

# Lecture 13: Rigid body kinematics – Kinematic differential equations

- Brief recap of representations of rotation
  - Rotation matrices (6.4)
  - Euler angles (6.5)
    - 3-parameter representation of rotations
    - Roll-pitch-yaw
  - Angle-axis, Euler-parameters (6.6, 6.7)
    - 4-parameter representation of rotations
  - Angular velocity (6.8)
  - Kinematic differential equations
- Today:
  - Rigid body kinematics: Configuration
  - Newton Euler equation

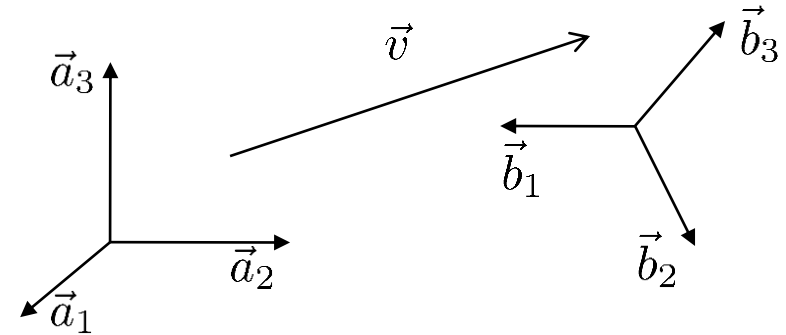
Book: Ch. 6.9, 6.12, 6.13, 7.1

# Rotation matrices

The rotation matrix from  $a$  to  $b$   $\mathbf{R}_b^a$  is used to

- **Transform** a coordinate vector from  $b$  to  $a$

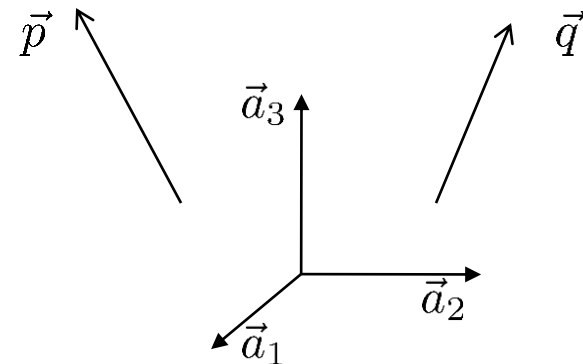
$$\mathbf{v}^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{v}^b$$



- **Rotate** a vector  $\vec{p}$  to vector  $\vec{q}$ . If decomposed in  $a$ ,

$$\mathbf{q}^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{p}^a$$

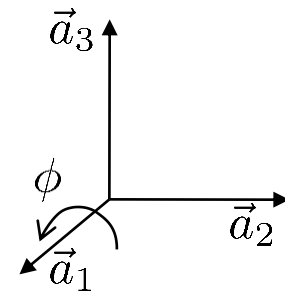
such that  $\mathbf{q}^b = \mathbf{p}^a$ .



# Simple rotations

- Simple rotation = rotation about an axis
- Example: Rotation matrix for rotation about x-axis:

$$\mathbf{R}_{x,\phi} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$



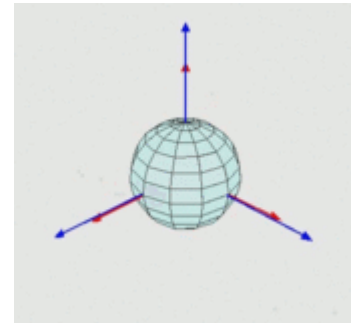
# Representations of rotations

- Rotation matrix
  - Easy to use, but not to visualize (also over-parameterized, 9 parameters)

## Euler's Theorem:

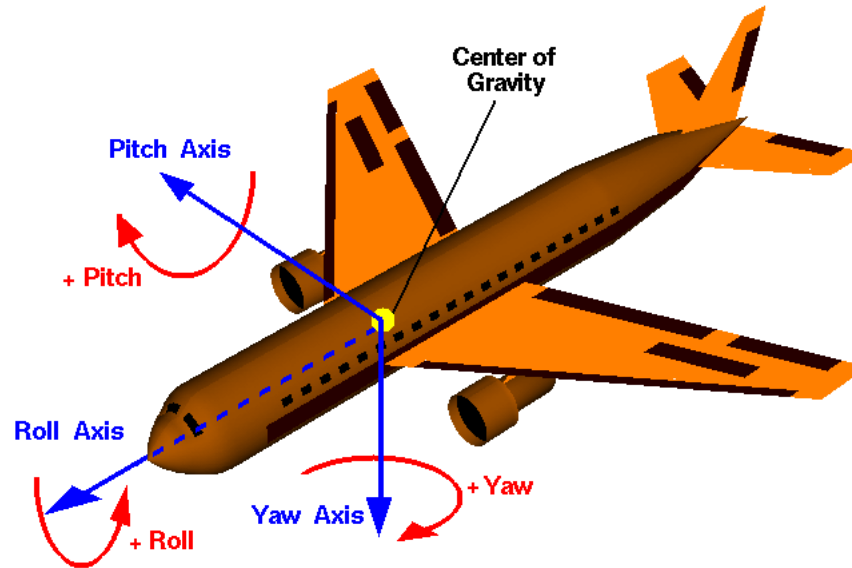
“Any two independent orthonormal coordinate frames can be related by a sequence of rotations (not more than three) about coordinate axes, where no two successive rotations may be about the same axis.”

- Three rotations about axes are enough to specify any rotation
  - These representations are called Euler angles
    - 12 different combinations possible
    - Most common(?): Roll-pitch-yaw
  - Natural and (in many cases) simple to use, very much used
  - Problem: Singularity (more on this today)
- Angle-axis, Euler-parameters
  - 4-parameter representations of rotations
  - No singularity problems



Source: Wikipedia

# Euler-angles: Roll-pitch-yaw

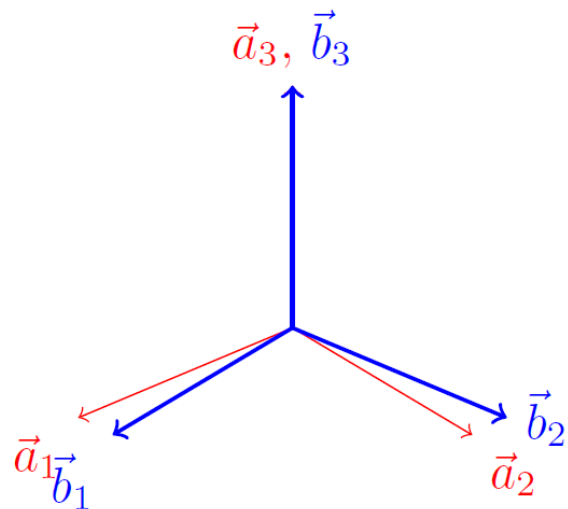
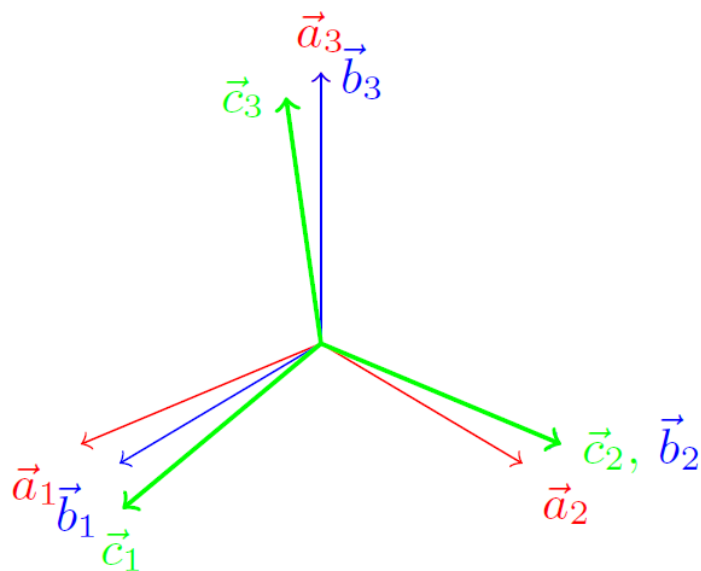
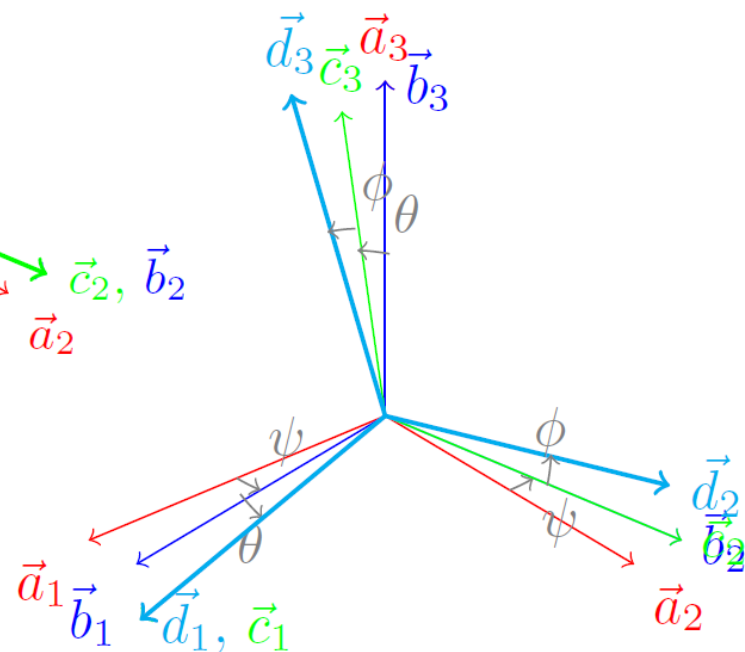


- Rotation  $\psi$  about z-axis,  $\theta$  about (rotated) y-axis,  $\phi$  about (rotated) x-axis

$$\mathbf{R}_b^a = \mathbf{R}_{z,\psi} \mathbf{R}_{y,\theta} \mathbf{R}_{x,\phi}$$

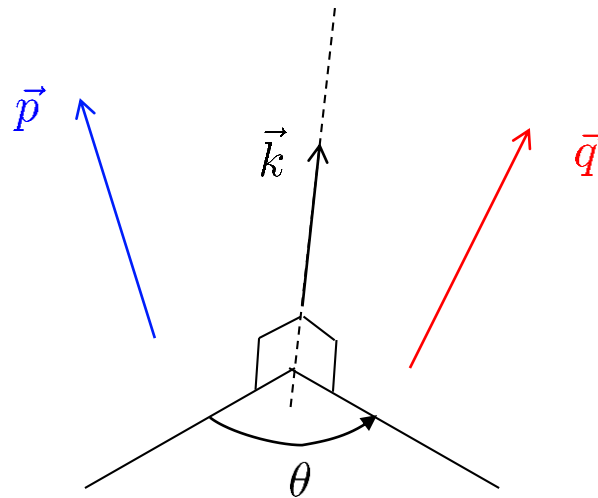
$$\mathbf{R}_b^a = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi & 0 \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

# Euler angles

 $\psi$ 

 $\theta$ 

 $\phi$ 


# Angle-axis representation of rotations

All rotations can be represented as a simple rotation around an axis



- Angle-axis parameters:

- Coordinate free:  $\vec{k}, \theta$

$$\vec{q} = \underbrace{\left( \cos \theta \vec{I} + \sin \theta \vec{k}^\times + (1 - \cos \theta) \vec{k} \vec{k} \right)}_{\vec{R}_{\vec{k}, \theta}} \cdot \vec{p}$$

- With coordinates:  $\mathbf{k}^a, \theta$

$$\mathbf{R}_b^a = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{k}, \theta} = \cos \theta \mathbf{I} + \sin \theta (\mathbf{k}^a)^\times + (1 - \cos \theta) \mathbf{k}^a (\mathbf{k}^a)^\top$$

# Euler parameters

- Euler parameters are closely related to angle-axis:

- Coordinate-free:

$$\eta = \cos \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\vec{\epsilon} = \vec{k} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

- With coordinates:

$$\eta = \cos \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\epsilon = \mathbf{k} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

- Rotation matrix (on coordinate form):

$$\mathbf{R}(\eta, \epsilon) = \mathbf{I} + 2\eta\epsilon^{\times} + 2\epsilon^{\times}\epsilon^{\times}$$

- Much used, since:
  - Compact, **singularity-free** representation of orientation
  - No trigonometric terms in expression for rotation matrix
  - $\eta^2 + \vec{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{\epsilon} = 1$ : Easy to normalize (avoid roundoff errors)
    - Rotation matrices may tend to become non-orthogonal when simulated
  - Euler parameters are (*unit*) *quaternions*:
    - Quaternions are generalized complex numbers
    - Can use algebra of quaternions for calculations and analysis



# Derivatives of rotations

- Derivative of position  $\mathbf{r}$  is velocity,  $\dot{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{v}$ .
- Derivative of rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}_b^a$  is  $\dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a$ . What is this?
- Seems natural that a concept of angular velocity should be involved, but how?
- What are derivatives of representations of rotations?
  - Derivatives of Euler angles? Euler parameters?
  - These are the kinematic differential equations!

# Angular velocity

- The rotation matrix is orthogonal:

$$\mathbf{R}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top = \mathbf{I}$$

- Differentiate:

$$\frac{d}{dt} [\mathbf{R}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top] = \dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top + \mathbf{R}_b^a (\dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a)^\top = \mathbf{0}$$

- If we define  $\mathbf{S} = \dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top$ , this says that  $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{S}^\top = \mathbf{0}$  which means that  $\mathbf{S}$  is **skew symmetric**.

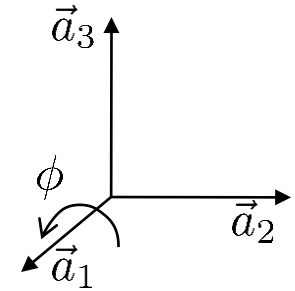
$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\omega_3 & \omega_2 \\ \omega_3 & 0 & -\omega_1 \\ -\omega_2 & \omega_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^a)^\times$$

- The vector  $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^a$  defined by  $(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^a)^\times = \dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top$  is the **angular velocity of frame  $b$  relative to frame  $a$**  (decomposed in  $a$ )
- The equation  $\dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a = (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^a)^\times \mathbf{R}_b^a$  is the **kinematic differential equation** for rotation matrices

# Angular velocity of simple rotations

- Rotation about x-axis:

$$\mathbf{R}_{x,\phi} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ 0 & \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$



- We calculate  $(\omega_{ab}^a)^\times = \dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a (\mathbf{R}_b^a)^\top$ :

$$\dot{\mathbf{R}}_{x,\phi} (\mathbf{R}_{x,\phi})^\top = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin \phi & -\cos \phi \\ 0 & \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \end{pmatrix} \dot{\phi} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \phi & \sin \phi \\ 0 & -\sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\dot{\phi} \\ 0 & \dot{\phi} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- That is:

$$\omega_x = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{\phi} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Similar for rotations around y- and z-axis:  $\omega_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \dot{\theta} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega_z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \dot{\psi} \end{pmatrix}$
- Angle-axis representations (constant axis):

$$\omega_{ab}^a = \dot{\theta} \mathbf{k}^a$$

# Composite rotations

- Given
  - composite rotation  $\mathbf{R}_d^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{R}_c^b \mathbf{R}_d^c$ , and
  - individual angular velocities  $\omega_{ab}^a$ ,  $\omega_{bc}^b$ , and  $\omega_{cd}^c$

How to calculate the composite angular velocity  $\omega_{ad}^a$ ?

- It can be shown (easy, see book p. 241) that

$$\vec{\omega}_{ad} = \vec{\omega}_{ab} + \vec{\omega}_{bc} + \vec{\omega}_{cd}$$

- On coordinate form:

$$\omega_{ad}^a = \omega_{ab}^a + \omega_{bc}^a + \omega_{cd}^a$$

- So:

$$\omega_{ad}^a = \omega_{ab}^a + \mathbf{R}_b^a \omega_{bc}^b + \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{R}_c^b \omega_{cd}^c$$

# Kinematic differential equation of Euler angles

$$\mathbf{R}_d^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{R}_c^b \mathbf{R}_d^c = \mathbf{R}_{z,\psi} \mathbf{R}_{y,\theta} \mathbf{R}_{x,\phi}$$

$$\vec{\omega}_{ad} = \vec{\omega}_{ab} + \vec{\omega}_{bc} + \vec{\omega}_{cd} = \dot{\psi} \vec{a}_3 + \dot{\theta} \vec{b}_2 + \dot{\phi} \vec{c}_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\omega}_{ad}^a &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \dot{\psi} \end{pmatrix} + \mathbf{R}_z(\psi) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \dot{\theta} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \mathbf{R}_z(\psi) \mathbf{R}_y(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} \dot{\phi} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{E}_a(\underline{\Phi}) \dot{\underline{\Phi}} \qquad \underline{\Phi} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \theta \\ \psi \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{\underline{\Phi}} = \mathbf{E}_a^{-1}(\underline{\Phi}) \underline{\omega}_{ad}^a \qquad \theta \neq 90^\circ$$

# Kinematic differential equation of Euler parameter

$$\mathbf{R}_b^a = \mathbf{R}(\eta, \underline{\varepsilon})$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a = (\underline{\omega}_{ab}^a)^\times \mathbf{R}_b^a$$

- It can be derived (quaternion algebra p. 248)

$$\dot{\eta} = -\frac{1}{2}\underline{\varepsilon}^T \underline{\omega}_{ab}^a$$

$$\dot{\underline{\varepsilon}} = \frac{1}{2}(\eta \mathbf{I} - \underline{\varepsilon}^\times) \underline{\omega}_{ab}^a$$

# Differentiation of vectors (6.8.5, 6.8.6)

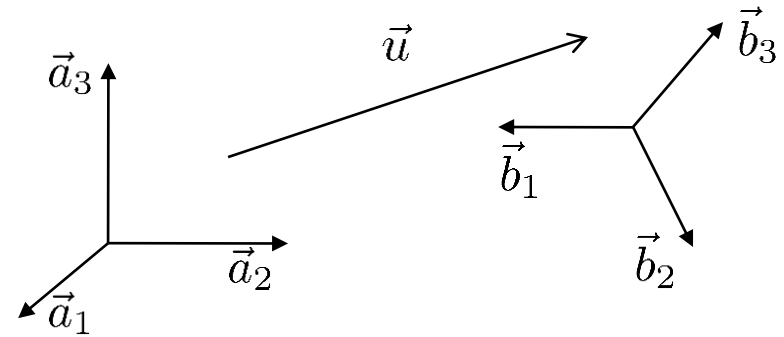
- Coordinate representation:

$$\mathbf{u}^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \mathbf{u}^b$$

- Differentiation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{u}}^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \dot{\mathbf{u}}^b + \dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a \mathbf{u}^b$$

$\dot{\mathbf{R}}_b^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^b)^\times$



$$\dot{\mathbf{u}}^a = \mathbf{R}_b^a \left[ \dot{\mathbf{u}}^b + (\boldsymbol{\omega}_{ab}^b)^\times \mathbf{u}^b \right]$$

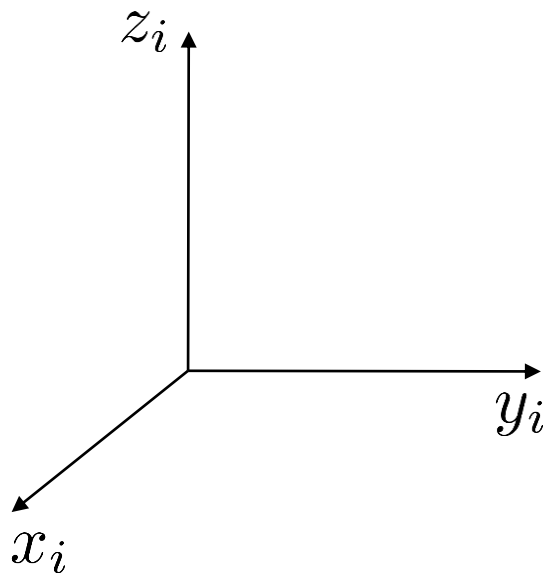
- On vector form:

$$\frac{{}^a d}{dt} \vec{u} = \frac{{}^b d}{dt} \vec{u} + \vec{\omega}_{ab} \times \vec{u}$$

Note! Generally,

$$\dot{\mathbf{u}}^a \neq \mathbf{R}_b^a \dot{\mathbf{u}}^b$$

# Kinematics of rigid body I



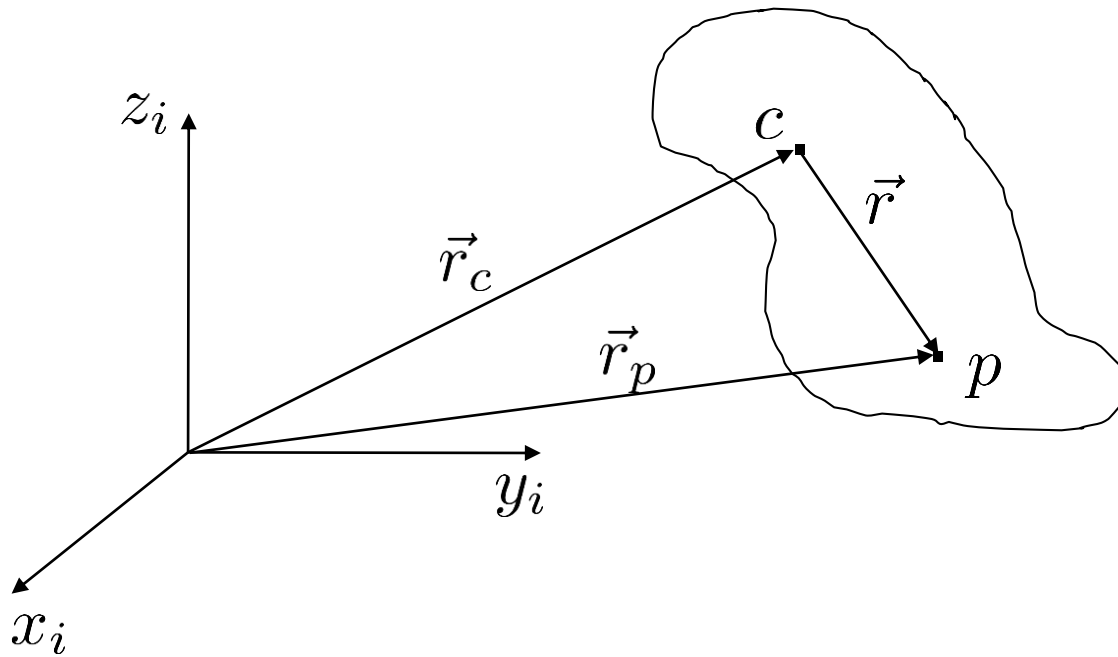


# Kinematics of rigid body II

# Kinematics of rigid body III

$$\vec{a}_p = \vec{a}_o + \frac{{}^b d^2}{dt^2} \vec{r} + 2\vec{\omega}_{ib} \times \frac{{}^b d}{dt} \vec{r} + \vec{\alpha}_{ib} \times \vec{r}_g + \vec{\omega}_{ib} \times (\vec{\omega}_{ib} \times \vec{r}_g)$$

# Center of mass

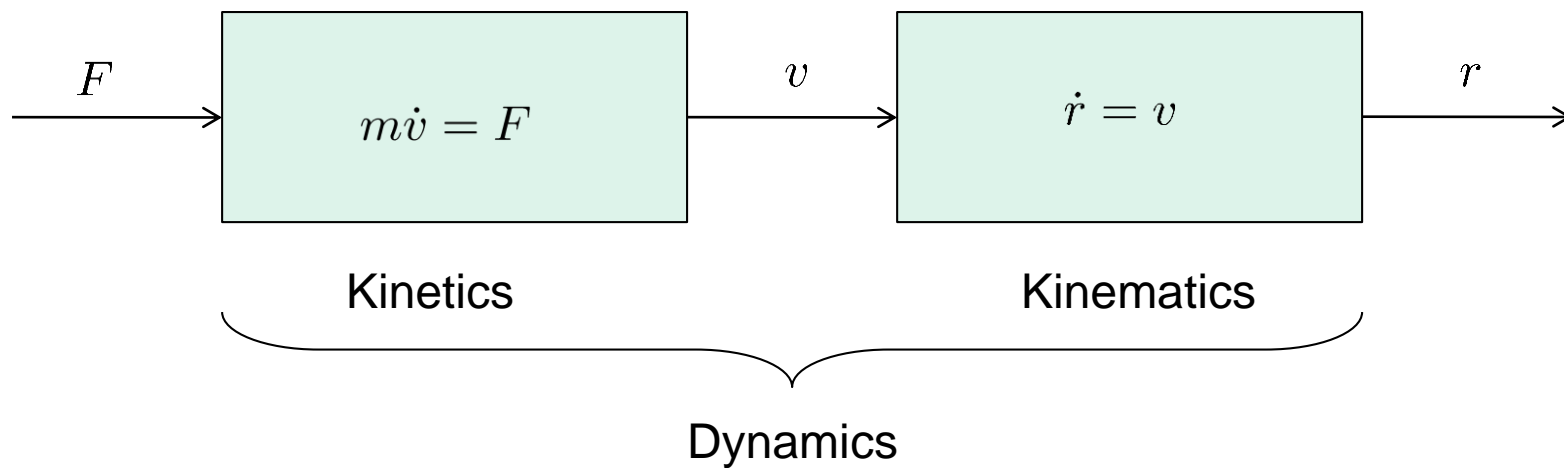
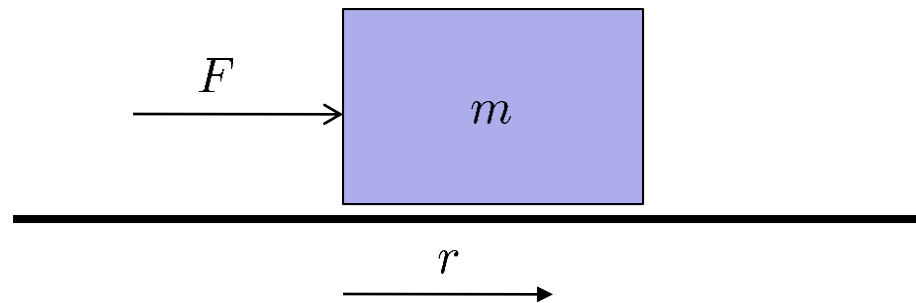


# What is rigid body dynamics?

- Rigid body:
  - Wikipedia: “...a rigid body is an idealization of a solid body of finite size in which deformation is neglected.”
- Dynamics = Kinematics + Kinetics
- Kinematics
  - eb.com: “...branch of physics (...) concerned with the geometrically possible **motion** of a body or system of bodies **without consideration of the forces involved** (i.e., causes and effects of the motions).”
  - Book: Ch. 6
- Kinetics
  - eb.com: “...**the effect of forces and torques** on the **motion** of bodies having mass.”
  - Book: Ch. 7, 8.

Remark: Sometimes “dynamics” is used for “kinetics” only

# Simplest scalar case

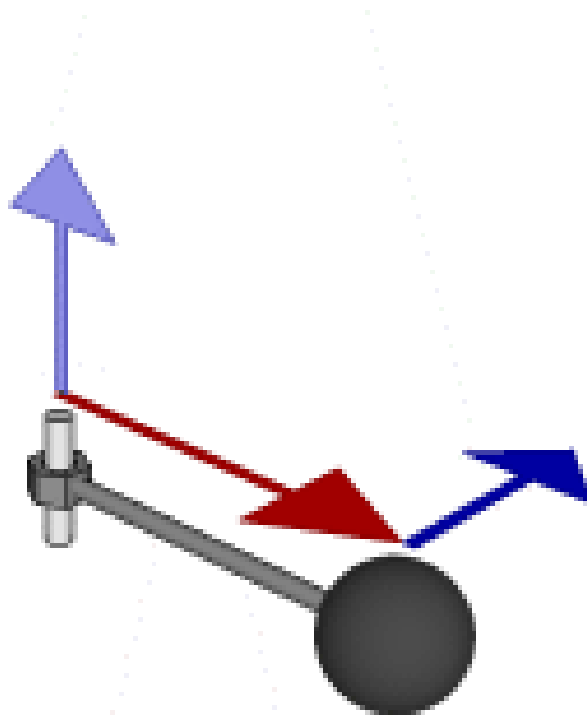


# Newton-Euler equation of motion I

# Newton-Euler equation of motion II

# Torque, and linear/angular momentum

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\tau} &= \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F} \\ \mathbf{L} &= \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}\end{aligned}$$



Source: Wikipedia

- Book:
  - Torque:  $\vec{N}, \vec{T}$
  - Angular momentum:  $\vec{h}$



# Euler's 2nd law of motion I

# Euler's 2nd law of motion II

# Euler's 2nd law of motion III

# Newton-Euler for center of mass

- That shows:
  - Newton's laws can be formulated for the center of mass

$${}^i\frac{d}{dt}\vec{p}_c = \vec{F}_{bc}$$

$${}^i\frac{d}{dt}\vec{h}_{b/c} = \vec{T}_{bc}$$

# Angular momentum

$$\vec{h}_{b/c} = \int_b \vec{r} \times \vec{v}_p dm$$

# Euler's 2nd law of motion about CoM

# EoM with reference of CoM

$$\vec{F}_{bc} = m\vec{a}_c$$

$$\vec{T}_{bc} = \vec{M}_{b/c} \cdot \vec{\alpha}_{ib} + \vec{\omega}_{ib} \times \left( \vec{M}_{b/c} \cdot \vec{\omega}_{ib} \right)$$

# Inertia dyadic I

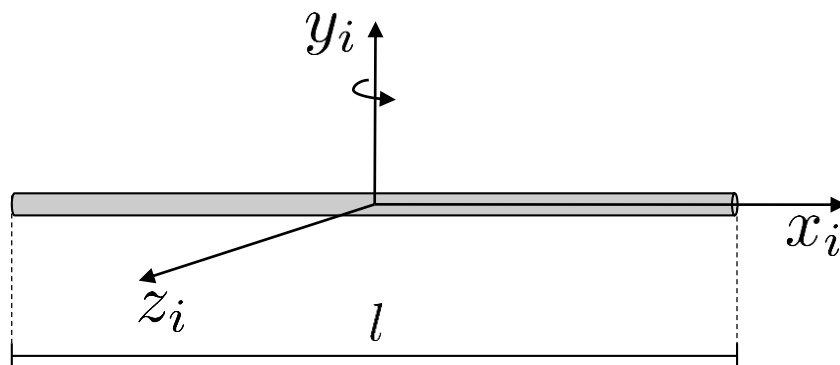
$$\vec{M}_{b/c} = - \int_b \vec{r}^\times \cdot \vec{r}^\times$$



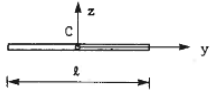
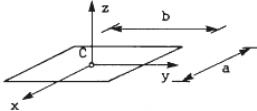
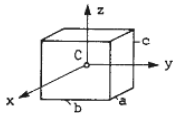
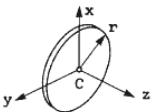
# Inertia dyadic II

$$\vec{M}_{b/c} = - \int_b \vec{r}^\times \cdot \vec{r}^\times$$

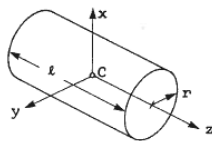

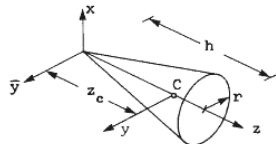
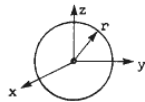
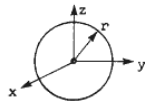
# Example: Slender beam



# Finding moments of inertia

<p>Homogen slank stav</p> 	$I_z = \frac{1}{12} m l^2$ $I_{\bar{x}} = \frac{1}{3} m l^2$
<p>Tynn rektangulær plate</p> 	$I_z = \frac{1}{12} m (a^2 + b^2)$ $I_x = \frac{1}{12} m b^2$ $I_y = \frac{1}{12} m a^2$
<p>Rektangulært prisme</p> 	$I_z = \frac{1}{12} m (a^2 + b^2)$
<p>Tynn sirkulær skive</p> 	$I_z = \frac{1}{2} m r^2$ $I_x = I_y = \frac{1}{4} m r^2$

From F. Irgens, Dynamikk

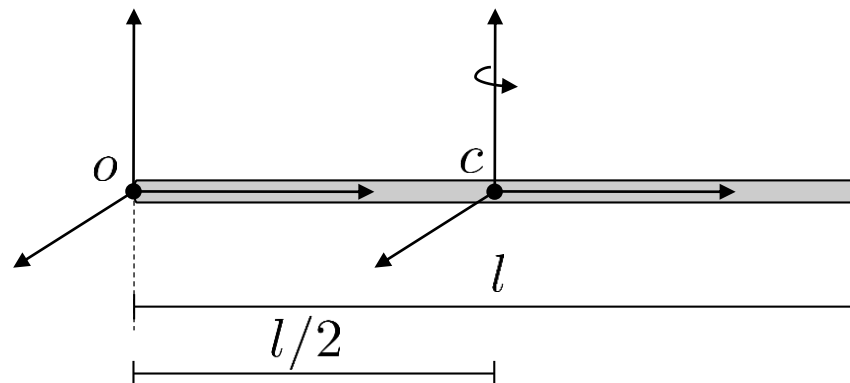
<p>Sirkulær sylinder</p> 	$I_z = \frac{1}{2} m r^2$ $I_x = I_y = \frac{1}{12} m (3r^2 + l^2)$
<p>Tynt sylinderskall</p> 	$I_z = m r^2$ $I_x = I_y = \frac{1}{2} m r^2 + \frac{1}{12} m l^2$
<p>Rett sirkulær kjegle</p> 	$I_x = \frac{1}{10} m r^2$ $I_y = \frac{3}{20} m r^2 + \frac{3}{80} m h^2$ $I_{\bar{y}} = \frac{3}{20} m r^2 + \frac{3}{5} m h^2$ $z_c = 3h/4$
<p>Kule</p> 	$I_C = \frac{2}{5} m r^2$
<p>Kuleskall</p> 	$I_C = \frac{2}{3} m r^2$

- [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_moment\\_of\\_inertia\\_tensors](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_moment_of_inertia_tensors)
- For other/general rigid bodies (vessels/planes/etc.), computer programs can find moments of inertia

# Parallel axis theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{M}_{b/o} &= \vec{M}_{b/c} - m(\underline{r}_g^b)^\times (\underline{r}_g^b)^\times \\ &= \vec{M}_{b/c} + m [(\underline{r}_g^b)^T \underline{r}_g^b \mathbf{I} - \underline{r}_g^b (\underline{r}_g^b)^T]\end{aligned}$$

Example:



# Kahoot

- <https://play.kahoot.it/#/k/4152faff-75ee-49ea-bb9e-b4c79dd85785>