

# 1 An Overview of Robotic Mechanical Systems

## 1.1 Machine: A historical account

Here is an account of the definitions of machine, taken from (Dudiță and Diaconescu, 1987):

Different definitions of machine have been given by scholars for more than two millennia, starting with Vitruvius in 28 B.C., namely,

- *A machine is a combination (system, assemblage) of moving material bodies* (Vitruvius, 28 B.C.; Hachette, 1811; Borgnis, 1818; Beck, 1859; Reuleaux, 1875; Koenigs, 1901)
- *A machine is generally composed of three parts: a motor part, a transmission part, and an execution part* (Euler, 1753; Bogolyubov, 1976)
- *A machine produces mechanical work, or performs productive operations, actions, or effects* (Vitruvius, 28 B.C.; Poncelet, 1824; Reuleaux, 1900; Koenigs, 1901; Bogolyubov, 1976)
- *A machine transforms or transmits forces* (Vitruvius, 28 B.C.; Leupold, 1724; Euler, 1753; Bogolyubov, 1976; Reuleaux, 1900; Koenigs, 1901)
- *A machine is characterized by deterministic motions* (Hachette, 1811; Leupold, 1724; Reuleaux, 1875; Borgnis, 1818; Reuleaux, 1900)
- *A machine is an artifact* (Leupold, 1724)

Beck, Th., 1875, *Beiträge zur Geschichte des Maschinenbaues*, J. Springer, Berlin.

Bogolyubov, A. N., 1976, *Teoriya mekhanizmov v istoricheskom razvitiu* (Theory of Mechanisms and its Historical Development), Nauka, Moscow (in Russian).

Borgnis, G. A., 1818, *Traité Complet de Mécanique Appliquée aux Arts. Traité des Compositions des Machines*, Paris.

Dudiță, Fl. and Diaconescu, D., 1987, *Optimizarea Structurală a Mecanismelor (Optimization of Mechanisms)*, in Romanian, Ed. Tehnică (Publishers), Bucharest.

Hachette, 1811, *Traité Élémentaire des Machines*, Paris.

Koenigs, F., 1901, “Etude critique sur la théorie générale des mécanismes,” *Comptes Rendus de l’Académie des Sciences*, Vol. 133.

Leupold, J., 1724, *Theatrum Machinarium Generale*, Leipzig.

Poncelet, J. V., 1824, *Traité de Mécanique Appliquée aux Machines*, Liège.

Reuleaux, F., 1875, *Theoretische Kinematik*, Braunschweig.

Reuleaux, F., 1900, *Lehrbuch der Kinematik*, Braunschweig.

Vitruvius, P. M., 28 B.C., *De Architectura*, Libri X.

## 1.3 Definitions for “machine,” “mechanism,” and “linkage”:

### Machine

- Definitions in Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (on-line, 2002):
  - (archaic): a constructed thing whether material or immaterial.
  - an assemblage of parts that transmit forces, motion, and energy one to another in a predetermined manner
  - an instrument (as a lever) designed to transmit or modify the application of power, force, or motion

- a mechanically, electrically, or electronically operated device for performing a task (a calculating machine, a card-sorting machine)

*Comment: comprehensive definitions when considered as a whole*

- An *apparatus* for transformation of power, materials, and information to substitute or simplify physical or intellectual work (Frolov, 1987). *Comment: a comprehensive definition, that includes computers*
- *Mechanical system* that performs a specific task, such as the forming of material, and the transference and transformation of *motion* and *force*, Vol. 38, Nos. 7–10 (2003) of *Mechanism and Machine Theory* on Standardization of Terminology. *Comment: leaves computers out*
- An *apparatus* for applying mechanical power, having several parts, each with definite function (The Concise Oxford Dictionary). *Comment: same as above*
- An *apparatus* consisting of interrelated parts with separate functions, used in the performance of some kind of work (The Random House College Dictionary). *Comment: ditto*
- Any *system* in which a specific correspondence exists between an input form of energy or information and the corresponding ones at the output (Loosely translated from Le Petit Robert). *Comment: as comprehensive as Frolov's*

## Mechanism

- A piece of machinery (Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (on-line, 2002)). *Comment: too vague*
- Definitions in Vol. 38, Nos. 7–10 (2003) of *Mechanism and Machine Theory* on Standardization of Terminology.
  - *System* of bodies designed to convert *motions* of, and *forces* on, one or several bodies into constrained motions of, and *forces* on, other bodies. *Comment: English could be terser, but idea is fine.*
  - *Kinematic chain* with one of its components (*link* or *joint*) connected to the *frame*. *Comment: confuses mechanism with its representation as a kinematic chain*
- Structure, adaptation of parts of machine; system of mutually adapted parts working together (as) in machine (The Concise Oxford Dictionary)
- An assembly of moving parts performing a complete functional motion (The Random House College Dictionary)
- A combination layout of pieces or elements, assembled with the goal of (producing) an operation as a unit (Loosely translated from Le Petit Robert)

*Comment: In all above definitions, the concept of goal or task is present*

## Linkage

- Definitions in Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (on-line, 2002):
  - a system of links. *Comment: concise and comprehensive*
  - a system of links or bars which are jointed together and more or less constrained by having a link or links fixed and by means of which straight or nearly straight lines or other point paths may be traced. *Comment: unnecessarily cumbersome and limited to path-generating linkages*
- *Kinematic chain* whose *joints* are equivalent to *lower pairs* only (Vol. 38, Nos. 7–10 (2003) of *Mechanism and Machine Theory* on Standardization of Terminology). *Comment: confuses linkage with its representation*

*The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, 1995, Clarendon Press, Oxford

Frolov, K. V., (editor), 1987, *Teoriya Mechanismov i Mashin* (Theory of Mechanisms and Machines), Vyschaya Shkola, Moscow (in Russian)

*Mechanism and Machine Theory* on Standardization of Terminology, 2003, Vol. 38, Nos. 7–10

*Le Petit Robert*, 1994, Dictionnaires Le Robert, Paris

*Random House Webster's College Dictionary*, 1997, Random House, New York

*Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, on-line 2002

**1.9** Here we want to estimate the time required to multiply two floating-point numbers. Since this time is very small, it is more suitable to perform a large number of multiplications, say  $10^7$ , which will require a total time of the order of seconds.

- The Microsoft Visual C++6.0 program below was run on a Pentium IV 2.0:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <time.h>
int main()
{
    clock_t start, end;
    start =clock();
    float a, i, CLOCKS_PER_mSEC=CLOCKS_PER_SEC/1000;
    for(i = 1; i <= 10000000; i++)
        a = 5 * 5;
    std::cout << "a= " << a << std::endl;
    end = clock();
    long duration=(long)(end-start)/CLOCKS_PER_mSEC;
    std::cout << "Time: " << duration<<'ms'<<std::endl;
    return 0;
}
```

A Pentium IV 2.0 processor required 125 ms to perform the  $10^7$  multiplications, which amounts to  $1.25 \times 10^{-8}$  s/mult, or  $8 \times 10^7$  mult/s.

- The C program below was run for the same purpose on the CLUMEQ (Consortium Laval UQAM McGill and Eastern Quebec for High Performance Computing) supercomputer, AMD Athlon 1900+ cluster:

```
# include "stdio.h"
# include "math.h"
# include <sys/time.h>
# include <sys/resource.h>
# define RUSAGE_SELF 0
\* calling process *\
main()
{
    int getrusage(int who, struct rusage *rusage);
    long diffsec, diffmsec;
    float a;
    int i;
    struct rusage time_begin, time_end;
    struct rusage *pb, *pe;
    pb=&time_begin;
```

```
    getrusage(RUSAGE_SELF, pb);
    for(i=1; i<=100000000; i++)
    {
        a = 5*5;
    }
    printf("a=%f \
t\n",a);
    pe=&time_end;
    getrusage(RUSAGE_SELF,pe);

    diffsec=time_end.ru_utime.tv_sec-time_begin.ru_utime.tv_sec;
    diffmsec=(time_end.ru_utime.tv_usec-time_begin.ru_utime.tv_usec);
    printf("User time used:%d microsec\n",diffmsec);
}
```

The CLUMEQ supercomputer required 40 ms to perform the  $10^7$  multiplications, which amounts to  $4 \times 10^{-9}$  s/mult, or  $2.5 \times 10^8$  mult/s.

- On June 20, 2011, Fox News reported that *Kei*—Japanese for  $10^{16}$ —was capable of  $8 \times 10^{15}$  flops<sup>1</sup>—or eight petaflops—per second.

**1.10** Here we want to estimate the time required to add two floating-point numbers. Since this time is very small, it is more suitable to perform a bunch of additions, say  $10^7$ , which should amount to a total time of the order of seconds.

- The Microsoft Visual C++6.0 program below was run on a Pentium IV 2.0:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <time.h>
int main()
{
    clock_t start, end;
    start = clock();
    float a, i, CLOCKS_PER_mSEC=CLOCKS_PER_SEC/1000;
    for(i=1; i<=10000000; i++)
        a = 5+5;
    std::cout << "a= " << a << std::endl;
    end = clock();
    long duration = (long)(end-start)/CLOCKS_PER_mSEC;
    std::cout << "Time: " << duration << "ms" << std::endl;
    return 0;
}
```

A Pentium IV 2.0 processor required 125 ms to perform the  $10^7$  additions, which amounts to  $1.25 \times 10^{-8}$  s/add, or  $8 \times 10^7$  add/s.

- The C program below was run for the same purpose on the CLUMEQ supercomputer, AMD Athlon 1900+ cluster:

```
#include "stdio.h"
#include "math.h"
```

---

<sup>1</sup>See the Index for a definition of *flop*.

```
#include <sys/time.h>
#include <sys/resource.h>
#define RUSAGE_SELF 0 /* calling process */
main()
{
    int getrusage(int who, struct rusage *rusage);
    long diffsec, diffmsec;
    float a;
    int i;
    struct rusage time_begin, time_end;
    struct rusage *pb, *pe;
    pb=&time_begin;
    getrusage(RUSAGE_SELF, pb);
    for(i=1; i<=10000000; i++)
    {
        a = 5+5;
    }

    printf("a=%f \t\n",a);
    pe=&time_end;
    getrusage(RUSAGE_SELF,pe);

    diffsec=time_end.ru_utime.tv_sec-time_begin.ru_utime.tv_sec;
    diffmsec=time_end.ru_utime.tv_usec-time_begin.ru_utime.tv_usec;
    printf("User time used:%d microsec\n",diffmsec);
}
```

The CLUMEQ supercomputer required 40 ms to perform the  $10^7$  additions, which amounts to  $4 \times 10^{-9}$  add/mult, or  $2.5 \times 10^8$  add/s.

- 1.11 What we must find here is the largest floating-point number  $\epsilon$  that, when added to a given number  $a$ , leaves this number unchanged, i.e.,

$$a + \epsilon = a$$

- The Microsoft Visual C++6.0 program below was run on a Pentium IV 2.0 processor at 550 MHz:

```
#include <iostream>
#include <time.h>
int main()
{
    long i;
    //double a=1;
    float a=1;
    for(i=1; i<=10000000; i++)
    {
        a = a/10;
        if (a==0)
            break;
    }
    std::cout << "smallest floating-point"<< i-1 << std::endl;
    return 0;
}
```

The value of  $\epsilon$  reported in single-precision arithmetic was  $1.0e - 045$ ; in double-precision.....  
 $1.0e - 323$ .

- The program below was run on the CLUMEQ supercomputer, AMD Athlon 1900+ cluster:

```
#include "stdio.h"
#include "math.h"
#include <sys/resource.h>
main()
{
    int i;
    float a=1;
    for(i=1; i<=10000000; i++)
    {
        a=a/10;
        if (a==0)
            break;
    }

    printf("smallest floating-point=%d \n",i-1);
}
```

This machine reported exactly the same values as its Pentium counterpart.

## 2 Mathematical Background

- 2.6** Let  $\mathbf{w}$  be perpendicular to  $\mathbf{v}$  ( $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = 0$ ). Since we can find two such vectors, let us call them  $\mathbf{w}_1$  &  $\mathbf{w}_2$ , which lie in the plane normal to  $\mathbf{v}$ , but are otherwise arbitrary—no need to assume that these two vectors are mutually orthogonal. We then have

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T$$

Multiplying both sides by  $\mathbf{w}_i$ , we obtain

$$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{w}_i = \mathbf{w}_i + \underbrace{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}_i}_0 = \mathbf{w}_i, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{w}_1$  &  $\mathbf{w}_2$  are eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{T}$ , of eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ .

Moreover, let

$$\mathbf{w}_3 \equiv \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}$$

Then,

$$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{w}_3 = \mathbf{w}_3 + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}(1 + \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{T}\mathbf{w}_3 = (1 + \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u})\mathbf{w}_3$$

and  $\mathbf{w}_3$  is the third eigenvector of  $\mathbf{T}$ , of eigenvalue  $\lambda_3 = 1 + \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}$ .

**2.7** The determinant of a matrix is equal to the product of its eigenvalues. Thus

$$\det(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{u}\mathbf{v}^T) = \det(\mathbf{T}) = \lambda_1\lambda_2\lambda_3 = 1 + \mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{u} = 1 + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

**2.8** From  $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2$ , we have

$$\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2(\mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2)^T = \mathbf{R}_1\underbrace{\mathbf{R}_2\mathbf{R}_2^T}_{\mathbf{1}}\mathbf{R}_1^T = \mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_1^T = \mathbf{1}$$

and thus  $\mathbf{Q}$  is orthogonal. Moreover, we have

$$\det(\mathbf{Q}) = \det(\mathbf{R}_1)\det(\mathbf{R}_2) = (-1)(-1) = 1$$

Thus,  $\mathbf{Q}$  is a rotation.

Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\phi$  be the unit vector parallel to the axis of rotation and the angle of rotation, respectively; then,

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T)(\mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^T) = \mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T - 2\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^T + 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})\mathbf{e}\mathbf{f}^T$$

Hence,

$$\text{vect}(\mathbf{Q}) = -\frac{1}{2}4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{u} \sin \phi$$

and

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{Q}) = 3 - 2 - 2 + 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 = 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1 = 1 + 2 \cos \phi$$

Therefore,

$$\sin \phi = \|\text{vect}(\mathbf{Q})\| = 2|\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f}| \|\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}\|, \quad 0 \leq \phi < \pi$$

whence

$$\mathbf{u} = -\frac{\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}}{\|\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}\|} \text{sign}(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})$$

where  $\text{sign}(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})$  is the *signum function*, which is +1 if  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} > 0$ , -1 if  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} < 0$ , and undefined if  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} = 0$ . Hence,  $\mathbf{u}$  is undefined if  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} = 0$ , which indicates that  $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T - 2\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^T$ , in which case  $\mathbf{Q}$  is symmetric, as in Exercise 2.13, and

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}, \quad \phi = \pi$$

Hence, if  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} \neq 0$ ,

$$\cos \phi = 2(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \phi = \tan^{-1} \left[ \frac{2|\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f}| \|\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}\|}{2(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1} \right]$$

**2.9** The product  $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2$  is readily computed as

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T)(\mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^T) = \mathbf{1} - 2\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^T - 2\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^T + 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})\mathbf{e}\mathbf{f}^T$$

Let  $\phi$  be the angle of rotation of  $\mathbf{Q}$ , and hence,

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{Q}) = 3 - 2 - 2 + 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 = 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1 = 1 + 2 \cos \phi$$

If  $\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f} \neq 0$ , then

$$\cos \phi = 2(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1,$$

Because  $|\cos \phi| \leq 1$ , we can write the above expression in the form

$$-1 \leq 2(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f})^2 - 1 \leq 1 \quad \text{or} \quad 0 \leq |\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f}| \leq 1.$$

Since  $\mathbf{e}$  and  $\mathbf{f}$  are unit vectors, this condition is always respected for any  $\mathbf{e}$  or  $\mathbf{f}$ . However,

$$\text{vect}(\mathbf{Q}) = 4(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f}) \text{vect}(\mathbf{e}\mathbf{f}^T) = -2(\mathbf{e}^T\mathbf{f}) \mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}$$

where we have recalled relation (2.60). The axis of rotation of  $\mathbf{Q}$  should thus be parallel to  $\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{f}$ , which is the sole condition for  $\mathbf{Q}$  to be factorable as  $\mathbf{R}_1\mathbf{R}_2$ .

**2.10** (a) With  $\mathbf{A} = \text{CPM}(\mathbf{a})$ , the equation can be rewritten as

$$(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{A})\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b}$$

which was defined as  $\mathbf{B}$  in Example 2.3.2. In that example, it was shown that  $\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{A}$  is always invertible, and hence,  $\mathbf{v}$  can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{b} \equiv \frac{1}{1 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2}[(1 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2)\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^2]\mathbf{b}$$

which, upon expansion, yields

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{b} + \frac{1}{1 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2}(-\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{b})$$

and, finally,

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{-\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})\mathbf{a}}{1 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2}$$

(b) For  $\mathbf{v}$  to be orthogonal to  $\mathbf{a}$ , one must have  $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{a} = 0$ , which means that, when “dotted” with  $\mathbf{a}$ , the numerator of the above expression must vanish, i.e.,

$$-\underbrace{(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{a}}_0 + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 = 0$$

which thus reduces to

$$(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})(1 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2) = 0$$

As the second factor above cannot vanish, the condition sought is that  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  be mutually orthogonal.

(c) For  $\mathbf{v}$  to be orthogonal to  $\mathbf{b}$ , a similar relation follows upon “dotting” the numerator of  $\mathbf{v}$  with  $\mathbf{b}$ , which leads to

$$-\underbrace{(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b})^T \mathbf{b}}_0 + \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 + (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2 = 0$$

which holds if and only if the sum of two positive quantities vanishes. Obviously, this sum cannot vanish, and hence,  $\mathbf{v}$  cannot be orthogonal to  $\mathbf{b}$ .

**2.11** Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{E}$ , and  $\mathbf{u}$  the corresponding unit eigenvector, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{u} \tag{1}$$

Multiplying eq.(1) by  $\mathbf{E}$ , we obtain

$$\mathbf{E}^2\mathbf{u} = \lambda^2\mathbf{u} \tag{2}$$

and multiplying a second time by  $\mathbf{E}$ ,

$$\mathbf{E}^3\mathbf{u} = \lambda^3\mathbf{u} \tag{3}$$

However, from eq.(2.51)

$$\mathbf{E}^3 = -\mathbf{E} \tag{4}$$

Substituting eq.(4) into eq.(3), we obtain

$$-\mathbf{E}\mathbf{u} = \lambda^3\mathbf{u} \tag{5}$$

Moreover, from eq.(1) we have  $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{u} = \lambda\mathbf{u}$ , and thus eq.(5) reduces to

$$\lambda(1 + \lambda^2)\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0} \tag{6}$$



However,  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$  and hence,  $\mathbf{u} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore, we have from eq.(6)

$$P(\lambda) \equiv \lambda(1 + \lambda^2) = 0 \quad (7)$$

Equation (7) is the characteristic equation of  $\mathbf{E}$ , and  $P(\lambda)$  its characteristic polynomial. The three roots of eq.(7) are readily obtained as

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \quad \lambda_2 = j, \quad \lambda_3 = -j$$

The eigenvector  $\mathbf{u}_1$  corresponding to  $\lambda_1$  is, obviously,  $\mathbf{e}$ , for  $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}$ .

Now, to prove that the eigenvectors associated with the two complex eigenvalues are complex and mutually orthogonal, assume that  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  are two 3-dimensional complex vectors. Moreover, the former is assumed to be the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{E}$  associated with  $\lambda_2 = j$ , the latter with  $\lambda_3 = -j$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v} = j\mathbf{v}, \quad \mathbf{E}\mathbf{w} = -j\mathbf{w} \quad (8)$$

The scalar product  $p$  of  $\mathbf{v}$  times  $\mathbf{w}$  is a complex number, given by

$$p = \mathbf{v}^* \mathbf{w} \quad (9)$$

where, if, for example,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_r + j\mathbf{v}_c$ , with  $\mathbf{v}_r$  and  $\mathbf{v}_c$  denoting two 3-dimensional real vectors, then, the transpose conjugate of  $\mathbf{v}$  is

$$\mathbf{v}^* = \mathbf{v}_r^T - j\mathbf{v}_c^T \quad (10)$$

Moreover, the transpose conjugate  $\bar{p}$  of  $p$ , being a scalar, is simply its complex conjugate, which equals the transpose-conjugate of the product on the right-hand side of eq.(10), namely,

$$\bar{p} \equiv (\mathbf{v}^* \mathbf{w})^* = \mathbf{w}^* \mathbf{v} \quad (11)$$

Now, multiplying both sides of the second of eqs.(8) by  $j$ , we obtain

$$\mathbf{w} = j\mathbf{E}\mathbf{w} \quad (12)$$

Substituting  $\mathbf{w}$  by the above expression in eq.(10), an alternative expression for  $p$  is found:

$$p = \mathbf{v}^* (j\mathbf{E}\mathbf{w}) \equiv j\mathbf{v}^* \mathbf{E}\mathbf{w} \quad (13)$$

Likewise, multiplying both sides of the first of eqs.(8) by  $j$ , we obtain

$$\mathbf{v} = -j\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v} \quad (14)$$

which, when substituted into eq.(11), yields an alternative expression for  $\bar{p}$ :

$$\bar{p} = \mathbf{w}^* (-j\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}) \equiv -j\mathbf{w}^* \mathbf{E}\mathbf{v} \quad (15)$$

Now, upon taking the complex-conjugate of both sides of eq.(13), one more expression for  $\bar{p}$  is obtained, namely,

$$\bar{p} = -j\mathbf{w}^* (\mathbf{E}^T \mathbf{v}) \equiv j\mathbf{w}^* \mathbf{E}\mathbf{v} \quad (16)$$

Notice that the two expressions for  $\bar{p}$ , eqs.(15) and (16), differ only in the sign, i.e.,

$$\bar{p} = -\bar{p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad p = -p$$

which holds if and only if  $p = 0$ , thereby showing that, in fact, the two eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{E}$  in question,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ , are mutually orthogonal. In the next step, these two eigenvectors are found. The real and

imaginary parts of  $\mathbf{v}$  were defined above as  $\mathbf{v}_r$  and  $\mathbf{v}_c$ , respectively. A similar definition is applied now to the real and imaginary parts of  $\mathbf{w}$ , namely,  $\mathbf{w}_r$  and  $\mathbf{w}_c$ , respectively. Substitution of  $\mathbf{v}$  in terms of its two components, real and imaginary, into the first of eqs.(8) yields

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{v}_r + j\mathbf{v}_c) = j\mathbf{v}_r - \mathbf{v}_c \quad (17)$$

whence two real equations follow, one for the real, one for the complex part:

$$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_r = -\mathbf{v}_c, \quad \mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_c = \mathbf{v}_r \quad (18)$$

Next, upon multiplying both sides of the first of the above equations by  $\mathbf{E}$ , one obtains

$$\mathbf{E}^2\mathbf{v}_r = -\mathbf{E}\mathbf{v}_c \equiv -\mathbf{v}_r$$

where the second of eqs.(18) has been recalled, the foregoing equation thus becoming

$$(\mathbf{E}^2 + \mathbf{1})\mathbf{v}_r = \mathbf{0}$$

and, in light of the expression for the square of a  $3 \times 3$  skew-symmetric matrix, eq.(2.39), the above equations leads to

$$\mathbf{e}(\underbrace{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{v}_r}_0) = \mathbf{0}$$

which implies that  $\mathbf{v}_r$  is normal to  $\mathbf{e}$ . A similar reasoning leads to the same conclusion about  $\mathbf{v}_c$ , namely, that  $\mathbf{v}_c$  is also normal to  $\mathbf{e}$ . Moreover, the first of eqs.(18) leads to

$$\mathbf{v}_c = -\mathbf{e} \times \mathbf{v}_r$$

whence  $\mathbf{v}_c$  is also normal to  $\mathbf{v}_r$ . Therefore, any two orthonormal vectors lying in the plane normal to  $\mathbf{e}$  are candidates for the real and complex components of  $\mathbf{v}$ . A similar reasoning leads to the conclusion that any two orthonormal vectors lying in the plane normal to  $\mathbf{e}$  are candidates for the two components of  $\mathbf{w}$ . However,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  are known to be mutually orthogonal. Upon imposing the condition  $\mathbf{v}^* \mathbf{w} = 0$ , the relation below follows:

$$\mathbf{v}_r^T \mathbf{w}_r + \mathbf{v}_c^T \mathbf{w}_c + j(\mathbf{v}_r^T \mathbf{w}_c - \mathbf{v}_c^T \mathbf{w}_r) = 0$$

which readily leads to two real equations, one for the real part, one for its complex counterpart:

$$\mathbf{v}_r^T \mathbf{w}_r + \mathbf{v}_c^T \mathbf{w}_c = 0, \quad \mathbf{v}_r^T \mathbf{w}_c - \mathbf{v}_c^T \mathbf{w}_r = 0$$

The two above equations are verified under the conditions  $\mathbf{w}_r = \mathbf{v}_c$  and  $\mathbf{w}_c = \mathbf{v}_r$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}_c + j\mathbf{v}_r$$

In conclusion: any pair of orthonormal unit vectors normal to  $\mathbf{e}$  constitute the real and imaginary parts of the eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_2 = j$ . The same vectors, but with their real and imaginary roles exchanged, constitute the real and imaginary parts of the eigenvector associated with  $\lambda_3 = -j$ .

**2.12** From eq.(2.53), we have

$$\mathbf{Q} = e^{\mathbf{E}\phi} = f(\mathbf{E})$$

where  $\mathbf{E}$  is the cross-product matrix of the unit vector  $\mathbf{e}$  with eigenvalues  $\{0, j, -j\}$ —see Exercise 2.10. Let  $\lambda_k$  be an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{E}$  and  $\mu_k$  be an eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{Q}$ . Then, by the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem, we have

$$\mu_k = e^{\lambda_k \phi} = f(\lambda_k)$$

Therefore,

$$\mu_1 = e^0 = 1, \quad \mu_2 = e^{j\phi}, \quad \mu_3 = e^{-j\phi}$$