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MAAE 3004 Dynamics of Machinery

Lecture Slide Set 5

**Displacement Analysis** 

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## Outline

#### Introduction

Loop Closure

**Relative Position** 

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## Introduction

**<u>Position</u>** specifies the location of a point relative to a selected reference coordinate system defined by:

- 1. an origin (labelled O)
- 2. coordinate axes
- 3. scale
- $\vec{R}_A$  and  $\vec{R}_B$ : absolute position vectors
- $\vec{R}_{B/A}$ : a relative position vector
- By applying vector addition

or, 
$$ec{R}_B = ec{R}_A + ec{R}_{B/A}$$
  
 $ec{R}_A = ec{R}_B + ec{R}_{A/B}$ 

Note:  $\vec{R}_{A/B} = -\vec{R}_{B/A}$ 



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• The absolute coordinates of point A are conveniently expressed as the position vector starting at the origin of the coordinate system and terminating at point A in component form

 $\vec{R}_A = R_A^x \hat{i} + R_A^y \hat{j} + R_A^z \hat{k}$ 

- $\vec{R}_A$  is an absolute position vector
- R<sup>x</sup><sub>A</sub>î, R<sup>y</sup><sub>A</sub>ĵ, R<sup>z</sup><sub>A</sub>k̂ are the x, y, and z vector components (distances) in the directions of the î, ĵ, k̂ unit basis vectors.



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• The magnitude of position vector  $\vec{R}_A$  (the relative distance of point A from the origin O) is

$$R_A = \left| \vec{R}_A \right| = \sqrt{\vec{R}_A \cdot \vec{R}_A}$$
$$= \sqrt{(R_A^{\chi})^2 + (R_A^{\chi})^2 + (R_A^{\chi})^2}$$

• The unit vector in the direction of  $\vec{R}_A$  is

$$\hat{R}_A = \frac{\vec{R}_A}{R_A}$$



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- - Application of vector addition around closed loops results in the Loop Closure Equation that models a mechanism. e.g



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• Note that various relative position equations can be written. e.g.  $\vec{R}_F = \vec{R}_D + \vec{R}_{E/D} + \vec{R}_{F/E} = \vec{R}_A + \vec{R}_{B/A} + \vec{R}_{C/B} + \vec{R}_{E/C} + \vec{R}_{F/E}$  Introduction 00 Performance Closure **Relative Position** Graphical and Analytic Solution of Vector Equations Synthesis

- We will occasionally use more than one coordinate system to describe the relative position of a system of points.
- Consider the two coordinate systems with origins O<sub>1</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>.
- We may find it convenient to describe point P relative to both coordinate systems where it may be that point P moves relative to O<sub>1</sub> but is stationary relative to O<sub>2</sub>.
- That is coordinate system 2 moves with point *P* relative to coordinate system 1.



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Clearly

$$\vec{R}_{P/O_1} \neq \vec{R}_{P/O_2}$$

 Rather, we can express this situation with relative position vectors as

$$\vec{R}_{P/O_1} = \vec{R}_{O_2/O_1} + \vec{R}_{P/O_2}$$

To express the position of point P relative to coordinate system 1 given the position and orientation of coordinate system 2 relative to 1 and the position of P in 2, we must first transform the coordinates of point P from coordinate system 2 to the corresponding coordinates in 1.



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## Graphical and Trigonometric Solution of Vector Equations

- Vector equations contain two types of information:
  - 1. magnitude
  - 2. direction
- A planar vector equation results in 2 scalar equations corresponding to the x and y coordinate directions. e.g.

$$\vec{R}_{C} = \vec{R}_{A} + \vec{R}_{B} R_{C_{X}}\hat{i} + R_{C_{Y}}\hat{j} = R_{A_{X}}\hat{i} + R_{A_{Y}}\hat{j} + R_{B_{X}}\hat{i} + R_{B_{Y}}\hat{j} R_{C_{X}} = R_{A_{X}} + R_{B_{X}} R_{C_{Y}} = R_{A_{Y}} + R_{B_{Y}}$$

- $\therefore$  we can solve for <u>2</u> unknowns.
- Using graphical and trigonometric solution methods it is possible to solve equations containing up to 2 unknowns.

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Symbology:} & \sqrt{} & \text{known quantity} \\ \text{o} & \text{unknown quantity} \end{array}$   $\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Magnitude status} \leftarrow \Box\Box \rightarrow \text{direction status} \\ \stackrel{o\sqrt{}}{R_A} & \text{e.g.} & \vec{R}_A \Rightarrow \text{magnitude unknown, direction known} \end{array}$ 

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#### Graphical Solution of Vector Equations

Consider the three vectors  $\vec{A}$ ,  $\vec{B}$ , and  $\vec{C}$ :

Four cases of two unknowns among three planar vectors can be identified

<u>CASE 1</u>: Magnitude and direction of the same vector unknown:

$$\overset{oo}{\vec{C}} = \overset{\sqrt{\sqrt{}}}{\vec{A}} + \overset{\sqrt{\sqrt{}}}{\vec{B}}$$

Solve by vector addition:





<u>CASE 2:</u> Magnitude of one & direction of other unknown:  $\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ 

- 1. Draw  $\vec{C}$
- 2. Draw direction of  $\vec{A}$  passing through O
- 3. Draw arc with radius equal to the magnitude of  $\vec{B}$  centred on the tip of  $\vec{C}$
- 4. Identify  $\vec{A} \& \vec{B}$  from intersection

Note: Two solutions are possible



<u>CASE 3:</u> Magnitude of two vectors unknown:  $\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ 

- 1. Draw  $\vec{C}$
- 2. Draw direction of  $\vec{A}$  passing through O
- 3. Draw direction of  $\vec{B}$  passing through the tip of  $\vec{C}$
- 4. Intersection identifies  $\vec{A} \& \vec{B}$

Note: The solution is distinct unless vectors are collinear when an infinite number of solutions are possible



<u>CASE 4:</u> Direction of the two vectors unknown:  $\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$ 

- 1. Draw  $\vec{C}$
- 2. Draw arc with magnitude of  $\vec{A}$  centered at O
- 3. Draw arc with magnitude of  $\vec{B}$  centered on the tip of  $\vec{C}$
- 4. Identify  $\vec{A} \& \vec{B}$  from intersections

Note: Two solutions are possible



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#### Example 5.1

Given: Slider crank mechanism where only link lengths and the position of the slider are known.Determine: The mechanism configuration

**Solution:** Lengths of  $\vec{OA} \& \vec{AB}$  are  $\sqrt[]{o}$ known, i.e, we have  $\vec{R}_A$  and  $\vec{R}_{B/A}$ , we  $\sqrt[]{o}$ also know position of B, i.e,  $\vec{R}_B$ The loop-closure equation may be written as:

$$\vec{R}_{A/O} + \vec{R}_{B/A} + \vec{R}_{O/B} = 0$$
  
$$\vec{R}_{O/B} = -\vec{R}_{B/O}$$
  
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# This is a problem of type 4, therefore solve as before



Graphical and Analytic Solution of Vector Equations

#### A Note on the Axes of *R*- and *P*-pairs (joints)

- The axis of an *R*-pair is a line through the invariant centre point of rotation perpendicular to the plane of motion.
- But it does not make sense to speak about the axis of a *P*-pair in the same way, as no real points in  $E_2$  are invariant under a translation.
- The translation  $\tau$  moves every point in the plane in the direction of the arrow by the amount equal to its length.
- The axis of a *P*-pair could be described as the line at infinity, *N*<sub>∞</sub>, of all planes normal to the direction of *τ*.
- $\Sigma$  is the plane containing the *P*-pair,  $\tau$  is a particular translation effected by the *P*-pair,  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are normal to  $\Sigma$ , and  $\Omega$  represents the plane at infinity.



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What we see.

What is really there.

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- The two planes Σ and Ω intersect in L<sub>∞</sub>.
- Lines in the direction of τ intersect L<sub>∞</sub> in point P<sub>1</sub>.
- Lines normal to τ in Σ, indicated by η, intersect L<sub>∞</sub> in P<sub>2</sub>.
- The line  $N_{\infty}$  is the intersection of all planes normal to  $\Sigma$  and parallel to  $\eta$ .
- All normals to Σ, N<sub>1</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub> being two of them, intersect N<sub>∞</sub> in the point P<sub>3</sub>.
- The join of  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  is  $N_{\infty}$ , which is the axis of the particular prismatic joint.



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  - In other words, the axis of a *P*-pair is the absolute polar line to the point at infinity of the direction of translation.
  - What that means is (recall MAAE 2001, Engineering Graphical Design): the *P*-pair axis is a line at infinity perpendicular to the plane of translation, located where all the lines perpendicular to the direction of, and in the same plane as, the translation intersect the plane at infinity.
  - A translation is therefore an arc length of an infinitely large circle where the change in angle generating the arc length is infinitely small.



- - The axis of a *P*-pair is **NOT** its longitudinal axis of symmetry.
  - Regardless, *P*-pairs would be impossible to manufacture if they had no longitudinal axis of symmetry to establish the direction of translation, i.e. the longitudinal centreline.
  - But one must not confuse this centreline with the joint axis, which is, for mechanical reasons, inaccessible.



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#### Trigonometric Solution of Vector Equations

- The graphical solution method is elegant and useful for visualisation, but unless using a CAD system, may not yield solutions that are sufficiently precise for analysis and synthesis.
- Most CAD systems transform the elements of the screen image into the underlaying trigonometric relationships imposed by the drawing elements.
- Hence, we will now examine the trigonometric approach.
- Consider the slider crank in the image.



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- Note that by making the offset distance *e* equal to zero the same equations can be used for symmetric versions where the ground-fixed and slider *R*-pair centres are collinear on the *x*-axis.
- Two configuration analysis problems occur for planar slider cranks.
  - 1. Given  $\vartheta_2$  determine  $\vartheta_3$  and  $x_B$ .
    - This is known as the forward kinematics problem: given the input determine the output.
  - 2. Given  $x_B$  determine  $\vartheta_2$  and  $\vartheta_3$ .
    - This is known as the *inverse* kinematics problem: given the output determine the input.



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## Given $\vartheta_2$ determine $\vartheta_3$ and $x_B$

• Identify the location of point A:

$$x_A = r_2 \cos \vartheta_2, \qquad y_A = r_2 \sin \vartheta_2.$$

Next, note that

$$r_2 \sin \vartheta_2 = r_3 \sin \vartheta_3 - e,$$

so that

$$\sin \vartheta_3 = \frac{1}{r_3}(e+r_2\sin \vartheta_2). \quad (1)$$

Furthermore we see that

$$x_B = r_2 \cos \vartheta_2 + r_3 \cos \vartheta_3. \quad (2)$$



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• Now we use the trigonometric identity

$$\cos \vartheta_3 = \pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \vartheta_3}$$

• which gives us from Equation (1)

$$\cos\vartheta_3 = \pm \frac{1}{r_3}\sqrt{r_3^2 - (e + r_2\sin\vartheta_2)^2}.$$

• Now we can compute the values of  $\vartheta_3$  and  $x_B$  using Equation (2) as

$$\begin{split} \vartheta_3 &= \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\sin\vartheta_3}{\cos\vartheta_3}\right), \\ x_B &= r_2\cos\vartheta_2 + \sqrt{r_3^2 - (e + r_2\sin\vartheta_2)^2} \end{split}$$

 Note that we use positive value of cos θ<sub>3</sub> so that the slider will be on the right of the crank.



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#### Given $x_B$ determine $\vartheta_2$ and $\vartheta_3$

• Since we know the lengths of  $r_2$  and  $r_3$  we can write

$$x_B = r_2 \cos \vartheta_2 + r_3 \cos \vartheta_3.$$

Solving this for θ<sub>2</sub> yields

$$\vartheta_2 = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{r_2}(x_b - r_3\cos\vartheta_3)\right).$$

- To determine  $\vartheta_3$  we determine the quantities  $\psi$ ,  $d_{B/O_2}$ , and  $\phi$ .
- Clearly

$$\psi = \tan^{-1}\left(rac{e}{x_B}
ight), \text{ and}$$
  
 $d_{B/O_2} = (e^2 + x_B^2)^{1/2}.$ 



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• We can use the cosine law to determine  $\phi$ 

$$r_2^2 = d_{B/O_2}^2 + r_3^2 - 2r_3 d_{B/O_2} \cos \phi$$

giving

$$\phi = \cos^{-1}\left(rac{d_{B/O_2}^2 + r_3^2 - r_2^2}{2r_3 d_{B/O_2}}
ight)$$

Finally

$$\vartheta_3 = \pi - (\phi + \psi).$$

• These equations are also consistent when the offset distance *e* = 0.



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#### Planar 4R Linkage

- The law of cosines can be used to determine the configuration of the planar 4R when the input angle, θ<sub>2</sub>, and four link lengths r<sub>i</sub> are known.
- The distance between points A and O<sub>4</sub> is given by

$$d_{O_4/A} = \left(r_1^2 + r_2^2 - 2r_1r_2\cos\vartheta_2\right)^{1/2}$$

 Knowing d<sub>O4/A</sub> we can now determine the three angles

$$\begin{split} \beta &= & \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{r_1^2 + d_{O_4/A}^2 - r_2^2}{2r_1 d_{O_4/A}}\right), \\ \psi &= & \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{r_3^2 + d_{O_4/A}^2 - r_4^2}{2r_3 d_{O_4/A}}\right), \\ \lambda &= & \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{r_4^2 + d_{O_4/A}^2 - r_3^2}{2r_4 d_{O_4/A}}\right). \end{split}$$



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## Planar 4R Linkage

• If  $\vartheta_2$  is in the range  $0 \leq \vartheta_2 \leq \pi$  then

$$\vartheta_3 = -\beta \pm \psi, \\ \vartheta_4 = \pi - \beta \mp \lambda.$$

• If  $\vartheta_2$  is in the range  $\pi \leq \vartheta_2 \leq 2\pi$  then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \vartheta_3 & = & \beta \pm \psi, \\ \vartheta_4 & = & \pi + \beta \mp \lambda. \end{array}$$

The upper signs correspond to the convex quadrangle configurations and the lower signs correspond to the concave quadrangle configurations.



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#### Mechanical Advantage

- Mechanical advantage represents the ability of a of a particular mechanism to transmit force or torque from the actuated driver link to the output link via the coupler.
- Recall that the dot products of torque and angular velocity as well as force and linear velocity both represent power.
- In a conservative mechanical system where energy losses due to misalignment, friction, heat, etc. are negligible compared to the total energy transmitted by the system we can write

$${\it P}_{
m in}$$
 =  $ec{T}_{
m in}\cdotec{\omega}_{
m in}$  =  $ec{T}_{
m out}\cdotec{\omega}_{
m out}$  =  ${\it P}_{
m out}$ 

or,

$$P_{\mathrm{in}} = \vec{F}_{\mathrm{in}} \cdot \vec{v}_{\mathrm{in}} = \vec{F}_{\mathrm{out}} \cdot \vec{v}_{\mathrm{out}} = P_{\mathrm{out}}$$

This allows us to write the convenient ratios

$$rac{T_{
m out}}{T_{
m in}} = rac{\omega_{
m in}}{\omega_{
m out}} \ {
m and} \ rac{F_{
m out}}{F_{
m in}} = rac{v_{
m in}}{v_{
m out}}$$

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#### Mechanical Advantage

Mechanical advantage is quantified as the ratio

M.A. = 
$$\frac{F_{\text{out}}}{F_{\text{in}}}$$

• Since torque is the product of force and radius we can also write

$$\text{M.A.} = \frac{T_{\text{out}}}{r_{\text{out}}} \frac{r_{\text{in}}}{T_{\text{in}}} = \frac{r_{\text{in}}}{r_{\text{out}}} \frac{T_{\text{out}}}{T_{\text{in}}} = \frac{r_{\text{in}}}{r_{\text{out}}} \frac{\omega_{\text{in}}}{\omega_{\text{out}}}.$$

- Note the difference in the indices for the last product of ratios.
- The angle  $\gamma$  between the coupler and follower is the *transmission angle*.



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#### Mechanical Advantage

• The mechanical advantage can also be expressed as

M.A. = 
$$\frac{r_4 \sin \gamma}{r_2 \sin \alpha}$$

- As the transmission angle decreases the mechanical advantage decreases.
- At very small transmission angles even a very small amount of friction or misalignment of the joint axes might cause the mechanism to lock.
- A design rule of thumb, which goes back to antiquity and was used by the likes of Archimedes, is that a 4*R* linkage should not be used to overcome a load when  $\gamma < 45^{\circ}$ .



- The transmission angle varies continuously over the range of motion of the linkage, and is most favourable when  $\gamma = 90^{\circ}$ .
- If the purpose of the mechanism is to transmit force or torque, then by design, the transmission angle should stay in the range  $90^{\circ} \pm 45^{\circ}$ .

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#### Mechanical Advantage

- The extreme values for γ occur when the input link aligns with the line joining the ground-fixed *R*-joints.
- Since the mechanical advantage is

M.A. = 
$$\frac{r_4 \sin \gamma}{r_2 \sin \alpha}$$

we can see that the magnitude of the angle  $\alpha$  also has an effect.

- When  $\sin \alpha = 0$  the mechanical advantage is infinite!
- In this case, an infinitesimally small input torque will produce a very large output torque.



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## Mechanical Advantage

- The extreme values for  $\alpha$  occur when the input link aligns with the coupler, i.e.  $\alpha = 0$  or  $180^{\circ}$ .
- This mode is called a *toggle* or *limit* configuration.
- Of course, both angles  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma,$  and hence the mechanical advantage, continuously change as the linkage moves.
- A double rocker 4*R* has a configuration called *dead-centre* when links 3 and 4 lie on the same line.
- At the dead-centre  $\gamma = 0^{\circ}$ , or  $180^{\circ}$  and the mechanical advantage is 0.
- Since the linkage is locked, dead-centre should be avoided, or a spring should be added to make link 4 move through the dead-centre.



## Complex Algebra Solution of Vector Equations

- For planar kinematics it is possible to solve problems using complex algebra.
- In component form a two dimensional vector is

$$\vec{R} = R^x \hat{i} + R^y \hat{j}.$$

It has two rectangular component magnitudes

$$R^{x} = R \cos \vartheta$$
 and  $R^{y} = R \sin \vartheta$ ,

where



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  - Be careful to note the signs of  $R^x$  and  $R^y$  when evaluating the direction of  $\vec{R}$ .
  - The angle  $\vartheta$  is defined as positive in the counterclockwise sense from the positive x-axis.
  - The signs, positive or negative, of  $R^x$  and  $R^y$  determine the quadrant in which the position vector  $\vec{R}$  resides.



Sign R <sup>×</sup>	Sign R <sup>y</sup>	Quadrant
+	+	I
-	+	II
_	-	111
+	-	IV

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## Complex Polar Algebra Solution of Vector Equations

• A planar vector can be expressed in *polar notation* by specifying its magnitude and orientation

$$\vec{R} = R \angle \vartheta.$$

• In 2D kinematic problems one can use the complex plane by selecting an origin and by equating the x basis vector direction the *real* axis and the y basis vector direction the *imaginary* axis by scaling it with the *unit imaginary number i*, where

$$i = \sqrt{-1}.$$

• Hence, a planar vector can be represented by

$$\vec{R} = R \angle \vartheta = R \cos \vartheta + iR \sin \vartheta.$$

• Using the Euler trigonometric identity we can express the direction of  $\vec{R}$  very efficiently as

$$e^{i\vartheta} = \cos \vartheta + i \sin \vartheta.$$

• A planar vector can thus be represented in complex polar form

$$\vec{R} = Re^{i\vartheta}$$

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Any planar vector equation involving sums such as

$$\vec{C} = \vec{A} + \vec{B}$$

can be compactly expressed as

$$Ce^{i\vartheta_C} = Ae^{i\vartheta_A} + Be^{i\vartheta_B}.$$
 (3)

 From our graphical analysis we identified four pertinent cases for vector equations.

Case	Unknowns
1	<i>C</i> , <i>θ</i> <sub>C</sub>
2	Α, ϑ <sub>Β</sub>
3	А, В
4	$\vartheta_A, \vartheta_B$

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## Case 1: unknowns C and $\vartheta_C$

• Substitute the Euler identity into Equation (3) to get

 $C(\cos\vartheta_C + i\sin\vartheta_C) = A(\cos\vartheta_A + i\sin\vartheta_A) + B(\cos\vartheta_B + i\sin\vartheta_B).$ 

• Equate the real and imaginary terms to obtain a system of two independent equations

$$C\cos\vartheta_C = A\cos\vartheta_A + B\cos\vartheta_B, \tag{4}$$

$$C\sin\vartheta_C = A\sin\vartheta_A + B\sin\vartheta_B. \tag{5}$$

• The unknown angle  $\vartheta_C$  can be eliminated from the two equations by squaring and adding them yielding

$$C = \pm \sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + 2AB\cos(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A)}.$$

- Using the negative root would point C in the opposite direction and rotate  $\vartheta_C$  by  $\pi$ .
- The unknown angle  $\vartheta_{C}$  can be determined by dividing Eq (5) by (4)

$$\vartheta_{C} = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{A \sin \vartheta_{A} + B \sin \vartheta_{B}}{A \cos \vartheta_{A} + B \cos \vartheta_{B}} \right),$$

where the signs of the numerator and denominator must be considered to place the vector in the correct quadrant.

#### Case 2: unknowns A and $\vartheta_B$

 This can be approached by dividing Equation (3) by e<sup>i∂A</sup> giving, after some algebra

$$Ce^{i(\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A)} = A + Be^{i(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A)}$$

 The effect of dividing Equation (3) by the complex unit vector represented as e<sup>iθ<sub>A</sub></sup> is to rotate the real and imaginary axes clockwise by θ<sub>A</sub>.



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Now we use the Euler identity to separate the real and imaginary componenets

$$C\cos(\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A) = A + B\cos(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A),$$
 (6)

$$C\sin(\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A) = B\sin(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A).$$
(7)

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• The solutions are then directly obtained from Equation (7) and (6), respectively, yielding:

$$\vartheta_B = \vartheta_A \pm \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{C\sin(\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A)}{B}\right),$$
  
 $A = C\cos(\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A) - B\cos(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A).$ 

- The solutions must be obtained in this order since the value for A is a function of  $\vartheta_B$ .
- The first equation contains a sin<sup>-1</sup> term which has positive and negative values, hence there are two distinct solutions.



#### Case 3: unknowns A and B

- We can begin to identify a solution by aligning the real axis with one of the vectors, A for instance, by dividing Equation (3) by e<sup>i∂A</sup>.
- After using the Euler identity again, we separate the real and imaginary components and obtain the magnitude of *B* from Equation (7) and of *A* from Equation (6) respectively to obtain

$$B = C \frac{\sin (\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A)}{\sin (\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A)}$$
$$A = C \cos (\vartheta_C - \vartheta_A) - B \cos (\vartheta_B - \vartheta_A)$$

- As expected, the solution is unique.
- It is important to remember that the angles are defined relative to the real axis which is aligned with vector \$\vec{A}\$ since we divided Equation (3) by \$e^{i\vec{\alpha}\_A}\$.

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#### Case 4: unknowns $\vartheta_A$ and $\vartheta_B$

• We can identify a solution by aligning the real axis with vector  $\vec{C}$  for this last case, giving

$$C = Ae^{i(\vartheta_A - \vartheta_C)} + Be^{i(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_C)}.$$
 (8)

• We use the Euler identity again and separate the real and imaginary components and obtain

$$A\cos(\vartheta_A - \vartheta_C) = C - B\cos(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_C), \qquad (9)$$

$$A\sin(\vartheta_A - \vartheta_C) = -B\sin(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_C).$$
(10)

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Squaring and adding these two equations gives

$$A^2 = C^2 + B^2 - 2BC\cos(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_C).$$

• Note that this equation is the law of cosines for the vector addition triangle, and we solve it for  $\vartheta_B$ :

$$\vartheta_B = \vartheta_C \pm \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{C^2 + B^2 - A^2}{2BC}\right).$$

• We can rewrite Equation (9) as

$$A\cos(\vartheta_A - \vartheta_C) - C = -B\sin(\vartheta_B - \vartheta_C)$$

then square this equation and add to the square of Equation (10) to obtain another form of the law of cosines:

$$A^2 - B^2 + C^2 = 2AC\cos(\vartheta_A - \vartheta_C).$$

• Now, solve for  $\vartheta_A$  yielding

$$\vartheta_A = \vartheta_C \pm \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{A^2 - B^2 + C^2}{2AC}\right).$$

• The positive and negative values for the inverse cosine terms gives us two distinct solutions, as revealed by the graphical solution.

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## Displacement Analysis using the Six Algebraic $v_i$ - $v_j$ IO Equations

- The algebraic IO equations can also be used, very efficiently, to determine unknown angles given a set of link lengths and one specified variable parameter.
- The efficiency reveals itself when you realise that when the input or output variables are specified, the IO equations are quadratic in the other unknown value.
- If the linkage has two assembly modes, the two solutions of the quadratic equation represent the unknown value for both assembly modes of the linkage!



## The Six $v_i$ - $v_j$ IO Equations

• Recall the algebraic IO equation for a planar 4R linkage:

$$Av_1^2v_4^2 + Bv_1^2 + Cv_4^2 - 8a_1a_3v_1v_4 + D = 0,$$
(11)

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where

$$\begin{aligned} A &= A_1 A_2 = (a_1 - a_2 - a_3 + a_4)(a_1 + a_2 - a_3 + a_4), \\ B &= B_1 B_2 = (a_1 - a_2 + a_3 + a_4)(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4), \\ C &= C_1 C_2 = (a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4)(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 - a_4), \\ D &= D_1 D_2 = (a_1 + a_2 - a_3 - a_4)(a_1 - a_2 - a_3 - a_4), \\ v_1 &= \tan \frac{\theta_1}{2}, \quad v_4 = \tan \frac{\theta_4}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

## The Six $v_i$ - $v_j$ IO Equations

The remaining five 4R IO equations are:

$$A_1B_1v_1^2v_2^2 + A_2B_2v_1^2 + C_1D_2v_2^2 + 8a_2a_4v_1v_2 + C_2D_1 = 0,$$
(12)

$$A_2B_1v_1^2v_3^2 + A_1B_2v_1^2 + C_1D_1v_3^2 + C_2D_2 = 0,$$
(13)

$$B_1C_1v_2^2v_3^2 + A_1D_2v_2^2 + A_2D_1v_3^2 - 8a_1a_3v_2v_3 + B_2C_2 = 0,$$
(14)

$$A_1 C_1 v_2^2 v_4^2 + B_1 D_2 v_2^2 + A_2 C_2 v_4^2 + B_2 D_1 = 0,$$
 (15)

$$A_2C_1v_3^2v_4^2 + B_1D_1v_3^2 + A_1C_2v_4^2 - 8a_2a_4v_3v_4 + B_2D_2 = 0.$$
(16)

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#### Example 5.2

- Consider a planar 4R linkage with lengths  $a_1 = 5$ cm,  $a_2 = 6$ cm,  $a_3 = 8$ cm, and  $a_4 = 2$ cm, with an input angle of  $\theta_1 = 60^\circ$ . Determine  $\theta_2$ ,  $\theta_3$ , and  $\theta_4$  using the appropriate  $v_i$ - $v_j$  equation.
- We can start with determining  $\theta_2$  by substituting the lengths and  $v_1 = \tan 60^{\circ}/2$  into Equation (12) and solve for  $v_2$  revealing the values in both assembly modes, illustrated by the figure on the following page.

$$\theta_2 = (2 \tan^{-1}(v_2)) \frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi} = -56.6791^{\circ}, \quad 103.5055^{\circ}$$

• Now determine both values for  $\theta_3$  using Equation (13), which yields

$$\theta_3 = (2 \tan^{-1}(v_3)) \frac{180^\circ}{\pi} = -147.5383^\circ, \quad 147.5383^\circ$$

• Finally, determine both values for  $\theta_4$  using Equation (11), which yields

$$\theta_4 = (2 \tan^{-1}(v_4)) \frac{180^\circ}{\pi} = 131.0438^\circ, \quad 35.7827^\circ$$

 It is similarly straightforward to perform displacement analysis for the planar RRRP linkage. Graphical and Analytic Solution of Vector Equations Synthesis

#### Example 5.2 Continued



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## Type, Number, and Dimensional Synthesis

The subject of linkage synthesis for motion generation contains three steps: type; number; and dimensional synthesis.

- 1. Type synthesis involves selecting the general topology of the mechanical system.
  - It might only contain a certain types of joints such as a slider crank.
  - It might contain gears, belts or chains, pulleys, or cams, etc.
- 2. Number synthesis concerns the numbers of links and/or joints that are required to obtain a desired mobility.
- 3. Dimensional synthesis involves determining the lengths of the links in the mechanical system, or the distance between adjacent joint axes.



## Standard Synthesis Problems

There are several types of synthesis problems.

- 1. Guiding a point along a specific curve in the plane or in space.
- 2. The function generation problem, which we have already considered: designing a linkage to correlate the poses of the input and output links in a functional relationship that may also have some timing requirements.
- 3. The rigid body guidance problem: designing a linkage that can move a line on a rigid link through a finite number of poses in sequence.
- 4. Trajectory generation: position, velocity, and/or acceleration must be correlated along a specific curve.
- 5. We will only consider graphical methods to solve the rigid body guidance problem.

## The Rigid Body Guidance Problem

- Guiding a rigid body through a finite set of positions and orientations.
- A good example is a landing gear mechanism which must retract and extend the wheels, having down and up locked poses with specific intermediate poses for collision avoidance.
- The rigid body guidance problem is also known as the Burmester problem.
- Many algebraic and trigonometric methods for the Burmester problem exist, but examining these methods is better suited to a graduate level course in kinematics or kinetics.
- We will restrict ourselves to graphical methods of synthesis to solve the rigid body guidance problem.



Ludwig Burmester (1840-1927), German mathematician and geometer whose research on kinematics greatly influenced the history of mechanism and machine science!

Synthesis 

## Right (Perpendicular) Bisector



- Given two points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , construct the right (perpendicular) bisector of the line passing through the two points.
- Construct two circles with the same radii which is greater than one half of the distance between  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .
- Join the points of intersection of the two identical circles.
- This line right bisects the line joining  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

## Pole of a Displacement

- A general planar displacement of the link *CD* consists of a translation of point *C* from pose 1 to 2 and a rotation about C<sub>2</sub>
- There always exists a unique and instantaneously invariant point in the plane that is the centre of a single rotation that takes the link from pose 1 to pose 2, called the *pole* of the displacement.
- Extend the centre lines of link *CD* in each pose to find their point of intersection *Q*.
- Determine the circle on the points *Q*, *C*<sub>1</sub>, and *C*<sub>2</sub>.



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## Pole of a Displacement

- Extend the right bisector of  $C_1C_2$  to intersect the circle.
- The point *P*<sub>12</sub> is the *pole* of the displacement.
- The angle of rotation about point  $P_{12}$  is  $\vartheta_{12}$ .



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### Alternate Pole Construction

- There is another way to graphically determine the pole of the general plane displacement of Link CD from pose 1 to 2.
- Construct the right bisectors of line segments C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>2</sub> and locate their point of intersection: the pole point P<sub>12</sub> as before.
- Note that all points on CD are rotated about the pole P<sub>12</sub> through the same angle ϑ<sub>12</sub>.



#### Exact Synthesis for Two Accuracy Poses

- If we are given only two distinct poses of a line segment in the plane it is a simple matter to determine a 4*R* linkage that will have the coupler, which contains the line segment, move exactly through the two poses.
- The moving revolute joint centres C and D must be connected to ground-fixed revolute joints via the input and output links, respectively.
- To identify the revolute joint centre locations fixed to ground, construct the right bisectors of line segments C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>2</sub>.



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- The ground-fixed *R*-pair centres *O*<sub>2</sub> and *O*<sub>4</sub> may be placed anywhere on the right bisectors of *C*<sub>1</sub>*C*<sub>2</sub> and *D*<sub>1</sub>*D*<sub>2</sub>, respectively.
- There are  $\infty^2$  possible real solutions.



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- The ground-fixed *R*-pair centres *O*<sub>2</sub> and *O*<sub>4</sub> may be placed anywhere on the right bisectors of *C*<sub>1</sub>*C*<sub>2</sub> and *D*<sub>1</sub>*D*<sub>2</sub>, respectively.
- There are  $\infty^2$  possible real solutions.



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#### Exact Synthesis for Three Accuracy Poses

- If we are given three distinct poses of a line segment in the plane it is a simple matter to determine a 4R linkage that will have the coupler, which contains the line segment, move exactly through the three poses.
- The moving revolute joint centres C and D are connected to ground-fixed revolute joints via the input and output links, respectively.
- To identify one revolute joint centre fixed to ground, construct the right bisectors of line segments C<sub>1</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub> and locate their point of intersection, which we will call O<sub>2</sub>.



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- Locate O<sub>4</sub> by finding the point of intersection of the right bisectors of line segments D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>D<sub>3</sub>.
- The input and output link lengths and the distance between O<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>4</sub> are now determined.
- Points *C* and *D* now move on two circles centred at *O*<sub>2</sub> and *O*<sub>4</sub>.



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#### Synthesis for Three Constrained Accuracy Poses

- Suppose now that the locations of the ground-fixed R pairs are required to be in different locations O'<sub>2</sub> and O'<sub>4</sub>.
- This means that points C and D will not move on circles centred at O<sub>2</sub>' and O<sub>4</sub>' and the three required poses are not possible to reach with these R pair locations.
- This additional constraint means that points *C* and *D* are no longer the centres of the moving *R* pairs, rather they are two points with coordinates in a coordinate system that moves with the coupler.



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The following algorithm may be used to determine the linkage.

- 1. Consider the following example: the line segment CD must be moved through the three poses relative to  $O_2$  and  $O_4$ .
- 2. Double-label points  $O_2$  and  $O_4$  as  $E_1$  and  $F_1$  then draw arcs of lengths  $C_2O_2$  and  $D_2O_2$  centred at  $C_1$  and  $D_1$ , respectively and identify their point of intersection closest to  $O_2$  and label it  $E_2$ .
- 3. Repeat this process drawing arcs of lengths  $C_2O_4$  and  $D_2O_4$  centred at  $C_1$  and  $D_1$ , respectively and identify their point of intersection closest to  $O_4$  and label it  $F_2$ .
- Repeat steps 2 and 3 for points C<sub>3</sub> and D<sub>3</sub> and identify points E<sub>3</sub> and F<sub>3</sub>, and construct line segments E<sub>1</sub>E<sub>2</sub>, E<sub>2</sub>E<sub>3</sub>, F<sub>1</sub>F<sub>2</sub>, and F<sub>2</sub>F<sub>3</sub>.





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- 5. Bisect line segments  $E_1E_2$ ,  $E_2E_3$ ,  $F_1F_2$ , and  $F_2F_3$  and label the points of intersection of the right bisectors of  $E_1E_2$  and  $E_2E_3$  as Gand that of the right bisectors of  $F_1F_2$  and  $F_2F_3$  as H.
- A particular line on the coupler of the desired linkage is the line joining points G and H.
- 7. The input link is represented by the line between G and  $O_2$  while the output link is represented by the line joining H and  $O_4$ .
- The actual shape of the coupler is arbitrary, as long as it contains line segments *GH* and *C*<sub>1</sub>*D*<sub>1</sub>.
- 9. Using the geometry of the coupler shape you choose, construct the linkage in poses 2 and 3.



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#### Note on Rigid Body Guidance

• Consider five specified poses of a coordinate system that moves with the coupler.



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#### Note on Rigid Body Guidance

 Burmester theory states that as many as six different linkages can move a coordinate system that moves with the coupler through the five specified poses.



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#### Note on Rigid Body Guidance

- Burmester theory states that as many as six different linkages can move a coordinate system that moves with the coupler through the five specified poses.
- These results were obtained using kinematic mapping, see https://carleton.ca/johnhayes/wp-content/uploads/CCToMM04.pdf for details

