



# Design and implementation of an industrial vector-controlled induction motor drive

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**Abstract.** Vector-controlled induction motor drives are quite popular in the industry in applications that demand high dynamic performance. This paper describes the implementation of a complete industrial vector-controlled drive for a 30 kW induction motor. The control algorithms for the drive are implemented using a TMS320F28335 Digital Signal Controller (DSC). Various monitoring and protection functions for the drive are implemented using a Cyclone IV FPGA that communicates with the DSC, and acts as the master controller for the drive. The FPGA also communicates with a Human–Machine Interface to provide a simple graphical control interface to the operator.

**Keywords.** Digital signal controller (DSC); field-oriented control; human–machine interface (HMI); industrial drive; induction motor; vector control.

## 1. Introduction

AC induction motor drives using vector control technique are widely employed in industrial applications requiring high dynamic performance. A typical example of such an application is the drive used in a steel rolling mill. The drives are used in power levels varying from a few kW up to the MW ranges. Modern day drives also include various built-in facilities for monitoring, protection and fault diagnosis, in addition to the basic functionality. IEEE Std 1566 [1] specifies the standards and some of the desired features for an industrial drive of large rating. Also, these additional facilities should not interfere with the accuracy and speed of execution of the main control algorithms. Therefore, a typical control hardware for industrial drives generally employs two separate processing units, one of which acts as a master controller and the other as a slave. The slave unit is dedicated for executing the main drive control algorithms, while the master controls the slave and also takes care of the monitoring, protection and diagnosis functions. The master unit also has additional non-volatile memory interfaced with it for data logging of critical drive parameters. Additionally, industrial drives also have a user interface, which allows the operator to control the drive and also remotely monitor various drive parameters [2]. An

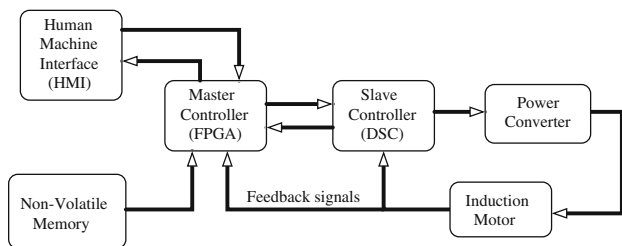
overall block diagram of such an industrial drive is shown in figure 1.

This paper describes the implementation of a complete standalone industrial drive package for an induction motor, as described earlier. The drive is intended to be operated using a standard rotor-flux-oriented vector control technique. The designed drive must have the following capabilities.

- Ability to operate without using a speed sensor up to speeds as low as 2.5 Hz.
- Self-commissioning capability by parameter estimation and auto-tuning of control loops.
- Ability to ride through short-term power supply interruptions, and start on-the-fly.
- Interface with a Human–Machine Interface (HMI) to receive commands from the operator, and also display monitored machine parameters and fault information.
- A three-tier protection from an analog protection card, DSP and FPGA side.

The control algorithms for the drive are implemented using TMS320F28335, a 32-bit floating point Digital Signal Controller (DSC). The various monitoring, protection and diagnostic capabilities are implemented using a Cyclone IV FPGA device, which also acts as the master controller. The design of the FPGA system is based on the NIOS II soft processor core and block diagram logic, working with

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**Figure 1.** Block diagram of an industrial drive.

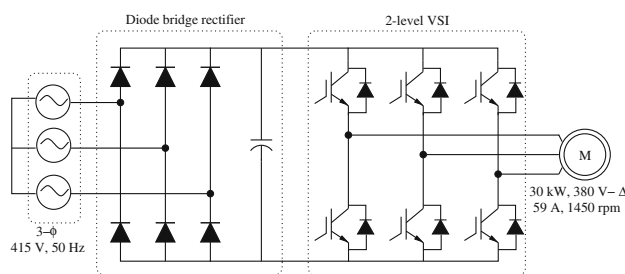
proper synchronisation. The user interface for the drive is designed around a G306A modular process controller from Red Lion Controls Inc serially communicating with the FPGA master. The paper explains the manner in which the synchronised communication between the master and slave controller is implemented, and also the sequence of processes that happen during the starting, running and stopping or tripping of the drive. The various protection and fault diagnosis facilities in the drive and their implementation on the FPGA are also explained in detail.

Section 2 describes the organisation of the drive in detail. The DSP–FPGA communication and the overall communication between various units of the drive are explained. The sequence of actions during various phases of drive operation are also described. Section 3 describes the additional functionalities of the drive like self-commissioning and ride-through capability. The implementations of various monitoring and diagnosis functions are also explained. Section 4 presents and discusses some of the results obtained from the implementation of the drive. Section 5 discusses the conclusions from the present work.

## 2. Drive organisation

### 2.1 Power structure of the drive

The power structure of the drive is as shown in figure 2. The power converter is a 35 kVA, two-level, IGBT-based Voltage Source Inverter (VSI) operated at a switching frequency of 2 kHz. The rated DC bus voltage of 600 V is



**Figure 2.** Power structure of the drive.

obtained from a front end three-phase diode bridge rectifier. The firing pulses to the drive are generated from the DSC running sensed or sensorless vector control algorithms with a loop sampling time of 100  $\mu$ s. Hall effect sensors are used to sense the line currents of the machine and the DC bus voltage of the inverter, for feedback. An improved flux estimation algorithm, as reported in [5], is used for control, to obtain an accurate field orientation. With this control scheme, low-speed, sensor-less operation up to 2.5 Hz stator frequency is achieved.

### 2.2 Control platform

A powerful control board is designed to take care of the sophisticated needs of the drive. The board houses both the DSC and FPGA devices. Additional external Analog–Digital Converters (ADCs) are also interfaced with the FPGA device. The board includes scaling, level shifting and filtering circuitry for conditioning of the sensed analog signals from the drive, so as to make it suitable to be fed to the ADC channels of the controllers. Additionally, level shifting and differential transmission circuitry are provided to obtain clean and noise-free PWM signals compatible with the gate drivers of the power converter. The board also includes transceivers for several communication protocols and Digital–Analog Converter (DAC) circuits connected to both the DSC and the FPGA. It also houses additional memory chips, both volatile and non-volatile, interfaced with the controllers. All the ICs used in the board are chosen to be of industrial grade.

### 2.3 Communication flow

A block diagram of the various communications in the drive is shown in figure 3. The FPGA device is the master controller, which communicates with both the HMI and the DSC. The FPGA processes the commands input to the HMI from the user, and controls the DSC accordingly. The communication between the HMI and FPGA is implemented via a serial link using an RS-485 transceiver IC ADM2587. A provision for RS-232 link is also provided for the HMI–FPGA communication. Further, provisions for CAN communications are provided for both the DSP and FPGA by interfacing a CAN transceiver IC with the controllers. These, along with the serial communication links, may be used for future expansion by interfacing to SCADA or EMS systems.

The communication between the DSP and the FPGA is based on the External Interface (XINTF) peripheral of the TMS320F28335. This peripheral allows external devices to be connected to the DSC as memory–mapped peripherals with 16 or 32-bit data width. The DSC has three different XINTF zones (0, 6 and 7), each having its own chip-select, read-enable and write-enable signals. In the present drive, zone 0 is used for implementing the DSC–FPGA interface.

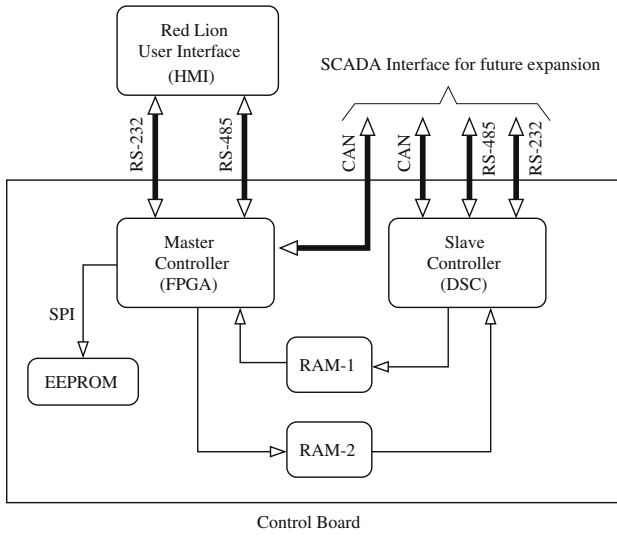


Figure 3. Various communications in the drive.

The XINTF is configured in the 16-bit mode with a 150 MHz clock signal. Eight GPIO lines of the DSC are configured as the address lines and connected to the FPGA, so as to address a total of 256 memory locations. Also, another 16 GPIOs are configured as the data bus and connected to the FPGA. Bi-directional communication is established between the master and slave device using two SARAM blocks configured within the FPGA and connected to the DSC via the XINTF. This communication is also shown in figure 3.

RAM-1 is an array of 128 memory locations, each of 16-bit width. The DSP is allowed to write only to these locations, while the FPGA can only read from these locations. RAM-2 is similar to RAM-1, except that the FPGA can only write to while the DSP can only read from these locations. Thus the communication from FPGA to DSP is established by writing data into pre-determined locations of RAM-2. Similarly, communication from DSP to FPGA is achieved by writing into the locations of RAM-1. The data are read from these RAM as and when needed by the control software. For example, location 0x0040 is used to transmit the information about the estimated machine speed to the master controller. Thus, whenever the speed information is required, the master reads data from this location.

The communication between the HMI and the master controller is managed by the NIOS II soft processor in the FPGA built using the Qsys tool from Altera. The FPGA side configuration showing the NIOS core along with connected IP cores and block diagram logic is shown in figure 4.

The NIOS processor communicates with all IP cores using a memory-mapped slave interface (Avalon-MM). The NIOS II hardware system consists of CPU, on-chip memory, JTAG link (for communication between host computer and NIOS), EPCS flash controller, interval timer (to generate periodic interrupts), system ID peripheral, UART core

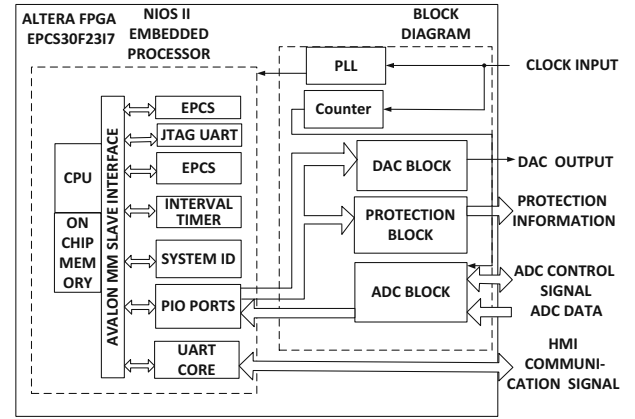


Figure 4. Master controller architecture.

(for RS485) and parallel I/O ports (interface between NIOS and block diagram logic).

#### 2.4 Condition monitoring

During drive operation, the master controller monitors various electrical, mechanical and thermal parameters and sends them to the HMI. For slow varying parameters like speed, heat sink temperature and DC bus voltage, the average values over a sampling time are calculated. For other parameters like currents and voltages, the FPGA system calculates the true RMS values using the relation

$$X = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} [x(n)^2]}{N}} \quad (1)$$

where  $X$  is the true rms value of a signal  $x(t)$  and  $N$  is the total number of samples over a time period. The time period is calculated from the stator frequency information obtained from the DSP. The FPGA also calculates the fundamental and harmonic components upto 11th harmonic, and the Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) of phase and line voltages and currents, using the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) algorithm. The DFT calculation is done in the following manner:

$$A_i = \sqrt{a_i^2 + b_i^2} \quad (2)$$

where  $A_i$  is the magnitude of the  $i$ th harmonic and  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are given as follows:

$$a_i = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left[ x(n) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{N} ni\right) \right] \quad (3)$$

$$b_i = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left[ x(n) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{N} ni\right) \right] \quad (4)$$

where  $n$  corresponds to the  $n$ th sample and  $N$  is the total number of samples. The THD of the signal is then calculated as

$$THD = \frac{\sqrt{(A_{rms}^2 - A_{1rms}^2)}}{A_{1rms}}. \quad (5)$$

The HMI displays these parameters and also alerts the operator by sounding an alarm, if any parameter goes out of normal limits.

### 2.5 Protection and fault diagnosis

Protection and fault diagnosis are vital components of any drive system [3, 4]. It prevents operation of the drive under abnormal conditions like over-currents, over-voltages, over-speed, etc. In the present system, the protection is provided at three different levels in the system. The primary protection is implemented on an analog protection card, based on fast acting opamp comparators, whose output is given to the set input of an RS latch, through a wired AND logic. The comparators compare the actual signals from the drive with a reference voltage. The output of the RS latch is used to generate an ENABLE signal that will block the PWMs on detection of any fault. Fault diagnosis is provided by additional latches wired to individual comparator outputs, whose outputs are used to drive LEDs that indicate the type of fault. Once the drive system trips on any fault, the system needs to be reset and started again following the operating sequences.

Secondary backup protection is provided from the FPGA side, where the FPGA compares the digital signal from the ADCs with set reference values. The tripping is done by pulling the trip zone pin of the DSC low. This blocks the PWM generation from the DSP in a fast manner independent of the processor. An appropriate fault message is also sent to the HMI for display. Tertiary backup protection is provided from the DSC side using the sensed signals from the ADC. Whenever the sensed signal exceeds the reference limits, a software trip event is initiated, and the appropriate fault message information is transmitted to the FPGA for display on the HMI. However, this is a slower protection due to the execution loop time of the DSC. Figure 5 shows the display on the user interface for an over-current trip from the analog protection card.

### 2.6 Drive operating sequences

The operation of the drive is divided into specific sequences, namely START, RUN and STOP sequences. These sequences describe the state of the drive and the response of the drive to external user actions or faults. The logics and program flow during each of these sequences are described in the following.

**START sequence:** The START sequence describes the course of events that happen when the user issues a



Figure 5. Fault annunciation in the HMI.

START command to the drive from the HMI. Initially, when the control supply is extended to the drive, the HMI will boot up and present the user with an option to START the drive. At this stage, the DSC is held in a reset condition by the FPGA, by pulling its RSTn pin low. When the user gives a start command, the DSC is brought out of RESET by the FPGA. The FPGA then retrieves the default values of the reference quantities and the various parameters and displays it to the user on the HMI. The user can modify these parameters on the HMI. The FPGA then receives the modified parameters and sends it to the DSP via the FPGA. The FPGA then checks for drive healthiness by monitoring a signal from the analog protection card of the drive. If the drive is healthy, the FPGA issues commands to close the charging contactor. Then, the FPGA waits for 2 s and checks to see if the DC bus voltage has risen to at least 80% of its rated value. If the DC voltage has been built up, the FPGA now issues commands to open the charging contactor and close the main contactor. FPGA then issues the RUN command to the DSP. The DSP upon receiving the run command executes the control algorithms and releases the PWM pulses to the power converter. The complete flow diagram for the START sequence is shown in figure 6.

**RUN sequence:** In the RUN sequence, the DSP keeps on executing the control algorithms, while the FPGA continuously communicates with the HMI to display the drive status and parameters. Figure 7 shows a display page on the HMI during the run sequence showing the various parameters of the drive. The RUN mode continues until a stop command is received or the drive is tripped on a protection.

**STOP sequence:** Whenever the drive receives a stop command from the operator via the HMI, the FPGA withdraws the RUN command by clearing the appropriate location in RAM-2. This blocks all PWM pulses to the drive. The FPGA then pulls the reset pin of the DSP low and issues a command to open the main contactor.

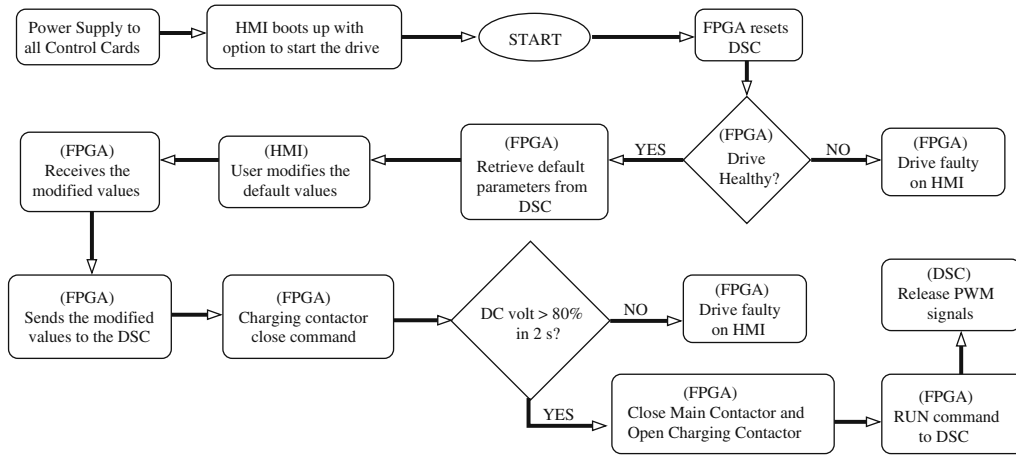


Figure 6. Start sequence for the drive.



Figure 7. Parameter monitoring during RUN sequence.

### 3. Additional features

#### 3.1 Self-commissioning scheme

A self-commissioning scheme, as reported in [5], has been implemented in the drive. The user has to enter the nameplate details of the drive at the beginning. With this scheme, the parameters of the machine like stator resistance, stator and rotor leakage inductance, magnetising inductance and the rotor time constant are determined automatically by the drive before starting. They are then used to tune the control loops for vector control.

The leakage inductance is determined by applying a short pulse of  $80 \mu\text{s}$  duration to one of the phases with the machine at standstill. Under these conditions, the machine presents only the stator resistance and leakage inductance impedance to the applied voltage. The voltage equation can be written as

Table 1. Estimated parameters.

Parameter	Self-commissioning scheme	No-load and blocked rotor test
$R_s = R_r$	0.1255 $\Omega$	0.1273 $\Omega$
$L_{ls} = L_{lr}$	1.15 mH	1.34 mH
$\tau_r$	0.3587 s	0.366 s

$$V_s = R_s i_s + \sigma L_s \frac{di_s}{dt} \quad (6)$$

where  $\sigma L_s$ , which denotes the stator transient inductance, can be shown to be approximately twice the stator leakage inductance. Thus, with the applied step voltage pulse, the current rises linearly. The leakage inductance can be calculated directly from the slope of the current trace.

Stator resistance is obtained by injecting a DC current into one phase using the inverter, while the machine is at standstill. The voltage applied to the machine is calculated from the PWM duty ratio, which is then used to calculate the stator resistance. The rotor resistance and leakage inductance are assumed to be equal to those of the stator. While calculating the stator resistance, the voltage applied to the stator windings from the inverter is quite low and hence the effects of deadtime and switch drops become significant. Therefore, they have to be compensated for while calculating the stator resistance.

The rotor time constant is estimated by applying a step DC current into one of the phases and measuring the induced stator voltage. It can be shown that this voltage falls exponentially with a time constant equal to the rotor time constant. The initial slope of this falling voltage gives the rotor time constant. The entire estimation process is completed in less than 1 min time, before the machine is started.

The self-commissioning scheme is not required to be run each time before starting the machine. It is a special function, which the user can invoke if so required. Table 1

compares the parameters obtained from the self-commissioning scheme with those obtained from no-load and blocked rotor tests on the machine.

### 3.2 Power loss ride-through

Power loss ride-through refers to the ability of the drive to withstand a momentary power supply interruption at the grid side, without tripping on undervoltage protection [6]. The drive should also be able to smoothly continue operation when the supply is restored. In the present drive, a regenerative scheme of ride-through as reported in [7] is implemented. In this method, the machine is made to regenerate whenever a power supply interruption is sensed. The developed torque in an induction machine can be written as

$$M_d = K_t i_{mr} i_{sq} \tag{7}$$

where  $i_{mr}$  denotes the rotor magnetising current,  $i_{sq}$  denotes the stator  $q$ -axis current and  $K_t$  is a machine parameter. Thus, by making  $i_{sq}$  negative during a supply interruption, the machine can be made to regenerate. The regenerated power is used to maintain the DC bus voltage during ride-through. With this scheme, the drive is able to withstand supply interruptions of duration up to 2 s without tripping. However, the drop in speed is dependent on the mechanical load on the machine. Figure 8 shows the waveforms in the drive for a ride-through condition at no-load. The drop in speed and the smooth restart after supply is restored are clearly visible.

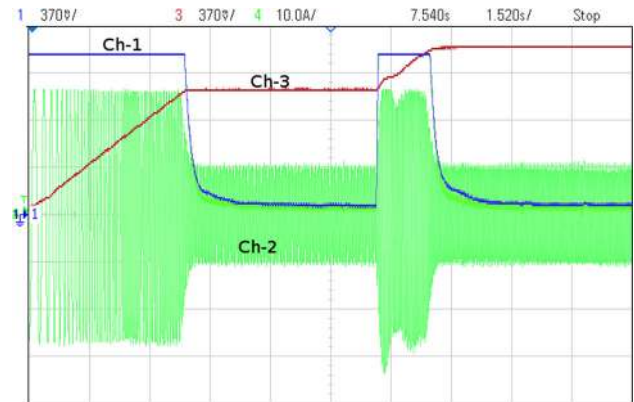
## 4. Results

The designed drive is tested under various operating conditions. Some of the results obtained are presented here.

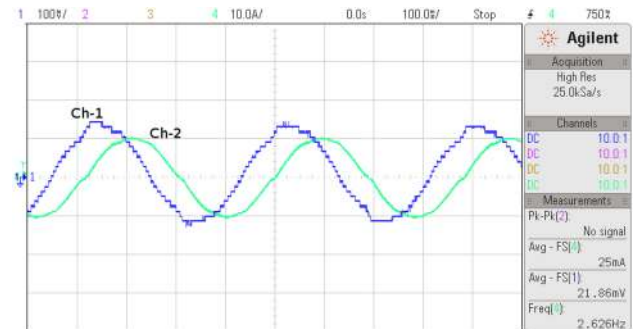
Figure 9 shows the response of the R-phase current in the machine during starting with no-load and a step change in

speed reference. The variation in speed and the  $q$ -axis current of the machine is also shown.

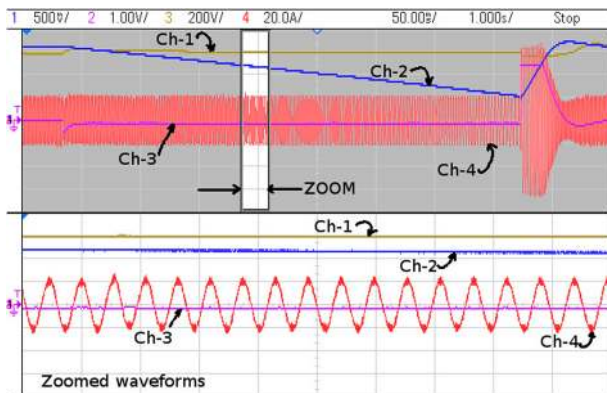
Figure 10 shows the waveforms of the R-phase modulating signal and the phase current at low-speed operation of 75 rpm.



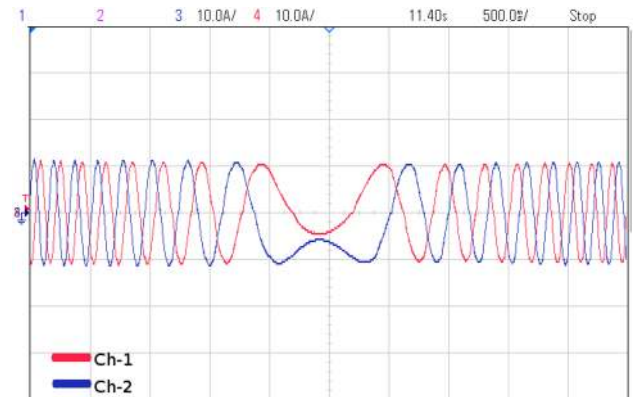
**Figure 9.** Starting and a step change in speed reference. (Ch1— $q$ -axis current, Ch2—R-phase current, Ch3—mechanical speed in pu scale. X-axis: 1.52 s/div, Y-axis: Ch1, Ch3—0.225 pu/div Ch2—10 A/div).



**Figure 10.** Waveforms at low speed operation (75 rpm). Ch1—R-phase are modulating signal, Ch2—R-phase are current. (scale: X-axis: 100 ms/div, Y-axis: Ch1—0.06 pu/div, Ch2—10 A/div).



**Figure 8.** Waveforms during regenerative ride-through: Ch1—DC bus voltage, Ch2—speed, Ch3— $i_{sq}$ , Ch4—R-phase current (scale—X-axis: 1.0 s/div, Y-axis: Ch1—200 V/div, Ch2—455 rpm/div, Ch3—15.15 A/div, Ch4—20 A/div).



**Figure 11.** Waveforms during a speed reversal: Ch1—R-phase are current, Ch2—Y-phase are current (scale: X-axis: 500 ms/div, Y-axis: Ch1—10 A/div, Ch2—10 A/div).

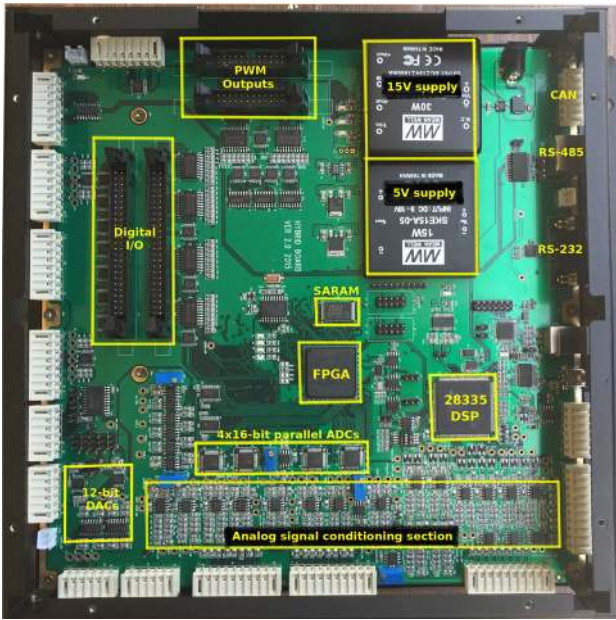


Figure 12. Developed control platform.

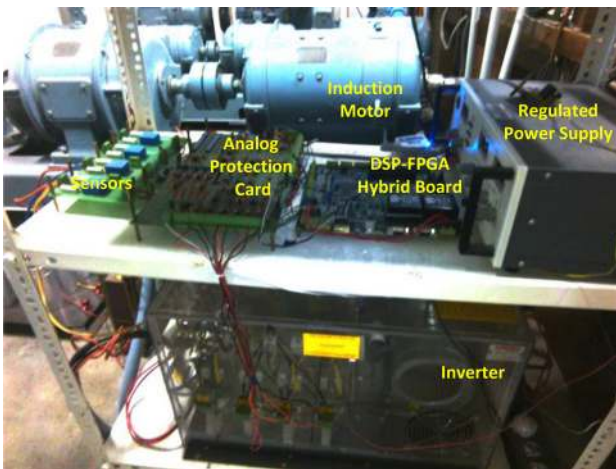


Figure 13. Drive set-up (HMI not shown).

The waveforms are indicative of the satisfactory performance of the estimation algorithms under low-speed conditions.

Figure 11 shows the waveforms of the phase current during a speed reversal operation. Figure 12 shows a photograph of the developed control platform that houses the DSC and the FPGA. Figure 13 shows a photograph of the complete drive set-up.

## 5. Conclusion

This paper described the implementation of a complete industrial drive using sensed or sensorless vector control for an induction motor. The control organisation and the

sequence of activities involved in starting, running and stopping of the drive are explained in detail. The communication and co-ordination between various units of the drive, and the implementation of the DSC–FPGA communication using the XINTF peripheral of the DSC, are also described. The additional features of the drive like self-commissioning, ride-through and remote status monitoring are also explained. Finally, some of the results from the hardware implementation are also presented.

## Appendix: Machine details

### Appendix 1: Machine rating

30 kW, 380 V, 1450 rpm, 59 A, 3- $\phi$  delta connected squirrel cage induction machine.

### Appendix 2: Machine parameters

$R_S = 0.1273 \Omega$ ,  $R_r = 0.127 \Omega$ ,  $L_{ls} = 1.34 \text{ mH}$ ,  $L_{lr} = 1.34 \text{ mH}$ ,  $L_m = 45.219 \text{ mH}$ .

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