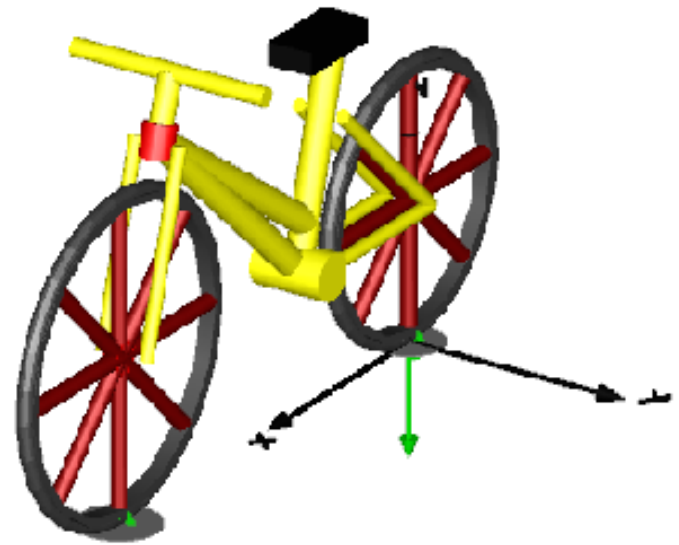
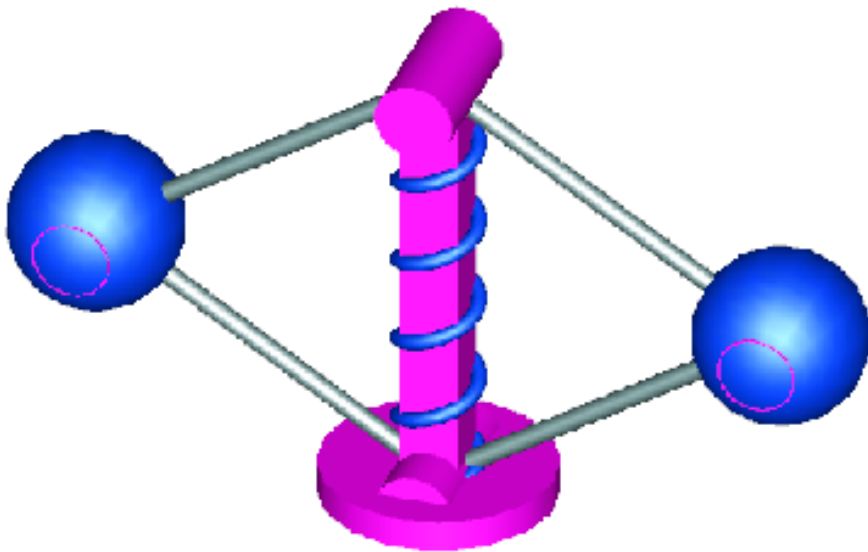


# Virtual Physics

## Equation-Based Modeling

TUM, November 25, 2014

### 3D Mechanics, Part I



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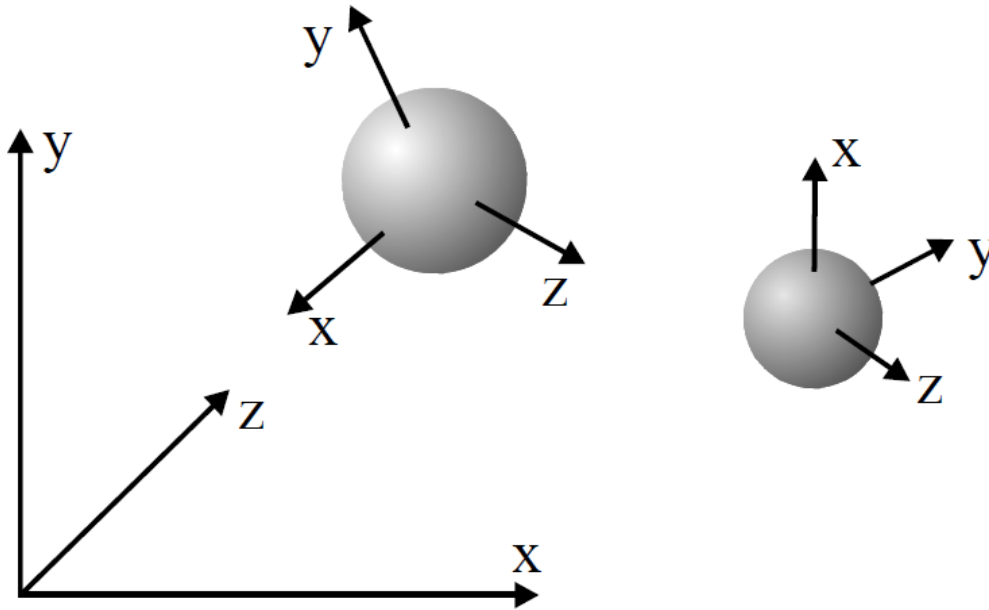
In this lecture, we look at the modeling of 3D mechanical systems.

- 3D mechanical models look superficially just like planar mechanical models. There are additional types of joints, but other than that, there seem to be few surprises.
- Yet, the seemingly similar appearance is deceiving. There are a substantial number of complications that the modeler has to cope with when dealing with 3D mechanics. These are the subject of this lecture.

Essentially, there are 3 major difficulties we have to cope with:

1. There are multiple ways to express the orientation of a body in three dimensional space.
2. In planar mechanics, all potential variables could be expressed in one common coordinate system: The inertial system. In 3D-mechanics, such an approach is unfeasible.
3. The set of connector variables contains a redundant set of variables. This causes severe problems for the formulation of kinematic loops.

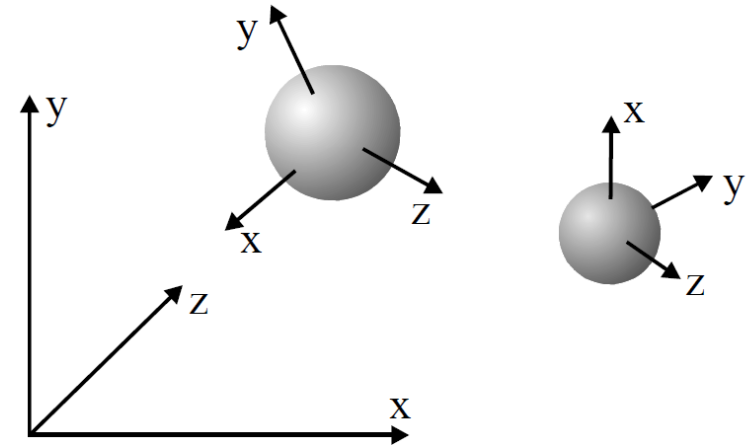
There are 4 major variants to express the orientation of an object in 3D



- The rotation matrix
- Planar rotation
- Cardan angles
- Quaternions

## The rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}$

- The orientation of an object is completely defined by the coordinate vectors of its body system.
- The relative orientation between two objects can then be described by a orthonormal matrix: the rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- Given the rotational matrix, we can easily transform vectors between different coordinate systems, e. g.,  
 $\mathbf{R}\omega_0 = \omega_{body}$

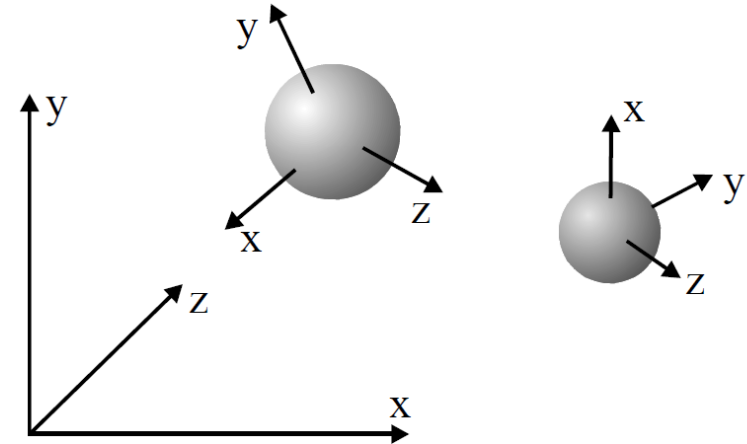


$$\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}^T$$

$$\|\mathbf{R}\|_2 = 1$$

## The rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}$

- The rotational matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  is highly redundant.
- Each row vector and each column vector of  $\mathbf{R}$  is of length 1, hence there are 6 constraint equations connecting the 9 matrix elements.
- As expected, there are only 3 degrees of freedom, describing the relative rotation of one coordinate system to another.



$$\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}^T$$

$$\|\mathbf{R}\|_2 = 1$$

# The Cardan Angles ( $\varphi_x, \varphi_y, \varphi_z$ )

The cardan angles ( $\varphi_x, \varphi_y, \varphi_z$ )

- A non-redundant form to describe the orientation are cardan angles.
- This technique decomposes the rotation into three subsequent rotations around predetermined axes.
- In this case:  
first x,  
then y,  
finally z.

$$\mathbf{R}_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\varphi_x) & \sin(\varphi_x) \\ 0 & -\sin(\varphi_x) & \cos(\varphi_x) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_y = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi_y) & 0 & -\sin(\varphi_y) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin(\varphi_y) & 0 & \cos(\varphi_y) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_z = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi_z) & \sin(\varphi_z) & 0 \\ -\sin(\varphi_z) & \cos(\varphi_z) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}_z \cdot \mathbf{R}_y \cdot \mathbf{R}_x$$

# The Cardan Angles ( $\varphi_x, \varphi_y, \varphi_z$ )

The cardan angles ( $\varphi_x, \varphi_y, \varphi_z$ )

- Unfortunately, the decomposition into separate yields a singularity at  $\varphi_y = 90^\circ$ . The other two rotation axes are then aligned and there are infinitely many solutions.
- So cardan angles are only useful, if one can make sure this case won't appear during simulation time.
- The sequence of axis rotation can be chosen arbitrarily. Other sequences are of course possible as well and each valid sequence has a specific point where the systems becomes singular.

$$\mathbf{R}_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\varphi_x) & \sin(\varphi_x) \\ 0 & -\sin(\varphi_x) & \cos(\varphi_x) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_y = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi_y) & 0 & -\sin(\varphi_y) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin(\varphi_y) & 0 & \cos(\varphi_y) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_z = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi_z) & \sin(\varphi_z) & 0 \\ -\sin(\varphi_z) & \cos(\varphi_z) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

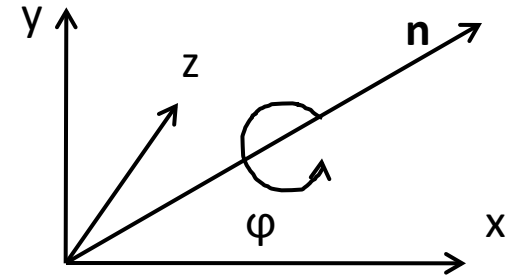
$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}_z \cdot \mathbf{R}_y \cdot \mathbf{R}_x$$



# The Planar Rotation ( $\mathbf{n}$ , $\varphi$ )

The planar rotation ( $\mathbf{n}$ ,  $\varphi$ ):

- Every rotation can be regarded as a planar rotation with the angle  $\varphi$  around a certain axis given by a unit vector  $\mathbf{n}$ .
- We therefore have 4 variables and one constraint equation for the unit vector.

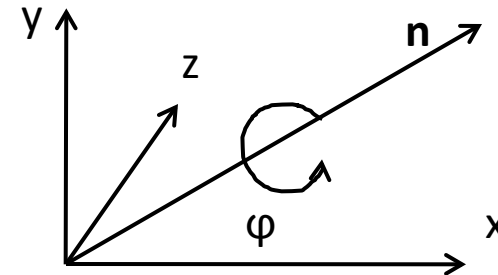


$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{nn}^T + (I - \mathbf{nn}^T) \cos(\varphi) - \tilde{\mathbf{n}} \sin(\varphi)$$

# The Planar Rotation ( $\mathbf{n}, \varphi$ )

The planar rotation ( $\mathbf{n}, \varphi$ ):

- Unfortunately, also the planar rotation method is not always invertible in a unique fashion. A null rotation does not have a well defined axis of rotation.
- Hence, this method should only be used if the axis of rotation is always known, as in a revolute joint.



$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{nn}^T + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{nn}^T) \cos(\varphi) - \tilde{\mathbf{n}} \sin(\varphi)$$

Matrix notation of  
the cross product

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \tilde{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{b}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{a}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -a_3 & a_2 \\ a_3 & 0 & -a_1 \\ -a_2 & a_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Quaternions are an extension of complex numbers and offer a robust way to describe any rotation. A quaternion number consists of one real and three imaginary components, denoted by  $i$ ,  $j$  and  $k$ .
- The imaginary components can be summarized by a vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

$$Q = c + ui + vj + wk. = c + \mathbf{u}$$

- The multiplication rules for the imaginary components are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} ij &= k; & ji &= -k; & i^2 &= -1 \\ jk &= i; & kj &= -i; & j^2 &= -1 \\ ki &= j; & ik &= -j; & k^2 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

- So the product of two quaternions can be written as:

$$QQ' = (c + \mathbf{u})(c' + \mathbf{u}') = (cc' - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}') + (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}') + c\mathbf{u}' + c'\mathbf{u}$$

- The complement of a quaternion number is defined to be:

$$\bar{Q} = c + \bar{\mathbf{u}} = c - \mathbf{u}$$

- The product of a quaternion number with its complement results in its norm:

$$|Q| = c^2 + |\mathbf{u}|^2$$

- A unit quaternion is a quaternion of norm 1.

$$|Q| = c^2 + |\mathbf{u}|^2 = 1$$

- According to the trigonometric Pythagoras...

$$\cos(\varphi/2)^2 + \sin(\varphi/2)^2 = 1$$

- there is an angle  $\varphi$  for every unit quaternion such that:

$$c = \cos(\varphi/2) \text{ and } |\mathbf{u}| = \sin(\varphi/2)$$

- It is now evident how a unit quaternion can be used to describe an orientation. The idea is related to the planar rotation. The imaginary component  $\mathbf{u}$  describes the axis, and the length of the axis describes the rotation angle.
- The rotation matrix is then defined by:

$$\mathbf{R} = 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T + 2(\tilde{\mathbf{u}} \cdot c) + 2c^2\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{I}$$

- So which of the four methods shall we apply?
- The answer is: **all of them**
- The rotational matrix is highly redundant but purely linear.  
→ It is used in the connector
- Cardan angles can be used for a spherical joint if the motion is limited to non-singular (or ill-conditioned) areas.  
→ Free rotational motion, spherical joint
- Planar rotation is used when the rotational axis is known.  
→ Revolute Joint
- Quaternions are the methods that avoids any singularity with the slightest degree of redundancy. (But leads to non-linear equations)  
→ Free rotational motion, spherical joint

- In planar mechanics,  $\omega$  was the derivative of  $\varphi$ .
- In 3D mechanics, this is not so easy anymore.  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  represents a vector.
- $|\boldsymbol{\omega}|$  represents the actual angular velocity
- $\boldsymbol{\omega} / |\boldsymbol{\omega}|$  is the unit-vector of the rotation axis.
- $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  can either be resolved w.r.t. the inertial frame ( $\boldsymbol{\omega}_0$ ) or w.r.t to the body frame ( $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text{body}}$ ).
- The body frame is the coordinate system attached to the body.

- The rotational matrix is the one to integrate:

$$\tilde{\omega}_0 \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R} \tilde{\omega}_{body} = \dot{\mathbf{R}}$$

- This generates 9 differential equations and is thus never used.



- The rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  results out of a planar rotation:

$$\mathbf{R}\omega_0 = \omega_{body} = \mathbf{n} \cdot \dot{\varphi}$$

- 1 differential equations

- The rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  results out of the cardan angles:

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_{body} = \dot{\varphi}_z + \mathbf{R}_z \dot{\varphi}_y + \mathbf{R}_z \mathbf{R}_y \dot{\varphi}_x$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}_0 = \dot{\varphi}_x + \mathbf{R}_x^T \dot{\varphi}_y + \mathbf{R}_x^T \mathbf{R}_y^T \dot{\varphi}_z$$

- 3 differential equations (non-redundant)

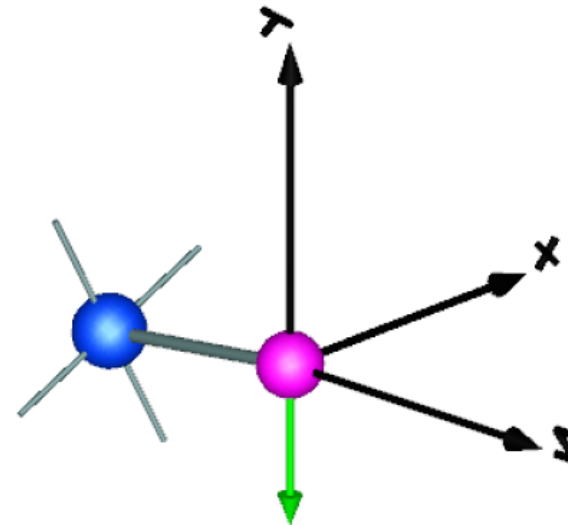
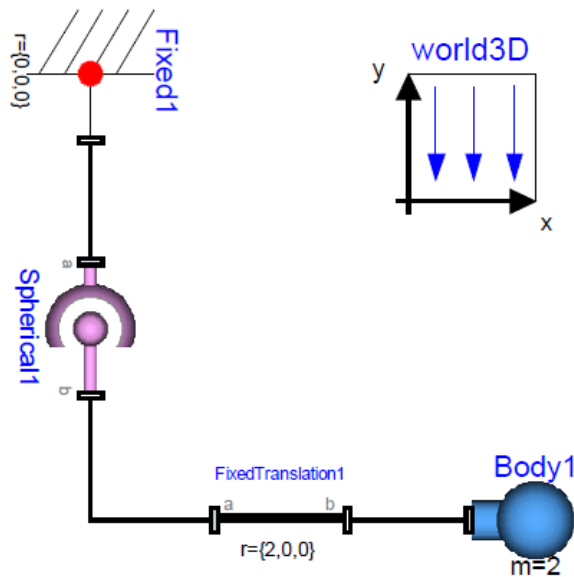
- The rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  results out of the quaternion rotation:

$$\omega_{body} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} c & -w & v & u \\ w & c & -u & v \\ -v & u & c & w \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \dot{c} \\ \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{w} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\omega_0 = 2 \begin{pmatrix} c & w & -v & u \\ -w & c & u & v \\ v & -u & c & w \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \dot{c} \\ \dot{u} \\ \dot{v} \\ \dot{w} \end{pmatrix}$$

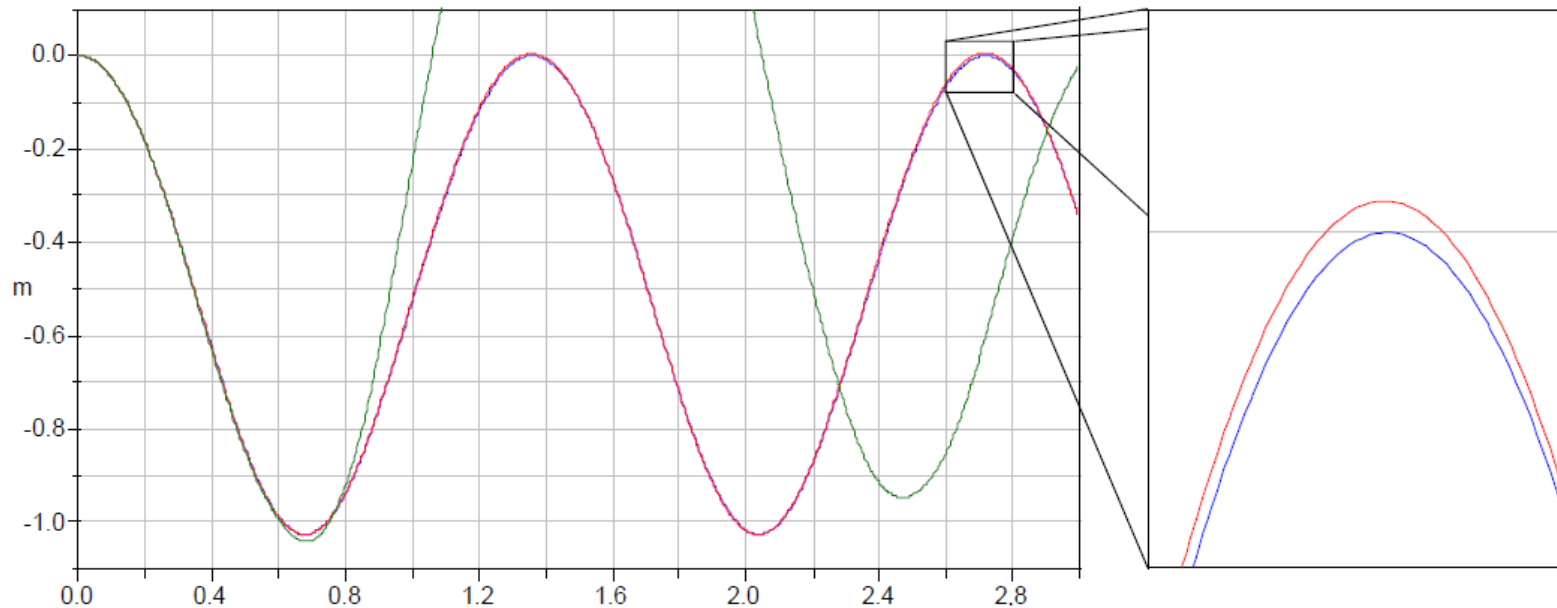
- 4 differential equations (1 redundant causes dynamic state selection)

- The choice of a method can severely impact the simulation performance:



- This experiment was simulated 3 times with a different method for the orientation: 1) well chosen cardan angles, 2) badly chosen cardan angles 3) quaternions

- The choice of a method can severely impact the simulation performance:



- This experiment was simulated 3 times with a different method for the orientation: 1) well-chosen cardan angles, 2) badly chosen cardan angles 3) quaternions

- The choice of a method can severely impact the simulation performance:

tolerance	good cardan angle seq.		quaternions		bad cardan angle seq.	
	error	steps	error	steps	error	steps
$1.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.9 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.9 \cdot 10^3$	$5.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$2.6 \cdot 10^4$	$1.8 \cdot 10^{-0}$	$5.4 \cdot 10^4$
$1.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$9.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$6.2 \cdot 10^3$	$3.1 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.8 \cdot 10^4$	$2.9 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$9.5 \cdot 10^4$
$1.0 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^4$	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$8.4 \cdot 10^4$	$3.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$2.0 \cdot 10^5$
$1.0 \cdot 10^{-10}$	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$2.3 \cdot 10^4$	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.4 \cdot 10^5$	$3.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$4.4 \cdot 10^5$

- The choice drastically impacts the computational efficiency and the precision.

**Questions ?**