

# An analytical review for the power system of a spacecraft

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**Abstract:** Electrical bus is needed for the operation of all active spacecraft systems and subsystems. In the spacecraft mechanism, the battery charging system and the bus storage continued with bus control, the conditioning and bus distribution is an essential part for keeping the spacecraft in working mode. In this paper, the discussion for electrical power system (EPS) analysis in the spacecraft body will be elaborated from the previous research papers on this subject covering the topics of solar array, solar array drive, over current and over voltage protection, battery charging and discharging, bus control, conversion.

**Key Words:** DET, EPS, Solar array, Power regulation

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The electrical power system (EPS) of a satellite deal with power conversion, power conditioning, energy storage, over voltage and over current protection and bus distribution to the various users via the on board low-voltage bus distribution system.

The energy for spacecraft or earth orbiting satellites is generally acquired from arrays of photovoltaic cells, which convert solar energy to electrical energy [1, 2].

A spacecraft requires a bus from few watts to 50 kW currently distributed at voltages between 20 and 125 V, though integrated International Space Station (ISS) with 110kW represents an exceptional bus demand.

The block diagram of EPS is shown in fig. 1.

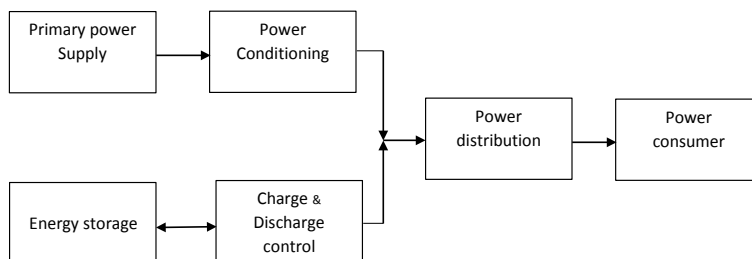


Fig. 1 Block diagram of Spacecraft EPS

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## 2. ELECTRICAL BUS SUPPLY

The batteries are required to provide bus when the spacecraft is in obscuration during the eclipse. They can likewise provide peak bus beyond the capacity of the solar array. During the eclipse, the batteries could not get charged because of the absence of the solar beam. Therefore, combinations of hardware and software system maintain the level of energy during the orbit period and these amounts maintain the following integral equation.

$$\int_{\text{sunlight}} (\text{solar flux} * \text{photovoltaic conversion unit}) .d = \int_{\text{sunlight}} (\text{loads} + \text{charge power} + \text{shunt power} + \text{losses}) .dt + \int_{\text{eclipse}} (\text{loads} + \text{losses}) dt$$

### 2.1 Bus sources

Space missions more often than not require control sources ready to create electrical bus for orbit cycles to supply electrical loads and revive batteries. While dispatch vehicles utilize essential batteries for the bus supply since they normally need to give capacity to under 1 hour, such a methodology isn't appropriate for working a spacecraft over a time of weeks, months, or years because the energy content of batteries alone would be insufficient. Future lunar or planetary bases just as long-haul missions will require either very incredible or regenerative energy framework since their capacity prerequisites will be a long way past the abilities of today's control frameworks like the ISS's present necessity of 110kW. The solar, interplanetary space and the planets are viewed as conceivable essential bus sources, which could be utilized for the bus supply of different missions, including supporting a Moon base. The energy consumption graph during eclipse is shown in fig. 2. However, when their physical and specialized convenience is considered, these choices are decreased to:

- \* Electromagnetic solar radiation,
- \* Nuclear energy,
- \* Planetary magnetic field.

A photovoltaic bus framework more often than not comprises the accompanying primary segments:

- \* Bus conversion,
- \* Bus conditioning,
- \* Bus distribution,
- \* Energy storage.

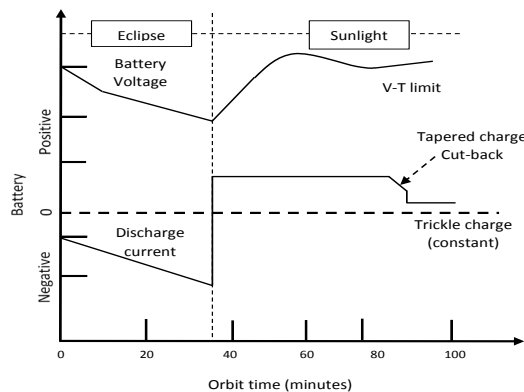


Fig. 2 Battery energy plot during eclipse

### 3. PHOTOVOLTAICS

Solar arrays (SAs) utilizing photovoltaic assembly related to rechargeable batteries are the most widely recognized bus hotspots for earth orbiting spacecraft just as ISS. For this purpose, recommendations should be made as often as possible to the use of solar bus satellites in geostationary orbit to convert solar energy into electrical energy, microwave or laser energy. This energy is then engaged and transmitted to electrical energy before being supplied to the local bus network. However, confirmation issues with respect to the vehicle situation and budgetary speculation prevented execution.

### 4. SOLAR DYNAMICS

The main proficient option in contrast to the transformation of the Solar's electromagnetic radiation other than misusing the photovoltaic effect is the utilization of solar dynamics. A solar-based useful energy supply framework can utilize a thermal mechanical-electrical energy converter or a traditional thermodynamic cycle process with a shut working medium cycle. For the solar dynamic energy conversion an almost rotationally symmetric explanatory onto a radiation beneficiary whose gap is at the focal point of the allegorical gatherer and which can convert the reflected solar energy to a working medium that can reflect and process the parallel solar irradiation. This alleged preparing heat is utilized to create mechanical energy with the assistance of thermal motor [3]. The excess heat is transmitted by means of thermal radiators once again into space. An electric generator changes over the rotational energy of the thermal motor to electrical energy and provides it to the spacecraft. Instances of thermal cycles in space applications are: Stirling process, Brayton process, high temperature Rankine process, organic Rankine process. From the T-S graph ( $T$ = Temperature in K,  $S$ = Entropy) the thermal efficiency of Brayton thermal cycle with a heat conversion can be derived as

$$n_{th} = (q_{in} - q_{out}) / q_{in} = 1 - |q_{out}| / q_{in} = 1 - (T_5 - T_1) / (T_4 - T_2) \quad (1)$$

Applying thermodynamics relation for ideal gas in isentropic compression and expansion,

$$T_1 / T_2 = T_5 / T_4 = (P_1 / P_2)^{(k-1)/k} \quad (2)$$

The thermal efficiency can be formulated as,

$$n_{th} = 1 - T_1 / T_2 = (P_1 / P_2)^{(k-1)/k} \quad (3)$$

### 5. ELECTRICAL BUS SYSTEM (EPS) ARCHITECTURE

To execute a useful, dependable and particularly application-arranged EPS design for a planned space mission and having to peruse a predetermined number of accessible alternatives a specific request in the procedure work process is vital, which is shown in fig. 3.

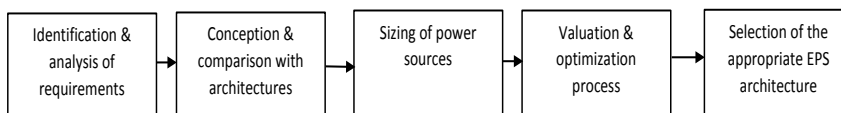


Fig. 3 Workflow of EPS selection process

A thorough analysis of the EPS necessary with an improved rocket plan not just prompts a modified structure of the bus sources, but additionally results in weight and framework cost

decreases. The requirements for EPS unit and power source arrangement for EPS are shown in Table: 1 and 2, respectively.

Table: 1 - Requirements for EPS unit

Open-circuit voltage for one cell	≈ 1.2 V
Voltage at nominal Load	0.9 V
Nominal Load(100mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	40.0A
Electrode surface	400 cm <sup>2</sup>
Electrode diameter	225 mm
Electrode density	2.0-2.5mm
Working gases	H <sub>2</sub> (liquid) - O <sub>2</sub> (liquid)
Operating pressure of the gases	40-60 bar
Operating temperature	200-300° C
Cells per battery block	31
Nominal voltage	28V
Nominal output power	1.12 kW
Nominal output power	1.12kW
Block weight	110kg

The fuel cell arrangement consists of three units of 110kg each and two gas tanks of 240kg each, in total 810kg.

Table: 2 - Power source arrangement for EPS

Flight duration	10 days
Electrical energy used during the flight	500 kWh
Energy density	617.3Wh/kg
Power density for the flight duration	4. 15W/kg
Permanent power output of one cell block	2.3kW
Peak power output of one cell block	6 kW
Nominal Load of one cell block	82 A
Permanent power output of the total	14kW
Cell arrangement: peak power output of the total cell	36kW
Electrical energy required for a three-day mission	1000kWh

Fuel consumption during a three-day mission:

- Gaseous hydrogen (cryogenic, liquid) ≈ 480kg,
- Gaseous oxygen (cryogenic, liquid) ≈ 480kg,
- Generated H<sub>2</sub>O (reaction product),
- ≈ 600 liters.

## 6. EPS DESIGN REQUIREMENTS

The spacecraft control prerequisites, which must be checked in all mission subordinate operational modes to avoid any kind of amid spacecraft abnormalities considering that minor fault can create a major issue during the mission. Orbital parameters like altitude, eccentricity, inclination, local time, and the subsequent length of daylight obscure stage per orbit. The ideal use of available solar array bus and battery energy is fulfilling the bus demands of the spacecraft.

The user's control prerequisites with respect to the nature of the disseminated bus, are bus service voltage range, bus stability at load change, source impedance and obstruction voltages. Other important requirements are:

Optimization of the EPS structure accomplish low repeating expense for flight segments or to use off the shelf (OTS) segments wherever conceivable. Utilization of segments turned out to be reasonable for space flight because of their utilization in other effectively flown spacecraft, to bring down the protection cost [4].

### 7. REGULATION

Energy transfer from the solar array to the main bus by direct energy transfer (DET) comparing to the precise measure of intensity important to fulfil the bus demand will be accomplished by regulation methods like Shunt regulation, Series regulation, String switching [5,6].

General spacecraft control frameworks can be extensively separated into two types, direct energy transfer (DET) and peak power tracking (PPT).

In DET frameworks solar array power is straight forwardly transferred to the load without the utilization of any series connected regulator or converter. The diagram of a DET is shown in fig. 4.

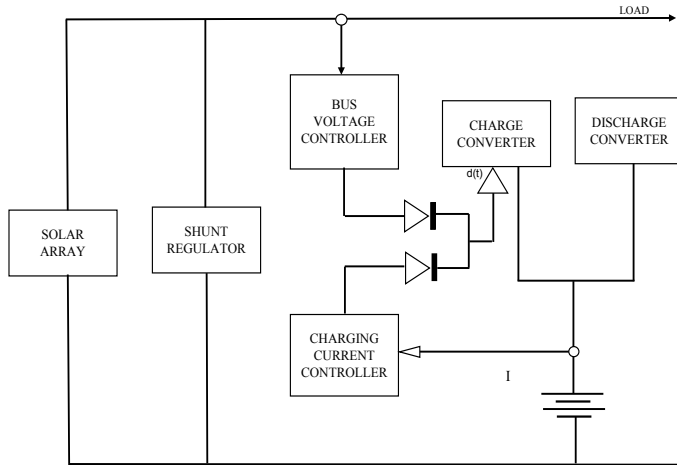


Fig. 4 DET system configuration

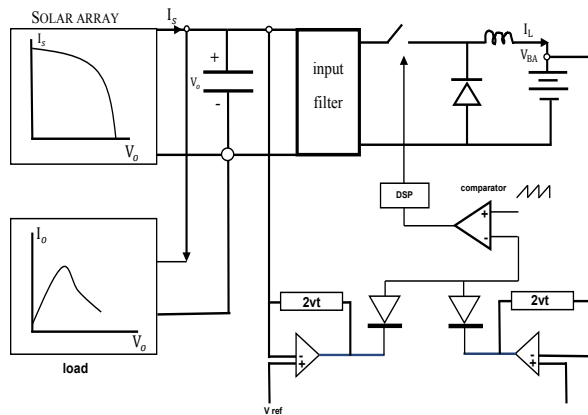


Fig. 5 DET charger circuit diagram

Linearized terminal characteristics of DET charger: In general, DC voltage main buses are designed to supply on-board users with bus (fig. 5), and only in exceptional cases the AC

voltage is used. O/p impedance of the solar array and the i/p impedance of the steady power load at a given working voltage. To determine the small signal dynamic load, a non-direct capacity taking to the solar array o/p is linearized by taking the first order term of the Taylor series:

$$i_s = f(V_0) \approx f(V_0) + df(V_0)/dV_0 \hat{v}_0 = I_s + 1/r_s + 1/r_s \hat{v}_0 \quad (4)$$

where  $r_s$  is the dynamic resistance of SA I-V curve at a specific point. The value of  $r_s$  is (-) ve. The linearized charger circuit for DET is shown in fig. 6.

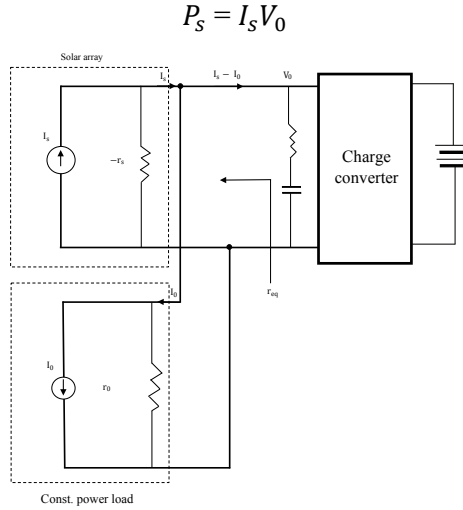


Fig. 6 Linearized characteristics of DET

## 8. REGULATED BUS

The totally regulated primary bus regulator (BR) requires a proficient control loop for the three domains of SA control change, battery charge and discharge so as to give in each bus control mode a for all time balanced out bus voltage, of typically:

- 28V at a distributed bus up to 2.5kW,
- 50V at a distributed bus up to 8.0kW,
- 100 and 125V at a distributed bus above 8kW.

It is suggested that the bus voltages ought not be chosen under 20Vdc and not surpass 125Vdc. The bus voltages lower than 20Vdc may prompt current densities, while the bus voltages above 125Vdc may effortlessly create unsafe potential angles prompting ionization of air atoms (plasma) causing coronal and electric arc releases, specifically amid tests in part pressurized conditions. It likewise must be viewed as that the greatest determination of OTS segments is accessible for working voltages somewhere in the range of 28 and 50 Vdc.

Increasingly prohibitive models like the ESA reports PSS 02 10 and ECSS E 20A suggest choosing the following most astounding accessible bus voltage over the esteem:

$$\sqrt{P(V)} \text{ for LEO and } \sqrt{0.5P(V)} \text{ for GEO, (P=primary bus, V=bus voltage).}$$

## 9. UNREGULATED BUS

The idea of an unregulated bus (BU) is for the most part used to rearrange the on-board power supply system, not withstanding, it infers the necessity that the associated clients endure the

bus voltage variation of up to  $\pm 20\%$ . Battery voltage dominated, unregulated bus voltages are inalienably reliant on sort and number of battery cells associated in arrangement. Common, however not standardized ranges are:

- 28V $\pm$ 6V at a bus control up to 2kW,
- 35V $\pm$ 7V at a bus control up to 3.5kW,
- 42V $\pm$ 8V at a bus control up to 5kW.

Higher voltage ranges are not connected for run of the typical satellites. In any case, the procedure of the unregulated bus is adaptable to 125V. Those voltage levels are required for explicit satellite subsystems like an electric propulsion unit, for instance, which needs voltage levels around 100V.

## 10. SEMI REGULATED BUS

The semi regulated bus idea was intended to fill the hole between the BR and BU approaches. Some portion of the SA is utilized to supply the capacity of a forever-controlled bus through a power controller. This power controller fills two needs: essential power transformation and conversion just as battery release (see additionally the portrayal of the BR capacities). The second SA area supplies its capacity to a BU by means of a BDR. A run of the mill half and half bus application would be helpful for a shuttle having a blend of beat and static burdens on board, where the static burdens utilize the managed bus, while the beat burdens are straightforwardly provided by the unregulated (battery ruled) bus.

Isolated bus frameworks bolster Points of interest of the Hybrid Bus Impulse loads, or some other electromagnetically irritating unique bus loads with high power requests, and calm static burdens. Partition of the diverse busload types rearranges the measures for electromagnetic tidiness control inside the on-board control supply framework [7].

## 11. SOLAR ARRAY

The solar array is made of various PV cells mounted on a base substrate and associated in an arrangement parallel blend to get the ideal voltage and current. Every cell can be of the accompanying with (1) Single precious stone silicon, (2) Gallium arsenide, (3) Semi-crystalline (4) Thin film (5) Amorphous or (6) multi-intersection. These cells comprise of various slender movies in layer that enable the cell to catch a greater amount of the solar oriented range and convert it into electrical power. The most extreme announced proficiency is somewhat superior to anything 41.1% accomplished by the Fraunhofer Institute of sun-based Energy Systems. The different types of bus regulation structure for solar array have been shown in fig. 7, 8 and 9.

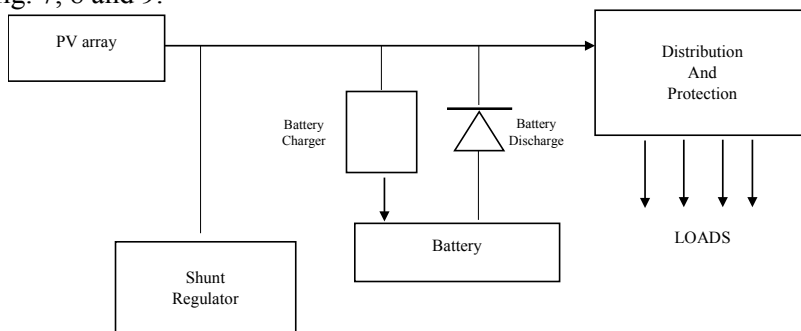


Fig. 7 DET-sunlight regulated bus

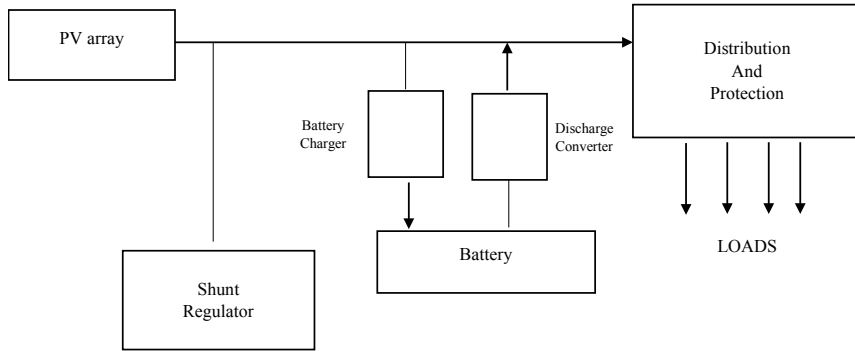


Fig. 8 DET-fully regulated bus

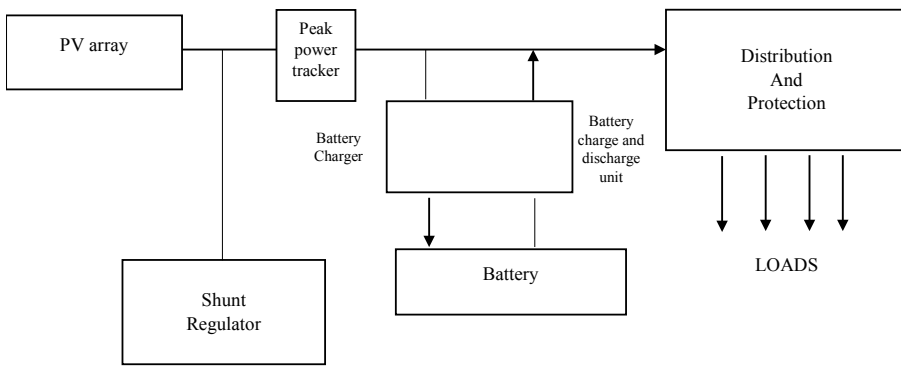


Fig. 9 Peak power tracking bus

## 12. ARRAY PERFORMANCE

The major point affecting the electrical execution of the solar-based exhibits the solar-based power, and the working temperature. The V-I characteristic of a PV cell decreases in extent at lower solar power with a slight decrease in voltage appeared in fig. 12. The solar array I-V graph at various illumination levels is shown in fig. 10 along with Temperature effect on P – V curve on solar array shown in fig. 11.

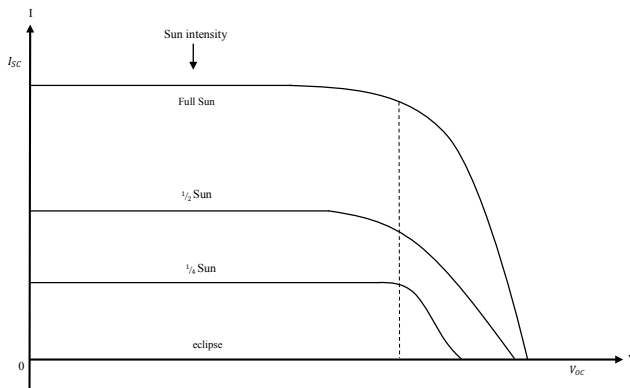


Fig. 10 Solar array current versus voltage at various illumination levels



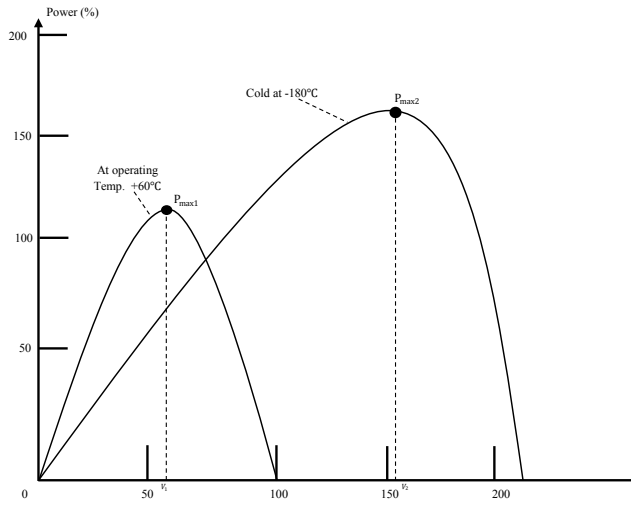


Fig. 11 Temperature effect on P – V curve on solar array

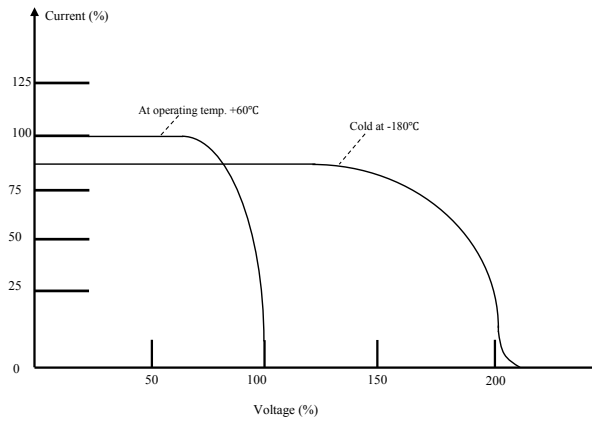


Fig. 12 Temperature effect on I – V curve of solar array

With increasing temperature, the short circuit current of the cell increments, while the open circuit voltage diminishes. As the increments in the current is substantially less than the decrease in voltage, the net impact is the reduction in power, which is quantitatively assessed by looking at the impact on current and voltage independently. Let’s state that  $I_0$  and  $V_0$  are open circuit current and the open circuit voltage at reference temperature  $T$ , and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are their temperature coefficient in units of  $V/^\circ C$ , separately.

The working temperature is expanded by  $\Delta T$ , at that point the new present and voltage are given by  $ISC = (I_0 + \alpha \Delta T)$  and  $VOC = (V_0 + \beta \Delta T)$  since the working current and voltage change around in indistinguishable extent from the short out and open circuit voltage individually, the new power  $P = VI = (I_0 + \alpha \Delta T) \cdot (V_0 + \beta \Delta T)$ .

Ignoring the small term containing the product of a  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $P = V_0 I_0 + \alpha \Delta T V_0 - \beta \Delta T I_0$ , which reduces to a simple form,

$$P = P_0 - [(\alpha V_0 - \beta I_0) \Delta T] r^n = 0.4 + 0.3(2^n) \tag{5}$$

### 13. SOLAR CELL TECHNOLOGIES

As a presentation, the essential standards of the so-called photovoltaic effect will be depicted. Basically two procedures are in charge of the conversion of daylight into electrical energy inside a photovoltaic cell (solar powered cell): first, the assimilation of solar based (electromagnetic) radiation inside a light engrossing semiconductor and the related age of charge bussers (electron hole matches); and second, the division of those electrons and gaps affected by the electric field over a semiconductor intersection, therefore creating an electromotive force (EMF) and a photocurrent. Normal for such a solar powered cell is a large area semiconductor with an incorporated p/n junction underneath its surface. Enlightenment with photons produces electron hole matches above and underneath the p/n junction. The minority bearers, specifically the electrons in the p region and the deficiency electrons (gaps) in the n region doped into the p/n junction by dispersion, are transmitted over the p/n junction, constrained by the electric field. This makes the n region be charged adversely and the p region emphatically, bringing about a photoelectric flow through an outer electric circuit. A solar based cell is portrayed by the accompanying parameters: Short circuit current  $I_{sc}$  (voltage  $V=0$ ; load resistance  $R=0$ ).

Open circuit voltage  $V_{oc}$  (current  $I=0$  at infinite load resistance  $R=\infty$ ),

Greatest power point current  $I_{mp}$  (current at most extreme solar cell o/p power),

Greatest power point voltage  $V_{mp}$  (voltage at most extreme solar cell o/p power),

Fill factor  $(I_{sc} * V_{oc}) / (I_{mp} * V_{mp})$ .

### 14. BATTERY

Energy storage is required so as to fulfil the spacecraft load need amid the launch/injection stage, eclipse, and when the demand surpasses the power generation. The most generally utilized energy storage innovation is the rechargeable battery that stores energy in electrochemical form [7] shown in fig. 13. The battery is made of various electrochemical cells amassed in series- parallel combination to get the required voltage and current (Table: 3 and 4). The cell voltage depends exclusively on the electrochemistry, and not on the physical size. Commonly utilized electro chemistries produce 1.5 - 4.2 V when completely charged. The cell's ampere-hour (Ah) storage capacity is denoted by C, depends upon the physical size. The battery dept of discharge.  $DoD = \text{Battery state of charge} = \text{Ah capacity remaining in the battery} / \text{Rated Ah capacity the battery fills in as a voltage source with little internal resistance}$ . Its electrical circuit show that's the internal electro chemicals voltage  $E_i$  with inward opposition  $R_i$  in arrangement. Also,  $E_0$  and  $R_0$  are inward voltage and interior opposition.

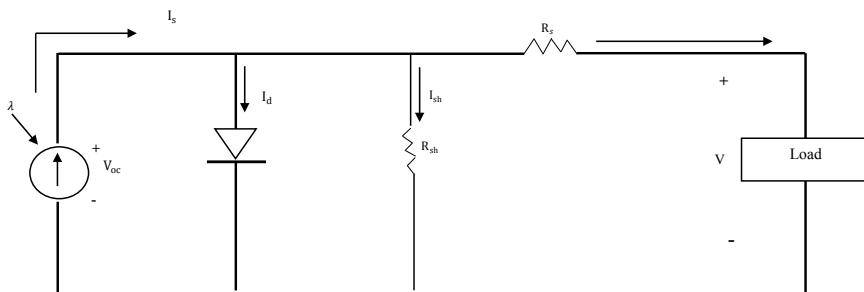


Fig. 13 Equivalent electrical circuit of solar cell

$$E_i = E_0 - K_1 \cdot \text{DoD} \quad (6)$$

and

$$R_i = R_0 + K_2 \cdot \text{DoD} \quad (7)$$

Here  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are electrochemistry constant.

Table: 3 - Primary Battery Types

	Silver Zinc	Lithium sulphur Dioxide	Lithium carbon Monofluoride	Lithium Thionyl chloride
Energy density (W h/kg)	130	220	210	275
Energy density (W h/dm <sup>3</sup> )	360	300	320	340
Op Temp (deg C)	0-40	-50 – 75	? – 82	-40 – 70
Storage Temp (deg C)	0-30	0 – 50	0 – 10	0 – 30
Storage Life	30-90 days wet. 5yr dry	10 yr.	2 yr.	5 yr.
Open Circuit Voltage(v/cell)	1.6	3.0	3.0	3.6
Discharge Voltage (V/cell)	1.5	2.7	2.5	3.2
Manufacturers	Eagle Pitcher. Yardley	Honeywell Power Converter	Eagle Pitcher	Duracell. Altus. ITT

Table: 4 - Secondary Battery Types

	Silver Zinc	Nickel Cadmium	Nickel hydrogen
Energy density (W h/kg)	90	35	75
Energy density (W h/dm <sup>3</sup> )	245	90	60
Oper Temp (deg C)	0 – 20	0 – 20	0 – 40
Storage Temp (deg C)	0 – 30	0 – 30	0 – 30
Dry storage life	5 yr	5 yr	5 yr
Wet storage life	30 – 90 days	2 yr	2 yr
Max cycle life	200	20,000	20,000
Open circuit (V/cell)	1.9	1.35	1.55
Discharge (V/cell)	1.8 – 1.5	1.25	1.25
Charge (V/cell)	2.0	1.45	1.50
Manufacturers	Eagle Pitcher, Yardley Technical prod	Eagle-Pitcher, Gates Aerospace Batteries	Eagle-Pitcher, Yardney, Gates, Hughes

## 15. SOLAR ARRAY POWER CONDITIONING

The fundamental elements of DET and maximum power point tracking (MPPT) as the main strategies for power conversion from the SA to the principal bus were portrayed, just as their reasonableness for the different bus options. Direct Energy Transfer. The favorable advantages of the DET systems refer to their simplicity and their spare weight and cost [8, 9].

## 16. ADVANTAGES

The introduced SA control must give enough edge, on the grounds that:

The bus voltage and the productive battery voltage decide the working point on the I-V characteristics of the SA segments which are associated specifically (without BCR) to the battery with the end goal of energy storage for the unregulated bus this is the whole SA. Specifically, at low battery voltage conditions (e.g., after battery discharge), not all accessible SA power can be converted since a low battery voltage clips the SA voltage working point toward low working voltages.

As the SA working point in the DET operational mode is balanced in the area of the SA short circuit current  $I_{sc}$ , the diminishing of the working point voltage will decrease the helpful SA control relatively. The SA voltage and the power working point must be balanced and upgraded to EOL operational conditions, in this way squandering piece of the higher BOL control execution.

On account of the improvement of the working point, no adaptability is given for the SA's cell string length. Temperature changes just as mistakenly dissected working temperatures will likewise prompt deviations from the ideal SA working point.

The capacity and control circuit security of the direction framework can be emphatically affected by the electrodynamic yield normal for the SA, whereby the parasitic yield capacitance of the SA assumes an overwhelming job.

Charge compensation over the parasitic SA capacitances, actuated from control of SA control by shunt exchanging, may create a reaction time delay in the control circle, which may create severe chaos.

This makes it conceivable to spare somewhere in the range of 8 and 25% of the introduced SA control. MPPT acquaints brilliant adaptability with deference with cell string design and string length, cell size and cell type. MPPT may be the answer for missions with great varieties in solar energy (interplanetary missions).

Pulse width balanced (PWM) DC/DC converters utilized for MPPT direction are to a great extent harsh to the electrodynamic conduct of the SA.

This viewpoint turns out to be a point of convergence on the grounds that the SA yield capacitances are ending up progressively higher, using solar powered cells (altogether less cells in arrangement structure one string), the improvement of micro semiconductor layers for solar light-based cells, and the for all time developing interest on higher SA control for high-control spacecraft.

## 17. DISADVANTAGES

MPPT direction requires a greater circuit structure exertion than DET, causing higher weight and cost. For a harsh correlation of the load increment among MPPT and DET the accompanying dependable guidelines can be utilized:

MPPT regulated control conversion: 2.5g/W (at 28V yield voltage), 2.4g/W (at 50V), 2.2g/W (at 100V) yet offering 20% decrease by new advancements. DET regulated control conversion: 42 g·P<sub>SG</sub> (BOL)/ybus with P<sub>SG</sub> as the most extreme SA capacity to be conversion.

Obviously, the extra exertion for the MPPT hardware must be contrasted with the load and cost funds for the SA related with MPPT direction: Body mounted SA, electronic parts just (without structure and mechanical systems): 5.5-6g/W. Pivoting SA wings, including every mechanical segment: 25g/W(P<sub>SG</sub><1200W), 17g/W(P<sub>SG</sub>>5000W).

### 18. SWITCHING DEVICES

An assortment of solid-state devices is utilized as controlled switches shown in fig.15. However, the devices usually utilized in space are MOSFET, BJT, and IGBT. The device choice relies upon the required voltage, current, and switching frequency. A typical feature among these devices is that all are three terminal devices. For the most part, the utilized circuit images are shown as follows, see Fig. 14.

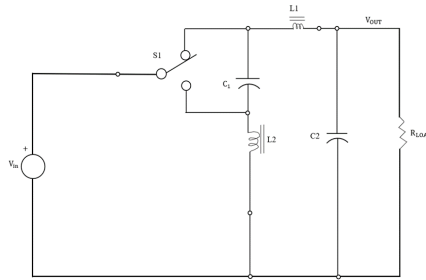


Fig. 14 Two choke boost converter

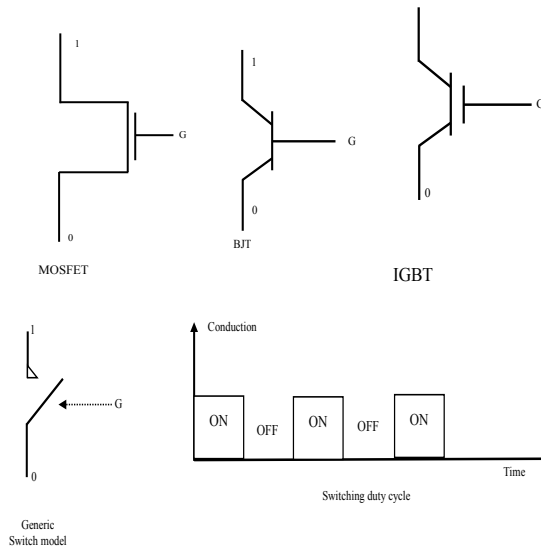


Fig. 15 Switching system configuration

Normally the 1 and 0 terminal of the switches are connected with main circuit and the gate terminal is connected with auxiliary power circuit to control the switching mode. Generally, the 1 terminal has higher potential than 0 terminal. And the gate terminals signal decides the switch to operate.

Without the presence of gate signal, the resistance between 1 and 0 is so high, that it can be considered as open circuit. In addition, when the gate signal is there for the switch to work, the resistance between 1 and 0 approaches to zero. The switch is triggered time to time as per the circuit requirement. The duty ratio *D* of the switch can be derived as,

$$D = (time\ on/switching\ period) = (T_{on}/T) = T_{on} * Switching\ frequency \tag{8}$$

The voltage and current ratings of these power electronics switches and their gate triggering features vary with the inbuilt characteristics of the switches as shown in Table: 5.

Table: 5 - Switching devices required in EPS unit

Device	Voltage rating (V)	Current rating(A)	Remark
MOSFET	1,000	100	High switching speed, simpler firing circuit
BJT	1,500	200	Requires larger current signal to turn on
IGBT	1,200	100	Combination of BJT & MOSFET

## 19. POWER CONDITIONING FOR DC-DC CONVERSION

The converter is intended to be connected in parallel with a second unit to give up to 4 KW to the spacecraft bus amid shroud.

Since a sound plan must oblige a wide range of spacecraft design, the unit must work appropriately over a wide range of battery voltage (24 to 48 Vdc), load current, and load impedance.

The present structure is the result of a previous research works, comprising buck boost and cuk converters [10]. Two different kinds of DC-DC converters are shown in fig. 16 and fig. 17, respectively.

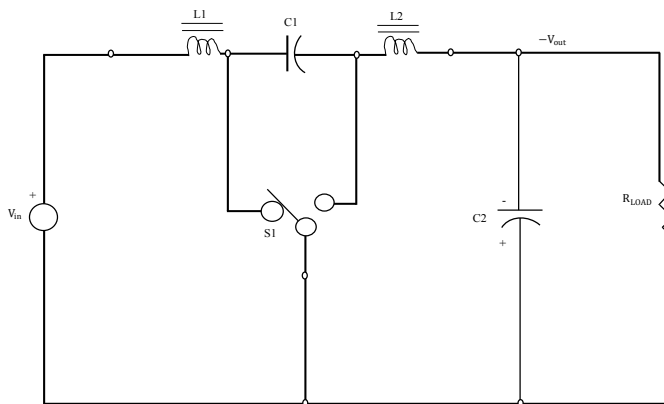


Fig. 16 Two choke buck – boost converter (cuk)

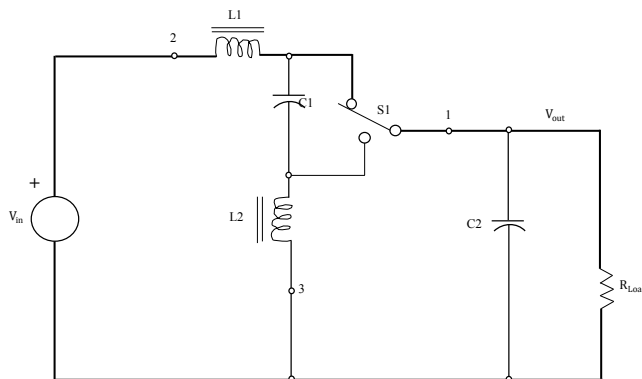


Fig. 17 Two Choke Buck Converter

The topology has the DC attributes of a boost converter from fig.18. The voltage across C5 is characterized to be  $V_{out}$  in the steady state. During the ON time, the voltage crosswise over  $L_1A$  is equivalent to  $V_{in}$ . amid the OFF time, the voltage across  $L_1A$  is  $V_{in}-V_{out}$ . Since the avg. voltage over the inductor must be zero.

$$DV_{in} + (1-D) (V_{in}-V_{out}) = 0 \tag{9}$$

$$V_{out} = V_{in}/(1-D) \tag{10}$$

Very low o/p ripple is accomplished by the presentation of L3. L3 powers the greater part of the L1 charging current to streaming winding L1B. That is if C4 and C5 are extensive, the voltage across C4 is equivalent and inverse to the voltage across C5. Likewise, the voltage across L1A is equivalent and inverse to the voltage across L1B. Subsequently, the voltage across L3 and the ripple current in L3 approach zero and the o/p ripple voltage approaches zero. The I/p ripple decreased circuit utilizes a current cancelling procedure. The methodology infuses an AC current which is equivalent to, yet (180 degree) phase shift with the ripple current flowing in L1. At the point when the two currents are included, the net AC current tends to zero. The condition for zero ripples is gotten as pursues from the differential equations for the coupled inductor power stage amid the ON time.

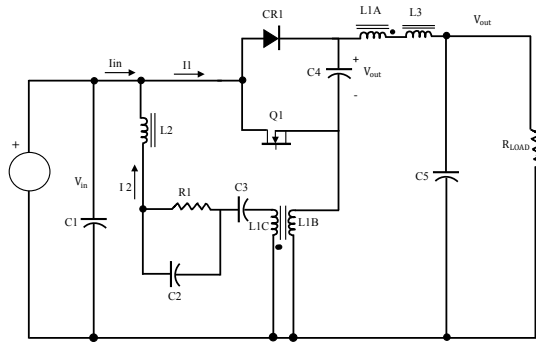


Fig. 18 Simplified Power Stage Coupled Inductor Boost Converter

$$di_1/dt = V_{in}/L1 + (n_2/n_1). di_2/dt \tag{11}$$

$$di_2/dt = (n_2/n_1) V_{in}/L2 \tag{12}$$

Therefore,

$$V_{in}/L1 + (1 - n_2/n_1) di_2/dt = di_2/dt \dots (12) \quad V_{in}/L1 + (1 - n_2/n_1) di_2/dt = di_2/dt \tag{13}$$

$$V_{in}/L1 = \{1 - (n_2/n_1)\} di_2/dt \tag{14}$$

$$V_{in}/L1 = (1 - n_2/n_1)(n_2/n_1)V_{in}/L1 \tag{15}$$

## 20. CONCLUSIONS

A constant ongoing power supply is essential for any spacecraft. The effectiveness of this topology is basically equivalent to that of a general electrical power system of spacecraft. This paper reviews and summarizes in particular the DET system, analyzing past researches. A detailed analysis of the spacecraft electrical power system was performed in this paper. The power system is a unique resource of any spacecraft and it should be protected from failures

of the supplied units. Therefore, fuses and circuit breakers are used in the spacecraft. The spacecraft electrical loads can vary from moment to moment. So, one of the most important tasks of the power system is power conditioning to control in an optimum way the exchanges of power between the solar generator and battery and electrical loads.

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