## Magnet Temperature Estimation in Permanent Magnet Synchronous Machines Using the High Frequency Inductance

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Abstract: Permanent magnet synchronous machines (PMSMs) torque production capability depends on the permanent magnets (PMs) magnetization state, which can be affected by PMs temperature and of the current flowing throughout the stator windings; knowledge of the PMs temperature can be therefore of great importance both for control and monitoring purposes. PMs temperature can be measured or estimated; PM temperature measurement is not easy and is not normally implemented in commercial drives. PM temperature estimation methods can be divided into thermal models based, BEMF based and signal injection based methods. Existing HF signal injection methods estimate the PM temperature from the measured stator HF resistance. Unfortunately the resistance is also affected by magnetoresistive effect, which can limit the accuracy of the estimates. This paper proposes the use of the stator d-axis HF inductance for PM temperature estimation. temperature estimation insensitive magnetoresistive effect. In addition, it allows the use of higher frequencies, reducing the adverse impact of the injected signal on machine performance.1

Keywords—Permanent magnet synchronous machines, magnet temperature estimation, high frequency signal injection.

#### I. Introduction

Design and control of permanent magnet synchronous machines (PMSMs) have been the focus of significant research efforts during the last decades due to their high dynamic response, torque density and efficiency. PMSMs performance depends on the permanent magnets (PMs) magnetization state [1]-[2], which is affected by PMs temperature [2]-[8] and of the current flowing through the stator windings [9]-[12]. An increase of the PM temperature reduces the PM remanent flux (i.e. magnetization state) and consequently the torque production capability, permanent demagnetization being also possible [2]-[13]. These

concerns have boosted the interest in the development of PM temperature measurement/estimation methods.

Direct PM temperature measurement is not easy. Since PMs are moving parts, cabling to a rotating part or wireless transmission system are required [6]-[8], [14], which is undesirable due to robustness and cost issues. An alternative to direct PM temperature measurement is temperature PM temperature estimation methods can be roughly divided into thermal models [15]-[19], BEMF based methods [8],[20]-[22] and signal injection methods [3]-[8], [23]-[24], [34]. Thermal models require precise knowledge of the machine geometry, materials and cooling system, the model being specific therefore for each machine design. BEMF based methods use the induced stator terminal voltage. Concerns for these method is that they require that the machine is rotating, knowledge of d and q-axis inductance maps vs. stator current being also needed. High frequency (HF) signal injection based methods measure the machine response to a high frequency signal injected in the stator via inverter. Appealing properties of these methods are that they can be used in the whole speed range and do not require previous knowledge of machine parameters. In addition these methods require knowledge of the stator temperature, though this is not considered a concern as it is often measured in standard drives [3]-[8].

Existing HF signal injection based methods rely on the dependence of the stator HF resistance on the magnet HF resistance, which is a function of magnet temperature. Unfortunately the PM resistance is sensitive to magnetoresistive effect [25]-[27]. Though its compensation is possible, this increases the complexity and the parameter sensitivity of the method [5].

This paper proposes the use of the stator d-axis HF inductance to estimate PM temperature. The inductance is not affected by magnetoresistive effect, resulting in a simpler implementation and higher accuracy. Furthermore, using the inductance enables the use of higher frequencies. This increases the spectral separation with the fundamental excitation, making filtering easier, unwanted effects due to HF signal injection as torque ripple, noise and vibration being also reduced. It is finally noted that the proposed method provides a lumped temperature estimate. Most of existing temperature

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estimation methods [3]-[5],[7]-[8], [15]-[24], have the same restriction, i.e. do not provide any information on the spatial temperature distributions. It is noted in this regard that thermal models can be extended to 3D [15]-[19] to provide spatial temperature distribution at a price of significant increase of the model complexity. BEMF harmonic content was also shown in [6] to contain information on PMs spatial temperature distribution.

The paper is organized as follows: Principles of PM temperature estimation using the HF inductance are discussed in section II; HF inductance estimation using pulsating HF current injection is described section III; implementation of the method is described in section IV; experimental results are provided in section V; discussion on the HF signal selection is included in section VI; conclusions are finally presented in section VII.

## II. PM temperature estimation using the HF inductance

This section presents the physical principles of PM temperature estimation using the HF inductance. The HF model of a PMSM in the synchronous rotor reference frame is described by (1), where  $v_{sdHF}^r$ ,  $v_{sqHF}^r$ ,  $i_{sdHF}^r$  and  $i_{sqHF}^r$  are stator d and q-axis HF voltages and currents in the rotor synchronous reference frame respectively,  $R_{dHF}$ ,  $R_{qHF}$ ,  $L_{dHF}$  and  $L_{qHF}$  are the d and q-axis HF resistances and inductances respectively,  $\omega$ , is the machine speed and p is the differential operator.

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{sdHF}^r \\ v_{sqHF}^r \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{dHF} & 0 \\ 0 & R_{qHF} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{sdHF}^r \\ i_{sqHF}^r \end{bmatrix} +$$

$$p \begin{bmatrix} L_{dHF} & 0 \\ 0 & L_{qHF} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{sdHF}^r \\ i_{sqHF}^r \end{bmatrix} +$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_r L_{qHF} \\ \omega_r L_{dHF} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{sdHF}^r \\ i_{sqHF}^r \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1)$$

The *d-axis* HF inductance,  $L_{dHF}$ , is function of the *d-axis* saturation level, which depends on the *d-axis* fundamental current [6], [9]-[12], [29] and PM remanent flux [5]-[6], (2).

$$L_{dHF(Id,Br)} = L_{dHF0} \left( 1 + \alpha_{id} I_{sd}^{r} + \alpha_{iq} I_{sq}^{r} + \alpha_{Br} \left( B_{r(T_{.})} - B_{r(T_{.0})} \right) \right)$$
 (2)

where  $L_{dHF0}$  is the d-axis HF inductance due to the PM remanent flux at the room temperature  $T_{r0}$  with no d-axis fundamental current;  $\alpha_{id}$ ,  $\alpha_{iq}$  and  $\alpha_{Br}$  are the coefficients linking the d-axis HF inductance with the d-axis fundamental current,  $I_{sd}^r$ , the q-axis fundamental current,  $I_{sq}^r$  (due to cross-coupling), and the PM remanent flux respectively;  $B_{r(T_{r0})}$  is the PM remanent flux at the room temperature and  $B_{r(T_r)}$  is the PM remanent flux at an arbitrary temperature  $T_r$ . The

temperature dependence of the PM remanent flux is given by  $\alpha_T$  (3) [2], [6], [13].

$$B_{r(T_r)} = B_{r(T_{r0})} \left( 1 + \alpha_T \left( T_r - T_{r0} \right) \right) \tag{3}$$

By substituting (3) into (2), (4) is obtained.

$$L_{dHF(Id,Br)} = L_{dHF0} \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \alpha_{id} I_{sd}^{r} + \alpha_{iq} I_{sq}^{r} + \\ + \alpha_{Br} B_{r(T_{r0})} \alpha_{T} (T_{r} - T_{r0}) \end{pmatrix}$$
(4)

It is observed from (4) that the magnet temperature,  $T_r$ , can be estimated from  $L_{dHF(Id,Br)}$ , previous knowledge of  $L_{dHF0}$  and decoupling of the effects due to the d and q-axis fundamental current being required.

## III. HF inductance estimation using pulsating HF current injection

A HF current can be injected in the *d*-axis via inverter (5), i.e. aligned with the PMs to estimate  $L_{dHF(Id,Br)}$ ; a resonant controller is used for this purpose. The HF voltages provided by the resonant controller will be of the form (6). By taking only the *d*-axis component of the resulting HF voltage complex vector,  $v_{dqsHF}^{r*}$  in (6), the voltage complex vector  $v_{dqsHF}^{r*}$ , (7), is defined. Both (5) and (7) can be separated into positive sequence ( $i_{dqsHFpc}^{r*}$  and  $v_{dqsHFpc}^{r*}$ ) and negative sequence ( $i_{dqsHFpc}^{r*}$  and  $v_{dqsHFpc}^{r*}$ ) components (8)-(9), each with a magnitude equal to half of that of the original signal.

$$i_{dqsHF}^{r^*} = \begin{vmatrix} \overline{I}_{dHF}^{r^*} \\ \overline{I}_{qHF}^{r^*} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{HF}^* \cos(\omega_{HF} t) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (5)

$$v_{dqsHF}^{r^*} = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{V}_{dsHF}^{r^*} \\ \overline{V}_{qsHF}^{r^*} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \left( R_{dHF} + j\omega_{HF} L_{dHF} \right) \overline{I}_{dHF}^r \\ \omega_r L_{dHF} \overline{I}_{dHF}^r \end{bmatrix}$$
(6)

$$v_{dqsHF}^{r'} = \begin{bmatrix} \overline{V}_{dsHF}^{r*} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (R_{dHF} + j\omega_{HF} L_{dHF}) \overline{I}_{dHF}^{r*} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} V_{dqsHF}^{r'} \cos(\omega_{HF} t + \varphi_{Zd}) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7)

$$i_{dqsHF}^{r^*} = \frac{I_{HF}^*}{2} e^{j\omega_{HF}t} + \frac{I_{HF}^*}{2} e^{-j\omega_{HF}t} = i_{dqsHFpc}^{r^*} + i_{dqsHFnc}^{r^*}$$
(8)

$$v_{dqsHF}^{r'} = \frac{\left|v_{dqsHF}^{r'}\right|}{2} e^{j(\omega_{HF}t - \varphi_{Zd})} + \frac{\left|v_{dqsHF}^{r'}\right|}{2} e^{j(-\omega_{HF}t + \varphi_{Zd})}$$

$$= v_{dqsHFpc}^{r'} + v_{dqsHFnc}^{r'}$$
(9)

The *d*-axis HF impedance, (10), can be obtained either from the positive or negative sequence components, (8) and (9),  $\varphi_{Z_{dHF}}$  (11) being the phase of the *d*-axis HF impedance (10). The *d*-axis HF inductance can be obtained from (12).

$$Z_{dHF} = R_{dHF} + j\omega_{HF}L_{dHF} = \frac{v_{dqsHFpc}^{r'}}{i_{dsHFpc}^{r}} = \frac{v_{dqsHFnc}^{r'}}{i_{dsHFpc}^{r}}$$
(10)

$$\varphi_{Z_{dHF}} = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\omega_{HF} L_{dHF}}{R_{dHF}} \right) \tag{11}$$

$$L_{dHF} = \frac{Z_{dHF} \sin(\varphi_{Z_{dHF}})}{\omega_{HF}}$$
 (12)

From (4) and (12) the magnet temperature (13) is finally obtained.

$$T_{r} = \frac{L_{dHF} - L_{dHF0} - L_{dHF0} \alpha_{id} I_{sd}^{r} - L_{dHF0} \alpha_{iq} I_{sq}^{r}}{L_{dHF0} \alpha_{Br} B_{r(T_{r0})} \alpha_{T}} + \frac{L_{dHF0} \alpha_{Br} B_{r(T_{r0})} \alpha_{T} T_{r0}}{L_{dHF0} \alpha_{Br} B_{r(T_{r0})} \alpha_{T}}$$

$$(13)$$

## IV. Implementation

Fig. 1 shows the general block diagram used for the implementation of the method, including inverter control and injection of the HF pulsating signal using resonant controller [5]. Fig. 2 shows the signal processing required for magnet temperature estimation. Inputs to the temperature estimation block are the output voltage of the HF resonant current controller  $v_{dqsHF}^{r^*}$  (6), the commanded HF current  $i_{dqsHF}^{r^*}$  (5) and the magnitude of the fundamental d and q-axis currents,  $I_{sd}^{r}$  and  $I_{sq}^{r}$  respectively. Two band stop filters, BSF1 and BSF2, are used to remove the negative sequence components of the HF current and voltage. The d-axis impedance,  $Z_{dHF}$ , is estimated from the positive sequence component of the Commanded HF current  $i_{dqsHFpc}^{r^*}$  and the d-axis component of the HF current resonant controller output voltage  $v_{dqsHF}^{r^*}$  using (10); the d-axis inductance,  $L_{dHF}$ , is estimated using (12); The magnet temperature is finally estimated using (13).

As it can be observed from (10), to estimate the high frequency impedance the proposed method requires the high frequency current and voltage. While current sensors are already present for current control purposes, voltage sensors are practically never used, meaning that the commanded voltage must be used instead (output of the HF resonant controller, see Fig. 1). Errors between actual and commanded voltage will exist due to the non-ideal behavior of the inverter, mainly due to the inverter dead-time, variations of the DC bus voltage and the voltage drop in the power devices.

 Dead-time results in errors in both the magnitude and phase of the injected voltage with respect to the commanded voltage. A large variety of methods to compensate the dead-time effects have been proposed [35]-[37], the method proposed in [35] has been used for this research.

- Variations of the dc bus voltage, would produce errors in the magnitude of the injected voltage with respect to the commanded value, and consequently in the estimated high frequency impedance. However, since dc bus voltage is normally measured in industrial drives, these variations can be easily compensated.
- Voltage drops in the power devices also results in errors in the magnitude of the injected voltage with respect to the commanded value. For the power modules that have been used in this work, 7MBP100VDA120-50 [30], voltage drop in the power devices have been found to be negligible compared with the injected HF voltage, no compensation has been therefore implemented. The internal resistance of the power switches is  $\approx 20e^{-3}\Omega$  at 100 A and  $25 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$ , which is more than two full orders of magnitude smaller than the overall machine high-frequency impedance ( $Z_{dHF} \approx (4.1+j1.9) \Omega$  at  $25 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $250 \, \text{Hz}$ ); therefore, it can be safely neglected.

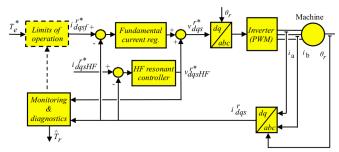


Fig. 1.- Injection of a HF pulsating current. Dashed lines indicate optional functionalities.

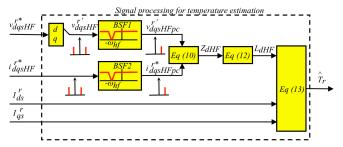


Fig. 2.- Schematic representation of the signal processing to estimate the magnet temperature using pulsating HF current injection.

### V. Experimental results

Table I. Machine parameters	
$P_{RATED}(kW)$	7.5
$I_{RATED}(\mathbf{A})$	14
$\omega_{RATED}$ (rpm)	1000
Stator slots	36
Poles	6
Rotor radius (mm)	54.2
Airgap length (mm)	0.8
Inner stator radius (mm)	55
Outer stator radius (mm)	88
Permanent magnets (NdFeB)	BMN-42M [38]

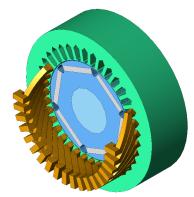




Fig. 3.-. (a) Schematic representation of the test machine and (b) picture of the test bench.

The proposed method has been tested on an IPMSM, its schematic design is shown in Fig. 3a. Main dimensions and ratings are shown in Table I. The test machine is driven by a power converter equipped with 1200V, 100A IGBT power modules (7MBP100VDA120-50 [30]). Standard Space Vector Modulation was used. The switching frequency was 10 kHz. The test bench can be seen in Fig. 3b.

Fig. 4a shows  $L_{dHF}$  vs.  $I_d$  and  $I_q$  when the magnet temperature is constant for a frequency of the HF signal of 250 Hz. It is observed that  $L_{dHF}$  is barely affected by  $I_q$ , meaning that for this particular machine, the cross-coupling between d and q-axis is negligible, i.e.  $L_{dHF0}\alpha_{iq}\approx 0$  mH/A (13); consequently load will have reduced impact on the estimated temperature. However,  $L_{dHF}$  is seen to be highly dependent on  $I_d$ , a valued of  $L_{dHF0}\alpha_{id}=0.207$  mH/A (13) has been obtained experimentally. Compensation of  $I_d$  effects will be therefore required for accurate temperature estimation. Fig. 4b shows  $L_{dHF}$  vs. the frequency of the HF for different  $I_d$ - $I_q$  sets. It is observed that the  $L_{dHF}$  decreases as frequency increases Finally, Fig. 4c shows  $\alpha_{id}$ , which is shown to be rather insensitive to frequency and q-axis current levels.

The performance of the proposed method with an IPMSM is shown in Fig. 5-Fig. 6. Data was collected with both torque and speed being varied from zero to their rated values in steps of 0.1 pu; MTPA is not implemented, i.e.  $I'_{sd} = 0$  for  $\omega_r < 1$  pu and  $I'_{sd} \neq 0$  for  $\omega_r > 1$  pu. The reason for not using MTPA is to analyze the effects of changes in  $I_q$ ,  $I_d$  and  $\omega_r$  separately. To assess the accuracy of the method, PMs temperatures were measured in real time using the system described in appendix A. Fig. 5a shows the measured PM temperature obtained as

the average of the three temperature sensors. It is observed from Fig. 5a that the rotor temperature increases with the load due to the copper, eddy current and hysteresis losses, which was an expected result [3]-[8]. The rotor temperature also increases with the speed due to the increased eddy currents and hysteresis losses with frequency. Fig. 5b shows the estimated d-axis HF inductance  $L_{dHF}$  using (12). Fig. 5c shows the estimated d-axis HF inductance after decoupling the effect of  $I_d$ ,  $L_{dHF}$  (14); variation observed in this figure being exclusively due to PM temperature variation.

$$L_{dHF} = L_{dHF} - L_{dHF0} \alpha_{id} I_{sd}^{r}$$

$$\tag{14}$$

Fig. 6a shows the estimated PM temperature using  $\alpha_{Br}B_{r(T_{r,0})}\alpha_{T}$  =0.038 mH/°C (13). Fig. 6b shows the PM temperature error between measured and estimated temperatures. It can be observed that speed and load have almost no impact on the temperature estimation error. Maximum error in the estimated PM temperature is <4°C.

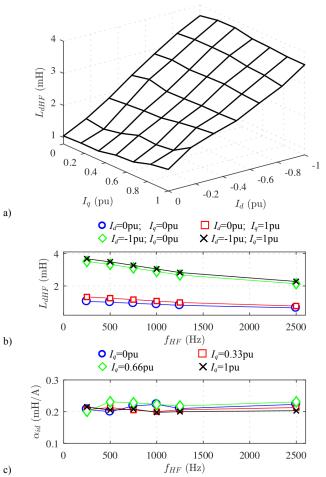
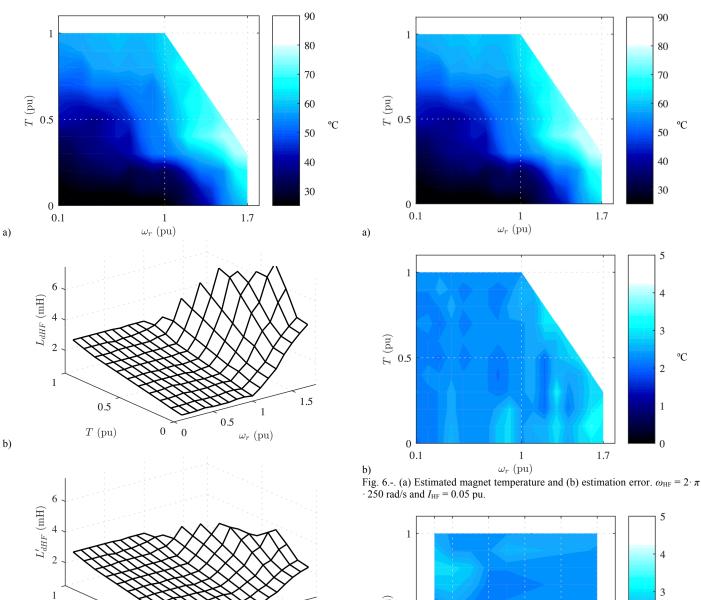


Fig. 4.-. a)  $L_{dHF}$  variation with  $i_d$  and  $i_q$  for the case of a constant magnet temperature and frequency of the HF signal  $(f_{HF})$  of 250Hz. b)  $L_{dHF}$  variation with  $f_{HF}$  for the case of a constant magnet temperature and for different values of  $I_d$ —and  $I_q$  combinations. c)  $\alpha_{id}$  variation with  $f_{HF}$  for the case of a constant magnet temperature and various  $I_q$  values.



1.5

 $\omega_r$  (pu)

Fig. 5.-. (a) Measured rotor temperature, (b) estimated HF inductance  $L_{dHF}$  before and (c) after decoupling  $i_{dq}$  effect.  $\omega_{HF} = 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 250$  rad/s and  $I_{HF} = 0.05$  pu.

0.5 T (pu)

## VI. HF signal selection

Selection of the frequency  $(f_{HF})$  and magnitude  $(I_{HF})$  of the injected HF current involves a trade-off between the accuracy of method and the potential adverse effects on the operation of the drive.

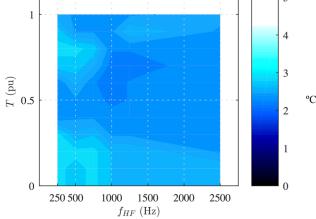


Fig. 7.-. Estimation error.  $\omega_r = 1$  pu and  $I_{HF} = 0.05$  pu.

### a) Frequency selection

The proposed method uses the stator d-axis HF inductance to estimate PM temperature. Higher frequencies will increase therefore the weight of the inductive component (desired component) over the resistive component (undesired component) in the overall high frequency impedance, improving the accuracy. Fig. 7 shows the PM temperature

error at a fixed speed, 1 pu when the frequency of the HF signal changes from 250 to 2500Hz. It is observed that the estimation error slightly decreases as the frequency of the HF signal increases, higher frequencies would be therefore preferred. In addition, higher frequencies will increase the spectral separation with the fundamental excitation, making filtering easier, and reducing unwanted effects due to HF signal injection as torque ripple, noise and vibration. It is noted however that increasing the frequency could increase the induced machine losses and consequently temperature, which results in a reduction of the magnet strength and could even cause permanent demagnetization. PMSM's losses can be divided into copper losses, iron losses and PM losses. Copper losses due to the HF signal injection can be expressed by (15) [4], where  $R_{HF}$  is the HF resistance of the stator winding, and  $I_{HF}$  is the magnitude of the injected HF current. Assuming that  $R_{HF}$  does not change with the frequency of the HF signal, it can be concluded from (15) that the copper losses do not depend on the frequency of the HF signal. This assumption is valid whenever the skin depth (16) is bigger than the radius of the stator wiring, where  $\rho$  and  $\mu$  are the resistivity and magnetic permeability of the material [26]-[27].

$$P_{Cu\_HF} = R_{HF}I_{HF}^2 \tag{15}$$

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{2*\rho}{2*\pi*f_{HF}*\mu}} \tag{16}$$

$$P_{iron} = P_{hyst} + P_{eddy} \tag{17}$$

$$P_{hyst} = K_h f_{HF} B \left( 1 + \frac{k}{B} \Delta B_{HF} \right) \tag{18}$$

$$P_{eddy} = K_e f_{HF}^2 \left| B_{HF} \right|^2 \tag{19}$$

$$P_{eddy\_mag} = K_{e\_mag} \frac{(B_{HF} f_{HF})^2}{\rho}$$
 (20)

Both the stator and rotor iron losses can be further divided into hysteresis and the eddy current losses (17), which can be approximated using (18) and (19), where  $f_{HF}$  is the frequency of the HF signal, B is the flux density peak value,  $B_{HF}$  is the HF flux density peak value,  $\Delta B_{HF}$  is the flux reversal associated with a minor loop and k,  $k_e$  and  $k_h$  are constants that depend on material thickness, form and density [4], [31].

Finally, the magnet eddy current losses can be expressed as (20), where  $\rho$  is the resistivity of the magnet and  $k_{e\_mag}$  is a constant that depends on permanent magnet thickness, form and density [4], [32], [33].

It is observed from (20) that the magnet eddy current losses increase with the frequency of the HF signal. This is valid under the assumption that the skin effect can be neglected.

For the test machine (see Fig. 3a), the magnets' depth, i.e. distance between the rotor surface and the PMs, equals the skin effect depth for a frequency of ≈975Hz; meaning that the

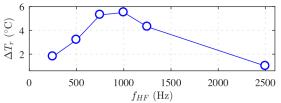


Fig. 8.-. Steady state magnet temperature increase,  $\Delta T_r$ , due to the HF current injection.  $I_{\rm HF}=0.05$  pu,  $\omega_r=1$  pu and  $I_d=I_q=0$ pu.

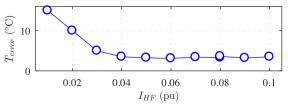


Fig. 9.-. Temperature estimation error vs.  $I_{\rm HF}$ .  $\omega_{\rm r}$  =1 pu,  $I_d$ = $I_q$ =0pu and  $T_r$ =25°C.

PMs' losses, and consequently their temperature, will increase with frequency for frequencies  $f_{HF}$ <975Hz, and will decrease for frequencies  $f_{HF} > 975$ Hz. Fig. 8 shows the steady state PM temperature increase due to the HF current injection; the PMs' temperature was measured after 60 minutes of continuous HF current injection, it was verified that the machine was in thermal steady state. As expected, the maximum temperature increase occurs for  $f_{HF} \approx 975$  Hz. It can be concluded from this discussion that, for the test machine used in this paper (see Fig. 3a), frequencies of the HF signal close to 975Hz should be avoided. In addition the frequency of the HF signal  $f_{HF}$ plus the machine excitation frequency  $(f_r)$  needs to be smaller than half of the switching frequency (Nyquist frequency) [5]-[7], which is 10kHz for the experimental setup used in this Taking also into account that the estimation error slightly decreases as the frequency of the HF signal increases, see Fig. 7, >975Hz would be preferred.

### b) Magnitude selection

It is obvious from (15), (17)-(20) that decreasing the magnitude of the injected HF current,  $I_{HF}$ , reduces the machine losses, therefore decreasing  $I_{HF}$  results in a reduction of the unwanted thermal effects due to the HF signal injection; also resulting in a decrease of the torque ripple, noise and vibration. Fig. 9 shows the temperature estimation error vs.  $I_{HF}$ . It is observed that increasing  $I_{HF}$  from 0.01 to 0.05pu significantly increases the accuracy. improvement is observed for values of  $I_{HF}$  above 0.05pu. In addition, increasing  $I_{HF}$  results in an increased HF voltage,  $V_{HF}$ , reducing therefore the available DC bus voltage for e.g. fundamental current injection. The available DC bus voltage reduction due to the HF signal injection is rather limited for the test machine used in this work;  $V_{HF} \approx 0.04$  pu when  $f_{HF}$ =2500Hz and  $I_{HF}$ =0.05pu, this issue not being therefore a concern for this machine.  $I_{HF}$ =0.05pu has been found be a good trade-off between accuracy and available DC bus voltage reduction.

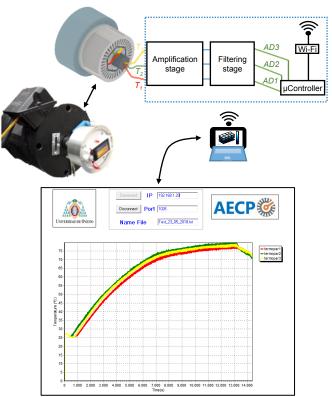


Fig. 10.- (a) Schematic representation of the temperature measurement system and (b) desktop application.

#### VII. Conclusions

This paper proposes PM temperature estimation by means of HF signal injection based on the d-axis HF inductance. The proposed method overcomes two major limitations of HF signal injection based PM temperature estimation methods using the stator reflected magnet HF resistance: influence of magnetoresistive effect and constraints for the selection of the frequency of the injected signal. It was shown that  $I_d$  current has an important impact over the d-axis HF inductance, which needs to be decoupled for accurate temperature estimation. On the contrary  $I_q$  current has a limited impact over the d-axis HF inductance. Extensive experimental results have been provided to demonstrate the viability of the proposed method.

# VIII. Appendix A: Temperature measurement system

TABLE II. MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MEASUREMENT SYSTEM	
Sensor Temperature limit	250°C
Resolution	0.0936°C
Measurement range	0 °C to 125 °C
Bandwidth	1.25 kHz
Number of sensors	3

To evaluate the performance of the proposed method, a wireless, on-line, PM temperature measurement system has been designed and built. Main blocks of the system are shown in Fig. 10; it includes temperature sensors (thermocouples), signal conditioning, µController, battery and WiFi module. Ktype thermocouple temperature sensors are attached to the rotor using a thermally conductive epoxy adhesive. Thermocouple wires are taken out throughout a hollow-shaft and connected to a signal conditioning stage (amplification and filtering stages in Fig. 10), using high precision instrumentation amplifiers; the system also includes a digital temperature sensor to provide temperature at thermocouples connection point. The thermocouple signals are filtered using analog second order stages and later connected to 10-bit analog-to-digital converters (ADC) of a micro-controller (µController in Fig. 10); then the digitalized thermocouple measurements are transmitted to a central computer using a WiFi link. The maximum sampling rate of the system is 1,25kHz, a sampling rate of 1 Hz was used in for the experiments shown in this paper. To supply conditioning stage, µController and wireless transmission device, a power stage composed of a Li-Po battery and various DC-DC converters, is included. Fig. 10b shows a screenshot of the desktop application that has been developed.

#### IX. References

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