

# Equivalent Circuit Models for Closed-loop Multiphysics Drive Systems

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**Abstract**—Power electronics drives are complex systems with coupled dynamical phenomena across electrical, control, and mechanical domains. This mix of heterogeneous subsystems obscures straightforward analysis, intuition, and design from an integrated system perspective. In this paper, we first show that each of these subsystems can be converted into an equivalent circuit. Leveraging the universality of energy, we stitch together a unified model where the closed-loop drive system is drawn as a single equivalent circuit. Focusing on permanent magnet synchronous machines with rotor saliency, drive control action is depicted as an *RLC* circuit, torques from *d* and *q* axis stator currents appear as current flows, electromechanical energy conversion is portrayed using an ideal transformer, inertia mimics capacitive storage, and the drivetrain also appears as a circuit. A simulation is provided where an end-to-end closed-loop electric vehicle system is modeled entirely as a circuit.

## I. INTRODUCTION

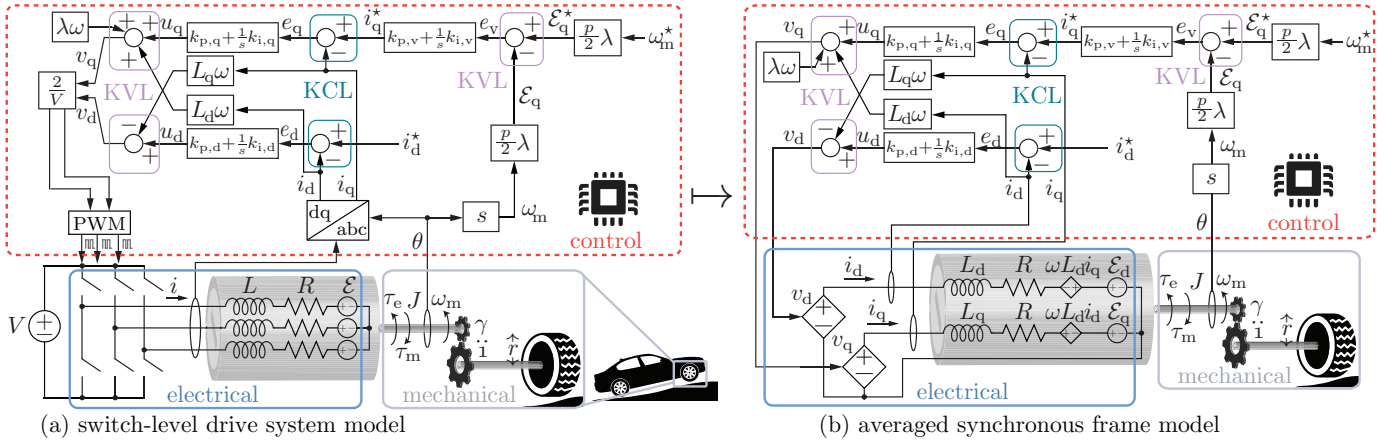
Equivalent circuit models have a rich history in both electrical [1] and mechanical engineering [2] disciplines. In both fields, such models have been instrumental in understanding how physical systems function. Despite that, equivalent circuit models within the electrical and mechanical communities have largely been pursued independently where use of mixed electromechanical models is scant. The main contribution of this paper lies in the key insight that such models can be interwoven into a unified equivalent circuit. The key insight that gives us unification is the universality of energy across all known physical domains. This paper builds on recent work [3], [4] where controllers are also cast as circuits, and ultimately we show how an end-to-end closed-loop drive system with speed and torque control can be modeled as a circuit.

Within the context of power electronics, equivalent circuit models were first formulated for open-loop converter modeling [5], [6]. Eventually, *impedance-based modeling* was introduced [7], [8] to include the effect of control feedback. Under such a framework, the output port of a converter is represented as a Norton or Thévenin equivalent and its impedances can be used to characterize stability. One limitation of this approach is that it gives a coarse two-element lumped circuit equivalent where many aspects of the control loop(s) and converter are either neglected, approximated, or obscured. Most recently, converters and their controls have been analyzed through the lens of circuit theory [3], [4]. By uncovering instances of

Kirchhoff's laws within control loops, meshed multi-element circuit models follow along with accompanying analytical methods that link classical circuit and control theory.

Shifting focus to electromechanical systems, equivalent circuits for machine electrical dynamics form some of the earliest models used by the power community [9], [10]. In this setting, the back electromotive force (EMF), rotor, and stator are cast as a circuit model. On the other end, circuit equivalents for mechanical systems have a rich history where even James Clerk Maxwell uncovered connections [2], [11]. In such a setting, Newton's equations are analogous to Kirchhoff's Laws and allow for the derivation of circuits that exhibit dynamics identical to the original system [12]. Reflecting on this overview, it is clear that circuit equivalents have been widely used within the electrical and mechanical engineering communities. Aside from a few exceptions described below, electromechanical systems are typically represented as distinct electrical and mechanical subsystems despite being coupled. In [13], electromechanical transducers are modeled as equivalent circuits with transformers or gyrators linking physical domains. The synchronous generator and dc machine models in [14] and [15], respectively, outline coupled electrical-mechanical circuit models via ideal transformers or coupled dependent sources. Most relevant to the topic of drives, the works in [16], [17] establish a circuit representation that links electrical and mechanical dynamics by use of an ideal gyrator between physical domains.

In this paper, we leverage conservation of energy to establish a unified circuit framework that links control, electrical, and mechanical domains. Unlike in [16], [17], electromechanical conversion is captured via an ideal transformer as opposed to a gyrator, and control loops are also interwoven into our model. We also model machine saliency, which underpins flux-weakening methods, and illustrate the reluctance torque contribution in circuit format. A multiphysics circuit model, which encompasses speed and torque controls, machine dynamics, electromechanical energy conversion, and mechanical dynamics, is illustrated in an electric vehicle (EV) case study. Section II outlines the overall system structure. Circuit equivalents for each domain are established in Section III. The unified multiphysics model is derived in Section IV and simulations are in Section V. Concluding statements are in Section VI.



**Fig. 1:** A switched model of a drive system is shown in (a) and its averaged counterpart in the synchronously rotating reference frame is given in (b). In both of these typical representations, the electrical, mechanical, and control subsystems are segregated from one another.

## II. SYSTEM FUNDAMENTALS AND NOTATION

Consider the system in Fig. 1 which contains a three-phase power electronics drive, a permanent magnet synchronous machine with mechanical load, as well as inner and outer control loops which regulate torque and speed, respectively.

**Electrical:** The position of the rotor magnet north pole relative to the fixed  $a$ -phase coil is  $\theta_m$ . From here forward, the power-invariant form of Park's transformation below is used.

$$\Gamma(\theta) := \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \cos(\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}) & \cos(\theta + \frac{2\pi}{3}) \\ -\sin \theta & -\sin(\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}) & -\sin(\theta + \frac{2\pi}{3}) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

In (1),  $\theta$  is the electrical angle which can be expressed in terms of the pole count,  $p$ , and mechanical angle,  $\theta_m$ , such that  $\theta = p\theta_m/2$ . Electrical and mechanical speeds are defined as  $\omega = d\theta/dt$  and  $\omega_m = d\theta_m/dt$ , respectively. Since the transformation in (1) acts on the electrical angle, all  $dq$ -based models hereafter are in the synchronous reference frame.

Three-phase stator currents, motion-induced back EMFs, and drive terminal voltages are denoted as  $i = [i_a, i_b, i_c]^T$ ,  $\mathcal{E}(\theta) = [\mathcal{E}_a(\theta), \mathcal{E}_b(\theta), \mathcal{E}_c(\theta)]^T$ , and  $v = [v_a, v_b, v_c]^T$ , respectively. Assume a symmetric structure with identical stator coils with resistance  $R$ . Kirchhoff's Law gives  $v = R_s i + d(L_s(\theta)i)/dt - \mathcal{E}(\theta)$  where  $R_s = I_3 R \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$  and  $I_3$  is the  $3 \times 3$  identity matrix. Faraday's Law gives  $\mathcal{E}(\theta) = -d(\lambda_{sr}(\theta))/dt$  where  $\lambda_{sr}(\theta) = N\phi[\cos \theta, \cos(\theta - 2\pi/3), \cos(\theta + 2\pi/3)]^T$  is the rotor-to-stator flux linkage,  $N$  is the stator turn count, and  $\phi$  is the peak magnet flux. The stator inductance matrix is

$$L_s(\theta) = LI_3 - \frac{L_m}{2}(\mathbb{1}_3 - I_3) + L_\theta \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\theta) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(2\theta - \frac{4\pi}{3}) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos(2\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}) \end{bmatrix} + \frac{L_m\theta}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cos(2\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}) & \cos(2\theta - \frac{4\pi}{3}) \\ \cos(2\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}) & 0 & \cos(2\theta) \\ \cos(2\theta - \frac{4\pi}{3}) & \cos(2\theta) & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbb{1}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$  is a matrix with each entry equal to 1,  $L_m$  is the mutual inductance between any two stator coils,  $L_\theta$  is the

rotor angle dependence magnitude among the self inductances, and  $L_{m\theta}$  captures mutual inductance position dependence. The  $L_\theta$  and  $L_{m\theta}$  terms in (2) represent machine saliency.

Establish the following in the synchronous frame:  $v_{dq} = [v_d, v_q]^T = \Gamma(\theta)v$ ,  $i_{dq} = [i_d, i_q]^T = \Gamma(\theta)i$ ,  $\mathcal{E}_{dq} = [\mathcal{E}_d, \mathcal{E}_q]^T = \Gamma(\theta)\mathcal{E}(\theta)$ , and  $\lambda_{dq} = [\lambda_d, \lambda_q]^T = \Gamma(\theta)\lambda_{sr}(\theta)$ . Since  $i = \Gamma^T(\theta)i_{dq}$ ,  $\mathcal{E}(\theta) = \Gamma^T(\theta)\mathcal{E}_{dq}$ , and  $\Gamma(\theta)\Gamma^T(\theta) = I_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ , Kirchhoff's Law becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_d \\ v_q \end{bmatrix} = \Gamma(\theta) [R_s \Gamma^T(\theta) i_{dq} + \frac{d}{dt} (L_s(\theta) \Gamma^T(\theta) i_{dq}) + \Gamma^T(\theta) \mathcal{E}_{dq}], \quad (3)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} R i_d + L_d \frac{di_d}{dt} - \omega L_q i_q \\ R i_q + L_q \frac{di_q}{dt} + \omega L_d i_d + \mathcal{E}_q \end{bmatrix},$$

where the second expression follows after well-known manipulations [9]. Above,  $\mathcal{E}_q = \omega\lambda$  where  $\lambda = \sqrt{3/2}N\phi$  is the magnet flux linking the stator in the  $dq$  frame. Also,

$$L_d = \frac{L_m}{2} + L + \frac{L_\theta + L_{m\theta}}{2}, \quad (4)$$

$$L_q = \frac{L_m}{2} + L - \frac{L_\theta + L_{m\theta}}{2}.$$

**Control:** A typical field-oriented speed controller is shown in Fig. 1 where all control signals are in the synchronous frame. Since  $\mathcal{E}_q$  is linearly proportional to angular velocity, speed control is achieved by manipulation of  $q$  axis signals. A mechanical speed command,  $\omega_m^*$ , is translated to the corresponding back EMF voltage command  $\mathcal{E}_q^* = (p\lambda/2)\omega_m$ . The EMF voltage error,  $e_v$ , is processed by a proportional-integral (PI) controller with proportional and integral gains  $k_{p,v}$  and  $k_{i,v}$ , respectively. This outer speed controller yields the current command  $i_q^*$  which is proportional to torque. For the sake of generality, assume  $i_d^*$  is an arbitrary unspecified signal<sup>1</sup>. Current errors, denoted as  $[e_d, e_q]^T$ , are processed by inner PI controllers with proportional and integral gains  $[k_{p,d}, k_{p,q}]^T$  and  $[k_{i,d}, k_{i,q}]^T$ , respectively, and whose control

<sup>1</sup> $i_d^*$  is typically fixed at zero except in cases where flux-weakening is used.

effort is  $[u_d, u_q]^\top$ . After feedforward signals are added to the control effort, the inner torque controller yields the switch-cycle-averaged drive terminal voltages  $[v_d, v_q]^\top$  which are in turn processed by a pulse width modulator. Averaging over one switch cycle and projecting all variables to the synchronous frame, we obtain the model in Figure 1(b).

**Mechanics:** The motor, shaft, gear, and wheel system have a combined angular inertia  $J$ , and the shaft experiences electrical and mechanical torques  $\tau_e$  and  $\tau_m$ , respectively. Angular kinetic friction at the rotor shaft is denoted as  $\beta_r$  and frictional torque is  $\beta_r \omega_m$ . Terrain-to-wheel mechanical torque is transferred to the motor shaft across a gear with machine-side to drivetrain-side ratio  $\gamma:1$ .

The overall vehicle, payload, and passengers have total mass  $m$ . A wheel with radius  $r$  rolls on terrain with grade  $\theta_g$ . This yields a tangential force on the wheel edge given by  $F_g(\theta_g) = mg \sin \theta_g$  where  $g$  denotes gravitational acceleration. We model rolling friction on the tires as the summation of speed-dependent and speed-independent forces given by  $F_f(\theta_g) := mg f_0 \cos \theta_g$  and  $v_m \alpha(\theta_g)$ , respectively, where  $f_0$  and  $f_v$  are frictional coefficients,  $v_m$  is the vehicle velocity, and  $\alpha(\theta_g) := mg f_v \cos \theta_g$  resembles a grade-dependent damping. Assuming system rigidity, the vehicle translational velocity, mechanical angular velocity, and electrical angular velocity are related by

$$v_m = \omega_m \frac{r}{\gamma} = \omega \frac{2r}{p\gamma}. \quad (5)$$

Ignoring wind, the drag is

$$F_d(v_m) = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_d A_f v_m^2, \quad (6)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of air,  $C_d$  is the drag coefficient,  $A_f$  is the frontal area. These modeling constructs are in [18].

Rotational dynamics abide by

$$J \frac{d\omega_m}{dt} = \tau_e - \beta_r \omega_m - \tau_{gb}, \quad (7)$$

where  $\tau_m = \beta_r \omega_m + \tau_{gb}$  is the total mechanical torque and  $\tau_{gb}$  denotes the torque on the motor-side of the gearbox. Assuming an ideal gearbox and lossless energy transfer between angular and translational domains, the force delivered by the drivetrain, denoted as  $F_t$ , to the wheel edge is  $\tau_{gb} \gamma / r$ . This gives the following translational dynamics

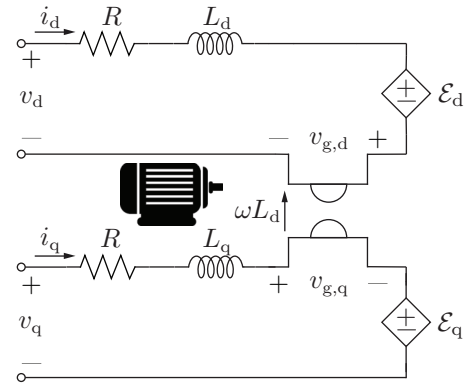
$$m \frac{dv_m}{dt} = F_t - v_m \alpha_t(\theta_g) - F_g(\theta_g) - F_f(\theta_g) - F_d(v_m). \quad (8)$$

### III. MODELING SUBSYSTEMS AS CIRCUITS

Before we obtain a unified circuit equivalent, we first uncover circuit representations for the stator, drive controls, and mechanical systems. Subsequently, conservation of energy is used to weave all subsystems into a single circuit.

#### A. Stator Dynamics as a Circuit

Here, we seek a streamlined circuit representation of the electrical machine dynamics in (3). Add and subtract  $\omega L_d i_d$



**Fig. 2:** Equivalent circuit of the machine stator dynamics where a gyrator captures cross-coupling between axes and EMFs are coupled with motion.

from the first row of (3) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} v_d \\ v_q \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} R i_d + L_d \frac{di_d}{dt} - \omega L_d i_q + \omega (L_d - L_q) i_q \\ R i_q + L_q \frac{di_q}{dt} + \omega L_d i_d + \omega \lambda \end{bmatrix}, \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} R i_d + L_d \frac{di_d}{dt} - \omega L_d i_q + \mathcal{E}_d \\ R i_q + L_q \frac{di_q}{dt} + \omega L_d i_d + \mathcal{E}_q \end{bmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where  $\mathcal{E}_d := \omega (L_d - L_q) i_q$ . The results of the  $d$ -axis manipulations in (9), and depicted in Fig. 1(b), are particularly appealing since, i) the net power absorbed by the  $d$  and  $q$  axis cross-coupling terms is zero (i.e.,  $(-\omega L_d i_q) i_d + (\omega L_d i_d) i_q = 0$ ), and ii) the power absorbed into the back EMF, namely  $\mathcal{E}_d i_d$ , is converted into mechanical torque. Observation (i) can be captured as a lossless two-port circuit element where the effective resistance of each input port is  $\omega L_d$ . This is known as the *gyration* effect [19] and is represented by the ideal gyrator in Fig. 2 which transfers energy between axes. We close by noting that observation (ii) allows us to express the electrically-induced mechanical power as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}_q i_q + \mathcal{E}_d i_d &= \underbrace{\lambda \frac{p}{2} \omega_m i_q}_{\mathcal{E}_q} + \underbrace{\frac{p}{2} \omega_m (L_d - L_q) i_q i_d}_{\mathcal{E}_d} \\ &= \tau_q \omega_m + \tau_d \omega_m, \\ &= \tau_e \omega_m, \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $\tau_e = \tau_q + \tau_d$ , and

$$\tau_q = i_q \left( \lambda \frac{p}{2} \right), \quad \tau_d = i_d \left( \frac{p}{2} (L_d - L_q) i_q \right). \quad (11)$$

#### B. Controllers as Circuits

**Torque Control:** Referring to (11), we first note that torques are regulated via currents since they are proportional. Figure 1 reveals that the  $dq$  current compensators have current differences at their inputs and voltage signals on their output sides. This indicates an impedance-like behavior where we denote the  $d$  and  $q$  compensator transfer functions as the impedances  $z_{c,d}(s) := k_{p,d} + k_{i,d}/s$  and  $z_{c,q}(s) := k_{p,q} + k_{i,q}/s$ , respectively. Uncovering Kirchoff's relations in Fig. 1(b), the controller can be redrawn equivalently as in Figure 3. Evidently, the reference signals act as current sources, proportional and integral gains are identical to equivalent resistances

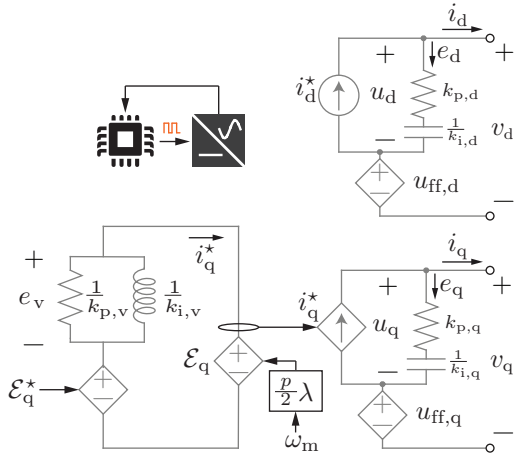


Fig. 3: Equivalent circuit of speed and torque controllers.

and inverse capacitances, the compensator itself is a series-connected  $RC$  circuit, and feedforward takes the form of a measurement-dependent voltage source.

**Speed Control:** Since  $\mathcal{E}_q = \lambda\omega_m p/2$ , speed regulation is tantamount to back EMF voltage regulation. Hereafter, we consider speed dynamics in terms of a back EMF voltage to emphasize the circuit nature of the model. Having said that, identical results could be obtained from mechanical relations directly. Given that the speed controller in Fig. 1 converts voltage differences into a current command, the compensator mimics an admittance given by  $z_{c,v}^{-1}(s) := k_{p,v} + k_{i,v}/s$ . As shown in Fig. 3, the parameters  $k_{p,v}$  and  $k_{i,v}$  are mapped to a conductance and inverse inductance, respectively, where the EMF error is placed across a parallel  $RL$  branch and the speed command is a voltage source. Evidently, the speed and torque control loops exhibit dual structures as highlighted in [3], [4].

### C. Vehicle Mechanics as a Circuit

The crux of the mechanical-to-circuit equivalent lies in drawing parallels between a system's equations of motion and electrical laws, while also defining appropriate force (voltage) and flow (current) variables. Multiple analogies are possible, the choice of which results in either transformers or gyrators linking physical domains [16]. Here, we select torque and force as current-like quantities, angular speed and velocity as proxies for voltage, and the moment of inertia and mass as capacitances. Since (torque  $\times$  speed) and (force  $\times$  velocity) are equal to power, this ties our model to energy.

Compare the Newtonian equations in (7)–(8) and a capacitor state equation of the form  $\tilde{C}d\tilde{v}/dt = \tilde{i}_c$ . Hence, (7) and (8) can each be depicted as a circuit where the moment of inertia,  $J$ , and mass,  $m$ , become equivalent capacitances. Furthermore, the right-hand-sides of (7)–(8) mirror Kirchhoff's Current Law. It follows that the rotational shaft friction  $\beta_r$  maps to a conductance across the equivalent capacitance  $J$  and the translational damping  $\alpha_t(\theta_g)$  acts as a parallel-connected conductance across equivalent capacitance  $m$ . In (7), the drive torque,  $\tau_e$ , is represented as a current injected into capacitance  $J$ . Forces associated with gravity and speed-independent friction,  $F_g(\theta_g)$  and  $F_f(\theta_g)$ , respectively, in (8)

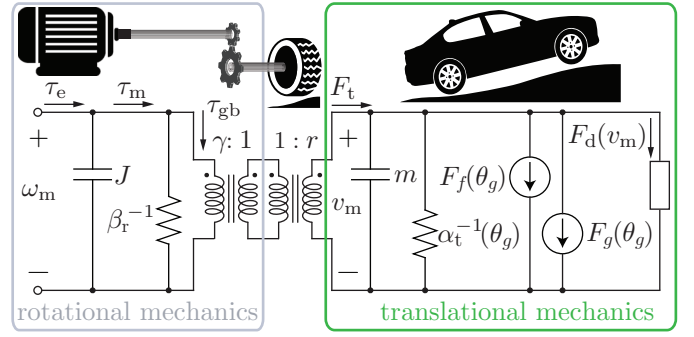


Fig. 4: The mechanical system of an electric vehicle represented as an equivalent circuit.

act as current sinks and the drag force,  $F_d(v_m)$ , becomes a nonlinear state-dependent current. To link the rotational and translational domains into a single circuit, we note that lossless power transfer across the gearbox and wheel structure give

$$\omega_m \tau_{gb} = F_t v_m. \quad (12)$$

Rigidity between rotational and mechanical domains and energy conservation in (12) map to equivalent transformer action. The observations above collectively give Figure 4.

## IV. UNIFIED MULTIPHYSICS MODEL

Our main result of a unified circuit model will now be obtained by application of energy conservation and Kirchhoff's Laws. Once the unified model is in hand, we then show that closed-loop dynamics with control are straightforwardly obtained from well-known circuit analysis methods.

### A. Energy as a Fundamental Link

We now focus on energy transfer across subsystems. First, note that the consistency of Kirchhoff's relations in the torque control loops allow us to merge the control and stator subsystems in Figs. 3 and 2, respectively, without any additional steps (see [3]). Shifting focus to the electrical-mechanical link, it is necessary to lay some groundwork.

Power absorbed by  $\mathcal{E}_d$  and  $\mathcal{E}_q$  is converted into electrically-induced mechanical power as described in (10). Further analysis reveals the following electrical-mechanical relations:

$$\mathcal{E}_q = \left(\lambda \frac{p}{2}\right) \omega_m, \quad i_q = \left(\lambda \frac{p}{2}\right)^{-1} \tau_q \quad (13)$$

$$\mathcal{E}_d = \frac{p}{2}(L_d - L_q)i_q\omega_m, \quad i_d = \left(\frac{p}{2}(L_d - L_q)i_q\right)^{-1} \tau_d \quad (14)$$

Inspection of (13) and (14) show that torque contributions map to currents on their respective axes and back EMF voltages depends on mechanical speed. Most importantly, we observe that  $\lambda p/2$  and  $(p/2)(L_d - L_q)i_q$  act like ideal transformer turns ratios. This insight allows us to merge the stator and mechanical circuits in Figs. 2 and 4 together via a pair of ideal transformers. Ultimately, we obtain the unified circuit with control, electrical, and mechanical domains in Figure 5.

### B. Linking Controls and Circuit Analysis

Next, we evaluate the closed-loop behavior of the torque and speed control loops in Fig. 5 via circuit analysis. Our aim is to

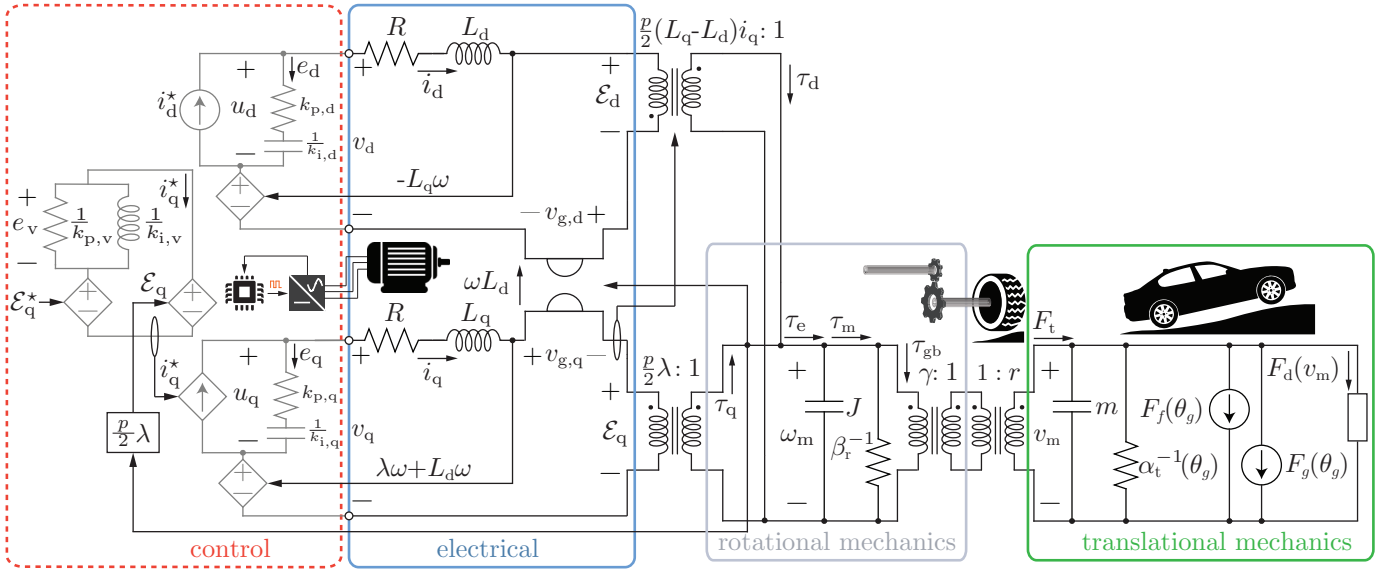


Fig. 5: A unified equivalent circuit model for a drive system with controls.

show that classical results, which are typically derived through the lens of control theory, can be reproduced with greater ease via circuit tricks. First, consider the current controller  $RC$  circuit equivalents,  $z_{c,d}(s)$  and  $z_{c,q}(s)$ , which regulate torque. Denote the impedance of the stator  $d$  and  $q$  axis branches as  $z_{s,d}(s) := sL_d + R$  and  $z_{s,q}(s) := sL_q + R$ , respectively. Assuming ideal feedforward, disturbances introduced by the gyrator cross-coupling and back EMFs are fully rejected. This follows after evaluating Kirchhoff's Voltage Law around the  $d$  and  $q$  axis circuits and disturbance voltage cancellation. The current divider equation directly gives us

$$i_q(s) = \frac{z_{c,q}(s)}{z_{s,q}(s) + z_{c,q}(s)} i_q^*(s) \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{T_{i,q}(s)}{1 + T_{i,q}(s)} i_q^*(s) \quad (16)$$

$$i_d(s) = \frac{z_{c,d}(s)}{z_{s,d}(s) + z_{c,d}(s)} i_d^*(s) \quad (17)$$

$$= \frac{T_{i,d}(s)}{1 + T_{i,d}(s)} i_d^*(s). \quad (18)$$

The well-known relations in (16) and (18), which are known as a *complementary sensitivity function* in the controls literature, follow after defining the loop gains as  $T_{i,q}(s) := z_{c,q}(s)/z_{s,q}(s)$  and  $T_{i,d}(s) := z_{c,d}(s)/z_{s,d}(s)$  and some algebraic manipulations. This establishes a link between fundamental relations in the controls and circuits domains.

Next, the mechanical system impedance projected across the electromechanical transformer equivalent towards the stator is

$$z_m(s) := \left( \beta_{\text{net}}^{-1}(\theta_g) \left\| \frac{1}{sJ_{\text{net}}} \right\| \left( \frac{\lambda p}{2} \right)^2 \right), \quad (19)$$

where  $J_{\text{net}} := J + m(r/\gamma)^2$  mimics a net capacitance and

$$\beta_{\text{net}}(\theta_g) := \beta_r + \left( \alpha_t(\theta_g) + \frac{dF_d(v_m)}{dv_m} \Big|_{v_m=V_m} \right) \left( \frac{\gamma}{r} \right)^2 \quad (20)$$

is the net mechanical conductance of the linearized system at grade  $\theta_g$  and quiescent velocity  $V_m$ . Hence,  $z_m(s)$  is the impedance of the linearized mechanical system observed from the stator perspective. The speed control circuit carries current  $i_q^*$  as given by

$$i_q^*(s) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_q^*(s) - \mathcal{E}_q(s)}{z_{c,v}(s)} \quad (21)$$

where we recall  $z_{c,v}(s) := k_{p,v}^{-1} \| s k_{i,v}^{-1}$  captures the impedance of the  $RL$  equivalent speed compensator. The voltage drop across  $z_m(s)$  equals the back EMF such that

$$\mathcal{E}_q(s) = i_q(s) z_m(s), \quad (22)$$

$$= \frac{z_{c,q}(s)}{z_{s,q}(s) + z_{c,q}(s)} i_q^*(s) z_m(s), \quad (23)$$

$$= \frac{z_{c,q}(s)}{z_{s,q}(s) + z_{c,q}(s)} \frac{\mathcal{E}_q^*(s) - \mathcal{E}_q(s)}{z_{c,v}(s)} z_m(s). \quad (24)$$

where the second line utilizes (15) and the final expression results after substituting (21) for  $i_q^*(s)$ . Solving for  $\mathcal{E}_q(s)$  gives the closed-loop relation

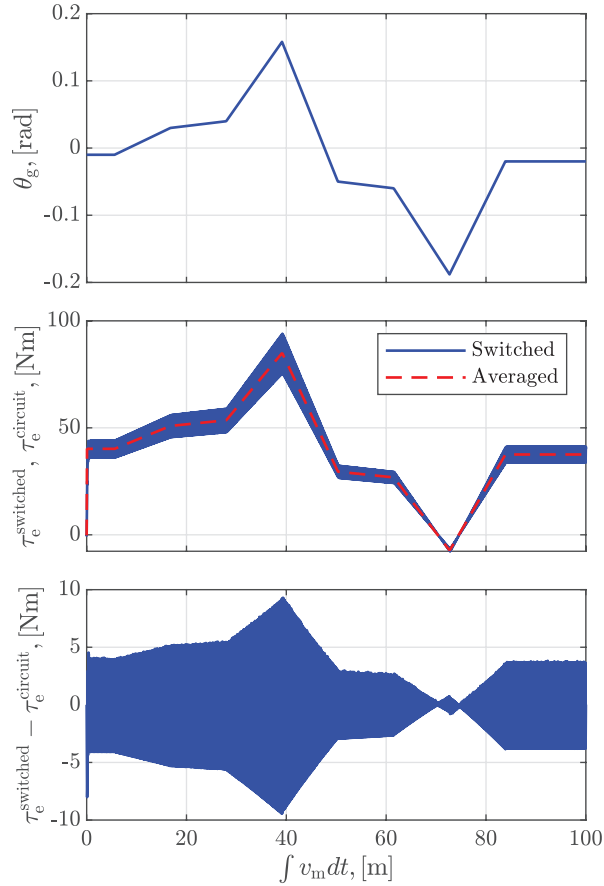
$$\mathcal{E}_q(s) = \frac{z_{c,q}(s) z_m(s)}{(z_{s,q}(s) + z_{c,q}(s)) z_{c,v}(s) + z_{c,q}(s) z_m(s)} \mathcal{E}_q^*(s) \quad (25)$$

$$= \frac{T_v(s)}{1 + T_v(s)} \mathcal{E}_q^*(s) \quad (26)$$

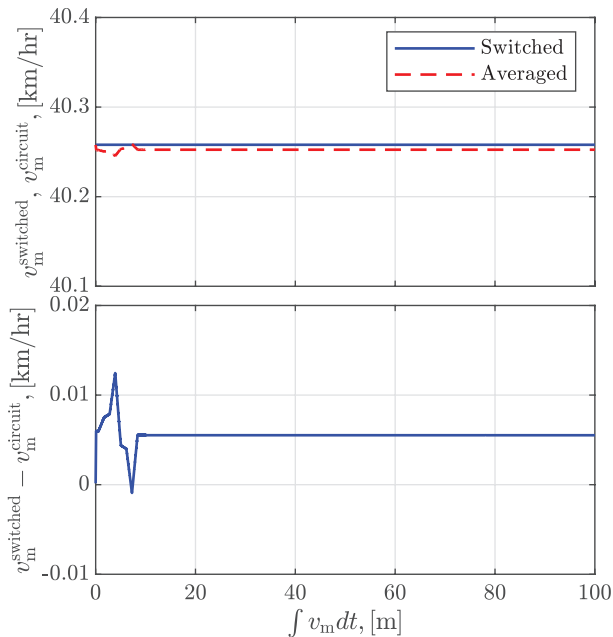
where the loop gain,  $T_v(s) := z_{c,q}(s) z_m(s) / ((z_{s,q}(s) + z_{c,q}(s)) z_{c,v}(s))$ , in (26) is a ratio of impedances. Note that the closed-loop relation in (25) resembles a voltage divider expression and was derived entirely through basic circuit manipulations. The result in (25) may be expressed in terms of mechanical speeds (i.e.,  $\omega_m$  and  $\omega_m^*$ ) by simply multiplying both sides by  $2/(\lambda p)$ .

## V. SIMULATION RESULTS

Here, we carry out a side-by-side comparison of, i) a conventional switch-level simulation that mirrors the structure



**Fig. 6:** (Top) Position versus grade data used in time-domain simulations. (Middle) Closed-loop torque profile for both switched and averaged equivalent circuit simulations. (Bottom) Difference between conventional switched and circuit-based simulations.



**Fig. 7:** (Top) Velocity under a fixed speed reference shown for the conventional switched and equivalent circuit simulations. (Bottom) Velocity difference between the two simulations.

**Table I:** Simulation Parameters for Case Studies.

$v_m^* = 40.25 \text{ km/hr}$	$L_d = 24.3 \mu\text{H}$	$L_q = 26.3 \mu\text{H}$
$R = 5 \text{ m}\Omega$	$\lambda = 33 \text{ mV s/rad}$	$p = 20$
$\beta_r = 80 \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{Nm s}}{\text{rad}}$	$J = 103.5 \text{ kg m}^2$	$m = 1000 \text{ kg}$
$\gamma = 10$	$r = 320 \text{ mm}$	$A_f = 2.20 \text{ m}^2$
$C_d = 280 \times 10^{-3}$	$f_v = 16 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s/m}$	$f_0 = 16 \times 10^{-3}$
$k_{p,d} = k_{p,q} = 3.14 \Omega$	$k_{i,d} = 15.3 \times 10^{-3} \frac{1}{\text{F}}$	$\rho = 1.23 \text{ kg/m}^3$
$k_{i,q} = 16.5 \times 10^{-3} \frac{1}{\text{F}}$	$k_{p,v} = 59.9 \times 10^3 \Omega^{-1}$	$k_{i,v} = 46.2 \text{ H}^{-1}$

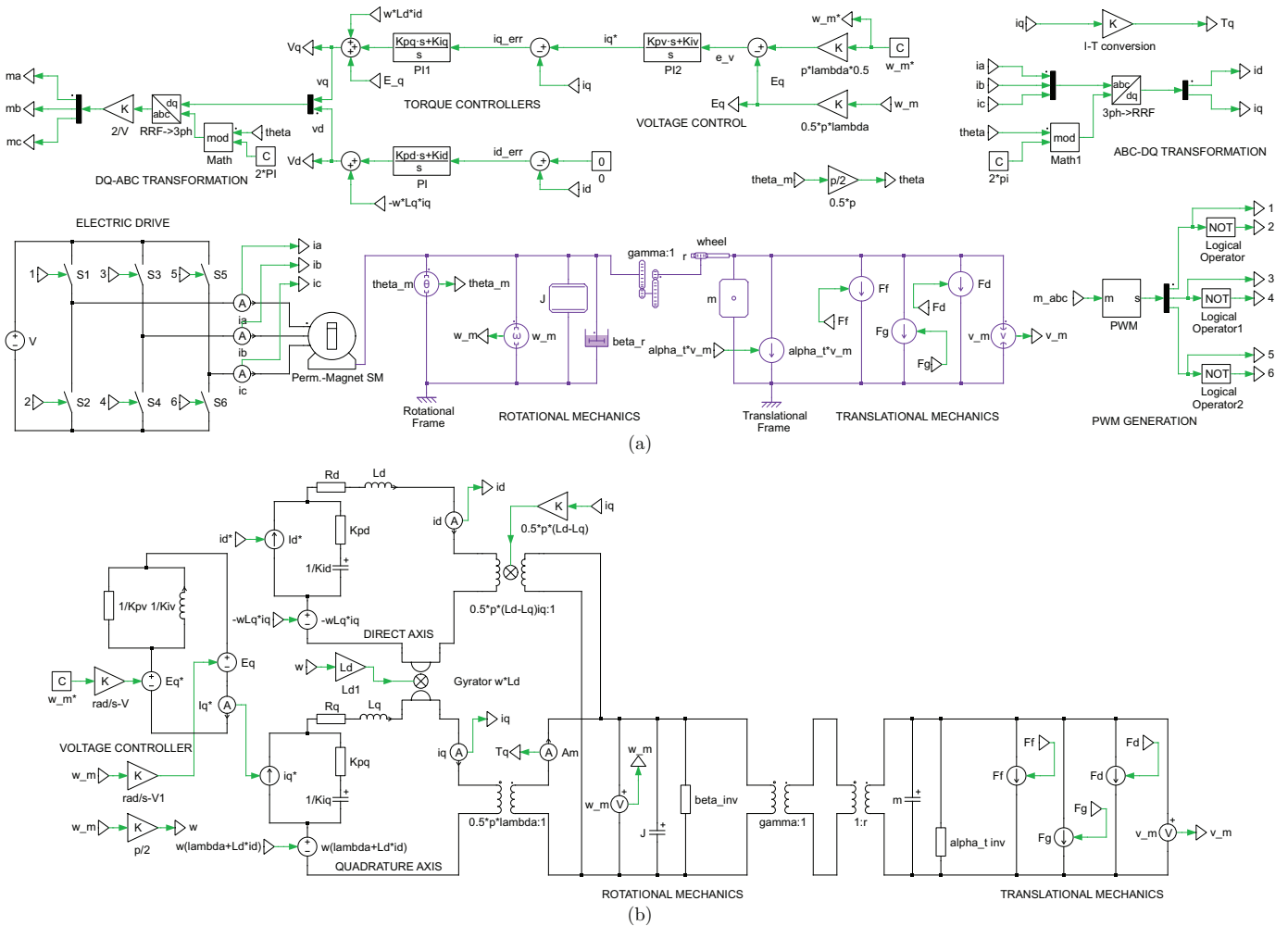
in Fig. 1(a), and ii) an equivalent circuit simulation assembled purely with basic circuit components along the lines of Fig. 5. Both simulations were carried out in PLECS software. The conventional simulation utilizes a standard control system block diagram, a synchronous machine block, and specialized blocks that capture mechanical behavior. In contrast, the equivalent circuit is assembled exclusively with *RLC* elements, transformers, a gyrator, as well as current and voltage sources. These two models are in Figure 8. We note that the gyrator and state-dependent transformer blocks in Fig. 8(b) have a mask and the internal structure contains coupled voltage and current sources. In both simulations, we modeled an EV with the parameters in Table I. The EV utilized a speed controller and was subjected to a terrain whose grade varied with position. Torque and speed waveforms for the conventional switch-level simulations are compared in Figs. 6–7, respectively. As illustrated, it is evident that the equivalent circuit captures all dynamics of the conventional simulation with the exception of ripple. It is also clear that the circuit representation elucidates system operation and bypasses the use of specialized machine and mechanical blocks which obscure low-level physics.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we established a multiphysics circuit equivalent that captures electrical, control, and mechanical dynamics in a unified setting. Our formulation hinges on the universality of energy across all known physics and careful application of circuit laws. The resulting circuit model allows for straightforward analysis of closed-loop dynamics using circuit tricks that are second nature to electrical engineers. The properties of the unified circuit equivalent not only give deeper insight into system operation, but also streamline closed-loop analysis. The utility of this model was demonstrated through an electric vehicle simulation where end-to-end (i.e., control-to-pavement) dynamics were captured in a circuit simulator.

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**Fig. 8:** The diagram in (a) shows a conventionally assembled switch-level simulation using machine and mechanics blocks which obscure internal details. Our circuit equivalent model in (b) reveals the multiphysics operation in a lucid manner using standard circuit elements.

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