

# TEK4040 - MATEMATISK MODELLERING

## AV DYNAMISKE SYSTEMER

Referanser : - O. Hallingstad: Matematisk modellering av dyn. sys.

- John J. Craig: Robotics (kap 1-6)
- Peter H. Zipfel: Modelling and Simulation of Aerospace Vehicle Dynamics

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Vi ønsker å simulere:

- Satellitter stilling i rommet
- Fly (ikke aerodynamikk)
- Roboter - mekanismer
- Treghetsnavigasjon (TNS) INS
  - \* Banegenerator (gir posisjon og stilling)  $\Rightarrow$  hastighet, also.  
derivere
  - \* Navigasjonsligninger
  - \* Ser bare på deterministiske ligninger
  - \* Støy tas med i Stokastiske systemer

Vi ønsker å beskrive  
bevegelsen av fysiske objekter vha.:

**Notator punkt.** { - Posisjon (vanligvis masse-senteret)  
- Hastighet  
- Akselerasjon

**Utstalt legeme** { - Stilling  
- Vinkel hastighet  
- Vinkel akselerasjon

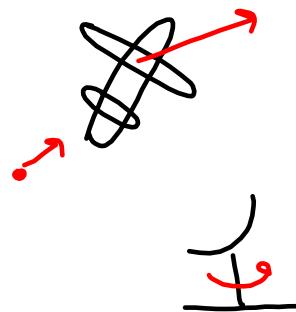
## DYNAMIKK

- 1) Kinematikk: Beskrive bevegelsen matematisk
- 2) Kinetikk: Beskrive sammenhengen mellom bevegelsen og de krefter og momenter som forårsaker bevegelsen.

Et stort legemes bevegelse kan settes sammen av transasjon + rotasjon.

## Framgangsmåte for modellering

1. Beskrive det fysiske system, velg objekter.



Vi må anta at objektene med tilstrekkelig nøyaktighet kan beskrives som partikler (punkter med masse) og slive legemer (molekylene har en fast stilling i forhold til hverandre)

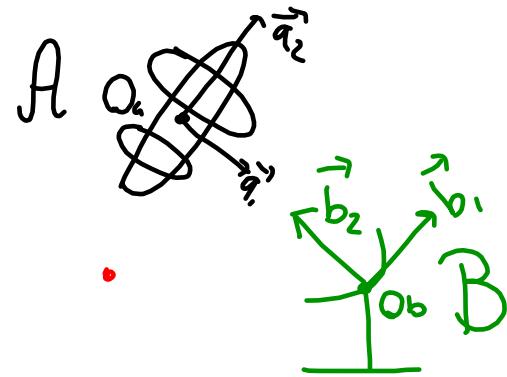
2. Definer referanserom og treghetsrom (pga kinetikk).



Vi tar referanserommet til et legeme ved å etspandere legemet med punkter som tyller rommet og som ligger fast i forhold til molekylene i legemet.

NB! Referanserom kan defineres ulikt i ulike lærebøker

. 3. Definere Affine rom (modell av referanserom).



A: affint rom

Objekter: vektorer + punkter

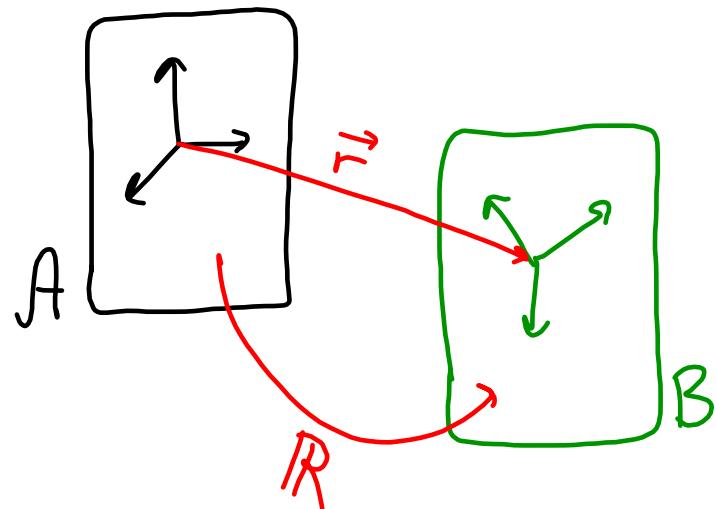
Operasjoner:  $P = Q + \vec{v}$ ,  $\vec{v} = P - Q$

4. Innføre (referanse) rammer i det affine rom.

$$A: F_A^a = \{O_a, \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\} = \{a\}$$

$$B: F_B^b = \{O_b, \vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \vec{b}_3\} = \{b\}$$

- 5. Beskrive sammenhengen mellom objekter i ulike affine rom (referanserom)



De opprinnelige stive legemer er nå beskrevet av punkter og rammer i affine rom.

Dersom vi har endringer som funksjons av tiden får vi  
 $\vec{r}(t)$ ,  $R(t)$

. 6. Definere avbildning fra affine rom til  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (n-års\_reelle\_tall)

Afbildningen gis ved å dekomponere vektorer ( $\vec{r}$ ) og operatorer ( $S$ ) via basisvektorer settene (rammer)

$$\underbrace{\vec{y} = S \vec{x}}_{\text{Affine rom}} \iff \underbrace{\underline{y}^a = S^a \underline{x}^a}_{\mathbb{R}^n}$$

$\underline{x}^a, \underline{y}^a$  er kolonnmatriiser  
 (kolonnevektorer)  
 $S^a$  er matrise

. 7. Innfore tidsavhengige vektorer og operatorer Definerer.

derivasjon og integrasjon.

$$\vec{r}(t), S(t) \iff \underline{r}^a(t), S^a(t)$$

$$\dot{\vec{r}}^b(t), \dot{S}^b(t) \iff \dot{\underline{r}}^b(t), \dot{S}^{ba}(t)$$

Nå har vi all matematikken for å beskrive kinematikk-en

8. Kinektikk: finn sammenhengen mellom krefter og bevegelse

Krefter: modelleres av vektorer

$$\vec{f} \in \mathcal{F}(V) \Leftrightarrow f^a \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Massen til en partikkel  
eller stivt legeme: m

Momenter: modelleres av vektorer

$$\vec{n} \in \mathcal{F}(V) \Leftrightarrow n^a \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Newton 2. lov:  $\vec{f} = m \vec{a}^{ii} \Leftrightarrow f^i = m \cdot a^{iii}$  i: treghtsrom

Treghtsmatrisa for stive legemer ( tilsvarer masse for partikler for rotende legemer )

$$\vec{n} = \vec{h}^i \Leftrightarrow n^i = T \underline{\dot{w}}^{iii}$$

$\vec{h}$ : spinn      T: treghtsmatrise

## Kommentarer

Våre ligninger blir:

- algebraiske
- ordinære vektor-differensial ligninger  
(tilstandsrom ligninger)

## DEL A: MATEMATISK GRUNNLAG

I forelesningene går vi gjennom notatet. Figurer og utledninger tas på tavla. Bygger på: lineær algebra, matriseteori og ord. diff. ligninger

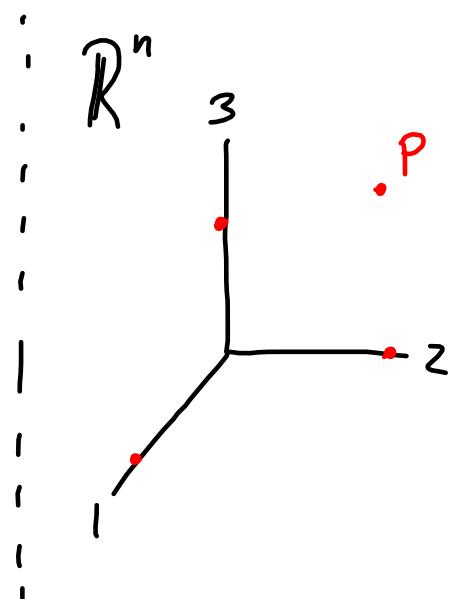
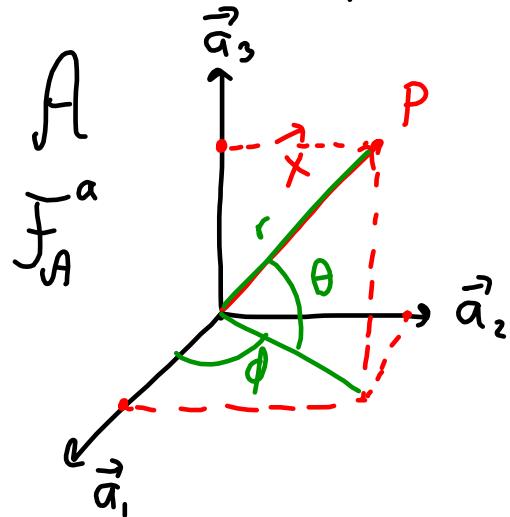
Rom	Rammer	Kommentar
Referanserrom		Fysisk rom bestående av punkter som er i ro i forhold til hverandre. Eng: (observational) frame of reference
Trehetsrom		Et referanserom hvor Newtons 2. lov har sin enkleste form, $\vec{f} = m\vec{a}^i$
Vektorrom $\mathcal{V}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}}^a = \{\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\} = \{\vec{a}_i\} = \{a\}$ ramme $a$ i vektorrom $\mathcal{V}$ med basisvektorer $\vec{a}_i$	Matematisk definert rom med vektorer som objekter.
Affint rom $\mathcal{A}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}}^a = \{O_a; \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\} = \{a\}$ ramme $a$ i det affine rom $\mathcal{A}$ med origo $O_a$ og basisvektorer $\vec{a}_i$	Matematisk definert rom med punkter og vektorer som objekter. Brukes som modell for referanse- og treghetsrom.

**Definisjon A.1** Et koordinatsystem  $C_{\mathcal{A}}^a$  for et affint rom  $\mathcal{A}$  avbilder et punkt  $P$  inn i  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{A}}^a : P \rightarrow \underline{x}_P^a \text{ hvor } P \in \mathcal{A} \text{ og } \underline{x}_P^a \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{A}}^a(P) = \underline{x}_P^a$$

## Koordinatsystemer



$$\underline{x}_P^a = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^a \\ x_2^a \\ x_3^a \end{bmatrix}$$

Kartesiske  
koordinater

$$\underline{y}_P^a = \begin{bmatrix} r \\ \phi \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Kule-  
koordinater

Et koordinatsystem er en funksjon (avbildning) fra et affint rom inn i  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Koordinatene er avhengig av både ramma og om vi velger kule-, kartesiske- eller andre koordinater.

## A.2 Vektorrom

Jeg vil bruke følgende notasjon og forkortelser i tidsinvariante vektorrom:

$\vec{x} \in \mathcal{A}$  eller  $\mathcal{V}$

$\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$      $\vec{y} = \underline{A} \vec{x}$

$\underline{A}$

$A^q = [\underline{A}]^q$

$\{\vec{q}_i\}$

$\{\vec{q}_i^*\}$

$S(\vec{\omega}^q) \equiv [\vec{\omega} \times]^q$

$\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle$

$\underline{x}^T = [x_1; x_2; \dots; x_n]$

$\underline{x} = [x_i], \quad x_i = [\underline{x}]$

$D = [d_{ij}], \quad d_{ij} = [D]_{ij}$

$c_\varphi$

$s_\varphi$

$C_a^b$

$R_a^b$

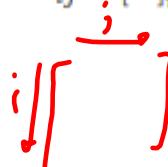
k.s.

$C_v^a$

$C_A^a$

RKM

$\mathbb{K}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$



Geometrisk vektor

Algebraisk vektor (kolonnematriise)

Operator

Operatoren  $\underline{A}$  representert i q-systemet

Basissystemet  $q$

Det duale basissystem for  $q$

Matriserepresentasjon av " $\vec{\omega} \times$ "-operatoren i q-systemet.

Indreproduktet av  $\vec{a}$  og  $\vec{b}$ .

Transponert vektor (Matlab skrivemåte)

Kolonnematriise med generelt element  $x_i$

Matrise med generelt element  $d_{ij}$

$\cos(\varphi)$

$\sin(\varphi)$

Retningskosinmatrise

Ortogonal retningskosinmatrise

Koordinatsystem

k.s.  $a$  i vektorrommet  $\mathcal{V}$

k.s.  $a$  i det affine rom  $\mathcal{A}$

Retningskosinmatrise

Skalarkropp, mengden av reelle tall, mengden av komplekse tall

$\mathcal{A}$ : affint rom

$\mathcal{V}$ : vektorrom

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\underline{x}^b = C_a^b \underline{x}^a$$



## A.2.1 Definisjoner

$\mathbb{K}$ : Stalarknapp: Definisjon av regneregler for bl.a. reelle og komplekse tall.

$\mathbb{N}$ : naturlige tall:  $1, 2, 3, \dots$  danner ikke stalar-knapp

$\mathbb{Z}$ : heltall  $\dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$\forall$ : for alle

$\exists$ : det finnes (ekisterer)

$\in$ : element i mengden

## Linear vector norm

Ett vektorrum defineras av en skalarknopp (bruker tall fra skalarknopen)

- Vektoraddition (+)
  - Skalar multiplikation (·)

## Eksempler på vektorer

Piler i planet eller rommet:

The diagram illustrates vector operations. On the left, two vectors  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  are shown originating from the same point, with their sum  $\vec{c} = \vec{a} + \vec{b}$  indicated by a dashed line. A red label '(+)' is placed next to this diagram. On the right, a vector  $\vec{a}$  is scaled by a factor of  $b$  to produce a new vector  $b\vec{a}$ , with a red label '(•)' placed next to it. To the right of the scaled vector, its magnitude is given as  $\|\vec{a}\| = a$  and  $\|\vec{b}\| = b$ .

Kolonnematriser med dimension n (n-tupler av tall)

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

(+)  $\underline{x} + \underline{y} = [x_i] + [y_i] = [x_i + y_i]$

(•)  $a \underline{x} = a[x_i] = [ax_i]$

n't ordens polynomer

$$\vec{x} = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$\vec{y} = b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

(+)  $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = (a_n + b_n)x^n + (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1})x^{n-1} + \dots + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_0 + b_0)$

(•)  $c\vec{x} = c(a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0)$

Basis

Lineært uavhengige vektorer  $\{\vec{q}_i\}$

$$a_1 \vec{q}_1 + a_2 \vec{q}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{q}_n = 0 \quad \forall \vec{q}_i \neq 0 \iff \text{alle } a_i = 0$$

hvis og bare hvis  
↓

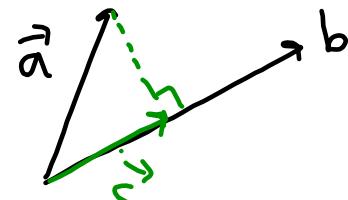
Gitt basisen  $\{\vec{q}_i\} \in V$  da kan enhver vektor  $\vec{v} \in V$  skrives entydig som:  $\vec{v} = v_1 \vec{q}_1 + v_2 \vec{q}_2 + \dots + v_n \vec{q}_n$

Indreprodukt

Bruktes bl. a. til å beregne lengden av vektorer, vinkel mellom vektorer, ortogonalitet og for å projisere en vektor ned på en annen vektor.

ExempelAlgebraiske vektorer

$$\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = \underline{x}^\top \underline{y} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

Geometriske vektorer

$$\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \cos \angle \vec{a} \vec{b}$$

$$\|\vec{c}\| = \|\vec{a}\| \cos \angle \vec{a} \vec{b}$$

Dessom  $\|\vec{b}\| = b = 1$  gir  $\vec{b} \langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = \vec{c}$  Projisera  $\vec{a}$  ned på  $\vec{b}$

$$\|\vec{a}\| = \sqrt{\langle \vec{a}, \vec{a} \rangle} = a \quad \text{normen/lengthen av } \vec{a} \quad |a|: \text{tallvärde i } a$$

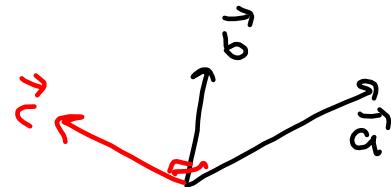
$$|a| = -a$$

## Kryssproduktet

$$\text{NB! } \vec{a} \times \vec{b} = -\vec{b} \times \vec{a}, \quad (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \times \vec{c} \neq \vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c})$$

Eksamplar

- Geometriske vektorer



$$\vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} \quad \|\vec{c}\| = \left\| \|\vec{a}\| \|\vec{b}\| \sin \angle \vec{a} \vec{b} \right\|$$

- Algebraiske vektorer

$$\underline{c}^t = \underline{a}^t \times \underline{b}^t = S(\underline{a}^t) \underline{b}^t$$

hvor  $\{\underline{q}_i^t\}$  er ortogonal med  
enhets lengde

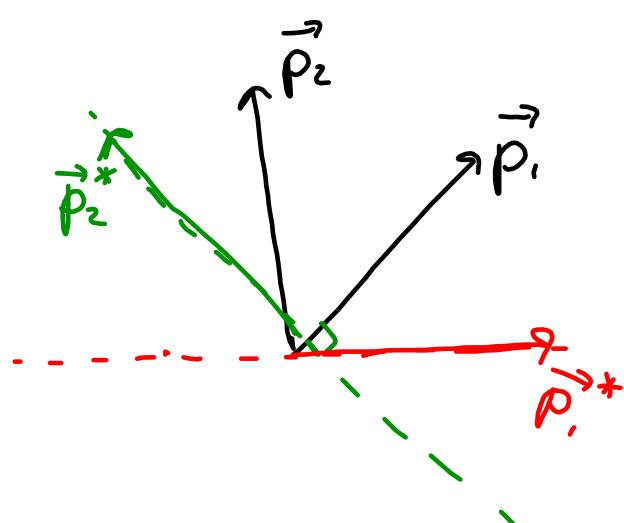
$$S(\underline{d}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -d_3 & d_2 \\ d_3 & 0 & -d_1 \\ -d_2 & d_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : \text{Skjersymmetrisk form av } \underline{d}$$

## Def. A.9 Dual basis

Bruktes til å dekomponere vektorer vha en gitt basis (romme)

NB! Dual basis fortsetter ikke ortogonale basisvektorer

Definisjon: Den duale basisen  $\{\vec{p}_i^*\}$  til basis  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$  er def. ved:



$$\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle = \delta_{ij} \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } i \neq j, \text{ } \delta_{ij} \text{ kallas} \\ 1 & \text{for } i = j \text{ knonecker deltaet} \end{cases}$$

$$\langle \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_1^* \rangle = 1, \quad \langle \vec{p}_2, \vec{p}_2^* \rangle = 1$$

$$\langle \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2^* \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \vec{p}_2, \vec{p}_1^* \rangle = 0 \text{ dus } \vec{p}_1 \perp \vec{p}_2$$

Vi skal senere vise at  $\vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^P \vec{p}_i$  hvor  $v_i^P = \langle \vec{v}, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{v}^P = \begin{bmatrix} v_1^P \\ v_2^P \\ v_3^P \end{bmatrix}$$

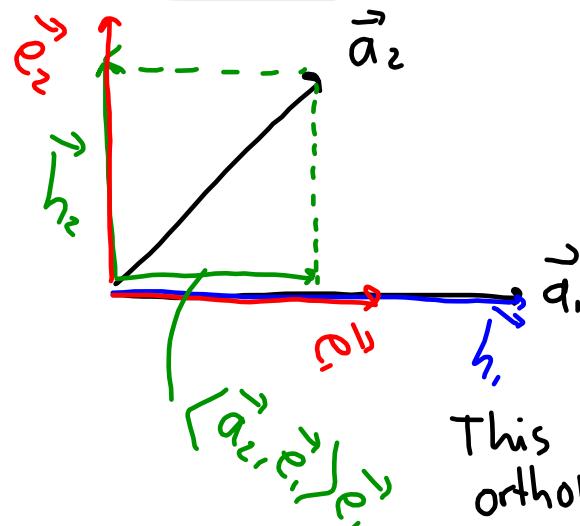
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**Teorem A.1 Grahm-Schmidt ortogonalisering.**

Dersom vi har et sett med basisvektorer  $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_n$  kan vi lage et ortonormalt sett av basisvektorer  $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n$  hvor  $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{e}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$  på følgende måte:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{h}_k &= \vec{a}_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \langle \vec{a}_k, \vec{e}_i \rangle \vec{e}_i \\ \vec{e}_k &= \frac{\vec{h}_k}{\|\vec{h}_k\|} \end{aligned} \right\} k = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (\text{A- 3})$$

Example n=2

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{h}_1 &= \vec{a}_1 - \sum_{i=1}^0 \langle \vec{a}_1, \vec{e}_i \rangle \vec{e}_i = \vec{a}_1 \\ \vec{e}_1 &= \vec{h}_1 / \|\vec{h}_1\| \Rightarrow \|\vec{e}_1\| = 1 \\ \vec{h}_2 &= \vec{a}_2 - \sum_{i=1}^1 \langle \vec{a}_2, \vec{e}_i \rangle \vec{e}_i = \vec{a}_2 - \langle \vec{a}_2, \vec{e}_1 \rangle \vec{e}_1 \\ \vec{e}_2 &= \vec{h}_2 / \|\vec{h}_2\| \Rightarrow \|\vec{e}_2\| = 1 \end{aligned}$$

This shows that we can always create an orthohormal (O.n.) set of basis vectors

### A.2.2 Matrix representation of geometrical vectors

Problem: Given a geometrical vector  $\vec{r}$  and a basis (frame)  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$ , what is the algebraic vector  $\underline{r}^P$

Theorem A.2 Column representation (algebraic vector) of  $\vec{r} \in V$ :

$$\vec{r} = r_1^P \vec{p}_1 + r_2^P \vec{p}_2 + \dots + r_n^P \vec{p}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^P \vec{p}_i$$

where  $r_i^P = \langle \vec{r}, \vec{p}_i \rangle$

$$\underline{r}^P = \begin{pmatrix} r_1^P \\ r_2^P \\ \vdots \\ r_n^P \end{pmatrix} = [r_i^P]$$

Proof

From linear algebra we can clearly write  $\vec{r} = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^p \vec{p}_i$

We first calculate the dual basis  $\{\vec{p}_i^*\}$

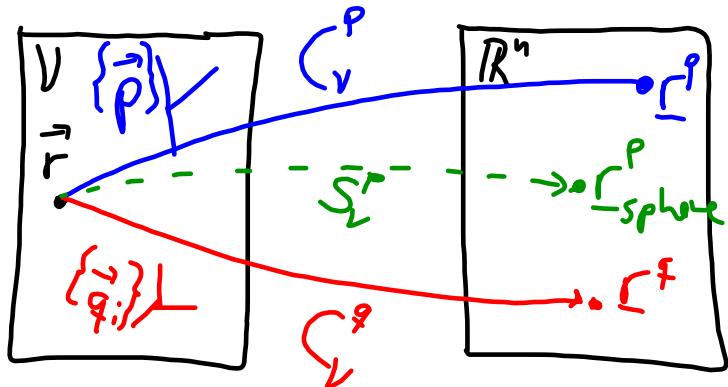
Take the inner product of  $\vec{r}$  with the dual basis vector  $\vec{p}_j^*$  where  $\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

$$\langle \vec{r}, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^p \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^p \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} = r_j^p$$

i.e. if we switch the index:

$$r_i^p = \langle \vec{r}, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle$$

i.e. given  $\vec{r}$  and  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$  then  $\underline{r}^P = [\langle \vec{r}, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle]$   $\vec{r} \xrightarrow{f_v^P} \underline{r}^P$



Independent of  
choice of basis-  
vectors, c.s.

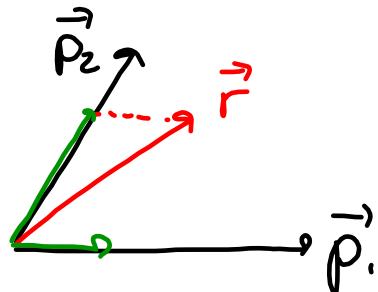
Dependent on choice  
of basis vectors and  
type of c.s. (Cartesian, spherical,  
polar,...)

$V$ : n-dimensional vector space  
 $R^n$ :  $R \times R \times R \times \dots \times R$  n-dim  
n-dimensional space of numbers  $\in R$   
 $f_v^P$ : coordinate system (c.s.)

If the basis vectors are  
orthonormal (o.n)

$$\langle p_i, p_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} = \langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_i^*$$

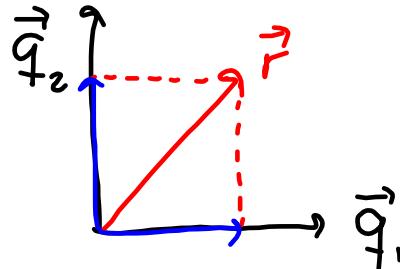


Law of parallelogram

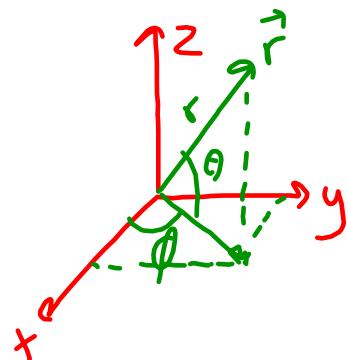
Mathematically we can  
use  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$  and  $\{\vec{p}_i^*\}$

When using polar or spherical coordinates we also need to specify a frame (basis).

$$C_v^P(\vec{r}) = \underline{r}^P, \quad J_{v,v}^P(\vec{r}) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi \\ \theta \\ r \end{bmatrix}$$



Projecting into the basis vectors  
Mathematically we use  $\{\vec{q}_i\}$



We see that the coordinates a coordinate function  $(C_v^P, K_v^P)$  gives depends on the frame  $\bar{F}_v^P$  and how the coordinates are calculated (cartesian, spherical, polar).

### A.2.3 Matrix representation of linear operators

An operator is a function that given a vector calculates a new one:

$$\mathcal{O}(\vec{r}) = \vec{a} \quad V \rightarrow V$$

We are going to look especially at linear operators

### Def. A.10 Linear operator

The operator  $A$  is linear  $\iff \forall \vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$  and  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  we can write:

$$A(a\vec{x} + b\vec{y}) = aA\vec{x} + bA\vec{y}$$

Example:  $\vec{W} \times \vec{r}$ ,  $A = \vec{W} \times$

$$A(a\vec{x} + b\vec{y}) = \vec{W} \times (a\vec{x} + b\vec{y}) = \vec{W} \times a\vec{x} + \vec{W} \times b\vec{y}$$

$$= a\underbrace{\vec{W} \times \vec{x}}_A + b\underbrace{\vec{W} \times \vec{y}}_A \quad \text{i.e. cross product}$$

$$= aA\vec{x} + bA\vec{y}$$

" $\vec{W} \times$ " is a linear operator

### Theorem A.3 Matrix representation of a linear operator

Given  $\{\vec{p}_i\} \in V$ , then any linear operator  $A$  can be clearly represented in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  as a matrix  $A^P$ . We have that:

$$\boxed{A^P = [a_{ij}^P] = [\langle A\vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j^* \rangle]}$$

$$\vec{y} = A \vec{x} \Leftrightarrow \underline{y}^P = A^P \underline{x}^P$$

Proof of the theorem: Given  $\mathcal{F}_V^P = \{\vec{p}_i\}$ ,  $\vec{y} = A \vec{x}$

We know:  $\vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^P \vec{p}_i$ ,  $\vec{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^P \vec{p}_j$ ,  $\vec{y} = A \vec{x}$

$$y_i^P = \langle \vec{y}, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle = \langle A \vec{x}, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle$$

$$= \left\langle A \left( \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^P \vec{p}_j \right), \vec{p}_i^* \right\rangle$$

$$= \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^P A \vec{p}_j, \vec{p}_i^* \right\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^P \underbrace{\left\langle A \vec{p}_j, \vec{p}_i^* \right\rangle}_{a_{ij}^P}$$

$$y_i^P = \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^P a_{ij}^P$$

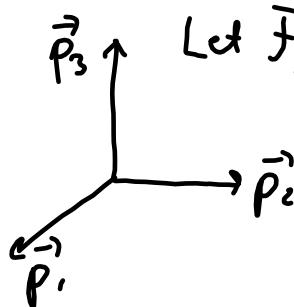
$$\vec{y}^P = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^P \\ y_2^P \\ y_3^P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^P & a_{12}^P & a_{13}^P \\ a_{21}^P & a_{22}^P & a_{23}^P \\ a_{31}^P & a_{32}^P & a_{33}^P \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1^P \\ x_2^P \\ x_3^P \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{\vec{y}^P} = \underline{A^P} \underline{\vec{x}^P}$$

$$\underline{\vec{y}^P} = A^P \underline{\vec{x}^P}$$

where  $A^P = [a_{ij}^P] = [\langle A \vec{p}_j, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle]$   
q.e.d

### Example A.4 Matrix representation of the " $\vec{w} \times$ " operator



Let  $f_i^P$  be orthonormal

$$\vec{w} = w_1^P \vec{p}_1 + w_2^P \vec{p}_2 + w_3^P \vec{p}_3$$

$$\underline{w} = [w_1^P; w_2^P; w_3^P]$$

$$\vec{A} \vec{a} = \vec{w} \times \vec{a}$$

The def. of cross product shows that

" $\vec{w} \times$ " is a linear operator (shown before)

$$\text{i.e. } A^P = [\langle \vec{A} \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j \rangle]_{\text{o.n}} = [\langle \vec{w} \times \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j \rangle]$$

$$= [\langle (\vec{w}_1 \vec{p}_1 + \vec{w}_2 \vec{p}_2 + \vec{w}_3 \vec{p}_3) \times \vec{p}_j, \vec{p}_i \rangle]$$

$$\vec{p}_i \times \vec{p}_i = 0 \quad i=1,2,3$$

$$\vec{p}_i \times \vec{p}_2 = \vec{p}_3 = -\vec{p}_2 \times \vec{p}_i$$

$$\vec{p}_i \times \vec{p}_3 = -\vec{p}_2 = -\vec{p}_3 \times \vec{p}_i$$

$$\vec{p}_2 \times \vec{p}_3 = \vec{p}_1 = -\vec{p}_3 \times \vec{p}_2$$

$$\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_i \rangle = 1, \quad i=1,2,3$$

$$\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j \rangle = 0, \quad i \neq j$$

$$A^P = \begin{bmatrix} i=1 & j=1 & j=2 & j=3 \\ \vec{p}_1 & \vec{p}_2 & \vec{p}_3 & \vec{p}_1 \\ \hline w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_1 \\ w_2 & w_3 & w_1 & w_2 \\ w_3 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{A}^P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -w_3 & w_2 \\ w_3 & 0 & -w_1 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = S(\underline{w}^P) \quad S + S^T = 0$$

Skew symmetrical form

Note that the basisvectors is o.n.

$$\vec{b} = \vec{w} \times \vec{a} \iff \underline{b}^P = S(\underline{w}^P) \underline{a}^P$$

We can now write geometrical equations with geometrical vectors and operators with algebraical equations of matrices.

$$\boxed{F4} \quad \begin{array}{c|c} \vec{x} & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_v^a} \underline{x}^a \\ \vec{A} & \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}_v^b} \underline{A}^b \end{array} \quad \mid \quad \vec{w} \times \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}_v^a} S(\underline{w}^a) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{New exam date:} \\ \text{Tue 15th Dec.} \\ \text{o.n. basis vectors} \end{array}$$

Note:  $(\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \times \vec{c} \neq \vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c})$

$$\vec{a} \rightarrow \underline{a}^P, \vec{b} \rightarrow \underline{b}^P, \vec{c} \rightarrow \underline{c}^P$$

$$(\underline{a}^P \times \underline{b}^P) \times \underline{c}^P = S(S(\underline{a}^P) \underline{b}^P) \underline{c}^P$$

$$\underline{a}^P \times (\underline{b}^P \times \underline{c}^P) = S(\underline{a}^P) (S(\underline{b}^P) \underline{c}^P) = S(\underline{a}^P) S(\underline{b}^P) \underline{c}^P$$

### A.2.4 Matriserepresentasjon ved bytte av basisvektorer

**Problem A.3** Bestem sammenhengen mellom matriserepresentasjonene av vektoren  $\vec{r}$  og operatoren  $\mathbf{A}$  i hhv q- og p-systemet. Dvs sammenhengen mellom  $\underline{r}^q$  og  $\underline{r}^p$ ,  $A^q$  og  $A^p$

**Teorem A.4 Matriserepresentasjon ved bytte av basisvektorer.**

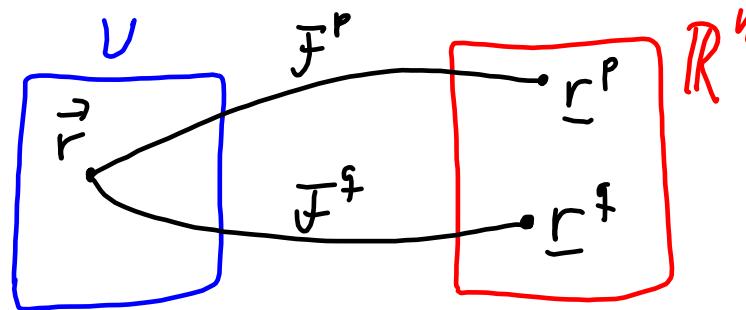
Gitt to basissystemer  $\{\vec{q}_i\}$  og  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$  i vektorrommet  $\mathcal{V}$ . La  $\vec{r}$  og  $\mathbf{A}$  være hhv en vektor og en lineær operator i  $\mathcal{V}$ . Da har vi følgende sammenhenger mellom matriserepresentasjonene i de to basissystemene :

$$\underline{r}^q = C_p^q \underline{r}^p \quad \text{hvor} \quad C_p^q = [\langle \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \rangle] \quad (\text{A- 10})$$

$$\underline{r}^p = C_q^p \underline{r}^q \quad \text{hvor} \quad C_q^p = [\langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{p}_i^* \rangle] \quad (\text{A- 11})$$

$$A^q = C_p^q A^p C_q^p \quad \text{og} \quad A^p = C_q^p A^q C_p^q \quad (\text{A- 12})$$

$C_p^q$  og  $C_q^p$  kalles retningskosinmatriser (RKM). (Vi skal senere se at den kan brukes i mange sammenhenger og har navn deretter. Ovenfor brukes den som en koordinattransformasjonsmatrise, KTM.)



Proof:  $\underline{C}^f = C_p^f \underline{C}^p$

$$\vec{r} = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^q \vec{q}_j = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^p \vec{p}_j$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_i^q &= \left\langle \vec{r}_i, q_i^* \right\rangle = \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^q \vec{q}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle = \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^p \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^q \underbrace{\left\langle \vec{q}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle}_{d_{ij}} = \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^p \left\langle \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ r_i^q \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \vec{P}_n, \vec{q}_i^+ \rangle \\ \langle \vec{P}_1, \vec{q}_i^+ \rangle \langle \vec{P}_2, \vec{q}_i^+ \rangle \dots \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1^p \\ \vdots \\ r_i^p \\ \vdots \\ r_n^p \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \left\langle \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^P \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^n r_j^P \left\langle \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i^* \right\rangle \\
 &\quad \text{with } \vec{p}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^P \left\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{q}_j^* \right\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{r^q = C_p^q r^p, \quad C_p^q = \left[ \langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{q}_i^* \rangle \right]}$$

Proot A-12

$$A^q = C_p^q A^p C_q^p$$

$$f_y^q : \textcircled{1} \underline{y}^q = A^q \underline{x}^q \quad | \quad \textcircled{2} \quad \underline{y}^q = C_p^q \underline{y}^p$$

$$f_v^p : \textcircled{3} \underline{y}^p = A^p \underline{x}^p \quad | \quad \textcircled{4} \quad \underline{x}^p = C_q^p \underline{x}^q$$

$$\underline{y}^q = A^q \underline{x}^q = C_p^q A^p C_q^p \underline{x}^q$$

$$\begin{array}{c} C_p^q A^p \\ \underbrace{\quad \quad \quad}_{C_p^q} \quad \underline{x}^p \\ C_q^p \quad \underline{y}^p \\ \hline \underline{y}^q \end{array}$$

$$\underline{y}^q \stackrel{\textcircled{1}}{=} A^q \underline{x}^q \stackrel{\textcircled{2}}{=} C_p^q \underline{y}^p \stackrel{\textcircled{3}}{=} C_p^q A^p \underline{x}^p \stackrel{\textcircled{4}}{=} C_p^q A^p C_q^p \underline{x}^q$$

$A^q$

$$A^q = C_p^q A^p C_q^p$$

Similarity transformation

**Eksempel A.5 Teorem A.5 RKM for to ortonormale basissystem**

Dersom vi har to ortonormale basisvektorsettet  $\{\vec{q}_i\}$  og  $\{\vec{p}_i\}$ , dvs

$$\langle \vec{q}_i, \vec{q}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \quad (\text{A- } 13)$$

$$\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

så vil de duale basissistema være lik basissistema

$$\vec{q}_i = \vec{q}_i^*, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (\text{A- } 14)$$

$$\vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_i^*, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

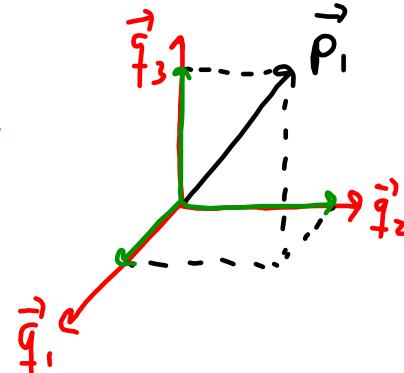
Dette gir

$$C_p^q = [\langle \vec{p}_j, \vec{q}_i \rangle] = [\cos(\angle \vec{p}_j \vec{q}_i)] = R_p^q \quad n=3 \quad (\text{A- } 15)$$

Dette viser hvorfor  $C_p^q$  kalles en **retningskosinimatrise**. Vi vil innføre en spesiell notasjon i dette tilfellet med ortonormale basissystemer og betegner en ortonormal RKM med  $R_p^q$ .

$$R_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_1 \vec{q}_1 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_1 \vec{q}_1}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_2 \vec{q}_1 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_2 \vec{q}_1}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_3 \vec{q}_1 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_3 \vec{q}_1} \\ \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_1 \vec{q}_2 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_1 \vec{q}_2}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_2 \vec{q}_2 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_2 \vec{q}_2}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_3 \vec{q}_2 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_3 \vec{q}_2} \\ \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_1 \vec{q}_3 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_1 \vec{q}_3}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_2 \vec{q}_3 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_2 \vec{q}_3}, & \cos \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_3 \vec{q}_3 \rangle}_{\vec{P}_3 \vec{q}_3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{P}_1^q & \vec{P}_2^q & \vec{P}_3^q \end{bmatrix}$$

See that  $i$ th column in  $R_p^q$  represents the unit vector  $\vec{p}_i$  in the  $\vec{q}$ -frame



Example ( $\underline{Q}_{pqg} A \underline{J}$ ) - Inner product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  o.n. basis vectors.

$$\langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p \vec{p}_i, \sum_{j=1}^n b_j^p \vec{p}_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n a_i^p b_j^p \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}_i, \vec{p}_j \rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^p b_i^p = (\underline{a}^p)^T \underline{b}^p$$

$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$n=3 \quad \langle \vec{a}, \vec{b} \rangle = (\underline{a}^p)^T \underline{b}^p = \| \vec{a} \| \| \vec{b} \| \cos \angle \vec{a} \vec{b}$$

**Teorem A.6** RKM  $R_p^q$  er en ortogonal matrise

Retningskisinmatrisa mellom to rammer som begge har ortonormale basisvektorer,  $R_p^q$ , er en ortognormal matrise. Dvs

$$(R_p^q)^{-1} = (R_p^q)^T \quad (\text{A- 16})$$

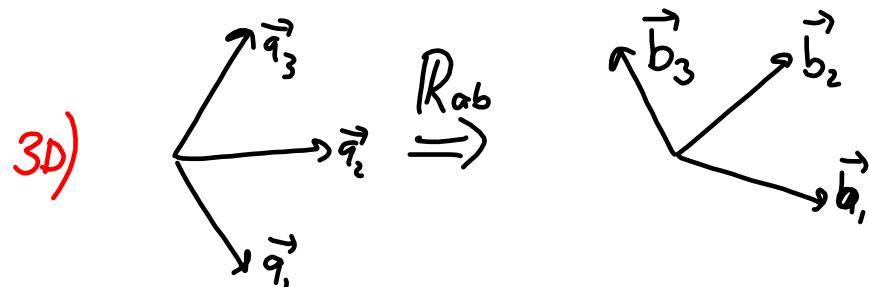
Proof:

$$R_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{p}_1^q & \vec{p}_2^q & \vec{p}_3^q \end{bmatrix}, (R_p^q)^T = \begin{bmatrix} (\vec{p}_1^q)^T \\ (\vec{p}_2^q)^T \\ (\vec{p}_3^q)^T \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (R_p^q)^T R_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I = (R_p^q)^{-1} R_p^q$$

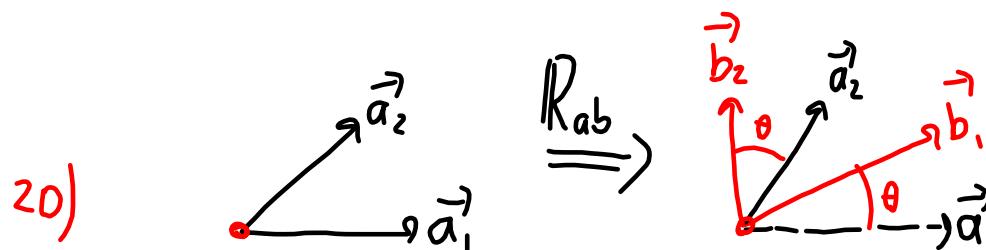
$(\vec{p}_i^q)^T \vec{p}_j^q = \langle \vec{p}_i^q, \vec{p}_j^q \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

## A2.5 Matrix representation of the rotation operator

Def. A.11 A rotation operator is a linear operator  $R_{ab} : V \rightarrow V$  defined by:  $\vec{b}_i = R_{ab} \vec{a}_i$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$



All basis vectors are rotated the same angle around the same rotational axes



Question: What is the representation of  $R_{ab}$  in  $\bar{F}_r^a$  and  $\bar{F}_r^b$ .

I.e. what is  $[R_{ab}]^a$  and  $[R_{ab}]^b$

Theorem A.7 Matrix rep. of  $R_{ab}$  in the frames  $\bar{F}_r^a$  and  $\bar{F}_r^b$  is:

$$[R_{ab}]^a = [R_{ab}]^b = C_b^a$$

NB!  $R_{ab} \Leftrightarrow C_b^a$  | Define:  $R_{ab}^a = [R_{ab}]^a = C_b^a$   
 $R_{ab}^b = [R_{ab}]^b = C_b^a$

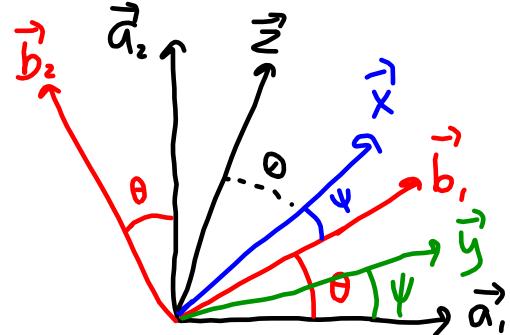
Differentiate between physically rotate a vector ( $R_{ab} \rightarrow C_b^a$ ) and  
 to transform a vector between different frames  $C_b^a$

Proof:

$$[R_{ab}]^a = R_{ab}^a = [\langle R_{ab} \vec{a}_j, \vec{a}_i^* \rangle] = [\langle \vec{b}_j, \vec{a}_i^* \rangle] = C_b^a$$

$$[R_{ab}]^b = R_{ab}^b = C_a^b R_{ab}^a C_b^a = \underbrace{C_a^b C_b^a}_{I} C_b^a = C_b^a$$

## Illustration of the rotation operator



$R_{ab}$ : rotate  $a \rightarrow b$  an angle  $\theta$  around axis 3 ( $\vec{a}_3$ )

Assume  $\{\vec{a}_i\}$  is o.n.  $\Rightarrow \{\vec{b}_i\}$  is o.n. and  $\|\vec{x}\| = 1$

$$\underline{x}^b = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi \\ \sin \psi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x}^a = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta + \psi) \\ \sin(\theta + \psi) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Def: } \underline{y}^a = \underline{x}^b$$

$$\underline{x}^a = R_b^a \underline{x}^b = R_b^a \underline{y}^a$$

$$\underline{x}^a = R_{ba}^a \underline{y}^a$$

$$\vec{x} = R_{ab} \vec{y}$$

$$\text{Def: } \underline{z}^b = \underline{x}^a$$

$$\underline{z}^b = R_b^a \underline{x}^b$$

$$\underline{z}^b = R_{ab}^b \underline{x}^b$$

$$\vec{z} = R_{ab} \vec{x}$$

$$\underline{x}^a = C_b^a \underline{x}^b \stackrel{\text{o.n.}}{=} R_b^a \underline{x}^b$$

$R_b^a$  works as a rot. opr. when used in the same frame. The rotation is the same as rotating from  $\{a\}$  to  $\{b\}$ . This is an active operation.

$$R_{ab}^a = R_{ab}^b = R_b^a$$

F5/

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Exam 15. Dec

### A.2.6 Interpretation of the direction cosine matrix (DCM) (RKM)

1.  $C_b^a$  is a coordinate transformation matrix (CTM)

$$\underline{C}^a = C_b \underline{C}^b$$

$$C_b^a \text{ on } R_b^a = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b}_1^a & \underline{b}_2^a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi \end{bmatrix}$$

This is a passive operation

2.  $C_b^a$  is an attitude matrix (stillingsmatrise)

$$C_b^a = \left[ \langle \vec{b}_i, \vec{a}_i \rangle \right] = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \vec{b}_1, \vec{a}_1 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{a}_1 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{a}_1 \rangle \\ \langle \vec{b}_1, \vec{a}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{a}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{a}_2 \rangle \\ \langle \vec{b}_1, \vec{a}_3 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{a}_3 \rangle & \langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{a}_3 \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{b}_1^a & \underline{b}_2^a & \underline{b}_3^a \end{bmatrix}$$

3.  $C_b^a$  is a rotation matrix (RM)

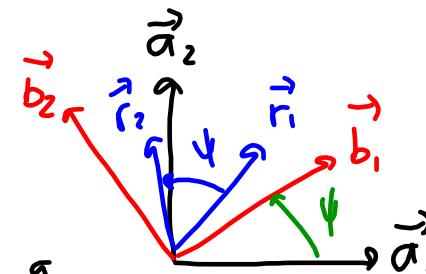
$$C_b^a = [R_{ab}]^a = [R_{ab}]^b$$

$$\vec{r}_2 = R_{ab} \vec{r}_1 \Leftrightarrow \underline{r}_2^a = [R_{ab}]^a \underline{r}_1^a = R_{ab} \underline{r}_1^a = C_b^a \underline{r}_1^a$$

$$\underline{r}_2^b = [R_{ab}]^b \underline{r}_1^b = R_{ab} \underline{r}_1^b = C_b^a \underline{r}_1^b$$

This is an active operation. The vector is rotated.

The coordinate transformation matrix (CTM)  $C_b^a$  that transforms a vector in the b-frame to the a-frame acts as a rotationmatrix in one and the same frame, and rotates the vector in the same way as the a-frame needs to rotate to coincide with the b-frame.



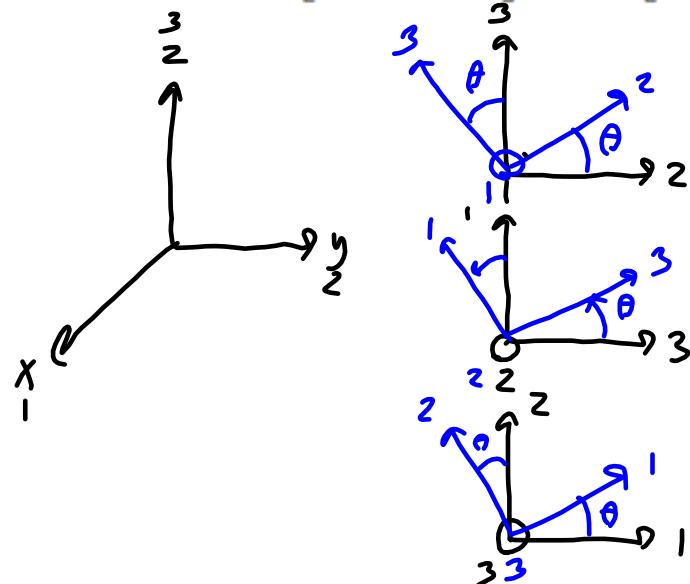
### A.2.7 Representasjon av ortogonale RKM

Vi skal i dette avsnittet se på ulike måter å representere ortogonale RKM.

#### Eulervinkelrepresentasjon av RKM

**Elementære RKM.** Gitt rammene  $q$  og  $p$ . Dersom en tenker seg at rammene opprinnelig var sammenfallende fås den endelige  $p$ -ramma ved å dreie den en vinkel  $\theta$  om  $q_i$ -aksen. Vi har følgende elementære RKMer:

$$R_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c_\theta & -s_\theta \\ 0 & s_\theta & c_\theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad R_2 = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta & 0 & s_\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s_\theta & 0 & c_\theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad R_3 = \begin{bmatrix} c_\theta & -s_\theta & 0 \\ s_\theta & c_\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A- 30})$$



$$R_1(\theta) = R_{\text{blue}}^{\text{black}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & \sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculation rules for the elementary DCM

$$R_i(\theta_1 + \theta_2) = R_i(\theta_1) R_i(\theta_2) = R_i(\theta_2) R_i(\theta_1)$$

$$(R_i(\theta))^{-1} = (R_i(\theta))^T = R_i(-\theta)$$

Generally  
 $R_a^c = R_b^c R_a^b \neq R_a^b R_b^c$   
DCM are non-commutative



$$(R_b^a)^T = R_a^b$$

## Rotation sequences

1. Rotation around new axis (Euler angles)

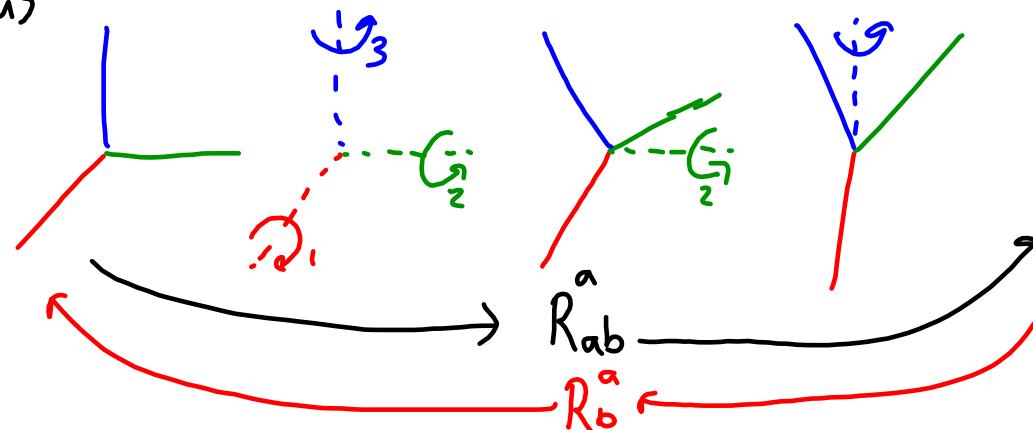
Rot. 1	1 1 2 2 3 3	1 1 2 2 3 3
Rot. 2	2 3 1 3 1 2	2 3 1 3 1 2
Rot. 3	3 2 3 1 2 1	1 1 2 2 3 3

} 12 sequences

3-2-1 Euler angles

2. Rotation around fixed axis (12 sequences)

{a}



{b}

$$\begin{aligned} R_{ab}^a &: \text{rot. } a \rightarrow b \\ R_b^a &: \text{transforms } b \rightarrow a \\ R_b^a &= R_{ab}^a = R_{ab} \end{aligned}$$

Example

What is  $R_b^a$  when rotating  $\psi$  around axis 3,  $\theta$  around axis 2 and  $\phi$  around axis 1?

Fixed axis:  $R_b^a = R_1(\phi) R_2(\theta) R_3(\psi)$

New axis :  $R_b^a = R_3(\psi) R_2(\theta) R_1(\phi)$

**Teorem A.8 Sammenheng mellom rotasjon om nye og faste akser**

Tre rotasjoner om nye akser (eulervinkler) gir den samme endelige stilling som de samme rotasjoner tatt i omvendt rekkefølge om faste akser, dvs :

$${}^E R_p^q(\alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k) = {}^F R_p^q(\gamma_k, \beta_j, \alpha_i) \quad (\text{A- 35})$$

$${}^E R_p^q(\alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k) = R_i(\alpha) R_j(\beta) R_k(\gamma)$$

$${}^F R_p^q(\gamma_k, \beta_j, \alpha_i) = R_i(\alpha) R_j(\beta) R_k(\gamma)$$

Direct problem

Given the rotation sequence and angles (fixed or new axis) find the DCM

$$\alpha; \beta; \gamma \rightarrow R_p^f$$

Gives always a clear

$R_p^f$ -matrix

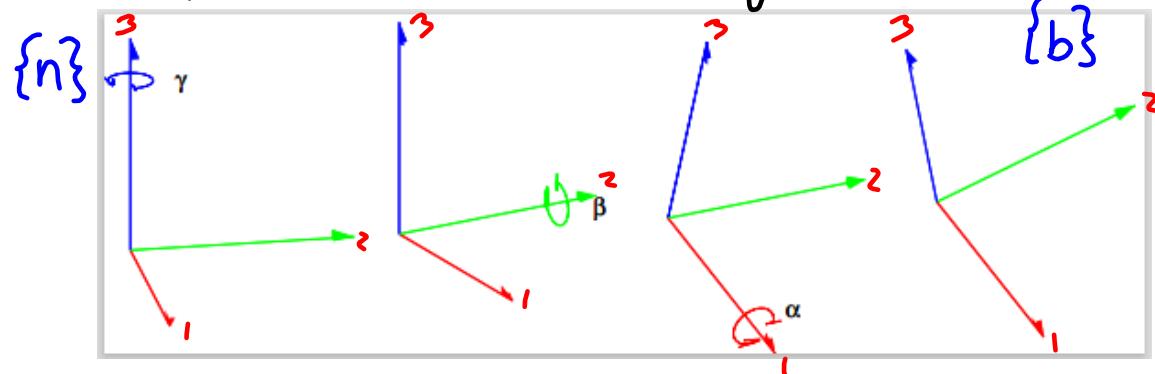
Inverse problem

Given  $R_p^f$ -matrix find

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  for a given rotation sequence

Cannot always find a unique solution  $\Rightarrow$  we have singularities  
(for 3-2-1 euler angles if we rotate 90° around axis Z.)

. Example A.6 3-2-1 Euler angles.



$$R_b^n = R_3(\gamma)R_2(\beta)R_1(\alpha)$$

b: body frame

n: navigation frame

### Eksempel A.6 3-2-1 Eulervinkler.

Ved simulering av fly og båter bruker en ofte følgende stillingsmatrise:

$$R_b^n = {}^E R_b^n(\theta_3, \theta_2, \theta_1) = R_3(\theta_3)R_2(\theta_2)R_1(\theta_1) \quad (\text{A- 36})$$

Multipliseres de elementære RKM sammen får vi :

$${}^E R_b^n(\theta_3, \theta_2, \theta_1) = \begin{bmatrix} c_{\theta_3}c_{\theta_2} & c_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_2}s_{\theta_1} - s_{\theta_3}c_{\theta_1} & c_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_2}c_{\theta_1} + s_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_1} \\ s_{\theta_3}c_{\theta_2} & s_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_2}s_{\theta_1} + c_{\theta_3}c_{\theta_1} & s_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_2}c_{\theta_1} - c_{\theta_3}s_{\theta_1} \\ -s_{\theta_2} & c_{\theta_2}s_{\theta_1} & c_{\theta_2}c_{\theta_1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A- 37})$$

$$r_{31} = -\sin(\theta_2)$$

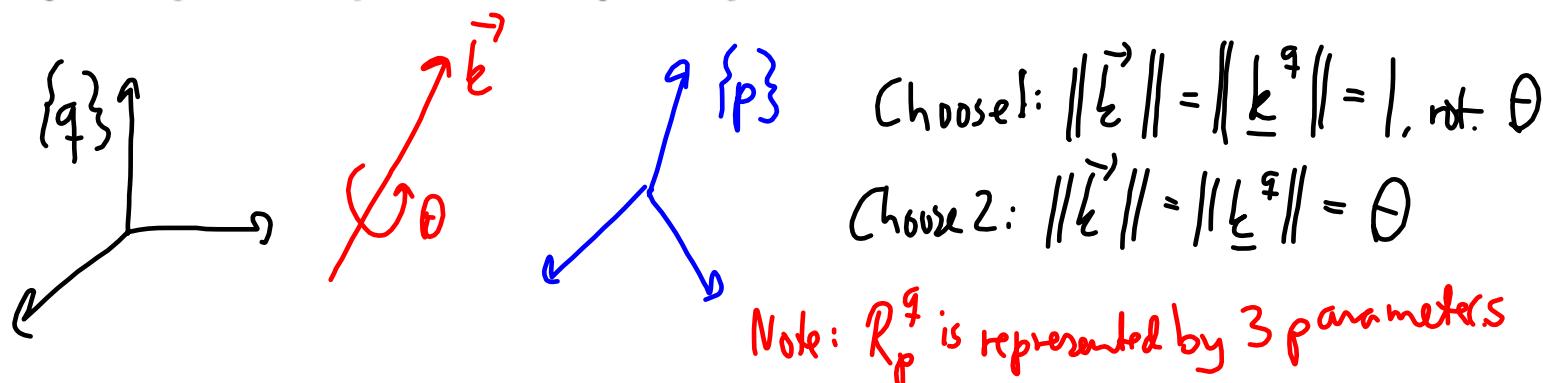
**Eksempel A.8 Det inverse problem for 3-2-1 Eulervinkler,:**Gitt  $R_b^n$  finn vinklene, har løsningen (Craig 1989, s. 47)

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= \text{atan}2(r_{32}/c_{\theta_2}, r_{33}/c_{\theta_2}) \\ \theta_2 &= \text{atan}2(-r_{31}, \sqrt{r_{11}^2 + r_{21}^2}) \quad \leftarrow \text{Solve first} \\ \theta_3 &= \text{atan}2(r_{21}/c_{\theta_2}, r_{11}/c_{\theta_2})\end{aligned}\quad (\text{A- 39})$$

Vi løser først for  $\theta_2$ . For  $\theta_2 = \pm 90^\circ$  har vi singularitet og bare summen av  $\theta_1$  og  $\theta_3$  kan beregnes.**Angle-axis representation of the direction cosine matrix (DCM)****Teorem A.9 Eulers rotasjonsteorem**En vilkårlig retningscosinmatrise  $R_p^q$  kan fås ved å rotere p-systemet en vinkel  $\theta$  om aksen  $\underline{k}^q = [k_1^q, k_2^q, k_3^q]$  ( $\|\underline{k}^q\| = 1$ ). Dvs vi har :

$$R_p^q = R_{\underline{k}^q}(\theta) \quad (\text{A- 40})$$

Denne representasjonen kalles for vinkel-akse representasjon.



**Teorem A.10 Det direkte problem for vinkel-akse**

Når vinkel-akserepresentasjonen er gitt kan retningskosinmatrisa beregenes på følgende måte:

$$R_p^q = R_{\underline{k}}(\theta) = I + S(\underline{k}^q) \sin \theta + S^2(\underline{k}^q)(1 - \cos \theta) \quad (\text{A- 41})$$

$$= I \cos \theta + S(\underline{k}^q) \sin \theta + \underline{k}^q (\underline{k}^q)^T (1 - \cos \theta) \quad (\text{A- 42})$$

No  
Proof

Fortegnet til  $\theta$  bestemmes ut fra høgrehåndsregelen.

**Teorem A.11 Det inverse problem for vinkel-akse**

Gitt retningskosinmatrise

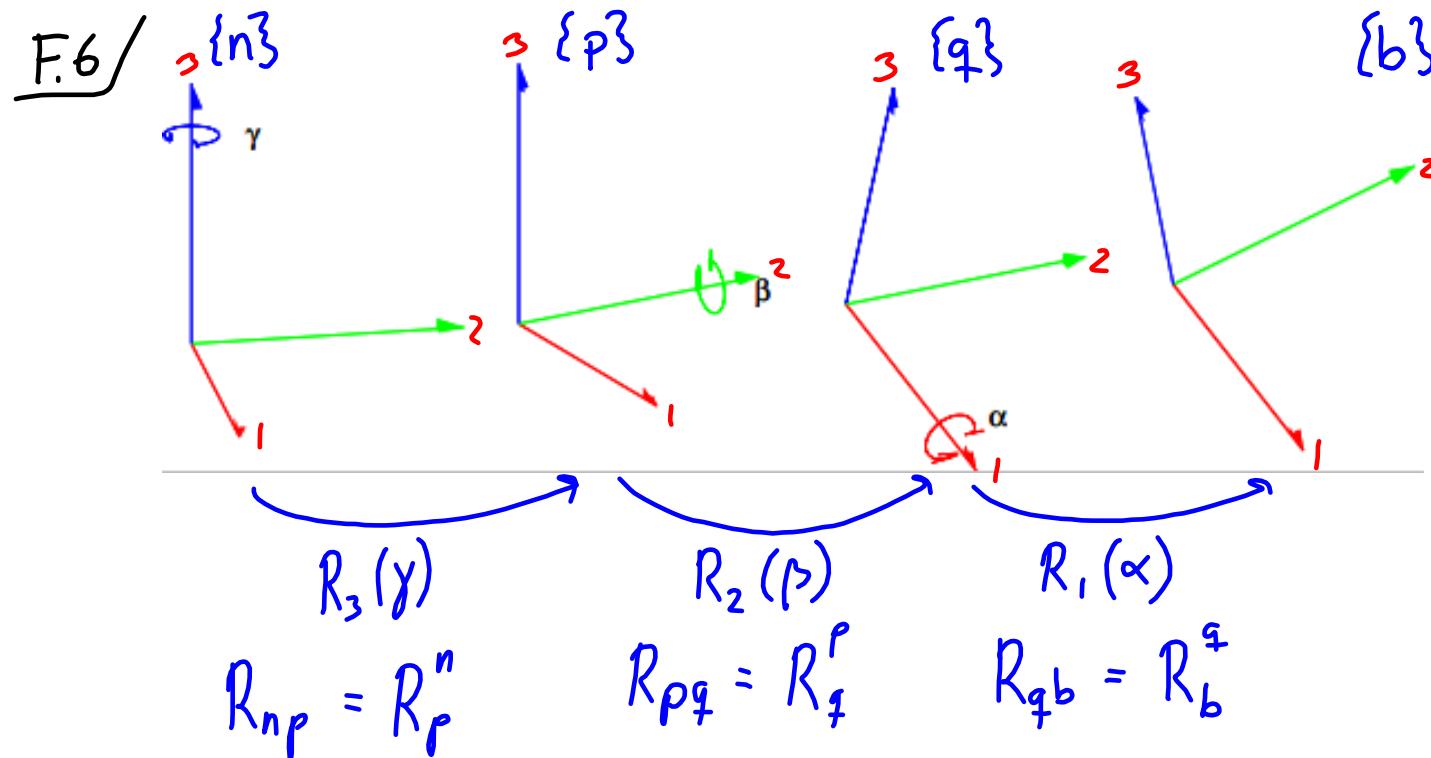
$$R_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A- 43})$$

da er vinkel-akserepresentasjonen gitt ved

$$\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{r_{11} + r_{22} + r_{33} - 1}{2}\right); \quad \underline{k}^q = \frac{1}{2 \sin \theta} \begin{bmatrix} r_{32} - r_{23} \\ r_{13} - r_{31} \\ r_{21} - r_{12} \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{A- 44})$$

No  
Proof

Vi får her en  $\theta \in [0^\circ, 180^\circ]$ , det finns en annen løsning  $(-\underline{k}^q, -\theta)$  som gir samme retningskosinmatrise. NB: for små vinkler  $\theta$  kan de numeriske feilene ved bestemmelse av  $\underline{k}^q$  bli store.



$$R_{nb} = R_b^n = R_p^n R_q^p R_b^q = R_3(\gamma) R_2(\beta) R_1(\alpha)$$

## Eulers symmetrical parameter representation of the DCM

Definisjon A.12 Eulers symmetriske parametre

Vha vinkel-akse representasjonen kan vi definere en 4-parameter representasjon på følgende måte :

$$\underline{k}^q = \begin{pmatrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \\ k_3 \end{pmatrix}, \theta \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \varepsilon_1 = k_1 \sin(\theta/2) \\ \varepsilon_2 = k_2 \sin(\theta/2) \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \varepsilon_0^2 + \varepsilon_1^2 + \varepsilon_2^2 + \varepsilon_3^2 = 1 \quad (\text{A- 45})$$

$$\sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \underbrace{\left(k_1^2 + k_2^2 + k_3^2\right)}_{1} + \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = 1$$

## Quaternion representation of the DCM.

A quaternion (thouze with unit length) can represent the DCM  $R_p^q$  if it is defined using Eulers symmetrical parameters in the following way :

$$\boxed{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}_p^q = \epsilon_0 + \epsilon_1 \mathbf{i} + \epsilon_2 \mathbf{j} + \epsilon_3 \mathbf{k}}$$

$$\|\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}_p^q\| = \left( \sum_{i=0}^3 \epsilon_i^2 \right)^{1/2} = 1$$

$\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}\mathbf{k} = -1$     E.I. viewed as a complex number.

$\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j} = -\mathbf{j}\mathbf{i} = \mathbf{k}$

$\mathbf{j}\mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{k}\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i}$

$\mathbf{k}\mathbf{i} = -\mathbf{i}\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j}$

View  $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{k}$  as vectors in 3D (o.h.) and the product of two vectors as the "x"-product.

Determinant of  $R_p^q$ :  $|R_p^q| = 1 \iff \|\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}_p^q\| = 1$

Renormalization of  $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{E}}_p^q$  is much simpler than renormalization of  $R_p^q$  ( $|R_p^q| = 1, \mathbf{p}_1^q \perp \mathbf{p}_2^q \perp \mathbf{p}_3^q$ )

Calculation rules for quaternions.

$$R_c^a = R_b^a R_c^b \Leftrightarrow \tilde{\epsilon}_c^a = \tilde{\epsilon}_c^b \tilde{\epsilon}_b^a$$

$$R_b^a \underline{r}^b \Leftrightarrow (\tilde{\epsilon}_b^a)^* \underline{r}^b \tilde{\epsilon}_b^a$$

where:

$$(\tilde{\epsilon}_b^a)^* = \epsilon_0 - \epsilon_1 i - \epsilon_2 j - \epsilon_3 k$$

$$\underline{r}^b = r_1^b i + r_2^b j + r_3^b k, \quad \underline{r}^b = \begin{pmatrix} r_1^b \\ r_2^b \\ r_3^b \end{pmatrix}$$

Parametrisering	Notasjon	Fordel	Ulempe	Vanilige anvendelser
RKM	$C_p^q (R_p)$ D.h.	Ingen singulariteter, ingen trigonometriske funksjoner, enkel produktregel for suksessive rotasjoner	Seks redundante parametre	I analysen, for å transformere vektorer fra et k.s. til et annet
Eulervinkler	$\varphi, \theta, \psi$	Ingen redundante parametre, klar fysisk tolkning	Trigonometriske funksjoner, singulariteter for visse vinkler, ingen enkel produktregel for suksessive rotasjoner	Analytiske studier, 3-akset stillingskontrol av legemer
Vinkel-akse	$\underline{k}, \theta$	Klar fysisk tolkning	En redundant parameter, aksen er udefinert når $\sin \theta = 0$ , trigonometriske funksjoner	Reorienteringsmanøvre (slew)
Kvaternioner	$\epsilon$	Ingen singulariteter, ingen trigonometriske funksjoner, enkel produktregel for suksessive rotasjoner	En redundant parameter, ingen klar fysisk tolkning	Trehetsnavigasjonsberegninger

$$\|\vec{k}\| = \theta$$

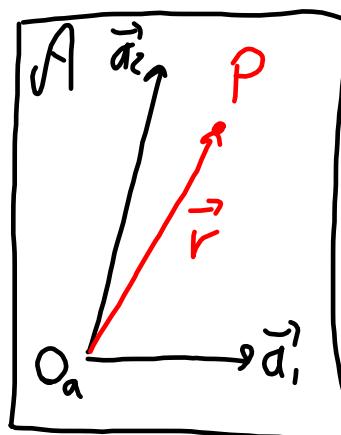
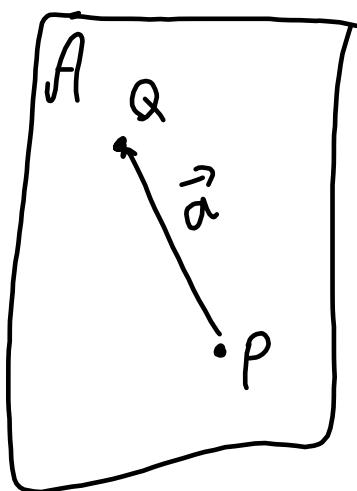
## A.3. Affine space.

### Definisjon A.14 Affint rom

La  $\mathcal{A}$  være en ikke-tom mengde av punkter, og la  $\mathcal{V}$  være et vektorrom over skalarkroppen  $\mathbb{K}$ . Anta at for vilkårlige punkt  $P \in \mathcal{A}$  og  $\vec{a} \in \mathcal{V}$  er det definert en addisjon  $P + \vec{a} \in \mathcal{A}$  som tilfredstiller følgende betingelser :

1.  $P + \vec{0} = P$  ( $\vec{0}$  er nullvektoren i  $\mathcal{V}$ )
2.  $(P + \vec{a}) + \vec{b} = P + (\vec{a} + \vec{b})$  for  $\forall \vec{a}, \vec{b} \in \mathcal{V}$
3. For enhver  $Q \in \mathcal{A}$  eksisterer en entydig vektor  $\vec{a} \in \mathcal{V}$  slik at  $Q = P + \vec{a}$

Da er  $\mathcal{A}$  et affint rom.

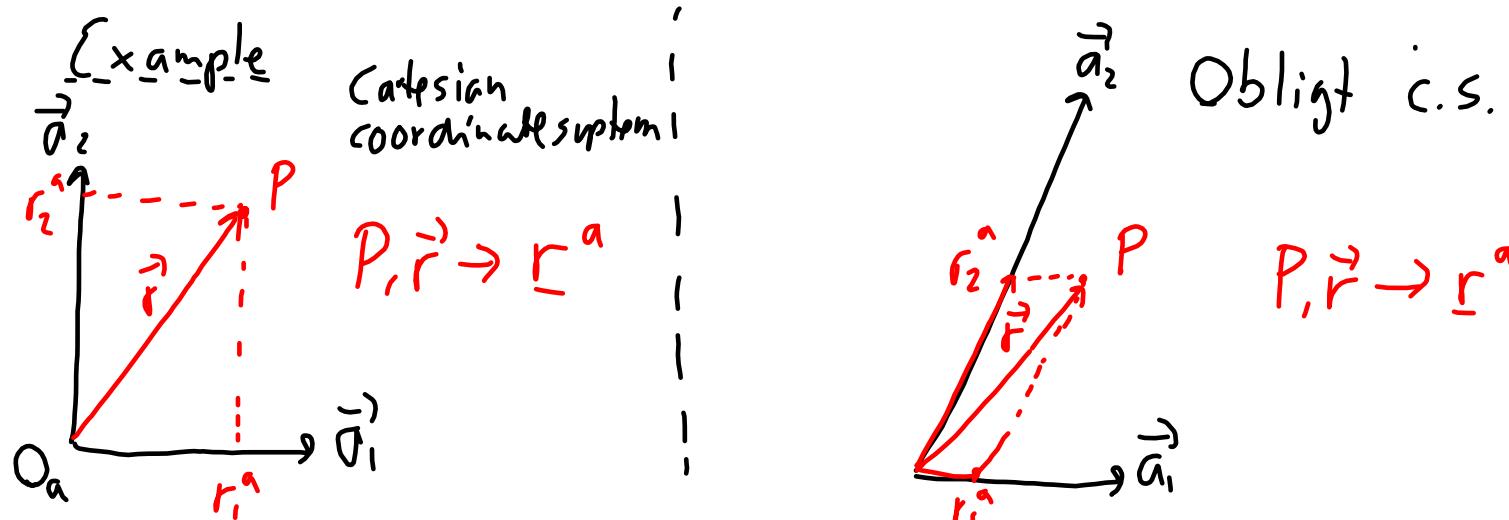


Given the frame  $\mathcal{F}_a = \{O_a, \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\}$   
 There is a clear relation  
 between  $P, \vec{r}, \mathcal{F}_a$

## A3.2 Coordinate systems and frames

### Definisjon A.15 Affine koordinater

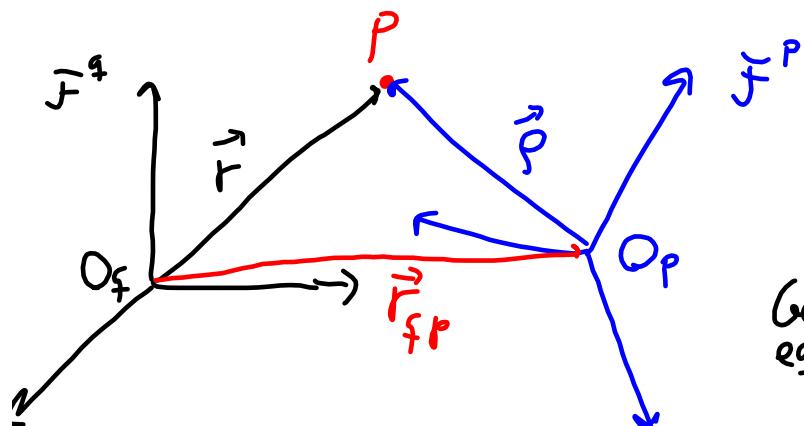
La  $\mathcal{A}$  være et  $n$ -dimensjonalt affint rom og la  $\mathcal{F}^e = (O_e; \vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n)$  være en **ramme**, hvor  $O_e$ , kalt origo, er et punkt i  $\mathcal{A}$ , og vektorene  $\{\vec{e}_i\}$  er et sett basisvektorer for det tilhørende vektorrom  $V$ . Da er de inhomogene **koordinatene** til et vilkårlig punkt  $P \in \mathcal{A}$  med hensyn til ramma  $\mathcal{F}^e$  gitt av  $n$ -tuppletet  $\{p_1^e, p_2^e, \dots, p_n^e\}$  (vi vil sette disse sammen til en algebraisk vektor,  $\underline{p}^e$ ), hvor  $P = O_e + \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^e \vec{e}_i$ . Dersom  $\mathcal{A}$  også har strukturen til et Euclidisk rom (se nedenfor) og vi lar ramma  $\mathcal{F}^e = (O_e; \vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n)$  bestå av ortogonale basisvektorer sier vi at vi har et **rektagulært koordinatsystem** (eller ortogonalt k.s.), dersom basisvektorer har lengde 1,  $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{e}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ , kalles k.s. for **kartesisk**. Generelt vil  $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{e}_j \rangle = c_{ij}$  og vi sier vi har et **oblikt koordinatsystem** (eller ikke-ortogonalt k.s.). Dersom vi har en oblik ramme hvor lengden på basisvektorene er  $\langle \vec{e}_i, \vec{e}_i \rangle = 1$  er vinkelen mellom basisvektoren gitt av  $c_{ij} = \cos \angle \vec{e}_i \vec{e}_j$



## A.3.3 Matrix representation of points and vectors

Inhomogeneous representation.

### Def. A.17 Position vector



$$\text{Def. } \vec{r}_{qp} = \vec{r}_{OgOp}$$

Geometrical equation:

Algebraic equation:

$$P = O_g + \vec{r} = O_p + \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{r} - \vec{p} = O_p - O_g = \vec{r}_{qp}$$

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_{fp} + \vec{p}$$

$$\underline{r}^q = \underline{r}_{qp}^q + \underline{p}^q = \underline{r}_{qp}^q + R_p^q \underline{f}_p^P$$

We see that when representing points in two different frames the coordinates transform as:

$$\underline{r}^q = \underline{r}_{fp}^q + R_p^q \underline{f}_p^P \quad \text{Inhomogeneous form}$$

But vectors in vector space transform as:

$$\underline{v}^q = R_p^q \underline{v}_p^P \quad \text{Homogeneous form}$$

Homogeneous representation of coordinates to a point.

$$(1a) \quad \underline{\tilde{r}}_p^q = \underline{r}_{fp}^q + R_p^q \underline{f}_p^P$$

$$\underline{\tilde{r}}_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} r_1^q \\ r_2^q \\ r_3^q \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Define: ; 4 dim. matrix

$$\underline{\tilde{r}}_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}_p^q \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{rep. of the} \\ \text{point } P \end{array}$$

$$\underline{\tilde{f}}_p^P = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{f}_p^P \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{in } F^P \text{ and } f^q \end{array}$$

We get:

$$(1b) \quad \underline{\tilde{r}}_p^q = T_p^q \underline{\tilde{f}}_p^P, \quad T_p^q = \begin{bmatrix} R_p^q & \underline{r}_{fp}^q \\ [0,0,0] & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$T_p^q$ : transformation matrix

For normal vectors (not matrix rep. of points) we have:

$$\underline{v}^q = R_p \underline{v}^p \quad (2a)$$

Define:

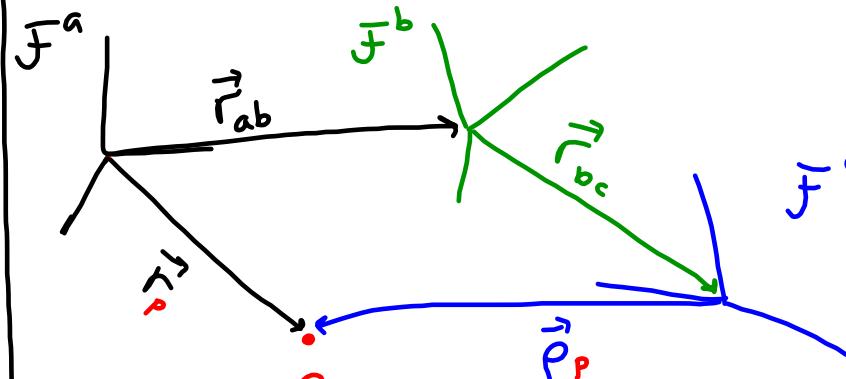
$$\tilde{\underline{v}}^q = [\underline{v}^q; 0]$$

$$\tilde{\underline{v}}^p = [\underline{v}^p; 0]$$

These vectors transform as:

$$\tilde{\underline{v}}^q = T_p^q \tilde{\underline{v}}^p \quad (2b)$$

Example : 3 frames.



Relation between  $\underline{r}_p^a$  and  $\underline{r}_p^c$

$$\underline{r}_p = \underline{r}_{ab} + \underline{r}_{bc} + \underline{r}_p^c$$

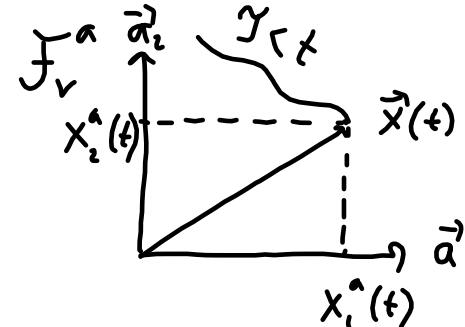
$$\underline{r}_p^a = \underline{r}_{ab}^a + R_b^a \underline{r}_{bc}^b + R_b^a R_c^b \underline{r}_p^c \quad (3a)$$

$$\underline{r}_p^a = T_b^a T_c^b \underline{r}_p^c \quad (3b)$$

## F.7/ A.4 Time in vector space and affine space.

Up to now we have looked at points and vectors as static. Given the vector space  $V$  and the frame  $\mathcal{F}_V^a$  we can describe a time varying vector as:

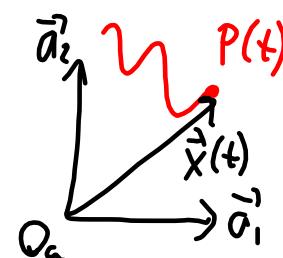
$$\vec{x}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^a(t) \vec{a}_i$$



(clear relation:  
 $\vec{x}(t)$  and  $\underline{x}^a(t)$ )

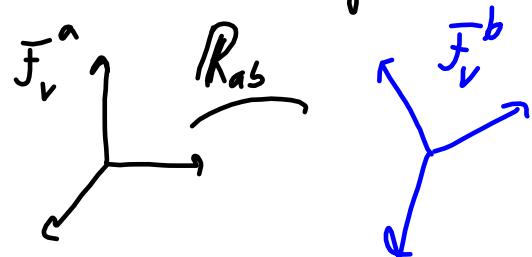
Given the affine space  $A$  with frame  $\mathcal{F}_A^a = \{O_a, \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\}$  a time varying point is defined by:

$$P(t) = O_a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^a(t) \vec{a}_i$$



(clear relation:  
 $P(t)$  and  $\underline{x}^a(t)$ )

Relative attitude between two frames can be described using the rotation operator  $R_{ab}$



From before:

$$\underbrace{[R_{ab}]^a}_{R_{ab}^a} = \underbrace{[R_{ab}]^b}_{R_{ab}^b} = R_b^a$$

Representation of the rotation operator can be made time variant:

$$\boxed{[R_{ab}(t)]^a = R_b^a(t)}$$

For example using Euler angles (3-2-1)

$$R_b^a(t) = R_3(\psi(t)) R_2(\theta(t)) R_1(\phi(t))$$

To find the relation between the representation of a point  $P(t)$  in the frames  $\bar{F}_A^a$  and  $\bar{F}_A^b$  we can use time varying transformation matrices:

$$\bar{T}_b^a(t) = \begin{bmatrix} R_b^a(t) & \bar{r}_{ab}(t) \\ 0^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\bar{r}_P^a(t) = \bar{T}_b^a(t) \bar{r}_P^b(t)$$

If we have 3 frames:  $\bar{F}_A^a$ ,  $\bar{F}_A^b$  and  $\bar{F}_A^c$

$$\bar{r}^a = T_b^a T_c^b \bar{r}^c \quad (\text{all function of } t)$$

NB! In classical mechanics we use Galileo transformations. We can add relative velocities.

NB! When calculating  $\|\cdot\|$ -distance between points position at two different times we need to choose one affine space:

$$\overset{\mathcal{A}}{P}(t_2) - \overset{\mathcal{A}}{P}(t_1) = \bar{r}_{P(t_2)}^a P^a(t_1)$$

## A.5. Derivation in vector- and affine space.

Notation need to take into account two aspects:

1. In which frame do we represent the vector:  $\underline{x}^a(t)$
2. In which frame do we see the derivation from  $\{b\}$ :  $\dot{\underline{x}}^b(t)$

### In math

Given  $f(x, y)$  the partial derivation is:

$$\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} = f_x(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} = f_y(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x} \right) = f_{xy}(x, y) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y} \right) = f_{yx}(x, y)$$

Here we had two free variables and derivation w.r.t. these.  
 We will only have one free variable (time - t), but we can see the time variations from different frames that are moving relative to each other.

Introduce notation:

$$\frac{d^a}{dt} \vec{x}(t) = \dot{\vec{x}}^a(t)$$

$$\frac{d^b}{dt} \vec{x}(t) = \dot{\vec{x}}^b(t)$$

$$\frac{d^b}{dt} \left( \frac{d^a}{dt} \vec{x}(t) \right) = \ddot{\vec{x}}^{ab}(t)$$

Derivation seen from  $F^a$   
 —————||————  $F^b$

Represent in  $F^c$

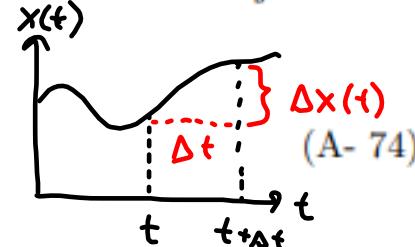
$$\left[ \dot{\vec{x}}^a(t) \right]^c = \underline{\vec{x}}^{ac}(t), \quad \left[ \ddot{\vec{x}}^{ab}(t) \right]^c = \underline{\vec{x}}^{abc}(t)$$

### A.5.1 Definisjon av deriverte i vektorrom og affine rom.

Når vi skal definere de deriverte av vektorer og punkter må vi starte med det vi kjenner fra matematikken nemlig derivasjon i  $\mathbb{R}$  og så generalisere til  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathcal{V}$  og  $\mathcal{A}$ :

1. Derivasjon i  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\dot{x}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{\Delta t} (x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)) \right) \quad (A-74)$$



2. Derivasjon i  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = [\dot{x}_i(t)] \quad (A-75)$$

3. Derivasjon i vektorrommet  $\mathcal{V}$  sett fra en fast ramme  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{V}}^a$ :

$$\dot{\vec{x}}^a = \sum_{i=1}^n \dot{x}_i^a(t) \vec{a}_i \quad \vec{x}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^a(t) \vec{a}_i \quad (A-76)$$

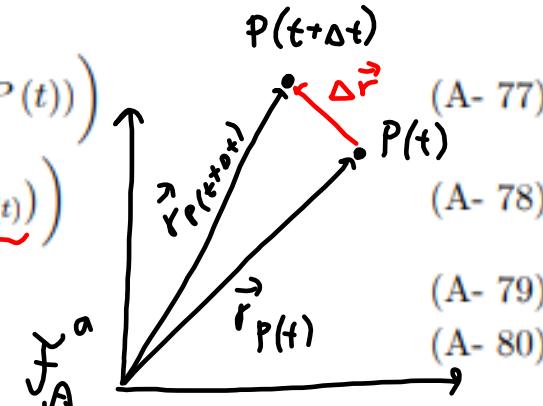
4. Derivasjon i det affine rom  $\mathcal{A}$  sett fra en fast ramme  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{A}}^a$ :

$$\dot{P}^a(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{\Delta t} (P(t + \Delta t) - P(t)) \right) \quad (A-77)$$

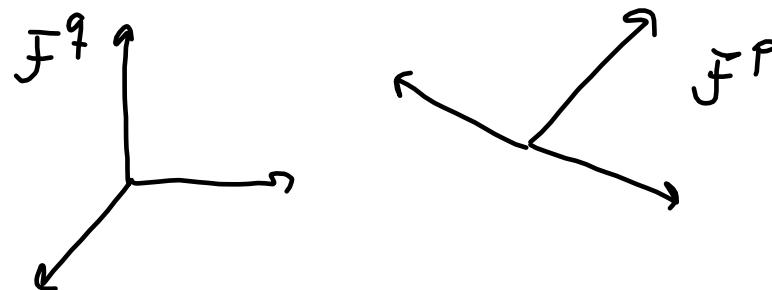
$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{\Delta t} (\vec{r}_{P(t+\Delta t)} - \vec{r}_{P(t)}) \right) \quad (A-78)$$

$$= \dot{\vec{r}}_P^a \quad (A-79)$$

$$= \vec{v}_P^a \quad (A-80)$$



## AS.2 Derivation of DCM -



$R_p^q(t)$  gives the relative attitude

Assume  $R_p^q$  is a o.n. matrix  $\Rightarrow (R_p^q)^T = (R_p^q)^{-1}$

$$\text{Let } R = R_p^q \Rightarrow R \cdot R^T = I$$

Derive on both sides:

$$\frac{d}{dt} (R(t) R^T(t)) = \frac{d}{dt} I$$

$$\dot{R}(t) R^T(t) + R(t) \frac{d}{dt} (R^T(t)) = 0$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \dot{R}(t) R^T(t) + R(t) (\dot{R}^T(t)) = 0$$

Multiply from right side with  $R(t)$

$$\underbrace{\dot{R} R^T R}_I + R(\dot{R}^T) R = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \dot{R} + R(\dot{R}^T) R = 0$$

$$\text{Is } (\dot{R})^+ = (\dot{R}^T) ?$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(R^T) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( [P_1^q, P_2^q, P_3^q]^T \right)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} P_1^q \\ P_2^q \\ P_3^q \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{P}_1^q \\ \dot{P}_2^q \\ \dot{P}_3^q \end{pmatrix}^T = \left( \frac{d}{dt} R \right)^T$$

i.e.

$$\frac{d}{dt}(R^T) = \frac{d}{dt}(R^{-1}) = \left( \frac{d}{dt} R \right)^T$$

$$\text{Generally: } \frac{d}{dt} A^{-1} \neq \left( \frac{d}{dt} A \right)^T$$

Equation ① can be written as:

$$\dot{R} R^T + (\dot{R} R^T)^T = 0$$

$$S := \dot{R} R^T \Rightarrow S + S^T = 0$$

i.e.  $S$ : Screw symmetrical matrix

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & w_z & w_z \\ w_z & 0 & -w_x \\ -w_z & w_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} = S(\underline{w})$$

$$\vec{w} \times \vec{a} \rightarrow S(\underline{w}^q) \underline{a}^q$$

Equation ② :

$$\dot{R} + \underbrace{R \dot{R}^T}_{S^T} R = 0$$

$$\dot{R} = -S^T R = SR$$

$$\boxed{\dot{R}_P^q = S(\underline{w}) R_P^q}, \quad R_P^q(t_0)$$

given

$R_P^q$  is an attitude matrix

$$R_P^q = [R_1^q, R_2^q, R_3^q]$$

$$\dot{R}_P^q = [\dot{R}_1^q, \dot{R}_2^q, \dot{R}_3^q]$$

$$= S(\underline{w}) [R_1^q, R_2^q, R_3^q]$$

$$= [S(\underline{w}) R_1^q, S(\underline{w}) R_2^q, S(\underline{w}) R_3^q]$$

$$\dot{r}_i^q = S(\underline{\omega}^q) r_i^q \\ = \underline{\omega}^q \times r_i^q$$

We see that  $\underline{\omega}$  is part of the calculation of the derivative of the rotating basis vectors ( $r_i^q$ ) seen from the q-system. We interpret therefore  $\underline{\omega}$  as the angular velocity of the p-system seen from the q-system, and use the notation  $\underline{\omega}_p^q = \underline{\omega}^{q\#}$  because we derive seen from the q-system and represent in the q-system:

We therefore write :

$$\dot{R}_p^q = S(\underline{\omega}_p^q) R_p^q$$

$S(\underline{w}_p^q) = S(\underline{w}_p^{q\#})$  is the representation of the operator " $\vec{w}_p^q \times$ " in the  $q$ -frame. But, linear operators can also be represented in other frames using the similarity transformation :

$$S(\underline{w}_p^{q\#}) = R_p^q S(\underline{w}_p^{qP}) R_g^P$$

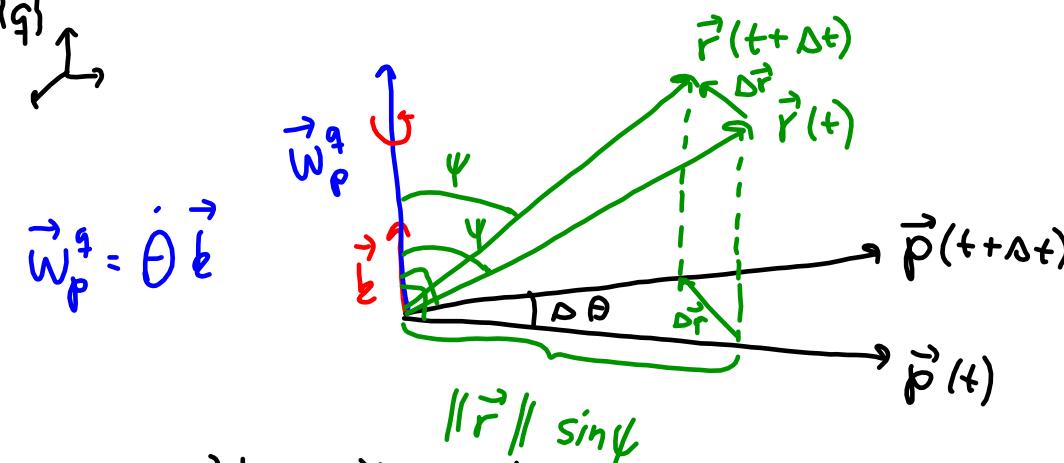
$$\dot{R}_p^q = S(\underline{w}_p^{q\#}) R_p^q = R_p^q S(\underline{w}_p^{qP}) \underbrace{R_g^P}_{I} R_p^q$$

$$\boxed{\dot{R}_p^q = S(\underline{w}_p^q) R_p^q = R_p^q S(\underline{w}_p^{qP})}$$

Theorem A.15

$$\underline{w}_p^{q\#} = R_p^q \underline{w}_p^{qP}$$

## Angular velocity of rotating vectors with constant length



- \*  $\vec{r}$  is fixed to  $\{p\}$
- \*  $\|\vec{r}\|$  is constant
- \*  $\{p\}$  rotates relative to  $\{q\}$  with  $\vec{w}_p^q$
- \*  $\|\vec{k}\| = 1$

The direction of  $\Delta\vec{r}$  shall be  $\perp$  to both  $\vec{r}$  and  $\vec{k}$ , and have the direction given by the r.h.r. for rotation around  $\vec{k}$ . With unit length this becomes:

$$\frac{\vec{k} \times \vec{r}}{\|\vec{k} \times \vec{r}\|} \text{ where } \|\vec{k} \times \vec{r}\| = \|\vec{k}\| \|\vec{r}\| \sin \psi \Rightarrow \frac{\vec{k} \times \vec{r}}{\|\vec{r}\| \sin \psi}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta \vec{r}}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} \sin \psi \|\vec{r}\| \frac{\vec{k} \times \vec{r}}{\|\vec{r}\| \sin \psi} = \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta t} \vec{k} \times \vec{r} \Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{\vec{r}}^q = \dot{\theta} \vec{k} \times \vec{r} = \vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{r}}$$

$$\underline{\dot{r}}^q = \underline{w}_p^{qq} \times \underline{r}^q$$

F.8/ Proof of Theorem A.17 Diff. eq. of DCM.

$$\underline{C}_p^q = [P_1^q, P_2^q, P_3^q]$$

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\underline{C}}_p^q &= [\dot{P}_1^q, \dot{P}_2^q, \dot{P}_3^q] = [\underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}} \times P_1^q, \underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}} \times P_2^q, \underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}} \times P_3^q] \\ &= [S(\underline{W}_p^q) P_1^q, S(\underline{W}_p^q) P_2^q, S(\underline{W}_p^q) P_3^q] \\ &= S(\underline{W}_p^q) [P_1^q, P_2^q, P_3^q] = S(\underline{W}_p^q) \underline{C}_p^q\end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{\underline{C}}_p^q = S(\underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}}) \underline{C}_p^q = \underline{C}_p^q S(\underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}}) \underbrace{\underline{C}_p^p}_{I} \underline{C}_p^q = \underline{C}_p^q S(\underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}})$$

$$\dot{\underline{C}}_p^q = S(\underline{W}_p^q) \underline{C}_p^q = \underline{C}_p^q S(\underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}}), \quad \underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}} = \underline{C}_p^q \underline{W}_p^{q\ddot{q}}$$

The kinematic problem for 3-2-1 Euler angles: Given  $\vec{w}_p^q$ , what is the d.e. for the attitude matrix or special representation of the attitude matrix.

1. If  $R_p^q = [R_1^q, R_2^q, R_3^q] \Rightarrow \dot{R}_p^q = S(w_p^q) R_p^q$

2. If  $R_p^q = R_3(\theta_3) R_2(\theta_2) R_1(\theta_1)$  : 3-2-1 Euler angles

$$\dot{\underline{\theta}} = D_p^\theta(\underline{\theta}) \underline{w}_p^{qp}$$

$$= D_q^\theta(\underline{\theta}) \underline{w}_p^q$$

$$\underline{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

We solve the d.e. (differential equations) using numerical methods.

1. order Euler method:

a)  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$ ,  $x(t_0)$  given

*scalar*  $\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x(t_{k+1}) - x(t_k)}{\Delta t} = f(x(t_k))$ ,  $\Delta t = t_{k+1} - t_k$

$$x(t_{k+1}) = x(t_k) + \Delta t \cdot f(x(t_k)), \quad t_k = \Delta t \cdot k, \quad x(t_k) = x_k$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta t \cdot f(x_k), \quad x_0 \text{ given}$$

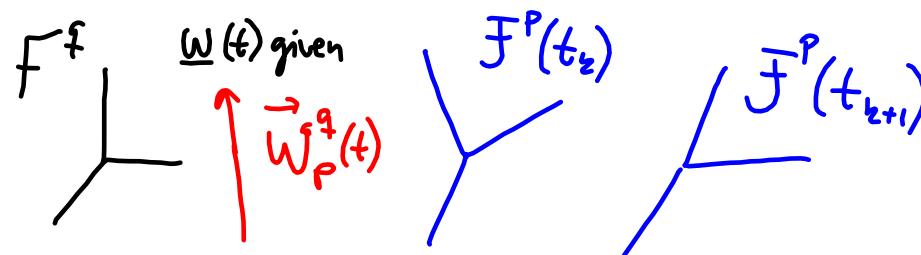
*vector*

b)  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$ ,  $x(t_0)$  given

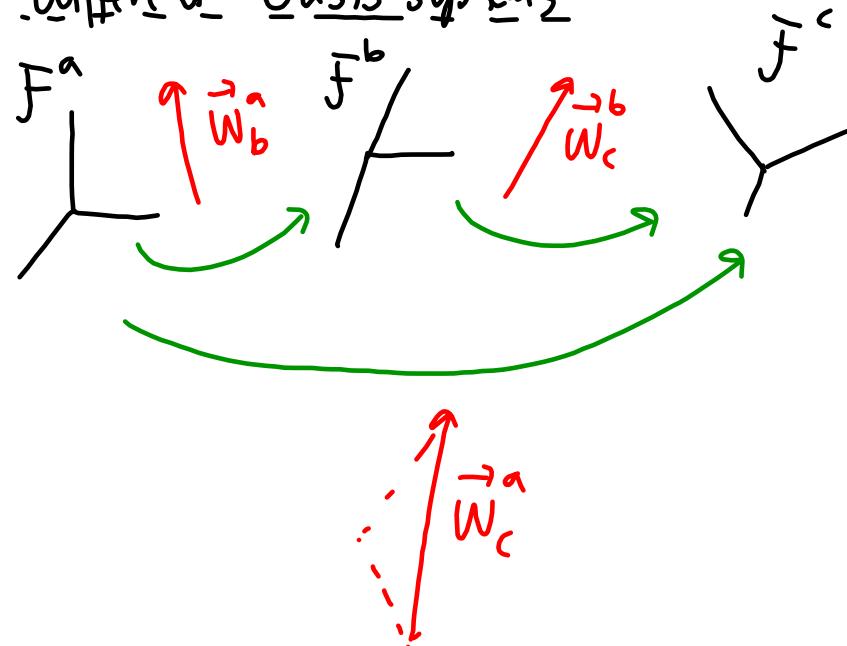
$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \Delta t \cdot f(x_k), \quad x_0 \text{ given}$$

c) *matrix*  $\dot{R}(t) = S(W(t))R(t)$ ,  $R(t_0)$  given

$$R_{k+1} = R_k + \Delta t \cdot S(W_k)R_k, \quad R_0 \text{ given}$$



Angular velocity and ang acceleration in different basis systems



$$\vec{w}_c^a = \vec{w}_b^a + \vec{w}_c^b$$

Derivation seen from  $\bar{f}^a$

$$\dot{\vec{w}}_c^{aa} = \dot{\vec{w}}_b^{aa} + \dot{\vec{w}}_c^{ba}$$

What is  $\dot{\vec{w}}_c^{ba}$  expressed with  $\dot{\vec{w}}_c^{bb}$

$$\vec{w}_c^b = \sum_{i=1}^3 w_{ci}^{bb} \vec{b}_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \vec{w}_c^b &= \frac{d}{dt} \left( \sum w_{ci}^{bb} \vec{b}_i \right) \\ &= \sum \dot{w}_{ci}^{bbb} \vec{b}_i + \underbrace{\sum w_{ci}^{bb} \vec{w}_b^a \times \vec{b}_i}_{\vec{w}_b^a \times \sum w_{ci}^{bb} \vec{b}_i} \end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{\vec{w}}_c^{ba} = \dot{\vec{w}}_c^{bb} + \vec{w}_b^a \times \vec{w}_c^b$$

$$\dot{\vec{w}}_c^{aa} = \dot{\vec{w}}_b^{aa} + \dot{\vec{w}}_c^{bb} + \vec{w}_b^a \times \vec{w}_c^b$$

Natural to represent also the derivation  
(actually 2. derivation) in the same frame as  
the ! derivation

Angular velocities and their derivations in case of algebraic vectors can either be find by representing the equations for the geometrical vectors in a desired frame or by deriving:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{w}_c^{aa} &= \underline{w}_b^{aa} + \underline{w}_c^{ba} \\ &= \underline{w}_b^{aa} + R_b^a \underline{w}_c^{bb} : \quad \{ \text{easier to derive and represent in the same frame}\end{aligned}$$

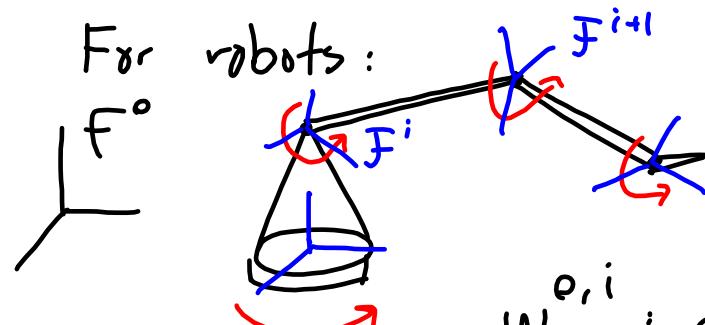
We had:

$$\underline{w}_c^{aa} = \underline{w}_b^{aa} + R_b^a \underline{w}_c^{bb}$$

Dervate:

$$\dot{\underline{w}}_c^{aaa} = \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aaa} + S(\underline{w}_b^{aa}) R_b^a \underline{w}_c^{bb} + R_b^a \cdot \dot{\underline{w}}_c^{bbb}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{w}}_c^{aaa} &= \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aaa} + R_b^a S(\underline{w}_b^{ab}) \underline{w}_c^{bb} + R_b^a \dot{\underline{w}}_c^{bbb} \\ &\quad R_a^b \underline{w}_b^{aa} \end{aligned}$$



$\underline{\omega}_{\cdot}^{0,i}$ : angular velocity for link  $i$  (frame  $i$ ) seen from the link  $0$  (frame  $0$ ) represented in link  $i$  (frame  $i$ )

$$\underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{0,i+1} = \underline{\omega}_i^{0,i+1} + \underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{i,i+1}$$

$$\underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{0,i+1} = R_i^{i+1} \underline{\omega}_i^{0,i} + \underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{i,i+1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{0,i+1,i+1} &= S(\underline{\omega}_i^{i+1,i+1}) R_i^{i+1} \underline{\omega}_i^{0,i} \\ &+ R_i^{i+1} \underline{\omega}_i^{0,i,i} + \underline{\omega}_{i+1}^{i,i+1,i+1} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem A.18 Derivation of angular velocities.

$$\dot{\underline{w}}_b^{abb} = R_a^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aaa}$$

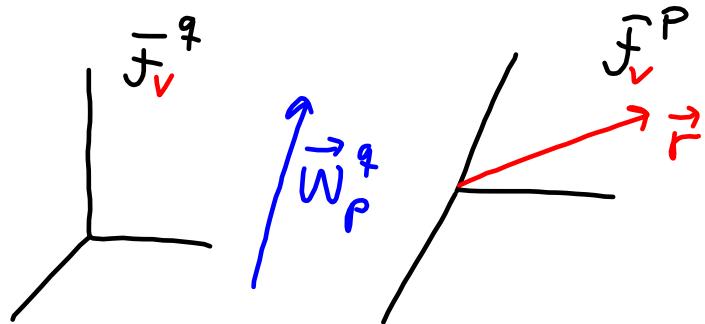
Proof:  $\underline{w}_b^{ab} = R_a^b \underline{w}_b^{aa}$

$$\dot{\underline{w}}_b^{abb} = \underbrace{R_a^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aa}}_{0?} + R_a^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aaa}$$

$$\vec{w}_a^b = -\vec{w}_b^a$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_a^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{aa} &= S(\underline{w}_a^{bb}) R_a^b \underline{w}_b^{aa} = S(\underline{w}_a^{bb}) \underline{w}_b^{ab} = \underline{w}_a^{bb} \times \underline{w}_b^{ab} \\ &= -\underline{w}_a^{bb} \times \underline{w}_a^{bb} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

A 5.3 Derivation of vectors



Assume  $\|\vec{r}\| = \text{constant}$  and fixed to the  $p$ -frame.

Proved earlier:

$$\dot{\vec{r}}^q = \vec{W}_p^q \times \vec{r}$$

Assume  $\vec{r}$  varies seen from  $\vec{f}_v^p$

$$\vec{r} = \sum r_i^p \vec{p}_i$$

$$\dot{\vec{r}}^q = \sum \dot{r}_i^{pp} \vec{p}_i + \sum r_i^p \dot{\vec{p}}_i^q$$

$$= \sum \dot{r}_i^p \vec{p}_i + \sum r_i^p \vec{W}_p^q \times \vec{p}_i$$

$\vec{p}_i$ :  
const.  
length.

$$\dot{\vec{r}}^q = \dot{\vec{r}}^p + \vec{W}_p^q \times \vec{r}$$

F9 / For algebraic vectors the same eq. as in F8. p.9 are:

Constant vector seen from  $\bar{J}^P$ :

$$\underline{r}^q = R_p^q \underline{r}^P$$

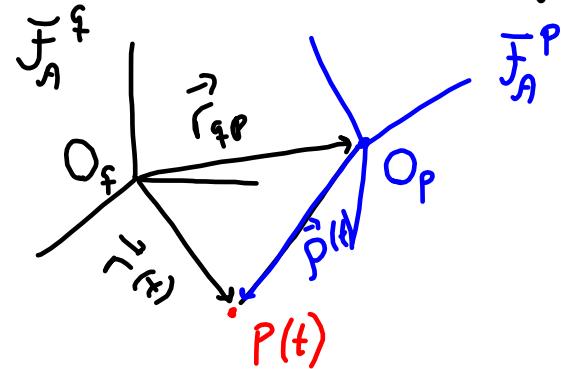
$$\dot{\underline{r}}^q = S(\underline{w}_p^q) R_p^q \underline{r}^P = S(\underline{w}_p^q) \underline{r}^q$$

$$(\dot{\underline{r}}^q = 0)$$

Time varying vector seen from  $\bar{J}^P$ :

$$\dot{\underline{r}}^q = S(\underline{w}_p^q) R_p^q \underline{r}^P + R_p^q \dot{\underline{r}}^{PP}$$

### A.S.4 Derivation of points motion in affine spaces.



We are looking at the relationship between velocity and acceleration of the point  $P$  seen from two frames that moves relative to each other (translation and rotation)

We can either derive the equations for the geometrical vectors and then for the algebraic vectors or derive the eq. either for the geometrical or the algebraic and then use the eq. that gives the relationship between them.

From the figure:

$$\vec{r}(t) = \vec{r}_{qp}(t) + \vec{p}(t)$$

$$\vec{r}(t) = P(t) - O_q$$

$$\vec{p}(t) = P(t) - O_p$$

Find:  $\dot{P}(t)$  and  $\ddot{P}(t)$  ( $= \ddot{P}(t)$ )

$$( \Rightarrow \dot{\vec{r}}(t) \text{ and } \ddot{\vec{r}}(t) (= \ddot{\vec{r}}(t)) )$$

equations needed:

$$\dot{\vec{c}}^q = \dot{\vec{c}}^p + \vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{c}$$

$$\dot{\underline{c}}^{qq} = R_p^q \dot{\underline{c}}^{pp} + S(\underline{w}_p^{qq}) R_p^q \underline{c}^p$$

### Notation

$$\vec{v}^q = \dot{\vec{r}}^q : P's \text{ velocity seen from } F_A^q$$

$$\vec{v}^p = \dot{\vec{p}}^p : P's \text{ velocity seen from } F_A^p$$

$$\vec{a}^q = \dot{\vec{v}}^q = \ddot{\vec{r}}^q : \text{Acc. seen from } F_A^q$$

$$\vec{a}^p = \dot{\vec{v}}^p = \ddot{\vec{p}}^p : \text{Acc. seen from } F_A^p$$

Later we want to use Newton's

2. law:  $\vec{f} = m \vec{a}^i$ ,  $F$  - inertial space

In inertial navigation (INS) we measure  $\underline{a}^{iib}$  (b - fixed to the vehicle)

Defining the geometrical equations:

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_{qp} + \vec{\rho}$$

$$\dot{\vec{r}}^f = \dot{\vec{r}}^f = \dot{\vec{r}}_{qp}^f + \vec{v}^p + \vec{w}_p \times \vec{\rho}$$

$$\ddot{\vec{r}}^q = \ddot{\vec{r}}^q = \ddot{\vec{r}}_{qp}^f + \vec{v}^{pp} + \vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{v}^p + \vec{w}_p^{qq} \times \vec{\rho} + \vec{w}_p^q \times (\vec{v}^p + \vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{\rho})$$

$$\ddot{\vec{r}}^q = \ddot{\vec{r}}_{pq}^f + \vec{a}^p + \vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{\rho} + \vec{w}_p^q \times (\vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{\rho}) + 2\vec{w}_p^q \times \vec{v}^p$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \underline{r}^q &= \underline{r}_{qp}^q + R_p^q \underline{\rho}^p \\ \underline{v}^q &= \dot{\underline{r}}_{qp}^q + R_p^q (\underline{v}^p + \underline{\omega}_p^{qp} \times \underline{\rho}^p) \\ &= \dot{\underline{r}}_{qp}^q + R_p^q \underline{v}^p + \underline{\omega}_p^q \times R_p^q \underline{\rho}^p \\ \underline{a}^q &= \ddot{\underline{r}}_{qp}^q + R_p^q (\underline{a}^p + \dot{\underline{\omega}}_p^{qpp} \times \underline{\rho}^p + \underline{\omega}_p^{qp} \times (\underline{\omega}_p^{qp} \times \underline{\rho}^p) + 2\underline{\omega}_p^{qp} \times \underline{v}^p) \\ &= \ddot{\underline{r}}_{qp}^q + R_p^q \dot{\underline{v}}^p + \dot{\underline{\omega}}_p^q \times R_p^q \underline{\rho}^p + \underline{\omega}_p^q \times (\underline{\omega}_p^q \times R_p^q \underline{\rho}^p) + 2\underline{\omega}_p^q \times R_p^q \underline{v}^p \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (A-118)$$

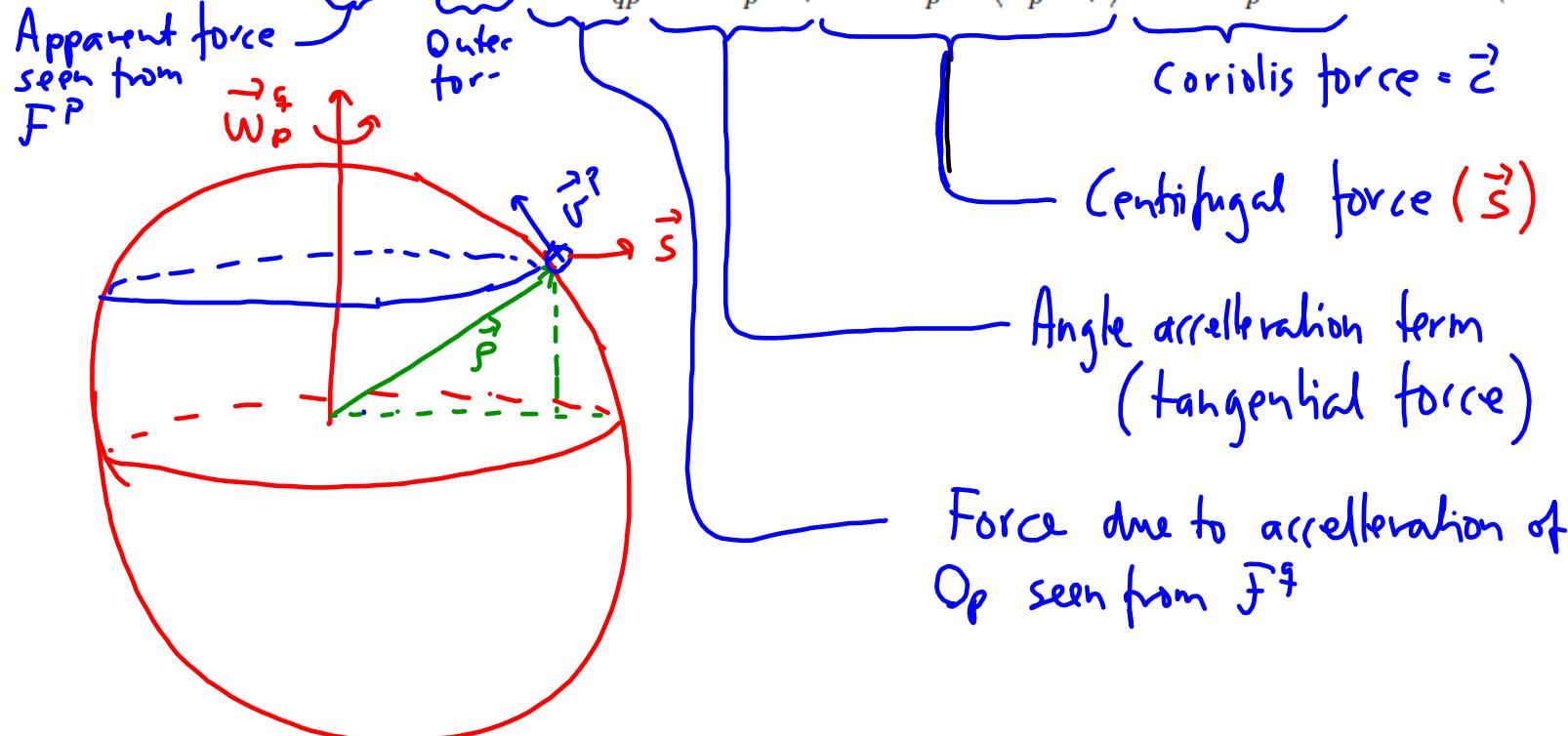
$$\vec{f} = m \vec{a}^q \quad (\text{A- 119})$$

Ved å uttrykke akselerasjonen  $\vec{a}^q$  vha ledda på høgre sida, får vi de kreftene som må innføres i et ikke-inertial system. Likninga ovenfor blir nå :

$$m\vec{a}^q = m \left( \ddot{\vec{r}}_{qp} + \vec{a}^p + \dot{\vec{\omega}}_p^q \times \vec{p} + \vec{\omega}_p^q \times (\vec{\omega}_p^q \times \vec{p}) + 2\vec{\omega}_p^q \times \vec{v}^p \right) \quad (\text{A- 120})$$

Løser likninga mhp  $m\vec{a}^p$  :

$$m\vec{a}^p = m\vec{a}^q - m\ddot{\vec{r}}_{qp} - m\dot{\vec{\omega}}_p^q \times \vec{p} - m\vec{\omega}_p^q \times (\vec{\omega}_p^q \times \vec{p}) - m2\vec{\omega}_p^q \times \vec{v}^p \quad (\text{A- 121})$$



## A.6 Matrix calculation in cybernetics

Standard equation:  $\dot{\underline{x}} = A \underline{x}$ ,  $\underline{x}(0) = \underline{x}_0$

Eigenvalues:  $|\lambda I - A| = 0 \Leftrightarrow$  n'th order equation in  $\lambda$

Matlab:  $\lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + c_1\lambda + c_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_i, i=1,2,\dots,n$

$[M, \Lambda] = \text{eig}(A)$

Eigenvectors:  $\underbrace{(\lambda_i I - A)}_{\det = 0} \underline{m}_i = \underline{0}$  } i.e. we have not a unique solution. We can choose for example  $\|\underline{m}_i\| = 1$

If  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$ , for all  $i \neq j$  one can prove that  $\{\underline{m}_i\}$  is linearly independent and may form a basis system.

$M = [\underline{m}_1, \underline{m}_2, \dots, \underline{m}_n]$  Eigenvector matrix

We had d.e.  $\dot{\underline{x}} = A\underline{x}$ ,  $\underline{x}(0) = \underline{x}_0$ , since we want to use  $M$  as a DCM we need to introduce a clear notation for the two frames we transform between  $\{m\}$  and  $\{q\}$ .

$$\text{i.e. } \dot{\underline{x}}^q = A^q \underline{x}^q, \underline{x}(0) = \underline{x}_0^q$$

$$M = M_m^q = [\underline{m}_1^q, \underline{m}_2^q, \dots, \underline{m}_n^q]$$

$$\underline{x}^q = M_m^q \underline{x}^m$$

$$\text{We had: } \dot{\underline{x}}^q = A^q \underline{x}^q = M_m^q \dot{\underline{x}}^m = A^q M_m^q \dot{\underline{x}}^m$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \dot{\underline{x}}^m = \underbrace{(M_m^q)^{-1} A^q M_m^q}_{A^m} \dot{\underline{x}}^m$$

$$A^m = \prod^m = [\lambda_i; d_{ij}] = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

$$\left( \dot{\underline{x}}^q = \underbrace{M_m^q \dot{\underline{x}}^m}_{=0} + M_m^q \cdot \dot{\underline{x}}^m \right)$$

Generally:  $(M_m^{\ddagger})^{-1} \neq (M_m^{\ddagger})^T$

We have now:  $\dot{\underline{x}}^m = \sum_{i=1}^m \dot{x}_i^m$ ,  $\underline{x}(0) = (M_m^{\ddagger})^{-1} \underline{x}^*(0)$



$$\dot{x}_i^m = \lambda_i^m x_i^m, \quad x_i^*(0) \text{ given}$$

$$x_i^*(t) = e^{\lambda_i^m(t-t_0)} x_i^*(t_0) = e^{\lambda_i^m t} x_i^*(0)$$

since  $t_0 = 0$

$$\underline{x}^m(t) = e^{\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^m t} \underline{x}(0)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1^m t} & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots \\ e^{\lambda_m^m t} & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e^X = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{X^k}{k!}$$

Matlab: `expm(X)`

`exp(X)` - exp. element  
by element

F10 From F.9 :  $\dot{\underline{x}}^f = A^f \underline{x}^f$ ,  $\underline{x}^f(0)$  given

This eq. has the solution:  $\underline{x}^f(t) = M_m^f \underline{x}(t)$

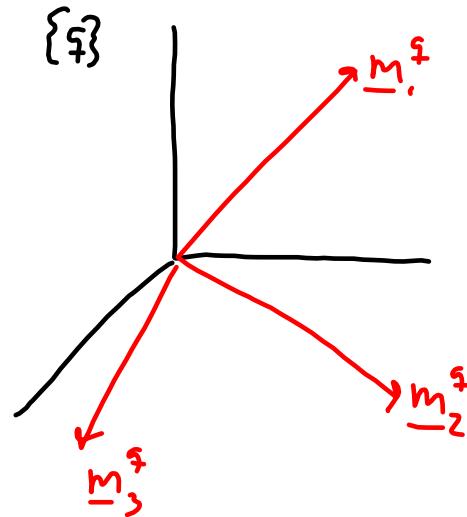
$$\underline{x}^f(t) = M_m^f e^{A^f t} (M_m^f)^{-1} \underline{x}^f(0)$$

$$\underline{x}^f(t) = e^{M_m^f A^f t} (M_m^f)^{-1} \underline{x}^f(0)$$

$$\underline{x}^f(t) = e^{A^f t} \underline{x}^f(0)$$

$$\text{where } e^{A^f t} = \underbrace{M_m^f e^{A^f t} (M_m^f)^{-1}}_{\phi(t, 0)} = \underbrace{\left( I + \frac{1}{1!} A^f t + \frac{1}{2!} A^f A^f t^2 + \dots \right)}_{\text{Used in numerical calculations}}$$

If  $M$  is invertible:  
 $e^{MXM^{-1}} = Me^X M^{-1}$



$$\underline{x}^q(t) = M_m^q \underline{x}^n(t) = \underline{m}_1^q x_1^n(t) + \dots + \underline{m}_n^q x_n^n(t)$$

$$= \underline{m}_1^q e^{\lambda_1 t} x_1^n(0) + \dots + \underline{m}_n^q e^{\lambda_n t} x_n^n(0)$$

NB! We have assumed that we have distinctive eigenvalues  $\Rightarrow$  linearly independent eigenvectors. But we can also have complext conjugated eigenvalues (which gives us complext eigenvectors). In the figure above we have assumed that the eigenvalues also are real.

## Part B DYNAMICS

Dynamics includes :

1) Kinematics

- Describing the motion by mathematics (Part A)

2) Kinetic

- Relation between the motion and the forces that makes the motion (math + physics), f.e.s  
Newton's laws.

## Terms

Reference space = inertial frame

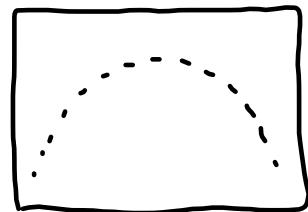
- Connected to a physical system
- Coordinate systems (frame, units, function)
- Particles (modeled by points and mass)
- Pos., vel., acc. (modeled by vectors)
- Rigid bodies (modeled by a frame and mass)
- Attitude (modeled by frames)

Affine space

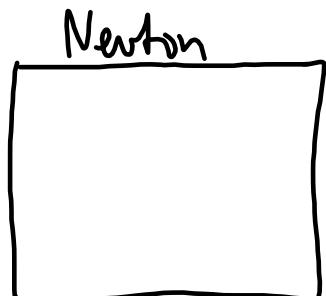
- Mathematical model of a reference space
- $\mathcal{F}_A^a : \{O_a, \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_n\}$
- $P$ : points
- $\vec{v}$ : vectors

You can take a look at: Grunnleggende prinsipper i klassisk mekanikk.

Aristoteles.



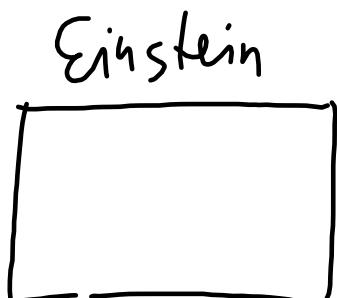
Absolute points



Newton

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d}{dt} (m \cdot \vec{v})$$

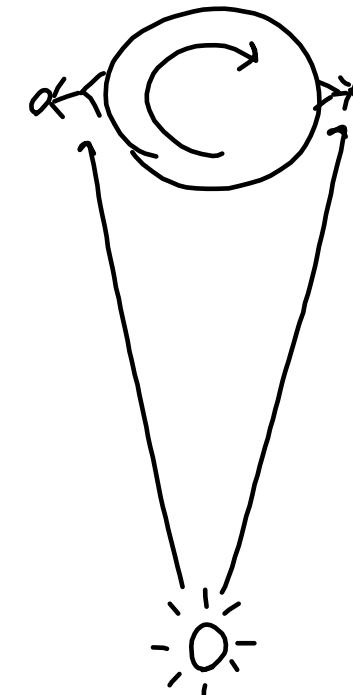
$$\vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$$



Einstein

$$\|v\| < c \text{ (speed of light)}$$

$$\vec{v}_3 \neq \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2$$

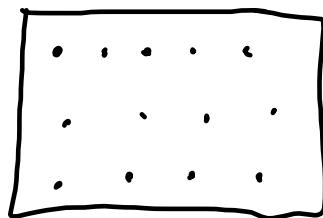


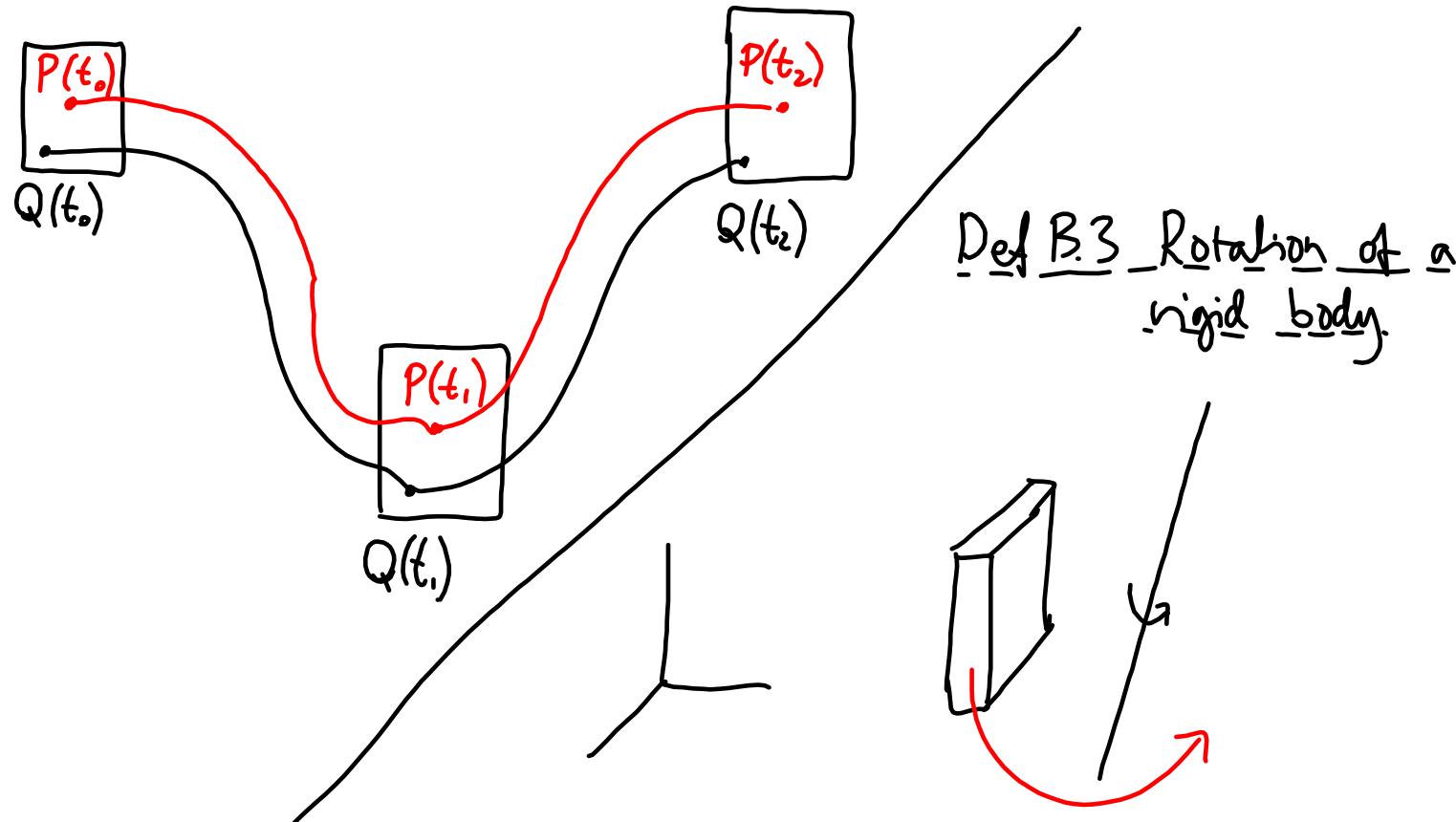
## Part B. Dynamics

### B.1 Kinematics

#### B.1.1 Kinematic description of particles

Def. B.1 Rigid body

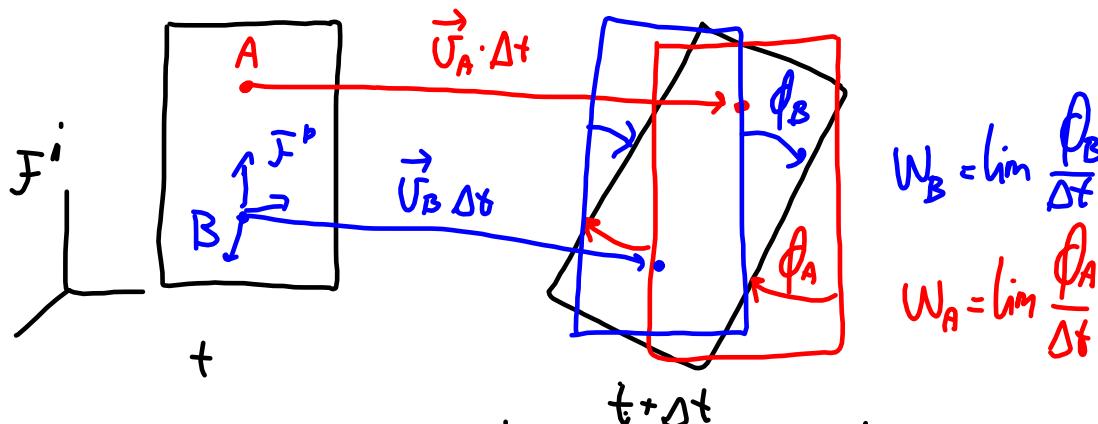


Def. B.2 Pure translation of rigid bodies

**Teorem B.1 (Chasley's teorem) Dekomponering i translasjon og rotasjon**

Bevegelsen av et stiftt legeme relativt et k.s. kan settes sammen av translasjon og rotasjon. Dette kan gjøres på følgende måte :

- 1) Velg et punkt A (B) i legemet. Anta at alle punktene i legemet har samme hastighet,  $\vec{v}_A (\vec{v}_B)$ , hvor  $\vec{v}_A (\vec{v}_B)$  er hastigheten relativt vårt k.s.
- 2) Superponer en ren rotasjon om punktet A med vinkelhastighet  $\vec{\omega}$  relativt vårt k.s. (NB :  $\vec{\omega} = \vec{\omega}_A = \vec{\omega}_B$ , mens generelt er  $\vec{v}_A \neq \vec{v}_B$  ( $\vec{v}_A = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} (\Delta \vec{r}_A / \Delta t)$ )).



The motion of a rigid body is put together  
by  $\vec{v}_{ob}^i(t)$  and  $\vec{\omega}_b^i(t)$ ,  $i$  is inertial frame

$$\vec{v}_A \neq \vec{v}_B, \quad \omega_A = \omega_B$$

i.e. we can model the motion of a rigid body as the motion of the frame  $F'$  relative  $F^i$

## B.2 Kinetic

### Newton's laws for a particle

**Teorem B.2 (Newtons 1.lov)** Dersom en partikkell er langt borte fra innflytelsen fra alle andre partikler i universet, vil den bevege seg med konstant hastighet mht et treghetssystem, **i** (kan egentlig utledes fra Newtons 2.lov).

(N.1 is a special case of N.2)

**Teorem B.3 (Newtons 2.lov)** Dersom det lineære moment,  $\vec{p}^i$ , for en partikkell i et treghetssystem **i** endres med tiden, sies partikkelen å være påvirket av en kraft,  $\vec{f}$ , gitt ved :

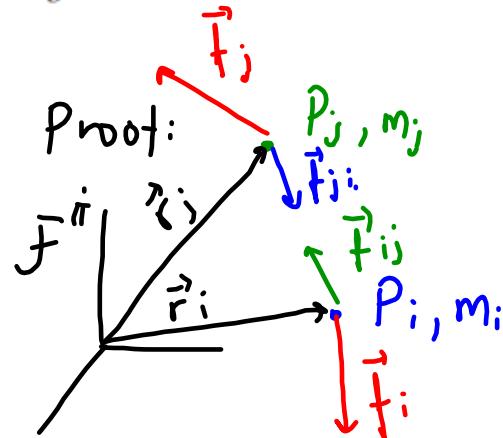
$$\vec{f} = \dot{\vec{p}}^i \quad \text{hvor} \quad \dot{\vec{p}}^i = m\vec{v}^i \quad (\text{B- 139})$$

**Teorem B.4 (Newtons 3.lov)** Dersom to isolerte partikler interakterer med hverandre vil den krafa partikkell nr 1 utsetter partikkell nr 2 for være lik i størrelse, men motsatt rettet den krafa partikkell nr 2 utsetter partikkell 1 for. Dvs : aksjon = reaksjon eller kraft = motkraft.

### Teorem B.5 Newtons 2. lov for et system av partikler

Vi antar at Newtons 3. lov gjelder for krafta mellom partiklene, dvs  $\vec{f}_{ij} = -\vec{f}_{ji}$ . Da vil den totale ytre kraft,  $\vec{F}$ , være lik total masse,  $M$ , ganger med massesenterets akselerasjon,  $\vec{a}_c^i$ , sett fra tregheitsramma :

$$\vec{F} = M \frac{d^i d^i}{dt^2} \vec{r}_c = M \vec{a}_c^i \quad M = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i, \quad \vec{F} = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{f}_i \quad (\text{B- 140})$$



$\vec{f}$ : outer force  
 $\vec{f}_{ij}$ : inner force (according to N.3 law)

$m_i$ : mass of particle  $i$

$\vec{r}_i$ : position vector of particle  $i$

$$\vec{r}_c = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{r}_i \Rightarrow M \vec{r}_c = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{r}_i$$

$\vec{r}_c$ : center of mass

Newton's 2. law works for all particles.

$$P_i : \vec{f}_i + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \vec{f}_{ij} = m_i \vec{a}_i^i = m_i \ddot{\vec{r}}_i^{ii}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 : \vec{f}_1 + 0 &+ \vec{f}_{12} + \vec{f}_{13} + \dots + \vec{f}_{1n} = m_1 \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{d^i}{dt} \vec{r}_1 \right) \\ P_2 : \vec{f}_2 + \vec{f}_{21} &+ 0 + \vec{f}_{23} + \dots + \vec{f}_{2n} = m_2 \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{d^i}{dt} \vec{r}_2 \right) \\ P_3 : \vec{f}_3 + \vec{f}_{31} &+ \vec{f}_{32} + 0 + \dots + \vec{f}_{3n} = m_3 \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{d^i}{dt} \vec{r}_3 \right) \\ \vdots \\ P_n : \vec{f}_n + \vec{f}_{n1} &+ \vec{f}_{n2} + \vec{f}_{n3} + \dots + 0 = m_n \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{d^i}{dt} \vec{r}_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

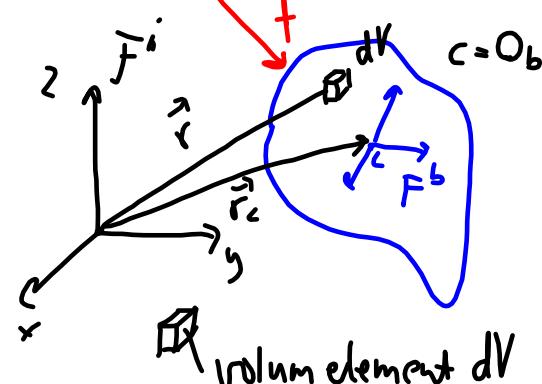
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$$\sum P_i : \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \vec{f}_i}_F + \vec{0} = \boxed{\vec{F} = M \vec{a}_c^i} = \underbrace{\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{d^i}{dt} \sum m_i \vec{r}_i \right)}_{M \ddot{\vec{r}}_c^{ii}}$$

Since a rigid body can be viewed as a sum of particles (molecules) we have:

$$\vec{f} = m \vec{\alpha}_c^i$$

where  $\vec{f}$  is the total outer force acting on the body,  $m$  is the mass and  $c$  is the center of mass.



$$m = \iiint_V k(\vec{r}) dV \quad \text{where } k(\vec{r}) \text{ is the mass density.}$$

$$\vec{r}_c = \frac{1}{m} \iiint_V \vec{r} k(\vec{r}) dV = \frac{1}{m} \iiint_{z \ y \ x} \vec{r} k(\vec{r}) dx dy dz$$

## F.11 / B.2.2 Law of angular momentum ("Spinnsatsen")

We want to define the law of angular momentum of a rigid body that gives us the relation between outer torque, the inertia matrix and angular acceleration. We do this in three steps.

1. Law of angular momentum for one particle.
2. n particles.
3. || rigid body

### **Teorem B.6 Spinnsatsen for en partikkel**

Gitt en partikkel,  $P$ , som er utsatt for en kraft,  $\vec{F}$ . La  $A$  være et vilkårlig punkt i treghetssystemet  $\mathbf{i}$  ( $\vec{r} = \vec{r}_A + \vec{\rho}_A$ ). Da er sammenhengen mellom momentet og spinnet om punktet  $A$ :

( $\triangleq$  Definition)

$$\vec{n}_A = \dot{\vec{h}}_A^i + \vec{\rho}_A \times (m\ddot{\vec{r}}_A) \quad \text{hvor}$$

$$\vec{n}_A = \vec{\rho}_A \times \vec{F} \quad (\text{B- 141})$$

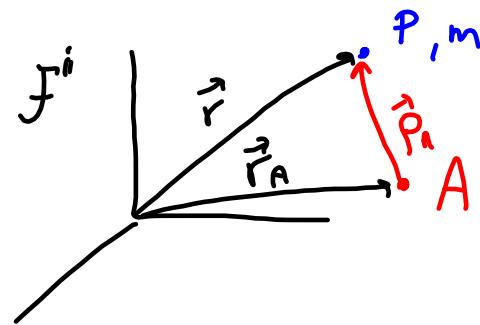
$$\dot{\vec{h}}_A^i = \vec{\rho}_A \times (m\ddot{\vec{\rho}}_A) \quad (\text{B- 142})$$

Dersom  $\vec{\rho}_A \times (m\ddot{\vec{r}}_A) = \vec{0}$ , dvs bla når  $A$  oppfyller 1 eller 2 :

1).  $\ddot{\vec{r}}_A = \vec{0}$  :  $A$  har konstant hastighet i treghetssystemet (ligger f.eks i ro).

2).  $\vec{\rho}_A \parallel \ddot{\vec{r}}_A$  :  $A$  akselererer mot/fra partikkelen  $P$   
så kan spinnsatsen skrives :

$$\boxed{\vec{n}_A = \dot{\vec{h}}_A^i} \quad (\text{B- 143})$$



$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_A + \vec{p}_A$$

Def:

Torque (moment) around A:  $\vec{n}_A = \vec{\rho} \times \vec{f}$

Angular momentum (spin) -ii- :  $\vec{h}_A = \vec{\rho} \times (m \vec{v}^i)$

Note: Torque and angular momentum can be defined differently in different text books.

What is the relationship between torque  $\vec{n}_A$  and the angular momentum  $\vec{h}_A$ ?

Answer:  $\vec{n}_A = \vec{h}_A + \vec{\rho}_A \times (m \vec{r}_A^i)$

When = 0? How to choose A.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_A &\stackrel{\text{Def.}}{=} \vec{p} \times \vec{f} = \vec{p} \times (m \ddot{\vec{r}}^i) = \vec{p} \times \left( m \frac{d\vec{r}^i}{dt^2} (\vec{r}_A + \vec{p}) \right) \\ &= \vec{p} \times m \ddot{\vec{r}}_A^i + \underbrace{\vec{p} \times m \ddot{\vec{p}}^i}_{= \vec{h}_A^i ?} \end{aligned}$$

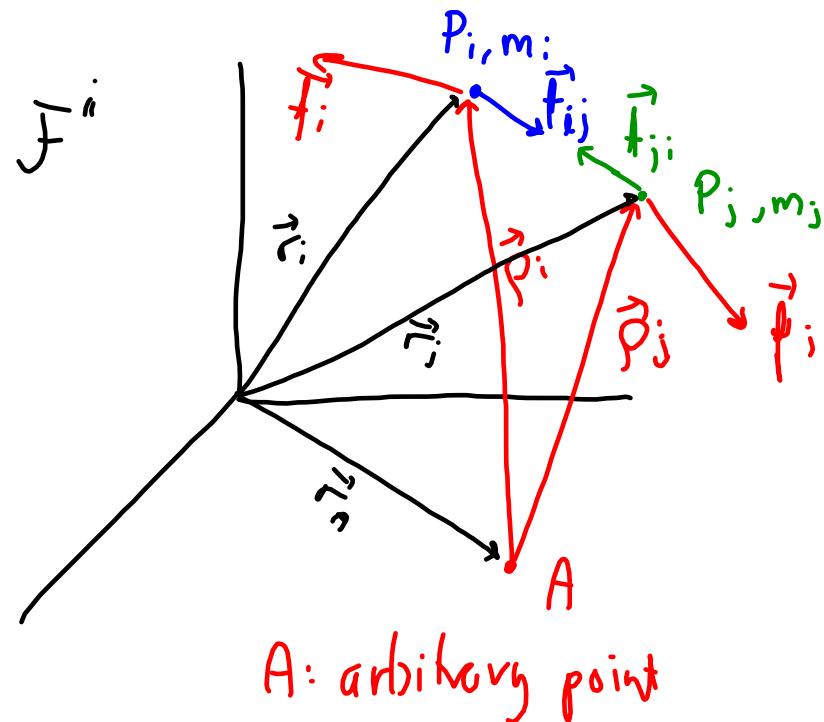
$$\vec{h}_A^i \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \vec{p} \times (m \dot{\vec{p}}^i)$$

$$\vec{h}_A^i = \underbrace{\vec{p}^i \times (m \dot{\vec{p}}^i)}_{= 0} + \vec{p} \times (m \ddot{\vec{p}}^i)$$

Yes, they are.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{r}_A = \vec{h}_A^i + \vec{p} \times m \ddot{\vec{r}}_A^i} \quad \text{q.e.d}$$

## Law of ang\_mom. for a n-particle system



A: arbitrary point

$F^i$ : inertial frame

$P_i$ : particle nr.  $i$

$m_i$ : mass of  $P_i$

$\vec{f}_i$ : outer force on  $P_i$

$\vec{f}_{ij}$ : force  $P_j$  acts on  $P_i$

Assume that  $\vec{f}_{ij} = -\vec{f}_{ji}$  and  
 $\vec{f}_{ij} \parallel \vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j = \vec{r}_{ij}$ , i.e.

central forces.

For  $P_i$  we have:

$$\vec{n}_{Ai} = \vec{p}_i \times \left( \vec{f}_i + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \vec{f}_{ij} \right)$$

$$\vec{h}_{Ai} = \vec{p}_i \times (m \vec{p}'_i)$$

For n-particles:

$$\vec{n}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{n}_{Ai} \quad : \text{Total torque around A}$$

$$\vec{h}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{h}_{Ai} \quad : \text{Total angular momentum (spin) around A}$$

What is the relationship between  $\vec{n}_A$  and  $\vec{h}_A$ ?

**Teorem B.7 Spinnsatsen for et n-partikkelsystem**

Gitt et system av  $n$  partikler hvor partikkelen  $i$  er utsatt for den ytre kraften  $\vec{F}_i$  og krafta  $\vec{f}_{ij}$  fra partikkelen  $j$  ( $j = 1, \dots, n$ ) antas å oppfylle Newtons 3. lov ( $\vec{f}_{ij} = -\vec{f}_{ji}$ ) og i tillegg være en sentralkraft (ligger langs  $\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j$ ). Da vil for et vilkårlig punkt  $A$  i treghetsystemet  $\mathbf{i}$ :

$$\vec{n}_A = \dot{\vec{h}}_A^{\mathbf{i}} + \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{r}}_A^{\mathbf{i}} \quad \text{hvor} \quad (\text{B- 144})$$

$$\vec{n}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \vec{F}_i \quad \text{totalt ytre moment om } A \quad (\text{B- 145})$$

$$\vec{h}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{p}}_{Ai}^{\mathbf{i}} \quad \text{totalt spinn om } A \quad (\text{B- 146})$$

Dersom  $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{r}}_A^{\mathbf{i}} = 0$ , dvs bl.a. når  $A$  oppfyller 1, 2 eller 3 :

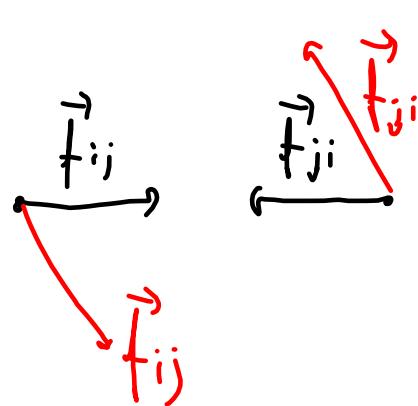
- 1).  $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} = \vec{0}$  :  $A$  er i massesenteret. **normal thing to do**
- 2).  $\ddot{\vec{r}}_A^{\mathbf{i}} = \vec{0}$  :  $A$  har konstant hastighet i treghetsrommet (f.eks. i ro).
- 3).  $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \parallel \ddot{\vec{r}}_A^{\mathbf{i}}$ :  $A$  akselererer mot massesenteret.  
så kan spinnsatset for et  $n$ -partikkelsystem skrives :

$$\vec{n}_A = \dot{\vec{h}}_A^{\mathbf{i}} \quad (\text{B- 147})$$

Proof:

Sum  $\vec{h}_{Ai}^i$  over all  $i$  and do the same with  $\vec{n}_{Ai}$ .

Use Newtons. 2nd law and see that all cross terms disappears because  $\vec{f}_{ij} + \vec{f}_{ji} = 0$  and they are central forces.



$\vec{f}_{ij} = -\vec{f}_{ji}$  are central forces.

$\vec{f}_{ij} = -\vec{f}_{ji}$  are not central forces

Proof of B.7

$$\vec{n}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{P}_{Ai} \times \left( \vec{f}_i + \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n \vec{f}_{ij} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{P}_{Ai} \times \vec{f}_i + \vec{P}_{A1} \times (0 + \vec{f}_{12} + \dots + \vec{f}_{1n})$$

$$+ \vec{P}_{A2} \times (\vec{f}_{21} + 0 + \dots + \vec{f}_{2n})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$+ \vec{P}_{An} \times (\vec{f}_{n1} + \vec{f}_{n2} + \dots + 0)$$

$= \vec{0}$

$$\boxed{\vec{n}_A = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{P}_{Ai} \times \vec{f}_i}$$

$= \vec{0}$  because:

$$\vec{P}_{Ai} \times \vec{f}_{ij} + \vec{P}_{Aj} \times \vec{f}_{ji}$$

$$= \vec{P}_{Ai} \times \vec{f}_{ij} - \vec{P}_{Aj} \times \vec{f}_{ij}$$

$$= (\vec{P}_{Ai} - \vec{P}_{Aj}) \times \vec{f}_{ij}$$

$$= \vec{0}$$

because  $\vec{P}_{Ai} - \vec{P}_{Aj} \parallel \vec{f}_{ij}$   
(central forces)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{n}_A &= \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \vec{f}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times (m_i \ddot{\vec{r}}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \left( m_i \frac{d^2}{dt^2} (\vec{r}_i) \right) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \left( m_i \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \left( \vec{r}_A + \vec{p}_{Ai} \right) \right) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{p}_{Ai} \times m_i \ddot{\vec{r}}_A + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{p}}_{Ai}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\dot{\vec{h}}_A^i = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \dot{\vec{p}}_{Ai} \right)$$

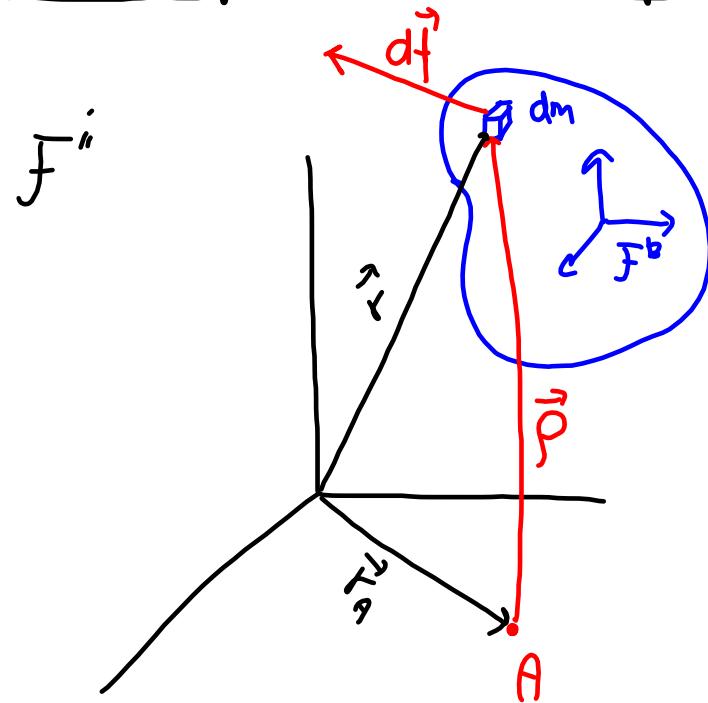
$$= \dot{\vec{h}}_A^i ?$$

Yes, they are!

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \dot{\vec{p}}_{Ai} \times \dot{\vec{p}}_{Ai}}_{= \vec{0}} + \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{p}}_{Ai} \\
 \Rightarrow \vec{n}_A &= \dot{\vec{h}}_A^i + \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \vec{p}_{Ai} \times \ddot{\vec{r}}_A
 \end{aligned}$$

q.e.d.

## Law of angular momentum (Spinsatz) for a rigid body



$F^i$  : inertial frame

$F^b$  : frame fixed to the body

$d\vec{F}$  : outer force acting on the mass element  $dm$

$dm = k(\vec{r}) dV$  where

$k(r)$  is the mass density.

b - body

The body is rigid, i.e. the distance between the molecules (particles) is const.  
 We have already found the law of angular momentum for a n-particle system.  
 We want to use integrals instead of sums ( $\sum$ )

We let  $n \rightarrow \infty : \sum \rightarrow \iiint dm$  or  $\iiint k(\vec{r}) dV$

$M$ : total mass of body

$V$ : volume of body

Particles  $\rightarrow$  mass differentials

$$\vec{h}_{Ai} = \vec{\rho}_i \times (m_i \vec{\dot{r}}_i) \Rightarrow d\vec{h}_A = \vec{\rho} \times (\vec{\dot{r}} dm)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{h}_A &= \iiint_M d\vec{h}_A = \iiint_M \vec{\rho} \times \vec{\dot{r}} dm \\ &= \iiint_M \vec{\rho} \times (\vec{\dot{P}}^b + \vec{\omega}_b \times \vec{\rho}) dm\end{aligned}$$

If A is fixed to the body :

$$\vec{h}_A^i = \iiint_M \vec{p} \times (\vec{w}_b^i \times \vec{p}) dm = - \overbrace{\iiint_M dm \vec{p} \times (\vec{p} \times \vec{w}_b^i)}^{J_A} = \bar{J}_A \vec{w}_b^i$$

Total outer torque:

one-particle:  $\vec{n}_{Ai} = \vec{p}_i \times \vec{f}_i$

n-particles:  $\vec{n}_A = \sum \vec{p}_i \times \vec{f}_i \Rightarrow \vec{n}_A = \iiint_M \vec{p} \times d\vec{f}$

What is the relationship between  $\vec{n}_A$  and  $\vec{h}_A^i$ ?

**Teorem B.8 Spinnsatsen for stive legemer**

Gitt treghetssystemet  $\mathbf{i}$  og et k.s.  $b$  som ligger fast i legemet og har sitt origo i  $A$ . Dersom  $A$  tilfredstiller 1 eller 2 :

- 1).  $A$  ligger i massesenteret.
- 2).  $A$  ligger i ro i treghetsrommet.

er spinnsatsen på en koordinatuavhengig form :

**Theorem A.19**

$$\vec{n}_A = \dot{\underline{h}}_A^i + \underline{\omega}_b^i \times \underline{h}_A^i$$

eller representert i  $b$ -systemet :

**Theorem A.18**

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{n}_A^b &= \dot{\underline{h}}_A^{ib} + \underline{\omega}_b^{ib} \times \underline{h}_A^{ib} \\ &= J^b \underline{\dot{\omega}}_b^{ib} + \underline{\omega}_b^{ib} \times (J^b \underline{\omega}_b^{ib}) \\ \underline{\dot{\omega}}_b^{ib} &= R_i^b \underline{\dot{\omega}}_b^i \end{aligned}$$

hvor spinnet er definert ved :

$$\underline{h}_A^{ib} = J^b \underline{\omega}_b^{ib}$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} \vec{n}_A = \iiint_M \vec{\rho} \times d\vec{r} \quad (\text{only outer forces}) \\ \vec{h}_A^i = - \iiint_M \vec{\rho} \times (\vec{\rho} \times \vec{w}_b^i) dm = \iint_A \vec{w}_b^i \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} (\text{B- 148}) \\ (\text{B- 149}) \end{array}$$

$$J^b = [J_A]^b$$

Trehetsmatrisa  $J^b$  beregnes via trehetsmomenta,  $J_{ii}^b$ , og trehetsprodukta,  $J_{ij}^b$ :

$$J^b = \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx}^b & -J_{xy}^b & -J_{xz}^b \\ -J_{yx}^b & J_{yy}^b & -J_{yz}^b \\ -J_{zx}^b & -J_{zy}^b & J_{zz}^b \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B- } 150)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} J_{xx}^b & -J_{xy}^b & -J_{xz}^b \\ -J_{yx}^b & J_{yy}^b & -J_{yz}^b \\ -J_{zx}^b & -J_{zy}^b & J_{zz}^b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \int_M (y^2 + z^2) dm & -\int_M xy dm & -\int_M xz dm \\ -\int_M xy dm & \int_M (x^2 + z^2) dm & -\int_M yz dm \\ -\int_M xz dm & -\int_M yz dm & \int_M (x^2 + y^2) dm \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B- } 151)$$

Dvs trehetsmatrisa er symmetrisk.

NB: Here is  $\varphi^b = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1^b \\ \varphi_2^b \\ \varphi_3^b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$

F.12 / How to calculate the angular momentum  $\vec{h}_c^i = \bar{J}_c \vec{w}_b^i$

If we represent  $\vec{p}$  in  $\bar{F}^i$  the matrix representation of  $\bar{J}_c$  becomes time variant, but represented in the body frame  $\bar{F}^b$  it will be time invariant.

We therefore choose to calculate  $\vec{h}_c^i$  in  $\bar{F}^b$ .

Ang. mom:

$$\vec{h}_c^i = - \iiint_M \vec{p} \times (\vec{p} \times \vec{w}_b^i) dm = \bar{J}_c \vec{w}_b^i, \text{ where } O_b = A = C$$

$$\underline{h}_c^{ib} = - \iiint_M \underline{p}^b \times (\underline{p}^b \times \underline{w}_b^{ib}) dm = - \iiint_M S(\underline{p}^b) S(\underline{p}^b) \underline{w}_b^{ib} dm$$

$$= \left( - \iiint_M S(\underline{p}^b) S(\underline{p}^b) dm \right) \underline{w}_b^{ib} = J_c^b \underline{w}_b^{ib}$$

$$J_c^b = [J_c]^b$$

Summary Kinetic equations for the center of mass ( $C = A = O_b$ )

$$\vec{p}_c^i = m \cdot \vec{v}_c^i \quad , \quad \vec{h}_c^i = - \iiint_M \vec{p} \times (\vec{p} \times \vec{w}_b^i) dm = \mathbb{J}_c \vec{w}_b^i$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{N.Z} \quad \vec{f} = \dot{\vec{p}}_c^i = \frac{d}{dt} (m \vec{v}_c^i) = \dot{\vec{p}}_c^{ib} + \vec{w}_b^i \times \vec{p}_c^i \\ \text{Ang. mom.} \quad \vec{n}_c = \dot{\vec{h}}_c^i = \frac{d}{dt} (\mathbb{J}_c \vec{w}_b^i) = \dot{\vec{h}}_c^{ib} + \vec{w}_b^i \times \vec{h}_c^i \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} \vec{f}^i = m \dot{\vec{v}}_c^i, \quad \vec{f}^b = \dot{\vec{p}}_c^{ib} + \underbrace{\vec{w}_b^{ib} \times \vec{p}_c^i}_{S(\underline{w}_b^{ib})} \\ \vec{n}_c^i = \dot{\vec{h}}_c^i, \quad \vec{n}_c^b = \dot{\vec{h}}_c^{ib} + \underbrace{\vec{w}_b^{ib} \times \vec{h}_c^i}_{S(\underline{w}_b^{ib})} \end{array}$$

$$\underline{h}_c^{ib} = \underline{J}_c^b \underline{w}_b^{ib}$$

$$\underline{n}_c^b = \underline{J}_c^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{ibb} + S(\underline{w}_b^{ib}) \underline{J}_c^b \underline{w}_b^{ib}$$

$\underline{J}_c^b$  : Inertia matrix

Gives B-149

$$\underline{J}_c^b = - \iiint_n S(\rho^b) S(\rho^b) dm, \quad \rho^b = [\rho_1; \rho_2; \rho_3]$$

$$= - \iiint_m \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\rho_3 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_3 & 0 & -\rho_1 \\ -\rho_2 & \rho_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \rho_3 & \rho_2 \\ \rho_3 & 0 & -\rho_1 \\ -\rho_2 & \rho_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} dm$$

$$= + \iiint_m \begin{bmatrix} \rho_2^2 + \rho_3^2 & -\rho_1\rho_2 & -\rho_1\rho_3 \\ -\rho_2\rho_1 & \rho_1^2 + \rho_3^2 & -\rho_2\rho_3 \\ -\rho_3\rho_1 & -\rho_3\rho_2 & \rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2 \end{bmatrix} dm$$

$$\underline{J}_c^b = [\underline{J}_c^b]^T$$

Moment of inertia

$$[\underline{J}_c^b]_{ii} = \iiint_m (\rho_i^2 + \rho_k^2) dm, \quad j \neq k$$

$$[\underline{J}_c^b]_{ij} = - \iiint_m \rho_i \rho_j dm, \quad i \neq j$$

Product of inertia

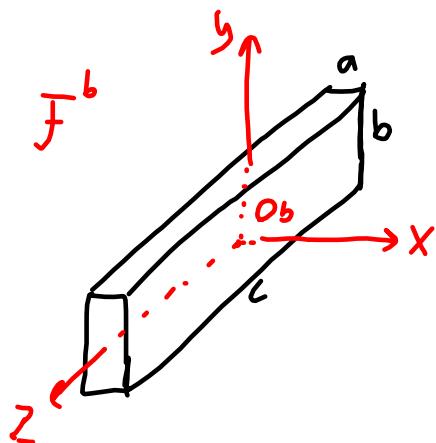
$\bar{J}_c^b$  is a real, symmetric, positive definite matrix ( $\text{Det}(\bar{J}_c^b) > 0$ )

$\Rightarrow$  matrix has real eigenvalues and orthogonal eigenvectors

Eigenvectors are called the main axis of the body. I.e. if  $\bar{f}^b$  has the basis vectors along the main axis:

$$\bar{J}_c^b = \text{diag}(\bar{J}_{xx}^b, \bar{J}_{yy}^b, \bar{J}_{zz}^b)$$

Example: Inertia matrix of a brickwall "mvrstein"



Assume:  $a < b < c$

$\bar{f}^b$  has origin in the center of mass  $O_b$

$$\bar{f}^b = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

Cross terms:

$$\left[ \int_c^s \right]_{xy} = - \iiint_m xy dm = - \iiint_m xy k dx dy dz , \quad k: \text{mass density (const.)}$$

$$= -k \int_{-c/2}^{c/2} \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} y \left( \int_a^b x dx \right) dy dz = 0 \quad \text{because of symmetry}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \int_c^s \right]_{xx} &= k \iiint_m (y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz = k \iiint_m (y^2 + z^2) \left( \int_a^b dx \right) dy dz \\ &= k a \iint_b^{b/2} (y^2 + z^2) dy dz = k a \iint_{c/2}^{b/2} y^2 dy dz + k a \iint_{-c/2}^{b/2} z^2 dy dz \\ &= k ac \int_{-b/2}^{b/2} y^2 dy + kab \int_{-c/2}^{c/2} z^2 dz \\ &= akc \left[ \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right]_{-b/2}^{b/2} + akb \left[ \frac{1}{3} z^3 \right]_{-c/2}^{c/2} = akc \frac{2}{3} \frac{b^3}{8} + akb \frac{2}{3} \frac{c^3}{8} \\ &= \underbrace{akbc}_{m} \frac{b^2}{12} + \underbrace{akbc}_{m} \frac{c^2}{12} = \frac{M}{12} (b^2 + c^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\bar{J}_c^b = \text{diag} \left( \frac{M}{12}(b^2+c^2), \frac{M}{12}(a^2+c^2), \frac{M}{12}(a^2+b^2) \right)$$

We had  $a < b < c \Rightarrow J_{xx}^b > J_{yy}^b > J_{zz}^b$

Euler equation.

When we put A in the centre of mass C,  $\bar{F}^b$  is fixed to the body and  $O_b = C = A$ , the law of angular momentum becomes:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \underline{\eta}_c^b = \bar{J}_c^b \dot{\underline{w}}_b^{ibb} + S(\underline{w}_b^{ib}) \bar{J}_c^b \underline{w}_b^{ib}$$

Assume  $\bar{F}^b$  coincides with the main axis, i.e.  $\bar{J}_c^b$  is diagonal, and  $\underline{\eta}_c^b = [n_x; n_y; n_z]$ ,  $\underline{w}_b^{ib} = [w_x; w_y; w_z]$ ,  $\bar{J}_c^b = \text{diag}(J_{xx}^b, J_{yy}^b, J_{zz}^b)$ .

In this case we get the Euler equations.

**Teorem B.9 Eulerlikningene**

Dersom k.s.  $b$  velges fast i legemet med origo i  $A$ , med akser langs hovedaksene for legemet og  $A$  i tillegg tilfredstiller 1 eller 2 :

1).  $A$  ligger i massesenteret.

2).  $A$  ligger i ro i treghetsrommet.

kan spinnssatsen skrives på følgende enkle form :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} n_x = J_{xx}^b \dot{\omega}_x + \omega_y \omega_z (J_{zz}^b - J_{yy}^b) \\ n_y = J_{yy}^b \dot{\omega}_y + \omega_z \omega_x (J_{xx}^b - J_{zz}^b) \\ n_z = J_{zz}^b \dot{\omega}_z + \omega_x \omega_y (J_{yy}^b - J_{xx}^b) \end{array} \right\}, \quad \underline{n}_A^b = \begin{bmatrix} n_x \\ n_y \\ n_z \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{\omega}_b^{ib} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega_x \\ \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{B- 152})$$

Prøft : Insert into eq. ①

$$\begin{bmatrix} n_x \\ n_y \\ n_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx}^b & \dot{\omega}_x \\ J_{yy}^b & \dot{\omega}_y \\ J_{zz}^b & \dot{\omega}_z \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_z & \omega_y \\ \omega_z & 0 & -\omega_x \\ -\omega_y & \omega_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx}^b & \dot{\omega}_x \\ J_{yy}^b & \dot{\omega}_y \\ J_{zz}^b & \dot{\omega}_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx}^b \dot{\omega}_x + \omega_y \omega_z (J_{zz}^b - J_{yy}^b) \\ J_{yy}^b \dot{\omega}_y + \omega_z \omega_x (J_{xx}^b - J_{zz}^b) \\ J_{zz}^b \dot{\omega}_z + \omega_x \omega_y (J_{yy}^b - J_{xx}^b) \end{bmatrix}$$

Euler equations can be used in 2 ways:

- 1) Given the forces ( $\underline{n}_c^b$ ) find the motion ( $\underline{w}_b^{ib}$ ). **Differential eq.**
- 2) Given the motion ( $\underline{w}_b^{ib}$ ) find the forces ( $\underline{n}_c^b$ ). **Algebraic eq.**

Solution of 1)

$$\dot{w}_x = \frac{1}{J_{xx}} \left[ (J_{yy} - J_{zz}) w_y w_z + n_x \right]$$

$$(2) \quad \dot{w}_y = \frac{1}{J_{yy}} \left[ (J_{zz} - J_{xx}) w_x w_z + n_y \right]$$

$$\dot{w}_z = \frac{1}{J_{zz}} \left[ (J_{xx} - J_{yy}) w_x w_y + n_z \right]$$

Eg. ② is in standard form:

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), x(t_0) \text{ given}$$

$$\text{For d.e. ②: } x = \underline{w}_b^{ib}, u = \underline{n}_c^b$$

To find the orientation/attitude:

$$\dot{R}_b^i = R_b^i S(\underline{w}_b^{ib}), R_b^i(t_0) \text{ given}$$

$$\dot{\underline{w}}_b^{ibb} = f(\underline{w}_b^{ib}, \underline{n}_c^b), \underline{w}_b^{ib}(t_0) \text{ given}$$

F.13 / Instead of the d.e. in DCM  
we can use the d.e. for  
Euler angles (A.5)

$$\dot{\underline{\theta}} = D_b^{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{\theta}) \underline{w}_b^{ib}$$

$$\dot{\underline{w}}_b^{ib} = f(\underline{w}_b^{ib}, \underline{n}_c^b)$$

$\underline{\theta}(t_0)$  and  $\underline{w}_b^{ib}(t_0)$  is given

$$\underline{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3-2-1 \text{ Euler Ang.})$$

$D_p^{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{\theta})$  is given in A-105

$$D_p^{\underline{\theta}}(\underline{\theta}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \sin\theta_1 \tan\theta_2 & \cos\theta_1 \tan\theta_2 \\ 0 & \cos\theta_1 & -\sin\theta_1 \\ 0 & \sin\theta_1/\cos\theta_2 & \cos\theta_1/\cos\theta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here  $\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\theta} \\ \underline{w}_b^{ib} \end{bmatrix}$

Note! D.e. for  $\underline{w}_b^{ib}$  can be solved without solving d.e. for  $\underline{\theta}$ , <sup>bwt</sup> not the other way

### B.3 - Torque-free motion of a rigid body

Assume  $J_{xx} > J_{yy} > J_{zz}$

We want to calculate  $\underline{\omega}_b^{ib}$  and  $\underline{\omega}_b^{ii}$  (we find trajectories, not the time function)

Ellipsoid of inertia

$$\text{Inertia matrix } \underline{J}_c^b = \begin{bmatrix} J_c^b \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$\Rightarrow$  pos. definite matrix and by using the expression:

$$\underline{J} = \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^T \underline{J}_c^b \underline{x} : \begin{array}{l} \text{ellipsoid when} \\ J \text{ is constant.} \end{array}$$

If we chose  $\underline{f}^b$  in the main axis.

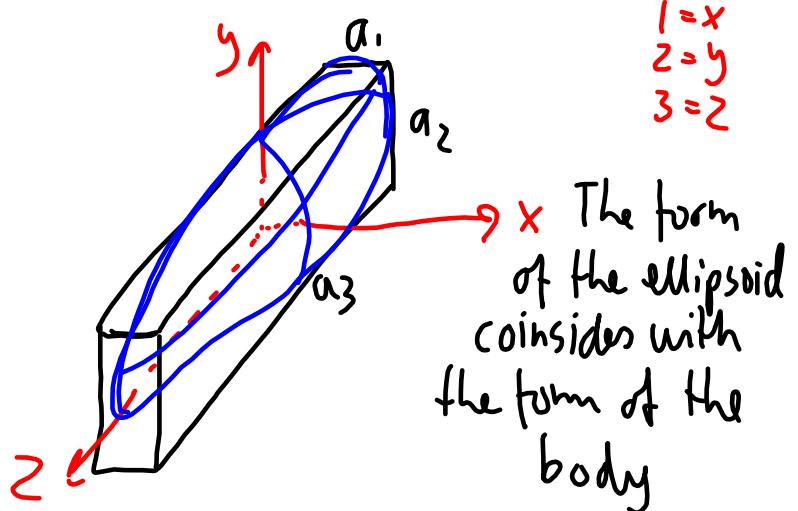
$$\underline{J} = \frac{1}{2} \underline{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx} & & \\ & J_{yy} & \\ & & J_{zz} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} x_i^2$$

This eq on std. form :

$$\frac{x_1^2}{2J/J_{11}} + \frac{x_2^2}{2J/J_{22}} + \frac{x_3^2}{2J/J_{33}} = 1$$

Half axis:  $a_i = \sqrt{2J/J_{ii}}$  for  $i=1,2,3$

$$a_1 < a_2 < a_3$$



Ellipsoids of inertia represents the form of the body (w.r.t. rotation)

Kinetic rotation energy ellipsoid

Multiply the Euler equations (B-152)  
(assume  $\eta_c^b = 0$ , i.e. torque free motion)  
with  $w_x, w_y$  and  $w_z$  for line 1, 2 and  
3 respectively, and add them up.

$$\Omega = \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} \dot{w}_i w_i \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} 1=x \\ 2=y \\ 3=z \end{array} \right\}$$

Integrate w.r.t time:

$$\int_{t_0}^t \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} \frac{dw_i}{dt} w_i dt = \int_{t_0}^t 0 dt = 0$$

$$\int_{t_0}^t \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} w_i^2(t) dt = \Omega$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} w_i^2(t) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} w_i^2(t_0) = K_0$$

i.e.

$$\frac{w_1^2(t)}{2K_0/J_{11}} + \frac{w_2^2(t)}{2K_0/J_{22}} + \frac{w_3^2(t)}{2K_0/J_{33}} = 1$$

Half axis:  $\sqrt{\frac{2K_0}{J_{ii}}}$

We see that the kinetic rotation energy ellipsoid has the same form as the ellipsoid of inertia (can choose  $J=K_0$ )

$w_b^{ib}(t)$  has to stay on the kinetic rot. energy. ellipsoid

### Angular momentum ellipsoide (spinnellipsoide)

When the outer force is zero ( $\vec{n}_c = \vec{0}$ )  $\Rightarrow \overset{\curvearrowleft}{\vec{h}_c}^{ii} = \vec{0}$

and  $\|\overset{\curvearrowleft}{\vec{h}_c}^i\| = h_0$  (constant length) and the same direction in  $\vec{f}^i$ .

Angular velocity seen from  $F^b$

$$\underline{h}_c^{ib} = \int_c^b \underline{w}_b^{ib} = \begin{bmatrix} J_{xx} w_x \\ J_{yy} w_y \\ J_{zz} w_z \end{bmatrix}$$

choose  $\{b\}$  in  
the main axis

the length of  $\underline{h}_c^{ib}$  is constant:

$$(\underline{h}_c^{ib})^T \underline{h}_c^{ib} = h_0^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 J_{ii} w_i^2 = h_0^2$$

This can be written on std.  
form of an ellipsoid.

$$\frac{\dot{w}_1(t)}{h_0^2/J_{11}} + \frac{\dot{w}_2(t)}{h_0^2/J_{22}} + \frac{\dot{w}_3(t)}{h_0^2/J_{33}} = 1$$

Half axis:  $h_0 / \sqrt{J_{ii}}$

We see that the kin. rot. energy ellipsoid and  
the angular momentum ellipsoid do not have  
the same half axis

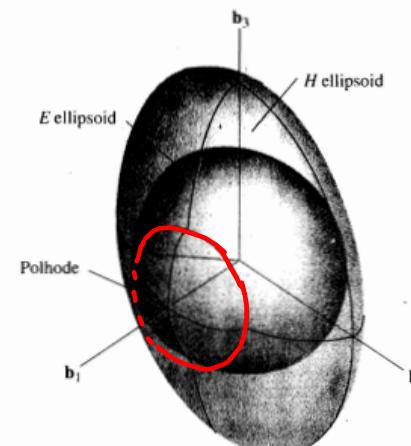
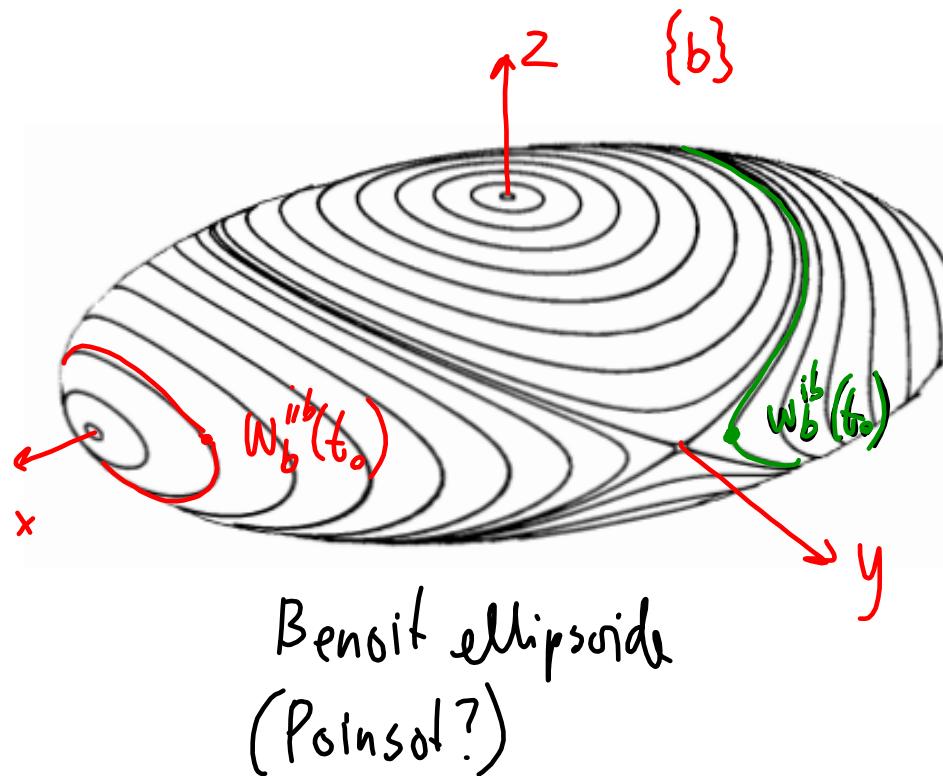
$\Rightarrow$  different form of the ellipsoids and  
they need to intersect.

$\underline{w}_b^{ib}(t)$  is on the intersection (pole head)  
of the two ellipsoids

### B.3.1 Beskrivelse av bevegelsen sett fra b-systemet

**Teorem B.13 Bevegelsen av et stift legeme sett fra det roterende b-systemet**

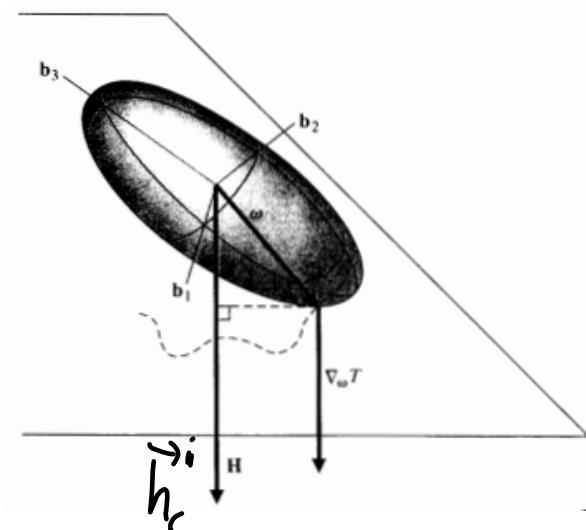
Anta b-systemet faller sammen med hovedaksene for det stive legemet. For et stift legeme som ikke er utsatt for ytre moment beveger vinkelhastighetsvektoren ( $\omega_b^{ib}$ ) seg da, sett fra b-systemet, på skjeringa (polhode) mellom spinnellipsoida og den kinetiske rotasjonsenergiellipsoida. Bevegelsen til det stive legemet er i hvert øyeblikk en ren rotasjon om vinkelhastighetsvektoren.



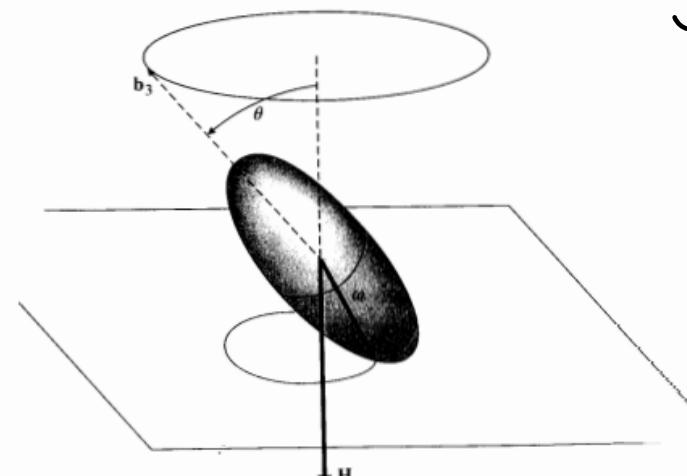
### B.3.2 Beskrivelse av bevegelsen sett fra i-systemet

**Teorem B.14 Bevegelsen av et stiftt legeme sett fra treghetssystemet i**

Bevegelsen av et stiftt legeme som ikke er utsatt for et ytre moment er beskrevet, sett fra treghetssystemet, av at den kinetiske energiellipsoida ruller på det invariable plan (plan  $\perp$  spinnvektoren  $\vec{h}^i$ ) uten å gli. Rullinga følger polhodet på den kinetiske energiellipsoida (kontaktpunktet mellom det invariable plan og ellipsoidea er dermed enden på  $\vec{\omega}_b^i$ -vektoren).



constant



$$J_{xx} = J_{yy} > J_{zz}$$

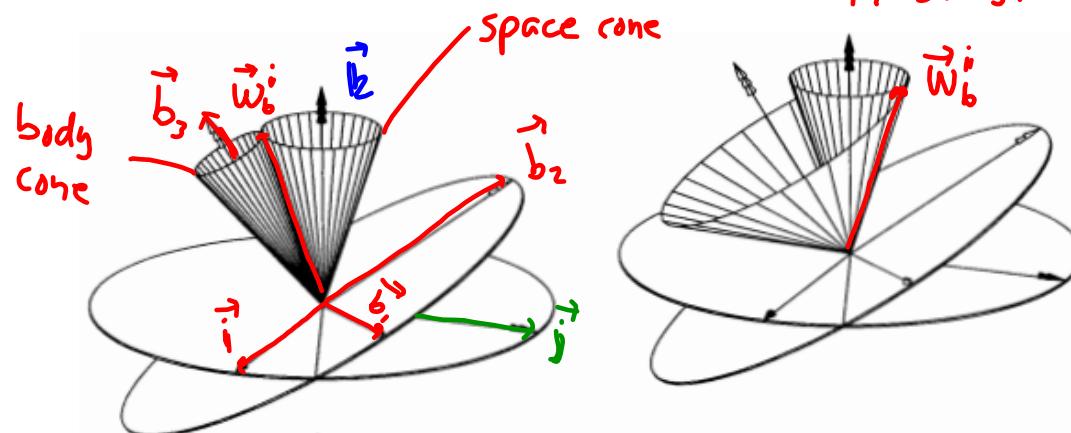
Axis. symmetrical

### B.4. Torque free motion of a axis symmetrical body.

Assume  $J_{xx} = J_{yy} \neq J_{zz}$

$$\mathcal{F}^i = \{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}\}$$

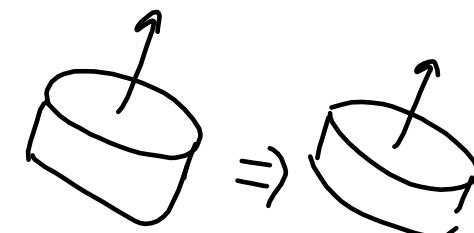
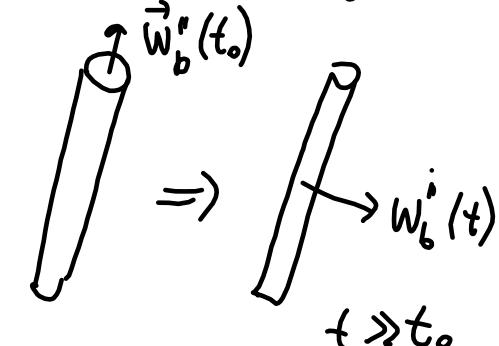
$$\mathcal{F}^b = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \vec{b}_3\}$$



$$J_{xx} = J_{yy} > J_{zz}$$

$$J_{xx} = J_{yy} < J_{zz}$$

What is the stationary rotation of a cylinder?

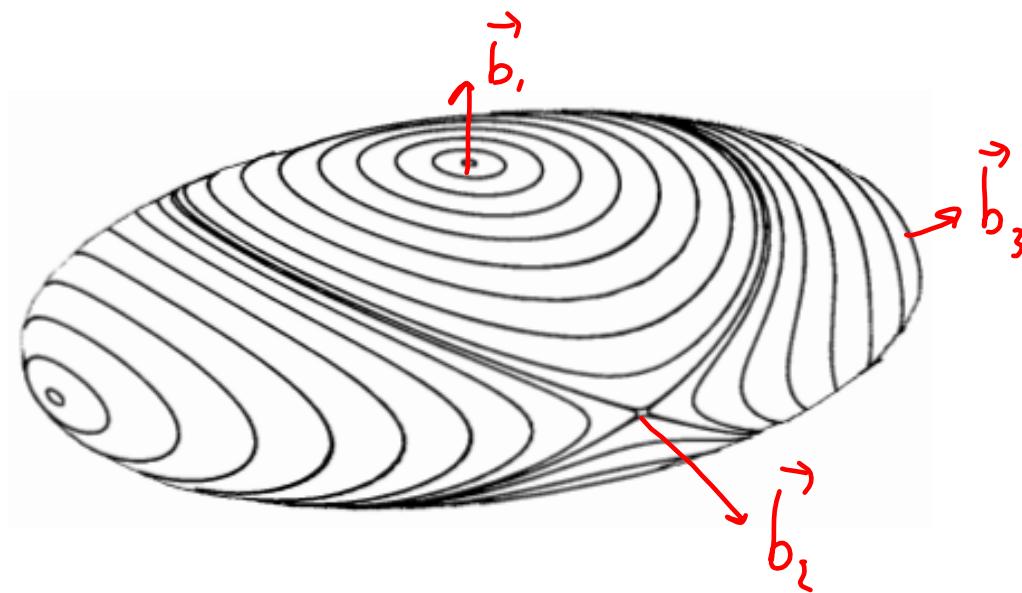


### B.3.3 Stabilitet om hovedaksene

Vi vil her undersøke stabiliteten til bevegelsen for små perturbasjoner om hovedaksene for et stivt legeme. Ovenfor så vi på bevegelsene i stort.

#### Teorem B.15 *Stabiliteten om hovedaksene for et stivt legeme*

Anta  $b$ -systemet faller sammen med hovedaksene for det stive legemet og  $J_{xx}^b > J_{yy}^b > J_{zz}^b$ . Da gir linearisering om  $\vec{b}_1$ -aksen ( $J_{xx}^b$ ) eller  $\vec{b}_3$ -aksen ( $J_{zz}^b$ ) et lineært system med kompleks konjugerte egenverdier. Linearisering om  $\vec{b}_2$ -aksen ( $J_{yy}^b$ ) gir et lineært system med to egenverdier, den ene ligger i venstre halvplan den andre i høgre.



### B.3.3 Stability of main axis

1) Rotation around b,-axis (x-axis)

$$\omega_{x_0} > 0$$

$$\alpha_1 > 0$$

$$\alpha_2 > 0$$

Assume  $|\dot{\omega}_x| \gg |\dot{\omega}_y| \approx |\dot{\omega}_z|$ , set  $\dot{\omega}_y, \dot{\omega}_z \approx 0$

Enter equations under these assumptions:

$$\dot{\omega}_x = (J_{yy} - J_{zz}) \omega_y \omega_z / J_{xx} = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_x(t) = \omega_{x_0}$$

$$\dot{\omega}_y = (J_{zz} - J_{xx}) \omega_x \omega_z / J_{yy} = \frac{J_{zz} - J_{xx}}{J_{yy}} \omega_z \omega_{x_0} = -\alpha_1 \omega_z \Rightarrow \dot{\omega}_y = -\alpha_1 \omega_z$$

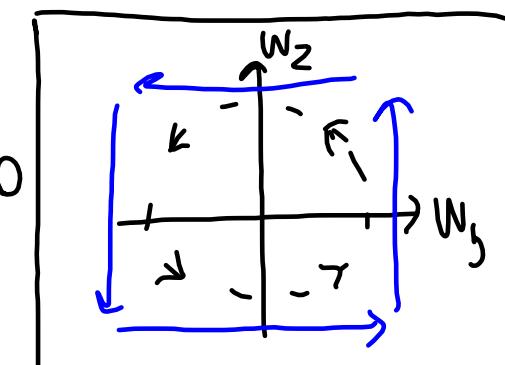
$$\dot{\omega}_z = (J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \omega_x \omega_y / J_{zz} = \frac{J_{xx} - J_{yy}}{J_{zz}} \omega_y \omega_{x_0} = \alpha_2 \omega_y \Rightarrow \dot{\omega}_z = \alpha_2 \omega_y$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\omega}_y \\ \dot{\omega}_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_y \\ \omega_z \end{bmatrix}$$

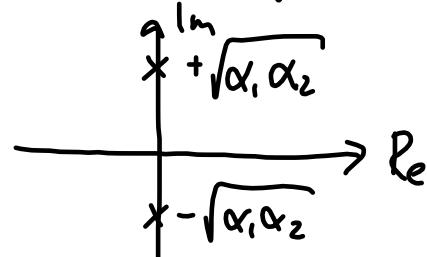
Eigenvalues:

$$|\lambda I - A| = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & \alpha_1 \\ -\alpha_2 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 + \alpha_1 \alpha_2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \pm \sqrt{-\alpha_1 \alpha_2} = \pm \sqrt{\alpha_1 \alpha_2} i$$



F.14 From F.13, page 11.



We know the solution has the form:

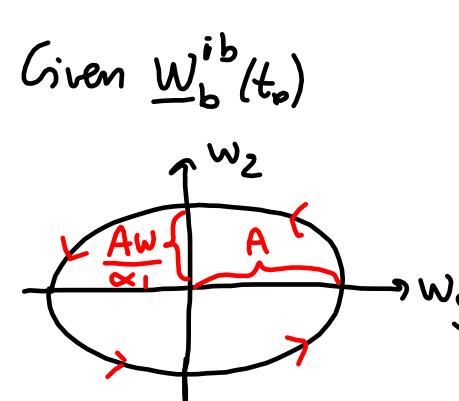
$$w_y(t) = A \sin(\omega t + \phi), \quad \omega = 2\tilde{\omega}f$$

From d.e.  $\dot{w}_y = -\alpha_1 w_z$

$$w_z(t) = -\frac{1}{\alpha_1} A \omega \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\dot{w}_z(t) = \frac{1}{\alpha_1} A \omega^2 \sin(\omega t + \phi) = \alpha_2 w_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega^2 = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$$



We can show:

$$w = w_{z0} \sqrt{\frac{(J_{xx} - J_{zz})(J_{yy} - J_{zz})}{J_{yy} J_{zz}}}$$

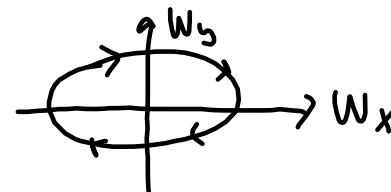
$$A = \frac{w_y(0)}{\sin \phi}$$

$$\phi = \operatorname{arctan} \left( \frac{-w w_y(0)}{\alpha_1 w_z(0)} \right)$$

2) Rotation around b<sub>3</sub>-axis.

Assume  $|w_z| \gg |w_x| \approx |w_y|$ ,  $w_x w_y \neq 0$

$\Rightarrow$  Complex conjugated eigenvalues  
and  $w_z(t) = w_{z0}$



3) Rotation around  $b_2$ -axis ( $y$ -axis)

Assume  $|w_y| \gg |w_x| \approx |w_z| \Rightarrow w_x, w_z \approx 0$

$$\dot{w}_x = \frac{J_{yy} - J_{zz}}{J_{xx}} w_{y0} w_z = \beta_1 w_z, \beta_1 > 0$$

$$\dot{w}_y = \frac{J_{zz} - J_{xx}}{J_{yy}} w_x w_z = 0 \Rightarrow w_y(t) = w_{y0}$$

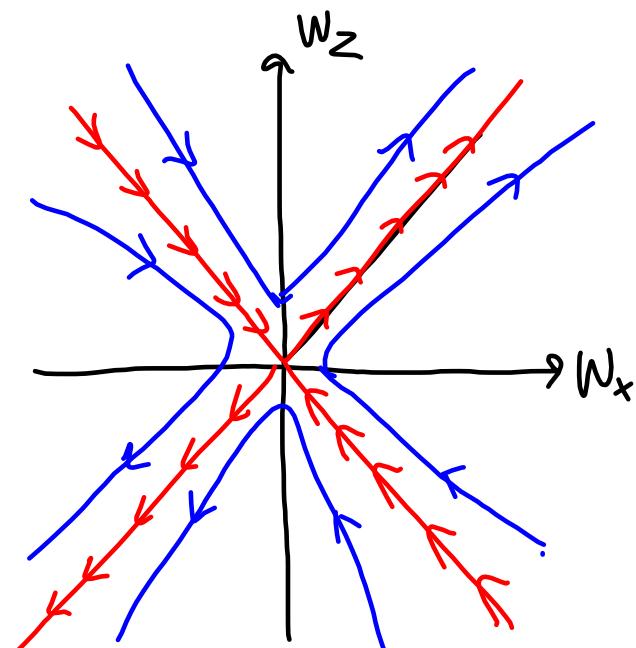
$$\dot{w}_z = \frac{J_{xx} - J_{yy}}{J_{zz}} w_{y0} w_x = \beta_2 w_x, \beta_2 > 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{w}_x \\ \dot{w}_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_x \\ w_z \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = A \underline{x}$$

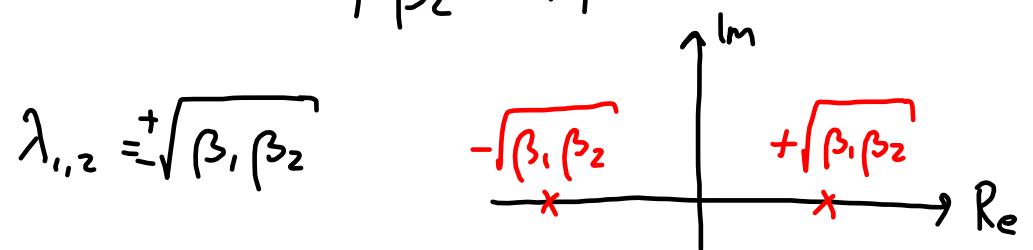
$$\dot{w}_x = \beta_1 w_z$$

$$\dot{w}_z = \beta_2 w_x$$



Eigenvalues :

$$|\lambda I - A| = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -\beta_1 \\ -\beta_2 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - \beta_1 \beta_2 = 0$$

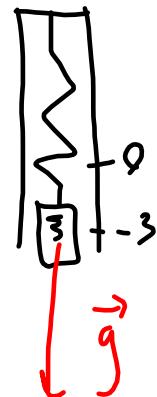
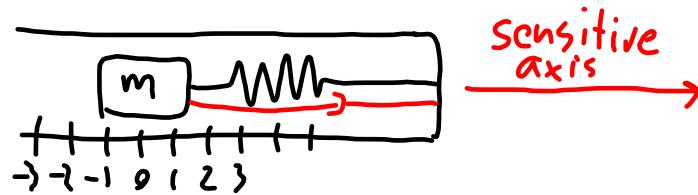


$$\begin{bmatrix} w_x(t) \\ w_y(t) \end{bmatrix} = M \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\lambda_1 t} \end{bmatrix} M^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} w_x(0) \\ w_y(0) \end{bmatrix}$$

Unstable!

## Part E: Inertial navigation system (INS) - (INS).

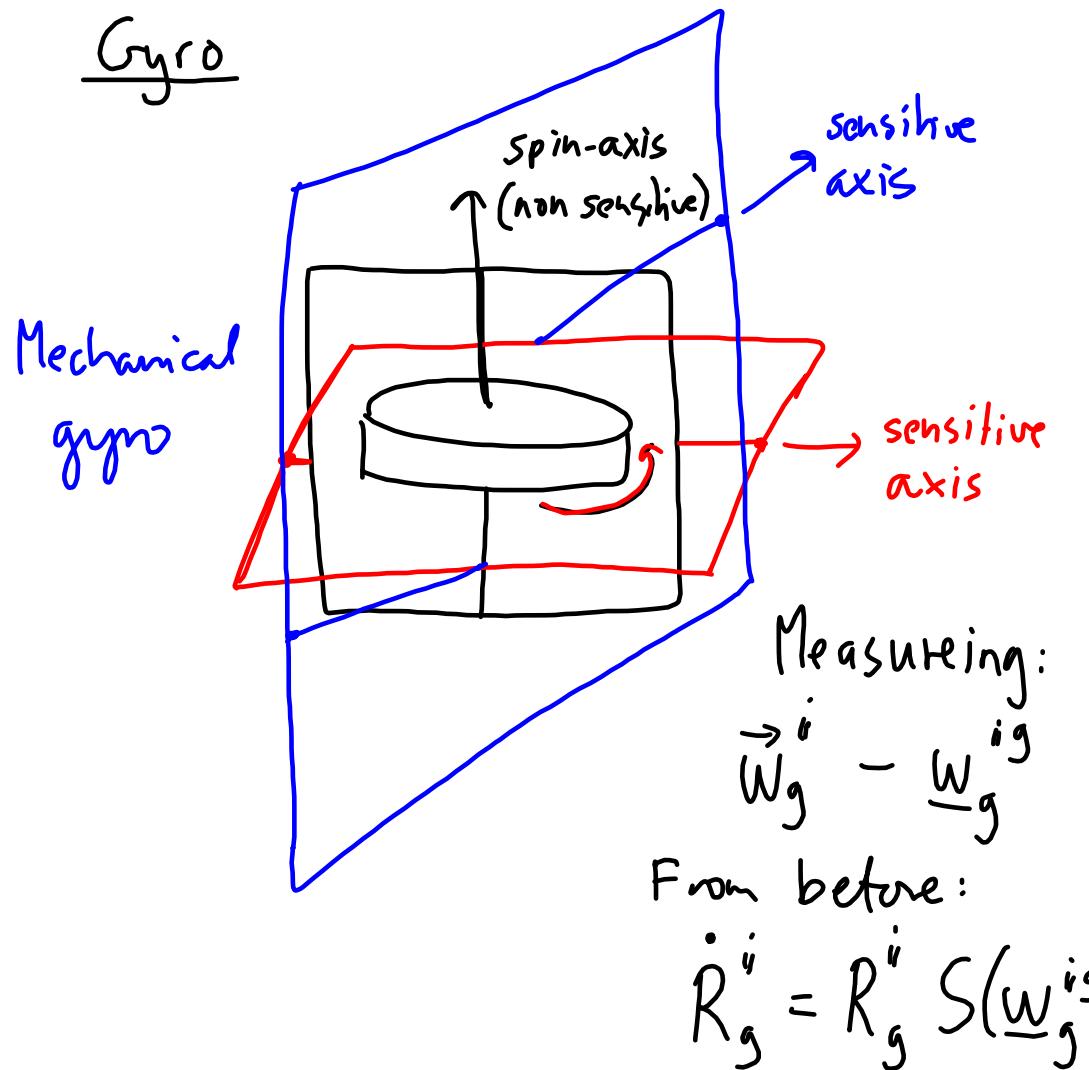
### Accelerometer



Measuring specific force:

$$f^a = \underline{a}^{ria} - g^a$$

$$\underline{a}^{ria} = f^a + g^a$$



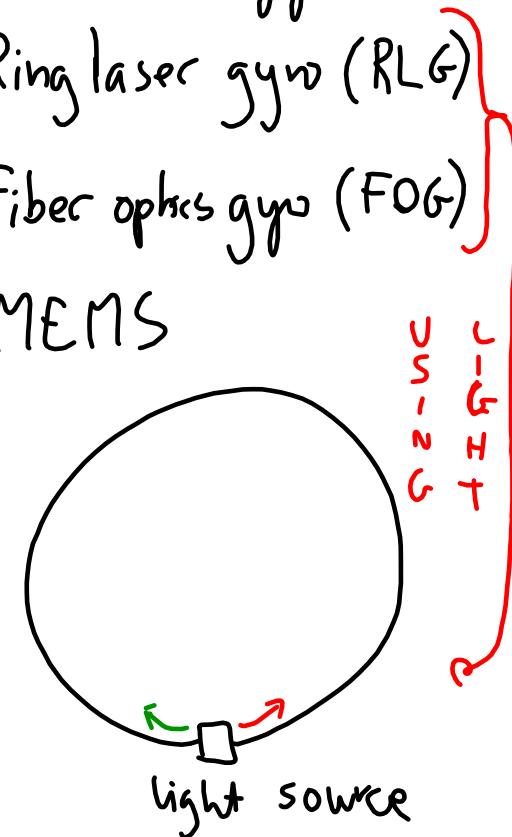
Types of gyros:

Mechanical gyro

Ring laser gyro (RLG)

Fiber optics gyro (FOG)

MEMS



## Navigation equations

$$\dot{F}^a = \bar{F}^g = \bar{F}^b - \text{body frame}$$

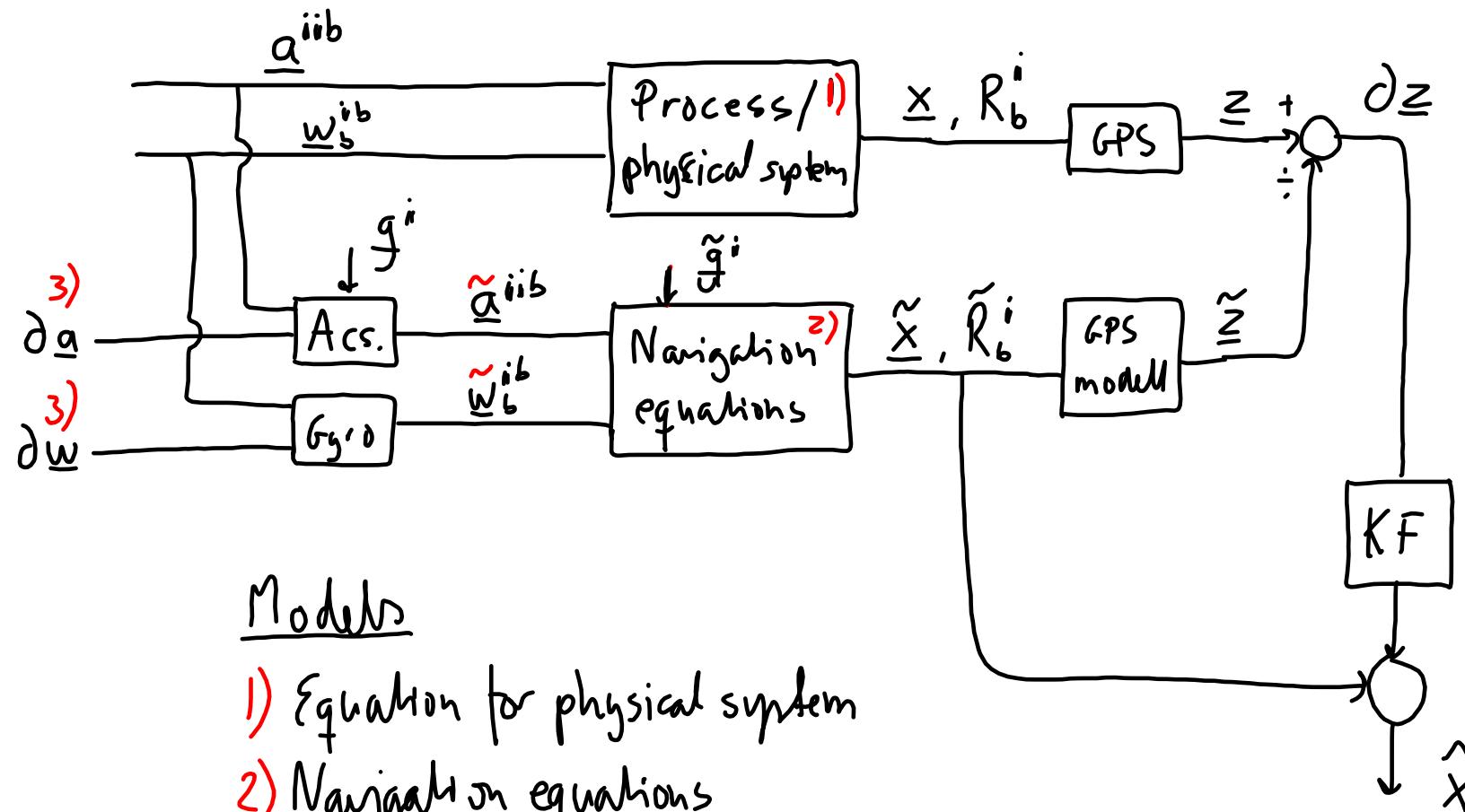
$$\dot{\tilde{P}}^i = \tilde{V}^i$$

$$\dot{\tilde{V}}^i = \tilde{R}_b^i \dot{\tilde{f}}^b + \tilde{g}^i$$

$$\dot{\tilde{R}}_b^i = \tilde{R}_b^i S(\tilde{w}_b^i)$$

$\overset{\sim}{( \cdot )}$  : measured component

$\tilde{( \cdot )}$  : calculated component



### Models

- 1) Equation for physical system
- 2) Navigation equations
- 3) Error models

## Part C: Mathematical modelling of airplane.

This part builds on :

Chin-Fang Lin

Advanced Control Systems Design

chapter 13.4

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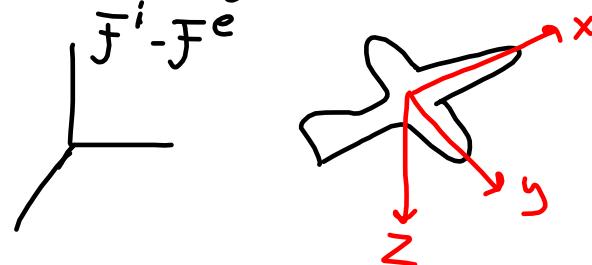
We will write Newtons 2. law and the law of angular momentum in the form (notation) that is normal to give the d.e. for airplanes.

We will also give the relationship between a state vector as in our equations (given in part B) and the one used as standard for airplanes.

We will not deal with aerodynamics, i.e. the relation between the planes orientation, velocity and "padding" and those forces and torques this results in due to the air flow.

application

Law of angular momentum in  $\bar{F}^b$



From part B:

$$\underline{n}_c^b = \int_c^b \underline{W}_b^{ibb} + S(\underline{W}_b^{is}) \int_c^b \underline{W}_b^{ib}$$

$\bar{F}^i$ : fixed to the earth

$\bar{F}^b$ : fixed to the airplane

Assume that  $\bar{F}^b$  coincides with the main axis of the plane  $\Rightarrow$  Euler equations

$$\begin{aligned} n_x &= J_{xx}^b \dot{\omega}_x + \omega_y \omega_z (J_{zz}^b - J_{yy}^b) \\ n_y &= J_{yy}^b \dot{\omega}_y + \omega_z \omega_x (J_{xx}^b - J_{zz}^b) \\ n_z &= J_{zz}^b \dot{\omega}_z + \omega_x \omega_y (J_{yy}^b - J_{xx}^b) \end{aligned}$$

Compare ① with (13-72)

$$\underline{n}_c^b = [n_x, n_y, n_z]^T = [L, M, N]^T$$

$$\underline{W}_b^{ib} = [W_x, W_y, W_z]^T = [P, Q, R]^T$$

$$J_c^b = \text{diag}(J_{xx}, J_{yy}, J_{zz}) = \text{diag}(I_{xx}, I_{yy}, I_{zz})$$

F15 / N.2.

Questions Friday 11. dec  
13.15 - 16.00

From Part B:

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \dot{\underline{f}}^b = m \dot{\underline{U}}^{ibb} + m S(\underline{w}_b^i) \underline{U}^{ib}$$

Write out eq. (2) and compare  
with (13-73)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{f}_x^b \\ \dot{f}_y^b \\ \dot{f}_z^b \end{bmatrix} = m \begin{bmatrix} \dot{V}_x^{ibb} \\ \dot{V}_y^{ibb} \\ \dot{V}_z^{ibb} \end{bmatrix} + m \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -W_z & W_y \\ W_z & 0 & -W_x \\ -W_y & W_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_x^b \\ V_y^b \\ V_z^b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{f}_x^b \\ \dot{f}_y^b \\ \dot{f}_z^b \end{bmatrix} = M \begin{bmatrix} \dot{V}_x + W_y V_z - W_z V_y \\ \dot{V}_y + W_z V_x - W_x V_z \\ \dot{V}_z + W_x V_y - W_y V_x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{w}_b^{ib} = [P, Q, R]^T, \underline{U}^{ib} = [U, V, W]^T$$

$$\dot{\underline{f}}^b = [F_x + T_x + g_x, F_y + g_y, F_z + g_z]^T$$

$F_x, F_y, F_z$  : aerodynamic forces

$T_x$  : thrust from engine

$g_x, g_y, g_z$  : gravity comp. in  $\dot{\underline{f}}^b$

$$\underline{g}^b = \begin{bmatrix} g_x \\ g_y \\ g_z \end{bmatrix} = R_i^b \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ m_g \end{bmatrix} \underline{g}^i, g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$$

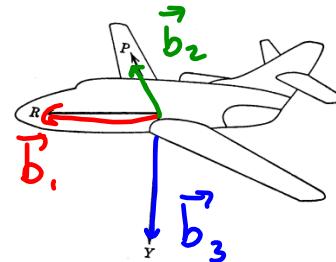
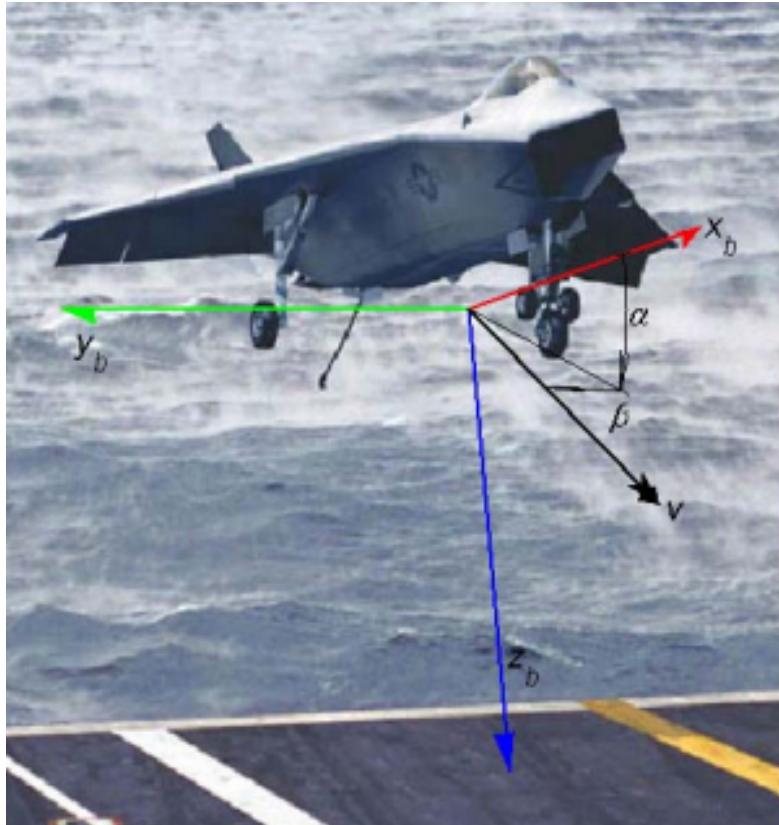


Figure 3.2 Body frame.

 $P$ : pitch $R$ : roll $Y$ : yaw $\alpha$ : angle of attack $\beta$ : sideslip angle $V_m$ : speedFrom the figure and  $\underline{U}^{ib} = [U, V, W]$ 

$$V_m = \sqrt{U^2 + V^2 + W^2} = \|\underline{U}^{ib}\|$$

$$\alpha = \operatorname{arctan}\left(\frac{W}{U}\right)$$

$$\beta = \operatorname{arcsin}\left(\frac{V}{V_m}\right)$$

We have a unique relation between  $\underline{v}^{ib}$  and  $V_m, \alpha, \beta$

We will write N.2 with  $V_m, \alpha, \beta$ , and the law of angular momentum with orientation / attitude given by

3-2-1 Euler angles  $\underline{\theta} = [\phi, \theta, \psi]$

$$\dot{V}_m = \frac{1}{m} \{ \cos \alpha \cos \beta (F_x + g_x + T_x) + \sin \beta (F_y + g_y) \\ + \sin \alpha \cos \beta (F_z + g_z) \}$$

$$\dot{\alpha} = Q + \frac{1}{V_m \cos \beta} \{ -PV_m \cos \alpha \sin \beta - RV_m \sin \alpha \sin \beta \\ - \sin \alpha (F_x + g_x + T_x) + \cos \alpha (F_z + g_z) \}$$

$$\dot{\beta} = P \sin \alpha - R \cos \alpha + \frac{1}{m V_m} \{ -\cos \alpha \sin \beta (F_x + g_x + T_x) \\ + \cos \beta (F_y + g_y) - \sin \alpha \sin \beta (F_z + g_z) \}$$

$$\dot{\Theta} = \cos \Phi Q - \sin \Phi R$$

$$\dot{\Phi} = P + \sin \Phi \tan \Theta Q + \cos \Phi \tan \Theta R$$

$$\dot{\Psi} = \sin \Phi \sec \Theta Q + \cos \Phi \sec \Theta R$$

$$\dot{P} = -\frac{I_{zz} - I_{yy}}{I_{xx}} QR + \frac{L}{I_{xx}}$$

$$\dot{Q} = -\frac{I_{xx} - I_{zz}}{I_{yy}} PR + \frac{M}{I_{yy}}$$

$$\dot{R} = -\frac{I_{yy} - I_{xx}}{I_{zz}} PQ + \frac{N}{I_{zz}}$$

} Derivative of the Euler angles,  $\underline{\Theta} = [\Phi, \Theta, \Psi]$   
 $\dot{\underline{\Theta}} = D_b^e(\underline{\Theta}) \underline{W}_b^{i,b}$  (A-105)

Law of angular momentum  
①

O: aero. dyn. forces

Newton's 2. law (N.2) ②

Aero. dyn.  
forces  
rep. in  $\underline{F}^b$

$\underline{n}_c^b = [L, P, N]$ 
 $\underline{F}^b = [F_x, F_y, F_z]$

$T_x$ : thrust

The aerodynamical forces depends on speed, angle of attack, sideslip angle and fin control deflections.  $M_m = \frac{V_m}{V_0}$ , where  $V_0$  is speed of sound.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} F_x = k_F \rho V_m^2 C_x \\ F_y = k_F \rho V_m^2 C_y \\ F_z = k_F \rho V_m^2 C_z \\ L = k_M \rho V_m^2 C_l \\ M = k_M \rho V_m^2 C_m \\ N = k_M \rho V_m^2 C_n \end{array} \right\} \text{Measured in wind tunnels}$$

$$\underline{x} = [V_m, \alpha, \beta, \phi, \theta, \psi, P, Q, R]^T$$

$$\underline{\delta} = [\delta_r, \delta_e, \delta_a, T_x]$$

$$\begin{aligned} C_x &= C_{x0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{x\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{x\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{x\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \\ C_y &= C_{y0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{y\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{y\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{y\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \\ C_z &= C_{z0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{z\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{z\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{z\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \\ C_l &= C_{l0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{l\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{l\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{l\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \\ C_m &= C_{m0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{m\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{m\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{m\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \\ C_n &= C_{n0}(\alpha, \beta, M_m) + C_{n\delta_e}(\alpha, \delta_e, M_m) + C_{n\delta_a}(\alpha, \delta_a, M_m) + C_{n\delta_r}(\alpha, \delta_r, M_m) \end{aligned}$$

$\rho$ : atmospherical density  
 $k_F, k_M$ : constants depending on the vehical geometry

$\delta_r$ : rudder (yaw)  
 $\delta_e$ : elevator (pitch)  
 $\delta_a$ : aileron (roll)

The equations can be written as:

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = \underline{f}(\underline{x}, \underline{u})$$

i.e. a non-linear and deterministic equations.

If we want to create an autopilot that force the vehicle to follow a given trajectory we expand the state vector with the vehicle position in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . i.e.

$$\underline{x} := [\underline{x}, \underline{P}^n]$$

If we want to follow a trajectory with a specific velocity.

Given  $\tilde{\underline{p}}(t)$  and  $\tilde{\underline{v}}(t)$

$$\partial \underline{p} = \underline{p}(t) - \tilde{\underline{p}}(t), \quad \partial \underline{v} = \underline{v}(t) - \tilde{\underline{v}}(t)$$

We desire an autopilot that forces:

$$\partial \underline{p} \rightarrow 0, \quad \partial \underline{v} \rightarrow 0$$

Create a nominal solution:

$$\dot{\tilde{\underline{x}}} = \underline{f}(\tilde{\underline{x}}, \tilde{\underline{u}})$$

Linearize around  $\tilde{\underline{x}}$  and  $\tilde{\underline{u}}$ :

$$\partial \underline{x} = \underline{x} - \tilde{\underline{x}}, \quad \partial \underline{u} = \underline{u} - \tilde{\underline{u}}$$

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = f(\underline{x}, \underline{u})$$

$$(\dot{\tilde{x}} + \partial \dot{x}) = f(\tilde{x} + \partial \underline{x}, \tilde{u} + \partial \underline{u})$$

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} + \partial \dot{x} = f(\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \underline{x}} \right|_{\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}} \cdot \partial \underline{x} + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \underline{u}} \right|_{\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}} \partial \underline{u} + h.o.t$$

$\partial \underline{u} = G(t) \partial \underline{x}$   
 $\underline{u} = \tilde{\underline{u}} + G(t) \partial \underline{x}$

1. order approximation:

$$\partial \dot{x} = F(\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}) \partial \underline{x} + L(\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}) \partial \underline{u}$$

Regulation problem:

Design a feedback that forces  $\partial \underline{x} \rightarrow 0$

$\underline{x}(t)$ : calculated by  
 $KF(INS) \hat{\underline{x}}(t)$

$$\partial \dot{x} = (F + L G) \partial \underline{x}$$



## Part D: Mathematical modelling of robots

We go through the document: "Matematisk modellering av roboter" written by Oddvar Hallingstad.

- Based on Craig.
- Craig only use algebraic vectors.  $\underline{r}^b$  (not geometric  $\vec{r}$ )

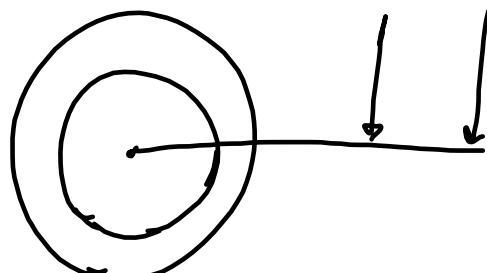
$$\textcircled{1} \quad \underline{r}^a = \underline{R}_b^a \underline{r}^b$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \underline{R}_b^a = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{x}_b^a & \underline{y}_b^a & \underline{z}_b^a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \underline{y}^b = \underline{R}_b^a \underline{x}^b$$

$$\tilde{R}_P^q = \begin{bmatrix} R_P^T & \underline{r}_{Pq}^T \\ 0, 0, 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{\tilde{r}}_P = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}_P \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \underline{\tilde{r}}^q = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}^q \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(R_b^a)^{-1} = R_a^b = (R_b^a)^T \quad \text{on basis}$$



Pensum ends at 3.2 Link beskrivelse