Power Flow Control of a Doubly–Fed Induction Machine Coupled to a Flywheel*

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Abstract

We consider a doubly–fed induction machine—controlled through the rotor voltage and connected to a variable local load—that acts as an energy–switching device between a local prime mover (a flywheel) and the electrical power network. The control objective is to optimally regulate the power flow, and this is achieved by commuting between different steady–state regimes. We first show that the zero dynamics of the system is only marginally stable, thus complicating its control via feedback linearization. Instead, we apply the energy–based Interconnection and Damping Assignment Passivity–Based Control technique that does not require stable invertibility. It is shown that the partial differential equation that appears in this method can be circumvented by fixing the desired closed-loop total energy and adding new terms to the interconnection structure. Furthermore, to obtain a globally defined control law we introduce a state–dependent damping term that has the nice interpretation of effectively decoupling the electrical and mechanical parts of the system. This results in a globally convergent controller parameterized by two degrees of freedom, which can be used to implement the power management policy. The controller is simulated and shown to work satisfactorily for various realistic load changes.

Keywords: passivity-based control, port-hamiltonian models, doubly–fed induction machine, power flow control.

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1 Introduction

Doubly–fed induction machines (DFIM) have been proposed in the literature, among other applications, for high performance storage systems [2], wind-turbine generators [11, 13] or hybrid engines [3]. The attractiveness of the DFIM stems primarily from its ability to handle large speed variations around the synchronous speed (see [15] for an extended literature survey and discussion.) In this paper we are interested in the application of DFIM as part of an autonomous energy–switching system that regulates the energy flow between a local prime mover (a flywheel) and the electrical power network, in order to satisfy the demand of a time–varying electrical load.

Most DFIM controllers proposed in the literature are based on vector–control and decoupling [8]. Along these lines, an output feedback algorithm for power control with rigorous stability and robustness results is presented in [15]. In this paper we propose an alternative viewpoint and use the energy–based principles of passivity and control as interconnection [4, 7, 10, 16]. More specifically, we prove that the Interconnection and Damping Assignment Passivity–Based Control (IDA–PBC) technique proposed in [10] can be easily applied to regulate the dynamic operation of this bidirectional power flow system.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we introduce the architecture of the system to be controlled and derive its model. Since IDA–PBC concerns the stabilization of equilibrium points, we use the well–known Blondel–Park synchronous $dq$–coordinates\(^1\) to write the equations in the required form. Then, to render more transparent the application of IDA–PBC, we give the Port–Controlled Hamiltonian (PCH) version of the model. Section 3 discusses the zero dynamics of interest for the kind of task we are trying to solve and show it to be only marginally stable—hampering the application of control schemes relying on stable invertibility, like feedback linearization or the Standard PBC reported in [9]. The power management scheme consists of the assignment of suitable fixed points and is introduced in Section 4. The main result of the paper, presented in Section 5, is the proof that IDA–PBC renders each of the desired equilibria globally stable. We start with the solution of the partial differential equation (PDE) that arises in IDA–PBC by direct assignment of the desired energy function and modification of the interconnection structure. Unfortunately, the resulting control law contains a singularity, hence it is not globally defined. To remove this singularity we introduce a state–dependent damping that, in the spirit of the nested–loop PBC configuration of Chapter 8 in [9], has the nice interpretation of effectively decoupling the electrical and mechanical parts of the system and Section 6 presents the results of several simulations. Conclusions are stated in Section 7.

Notation Throughout the paper we use standard notation of electromechanical systems, with $\lambda, v, i, \tau, \theta, \omega$ denoting flux, voltage, current, torque, angular position and velocity, respectively; while $R, L, J_m, B$ are used for resistance, inductance, inertia and friction parameters, respectively. Self–explanatory sub–indices are introduced also for the signals and parameters of the different subsystems. Finally, to underscore the port interconnection structure of the overall system we usually present the variables in power conjugated couples, i.e., port variables whose product has units of power.

\(^1\)In these coordinates the natural steady–state orbits are transformed into fixed points.
2 The System and its Mathematical Model

Figure 1 shows a DFIM, controlled through the rotor windings port \((v_r, i_r)\), coupled to an energy-storing flywheel with port variables \((\tau_e, \omega)\), an electrical network modelled by an ideal AC voltage source with port variables \((v_n, i_n)\), and a generic electrical load represented by its impedance \(Z_l\). The main objective of the system is to supply the required power to the load with a high network power factor. Depending on the load demands, the DFIM acts as an energy-switching device between the flywheel and the electrical power network. The control problem is to optimally regulate the power flow. We will show below that this is achieved by commuting between different steady-state regimes.

Network equations are given by Kirchhoff laws

\[
i_l = i_n - i_s, \quad v_n = v_s. \tag{1}\]

Figure 2 shows a scheme of a doubly-fed, three-phase induction machine. It contains 6 energy storage elements with their associated dissipations and 6 ports (the 3 stator and the 3 rotor voltages and currents).

From the original three phase electrical variables \(y_{abc}\) (currents, voltages or magnetic fluxes) we compute transformed variables by means of

\[y = Ty_{abc}\]

where

\[
T = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\
0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}
\end{pmatrix}.
\]
Notice that, since $T^T = T^{-1}$, this is a power–preserving transformation:

$$\langle i, v \rangle = \langle i_{abc}, v_{abc} \rangle.$$

As it is common, from now on we will work only with the two first components (the $dq$ components) of any electrical quantity and neglect the third one (the homopolar component, which is zero for any balanced set and which, in any case, is decoupled from the remaining dynamical equations.)

The electrical equations of motion in the original windings frame for the $dq$ variables, neglecting nonlinear effects and non–sinusoidal magnetomotive force distribution, take the form [6],

$$\dot{\lambda}_s + R_s I_2 i_s = v_s \quad (2)$$
$$\dot{\lambda}_r + R_r I_2 i_r = v_r \quad (3)$$

where $\lambda_s, \lambda_r, i_s, i_r \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and

$$I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

while the mechanical equations are given by (we assume without loss of generality a 2-poles machine)

$$J_m \dot{\omega} = L_s r_i^T J_2 i_r - B_r \omega \quad (4)$$
$$\dot{\theta} = \omega$$

where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}, J_m > 0, B_r \geq 0, L_{sr} > 0$ and

$$J_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Linking fluxes and currents are related by

$$\lambda = L(\theta)i$$

where

$$\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_s \\ \lambda_r \end{bmatrix}, \quad i = \begin{bmatrix} i_s \\ i_r \end{bmatrix}, \quad L(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} L_s i_2 & L_{sr} e^{J_2 \theta} \\ L_s r_i^T & L_r I_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Figure 2: Basic scheme of the doubly fed induction machine.
with \( L_s, L_r > 0 \) and \( L_s L_r > L_{sr}^2 \). Putting together (2) and (3) we get

\[
\dot{\lambda} + \mathcal{R} i = V
\]

where

\[
V = \begin{bmatrix} v_s \\ v_r \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{R} = \begin{bmatrix} R_s I_2 & O_2 \\ O_2 & R_r I_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad O_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

The steady–state for the equations above are periodic orbits that can be transformed into equilibrium points by means of the well–known Blondel-Park transformation [6]. This standard procedure also eliminates the dependence of the equations on \( \theta \), and consists in defining new variables \( f^r \) via

\[
f = K(\theta, \delta) f^r
\]

\[
K(\theta, \delta) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\omega_s \delta} & O_2 \\ O_2 & e^{\omega_s (\delta - \theta)} \end{bmatrix}
\]

where \( \delta \) is an arbitrary function of time that, for convenience, we select as

\[
\dot{\delta} = \omega_s,
\]

with \( \omega_s \) the line frequency, which is assumed constant.\(^2\)

Applying this transformation to all the electrical variables, one gets

\[
\mathcal{L} \dot{x} + [\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} + \mathcal{R}] x = M_1 u + M_2 v'_s
\]

(5)

where

\[
x = \begin{bmatrix} i'_s \\ i'_r \end{bmatrix}, \quad u = v'_r, \quad v'_s = \begin{bmatrix} V_0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\mathcal{L} = K^{-1}(\theta, \delta)L(\theta)K(\theta, \delta) = \begin{bmatrix} L_s I_2 & L_{sr} I_2 \\ L_{sr} I_2 & L_r I_2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_s L_s J_2 & \omega_s L_{sr} J_2 \\ (\omega_s - \omega)L_{sr} J_2 & (\omega_s - \omega)L_r J_2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} O_2 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 \\ O_2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

with \( V_0 > 0 \) the constant voltage set by the power network.

The overall system consists of the fourth–order electrical dynamics (5) together with the scalar mechanical dynamics (4). The control input is the two–dimensional rotor voltage \( u \), and \( v'_s \) is viewed as a constant disturbance.\(^3\)

As discussed in [16] (and references therein) a large class of physical systems of interest in control applications can be modelled in the general form of PCH systems\(^4\)

\[
\dot{z} = [\mathcal{J}(z) - \mathcal{R}(z) ] (\nabla H)^\top + g(z) u
\]

where \( z \) is the state, \( H(z) \) is the Hamiltonian of the system (representing its energy), \( \mathcal{J}(z) = -\mathcal{J}^\top(z) \) is the interconnection matrix and \( \mathcal{R}(z) = \mathcal{R}^\top(z) \geq 0 \) the dissipation matrix. It is easy

\(^2\)This is the so–called synchronous reference frame. Notice the simple form of \( v'_r \) in this frame.

\(^3\)To simplify the notation, in the sequel we will omit the super–index \( (\cdot)' \).

\(^4\)To distinguish between energy–conserving and dissipating systems the latter are sometimes called PCHD systems.
to see that PCH systems are passive with \( u, g^\top(z)(\nabla H)^\top \) as port variables, and the total energy as storage function. Before closing this section we derive the PCH model of the system, a step which is instrumental for the application of the IDA-PBC methodology.

To cast our system into this framework it is convenient to select as state coordinates the natural electromechanical Hamiltonian variables, fluxes \((\lambda)\) and (angular) momentum \((J_m\omega)\), that is

\[
z = \begin{bmatrix} z_e \\ z_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda \\ J_m\omega \end{bmatrix},
\]

where, for convenience, we have introduced a natural partition between electrical \((z_e \in \mathbb{R}^4)\) and mechanical \((z_m \in \mathbb{R})\) coordinates. The equations of our system can be written as [12]

\[
\dot{z} = \left[ J(z) - R \right] (\nabla H)^\top + B_1 v_r + B_2 v_s
\]

with total energy

\[
H(z) = \frac{1}{2} z_e^\top \mathcal{L}^{-1} z_e + \frac{1}{2 J_m} z_m^2,
\]

interconnection and dissipation matrices given respectively by

\[
\mathcal{J}(z) = \begin{bmatrix} -\omega_s L_s J_2 & -(\omega_s - \omega)L_r J_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ -\omega_s L_s J_2 & -(\omega_s - \omega)L_r J_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_{1 \times 2} & L_{sr} J_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{R} = \begin{bmatrix} R_s I_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_{2 \times 1} & R_s I_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \end{bmatrix},
\]

and

\[
B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} O_2 \\ I_2 \\ O_{2 \times 1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 \\ O_2 \\ O_{2 \times 1} \end{bmatrix}.
\]

Notice that the gradient of the Hamiltonian yields the original, Lagrangian (or co-energy) variables:

\[
(\nabla H)^\top = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{L}^{-1} z_e \\ \frac{1}{J_m} z_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}
\]

### 3 Zero Dynamics

As explained in Section 4, the power flow control for our system is based on the selection of appropriate constant values of the stator current. Thus, we study the zero dynamics of the system, taking \(i_s\) as output:

\[
y = Cx
\]

where \(C = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & O_2 \end{bmatrix}\). One easily gets

\[
y = C.\mathcal{L}^{-1}[-(\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} + \mathcal{R})x + M_1 u + M_2 v_s].
\]

We consider a constant desired output of the form \(y^* = i_s^*\). Then \(\dot{y}^* = 0\) and the decoupling and linearizing control is given by

\[
u = D^{-1} C.\mathcal{L}^{-1}[(\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} + \mathcal{R})x - M_2 v_s]
\]

with

\[
D = C.\mathcal{L}^{-1} M_1 = -\frac{L_{sr}}{L_s L_r - L_{sr}^2} I_2 < 0,
\]
where negative definiteness stems from the fact that $L_s L_r > L_{sr}^2$. Substituting this control into the system equations, one gets the following dynamics

$$\dot{x} = \mathcal{A} x - \mathcal{L}^{-1}(I_4 - M_1 D^{-1} C \mathcal{L}^{-1})M_2 v_s$$

with

$$\mathcal{A} = -\mathcal{L}^{-1}[\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} + \mathcal{R} - M_1 D^{-1} C \mathcal{L}^{-1}(\Omega(\omega) \mathcal{L} + \mathcal{R})].$$

Some lengthy, but straightforward, calculations yield

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
-\frac{1}{L_{sr}}(\omega_s L_s J_2 + R_s I_2) & -\omega_s J_2
\end{bmatrix}$$

which, interestingly, is a constant matrix independent of $\omega$, with the forcing term matrix

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}(I_4 - M_1 D^{-1} C \mathcal{L}^{-1})M_2 = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 & * \\
*
\end{bmatrix}$$

where $*$ denotes some non–zero constants. From these calculations we see that the first two components of the vector $x$, that is $i_s$, remain constant. The remaining, $i_r$, dynamics consists of a linear oscillator (with eigenvalues at $\pm j \omega_s$) with a constant forcing input that depends on $v_s$. It is well–known that a linear oscillator is not bounded–input bounded–output stable hence unbounded trajectories of the forced system may appear upon change of the line voltage, which stymies the control of the system by direct inversion.

We should underscore that a similar result is obtained if we take as output the rotor current, instead of that of the stator [15].

## 4 Power Flow Strategy

The power management schedule is determined according to the following considerations. The general goal is to supply the required power to the load with a high network power factor, i.e., $Q_n \sim 0$, where $Q_n$ is the network reactive power. On the other hand, we will show below that the DFIM has an optimal mechanical speed for which there is minimal power injection through the rotor. Combining these two factors suggests to consider the following three modes of operation:

- **Generator mode.** When the real power required by the local load is bigger than the maximum network power (say, $P_n^M$) we use the DFIM as a generator. In this case we fix the references for the network real and reactive powers as $P_n^* = P_n^M$ and $Q_n^* = 0$.

- **Storage (or motor) mode.** When the local load does not need all the network power and the mechanical speed is far from the optimal value the “unused” power network is employed to accelerate the flywheel. From the control point of view, this operation mode coincides with the generator mode, and thus we fix the same references—but now we want to extract the maximum power from the network to transfer it to the flywheel.

- **Stand–by mode.** Finally, when the local load does not need all the power network and the mechanical speed is near to the optimal one we just compensate for the flywheel friction losses by regulating the speed and the reactive power. Hence, we fix the reference for the mechanical speed at its minimum rotor losses value (to be defined below) and set $Q_n^* = 0$. 

The operation modes boil down to two kinds of control actions (we call them 0 and 1) as expressed in Table 1, where \( P_l \) is the load power and \( \varepsilon > 0 \) is some small parameter.

| \( P_n^* < P_l \) | \( |\omega - \omega_s| \leq \varepsilon \) | Mode | Control | References |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| True | True | Generator | 0 | \( P_n^* = P_n^M \) and \( Q_n^* = 0 \) |
| True | False | Generator | 0 | \( P_n^* = P_n^M \) and \( Q_n^* = 0 \) |
| False | True | Stand-by | 1 | \( Q_n^* = 0 \) and \( \omega^* = \omega_s \) |
| False | False | Storage | 0 | \( P_n^* = P_n^M \) and \( Q_n^* = 0 \) |

Table 1: Control action table.

To formulate mathematically the power flow strategy described above we need to express the various modes in terms of equilibrium points. In this way, the policy will be implemented transferring the system from one equilibrium point to another. Towards this end, we compute first the fixed points of our system (6), i.e. the values \( z^e \), \( z^m \) = \( J_m \omega^* \), \( v^* \) such that

\[
[Jf(z^e) - R] \begin{bmatrix} i^* \\ \omega^* \end{bmatrix} + B_1 v^*_r + B_2 v_s = 0.
\]

Explicit separation of the rows corresponding to the stator, rotor, network and mechanical equations yields the following system of equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\omega_s L_s j_s^2 i_r^s + \omega_s L_s j_s^2 i_r^s + R_s j_i^s - v_s &= 0 \\
(\omega_s - \omega^*)(L_m j_s^2 i_s^r + L_r j_s^2 i_s^r) + R_r j_i^r - v_r^* &= 0 \\
L_m i_s^r j_s^r J_2 j_i^r - B_r \omega^* &= 0.
\end{align*}
\]

(7) (8) (9)

It is clear that—assuming no constraint on \( v_r \)—the key equations to be solved are (7) and (9).

As discussed above, a DFIM has an optimal mechanical speed for which there is minimal power injection through the rotor. Indeed, from (8) one immediately gets

\[
P_r^* \triangleq i_r^s = (\omega_s - \omega^*)L_m j_s^2 j_i^r + R_r |i_i^r|^2,
\]

where |\( \cdot \)| is the Euclidean norm. Further, using (9), we get

\[
P_r^* = B_r (\omega^* - \omega_s) + R_r |i_i^r|^2.
\]

(10)

Although the ohmic term in (10) does depend also on \( \omega \), its contribution is small for the usual range of parameter values, so |\( P_r \)| is small near \( \omega^* = \omega_s \). Another consideration that we make to justify our choice of “optimal” rotor speed, \( \omega^* \), concerns the reactive power supplied to the rotor—that we would like to minimize. It can be shown that

\[
Q_r^* \triangleq i_r^r J_2 v_r^* = (\omega^* - \omega_s) f(Q_n, \omega^*),
\]

where \( f(\cdot,\cdot) \) is a bounded function of its arguments. Consequently, \( Q_r^* = 0 \) for \( \omega^* = \omega_s \). Taking this into account, we will set the reference of the mechanical speed as \( \omega^* = \omega_s \).

Let us explain now the calculations needed to determine the desired equilibria for the generating and stand–by modes. Assuming a sinusoidal steady–state regime, the network active and reactive powers are defined as

\[
P_n \triangleq i_n v_s = V_0 i_{nd}
\]

(11)
In our case replacing in (13), using (1), and the network power definitions (11), (12) we obtain taking a general RL-load solutions, a unique one, or no solution at all, depending on whether \( i^* \) and \( i^r \) are solutions for the nonlinear equations (7) and (9). First of all, multiplying equation (7) by \( i^* \) and considering \( s_i \) yields \( i^* \). Then, \( \omega^* \) is computed from (9), and finally \( v_r^* \) is obtained via (8).

For the stand–by mode we still set \( Q_n^* = 0 \), but now fix \( \omega^* = \omega_t \). This is a more complicated scenario as we have to ensure the existence of \( i^* \) and \( i^r \) solutions for the nonlinear equations (7) and (9). First of all, multiplying equation (7) by \( i^* \) and using equation (9) one gets

\[
R_s |i^*_s|^2 - v_s^T i^*_s + B_r \omega^*_s = 0.
\]

This is a quadratic equation in the two components of \( i^*_s \). It may have an infinite number of solutions, a unique one, or no solution at all, depending on whether \( \omega_s \) is smaller, equal or larger than \( \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2B_r R_s}} \), respectively. Since \( B_r \) is usually a small coefficient typically there will be an infinite number of \( i^*_s \) that solve the equation. We will choose then the one of minimum norm. Once we have fixed \( i^*_s \) we can proceed as in the generating mode to compute \( i^r \) and \( v_r^* \).

Before closing this section we make the observation that, under the assumptions that the load can be modeled as a linear RL circuit and small friction coefficient, we can get a simple condition on the load parameters that ensure the existence of \( \omega^* \) and \( P_n^* \), with \( Q_n^* = 0 \). Indeed, taking a general RL-load

\[
Z_l = R_l I_2 + \omega_t L_l J_2,
\]

replacing in (13), using (1), and the network power definitions (11), (12) we obtain

\[
(P_n^*)^2 - |v_s|^2 \left( \frac{2R_l}{|Z_l|^2} + \frac{1}{R_s} \right) P_n^* + \frac{|v_s|^4}{|Z_l|^2} \left( 1 + \frac{R_l}{R_s} - \frac{2\omega_t L_l Q_n^*}{|v_s|^2} \right) - \frac{|v_s|^2 B_r \omega^*_s}{R_s} = 0.
\]

In our case \( Q_n^* = 0 \) and considering \( B_r = 0 \) yields the quadratic equation

\[
(P_n^*)^2 - |v_s|^2 \left( \frac{2R_l}{|Z_l|^2} + \frac{1}{R_s} \right) P_n^* + \frac{|v_s|^4}{|Z_l|^2} \left( 1 + \frac{R_l}{R_s} \right) = 0.
\]

It is easy to show that this equation has a positive real solution if and only if

\[
R_s < \frac{R_l^2}{2\omega_t L_l} + \frac{\omega_t L_l}{2},
\]

and hence it always has a real solution for loads with sufficiently small inductance.

## 5 Controller Design

As mentioned in the Introduction, to implement the proposed power flow strategy we design an IDA–PBC [10]. The central idea of this technique is to assign to the closed loop a desired energy function via the modification of the interconnection and dissipation matrices, still preserving the PCH structure. That is, the desired target dynamics is a PCH system of the form

\[
\dot{z} = [\mathcal{J}_d(z) - \mathcal{R}_d(z)](\nabla H_d)^T
\]
where $H_d(z)$ is the new total energy and $J_d(z) = -J_d^T(z)$, $R_d(z) = R_d^T(z) > 0$, are the new interconnection and damping matrices, respectively. To achieve stabilization of the desired equilibrium point we impose

$$z^* = \text{arg min}_{z} H_d(z).$$

It is easy to see that the matching objective is achieved if and only if the following matching equation is satisfied

$$[J_d(z) - R_d(z)](\nabla H_d)^T = -[J_a(z) - R_a(z)](\nabla H)^T + B_1 v_r + B_2 v_s. \quad (16)$$

where, for convenience, we have defined

$$H_d(z) = H(z) + H_a(z), \quad J_d(z) = J(z) + J_a(z), \quad R_d(z) = R(z) + R_a(z).$$

Notice that $v_s$ is fixed, so the only available control is $v_r$.

The standard way to solve (16) is to fix the matrices $J_a(z)$ and $R_a(z)$—hence the name IDA—and then solve the matching equation, which is now a PDE in $H_d(z)$. In general, solving PDEs is a complicated task. Fortunately, the special structure of our system allows us, in the spirit of [5, 12], to fix $H_d(z)$—transforming (16) into a purely algebraic equation—and then solve it for $J_a(z)$ and $R_a(z)$.

### 5.1 Solving the Matching Equation

Following the strategy outlined above to solve the matching equation (16), we choose a desired quadratic total energy

$$H_d(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z_e - z_e^*)^T \mathcal{L}^{-1}(z_e - z_e^*) + \frac{1}{2J_m}(z_m - z_m^*)^2,$$

which clearly has a global minimum at the desired fixed point. This implies

$$H_a(z) = H_d(z) - H(z) = -z_e^*^T \mathcal{L}^{-1}z_e - \frac{1}{J_m}z_m^*^T \mathcal{L}^{-1}z_m + \frac{1}{2J_e}z_e^*^2 + \frac{1}{2J_m}z_m^2.$$

Notice that

$$(\nabla H_a)^T = \begin{bmatrix} -z_e^* & -\omega^* \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using this relation, (16) becomes

$$[J_d(z) - R_d(z)] \begin{bmatrix} i^* \\ \omega^* \end{bmatrix} = [J_a(z) - R_a(z)] \begin{bmatrix} i \\ \omega \end{bmatrix} - B_1 v_r - B_2 v_s. \quad (17)$$

The control action appears on the third and fourth rows, which suggests the choice

$$J_a(z) = \begin{bmatrix} O_2 & O_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_2 & O_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_{1 \times 2} & J_{rm}(z) & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad R_a = \begin{bmatrix} O_2 & O_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_2 & rI_2 & O_{2 \times 1} \\ O_{1 \times 2} & O_{1 \times 2} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (18)$$

where $J_{rm}(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}$ is to be determined, and we have injected an additional resistor $r > 0$ for the rotor currents to damp the transient oscillations.
Substituting (18) in (17) and using the fixed-point equations, one gets, after some algebra,

\[ J^\top_{rm}(z) = L_{sr} \left( \frac{I_r - i_r^*}{|I_r - i_r^*|^2} \right) (I_s - i_s^*)^\top J_2 i_r^*, \]

\[ v_r = v_r^* - (\omega - \omega^*) (L_r J_2 i_r^* + J_{rm}(z)) - L_{sr} \omega^* J_2 (I_s - i_s^*) - r I_s (I_r - i_r^*). \]

Unfortunately, the control is singular at the fixed point. Although from a numerical point of view we could implement it by introducing a regularization parameter, we are going to show below that it is possible to get rid of the singularity by adding a variable damping which turns out to decouple the mechanical and electrical subsystems.

### 5.2 Subsystem Decoupling via State–Dependent Damping

We keep the same \( H_d(z) \) and \( J_d(z) \) as before, but instead of the constant \( R_a \) given in (18) we introduce a state–dependent damping matrix

\[ R_a(z) = \begin{bmatrix} O_2 & O_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ O_2 & r l_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ O_1 \times 2 & O_1 \times 2 & \xi(z) \end{bmatrix}, \]

where we set

\[ \xi(z) = \frac{\tau_e^* - \tau_e(z_e)}{\omega - \omega^*} \]

with \( \tau_e \) the electrical torque

\[ \tau_e = L_{sr} i_s^\top J_2 i_r \]

and \( \tau_e^* = B_r \omega^* \) its fixed point value. Notice that, when substituted into the closed-loop Hamiltonian equations, \( \xi(z) \) is multiplied by \( \omega - \omega^* \) and hence no singularity is introduced.

Since we only have changed the mechanical part of (17), only the value for \( J_{rm}(z) \) is changed while the expression for \( v_r \) in terms of \( J_{rm}(z) \) remains the same. After some algebra and using the fixed point equations, one gets

\[ J_{rm}(z) = L_{sr} J_2 i_s. \]

The closed loop dynamical system is still of the form (15) with

\[ J_d(z) = \begin{bmatrix} -\omega L_r J_2 & -\omega L_{sr} J_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ -\omega L_{sr} J_2 & -\omega L_r J_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ O_1 \times 2 & O_1 \times 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \]

\[ \mathcal{R}_d(z) = \begin{bmatrix} R_l J_2 & O_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ O_2 & (R_r + r) J_2 & O_2 \times 1 \\ O_1 \times 2 & O_1 \times 2 & B_r + \xi(z) \end{bmatrix}. \]

We underscore the fact that the state–dependent “damping” is an artifice to decouple the electrical and mechanical parts in the closed-loop interconnection and dissipation matrices—and the proposed control is shaping only the electrical dynamics.

### 5.3 Main Stability Result

Due to the fact that we cannot show that \( B_r + \xi(z) \geq 0 \), we cannot apply the standard stability analysis for PCH systems [16]. However, the overall system has a nice cascaded structure, with the electrical part a bona fide PCH subsystem with well–defined dissipation. (This situation
is similar to the Nested PBC proposed in Chapter 8 of [9].) Asymptotic stability of the overall system follows from well known properties of cascaded systems [14]. For the sake of completeness we give the specific result required in our example in the form of a lemma in the Appendix.

We are in position to present the following:

**Proposition 1** Consider the DFIM–based system (6) in closed–loop with the static state–feedback control

\[ v_r = v^*_r - (\omega - \omega^*)(L_J J_2 i^*_r + L_s J_2 s) - L_s r_2 (i_s - i^*_s) - r_2 (i_r - i^*_r), \]

where

\[ v^*_r = (\omega - \omega^*)[L_J J_2 i^*_s + L_r J_2 r] + R_1 I_2 r^*_t. \]

and \((i^*_s, i^*_r, \omega^*)\) correspond to desired equilibria. Assume the motor friction coefficient \(B_m\) is sufficiently small to ensure the solution of the equilibrium equations (7) and (9). Then, each operating mode of the proposed power flow policy is globally convergent.

**Proof.** Energy shaping of the electrical subsystem ensures that

\[ H_{de} \leq -\min\{R_s, R_r + r\}|z_e - z_e^*|^2, \]

where \(H_{de} = \frac{1}{2}(z_e - z_e^*)^\top L_e^{-1}(z_e - z_e^*)\). Consequently, \(z_e \to z_e^*\) exponentially fast. The proof follows immediately checking that the conditions of Lemma 1 in Appendix A hold. To do that, we identify \(x_1\) with the electric variables and \(x_2\) with the mechanical variable. The electric subsystem has \((i^*_s, i^*_r)\) as a global asymptotically stable fixed point for any function \(\omega(t)\). Hence, all trajectories of the closed–loop dynamics asymptotically converge to the equilibrium point \((i^*_s, i^*_r, \omega^*)\). \(\square\)

6 Simulations

In this Section we implement a numerical simulation of the IDA–PBC developed in the previous Sections. We use the following parameters (in SI units): \(L_J = 0.041\), \(L_s = L_r = 0.041961\), \(J_m = 5.001\), \(R_s = 0.087\), \(R_r = 0.0228\), \(B_r = 0.005\).

We have simulated two varying loads, one resistive and the other resistive-inductive.\(^5\) The resistive load is initially \(R_l = 1000\), changes ramp-wise to \(R_l = 5\) at \(t = 1\) in 0.2 seconds and returns to \(R_l = 1000\) at \(t = 1.8\) also in 0.2 seconds. The same envelope (shifted 5 s forward) is used for the second load, with values \(R_l = 1000\), \(L_d = 0.1\) and \(R_l = 5\), \(L_d = 0.1\). The voltage source is, in \(dq\) coordinates, \(v_s = (380.0, 0)\) and \(\omega_s = 2\pi \cdot 50\). The simulation has been performed using the 20-sim [1] modelling and simulation software.

For the purposes of testing the controller, we have set a maximum power network \(P_n = 10000\). The damping parameter is fixed at \(r = 25\). A hysteresis filter is used to prevent chattering around \(\omega = \omega_s\).

Figures 3–5 show the behavior for a purely resistive load for \(t \in [0, 5]\). Notice that, in Figure 3, \(P_n\) tends to its maximum value even if the load demand (\(P_l\)) is higher. After the load demand returns to its initial value, \(P_n\) is kept at its peak value to accelerate the flywheel, until the later reaches the optimum speed. The evolution of \(\omega\) during this sequence is also shown in Figure 4; the minimum attained represents 96.2% of the optimal speed \(\omega_s\). Figure 5 shows the \(a\)-phase network voltage \(v_{sa}\) and current \(i_{na}\), which have the same angle.
Figures 6–8 correspond to the varying RL load for $t \in [5, 10]$. Figure 6 shows the $a$-phase network voltage ($v_{sa}$) and network and load currents ($i_{na}, i_{la}$), where, although $i_{la}$ is not in phase with $v_{sa}$, the controller is able to keep $v_{sa}$ and $i_{na}$ nearly in phase, so the actual reactive power $Q_n$ remains close to zero. Also, as seen in Figure 7, the minimum mechanical speed is 97.8% of the optimal value, while the goal of the maximal power from the network is also achieved, Figure 8.

### 7 Conclusions and Outlook

IDA–PBC techniques have been applied to the control of a doubly-fed induction machine in order to manage the power flow between a mechanical source (flywheel) and a varying local load, under limited grid power conditions. We have been able to solve the IDA–PBC equations by assigning the desired Hamiltonian and introducing a variable damping to eliminate the resulting singularity. The controller obtained is globally convergent and decouples the mechanical and electrical subsystems in the interconnection matrix.

The system not only provides the active power required by the load, but at the same time compensates the reactive power, so that the power grid sees the load+machine system as a pure resistive load, even for varying inductive local loads. There is no actual restriction about the kind of local load, as long as its parameters allow the assignment of equilibrium points.

We have established the stability of the equilibrium points corresponding to the three operat-

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5Although the scenario of an RL load is not contemplated in our analysis, we have added these simulations as a robustness test.
ing modes described in Table 1. However, stability cannot be ensured, without further analysis, when the power flow strategy that switches the operating modes is in place. If the switching is replaced by a smooth, sufficiently slow, transition from one operating point to the other we can invoke total stability arguments to prove that stability is preserved under some additional uniformity assumptions. Completing this analysis is the subject of on–going research.

Currently we are working on the experimental validation of the proposed controller, the implementation of the controller through a power converter connected also to the grid and the introduction of a grid model instead of the ideal bus considered in this paper.

References


Figure 5: Network voltage and current \((v_{sa}, i_{na})\) for a resistive load.


Figure 6: Network voltage ($v_{sa}$) and network and load currents ($i_{na}, i_{la}$) for an RL load.

doubly fed induction generator, In: IEEE Power Engineering Society Summer Meeting,


[16] van der Schaft, A., $L_2$ gain and passivity techniques in nonlinear control, 2nd Edition,

A Appendix A

Lemma 1 Let us consider a system of the form

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{x}_1 &= f_1(x_1, x_2), \\
\dot{x}_2 &= -Bx_2 + h(x_1),
\end{align*}
$$

where $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $B > 0$ and $h$ is a continuous function. Assume that the system has fixed
points $x_1^*, x_2^*$, and $\lim_{t \to +\infty} x_1(t) = x_1^*$ for any $x_2(t)$. Then $\lim_{t \to +\infty} x_2(t) = x_2^*$.

Proof. Let $(\sigma_1(t), \sigma_2(t))$ be a given solution to (20). Since $\lim_{t \to +\infty} \sigma_1(t) = x_1^*$ it follows that
$\sigma_1(t)$ is bounded and so is $h(\sigma_1(t))$. Since $Bx_2^* = h(x_1^*)$, it follows that $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ there exists $T > 0$, 
which may depend on $\sigma_1(t)$ and $\sigma_2(t)$, such that if $t > T$ then $|h(\sigma_1(t)) - Bx_2^*| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Using 

$$1 = e^{-Bt} + B \int_0^t e^{-B(t-\tau)} \, d\tau$$

it is immediate to write,

$$\sigma_2(t) - x_2^* = e^{-Bt}(x_2(0) - x_2^*) + \int_0^t e^{-B(t-\tau)} (h(\sigma_1(\tau)) - Bx_2^*) \, d\tau$$

$$= e^{-Bt}(x_2(0) - x_2^*) + \int_0^T e^{-B(t-\tau)} (h(\sigma_1(\tau)) - Bx_2^*) \, d\tau$$

$$+ \int_T^t e^{-B(t-\tau)} (h(\sigma_1(\tau)) - Bx_2^*) \, d\tau$$

where $t > T$ has been assumed. There exists $\tilde{T} > 0$ such that if $t > \tilde{T}$ then

$$e^{-Bt} \left( x_2(0) - x_2^* + \int_0^T e^{B\tau} (h(\sigma_1(\tau)) - Bx_2^*) \, d\tau \right) < \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

where the boundedness of $h$ has been used. Furthermore

$$\left| \int_T^t e^{-B(t-\tau)} (h(\sigma_1(\tau)) - Bx_2^*) \, d\tau \right| < \int_T^t e^{-B(t-\tau)} \frac{B}{2} \, d\tau = \frac{\epsilon}{2} (1 - e^{-B(t-\tilde{T})}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Finally, taking $t > \max\{T, \tilde{T}\}$, one gets $|\sigma_2(t) - x_2^*| < \epsilon$. This ends the proof. \(\triangleright\)
Figure 8: Network and load active powers ($P_n, P_l$) for an RL load.