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# Design and Comparative Analysis of Multiple MIMO Controllers for a Half-Car Suspension System

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ABSTRACT

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This paper investigates the design of multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) controllers for a half-car suspension system, aiming to enhance ride quality by minimizing displacement and angular deviations. The nonlinear equations describing the half-car model are derived, incorporating control inputs and road disturbances. The study explores centralized, decentralized, and semi-centralized (sequential) control strategies using proportional-integral (PI), proportionalintegral-derivative (PID), and  $H_{\infty}$  robust control techniques. The centralized PI and  $H_{\infty}$  controllers are designed using Markov parameters and sensitivity weighting functions, respectively. In the decentralized approach, control designs involve inverse decoupling, state feedback decoupling, PID tuning against disturbances, and mixed-sensitivity  $H_{\infty}$  optimization. The semi-centralized strategy sequentially closes control loops using a PID architecture. Extensive simulations are conducted with step and road bump disturbance inputs applied to the closed-loop system. Controller performance is evaluated based on displacement suppression, control effort, settling time, and robustness to external shocks. The proposed decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  controller achieves superior vibration attenuation to the picometer level while exhibiting strong disturbance rejection capabilities. The comparative analysis underscores the advantages of the developed control schemes over existing solutions, contributing to enhanced passenger comfort in automotive suspension systems.

# 1. Introduction

Active suspension systems for vehicle seats have garnered substantial research attention due to their potential to improve ride quality and isolate passengers from vibrations originating in the vehicle body and road disturbances [1]-[26]. Sophisticated control methodologies have enabled active seat suspensions to mitigate vibrations across a wide band of frequencies adaptively. Recent studies have developed robust optimization approaches to deal with uncertainties and disturbances for full vehicle models, such as multiobjective optimization [1], intelligent, active force control schemes [2], event-triggered  $H_{\infty}$  control [3], and event-triggered state feedback [4].

Significant work has also focused on control design and modeling for half-car suspension systems, including modeling and simulation [5], adaptive vehicle stability control [6], comparative analysis of techniques like PID, LQR, fuzzy logic, and ANFIS [7], feedback linearization, and LQR control [8], sliding mode control [9], and

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optimal state-feedback control [10]. Other robust solutions for full vehicle systems include a linear matrix inequality (LMI) technique for a semi-active electrorheological damper [11] and a methodology for general suspension parametric uncertainty [12].

Intelligent control strategies have also been explored for full vehicle systems, including fuzzy logic controllers [13, 14] and genetic algorithm optimization of fractionalorder PID gains [15]. A key application area has been offroad vehicle seats [16, 17], which experience aggressively uneven terrain and require vibration attenuation over large amplitudes. Investigations have tailored solutions to this setting through model-free control not relying on function approximation [18]. Unique actuator concepts have also been conceived, such as a prototype electromagnetic stiffness element enabling energy recovery [19].

Beyond advanced control techniques, modeling seat mechanical properties for full vehicle systems has received attention to capturing multi-linkage cushion dynamics [20] and seat-passenger coupling [21]. While most research has focused on vertical oscillations, some addressed multiple degrees of freedom have encompassing roll and pitch [22, 23] to better represent the rotation of real automobile seats over uneven ground.

Research has also explored the concept of fault tolerance [24] and time delay reduction [25] to advance the real-world feasibility of full-vehicle active seat suspensions. Moreover, alternative actuators have been tested. including sliding mode controlled electromagnetic suspensions [26], showing promise over conventional hydraulic or pneumatic schemes. The wide array of advanced solutions illustrates the extensive work towards refining active seat suspension performance and deployment capability for both full and half-vehicle models.

The controllers designed for the half-car suspension system to date are both intricate and tend to transmit significant displacements to the vehicle's floor. This paper articulates the equations governing the half-car suspension system, detailing the application of control inputs and disturbances. Subsequently, we present designs for centralized, decentralized, and semicentralized (sequential) controllers utilizing various approaches, including Proportional-Integral (PI), Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID), and  $H_{\infty}$  control strategies. The simulation results illustrating the car's floor displacement and angular changes are then provided, along with a comparative analysis against previous studies. The findings indicate a notable improvement in displacement performance relative to earlier methods.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 1 presents the state space and disturbance equations governing a half-car suspension system. In Section 2, we design centralized PI and  $H_{\infty}$  controllers, followed by the development of decentralized PI controllers using both a decoupling method with the inverse system matrix and a state feedback approach. Additionally, we explore the implementation of PID and  $H_{\infty}$  controllers. Finally, a semi-centralized PID controller is introduced. Section 3 provides the simulation results and comparative analysis.

# 2. System Formulation

The suspension system of vehicles has consistently garnered attention since its inception, as an effective suspension system that significantly enhances passenger comfort. This report focuses on a model representing half of a car's suspension system. When the suspension system is adequately designed, there is no need for spring seats to mitigate passenger vibrations; instead, the seat bases remain stable, effectively preventing any shaking. The half-car suspension system under consideration is derived from [27] and illustrated in Fig. 1. It has been optimized to achieve peak performance without control inputs, relying solely on optimization algorithms to identify optimal parameter values, including the stiffness coefficients of the springs and dampers.



Fig. 1. Half-car suspension system model

Vehicle suspension systems can be modeled as a quarter or half-vehicle model. Fig. 2 represents a modeling of a quarter vehicle suspension system which consists of a wheel and its attachments with mass (M<sub>w</sub>) and stiffness  $(K_t)$ , Sprung mass  $(M_b)$ , suspension stiffness  $(K_s)$ , and damping  $(C_s)$ . The excitation road input is a speed bump whose profile could be modeled as a cosine function as in (1).

$$y_o(t) = \begin{cases} -\frac{H}{2} \left( \cos\left(\frac{2\pi v t}{L}\right) - 1 \right), & 0 \le t \le \frac{L}{v} \\ 0, & t > \frac{L}{v} \end{cases}$$
(1)

where L and H are the bump's width and height in order, and v is the velocity of the car passing the bump.



Fig. 2. How to apply perturbation to a car wheel

The optimal performance of this system without control inputs in response to disturbances caused by a vehicle traveling at a speed of 60 km/h over a 0.5 m long and 10 cm high obstacle is illustrated in Fig. 3.



As illustrated in Fig. 3, the car floor experiences a displacement of approximately 7 cm due to the disturbance, which poses significant risks and discomfort for passengers. The objective of this paper is to mitigate these vibrations to around one nanometer or less.

The dynamic equations of the introduced system are shown in (2).

Fig. 3. The best performance of the suspension system with optimization algorithms and without control input.

$$m_{\omega f} \ddot{x}_{f} = -C_{sf} (\dot{x}_{f} + b_{1} \dot{\varphi} - \dot{x}_{b}) - K_{sf} (x_{f} + b_{1} \varphi - x_{b}) - K_{tf} x_{f} + K_{tf} x_{o1}$$

$$m_{\omega r} \ddot{x}_{r} = -C_{sr} (\dot{x}_{r} - b_{2} \dot{\varphi} - \dot{x}_{b}) - K_{sr} (x_{r} - b_{2} \varphi - x_{b}) - K_{tr} x_{r} + K_{tr} x_{o2}$$

$$I \ddot{\varphi} = -C_{sf} b_{1} (b_{1} \dot{\varphi} + \dot{x}_{f} - \dot{x}_{b}) - C_{sr} b_{2} (b_{2} \dot{\varphi} - \dot{x}_{r} + \dot{x}_{b}) - K_{sf} b_{1} (b_{1} \varphi + x_{f} - x_{b}) - K_{sr} b_{2} (b_{2} \varphi - x_{r} + x_{b})$$

$$m_{b} \ddot{x}_{f} = -C_{sf} (\dot{x}_{b} - b_{1} \dot{\varphi} - \dot{x}_{f}) - C_{sr} (\dot{x}_{b} + b_{2} \dot{\varphi} - \dot{x}_{r}) - K_{sf} (x_{b} - b_{1} \varphi - x_{f}) - K_{sr} (x_{b} + b_{2} \varphi - x_{r})$$
(2)

Similar to [28], by placing two control inputs in Fig.4 for the system in Fig.1, the state equations of the system change from (2) to (3). In practice, electrohydraulic actuators or permanent magnet linear motors can be used to produce the required forces  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  [11].



Fig.4. Half-car suspension model with control inputs

 $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu + Ed$ 

Table I. System parameters				
Parameter	Symbol	Value		
Body mass	$m_b$	1794 kg		
Body inertia	Ι	3443.5 kg m <sup>2</sup>		
Front-wheel mass	$m_{wf}$	87.15 kg		
Rear-wheel mass	$m_{wr}$	140.04 kg		
Damping coefficient of	$C_{sf}$	1190 N s/m		
front shock absorber	-,			
Damping coefficient of	$C_{sr}$	1000 N s/m		
rear shock absorber				
Front spring coefficient	$K_{sf}$	66 824.2 N/m		
Rear spring coefficient	$K_{sr}$	18 615 N/m		
Spring coefficient of the	K <sub>tf</sub>	200 000 N/m		
front tire	.,			
Spring coefficient of the	$K_{tr}$	200 000 N/m		
rear tire				
Front half-length	$b_1$	1.271 m		
Rear half-length	$b_2$	1.713 m		

$$y = Cx + Du$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \frac{-K_{sf}b_1}{m_{wf}} & \frac{-C_{sf}}{m_{wf}} & \frac{-C_{sf}b_1}{m_{wf}} & \frac{-K_{sf}}{m_{wf}} & \frac{-K_{s$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{m_{wf}} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{m_{wf}} \\ 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{b_1}{l} & \frac{b_2}{l} \\ 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{m_b} & \frac{1}{m_b} \end{bmatrix}, \quad E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \frac{K_{tf}}{m_{wf}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{K_{tr}}{m_{wr}} \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Table II. Optimized system parameters Upper bound The values of nominal and optimized system parameters Lower bound Optimum solution C<sub>sf</sub> K<sub>sf</sub> C<sub>sr</sub> K<sub>sr</sub> can be seen in Table I and Table II. 1000 2497.9 2500 As a result, the state space of the system is represented in  $10\ 000$  $70\ 000$ 28 949.4 the form specified in equation (4). 1000 2500 2494.5

10 000

70 000

11 115.7

By transforming the system representation from state space to transfer function form, the system is represented as shown in equation (5):

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} G_{11} & G_{12} \\ G_{21} & G_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$G =$$

$$G_{11} = \frac{0.00055741(s^2 + 3.451s + 16.27)(s^2 + 28.88s + 1448)(s^2 + 2295)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{12} = \frac{0.00055741(s^2 + 2.134s + 28.5)(s^2 + 10.81s + 1428)(s^2 + 29.28s + 2568)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{21} = \frac{-0.00036915(s^2 + 3.028s + 14.27)(s^2 + 28.86s + 1456)(s^2 + 2295)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{22} = \frac{0.00049752(s^2 + 1.877s + 25.05)(s^2 + 10.81s + 1428)(s^2 + 29.21s + 2575)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_d =$$

$$G_{11} = \frac{3195.3 (s + 11.59) (s^2 + 3.451s + 16.27) (s^2 + 28.88s + 1448)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36) (s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52) (s^2 + 28.87s + 1451) (s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{12} = \frac{1985.8(s + 4.456)(s^2 + 2.134s + 28.5)(s^2 + 29.28s + 2568)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{21} = \frac{-2116.1(s + 11.59)(s^2 + 3.028s + 14.27)(s^2 + 28.86s + 1456)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

$$G_{22} = \frac{1772.5(s + 4.456)(s^2 + 1.877s + 25.05)(s^2 + 29.21s + 2575)}{(s^2 + 3.239s + 15.36)(s^2 + 2.018s + 26.52)(s^2 + 28.87s + 1451)(s^2 + 29.24s + 2572)}$$

Investigating the open-loop behavior of the system and analyzing the poles and zeros leads that we are dealing with a stable and non-minimum phase system. In addition, an examination of the controllability and observability matrices indicates that all states are controllable and observable.

# 3. Controller Design

In this section, robust PI, and  $H_{\infty}$  controllers are designed in various ways such as centralized, semicentralized, and decentralized for the system (5).

# 3.1. Centralized Controller

## 3.1.1 Centralized PI Controller

First, a centralized PI controller for the system (5) is designed using Markov parameters. For this purpose, by calculating the CB and G(0) matrices of the system, Equations (6) and (7) are obtained:

$$CB = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \times 10^{-5} & \frac{3 \times 10^{-4}}{8} \\ -2 \times 10^{-5} & 0.35 \times 10^{-4} \end{bmatrix}$$
(6)  

$$\Rightarrow (CB)^{-1} = 10^{4} \begin{bmatrix} 2.4138 & -2.5862 \\ 1.3793 & 1.3793 \end{bmatrix}$$
(6)  

$$G(0) = 10^{-4} \begin{bmatrix} 0.1982 & 0.3832 \\ -0.1158 & 0.3015 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7)  

$$\Rightarrow (G(0))^{-1} = 10^{4} \begin{bmatrix} 2.8946 & -3.6796 \\ 1.1118 & 1.9036 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7)

$$W_{s} = 0.1 \begin{bmatrix} \frac{0.066667 (s + 11.45)^{3}}{(s + 0.2154)^{3}} & 0\\ 0 & \frac{0.066667 (s + 11.45)}{(s + 0.2154)^{3}} \end{bmatrix}$$

By considering design tips and choosing proper coefficient  $\varepsilon$ ,  $K_{P1}$  and  $K_{P2}$  examining the stability of PI controller coefficients, they will be in the form of (8) and (9).

$$K_{P} = (CB)^{-1} \times \begin{bmatrix} K_{P1} & 0 \\ 0 & K_{P2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 10^{4} \begin{bmatrix} 2.4138 & -2.5862 \\ 1.3793 & 1.3793 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
(8)
$$= 10^{5} \begin{bmatrix} 1.4483 & -1.8103 \\ 0.8276 & 0.9655 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$K_{i} = \varepsilon \times (G(0))^{-1}$$

$$= 0.2 \times 10^{4} \begin{bmatrix} 2.8946 & -3.6796 \\ 1.1118 & 1.9036 \end{bmatrix}$$
(9)
$$= 10^{3} \begin{bmatrix} 5.7891 & -7.3593 \\ 2.2236 & 3.8072 \end{bmatrix}$$

# 3.1.2. Centralized $H_{\infty}$ Controller

In this section, a centralized robust  $H_{\infty}$  controller will be designed with a sensitivity weighting function (10) and input weight function (11). The controller's transfer function matrix is determined as (12). The block diagram of this method is presented in Fig.5.

 $\frac{0}{\frac{0.066667 (s+11.45)^{3}}{(s+0.2154)^{3}}}$ (10)

$$W_{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-11} & 0\\ 0 & 10^{-11} \end{bmatrix}$$
(11)

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4.432e11\,s^{13} + 2.169e15\,s^{12} + \cdots}{s^{14} + 9959\,s^{13} + 4.956e07\,s^{12} + \cdots} & \frac{-3.935e11\,s^{13} - 2.168e15\,s^{12} + \cdots}{s^{14} + 9959\,s^{13} + 4.956e07\,s^{12} + \cdots} \\ \frac{3.863e11\,s^{+}13 + 1.751e15\,s^{+}12}{s^{14} + 9959\,s^{13} + 4.956e07\,s^{12} + \cdots} & \frac{4.447e11\,s^{13} + 2.293e15\,s^{12} + \cdots}{s^{14} + 9959\,s^{13} + 4.956e07\,s^{12} + \cdots} \end{bmatrix}$$
(12)

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Fig.5. Block diagram of centralized method

#### 3.2. Decentralized Controller

# 3.2.1 PI first method

In this method, it has been tried to decouple the system. However, due to the absence of matrix D, the system is strictly proper, making its inverse is impossible. To address this issue, a fast pole is introduced in the inverse of the system. Consequently, the product of G and  $G_{inv}$  results in an almost decoupled system.

To eliminate the steady-state error of the decoupled system, a simple integrator is employed along with an appropriate gain. This configuration ensures that the permanent error is effectively reduced to zero, as illustrated in the block diagram in Fig. 6. This approach simplifies the control design while maintaining robust performance in managing disturbances.

$$D_{d} = \begin{bmatrix} s^{2} & 0 \\ 0 & s^{2} \end{bmatrix},$$

$$B^{*} = D_{d}G = 10^{-3} \begin{bmatrix} 0.55741 & 0.55741 \\ -0.36915 & 0.49752 \end{bmatrix}$$
or
$$B^{*} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{1}AB \\ C_{2}AB \end{bmatrix} = 10^{-3} \begin{bmatrix} 0.55741 & 0.55741 \\ -0.36915 & 0.49752 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\bar{B} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{1}A^{2}B \\ C_{2}A^{2}B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 16.1368 & 1.3924 & 6.196 & 1.3905 & 9.896 & -0.6122 & -22.3328 & -2.7828 \\ -10.6867 & -0.9221 & 5.5303 & 1.2411 & -23.0562 & -3.2979 & 5.1563 & -0.319 \end{bmatrix}$$
(13)



Fig.7. Block diagram of the second decentralized PI method

# 3.2.3. Decentralized PID Controller

In the decentralized PID controller design, a controller is designed for the G<sub>11</sub> transfer function and a controller for the G<sub>22</sub> transfer function separately using the tuning block PID. This method does not consider G12 for the first output and G21 for the second output. Simultaneously, the G<sub>d</sub> transfer function is also the perturbation transfer function for the whole system. PID controllers' coefficients  $\left(P + \frac{I}{s} + \frac{DN}{1 + \frac{N}{s}}\right)$  of the first and second loops



Fig.6. Block diagram of the first decentralized PI

#### method

## 3.2.2 PI second method

In this method, the static state feedback matrix is utilized to transform the system's transfer function into a decoupling form featuring four poles at the origin. This configuration allows for the implementation of a controller, as illustrated in the block diagram in Fig. 7, to achieve zero steady-state error and rapid response speed. In this method,  $B^*$  and  $\overline{B}$  matrices are calculated according to Eq. (13) which leads the formulation of the controller as follows:

$$u = \left(B^*\right)^{-1} \left[-\overline{Bx}(t) + \upsilon(t)\right]$$



Fig.8. Block diagram of decentralized PID method

# 3.2.4. Decentralized $H_{\infty}$ Controller

In this section, the  $H_{\infty}$  method is employed to design a robust controller, wherein the disturbance transfer function and the two transfer functions G<sub>12</sub>, and G<sub>21</sub> are not included in the block diagram for the  $H_{\infty}$  code. Instead, similar to section 3.2.1, the inverse transfer

method is depicted in Fig.9.

function  $G_{inv}$  is utilized for decoupling the system. Subsequently, two Single-Input Single-Output (SISO) controllers are designed for the  $G_{11}$ , and  $G_{22}$  transfer functions using input weight functions as defined in

$$W_{s} = \frac{-0.1634s^{12} + 461/s^{11} + \dots}{s^{14} + 188.6s^{13} + 3.397e04s^{12}}$$
(15)  
$$W_{s} = 10^{-11}$$
(16)

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{5.21e08s^{15} + 9.137e12s^{14} + \cdots}{s^{16} + 3.778e05s^{15} + 1.956e10s^{14} + \cdots} & 0\\ 0 & \frac{5.21e08s^{15} + 9.137e12s^{14} + \cdots}{s^{16} + 3.778e05s^{15} + 1.956e10s^{14} + \cdots} \end{bmatrix}$$
(17)



**Fig.9.** Block diagram of decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  method

#### 3.3. Semi-Centralized (Sequential) Controller

In this method, the first control loop is closed by considering subsystem  $G_{12}$  in the presence of the interference effect of subsystem  $G_{11}$ , and then the second loop is closed by considering the first one. The pairing of inputs and outputs is similar to the decentralized method. That is, the second input should be used to control the first output, and the first input should be used to control the second output. In the next step, the second control loop must be closed, considering that the first loop is already closed. By considering the mentioned points and examining the stability of the system, the controllers are obtained as (18) and (19).

$$P = -9145780.33, I = -28291844.5,$$

$$D = -656903, N = 60598.27$$

$$P = 64285555.48, I = 437610052.9,$$

$$D = 2098265.71, N = 133350.2$$
(19)



Fig.10. Block diagram of Sequential control

#### 4. Simulation Results

As explained in Section 2, the understudying half-Car Suspension System is a stable and non-minimum phase system. The best performance of this system without control input against the disturbance caused by the passing of a car at a speed of 60 km/h through a 0.5 m long and 10 cm high obstacle is shown in Fig.3.

equation (16).  $H_{\infty}$  controllers of first and second loops are

described in (17). Additionally, the block diagram of this

In this section, the closed-loop system is analyzed using the PI, PID, and  $H_{\infty}$  MIMO controllers designed in the previous section. It should be noted that in all simulations, the control efforts (u) and its effect on the first (x<sub>b</sub>) and second ( $\varphi$ ) outputs.

Fig.11 shows the closed-loop behavior of the system with the designed PI centralized controller. As can be seen, the interference effect of the movement over the bump on the outputs at the second 3s has been well rejected. However, it still disrupts the car passengers because the displacement is about millimeters. Also, in less than 20 seconds, the controller can demonstrate its robustness against disturbance.



Fig.11. Simulation results of PI Centralized control

Fig.12 shows the output response with centralized  $H_{\infty}$  control, due to the nature of this type of controller, it has been able to have better performance with more control effort.



**Fig.12.** Simulation results of centralized  $H_{\infty}$  control

The response to the external disturbance by the PI controllers, with the decoupling method using system inversion and with the state feedback method, is depicted in Fig.13 and 14, respectively. As can be seen, the first method has reduced the displacement by about  $\mu$ m due to using the decoupler transfer function in addition to the PI controller. On the other hand, the second method has given the best answer among the other PI controllers due to the use of two closed loops. Thus, the movement will not be felt practically because it is about nanometres.



Fig.13. Simulation results of first decentralized PI control



Fig.14. Simulation results of second decentralized PI control

The decentralized PID controller shown in Fig.15 takes longer to reduce the displacement within the nm

range due to the lack of an additional loop or decoupling matrix.



Fig.15. Simulation results of decentralized PID control

Figure 16 illustrates the response of the decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  controller, which outperformed the other controllers in this study. As previously mentioned, the decentralized PI controller, utilizing the inverse method for decoupling, achieved a response of approximately  $\mu$ m with a simple 1/s and a gain. Consequently, due to the enhanced capabilities of the  $H_{\infty}$  method, superior performance was anticipated from this controller.



Fig.16. Simulation results of decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  Controller

The semi-centralized PID controller is depicted in Fig. 17. By employing the sequential loop closing method, this controller exhibits marginally better performance than the decentralized PID controller, particularly in terms of displacement reduction, although it requires slightly more control effort.



Fig.17. Simulation results of sequential PI Controller

# 4.1 Comparison

In this part, the designed controllers are compared in terms of controller order, Required Power, and the displacement's overshoot in the half-car suspension system. The brief results are shown in Table III.

Due to its simplicity, the centralized PI controller has the least order and control effort, and as a result, it has more displacement overshoot compared to others. Both decentralized and sequential PID controllers have low order. Moreover, both have reduced displacement overshoot in the order of µm. However, the sequential controller has reduced the displacement overshoot by about 15 micrometers by using power twice the decentralized control effort. While the first decentralized PI control has an acceptable controller order and control effort, it ranks third in terms of displacement overshoot reduction. The best performance among the controllers belongs to the second decentralized PI control, which has a little less control effort than the first decentralized PI method and reduces the displacement overshoot by about nanometers so that the passenger practically does not feel anything about the slips. Nevertheless, it should be noted that this method is a bit difficult to implement in hardware due to feedback from the system's states.

The order of the decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  controller is twice that of the centralized one, and the control effort is a little more. On the other hand, they are not comparable in terms of displacement overshoot because decentralized is around Pico meters, which suggests that no vibration or movement is noticeable for passengers, while centralized is around millimeters.

Table III.	Comparison	of the designed	controllers

	1	0	
Controller	Displacement's	Required	Order of
Colutollei	overshoot	Power	controller
Centralized PI	3 mm	0.8kN	2
Centralized $H_{\infty}$	1.5 mm	6kN	14
Decentralized PI-1st	70 µm	8kN	11
Decentralized PI- 2nd	25 nm	7.5kN	4
Decentralized PID	17 µm	8kN	2
Decentralized $H_{\infty}$	190 pm	8kN	26
Sequential PID	1.5 µm	15kN	2

As shown in Table III, the designed controllers in this paper have better performance than ref [6-8] because of their less displacement overshoot.

Regarding Table III, the best controller in this paper is the decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  method with acceptable control effort compared with previous research.

It is while according to Table 1, the mass, inertia, and stiffness of the springs of our system are much higher than the previous research. Thus, it requires more force to control.

Unscented Kalman Filter-based Super Twisting Control (UKF-STC) for a half-car suspension system is presented in [9], while an additional damper is considered. The comparison between this method and our proposed decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  control, in Table IV, shows that our best controller's Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) is much less than [9] as one of the latest research on this subject.

**Table IV.** Comparison between the proposed

decentralized $H_{\infty}$ and [9]			
RMSE (× $10^{-11}$ )	UKF-STC[9]	Decentralized $H_{\infty}$	
$x_{b}$	28.701	8.4467	
$\tilde{\varphi}$	77.269	2.498	

# 5. Conclusion

paper has presented a comprehensive This investigation into the design of MIMO controllers for the half-car suspension system to minimize displacement and oscillations. The nonlinear dynamical model was formulated, explicitly incorporating control forces and disturbance inputs from road surface irregularities. Centralized, decentralized, and semi-centralized control architectures were systematically developed using robust PI, PID, and  $H_{\infty}$  techniques. The centralized controllers demonstrated effective disturbance rejection capabilities but suffered higher displacement than their decentralized counterparts. Among the decentralized schemes, the  $H_{\infty}$  controller designed via inverse decoupling and mixedsensitivity optimization, achieves unparalleled vibration suppression performance and curtailing displacements to the Pico meter range amid external shocks. This outstanding attenuation stemmed from the controller's robust characteristics and appropriate selection of frequency-dependent weighting functions tailored to the disturbance dynamics.

The semi-centralized PID controller, leveraging sequential loop closures, offered a practical balance between displacement mitigation and control effort expenditure. A comparative evaluation against previous works substantiated the superiority of the proposed control methodologies, particularly the decentralized  $H_{\infty}$  strategy in improving passenger comfort under realistic driving scenarios. Despite the formidable computational complexity of certain designs, the meticulous treatment of system nonlinearities, input-output interactions, and exogenous disturbances contributed to their exceptional disturbance-nulling capabilities.

While the current study restricted its focus to the halfcar model, future research endeavors could extend these advanced control formulations to comprehensive fullvehicle dynamics. Incorporating additional degrees of freedom and practical implementation constraints would further enrich the real-world applicability of the developed schemes.

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