

Appendix: Chapter - 6 Manipulator dynamics

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★ Introduction

⇒ Here, we consider the equations of motion for a manipulator:

↳ The way in which motion of the manipulator arises from torque applied by the actuator as well as external forces applied to the manipulator.

★ Acceleration of a Rigid body

⇒ At any instant the linear and angular velocity vectors have derivatives that are called the **Linear** & **Angular acceleration** respectively.

$${}^B \dot{V}_Q = \frac{d}{dt} {}^B V_Q = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{{}^B V_Q(t + \Delta t) - {}^B V_Q(t)}{\Delta t}$$

$$\& \quad {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B = \frac{d}{dt} {}^A \Omega_B = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{{}^A \Omega_B(t + \Delta t) - {}^A \Omega_B(t)}{\Delta t}$$

⇒ As with velocities, when the reference frame of the differentiation is understood to be some universal reference frame $\{U\}$, we will use the notation.

$$\dot{V}_A = {}^U \dot{V}_{AORG}$$

$$\dot{\omega}_A = {}^U \dot{\Omega}_A$$

④ Linear acceleration

$${}^A V_Q = {}^A R_B {}^B V_Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} ({}^A R_B {}^B Q)$$

⇒ On differentiating :-

$${}^A \dot{V}_Q = \frac{d}{dt} ({}^A R_B {}^B V_Q) + {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times \frac{d}{dt} ({}^A R_B {}^B Q)$$

$$\Rightarrow {}^A \dot{V}_Q = {}^A R_B {}^B \dot{V}_Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B V_Q + {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times ({}^A R_B {}^B V_Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q)$$

$$\Rightarrow {}^A \dot{V}_Q = {}^A R_B {}^B \dot{V}_Q + 2 {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B V_Q + {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q + {}^A \Omega_B \times ({}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B Q)$$

⇒ Finally, to generalize to the case in which the origins are not coincident, we add one term which gives the linear acceleration of the origin of $\{B\}$, resulting in the final general formula:

$$\begin{aligned} {}^A \dot{V}_Q = & {}^A \dot{V}_{BORG} + {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q + 2 {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q \\ & + {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B \times {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q + {}^A \Omega_B ({}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q) \end{aligned}$$

⇒ If ${}^B Q$ is Constant $\Rightarrow {}^A V_Q = {}^A \dot{V}_Q = 0$

$${}^A \dot{V}_Q = {}^A \dot{V}_{BORG} + {}^A \Omega_B \times ({}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q) + {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B \times {}^A R_B \dot{V}_Q$$

⊕ Angular acceleration

⇒ Consider the case in which $\{B\}$ is rotating relative to $\{A\}$ with ${}^A \Omega_B$ and $\{C\}$ is rotating relative to $\{B\}$ with ${}^B \Omega_C$.

$${}^A \Omega_C = {}^A \Omega_B + {}^A R_B {}^B \Omega_C$$

$$\Rightarrow {}^A \dot{\Omega}_C = {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B + \frac{d}{dt} ({}^A R_B {}^B \Omega_C)$$

$$\Rightarrow {}^A \dot{\Omega}_C = {}^A \dot{\Omega}_B + {}^A R_B \dot{{}^B \Omega}_C + {}^A \Omega_B \times {}^A R_B {}^B \Omega_C$$

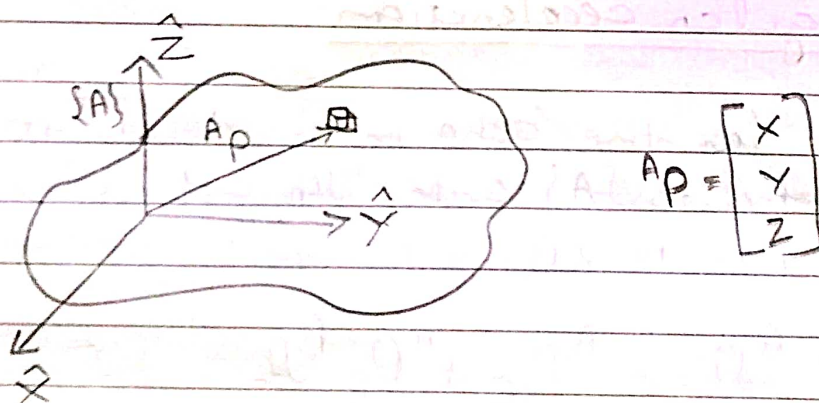
★ Mass distribution

⇒ In system with a single degree of freedom, we often talk about the **mass** of a rigid body.

⇒ In the case of rotational motion about a single axis, the notion of the **moment of inertia** is a familiar one.

⇒ For a rigid body that is free to move in three dimensions there are infinitely many possible rotation axes.

↳ Here, we introduce the **inertia tensor**.



⇒ The inertia tensor relative to frame $\{A\}$ is expressed in the matrix form as the 3×3 matrix:

$$A_I = \begin{bmatrix} I_{xx} & -I_{xy} & -I_{xz} \\ -I_{xy} & I_{yy} & -I_{yz} \\ -I_{xz} & -I_{yz} & I_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where the scalar element are given by:

$$I_{xx} = \iiint_V (y^2 + z^2) \rho \, dv$$

$$I_{yy} = \iiint_V (x^2 + z^2) \rho \, dv$$

$$I_{zz} = \iiint_V (x^2 + y^2) \rho \, dv$$

$$I_{xy} = \iiint_V xy \rho \, dv$$

$$I_{xz} = \iiint_V xz \rho \, dv$$

$$I_{yz} = \iiint_V yz \rho \, dv$$

⇒ The elements I_{xx} , I_{yy} & I_{zz} are called the mass moment of inertia.

⇒ The elements with mixed indices are called the mass product of inertia.

⇒ The set of six independent quantities will for a given body, depend on the position and orientation of the frame in which they are defined.

⇒ If we are free to choose the orientation of the reference frame, it is possible to cause the product of inertia to be zero.

→ The axis of the reference frame which are so aligned are called the principal axes.

→ The corresponding mass moments are the principal moments of inertia.

⇒ A well-known result, the parallel-axis theorem is one way of computing how the inertia tensor changes under translation of the reference frame.

→ The parallel-axis theorem relates the inertia tensor in a frame with origin at the center of mass to the inertia tensor with respect to another reference frame.

⇒ When $\{C\}$ is located at the center of mass of the body, and $\{A\}$ is an arbitrarily translated frame, the theorem can be stated as

$${}^A I_{zz} = {}^C I_{zz} + m(x_c^2 + y_c^2)$$

$${}^A I_{xy} = {}^C I_{xy} - m x_c y_c$$

Where $P_c = [x_c, y_c, z_c]^T$ locates the center of mass relative to $\{A\}$.

⇒ The theorem can be stated in vector matrix form as

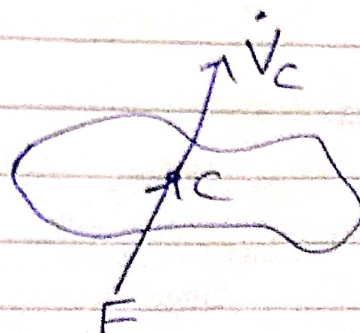
$${}^A I = {}^C I + m [P_c^T P_c I_3 - P_c P_c^T]$$

* Newton's Equation, Euler Equation

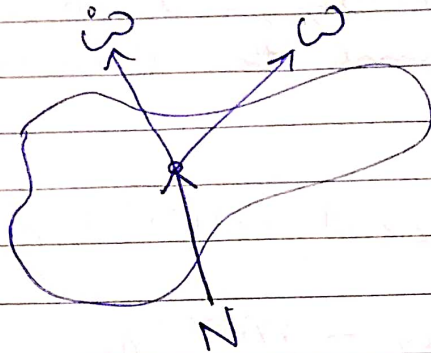
⇒ If we know the location of the center of mass and the inertia tensor of the link, then its mass distribution is completely characterized.

⊕ Newton's Equation

$$F = m \dot{v}_c$$



Euler's equation



$$N = I \dot{\omega} + \omega \times I \omega$$



$$N = I \dot{\omega} + \omega \times I \omega$$

Euler's equation

Angular velocity

$$N = I \dot{\omega} + \omega \times I \omega$$