

# Kinematics

ME 416 - Prof. Tron

Wednesday 13<sup>th</sup> March, 2019

## 1 Parametrized curves

In robotics, the quantities of interest (e.g., a point in the environment, or the pose of a robot) more often than not vary with time. To represent these quantities we will use *parametrized curves*. Parametrized curves are functions that take in a parameter (typically time  $t$ ), and return a value for the quantity of interest.

For instance, we can represent the trajectory of a moving point  $x$  as  $x(t)$ . To give a more specific example,  $x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(t) \\ \sin(t) \end{bmatrix}$  represents the motion of a point in a 2-D circle.

By using functions, we can apply the same method to any quantity, and define the "trajectories" of quantities that are not simple geometric points. For instance, we can define a time-varying rotation  $R(t)$ , or pose  $(R(t), T(t))$ , or some scalar function  $V(t)$  (which could represent, for instance, some kind of "energy" in the system).

Note that the argument " $t$ " is often omitted, and the fact that a quantity depends on time or not is deduced from the context.

## 2 Velocities

The velocity of a quantity is defined as the time derivative of a parametrized curve. It is customary to use the notation:  $\dot{x} = \frac{dx(t)}{dt}$ .

Note that the time derivative is applied entry-wise; if  $x$  is a point (more precisely, a parametrized curve in, say,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ), then  $\dot{x}$  is a vector of the same dimensions (i.e., another parametrized curve).

This definition of velocity can be then applied consistently on any quantity; in particular, we can apply it to vectors and rotations.

### 2.1 ★★: Geometrical meaning of velocities for vectors.

For any given path or curve, the velocity at a given time,  $\dot{x}(t)$  is the tangent to the curve at that time  $t$ . As shown in Figure 1 the velocity  $v = \dot{x}$  at any point  $x$  along the path is the tangent to the curve.

★: **Rigid body transformations for velocities** The technical definition of a (right) derivative is

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(t+h) - x(t)}{h}, \quad (1)$$

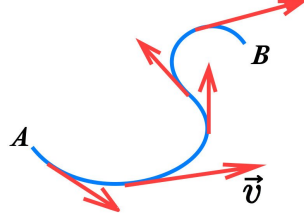


Figure 1: Example of velocity of a curve. The velocity is always tangent to the parametrized curve.

i.e., is a limit of a difference between two points. Hence, velocities are vectors, and are affected only by the rotation component of a rigid body transformation. More precisely, if  $({}^{\mathcal{W}}R_{\mathcal{B}}, {}^{\mathcal{W}}T_{\mathcal{B}})$  represents the rigid body transformation from a frame  $\mathcal{B}$  to a frame  $\mathcal{W}$ , we have that the velocity of a point expressed in  $\mathcal{W}$  is related to the one expressed in  $\mathcal{B}$  by the relation:

$${}^{\mathcal{W}}\dot{x} = {}^{\mathcal{W}}R_{\mathcal{B}} {}^{\mathcal{B}}\dot{x}. \quad (2)$$

## 2.2 ★★: Velocities for rotations

Our definition of velocity can be then applied consistently on any quantity; in particular, we can apply it to rotations.

Given that rotations are always orthonormal matrices, their velocities have a particular structure, which can be written as:  $\dot{R}(t) = \hat{w}(t)R(t)$ , where  $\hat{w}$  (pronounced “hat w”) is always a skew-symmetric matrix (i.e.,  $\hat{w} = -\hat{w}^T$ ). The matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 & -4 \\ 1 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is an example of a skew-symmetric matrix.

### 2.2.1 2-D rotations

For 2-D rotations, the matrix  $\hat{w}$  takes the form of:  $\hat{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega \\ \omega & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . This can be written as

$\hat{w} = \omega S$  where  $S$  is the matrix  $S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

The scalar variable  $\omega$  represents the 2-D *angular velocity*

**Note:** the matrix  $S$  is itself a rotation (of  $90^\circ$ ); this is a coincidence, but it is useful.

### 2.2.2 3-D rotations

For 3-D rotations, the matrix  $\hat{w}$  takes the form of:  $\hat{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_3 & \omega_2 \\ -\omega_2 & 0 & -\omega_1 \\ -\omega_1 & \omega_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . The 3-D vector

$\omega = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 \end{bmatrix}$  represents the 3-D *angular velocity*. This vector represents the instantaneous axis

of rotation, weighted with the angular speed (this is similar to the angle/axis representation of rotations). Each entry represents a rate of rotation along one of the axis of the frame (see next subsection).

### 2.3 Notes on the dimension and reference frames for angular velocities

As discussed before, 2-D rotations can be represented with a single angle, and so the velocity is also one-dimensional. On the other hand, 3-D rotations need to be represented with three numbers, collected in the vector  $w$ . Since  $w$  is a vector, it requires the specification of a reference frame in order to be meaningful (e.g., angular velocities in body coordinates are in general different from angular velocities in world coordinates). With the definition  $\dot{R} = \hat{w}R$  used above, the reference frame of is the "left superscript"; for instance if  ${}^{\mathcal{W}}R_{\mathcal{B}}$  represents a rotation from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{W}$ , then  $w$  is expressed in the reference frame  $\mathcal{B}$ , i.e., we have  $\frac{d}{dt} {}^{\mathcal{W}}R_{\mathcal{B}} = {}^{\mathcal{W}}\dot{R}_{\mathcal{B}} = {}^{\mathcal{W}}\hat{w} {}^{\mathcal{W}}R_{\mathcal{B}}$ .

## 3 Accelerations

The acceleration of a quantity is the second order derivative of the parametrized curve, denoted as:  $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}x(t) = \ddot{x}(t)$ .

Consider a second order ODE of the form  $\ddot{x}(t) = f(t)$ . We can write this (and any) 2nd order ODE as a 1st order ODE. In equation form, this is can be done by introducing the variable  $v(t) = \dot{x}$ , and the new overall state  $z = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ v \end{bmatrix}$ . We then have  $\dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} z + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ f(t) \end{bmatrix}$ , which is a first-order ODE.