
MEEN 432 –Automotive Engineering

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Lecture 8: Vehicle Longitudinal Dynamics

- Vehicle Dynamics
- Gears and Transmission

Vehicle Dynamics (revisit)

$$\bullet \begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_x \\ \dot{v}_y \\ \dot{\omega} \\ \dot{\psi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_y \omega + (F_{xWf}(\lambda_f) \cos \delta - F_{yWf}(\alpha_f) \sin \delta + F_{xWr}(\lambda_r) - F_{drag} - F_{gravity})/m \\ -v_x \omega + (F_{xWf}(\lambda) \sin \delta + F_{yWf}(\alpha) \cos \delta + F_{yWr}(\alpha))/m \\ ((F_{xWf}(\lambda) \sin \delta + F_{yWf}(\alpha) \cos \delta) l_f - F_{yWr}(\alpha) \cos \delta l_r)/I \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$

- Assume:
 - no lateral velocity i.e., $v_y = 0$; $\dot{v}_y = 0$;
 - Assume we don't care about heading for now.
 - Assume no steer i.e., $\delta = 0$
 - Then the remaining dynamics is the “longitudinal” dynamics:
- $\dot{v}_x = (F_{xWf}(\lambda_f) + F_{xWr}(\lambda_r) - F_{drag} - F_{gravity})/m$
- We talked about the tire force component in detail – namely F_{xWf} and F_{xWr}
- Next we will talk about the drag: F_{drag}

(Simple) Longitudinal Dynamics Model

- The Vehicle is treated as one single rigid body
 - Assume no pitching, heave independent of road
 - Assume no lateral movement
 - Assume single axle drive
- Vehicle Dynamics
 - $m a = m \dot{v} = F_x - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$
 - $F_{drag} = c_0 + c_1 v_x + c_2 v_x^2$
- We will assume that vehicle is in contact with the road, and thus grade is a function of position on road:
 - $\theta = f_{road}(X)$



- m - mass of the vehicle
- a - longitudinal acceleration
- F_x - axle tractive force
- F_{drag} - drag force on vehicle (includes aero drag and rolling resistance)
 - c_0, c_1, c_2 are coefficients
- τ, τ_b drive torque and brake torque
- r effective tire radius
- $\dot{\omega}$ is the angular acceleration at the front or the rear wheel
- I_{PT}, I_w Inertia of the upstream powertrain and the wheels
- θ grade

(Simple) Longitudinal Dynamics Model

- Aerodynamic Drag

- $c_2 = \frac{1}{2} \rho A C_d$

- ρ is the density of air (where you drive)
- A is the “projected” frontal area of the vehicle (style, shape)
- C_d is the drag coefficient (style, shape, roughness of surface, ..)



- Also, it should be noted that the drag is based on “relative velocity”

- If there is a head wind velocity v_w then drag force is:
- $\frac{1}{2} \rho A C_d (v_x + v_w)^2$

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(Simple) Longitudinal Dynamics Model

- Rolling Resistance

- c_1

- Its nature is slightly different from viscous damping
 - It is because of the energy loss due to constant compression and release of the tires as they roll

- c_0

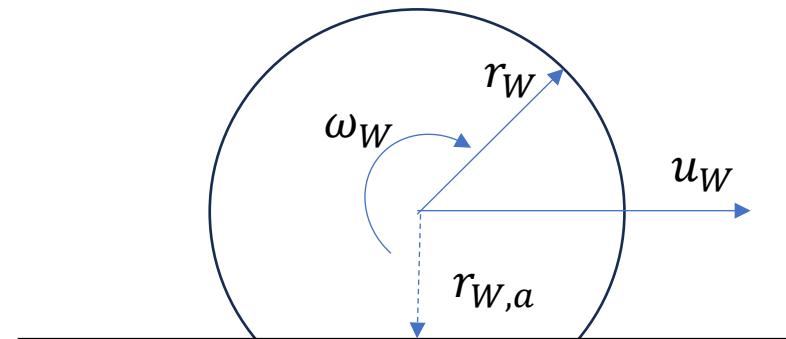
- This refers to the coulombic friction throughout the powertrain reflected at the vehicle. Note that this force is always opposite the motion direction.
 - When at rest, there is no “net” force component from the c_0 term



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Longitudinal Force (Recall)

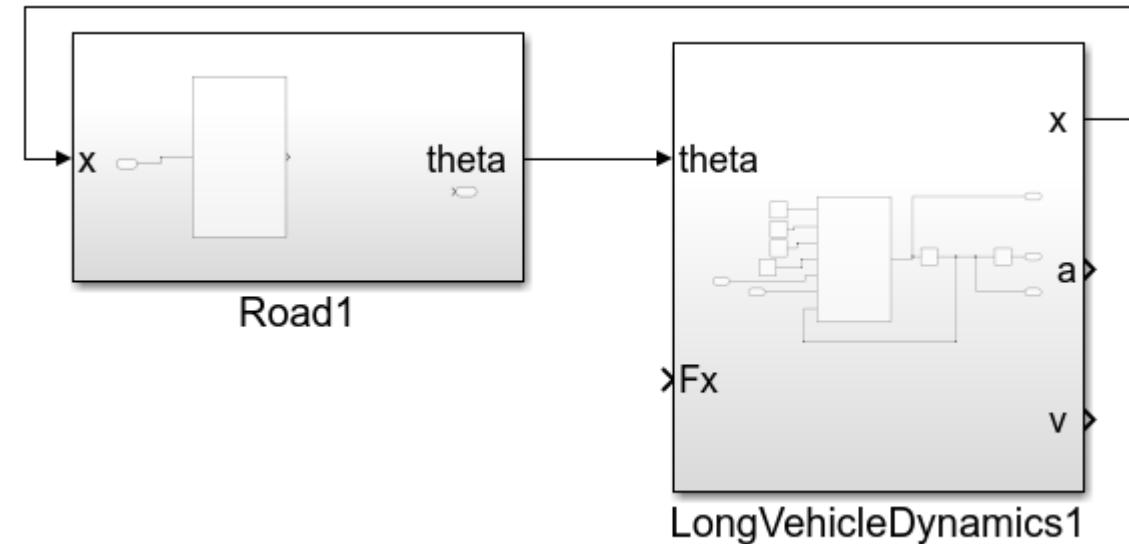
- Consider a tire of radius r_W rotating about its axis at angular speed ω_W with linear speed of u_W at its axis
- If the tire was rolling without any deflections, the velocity at the axle “would” have been $r_W\omega_W$
- However, because the tire deforms, there is an “apparent” radius $r_{W,a}$ less than r_W
- This in turn creates an “apparent slip” given by $r_W\omega_W - u_W$
 - When accelerating $r_W\omega_W - u_W \geq 0$
 - When decelerating $r_W\omega_W - u_W < 0$



- The longitudinal force F_{x_w} is created by the shear stress due to the tire deformations.
- This is a complex relation, that depends on the material properties and design of the tire, as well as environmental conditions
- In practice, F_{x_w} is “characterized” as a function of the apparent slip

Longitudinal Dynamics Model

- Vehicle longitudinal dynamics is a straightforward implementation of the \dot{v} equation
- Road grade can be implemented as a function of the position
 - Often table lookups are used
 - For Project 3, you will assume no road grade!

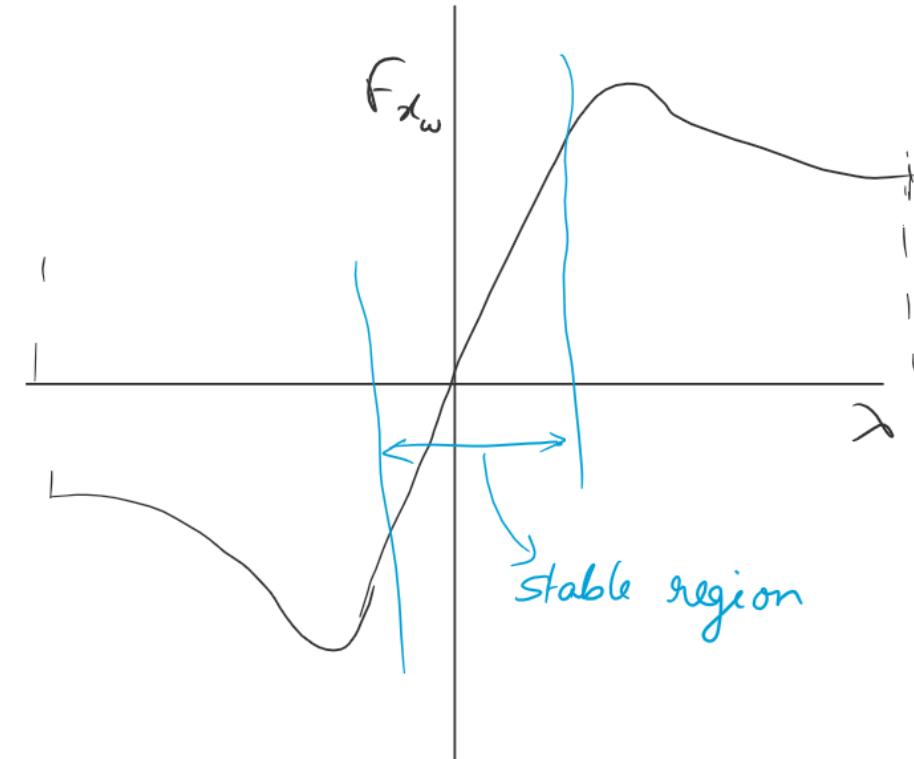


Tire “slip ratio” (Recall)

- To characterize the “apparent” slip, we define a “tire slip ratio” λ

$$\lambda := \begin{cases} \frac{(r_W \omega_W - u_W)}{r_W \omega_W} & \text{when accelerating} \\ \frac{(r_W \omega_W - u_W)}{u_W} & \text{when braking} \end{cases}$$

- Then the longitudinal force F_{x_W} is characterized as a function of λ
 - This function is determined experimentally, and many functions are used to “fit” the data
 - E.g. “Pacheka’s Tire model” is a popular curve fit
 - In general, the shape of the curve is as shown:

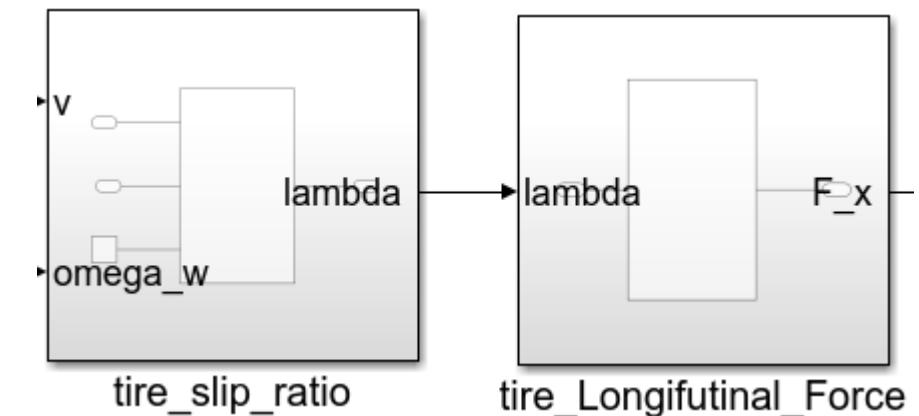


Small slip-ratio approximation (Recall)

- When tire slip ratio is small, we can approximate the curve by a straight line:
 - $F_{x_W} = C_\lambda \lambda$
 - C_λ is sometimes called the longitudinal tire stiffness
- The value of C_λ is a function of
 - the tire material,
 - tire design,
 - the surface on which the tire is traveling
 - the normal force on tires.
- For our purposes, it is convenient to write the stiffness as
 - $C_\lambda = \bar{C}_\lambda \mu N$ where
 - \bar{C}_λ is the normalized tire stiffness,
 - μ is a friction factor ($\mu = 1$ for high friction, $\mu \ll 1$ for low friction),
 - N is the normal load on the tire
- It is more realistic to saturate the achievable traction force by a maximum:
 - $\lambda = \lambda_{orig}$ if $|\lambda_{orig}| < \lambda_{max}$
 - $\lambda = \lambda_{max} \operatorname{sgn} \lambda_{orig}$

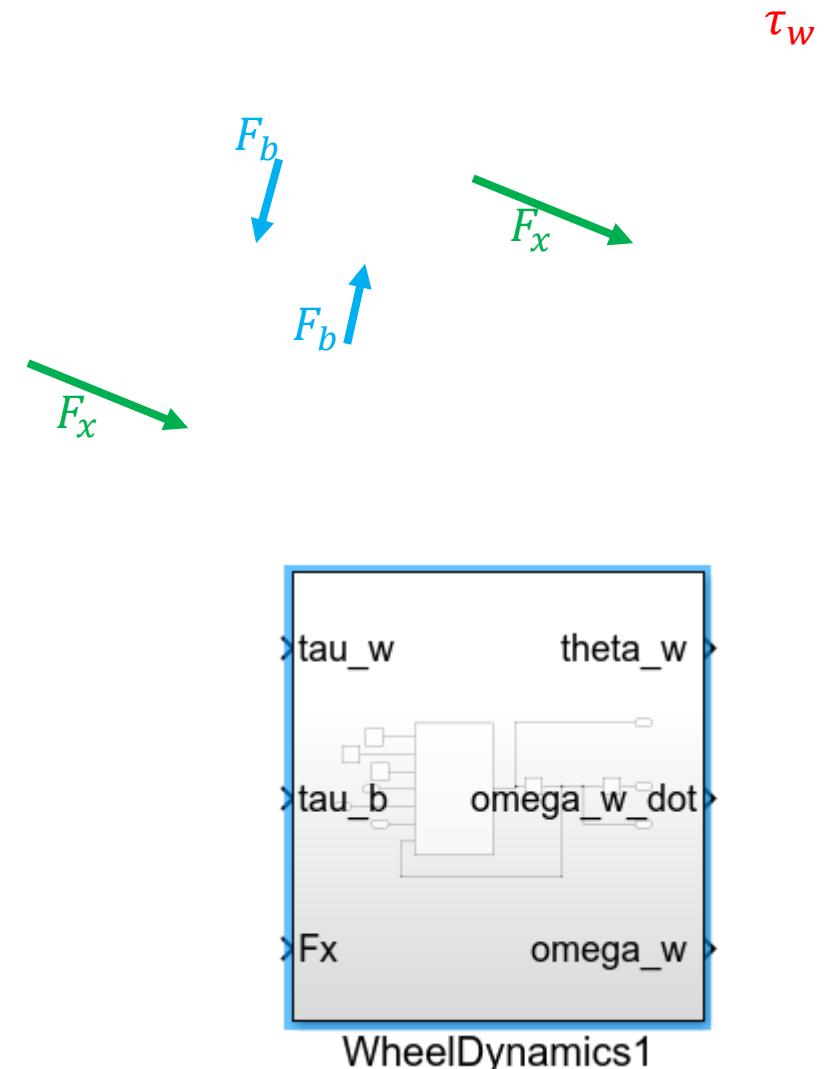
Tire Model

- Tire slip ratio and the longitudinal tire force are calculated directly from the equations
- Tire slip ratio calculation is numerically sensitive when speeds are low, so you use different approximation techniques.
 - Example:
 - $\frac{(r_W \omega_W - u_W)}{r_W \omega_W + \epsilon_1 \epsilon^{-|\omega_W|}}$ for small $\epsilon_1, \epsilon > 0$
- Tire longitudinal force calculation is approximated by two straight lines (similar to lateral force)
 - Initial linear increase with λ , then a constant maximum



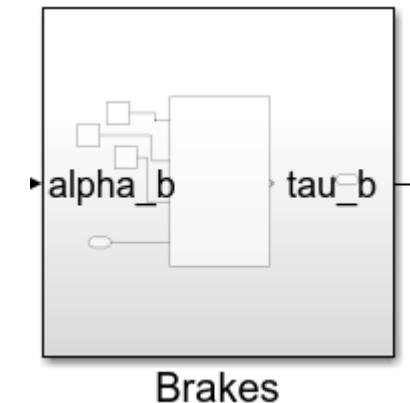
Axle, Brakes and Wheel

- The tire force depends on λ , which in turn depends on the wheel angular velocity ω_W and the linear velocity of its center v_x
- The angular velocity of the wheel is governed by the total torque on the wheel:
 - $I_W \dot{\omega}_W = \Sigma M_w = \tau_w - F_x r_W - F_b r_b = \tau_w - \tau_b - F_x r_W$
- The total torque on the wheel has the following components:
 - τ_w is the axle torque coming from the powertrain
 - F_x is the tractive force from the tire
 - r_W is the wheel radius
 - F_b is the effective tangential braking force (for disk brakes)
 - r_W is the effective disk brake radius
 - τ_b is the more general brake torque



Brake Torque

- Many braking mechanisms possible, but we will consider a disk braking system that just applies a normal force between a pad and the disk on the wheel
 - Force is primarily Couloumbic
- Brake can be in two states: “Locked (L)” or “Unlocked (U)”
- When Locked:
 - $\tau_b = \tau_a$ Braking torque is equal to applied torque
- When Unlocked:
 - $\tau_b = \mu_b N_b g_b \operatorname{sgn} \omega_w$ with $N_b := \alpha_b N_{b,max}$
 - where
 - $N_{b,max}$ is the maximum brake normal force achievable
 - g_b is a geometric design factor (that depends on the size and location of the pads relative to the disk)
 - μ_b is the friction on the pad (function of material, design, and usage)
 - α_b is a percent command of the maximum available brake – this is directly related to the brake pedal push
 - this is one of the control inputs for longitudinal vehicle dynamics

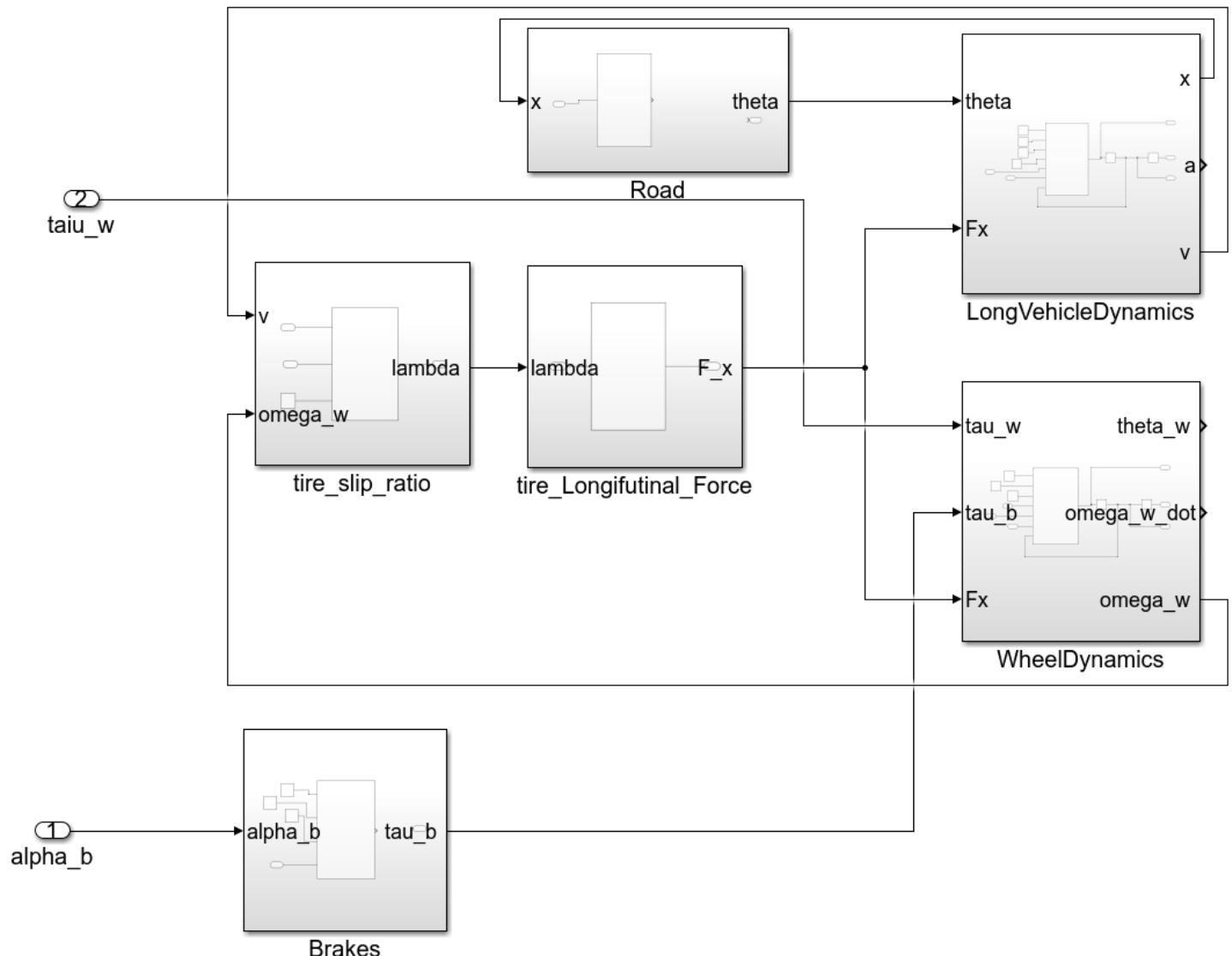


Approximations

- It is numerically challenging to implement the coulombic friction model
- Often we use a simple approximation – that is fairly accurate when the vehicle is moving, but not so at rest:
- $\tau_b = \mu_b N_b g_b \operatorname{sgn} \omega_w \approx \mu_b N_b g_b \tilde{s}(\omega_w)$
- Where the function $\tilde{s}(.)$ approximates the `sgn()` function:
 - $\tilde{s}(x) = \frac{x}{|x|+\epsilon}$ for some small $\epsilon > 0$
 - The larger the value of ϵ is, the larger the approximation
 - The smaller the value of ϵ , the more challenging is numerical simulation
- For your simulations you will accept that the vehicle never “really” stops
 - More sophisticated implementations are required if you want higher accuracy in your simulation results

Modeling the Vehicle, Wheels and Brakes

- α_b is the input from the driver model, and corresponds to the brake pedal inputs, or desired brake torque percentage
- τ_w is the wheel torque coming from the powertrain
 - For week 1 you can assume that you can directly control this torque, and so you can assume it comes from the driver model!



Simplification with no-tire-slip assumption

- If we assume no tire slip, then:
 - $v = r \omega$; Importantly, this implies: $\dot{v} = r \dot{\omega}$
- We lose a degree of freedom!
 - Thus we can combine the two dynamic equations using the above:
 - $m \dot{v} = F_x - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$ and $I_w \dot{\omega} = \tau_w - \tau_b - F_x r$ yield:
 - $mr \dot{\omega} = F_x - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$ or
 - $mr^2 \dot{\omega} = F_x r - F_{drag} r - mgr \sin \theta$
 - $(I_w + mr^2) \dot{\omega} = \tau_w - \tau_b - rF_{drag} - r mg \sin \theta$, or
 - $\frac{(I_w+mr^2)\dot{v}}{r} = \tau_w - \tau_b - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$, or
 - $\left(\frac{I_w}{r^2} + m\right) \dot{v} = (\tau_w - \tau_b)/r - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$



SimpleLongVehicleWithNoTireSlipAssumption

Effective Inertia (or Mass)

- Vehicle Dynamics looking from the vehicle point of view:

- $\left(\frac{I_w}{r^2} + m\right)\dot{v} = (\tau_w - \tau_b)/r - F_{drag} - mg \sin \theta$
- The “effective mass” of the vehicle is higher, and includes the inertia of the (upstream) wheel **multiplied** by the square of the speed ratio ($\frac{\omega}{v}$) i.e.

$$\bullet \quad m_{eq} = m + I_w \left(\frac{\omega}{v}\right)^2$$

- The “effective upstream force” is the upstream torque multiplied by the speed ratio:

$$\bullet \quad F_{eq} = (\tau_w - \tau_b) \frac{\omega}{v}$$

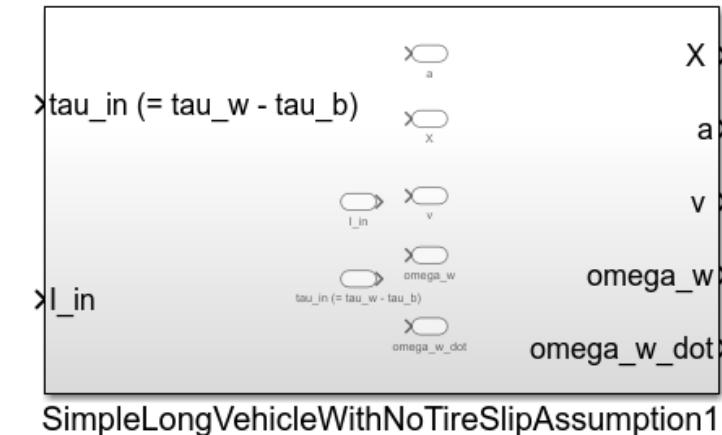
- Vehicle Dynamics looking from the rotating axle point of view:

- $(I_w + mr^2)\dot{\omega} = \tau_w - \tau_b - rF_{drag} - r mg \sin \theta$
- The “effective inertia” of the wheel is higher, and includes the inertia of the (downstream), vehicle **divided** by the square of the speed ratio, i.e.

$$\bullet \quad I_{eq} = I_w + \frac{m}{\left(\frac{\omega}{v}\right)^2}$$

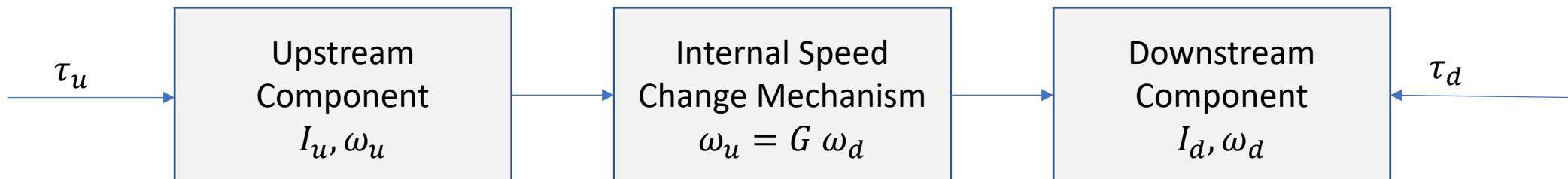
- “Effective downstream torque” is the downstream force divided by the speed ratio:

$$\bullet \quad \tau_{eq} = \tau_w - \tau_b - (F_{drag} + mg \sin \theta) \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\omega}{v}\right)}$$



Generalization of connected components

- If two components are kinematically coupled so that there is a loss in the degrees of freedom of motion, we can couple the systems to evaluate the combined dynamics as below:
 - $(I_u G^2 + I_d) \dot{\omega}_d = \tau_u G - \tau_d$ (downstream perspective)
 - $(I_u + I_d/G^2) \dot{\omega}_u = \tau_u - \tau_d/G$ (upstream perspective)



(Simple) Longitudinal Dynamics Model

- Extending the ideas to include a powertrain inertia upstream yields:
 - $\dot{v} = \frac{1}{M_{eq}} ((\tau_a - \tau_b)/r - F_{drag} - m g \sin \theta)$ with $M_{eq} := \frac{I_{PT} + I_w}{r^2} + m$
- We will next see how τ_a is obtained from the engine and what I_{PT} contains

Powertrain

- The powertrain will usually include the components that generate and transmit power to the wheels, and provide the wheel or axle torque τ_w
 - Powerplant:
 - Engine (Internal Combustion Engine, ICE)
 - Electric Motor
 - Hydraulic Motor
 - Human Legs
 - Transmission:
 - Gears (Gear Trains)
 - Chains
 - Differentials
 - Energy Storage
 - Batteries (electric)
 - Fuel Tank
 - Accumulators (hydraulic)
 - ... the Sun?
- We will study a subset of the above:
 - Electric Motors, Gears, Batteries