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Off-line Balanced Forward-Flyback Converter

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Abstract—Due to the flybacks’ indirect characteristic of energy transfer, the transformer size increases for high power levels. Providing an additional direct energy transfer path can decrease its size. Parallel forward-flyback converters offer such functionality and outperform forward converters with regard to PFC functionality. A balanced forward-flyback converter is a variation on this kind of parallel converter. The forward and flyback sub-converters share a transformer winding and an additional balancing capacitor enables even better AC line voltage utilization. This paper starts with an in-depth analysis of the balanced forward-flyback converter, and introduces ten operating modes in which this converter can operate. A boundary-conduction mode (BCM) controller for the magnetization current is developed and presented, and through simulations the PFC performance of the converter is tested with a constant switch on-time controller. Moreover, a prototype is designed and built with both a dissipative R-C-D snubber and two-switch clamp configuration. Experimental results from the 100W/120-373V AC/DC prototype were obtained to prove the converter operation and BCM controller concept. The balanced forward-flyback converter in BCM offers good PFC performance and manages a THD of input current between 1.69% and 4.38%.

Index Terms—AC-DC conversion, PFC, balanced forward-flyback converter, BCM

I. INTRODUCTION

Power supplies for grid-connected applications account for a significant part of the bill of material of electronic equipment. Single-switch converters, e.g. the flyback converter, are generally accepted for power levels up to approximately 150 Watt. Above this level other topologies, such as the 2-switch forward and half-bridge topology, become more attractive due to the flybacks’ indirect nature of energy transfer [1]. Topologies that combine direct and indirect energy transfer can lead to a gain in conversion efficiency and cost reduction.

To comply with international regulations regarding current harmonics [2] power factor correction (PFC) is required. An often used solution is adding a PFC boost stage to a conventional converter. However, this leads to an increase in component count and cost. As a result, single-stage PFC topologies are popular research topics [3]–[5].

A flyback converter offers good PFC performance, but due to its indirect energy transfer characteristic a large transformer is required for high output power levels. Providing a direct energy transfer path can decrease the amount of energy storage, thus decreasing transformer size. A forward converter is a typical topology with direct energy transfer. However, it requires a demagnetization snubber or winding [6], [7] and a large output filter. Moreover, in contrary to the flyback converter, a forward converter is not suitable for single-stage PFC, because it suffers from a dead-zone around the zero-crossings of the sinusoidal input voltage [8], [9]. Paralleling a flyback and forward converter in principle can provide the best of both worlds. Not only does it lead to smaller transformer and output filter sizes, but also eliminates the forward converters’ demagnetization circuit. Parallel forward-flyback converters are proposed in [9]–[11]. These parallel operating converters share a primary switch and have a separate winding on a shared transformer. The forward conversion path still suffers from a dead-zone, but the flyback conversion path can transfer energy during these intervals. This makes the parallel forward-flyback more suitable for PFC than a conventional forward converter. The balanced forward-flyback converter proposed in [8] combines a conventional flyback and forward converter with a shared secondary transformer winding and shared primary switch. Energy transfer from primary to secondary occurs when the switch is turned on (forward action) and when the switch is turned off (flyback action). A secondary-side balancing capacitor prevents saturation of the magnetic core and lowers the minimum input voltage required for the forward converter to operate, as will be shown later in this paper. The latter makes this topology suited for integrated PFC functionality.

II. BALANCED FORWARD-FLYBACK CONVERTER

The balanced forward-flyback converter from [8] combines a conventional forward converter with a flyback converter and adds a balancing capacitor at the secondary side. Fig. 1 depicts a schematic representation of the topology. For the analysis, the transformer is modeled as an ideal transformer with a parallel inductance $L_M$ representing the magnetizing inductance which is used for energy storage. The series leakage inductance is neglected for the conceptual analysis of the topology. All remaining components are also considered ideal. Capacitors $C_L$ and $C_o$ are assumed to be large enough such that their voltage ripples can be neglected.

The steady-state analysis is based on the assumption that switch $S$ is either conducting, as shown in Fig. 2(a), or open, as depicted in Fig. 2(b), and that currents $i_{L_M}$ and $i_{L_o}$ are positive. While $S$ is turned on, energy is transferred to the secondary side and the converter stores energy in the magnetic core i.e. magnetizing inductance $L_M$. When $S$ is turned off, forward current freewheels through diode $D_2$ and magnetically stored energy is transferred to the secondary side through the transformer and $D_3$.

The converter gain is derived from the steady-state analysis presented in [8] and is determined to be

$$V_o = \frac{\delta}{n(1-\delta^2)}V_d \quad (1)$$

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where $\delta$ represents the switch duty-cycle, $V_d$ the input voltage, $V_o$ the output voltage, and $n$ the primary to secondary turns ratio of the transformer.

An expression for the switch duty cycle $\delta$ can be obtained by rearranging (1), which results in

$$\delta = -\frac{V_d}{2nV_o} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_d}{2nV_o}\right)^2 + 1}. \quad (2)$$

The average bias capacitor voltage $V_{C_b}$ is calculated to be $V_{C_b} = \delta V_o$ [8] thus $C_b$ in series with the secondary transformer winding acts as a controllable DC voltage source. Under steady-state conditions the voltage across $C_b$ is constant, which requires the average current to be zero. Therefore, average secondary winding current is zero as well. Consequently, current through the ideal primary transformer winding is zero on average, and the average current drawn from the input source equals the average magnetization current such that $I_d = I_{LM}$ [8]. Both forward conversion current $i_{D_1}$ and flyback conversion current $i_{D_3}$ flow through $C_b$. The forward action current discharges the capacitor, while the flyback current recharges it. A constant capacitor voltage $V_{C_b}$ under steady-state conditions implies that the forward and flyback action current are on average equal in magnitude i.e. $I_{D_1} = I_{D_3}$. Since

$$I_{L_o} = \frac{I_{D_3}}{\delta}, \quad (3)$$

summing the average output filter and flyback action current contribution results in the average output current

$$I_o = \frac{I_{D_1}}{\delta} + I_{D_3} = I_{L_o} + I_{D_3}. \quad (4)$$

When assuming 100% conversion efficiency i.e. $P_d = P_o$, then (1) can also be written as

$$I_d = \frac{\delta}{n(1 - \delta^2)} I_o, \quad (5)$$

which in turn can be rewritten to

$$I_{D_3} = nI_{LM}(1 - \delta) = nI_d(1 - \delta). \quad (6)$$

Combining (4), (5) and (6) leads to an expression for the average output filter inductor current

$$I_{L_o} = I_o \left( 1 - \frac{\delta(1 - \delta)}{(1 - \delta^2)} \right). \quad (7)$$

Equations (6) and (7) show that the flyback and forward action contribution depend on the duty cycle and, thus, vary with the input voltage level.

When $S$ is conducting, as shown in Fig. 2(a), $V_{C_b}$ is a voltage source in series with the primary transformed input voltage, which is advantageous for the forward power conversion. Conventional forward converters in AC-DC PFC applications suffer from a dead-zone around the zero-crossings of the AC mains source [8], [9], because the input voltage is insufficient to make $D_1$ forward-biased. In this scenario $V_{C_b}$ increases the $D_2$ anode voltage, thus lowering the minimum required input voltage and increasing the portion of sinusoidal half-wave for which the forward power conversion stage is active. Secondly, a flyback converter ideally is able to operate from any input voltage and thus allows flyback energy conversion over the full rectified mains voltage waveform. Additionally, the flyback conversion current charges capacitor $C_b$ causing $V_{C_b}$ to rise around the AC input voltage zero-crossings. As a result, the required input voltage for forward energy conversion is automatically lowered around these zero-crossings. The balanced forward-flyback topology therefore allows for a better utilization of rectified mains voltage compared to the parallel forward-flyback converters proposed in [9]–[11], which suffer from a significant time interval with no forward action around the zero crossings. The balanced forward-flyback converter minimizes this interval.

A. Operation modes

A sequence of configurations is called an operating mode of the converter. One switching cycle ($T_{sw} = 1/f_{sw}$) is split in two or more intervals separated by switch actions of $S$ or by one of the diodes starting or stopping to conduct. Each interval relates to one of the circuit configurations depicted in Fig. 2, in which the conducting components are indicated in the circuit topology. The active operating mode is determined by component parameters, average forward action current $I_{L_o}$, average flyback action current $I_{D_3}$, output power $P_o$ and switching frequency $f_{sw}$. Each possible operating mode is discussed after introducing the eight circuit configurations.

- **Configuration 1**: First of the two configurations used for steady-state analysis. Switch $S$ is turned on and energy is transferred to the load by means of a forward current through $D_1$ and, simultaneously, energy is stored in the magnetizing inductance by current $i_{LM}$. Note that $i_{LM}$ can start at a negative value. If switch $S$ turns on, $V_d$ across $L_M$ causes an increasing magnetization current.

- **Configuration 2**: Second of the two configurations used for steady-state analysis. Switch $S$ is turned off and magnetically stored energy is transferred to the secondary side through the transformer and $D_3$. Current $i_{L_o}$ freewheels through $D_2$. Note that $i_{L_o}$ can reach negative values, but only if it is smaller in magnitude than $i_{D_3}$.

- **Configuration 3**: This current loop is formed if $i_{L_o}$ is positive during a switching cycle and $i_{LM}$ reaches a negative value due to the average $I_{L_M}$ level and the reflected secondary voltage across $L_M$. 

Fig. 1. Topology of the balanced forward-flyback converter.
Configuration 4: Magnetizing current \(i_{LM}\) can reach a negative value, which leads to diode \(D_1\) becoming forward-biased and positive \(i_{trv}\). \(L_M\) is clamped to the reflected secondary voltage level \(-n \cdot V_c\) since \(D_2\) is conducting current. Current \(i_{Lo}\) freewheels through \(D_2\), and \(D_1\) flows in opposite direction through \(D_2\). Node current analysis shows that \(D_2\) carries \(i_{Lo}\) plus the positive part of \(i_{sec}\). This configuration is only possible if \(i_{LM}\) remains smaller in magnitude than \(i_{Lo}\).

Configuration 5: With \(i_{LM}\) being positive, \(i_{Lo}\) can reach a negative value during the time \(S\) is turned off. \(D_2\) stops conducting. Because flyback action current \(i_{D_3}\) is flowing, \(L_M\) and \(L_o\) are now in series with bias capacitor voltage \(V_{C_b}\). Load \(R_L\) is fed by the output capacitance \(C_o\).

Configuration 6: Forward conversion current is not possible if the sum of input voltage \(V_d/n\) and balancing capacitor voltage \(V_{C_b}\) is insufficient for forward-biasing \(D_1\). Energy is magnetically stored in \(L_M\) and the load is fed by the output capacitance \(C_o\).

Configuration 7: Switch \(S\) turns on while \(i_{LM}\) is positive and \(i_{Lo}\) is negative. Current \(i_{Lo}\) flows through diode \(D_3\) while the sum of reflected input voltage and \(V_{C_b}\) is across \(L_o\). This causes \(i_{Lo}\) to increase until it reaches zero.

Configuration 8: Forward and flyback conversion current have both reached zero amplitude and none of the diodes is in conduction. The load is purely fed by the output capacitance, and \(V_{C_b}\) does not change.

All operation modes i.e. sequences of configurations can be distinguished based on currents \(i_{LM}\) and \(i_{Lo}\). An overview of all modes and corresponding currents is presented in Fig. 3. Each interval is marked with a number, which corresponds to one of the circuit configurations depicted in Fig. 2.

a) Mode 1: This mode can be considered continuous conduction mode (CCM) of both magnetization and output inductor current. The steady-state analysis presented in section II applies to this mode. Boundary conduction mode (BCM) of magnetization current can be considered as a special case of operation mode 1, where the switching frequency \(f_{sw}\) is dynamically controlled such that \(i_{LM}\) starts and ends at zero in one switching cycle \(T_{sw}\).

b) Mode 2: Mode 2 can occur only for \(i_{LM}\) in BCM. For some combinations of filter inductance value \(L_o\) and output current levels, the current ripple of \(i_{Lo}\) is larger than its average value, making \(i_{Lo}\) negative during a switching cycle. If the magnitude of \(i_{Lo}\) reaches that of the secondary magnetizing current \(n \cdot i_{LM}\), then the operating mode changes.

c) Mode 3: During BCM operation of \(i_{LM}\) the input voltage may not be sufficient to forward bias diode \(D_1\). In this case, no direct power transfer occurs during the interval \(S\) is turned on. All output power is delivered through the flyback action and by output capacitor \(C_o\).

In configuration 5 the inductors \(L_M\) and \(L_o\) form a series circuit, which causes a decreased rate of demagnetization of \(L_M\) and magnetization of \(L_o\). The low rate of demagnetization of \(L_M\) restricts the switching frequency for BCM and thus...
decreases energy transfer around the zero crossings. This makes configuration 5 undesirable.

d) Mode 4: Mode 4 is an extension of mode 3 and can occur if a minimum $T_{sw}$ is forced by the controller. The first three configurations of mode 3 and 4 are identical, but the circuit configuration changes to 8 when currents $i_{LM}$ and $i_{L}$ reach zero and the minimum switching cycle time has not yet passed.

e) Mode 5: Mode 5 can occur for CCM operation of $i_{L}$. Current $i_{L}$ is positive during a complete switching cycle. However, the amount of Volt-seconds across $L_{M}$ causes $i_{LM}$ to end and start at a negative value.

f) Mode 6: An extension of mode 5 occurs if the magnitude of the negative magnetizing current $ni_{LM}$ reaches the same level as current $i_{L}$ at $t_{3}$. In that case, a series circuit is formed and $i_{LM} = ni_{L}$ during the remaining part of the switching cycle. In this last interval, no flyback or forward action current flows to the load.

g) Mode 7: Mode 7 is entered if current $i_{LM}$ is continuously positive or in BCM, and $i_{L}$ has a ripple such that it becomes negative. Therefore, current $i_{L}$ starts and ends at a negative value. This mode ends with configuration 2 if the magnitude of $i_{L}$ is smaller than $ni_{LM}$. Otherwise, $D_{2}$ stops conducting and circuit configuration 2 changes to 5, as in mode 8. During the interval from 0 to $t_{1}$, $i_{sec}$ is negative. This induces current at the primary side and contributes to the current $i_{LM}$.

h) Mode 8: Mode 8 is an extension of mode 7 and is entered if current $ni_{L}$ reaches the same magnitude as $i_{LM}$ during switch-off time. Diode $D_{2}$ then stops conducting, and $L_{M}$ and $L_{o}$ form a series circuit according to configuration 5. This mode can occur only if the magnetization current is not in BCM.

i) Mode 9: Mode 9 is a variation on mode 8 and can occur for $i_{LM}$ in BCM in combination with a minimum $T_{sw}$ requirement. Again, the ripple on $i_{L}$ makes the current smaller than zero which eventually leads to circuit configuration 5. However, after $i_{LM}$ and $i_{L}$ reach zero, the requirement on $T_{sw}$ is not yet met. Only after $T_{sw}$ has passed, a new switching cycle is initiated.

j) Mode 10: This mode can be considered as the opposite of mode 9, because, instead of $i_{LM}$, now $i_{L}$ reaches a negative value. Mode 10 can occur only for non-BCM operation of $i_{LM}$ and with a minimum $T_{sw}$ requirement.

It must be noted again that the steady-state analysis in section II only applies to operating mode 1. Therefore, only this mode is considered in the following sections, unless noted otherwise.

III. BALANCED FORWARD-FLYBACK CONVERTER DESIGN

A converter design is made based on a worst-case DC-DC conversion scenario. Minimum and maximum input voltage from a rectified mains voltage (120 V and 373 V for wide input voltage range), and maximum load are considered. An overview of design parameters is given in Table I and Table II lists the fixed parameters.

The converter is designed to have the flyback action current i.e. $i_{LM}$ in BCM. Compared to continuous conduction mode
(CCM) the magnetic core utilization is better in BCM (full quadrant vs. minor loop in B-H curve). Discontinuous current mode (DCM) offers equal core utilization, but current stress on components is higher than for BCM. Because the magnetization current $i_{L_M}$ is forced into BCM, the set of possible modes is limited to 1, 2, 3, 6, 7 and 8. The output filter current $i_{L_o}$ is designed to be in continuous conduction mode, because negative $i_{L_o}$ leads to demagnetization of $L_M$ at a low rate. This phenomenon can be observed in operating modes 2, 3, 4, 8, and 9. It is considered undesirable, because during this interval no power is delivered to the load.

BCM of flyback action current occurs if the current ripple $\Delta i_{L_M} = 2L_M$ where

$$\Delta i_{L_M} = \frac{V_d}{L_M} \delta T_{sw}. \tag{8}$$

Combining (8) with (5) leads to

$$I_{L_M} = \frac{\delta}{n(1 - \delta^2)} I_o = \frac{V_d}{2L_M} \delta T_{sw}. \tag{9}$$

The switching cycle duration $T_{sw}$ for BCM is obtained by calculating the time required for $i_{L_M}$ to reach $2I_{L_M}$ ($T_{on}$) and, subsequently, decrease to zero again ($T_{off}$). This leads to an expression for the switching frequency as a function of output power

$$f_{sw}(P_o) = \frac{n(1 - \delta^2)V_o}{2\delta L_M P_o \left(\frac{1}{V_d} + \frac{1}{n(V_o + \delta V_o)}\right)}. \tag{10}$$

Maximum input voltage and $L_M$ determine the maximum switching frequency. The allowed frequency range is set from 20 to 200 kHz. An output power of 15 W at 373 V input voltage and $f_{sw}=200$ kHz would require a magnetizing inductance of 3.64 mH, according to (10). Since the magnetic core size increases with inductance, this high inductance value is undesirable. A compromise between functionality and reasonable magnetizing inductance value is reached by requiring the converter to operate in mode 1 at maximum input voltage for output power higher than 50 W. To satisfy this specification, $L_M=1.1$ mH. Fig. 4 depicts the dynamic frequency for a range of input voltage and output power. In summary, each input voltage level has a minimum output power for which the converter works in operating mode 1. Below this limit other operating mode are active.

The turns ratio $n$ of the primary and secondary transformer winding is chosen to balance the reverse voltage stress on switch $S$ and diode $D_2$. For decreasing $n$ the reverse voltage across $D_2$ increases, while switch $S$ suffers from an increasing reverse voltage. A winding ratio $n=5$ is chosen as a compromise. An iterative design process leads to a transformer design based on a ETD 34/17/11 core (3C90 material), winding ratio of $5$ (60/12 turns), and $L_M$ of 1.1 mH +/- 10% (0.203 mm airgap).

IV. PFC STUDY BASED ON SIMULATION RESULTS

The PFC functionality of the balanced forward-flyback converter has been simulated in software. A custom BCM controller implementation keeps the magnetizing current, i.e. flyback current, in boundary conduction mode by monitoring $i_{L_0}$. It also limits the switching frequency to the allowed range. A constant $T_{on}$ controller regulates the switch on-time required to generate an output voltage of 12 V. The output voltage ripple due to lack of energy transfer during the AC zero-crossings is minimized by choosing $C_o=20$ mF.

Nominal load of 60 Watt at 12 V is simulated for a rectified sinusoidal input voltage. To analyze the wide input voltage range performance, this simulation has been performed with $v_d = 120 \sin(2\pi \cdot 60t)$ V and $v_0 = 373 \sin(2\pi \cdot 50t)$ V. Results of the simulation are presented in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. It is observed that $i_{L_0}$ is in CCM, and $i_{L_o}$ and $i_{D_2}$ fall to zero around the zero crossings of the input voltage, which is in agreement with the theoretical analysis. Current $i_{L_0}$ actually becomes negative and at that point operating modes other than mode 1 are active. Flyback action current $i_{D_2}$ is almost a perfect sinusoidal, because $i_{L_M}$ is linearly proportional to $v_d$. The input current $i_d$ is a sum of $i_{L_M}$ and $i_{L_o}$ and, thus, cannot be a perfect sinusoidal. Furthermore, the switching frequency varies due to BCM of $i_{L_M}$ and remains within the specified range. A low-frequency oscillation in $i_{D_1}$, $i_{D_2}$, $i_{L_0}$, $i_d$ and $V_{C_b}$ is observed in Fig. 6. This can be

![Fig. 4. Switching frequency $f_{sw}$ for $L_M=1.1$ mH, n=5, DC input voltage of 120 to 373 V and output power between 15 and 100 W.](image)

---

**TABLE I**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$N_1$</td>
<td>Number of primary turns</td>
<td>$L_M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N_2$</td>
<td>Number of secondary turns</td>
<td>$L_0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>Turns ratio ($N_1/N_2$)</td>
<td>$C_o$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$f_{sw}$</td>
<td>Switching frequency</td>
<td>$C_b$</td>
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**TABLE II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
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<td>$V_o$</td>
<td>Output voltage</td>
<td>12 V</td>
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<tr>
<td>$P_{o,min}$</td>
<td>Minimum output power</td>
<td>15 W</td>
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<tr>
<td>$P_{o,nom}$</td>
<td>Nominal output power</td>
<td>60 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_{o,max}$</td>
<td>Peak output power</td>
<td>100 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{d,min}$</td>
<td>Minimum DC input voltage</td>
<td>120 VDC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{d,max}$</td>
<td>Maximum DC input voltage</td>
<td>373 VDC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

- 5
explained by interaction between the secondary-side capacitors
and inductors. Research is required to check if this effect is
due to the applied control method and switching frequency
limits, and whether an optimized controller in combination
with feedback can suppress the oscillation. Empirically it is
found that a smaller value of $C_b$ can suppress the oscillatory
behavior up to a certain level. An alternative component value
selection can, thus, be a first step to a solution.

A Fourier analysis up to the tenth harmonic of the input
current is used to calculate the total harmonic distortion (THD)
of input current $i_d$. The results are a THD of 1.69% for 120V
and 4.38% for 373 V. The latter result is expected to improve
if the oscillations are suppressed.

Voltage $V_{C_b}$ varies over a half-wave of the input voltage,
as observed in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, which can be explained
by the varying contribution of forward and flyback conversion
current. Around the zero-crossings of the input voltage,
merely flyback action current flows. This current charges the
balancing capacitor. However, once $D_1$ is forward biased and
the forward conversion current can flow, $V_{C_b}$ decreases. $V_{C_b}$
reaches its maximum at the peak input voltage, where forward
conversion current is maximal. As observed the average cur-
rent through $C_b$ over one switching cycle is zero on average.

Finally, the simulation results show that the balanced
forward-flyback converter exhibits stable behavior when it
leaves operating mode 1, as can be seen around the zero-
crossings of the AC input voltage. Despite an unknown
converter gain for these other operating modes, constant-$T_{on}$
modulation seems an appropriate control method. Still, any
mode other than 1 is actually undesirable, because it contains
configurations where no energy is transferred to the load.

V. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND MEASUREMENT RESULTS

A prototype is built to verify the operation of the balanced
forward-flyback converter. Components are chosen and manu-
factured according to the previously discussed design and are
listed in Table III. Both an R-C-D snubber [12] and two-switch
clamping circuit [13] have been implemented to allow for an
efficiency comparison. The R-C-D snubber provides a clamp
voltage of approximately 202 Volt using components $R_{sn}$,
$C_{sn}$ and $D_{sn}$. For the two-switch clamp a second, identical
MOSFET is added in series with the primary winding and
free-wheeling diodes $D_h$ and $D_l$ are added.

---

**TABLE III**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S_{1}, S_{3}$</td>
<td>Infineon IPA60R380C6 MOSFET (FullPAK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{2}$</td>
<td>ON Semiconductor MBRS320T3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOSFET driver</td>
<td>ON Semiconductor NCP5181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{b}, C_{o}$</td>
<td>Suncon HVH 56 µF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_o$</td>
<td>Bourns PM2120-560K-RC 56 µH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$D_{sn}, D_{h}, D_{l}$</td>
<td>STMicroelectronics STTH10R06A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{sn}$</td>
<td>4.7 kΩ, 17 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$C_{sn}$</td>
<td>82 nF, 520V PP film cap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig. 6. Simulation results for a PFC application with $v_d = 373\sin(2\pi \cdot 50t)$ V and nominal output power of 60 Watt. From top to bottom are depicted: $i_{D_1}$, $i_{D_2}$, $i_{L_o}$, $v_d$, $i_d$, $f_{sw}$, $v_o$, $v_{C_{b}}$.

Fig. 7. Experimental result for $V_d=120$V, $P_o=60$W, flyback BCM, $f_{sw}=35.7$kHz, $\delta = 44.20\%$: MOSFET gate signal (20 V/div), MOSFET $v_{DS}$ (500 V/div), $i_{sec}$ (5 A/div), $i_{D_2}$ (5A/div), timescale 10 $\mu$s/div. This experiment corresponds to operating mode 1, as can be observed in Fig. 3(a).

Measurements are performed under two conditions i.e. minimum and maximum rectified input voltage (DC) and a nominal output power of 60 W. Additionally, other output power levels are tested to measure the conversion efficiency. The prototype operates in open-loop under conditions that, if not mentioned otherwise, the flyback current is in BCM.

The experimental result depicted in Fig. 7 shows the gate signal, MOSFET drain-source voltage, secondary transformer winding current $i_{sec}$ and $i_{D_2}$. The positive part of $i_{sec}$ is the forward action current, which also flows through $i_{D_1}$. The negative part is the flyback action current flowing through $D_3$, which reaches zero before the next switching cycle (BCM). Diode $D_2$ carries the freewheeling current $i_{L_o}$ and flyback current $i_{D_3}$ while $S$ is turned off. As can be seen in Fig. 3(a), this experiment corresponds to operating mode 1.

For verification of another operating mode, an experiment without BCM settings is conducted. In Fig. 8 the gate signal, $V_{DS}$, $i_{sec}$, and $i_{D_2}$ are captured with non-BCM settings. As observed, $i_{sec}$ does not end at zero current before the next switching cycle starts. This occurs if the magnetic core is fully discharged and the, theoretical, current $i_{LM}$ switches polarity. Diode $D_1$ comes into conduction again such that, in combination with $D_2$ conducting, the secondary transformer winding voltage is clamped to $V_{C_{b}}$. This causes a positive secondary winding current and according to Kirchhoff’s current law (KCL) an increased current $i_{D_2}$. During this experiment the converter operated in mode 5, as can be observed in Fig. 3(e).

The experimental results of the efficiency measurement of the balanced forward-flyback converter with the R-C-D clamp and two-switch configuration are presented in, respectively, Table IV and Table V. Since a pre-prototype is used for experiments, the thermal design is not optimized.

With regard to improvement of the conversion efficiency
in modes other than 1. However, a low-frequent oscillation appears for a 373 VAC input voltage. Empirically it was found that this oscillation can be suppressed by decreasing $C_L$. A controller with appropriate feedback may offer better suppression.

Finally, a dissipative R-C-D snubber and a two-switch clamp configuration were compared based on measurement results. Despite of a higher cost, at output power levels above 15 W a two-switch configuration is recommended. Compared to the R-C-D snubber it allows for a 4 to 9.4% higher overall efficiency.

### REFERENCES


