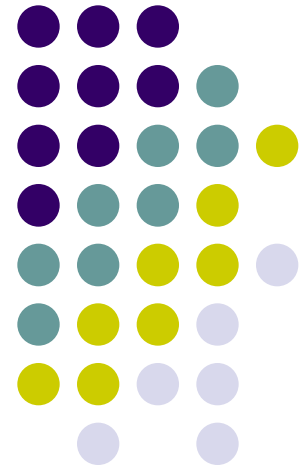


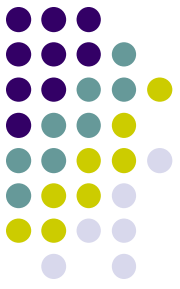
ME751

Advanced Computational Multibody Dynamics

Review Calculus
Starting Chapter 9 of Haug book
January 26, 2010

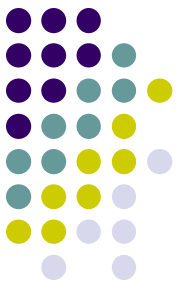


Before we get started...



- Last Time:
 - Finished the Linear Algebra review
 - Started review of Calculus
 - Emphasis placed on partial derivatives and the chain rule
- Today:
 - Finish review of Calculus
 - Discuss the concept of Geometric Vector (starting Chapter 9 of the book...)
 - Introduce the concept of Reference Frame
 - Establish the connection between Geometric Vector and Algebraic Vector
- HW due on Jan. 28.
- Trip to John Deere and NADS confirmed: May 4th
 - Contemplating one more trip to Oshkosh Truck and/or P&H Mining

Scenario 3: Function of Two Vectors



- \mathbf{F} is a vector function of 2 vector variables \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{p} :

$$\mathbf{F} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

- Both \mathbf{q} and \mathbf{p} in turn depend on a set of “k” other variables $\mathbf{x}=[x_1, \dots, x_k]^T$:

$$\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}(x_1, \dots, x_k) : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$$

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(x_1, \dots, x_k) : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$$

$$n = n_1 + n_2$$

- A new function $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ is defined as:

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{x})) : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

The Chain Rule



- How do you compute the partial derivative of Φ with respect to \mathbf{x} ?

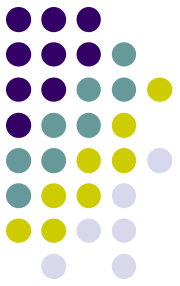
$$\Phi : \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\Phi = \Phi(\mathbf{x}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Phi_{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = ??$$

- Theorem: Chain rule for function of two vectors

$$\Phi_{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial \mathbf{q}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{q}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{q}} \cdot \mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}}$$

Example:



Assume that $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^3$, and $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Show that:

$$\frac{\partial(\mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{p})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{q}^T \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{x}}$$

Scenario 4: Time Derivatives

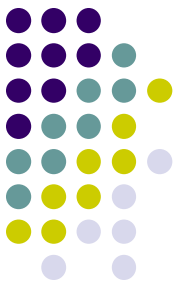


- On the previous slides we talked about functions f of y , while y in turn depended on yet another variable x
- The relevant case is when the variable x is actually time, t
 - This scenario is super common in 751:
 - You have a function that depends on the generalized coordinates \mathbf{q} , and in turn the generalized coordinates are functions of time (they change in time, since we are talking about kinematics/dynamics here...)
 - Case 1: scalar function that depends on an array of m generalized coordinates that in turn depend on time

$$\Phi = \Phi(\mathbf{q}(t)) \in \mathbb{R}$$

- Case 2: vector function (of dimension n) that depends on an array of m generalized coordinates that in turn depend on time

$$\Phi = \Phi(\mathbf{q}(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



A Special Case: Time Derivatives (Cntd)

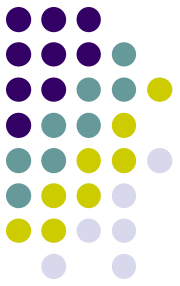
- Of interest if finding the time derivative of Φ and $\dot{\Phi}$
- Apply the chain rule, the scalar function Φ case first:

$$\dot{\Phi} = \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = \frac{d\Phi(\mathbf{q}(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial\mathbf{q}} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt} = \Phi_{\mathbf{q}}\dot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}$$

- For the vector function case, applying the chain rule leads to the same formula, only the size of the result is different...

$$\dot{\Phi} = \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = \frac{d\Phi(\mathbf{q}(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial\mathbf{q}} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{q}}{dt} = \Phi_{\mathbf{q}}\dot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Example, Scalar Function Φ



- Assume a set of generalized coordinates is defined through array \mathbf{q} . Also, a scalar function Φ of \mathbf{q} is provided:

$$\mathbf{q}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \\ \theta(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Phi(\mathbf{q}) = 3x(t) + 2L \sin \theta(t)$$

- Find time derivative of Φ

$$\dot{\Phi} = ?$$

Example, Vector Function Φ



- Assume a set of generalized coordinates is defined through array \mathbf{q} . Also, a vector function Φ of \mathbf{q} is provided:

$$\mathbf{q}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \\ \theta(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Phi(\mathbf{q}) = \begin{bmatrix} 3x(t) & + & 2L \sin \theta(t) \\ y(t) & - & 2L \cos \theta(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find time derivative of Φ

$$\dot{\Phi} = ?$$

Useful Formulas



- A couple of useful formulas, some of them you had to derive as part of the HW

$$\frac{\partial(\mathbf{g}^T \mathbf{p})}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{g}^T \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{q}}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{q}} (\mathbf{C}\mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{C}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{C}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{C}^T$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{C}\mathbf{q}) = \dot{\mathbf{p}}^T \mathbf{C}\mathbf{q} + \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{C}\dot{\mathbf{q}}$$

Assumptions:

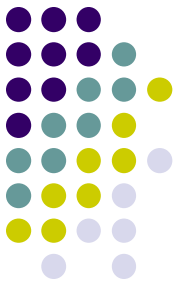
$$\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q})$$

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{q})$$

\mathbf{C} - constant matrix

\mathbf{y} doesn't depend on \mathbf{x}

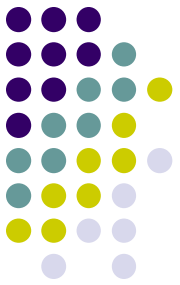
Example



- Derive the last equality on previous slide
- Can you expand that equation further?

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{q}) = \dot{\mathbf{p}}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{q} + \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{C} \dot{\mathbf{q}}$$

Assumptions:
 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{q})$
 \mathbf{C} - constant matrix



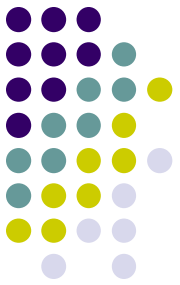
End: Review of Calculus
Begin: 3D Kinematics of a Rigid Body

Geometric Entities: Their Relevance

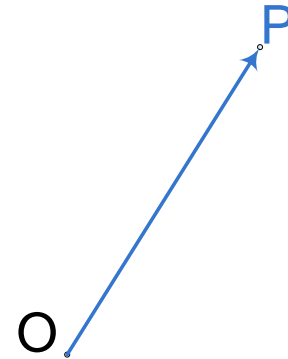


- Kinematics (and later Dynamics) of systems of rigid bodies:
 - Requires the ability to describe as function of time the position, velocity, and acceleration of each rigid body in the system
 - In the Euclidian 3D space, geometric vectors and second order tensors are extensively used to this end
 - Geometric vectors - used to locate points on a body or the center of mass of a rigid body
 - Second order tensors - used to describe the orientation of a body

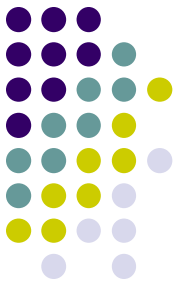
Geometric Vectors



- What is a “Geometric Vector”?
 - A quantity that has three attributes:
 - A direction (given by the blue line)
 - A sense (from O to P)
 - A magnitude, $\|OP\|$
 - Note that all geometric vectors are defined in relation to an origin **O**
- **IMPORTANT:**
 - Geometric vectors are entities that are independent of any reference frame
- ME751 deals spatial kinematics and dynamics
 - We assume that all the vectors are defined in the 3D Euclidian space
 - A basis for the Euclidian space is any collection of three independent vectors



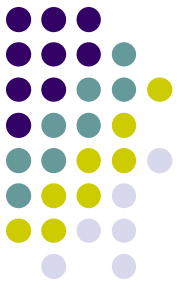
Geometric Vectors: Operations



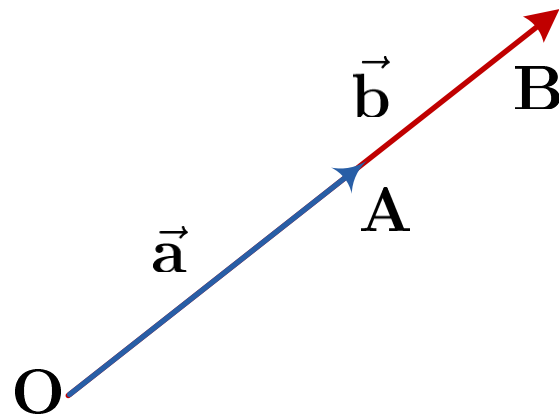
- What geometric vectors operations are defined out there?
 - Scaling by a scalar α
 - Addition of geometric vectors (the parallelogram rule)
 - Multiplication of two geometric vectors
 - The inner product rule (leads to a number)
 - The outer product rule (leads to a vector)
 - One can measure the angle θ between two geometric vectors
- A review these definitions follows over the next couple of slides

G. Vector Operation :

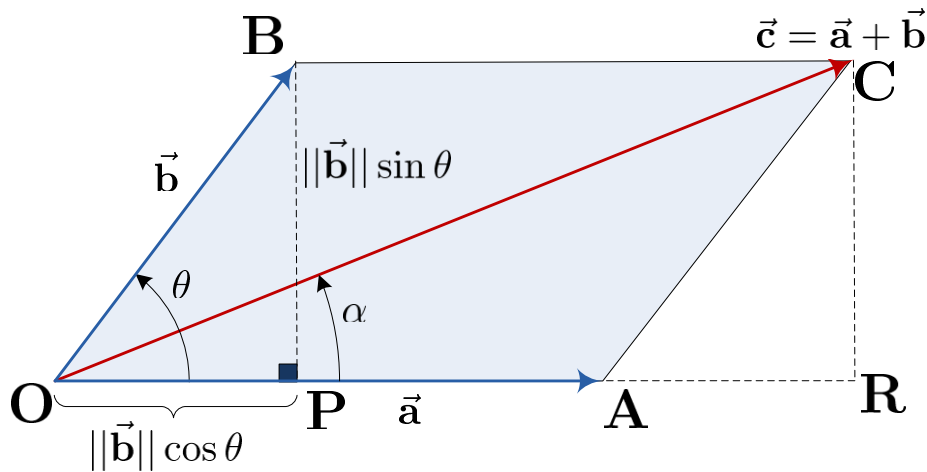
Scaling by α



- By definition, scaling one geometric vector \vec{a} by a scalar $\alpha \neq 0$ leads to a new vector $\vec{b} \equiv \alpha\vec{a}$ that has the following three attributes:
 - \vec{b} has the same direction as the vector \vec{a}
 - \vec{b} has the sense of \vec{a} if $\alpha > 0$, and opposite sense if $\alpha < 0$
 - The magnitude of \vec{b} is $b = |\alpha|a$
- Note that if $\alpha = 0$, then \vec{b} is the null vector.



G. Vector Operation: Addition of Two G. Vectors

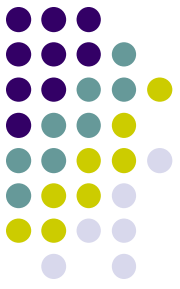


- Sum of two vectors (definition)
 - Obtained by the parallelogram rule
- Operation is commutative
- Easy to see visualize, pretty messy to summarize in an analytical fashion:

$$c = \sqrt{\|\mathbf{OR}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{RC}\|^2} = \sqrt{(a + b \cos \theta)^2 + b^2 \sin^2 \theta}$$

$$\alpha = \tan^{-1} \frac{b \sin \theta}{a + b \cos \theta}$$

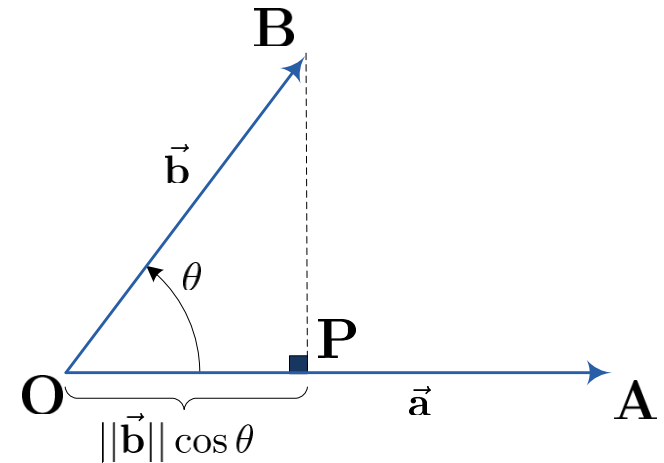
G. Vector Operation: Inner Product of Two G. Vectors



- The product between the magnitude of the first geometric vector and the projection of the second vector onto the first vector

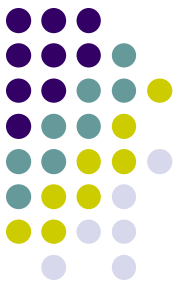
$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \|\vec{a}\| \cdot \|\vec{b}\| \cdot \cos(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$$

- Note that operation is commutative



- Don't call this the “dot product” of the two vectors
 - This name is saved for algebraic vectors

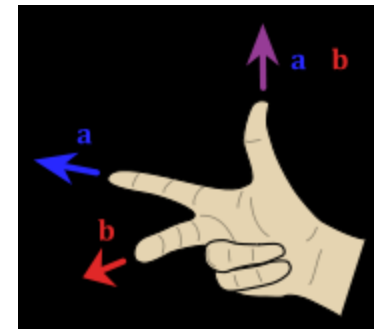
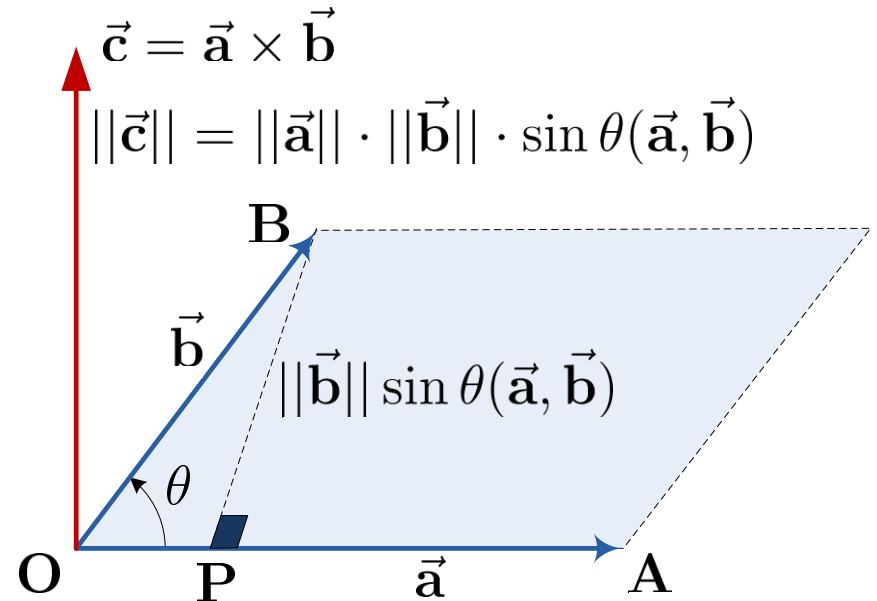
G. Vector Operation: Outer Product of Two G. Vectors



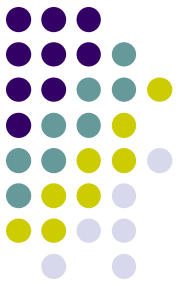
- Direction: perpendicular to the plane determined by the two geometric vectors
- Sense: provided by the “right-hand rule”
- Magnitude:

$$\|\vec{c}\| = \|\vec{a}\| \cdot \|\vec{b}\| \cdot \sin \theta(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$$

- Operation is not commutative since, think right-hand rule



G. Vector Operation: Angle Between Two G. Vectors



- Regarding the angle between two vectors, note that

$$\theta(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) \neq \theta(\vec{b}, \vec{a}) \quad \theta(\vec{a}, \vec{b}) = 2\pi - \theta(\vec{b}, \vec{a})$$

- Important: Angles are positive counterclockwise

Combining Basic G. Vector Operations



- P1 – The sum of geometric vectors is associative

$$\vec{a} + (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) + \vec{c}$$

- P2 – Multiplication with a scalar is distributive with respect to the sum:

$$k \cdot (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) = k \cdot \vec{a} + k \cdot \vec{b}$$

- P3 – The inner and outer products are distributive with respect to sum:

$$\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + \vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}$$

$$\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} + \vec{a} \times \vec{c}$$

- P4:

$$\vec{b}(\alpha + \beta) = \alpha \cdot \vec{b} + \beta \cdot \vec{b}$$

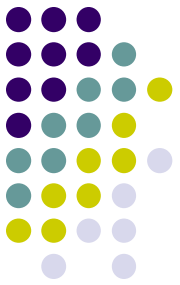
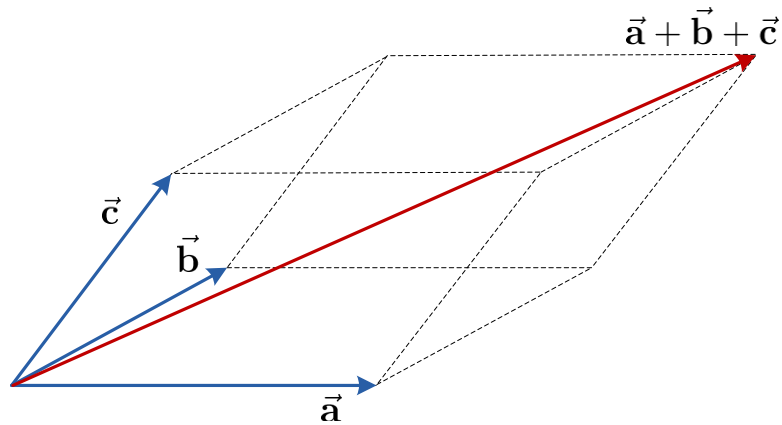
- Look innocent, but rather hard to prove true

[AO]

Exercise, P1:

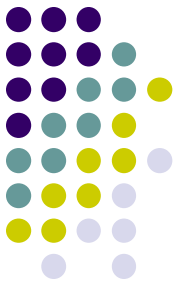
- Prove that the sum of geometric vectors is associative:

$$\vec{a} + (\vec{b} + \vec{c}) = (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) + \vec{c}$$



[AO]

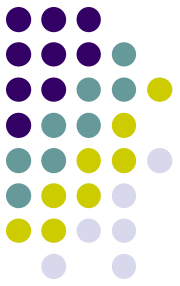
Exercise, P2:



- Prove that multiplication by a scalar is distributive with respect to the sum:

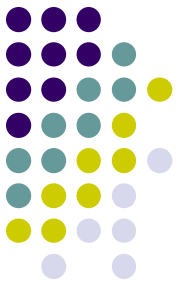
$$k \cdot (\vec{\mathbf{a}} + \vec{\mathbf{b}}) = k \cdot \vec{\mathbf{a}} + k \cdot \vec{\mathbf{b}}$$

Geometric Vectors: Making Things Simpler



- Geometric vectors:
 - Easy to visualize but cumbersome to work with
 - The major drawback: hard to manipulate
 - Was very hard to carry out simple operations (recall proving the distributive property just discussed)
 - When it comes to computers, which are good at storing matrices and vectors, having to deal with a geometric entity is cumbersome
- We are about to address these drawbacks by first introducing a reference frame that we'll use to express all our vectors in
- First, the following observation will prove useful:
 - Three geometric vectors are *independent* if the third one does not belong to the plan defined by the first two ones

Using Reference Frames (RFs)

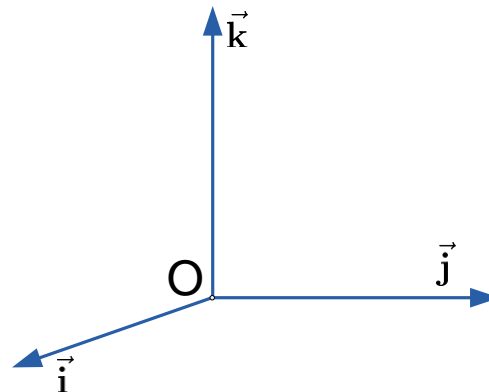


- Recall that three vectors that are independent are enough to represent all the other vectors in the 3D Euclidian space
- It's convenient to choose these three vectors to be mutually orthonormal
 - Length 1.0
 - Angle between them: $\pi/2$
 - Denoted by: \vec{i} , \vec{j} , \vec{k}
 - Defined such that the following relations hold (right hand RF) :

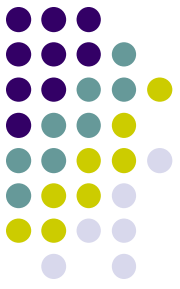
$$\vec{i} \times \vec{j} = \vec{k}$$

$$\vec{j} \times \vec{k} = \vec{i}$$

$$\vec{k} \times \vec{i} = \vec{j}$$



Representing a G. Vector in a RF; Cartesian Coordinates



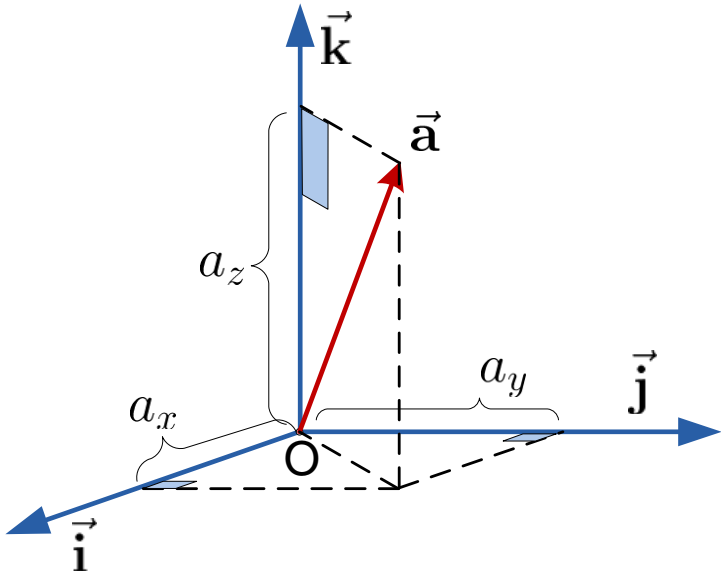
- Together, $\vec{\mathbf{i}}$, $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$, and $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$ define a right-hand **reference frame**
- The geometric vectors $\vec{\mathbf{i}}$, $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$, and $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$ form a basis for the Euclidian space \Rightarrow Any other vector can be expressed as a linear combination of the basis vectors:

$$\vec{\mathbf{a}} = a_x \vec{\mathbf{i}} + a_y \vec{\mathbf{j}} + a_z \vec{\mathbf{k}}$$

- The scalars a_x , a_y , and a_z are called the Cartesian coordinates of $\vec{\mathbf{a}}$ in the reference frame defined by $\vec{\mathbf{i}}$, $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$, and $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$
- Since $\vec{\mathbf{i}}$, $\vec{\mathbf{j}}$, and $\vec{\mathbf{k}}$ are mutually orthogonal we can compute easily the Cartesian coordinates:

$$a_x = \vec{\mathbf{i}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{a}} \quad a_y = \vec{\mathbf{j}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{a}} \quad a_z = \vec{\mathbf{k}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{a}}$$

Representing a G. Vector in a RF



$$\vec{a} = a_x \vec{i} + a_y \vec{j} + a_z \vec{k}$$

- Inner product of two g. vectors, recall: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a b \cos \theta(\vec{a}, \vec{b})$

- Since the angle between basis vectors is $\pi/2$:

$$\vec{i} \cdot \vec{i} = \vec{j} \cdot \vec{j} = \vec{k} \cdot \vec{k} = 1 \quad \vec{i} \cdot \vec{j} = \vec{j} \cdot \vec{k} = \vec{k} \cdot \vec{i} = 0$$

- Therefore, the Cartesian coordinates are computed as

$$a_x = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{i} \quad a_y = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{j} \quad a_z = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{k}$$