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# A FOPID based decentralised control system for vibration control of railway vehicle using hybrid optimisation

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**Abstract:** This paper proposes a 17-degree-of-freedom dynamic railway vehicle model integrated with wheel-rail forces and active suspensions. The passive response of the model is validated with the experimental results. Afterward, a decentralised control structure having fractional order proportional integral derivative (FOPID) controller has been formulated to mitigate the track disturbances. A novel metaheuristic optimisation technique named hybrid PSO-GWO has been proposed to provide the optimum force. The performance of FOPID controllers was evaluated in the time and frequency domain under the periodic and random track disturbances, and the results were compared against the passive system and classical tuning method. From the results, it is seen that hybrid PSO-GWO is more capable of reducing the vehicle accelerations as compared to other tuning methods as it can be able to reduce the lateral, roll, and yaw acceleration up to 77.81%, 75.29% and 63.74% under periodic and, 57.22%, 77.88%, and 69.58%, under random excitations.

**Keywords:** active suspension; decentralised control; FOPID controller; metaheuristic algorithms; power spectral density; ride comfort.

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# 1 Introduction

In recent years, commercial demand for comfortable and quiet vehicles has encouraged the industrial development to accommodate a balance of performance, efficiency, and comfort levels. Particularly, the noise, vibration, and harshness characteristics of railway vehicles, trucks, cars, and tractors are becoming increasingly important (Oesterling et al., 1999; Peng and Lines, 1997; Ranganathan and Mohan, 1997). Among them, the importance of railways to international trade and global development is self-evident. Over the past few decades, the railway industries have concentrated on increasing train speed while enhancing travel comfort and safety. However, faster trains and the presence of track abnormalities will significantly raise the vibration level, lowering the stability and pleasure of the trip. In order to improve ride comfort and safety, vehicle vibrations must be reduced. Two approaches can be used to address these vibration issues:

- 1 improving the state of the railway rails
- 2 improving the vibration mitigation system.

Since the track cannot be altered once built, the second strategy of improving vibration mitigation systems is more practicable.

According to prior research, three types of vibration mitigation systems are considered in car suspensions: passive, semi-active, and active (Karkoub and Zribi, 2006). A passive system comprises low-cost static springs and oil/pneumatic dampers. Despite the low cost and simple design, the passive system does not deliver acceptable control performances in terms of ride comfort or quality (Miller, 1988). A semi-active system, on the other hand, is outfitted with a variable gain damper filled with a rheological fluid whose viscosity changes when exposed to an electric or magnetic field. Electro-rheological (ER) and magneto-rheological (MR) rheological fluids are utilised in semi-active suspension and are responsible for variable damping (Rabinow, 1948; Winslow, 1947). Several previous research papers have discussed the use of ER and MR fluid in semi-active suspension to minimise vibrations (Choi et al., 1998; Sims and Stanway, 2003; Wang and Liao, 2009a; Wei et al., 2016; Wu and Griffin, 1997; Zong et al., 2013). The MR-based damper is the most successful because it generates more power and has a wider operating temperature range than an ER damper. However, the complex control techniques of a semi-active suspension system make it difficult to successfully suppress vibrations across the excitation's wide frequency range (Wang et el., 2009). Thus, researchers discovered an alternate vibration control method in the form of active suspension by realising the limitations of both passive and semi-active systems (ElMadany and Samaha, 1992). An active suspension system (ASS) combines the passive components with controller-controlled actuators that generate extra force (Wang, 2020). It can continually reduce the vehicle's vibrations over a wide range of frequencies and provide better ride comfort (Fu et al., 2020; Hrovat, 1990; Yoshimura et al., 1993).

Using various control structures and algorithms, the system controller calculates the amount of extra force required to suppress the vibrations. In the past, several research papers on traditional and innovative controllers to maximise the performance of ASSs have been published. These include the use of proportional integral derivative (PID) control (Afolabi Daniyan and Mpofu, 2019; Daniyan et al., 2019, 2018; Metin and Guclu, 2014, 2011), fuzzy logic control (Kalaivani et al., 2014; Sezer and Atalay, 2011), sliding

mode control (Choi et al., 2000; He et al., 2020), neuro-fuzzy control (Nguyen and Nguyen, 2017), model predictive control (Orukpe, 2013; Orukpe et al., 2008), optimal control (Olivier et al., 2021; Graa et al., 2018; Molatefi et al., 2017; Hrovat, 1993; Reina et al., 2016) and neural-network-based control (Atray and Roschke, 2004; Eski and Yildirim, 2009; Li et al., 2021). Because of its simple and durable performance under various operating situations, the proportional integral derivative (PID) controller is a favourite in modern control domains. The PID controller's performance is determined by the values of three parameters  $K_p, K_i$ , and  $K_d$ , which need to be optimally tuned according to the desired output. The traditional tuning methods such as Ziegler-Nichols (ZN) and Cohen-Coon (CC), which were previously thought to be the best, are now being supplemented by heuristic optimisation techniques because traditional methods may fail to provide the desired performance in terms of overshoot, settling time, and steady state error. Furthermore, if the order of the system increases, the performance of the PID controller may degrade. Because the real-world applications are well represented in terms of higher fractional order, these limitations of PID controller can be overcome by using fractional order PID (FOPID) combining with heuristic or meta-heuristic optimisation algorithms (Stephen Bassi Joseph et al., 2022).

Oustaloup et al. first put up the idea of FOPID controllers in 1991. It is a more sophisticated form of traditional PID since it has five tuning parameters  $(K_{P}, K_{i}, K_{d}, \lambda)$ and  $\mu$ ) instead of three, which allows for more design flexibility. Duarte Valerio et al. (Valério and da Costa, 2006) proposed two sets of tuning for FOPID using the same method as that of Z-N, and the results were successfully observed on first-order plus time delay processes. A comparative study of tuning FOPID in the time and frequency domain has been given by Das et al. (2011). The results demonstrate the superiority of the frequency domain technique over the time domain in terms of noise rejection and robustness. Cao et al. (2005) presented a GA-based FOPID controller for providing good dynamic response and stability in various systems. The successful implementation of FOPID using PSO, ACO, and GA for automatic voltage regulator systems (AVRS) has been reported in Babu et al. (2016) and Kim and Park (2005), respectively. Gad et al. (2015, 2017) employed GA to optimise the parameters of FOPID and PID used for semiactive suspensions, in which semi-active suspension with a human body model was used to investigate the influence of vertical vibration. Verma et al. (2017) use GWO optimisation to tune the parameters of FOPID, and the simulation has been performed for higher order and time-delay process. The effect of adding fractions to control the DC servo motor velocity has been analysed by Barbosa et al. (2010), in which the ZN tuning method was used to tune the parameters of the fractional order controller. The implementation of PSO-based FOPID for a second-order system has been successfully reported by Dastranj et al. (2012). A comparison of PSO and ABC-based FOPID has been performed for second order system with time delay (Bingul and Karahan, 2018), and the robustness of the controller has been checked by using different cost functions such as mean square error (MSE), mean time square error (MTSE). Alamdar Ravari and Yaghoobi (2019) proposed a chaotic firefly algorithm to tune the parameters of FOPID for a continuous stirred tank reactor (CSTR). The output shows better results than integer order PID in terms of overshoot, settling time, and steady-state error. Shivam Jain et al. (Jain and Hote, 2020) proposed a new technique for tuning FOPID using modified

ZN rules and a big bang crunch optimisation algorithm, and results are verified on different applications.

According to the literature, FOPID controllers with meta-heuristic optimisation have been employed for various applications, including chemical processes, motor speed control, sun tracking systems, vibration control, voltage regulation systems, and many more. However, just a few studies on FOPID have been published in the context of vibration control employing an ASS. Moreover, for a multi-input multi-output (MIMO) system, two types of control structures, i.e., centralised and decentralised, are reported in the literature (Luo et al., 2011). Whereas the majority of the research has been carried out using a centralised control structure, i.e., all data collected from an individual sensor is fed back to the central controller, this creates the problem of a large amount of data transmission at one time, as well as making the system complex. A decentralised or multi-loop control technique with a basic structure can solve the problem of massive data transfer (Lei and Wu, 2011; Lengare et al., 2012). As per the contribution of this study, a decentralised FOPID controller coupled with metaheuristic optimisation techniques for active suspension is provided, which is projected to deliver the best results that meet the need for enhanced ride comfort in railway cars. First, a 17-DOF dynamic model of a fullscale railway vehicle is created, complete with wheel-rail forces and active suspension. The governing equations of motion represent the translational and rotational motions of the car body, bogies, and wheelsets. Then, to suppress the vibration of the car body's lateral, roll, and yaw motion, a decentralised control system with three independent FOPID controllers is used. Two forms of periodic and random track irregularities, named lateral alignment and cross-level, are used as input to the vehicle to evaluate the control system's performance. To compute the optimal active force for the suspension system, a novel hybrid optimisation technique, hybrid PSO-GWO, was used. To validate the proposed work's performance, the FOPID is optimised using the ZN, PSO, and GWO, and the results are critically studied in the time and frequency domains. A comparison of the proposed metaheuristic algorithm and the passive system is also performed using root mean square (RMS) acceleration data. The analysis and simulation results based on the quadratic cost function reveal that the suggested controller performs well with optimal gains.

This paper is organised as follows: Section 2 focuses on the analytical model and experimental validation of railway vehicles with the track irregularities model discussed in Sections 3 and 4, respectively. The control scheme and structure adopted for vibration suppression are presented in Section 5, followed by Section 6, explaining the controller and optimisation approaches. The system responses based on the decentralised control structure are presented in Section 7. Then, the results and discussions are described in Section 8, and the conclusions are presented in Section 9.

# 2 Analytical model of the railway system

This section presents the dynamic model of railway vehicles, and state space models.

# 2.1 A 17-DOF dynamic model of a railway vehicle

The definitions of various symbols related to the vehicle body, bogies, and wheelset motion used in dynamic modelling are given in Table 1. In contrast, pictorial representations are given in Figure 1(a)–(c). The governing equations of motion of railway vehicle dynamics are presented as follows:

	-
Symbols	Definitions
$Y_c, Y_{ti}, Y_{wj}$	Lateral displacement of the car body, bogies, and wheelsets ( $i = 1,2$ & $j = 1,2,3,4$ )
$\theta_{c}, \theta_{ti}$	Roll displacement of the car body, bogie ( $i = 1,2$ )
$\phi_{c}$ , $\phi_{ti}$	Pitch displacement of the car body and bogie ( $i = 1,2$ )
$\Psi_c$ , $\Psi_{ti}$ , $\Psi_{wj}$	Yaw displacement of the car body, bogie, and wheelsets ( $i = 1, 2 & j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ )
$Y_{rj}$ , $oldsymbol{ heta}_{clj}$	Rail track disturbances ( $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$ )

 Table 1
 Various symbols used in the modelling







# 2.1.1 Vehicle body dynamics

$$M_{c} Y_{c} + 2 K_{2y} \Big[ 2 \big( y_{c} + h_{3} \theta_{c} \big) - y_{t1} - y_{t2} - h_{2} \theta_{t1} - h_{2} \theta_{t2} \Big] + 2$$

$$C_{2y} \Big[ 2 \Big( y_{c} + h_{3} \theta_{c} \big) - \dot{y}_{t1} - \dot{y}_{t2} - h_{2} \dot{\theta}_{t1} - h_{2} \dot{\theta}_{t2} \Big] = [F_{y1} + F_{y2}]$$
(1)

$$I_{Xc} \theta_{c} + 2b_{2}^{2}K_{2z} \left(2\theta_{c} - \theta_{t1} - \theta_{t2}\right) + 2b_{2}^{2}c_{2z} \left(2\dot{\theta}_{c} - \dot{\theta}_{t1} - \dot{\theta}_{t2}\right) + 2h_{3}K_{2y} \left\{2\left(y_{c} + h_{3}\theta_{3}\right) - y_{t1} - y_{t2} + h_{2}\theta_{t1} + h_{2}\theta_{t2}\right) + 2h_{3}c_{2y} \left(2\left(y_{c} + h_{3}\theta_{3}\right) - \dot{y}_{t1} - \dot{y}_{t2} + h_{2}\dot{\theta}_{t1} \mp \dot{\theta}_{t2}\right) = \left[h_{3}\left(F_{y1} + F_{y2}\right) + b_{2}\left(\left(F_{z1} + F_{z3}\right) - \left(F_{z2} + F_{z4}\right)\right)\right)$$

$$(2)$$

$$I_{Zc} \Psi_{c} + 2L_{b}K_{2y} \left( 2L_{b}\Psi_{c} - y_{t1} + y_{t2} - h_{2}\theta_{t1} + h_{2}\theta_{t2} \right) + 2L_{b}C_{2z} \left( 2L_{b}\Psi_{c} - \dot{y}_{t1} + \dot{y}_{t2} - h_{2}\dot{\theta}_{t1} + h_{2}\dot{\theta}_{t2} \right) + 2d_{s}K_{2x} \left( 2\Psi_{c} - X_{t1} - X_{t2} \right) = L_{b}[F_{y1} - F_{y2}]$$
(3)

# 2.1.2 Bogie dynamics (i = 1, 2)

$$M_{t} y_{it} + 2c_{1y} \Big[ 2\dot{y}_{it} - (\dot{y}_{w(2i-1)} + \dot{y}_{w(2i)}) + 2h_{t}\dot{\theta}_{it} \Big] \\ + 2c_{2y} \Big[ (\dot{y}_{it} - \dot{y}_{w(2i-1)}) - (h_{3}\dot{\theta}_{c} + h_{2}\dot{\theta}_{it}) - (-1)^{i} L_{b}\dot{\Psi}_{c} \Big] \\ + 2k_{1y} \Big[ 2y_{it} - (y_{w(2i-1)} + y_{w(2i)}) + 2h_{t}\theta_{it} \Big] \\ + 2k_{2y} \Big[ (y_{it} - y_{c}) - (h_{3}\theta_{c} + h_{2}\theta_{it}) - (-1)^{i} L_{b}\Psi_{c} \Big] = -F_{yi} \\ J_{xt} \dot{\theta}_{it} + 2h_{t}c_{1y} \Big[ 2h_{t}\dot{\theta}_{it} + (2\dot{y}_{it} - (\dot{y}_{w(2i-1)} + \dot{y}_{w(2i)})) \Big] \\ + 2h_{2}c_{2y} \Big[ h_{3}\dot{\theta}_{c} + h_{2}\dot{\theta}_{it} + (\dot{y}_{it} + \dot{y}_{c}) - (-1)^{i} L_{b}\Psi_{c} \Big] \\ + 2b^{2}_{1}c_{1z} \Big[ 2\dot{\theta}_{it} - (\dot{\theta}_{w(2i-1)} + \dot{\theta}_{w(2i)}) \Big] \\ + 2b^{2}_{2}c_{2z} \Big[ \dot{\theta}_{it} - \dot{\theta}_{c} \Big] + 2h_{t}k_{1y} \Big[ 2h_{t}\theta_{it} + (2Y_{it} - (Y_{w(2i-1)} + Y_{w(2i)})) \Big] \\ + 2h_{2}k_{2y} \Big[ h_{3}\theta_{c} + h_{2}\theta_{it} + (Y_{it} + Y_{c}) - (-1)^{i} L_{b}\Psi_{c} \Big] + 2b^{2}_{1}k_{1z} \Big[ 2\theta_{it} - (\theta_{w(2i-1)} + \theta_{w(2i)}) \Big] \\ + 2b^{2}_{2}k_{2z} \Big[ \theta_{it} - \theta_{c} \Big] = -F_{yi}h_{3} \\ J_{zi} \dot{\Psi}_{it} + 2d^{2}_{p}c_{1x} \Big[ 2\dot{\Psi}_{it} - (\dot{\Psi}_{w(2i-1)} + \dot{\Psi}_{w(2i)}) \Big] \\ + 2L_{i}c_{c} \Big[ 2L_{i}\dot{\Psi}_{it} - (\dot{Y}_{it}c_{1t}) - (\dot{Y}_{it}c_{1t}) + (\dot{Y}_{it}c_{1t}) \Big] \\ + 2d^{2}_{i}k_{i} \Big[ 2\Psi_{i} - (\dot{\Psi}_{i}c_{1t}) - (\dot{\Psi}_{w(2i-1)} + \dot{\Psi}_{w(2i)}) \Big] \\ + 2b^{2}_{2}k_{2z} \Big[ \theta_{it} - \theta_{c} \Big] = -F_{yi}h_{3} \\ (5)$$

$$+2L_{d}c_{1y}\left[2L_{d}\dot{\Psi}_{ti}-\left(\dot{Y}_{w(2i-1)}-\dot{Y}_{w(2i)}\right)\right]+2d^{2}_{p}k_{1x}\left[2\Psi_{ti}-\left(\Psi_{w(2i-1)}+\Psi_{w(2i)}\right)\right]$$
(6)  
$$+2d^{2}_{s}k_{2x}\left[\Psi_{ti}-\Psi_{c}\right]+2L_{d}k_{1y}\left[2L_{d}\theta_{ti}-\left(Y_{w(2i-1)}-Y_{w(2i)}\right)\right]=0$$

2.1.3 Wheel-set dynamics (i = 1, 2, while j = 1; i = 3, 4, while j = 2)

$$M_{w} y_{wi} + 2c_{1y} \left[ \left( \dot{Y}_{wi} - \dot{Y}_{ij} \right) - h_{1} \dot{\theta}_{ij} + (-1)^{i} L_{d} \dot{\Psi}_{ij} \right] + 2k_{1y} \left[ \left( Y_{wi} - Y_{ij} \right) - h_{1} \theta_{ij} + (-1)^{i} L_{d} \dot{\Psi}_{ij} \right] + k_{gy} \left[ Y_{wi} - Y_{ai} - R_{1} \theta_{cli} \right]$$

$$+ 2 f_{22} \left[ \frac{1}{V} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma R_{1}}{a} \right) \dot{Y}_{wi} - \frac{\sigma R_{1}}{V a} \dot{Y}_{ai} - \frac{\sigma R_{1}^{2}}{V a} \dot{\theta}_{cli} - \Psi_{wi} \right] = 0$$

$$J_{Zw} \dot{\Psi}_{wi} + 2d_{p}^{2} c_{1x} \left[ \left( \dot{\Psi}_{wi} - \dot{\Psi}_{ij} \right) \right] + 2d_{p}^{2} k_{1x} \left[ \Psi_{wi} - \Psi_{ij} \right]$$

$$+ 2 f_{11} \left[ \frac{\lambda_{e} a}{R_{1}} \left( Y_{wi} - Y_{ai} - R_{1} \theta_{cli} \right) + \frac{a^{2}}{V} \dot{\Psi}_{wi} \right] + k_{gy} \Psi_{wi} = 0$$
(8)

The definitions and values of various parameters used in equations (1)–(8) are given in Appendix 1, which are the same as in Singh et al. (2017). The state space formulation of the above system is given in the next section.

#### 2.2 State-space formulation

Let,

$$q = [Y_{c}, \theta_{c}, \psi_{c}, Y_{t1}, \theta_{t1}, \psi_{t1}, Y_{t2}, \theta_{t2}, \psi_{t2}, Y_{w1}, \psi_{w1}, Y_{w2}, \psi_{w2}, Y_{w3}, \psi_{w3}, Y_{w4}, \psi_{w4}]^{\mathrm{T}}$$
  
$$u = [F_{y1}, F_{y2}]^{\mathrm{T}}, \text{ and}$$
  
$$w = [Y_{a1}, Y_{a2}, Y_{a3}, Y_{a4}, \theta_{cl1}, \theta_{cl2}, \theta_{cl3}, \theta_{cl4}, \dot{Y}_{a1}, \dot{Y}_{a2}, \dot{Y}_{a3}, \dot{Y}_{a4}, \dot{\theta}_{cl1}, \dot{\theta}_{cl2}, \dot{\theta}_{cl3},$$

 $\dot{\theta}_{cl4}$ ]<sup>T</sup> be defined the displacements (linear and angular), control, and disturbance vectors, respectively.

Then the equations of motion, represented by equations (1)–(8) can be written in the following matrix form

$$[M]q + [C]\dot{q} + [K]q = [F_u]u + [F_w]w$$
(9)

where [M] ( $\mathcal{R}^{17\times17}$ ), [C] ( $\mathcal{R}^{17\times17}$ ), and [K] ( $\mathcal{R}^{17\times17}$ ) are the mass, damping, and stiffness matrices of the vehicle system; [ $F_u$ ] ( $\mathcal{R}^{17\times2}$ ), [ $F_w$ ] ( $\mathcal{R}^{17\times16}$ ) are the position matrices of control inputs and track disturbances acting on the railway vehicle body and wheels of wheelsets.

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = [A]x + [B_1]u + [B_2]w \\ y = [C]x + [D_1]u + [D_2]w \end{cases}$$
(10)

Now by defining the state vector as  $\dot{x} = [q^T \dot{q}^T]^T$ , the state and output equations of the railway vehicle system in the form of state-space are given as

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{I} \\ -M^{-1}K & -M^{-1}C \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{34 \times 34}, \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ M^{-1}F_u \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{34 \times 2},$$
  
and  $\begin{bmatrix} B_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ M^{-1}F_w \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{34 \times 16},$ 

are the system, control, and disturbances matrices, respectively.  $\begin{bmatrix} C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -M^{-1}K & -M^{-1}C \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{17\times34} \text{ is the output matrix with } \begin{bmatrix} D_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M^{-1}F_u \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{17\times2},$ and  $\begin{bmatrix} D_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M^{-1}F_w \end{bmatrix} \in \mathcal{R}^{17\times16}$  are the transfer matrices, respectively. The values of all coefficient matrices can be derived from equation (9).

#### 3 Validation of the proposed model with experimental results

The results of the proposed analytical model of LHB-FIAT coach with passive suspension are validated using the oscillations test experiment results (Indian Railway Technical Bulletin, 2013). In particular, RDSO conducted the test trials on a prototype LHB chair car (as shown in Figure 2(a)) to evaluate the ride comfort in a test speed range of 33.33–50 m/s (120–180 Km/h). In the measurement, accelerometers and displacement sensors are connected by a cable to the data acquisition system in the equipment cabin. During oscillation test trials, these sensors record acceleration and displacement signals on the wheelset axle-box, the car body's floor, and the test coach's bogie frame. RDSO/Sperling's criteria that were used to evaluate the ride index of coaches equipped with coil springs in the secondary suspensions is elaborated in the following section.

#### 3.1 Sperling's method

To evaluate the ride comfort of passengers,  $W_z$  (Ride factor) is introduced by Sperling is used (Dumitriu and Gheti, 2016). In this method, the vehicle itself plays the role of judge. Here the ride comfort implies that the vehicle is to be assessed according to the effect of mechanical vibration on the occupants.

The evaluation scale used for determining ride comfort is given in Table 2. Since the acceleration spectrum is a continuous function of frequency, therefore  $W_z$  is also a continuous function of frequency and is obtained by integration over the frequency interval of the human sensitivity range, i.e., 0–30 Hz. The following equation can be used to find the comfort index  $W_z$  in the frequency domain.

$$W_{z} = \sqrt[10]{\int_{0.5}^{30} a_{0}^{3} B_{s}^{3} \mathrm{d}\omega}$$
(11)

where  $a_0$  is the acceleration amplitude, and  $B_w$  and  $B_s$  are the frequency weighting functions determined as:

For lateral motion

$$B_{w}(f) = 0.737 \sqrt[2]{\frac{1.911 (2\pi f)^{2} + (0.25 (2\pi f)^{2})^{2}}{(1 - 0.277 (2\pi f)^{2})^{2} + (1.563 (2\pi f) - 0.0368 (2\pi f)^{3})^{2}}}$$
(12)

<i>Ride index</i> $(W_z)$	Comfort (vibration sensitivity)
1	Just noticeable
2	Clearly noticeable
2.5	More pronounced but not unpleasant
3	Strong, irregular, but still tolerable
3.25	Very irregular
3.5	Extremely irregular, unpleasant, annoying; prolonged exposure intolerable
4	Extremely unpleasant; prolonged exposure intolerable

Table 2Ride evaluation scale

The experimental and simulated implementation of riding performance in the lateral directions at a speed of 160, 170, and 180 km/h under loaded and tare conditions have been shown in Figure 2(b) and (c). Additionally, it should be noted that the values produced using the suggested model show greater agreement with the experimental data, with error ranges of 2.36–8.81% under tare condition and 5.84–8.30% under loaded condition.

Figure 2 (a) Field test photo of prototype LHB chair car and comparison of experimental and simulated ride comfort index under; (b) tare condition and (c) loaded condition (see online version for colours)







# 4 Track irregularities model

The leading cause of vibrations in the railway's vehicle body is the irregularities on railway tracks and wheel structure (Wang et al., 2019). These irregularities act as input excitation to the railway vehicle. There are three types of track irregularity, such as vertical profile  $(Z_r)$ , lateral alignment  $(Y_a)$ , and cross-level  $(\theta_{cl})$  are defined in the literature (Goodwin, 1987), which excite the vehicle's body in vertical and lateral directions. Out of which, alignment and cross-level are the primary cause of lateral vibrations. These irregularities can be periodic as well as random in nature.

# 4.1 Periodic track irregularities

The track irregularities can be broken down into harmonic components with the help of a Fourier transformation, in which the wavelengths possess special significance. At a particular speed and direction, the car body's lateral, roll, and yaw motion is excited by some wavelengths, as shown in Figure 3. These wavelengths can be described as 'critical wavelengths" for the speed (Lewis and Olofsson, 2006). According to this, the sinusoidal or periodic input function used for lateral motion is defined as

$$Y_a(t) = A_o \sin\left(2\pi \frac{V}{l_1}t\right)$$
(13)

where V is the velocity of the vehicle.  $A_o$  is the amplitude, and  $l_1$  is the spatial wavelength for lateral motion, respectively, as shown in Figure 3(a).





Similarly, the input function used for yaw motion is defined as:

$$Y_a(t) = A_o \sin\left(2\pi \frac{V}{l_2}t\right)$$
(14)

where  $l_2$  represents the spatial wavelength for yaw motion, respectively, as shown in Figure 3(b).

And a different input function is used for roll motion which is defined as:

$$\theta_{cl}(t) = A_o \sin(2\pi \frac{V}{l_3} t) \tag{15}$$

where,  $l_3$  is the spatial wavelength for roll motion as shown in Figure 3(c).

If  $Y_a$ , and  $\theta_{cl}$  are the excitations applied on the front wheelsets of railway vehicle, then  $Y_{a1} \sim Y_{a4}$ , and  $\theta_{cl1} \sim \theta_{cl4}$  are related by the following relation

$$\begin{cases} Y_{a2} = Y_a(t - \tau_1), Y_{a3} = Y_a(t - \tau_2), Y_{a4} = Y_a(t - \tau_3) \\ \theta_{cl2} = \theta_{cl}(t - \tau_1), \theta_{cl3} = \theta_{cl}(t - \tau_2), \theta_{cl4} = \theta_{cl}(t - \tau_3) \end{cases}$$
(16)

where  $\tau_1 = \frac{2L_d}{V}$ ,  $\tau_2 = \frac{2L_b}{V}$ ,  $\tau_3 = \frac{2(L_d + L_b)}{V}$  are the time delays between the front and consecutive wheelsets.

#### 4.2 Random track irregularities

The actual track irregularities are the superposition of harmonic waves of different amplitude, phase, and wavelength. Describing the random track irregularities is always convenient in the form of power spectral density (PSD), as given in equations (17) and (18), which are calculated by taking the Fourier Transform of the autocorrelation function as given in (Wanming Zhai, 2020).

$$S_{a}(\omega) = \frac{A_{a} \cdot \Omega_{c}^{2} \cdot V^{3}}{\left(\omega^{2} + (V \cdot \Omega_{r})^{2}\right)\left(\omega^{2} + (V \cdot \Omega_{c})^{2}\right)\left(\frac{rad}{sec}\right)}$$
(17)

$$S_{cl}(\omega) = \frac{A_v \cdot \Omega_c^2 \cdot V^3 \cdot \omega^2}{l_r^2 (\omega^2 + (V \cdot \Omega_r)^2) (\omega^2 + (V \cdot \Omega_c)^2) (\omega^2 + (V \cdot \Omega_s)^2)} \frac{m^2}{\left(\frac{rad}{sec}\right)}$$
(18)

where  $\omega$  is the angular frequency of the track measured in rad/sec and  $\Omega_r$ ,  $\Omega_c$  and  $\Omega_s$ are the cut-off frequencies taken in rad/m;  $A_v$ ,  $A_a$  are roughness constant taken in  $m^2 \frac{rad}{m}$ ; V is the velocity of the vehicle;  $l_r$  is half the distance between the two-rolling circle of the wheelset (m). The values of these constant factors and cut-off frequencies for different classes of track are given in Table 3.

Table 3 Roughness coefficients and cut-off frequencies for German track irregularities PSDs

				$A_{a}$	
Track class	$\Omega_c$ (rad/m)	$\Omega_c$ (rad/m)	$\Omega_c$ (rad/m)	(m <sup>2</sup> .rad/m)	$A_v$ (m <sup>2</sup> . rad/m)
Low	0.8246	0.0206	0.4380	2.119×10 <sup>-7</sup>	4.032×10 <sup>-7</sup>

# 5 Control scheme and structure

In this paper, a multi-loop or decentralised control structure is developed to suppress the vibrations of the railway vehicle, as illustrated in Figure 4. The developed control structure comprises three optimally tuned FOPID controllers that operate diagonally and work independently to control the lateral, roll, and yaw motion of vehicle body. Based on the error and command signal, the above three body motions are controlled by implementing two actuators. These two actuators are mounted horizontally above the front and rear bogies, which controls the vehicle body's lateral, roll, and yaw motion, as demonstrated in equation (19).

Above front bogie actuator = Lateral 
$$(u_1)$$
 + roll  $(u_2)$  + yaw $(u_3)$   
Above rear bogie actuator = Lateral  $(u_1)$  + roll  $(u_2)$  - yaw $(u_3)$ 
(19)



Figure 4 Decentralised control structure for railway vehicle

# 6 Controller and optimisation algorithms

This section describes the proposed FOPID controller and the different algorithms tuning the controller parameters.

# 6.1 FO-PID controller

Over the last decade, fractional calculus applications have shown a significant impact in the field of Engineering and Mathematics. Leibniz and L'Hospital, in 1695, first coined the idea of fractional calculus. Since then, fractional calculus has been an ongoing research area. Its applications in control engineering have attracted many researchers because fractional order differential equations better characterise real-world physical systems. Recent research studies show that fractional order controllers perform better than integer order controllers in terms of system performance and robustness. Fractional calculus is the main foundation of FOPID. Here, the differentiation and integration operations are collaboratively used in fractional order. The continuous form of integral-differential is defined as:

$$\alpha \mathcal{D}_{t}^{s} = \begin{cases} \frac{ds}{dt} & R(s) > 0\\ 1 & R(s) = 0\\ \int_{\infty}^{t} \mathrm{d}\tau^{-s} & R(s) < 0 \end{cases}$$
(20)

where s is the order of operation,  $\alpha$  and t are the confines of operation. Fractional calculus empowers the derivative and integral to be in non-integer order. There are several definitions available for fractional integral-differential operation.

In the fractional order PID, the integral-differential equation which defines the control action of the controller can be expressed as:

$$U(t) = K_{P}e(t) + K_{I}D^{-\lambda}e(t) + K_{D}D^{\mu}e(t)$$
(21)

Applying Laplace transform to equation (21), the control action of the FOPID controller is expressed in terms of the transfer function as:

$$C(s) = \frac{U(s)}{E(s)} = K_P + K_I s^{-\lambda} + K_D s^{\mu}, \, (\lambda, \, \mu > 0)$$
(22)

where,

- *C*(*s*) is the controller transfer function
- E(s) is the error
- *U*(*s*) is the output
- $K_P$ ,  $K_I$  and,  $K_D$  are the controller proportional, integral, and derivative gains
- $\lambda$  is the order of integration
- $\mu$  is the order of differentiation.

The fractional order PID is an extended version of integer PID achieved by fractionalordering the integral and derivative action, i.e., the FOPID is a sum of fraction operators, along with controller gains. From equations (21) and (22), it can be seen that FOPID has two more parameters (such as  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$ ) as compared to conventional PID, which provides additional flexibility in designing the control system. Also, the involvement of the two more controller parameters shows that the design procedure of FOPID consists of five nonlinear equations to be solved. The complexity of these five nonlinear equations is very significant, mainly because of the fraction orders. Considering the difficulties, MATLAB, with a suitable tool, could be a better choice for designing the controller. The proposed system's controller design uses the FOMCON toolbox with Oustaloup's analytical approximation technique described in Baranowski et al. (2015) and Lanusse et al. (2015). Many tuning methods are available for these five parameters, generally named rulebased, numerical, and analytical. Here, the following methods are used for tuning the optimum parameters of FOPID.

# 6.2 Optimisation algorithms

# 6.2.1 Ziegler-Nichols (Z-N) method

To tune the FOPID parameters, firstly, the modified form of the Z-N method proposed by Duarte Valerio et al. (Valério and da Costa, 2006) has been implemented, which comes under rule-based methods. The tuning rules of FO-PID are similar to that of conventional PID. Here, the step response of the plant assumes to have an S-shaped curve, as shown in Valério and da Costa (2006). From the curve, depending upon the value of L and T, two sets of tuning are established, given in Table 4, where L denotes the delay and T can be interpreted as the time constant. Here P (proportional gain) can be read as:

 $P = -0.0048 + 0.2664L + 0.4982T + 0.0232L^2 - 0.0720T^2 - 0.0348LT$ 

And so on

<i>Parameters to use when</i> $0.1 \le T \le 5$							
	Р	Ι	λ	D	μ		
1	-0.0048	0.3254	1.5766	0.0662	0.8736		
L	0.2664	0.2478	-0.2098	-0.2528	0.2746		
Т	0.4982	0.1429	-0.1313	0.1081	0.1489		
$L^2$	0.0232	-0.1330	0.0713	0.0702	-0.1557		
$T^2$	-0.0720	0.0258	0.0016	0.0328	-0.0250		
LT	-0.0348	-0.0171	0.0114	0.2202	-0.0323		
Parameters	to use when $5 \le T$	≤ 50					
	Р	Ι	λ	D	μ		
1	2.1187	-0.5201	1.0645	1.1421	1.2902		
L	-3.5207	2.6643	-0.3268	-1.3707	-0.5371		
Т	-0.1563	0.3453	-0.0229	0.0357	-0.0381		
$L^2$	1.5827	-0.1094	0.2018	0.5552	0.2208		
$T^2$	0.0025	0.0002	0.0003	-0.0002	0.0007		
LT	0.1824	-0.1054	0.0028	0.2630	-0.0014		

 Table 4
 Modified Ziegler Nichols parameters

The parameters obtained from these rules can be used as an excellent initial guess for the metaheuristic optimisation algorithms discussed below.

#### 6.2.2 Particle swarm optimisation (PSO) algorithm

In recent years, the PSO algorithm has emerged as a potential tool for solving a wide range of problems in control engineering. The PSO algorithm uses the nature-inspired mechanism of bird flocking or fish schooling with a targeted position in searching for potential food. Kennedy et al. (Slowik, 2011) proposed this algorithm in 1995, which uses the actions of swarm intelligence in which each particle focuses on finding the potential solution according to the given objective function. Each particle reaches its best position according to experience and awareness of the neighbouring particle they are going through. Due to its diverse nature, such as by changing its parameters and population size, PSO can be easily used with other heuristic algorithms. It uses in various kinds of applications, such as medicines (Eshtay et al., 2018), financial studies (Shie et al., 2012), structural studies (Hajihassani et al., 2018), communication engineering (Ganguly et al., 2010), and automatic control systems (Chang and Chen, 2014). In the control system, PSO is mainly used to solve the single or multi-objective function, which helps to get the desired transient and steady-state responses. The present investigation employed this algorithm to solve a single objective multivariable optimisation problem using for proposed vibration control structure. The pseudo-codes of this algorithm for the presently investigated problem are illustrated in Appendix 2.

# 6.2.3 Grey wolf optimisation (GWO) algorithm

GWO is a new optimisation technique developed by Mirjalili et al. (2014). The motivation for developing the GWO algorithm is inspired by the intellectual hunting tactics followed by grey wolves. Generally, grey wolves have well-defined groups of 10-12 wolves called packs, and the duty of each wolf in a group is defined in a particular way. It has four levels of hierarchy named alpha ( $\alpha$ ), beta ( $\beta$ ), delta ( $\delta$ ), and omega ( $\omega$ ) that guide the hunting process. The top level of this hierarchy, alpha ( $\alpha$ ), has a leader who dominates decision-making. The other two levels, beta, and delta, are the sub-ordinates that help the alpha to make the best possible solutions. In addition to this social hierarchy, the hunting of wolves is depicted in the following way: Search or advance the prey; encircle it and restrict its movement; finally, attack and kill the prey. The applications of GWO show tremendous results in the field of machine learning (Al-Tashi et al., 2019; Emary et al., 2016), medical or bioinformatics (Sharma et al., 2020, 2019), image processing (Li et al., 2017), and wireless sensor networks (Rajakumar et al., 2017). However, in recent years there has been an explosion in the publication that explores the use of GWO in control engineering applications (Debnath, 2016; Ren et al., 2022; Sule et al., 2020). In this paper, we use this algorithm to tune the five parameters of the FOPID controller that helps to achieve the desired output response. The pseudo-code of this algorithm used for the proposed control scheme is illustrated in Appendix 2.

# 6.2.4 Hybrid PSO-GWO algorithm

The metaheuristic algorithms work on the principle of randomisation, which employs a particular mix of local and global searches generally known as exploration and exploitation. Heuristics and metaheuristics are not defined in a way that can be checked or used as a standard. However, these techniques show significant results within a reasonable time by providing the optimum solution for integer order or less dimensional systems. But when it comes to the non-integer or higher dimensional world, it may get

trapped into local minimum points and can take ample time to provide the optimum solution. Therefore to address these problems, a novel hybrid PSO-GWO optimisation algorithm is proposed, which uses a diverse search strategy that balances the local and global searches. Also, the problem of higher dimensionality is reduced in the case of the hybrid algorithm as the three parameters ( $K_p$ ,  $K_1$ , and  $K_D$ ) of the FOPID controller are tuned with the help of PSO, and the other two parameters ( $\lambda$  and  $\mu$ ) are tuned with GWO. The functional flow diagram of hybrid PSO-GWO has been illustrated in Figure 5.



Figure 5 Workflow diagram of hybrid PSO-GWO

# 7 System response based on a decentralised control structure

In order to achieve better ride comfort, the acceleration response of the vehicle body in translational as well as rotational motion should be minimised. Thus, from equation (10), the controlled outputs are defined as

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_o \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_c, \psi_c, \mathcal{O}_c \end{bmatrix}$$
(23)

The relation between the first and last set of wheelsets is defined in equation (16). Therefore, based on this, let  $n = [Y_{a1}, \theta_{c1}, \dot{Y}_{a1}, \dot{\theta}_{c1}]^{\mathrm{T}} \cong [Y_a, \theta_{cl}, \dot{Y}_a, \dot{\theta}_{cl}]^{\mathrm{T}}$ and  $\hat{G}_{wn}(s) = [1, e^{-\tau_1 s}, e^{-\tau_2 s}, e^{-\tau_3 s}]^{\mathrm{T}}$ , Then we have

$$N(s) = G_{_{WI}}W(s) \tag{24}$$

where  $G_{wp} = diag \{ \hat{G}_{wn}(s), \hat{G}_{wn}(s), \hat{G}_{wn}(s), \hat{G}_{wn}(s) \}$ 

Thus, from equations (10), (23), and (24), the two transfer function matrix, i.e., between the inputs and outputs of the system, can be evaluated as

$$P(s) = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11}(s) & \cdots & p_{1n}(s) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{n1}(s) & \cdots & p_{nn}(s) \end{bmatrix}; \quad G(s) = \begin{bmatrix} g_{11}(s) & \cdots & g_{1n}(s) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ g_{n1}(s) & \cdots & g_{nn}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
(25)

where,  $[P(s)]^{n \times n}$  represents the disturbance transfer function matrix having *n* no. of disturbance inputs and *n* no. of outputs, and  $[G(s)]^{n \times n}$  is a system transfer function matrix having *n* no. of control inputs and *n* no. of outputs.

Now, for a  $n \times n$  control system, where the interaction between the various control loop is mild, in that case, the transfer function matrix for the decentralised controller can be represented as

$$C(s) = \frac{U(s)}{E(s)} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11}(s) & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & c_{22}(s) \dots & 0\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots\\ 0 & 0 & \dots & c_{nn}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$
(26)

The single-loop structure of the regulatory feedback system is shown in Figure 6. The closed-loop transfer function between the input and output is

$$T(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{W(s)} = [1 + p(s)c(s)g(s)]^{-1}p(s)$$
(27)

Likewise, the overall transfer function matrix of the decentralised control system can be written as follows:

- 1

$$H(s) = diag[(1 + p_{11}(s)c_{11}(s)g_{11}(s)]^{-1} p_{11}(s));$$
  
(1 + p\_{22}(s)c\_{22}(s)g\_{22}(s)]^{-1} p\_{22}(s)),..., (28)  
(1 + p\_{nn}(s)c\_{nn}(s)g\_{nn}(s)]^{-1} p\_{nn}(s))]

Figure 6 Single loop structure of regulatory feedback system



Now, if  $H_{nn}(\omega)$  is considered as frequency response function due to harmonically varying input of unit amplitude having frequency response function  $W_n(\omega)$  for  $n^{th}$  input with all other input kept at zero. Then output and input of the system in the frequency domain are related by the relation as

$$Y_n(\omega) = H_{nn}(\omega) \times W_n(\omega)$$
<sup>(29)</sup>

In the case of random input, the input is considered in terms of PSD, as stated above in equations (15) and (16). For the output response, according to the frequency response analysis (FRA) method, the output mean square spectral density  $S_y(\omega)$  is related to input mean square spectral density  $S_n(\omega)$  by the following relation

$$S_{y}(\omega) = \left|H_{nn}(\omega)\right|^{2} \times S_{n}(\omega)$$
(30)

where,

$$H_{nn}(\omega) = \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_n}\right)^2 + j2\zeta_n\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_n}\right)}$$
(31)

where  $\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_n}\right)$  is the normalised frequency, and  $\zeta$  is the damping ratio.

Then finally, the RMS acceleration response is calculated as:

$$a_0 = \sqrt{\int_{\omega 1}^{\omega 2} \omega^4 \cdot S_n(\omega) d\omega}$$
(32)

#### 8 Results and discussions

This section thoroughly evaluates the performance of FOPID based active suspension control system used for vibration mitigation of railway vehicles. The effectiveness of the controller tuned with metaheuristic optimisation algorithms was investigated in the time and frequency domain under periodic and random track disturbances, respectively. A comparison was conducted between the proposed FOPID control with the Z-N, PSO, GWO, and hybrid PSO-GWO tuning strategies. The improvement of proposed control schemes over the passive system was evaluated based on the following proposed quadratic cost function.

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{t_{f}} r_{1.} x_{max} + r_{2.} y_{max}^{2}$$
(33)

where x and y represent the maximum accelerations  $(ms^{-1})$  and maximum control efforts (N) of respective controlling states. According to the cost function, the lateral, roll, and yaw motions of the vehicle body can be regulated by changing the values of the coefficient  $sr_1$ , and  $r_2$ . The appropriate choices of the coefficients for translational and angular motion have been provided in Table 5. The various parameters of railway

vehicle, and track used in this study have been given in Appendix 1. The simulation has been done in MATLAB/SIMULINK environment using the FOMCON toolbox with a maximum step size of 1e-3.

Motions	$r_1$	$r_2$
Lateral	0.030	1000
Roll	0.030	1500
Yaw	0.030	1500

 Table 5
 Different values of coefficients used in the cost function

The performance of an optimisation-based FOPID controller depends on how well the controller parameters are tuned within the constraints of the required objective function, which ultimately depends on the specific range of controller parameters. Thus, by taking the classical approach (Z-N) as training optimum parameters, this method can provide an excellent initial guess for controller parameters and be a benchmark in designing the FOPID with the other three metaheuristic techniques. The parameters required for implementing the proposed optimisation techniques have been demonstrated in the *Psuodo code* (Appendix 2). Each algorithm has been run ten times by setting the same number of iterations, particles, and other parameters of PSO, GWO, and hybrid PSO-GWO. Then, the best convergence graphs to find the optimum values of the FOPID controller using these techniques have been given in Figure 7. Also, the best optimum FOPID parameters  $(K_p, K_p, K_p, \lambda, \mu)$ , and the corresponding cost function  $(O_f)$ values for lateral, roll, and yaw motion, results from classical and metaheuristic tuning have been provided in Table 6. Figure 7 shows that although the convergence rate of PSO and GWO is substantially faster than the hybrid PSO-GWO, they have the problem of being trapped in local minima, as demonstrated in Figures 7(b) and (c) do not guarantee an optimum solution. On the other hand, despite the rate of convergence of hybrid PSO-GWO being slower than PSO, GWO; it still performs better for minimisation of the cost function ( $O_{\ell}$ ) as illustrated in Table 6, and also does not have the problem of getting trapped into local minimum points, which shows the efficacy of the proposed algorithm over PSO and GWO.

# 8.1 Simulation under periodic track irregularities

#### 8.1.1 Time domain responses of acceleration of the body

The first harmonic periodic functions are used as input disturbances to check the performance of an optimally tuned FOPID controller with metaheuristic algorithms. Let the parameters  $A_o$ ,  $l_1$ ,  $l_2$ ,  $l_3$  and V in equations (13)–(15) be 0.01 m, 18 m, 9 m, 18 m

and 50 ms<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which implies that the fundamental frequency ( $\omega = \frac{2\pi V}{l}$ ) for lateral and roll motion equals 17.45 rad s<sup>-1</sup>, and for yaw motion, equal 8.72 rad s<sup>-1</sup>. The time histories of open-loop output responses and the FOPID-tuned closed-loop responses for the accelerations of the vehicle body in all three modes (lateral, roll, and yaw) have been illustrated in Figure 8. Also, the RMS values, and the percentage improvement of RMS value of lateral, roll and yaw acceleration over passive system (open loop) are given in Table 7. The percentage improvement of RMS values using different tuning algorithms over the passive system has been calculated by using the following equation

% improvement of RMS = 
$$\frac{p_s - c_s}{p_s} \times 100$$
 (34)

where  $p_s$  and  $c_s$  are the RMS values of the passive system and different FOPID-tuned control systems, respectively.





(a) For lateral motion							
index	$K_P$		$K_D$	$K_I$	λ	μ	$O_f$
Openloop	_		-	-	-	-	_
Z - N	3.256e+03	7.8	01e+03	1.064e+04	0.015	0.072	_
PSO	2.716e+04	1.6	53e+04	2.224e+04	0.051	1.035	0.517
GWO	2.072e+04	3.2	73e+04	2.626e+04	0.114	0.575	0.477
PSO – GWO	4.273e+04	4.7	36e+04	1.635e+03	0.293	0.495	0.438
(b) For roll motion							
index	$K_P$		$K_D$	$K_I$	λ	μ	$O_{f}$
Openloop	-		_	-	_	-	_
Z - N	1.205e+	-04	3.011e+04	1.836e+04	0.052	0.074	_
PSO	2.056e+	-05	4.773e+04	4.263e+04	0.127	0.273	0.795
GWO	5.026e+	-04	4.544e+04	1.884e+04	0.166	0.174	0.199
PSO – GWO	4.835e+	-05	6.272e+04	3.021e+04	0.488	0.641	0.198
(c) For yaw motion							
index	$K_P$		$K_D$	$K_I$	λ	μ	$O_f$
Openloop	_		_	-	-	-	_
Z - N	1.873e+	-04	3.403e+04	3.463e+04	0.052	0.081	_
PSO	1.251e+	-03	6.516e+04	4.557e+05	0.078	1.027	0.480
GWO	1.982e+	-03	1.057e+05	2.560e+03	0.624	0.205	0.416
PSO – GWO	2.684e+	-05	3.362e+05	5.122e+03	0.361	0.963	0.378

 Table 6
 FOPID parameters and cost function values resulted from different tuning algorithms

 Table 7
 RMS values and % improvements of vehicle body accelerations under periodic track disturbances

(a) For lateral acceleration						
index	Open-loop	Z- $N$	PSO	GWO	PSO-GWO	
RMS Values	5.662e-02	2.826e-02	1.414e-02	1.271e-02	1.256e-02	
% improvement	-	50.08%	75.02%	77.55%	77.81%	
(b) For roll acceleration						
RMS Values	5.445e-03	3.386e-03	2.623e-03	2.848e-03	1.345e-03	
% improvement	-	37.81%	51.82%	47.64%	75.29%	
(c) For yaw acceleration						
RMS Values	4.380e-03	4.103e-03	2.944e-03	1.862e-03	1.588e-03	
% improvement	-	6.3%	32.78%	57.48%	63.74%	

In the case of lateral motion, from Figure 8(a) and Table 7(a), it is observed that the hybrid PSO-GWO technique provides better results over ZN and PSO when compared to the passive system as it can lower the lateral acceleration up to 77.81%, which is greater than the percentages achieved by ZN (50.08%) and PSO (75.02%). However, compared to GWO, the % improvement of RMS values with a hybrid algorithm is almost similar (approx. 77%). From Figure 8(b) and (c), it is worth observing that when compared to a passive control system, the percentage accelerations (RMS) of roll and yaw motion achieved with FOPID controllers employing the proposed hybrid algorithm are reduced by 75.29% and, 63.74%, respectively, which are comparatively more than other tuning methods as shown in Table 7(b) and (c), respectively.

**Figure 8** Time histories of vehicle body acceleration under periodic track disturbances: (a) lateral acceleration  $(Y_c)$ ; (b) roll acceleration  $(\theta_c)$ , and (c) yaw acceleration  $(\varphi_c)$  (see online version for colours)



Now, by using the FOPID controller (20), the control force u could be calculated, which is regarded as the desired force. For the different modes of railway vehicle, the desired force could be achieved with a hydraulic/pneumatic actuator or motor (Wang et al., 2015). Based on equation (19), the time histories of the active force generated by the optimally tuned suspension system to suppress the vibrations of the car body in three

modes are shown in Figure 9. Observing Figure 9, it can be seen that the FOPID with hybrid algorithm provides a balanced and optimum actuation force for all modes of vehicle, which satisfies all the parameters of the cost function. Moreover, the FOPID controller satisfies the constraints of maximum force  $(r_2)$  in all three modes (given in Table 5) because all the values of the corresponding cost function are less than unity.

From the simulation results shown and discussed in this section, it is observed that the improvement of acceleration of the vehicle body in all three modes using the FOPID controller tuned with three metaheuristic algorithms is remarkable as compared to the passive system and Z-N tuning approach. It is also noticeable that among the three metaheuristic algorithms, the controller tuned with the proposed hybrid PSO-GWO algorithm provides better attenuation than the controller tuned with the other two metaheuristic algorithms.

Figure 9 Time histories of active force for different motions of railway vehicle: (a) lateral motion  $(u_1)$ ; (b) roll motion  $(u_2)$  and (c) yaw motion  $(u_3)$  (see online version for colours)



#### 8.2 Simulation under random track irregularities

#### 8.2.1 Frequency domain responses of acceleration of the body

In order to illustrate the efficiency of an optimally tuned FOPID controller in the frequency domain, another track profile known as random excitation input has been

considered. Now, using equation (29), the power spectral densities (PSDs) of the vehicle body's lateral, roll, and yaw accelerations calculated from the open loop and closed loop control systems have been given in Figure 10. Also, the RMS values and % improvement of RMS values with different tuning algorithms over the passive system are also provided in Table 8.

**Figure 10** Power spectral densities of vehicle body acceleration under random track inputs: (a) lateral acceleration  $(Y_c)$ ; (b) roll acceleration  $(\theta_c)$ , and (c) yaw acceleration  $(\varphi_c)$  (see online version for colours)



In the case of lateral motion, observing Figure 10(a), it can be seen that the vibration attenuation ability of the ASS for the first and second resonant peaks is good with all tuning algorithms, but for the third resonant peak at the range [17–20] rad/s, ZN and PSO perform worse than GWO and hybrid algorithms. However, among GWO and hybrid algorithms, the performance of the hybrid algorithm retains the good attenuation ability as it can reduce the lateral vibration up to 57.22%, which is more than that of GWO and other tuning techniques shown in Table 8(a).

As for roll acceleration, from Figure 9(b), it is observed that the attenuation ability of the ASS tuned with three metaheuristic algorithms for the first and second resonant peak is superior to that of the passive suspension system and ZN tuning algorithm. Table 8(b)

shows that the RMS value of roll acceleration with the hybrid algorithm is lower than that of other tuning methods; the reduction percentage of RMS values is about 77.88%, which is the highest among all the tuning algorithms. Moreover, in the case of yaw motion, from Figure 10(c) and Table 8(c), it is also seen that an ASS controlled with an optimal tuned FOPID controller can reduce the yaw acceleration of the vehicle body by a large extent as compared to the passive system. However, among all tuning methods, hybrid PSO-GWO achieves a 69.58% reduction in RMS values of yaw acceleration. In contrast, the percentage reduction is only 32.35%, 58.71%, and 64.11%, as in the case of ZN, PSO, and GWO. Therefore from these simulation results, we can say that the ride quality of railway vehicles with ASSs controlled with an optimal tuned FOPID controller is significantly improved compared to the passive system.

(a) For lateral motion					
index	Open-loop	Z-N	PSO	GWO	PSO-GWO
RMS Values	1.221e-02	9.114e-03	7.230e-03	6.824e-03	5.223e-03
% improvement	-	25.35%	40.78%	44.11%	57.22%
(b) For roll motion					
RMS Values	6.475e-03	5.582e-03	3.662e-03	1.884e-03	1.432e-03
% improvement	-	13.79%	43.44%	70.90%	77.88%
(c) For yaw motion					
RMS Values	4.166e-03	2.818e-03	1.720e-03	1.495e-03	1.269e-03
% improvement	-	32.35%	58.71%	64.11%	69.58%

 Table 8
 RMS values and % improvement of vehicle body acceleration under random track disturbances

# 9 Conclusions

This work investigates an ASS for a railway vehicle controlled by a FOPID controller and optimised using a hybrid optimisation technique. A 17-DOF dynamic model of a fullscale railway car with wheel-rail forces and the active suspension was created, and its ride comfort results were confirmed using RDSO testing data. Two forms of periodic and random track irregularities, i.e., lateral alignment and cross-level, were used as input. After developing the dynamic model and irregularities methods, a decentralised control system with three independent FOPID controllers was used to suppress the vibration of the car body's motions. A unique hybrid metaheuristic method termed hybrid PSO-GWO was suggested to determine the optimum active force for the suspension system. The simulated results were compared with a passive system, classical (ZN), and two metaheuristic tuning algorithms (PSO, GWO). The car body's lateral, roll, and yaw accelerations under periodic and random track imperfections were investigated in both time and frequency domains. The following outcomes are encased by simulation and analysis:

1 The proposed hybrid algorithm (PSO-GWO) tuned FOPID controller provides the best trade-off between maximum acceleration and control efforts expressed in terms of quadratic cost function compared to PSO and GWO. In contrast, PSO and GWO

have a faster convergence than the proposed hybrid algorithm but have a trapping issue at the local minimum points.

- 2 Under periodic track disturbances, the time domain controller performance shows a significant decrement in the translational and angular accelerations of the vehicle body relative to the passive system. It was also noted that the suspension system controlled with a hybrid-tuned FOPID controller has comparatively better attenuation towards the vehicle vibration in terms of the percentage improvement in RMS values. It provides approximately 77.81%, 75.29%, and 63.74% improvement of RMS values as in the case of the vehicle's lateral, roll, and yaw motions, respectively.
- 3 Under random track disturbances, the success of the proposed controller has been tested in the frequency domain, and the results are critically analysed in terms of PSDs. It is evident from the results that the FOPID controller using metaheuristic algorithms provides better suppression results of resonant peaks at the extensive range of frequency. The percentage reductions in RMS values for the lateral, roll, and yaw motion were 57.22%, 77.88%, and 69.58%, respectively, compared to the passive system, which is higher than that of classical as well as other metaheuristic (PSO and GWO) techniques.

As a result of the above discussions, it is evident that the ASS with PSO-GWO adjusted FOPID controller demonstrates its usefulness in achieving good vibration attenuation capabilities for railway vehicles under both periodic and random excitations.

In further studies, the performance of an ASS can be enhanced with the help of a multi-objective cost function. Also, the controller parameters could be finely tuned with advanced metaheuristic optimisation techniques that can help to increase ride pleasure.

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#### Abbreviations

ABC	Artificial bee colony
ACO	Ant colony optimisation
ASS	Active suspension system
AVRS	Automatic voltage regulator system
CC	Cohen coon
CSTR	Continues stirred tank reactor
DOF	Degree of freedom
ER	Electro rheological
FOMCON	Fractional order modelling and control
FOPID	Fractional order proportional integral derivative
GA	Genetic algorithm
GWO	Grey wolf optimisation
MIMO	Multi input multi output
MR	Magneto rheological
MSE	Mean square error
MTSE	Mean time square error
PID	Proportional integral derivative
PSD	Power spectral density
PSO	Particle swarm optimisation
RDSO	Research design and standard organisation
RMS	Root mean square
Z-N	Ziegler-Nichols

Symbols	Values	Units	Definitions
$M_{c}$	41,600	kg	Mass of Car body
$J_{cx}$	$8.95 \times 10^4$	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Roll moment of inertial of car body
$J_{cy}$	$2.48 \times 10^{6}$	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Pitch moment of inertial of car body
$J_{cz}$	$2.52 \times 10^{6}$	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Yaw moment of inertia of car body
$M_t$	3200	kg	Mass of bogie
$J_{tx}$	3000	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Roll moment of inertia
$J_{ty}$	3000	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Pitch moment of inertia
$J_{tz}$	4280	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Yaw moment of inertial of bogie
$M_{w}$	1600	kg	Mass of wheelset
$J_{tz}$	4000	kg.m <sup>2</sup>	Yaw moment of inertial of wheelset
W	$1.25 \times 10^{5}$	Ν	Load per wheelset
$K_{2x}$	$1.6 \times 10^{5}$	N/m	Secondary longitudinal stiffness
$K_{2y}$	$1.25 \times 10^{5}$	N/m	Secondary lateral stiffness
$K_{2z}$	$3.08 \times 10^5$	N/m	Secondary vertical stiffness
$K_{1x}$	$4.2 \times 10^{5}$	N/m	Primary longitudinal stiffness
$K_{1y}$	$0.75 \times 10^{7}$	N/m	Primary lateral stiffness
$K_{1z}$	$1.10 \times 10^{6}$	N/m	Primary vertical stiffness
$K_{Gz}$	$1.25 \times 10^{5}$	N/m	Vertical gravitational stiffness
$K_{Gy}$	$7.5 \times 10^{3}$	N/m	Lateral gravitational stiffness
$C_{2y}$	-	N.s/m	Secondary lateral damping
$C_{_{2z}}$	-	N.s/m	Secondary vertical damping
$C_{1y}$	_	N.s/m	Primary lateral damping
$C_{1z}$	_	N.s/m	Primary vertical damping
<i>h</i> <sub>3</sub>	0.78	m	Vertical distance from car body centre of gravity to lateral secondary suspension
$h_2$	0.22	m	Vertical distance from bogie centre of gravity to lateral secondary suspension
$h_1$	-0.2085	m	Vertical distance from bogie centre of gravity to lateral primary suspension
$l_b$	9	m	Distance from car body centre of gravity to vertical secondary stiffness
$l_d$	1.28	m	Distance from bogie centre of gravity to vertical primary stiffness
$\lambda_{_{e}}$	0.05		Effective wheel conicity

Appendix 1: Various parameters used in modelling and simulations

$\sigma$	0.05		Wheelset roll coefficient
а	0.8751	m	wheelbase contact distance
$b_1$	1	m	Vertical primary suspension spacing
$b_2$	1	m	Vertical secondary suspension spacing
$d_p$	1	m	Lateral primary suspension spacing
$d_s$	1	m	Lateral secondary suspension spacing
$R_1$	0.4575	m	Vertical distance of lateral primary stiffness to track
$f_{11}$	$1.12 \times 10^{7}$		Longitudinal creep coefficient
$f_{22}$	$9.98 \times 10^{6}$		Lateral creep coefficient

# Appendix 2: Pseudo-code of PSO and GWO

PSO	GWO
Define objective function	Define objective function
$J(x_1, x_2) = \int r_1 x_1 + r_2 x_2 //\text{using equation (33)}$	$J(x_1, x_2) = \int r_1 x_1 + r_2 x_2$
Set known parameters of railway vehicle//	//using equation (33)
Appendix 1	Set known parameters of railway vehicle//
Parameter setting	Appendix 1
Lower Bound & Upper Bound	Parameter setting
$[K_{P}, K_{I}, K_{D}] = [10 - 10^{5}]$	Lower Bound & Upper Bound
$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda \\ \mu \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$	$[K_P, K_I, K_D] = [10 - 10^5]$
Population size $(N = 100)$	$[\lambda,\mu] = [0 - 2]$
Inertial weight $w_1(w_1 = 0.9 and w_2 = 0.4)$	Population size ( $N = 100$ )
$mertiar weight, w, (w_{max} - 0.5 unu, w_{min} - 0.4)$	Maximum iteration ( $T = 100$ )
Acceleration factors $(c_1 and, c_2 = 2)$	Initialisation
Maximum iteration ( $T = 100$ )	Randomly initialise Grey wolf population P
Initialisation	Initialise <i>a</i> , <i>A</i> and <i>C</i>
Generate N particles with random velocities( $v_i$ )	a linearly decreasing from 2 to 0
and particles $(z_i)$	$A = 2ar_1 - a$ , $C = 2r_2 // r_1$ and $r_2$ are random
Calculate the fitness of each particle in the swarm	vectors [0, 1]
Set iteration $= 0$	Calculate the fitness of each search agent
Update the <i>pBest</i> and <i>gBest</i> values	$X_{\alpha}$ = Best search agent
Update the position and velocity of each particle	$X_{\beta}$ = Second Best search agent
Set iteration = 1	$X_{\delta}$ = Third Best search agent
while t < T	while $t < T$
$w = w_{max} - [(w_{max} - w_{min}) \frac{iteration}{T}]$	<i>for</i> $i = 1:N$
	Update the distance and position of each
<i>for</i> $i = 1:N$	search agent

Calculate the fitness value $f_{i,j}^k$	$Dist = \left  C.X_{p}(t) - X(t) \right , X_{i} = X_{p}(t) - ADist,$
Update the velocity and position	$p = \alpha, \beta, \delta$ and $i = 1, 2, 3$
$v_{i,j}^{k+1} = w.v_{i,j}^{k} + c_1 r_1 \left( pBest_{i,j}^k - z_{i,j}^k \right)$	$X(t+1) = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + X_3}{X_1 + X_2 + X_3}$
$+c_{i}r_{i}\left(gBest_{i,j}^{k}-z_{i,j}^{k}\right)$	end for
$z_{i,j}^{k+1} = z_{i,j}^k + v_{i,j}^k$	Update a, A and C
Calculate the fitness $F_i^{k+1} = J(z_i^{k+1})$ , find the index	Calculate the fitness value $f$
of best particle	Update $X_{\alpha}$ , $X_{\beta}$ , and $X_{\delta}$
end for	t = t + 1
If the fitness increases then update the <i>pBest</i> and <i>gBest</i> value	end while
end while	Display the optimum solution
Display the optimum solution Guest	