Real-Time Simulation of Electric Vehicle Battery Charging Systems

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Abstract—The sale of electric vehicles (EVs) is rapidly increasing around the world due to EVs' efficiency and energy security. Charging systems play a vital role in electric vehicle. Charging systems can be categorized into three levels according to Society of Automatic Engineers (SAE). This paper presents the topologies of three types of charging systems. The charging systems are simulated in RT-Lab real-time simulator. The input ac for Level 1 and Level 2 charging systems is single-phase. The charging system consists of a diode bridge rectifier, a power factor correction (PFC) boost circuit, a DC/AC converter, an LLC resonant converter, a high frequency transformer, and a diode bridge rectifier. Constant current/constant voltage (CC/CV) control is employed for the DC/AC converter. The Level 3 charging system uses a three-phase source as input and its bi-directional converter is equipped with reactive power and DC bus voltage control. Three testbeds are setup to simulate the three types of charging systems with different charging power levels. A 10 kW-battery will be charged. Simulation results demonstrate the expected charging performance of the charging systems.

Index Terms—Electric vehicle battery charging, CC/CV control, RT-Lab simulation

I. INTRODUCTION

Governments and organizations around the world are taking various efforts to address green house gas emissions associated with fossil fuel burning. Transportation is one among these efforts. According to the Department of Energy, internal combustion engines (ICE) account for 15% of total fossil fuel consumption. However, ICEs show low efficiency and emit carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxides and other poisonous gases. Plug-in electric vehicle (PEV) and electric vehicle (EV) are promising approaches to achieve these goals. They use electricity as the major energy source and are able to reduce green house gas emission and fossil fuel usage significantly [1], [2]. Compared with ICE, PEV and EV offer much higher efficiency and more cost benefits [3]. For example, EVs spend 2 cents per mile while ICE vehicles spend 12 cents per mile [4]. Thanks to these benefits, PEV and EV sale hit a record in 2016, with 750,000 sold worldwide and 40% growth rate compared with the previous year according to the Global EV Outlook 2017 [5]. In this paper, both EVs and PEVs are referred as EVs.

Battery plays a vital role and consists of one-third cost in an EV. The battery capacity range usually is 5 kWh to 50 kWh. An EV can be charged at home, workplace or a dedicated station. A charger is necessary because the grid is alternative current (AC)-based while a battery requires direct current (DC) voltage. Thus the charger consists of AC/DC converters.

According to SAE’s EV charging standard, there are three levels of charging based on power ratings. The charging levels are summarized in Table I [6]. Level 1 charging is slow charging and uses convenience household outlet of 120 V. The estimated charging time is about 12 hours. Level 2 is the primary charging method for private and public. The charging voltage is 240 V AC and the charging current is up to 80 A [7]. Level 3 is fast charging with over 20 kW power level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charging Level</th>
<th>Supply Voltage</th>
<th>Charging Current</th>
<th>Rating Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>120 V, single-phase</td>
<td>up to 16 A</td>
<td>up to 1.92 kW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>240 V, single-phase</td>
<td>up to 60 A</td>
<td>up to 14.4 kW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>Not finalized, 3-phase</td>
<td>Not finalized</td>
<td>over 20 kW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this paper, the three types charging systems are designed and simulated in RT-Lab. This paper is organized as follows. The single-phase chargers for Level 1 and Level 2 are presented in Section II. Topology and controls are analyzed in this section. Section III presents a three-phase charger suitable for Level 3 charging. Section IV provides RT-Lab based simulation results. Section V concludes the paper.

II. LEVEL 1 AND LEVEL 2 CHARGING SYSTEMS

A single-phase AC input is used for both Level 1 and Level 2 charging. The charging circuit includes a diode rectifier, followed by a PFC boost DC/DC converter, and a dual bridge DC/DC converter. The dual bridge DC/DC converter consists of a full bridge DC/AC converter, an LLC resonant converter, a high frequency transformer, and a diode-bridge rectifier. The circuit is shown in Fig. 1. Dual bridge DC/DC converters have been adopted due to its capability of avoiding deadtime and reducing current ripples [8]. A similar topology has been presented in [9]. In this paper, we also adopt LLC resonant converter in the dual bridge DC/DC converter. The LLC resonant converter ensures a near sinusoidal waveform [10].

The PFC boost circuit aims to keep a unity power factor for the power consumption and regulate the output voltage...
\( V_{DC} \). CC/CV battery charging control algorithm is implemented through the DC/AC converter control. The topology and control strategies will be analyzed as follows.

### A. Battery model

The battery system is a central element of an EV. This element releases storage energy to supply a working EV. In order to ensure an efficient management of battery state-of-charge (SOC) and predict both runtime and I-V performance, a detailed simulation model is needed. The battery model presented in MATLAB/SimPowerSystems library is adopted for this project.

According to [11], there are three categories of battery models: experimental, electrochemical, and electric circuit-based model. The electrochemical model is complex and time-consuming due to its time-varying partial differential equations [12]. The experimental and electrochemical models need high computation ability to solve partial differential equations. The electric circuit model is the most intuitive for simulation. In this paper, a lithium-ion (Li-ion) battery is used and its electric circuit model is adopted for simulation. The model is shown in Fig. 2 [13].

\[
\begin{align*}
E_{\text{charge}} &= f_1(it, i^*) \\
E_{\text{discharge}} &= f_2(it, i^*)
\end{align*}
\]

where \( f_1(it, i^*) \) is for charging and \( f_2(it, i^*) \) for discharging. \( f_1(it, i^*) \) and \( f_2(it, i^*) \) are defined as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
f_1(it, i^*) &= E_0 - K \frac{Q}{it} \cdot i^* - K \frac{Q}{it} \cdot it + Ae^{-B \cdot it} \\
f_2(it, i^*) &= E_0 - K \frac{Q}{Q_{it=0.1}} \cdot i^* - K \frac{Q}{Q_{it=0.1}} \cdot it + Ae^{-B \cdot it}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( E_0 \) is constant voltage, \( K \) is polarization constant in Ah\(^{-1}\) or in \( \Omega \), \( it \) is extracted capacity, \( i^* \) is filtered current with only slow dynamics and \( i \) is battery current, \( A \) is exponential zone amplitude, \( B \) is the exponential capacity, and \( Q \) is the maximum capacity.

In this paper, the parameters are from MATLAB/SimPowerSystems and are shown in TABLE II.

### TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal Voltage</td>
<td>250 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated capacity</td>
<td>45 Ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant voltage ( E_0 )</td>
<td>325 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarization resistance ( K )</td>
<td>0.042 ( \Omega ) or Ah(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum capacity ( Q )</td>
<td>45.5 Ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal resistance ( R )</td>
<td>0.0625 ( \Omega )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential zone amplitude</td>
<td>266.7 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exponential zone capacity</td>
<td>11.2 Ah(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### B. PFC boost circuit

The Level 1 and Level 2 charging can take place at home, so the charger should be able to deliver the single-phase residential source (120 V or 240 V) to the battery pack with 200 V to 400 V [14]. The charger should also be capable to allow input current up to 60 A when maximum output occurs.

Since the battery voltage is up to 400 V, we can choose this value as the PFC boost circuit output. According to the Table I, the maximum rating power is 14.4 kW. Hence, the DC current is \( \frac{14.4 \text{ kW}}{400 \text{ V}} = 36 \text{ A} \).

Assuming unity power factor, the single-phase ac circuit will have the following form of instantaneous power.

\[
p(t) = P + P \cos(2\omega t)
\]

where \( \omega \) is 377 rad/s and \( P \) is the active power.
The second harmonic ripple component is expected to be absorbed by the capacitor $C_{DC}$. Further, the DC voltage is assumed to be constant at $V_{DC}$. The DC current can then be found as $I_{out} = \frac{P}{V_{DC}}$. The current through the capacitor should be a second harmonic ripple as:

$$i_c(t) = \frac{P}{V_{DC}} \cos(2\omega t) = I_{out} \cos(2\omega t). \quad (2)$$

The related second harmonic component of the capacitor voltage can be found by integrating the capacitor current.

$$v_{c2}(t) = \frac{1}{C_{DC}} \int i_c(t) dt = \frac{I_{out}}{2\omega C_{DC}} \sin(2\omega t). \quad (3)$$

The peak to peak voltage ripple can then be expressed as follows:

$$\Delta V_C = \frac{I_{out}}{2\pi f C_{DC}} \quad (4)$$

If the peak-to-peak voltage ripple is less than 10 V, and current is 36 A, the capacitor is chosen as 9.5 mF.

The Level 1 charging voltage is 120 V (RMS), and the output DC voltage is designed to be 400 V.

Then the duty ratio of the boost converter is $D = \frac{V_{out} - V_{in}}{V_{out}} = 0.7$, where $V_{out}$ is the output DC voltage at 400 V, $V_{in}$ is the input DC voltage. For a 120 V AC input which is then rectified, the DC component of the rectified voltage can be found from integration and is $\frac{2}{\pi} V_{peak}$, approximately at 120 V.

The relationship between the current and voltage of the inductor is as follows.

$$V_L = L \frac{di}{dt} \Rightarrow V_{out} - V_{in} = L \frac{\Delta V_L}{DT} \quad (5)$$

where $T$ is the switching time as $5 \times 10^{-4} s$.

If 1 A ripple is allowed, then the inductor can be chosen as 98 mH.

The PFC controller aims to achieve unity power factor by ensuring the input AC current and the input AC voltage have the same phase shift. The charging system is expected to behave similar as a pure resistor. Thus, in this case, the rectified current should be following the rectified voltage $|v_a|$.

Fig. 3 illustrates the impact of PFC control. The current and voltage in the system with PFC control almost have the same phase angles. Without PFC, harmonics and phase shift are shown in the current waveform.

The PFC controller has a cascaded control loop: inner loop is for inductor current control and outer loop is for $V_{DC}$ control. Fig. 4 shows a PFC controller block. The DC bus voltage $V_{DC}$ of the boost circuit is compared with a fixed reference voltage. The error goes to a PI controller and then is multiplied with the rectified voltage to generate a reference inductor current. The reference current is proportional to the rectified voltage. The inner loop regulates the current to follow the reference current. The error between the reference current and the measured current is the input to a PI controller. The output is the duty cycle of the PFC boost converter. This signal is compared with a triangle waveform to generate pulse width modulation (PWM)-based switching sequences for the switches.

![Fig. 3. Comparison of $I_{ac}$ and $V_s$ for PFC control and without PFC control.](image)

**Fig. 4.** PFC boost circuit control block [15].

### C. CC/CV charging algorithm

There are several charging methods that can be applied in EV battery charging. The three basic methods are constant-current (CC), constant-voltage (CV) and taper-current (TC) charging [16]. The CC method charges a battery using a constant charging current while voltage varies. When the voltage reaches a preset value, the charging process will stop. However, the charging current level needs to be considered carefully because low current is not suitable for fast charging while high current may cause excessive damage. The CV method limits the voltage to a specific level by varying current. The charging stops until current drops to almost zero. The TC method charging a battery with a decreasing current while the voltage is rising. The method rarely used since batteries have different characteristics in real application.

CC/CV charging is combination of CC and CV, and intends to enhance the reliability and efficiency. The CC method is usually used in the initial stage of charging to avoid over current. The CV method is used following the initial stage. Fig. 5 shows a simple illustration of CC/CV charging.

![Fig. 5. Illustration of CC/CV charging.](image)
Firstly the battery charging is operated at CC mode, where charging current is kept as constant and charging voltage is increasing. The control will change to CV mode when voltage reaches a preset value. When the current drops to cut-off value, the charging will stop. Usually the CV mode takes same or longer time than CC.

The control implementation is shown in Fig. 6 [17]. The CC/CV selector compares the battery voltage with a preset value to switch charging mode.

![Diagram of CC/CV charging structure](image)

Fig. 6. CC/CV charging structure, when battery voltage reaches a preset value, the selector will turn to voltage PI controller.

The parameters of Level 1 and Level 2 charging systems are listed in Table III.

### Table III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$C_{in}$</td>
<td>20 mF</td>
<td>$L_1$</td>
<td>98 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{DC}$</td>
<td>9.5 mF</td>
<td>$L_r$</td>
<td>2.8 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_r$</td>
<td>30 μH</td>
<td>$L_m$</td>
<td>20 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{out}$</td>
<td>1 mF</td>
<td>$L_{out}$</td>
<td>10 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_1$</td>
<td>2000 Hz</td>
<td>$f_2$</td>
<td>500 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{dc}$</td>
<td>300 V</td>
<td>$V_{a_{level1}}$</td>
<td>120 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{a_{level2}}$</td>
<td>240 V</td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFC circuit inner loop control</td>
<td>0.001 + $\frac{0.1}{\pi}$</td>
<td>PFC circuit outer loop control</td>
<td>0.003 + $\frac{0.3}{\pi}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC/CV current control</td>
<td>0.0015 + $\frac{0.15}{\pi}$</td>
<td>CC/CV voltage control</td>
<td>20 + $\frac{2}{\pi}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III. LEVEL 3 CHARGING CIRCUIT TOPOLOGY

According to Table I, a Level 3 charging system has a three-phase source as input. Thus, the system includes a three-phase AC/DC converter. In this paper, we adopt a bi-directional converter based on IGBT switches. Considering vehicle to grid (V2G) services, we apply $V_{DC}/Q$ control. The $V_{DC}/Q$ control can regulate the DC bus voltage and the reactive power from grid. The topology of Level 3 charger is shown in Fig. 7.

The $V_{DC}/Q$ control structure is shown in Fig. 8. The controller has two inputs: reactive power measurement and DC bus voltage measurement. Two PI controllers are used to make sure the measurements track their reference values. The outputs of the PI controllers are $dq$-axis current orders. This $dq$-reference frame is aligned with the input voltage space vector. Angle of the input voltage space vector ($\theta$) is obtained through a PLL. This angle is used for $abc$-$dq$ and $dq$-$abc$ conversion.

![Diagram of Level 3 charging circuit topology](image)

Fig. 8. $V_{DC}/Q$ control method applied to the three-phase rectifier.

The transformed voltage and current are used to calculate three-phase reactive power as shown follows:

$$Q = \frac{3}{2} (v_q i_d - v_d i_q).$$

The block diagram of the PR controller has been illustrated in Fig. 9.

A second-order PLL is modeled in this project. Its control block is shown in Fig. 10 [19]. The inputs of PLL are three-phase grid voltages $v_a$, $v_b$, and $v_c$. They are converted into $dq$-axis voltages based on the angle $\theta$ obtained from PLL. PLL works to synchronize the charging system to the grid.

In RT-Lab, all PI and PR controllers are based on real values. Discrete controllers are implemented for fixed time step simulation. The diagram block of a PI controller is shown in Fig. 11.

The parameters of the Level 3 charging system are given in Table IV.

### Table IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R_{grid}$</td>
<td>0.005 Ω</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_{grid}$</td>
<td>3 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{grid}$</td>
<td>150 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLL</td>
<td>$k_p = 180, k_i = 3200$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{DC}$</td>
<td>330 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{DC}$ PI controller</td>
<td>0.1 + $\frac{10}{\pi}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive power PI controller</td>
<td>0.1 + $\frac{1}{\pi}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

The simulation of the three testbeds with proposed parameters and control strategies are conducted in RT-Lab environment for 1500 seconds (25 minutes). The battery has a
power rating of 10 kW and its capacity is 40 Ah. The overall simulation results are shown in Figs. 12-13. The results include battery voltage, current and SOC. The CC/CV charging control is realized in the simulation.

For Level 1, charging starts with 5 A and voltage increases from 265.5 V. When the voltage reaches the preset value 266.5 V, charging turns to CV mode. Then the voltage keeps as 266.5 V and current starts to decreases. The DC bus voltage \( V_{DC} \) in controlled by PFC boost controller and keeps as 300 V. Charging power decreases when charging changes to CV mode. For Level 2 and Level 3, their charging current are 40 A and 80 A, preset voltage are 273.5 V and 280 V, respectively. Fig. 13 provides the SOC comparison of three level charging. Note that in 25 minutes, Level 3 charging makes the SOC increase from 20% to 85%, Level 2 charging increases the SOC from 20% to 60%, while Level 1 charging increases SOC less than 5%.

The simulation results are summarized in Table V. The charging current, voltage and rating power are corresponded to the SAE standard. Estimated fully charging time indicates the time that charge battery from 0% SOC to 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial SOC</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration time</td>
<td>1500s</td>
<td>1500s</td>
<td>1500s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC bus voltage</td>
<td>300 V</td>
<td>300 V</td>
<td>330 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charging power</td>
<td>1.33 kW</td>
<td>10.94 kW</td>
<td>22.48 kW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant current</td>
<td>5 A</td>
<td>40 A</td>
<td>80 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant voltage</td>
<td>266.5 V</td>
<td>273.5 V</td>
<td>281 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End SOC</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>84.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated fully charging time</td>
<td>10 hours</td>
<td>1.1 hour</td>
<td>40 mins</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented the topologies and control strategies of three types of EV charging systems for Level 1, Level 2, and Level 3. Three testbeds consisting of power electronic converter circuits and controls are built in RT-Lab environment. The Level 1 and Level 2 charging systems use sing-phase AC source and consist of a diode-bridge rectifier, a PFC boost circuit, and a dual-bridge DC/DC converter. The Level 3 charging system uses three-phase AC source and consists of a bi-directional DC/AC converter and a dual-bridge DC/DC converter. \( V_{DC}/Q \) control is adopted for the bi-directional DC/AC converter. CC/CV battery charging control is implemented in the DC/DC dual bridge converter. RT-Lab simulation results show expected charging processes.

REFERENCES


Fig. 12. Three charging processes. From upper to bottom: Level 1, Level 2, Level 3.

Fig. 13. SOC comparison of three level charging.


