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Linear Robust Adaptive Output-feedback Control of Chaotic PM Motors

Antonio Loría

Abstract—We solve the problems of set-point and tracking control of permanent-magnet synchronous motors with unknown load via linear angular-velocity-feedback control. We firstly assume that the motor parameters are known (except for the torque load) and show global exponential stability of the closed-loop system with a linear controller that uses only angular velocity measurements. Input to state stability follows for the torque load and show global exponential stability of several natural robustness improvements may be obtained. In particular, Input-to-State Stability of the closed-loop system readily follows and it may be enforced by additional (current feedback). In simulations, we show that the controllers are also robust to parametric (time-varying) uncertainty and measurement noise.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the forthcoming section we present the dynamic model; in Section III we present our main results; the latter are illustrated in simulations in Section V and we conclude with some remarks in Section VI.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the key problems related to the permanent-magnet synchronous motors (PMSM) is its natural chaotic behavior, for certain choices of parameters and initial conditions, see for instance [1], [2], [3], [4]. Then, it is desirable to control the chaotic PMSM to different regimes: set-point i.e., constant angular velocity, and time-varying reference tracking control. Moreover, as is often desirable in control theory and practice, the control goal is to be achieved for all initial conditions that is, one seeks for global results. Of particular interest (at least in electrical engineering and physics) is to drive the PMSM to a constant operating point from initial conditions leading to chaos in open-loop –cf. [5], [6], [7]. The latter two exploit the Hamiltonian structure of the system, the design in [6] leads to a closed-loop system with multiple equilibria and the result is shown to hold for almost all initial conditions. While no stability proof is provided in [5] the control is interesting in that it also exploits the dissipative forces inherent in the system and yields good performance, in simulations. Adaptive set-point control algorithms are included in [6] (known parameters, unknown load) and in [8] (zero load, one unknown parameter, smooth-air gap machine). Other works aiming at annihilating chaos include [1] where the goal is to drive the machine to describe periodic orbits.

While a number of works concentrate on the task of eliminating (undesirable) chaotic behaviors, others focus on the opposite task with certain interesting applications in mind: [9] presents a controller to generate chaotic behavior in PMSMs used to construct vibratory soil compactors. In [10] chaos is induced via delayed feedback and some simulation results are presented.

In this paper we propose very simple output-feedback controllers and show that uniform exponential stability may be achieved even in the case that the torque load is unknown. By “output-feedback” it is meant that only shaft angular velocity measurements are used. As a direct corollary of the main results

II. THE MODEL

A. The physical model

We adopt the “unified theory” of [11] which includes certain simplifications to obtain a tractable model; in particular, saturation of the iron core and the effects of the iron yokes are neglected. Therefore, it is assumed that inductances are current-independent. Furthermore, following a standard transformation, the dynamic model of the PMSM may be expressed in the $d$-$q$ axes i.e.,

$$\frac{di_d}{dt} = \frac{1}{L_d} [v_d - Ri_d + \omega L_q i_q] \quad (1a)$$

$$\frac{di_q}{dt} = \frac{1}{L_q} [v_q - Ri_q - \omega L_d i_d - \omega \psi_r] \quad (1b)$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{dt} = \frac{1}{J} [n_p \psi_r i_q + n_p (L_d - L_q) i_d i_q - \tau_L - \beta \omega] \quad (1c)$$

where $t'$ denotes time. The variables carrying the index $q$ are referred to the quadrature-axis and those carrying an index $d$ are referred to the direct axis. As is customary the variables $i$ represent currents, $v$ represent input voltages (control inputs up to a gain); $R$ corresponds to the stator resistance. After applying the transformation to the $d$-$q$ coordinates axes, the inductances $L_q$, $L_d$ become constant. The rest of the variables represent the permanent-magnet flux ($\psi_r$), the number of pole pairs $n_p$, the viscous friction coefficient ($\beta$), and the polar moment of inertia ($J$). The angular velocity is represented by $\omega$ and, finally, $\tau_L$ corresponds to the external-load torque. The latter two are of obvious practical interest from a control viewpoint.

The advantage of the model (1) is that inductances are constant (but not necessarily equal). More detailed models and descriptions of the PM dynamics can be found for instance in [2], [4], [12]. Simplified models are often used as well, for instance, neglecting viscous friction –cf. [6], [7] or by considering the stator inductances $L_q$, $L_d$ to be equal, that is the case of the smooth-air gap PM machines –cf. [1], [3], [13], [9], [10], [14]. Our main results cover but are not limited to these cases. Other $d$-$q$ models, such as that in [15] incorporate rotor-position back-emf.
terms in the context of torque ripple minimization; see also [16] where the same model is used in the context of observer design for sensor-less control.

Alternatively, for models considering explicitly the nonlinear dependence of the inductances on the currents see for instance the series of fairly recent papers [17], [18], [19], [20] which deal with the surface-mounted PMSM and in a context well beyond the scope of this paper. See also [21] where the authors propose a model incorporating effects such as saturation of the iron core, cross-coupling, cross-saturation and slotting which yield current and position-dependent flux linkage equations. Flux variations are showed in experimentation.

To some extent, modelling errors entailed by neglecting saturation of the iron core are robust (ISS) with respect to external perturbations and, in simulations, we show that the controller is also robust with respect to time-varying parameter uncertainties and measurement noise. Other articles where parameter uncertainty, albeit constant, is considered include [5], [22], [23], [8]. The last three deal with adaptive control problems in particular, in [8] parameter convergence is showed under the assumption of smooth airgap (constant equal inductances). In the article [5] a robustness approach is taken to show, in simulations, that the controlled machine remains practically asymptotically stable. In all of the latter the model (1) is used; except for [23] where it is further assumed that inductances are equal and constant (i.e., $\varepsilon = 0$).

B. The control model

For control purposes, we recall a standard transformation of system (1) to put the dynamical model in an equivalent form more “comfortable” for control design purposes; this is used in most of the cited references. Let

\[
T := \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & R/L_q
\end{bmatrix}, \quad b := \frac{L_d}{L_q}, \quad k := \frac{\beta R}{L_q n_p \tau_p},
\]

\[
\gamma := -\frac{\psi_r}{k L_q}, \quad \sigma := \frac{b \gamma L_d^2}{R J}, \quad \varepsilon := \frac{n_p b L_d^2 k^2 (L_q - L_d)}{R J^2},
\]

\[
\hat{u}_d := \frac{v_d}{R}, \quad \hat{u}_q := \frac{v_q}{R}, \quad \hat{\tau}_L := \frac{L_q \hat{L}_q}{R J}.
\]

Then, the system (1) may be written in the dimension-less compact form

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{d\hat{u}_d}{dt} &= -\hat{\theta}_d + \hat{\omega}_q \hat{u}_q + \hat{u}_d \\
\frac{d\hat{u}_q}{dt} &= -\hat{\theta}_q - \hat{\omega}_d + \gamma \hat{\omega} + \hat{u}_q \\
\frac{d\hat{\omega}_d}{dt} &= \sigma (\hat{\omega}_q - \hat{\omega}) + \hat{\omega}_d \hat{\omega}_q - \hat{\tau}_L.
\end{align*}
\]

where time has been redefined to $t := \frac{R t'}{L_q}$ and the state variables as $(\cdot) := \frac{1}{T}(\cdot)$.

Finally, let the state be defined by $x := [\hat{u}_d \hat{\theta}_q \hat{\omega}_q]^T$. Then, defining $(\cdot) := \frac{d(\cdot)}{dt}$ the system can be written as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x}_1 &= -x_1 + x_3 x_2 + \hat{u}_d \\
\dot{x}_2 &= -x_2 - x_3 x_1 + \gamma x_3 + \hat{u}_q \\
\dot{x}_3 &= -\sigma (x_3 - x_2) - \hat{\tau}_L + \varepsilon x_1 x_2
\end{align*}
\]

The control problem consists now in stabilizing system (3) around an operating regime $(x_{1d}, x_{2d}, x_{3d})$ moreover, assuming that $\tau_L$ is unknown. Furthermore, we shall also consider parametric uncertainty in the other variables.

III. THE CONTROLLER

The control approach consists in exploiting the physical properties of the system. Firstly, we observe that the subsystem given by the first two equations in (3) has a stable equilibrium at the origin whenever $x_1(t)$ is regarded as an external “input”, the controls and $\gamma$ are set to zero; as a matter of fact, the system is input to state stable with respect to the “input” $x_1$ when $\hat{u}_d = \hat{u}_q \equiv 0$. Hence, the control is designed with aim at:

- keeping the cascaded structure;\(^2\)
- choosing an operating point for the current variables $x_1$ and $x_2$ such that any desired velocity $x_3$ can be achieved (different from zero).

To that end, and as the motivation will become clear later, the operating “point” is set to:

\[
\begin{align*}
x_{1d}(t) &\neq -\sigma/\varepsilon & x_{2d} := x_{3d} + \frac{\dot{x}_{3d}}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} &\quad (4a) \\
\dot{\theta}_d &:= \frac{\hat{\tau}_L - \varepsilon x_{1d} x_{3d}}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} &\quad (4b)
\end{align*}
\]

By assumption $\tau_L$ is unknown hence so is the operating point $x_{2d}$. Introducing an estimate of $\hat{\tau}_L$ which we denote $\hat{\tau}_L$, we define

\[
\begin{align*}
(x_{1d}, x_{2d}) &:= (x_{3d} + \frac{\gamma x_3}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} + \frac{\hat{\tau}_L - \varepsilon x_{1d} x_{3d}}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} (5a) \\
(x_{1d}, x_{2d}) &:= (x_{3d} + \frac{\dot{x}_d}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} + \frac{\hat{\tau}_L - \varepsilon x_{1d} x_{3d}}{\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma} (5b)
\end{align*}
\]

and we shall design an adaptation law for $\dot{x}_d$. The control design strategy is, as in [6], to steer $\dot{x}_2$ to $x_{2d}$ and $x_2$ to $\hat{x}_2$.

Proposition 1 (Set-point control) Let $x_{1d}, x_{2d}, x_{3d} \geq 0$ be constant. Consider the system (3) in closed-loop with the controller

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{u}_d &= x_{1d} - \hat{x}_2 x_3 x_1(t) \\
\hat{u}_q &= -\gamma x_3(t) + x_{1d} x_3(t) + \hat{x}_2 \\
\dot{\hat{\tau}}_L &= -\alpha' x_3(x_{1d} + \sigma) + \alpha' > 0
\end{align*}
\]

with $x_{1d} \neq -\sigma/\varepsilon, \hat{x}_2$ as in (5a). Define the error variables $e_i := x_i - x_{1d}$ and $\bar{e}_2 := \hat{x}_2 - x_{2d}$. Then, the origin of the closed-loop system i.e. the point $(e_1, e_2, e_3, \bar{e}_2) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$ is globally asymptotically stable.

We shall prove the previous proposition as a corollary of the more general case of trajectory tracking control.

Proposition 2 (Tracking control) Let $t \mapsto x_{1d}$ be continuously differentiable functions, bounded and with bounded derivatives satisfying (4). Consider the system (3) in closed-loop with the controller

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{u}_d &= x_{1d} + \hat{x}_2 x_3 x_1(t) + \hat{x}_4 \\
\hat{u}_q &= -\gamma x_3(t) + x_{1d} x_3(t) + \hat{x}_2 + \hat{x}_4 \\
\dot{\hat{\tau}}_L &= -\alpha' e_3(x_{1d} + \sigma) + \alpha' > 0
\end{align*}
\]

\(^2\)We remark at this point that cascades-based design has also been used in [6] for set-point control with known and unknown load torque.
with either \( \hat{x}_{1d} \equiv 0 \) or \( \varepsilon = 0 \), \( \hat{x}_{2d} \) as in (5b). Define \( \hat{x}_{2d} := \hat{x}_{2d} - x_{2d} \).

Then, the origin of the closed-loop system i.e. the point \((e_1, e_2, e_3, \hat{x}_{2d}) = (0, 0, 0, 0)\) is uniformly globally exponentially stable.

**Proof.** The closed-loop equations. Define \( \hat{e}_2 := x_2 - \hat{x}_{2d} \). Hence, we observe the following useful identities: \( \hat{e}_2 - e_2 = -\hat{x}_{2d} := x_{2d} - \hat{x}_{2d}; e_2 = \hat{e}_2 + \hat{x}_{2d} \) and \( x_2 = e_2 + \hat{x}_{2d} + x_{2d} \).

Consider first the dynamic equation of the estimation error \( \hat{x}_{2d} \). To that end, we differentiate \( x_{2d} \) from (4a) to obtain

\[
\dot{\hat{x}}_{2d} := \hat{x}_{2d} + \dot{\hat{e}} + \frac{\hat{x}_{2d}}{\varepsilon_x + \sigma}
\]

Correspondingly, differentiating (5a) we obtain

\[
\dot{\hat{x}}_{2d} := \hat{x}_{2d} + \dot{\hat{e}} + \frac{\hat{x}_{2d}}{\varepsilon_x + \sigma}
\]

By assumption, either \( \hat{x}_{1d} \equiv 0 \) or \( \varepsilon = 0 \). In either case

\[
\dot{\hat{x}}_{2d} = -\alpha(t)e_3 + \frac{(\tau \hat{e} - \hat{x}_{1d}) e_{1d}}{\varepsilon_x + \sigma}
\]

Next, we derive the error dynamics for \( e_1 \) and \( \hat{e}_2 \). For this, we use in (3) \( \hat{u}_d \) as defined in (7a) and, in (3b), we use \( \hat{u}_q = \hat{u}_q + \gamma x_3(t) \) and (7b) to obtain

\[
\dot{e}_1 = -e_1 + x_3(t)\hat{e}_2 \quad (12a)
\]

\[
\dot{\hat{e}}_2 = -\hat{e}_2 - x_3(t)e_1 \quad (12b)
\]

Finally, the \( e_3 \) equation of the error dynamics is obtained by direct computations. Firstly, we add

\[
\pm \varepsilon x_{1d} x_2 + \varepsilon x_{1d} x_{2d} + x_{2d} = 0
\]

to the right-hand-side of Equation (3c) to obtain, using (4),

\[
\dot{e}_3 = -\sigma e_3 + (\sigma + \varepsilon x_{1d}) \hat{e}_2 + e_2 e_1 \quad (13a)
\]

Then, using the identities introduced at the beginning of the proof, in Equation (13) we obtain

\[
\dot{e}_3 = -\sigma e_3 + (\sigma + \varepsilon x_{1d}) \hat{e}_2 + e_2 e_1 \quad (14a)
\]

Defining \( \xi_1 := [e_3 \hat{x}_{2d}]^T \), \( \xi_2 := [e_1 \hat{e}_2]^T \) the previous equations can be put together in the compact (" cascaded") form

\[
\xi_1 = f_1(t, \xi_1) + G(t, \xi_1, \xi_2) \xi_2
\]

\[
\xi_2 = f_2(t, \xi_2)
\]

where \( G(t, \xi_1, \xi_2) := [g(t, \xi_1, \xi_2)]^T = [0 0]^T \) and

\[
f_1(t, \xi_1) := \begin{bmatrix} -\sigma & (\sigma + \varepsilon x_{1d}(t)) \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xi_1
\]

\[
g(t, \xi_1, \xi_2) := \begin{bmatrix} e(\xi_2 + \xi_1 + x_{2d}(t)) \\ (\sigma + \varepsilon x_{1d}(t)) \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
f_2(t, \xi_2) := \begin{bmatrix} \xi_1(t) + x_{2d}(t) \\ -\xi_1(t) + x_{2d}(t) \end{bmatrix}
\]

**Forward completeness.** Let \([t_0, t_{\text{max}}]\) denote the maximal interval of definition of solutions and define

\[
v_2(\xi_2(t)) := \frac{1}{2} |\xi_2(t)|^2
\]

The total time-derivative of \( v_2 \) yields, using (15a),

\[
\dot{v}_2(\xi_2(t)) = -|\xi_2(t)|^2
\]

That is,

\[
|\xi_2(t)| \leq |\xi_2(t_0)| e^{-(t-t_0)} \quad \forall t \in [t_0, t_{\text{max}}].
\]

The interconnection term \( g \) in (15a) satisfies, along solutions, and on the interval of definition of the latter,

\[
|g(t, \xi_1(t), \xi_2(t))| \leq c + e |[\xi_1(t)] + |\xi_2(t)|
\]

where \( c \) is a positive number independent of the initial conditions –it depends only on bounds on the reference trajectories \( x_{2d}(t) \) and \( x_{3d}(t) \). Using this, and defining

\[
v_1(\xi_1) := \frac{1}{2} \xi_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} \alpha(t)\xi_2^2
\]

it is direct to obtain that the time-derivative of

\[
v(t) := v_1(\xi_1(t)) + v_2(\xi_2(t)),
\]

along the trajectories generated by (15a) and (12), satisfies

\[
\dot{v}(t) \leq c |\xi_1(t)| |\xi_2(t)| + e |\xi_1(t)|^2 |\xi_2(t)| + |\xi_2(t)|^2 |\xi_1(t)|.
\]

Using the triangle inequality on the bound above and (16) we obtain that there exists \( c' : R_2 \to R_\infty \) such that

\[
\dot{v}(t) \leq c' (|\xi_2(t)|) v(t) \quad \forall t \in [t_0, t_{\text{max}}].
\]

Integrating both sides, we obtain that the solutions may not grow to infinity faster than exponentially and that \( t_{\text{max}} \) is finite.

**Stability.** Since the system is forward complete, we can view it as a cascaded nonlinear time-varying system. Then, the stability analysis is considerably simplified.

Firstly we observe that the system \( \xi_2 = f_2(t, \xi_2) \) has a globally exponentially stable equilibrium at the origin. A simple inspection shows the same property for system \( \xi_1 = f_1(t, \xi_1) \). By assumption, either \( \varepsilon \neq 0 \) or \( x_{1d} \) is constant hence, \( \xi_1 = f_1(t, \xi_1) \) is linear time-invariant; its characteristic polynomial is either

\[
\lambda^2 + \lambda \sigma + (\varepsilon x_{1d} + \sigma)^2 \alpha' = 0
\]

for \( \varepsilon \neq 0 \) and constant \( x_{1d} > -\sigma/\varepsilon \) or,

\[
\lambda^2 + \lambda \sigma + \sigma^2 \alpha' = 0
\]

for \( \varepsilon = 0 \) and possibly time-varying \( x_{1d} \). In either case, the origin is exponentially stable for any \( \alpha' > 0 \).

Uniform global exponential stability of \( (\xi_1, \xi_2) = (0, 0) \) follows observing that \( g \) in (15a) has linear growth with respect to \( \xi_1 \) and invoking a theorem along the lines of the main result in [25], more precisely we can invoke [26, Theorem 4]. Finally, we observe that

\[
\begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_{2d} \\ e_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \xi_{2d} \\ \xi_2 \end{bmatrix}.
\]

The result follows.
IV. ISS OF THE CLOSED-LOOP SYSTEM

Even though the model (1) covers a number of case-studies used in the literature important physical aspects which entail current-dependence variations of inductances are neglected. The errors caused by neglecting these phenomena which affect the machine performance under specific regimes may be, to some extent, compensated for by introducing parametric uncertainty and additive disturbances to the model (1). We show that the controllers of Proposition 2 render the closed-loop system ISS with respect to external perturbations. In addition, in the following section we illustrate in simulation the robustness of our controllers with respect to measurement noise.

\[ \dot{u}_d(x_3) := \dot{u}_d(x_3)^* + \nu_1 \quad (19a) \]

\[ \dot{u}_q(x_3) := \dot{u}_q(x_3)^* + \nu_2 \quad (19b) \]

where \( \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) are considered to be external (addional) inputs; these may contain perturbations to the system, measurement noise, additional control terms, etc. The closed-loop equations with (3a) and (3b) yield

\[ \dot{\xi}_1 = -\xi_1 + x_3(t)\xi_2 + \nu_1 \quad (20a) \]

\[ \dot{\xi}_2 = -\xi_2 - \xi_2(t)\xi_1 + \nu_2. \quad (20b) \]

Define \( V(\xi_2) := 0.5\xi_2^2 \) with \( \xi_2 = \text{col} [\xi_1, \xi_2] \) and \( \nu = \text{col} [\nu_1, \nu_2] \). The time derivative of \( V(\xi_2) \) along the trajectories of (20) yields

\[ \dot{V}(\xi_2) \leq -|\xi_2|^2 + \xi_2^T\nu \quad (21) \]

From (21) one can see that the system is ISS from the input \( \nu \) with state \( \xi_2 \). Indeed, let \( |\nu|_{[t_0,t]} \) denote the \( \sup_{\tau \in [t_0,t]} |\nu(\tau)| \); using this and integrating along trajectories we obtain

\[ |\xi_2(t)| \leq |\xi_2(t_0)|e^{-\frac{1}{2}(t-t_0)} + \frac{1}{2} |\nu|_{[t_0,t]} \quad (22) \]

Thus, roughly speaking, the tracking errors \( \xi_2 \) converge to a neighborhood of the origin, proportional to the size of the perturbation. A natural requirement is to reduce the size of this neighborhood that is, to impose an error tolerance despite the perturbations. This is a direct modification that can be carried out to the controller (7) provided that we add current feedback. Indeed, let \( \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) in (19) be defined by

\[ \nu_1 := -k_1 \xi_1 + d_1(t) \quad (23a) \]

\[ \nu_2 := -k_2 \xi_2 + d_2(t) \quad (23b) \]

where \( k_i \geq 0 \) are design parameters and \( d_i \) now play the role of disturbances. Restarting the above computations from (21) we obtain, defining \( k_m := \min\{k_1, k_2\} \) and \( d = (d_1, d_2)^T \),

\[ \dot{V}(\xi_2) \leq -(k_m + 1) |\xi_2|^2 + \xi_2^T d. \]

Hence,

\[ |\xi_2(t)| \leq |\xi_2(t_0)|e^{-\frac{k_m + 1}{2}(t-t_0)} + \frac{1}{2(k_m + 1)} |d|_{[t_0,t]} \quad (24) \]

It is clear that for \( k_1 = k_m = 0 \) that is, if no current feedback is applied, we recover the inherent robustness expressed by (22) however, for positive values of \( k_m \), we see that the currents errors converge to the interior of a ball that depends on the norm of \( d \) but may be diminished at will, by enlarging \( k_m \).

More “sophisticated” controls may be used: the gains \( k_1, k_2 \) may be functions of the state as opposed to constants. For instance, we may decide to make \( k_i \) depend on the currents values \( i.e. k_i := k_i(e_i) \). Let us reconsider (21) with \( \nu \) as in (23) and \( k_i \) as defined above. We see that

\[ \dot{V}(\xi_2) \leq -\sum_{i=1}^2 |e_i|^2 [1 + k_i(e_i)] - e_i d_i. \]

Then, the requirement is that the functions \( k_i \) be such that:

(i) \( k_i(e_i) \geq 0 \ \forall e_i \in \mathbb{R} \);

(ii) for ISS to hold, there must exist class \( K \) function \( \mu \) such that

\[ \text{whenever } \frac{|k_i(e_i) + 1|e_i^2}{|e_i|} \geq |d_i| \text{ with } i \in \{1, 2\} \]

we have \( \dot{V}(\xi_2) \leq -\mu(|\xi_2|) \).

Other “sector” nonlinearities may be of interest. For instance, one may use saturation terms such as \(-k_i \text{sat}(e_i)\) with \( \text{sat}(\cdot) \) being a smooth saturation function, such as \( \text{tanh}(\cdot) \) or smooth “dead-zone” curves such as \( \text{tan}(b \sinh(cx)) |x| \). For suitably chosen parameters \( a, b \) and \( c \) this curve may be designed to be “approximately” linear with unitary slope outside of a neighborhood of \( x = 0 \) and have a very small slope inside the neighborhood. One use of such function may be to avoid large overshoots. The functions \( k_i \) may also be chosen to depend on the velocity errors \( e_i \). For instance, it seems reasonable that, since the variable of main interest is \( e_3 \) we make the control gains large only for “large” velocity errors hence, we define \( k_i := k_i(|e_3|) \) with \( k_i \) of class \( K \). The proofs for all these cases remain unchanged. Moreover, it should be clear that the calculations and discussion above hold for all cases previously studied: set-point and tracking with known and with unknown load.

V. SIMULATIONS

We have used Simulink of Matlab to test our controllers in numeric simulations. The benchmark model is taken from the literature –cf.- [5] and is as follows: we set the system parameters to values leading to chaotic behavior in open loop \( i.e. \sigma = 5.46, \gamma = 30, \varepsilon = 0 \) \( T_L = 10 \) and initial state values of 0.01. Several sets of simulations are presented covering the cases with and without disturbances and with and without load estimation. These simulation results illustrate the performance and robustness of all controllers previously introduced.

We use the adaptive controller of Proposition 2 under different conditions: with and without current feedback and with and without (time-varying) parametric uncertainty, additive disturbances and measurement noise. When we use the current feedback terms –cf. Eq. (23) both gains are set to \( k_1 = k_2 = k = 20 \). The adaptation gain in (7c) is set to \( \gamma = 3 \) and \( \alpha = 30 \). Measurement noise, disturbances and time-varying parametric uncertainty are generated by random normal Gaussian signals; parametric uncertainty varies from 0 to 20%. In the simulation experiment controls are switched on at \( t = 15s \), the normalized reference signal \( x_{ud}(t) \) changes from different regimes going from sinusoidal (period \( 2\pi t \) and amplitude equal to 100) to steps (150 and zero) and finally to a chaotic regime. Reference
changes occur at $t = 30s$, $t = 60s$ and $t = 90s$. The simulation results are showed in Figures 1-5.

In Figure 1 we show the system’s normalized-velocity response in the worst-case scenario: no current feedback — $k = 0$ in (23), presence of additive disturbances, parametric uncertainty and measurement noise. The figure shows both the system’s actual trajectory $x_3(t)$ and its reference $x_{3d}(t)$. For the sake of comparison in Figure 2 we show a zoom on the system’s response (normalized velocity $x_3(t)$) in the four different scenarios. The window shows the transient response from the first step (to 150) to a steady-state zero-velocity reference, over the first 10 seconds. One can appreciate that, in the absence of noise and disturbances, the transient duration is significantly reduced using the state feedback terms in (23). Correspondingly in the case of parametric uncertainties and noise, the effect of the latter is significantly reduced via the controls from Section IV. In Figure 3 we show the normalized velocity errors $e_3(t)$ for three different cases with and without noise and disturbances and with ($k = 20$) and without ($k = 0$) current feedback. From the zoomed plots one can clearly appreciate both the transient and steady-state improvement when additional feedback is used, as discussed in Section IV. Also, observe in the lower zoomed window in the zero-error in the ideal case when there is no parametric uncertainty nor noise even when no extra current feedback is used; that is using the output-feedback adaptive algorithm from Proposition 2. Finally, we remark from Figure 3 the steady-state oscillatory behavior of the velocity error when tracking the Lorenz reference (for $t \geq 90s$); as we show in Figure 4, this error may be attenuated by increasing the adaptive gain $\alpha$ in (7c). Similar performance is observed for the estimation error $\hat{e}_2(t)$ in Figure 5.

Remark 1 Regarding the Gaussian parametric variation considered in the simulation it goes without saying that an electronic component is not meant to vary randomly however, variations may be due to different phenomena, caused by many external
as function of time.

unpredictable ‘agents’ affecting the system such as temperature which affects resistance not mentioning the simplistic model used which disregards nonlinear dependence of inductance with respect to angular position and current. Now, if we consider the case of inductances depending only on rotor position and we consider that the rotor position is to undergo a chaotic regime as much as constant or a sinusoidal the graph of the inductance variation as function of time may have an infinite number of “shapes”. In this regard, it does not seem unnatural that a wide variety of possibilities regarding the variations of parametric uncertainty, around an average constant value may be covered by randomly-generated signals. Thus, in the simulation we consider \( \sigma(t_k) = \sigma_n + v(t_k) \) where \( \sigma_n \) is a nominal value and \( v(t_k) \) is a number randomly generated at each integration step \( t_k \).

VI. CONCLUSION

We have showed that adaptive tracking output regulation of PMSMs is achievable via a simple linear output feedback controller, provided that one chooses adequately the operating point for the quadrature axis current. Uniform global exponentially stable hence, ISS is proved. Robustness to measurement noise and parametric uncertainty is illustrated by simulations.

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REFERENCES


