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Stator and Rotor Flux Based Deadbeat Direct Torque Control of Induction Machines

Barbara H. Kenny Glenn Research Center, Cleveland, Ohio

Robert D. Lorenz University of Wisconsin, Madison, Madison, Wisconsin

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Barbara H. Kenny
National Aeronautics and Space Administration
Glenn Research Center
Cleveland, Ohio 44135

Robert D. Lorenz University of Wisconsin, Madison Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Abstract- A new, deadbeat type of direct torque control is proposed, analyzed and experimentally verified in this paper. The control is based on stator and rotor flux as state variables. This choice of state variables allows a graphical representation which is transparent and insightful. The graphical solution shows the effects of realistic considerations such as voltage and current limits. A position and speed sensorless implementation of the control, based on the self-sensing signal injection technique, is also demonstrated experimentally for low speed operation. The paper first develops the new, deadbeat DTC methodology and graphical representation of the new algorithm. It then evaluates feasibility via simulation and experimentally demonstrates performance of the new method with a laboratory prototype including the sensorless methods.

I. INTRODUCTION

Direct torque control of induction machines has increasingly become an alternative to field orientation methods [1,2]. The classical method of direct torque control involves the use of a look-up table to select voltage vectors based on torque and stator flux magnitude error [3]. There is no current regulator, no pulse width modulation (PWM), nor reference frame transformations as in field orientation. With appropriately high sample rates this leads to fast torque response and low ripple. In addition, at operating conditions where the stator flux vector can be estimated accurately from the terminal voltage and current, this technique is also position and speed sensorless. However, at extremely low and zero speeds, the sensorless implementation of this technique suffers the same performance degradation as any control technique based on the estimate of stator flux using only fundamental voltage and current.

An alternative method of direct torque control is based on the deadbeat (inverse) solution to the machine equations [4-7]. The deadbeat solution is similar to the classical direct torque control method in that it controls torque and stator flux directly, without an intermediate current loop. It is different, however, in the calculation of the voltage vector to be applied to the machine. In the deadbeat solution, an inverse model is used to calculate the theoretical voltage vector needed to move the machine torque and stator flux to the desired values in one sample period. This voltage vector is then synthesized over the sample period by the use of PWM modulation techniques. However, the calculation of the voltage vector requires the solution of a quadratic equation with several parameter dependent coefficients. Insight into the operation of the control is lost with a purely algebraic approach to the solution of the quadratic equations.

This paper presents a new direct torque control strategy where stator and rotor flux are chosen as state variables in the deadbeat solution [8,9]. The use of stator and rotor flux as state variables, represented in the stator flux oriented synchronous reference frame, allows the construction of an intuitive graphical depiction of the necessary voltage vector to achieve the commanded torque and stator flux magnitude values in one time step. The graphical depiction changes as operating conditions or parameters vary; thus the resulting change in the necessary voltage vector can clearly be seen. Conversely, the impact of the selection of the wrong voltage vector on both the stator flux and torque errors can also be seen. In addition, practical operating limits can be shown on the same graph, thus presenting a good visualization of the current and voltage limitations. It is further shown that the structure of this control strategy is suitable for use with the self-sensing position estimation technique [10]. This enables low and zero speed position and speed sensorless direct torque control.

II. FORMULATION OF A STATOR-ROTOR FLUX DEADBEAT CONTROL ALGORITHM

The state equations for the induction machine, using the stator and rotor flux as state variables in the stationary reference frame, are as follows [11].

$$p\lambda_{qds} = V_{qds} - \left(\frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s}\right) \lambda_{qds} + \left(\frac{R_s L_m}{\sigma L_s L_r}\right) \lambda_{qdr}$$
 (1)

$$p\lambda_{qdr} = \left(-\frac{R_r}{\sigma L_r} + j\omega_r\right)\lambda_{qdr} + \left(\frac{L_m R_r}{L_r \sigma L_s}\right)\lambda_{qds}$$
 (2)

$$\tau_{e} = \frac{3PL_{m}}{4\sigma L_{s}L_{r}} \{\lambda_{qds} \times \lambda_{qdr}\}$$
 (3)

A discrete time form of (1)-(3) is shown in (4)-(6) that is valid for small values of the sample time, t_s , for which the rotor speed, ω_t , changes negligibly [8,9].

$$\lambda_{qds}(k+1) - \lambda_{qds}(k) = V_{qds}(k)t_s - \left(\frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s}\right)\lambda_{qds}(k)t_s + \left(\frac{R_s L_m}{\sigma L_s L_r}\right)\lambda_{qdr}(k)t_s$$
(4)

$$\lambda_{qdr}(k+1) - \lambda_{qdr}(k) = \left(-\frac{R_r}{\sigma L_r} + j\omega_r\right) \lambda_{qdr}(k)t_s + \left(\frac{L_m R_r}{L_r \sigma L_s}\right) \lambda_{qds}(k)t_s$$
 (5)

$$\tau_{e}(k+1) = \frac{3PL_{m}}{4\sigma L_{e}L_{r}} \left\{ \lambda_{qds}(k+1) \times \lambda_{qdr}(k+1) \right\}$$
 (6)

Equations (4)-(6) can be combined to form and expression for the change in torque, $\Delta \tau_e(k) = \tau_e(k+1) - \tau_e(k)$. If the d-axis of the excitation reference frame is aligned with the stator flux and the terms proportional to t_s^2 are neglected, a very useful relationship results as shown in (7) [8,9].

$$\begin{split} \frac{\Delta \tau_e(k)}{t_s} &= \tau_e(k) \! \left(\! \frac{-R_r}{\sigma L_r} \! - \! \frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s} \right) + \frac{3PL_m}{4\sigma L_s L_r} \\ & \left\{ \! - \! \omega_r \; \lambda_{ds}^e(k) \; \lambda_{dr}^e(k) + V_{qs}^e(k) \; \lambda_{dr}^e(k) - V_{ds}^e(k) \; \lambda_{qr}^e(k) \right\} \end{split} \tag{7}$$

Equation (7) can be rearranged as follows to show the linear relationship between $V_{qs}^e(k)t_s$ and $V_{ds}^e(k)t_s$ values which can be used to provide a given value of $\Delta T_e(k)$.

$$V_{qs}^{e}(k) t_{s} = \frac{4\sigma L_{s}L_{r}}{3PL_{m}\lambda_{dr}^{e}(k)} \left(\Delta \tau_{e}(k) + \tau_{e}(k) \left(\frac{R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} + \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}} \right) t_{s} \right) + \omega_{r}\lambda_{ds}^{e}(k) t_{s} + V_{ds}^{e}(k) t_{s} \frac{\lambda_{qr}^{e}(k)}{\lambda_{dr}^{e}(k)}$$
(8)

If (8) is plotted in a d-q plane with $V_{ds}^e(k)t_s$ and $V_{qs}^e(k)t_s$ as the d- and q-axis variables respectively, the voltage loci for a given $\Delta T_e(k)$ is a straight line. This line is parallel to the rotor flux vector, $\lambda_{qdr}^e(k)$, as shown in Fig. 1 [8,9]. (Figs. 1-6 use the convention $f_{qd} = f_q - j f_d$.)

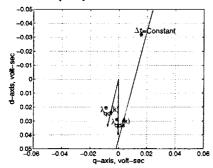


Fig. 1. Constant $\Delta T_e(k)$ line

One representation of the multiple possible voltage (voltsec) vectors $[V_{qs}^e(k)t_s \ V_{ds}^e(k)t_s]$ that could yield the desired change in motor torque, $\Delta \tau_e(k)$, is shown in Fig. 2.

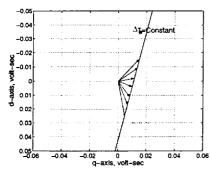


Fig. 2. Graphical representation of multiple voltage vectors for machine torque change ΔT_e

From (4) the discrete time expression for stator flux, neglecting stator resistance, is

$$\lambda_{qds}(k+1) - \lambda_{qds}(k) = V_{qds}(k)t_s.$$
 (9)

Equation (9) can also be shown graphically. Fig. 3 shows the plot of $|\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|$ and $\lambda_{ds}^e(k)$, where $\lambda_{ds}^e(k) = |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$. There are multiple voltage vectors, scaled by t_s , which will move the flux magnitude from a value of $\lambda_{ds}^e(k)$ to $|\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|$.

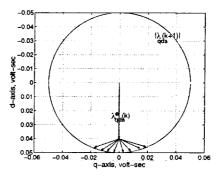


Fig. 3. Graphical representation of multiple voltage vectors for flux magnitude increase

The flux circle shown in Fig. 3 can be redrawn to show the change in flux magnitude, $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)| = |\lambda_{qds}(k+1)| - \lambda_{ds}^e(k)$, where $\lambda_{ds}^e(k) = |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$. This circle is centered on the present value of stator flux, $\lambda_{ds}^e(k)$, with a radius equal to the magnitude $|\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|$. This adjustment means that the possible voltage (volt-sec) vector loci shown in Figs. 2 and 3 now all begin at the origin of the plot. Thus, for a given set of $\Delta \tau_e(k)$ and $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ requirements, the voltage vector which will solve both conditions simultaneously can be determined from the intersection of the $\Delta \tau_e(k)$ line and the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ circle. This is shown in Fig. 4.

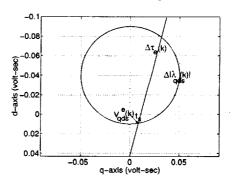


Fig. 4. Graphical representation of a voltage vector which satisfies both $\Delta \tau_e(k)$ and $|\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|$ requirements

The solution, $V_{qds}^e(k)t_s$, to the intersection of the $\Delta \tau_e(k)$ line and the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ circle is bounded by the available dc bus voltage, the sample time and the inverter current limit. The range of voltages that can be synthesized from a two-level inverter can be represented as a hexagon in the d-q plane [11]. Thus the bound for $V_{qds}^e(k)t_s$ is a hexagon with sides equal to 2/3 V_{dc} t_s as shown in Fig. 5. The hexagon is shown at a static position in Fig. 5 but it actually rotates at the synchronous speed because the figure is in the synchronous reference frame.

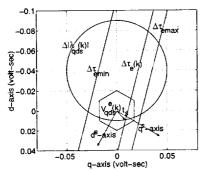


Fig. 5. Graphical representation of voltage and current limits on the possible voltage vector solutions

Fig. 5 also shows the maximum and minimum values of $\Delta \tau_e$ based on a steady state solution using the inverter current limit, $|i_{qdsmax}|$ and the present value of $\tau_e(k)$. The maximum torque can be calculated as a function of the stator flux magnitude and the maximum stator current as follows. For a stator flux oriented system, the torque can be expressed as

$$\tau_{e} = \frac{3P}{4} \lambda_{ds} i_{qs} \tag{10}$$

In terms of current magnitude, this becomes

$$\tau_{e} = \pm \frac{3P}{4} \lambda_{ds} \sqrt{|i_{qds}|^2 - i_{ds}^2}$$
 (11)

The variables i_{ds} and λ_{ds} can be related through the slip frequency by using the following two relationships which are given in [11].

$$\lambda_{\rm qds} = L_{\rm \sigma s} i_{\rm qds} + \frac{L_{\rm m}}{L_{\rm \tau}} \lambda_{\rm qdr} \tag{12}$$

$$p\lambda_{qdr} = \left(\frac{-R_r}{L_r} - j\omega_e + j\omega_r\right)(\lambda_{qdr}) + \left(\frac{L_m R_r}{L_r}\right)i_{qds}$$
 (13)

Assuming stator flux orientation and steady state conditions, (12) and (13) can be used to form an expression for i_{ds} in terms of the stator current magnitude and the stator flux.

$$i_{ds} = \frac{L_{\sigma s} L_s |i_{qds}|^2 + \lambda_{ds}^2}{\lambda_{ds} L_s (1+\sigma)}$$
(14)

Equation (14) can be substituted into (11) to find a condition on the maximum torque that is possible for a specified maximum stator current magnitude and stator flux value.

$$\tau_{\text{emax}} = +\frac{3P}{4} \lambda_{\text{ds}} \sqrt{i_{\text{qdsmax}}^2 - \left(\frac{L_{\text{os}}L_{\text{s}}|i_{\text{qdsmax}}|^2 + \lambda_{\text{ds}}^2}{\lambda_{\text{ds}}L_{\text{s}}(1+\sigma)}\right)^2}$$
(15)

Finally, using (15) and the present value of torque, the maximum and minimum change in torque can be calculated.

$$\Delta \tau_{\text{emax}} = + \tau_{\text{emax}} - \tau_{\text{e}}(k) \tag{16}$$

$$\Delta \tau_{\text{emin}} = -\tau_{\text{emax}} - \tau_{\text{e}}(k) \tag{17}$$

It is interesting to consider the plot for a steady state condition $(\Delta \tau_e(k)=0, \Delta |\lambda_{ads}(k)|=0)$. This is shown in Fig. 6.

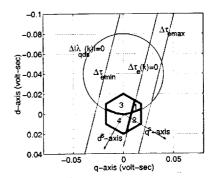


Fig. 6. Graphical representation of operating regions for steady state conditions

Any ΔT_e lines to the right of the $\Delta T_e(k)$ =0 line represent an increase in torque. Any ΔT_e lines to the left of $\Delta T_e(k)$ =0 represent a decrease in torque. Any $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ circles within the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ =0 circle represent a decrease in stator flux magnitude. Any $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ circles outside $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|$ =0 represent an increase in flux. Thus it is seen that there are four operating regions within the hexagon as shown:

- 1. Increase torque, decrease flux
- 2. Increase torque, increase flux
- 3. Decrease torque, decrease flux
- 4. Decrease torque, increase flux

The standard table look up method of direct torque control allows only the voltage vectors represented by the vertices of the hexagon (plus the two zero vectors) to be selected for the duration of the sample period. However, if a pulse width modulation technique is used, an average voltage vector over the sample period can be synthesized which lies anywhere within the hexagon.

A control algorithm can be developed based on (8) and (9) and using Fig. 4 if $\Delta \tau_e(k)$ is set equal to $\tau_e(k+1)^* - \tau_e(k)$ and $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)| = |\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|^* - \lambda_{ds}^e(k)$. The voltage vector calculate by the control algorithm is the intersection of the $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ line with the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|^*$ flux magnitude circle which is the solution of (8) and (9). The voltage vector can be synthesized using space vector modulation techniques to calculate the inverter switch duty cycles [12]. Fig. 7 shows the block diagram of the control system in which the proposed algorithm was implemented. (The additional voltage command, $V_{hfss}^*(k)$, is only necessary for the self-sensing position and speed estimation as explained in Section V.)

The control sequence is as follows.

- 1. Is $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ within the limits of $\Delta \tau_{emax}$ and $\Delta \tau_{emin}$? If not, $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ is set equal to the closest limit.
- 2. Do the $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ line and the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|^*$ circle intersect? If so, the voltage vector, $V_{qds}(k)$ is calculated. If not, $\tau_e(k+1)^*$ is reduced until the corresponding $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ line is tangential to the $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|^*$ circle. Then the voltage vector to this point is calculated.

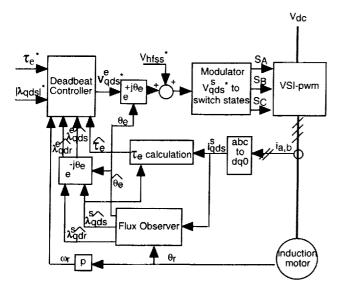


Fig. 7. Proposed deadbeat control block diagram

3. Is the desired voltage vector within the hexagon? If so, space vector modulation is used to calculate the corresponding inverter switch duty cycles. If not, the magnitude of V_{qds}(k) is reduced until it lies on the hexagon boundary. Then space vector modulation is used to calculate the inverter switch duty cycles. Alternate overmodulation strategies could also be used—for example the most appropriate hexagon corner could be selected based on the desired change in torque and flux which would be equivalent to using standard direct torque control.

III. SIMULATION RESULTS

The experimental motor used in this paper is a specially designed high speed (rated speed just over 23,000 rpm) induction machine for a NASA electro-mechanical actuator research project. The parameter values are given in the Appendix. The simulation conditions are set to match the experimental conditions. Experimentally, the machine was limited to 10,000 rpm or less due to concern about the condition of the bearings. All of the simulations neglect the PWM switching harmonics.

The controller was analyzed in two ways. First, to investigate its small signal stability, the operating point model was formed using the Matlab™ LTI function. To form the operating point model, the mechanical dynamics were neglected (constant speed) and perfect flux estimation was assumed (the flux observer was not included in the operating point model). Pole-zero migration plots were then created for a range of speeds from low speed to rated speed (180 rpm to 23,000 rpm) at the rated torque and rated flux operating point.

The second analysis was based on a time domain, nonlinear model simulation of the complete system including the flux observer and the mechanical dynamics. The speed, torque and stator flux responses to a square wave torque command are shown. Fig. 8 shows the pole-zero migration plot from the LTI analysis for a 100 µsec sample time (used experimentally). The result is seen to approximate the expected deadbeat response but there is not exact pole-zero cancellation and the free pole is not exactly at the origin. This improves as a smaller and smaller sample time is used. (The NASA motor has relatively small time constants as can be seen in the Appendix.)

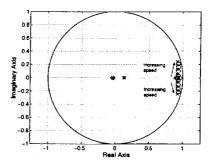


Fig. 8. Pole-Zero plot for 100 μsec sample time and no calculation delay

The time domain results shown in Figs. 9 and 10 demonstrate good performance. The torque response is seen to be a square wave as expected. Fig. 10 also shows the effect of neglecting the resistance in deriving (9). For a stator resistance equal to zero, the stator flux is at the commanded value of 1 per unit. However, the stator flux magnitude is slightly reduced from the commanded value for a stator resistance of .18 ohms.

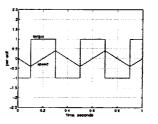


Fig. 9. Torque and speed response for a 100 µsec sample time and no calculation delay

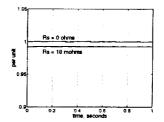


Fig. 10. Stator flux magnitude for 100 µsec sample time, no calculation delay and two values of stator resistance

In the ideal case, it is assumed that the command values for the manipulated variables $(V_{qs}^*(k), V_{ds}^*(k))$ are calculated in zero time based on the present sampled value of the measured feedback variables $(i_{qs}(k), i_{ds}(k))$. Realistically, however, there will be a calculation delay between when the feedback variables are measured and when the commanded values for the manipulated variables are updated because the required microprocessor calculations can not be done in zero time.

The command values for the manipulated variables $V_{qs}^{s*}(k)$ and $V_{ds}^{s*}(k)$ ultimately become pulse width commands for the gate drives in the inverter. In this implementation, the sampling time is synchronized with the PWM generation. Thus the PWM timers are updated at the same time as the feedback variables are measured. This results in a one step time delay for the control because the PWM timers are updated based on the calculations from the feedback data of the previous sample.

The effect of this one step time delay can be seen in the pole-zero plot of Fig. 11. The free pole and the pole-zero cancellation pair that were at or near the origin in Fig. 8 have now moved to the edge of the unit circle. The time domain simulations also show a more oscillatory response as seen in Figs. 12 and 13.

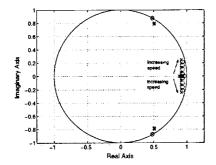


Fig. 11. Pole-Zero plot for 100 µsec sample time and one step time delay

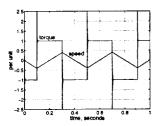


Fig. 12. Torque and speed response for a 100 μsec sample time and a 1 time step calculation delay

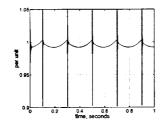


Figure 13: Stator flux magnitude for 100 µsec sample time and a 1 time step calculation delay

For a similar deadbeat type of controller, Ref [5] shows that a modification to $\Delta \tau_e(k)^*$ and $\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|^*$ will move the system poles to lie further within the unit circle and reduce the oscillations. A similar derivation can be shown here. To include the one-step time delay, (7) can be expressed as follows.

$$\begin{split} \frac{\tau_e(k+2) - \tau_e(k+1)}{t_s} &= \tau_e(k+1) \left(\frac{-R_r}{\sigma L_r} - \frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s} \right) + \frac{3PL_m}{4\sigma L_s L_r} \\ &\{ -\omega_r \lambda_{ds}^e(k+1) \lambda_{dr}^e(k+1) + V_{qs}^e(k)^* \, \lambda_{dr}^e(k+1) - V_{ds}^e(k)^* \, \lambda_{qr}^e(k+1) \} \end{split} \tag{18}$$

From (8) an expression for the control variables is $V_{qs}^e(k)^*$ and $V_{ds}^e(k)^*$ is

$$\begin{split} V_{qs}^{e}(k)^{*}t_{s} - V_{ds}^{e}(k)^{*}t_{s} \frac{\lambda_{qr}^{e}(k)}{\lambda_{dr}^{e}(k)} &= \omega_{r}\lambda_{ds}^{e}(k) \ t_{s} + \\ \frac{4\sigma L_{s}L_{r}}{3PL_{m}\lambda_{dr}^{e}(k)} \left(\tau_{e}(k+1)^{*} - \tau_{e}(k) + \tau_{e}(k) \left(\frac{R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} + \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}}\right) t_{s}\right) 19) \end{split}$$

Under constant stator flux operation and assuming that $\lambda_{qdr}^e(k+1) \approx \lambda_{qdr}^e(k)$, (18) and (19) can be combined to form an approximate relationship between the commanded torque and the actual torque as shown in (20).

$$\tau_{e}(k+2) - \tau_{e}(k+1) = \tau_{e}(k+1) \left(\frac{-R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} - \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}} \right) t_{s} + \tau_{e}(k+1) *$$

$$- \tau_{e}(k) + \tau_{e}(k) \left(\frac{R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} + \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}} \right) t_{s}$$
 (20)

From (20), the characteristic equation of this simplified transfer function is

$$z^2 - z \left(1 - \left(\frac{R_r}{\sigma L_r} + \frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s} \right) t_s \right) + \left(1 - \left(\frac{R_r}{\sigma L_r} + \frac{R_s}{\sigma L_s} \right) t_s \right) = 0. \quad (21)$$

For small values of t_s , these poles can be seen to lie close to the unit circle boundary. Ref [5] suggests modifying the control equations as shown in (22) and (23) (0<C<1) to reduce the oscillations and potential instability problems.

$$\Delta \tau_e(k)^* = C (\tau_e(k+1)^* - \tau_e(k))$$
 (22)

$$\Delta |\lambda_{qds}(k)|^* = C \left(|\lambda_{qds}(k+1)|^* - |\lambda_{qds}(k)| \right)$$
 (23)

Using (18), (19) and (22), the characteristic equation of the modified transfer function is

$$z^{2} - z \left(1 - \left(\frac{R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} + \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}} \right) t_{s} \right) + C \left(1 - \left(\frac{R_{r}}{\sigma L_{r}} + \frac{R_{s}}{\sigma L_{s}} \right) t_{s} \right) = 0 \quad (24)$$

Ref [5] studies the effect of various values of C on the response of the system. In the present work, it was found that C=.8 yielded a fast response with no instability. The corresponding LTI pole-zero migration plot and time domain responses are shown in Figs 14-16.

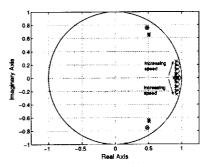


Fig. 14. Pole-Zero plot for 100 μsec sample time, one step time delay and C=.8

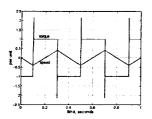


Fig. 15. Torque and speed response for a 100 μsec sample time,1 time step delay and C=.8

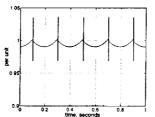


Fig. 16. Stator flux magnitude for a 100 µsec sample time,1 time step delay and C=.8

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The experimental test set up consisted of a dc power supply, an intelligent power module, a dSpace 1103[™] digital controller and the NASA test motor. The results were captured using dSpace software. The data files were then plotted using Matlab[™]. Two phase currents were measured and an encoder was used for position feedback. The position feedback was necessary because a flux observer based on the current model was used. (In Section V, the position feedback is provided by the self-sensing algorithm and the encoder information was used for comparison purposes only.) The speed was calculated in the controller using the position information. The torque and flux were estimated in the controller using current and position information.

Figs. 17 and 18 show the torque, stator flux and speed for the same conditions as in Figs. 15 and 16 in simulation.

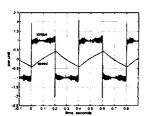


Fig. 17. Experimental results: torque and speed response for a 100 μsec sample time, one time step delay and C=.8

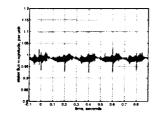


Fig. 18: Experimental results: stator flux magnitude for a 100 μsec sample time, one time step delay and C=.8

In general, the response is as predicted. In the actual implementation, there is always a deadtime, or blanking time, in the inverter so that the two switches across a leg do not conduct at the same time. In addition, there is a voltage drop across the conducting devices. Both of these effects result in a lower voltage being applied to the machine than is actually commanded. This "deadtime voltage" can be calculated [13].

$$V_{\text{deadtime}} = \frac{4V_d}{3} e^{j(k-I)\frac{\pi}{3}}$$
 (25)

 V_d is the magnitude of the voltage due to the combination of the deadtime losses and the conduction losses and k is the sector of the d-q plane in which the current vector is located, k=1,2...6. This controller was found to be sensitive to deadtime compensation as can be seen by comparing Figs. 19

and 20 (without deadtime) to Figs 17 and 18 (with deadtime). It is seen that without deadtime compensation, both the torque and stator flux magnitudes were reduced.

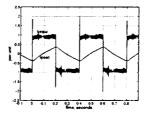


Fig. 19. Experimental results: torque and speed response for a 100 μsec sample time, one time step delay and t_s'=125 μsec, no deadtime compensation

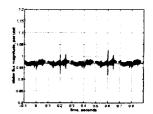


Fig. 20. Experimental results: stator flux magnitude for a 100 μsec sample time, one time step delay and t_s'=125 μsec, no deadtime compensation

V. LOW SPEED SENSORLESS IMPLEMENTATION

To date, the self-sensing method has been demonstrated only with the field orientation method of control. The use of self-sensing in a deadbeat direct torque control offers the potential of full speed range sensorless operation with the flux estimate based on the back emf method at higher speeds and on the self-sensing position estimate at lower speeds.

To estimate the rotor position angle, θ_r , the self-sensing technique requires a machine with a magnetic saliency related to the rotor position [10]. The NASA motor rotor was designed to produce a position dependent magnetic saliency by changing the shape of the rotor bars as a function of position as shown in Fig. 21. (The rotor is 1.3 inches in diameter).

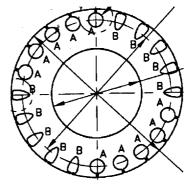


Fig. 21. Rotor cross-section of NASA machine

Additionally, the self-sensing technique requires a high frequency carrier signal. The structure of a deadbeat type of direct torque control lends itself to the use of the self-sensing method of position estimation because the necessary high frequency signal can be easily added to the fundamental voltage command as shown in Fig. 7. Thus the commanded voltage into the pwm modulator will consist of the fundamental voltage command, $V_{qds}^{s*}(k)$ and the high frequency voltage, $V_{hfss}(k)$. The resulting current is filtered as described in [14] and a signal at twice the rotor position is

generated due to the position dependent magnetic saliency. This signal can be tracked in a closed loop, saliency image-tracking observer to produce position, velocity, acceleration, and disturbance torque estimates.

Figs. 22 and 23 show the results of a no load closed loop low speed sensorless control using the self-sensing position estimate as feedback for the controller. Fig. 22 shows the spectra of the negative sequence current (as defined in [14]) for a constant 3 Hz speed. The component due to the rotor saliency is clearly visible at 6 Hz. Fig. 23 shows a no load speed reversal from -3 Hz to + 3 Hz.

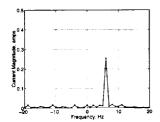


Fig. 22. Negative sequence current spectra for constant speed 3 Hz operation

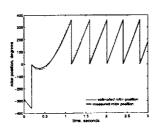


Fig. 23. Sensorless speed reversal of proposed controller with estimated rotor position and speed feedback based on selfsensing method

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has developed a new, deadbeat direct torque control method based on stator and rotor flux as state variables. This choice of state variables allows a clear graphical visualization of the voltage vector solution and the inverter operating limits.

The implementation of the proposed controller was evaluated experimentally and found to produce good results. The implementation issues which could limit performance were also evaluated.

The controller was found to be sensitive to the one step time delay in the experimental implementation. The deadtime voltage drop, without appropriate compensation, was also found to reduce the torque and flux in the machine.

The structure of the proposed controller allows the addition of a high frequency voltage vector to the commanded fundamental voltage vector. This allows the self-sensing method of position and speed estimation to be used thus demonstrating low, including zero speed, sensorless control.

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APPENDIX

NASA Motor: 2 pole induction, 96 V_{LN}, 400 Hz, L_m=1.9e-3 H., L_{ls}=1.25e-4 H., L_{lr}=1.25e-4 H., R_r=.105 Ω ., R_s=.09 Ω ., J=1.02e-4 kg-m², τ_{em} =1 N-m, ω_{r} =23,030 rpm

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A new, deadbeat type of direct torque control is proposed, analyzed, and experimentally verified in this paper. The control is based on stator and rotor flux as state variables. This choice of state variables allows a graphical representation which is transparent and insightful. The graphical solution shows the effects of realistic considerations such as voltage and current limits. A position and speed sensorless implementation of the control, based on the self-sensing signal injection technique, is also demonstrated experimentally for low speed operation. The paper first develops the new, deadbeat DTC methodology and graphical representation of the new algorithm. It then evaluates feasibility via simulation and experimentally demonstrates performance of the new method with a laboratory prototype including the sensorless methods.						
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