

Lecture 20, Nov 23, 2023

Geometry in $SE(3)$

- We can represent the position of the end-effector using $SE(3)$ transformations
 - $\mathbf{u}^{ee} = \left(\prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{T}_{i-1} \right) \mathbf{u}_n^{n+1}$ (note the \mathbf{u}_n^{n+1} brings us from the last joint to the end-effector)
 - In matrix form: $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}^{ee} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{i-1,i} & \boldsymbol{\rho}_{i-1}^i \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\rho}_n^{n+1} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- The orientation of the end-effector is given by $\mathbf{C}^{ee} = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{C}_{i-1,i}$
- We can combine both into the pose: $\mathbf{T}^{ee} = \prod_{i=1}^{n+1} \mathbf{T}_{i-1,i}$
 - $\mathbf{T}^{ee} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_{0,n} & \mathbf{r}^{ee} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 - $\mathbf{T}_{n,n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \boldsymbol{\rho}_n^{n+1} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 - * We added this to bring us from the last joint to the end-effector

Inverse Kinematics

- Technically inverse “geometry”
- In general, $\mathbf{r}^{ee} = \mathbf{f}_r(\mathbf{q}), \boldsymbol{\theta}^{ee} = \mathbf{f}_\theta(\mathbf{q}) \implies \mathbf{p}^{ee} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{q})$ where \mathbf{p}^{ee} is the end-effector pose
 - Given \mathbf{q} , solving for \mathbf{p}^{ee} is the problem of *forward kinematics*
 - Given \mathbf{p}^{ee} , solving for \mathbf{q} is the problem of *inverse kinematics*
- Solving inverse kinematics often requires numerical techniques, and often has multiple (possibly infinite) solutions

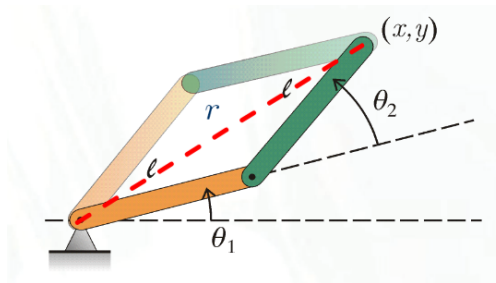


Figure 1: Example of a two-link system where multiple solutions exist.

- For the example above, we can solve for the angles using the cosine law; the \cos^{-1} gives two possible solutions, one for positive θ_2 and one for negative θ_2
- A 6-DoF robotic arm with revolute joints can have as many as 16 solutions depending on the link lengths
- Incremental solution technique: given a solution at \mathbf{q} corresponding to \mathbf{p}^{ee} , what if we changed \mathbf{p}^{ee} by a small $\Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee}$?
 - $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}^{ee} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega}^{ee} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\dot{\mathbf{q}} \implies \begin{bmatrix} \Delta t \mathbf{v}^{ee} \\ \Delta t \boldsymbol{\omega}^{ee} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\Delta \mathbf{q}$
 - Therefore $\Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{r}^{ee} \\ \Delta \boldsymbol{\phi}^{ee} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\Delta \mathbf{q}$ (since for small angular displacements only, we can directly multiply by Δt to get $\Delta \boldsymbol{\phi}$)
 - Notice that this looks exactly like the kinematical relation; we can now use the pseudoinverse to solve for it

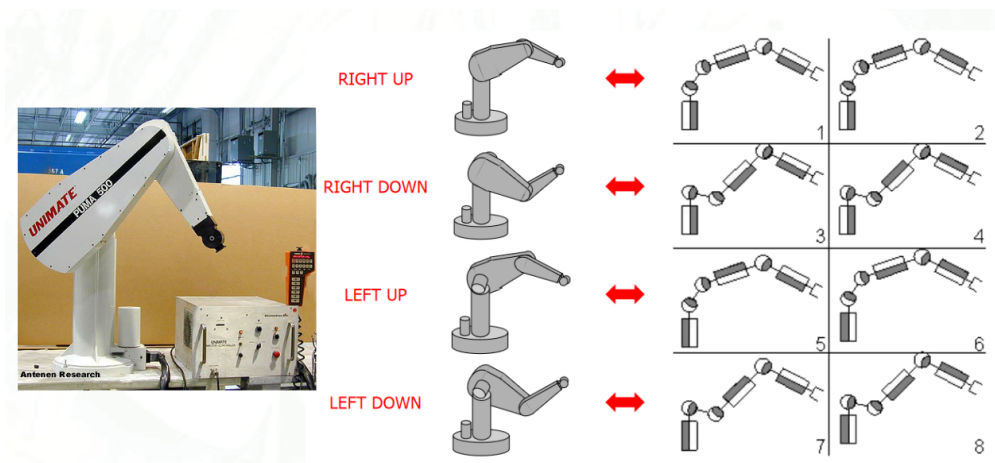


Figure 2: Example of a system with even more solutions.

- $\Delta \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{J}^\dagger(\mathbf{q})\Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee} + (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{J}^\dagger \mathbf{J})\mathbf{b}$ where $\mathbf{J}^\dagger = \mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T)^{-1}$
 - But this doesn't quite do it because the inverse can be big, even when $\Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee}$ is small
- The *damped least-squares technique* (aka Levenberg-Marquardt method) is a variation on the incremental technique
 - Minimize $\|\Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\Delta \mathbf{q}\|^2 + \lambda^2\|\Delta \mathbf{q}\|^2$
 - λ is a damping term which makes sure that our $\Delta \mathbf{q}$ s are small – this is known as *regularization*
 - * If we're talking about a pose, we can use \mathbf{T} and use a matrix norm
 - This is equivalent to minimizing $\left\| \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ \lambda \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{q} \right\|$, which is like a linear regression minimizing $\|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|$
 - * Therefore this is satisfied by $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b} \implies \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ \lambda \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ \lambda \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{q} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{J} \\ \lambda \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$
 - This reduces to $\Delta \mathbf{q} = (\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J} + \lambda^2 \mathbf{1})^{-1} \mathbf{J}^T \Delta \mathbf{p}^{ee}$
 - * The addition of the $\lambda \mathbf{1}$ term regularizes the solution and keeps the inverse small even when $\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J}$ is close to singular

Planning

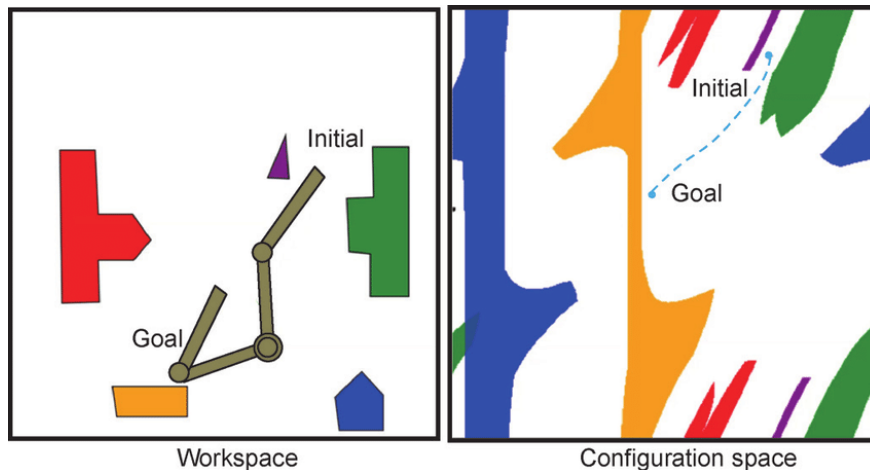


Figure 3: Mapping from workspace to configuration space.

- How do we get from work (task) space to configuration space?
- Recall that C , the configuration manifold, is the set of all possible points for the manipulator; Ω is all the parts of the configuration manifold occupied by obstacles, barriers and prohibited areas; then the free world manifold is $W = C \setminus \Omega$
- For a simple manipulator like the 2-link manipulator in 2 dimensions, we can calculate exactly where the links are and check that points on the links do not overlap obstacles
- In general, an analytical expression for this might be impossible to obtain, so we must resort to numerical methods
- The simplest way is to test point by point whether the manipulator at a given point in configuration space intersects obstacles
 - Take a point \mathbf{q} in C and determine all the points in the manipulator, $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{q})$
 - Make sure that $\mathcal{M}(\mathbf{q}) \cap \mathcal{O}_{i,\text{work}} = \emptyset$, then \mathbf{q} is accessible in C
- Path planning techniques for mobile robots can also be used for manipulators in configuration space, e.g. road-map methods, Dijkstra's/ A^* , potential fields, RRTs

Manipulability

- How can we measure quantitatively the ability of a manipulator to undertake a task? Can we provide a measure of the maneuverability or manipulability for a manipulator?
- We can do this kinematically or dynamically
- Consider an n -link manipulator; taking just the velocity partition, we have $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{J}^{(v)}(\mathbf{q})\dot{\mathbf{q}}$ (we will drop the superscript from here on)
- Consider the set of all possible end-effector velocities \mathbf{v} realizable by joint rates contained by $\|\dot{\mathbf{q}}\|^2 \leq 1$; intuitively, the larger this set, the more “manipulable” the manipulator is
 - Note this requires some weighting and/or non-dimensionalization if both revolute and prismatic joints are involved
 - This set will turn out to be an ellipsoid, which is called the *manipulability ellipsoid*

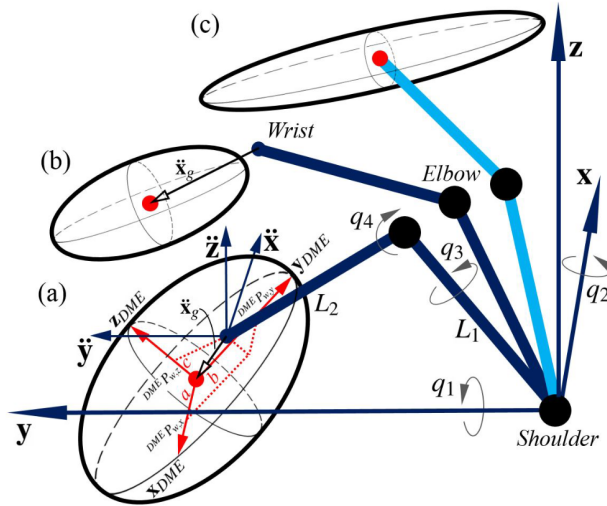


Figure 4: Manipulability ellipsoid.

- Recall that away from a singularity, $\dot{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{J}^\dagger \mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{J}^\dagger \mathbf{J})\mathbf{b}$
 - This gives $\|\dot{\mathbf{q}}\|^2 = \dot{\mathbf{q}}^T \dot{\mathbf{q}} \geq \mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{J}^\dagger)^T \mathbf{J}^\dagger \mathbf{v}$
 - Therefore the manipulability ellipsoid is $\mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{J}^\dagger)^T \mathbf{J}^\dagger \mathbf{v} \leq 1$
- The principal axes of this ellipsoid represent how fast the ellipsoid can move
 - The size is given by the eigenvalues of $(\mathbf{J}^\dagger)^T \mathbf{J}^\dagger$ (like the energy/momentum ellipsoid derivation)
 - Note that substituting in the definition for \mathbf{J}^\dagger , we have $(\mathbf{J}^\dagger)^T \mathbf{J}^\dagger = (\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T)^{-1}$
- Consider the SVD of \mathbf{J} : $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T$

- For us, $m < n$ so Σ has several zero columns at the end
- Note that the singular values are the square roots of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T$
- Then $\mathbf{J}^\dagger = \mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{V}\Sigma^T\mathbf{U}^T(\mathbf{U}\Sigma\mathbf{V}^T\mathbf{V}\Sigma^T\mathbf{U}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{V}\Sigma^T(\Sigma\Sigma^T)^{-1}\mathbf{U}^T$
- And $(\mathbf{J}^\dagger)^T\mathbf{J}^\dagger = (\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T)^{-1} = \mathbf{U}(\Sigma\Sigma^T)^{-1}\mathbf{U}^T$
- So $\mathbf{v}^T(\mathbf{J}^\dagger)\mathbf{J}^\dagger\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{U}(\Sigma\Sigma^T)^{-1}\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{v} \leq 1$ gives the ellipsoid
- Let $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{v}$, then we have $\mathbf{z}^T(\Sigma\Sigma^T)^{-1}\mathbf{z} = 1$
- So in terms of \mathbf{z} , we get $\frac{z_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{z_2^2}{\sigma_2^2} + \frac{z_3^2}{\sigma_3^2} = 1$ - an ellipsoid with axes $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$
- Given the ellipsoid, we can define several different measures of manipulability:
 - $w_1(\mathbf{q}) = \sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3 = \sqrt{\det(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q})\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{q}))}$ (ellipsoid volume)
 - $w_2(\mathbf{q}) = \frac{\sigma_{\min}}{\sigma_{\max}}$ (ellipsoid stretching)
 - $w_3(\mathbf{q}) = \sigma_{\min}$ (length of shortest axis)
 - $w_4(\mathbf{q}) = (\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3)^{\frac{1}{3}} = w_1^{\frac{1}{3}}(\mathbf{q})$ (geometric mean of the axes)

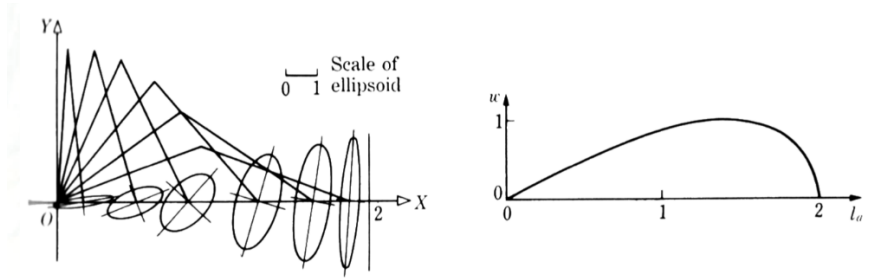


Figure 5: Manipulability ellipsoids for the 2-link manipulator.

- For the 2-link manipulator, we have $w = |\det(\mathbf{J})| = l^2|\sin\theta_2|$
 - Notice that this is not dependent on θ_1
 - The ellipsoid is rounder when we have intermediate values of θ_2
 - At the singularities, the ellipsoid collapses to a line, so the manipulability also drops to 0
- Recall that $\boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbf{J}^T\mathbf{f}$, so we can address manipulability from a force/torque perspective using this dual relation
 - Consider $\|\boldsymbol{\eta}\|^2 \leq 1$
 - Going through the same steps yields $\mathbf{f}^T\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T\mathbf{f} = 1 \implies \sigma_1^2f_1^2 + \sigma_2^2f_2^2 + \sigma_3^2f_3^2 = 1$
 - Notice that this flips the intercepts of the ellipsoid
 - e.g. in the diagram below, larger kinematics ellipsoids result in smaller force ellipsoids

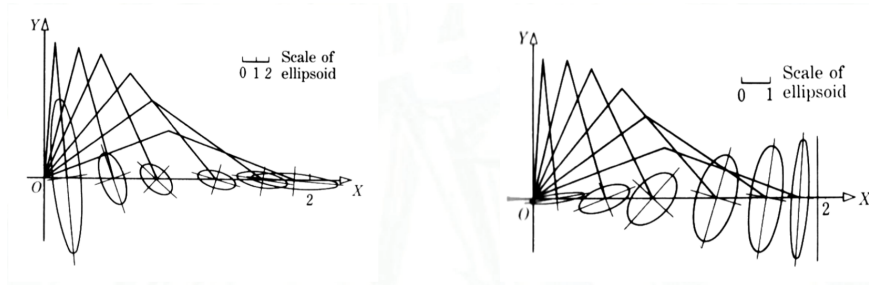


Figure 6: Force and kinematic ellipsoids for the 2-link manipulator.