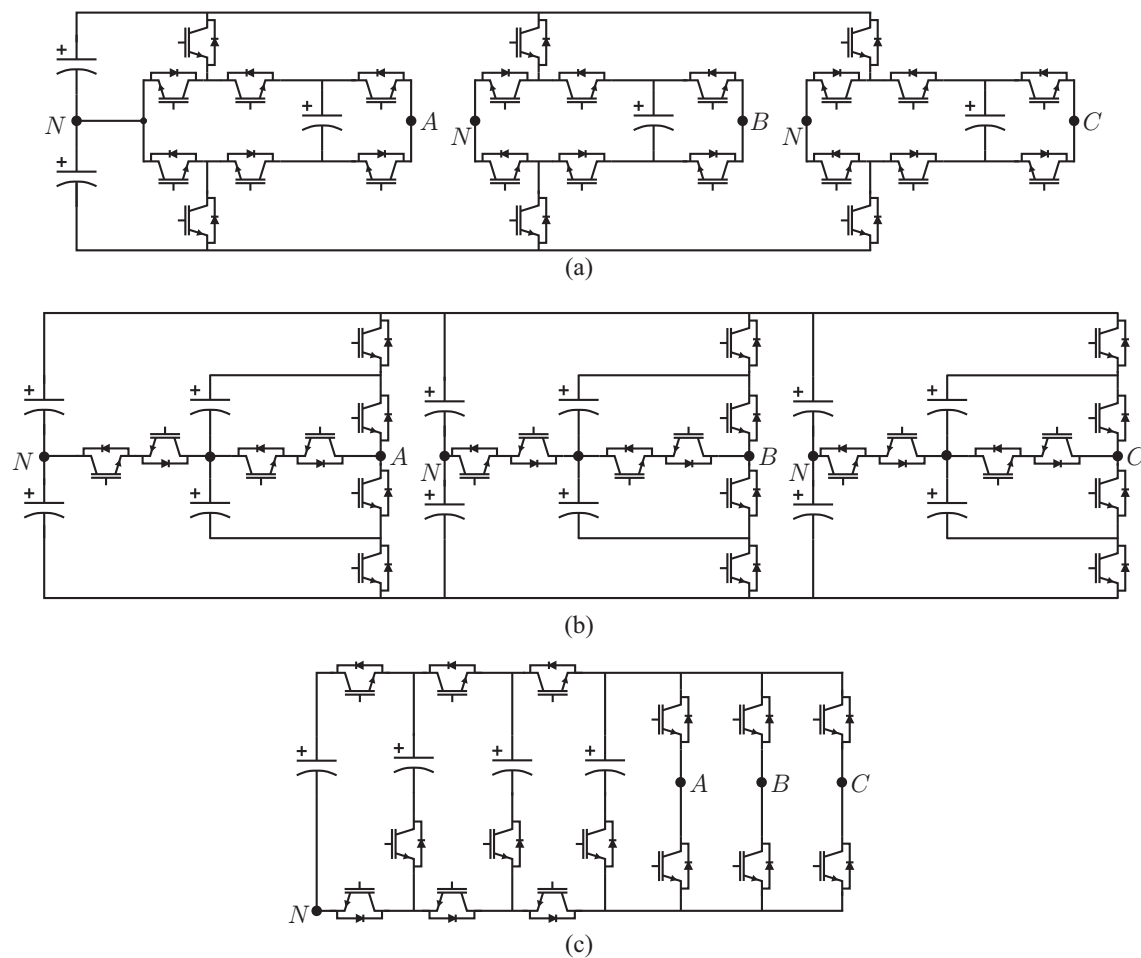


Figure 5.15. Five-level converters: (a) ANPC; (b) SMC; (c) 5L-RMC.

5.4. Back-to-Back RMC

An interesting configuration that RMC can easily achieve is the back-to-back, which consists of the connection of two converters, one as a AC-DC rectifier from the grid and the other as a DC-AC inverter to the load, both of which use the same *dc-link* capacitor.

For RMC, the back-to-back connection means only six additional output switches for the three additional output phases. To show how RMC works in this case, a back-to-back connection is simulated between the grid and an Induction Machine (IM), as shown in Fig. 5.16.

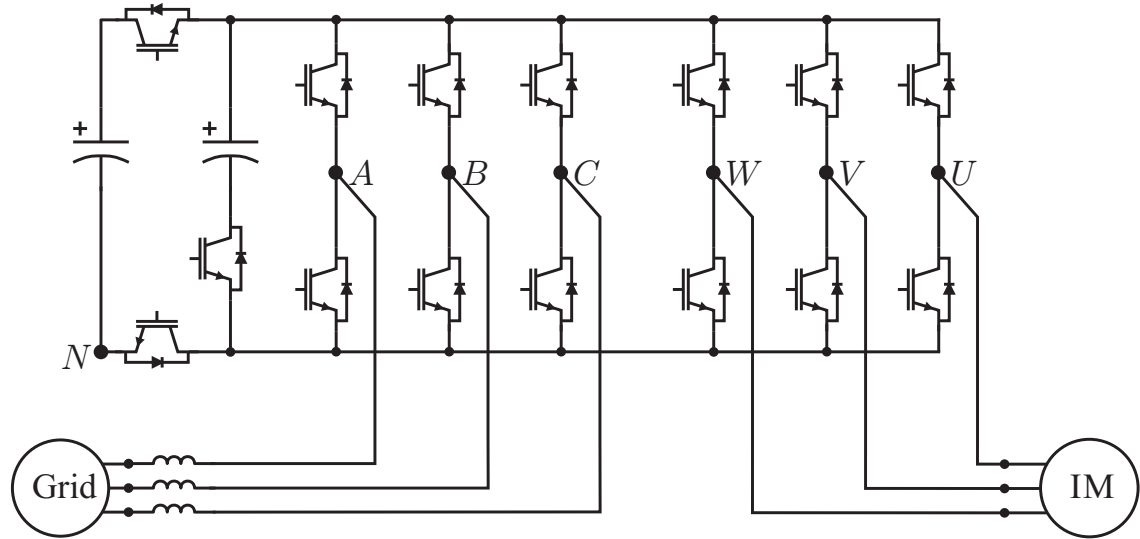


Figure 5.16. 3L-RMC back-to-back connection.

The control in the machine is a Torque-Flux control without a speed loop; it has a mechanical load of $T_{load} = T_{nom}$. The control in the grid is a power control. The cost function for FCS-MPC is:

$$g^{k+1} = \left(i_A^* - i_A^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_B^* - i_B^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(i_C^* - i_C^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_1 \left(v_{C1}^* - v_{C1}^{k+1}\right)^2 + \left(T^* - T^{k+1}\right)^2 + \lambda_2 \left(\psi^* - \psi^{k+1}\right)^2 \quad (5.8)$$

where $\lambda_1 = I_{nom}/v_{C1nom}$ and $\lambda_2 = T_{nom}/\Psi_{nom}$. The control strategy needs to evaluate 192 possible switching states. A linear controller (PI) is used to control the *dc-link* voltage:

$$C = 0,3397 \frac{(z - 0,93)}{(z - 1)} \quad (5.9)$$

The most relevant parameters of the machine and control are detailed in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9
SIMULATION PARAMETERS FOR THE BACK-TO-BACK CONNECTION

Parameter	Value
Voltage <i>dc-link</i>	700 V
Inductance grid filter	15 mH
Inner Capacitor	300 μ F
DC-link Capacitor	600 μ F
T_{nom}	50 N
P_{nom}	2.5 kW
Ψ_{nom}	0.71 Wb
L_m	170 mH
L_s	175 mH
L_r	175 mH
R_s	1.2 ω
R_r	1.0 ω
J	0.062 kgm^2
Sampling period	200 μ s

The system's response to a step in the Torque reference from $T^* = T_{nom}$ to $T^* = -T_{nom}$ is shown in Fig. 5.17 and in Fig. 5.18. In this case, a unitary power factor is set on the grid side; however, it is possible to set a different power factor. The active power reference for the grid goes from the control over the *dc-link* voltage and the reactive power reference is provided by the user.

In Fig. 5.17-(a), one can see that the control strategy achieves a sinusoidal input current with the unitary power factor (PF=1) in steady state. Additionally, the *dc-link* and inner capacitor voltage are controlled in the desired value with an acceptable minimum ripple, Fig. 5.17-(b). The *dc-link* voltage presents a perturbation only when the Torque step is made because the machine is in the regenerative zone and the *dc-link* controller has a low dynamic response. Finally, the output currents on the machine side, Fig. 5.17-(c) are sinusoidal without perturbations or low-frequency harmonics.

Fig. 5.18 shows the mechanical response of the system. It is possible to see that the FCS-MPC presents a zero-error in the torque and flux during steady state and achieves a fast response after the step in the torque reference value. The speed of the machine is not controlled, thus the results shown in Fig. 5.18-(c) are a consequence of only the torque and flux control of the machine.

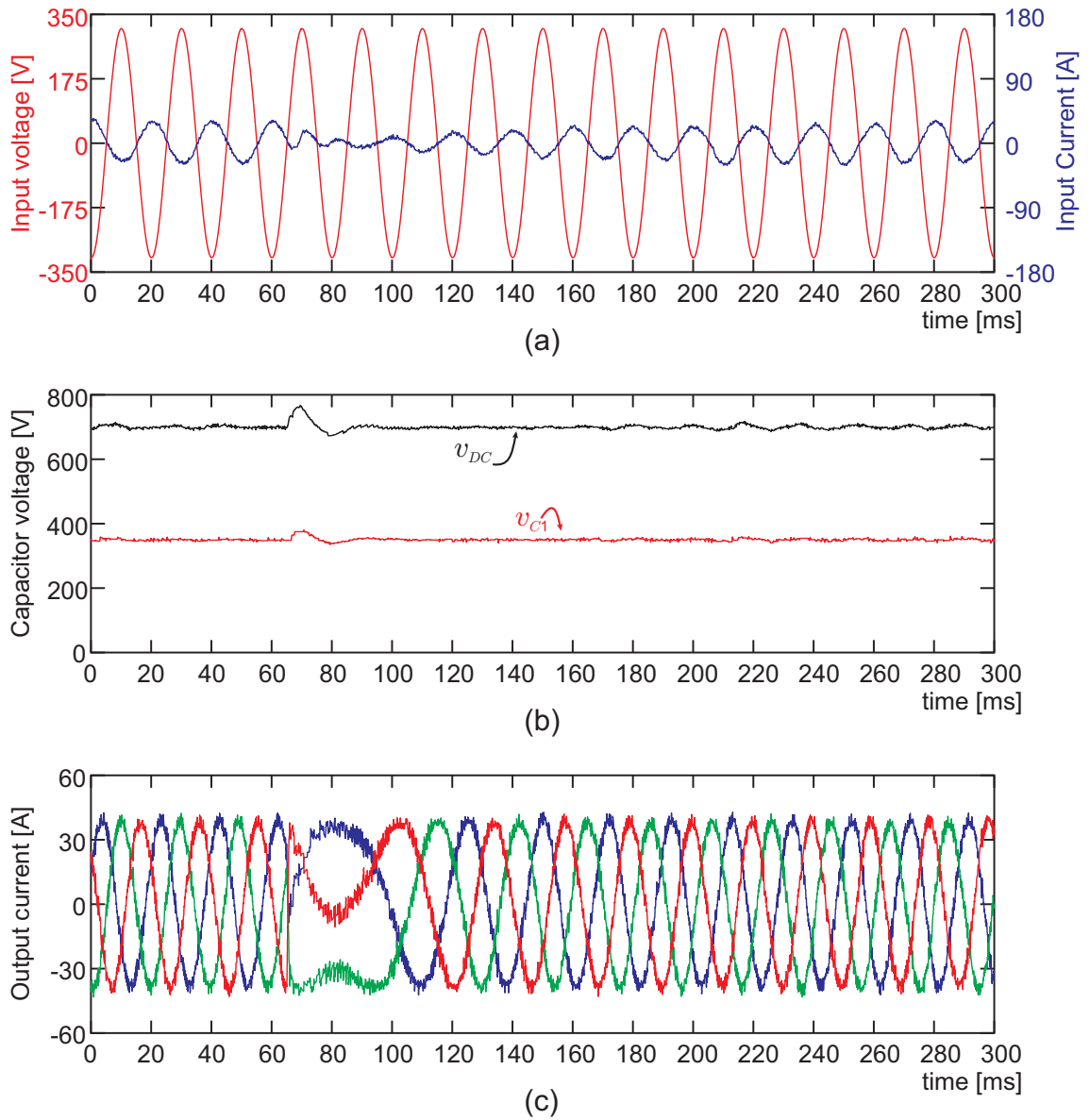


Figure 5.17. 3-level RMC back-to-back with a Torque step: (a) Grid side, voltage and current; (b) DC-link and inner capacitor voltages; (c) Machine output current.

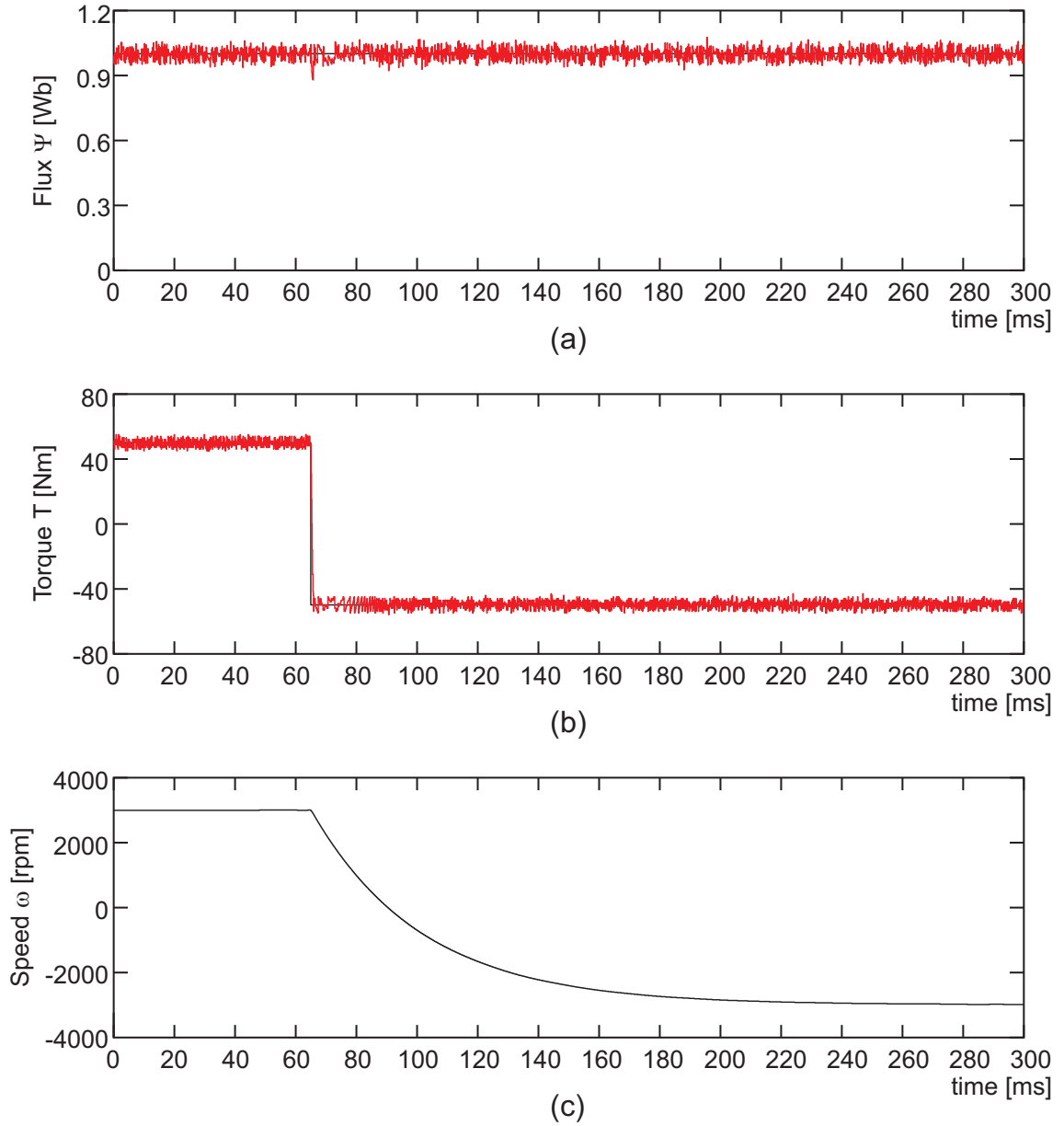


Figure 5.18. 3-level RMC back-to-back with a Torque step: (a) Flux; (b) Torque; (c) Speed.

Fig. 5.17 and Fig. 5.18 show that the back-to-back 3L-RMC works fine when a step in the machine side control is made. Now, the system's response to a step in the Reactive Power reference, from $Q^* = 0$ to $Q^* = -0,3P_{nom}$, is presented.

These results are shown in Fig. 5.19 and Fig. 5.20. In this case the PF changes from $PF = 0$ to $PF = 0,92$ capacitive.

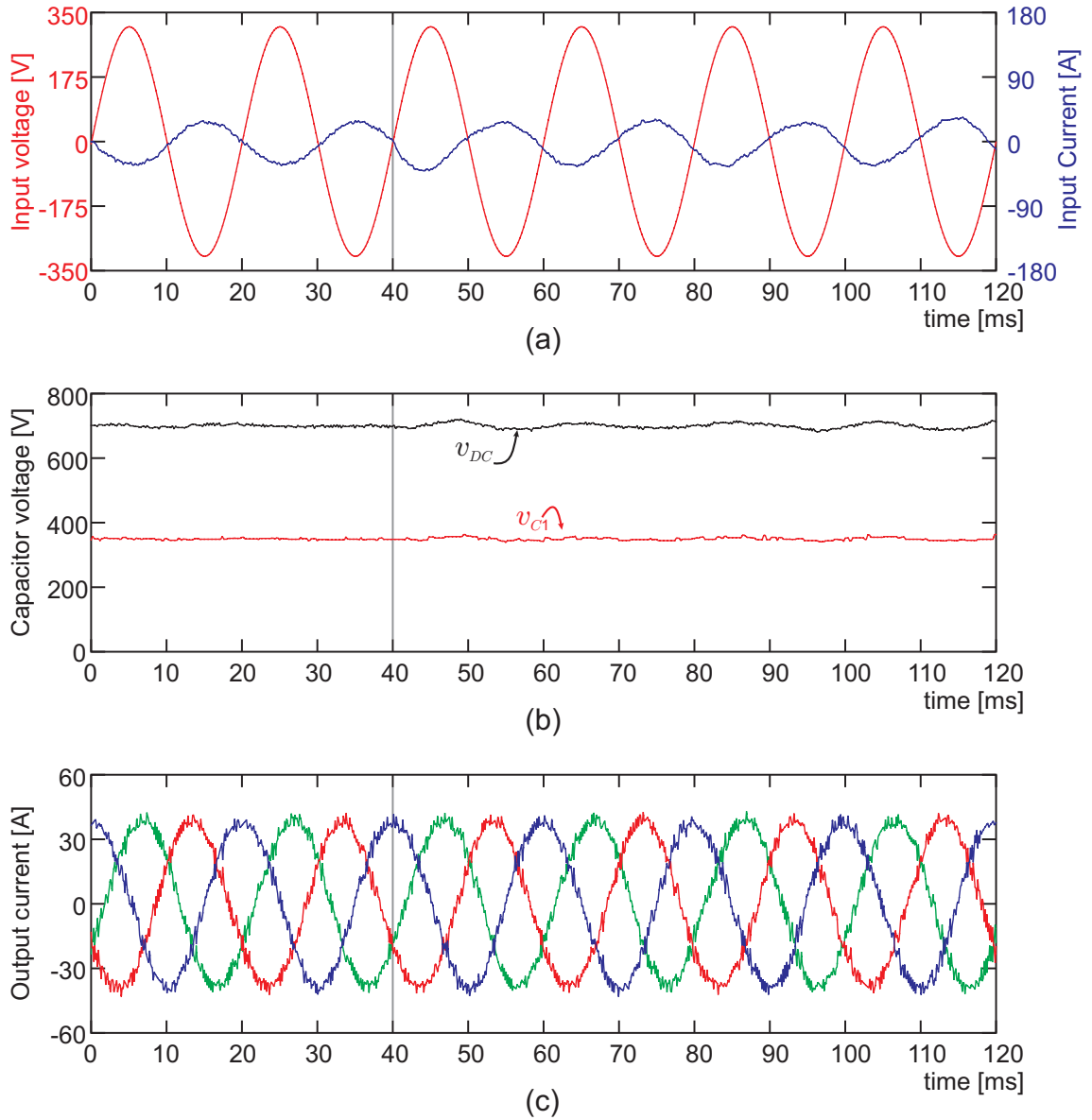


Figure 5.19. 3-level RMC back-to-back response to a Power step: (a) Grid side, voltage and current; (b) DC-link and inner capacitor voltages; (c) Machine output current.

Fig. 5.19 shows the system's electric variable when a power step is made at 40ms. It is possible to see that the step in the grid power does not influence the machine current (Fig. 5.19-(c)). However, after the power step, the *dc-link* voltage presents an oscillation of 1.4 % (Fig. 5.19-(b)). It is a small, insignificant oscillation, and it does not influence in inner voltage, where no appreciable oscillation appears. Finally, in Fig. 5.19-(a), it is possible to see the sinusoidal output current with a different phase after the power step.

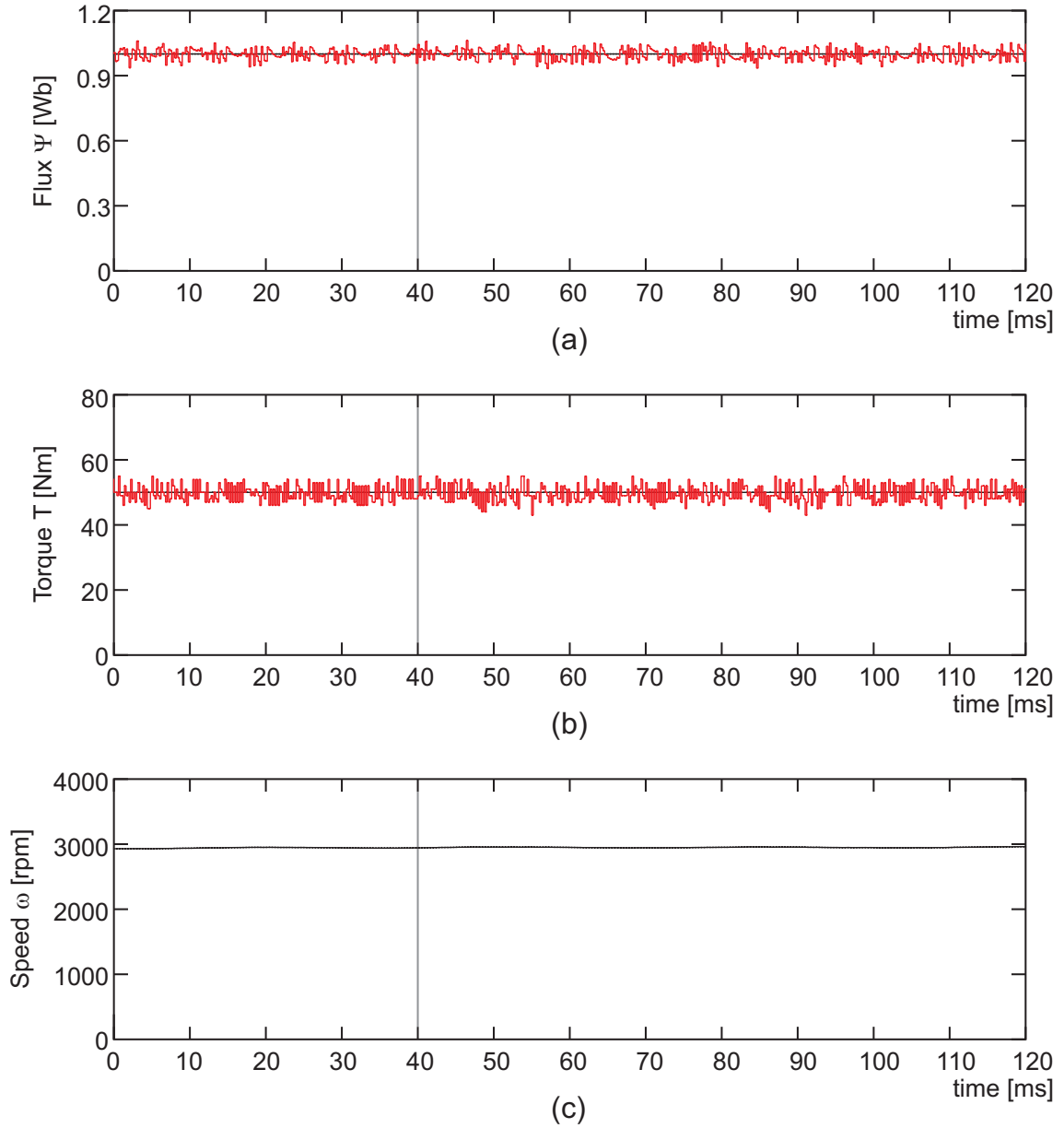


Figure 5.20. 3-level RMC back-to-back with a Power step: (a) Flux; (b) Torque; (c) Speed.

Like the machine current presented in Fig. 5.19-(c), the mechanical variables shown in Fig. 5.20 have no difference in their steady-state performance after the power step on the grid side. FCS-MPC controls the torque and flux with zero-error in steady-state and the power step causes no appreciable disturbance.

Chapter 6

Experimental Validation

To evaluate the performance of the proposed topology, several experiments were carried out in the laboratory. The proposed topology was evaluated in both dynamic and stationary state for a current reference of 50Hz. The controller was implemented on a Dspace MicroLabBox in which the maximum time required by the control platform to execute the control code is $56,4\mu s$. The most relevant parameters of the test-bench and controller are detailed in Table 6.1. For more details about the test bench, please refer to appendix B.

Table 6.1
TEST BENCH PARAMETERS.

Parameter	Value
Voltage <i>dc-link</i>	400 V
Load Resistance	16 Ω
Load Inductance	30 mH
Inner Capacitors	330 μF
Sampling period	100 μs

6.1. Steady State Behavior

The purpose of this test is to assess the performance of the system once steady state has been reached for output current references of $75,8\%I_{nom}$ and $37,9\%I_{nom}$.

The frequency spectrum of the current in phase A, the output voltage (v_{AN}), the total harmonic distortion of these variables and the ripple in inner capacitor voltages shall be analyzed.

Fig. 6.1 and Fig. 6.2 show the steady state performance of the converter with different output current references. The FCS-MPC algorithm can properly perform all control tasks, achieving sinusoidal three-phase output current and ensuring balanced inner voltages. The control results in five output levels in all phases.

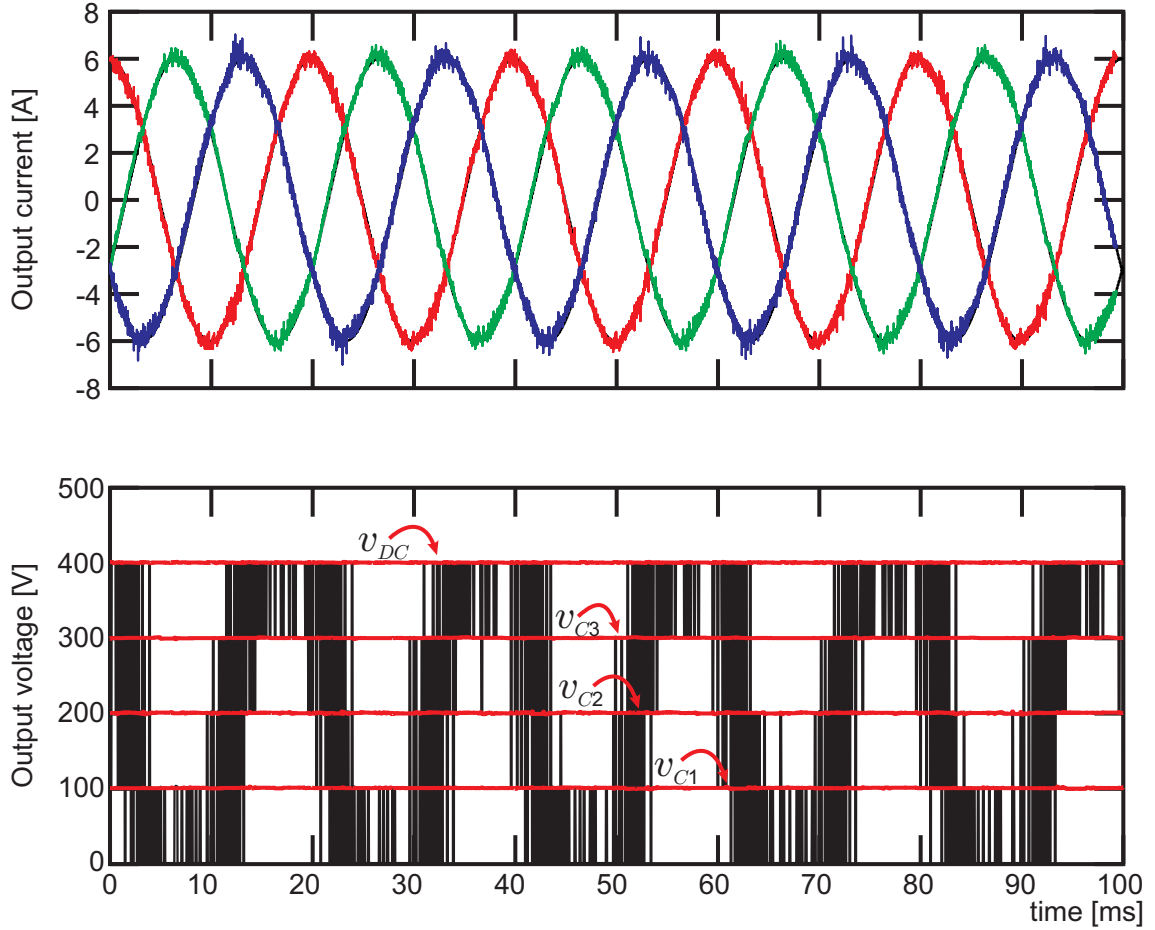


Figure 6.1. Output current, output voltage v_{AN} and capacitor voltage with $i^* = 6\sin(\omega t)A$.

In the experimental results shown in Fig. 6.1 and Fig. 6.2 one can see that the 5L-RMC generates an output voltage (V_{AN}) with five levels in both low and high reference currents.

For a low reference current, shown in Fig. 6.2, one observes a higher ripple in the current (1,4% of the reference current), but for a high reference current this ripple is 0,8% of the reference current. The change in the size of the current ripple is a consequence of the control strategy. FCS-MPC has the width of the switching signals limited to the sampling period, i.e. a finite possibility instead of a variable width as in PWM modulations, and consequently, FCS-MPC has a higher ripple for low reference values. Nevertheless, in the case of the RMC, this effect is also a consequence of the lower number of possible switching states in the converter because to achieve the desired inner voltage, the RMC will commute between higher output voltages (using all five levels).

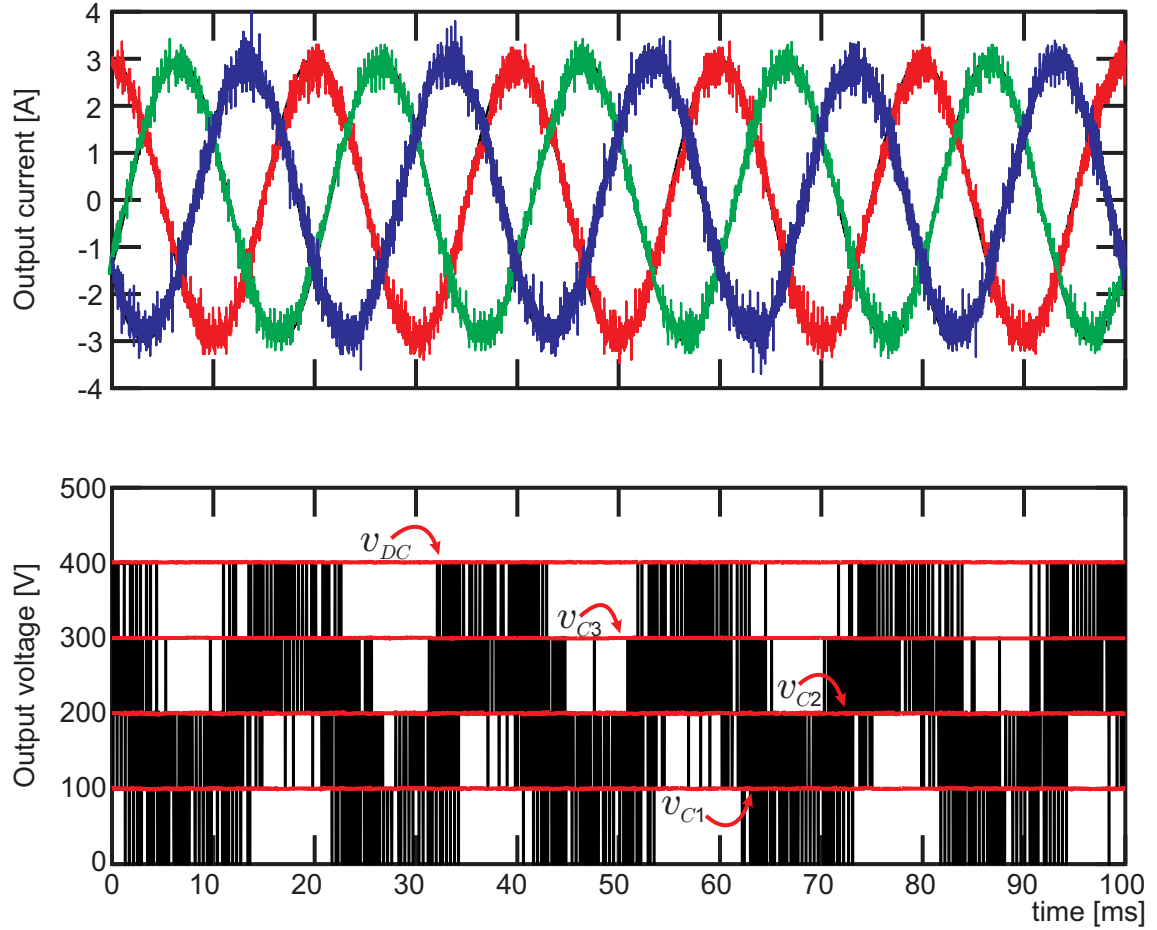


Figure 6.2. Output current, output voltage (v_{AN}) and capacitor voltage with $i^* = 3\sin(\omega t)A$.

Fig. 6.3 and Fig. 6.4 show the converter's inner capacitor voltages. Considering the capacitance of the flying capacitors, the maximum ripple is 2,27 % for C_1 , 1,14 % for C_2 and 0,76 % for C_3 with $\hat{i} = 6A$ and 1,13 % for C_1 , 0,57 % for C_2 and 0,38 % for C_3 with $\hat{i} = 3A$. However, by using weighting factors, the FCS-MPC strategy ensures an equal maximum voltage ripple for the three capacitor voltages independent of the output current.

In the case of low output current shown in Fig. 6.2, FCS-MPC chooses output vectors with a greater influence on the inner capacitors voltages, specifically in C_1 and C_2 , because it is necessary to commute more often between 100V, 200V, and 300V to comply with the output current requirements.

The 5L-RMC produces an output voltage with 45.5 % total harmonic distortion (THD) for high reference values, whereas for low reference values this value is 50.8 %. Fig. 6.5 and Fig. 6.6 show the output current i_A spectrum and output voltage, V_{AN} , spectrum for both operation points.

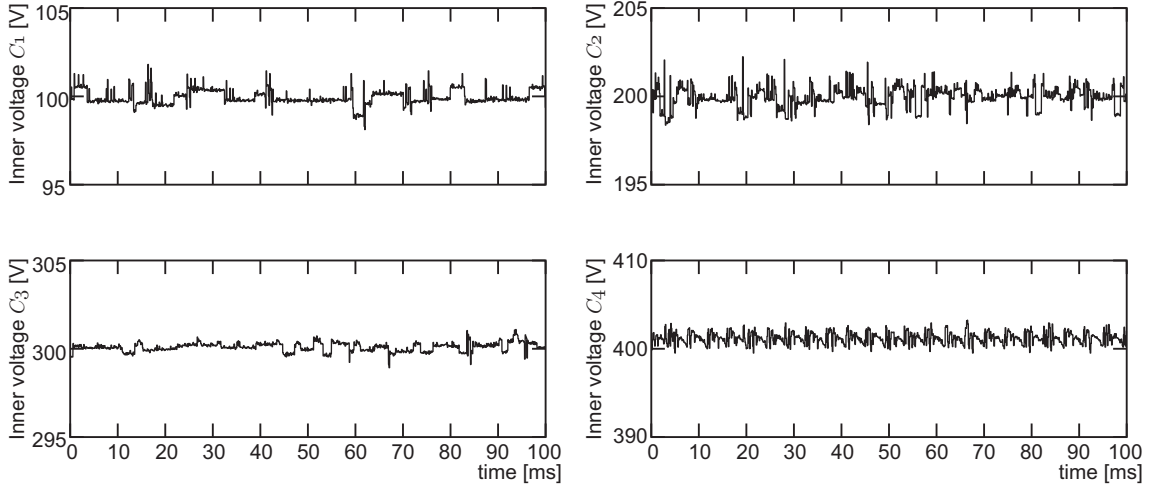


Figure 6.3. Inner capacitor voltages for $i^* = 6\sin(\omega t)A$.

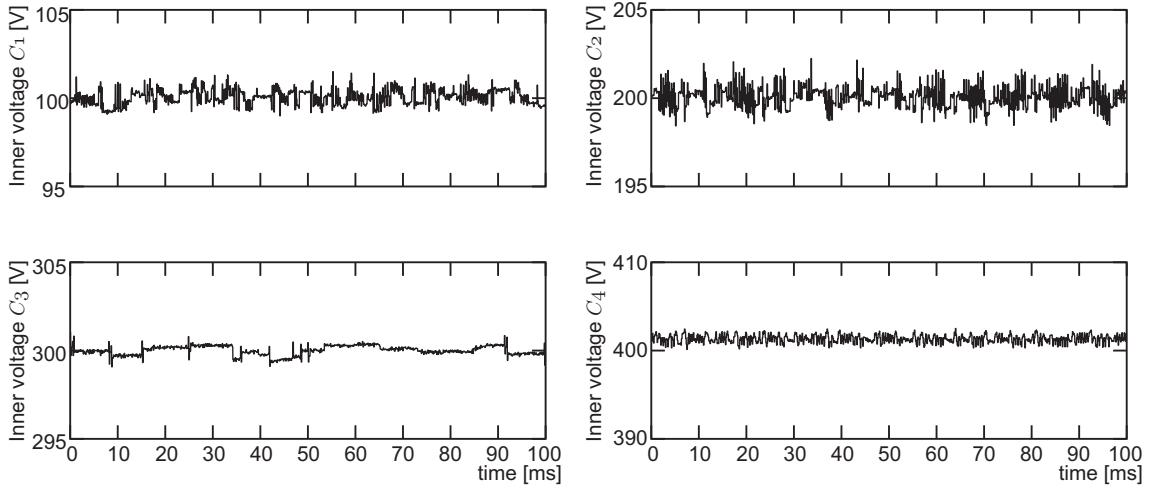


Figure 6.4. Inner capacitor voltages for $i^* = 3\sin(\omega t)A$.

The sampling frequency of the FCS-MPC strategy is 10kHz, but the mean switching frequency is 5kHz. The Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) for the output current is 4,45 % for $\hat{i}_A = 6A$ and 8,41 % for $\hat{i}_A = 3A$. It is possible to see that the THD increases and the spectrum changes significantly with the value of the reference.

The output current spectrum and output voltage spectrum shown in Fig. 6.5 and Fig. 6.6 are widely spread. However, the output voltage spectrum has a high concentration around the switching frequency (5kHz), which is clearer in Fig. 6.6, where even the output current spectrum presents a higher concentration around the 5kHz. However, it is possible to see that the output current spectrum presents an important number of low-frequency harmonics with a significant value (higher than the harmonic around 5kHz); these harmonics can produce resonant problems in the system and as they are widely spread, it is not easy to filter them.

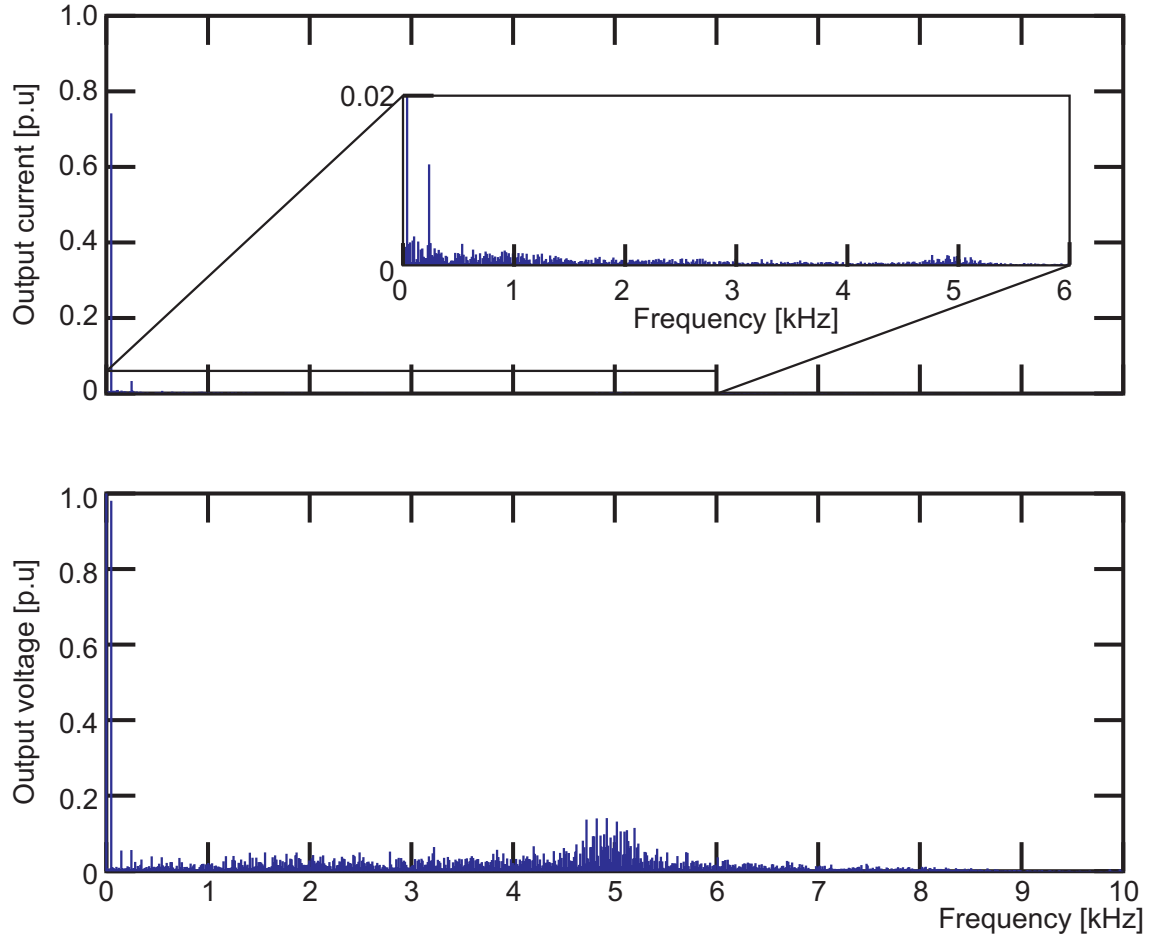


Figure 6.5. Output current and output voltage, v_{AN} , harmonic spectrum for $i^* = 6\sin(\omega t)A$.

Finally, Fig. 6.7 shows the output current in phase A and the blocking voltage in the power switch S_9 ; this is the power switch in series with the capacitor in the main cell 1. In one period of the main variable, the switch S_{C1} needs to block different voltage levels. In Fig. 6.7, the different levels of the inner capacitors are indicated as a reference. As was shown in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.1, Table 3.6, switch S_{C1} sometimes needs to block $3V_{DC}/4$.

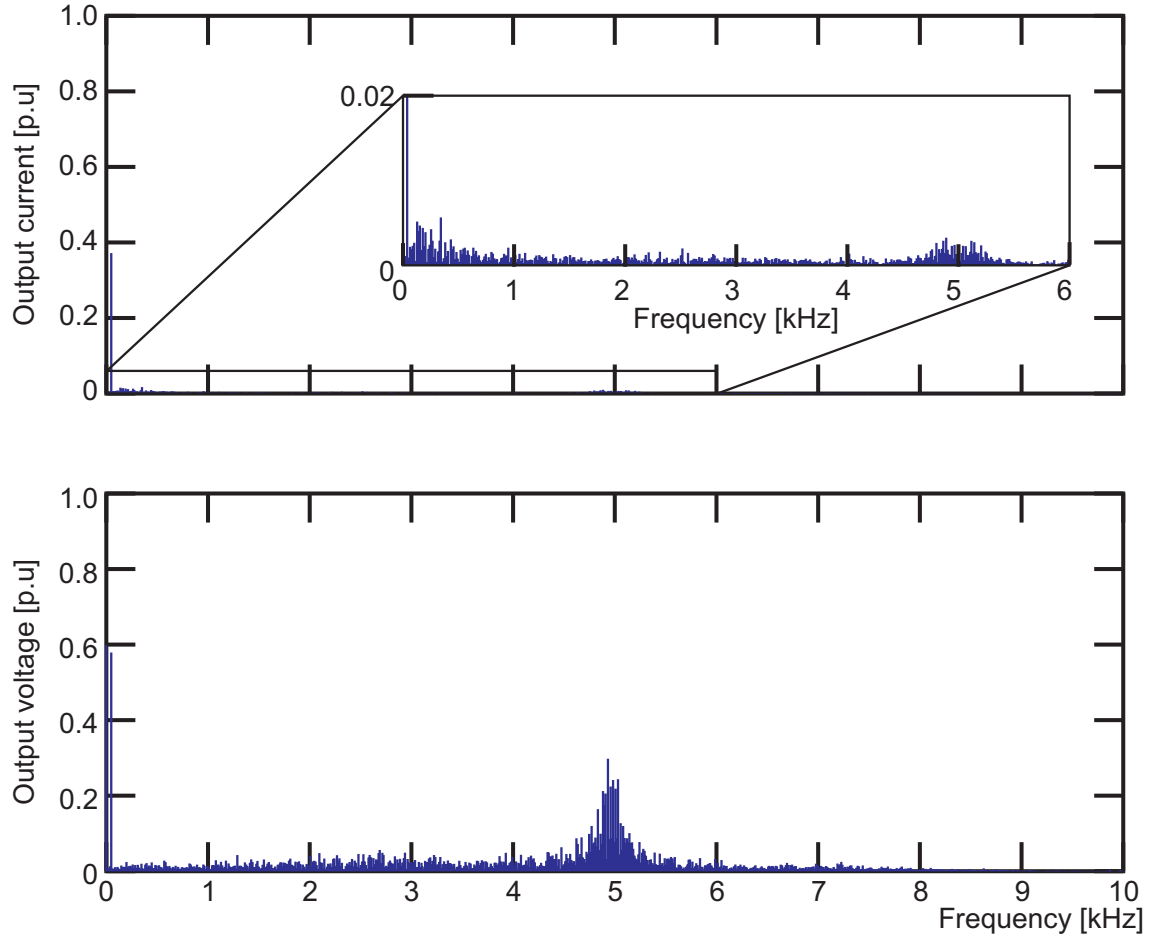


Figure 6.6. Output current and output voltage, v_{AN} , harmonic spectrum for $i^* = 3\sin(\omega t)A$.

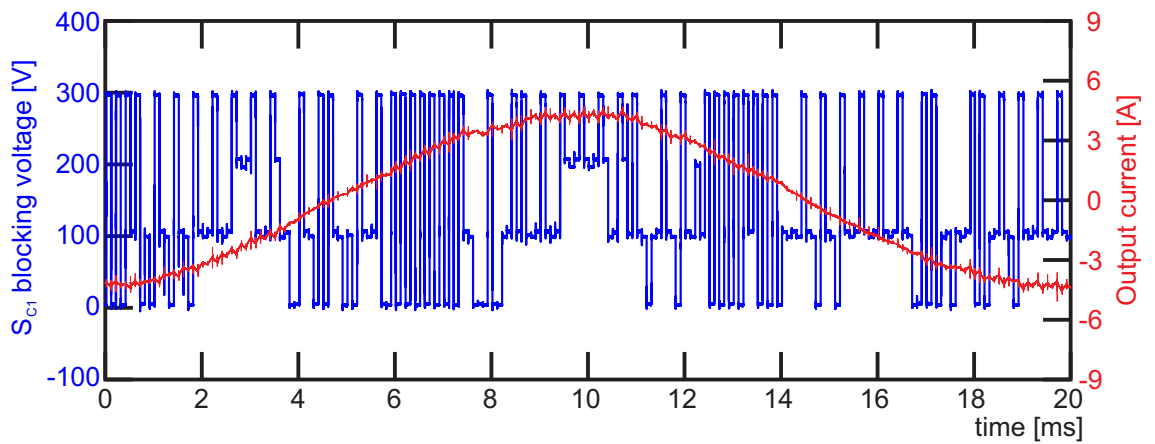


Figure 6.7. Output current and blocking voltage in power switch S_{C1} .

6.2. Dynamic Response

The purpose of this test is to demonstrate the behavior of the system in the presence of a variation in current reference values, bringing the system to a new steady-state working point.

A quite demanding step has been established for this test. This is done with the purpose of verifying that the implemented control is able to achieve a performance in line with the specifications required, regardless of the disturbances to which it is exposed. Therefore, the step performed not only changes the reference signal's magnitude, but also causes a phase change corresponding to a displacement of 180° .

Fig. 6.8 shows an enlargement of the inner capacitor voltages during the step. In this more detailed picture, it is possible to check the fast response of FCS-MPC and the null disturbance in the inner capacitors' voltages during the dynamic step. The voltage in capacitor C_4 represents the voltage in the DC power supply; in this case, the extra energy generated during the dynamic step results in a disturbance in the dc-link voltage.

Fig. 6.9 shows the converter's performance during a dynamic step in the current reference. The control strategy ensures a correctly balanced voltage in the flying capacitors and a sinusoidal output current even during the transient time. In this case, FCS-MPC's variables achieve a fast response, always ensuring a well balanced inner voltage. It takes only 2.2ms (11 % of the fundamental period) to achieve the new steady-state operation point.

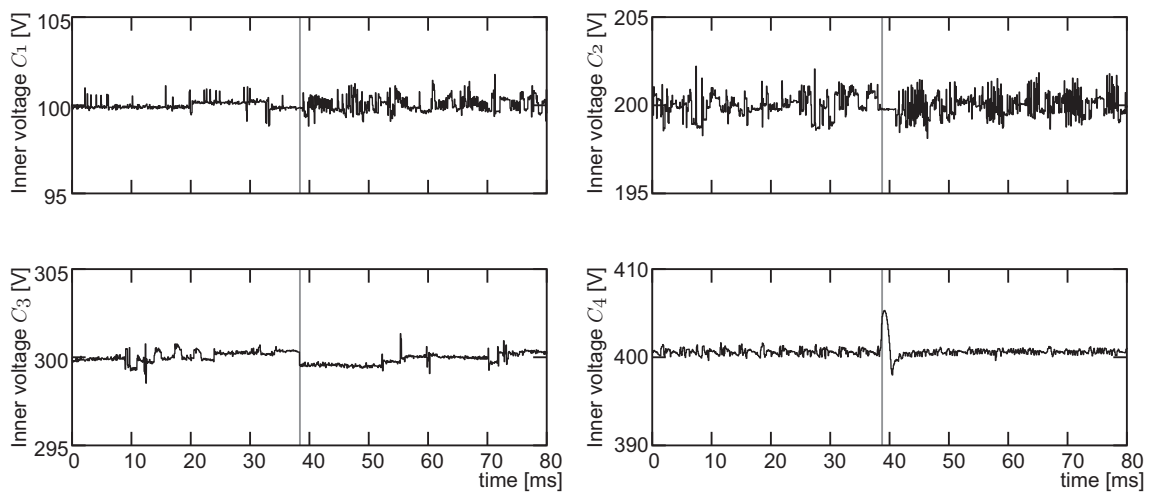


Figure 6.8. *Inner capacitor voltages.*

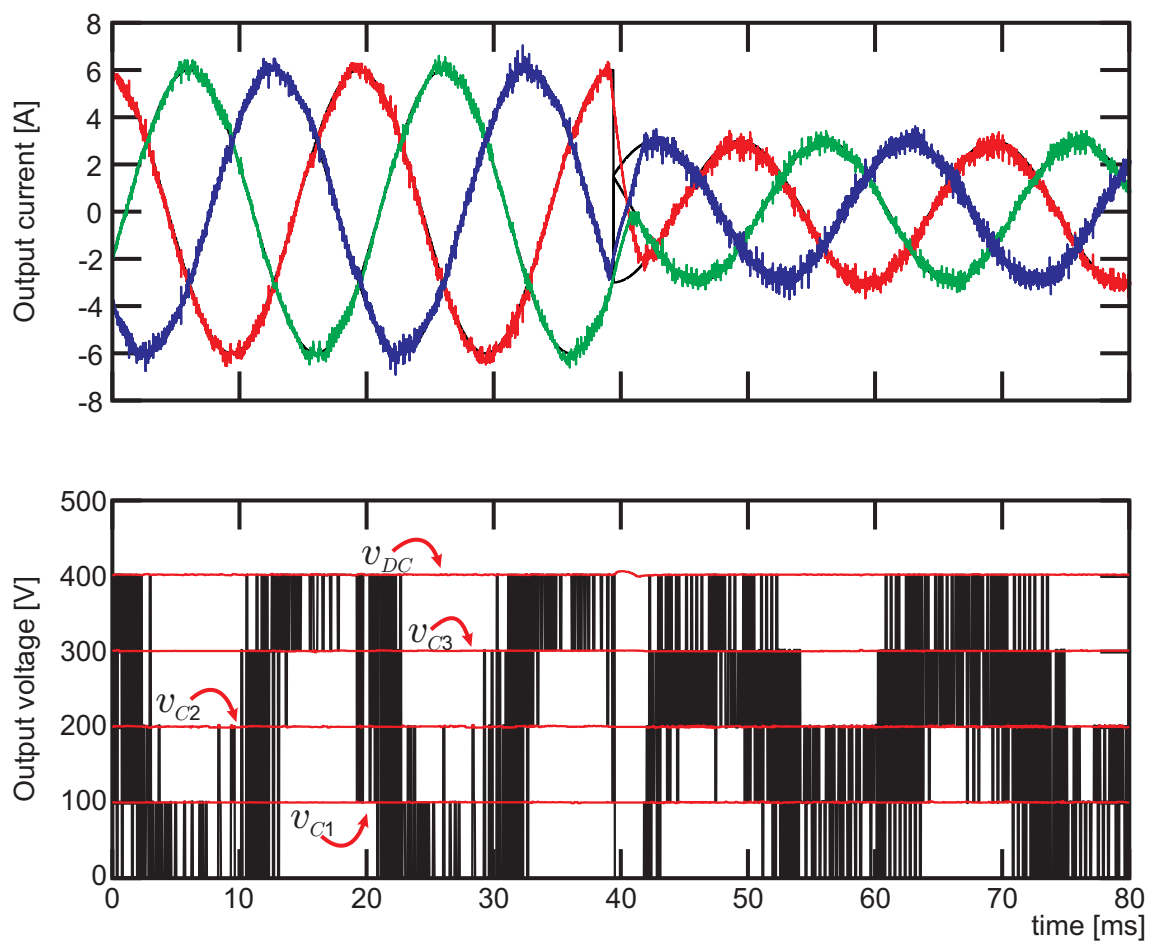


Figure 6.9. Output current, output voltage and capacitor voltage after a current step.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Future Outlook

This dissertation has proposed a concept for a new multilevel converter topology based on a novel switched DC-cell and variable dc-link operation. The proposed topology is called RMC and can be split into two stages: the DC-DC multilevel converter, which is the main contribution of the proposed topology, and the DC-AC output inverter. The RMC can achieve the same number of output voltage levels as existing multilevel topologies with a fraction of the active switching devices and capacitors because the variable dc-link is shared by all of the inverter's output phases.

In this dissertation, an RMC with a 2L-VSI in the DC-AC output inverter was analyzed. However, it is possible to choose a different DC-AC output inverter, the only condition to change it is to use an inverter with a single DC-bus such as the NPC, ANPC, T-type, FCC, or SMC.

Using a different DC-AC output inverter, RMC will have more possible switching states, which improves the controller's performance and could relax the constraint of the blocking voltages in the power switches.

The main control challenge of the topology is to control of the DC-cell capacitor voltages so as to generate the total desired number of output levels. Due to the switched DC-cell capacitors, there it is not straightforward way to implement a carrier based PWM scheme. This is further complicated by increasing the number of output voltage levels due to the fact that there are not enough possible switching states and redundant states to achieve a balanced inner voltage using pulse width modulation. For this reason, FCS-MPC was used to verify the new converter's performance.

At first glance, the maximum device blocking voltage is the main disadvantage of this topology. However, this is imposed by the selected inverter output stage, which in the case analyzed in this dissertation is a 2L-VSI. This limitation prevents the use of this topology in medium voltage applications. Nevertheless, due to their power quality, multilevel converters have now been used extensively in low voltage applications such as PV inverters, UPS systems and wind power conversion systems (all below 690 V) making this topology interesting for further analysis.

In Chapter 5, an analysis of the proposed topology and a comparison with other topologies for 3-level and 5-level converters were presented. The results showed that the proposed topology has a comparable performance in the system variables with the ot-

her multilevel converters and achieves sinusoidal output currents, the desired number of output levels in the voltage, balanced inner voltages, similar THD and spectrum.

In addition, considering the components of the topologies, it was shown in Chapter 5 that the proposed topology has a switching frequency that is comparable to those of other multilevel topologies, but it has fewer power losses. Further, it was demonstrated that the size of its inner capacitors are comparable to those of the SMC topology. However, the main problem with the proposed topology is the blocking voltage of the output stage power switches, which needs to block the full *dc-link*.

Chapter 5 also presented a back-to-back connection of the 3L-RMC, with controls the Torque and Flux in an induction machine, the current in the grid side and the inner voltage in the converter, *dc-link* voltage and flying capacitor voltage. The results presented show that the back-to-back topology works and it is possible to control the machine side and the grid side with a unique cost function for FCS-MPC.

A laboratory prototype has been built using three shared DC-cells and a three-phase 2L-VSI as the inverter output stage. Experimental results show that the DC-cell capacitors can be balanced and controlled accurately while achieving sinusoidal output currents and a five-level output voltage waveform.

A comprehensive study to determine the most suitable applications for this topology, as well as evaluations with different output inverter stages (NPC, ANPC, etc.), which could lead to medium voltage operation, is a matter for future research.

Other unresolved problems include the development of a carrier-based PWM or space vector modulation strategy for the converter and more sophisticated FCS-MPC techniques using fixed switching frequency and dv/dt reduction.

Appendix A

Calculation of losses

To determine the total power losses (switching and conduction) in the different converters, the thermal tools of PLECS[®] are used, as shown in Fig. A.1.

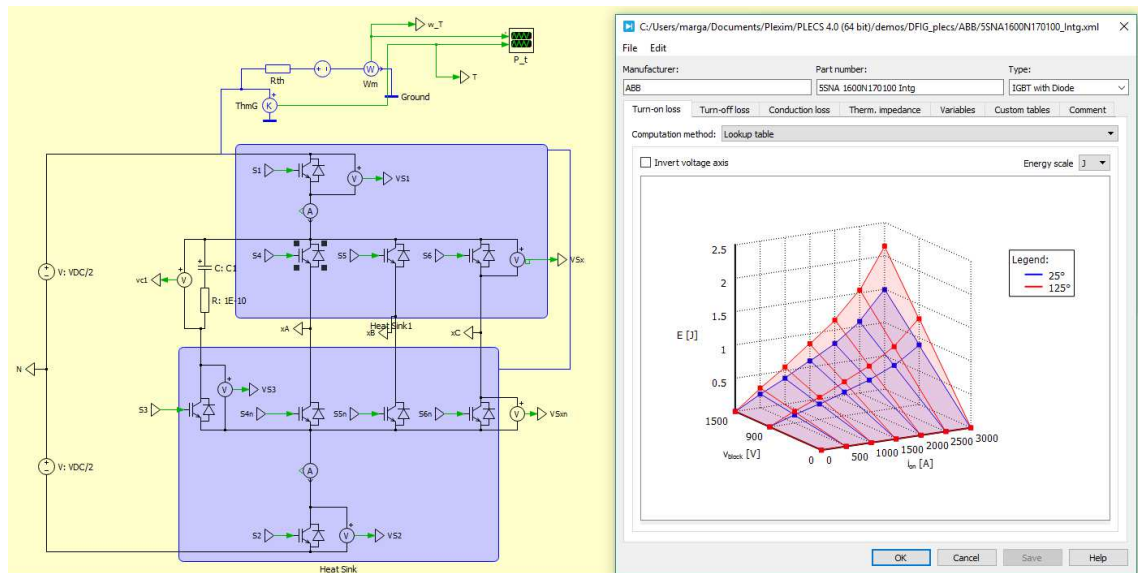


Figure A.1. PLECS[®] simulation to calculate the converter's total losses.

For a fair comparison, the simulation is carried out with the active devices according to the needs in every topology (that is, blocking voltage and current rating). The list of commercial devices used in this simulation is shown in Table A.1.

Table A.1
DEVICES SELECTED

Device name	Cont. Current	Voltage
IRGP4072DPBF	40A	300V
IRG4PC40UDPBF	40A	600V
IRG4PF50WDPBF	30A	900V
IKW40N120H3FKSA1	40A	1200V

Appendix B

Test Bench

The test bench used was built in the Chair of Power Electronics' laboratory at Technische Universität Berlin. It includes the power electronic converter and the real-time control system.

Three kW prototypes of the proposed multilevel topology were built. The designed converter prototype is shown in Fig. B.1. Area (1) corresponds to the dc-link capacitors, area (2) shows the three DC-cells of the converter and area (3) shows the variable dc-link bus connection between the DC-cells and the output inverter stage. Finally, area (4) shows the 2L-VSI.

The power switches used in this prototype are Insulated Gate Bipolar Transistors (IGBTs) with a freewheeling diode from the ON Semiconductor, NGTB30N120IHSWG, with a 30A maximum collector current and a 1200V blocking voltage. The capacitance of the flying capacitor in all DC-cells is $330\mu\text{F}$.

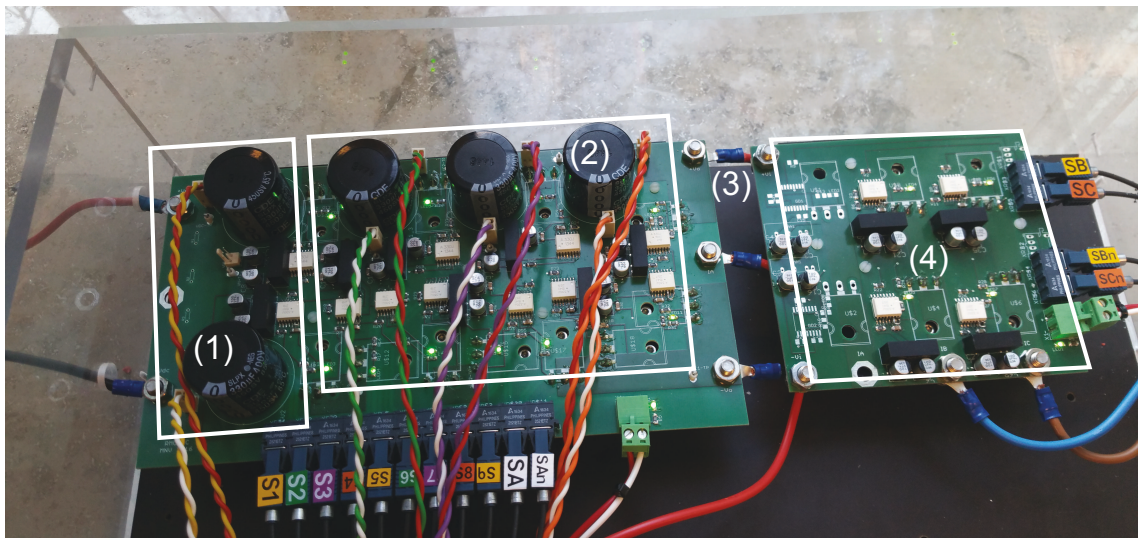


Figure B.1. RMC prototype: (1) dc-link capacitors; (2) DC-cells; (3) Variable dc-link; (4) 2L-VSI.

The micro-controller platform used is the MicroLabBox from Dspace. This platform

has the following characteristics used in this dissertation: (a) Real-time 2 GHz processor; (b) Programmable FPGA; (c) Analog input 16-bit, -10V .. 10V ; and (d) Digital output 5V, 10ns resolution.

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