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**AN INDUCTION MOTOR DRIVE USING
A RESONANT DC LINK INVERTER**

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February 1996

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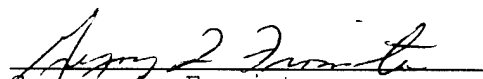
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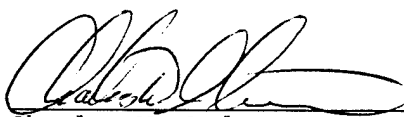
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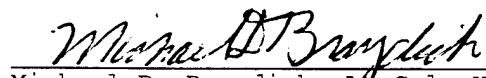
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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) New initiatives to increase the use of electrical power, such as the electric vehicle and the More Electric Airplane, have created a need for improved motor drives. The use of adjustable speed drives has recently received more attention in these applications because new circuit topologies and power components have been developed that have enabled improvements in efficiency, power density and response times. This study reports the design and simulation of an actively clamped resonant dc link inverter that will drive an induction motor based blower. The objective of this study is to design, build and test a resonant dc link (RDCL) inverter and compare the performance of a six-step control strategy with a pulse density modulation strategy in an adjustable speed drive. Comparisons are made between a hard switched pulse width modulation converter and an RDCL inverter. Theoretical and experimental power loss calculations of the RDCL inverter are compared and discussed. The performance of constant voltage/frequency adjustable speed control is presented.				
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FOREWORD

This report documents the design and simulation of an actively clamped resonant dc link inverter that will drive an induction motor based blower. The objective of this project is to design, build and test a resonant dc link (RDCL) inverter and compare the performance of a six-step control strategy with a pulse density modulation strategy in an adjustable speed drive. Comparisons are made between a hard switched pulse width modulation converter and an RDCL inverter. Theoretical and experimental power loss calculations of the RDCL inverter are compared and discussed. The performance of constant voltage/frequency adjustable speed control is presented.

This effort was accomplished by the Power Components Branch (POOC), Aerospace Power Division (POO), Aero Propulsion and Power Directorate, Wright Laboratory, Wright Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio, under work unit 31452939, "Advanced Aircraft Electrical Power Generation and Distribution" with Gregory L. Fronista leading the technical effort.

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

α	Neper frequency
μ	Permeability of magnetic core
μ_0	Permeability of air
ζ	Resistance correction factor
ω	Frequency (rad/sec)
ω_0	Resonant frequency (rad/sec)
A_c	Area of magnetic core
A_p	Area product
B	Flux density
$B_{\max}$	Maximum flux density
C_c	Clamp capacitor
C_r	Resonant capacitor
F	Fringing flux factor
f_i	Switching frequency of sine wave for PDM
f_r	Resonant frequency (Hz)
f_s	Switching frequency of triangle wave for PDM
f_{sl}	Slip frequency
I_i	Inverter bus reversal current
I_d	Inverter current
I_L	Resonant inductor current
I_m	Initial resonant inductor current
I_o	Output current
k	Clamp voltage constant
l_g	Air gap of magnetic core
L_r	Resonant inductor
M	Speed control constant
m_f	Frequency modulation ratio
MLT	Mean length turn
N	Number of turns
n_s	Synchronous speed
n_{sl}	Slip speed
P_Σ	Total power loss of magnetic core
P_{cu}	Copper power loss of magnetic core
PDM	Pulse density modulation
P_{fe}	Ferrite power loss of magnetic core
P_g	Gap power loss of magnetic core
P_o	
PWM	Output power
Q	Pulse width modulation
RDCL	Quality factor

R_w	Resonant dc link
S	Linear resistance of wire
T	Apparent power
t_f	Torque
THD	Fall-time for power switch
V/f	Total harmonic distortion
V_d	Voltage over frequency ratio
V_{fw}	Resonant voltage
V_L	Forward drop of power switch
V_s	Inductor voltage
Z_r	Source voltage
	Impedance of resonant tank circuit

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Power conversion is required to effectively and efficiently control motors of all kind. Performance of the overall system is greatly dependent on the appropriate conversion and control of power to the motor. For example, a system could utilize the most efficient motor and still operate very inefficiently if the motor is not driven properly. Significant improvements can be made in the efficiency, power density and reliability of present motor drives by using new topologies that take advantage of the new switching devices available. These topologies operate at higher switching speeds and employ new control strategies that lead to their increase in performance. These motor drives are required for a new initiative within the Air Force titled the More-Electric Aircraft (MEA).

The MEA's goal is to reduce or eliminate all non-electrical lines such as hydraulic, pneumatic and bleed air and replace them with electrical lines. Therefore, the power electronics must be reduced in size and weight and have better fault tolerant performance. One place that a high efficiency, quick responding motor drive will be needed is in the area of actuator drives. These devices could range from fractional horsepower to 100s of horsepower. New motor drives are required to make the MEA feasible.

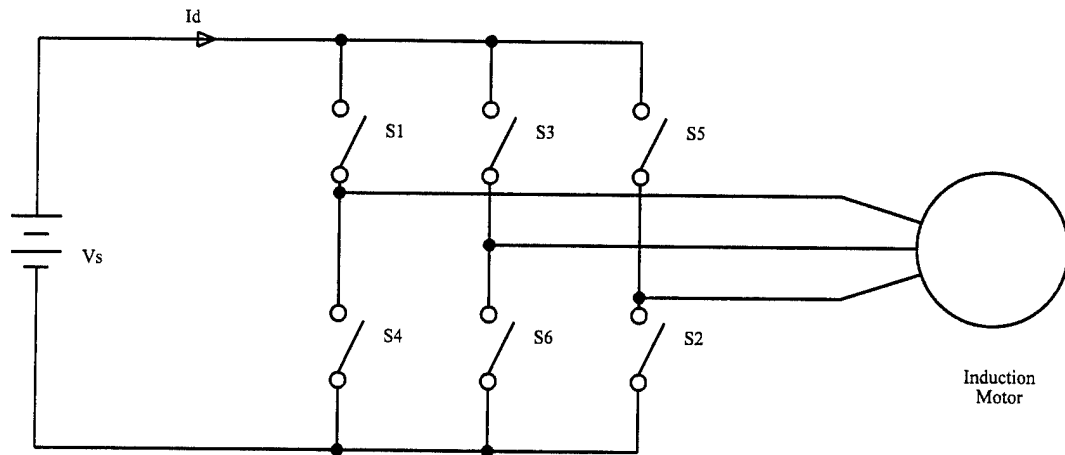


Figure 1.1 - Conventional hard-switched motor drive

Conventional motor drives (Fig 1.1) operate in a hard-switched mode that increases losses and generates tremendous device stresses. The stresses placed on these devices also reduce the reliability of these motor drives. The majority of these motor drives require large snubber circuits for the switching devices to limit the voltage and current transients that could destroy the devices. These snubber circuits slow down the switching speed of these power devices, increase losses in the circuit, and add size and weight to the motor drive. The switching devices heat up due to the switching losses and operate less efficiently affecting the efficiency of the entire motor drive. These factors limit the switching frequency of the motor drive causing less than optimal efficiency.

Another desirable feature is to go to higher switching frequencies to reduce electromagnetic interference (EMI), harmonic distortion, and greatly reduce the size and weight of the magnetic components and capacitors. In order for higher switching frequencies to be attainable, a great deal of time and money has been spent by various organizations to improve the power switching devices, leading to the advent of the insulated-gate bipolar

transistor (IGBT) and the MOS-controlled thyristor (MCT). These devices have higher switching speeds leading to reduced switching losses, reduced on voltage and improved safe operating areas (SOA), however, the switching frequencies are still limited. In order to attain higher switching frequencies, a new topology must be implemented. The concept of a soft-switching, resonant DC link (RDCL) converter was introduced by D.M. Divan [1] to increase the switching frequency. Efficiency is increased because switching losses are nearly eliminated which are a large portion of the losses in a PWM inverter. Snubbers are eliminated which increases power density. The inverter bridge devices require minimal cooling and no longer have large voltage stresses, both contributing to improved reliability.

New control strategies also can be implemented that will allow faster response, and yield improvements in EMI and harmonic distortion. One of the latest control strategies implemented in power conversion is called pulse density modulation (PDM). This is similar to pulse width modulation where a sine wave is emulated using a series of pulses. When a reference sine wave is at its maximum, the density of pulses is high, and when the sine wave is at its minimum, there are few pulses. This strategy is shown in Fig. 1.2.

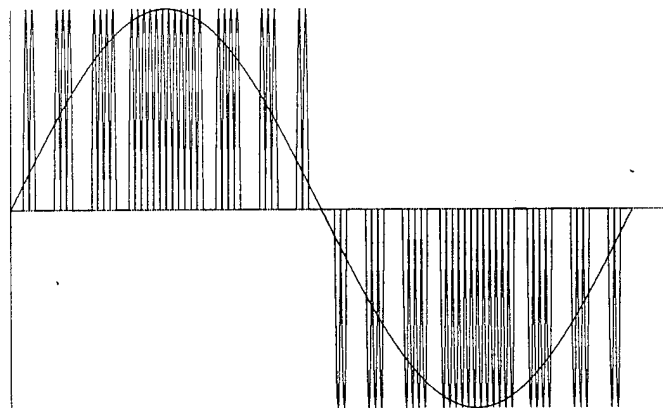


Figure 1.2 - Pulse density modulation waveforms

A resonant DC link (RDCL) inverter is illustrated in Fig. 1.3. This topology involves placing a simple L-C resonant circuit between the DC bus and a conventional inverter. The RDCL operates in the following manner. A DC voltage (V_s) is applied to a parallel L-C

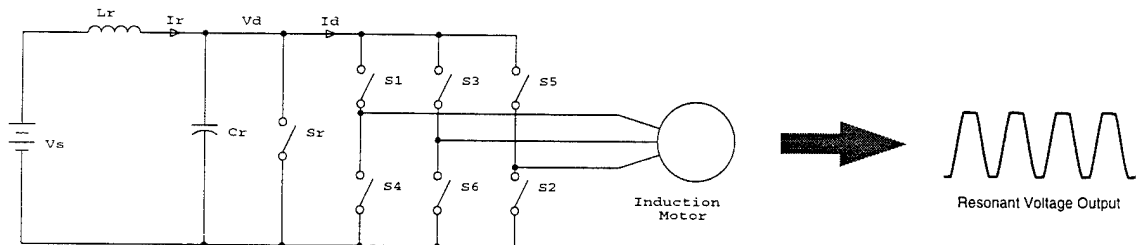


Figure 1.3 - Basic resonant DC link circuit

resonant circuit with a switch S_r across the capacitor. By closing S_r , the inductor L_r is charged. When L_r is charged to a sufficient level, S_r is opened and the resonant bus voltage oscillates and returns to zero. A SaberTM simulation of this operation is shown in Fig. 1.4 where V_d is the RDCL bus voltage and I_L is the resonant inductor current. The resonant

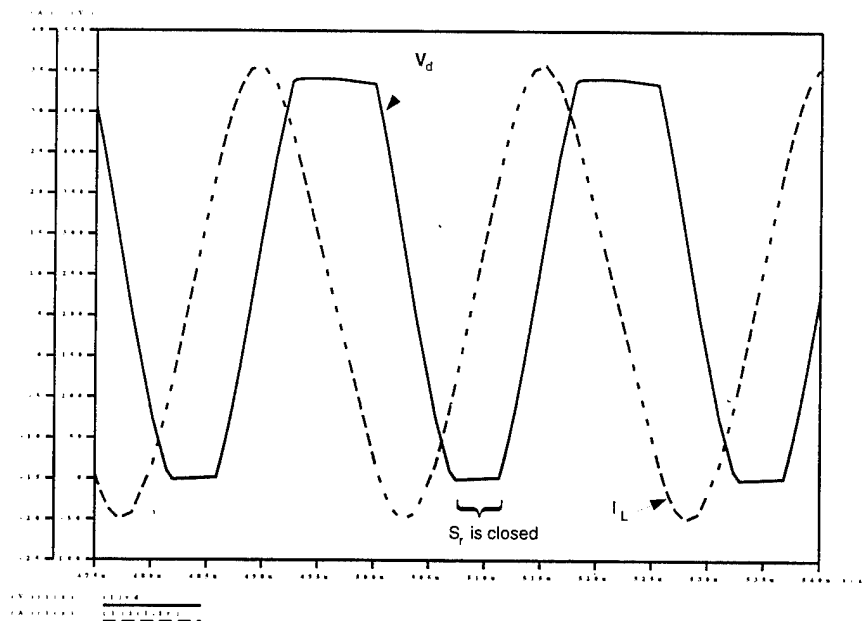


Figure 1.4 - Resonant voltage and current waveforms

switch is closed every time the resonant bus voltage returns to zero. At this time, the power switching devices in the inverter bridge are turned on or off ensuring a zero voltage transition. The idea is simple, however, until recently, technological restrictions limited the practical realization of the topology. The topology is subject to three main limitations; voltage overshoots, zero crossing failure and resonant circuit losses.

Ideally the RDCL bus voltage will ring up to approximately $2 V_s$ and then return to zero. When the motor is loaded, the voltage could overshoot as high as $3 V_s$ when the load current goes from its maximum to minimum current. This large voltage overshoot problem can be solved with passive or active clamping [2]. When using passive or active clamping, zero crossing failures can be eliminated by appropriate control of the resonant switch. The most recent control strategy proposed involves sensing the RDCL inductor current, and using a current initialization scheme to set the inductor current to the appropriate value depending on the inverter current [Bose, 3]. By accomplishing this both link voltage overshoot and zero crossing failures are avoided. If this voltage is not assured to return to zero, possibly from high parasitic resistances in the resonant inductor and capacitor, S_r will draw a large current from the capacitor that could destroy the switching device.

Combining soft-switching with PDM yields a motor drive that has improved performance when compared with conventional motor drives. These advantages are attained because all switching occurs at either zero voltage or zero current, thus making switching losses in the power conversion hardware negligible and allowing the switching devices to operate at the extreme (Fig. 1.5) of their safe operating areas (SOA).

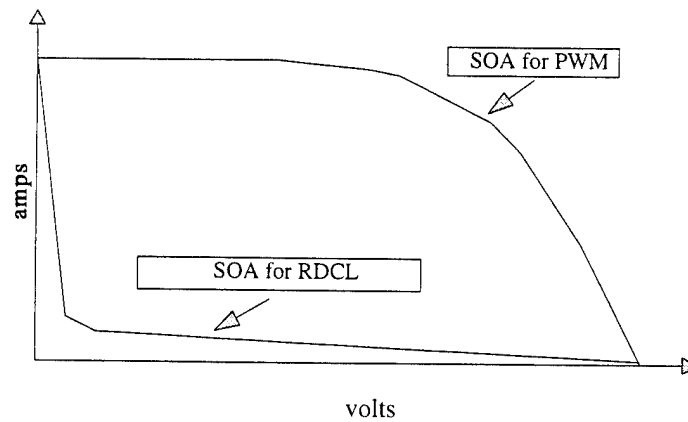


Figure 1.5 - Comparison of safe operating area for a power device in RDCL and PWM inverter

In practice only parts with a high Q-factor (low equivalent series resistance) may be used. These components must operate at a resonant frequency in the range of 20-200 kHz for power circuits, and have very high quality factors. The resonant inductor is the significant component because if there is a large equivalent series resistance involved, then the DC bus will not return to zero while keeping the peak voltage at a reasonable level. A quality factor of 100+ is typically required for the inductor to keep losses low.

This study reports the design and simulation of an actively clamped resonant dc link (ACRDCL) inverter that will drive an induction motor - blower. The objective of this study is to design, build and test an RDCL inverter and compare the performance of a six-step control strategy with a PDM strategy in an adjustable speed drive. Comparisons will be made between a hard switched PWM converter and an RDCL inverter. Theoretical and experimental power loss calculations of the RDCL inverter will be compared and discussed. The performance of constant voltage/frequency ratio adjustable open-loop speed control will also be presented.

CHAPTER 2

RESONANT DC LINK INVERTER DESIGN

This chapter presents the theoretical analysis and simulation modeling of the resonant DC link inverter design. The design synthesizes information from both theoretical and numerical analysis to obtain component values for experimental implementation of the circuit.

2.1 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF RDCL INVERTER

A theoretical analysis of the RDCL inverter enables the selection of critical components and prediction of the power losses of each component. This reveals where improvements in components can bring about the biggest performance gains. The theoretical analysis will be compared with the experimental results and if any large discrepancies exist, action can be taken to optimize the circuit and eliminate as many parasitic losses as possible. The theoretical analysis also provides information pertaining to heat sink requirements if they are necessary for the various power components.

2.1.1 RESONANT LINK VOLTAGE AND CURRENT ANALYSIS

The equivalent circuit of the RDCL during each resonant cycle can be seen in Fig. 2.1. Throughout the remainder of this text, the IGBT and associated free-wheeling diode will be shown schematically as an ideal switch for simplicity. To simplify the analysis for this

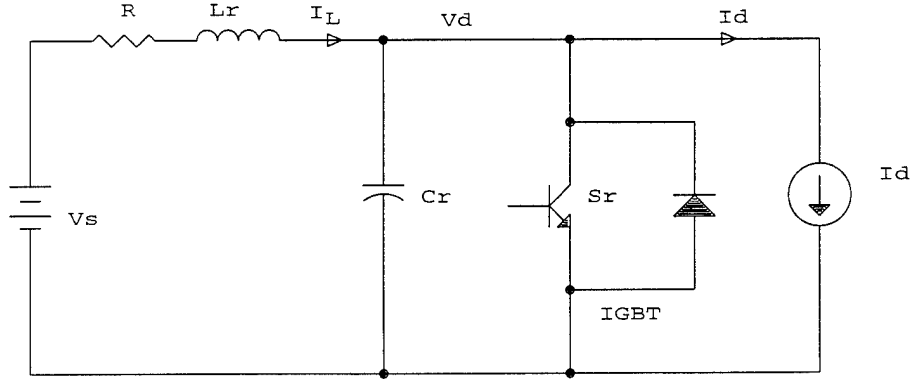


Figure 2.1 - Equivalent resonant DC link circuit

circuit, it is assumed that the motor inductance is much greater than the resonant inductor L_r . The result of this assumption is that the current drawn by the motor appears to be a DC current during one resonant cycle, and therefore is modeled as a constant current drain. The resonant voltage and current are found using Kirchhoff's laws. The resonant current is $I_L(t) = I_d + I_{C_r}$ and the resonant voltage is $V_d = V_s - I_L R - L \frac{dI_L}{dt}$. The circuit response is typically underdamped and the resonant current and voltage can be determined by an analysis of the initial circuit conditions when the resonant switch is closed. If the assumption is made that the link voltage is initially at zero ($V_d(0)=0$) and that the initial inductor current is I_m ($I_L(0)=I_m$), the link voltage V_d and the inductor current I_L can be found to be

$$I_L(t) = I_d + (I_m - I_d)e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t + \frac{2V_s - (I_m + I_d)R}{2\omega L} e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t \quad (2.1)$$

$$V_d = V_s - I_d R + \left(\frac{R}{2\omega L} [-V_s + \frac{R}{2}(I_m + I_d)] + \omega L (I_m - I_d) \right) e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t + (I_d R - V_s) e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t \quad (2.2)$$

where the constants α , ω and ω_o are given by

$$\alpha = \frac{R}{2L} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\omega_o = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} \quad (2.5)$$

$$\omega = \sqrt{\omega_o^2 - \alpha^2} \quad (2.4)$$

These equations are valid until V_d returns to zero, when the free-wheeling diode in the switch conducts and clamps V_d to zero. At this time, the switch S_i is turned on again and the current in the inductor is reinitialized to the value, I_m .

If the parasitic inductor resistance R , is required to be as small as possible to maximize efficiency, we can assume that $R \ll \omega L$. Using these assumptions, equations 2.1 and 2.2 reduce to

$$I_L(t) = I_d + (I_m - I_d)e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t + \frac{V_s}{\omega L} e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t \quad (2.6)$$

$$V_d(t) = V_s + \omega L(I_m - I_d)e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t - V_s e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t \quad (2.7)$$

It can be seen in equation 2.7 that the link voltage V_d is dependent on the term $(I_m - I_d)$. If this term is monitored, the link voltage can be regulated to guarantee that its peak voltage is approximately $2V_s$. This also ensures that the link voltage returns to zero. This enables all of the inverter switches to be turned on or off with no switching losses.

2.1.2 LIMITING THE RDCL VOLTAGE OVERSHOOT

The RDCL inductor current can be initialized to the proper level only when I_d does not change much or when it increases. This is accomplished by keeping the switch closed

long enough so the current increases to the appropriate level. When I_d experiences a sudden decrease however, the current through the inductor must be reduced. This cannot be accomplished with the basic RDCL circuit. If this current is not decreased, the link voltage will spike to a level of $3V_s$ or more. B.K. Bose [3] has presented a possible solution to this problem that involves adding two switches and some other components to enable the inductor current to be decreased, if necessary, to the appropriate level (Fig. 2.2). This scheme is not desirable because it places a power device in series with the power flow of the motor drive. This device will dissipate power decreasing efficiency. An auxiliary source is also required reducing the potential power density of the motor drive.

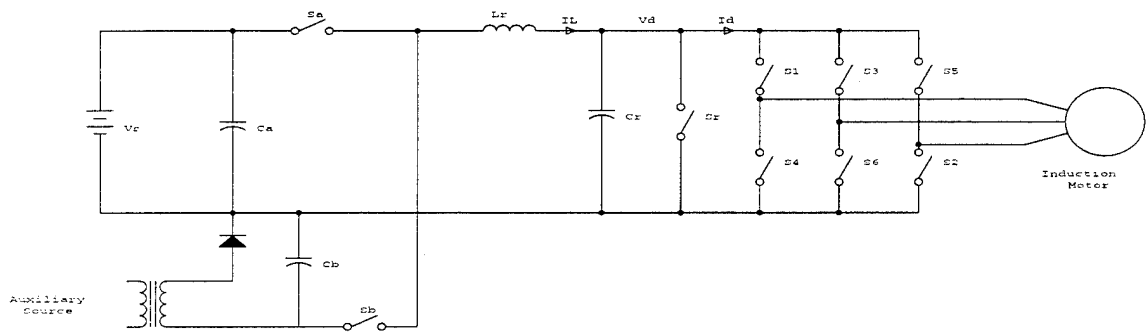


Figure 2.2 - Resonant DC link inverter with bidirectional current initialization

An alternative approach is to use a voltage clamp to limit the peak voltage to a tolerable level. An active clamp can limit the peak voltage to as low as $1.3V_s$ with minimal effects on the overall system. The higher the clamp voltage increases, the less it affects the system. This system uses an active clamp that limits the peak voltage to $1.8V_s$. A schematic of the system is shown in Fig. 2.3.

This circuit operates similarly to the basic RDCL circuit. The switch, S_r , is closed at a zero voltage and is held closed until the inductor current is initialized to the proper level to assure that the link voltage returns to zero with a minimum peak voltage. When the link

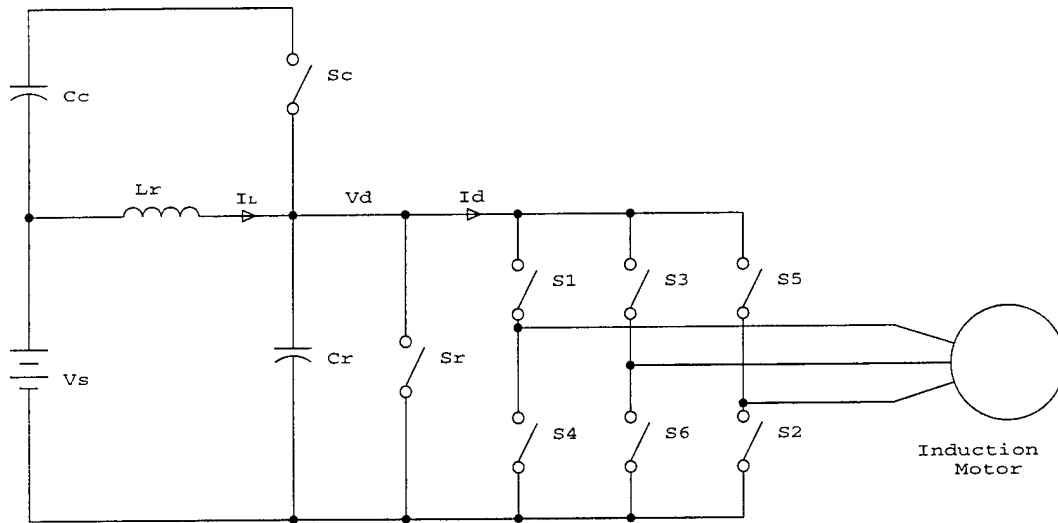


Figure 2.3 - Actively clamped resonant DC link inverter

voltage reaches the proscribed clamp voltage, $kV_s = 1.8V_s$ in this case, the clamping switch S_c , will turn on to limit the link voltage. The clamp switch will remain closed until the net charge transferred into the clamp capacitor is zero, which will maintain the clamp voltage at kV_s . The clamp switch is opened at the appropriate time and the link voltage returns to zero whence the process repeats itself. Typical resonant voltage and resonant and clamp switch gate controls are shown in Fig. 2.4.

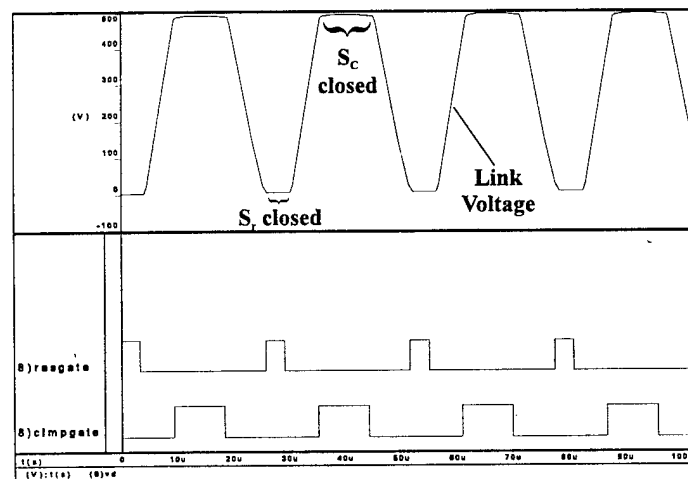


Figure 2.4 - Resonant voltage and timing diagrams for gate signals

To simplify the analysis of the circuit, the equivalent circuit in Fig. 2.5 is used, similar to the approach used earlier to determine the inductor current I_L and link voltage V_d . The resonant frequency (f_r) of the system has been shown [4] to be

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{L_r C_r} \left(\cos^{-1}(1 - k) + \frac{\sqrt{k(2 - k)}}{k - 1} \right)} \quad (2.8)$$

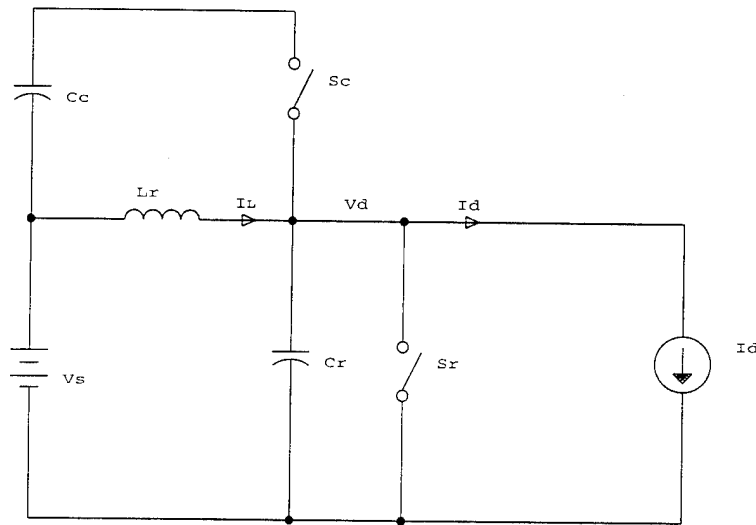


Figure 2.5 - Equivalent actively clamped resonant DC link inverter

2.1.3 POWER LOSS ANALYSIS AND RDCL DESIGN EQUATIONS

In order to select an inductor and capacitor for the resonant link, the power loss of each component is found, and the inductor chosen to minimize the power loss. Three types of power losses are considered in this assessment; switching losses in the RDCL and inverter switches, conduction losses in both the RDCL and inverter switches, and i^2R losses in the resonant link inductor. Since all the switching will be performed very close to zero volts, the

switching losses should be small. The following power loss equations were derived by T.M. Jahns, et al. [4]. Assuming that a pulse density modulation (PDM) strategy is adopted, the switching loss in the main inverter switches is,

$$P_{sm} = \frac{I_0^2 t_f^2}{144 C_r} f_r \quad (2.9)$$

Assuming that all of the devices have equal forward drops (V_{fw}) for all the main inverter switches, the corresponding conduction losses can be shown to be

$$P_{cm} = \frac{6 I_0 V_{fw}}{\pi} \quad (2.10)$$

To determine the switching losses of the clamp device a linear current fall turn-off model is used. It is assumed that the switch is turned off when the inductor current reaches the minimal level necessary to ensure that the link voltage returns to zero. The switching losses in this case are characterized as,

$$P_{sc} = \frac{V_s^2 t_f^2 k(2 - k)}{24 L_r} f_r \quad (2.11)$$

The conduction loss of the clamp device is expressed assuming that the forward drop of the switch is V_{fw} and the conduction losses are the same in the switch and the antiparallel diode

$$P_{cc} = \frac{V_s k(2 - k) V_{fw} C_r}{k - 1} f_r \quad (2.12)$$

The losses in the resonant components depend greatly on the quality of the components used

to implement the resonant link. There are many high quality capacitors available “off the shelf” made of polypropylene, polystyrene or even ceramics, that offer low equivalent series resistance (ESR) ratings. Therefore, the losses of the resonant circuit are dominated by the resonant inductor. The inductor must handle not only the DC current that is being drawn by the motor but also the high frequency resonant current generated by the resonant link itself. Assuming a constant quality factor Q for the resonant inductor, the losses in the resonant circuit can be approximated by

$$P_{ESR} = \frac{1}{Q} \left(\frac{P_o}{V_s} \right)^2 Z_r + \frac{V_s^2}{2QZ_r} \quad (2.13)$$

where

$$Z_r = \sqrt{\frac{L_r}{C_r}} \quad (2.14)$$

and P_o is the output power.

By summing all of the above power losses, the total power loss can be found. Substituting equation 2.14 into the total power loss equation and eliminating C_r using equation 2.8, the resulting equation for the total power loss is expressed as a function of L_r and other known system variables.

$$P_{TOT} = \frac{I_0^2 t_f^2 A^2 f_r^3 L_r}{36} + \frac{6I_0 V_{fw}}{\pi} + \frac{V_s^2 t_f^2 k(2-k)f_r}{24L_r} + \frac{V_s k(2-k) V_{fw}}{4A^2 f_r L_r (k-1)} + \frac{2P_o^2 A f_r L_r}{QV_s^2} + \frac{V_s^2}{4AQf_r L_r} \quad (2.15)$$

where A is defined as

$$A = \cos^{-1}(1-k) + \frac{\sqrt{k(2-k)}}{k-1} \quad (2.16)$$

The derivative of this expression with respect to L_r yields a value for L_r that results in a minimal total power loss.

$$L_r = \sqrt{\frac{3V_s^3 \left(A^2 f_r^2 k(k-1)(k-2) Q t_f V_s + 6k(2-k) Q V_{fw} + 6A(k-1) V_s \right)}{2A^3 f_r^2 (k-1) \left(72P_o^2 + A I_o^2 f_r^2 Q t_f^2 V_s^2 \right)}} \quad (2.17)$$

From this result, C_r can be found using equation 2.8 to be

$$C_r = \frac{1}{(2A f_r)^2 L_r} \quad (2.18)$$

This process was numerically modeled so various parameters could be adjusted and the resonant components determined. This process also indicates what effect each parameter has on the overall performance of the system.

Finally, the clamp capacitor must be chosen so that sufficient energy is stored in C_c to prevent the resonant link voltage from increasing significantly above the clamp voltage. To accomplish this the clamp capacitor must be large when compared to the resonant capacitor. To size this capacitor, C_c must be selected to limit ΔV_{cl} , the excess clamp voltage, to prevent damage to the inverter switches. The clamp capacitor voltage increase is expressed [4] as,

$$\Delta V_{cl} = \sqrt{\left((k-1)V_s^2 + \frac{L_r i_1^2}{C_c} \right)} - (k-1)V_s \quad (2.19)$$

where I_1 is the inverter bus reversal current.

2.2 DESIGN SPECIFICATION AND PARAMETER SELECTION

The following design parameters are adopted for the analysis:

V_s	Source voltage	270 vdc
t_f	Fall-time for main switch	1 μ s
I_o	Output current	18.5 A
k	Clamp voltage constant	1.8
Q	Quality factor of resonant components	200
f_r	Resonant frequency	45 kHz

For these parameters, the resonant inductor L_r is found using equation 2.17 to be 39.8 μ H, and the resonant capacitor is found to be 309 nF using equation 2.18. The capacitor chosen was a 330 nF capacitor made by Philips with an esr of 10 m Ω . The required inductor is custom fabricated. The switches are selected more easily after the circuit is simulated to determine maximum voltage and current levels required for the design.

The value for the clamp capacitor is found using the results above and inserting them into equation 2.19. Further parameters need to be defined to make this determination. Assuming that $i_1 = 75$ A and that ΔV_{cl} should be limited to less than 50 V, a capacitor value of 10 μ F is sufficient. The maximum voltage in this case is 536 V, sufficiently less than the inverter switch voltage rating of 600 V.

The selected RDCL components are simulated in Saber™ to verify the circuit's performance. These simulations also aid in the selection of the switching devices in the

RDCL and the inverter.

2.3 SELECTION OF RESONANT AND CLAMP SWITCHES

Although the resonant components were designed to handle a 5 kW load, the circuit simulation is based on the induction motor-based blower motor that will be used in the

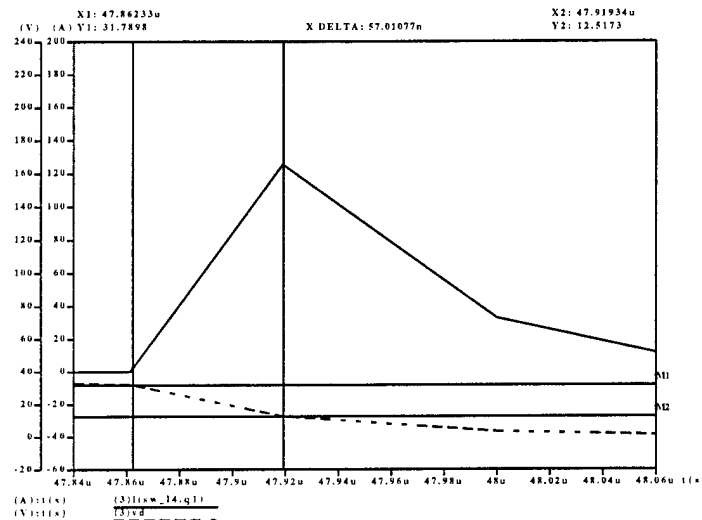


Figure 2.6 - Resonant switch current when V_d is switched at 30 V

experimental portion of this study. This motor is a three-phase Y-connected induction motor with a nameplate rating of 220 V, 1.8 A. The load is modeled as a constant current sink for the simulation with a peak amplitude of 2.5 A. The schematic for the equivalent circuit is shown in Fig. 2.5. The simulation showed a peak resonant switch current of 10.5 A. This current can vary tremendously because S_r shorts out the resonant capacitor. Since the current through a capacitor is approximately $i = C \frac{dv}{dt}$, it is evident that even if the voltage is slightly positive or negative a significant amount of current can be pulled from the capacitor. This justifies the need to overrate the resonant switch. For example, if the resonant switch was to turn on when the resonant bus was at 30 V, the current in the switch could reach 125 A. For this reason, a 45 A IGBT is selected for the resonant switch. More importantly, this

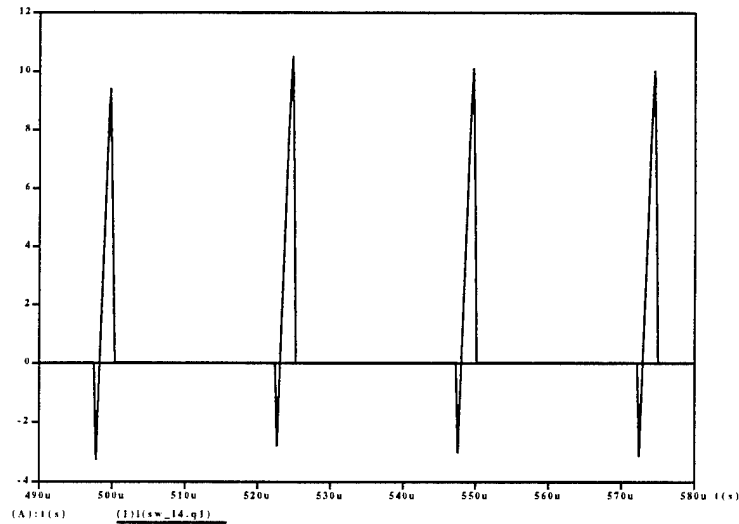


Figure 2.7 - Resonant switch current

reveals the need for a good control strategy that will ensure that the resonant switch will switch only when the resonant voltage is near zero.

The selection of the clamp switch is more straight forward than that of the resonant switch. Because there is a greater impedance in the current path when the clamp switch is turned on, there is a reduced likelihood that a large current will be drawn. Using the same

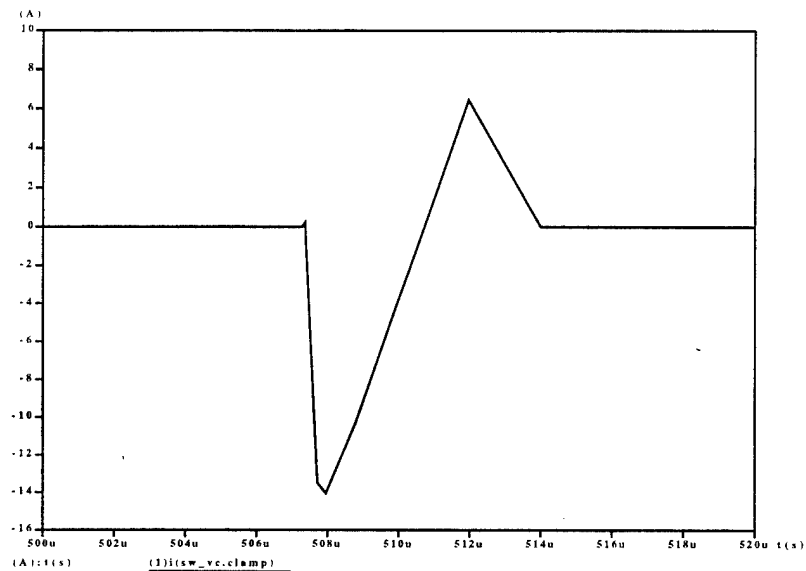


Figure 2.8 - Clamp switch current

simulation as for the resonant switch, the maximum clamp switch current was found to be 14 A. For this switch a device with a 30 A rating would be sufficient, however, for convenience another 45 A IGBT was selected.

2.4 CONTROL OF RESONANT AND CLAMP SWITCHES

In an ideal circuit, the resonant link would resonate continuously with no added energy necessary. However, since the inductor and capacitor have some resistance associated with them, there must be a way to add energy to these resonant components. If energy is not added to the resonant link, it will eventually lose resonance and become a dc voltage. Such an event would be damaging to the inverter. The inverter is designed so that it will switch only when the resonant link is at zero volts. This prohibits the occurrence of a “shoot through”. A shoot through occurs when both a lower and upper switch in an inverter are turned on simultaneously, which effectively short circuits the power source. This is another advantage of an RDCL compared to a PWM inverter.

The resonant switch control depends on two signals, the resonant link voltage and the inductor current. The control signal will turn on the switch when the link voltage reaches zero volts. This creates a zero switching loss situation. The device will stay on until the inductor current reaches a value that equals the current drawn by the load (I_d), plus some minimum value (I_m). By increasing the inductor current to I_m , the link voltage will increase to the proper value and resonance will be sustained. During the time that the resonant switch is on, any of the main switches can turn on or off.

The clamp switch is controlled in a different manner. The clamp voltage constant k determines what voltage the clamp capacitor will be regulated to. With this value selected,

here $k = 1.8$, the clamp capacitor will be regulated to $(k - 1)V_s$ or 216 V. The clamp switch control depends on the resonant link voltage and the current through the clamp capacitor. The clamp switch will turn on when $V_d = k V_s$. The clamp switch will remain on for a duration sufficient to guarantee zero net charge transfer to the capacitor. This control action

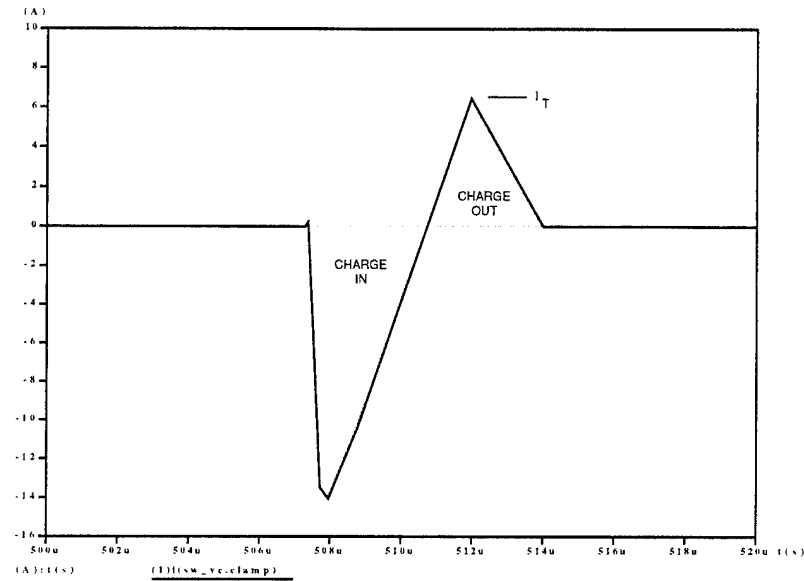


Figure 2.9 - Clamp capacitor current waveform

is depicted in the current waveform through the clamp capacitor (Fig. 2.9). The charge transfer to the clamp capacitor is uncontrollable because the current comes through the anti-parallel diode of the clamp switch. However, the charge released from the capacitor is controlled by the clamp switch. When the charge in equals the charge out, the clamp voltage will be regulated. This is accomplished by measuring the clamp voltage and comparing it with the desired voltage. The difference is then used to set the current threshold I_T to the appropriate value. If this value is too high, then too much charge is released from the clamp capacitor and the voltage begins to decrease. Conversely, when the value is low, not enough charge is released from the clamp and the voltage increases. Under charge balance

conditions, the voltage will remain constant.

2.5 CONTROL OF MAIN SWITCHES

The control of the main switches determines how good the motor drive will be. It is with these switches that power is transferred from the source to the load. The basic control method used is referred to as six-step control, or square-wave control. This method will be compared to pulse density modulation (PDM), which is a derivative of pulse width modulation (PWM). Since the pulse width of a resonant link is constant, normal PWM cannot be used. Therefore the number of pulses (the density) is modulated to increase or decrease the energy delivered to the motor. In either case, the main switch gating signals need to be synchronized with the gate signal for the resonant switch. This will ensure that a main switch changes state only when the resonant link is at zero volts.

2.5.1 SIX-STEP CONTROL

Six-step or square-wave control is a basic control strategy. In this type of operation, each switch is turned on for 180° of a cycle, with each phase being offset by 120° . This means that at any given time, three switches are turned on. The main drawback with this type of control strategy is the large amount of harmonic content in the currents through the motor. Also, this type of inverter can only control the frequency of the output voltage while the input dc voltage must be controlled externally to control the magnitude of the output voltage. The advantage of this type of control is that each switch only changes state once per cycle. When output power increases, larger switches require longer times to turn on and off. If the inverter is used in a hard switched mode (non resonant), there can be large switching losses and large voltage spikes due to the high current derivative rates. This creates the need

to add snubber circuits across the power devices so voltage limits are not exceeded. By using a resonant link, switching losses nearly go to zero and the voltage stress across the power devices is based on the resonant voltage. This gives the designer the ability to go to higher switching speeds and take advantage of other control strategies.

2.5.2 PULSE DENSITY MODULATION CONTROL

Pulse density modulation is used in this study to reduce the harmonic content in the output of the drive. As mentioned earlier, PDM is the combination of PWM and a resonant link. Therefore, for the purpose of this discussion, the control will be referred to as PWM. There is little penalty to using this control method because of the lack of switching losses in the circuit. The advantage of PWM is that both the voltage and frequency of the output voltage can be adjusted with this type of control. Sinusoidal-PWM is used in this effort and will be discussed in detail.

Because the desired inverter output is sinusoidal, a sinusoidal control voltage is compared with a triangular waveform to generate the necessary gate signals as shown in Fig. 2.10. When the control voltage is greater than the triangle wave, the output is tied to the positive dc bus. The output is tied to the negative dc bus when the control voltage is less than the triangle wave. The frequency of the triangle wave establishes the inverter switching frequency and varies with the control voltage in frequency. The peak voltage of the triangle wave is a constant. The ratio of the triangle wave frequency, f_s , and the control voltage frequency, f_i , is known as the frequency-modulation ratio m_f and is defined as

$$m_f = \frac{f_s}{f_i} \quad (2.20)$$

Therefore, the maximum inverter switching frequency is $m_f \times f_f$. For the purposes of this study, m_f will be varied to determine the effect on the output harmonics of the inverter. If $m_f = 24$ (the maximum ratio for this study) and the fundamental frequency is 60 Hz, f_s would then be 1440 Hz. This switching frequency is substantially low for the power devices being used. The output frequency is controlled by changing the frequency of the control voltage and the switching frequency changes automatically to keep a constant m_f .

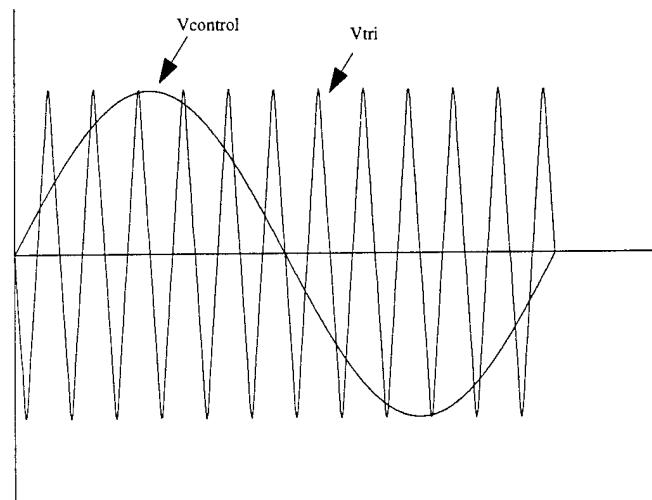


Figure 2.10 - Sine and triangle waveforms for PWM generation

The output voltage is controlled by varying the magnitude of the control voltage. A typical PDM waveform is shown in Fig. 2.11. A decrease in magnitude will create a situation where the triangle wave is greater than the control voltage for a longer period of time. This lowers the total on-time for the upper power devices which lowers the average voltage per cycle. The control voltage is changed by varying a speed control constant, M . This constant controls not only the control voltage amplitude, but the frequency of the control voltage and the switching frequency of the inverter. Using this type of control the

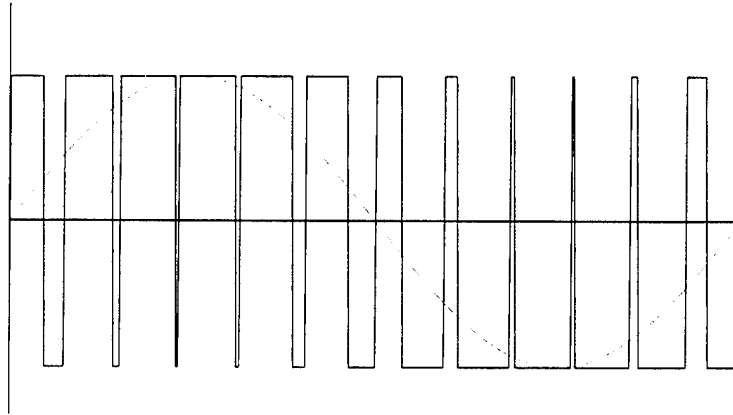


Figure 2.11 - Pulse width modulation waveform for $m_f = 12$

speed can be easily changed by varying one value, while keeping a constant V/f ratio. This ratio must remain constant to keep the air-gap flux constant so the motor is able to supply its rated torque and losses are kept within their rated values.

CHAPTER 3

FABRICATION OF RDCL MOTOR DRIVE

The motor drive consists of three separate parts; the source, the resonant dc link and the inverter. A 270 Vdc source is used to be compatible with advanced aircraft power systems. The inverter is a standard full bridge design based on IGBTs. The drive is controlled by a digital controller implemented with a digital signal processor (DSP). The drive will control an induction motor based blower motor which is used as the load.

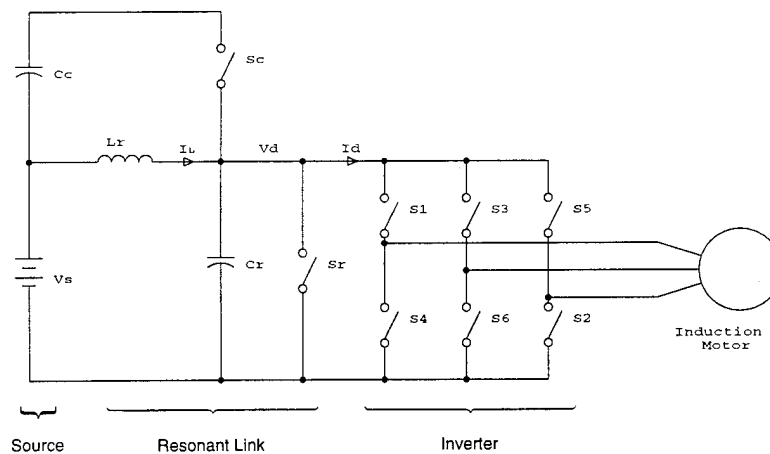


Figure 3.1 - Three parts of motor drive

3.1 DIGITAL CONTROL CIRCUITRY

The digital controller, shown schematically in Fig. 3.2, serves three purposes; 1) it creates the gate signal for the resonant switch, 2) it synchronizes the inverter gate signals

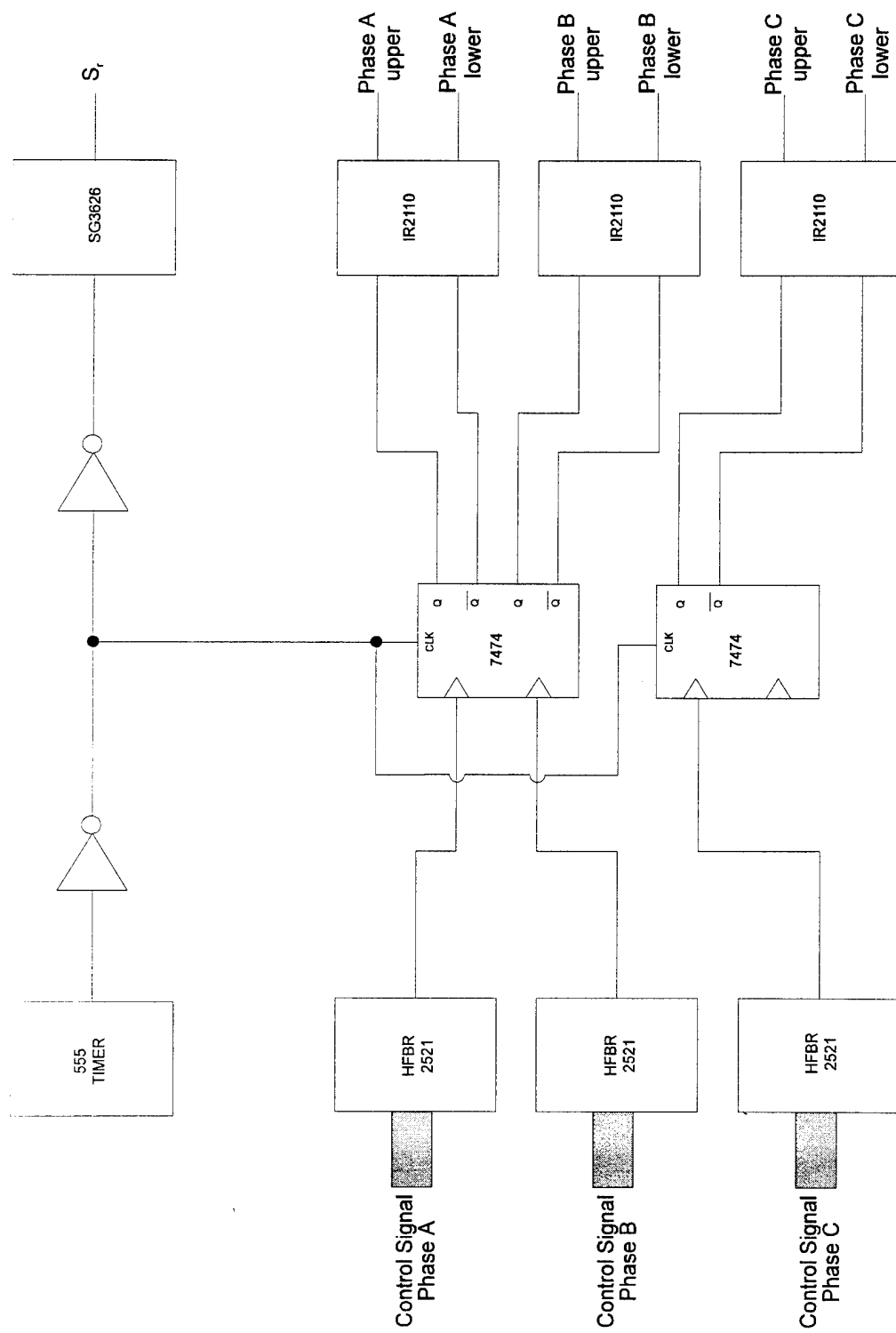


Figure 3.2 - Schematic of digital controller

with the resonant gate signal and 3) it amplifies all the gate signals to an appropriate level for the power devices. The resonant switch gate signal is generated with a 555 timer. The timer outputs a square wave at a frequency of 42 kHz and a duty cycle of 12%. This signal is then synchronized with all the inverter gate signals through a D flip-flop to ensure that the inverter switches change state only when the resonant link voltage is zero. All of the gate signals are then amplified using driver chips to control the power devices.

The control circuitry consists of two parts. A DSP system generates the necessary inverter gate controls for all three phases. A TTL based controller generates the resonant switch gate control and amplifies all the control signals to the appropriate values for the gate signals for the power devices. The inverter gate signals, for pulse density modulation, are generated by comparing sine waves with a triangle wave. The sine waves are generated using a speed control constant, M . These signals are generated as follows,

$$\sin(a) = M \sin(2M\pi f_1 t) \quad (3.1)$$

This generates a control signal that will have a constant V/f ratio for any value of M . The other two phases are offset $\pm 120^\circ$ from phase A. The signals are compared with a triangle wave to generate the appropriate gate controls. This is accomplished by generating a triangle wave at a frequency f_s , a multiple of the fundamental frequency f_1 . The ratio of f_s to f_1 is known as the frequency-modulation ratio m_f , and will be varied from 12 to 24 for this study. The triangle wave is generated in three parts, based upon a modified time scale multiplied by m_f . Each part is a simple linear equation, all with slopes that are equal in magnitude. The modified time scale is then reset after each cycle of the triangle waveform for continuous operation. The sine wave is compared with the triangle wave, and if greater, a logic 1 is

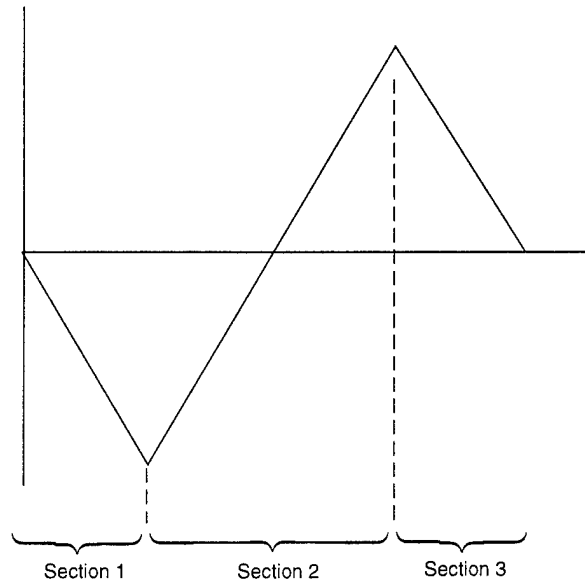


Figure 3.3 - Three sections of the triangle waveform

output. Three outputs, one for each phase, are then output through the digital I/O board. These signals are sent to the controller board through fiber optic cables, where they will be conditioned to generate the inverter gate signals .

3.2 RESONANT LINK INDUCTOR DESIGN

The resonant inductor plays an important role in the overall efficiency of the RDCL converter. The resonant inductor accounts for approximately one-third of all losses in this motor drive, therefore it is important to keep the equivalent series resistance (esr) as low as possible to minimize the inductor losses. There are two basic equations used to determine the range for an acceptable number of turns in an inductor. The first one deals with limiting the volt-second product across the inductor so the core does not enter saturation. This equation is expressed [9] as

$$N \geq \frac{V_L}{4.44fAB_{\max}} \quad (3.2)$$

The second limiting equation is derived on the basis of the maximum flux density being generated by the peak current. Since this inductor uses a cut core, the effective cross sectional area of the core will be larger due to the fringing flux in the gap. This is accommodated by adding the gap width to all sides of the core and recalculating the cross sectional area. Therefore, if the gap is small compared with the size of the core, it can be assumed that there is no change in the cross sectional area of the core. The maximum number of turns permitted on a core is found [9] to be

$$N \leq \frac{B_{\max} l_g}{\mu_o i} \quad (3.3)$$

for any given core with maximum flux density $B_{\max}$.

In this design of a resonant inductor, the pertinent parameters are:

- (1) Core constructed of two E cores made of 3C85 ferrite material
- (2) Average applied voltage is 190 V
- (3) Resonant frequency is 45 kHz
- (4) Average current is 17 A
- (5) Gap will be 50 mils (0.127 cm)
- (6) $L = 40 \mu\text{H}$

From these parameters the apparent power is

$$S = VA = 3230 \text{ VA} \quad (3.4)$$

The area product is [9]

$$A_p = \left(\frac{VA \times 10^4}{4.44 B_m f K_u K_j} \right)^{1.14} = 1.09 \text{ cm}^4 \quad (3.5)$$

A Philips E75 core was selected that has an area product of 1.25 cm^4 . A range can be determined for the number of turns permitted using equations 3.2 and 3.3.

$$N \geq 4.89 \text{ turns} \quad (3.6)$$

$$N \leq 29.8 \text{ turns} \quad (3.7)$$

Knowing the limitations for the number of turns on the inductor, the appropriate number is found to obtain the desired inductance. This becomes an iterative process in which core size, gap size and the number of turns are varied until the number of turns falls within its range. There are other considerations that must be taken into account as well, for example whether the number of turns for the necessary wire size can fit into the core's window. All these factors must be considered when designing an inductor. The number of turns needed is [9]

$$N = \sqrt{\frac{l_g L}{0.4\pi A_c \times 10^{-8}}} = 10.9 \text{ turns} \quad (3.8)$$

The effect of the fringing flux is found, called the Fringing Flux Factor [9].

$$F = 1 + \frac{l_g}{\sqrt{A_c}} \ln \frac{2G}{l_g} = 1.2 \quad (3.9)$$

We recalculate the number of turns.

$$N = \sqrt{\frac{l_g L}{0.4\pi A_c F \times 10^{-8}}} = 9.98 \text{ turns} \quad (3.10)$$

Since this number falls within the range found previously, the present design is acceptable

up to this point. The next step is to determine the appropriate wire size. This is done by looking at the current density and then determining the bare wire size $A_{w(B)}$.

$$J = k_j A_p^{-0.17} = 793.7 \frac{A}{cm^2} \quad (3.11)$$

$$A_{w(B)} = \frac{I}{J} = 0.021 \text{ cm}^2 = 4225 \text{ cmils} \quad (3.12)$$

From this number, it is determined that three strands of 60/36 gauge litz wire can be used with a bare wire size of 4500 cmils. Now that the wire size and number of turns are known, some calculations can be done to estimate the resistance of the winding and determine the power loss of the inductor. The resistance of the winding is [9]:

$$R = MLT \times N \times R_w \times \zeta \times 10^{-6} \quad (3.13)$$

where MLT is the mean length turn, R_w is the linear resistance of the wire at 20°C and ζ is the resistance correction factor for wire resistance at temperatures between -50° and 100°C. From this expression the resistance is

$$R = 29.9 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (3.14)$$

The losses in the copper are now found to be

$$P_{cu} = I^2 R = 8.65 \text{ W} \quad (3.15)$$

The ferrite loss P_{fe} and the gap loss P_g are then found [9] as shown below

$$P_{fe} = \text{core loss} \times \text{volume} = 4.5 \text{ W} \quad (3.16)$$

$$P_g = K_i D l_g f B_m^2 = 19.03 \text{ W} \quad (3.17)$$

where K_i is the gap loss coefficient and D is the ferrite width. These three power losses are combined to find the total power loss for the inductor.

$$P_{\Sigma} = P_{cu} + P_{fe} + P_g = 32.18 \text{ W} \quad (3.18)$$

Using this design data, an inductor was fabricated in the laboratory and the measured inductance was 40.8 μH with a resistance of 37 $\text{m}\Omega$. The resistance was higher in the experimental inductor because it was wound by hand and therefore was loose in several places. The measured data for the resonant inductor can be found in Appendix C.

CHAPTER 4

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS OF RDCL MOTOR DRIVE

This chapter describes the experimental results of the RDCL motor drive. Experimental results are shown for six-step and pulse density modulation control, with the motor under no-load and load conditions. During the experimental portion of the investigation, the active clamp was not implemented due to its complexity and the fact that it is not needed to accomplish the objective of this study. The clamp's sole purpose is to limit the peak voltage of the resonant link so lower voltage parts can be used. This was compensated for by using 1200 V components in the inverter.

4.1 RDCL VOLTAGE AND CURRENT WAVEFORMS

The input to the RDCL is 270 Vdc. A Sorenson DCR300-9B 300 V, 9 A, power supply was used as the source. The resonant link created an ac disturbance with a peak to peak amplitude of about 60 volts on the dc source. This would be a problem on larger motor drives, however, it could be reduced by using a dc filter capacitor on the input. The source current is the same as the inductor current, and is a sine wave with almost no harmonic content due to the resonance between the inductor and the capacitor. The fundamental frequency is 40.5 kHz, with an rms rating of 16 amps. The source voltage and current can be seen in Fig. 4.1.

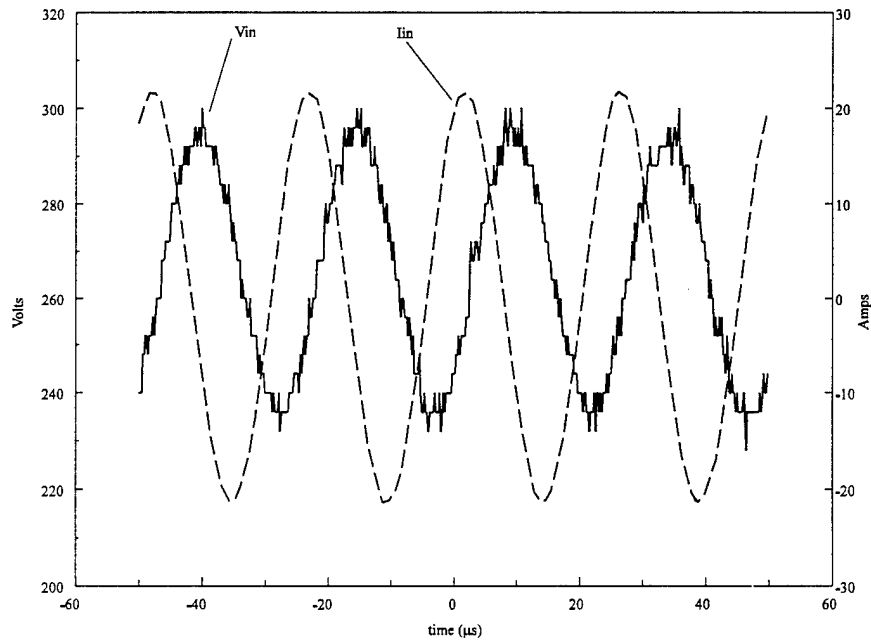


Figure 4.1 - Source voltage and current waveforms

The control of the resonant switch is important to the efficient operation of the circuit. The resonant period changes from cycle to cycle because the energy stored in the resonant inductor changes. This creates a situation where the resonant switch will frequently short the resonant link when there is a voltage present, causing current spikes through the switch. It was difficult to see the resonant link being shorted by looking at the voltage waveform in Fig. 4.2. This waveform compared nicely to the simulated waveform of Fig. 2.7. The amplitude and shape were very similar except for the negative pulse in the simulation. A small resistance was added in this path to reduce the amplitude of these pulses. The average power lost across this device was estimated to be 30 watts. Theoretically this loss should be nearly zero. This loss was considerably higher than expected due to the shorting of the resonant link capacitor. A more sophisticated analog control circuit is needed to more efficiently perform this function.

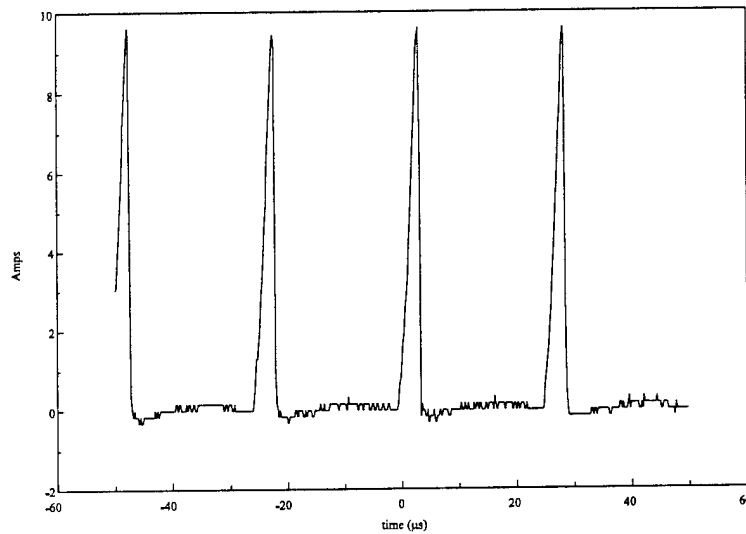


Figure 4.2 - Resonant switch current

The resonant DC link voltage and current waveforms are shown in Fig. 4.3. These waveforms are similar to the simulated waveforms in Fig. 1.4. The obvious difference is the lack of clamping in the experimental waveforms. It is easy to determine when the resonant switch was turned on by the increase in the voltage derivative near zero. All inverter switching is accomplished at this time, so to ensure zero voltage switching, the resonant switch must be turned on when the resonant bus is at zero volts.

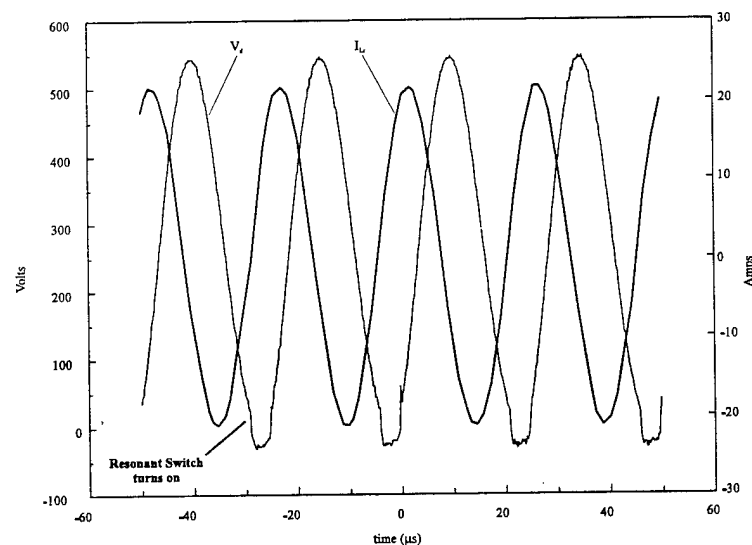


Figure 4.3 - Resonant DC link current and voltage waveforms

4.2 NO-LOAD MOTOR DRIVE RESULTS

This section describes the results of the motor drive obtained under no-load conditions. The performance of the RDCL and the different inverter control strategies will be discussed. The motor drive was tested with four different inverter control strategies:

- 1.) Six-step control
- 2.) Pulse density modulation with modulation frequency ratio = 12
- 3.) Pulse density modulation with modulation frequency ratio = 18
- 4.) Pulse density modulation with modulation frequency ratio = 24

No-load test results indicated that none of these control strategies demonstrate superior performance with respect to harmonic content in the motor currents. The pulse density modulation (PDM) strategies did reduce the lower order harmonics when compared to the six-step control. The current spectra of the six-step and PDM-24 control strategies is

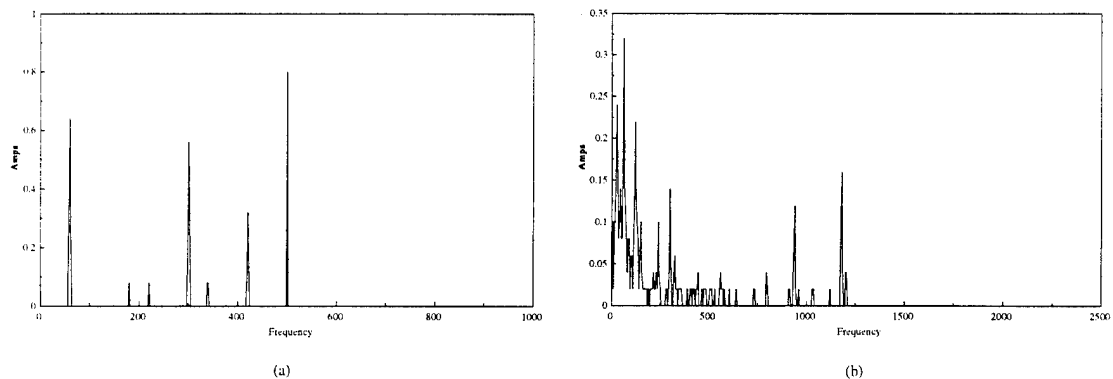


Figure 4.4 - No-load current spectra for a) six-step and b) PDM-24 controls

shown in Fig. 4.4. Note that the PDM-24 has more harmonic “noise” than that of the six-step, but the peak magnitudes are significantly smaller. This is also evident in the current waveforms, where the peak current was greater than 3 amps for the six-step control and less than 2 amps for all the PDM waveforms. Overall, all of the PDM control strategies

demonstrated similar behavior. One advantage noticed was that as the modulation frequency, m_f , increases, the motor requires less input power to spin at the same speed. There was a 3%

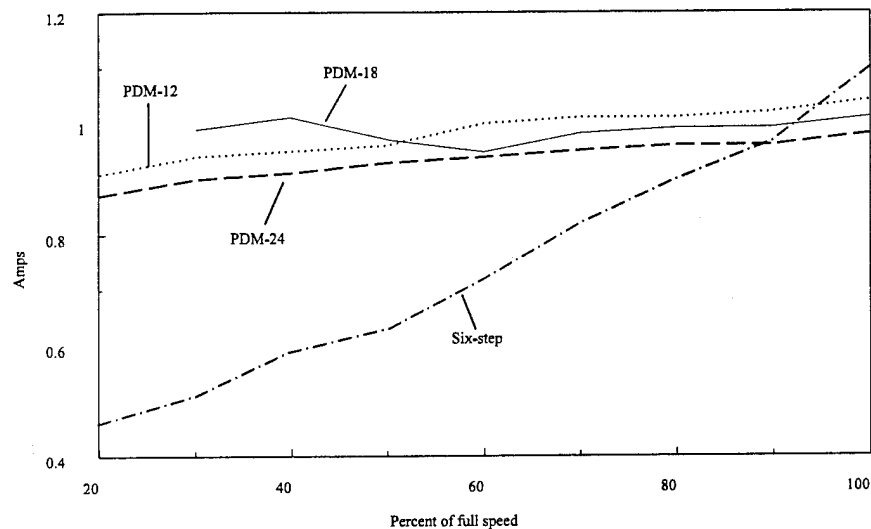


Figure 4.5 - Average source current for various control strategies under no-load

improvement in this area in each step as m_f increased from 12, to 18, to 24. In the case of six-step control, the source current was 10% higher than when PDM was used. The average source current is shown in Fig. 4.5. In the case of the six-step control, the source voltage was lowered proportionally to the speed, which accounts for the observed decrease in the source currents. The data for the PDM control is fairly linear except for the PDM-18 case.

The measured efficiencies of the drive for the various control strategies are shown in Fig. 4.6. The results indicate that as the modulation frequency goes up, the efficiency decreases. The efficiency decreases at lower speeds because the output power decreases, and the input power remains nearly the same. This occurs because a constant amount of energy is needed to ensure the voltage bus continues to resonate. This is a disadvantage of the RDCL topology. At low output power, the motor drive becomes inefficient due to the “overhead” power needed to keep the voltage bus in resonance. Overall, the efficiencies are

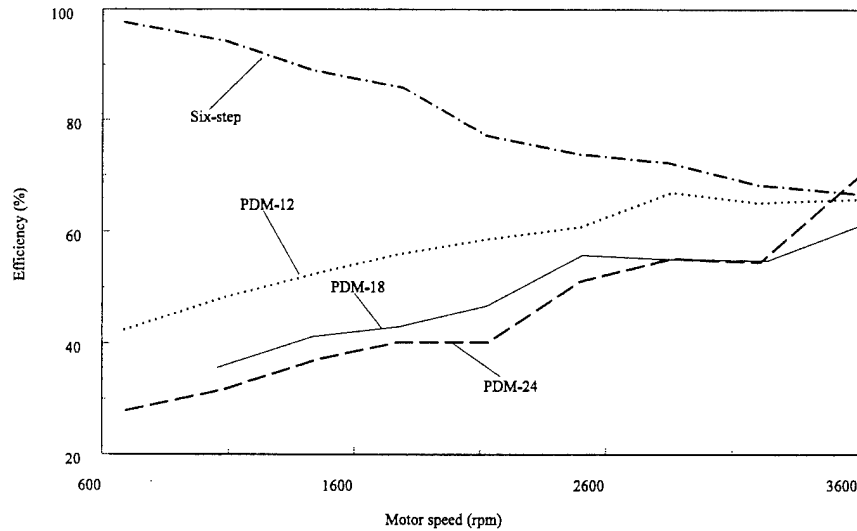


Figure 4.6 - Efficiencies for various control strategies under no-load

considerably lower than expected. The theoretical losses were found to be 30 watts using equation 2.15. This results in an efficiency of 95%. The six-step control strategy efficiency improves at lower speeds because the source voltage is lowered to maintain a constant V/f ratio. This creates a smaller resonant link current and therefore lower losses. A dc/dc converter would have to be inserted between the source voltage and RDCL inverter to make a proper comparison between the six-step and PDM control strategies.

The motor drive was tested over a 5:1 speed range. This section discusses the performance of the motor drive in terms of its ability to control the speed of the machine and maintain a constant V/f ratio. The no-load full speed of the machine was measured to be 3600 rpm, which is also the synchronous speed of the machine. Under no-load conditions, the slip should be nearly zero, which it is in this case. The speed of the machine can be predicted by multiplying the speed factor c_{speed} (ratio to full speed) times 3600 rpm because the slip is near zero. All of the control strategies generated accurate speed results. The results also showed that the voltage to frequency ratio was kept constant (Fig. 4.7). The

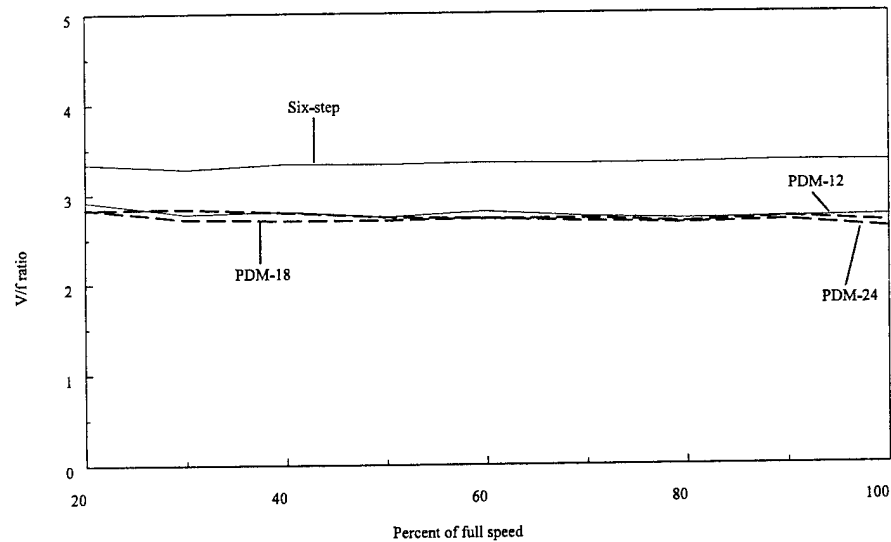


Figure 4.7 - V/f ratio for various control strategies under no-load

PDM control did not create a high mean voltage however, only around 160 V, compared to 200 V for the six-step control. This is because there is more dead time with PDM control compared with six-step control, therefore, the theoretical maximum output voltage is lower with PDM control.

4.3 FULL-LOAD RDCL MOTOR DRIVE RESULTS

The various control strategies had a more significant impact on the performance of the motor drive under full-load. The results show that PDM control has advantages over six-step control. Also, as the modulation frequency is increased improved performance is realized. The current spectra for the output current are shown in Fig. 4.8. The results show that PDM reduces the lower order harmonic components in the range to 500 Hz and improves the total harmonic distortion (THD). The THD at full speed for six-step control is 38%, while for PDM-24 it is 13%. As m_f is increased, the lowest harmonic is shifted to higher frequencies and the magnitude of the higher harmonic frequencies also decreases. The measured average source current decreases as m_f increases. It was also observed that the

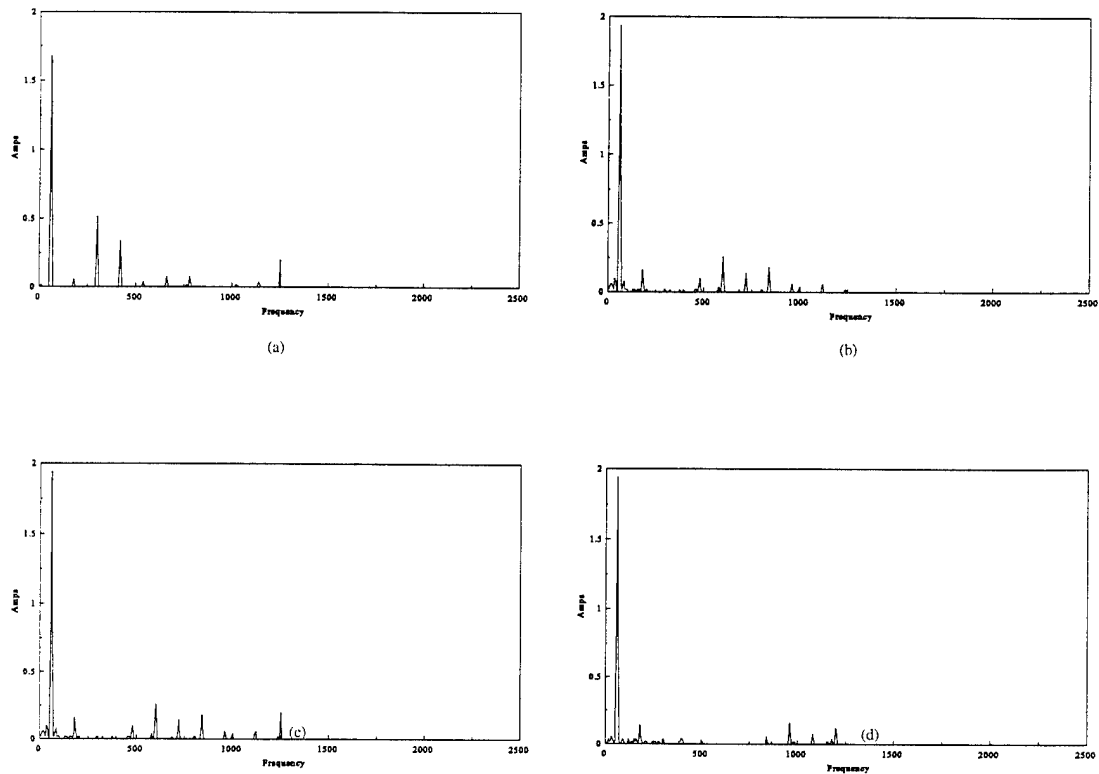


Figure 4.8 - Full-load output current spectra for a) Six-step, b) PDM-12, c) PDM-18 and d) PDM-24

motor speed increases (Fig. 4.10). This suggests that the motor drive is more efficient in the sense that less power is required from the source to produce the same torque from the induction motor.

The overall efficiencies of the RDCL-motor under full-load (Fig. 4.9) were similar to that observed in the no-load case at low speed. As the speed increases from half rated speed up to full speed, the three PDM strategies had very similar efficiencies. At full speed the efficiency was 67%. This is similar to the results obtained under no-load conditions. Since the output current has a small effect on efficiency, the RDCL must be dissipating most of the power.

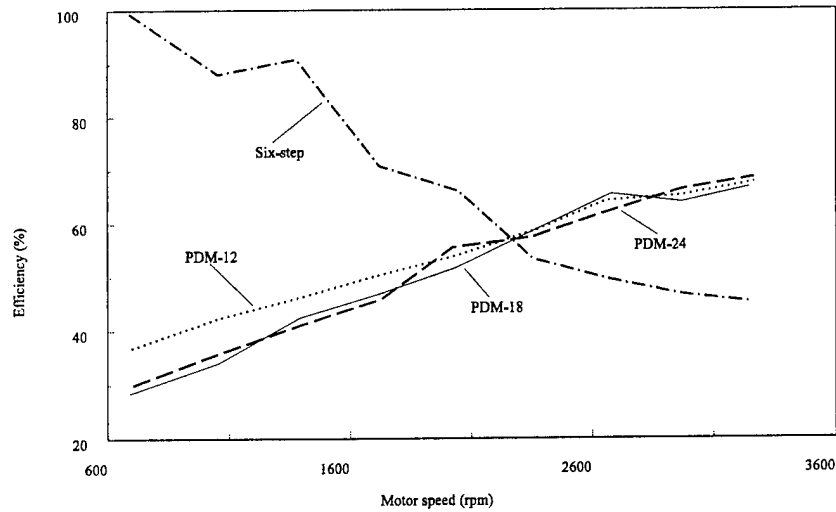


Figure 4.9 - Efficiencies for various control strategies under full-load

Similar to the no-load case, the performance of the motor drive is evaluated in terms of its ability to control the speed of the machine. The expected speed of the machine can be estimated by noting that the synchronous speed is 3600 rpm and the rated speed is 3400 rpm. This gives the slip to be 5.6% and the slip frequency (f_{sl}) is found to be 3.3 Hz. The equation [8] $T = k (speed)^2$ is used to calculate the speed of the machine at any other point. For example at half speed, $f_{sl} = 0.83$ Hz. The slip speed (n_{sl}), is $n_{sl} = \frac{120}{poles} \times f_{sl} = 50 \text{ rpm}$. The expected speed is found to be $n = n_s - n_{sl} = 1750 \text{ rpm}$. This is proven to be accurate based on the experimental data. In the case of the six-step control, the half speed was experimentally found to be 1740 rpm. The speed of the machine for the various control strategies is seen in Fig. 4.10. Recall that when PDM control was used, the output voltage was lower than necessary. Consequently, the full-load speed of the machine when PDM control was used was lower than it should have been. This could be corrected by increasing the source voltage to the appropriate level.

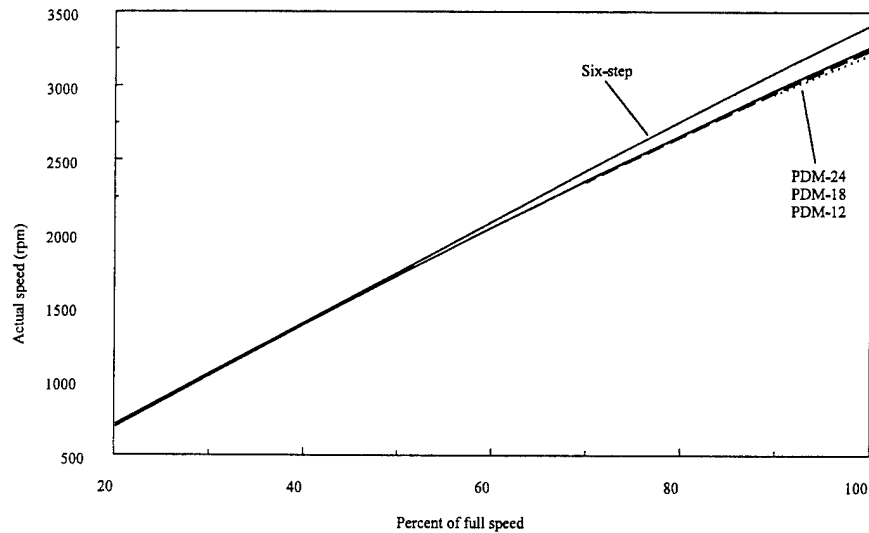


Figure 4.10 - Motor speed for various control strategies under full-load

When the speed of the machine is reduced to half its rated speed, similar trends to those of the full speed case are noticed. Figure 4.11 shows the current spectra of the output current for the four control strategies at half speed. PDM reduces the low order harmonic content significantly, but not as much as at full speed. Increasing m_f has the similar effect as that at full speed in terms of reducing the lower order harmonic components. The total harmonic distortion was much higher however, because the fundamental frequency has a much smaller magnitude. The THD using six-step control was 124%, while using PDM-24 the result was 95%, this compared to 38% and 13% respectively for the full speed case.

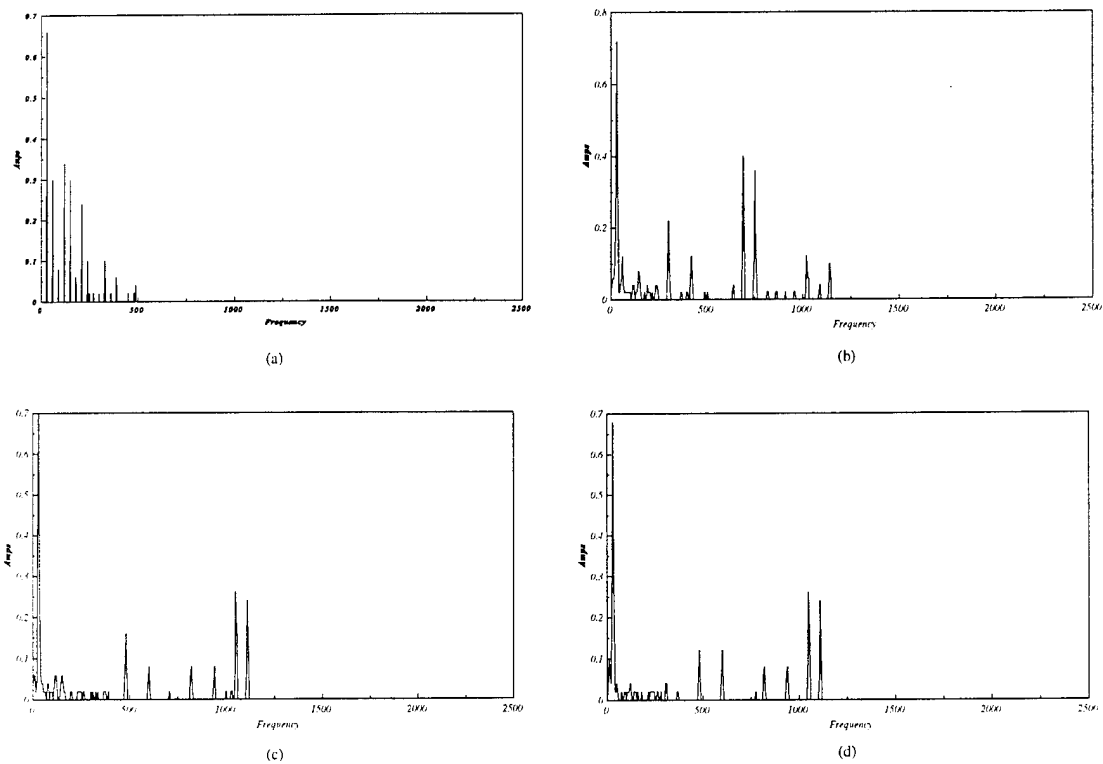


Figure 4.11 - Full-load spectra for a) six-step, b) PDM-12, c) PDM-18 and PDM-24 operating at half speed

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

An actively clamped resonant dc link inverter was designed and simulated to control an induction motor - blower in an adjustable speed application. The objective of this study was to build and test an RDCL inverter and compare the performance of a six-step control strategy with a PDM strategy using constant V/f open-loop speed control. The use of PDM showed advantages over six-step control by reducing the lower order harmonic content in the output current of the motor drive. This improvement was also observed as the PDM modulation ratio increased. The performance gains were more evident under full-load, but were also seen at no-load. As motor speed increased, the performance of the drive improved in both efficiency and total harmonic distortion.

The control of the RDCL presents a significant challenge. One of the keys to efficient operation of the RDCL is the proper control of the resonant link switch. Although performance gains were evident with the simple control method used for the resonant switch, more substantial improvements would occur if an adaptive controller were employed to ensure the resonant switch is turned-on only when the resonant voltage bus is zero. This control deficiency of the resonant switch resulted in significant losses in the RDCL circuit. This impacted the overall efficiencies of the motor drive which were lower than expected.

This shows that the majority of the losses were in the RDCL and that a small percentage was due to conduction losses. It was also found that as m_f increased, the efficiency lowered. This also shows that switching losses were more prominent than expected.

Another challenge is to produce resonant components with high quality factors. If these components have high equivalent series resistances then more energy must be delivered to them so the link voltage will resonate and return to zero. As more energy is delivered to the resonant components, the peak voltage increases to more than the minimum $2V_s$. When this technology is applied to advanced aircraft power systems, with a nominal source voltage of 270 vdc, the peak voltage could exceed 600 V. This creates a situation where 1200 V power switches must be used.

Various techniques can be used to limit the peak voltage, including passive and active clamping. Active clamping can limit the peak voltage to as low as $1.3V_s$, while passive clamping can limit to $2V_s$. Placing an active clamp across the resonant circuit presents significant difficulties. Essentially, active clamping attempts to maintain a net energy balance in the clamp capacitor, thereby regulating the clamp capacitor voltage.

The open-loop variable speed control is accomplished by maintaining the air gap flux constant which is done by ensuring that the voltage/frequency ratio constant. It has been shown that the control circuitry accomplished this task. In the case of PDM control the average output voltage was low which caused the motor to spin at a slower speed under load. This could be corrected by increasing the source voltage to account for this shortfall.

This investigation has shown that the use of PDM with a resonant link has benefits compared to a standard six-step control. These benefits include improved total

harmonic distortion and efficiency. The PDM modulation ratio can be increased to improve this advantage without significant penalty. An induction motor was effectively controlled by keeping the voltage/frequency ratio constant. The performance benefits may also be realized in applications with more rigorous motor control performance specifications. RDCL inverters coupled with flux vector or variable structure motor control strategies may have some performance advantages over current power electronics/motor control topologies.

REFERENCES

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APPENDIX A

DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSOR PROGRAMS

PWM2.C

```
#include "ilic30.h"
#include "c:\dsp2\ti\include\math.h"

void main(void);
float OurMax( float num1, float num2 );
void InitDSP(void);

void SendCommand(CommandType command);

float OurMax( float num1, float num2);

/*****

typedef struct {
    MixedType *   buf_start;
    MixedType *   buf_end;
} Buffer;

MixedType    *pc_data, *pc_data_end;

int          k=1;

unsigned long dummy;

bool         running = FALSE, logging = TRUE;
float        timeLimit = -1;

float loghits=0.0,adchits=0.0,controlhits=0.0,DMAhits=0.0;

float OurMax( float num1, float num2 )
{
    if (num1>num2)
        return num1;
    else return num2;
}

void InitDSP(void)
{
    /***** INITIALIZE C30 DSP BOARD *****/
    *PRIMCTL = PRIMWD;
    *EXPCTL = EXPWD;

    /***** INITIALIZE 32 CHANNEL DIGITAL I/O BOARD *****/
    dummy = *DIG32_RESET;
    *DIG32_CONTROL = DIG32_CONTROL_CONFIG;
```

PWM2.C

```
*DIG32_PORT_CONFIG = DIG32_ALL_PORTS_SINGLE_BUFFERED;

/***** INITIALIZE TIMERS *****/
*TIMER_CONTROL_0 = 0x200; /* CLKSRC = 1/2 H1 (internal) */
*TIMER_PERIOD_0 = 0xee2e1efc;
*TIMER_CONTROL_0 |= 0x0c0; /* reset & start timer */

}

float    time=0.00;
float    inADC[32], enc0, oldtime, newtime;
int      count = 0;
unsigned int  digitalOut=0;
unsigned long digital_out;

float    sin_a, sin_b, sin_c;
float    M = 1.0;
float    sample, tmod, tri;
/*****
*****/

void main()
{
    long    command;
    int     i, index;
    int     tempCount;

    InitDSP();

    *((ulong *) DSP_COMMAND) = 0;

    pc_data = (MixedType *) DATA;

    (pc_data)->fp=1.0; /* initialize M to 1.0 */

    /* let the PC know we're up and running */

    *((ulong *) PC_PARAMS) = XFER_ITEM_SIZE;

    index =0;

    while(1)
    {
        M = (pc_data)->fp;

        time = *TIMER_COUNTER_0 / 8.325e6;

        sin_a = M*sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time);
```

PWM2.C

```
sin_b = M*sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time - 2.0*PI/3.0);
sin_c = M*sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time + 2.0*PI/3.0);

sample = time*12.0*M*60.0;
tmod = (sample - (ceil(sample) - 1.0)) / (12.0*M*60.0);

if ( (0.0<tmod) && ( tmod<=(1.0/(48.0*M*60.0)) ) )
{
    tri = -48.0*M*60.0*tmod;
}
else if ( ((1.0/(48.0*M*60.0))<tmod) && (tmod<=(1.0/(16.0*M*60.0))) )
{
    tri = 48.0*M*60.0*tmod - 2.0;
}
else if ( ((1.0/(16.0*M*60.0))<tmod) && (tmod<=(1.0/(12.0*M*60.0))) )
{
    tri = -48.0*M*60.0*tmod + 4.0;
}

if (sin_a > tri)
    digital_out = 0x00010000;
else    digital_out = 0x00000000;

if (sin_b > tri)
    digital_out = digital_out | 0x00020000;

if (sin_c > tri)
    digital_out = digital_out | 0x00040000;

*DIG32_PORT_A = digital_out;
}

}
```

6STEP.C

```
#include "ilic30.h"
#include "c:\dsp2\ti\include\math.h"

void main(void);
float OurMax( float num1, float num2 );
void InitDSP(void);

void SendCommand(CommandType command);

float OurMax( float num1, float num2);

/*****

typedef struct {
    MixedType *   buf_start;
    MixedType *   buf_end;
} Buffer;

MixedType    *pc_data, *pc_data_end;

int          k=1;

unsigned long dummy;

bool         running = FALSE, logging = TRUE;
float        timeLimit = -1;

float loghits=0.0,adchits=0.0,controlhits=0.0,DMAhits=0.0;

float OurMax( float num1, float num2 )
{
    if (num1>num2)
        return num1;
    else return num2;
}

void InitDSP(void)
{
    /***** INITIALIZE C30 DSP BOARD *****/
    *PRIMCTL = PRIMWD;
    *EXPCTL = EXPWD;

    /***** INITIALIZE 32 CHANNEL DIGITAL I/O BOARD *****/
    dummy = *DIG32_RESET;
    *DIG32_CONTROL = DIG32_CONTROL_CONFIG;
```

6STEP.C

```
*DIG32_PORT_CONFIG = DIG32_ALL_PORTS_SINGLE_BUFFERED;

/***** INITIALIZE TIMERS *****/
*TIMER_CONTROL_0 = 0x200;    /* CLKSRC = 1/2 H1 (internal) */
*TIMER_PERIOD_0 = 0xee2e1efc;
*TIMER_CONTROL_0 |= 0x0c0;    /* reset & start timer */

}

float    time=0.00;
float    inADC[32], enc0, oldtime, newtime;
int      count = 0;
unsigned int  digitalOut=0;
unsigned long digital_out;

float    sin_a, sin_b, sin_c;
float    M = 1.0;
/*****/
/*****/

void main()
{
    long    command;
    int     i, index;
    int     tempCount;

    InitDSP();

    *((ulong *) DSP_COMMAND) = 0;

    pc_data = (MixedType *) DATA;

    (pc_data)->fp=1.0; /* initialize M to 1.0 */

    /* let the PC know we're up and running */

    *((ulong *) PC_PARAMS) = XFER_ITEM_SIZE;

    index =0;

    while(1)
    {
        M = (pc_data)->fp;

        time = *TIMER_COUNTER_0 / 8.325e6;

        sin_a = sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time);
        sin_b = sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time - 2.0*PI/3.0);
    }
}
```

6STEP.C

```
sin_c = sin(M*2.0*PI*60.0*time + 2.0*PI/3.0);
```

```
if (sin_a > 0.0)
    digital_out = 0x00010000;
else    digital_out = 0x00000000;
```

```
if (sin_b > 0.0)
    digital_out = digital_out | 0x00020000;
```

```
if (sin_c > 0.0)
    digital_out = digital_out | 0x00040000;
```

```
*DIG32_PORT_A = digital_out;
}
```

```
}
```

APPENDIX B

NODE EQUATIONS FOR SABER SIMULATION

```

#-----
#      ACTIVELY CLAMPED RESONANT DC LINK - Equivalent Circuit - acrdcl_eq.sin
#-----
#      RESONANT CIRCUIT
#-----
v.vin    in      0      =270
l.lf     in      vd      =40.8u, r=50m, ic=4
c.cr     vd      0      =333n, esr=11m, ic=0
d.d1     0      vd
sw_vc.res vd      0      vd 0      = model=(vt=1,vh=.5,ron=10meg,roff=.1)
#-----
#      CLAMP CIRCUIT
#-----
sw_vc.clamp    vcl    vd      vd 0 = model=(vt=486, vh=1.25, ron=.1, roff=10meg), ic =off
c.cc          in      vcl    =10u, esr=50m, ic=-216
#-----
#      LOAD
#-----
i.load    vd      0      = dc=7.5

```

```

#-----
#      RESONANT DC LINK INVERTER - rdcl_6step.sin
#-----
#      RESONANT CIRCUIT
#-----
v.vin    in      0      =270
l.lr     in      vd     =40.8u,r=50m, ic=7
c.cr     vd      0      =333n,esr=11m, ic=0
d.d1     0       vd
sw_l4.q1 vd      0      gate = roff=10meg, ron=.01, tr=300n, tf=1u
clock_l4.gate gate = freq=39.6k, duty=.2
#-----
#      INVERTER CIRCUIT
#-----
sw_l4.q11 vd      va      gate_ap = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q12 vc      0      gate_cm = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q13 vd      vb      gate_bp = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q14 va      0      gate_am = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q15 vd      vc      gate_cp = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q16 vb      0      gate_bm = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
clock_l4.gate_ap gate_ap = freq=60, duty=.5
clock_l4.gate_am gate_am = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/120
clock_l4.gate_bp gate_bp = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/180
clock_l4.gate_bm gate_bm = freq=60, duty=.5, v1=_1, v2=_0, td=1/180
clock_l4.gate_cp gate_cp = freq=60, duty=.5, v1=_1, v2=_0, td=1/360
clock_l4.gate_cm gate_cm = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/360
d.d11     va      vd
d.d12     0       vc
d.d13     vb      vd
d.d14     0       va
d.d15     vc      vd
d.d16     0       vb
#-----
#      MOTOR LOAD
#-----
r.a        va      va1     =1u
r.b        vb      vb1     =1u
r.c        vc      vc1     =1u
r.rea     va1     va2     =4
l.lea     va2     va3     =29m
r.r2a     va3     ntrl    =8
r.rea     va1     ntrl    =550
l.lma     va1     ntrl    =522m
r.reb     vb1     vb2     =4
l.leb     vb2     vb3     =29m
r.r2b     vb3     ntrl    =8
r.reb     vb1     ntrl    =550
l.lmb     vb1     ntrl    =522m
r.rec     vc1     vc2     =4
l.lec     vc2     vc3     =29m
r.r2c     vc3     ntrl    =8
r.rec     vc1     ntrl    =550
l.lmc     vc1     ntrl    =522m
r.rn      ntrl    0       =100g

```

```

#-----
#           ACTIVELY CLAMPED RESONANT DC LINK INVERTER - acrdcl_6step.sin
#-----
#           RESONANT CIRCUIT
#-----
v.vin      in      0      =270
l.lf       in      vd      =40.8u, r=50m, ic=4
c.cr       vd      0      =333n, esr=11m, ic=0
d.d1       0      vd
sw_l4.q1   vd      0      gate = roff=10meg, ron=.1, tr=300n, tf=1u
clock_l4.gate gate = freq=35k, duty=.15
#-----
#           CLAMP CIRCUIT
#-----
sw_l4.clamp vcl     vd     clmp = roff=10meg, ron=.1, tr=300n, tf=1u
clock_l4.clmp clmp = freq=35k, duty=.25, td=11u
c.cc       in      vcl     =10u, esr=50m, ic=-216
#-----
#           INVERTER CIRCUIT
#-----
sw_l4.q11   vd      va      gate_ap = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q12   vc      0      gate_cm = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q13   vd      vb      gate_bp = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q14   va      0      gate_am = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q15   vd      vc      gate_cp = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
sw_l4.q16   vb      0      gate_bm = roff=10meg, ron=.2, tr=300n, tf=3u
clock_l4.gate_ap gate_ap = freq=60, duty=.5
clock_l4.gate_am gate_am = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/120
clock_l4.gate_bp gate_bp = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/180
clock_l4.gate_bm gate_bm = freq=60, duty=.5, v1=_1, v2=_0, td=1/180
clock_l4.gate_cp gate_cp = freq=60, duty=.5, v1=_1, v2=_0, td=1/360
clock_l4.gate_cm gate_cm = freq=60, duty=.5, td=1/360
d.d11       va      vd
d.d12       0      vc
d.d13       vb      vd
d.d14       0      va
d.d15       vc      vd
d.d16       0      vb
#-----
#           MOTOR LOAD
#-----
r.a          va      va1     =1u
r.b          vb      vb1     =1u
r.c          vc      vc1     =1u
r.rea       va1     va2     =4
l.lea       va2     va3     =29m
r.r2a       va3     ntrl     =200k
r.rca       va1     ntrl     =550
l.lma       va1     ntrl     =522m, ic=-1.25
r.reb       vb1     vb2     =4
l.leb       vb2     vb3     =29m
r.r2b       vb3     ntrl     =200k
r.rcb       vb1     ntrl     =550
l.lmb       vb1     ntrl     =522m, ic=0
r.rec       vc1     vc2     =4
l.lec       vc2     vc3     =29m
r.r2c       vc3     ntrl     =200k
r.rcc       vc1     ntrl     =550
l.lmc       vc1     ntrl     =522m, ic=1.25
r.rm        ntrl     0      =100g

```

APPENDIX C

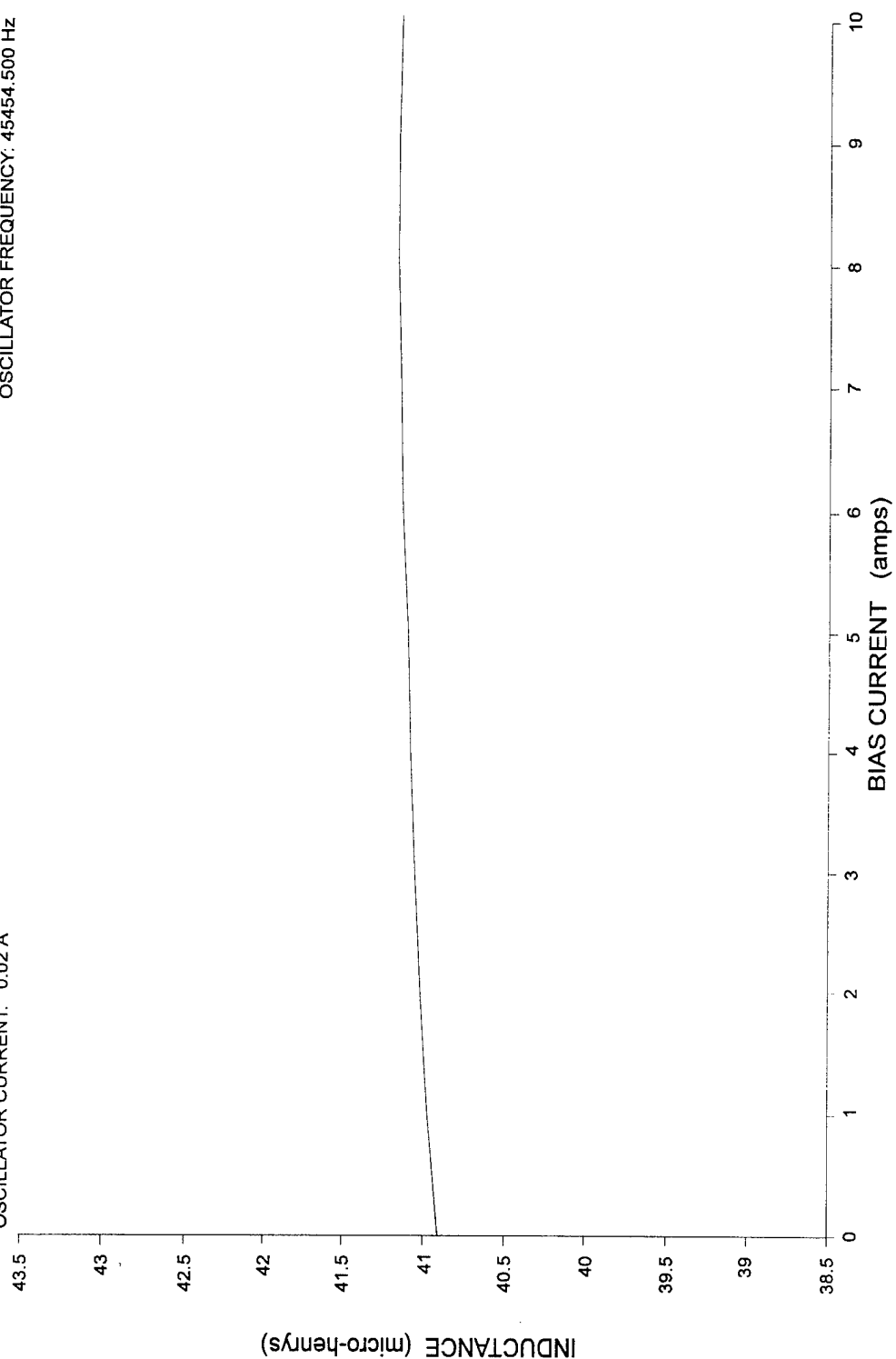
RESONANT INDUCTOR CHARACTERIZATION CURVES

CURRENT CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR:CAPDAS.ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-IND.CURR

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

OSCILLATOR FREQUENCY: 45454.500 Hz

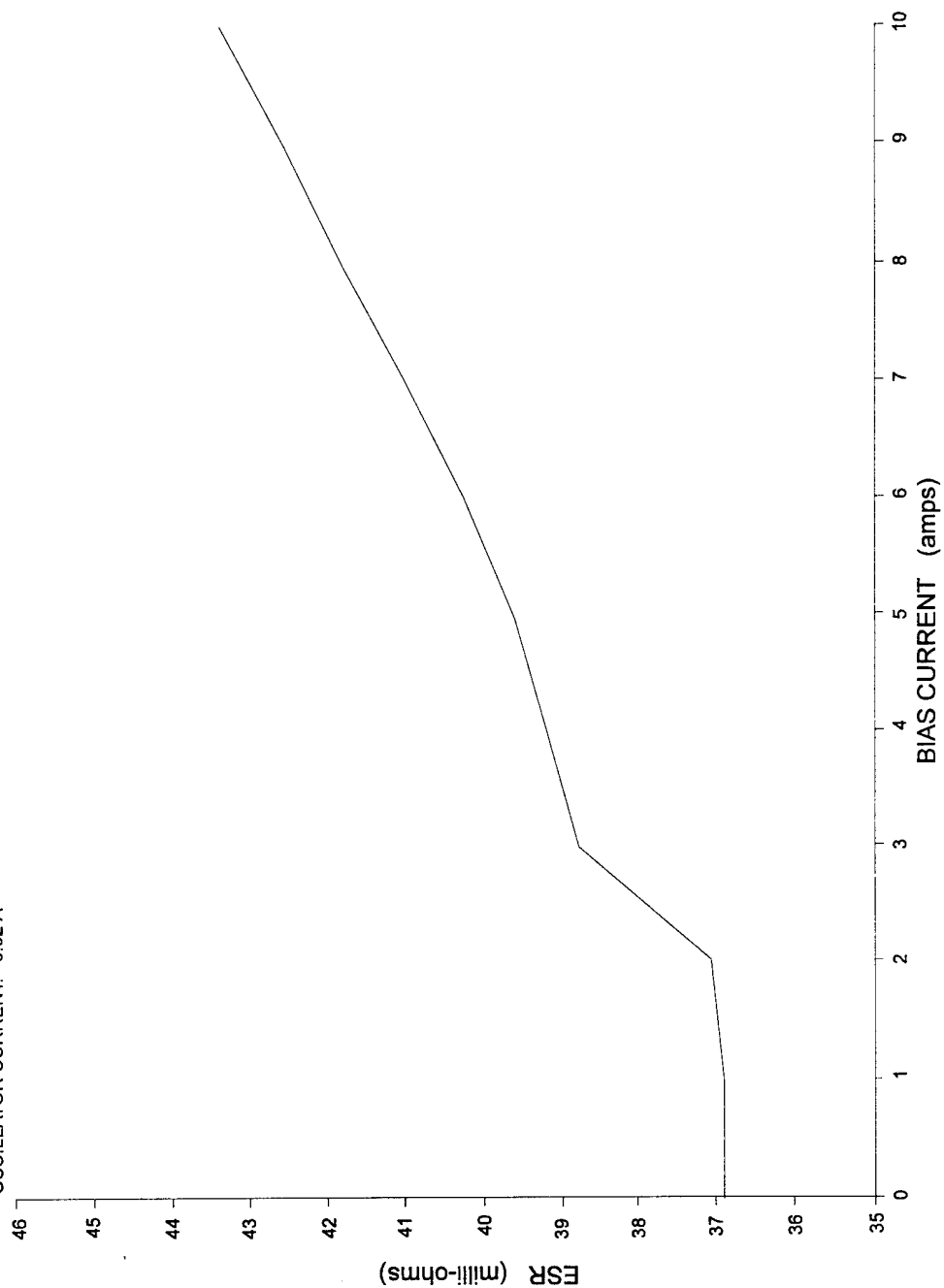


CURRENT CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR:CAPDAS.ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-ESR.CURR

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

OSCILLATOR FREQUENCY: 45454.500 Hz

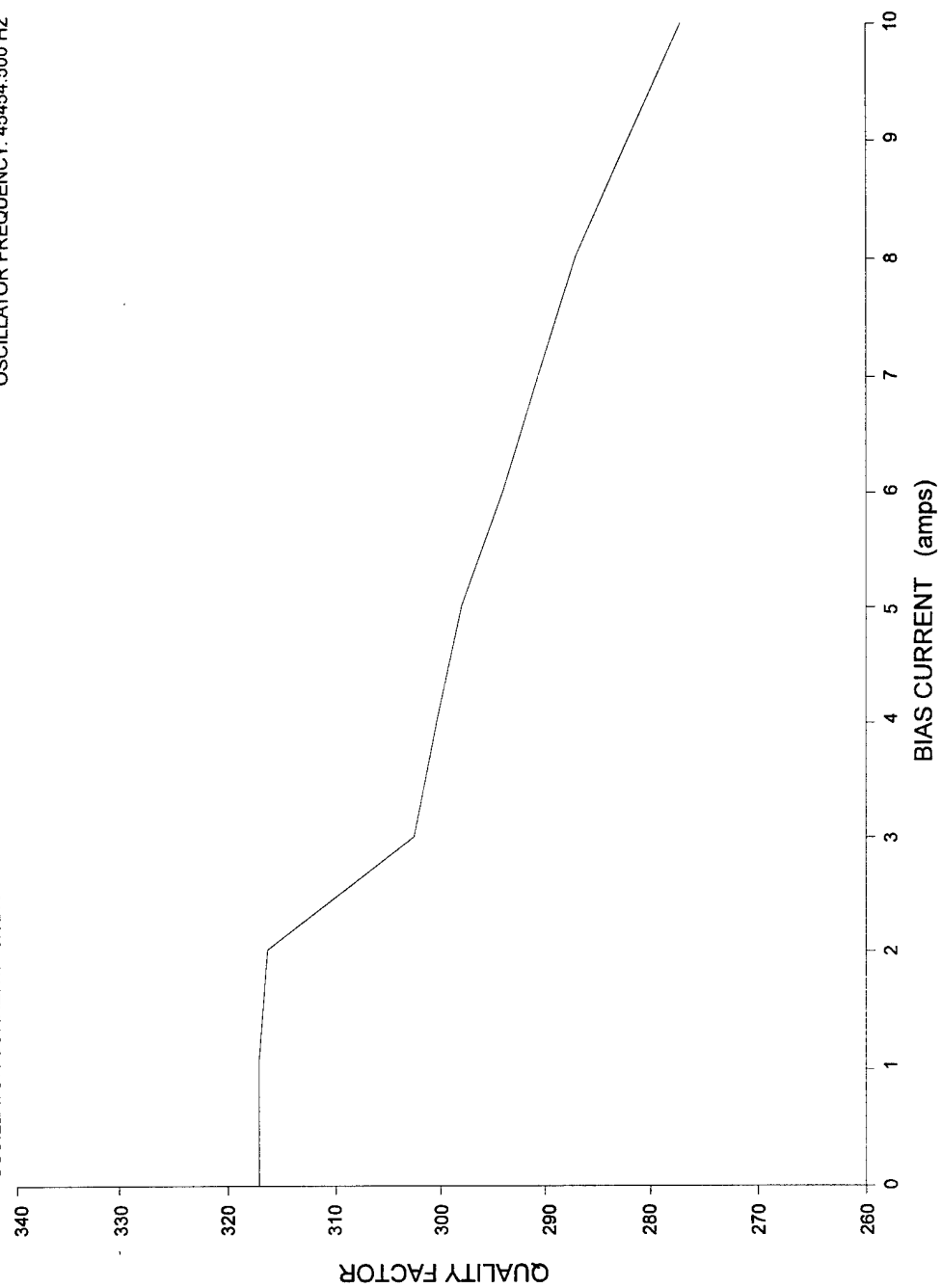


CURRENT CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR: CAPDAS.ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-QUAL. CURR

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

OSCILLATOR FREQUENCY: 45454.500 Hz

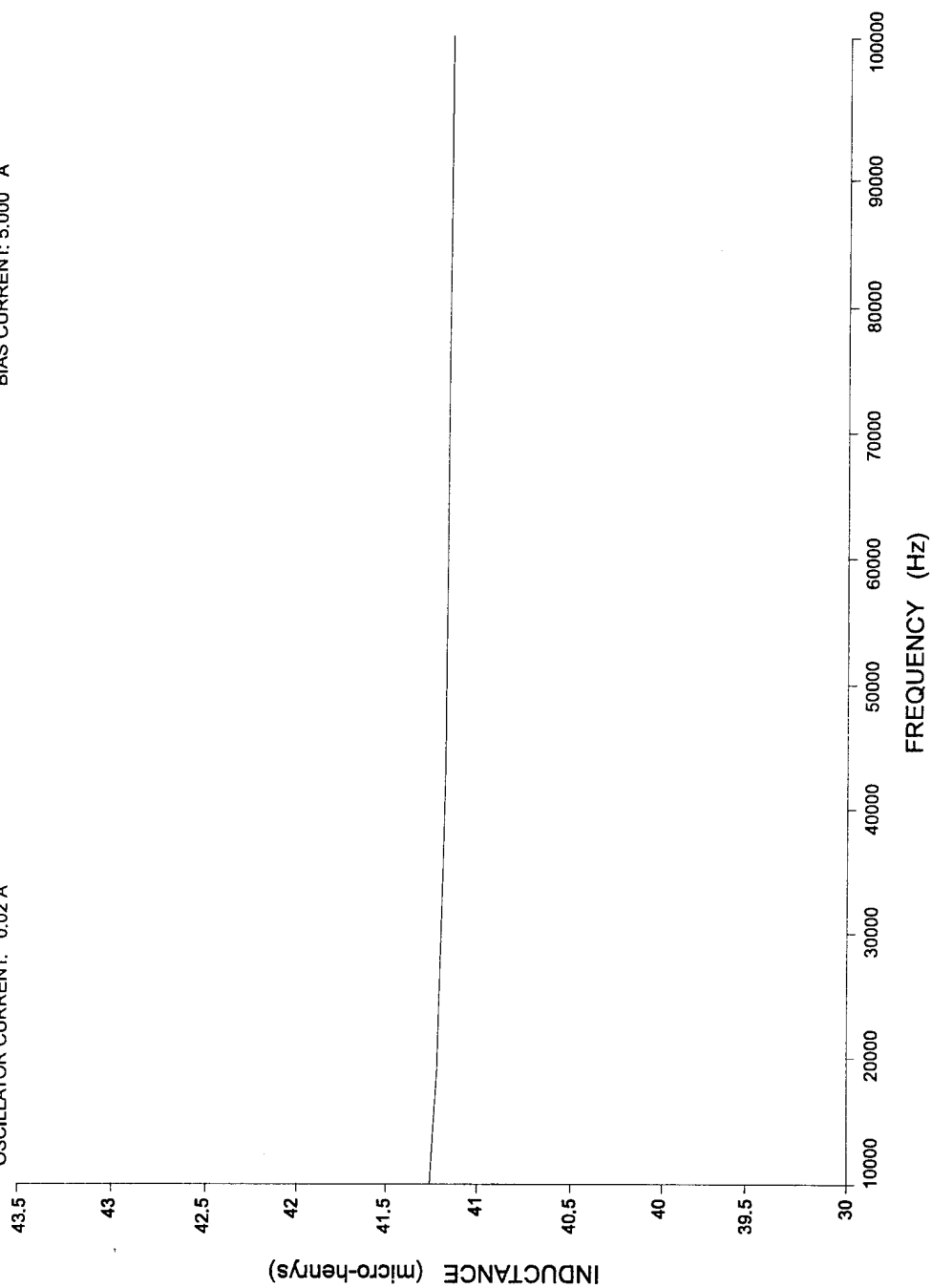


FREQUENCY CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR:CAPDAS.ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-QUAL.FREQ

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

BIAS CURRENT: 5.000 A

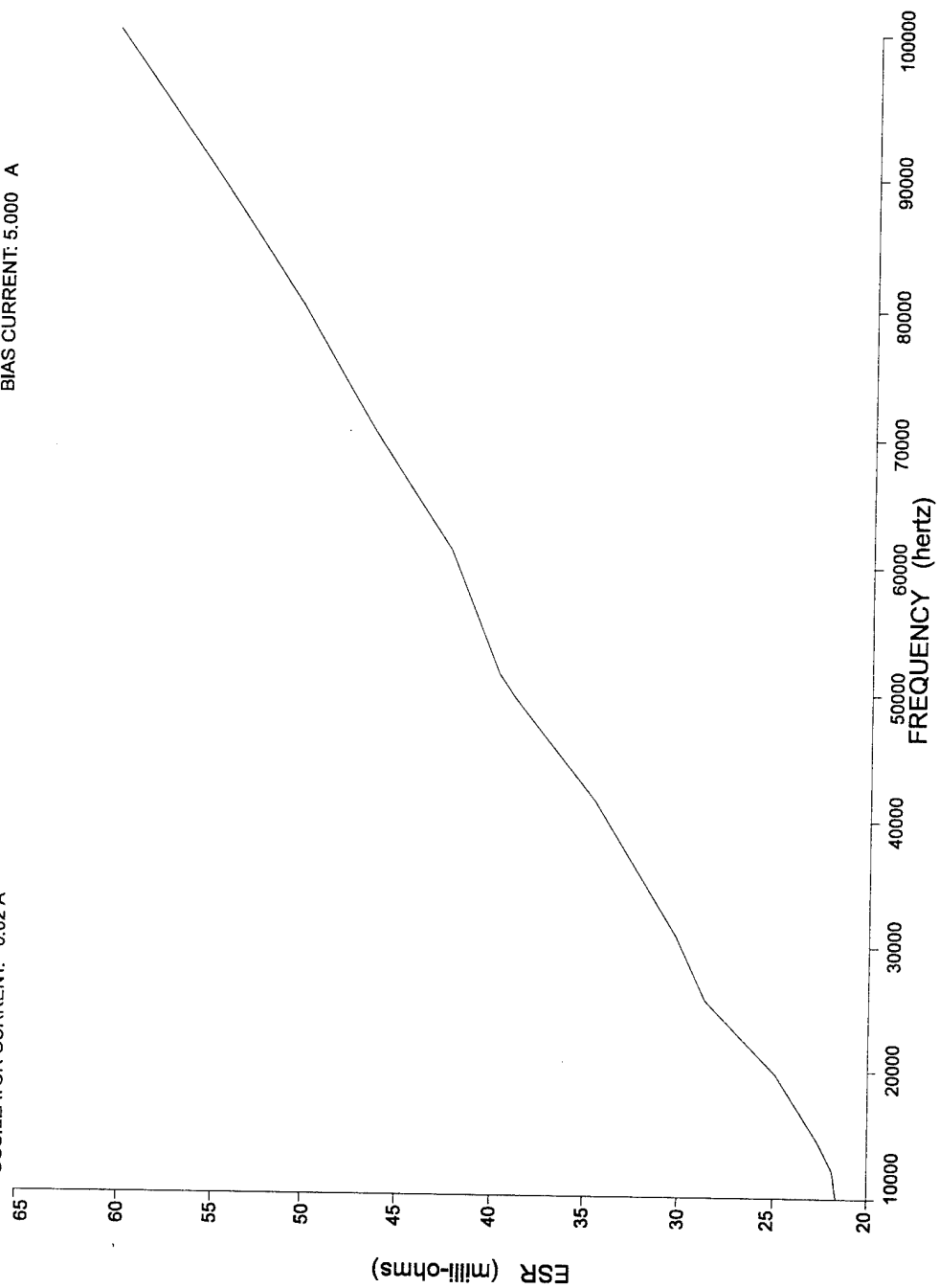


FREQUENCY CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR: CAPDAS.ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-ESR.FREQ

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

BIAS CURRENT: 5.000 A



FREQUENCY CHARACTERIZATION
(OPERATOR CAPDAS ELECTROLYTIC.02 MAY 94)
Phillips-E-75-QUAL.FREQ

OVEN TEMPERATURE: N/A

OSCILLATOR CURRENT: 0.02 A

BIAS CURRENT: 5.000 A

