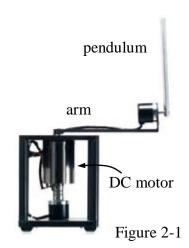
2. Modeling of DC Motor

The most common device used as an actuator in mechanical control is the DC motor. For example, the control of a rotary inverted pendulum requires a DC motor to drive the arm and the pendulum as shown in Figure 2-1.



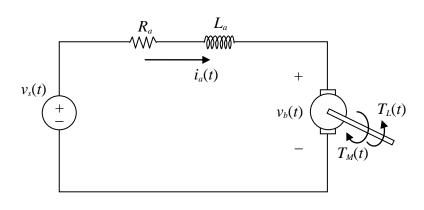


Figure 2-2

The system structure of a DC motor is depicted in Figure 2-2, including the armature resistance R_a and winding leakage inductance L_a . According to the Kirchhoff's voltage law, the electrical equation of the DC motor is described as

$$R_a i_a(t) + L_a \frac{di_a(t)}{dt} + v_b(t) = v_s(t)$$
(2-1)

where $i_a(t)$ is the armature current, $v_b(t)$ is the back emf voltage and $v_s(t)$ is the voltage source. The back emf voltage $v_b(t)$ is proportional to the angular velocity $\omega(t)$ of the rotor in the motor, expressed as

$$v_b(t) = k_b \omega(t) \tag{2-2}$$

where k_b is the back emf constant. In addition, the motor generates a torque T_M proportional to the armature current, given as

$$T_{M}(t) = k_{T}i_{a}(t) \tag{2-3}$$

where k_T is the torque constant.

If the input voltage $v_s(t)=V_s$ is a constant, the resulted armature current $i_a(t)=I_a$, angular velocity $\omega(t)=\Omega$ and torque $T_M(t)=T$ are also constant in the steady state. From (2-1) to (2-3), we have

$$R_a I_a + k_b \Omega = V_s \tag{2-4}$$

$$T = k_T I_a \tag{2-5}$$

Under the conservation of power, we know that the input power I_aV_s is equal to the external power $T\Omega$ and the power $R_aI_a^2$ consumed in the resistance, i.e.,

$$V_s I_a = T\Omega + R_a I_a^2 \tag{2-6}$$

Substituting v_s in (2-4) into (2-6) yields

$$T = k_b I_a \tag{2-7}$$

From (2-5) and (2-7), we know that both k_T and k_b are the same. From (2-2), we can rewrite (2-1) and (2-3) as

$$R_a i_a(t) + L_a \frac{di_a(t)}{dt} + k\omega(t) = v_s(t)$$
(2-8)

$$T_{M}(t) = ki_{a}(t) \tag{2-9}$$

where $k = k_T = k_b$. Besides, if the DC motor is used to drive an external torque $T_L(t)$ of payload then its mechanical behavior is described as

$$J_{M} \frac{d\omega(t)}{dt}(t) + B_{M} \omega(t) = T_{M}(t) - T_{L}(t)$$
(2-10)

where J_M is the rotor moment of inertia and B_M is the frictional coefficient.

Based on (2-8), (2-9) and (2-10), the dynamic equation of the DC motor can be expressed as

$$L_a \frac{di_a(t)}{dt} + R_a i_a(t) + k\omega(t) = v_s(t)$$
(2-11)

$$J_{M} \frac{d\omega(t)}{dt}(t) + B_{M} \omega(t) - ki_{a}(t) = -T_{L}(t)$$
(2-12)

Note that the electrical time constant L_a/R_a is often neglected since it is at least one order in magnitude smaller than the mechanical time constant J_M/B_M . In other words, by neglecting the term $\frac{di_a(t)}{dt}$, (2-11) becomes

$$i_a(t) = \frac{1}{R_a} v_s(t) - \frac{k}{R_a} \omega(t)$$
 (2-13)

Substituting it into (2-12), we have

$$\frac{d\omega(t)}{dt}(t) + \left(\frac{B_M}{J_M} + \frac{k^2}{J_M R_a}\right)\omega(t) = -\frac{1}{J_M}T_L(t) + \frac{k}{J_M R_a}v_s(t) \tag{2-14}$$

Clearly, the motor will encounter two external sources, the input voltage $v_s(t)$ to drive the motor and the torque $T_L(t)$ reacted from the payload.

Now, based on the above analysis, let's discuss the model of a DC motor in state-space description and input-output description.

First, let's consider the case which requires the DC motor to move in a constant speed. Then, the angular velocity is selected as the output, expressed as

$$y(t) = \omega(t) \tag{2-15}$$

From (2-11) and (2-12) and choosing the state variables as $x_1(t)=i_a(t)$ and $x_2(t)=\omega(t)$, we have

$$R_{\alpha}x_{1}(t) + L_{\alpha}\dot{x}_{1}(t) + kx_{2}(t) = v_{s}(t)$$
 (2-16)

$$J_M \dot{x}_2(t) + B_M x_2(t) - kx_1(t) = -T_L(t)$$
 (2-17)

Further rearranging (2-15) to (2-17) yields the state equations

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = -\frac{R_a}{L_a} x_1(t) - \frac{k}{L_a} x_2(t) + \frac{1}{L_a} v_s(t)$$
 (2-18)

$$\dot{x}_2(t) = \frac{k}{J_M} x_1(t) - \frac{B_M}{J_M} x_2(t) - \frac{1}{J_M} T_L(t)$$
 (2-19)

and the output equation

$$y(t) = x_2(t)$$
 (2-20)

Hence, the state-space description is given as

State equation:
$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$
 (2-21)

Output equation:
$$y(t) = cx(t)$$
 (2-22)

where the state vector is $\mathbf{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$, the input vector is $\mathbf{u}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} v_s(t) \\ T_L(t) \end{bmatrix}$, and the

system matrices are
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R_a}{L_a} & -\frac{k}{L_a} \\ \frac{k}{J_M} & -\frac{B_M}{J_M} \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L_a} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{J_M} \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Note

that the state equation (2-21) can be rearranged as

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + b_1 u_1(t) + b_2 u_2(t)$$
(2-23)

where
$$u_1(t)=v_s(t)$$
, $u_2(t)=T_L(t)$, $\boldsymbol{b}_1=\begin{bmatrix}1/L_a\\0\end{bmatrix}$ and $\boldsymbol{b}_2=\begin{bmatrix}0\\-1/J_M\end{bmatrix}$. If the motor is

operated without any payload $T_L(t)$, i.e., $u_2(t)=T_L(t)=0$, then the state equation (2-23) can be rewritten as

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}(t) = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}(t) + \boldsymbol{b}\boldsymbol{u}(t) \tag{2-24}$$

where the input is $u(t) = v_s(t)$ and the input matrix is $\boldsymbol{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/L_a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

If the goal of control is to drive the DC motor to a desired angle, not a speed, then the output should be set as the angular position $y(t) = \theta(t) = \int_0^t \omega(\tau) d\tau$. To include the angular possition, we often change the integral form $\theta(t) = \int_0^t \omega(\tau) d\tau$ into the differential form as below:

$$\dot{\theta}(t) = \omega(t) \tag{2-25}$$

and choose the new state variable $x_3(t) = \theta(t)$. As a result, the total system is changed into the state equations

NCTU Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering 2015 Spring Course <Dynamic System Simulation and Implementationon> by Prof. Yon-Ping Chen

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = -\frac{R_a}{L_a} x_1(t) - \frac{k}{L_a} x_2(t) + \frac{1}{L_a} v_s(t)$$
 (2-26)

$$\dot{x}_{2}(t) = \frac{k}{J_{M}} x_{1}(t) - \frac{B_{M}}{J_{M}} x_{2}(t) - \frac{1}{J_{M}} T_{L}(t)$$
(2-27)

$$\dot{x}_3(t) = x_2(t) \tag{2-28}$$

and the output equation

$$y(t) = x_3(t)$$
 (2-29)

In matrix form, we have

State equation:
$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$$
 (2-30)

Output equation:
$$y(t) = cx(t)$$
 (2-31)

where

$$\boldsymbol{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ x_3(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{u}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} v_s(t) \\ T_L(t) \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -R_a/L_a & -k/L_a & 0 \\ k/J_M & -B_M/J_M & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/L_a & 0 \\ 0 & -1/J_M \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \boldsymbol{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Similarly, without any payload $T_L(t)$, the state equation (2-30) can be expressed as

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}}(t) = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}(t) + \boldsymbol{b}\boldsymbol{u}(t) \tag{2-32}$$

where the input is $u(t) = v_s(t)$ and the input matrix is $\boldsymbol{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$.

Now let's consider the following numerical example of a DC motor with parameters R_a =0.5 Ω , L_a =1.5×10⁻³ H, J_M =2.5×10⁻⁴ N-m/(rad/s²), k_T =0.05 N-m/A, k_b =0.05 V/(rad/s) and B_M =1.0×10⁻⁴ N-m/(rad/s). Without any payload $T_L(t)$, the motor is described by (2-32) and listed as below:

$$\begin{bmatrix}
\dot{x}_{1}(t) \\
\dot{x}_{2}(t) \\
\dot{x}_{3}(t)
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
-333.33 & -33.33 & 0 \\
200 & -0.40 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
x_{1}(t) \\
x_{2}(t) \\
x_{3}(t)
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}
666.67 \\
0 \\
0
\end{bmatrix} \cdot u(t) \qquad (2-33)$$

where $x_1(t)=i_a(t)$, $x_2(t)=\omega(t)$, $x_3(t)=\theta(t)$ and $u(t)=v_s(t)$. If the output is $x_3(t)=\theta(t)$, then

$$y(t) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{c}} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ x_3(t) \end{bmatrix}$$
 (2-34)

Based on (2-33) and (2-34), let's find the input-output description of the DC motor.

First, let's determine the characteristic polynomial of the DC motor from (2-33), which is obtained as

$$\begin{vmatrix} s\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} s + 333.33 & 33.33 & 0 \\ -200 & s + 0.40 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & s \end{vmatrix} = s^3 + 333.73s^2 + 6799.33s \quad (2-35)$$

According to the Cayley-Hamilton theory, we know that

$$A^3 + 333.73A^2 + 6799.33A = 0 (2-36)$$

After calculating the following terms

$$\ddot{y}(t) + 333.73\ddot{y}(t) + 6799.33\dot{y}(t)$$

$$= c(A^3 + 333.73A^2 + 6799.33A)x + cA^2bu(t)$$
(2-37)

we have the input-output description as below:

$$\ddot{y}(t) + 333.73\ddot{y}(t) + 6799.33\dot{y}(t) = 1333334u(t)$$
 (2-38)

where $cA^2b = 133334$. It is obvious that the transfer function is

$$H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{133334}{s^3 + 333.73s^2 + 6799.33s}$$
(2-39)

Moreover, it can be further decomposed as

$$H(s) = \frac{133334}{s(s+21.80)(s+311.93)} \tag{2-40}$$

which implies the pole at s=-311.93 can be omitted since it is much faster than the pole at s=-21.80. In other words, the transfer function H(s) can be approximated by a

second order transfer function $H_a(s)$ expressed as

$$H_a(s) = \frac{\beta}{s(s+\alpha)} = \frac{\beta}{s^2 + \alpha s}$$
 (2-41)

where α is near to 21.80. There are several methods to obtain the approximate transfer function $H_a(s)$. One of the simplest one is to determine $H_a(s)$ under the condition that

$$\frac{|H(j\omega)|}{|H_a(j\omega)|} = 1, \quad \text{for } 0 \le \omega < \infty$$
 (2-42)

which leads to

$$\frac{\left|H(j\omega)\right|^2}{\left|H_a(j\omega)\right|^2} = \frac{H(s)H(-s)}{H_a(s)H_a(-s)}\Big|_{s=j\omega} = 1, \quad \text{for } 0 \le \omega < \infty$$
 (2-43)

To adopt the condition, let's rewrite the transfer function as

$$H(s) = \frac{19.610}{s(1+0.0491s+0.0001471s^2)}$$
 (2-44)

and choose the approximate transfer function as

$$H_a(s) = \frac{19.610}{s(1+\rho s)} \tag{2-45}$$

Hecnce, we have

$$\frac{H(s)H(-s)}{H_a(s)H_a(-s)} = \frac{(1+\rho s)}{(1+0.0491s+0.0001471s^2)} \frac{(1-\rho s)}{(1-0.0491s+0.0001471s^2)} = \frac{1-\rho^2 s^2}{1-0.0021s^2+2.1638\times10^{-8} s^4} = 1 + \frac{-(\rho^2 - 0.0021)s^2 - 2.1638\times10^{-8} s^4}{1-0.0021s^2+2.1638\times10^{-8} s^4}$$

Clearly, between $\frac{H(s)H(-s)}{H_a(s)H_a(-s)}$ and 1, there exists an error

$$E(s) = \frac{-(\rho^2 - 0.0021)s^2 - 2.1638 \times 10^{-8} s^4}{1 - 0.0021s^2 + 2.1638 \times 10^{-8} s^4}$$
(2-47)

which is minimized when $\rho^2 - 0.0021 = 0$ or $\rho = 0.0458$. From (2-45), the approximate transfer function is then obtained as

$$H_a(s) = \frac{19.610}{s(1+0.0458s)} = \frac{428.17}{s(s+21.83)}$$
 (2-48)

which implies α =21.83 near to 21.80 and β =428.17 as shown in (2-41).

The other one is just neglect the state variable $x_1(t)=i_a(t)$ since the convergence rate of $i_a(t)$ is much faster than that of angular velocity $x_2(t)=\omega(t)$. From (2-33), we assume that $\dot{x}_1(t)\approx 0$ and then

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \\ \dot{x}_3(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -333.33 & -33.33 & 0 \\ 200 & -0.40 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ x_3(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 666.67 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot u(t)$$
 (2-49)

or

$$-333.33x_1(t) - 33.33x_2(t) + 666.67u(t) = 0 (2-50)$$

$$\dot{x}_{2}(t) = 200x_{1}(t) - 0.40x_{2}(t) \tag{2-51}$$

$$\dot{x}_3(t) = x_2(t) \tag{2-52}$$

From (2-50), we have

$$x_1(t) = -0.1x_2(t) + 2u(t)$$
 (2-53)

and substituting it into (2-51) becomes

$$\dot{x}_2(t) = -20.4x_2(t) + 400u(t) \tag{2-54}$$

Hence, differentiating (2-52) yields

$$\ddot{x}_3(t) = \dot{x}_2(t) = -20.4x_2(t) + 400u(t) = -20.4\dot{x}_3(t) + 400u(t)$$
 (2-55)

Since $y(t)=x_3(t)$, we obtain

$$\ddot{y}(t) + 20.4\dot{y}(t) = 400u(t) \tag{2-56}$$

and the approximate transfer function is

$$H_a(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{400}{s(s+20.4)}$$
 (2-57)

which is approximate to the one derived in (2-48).