

# Hybrid Vector Control of Open-Winding Induction Motor Driven by a New L-Type Dual-Output Three-Level Inverter

Qigang DU, Guifeng WANG, Yunhui JIANG, Weipeng SHI, Chao LUO, and Ke LI

**Abstract**—To simplify the dual-inverter architecture for driving open-end winding induction motors (OEWIMs), this study proposes a dual-port 120° phase-shifted drive scheme based on an L-type dual-output three-level converter (L-DO-TLC). The proposed L-DO-TLC topology is constructed by cascading a T-type three-level inverter with a nine-switch converter in an L-shaped configuration. By reusing devices, it generates two independent three-level outputs, reducing the number of power switches from 24 to 15. Based on this topology, a hybrid-vector (HV) finite control set model predictive control (FCS-MPC) strategy is introduced. The prediction model of the OEWIM is formulated using forward Euler discretization. A voltage vector selection mechanism is then developed based on the zero-sequence current (ZSC) suppression principle, significantly reducing the computational complexity of the predictive control algorithm. To further improve control performance, an HV-MPC decision-making strategy is proposed that jointly optimizes current tracking and vector application. This method effectively mitigates the large torque ripple observed in single-vector (SV)-MPC and the high switching frequency encountered in dual-vector (DV)-MPC. Simulation and hardware-in-the-loop experimental results validate the effectiveness and advantages of the proposed strategy.

**Index Terms**—Hybrid-vector model predictive control, L-type dual-output three-level inverter, model predictive control, open-end winding induction motor.

## I. INTRODUCTION

OPEN-END winding induction motor (OEWIM) drive system, powered by dual inverters supplying both ends of the stator windings, offers several advantages, including

multi-level output capability, a relatively simple structure, and high DC voltage utilization. Consequently, it has been widely investigated in various applications [1]–[3].

Based on the DC bus power supply configuration, OEWIM drive systems can be categorized into two types: common DC bus systems [4] and isolated DC bus systems [5]. In isolated DC bus systems, the dual inverters are powered by two independent sources, which increases both system cost and complexity. In contrast, common DC bus systems utilize a single DC source, but inherently introduce a zero-sequence current (ZSC) loop, which reduces overall motor efficiency and therefore necessitates additional control strategies for ZSC suppression.

In [6], a space vector pulse width modulation (SVPWM) algorithm is proposed, in which voltage vectors corresponding to the hexagon vertices are selected to synthesize a zero-sequence voltage (ZSV) of zero, thereby effectively suppressing ZSC generation. This method fundamentally depends on the 120° decomposition of voltage vectors to synthesize the desired output voltage. Subsequently, [7] introduces a direct decoupling of voltage vectors in the dual inverter system, simplifying implementation. Compared to SVPWM, carrier-based PWM strategies reduce algorithmic complexity by incorporating controllable zero-sequence components to modulate the waveform [8]. Although various ZSC suppression algorithms have been developed, their single-objective optimization frameworks often fall short of satisfying the system's multidimensional control requirements. In contrast, finite control set model predictive control (FCS-MPC) demonstrates clear advantages under complex operating conditions due to its ability to achieve multi-objective coordinated optimization [9].

Building on model predictive current control, [10] formulates a cost function based on  $dq$ -axis current error and ZSC as optimization objectives, and introduces a voltage vector allocation mechanism within a semi-controlled common DC bus dual-inverter configuration to reduce algorithmic complexity. However, this approach does not fully consider the influence of zero-sequence components on candidate voltage vectors. To better optimize voltage vector selection, [11] proposes a hybrid dual-vector (DV) model predictive strategy. In each control cycle, Inverter 1 applies one non-zero and one zero vector, while Inverter 2 applies two non-zero vectors. This technique effectively suppresses ZSC, minimizes

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current ripple, and enhances system reliability. To address the computational burden of vector selection in predictive control, [12] presents a ZSC hysteresis-based DV predictive current control strategy. By predicting the sector and sub-sector of the reference voltage vector, two candidate voltage vectors are selected, and a ZSV with opposite polarity to the ZSC is applied. This approach improves computational efficiency, enhances control performance, and reduces torque ripple in the motor. As algorithmic refinements to DV-MPC continue [13], this control method has shown significant improvements in control accuracy, dynamic response, and overall performance [14]–[16]. However, due to the control mechanism, the average switching frequency is typically much higher than that of conventional single-vector MPC (SV-MPC) schemes.

Optimization of dual-inverter control systems involves not only algorithmic improvements but also enhancements to system architecture. Traditional dual-inverter configurations often require an excessive number of power devices, reducing system efficiency and increasing cost. To mitigate this, [17] proposes a dual-output neutral-point-clamped (NPC) three-level topology, which eliminates four power switches compared to conventional dual-NPC configurations. By employing time-sharing modulation and virtual space vector PWM, independent dual three-level outputs are achieved. Building upon this, [18] introduces a novel 15-switch dual-output three-level topology that eliminates five power switches and six diodes, enabling the construction of dual-port voltage vectors and supporting both synchronous and asynchronous frequency control modes. To differentiate between upper and lower output ports, [19] proposes a dual-output T-type three-level topology, using sinusoidal PWM with DC bias, and analyzes key parameters such as voltage level selection, displacement angle constraints, and modulation range across various operating conditions. Although several dual-output topologies have been presented, their applicability to OEWM systems remains limited due to the constraints of switch-sharing topologies, where the voltage at the upper output port is always greater than or equal to that at the lower port [20]–[22]. As a result, conventional per-phase wiring schemes cannot generate negative voltage outputs. Furthermore, the output states of the two ports are coupled, preventing the introduction of a phase shift via control signals, thereby restricting proper OEWM operation.

To address these issues, this paper proposes a  $120^\circ$  phase-shifted dual-port drive scheme for OEWMs based on a novel L-type dual-output three-level converter (L-DO-TLC). By employing device-sharing techniques, the proposed topology achieves independent dual three-level outputs and reduces the number of power switches from 24 to 15 compared to conventional dual-inverter structures, thereby significantly decreasing hardware costs. Based on the output characteristics of the L-DO-TLC topology, a  $120^\circ$  phase-shifted dual-port configuration is adopted to deliver the necessary voltage and phase differences required for OEWM operation. The relationship between switching states and output voltage vectors in the proposed topology is derived,

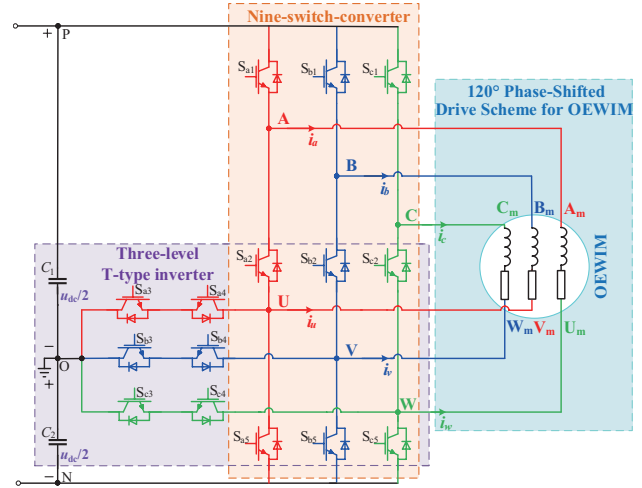


Fig. 1. Topology of L-DO-TLC driving OEWM.

and a corresponding voltage space vector diagram is provided to establish the theoretical basis for the subsequent vector selection mechanism. To mitigate the large torque ripple associated with SV-FCS-MPC and the high switching frequency inherent in DV-MPC, a hybrid-vector MPC (HV-MPC) strategy is proposed. A voltage vector screening mechanism is designed based on the ZSC suppression principle, which substantially reduces algorithmic complexity. By combining the respective strengths of SV-MPC and DV-MPC, an alternating control mechanism is introduced to maintain current tracking accuracy while effectively suppressing torque ripple and optimizing the switching frequency.

## II. OPERATIONAL PRINCIPLE OF OEWM DRIVEN BY L-DO-TLC

The topology of the L-DO-TLC driving the OEWM is illustrated in Fig. 1. It comprises 15 power switches and two capacitors,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ . Each phase leg consists of five insulated gate bipolar transistors (IGBTs), labeled  $S_{x1}$  to  $S_{x5}$  ( $x \in \{a, b, c\}$ ), each equipped with an anti-parallel diode. The capacitors maintain a DC bus voltage of  $u_{dc}/2$ . The proposed topology integrates a nine-switch converter and a T-type three-level inverter in an "L"-shaped configuration, enabling dual-port three-level output.

The voltages  $u_{a0}$ ,  $u_{b0}$ , and  $u_{c0}$  represent the phase voltages of nodes A, B, and C, respectively, with respect to the neutral point O, and are defined as the upper output phase voltages. Correspondingly, the currents  $i_a$ ,  $i_b$ , and  $i_c$  are the upper output currents. Similarly, the voltages  $u_{u0}$ ,  $u_{v0}$ , and  $u_{w0}$  denote the phase voltages at nodes U, V, and W, respectively, with respect to point O, and are defined as the lower output phase voltages. The corresponding lower output currents are  $i_u$ ,  $i_v$ , and  $i_w$ . To distinguish from the traditional OEWM wiring configuration, the phase windings of the OEWM are defined as AU, BV, and CW, respectively.

Compared to other dual-output three-level topologies, the L-DO-TLC utilizes a switch-sharing structure, which reduces the number of power switches, as summarized in Table I. This

TABLE I  
L-DO-TLC COMPARE WITH OTHER DUAL-OUTPUT THREE-LEVEL-CONVERTER

Parameters	Dual-parallel mono-NPC-TLC	Dual-parallel mono-T-TLC	Dual-Output-NPC-TLC [17]	New-15-switches-TLC [18]	New-Dual-Output-TLC	Dual-Output-T-TLC [19]	Proposed Dual-Output-L-TLC
Switch No.	24	24	20	15	21	18	15
Clamping diode No.	12	0	12	6	0	0	0
Switch or bidirectional switch blocking $U_{dc}$ No.	0	12	2	0	0	6	6
Switch or bidirectional switch blocking $U_{dc}/2$ No.	24	24	18	15	21	12	9

TABLE II  
L-DO-TLC AU PHASE OUTPUT STATUS

State	$S_{a1}$	$S_{a2}$	$S_{a3}$	$S_{a4}$	$S_{a5}$	$u_{ao}$	$u_{uo}$
1	OFF	ON	OFF	ON	ON	$-u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}/2$
2	OFF	ON	ON	ON	OFF	0	0
3	ON	ON	ON	OFF	OFF	$u_{dc}/2$	$u_{dc}/2$
4	ON	OFF	ON	ON	OFF	$u_{dc}/2$	0
5	ON	OFF	OFF	ON	ON	$u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}/2$

design offers distinct advantages in terms of both cost and physical volume.

#### A. Topological Analysis of the L-DO-TLC

While the L-DO-TLC employs switch-sharing to reduce the number of power devices, this structure also imposes constraints on permissible output states. Taking the AU phase leg as an example, five valid switching states are derived to ensure that the output terminals are not left floating and that the DC bus is not short-circuited. These states, listed in Table II, define the corresponding upper and lower output phase voltages,  $u_{ao}$  and  $u_{uo}$ , respectively. Notably, the output voltage always satisfies the condition that the upper phase voltage is greater than or equal to the lower phase voltage. The BV and CW bridge arms are subject to the same constraints.

The conduction state of switch  $S_{a3}$  is complementary to that of  $S_{a5}$ , i.e.,  $S_{a3} = \overline{S_{a5}}$ , while the conduction state of  $S_{a4}$  is complementary to the series conduction of  $S_{a1}$  and  $S_{a2}$ , i.e.,  $S_{a4} = S_{a1} \cap S_{a2}$ . This strategy effectively reduces the switching frequency of power devices. For example, during the transition from switching state 1 to state 2, only two power switches are activated, preventing double-step voltage transitions and significantly reducing switching losses.

By analyzing the relationship between phase voltages and the switching states shown in Table II, it is observed that when phase A outputs  $u_{dc}/2$ , switch  $S_{a1}$  remains ON, while  $S_{a2}$  and  $S_{a5}$  are turned ON in series. Conversely, when phase U outputs  $-u_{dc}/2$ ,  $S_{a5}$  remains ON, and  $S_{a1}$  and  $S_{a2}$  conduct in series. The conduction states of  $S_{a3}$  and  $S_{a4}$  are determined by the logic of the remaining power switches. Therefore, the relationship between the phase voltage  $u_{ao}$  and the power switches can be

expressed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_{ao} \\ u_{uo} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_a \\ S_u \end{bmatrix} U_{dc} / 2 = \begin{bmatrix} S_{a1} - S_{a2} \cap S_{a5} \\ S_{a1} \cap S_{a2} - S_{a5} \end{bmatrix} u_{dc} / 2 \quad (1)$$

Since the conduction strategies for the BV and CW bridge arms are identical to those for the AU bridge arm, the relationships between the phase voltages and corresponding switches for these arms can similarly be expressed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_{bo} \\ u_{vo} \\ u_{co} \\ u_{wo} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_b \\ S_v \\ S_c \\ S_w \end{bmatrix} U_{dc} / 2 = \begin{bmatrix} S_{b1} - S_{b2} \cap S_{b5} \\ S_{b1} \cap S_{b2} - S_{b5} \\ S_{c1} - S_{c2} \cap S_{c5} \\ S_{c1} \cap S_{c2} - S_{c5} \end{bmatrix} u_{dc} / 2 \quad (2)$$

Furthermore, the voltage and current stresses on the power devices serve as critical indicators for evaluating the proposed topology. Regarding the voltage stress, the blocking voltages are determined by the clamping mechanism of the DC bus capacitors and the complementary conduction logic. Specifically, the switches  $S_{a3}$  and  $S_{a4}$  sustain a maximum blocking voltage of  $U_{dc}/2$ , whereas the switches  $S_{a1}$ ,  $S_{a2}$ , and  $S_{a5}$  are subjected to a maximum voltage stress of  $U_{dc}$ . In terms of current stress, owing to the dual-port series connection configuration, the current flowing through each active switch corresponds directly to the stator phase current of the OEWM. Crucially, despite the switch-sharing structure, the specific switching logic ensures that no single device carries superimposed currents from multiple phases, thereby maintaining the current stress within the rated limits.

#### B. Reference Current Generation Mechanism

When the L-DO-TLC drives an OEWM using a conventional dual-inverter configuration, in which each phase output port is directly connected, the switch-sharing structure imposes a constraint whereby the upper port voltage is always greater than or equal to the lower port voltage. Furthermore, the output states of the two ports are inherently coupled, preventing the introduction of a phase shift via control signals. To overcome this limitation under same-frequency operation, a dual-port

TABLE III  
AW PHASE OUTPUT STATUS OF L-DO-TLC OEWM

Output state	$u_{ao}$	$u_{wo}$	$u_{aw}$
I	$u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}/2$	$u_{dc}$
II	0	$-u_{dc}/2$	$u_{dc}/2$
III	$u_{dc}/2$	0	$u_{dc}/2$
IV	$-u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}/2$	0
V	0	0	0
VI	$u_{dc}/2$	$u_{dc}/2$	0
VII	0	$u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}/2$
VIII	$-u_{dc}/2$	0	$-u_{dc}/2$
IX	$-u_{dc}/2$	$u_{dc}/2$	$-u_{dc}$

120° phase-shifted connection scheme is proposed for OEWM operation, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

In this scheme, the upper output current  $i_a$  flows from node A through the single-phase winding AU and exits at node W, while the lower output current is  $i_w = -i_a$ . Similarly, the upper output current  $i_b$  flows from node B through winding BV to node U, yielding  $i_u = -i_b$ . For phase C, the upper output current  $i_c$  flows from node C through winding CW to node V, resulting in a lower output current of  $i_v = -i_c$ . Consequently, nodes AW, BU, and CV are directly connected via the OEWM, and the windings form a 120° phase-shifted connection at both ends. The voltages across the phase-shifted windings are determined by the differences between the upper and lower phase voltages:

$$\begin{cases} u_{aw} = u_{ao} - u_{wo} \\ u_{bu} = u_{bo} - u_{uo} \\ u_{cv} = u_{co} - u_{vo} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Taking the single-phase winding voltage  $u_{aw}$  as an example, both the upper and lower phase voltages,  $u_{ao}$  and  $u_{wo}$ , exhibit three-level outputs corresponding to five distinct switching states for each phase. As a result, the single-phase winding voltage  $u_{aw}$  can attain nine possible output levels and 25 distinct switching combinations, as summarized in Table III.

In the OEWM drive system, each phase winding is energized by an upper and a lower output terminal, yielding nine output voltage combinations and 25 distinct switching states. Due to the 120° phase-shifted connection method, the phase voltage is unaffected by the voltages from the upper and lower terminals of the same phase. This configuration enables the phase voltage output to achieve five discrete levels. Consequently, the output waveform quality is improved, allowing each phase winding to realize five switching states:  $\pm u_{dc}$ ,  $\pm u_{dc}/2$ , and 0.

### III. PREDICTIVE MODELING AND VECTOR SELECTION MECHANISM FOR OEWM DRIVEN BY L-DO-TLC

#### A. Mathematical Model of OEWM

Based on the analysis of the output voltage states across the single-phase windings of the OEWM, a dynamic mathematical

model is established in the  $dq$  reference frame aligned with the rotor flux:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d\psi_{rd}}{dt} = -\frac{1}{T_r} \psi_{rd} + \frac{L_m}{T_r} i_{sd} \\ \frac{di_{sd}}{dt} = \frac{k_r}{\delta L_r T_r} \psi_{rd} - \frac{r_o}{\delta L_s} i_{sd} + \omega_e i_{sq} + \frac{1}{\delta L_s} u_{sd} \\ \frac{di_{sq}}{dt} = -\frac{n_p k_r \omega}{\delta L_r} \psi_{rd} - \frac{r_o}{\delta L_s} i_{sq} - \omega_e i_{sd} + \frac{1}{\delta L_s} u_{sd} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

In the above equations,  $i_{sd}$  and  $i_{sq}$  denote the stator currents along the  $d$ - and  $q$ -axis, respectively, while  $u_{sd}$  and  $u_{sq}$  represent the corresponding stator voltages.  $\psi_{rd}$  is the  $d$ -axis rotor flux linkage.  $R_s$  and  $R_r$  are the stator and rotor resistances, while  $L_s$  and  $L_r$  are the stator and rotor inductances, respectively.  $L_m$  denotes the mutual inductance.  $\omega_e$  and  $\omega$  represent the synchronous and rotor angular velocities, respectively, and  $n_p$  is the number of pole pairs. Additional parameter definitions include:  $T_r = L_r / R_r$  as the rotor electromagnetic time constant.  $k_r = L_m / L_r$ ,  $r_o = R_s + R_r \times k_r^2$ , and  $\delta = 1 - L_m^2 / (L_s \times L_r)$ .

To discretize the flux and current expressions in (4), the forward Euler method is applied. This yields the flux and current prediction models in the  $dq$  reference frame as:

$$\begin{cases} \psi_{rd}^{k+1} = (1 - \frac{T_s}{T_r}) \psi_{rd}^k + \frac{L_m T_s}{T_r} i_{sd}^k \\ i_{sd}^{k+1} = (1 - \frac{T_s r_o}{\delta L_s}) i_{sd}^k + \frac{T_s k_r}{\delta L_r T_r} \psi_{rd}^k + T_s \omega_e i_{sq}^k + \frac{T_s}{\delta L_s} u_{sd}^k \\ i_{sq}^{k+1} = (1 - \frac{T_s r_o}{\delta L_s}) i_{sq}^k - \frac{T_s n_p k_r \omega}{\delta L_r} \psi_{rd}^k - T_s \omega_e i_{sd}^k + \frac{T_s}{\delta L_s} u_{sq}^k \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

To improve current tracking performance, delay compensation is introduced using a second-order Lagrange extrapolation method:

$$\begin{cases} i^{*k+1} = 3i^{*k} - 3i^{*k-1} + i^{*k-2} \\ i^{*k+2} = 3i^{*k+1} - 3i^{*k} + i^{*k-1} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Here,  $i^{*t}$  where  $t \in \{k+2, k+1, k, k-1, k-2\}$  denotes the current values at different time steps. To maintain prediction accuracy, delay compensation for the rotor flux linkage is also implemented:

$$\psi_{rd}^{k+2} = (1 - \frac{T_s}{T_r}) \psi_{rd}^{k+1} + \frac{L_m T_s}{T_r} i_{sd}^{k+1} \quad (7)$$

#### B. Establishment of Voltage Space Vectors in the OEWM Drive System

In the  $dq$  reference frame, the stator voltage of the OEWM is derived based on the relationship between the L-DO-TLC output phase voltages and the corresponding power switch

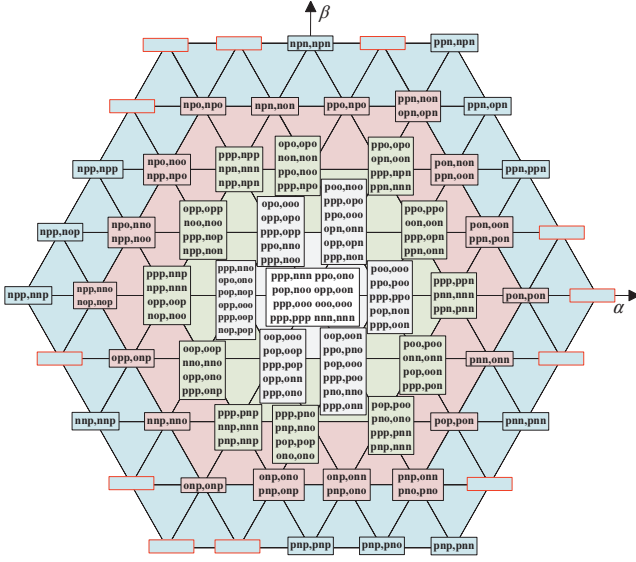


Fig. 2. Voltage space vector of L-DO-TLC OEWIM.

states, as well as the inter-phase voltages of the OEWIM windings. The functional relationship between the OEWIM's three-phase winding voltages at time  $k$  and the switching states of the L-DO-TLC is expressed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_{aw}^k \\ u_{bu}^k \\ u_{cv}^k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{ao}^k - u_{vo}^k \\ u_{bo}^k - u_{uo}^k \\ u_{co}^k - u_{vo}^k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_a^k - S_w^k \\ S_b^k - S_u^k \\ S_c^k - S_v^k \end{bmatrix} u_{dc} / 2 \quad (8)$$

By applying the standard transformation matrix from the three-phase stationary reference frame to the  $dq$  reference frame, the OEWIM stator voltage is expressed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_{sd}^k \\ u_{sq}^k \end{bmatrix} = \frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \cos \left( \theta - \frac{2}{3} \pi \right) & \cos \left( \theta + \frac{2}{3} \pi \right) \\ -\sin \theta & -\sin \left( \theta - \frac{2}{3} \pi \right) & -\sin \left( \theta + \frac{2}{3} \pi \right) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_{aw}^k \\ u_{bu}^k \\ u_{cv}^k \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

where  $\theta$  denotes the electrical angle of the rotor. To enable a more intuitive representation of the relationship between the three-phase output voltages and the switching states of the L-DO-TLC, the voltage space vector of the OEWIM drive system is established as:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{2}{3} \left( u_{aw} + u_{bu} e^{j\frac{2\pi}{3}} + u_{cv} e^{j\frac{4\pi}{3}} \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{2} (2u_{aw} - u_{bu} - u_{cv}) + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} j(u_{bu} - u_{cv}) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

By substituting (3) into the space vector formulation, the

voltage space vector diagram shown in Fig. 2 is obtained. Each phase-leg of the L-DO-TLC can generate five distinct switching states, resulting in 125 possible switching combinations for the three-phase windings of the OEWIM. However, due to switching redundancy, only 49 unique voltage space vectors are ultimately produced.

The voltage space vector diagram of the OEWIM driven by the L-DO-TLC resembles that of a five-level inverter. However, owing to the switch-reuse topology employed in the L-DO-TLC, the upper output phase voltage is always greater than or equal to the lower output phase voltage. As a result, certain outer voltage vectors are absent from the diagram. In the two-phase stationary reference frame, the numerals within the circles represent the upper output phase voltages  $u_{ao}$ ,  $u_{bo}$ ,  $u_{co}$  and the lower output phase voltages  $u_{uo}$ ,  $u_{vo}$ ,  $u_{wo}$ , respectively. The notations p, o, and n correspond to output voltage levels of  $-u_{dc}/2$ ,  $0$ ,  $u_{dc}/2$ , respectively.

### C. Vector Selection Strategy Based on Zero-Sequence Voltage Suppression

During the steady-state operation of the OEWIM, the presence of ZSV results in an uneven distribution of phase-to-ground or inter-phase voltages, which may compromise motor insulation. Therefore, suppression of ZSV is considered a key control objective.

For the L-DO-TLC, the common-mode voltages generated at the upper and lower outputs, denoted as  $U_{com1}$  and  $U_{com2}$ , are defined as follows:

$$\begin{cases} U_{com1} = \frac{u_{ao} + u_{bo} + u_{co}}{3} \\ U_{com2} = \frac{u_{uo} + u_{vo} + u_{wo}}{3} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Accordingly, the ZSV between the OEWIM windings is expressed as:

$$U_{ZSV} = \frac{u_{ao} + u_{bo} + u_{co}}{6} - \frac{u_{uo} + u_{vo} + u_{wo}}{6} \quad (12)$$

By substituting the 125 switching vectors from the modulation region shown in Fig. 2 into (11) and (12), the common-mode voltages at the upper and lower outputs, as well as the resulting ZSV across the OEWIM windings, are obtained and summarized in Table IV.

The common-mode voltages at both the upper and lower outputs lie within the range  $[-u_{dc}/2, u_{dc}/2]$ . However, due to the switch-sharing topology of the L-DO-TLC, the ZSV across the OEWIM windings remains strictly positive. To simplify the control algorithm and mitigate the negative impact of ZSV, all of the voltage vectors associated with non-zero ZSV are excluded. From the remaining set, 27 candidate vectors are selected for further evaluation. Their corresponding voltage space vectors are shown in Fig. 3. By restricting the optimization space to these specific 27 vectors, ZSV excitation



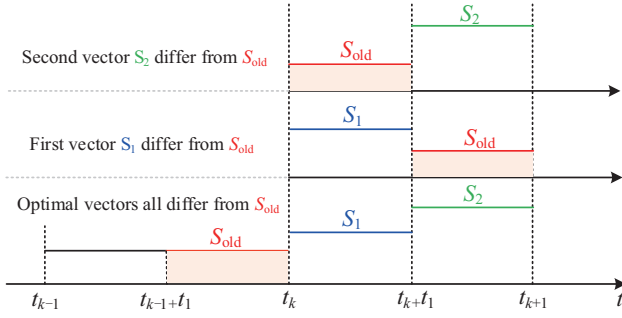


Fig. 4. Switching Vector Selection.

the proposed strategy retains  $S_{old}$  as the first vector of the current sequence. This logical constraint ensures continuity of the switching state at the cycle transition, ensuring that only a single vector transition occurs at the sub-cycle boundaries. This approach effectively eliminates redundant switching actions and reduces the average switching frequency from the perspective of topological constraints.

Under SV-MPC mode in HV-MPC, voltage vector optimization is limited to vectors satisfying the ZSV suppression criterion. At the beginning of each control cycle, the  $d$ - $q$  axis current sampling values are first updated and the cost function values are initialized, followed by a parallel evaluation loop for the 27 candidate vectors.

Step 1: In SV-MPC mode, the algorithm calculates the current prediction error for each candidate vector when applied over the entire cycle, thereby selecting the optimal current-tracking vector  $V_{opt}$  and storing its corresponding optimal cost  $g_{opt}$ .

Step 2: In the improved DV-MPC mode, the algorithm fixes the first sequence vector as  $S_{old}$  and dynamically allocates the duty cycles  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  based on the ratio of the prediction errors produced by the respective candidate vectors.

Step 3: The comprehensive cost values  $g_{opt}$  and  $f_{opt}$  are compared in real time to determine the optimal execution scheme. If the tracking accuracy of the single-vector mode meets or exceeds the current control requirements, the system gives priority to the single-vector output to further suppress unnecessary switching actions. This dynamic adjustment mechanism achieves an effective balance between control accuracy and operational efficiency.

The application times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  for hybrid vectors  $V_{opt1}$  and  $V_{opt2}$  are computed based on  $f_1^k$  and  $f_2^k$ . The greater the value of  $f_1^k$  (or  $f_2^k$ ), the shorter the corresponding application time  $t_1$  (or  $t_2$ ) within the control cycle:

$$\begin{cases} t_1 = \frac{f_2^k}{f_1^k + f_2^k} T_s \\ t_2 = \frac{f_1^k}{f_1^k + f_2^k} T_s \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

The overall HV-MPC decision-making process is illustrated in Fig. 5. The evaluation function  $f_k$  for current tracking under DV mode is given as:

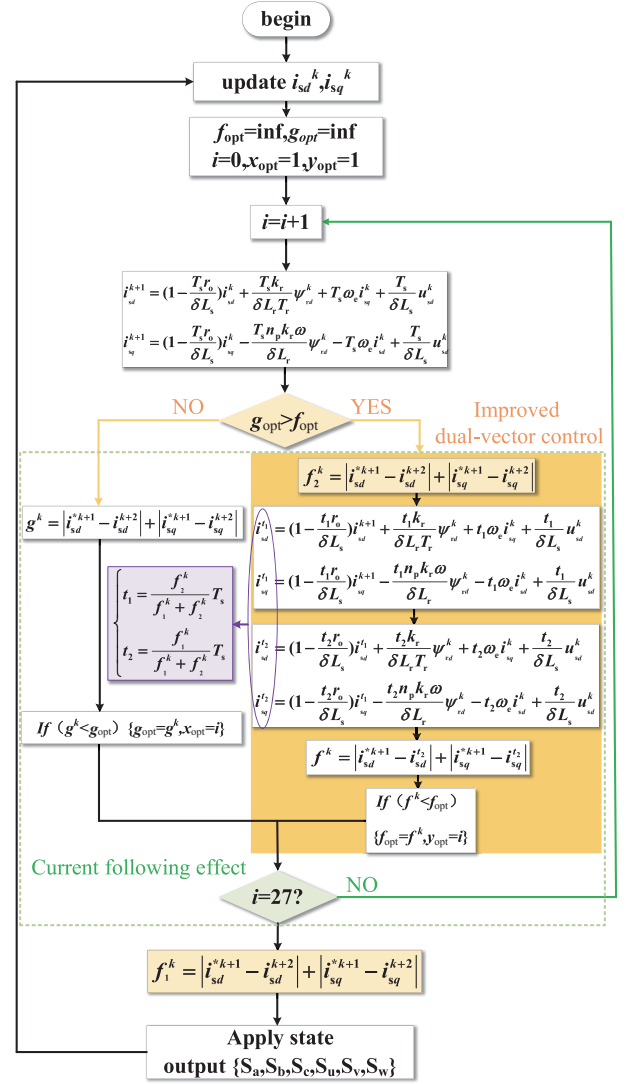


Fig. 5. Layered optimization flowchart.

$$f^k = \left| i_{sd}^{*k+1} - i_{sd}^{t_2} \right| + \left| i_{sq}^{*k+2} - i_{sq}^{t_2} \right| \quad (15)$$

The predicted current values  $i_{sd}^{t_2}$  and  $i_{sq}^{t_2}$  depend on the selected voltage vectors at instants  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . The complete control block diagram of the L-DO-TLC driven OEWM system is presented in Fig. 6.

## V. SIMULATION AND EXPERIMENTATION

### A. Simulation Analysis

To verify the feasibility of the proposed L-DO-TLC dual-pot 120°-shifted drive scheme for OEWM and to assess the effectiveness of the HV-MPC strategy in reducing torque ripple and switching frequency, both simulation and experimental evaluations were conducted. The simulations were performed in MATLAB/Simulink and hardware-in-the-loop (HIL) validation was carried out using a platform comprising DSP, FPGA, and the Typhoon HIL402. The simulation parameters for

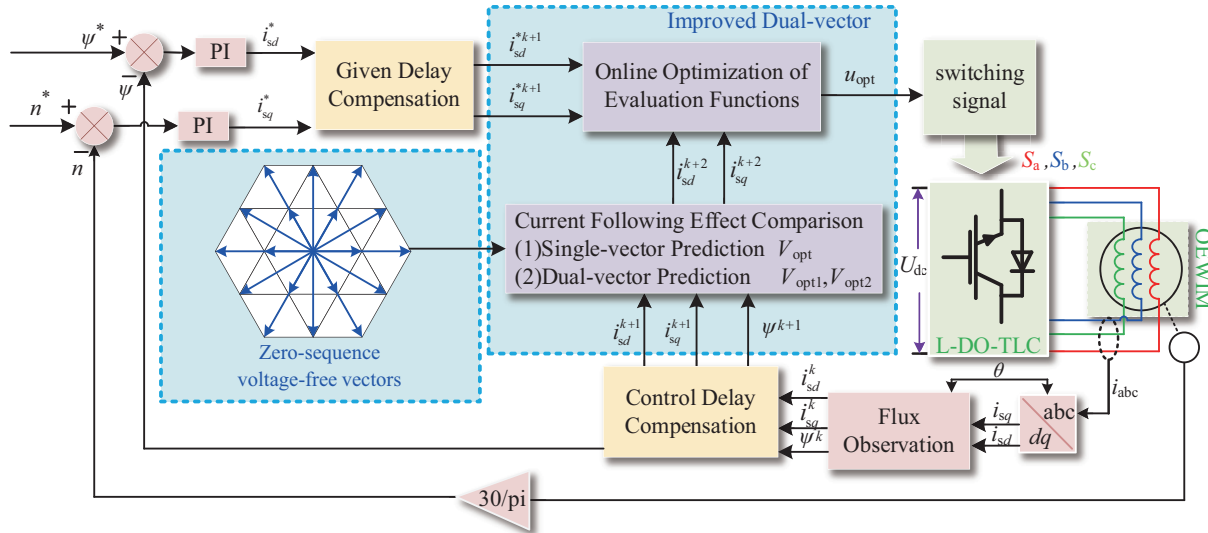


Fig. 6. L-DO-TLC drive OEWM system control block diagram.

TABLE V  
SIMULATION PARAMETERS OF OEWM

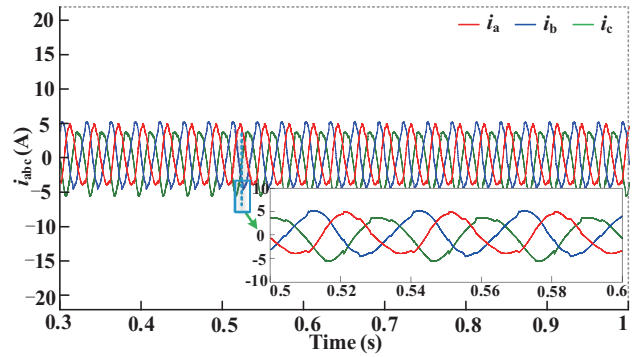
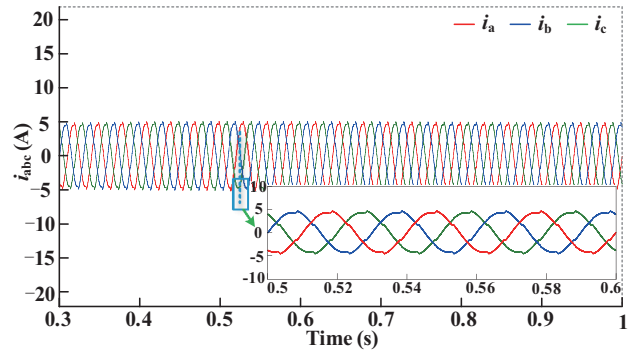
Parameters	Numerical Value
Rated voltage	380 V
Rated current	12.1 A
Rated power	5.5 kW
Rated speed	1450 r/min
Rated torque	36.2 N·m
Number of pole pairs	2
Stator resistance	1.91 Ω
Rotor resistance	1.45 Ω
Stator inductance	0.249 H
Rotor inductance	0.249 H
Mutual inductance	0.225 H
Rated rotor flux	0.98 Wb

the OEWM are listed in Table V, with a DC-side voltage of  $u_{dc}/2=400$  V and a sampling frequency of 10 kHz.

Under normal operating conditions ( $n=1450$  r/min), the feasibility of the topology and the effectiveness of ZSV suppression were verified using the proposed L-DO-TLC dual-port 120°-shifted drive. As shown in Fig. 7, the three-phase output current  $i_{abc}$  is distorted when optimization includes all 125 voltage vectors, without eliminating non-zero ZSV vectors. In particular, phase current  $i_c$  is shifted downward due to the presence of ZSC, resulting in current imbalance.

When the optimization range is limited to 27 voltage vectors with zero ZSV, the output three-phase currents  $i_{abc}$  maintain a stable amplitude of 5 A, as shown in Fig. 8. However, because SV-MPC selects only one optimal voltage vector per control cycle, discretization errors remain in the output waveform, leading to observable current ripple.

After ZSC suppression, the current tracking performance for phase A under SV-MPC is shown in Fig. 9. A maximum

Fig. 7. The output three-phase currents  $i_{abc}$  without ZSC suppression.Fig. 8. The output three-phase currents  $i_{abc}$  with ZSC suppression.

current deviation of  $\Delta I_{max}=1$ A is observed between the reference current  $i_{a\_ref}$  and the actual current  $i_a$ . The actual electromagnetic torque  $T_e$  and the reference load torque  $T_L$  during steady-state operation are depicted in Fig. 10, showing a maximum torque fluctuation of  $\Delta T_e=3.9$  N·m.

The speed tracking performance under SV-MPC at a reference speed of  $n=1450$  r/min is presented in Fig. 11. The response time to reach steady-state speed is  $T_r=0.21$  s, with a speed ripple of  $\Delta n=0.5$  r/min. In summary, the proposed L-DO-TLC dual-port 120°-shifted drive, with ZSV suppression,

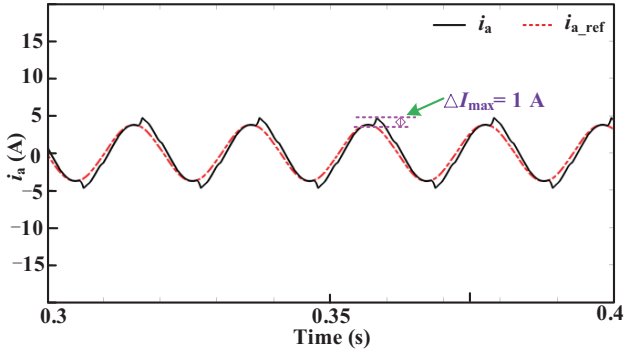


Fig. 9. The current tracking effect of phase A under SV-MPC.

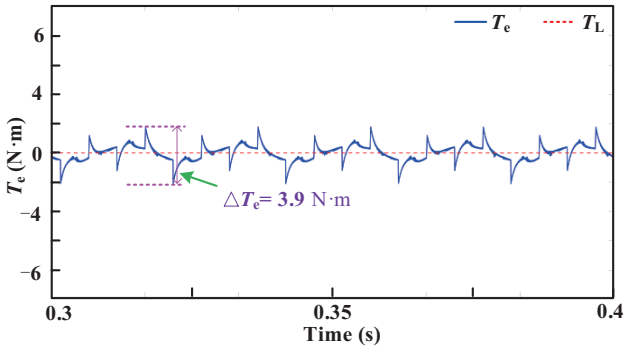


Fig. 10. Comparison between output load torque and actual torque.

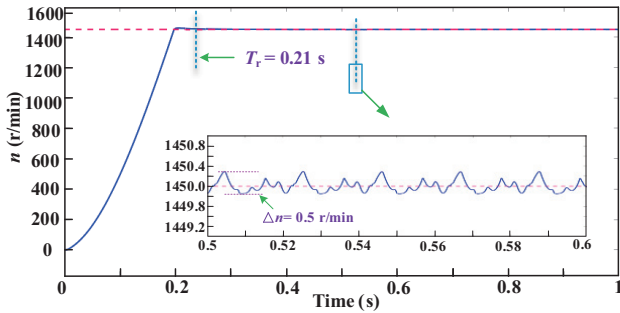


Fig. 11. SV-MPC output speed tracking effect.

effectively mitigates the influence of ZSC while ensuring stable and efficient motor operation. This demonstrates its viability as a simplified alternative to traditional dual-inverter OEWIM systems.

To evaluate the HV-MPC strategy, a load torque of 20 N·m was applied at  $t=0.6$  s. As shown in Fig. 12, under HV-MPC, the system reaches the steady-state speed is  $T_r=0.1$  s, with a speed ripple of  $\Delta n=0.095$  r/min, which is nearly negligible. Compared to SV-MPC, HV-MPC reduces both response time and torque ripple. After applying the load torque, the response time to regain stability is  $\Delta T_r=0.12$  s, and torque fluctuations remain minimal.

The current tracking performance of phase A under HV-MPC is shown in Fig. 13. The maximum current deviation is  $\Delta I_{max}=0.2$  A. As illustrated in Fig. 14, the actual and reference torques exhibit a reduced maximum fluctuation of  $\Delta T_c=1.7$

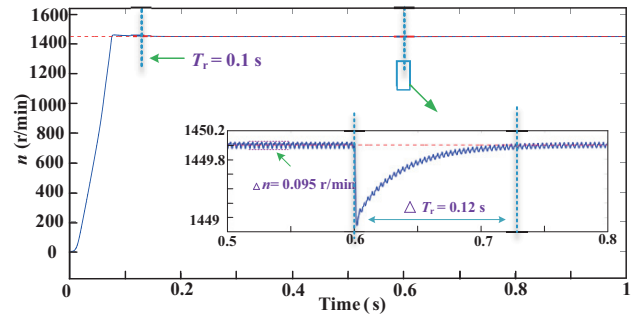


Fig. 12. HV-MPC output speed tracking effect.

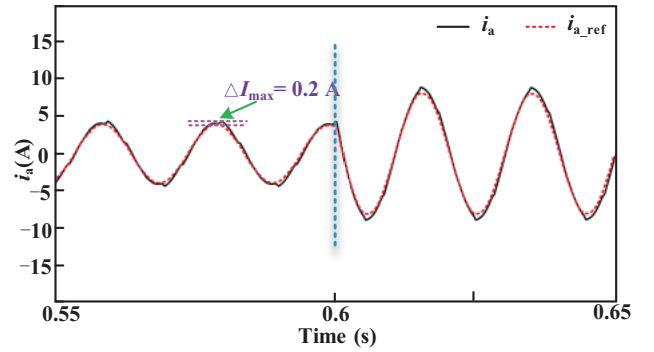


Fig. 13. The current tracking effect of phase A under HV-MPC.

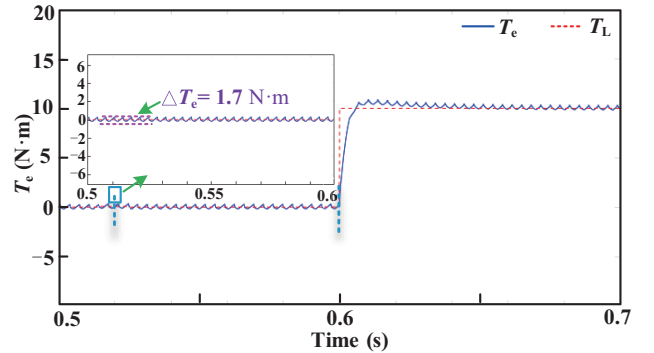


Fig. 14. Comparison between output load torque and actual torque.

N·m. Following load application, the output current and torque remain stable.

To assess the dynamic performance of the system under different control strategies, the response characteristics of SV-MPC under abrupt speed variation conditions were analyzed. As illustrated in Fig. 15, particular emphasis was placed on the acceleration and deceleration response times under this control strategy. The initial rotational speed was set to 1200 r/min. At  $t = 0.4$  s, an acceleration command was applied, with the target speed stepping up to 1450 r/min. The measured rise time was  $T_{r,u} = 0.1$  s. Subsequently, at  $t = 0.8$  s, a deceleration command was issued, reducing the target speed to 800 r/min. The recorded settling time during this braking phase was  $T_{r,d} = 0.12$  s, which is slightly longer than the rise time, indicating a marginally slower dynamic response in the deceleration process.

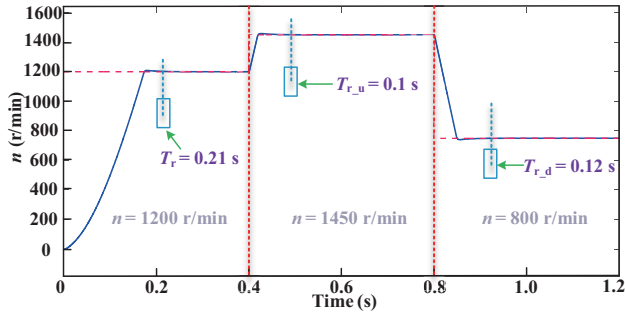


Fig. 15. SV-MPC acceleration/deceleration response time.

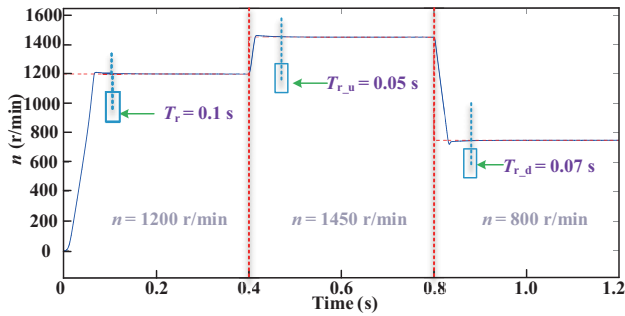


Fig. 16. HV-MPC acceleration/deceleration response time.

In comparison to the SV-MPC strategy, the HV-MPC strategy exhibits markedly superior transient performance, as quantitatively demonstrated by its dynamic response metrics. As illustrated in Fig. 16, under an acceleration command applied at  $t = 0.4$  s, with the target speed stepping up to 1450 r/min, the measured rise time  $T_{r,u} = 0.05$  s. Similarly, when a deceleration command is initiated at  $t = 0.8$  s, reducing the target speed to 800 r/min, the resulting settling time  $T_{r,d} = 0.07$  s. These values represent a substantial reduction in response time relative to the SV-MPC strategy, confirming enhanced dynamic performance during both operational phases. The improved transient characteristics underscore the efficacy of the HV-MPC approach in achieving rapid and precise speed regulation under demanding conditions.

In summary, when comparing the current tracking effectiveness of DV-MPC and SV-MPC, the HV-MPC strategy offers reduced current and torque ripple, which are characteristics comparable to DV-MPC, thereby enhancing overall system stability.

**B. Experimental Result Analysis**

To validate the effectiveness of the proposed control strategy, a hardware-in-the-loop (HIL) experimental platform was constructed, as shown in Fig. 17. This setup was used to verify the HV-MPC method applied to the L-DO-TLC-driven OEWM. The main circuit model was implemented on the Typhoon HIL402 platform, and output pulses were generated by the HDSP-DF28335P controller. Experimental parameters were consistent with those used in the simulation section.

The output current waveforms and current tracking per-

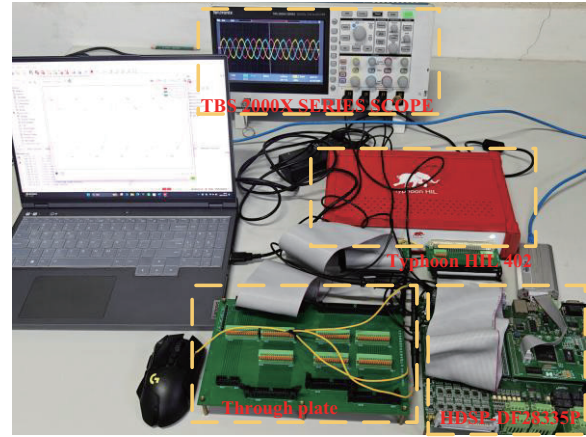


Fig. 17. Hardware-in-the-loop experimental platform.

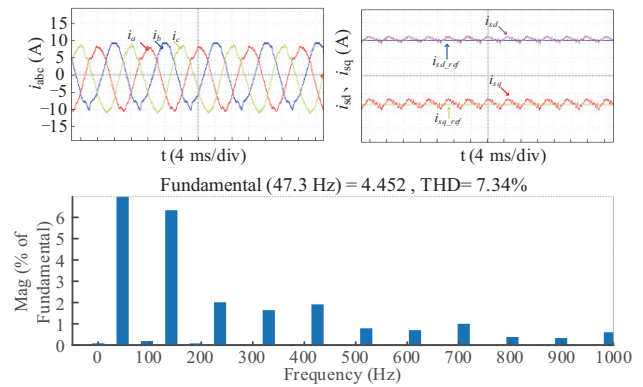


Fig. 18. Experimental current waveforms and FFT analysis of SV-MPC.

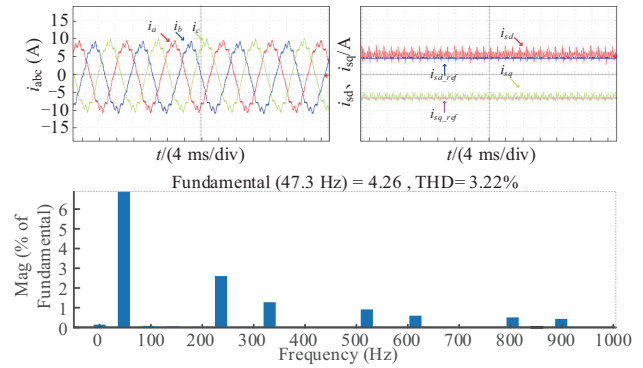


Fig. 19. Experimental current waveforms and FFT analysis of DV-MPC.

formance in the  $dq$  coordinate system under different control strategies are presented in Figs. 18–20. As shown in Fig. 18, the SV-MPC-controlled output exhibits low waveform quality, with significant fluctuations between the actual currents  $i_{sd}$ ,  $i_{sq}$  and their reference values  $i_{sd,ref}$  and  $i_{sq,ref}$ . Additionally, the corresponding FFT analysis reveals a high THD of 7.34% with significant high-frequency switching noise and pronounced low-frequency harmonic amplitudes, which lead to severe waveform distortion and degraded power quality. This quantitatively confirms the poor sinusoidal quality and substantial current ripple.

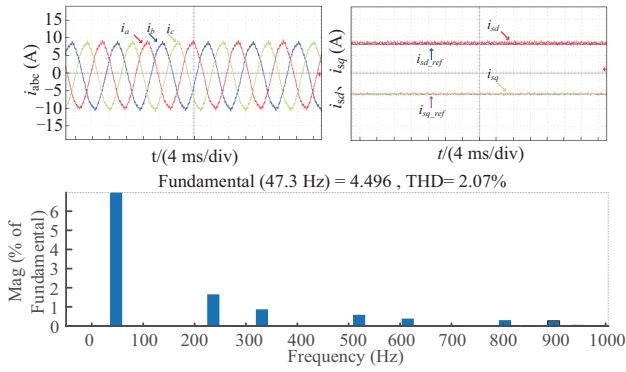


Fig. 20. Experimental current waveforms and FFT analysis of HV-MPC.

In contrast, the waveform under DV-MPC, shown in Fig. 19, demonstrates improved three-phase current quality compared to SV-MPC. However, the increase in switching frequency results in a higher current ripple frequency in the  $dq$  frame, with some residual fluctuations. Nonetheless, the amplitude of these fluctuations is lower than that observed in SV-MPC. In contrast, the current waveforms under DV-MPC demonstrate improved quality with a reduced THD of 3.22%. Due to the dual-vector synthesis, the high-frequency switching noise is effectively suppressed while attenuating the major harmonic components, which contributes to an enhanced current waveform quality. However, the limited voltage vector space under the L-DO-TLC topology constraints leads to residual low-frequency harmonics, which become more prominent in the time-domain waveforms. Nonetheless, the amplitude of these fluctuations is lower than that in SV-MPC.

Under HV-MPC control, the waveform shown in Fig. 20 exhibits superior sinusoidal quality compared to both DV-MPC and SV-MPC, achieving a THD of 2.07%. The amplitude of current ripple in the  $dq$  frame is substantially reduced, and the corresponding FFT analysis reveals that both high-frequency switching noise and low-frequency harmonics are effectively suppressed, which confirms the effectiveness of the proposed HV-MPC in enhancing the steady-state performance of L-DO-TLC-driven OEWM systems.

To assess the dynamic performance of the three vector control strategies, experimental results under a sudden load torque change are presented in Fig. 21. The torque waveforms under SV-MPC, DV-MPC, and HV-MPC are shown respectively. Fig. 21(a) depicts the torque response of SV-MPC under a step torque load of 10 N·m. A relatively large torque ripple  $\Delta T_e$  is observed before and after the disturbance. By comparison, torque ripples under DV-MPC and HV-MPC are significantly reduced. Notably, HV-MPC demonstrates the smallest ripple amplitude, validating its superiority in mitigating excessive torque ripple common in SV-MPC schemes.

To evaluate the switching losses under different control strategies, the switching frequencies under various given speeds and load torques are compared. The switching frequency calculation involves extracting the drive signals of the switching devices from the simulation results. By detecting

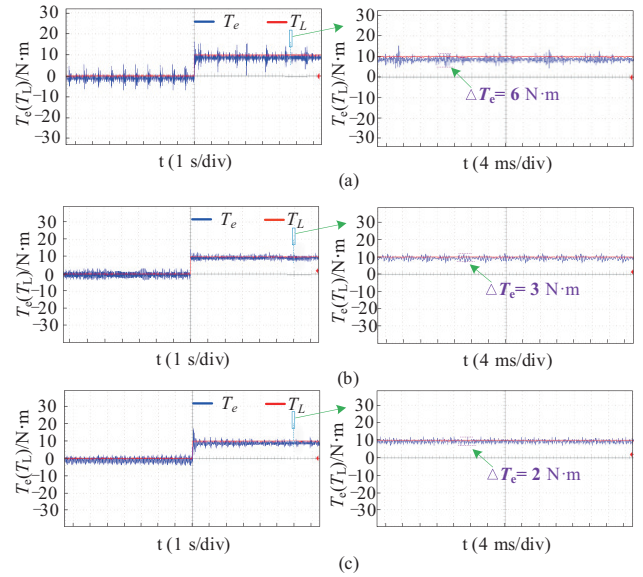


Fig. 21. Dynamic response effect of different control strategies. (a) Single-vector. (b) Dual-vector. (c) Mixed-vector.

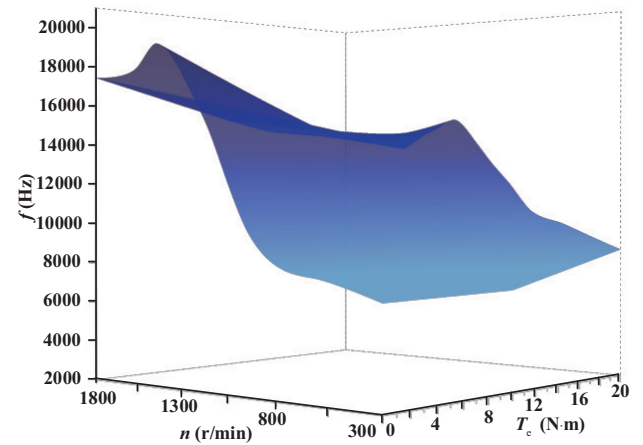


Fig. 22. DV-MPC output switching frequency.

the rising and falling edges of the drive signals, each switching cycle is computed, and the corresponding switching frequency for each cycle is recorded chronologically to generate a time-series sequence of switching frequency variations. Based on different rotational speeds and torques, the variation patterns of switching frequencies under specified operating conditions are illustrated in the figures.

As illustrated in Fig. 22, the switching frequency under DV-MPC increases with rising motor speed and load torque, as more voltage vector transitions are triggered in the L-DO-TLC.

When comparing Figs. 22 and 23, it is evident that SV-MPC consistently produces lower switching frequencies than DV-MPC across all of the operating conditions.

The switching frequency under HV-MPC is illustrated in Fig. 24. By combining single vector and DV strategies, the hybrid vector approach enhances torque control, ensures smoother speed transitions, and reduces unnecessary speed adjustments. As a result, the switching frequency under HV-

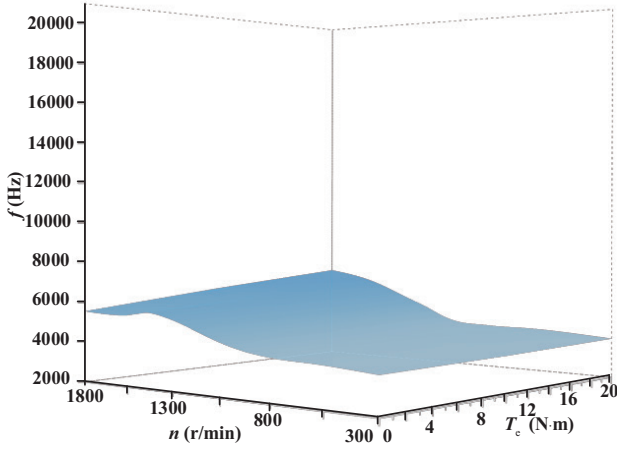


Fig. 23. SV-MPC output switching frequency.

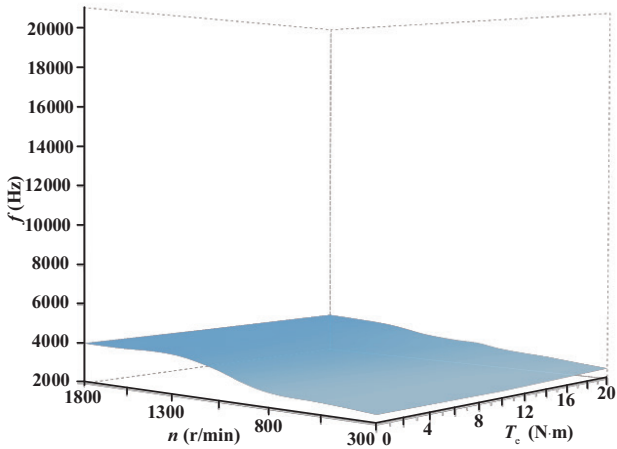


Fig. 24. HV-MPC output switching frequency.

MPC is slightly lower than that under SV-MPC, with minimal variation across different OEWIM operating conditions. Thus, HV-MPC effectively mitigates the excessively high switching frequency observed in DV-MPC.

Fig. 25 shows the average computation time comparison of the DV-MPC, SV-MPC, and HV-MPC control strategies, respectively. From the statistical results, it can be observed that the average computation time of DV-MPC is 56.27  $\mu\text{s}$ , while that of SV-MPC is 27.88  $\mu\text{s}$ . In contrast, HV-MPC further reduces the average computation time to 26.23  $\mu\text{s}$ . While maintaining control performance comparable to DV-MPC, HV-MPC significantly decreases the computational burden, demonstrating superior computational efficiency and real-time capability. This makes it more suitable for motor control systems with demanding real-time requirements.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a novel OEWIM drive scheme based on an L-DO-TLC, which significantly enhances system performance by optimizing both the inverter topology and the control strategy. The proposed L-DO-TLC adopts an

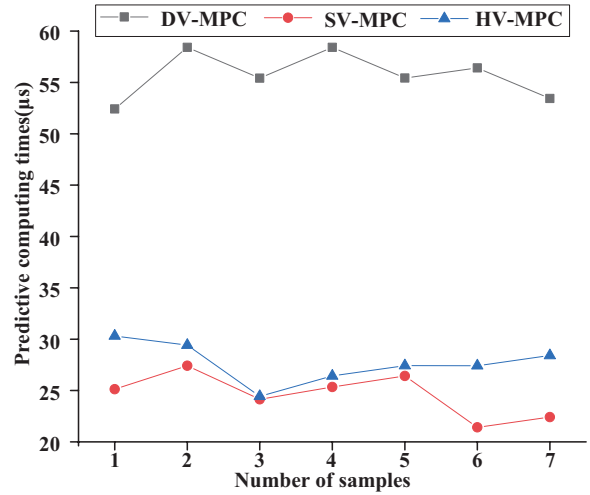


Fig. 25. Comparison of computation time for different control strategies.

innovative "L"-shaped cascaded structure and a device reuse approach, reducing the number of power switches by 37.5% while preserving three-level output functionality. This effectively improves system cost-efficiency and power density. Based on this topology, a dual-port 120°-phase-shifted wiring configuration is introduced to ensure the necessary voltage and phase differences for OEWIM operation under the switch-sharing constraint. In terms of control, the proposed HV-MPC method simplifies the vector selection process and reduces computational complexity through a ZSC suppression mechanism. The proposed control strategy is validated through comprehensive simulation studies and HIL experiments. Furthermore, HV-MPC dynamically combines SV and DV control to reduce torque ripple and optimize switching frequency, thereby achieving stable and efficient operation of the OEWIM drive system.

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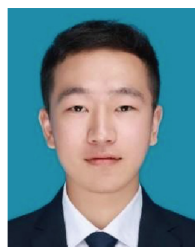
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