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Use of Sensorless BLDC Motors for the Hydraulic Power Unit of an Oil **Pipeline Inspection Robot**

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ABSTRACT The challenges encountered in the oil and gas industry require complex solutions and development effort. Related to oil lifting and gathering, it concerns severe conditions as space restraints. Given the confined space inside oil pipelines, robots for inspection requires technologies compatible with it, increasing its complexity, where the minimum required and maximum effective components of the robot is crucial for its construction. In this scenario, the use of sensorless BLDC motors becomes a key point, increasing robustness and reducing harness, being important factors in terms of feasibility, due to connector limitations. Thus, the more motors used — which contributes to the robot's movement — the more advantageous this approach becomes, considering that there is no need for sensing signals for controlling. This work presents an extended version of a paper published on COBEP/SPEC 2023, with new achievements: development of a baseboard motor controller, using TMS320F28027F MCU and DRV8353RSRGZR driver; practical results for sensorless controlling motor; hardware thermal analysis. As results, considering the set point of 5000 rpm rotation speed and a load pressure of 300 bar, the control system obtained a maximum error of 2%.

KEYWORDS sensorless motor control, long oil pipelines, inspection robot, oil and gas industry.

I. INTRODUCTION

The existence of different energy sources, both renewable (e.g. wind and solar) and non-renewable — as know as fossil fuels (e.g. oil, coal and natural gas) — provides a plurality in the process of exploiting and technologies usage. When comparing both types of energy sources, fossil fuels have a higher energy production capacity, with no variations in supply throughout the day. They can also be easily stored in its natural form. On the other hand, solar and wind power are unlimited and give a positive return in terms of environmental protection [1].

Non-renewable sources are more exploited than the renewable ones, even with the popularity of solar and wind powers over the last few years. The greater the global demand for energy, the greater the need to exploit both renewable and non-renewable sources. For context, Figure 1 shows energy production by different sources from 1990 to 2021 in TJ. It can be seen that fossil fuels, led by crude oil, still account for the majority of world production. By the end of 2024, world oil demand is expected to increase by 1.1 mb/d, while the outlook for 2025 is to increase by 1.2 mb/d, maintaining a stable variation [2].

Accompanied by total energy production, the consumption of oil-based products also tops the list from 1990 to 2021,



FIGURE 1. Domestic energy production by source, World, 1990-2021 [3].

as can be seen in Figure 2. Many products used worldwide are still characterized by the use of oil, such as gasoline, diesel oil and aviation kerosene. This global consumption increases every year, but in smaller proportions compared to previous decades, precisely because of the advance of renewable energies, mainly related to the concern of nations to protect the environment [2].

However, many problems accompany the oil and gas exploration process, hindering its flow and productivity. One of the main problems encountered during the process through submerged pipelines is the possibility of paraffin and hydrate formation, as can be seen in [4]. There are four main factors



FIGURE 2. Total final consumption (TFC) by source, World, 1990-2021 [3].

that, combined, cause this problem: at the bottom of the sea, few kilometers from the surface, it can be found low temperatures, high pressure, presence of water vapor and hydrocarbons [5]. This eventually leads to an obstruction of the pipeline, making the oil and gas flow process unfeasible.

Some solutions have been tested over the years. One of them, called PIG (pipeline inspection gauge) depends on the pipeline flow and regularly gets stuck inside of it. Remove a stuck PIG can make the unclogging mission even more difficult than just the presence of paraffin and hydrates, therefore leading to risky interventions [6] [7]. Figure 3 shows a representation of a PIG stuck.



FIGURE 3. Representation of a PIG stuck inside a pipeline [8].

Looking for a solution that reaches long distances, as well as being able to use chemical components for unclogging process, an inspection robot is under development that can identify the obstruction using a sensor located at the tip of it.

This paper is an extended version of [9] and focuses on the development of proprietary baseboard, based on TMS320F28027F MCU and DRV8353RSRGZR driver, for controlling the sensorless motors used in the robot as part of the hydraulic power unit (HPU). The main difference between papers is the use of the designed hardware, instead of a development kit, for experimentation in the laboratory and subsequent assembly inside the robot's pressure vessels. Experimental results, considering different scenarios, shows the capability of the designed controller by obtaining a maximum error of 2% at a target speed of 5000 rpm and pressure load of 300 bar. By way of comparison, with due regard for the target speed, the results in [9] shows a maximum error of almost 9%, considering 6000 rpm and 250 bar pressure.

The previous solution for the HPU considered five BLDC (brushless direct current) motors driven by sensored control. This system is based on hall effect sensors to detect the rotor's position. In applications where precise position or timing is crucial, such as robotic manipulators, sensored control is frequently preferred [10]. Otherwise, the inclusion of sensors does add to overall cost and complexity of motor design and also introduce point of failure, in general caused by the several number of connections - which increases with the number of motors that are positioned inside the HPU.

Removing hall sensors reduces the cost of the system, as fewer components represent easier installation and reduced wiring complexity [11]. Therefore, the motor assembling can be more compact, fitting into constrict spaces. The instability of the control at low speeds and high pressure load is one of the disadvantages for this solution. However, the motors aim to start with no load, maintaining high speed during the robot's movement.

Following sections concern: section II presents the robot architecture, identifying its electronics modules, hydraulic power unit for pumping and moving the robot aided by grip modules, as well as auxiliary tools for unclogging. Electrical and data connection system via umbilical cable are presented as well; section III considers the sensorless BLDC control with the baseboard designed; section IV shows experimental results with graphical visualization and tables indicating control error data in different scenarios; section V is responsible for conclusion and future work.

II. ROBOT ARCHITECTURE

Considering the problems caused by the obstruction of paraffin and hydrates during the oil lift and gathering process, specially generating high operating costs, either caused by the interruption of oil production, many techniques are used in an attempt to unclog the pipes [12]. An alternative solution, under development, is a robot connected by an umbilical cable which moves to the point of obstruction using a gripping system inside the oil pipeline. When the robot meets the obstruction, it will perform the unclogging procedure using a chemical solution, releasing the oil passage. Figure 4 shows the concept for a pipeline unclogging operation using the inspection robot. The robot is inserted into the pipeline with the aid of a launch system, enabling it to be moved using the traction system and find the obstruction [12].

The robot under development, which architecture can be seen in Figure 5, is composed by six main structures:

- Umbilical Cable: responsible for delivering power and communication to the robot, and also allowing the injection of unclogging solvents;
- Electronic Devices: the robot system consists of 18 boards with different functions as power conversion, current and voltage sensing, solenoids and motors driving, locomotion state machine controlling, and overall

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FIGURE 4. Operation concept for the inspection robot unclogging process [12].

robot management by a single board computer (SBC). Each one described at Table 1;

- Pressure Vessels: responsible for protecting the electronic devices from the hazardous environment inside the pipeline, with high pressure, petroleum, radioactive gases, and explosive atmosphere. The pressure vessels can withstand up to 700 bar of pressure and are chemically resistant;
- Hydraulic Power Unit: responsible for providing hydraulic power to the robot's locomotion system, composed by brushless motors, swash plate piston pumps, and solenoid valves;
- 5) Power Train: the robot has two power trains (one for forward and one for backward movement), where each one has two grip modules and a hydraulic actuator. The robot's motion mechanism was inspired by the inchworm movement an inchworm is an animal that moves through peristalsis and rely on friction to transmit motion [13].
- 6) Unclogging tool: located at the tip of the robot, the unclogging tool is responsible for injecting solvents into the obstructions, dissolving them and restoring oil flow.

| Γ | Board | Functionality |
|---|---|--|
| Г | Protection board | Over voltage and protection circuit |
| | Single-board computer | Enables data traffic and processing |
| | Non-regulated converter | Converts 700 V DC to 40 V DC |
| | Regulated converter | Provides a stable 48 V DC bus |
| | Motor controller | Drives the brushless motors |
| | Sensing board | Reads the sensors inside the robot HPU |
| | Drive board | Drives solenoid valves inside the robot HPU |
| | Grip module board | Sense the position of the grip module's pads |
| L | Heating tool | Heats the fluid to unclog the obstruction |
| | Non-regulated converter Regulated converter Motor controller Sensing board Drive board Grip module board Heating tool | Converts 700 V DC to 40 V DC Provides a stable 48 V DC bus Drives the brushless motors Reads the sensors inside the robot HPU Drives solenoid valves inside the robot HP Sense the position of the grip module's pac Heats the fluid to unclog the obstruction |

TABLE 1. Electronic devices from the robot.



FIGURE 5. Robot architecture adapted from [9].

The designed power electronics can provide up to 4 kW for the motors — and for the rest of the robot — to operate the hydraulic system. The motors are responsible for pressurizing the system's hydraulic line and the grip modules, enabling it to attach the risers' inside walls. Figure 6 shows a representation of the grip modules with its hydraulic actuator inside a pipe.



FIGURE 6. Robot movement system using grip modules and an linear hydraulic actuator.

As a data hub, an on-board computer is responsible for maintaining the fiber optic connection with the control room on the platform's surface and directing sensing and control data from a CAN bus, allowing the connection with the rest of electronic boards — called by end devices — including the ones responsible for motor control.

The motors and their respective electrical/signal connections are located inside the HPU, as can be seen in Figure 5. Considering the current solution, a total of five BLDC motors are used for robot movement, each with a three-phase power supply common to all and no use of sensor hall for feedback controlling.

III. SENSORLESS BLDC MOTOR CONTROL

BLDC motor is one of the most widely used motors for industrial applications. According to [14], it is predicted that by 2030, this type of motor will become the main component for power transmission scenarios, surpassing induction motors. The motor used in this project is the EC-4pole-32, from Maxon Group. Figure 7 presents the motor and Table 2 shows its main parameters.



FIGURE 7. BLDC motor used in the pumping system for robot movement [15].

TABLE 2. General parameters at nominal voltage [15].

| Parameter | Value | |
|---------------------------|----------|--|
| Nominal voltage | 48 V | |
| No load speed | 6420 rpm | |
| Nominal speed | 4670 rpm | |
| Maximum efficiency | 82% | |
| IQ full scale frequency | 800 Hz | |
| Pole pairs | 2 | |
| Maximum current | 15 A | |
| Flux estimation frequency | 20 Hz | |

In BLDC motors, there is a direct relationship between voltage and speed: the motor speed is proportional to the applied voltage. This means that increasing the voltage will increase the motor speed. Conversely, the relationship between torque and current is also direct: the torque generated by the motor is proportional to the current flowing through the motor's windings. At low speeds, the BLDC motor requires an increase in current to maintain the necessary torque to overcome inertia and external loads. This is because the motor-generated voltage (back-EMF) is lower at low speeds, requiring higher current to produce the same level of torque. This increase in current at low speeds can result in higher energy consumption and heating, which must be managed properly to avoid damage to the motor and the controller.

A broad spectrum of methodologies exists for implementing speed and position control in BLDC motors. Typically, the hall effect sensor method is the preferred approach; however, numerous studies in the literature explore sensorless control, as evidenced in [16]. Sensorless control offers several advantages over sensored systems, including the elimination of physical sensors, which results in reduced cost and simplified maintenance.

Sensorless control of BLDC motors relies on detecting the voltage generated by the motor, known as back-EMF, to determine the rotor position and adjust the commutation of the windings accordingly. Back-EMF is proportional to the motor speed, and at high speeds, the generated voltage is sufficient for precise detection, allowing efficient motor control. However, at low speeds, back-EMF is significantly reduced, making rotor position detection less accurate and challenging for sensorless control. As a result, the system may struggle to maintain proper commutation and desired torque. To compensate, the controller may increase the current, which helps maintain torque but can also lead to higher energy consumption and heating.

Considering the robot structure illustrated in section II, and the motor's connections in Figure 7, the comparison between hall sensor and sensorless control methods underscores a significant difference in cable management. In a robot with five motors, each motor has three phase cables and five hall sensor cables, which are categorized as follows: three cables for hall sensor signals (one for each sensing function) and two cables for powering the sensors. This results in a high pin count and complex cabling. Specifically, with hall sensors, the total number of pins required amounts to 42 — comprising 15 phase cables (3 per motor), 15 Hall sensor signal cables (3 per motor), and 10 sensor power cables (2 per motor).

In contrast, sensorless control eliminates the need for hall sensor cables, which simplifies the wiring significantly. By utilizing commercial connectors, the number of pins is reduced from 42 to 25 — representing approximately a 60% reduction. This substantial gain not only simplifies the wiring but also enhances robustness and maintainability, effectively addressing the constraints imposed by the limited internal space within the robot.

Considering the advantages presented above, a sensorless control based on Clarke and Park transforms with the Field Oriented Control (FOC) is implemented. Clarke and Park transforms are used in high performance drive architectures, while FOC is a method for variable frequency control of the stator in a motor drive [17].

The hardware designed for driving Maxon's three-phase BLDC motors incorporates the DRV8353RSRGZR, a three-phase smart gate driver that provides high-precision control and includes current amplifiers, peak current control, overcurrent and overvoltage protection, as well as an integrated voltage regulator. Operating within a 9 V to 75 V input range, it uses a constant on-time (COT) mode for fixed-frequency operation, reducing the need for external components.

The system features a baseboard containing the TMS320F28027F microcontroller that executes motor control algorithms, including InstaSPIN, and generates PWM signals for MOSFET control. To handle CAN communication, the STM32F091RCT6 is used for CAN to

UART conversion, while a digital isolator ensures signal integrity between the PWM signals and the driver. The simplified schematic is presented in Figure 8, and the hardware developed is presented in Figure 9.



FIGURE 8. Simplified schematic for DRV835x Gate Driver [18].



FIGURE 9. Sensorless control hardware developed.

Main features for Sensorless control hardware are presented below:

- 9 to 75 V operation;
- 15 A continuous / 20 A peak H-bridge output current;
- Internal buck regulator;
- Three individual, internal low-side current shunt amplifiers;
- InstaSPIN-FOC firmware available.

Each baseboard is capable of supporting the connection of two motor controllers per PCB, allowing for the control of two motors within a single pressure vessel of the robot. This design streamlines the system by reducing the number of PCBs required and enhances the overall efficiency and compactness of the robot's internal structure. By enabling dual motor control within one pressure vessel, it optimizes space utilization and simplifies the wiring and maintenance processes, contributing to a more robust and maintainable robotic system.

The developed system enables a sensorless solution that can identify, tune the torque controller and efficiently control the motor. Using an unified observer structure known as FAST (Flux, flux Angle, motor shaft Speed and Torque), the system identifies required motor parameters and provides feedback signals [19]. Based on these estimated parameters, the gains of two control loops — current and speed — for a PI controller are calculated. Experimental results can be seen in section IV, presenting the system's control capacity for different pressurization scenarios in an oil tank simulating the robot's hydraulic reservoir.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The bench tests aim to validate the hardware developed for controlling sensorless BLDC motors, focusing on its application within the actual robot framework. The tests were designed to ensure that the hardware meets the necessary performance, efficiency, and robustness requirements for its integration into the robotic system.

A BLDC motor was used immersed in an oil tank, connected to a solenoid valve and a manifold manometer as part of the test environment, represented in Figure 10 — reused figure from [9] that characterizes the same environment as the tests carried out and presented in the current research for motor controlling.



FIGURE 10. Motor immersed in oil tank [9].

The developed electronics board is housed within a pressure vessel, as illustrated in Figure 11. This encapsulation system is designed to protect the electronic components from high environmental pressures, which can reach up to 300 bar. By maintaining a controlled internal environment, the pressure vessel ensures the reliability and longevity of the electronic system. This protective measure is particularly important given the robot's operational requirements, including long distances (up to 15,000 m), high friction forces along the umbilical cable, the small internal diameter of flexible lines (4 and 6 inches), the necessity to navigate curves, and the challenges of remote operation such as communication latency and load loss.



FIGURE 11. Sensorless controller embedded system.

Motor's parameters values can be seen in Table 3, as the controller parameters in Table 4 where L_{s-d} and L_{s-q} are the stator inductance, Rated Flux is the identified total flux linkage between the rotor and the stator and R_s is the phase to neutral resistance - these estimated parameters are based on the motor parameters; while K_p and K_i are the proportional and integral gains of speed and current loops - these gains are based on the estimated parameters.

TABLE 3. Motor parameters.

| Parameter | Value |
|------------|--------------|
| L_{s-d} | 0.06343 mH |
| L_{s-q} | 0.06343 mH |
| Rated Flux | 0.14225 V/Hz |
| R_s | 0.27184 Ω |

TABLE 4. Controller gains.

| Gain | Value |
|-----------------|--------|
| K_p (speed) | 10.00 |
| K_i (speed) | 0.0667 |
| K_p (current) | 0.08 |
| K_i (current) | 0.9950 |

A. SPEED CONTROL CAPABILITY

As discussed in the previous subsection, there is a direct relationship between voltage and speed in BLDC motors: the motor speed is proportional to the applied voltage, while the torque is proportional to the current flowing through the motor's windings. Considering this, two main operational scenarios were evaluated for the tests. These scenarios emphasize different aspects of the hardware's performance, particularly its ability to maintain the motor speed at the set point of 5000 rpm. By evaluating the hardware under these conditions, it can reliably control the motor speed and manage energy consumption and heating effectively, confirming its suitability for the robotic system.

• Scenario 1: 48 V Input Bus

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- Objective: to observe the maintenance of motor rotation for load variations in the hydraulic circuit from 0 to 300 bar.
- Procedure: the BLDC motor was operated with a 48V input. During the test, the load in the hydraulic circuit was varied from 0 to 300 bar, and the motor rotation was continuously monitored.

• Scenario 2: 56 V Input Bus

- Objective: to follow the same test structure as the first scenario but with a 56 V input, to observe the relationship between rotation and voltage in BLDC motors.
- Procedure: the BLDC motor was operated with a 56V input. The rotation was monitored while the load in the hydraulic circuit varied from 0 to 300 bar.

Figure 12 compares the results of rotation and pressure variation for both scenarios, showing greater stability at the higher voltage. It is observed that, with a 56 V input, the system managed to maintain control of the rotation across the entire pressure range, whereas with 48 V, the control performance was compromised, failing to maintain the rotation at higher pressures.



The control error can be seen in Table 5 and Table 6 for both scenarios.

TABLE 5. Experimental results for sensorless motor control - 48 V bus

| Pressure | Estimated speed | Absolute error | Error |
|----------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
| 50 bar | 4966 rpm | -34 rpm | -0.68% |
| 100 bar | 4950 rpm | -50 rpm | -1% |
| 150 bar | 4900 rpm | -100 rpm | -2% |
| 200 bar | 4717 rpm | -283 rpm | -5.66% |
| 250 bar | 4560 rpm | -440 rpm | -8.8% |
| 300 bar | 4380 rpm | -620 rpm | -12.4% |

The results from the experimental tests reveal notable differences between the performance of the system with a 56 V input compared to a 48 V input. At 56 V, the system demonstrates relatively low absolute errors across various pressure levels. For instance, at 50 bar, the estimated speed closely matches the target of 5000 rpm with zero error, and

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TABLE 6. Experimental results for sensorless motor control - 56 V bus

| Pressure | Estimated speed | Absolute error | Error |
|----------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
| 50 bar | 5000 rpm | 0 rpm | 0% |
| 100 bar | 4966 rpm | -34 rpm | -0.68% |
| 150 bar | 4960 rpm | -40 rpm | -0.8% |
| 200 bar | 4950 rpm | -50 rpm | -1% |
| 250 bar | 4940 rpm | -60 rpm | -1.2% |
| 300 bar | 4900 rpm | -100 rpm | -2% |

even at higher pressures, such as 300 bar, the maximum error is 2%. This indicates a stable and accurate performance of the control system, maintaining good speed regulation across the range of pressures.

In contrast, with a 48 V input, the system shows increased deviations from the target speed as pressure rises. While the error remains manageable at lower pressures, such as 50 bar and 100 bar, with errors of 0.68% and 1% respectively, the performance deteriorates significantly at higher pressures. At 200 bar, the error increases dramatically to 5.66%, and at 300 bar, the system exhibits a substantial error of 12.4%. This suggests that the reduced input voltage impacts the system's ability to maintain precise control, resulting in larger discrepancies between the estimated and target speeds as pressure increases.

Given that the rpm speed of the five-motor set is directly proportional to the effective movement speed of the robot, the observed errors in motor speed translate directly into variations in the robot's actual movement speed. Comparing the two scenarios, the system with a 56V input maintains relatively minor errors across the pressure range, with a maximum error of 2% at 300 bar. This minor error suggests that the robot's effective movement speed would vary by up to 2% from the target speed. Conversely, with a 48 V input, the system shows significantly larger errors, reaching 12.4% at 300 bar. This substantial error implies that the robot's effective movement speed could deviate by up to 12.4% from the intended speed. Therefore, the higher input voltage not only ensures better motor speed control but also results in a more consistent and accurate effective movement speed of the robot, reducing the potential for performance discrepancies in practical applications.

On the other hand, [9] shows a maximum absolute error of 8.91% for 6000 rpm target speed and 250 bar pressure, indicating a substantial improvement with the new embedded control system acting on the developed baseboard.

B. MOSFETS THERMAL ANALYSIS

One of the main concerns in the design of BLDC motor control systems is the thermal management of electronic components, especially MOSFETs. The increase in temperature of these components can lead to a reduction in system efficiency, component degradation, and even catastrophic failures. Therefore, it is essential to understand the mechanisms that cause MOSFET heating and develop effective methods to predict and mitigate these effects.

The developed hardware employs the NTTFD021N08C MOSFET due to its favorable characteristics for highperformance BLDC motor control systems. This MOSFET offers low on-resistance and high current handling capabilities, making it suitable for applications that require efficient switching and robust thermal performance. The choice of the NTTFD021N08C was influenced by its ability to minimize energy losses and manage heat dissipation effectively, ensuring reliable operation under varying load conditions. Table 7 shows the NTTFD021N08C characteristics.

| TABLE 7. | Characteristics | of the N | ITTFD021N08C | MOSFET |
|----------|-----------------|----------|--------------|--------|
|----------|-----------------|----------|--------------|--------|

| Parameter | Value |
|---|------------------|
| Maximum Drain-Source Voltage (VDS) | 80 V |
| Continuous Drain Current (I _D) at 25 °C | 24 A |
| Continuous Drain Current (I _D) at 100 °C | 15 A |
| On-Resistance (R _{DS(on)}) | 21 mΩ |
| Gate Charge (Qg) | 8.4 nC |
| Thermal Resistance, Junction to Case $(R_{\theta JC})$ | 4.8°C/W |
| Thermal Resistance, Junction to Ambient ($R_{\theta JC}$) | 70°C/W |
| Operating Temperature Range (T _J) | -55 °C to 150 °C |

Thus, the mathematical model presented in [20] is used to predict the thermal behavior of MOSFETs under different operating conditions. This mathematical model considers the values of the gate resistor and gate capacitor inserted into the drive circuit, allowing the evaluation of how the choice of these components impacts the temperature rise of the MOSFETs. Subsequently, this model is compared to experimental bench results, shown in Figure 13. The comparison between the experimental data and the model predictions not only validates the model's accuracy but also provides valuable insights for the improvement of the design and operation of BLDC motor control systems.





V. CONCLUSION

The validation and performance assessment of the developed hardware for controlling sensorless BLDC motors were carried out through comprehensive bench tests focused on its application within the robot's existing structure, evaluating an extended research for [9]. The tests aimed to ensure that the hardware met the necessary performance, efficiency, and robustness requirements. The results demonstrated a significant difference in performance between two voltage scenarios: 48 V and 56 V. At 56 V, the system maintained motor speed with minimal error across various pressures, ensuring a maximum error of 2% at 300 bar. Conversely, the 48 V scenario exhibited substantial errors, reaching up to 12.4%, directly impacting the robot's effective movement speed. Additionally, the use of sensorless BLDC motors reduced the complexity and weight of the cabling, contributing to a more streamlined and efficient design.

Moreover, the NTTFD021N08C MOSFET's low onresistance and high current handling capabilities were crucial for maintaining efficient switching and robust thermal performance, minimizing energy losses and effectively managing heat dissipation. Additionally, the electronics board was housed within a pressure vessel to protect it from high environmental pressures up to 300 bar and other operational challenges, ensuring system longevity and reliability. These findings underscore the importance of adequate voltage supply and protective measures in developing high-performance BLDC motor control systems for robotic applications. The sensorless configuration further enhanced the system by reducing cabling needs, simplifying installation, and lowering maintenance requirements.

These insights provide a foundation for future enhancements in design and operation, leading to improved performance and reliability in practical applications. In addition, for future work, the robot will be tested in a field environment using the proposed solution for sensorless motor control.

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AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS

MARTINS, L. F. P. M.: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project Administration, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. MARTINS, S. M. G.: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing. SILVA JR., A. L.: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Investigation, Project Administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. SOUZA, A. P.: Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Validation, Writing - Review & Editing. SANTOS, B. R.: Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Validation. MAZIERO, F. P.: Conceptualization, Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Project Administration, Validation, Writing - Review & Editing. OLIVEIRA, L. F.: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – Review & Editing. COCH, V. B.: Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Funding Acquisition, Validation. VARELA, E.: Data Curation, Funding Acquisition, Resources, Validation. SANTOS, H. F. L.: Conceptualization, Funding Acquisition, Project Administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation.

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