

# Branch–Induced Sparsity in Rigid–Body Dynamics

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# Branch-Induced Sparsity

What is it?

a pattern of zeros appearing in the *joint-space inertia matrix* (and some other matrices) as a direct consequence of branches in a *kinematic tree*

Why is it interesting?

exploiting this sparsity greatly improves the efficiency of  $O(n^3)$  dynamics algorithms

What is the main application?

efficient dynamics calculations

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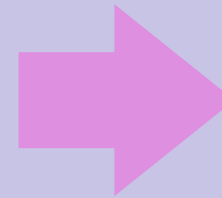
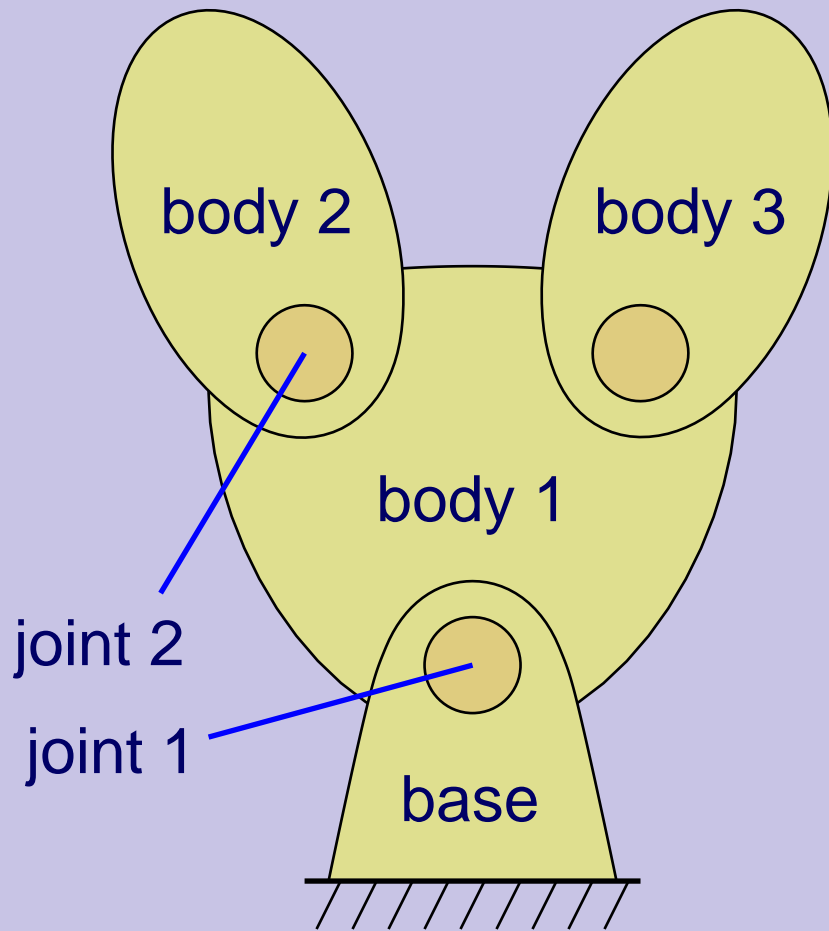
# Kinematic Trees

A rigid–body system can be represented by a *connectivity graph* in which

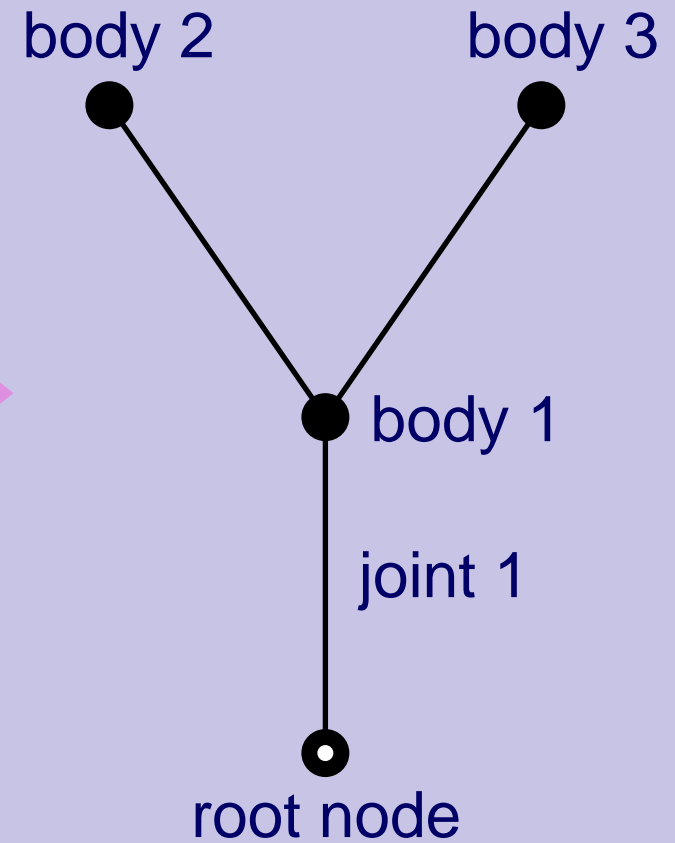
- one node represents a fixed base, or fixed reference frame
- this special node is the root node of the graph
- all other nodes represent bodies
- arcs represent joints

If the connectivity graph is a tree, then the system it represents is a *kinematic tree*.

# Example



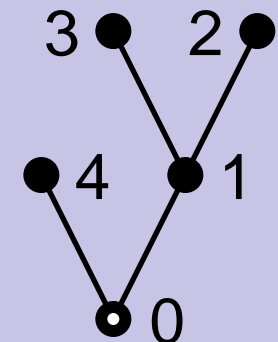
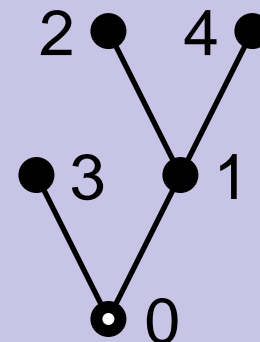
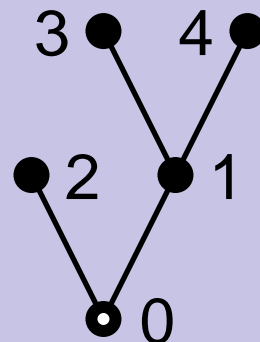
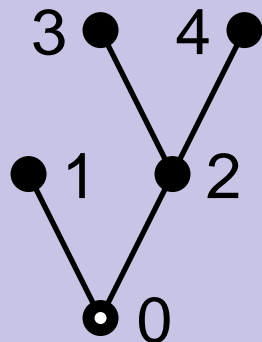
## connectivity graph



# Numbering Scheme

- the root node is numbered **0**
- the other nodes are numbered **1** to  **$N$**  in any order such that each node has a higher number than its parent
- arcs are numbered such that arc  **$i$**  connects node  **$i$**  to its parent
- bodies and joints have the same numbers as their nodes and arcs

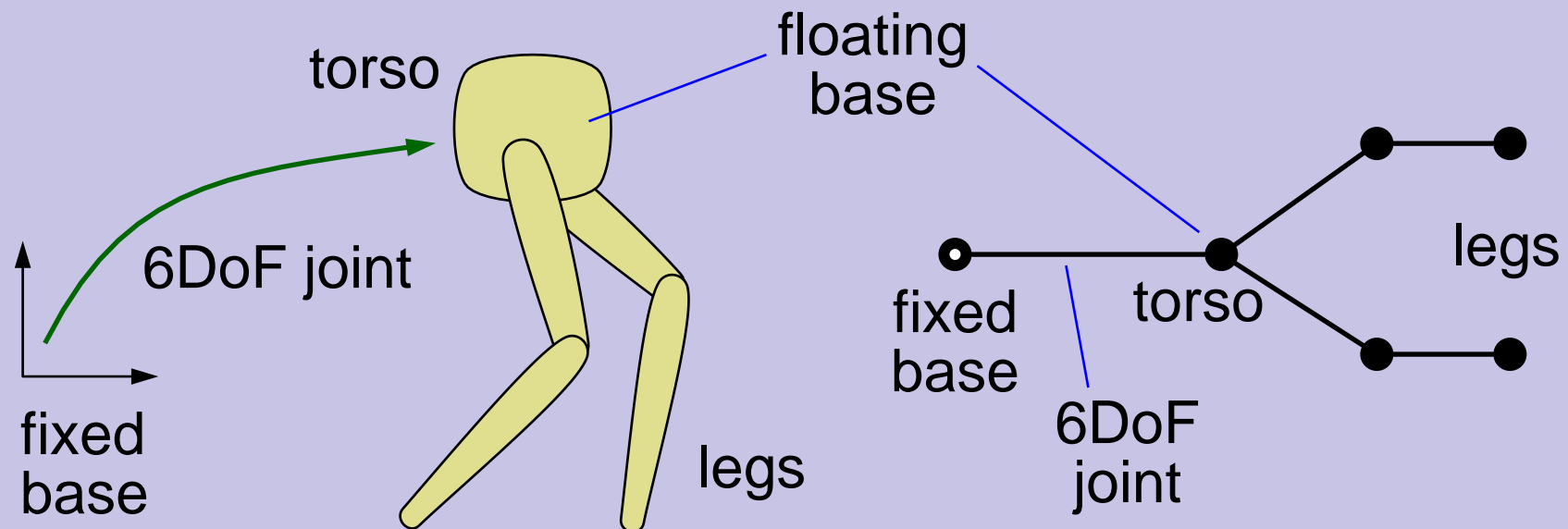
Examples



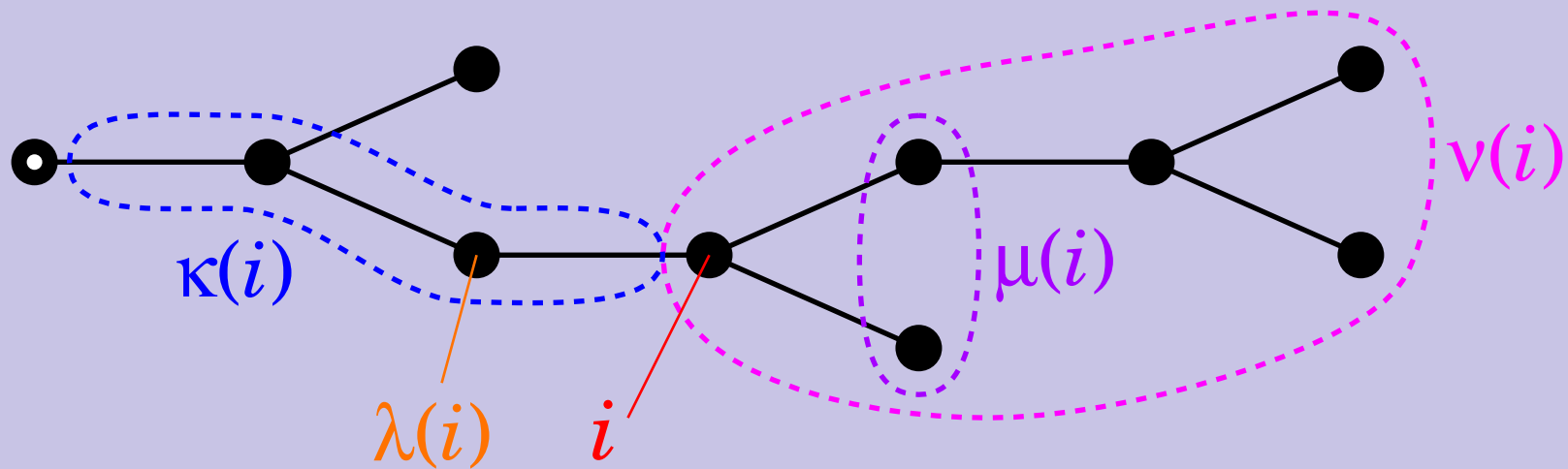
# Floating Bases

A mobile robot, or other mobile device, is connected to a fixed base via a *6DoF joint* — a joint that does not impose any motion constraints.

The body that is connected directly to the fixed base is called a *floating base*.



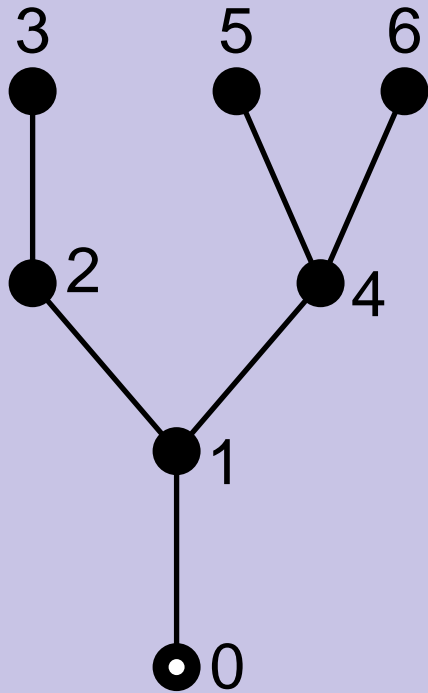
# Describing Connectivity



- $\kappa(i)$  — all the joints between node  $i$  and the root
- $\lambda(i)$  — the parent of node  $i$
- $\mu(i)$  — the children of node  $i$
- $\nu(i)$  — all the bodies beyond joint  $i$



# Describing Connectivity



$$\lambda(1) = 0$$

$$\lambda(2) = 1$$

$$\lambda(3) = 2$$

$$\lambda(4) = 1$$

$$\mu(0) = \{1\}$$

$$\mu(1) = \{2,4\}$$

$$\mu(2) = \{3\}$$

$$\mu(3) = \{\}$$

$$\kappa(1) = \{1\}$$

$$\kappa(2) = \{1,2\}$$

$$\kappa(3) = \{1,2,3\}$$

$$\kappa(4) = \{1,4\}$$

$$v(1) = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$$

$$v(2) = \{2,3\}$$

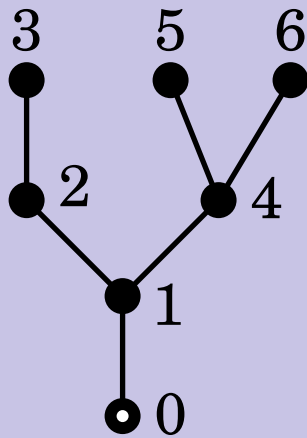
$$v(3) = \{3\}$$

$$v(4) = \{4,5,6\}$$

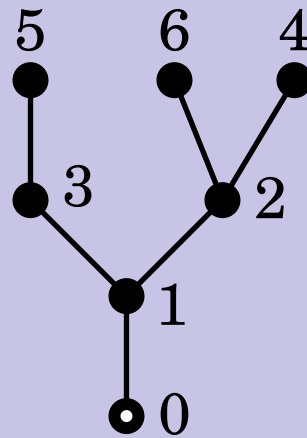
# Describing Connectivity

The parent array,  $\lambda$ , defines both the connectivity and the numbering scheme.

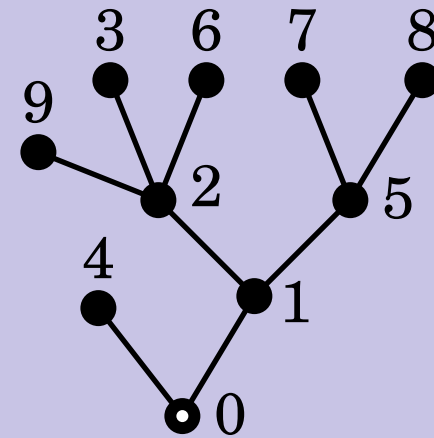
$$\lambda = [ \lambda(1), \lambda(2), \dots, \lambda(N) ]$$



$$\lambda = [0, 1, 2, 1, 4, 4]$$



$$\lambda = [0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 2]$$



$$\lambda = [0, 1, 2, 0, 1, 2, 5, 5, 2]$$

# Describing Connectivity

- $\lambda$  provides a complete description of the connectivity; so the sets  $\mu(i)$ ,  $\nu(i)$  and  $\kappa(i)$  can all be calculated from  $\lambda$ .
- Most dynamics algorithms only need  $\lambda$ .

Many algorithms rely on the property  $0 \leq \lambda(i) < i$ .

## Joint–Space Inertia Matrix

The equation of motion of a kinematic tree can be expressed in the following canonical form:

$$\boldsymbol{\tau} = \mathbf{H}\ddot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{C}$$

where

$\boldsymbol{\tau}$  is a vector of joint force variables

$\ddot{\mathbf{q}}$  is a vector of joint acceleration variables

$\mathbf{H}$  is the *joint–space inertia matrix*

$\mathbf{C}$  is a vector containing Coriolis, centrifugal and gravity terms

## Joint–Space Inertia Matrix

The joint–space inertia matrix of a kinematic tree is given by the equation

$$\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{S}_i^T \mathbf{I}_i^c \mathbf{S}_j & \text{if } i \in v(j) \\ \mathbf{S}_i^T \mathbf{I}_j^c \mathbf{S}_j & \text{if } j \in v(i) \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The third case in this equation applies whenever  $i$  and  $j$  lie on different branches of the tree. This is the case that gives rise to *branch–induced sparsity*.

**$\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \mathbf{0}$**  if  $i$  and  $j$  are on different branches

# Joint–Space Inertia Matrix

The joint–space inertia matrix of a kinematic tree is given by the equation

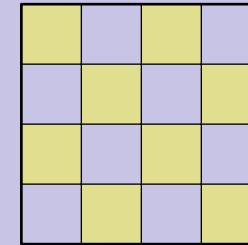
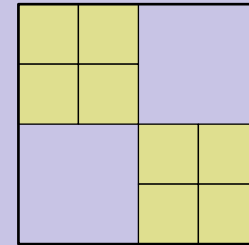
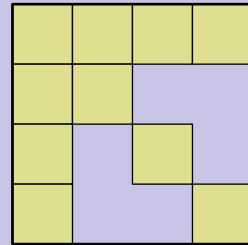
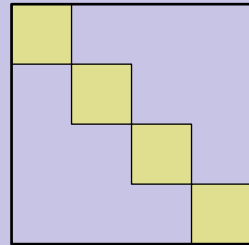
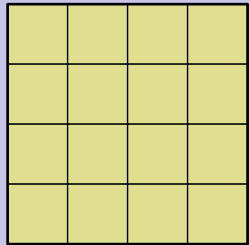
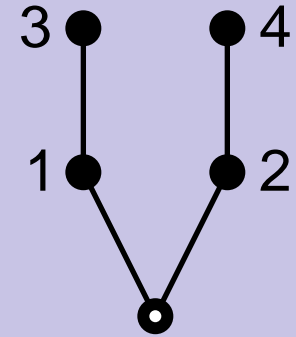
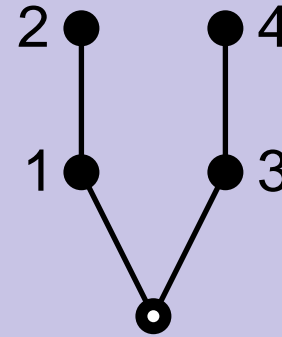
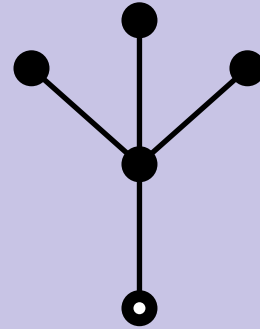
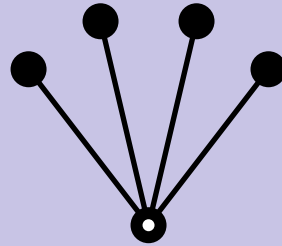
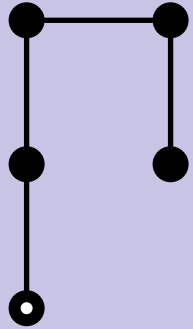
$$\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{S}_i^T \mathbf{I}_i^c \mathbf{S}_j & \text{if } i \in v(j) \\ \mathbf{S}_i^T \mathbf{I}_j^c \mathbf{S}_j & \text{if } j \in v(i) \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

in general,  
this is a  
submatrix

The condition in this equation applies whenever  $i$  and  $j$  are on different branches of the tree. This is the case that gives rise to *branch–induced sparsity*.

**$\mathbf{H}_{ij} = \mathbf{0}$**  if  $i$  and  $j$  are on different branches

# Sparsity Patterns



 = nonzero submatrix or element

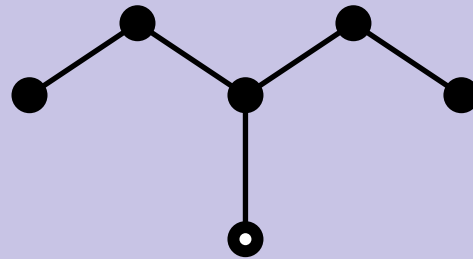
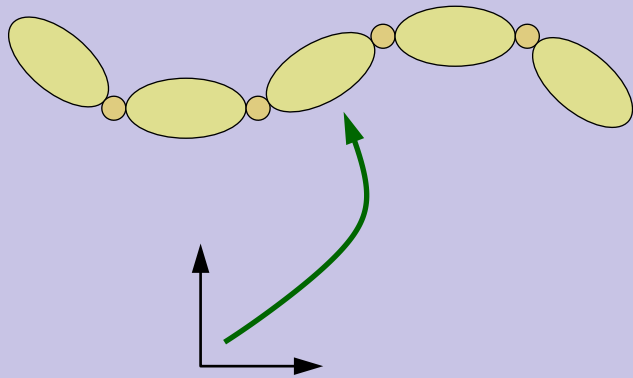
## How can we exploit the sparsity?

1. If we factorize  $\mathbf{H}$  into either  $\mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{L}$  or  $\mathbf{L}^T\mathbf{D}\mathbf{L}$ , rather than the usual  $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T$  (Cholesky) or  $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{L}^T$ , then the sparsity pattern in  $\mathbf{H}$  is preserved in the factors.
2. Algorithms that perform matrix multiplication and back-substitution can be modified to iterate over only the nonzero elements.
3. The more sparsity there is in  $\mathbf{H}$ , the faster it can be calculated and factorized.

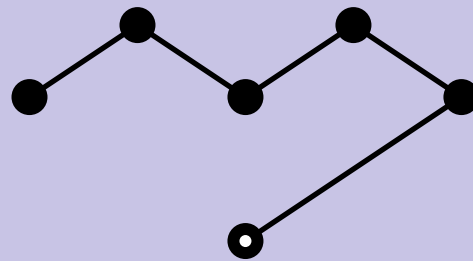
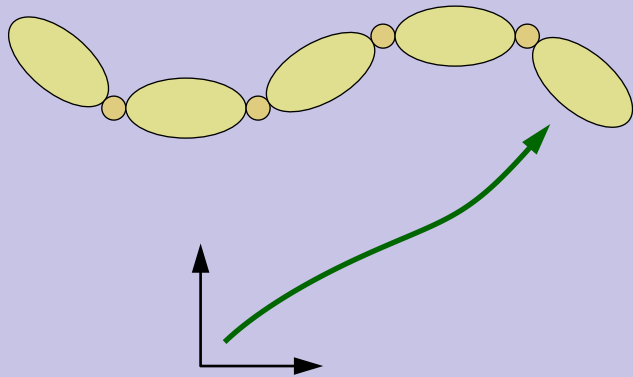
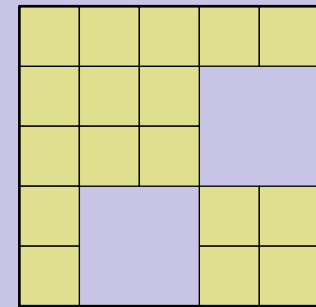


# Maximizing Sparsity

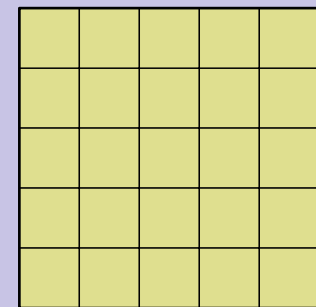
Choose a floating base near the middle.



$H =$

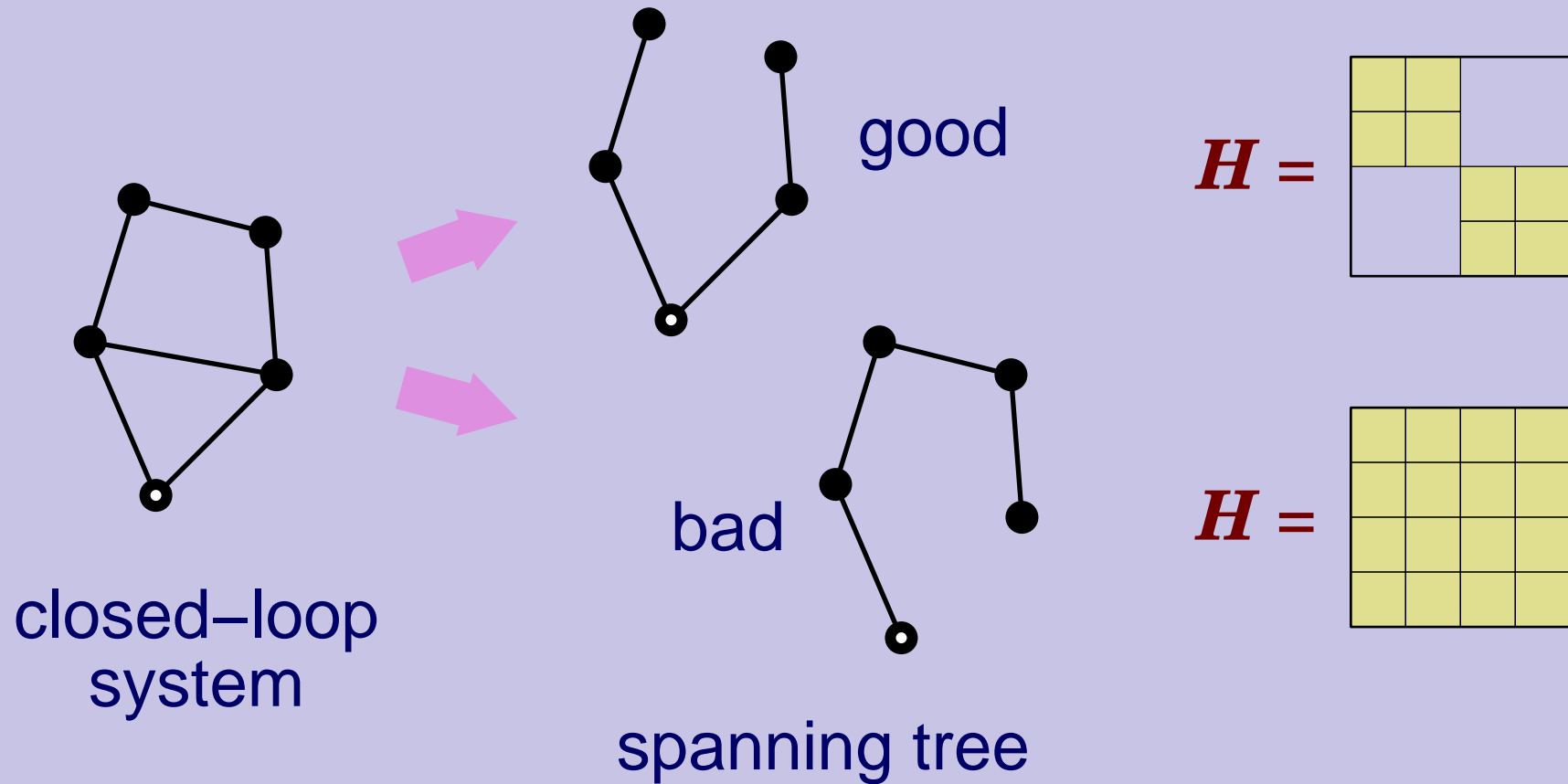


$H =$

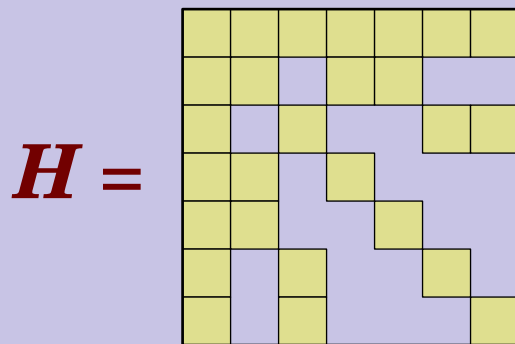
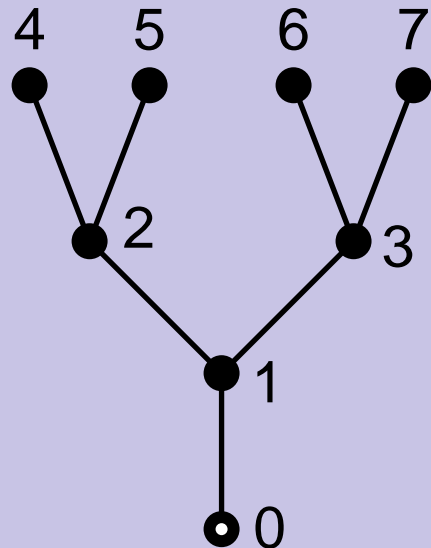


# Maximizing Sparsity

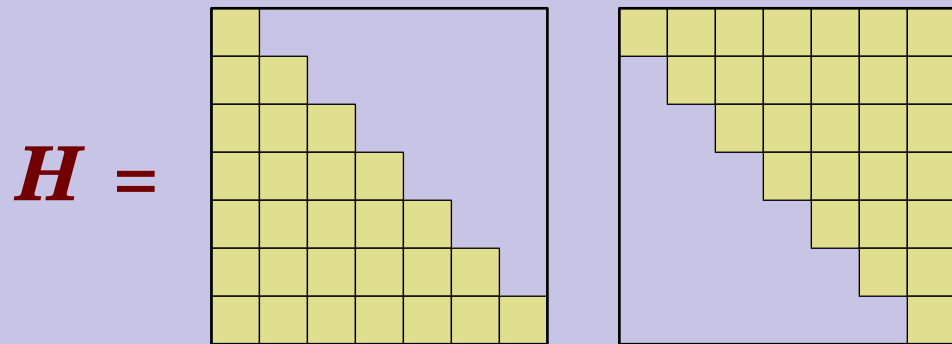
Choose a branchy spanning tree.



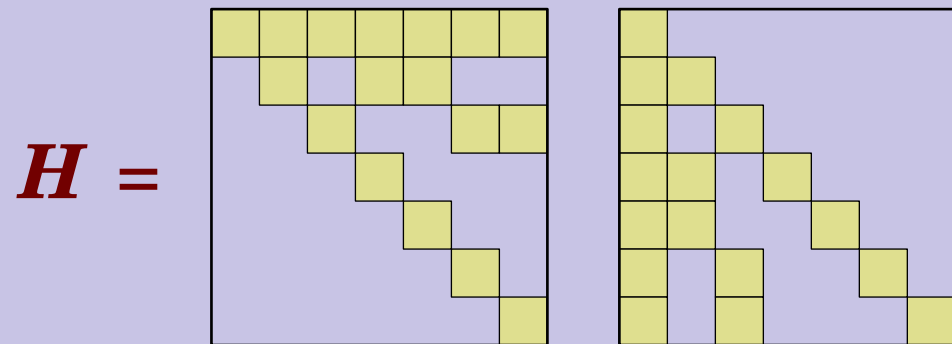
# $L^T L$ Versus $LL^T$



$H = LL^T$  (Cholesky)



$H = L^T L$



# Innovations Factorization

The  $L^T D L$  factorization is numerically almost identical to the innovations factorization of the joint-space inertia matrix that was discovered by Rodriguez, Jain, et al. at NASA JPL.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \mathbf{M} & = & (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H}\phi\mathbf{K}) & \mathbf{D} & (\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{H}\phi\mathbf{K})^* \\ | & & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} & | & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} \\ \mathbf{H} & & \mathbf{L}^T & \mathbf{D} & \mathbf{L} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \mathbf{M}^{-1} & = & (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{H}\psi\mathbf{K})^* & \mathbf{D}^{-1} & (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{H}\psi\mathbf{K}) \\ | & & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} & | & \underbrace{\hspace{2cm}} \\ \mathbf{H}^{-1} & & \mathbf{L}^{-1} & \mathbf{D}^{-1} & \mathbf{L}^{-T} \end{array}$$

# Sparse Factorization Algorithms

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LTL}(\mathbf{H}, \lambda_e) &\rightarrow \mathbf{L} \\ \text{LTDL}(\mathbf{H}, \lambda_e) &\rightarrow \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D} \end{aligned}$$

Inputs      $\mathbf{H}$  — the matrix to be factorized  
             $\lambda_e$  — the *expanded parent array*

Outputs     $\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{D}$  — factors returned in  $\mathbf{H}$

## Applicability

$\mathbf{H}$  can be *any* symmetric positive–definite matrix with the sparsity pattern described by  $\lambda_e$ . It does not have to be an inertia matrix.

## Expanded Parent Array

$\lambda$  is an  $N$ -element array, where  $N$  is the number of joints.

$H$  is an  $N \times N$  block matrix

$\lambda$  describes the sparsity pattern in the submatrices of  $H$ .

$\lambda_e$  is obtained from  $\lambda$  by formally replacing each multi-DoF joint with an equivalent chain of single-DoF joints and renumbering the nodes and arcs.

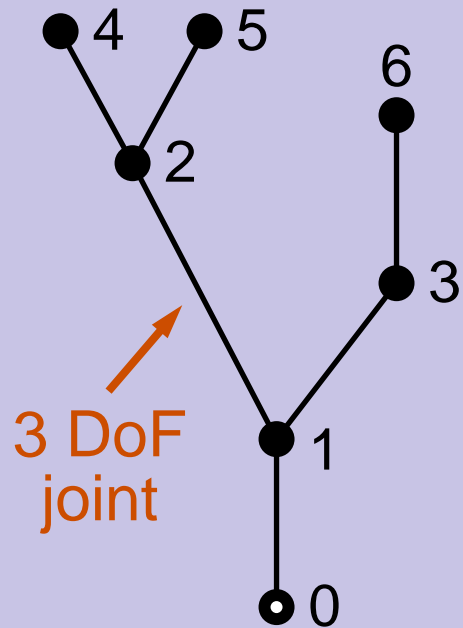
$\lambda_e$  is an  $n$ -element array, where  $n$  is the number of joint variables.

$H$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix

$\lambda_e$  describes the sparsity pattern in the elements of  $H$ .

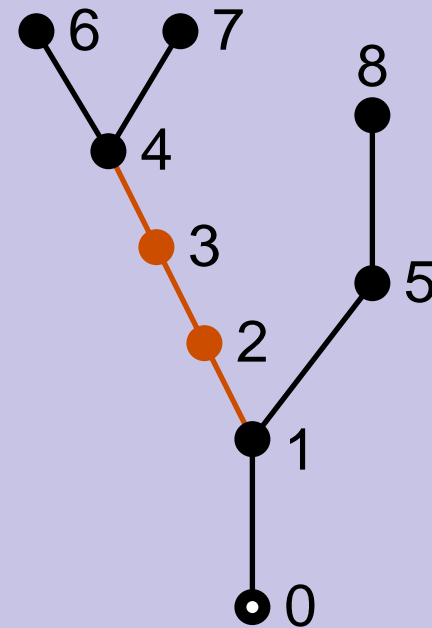
# Expanded Parent Array

original graph



$$\lambda = [0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3]$$

expanded graph



$$\lambda_e = [0, 1, 2, 3, 1, 4, 4, 5]$$

```
function LTDL( $H$ ,  $\lambda_e$ )
```

```
  for  $k = n$  to 1 do
```

```
     $i = \lambda_e(k)$ 
```

```
    while  $i \neq 0$  do
```

```
       $\alpha = H_{ki} / H_{kk}$ 
```

```
       $j = i$ 
```

```
      while  $j \neq 0$  do
```

```
         $H_{ij} = H_{ij} - H_{kj} \alpha$ 
```

```
         $j = \lambda_e(j)$ 
```

```
      end
```

```
       $H_{ki} = \alpha$ 
```

```
       $i = \lambda_e(i)$ 
```

```
    end
```

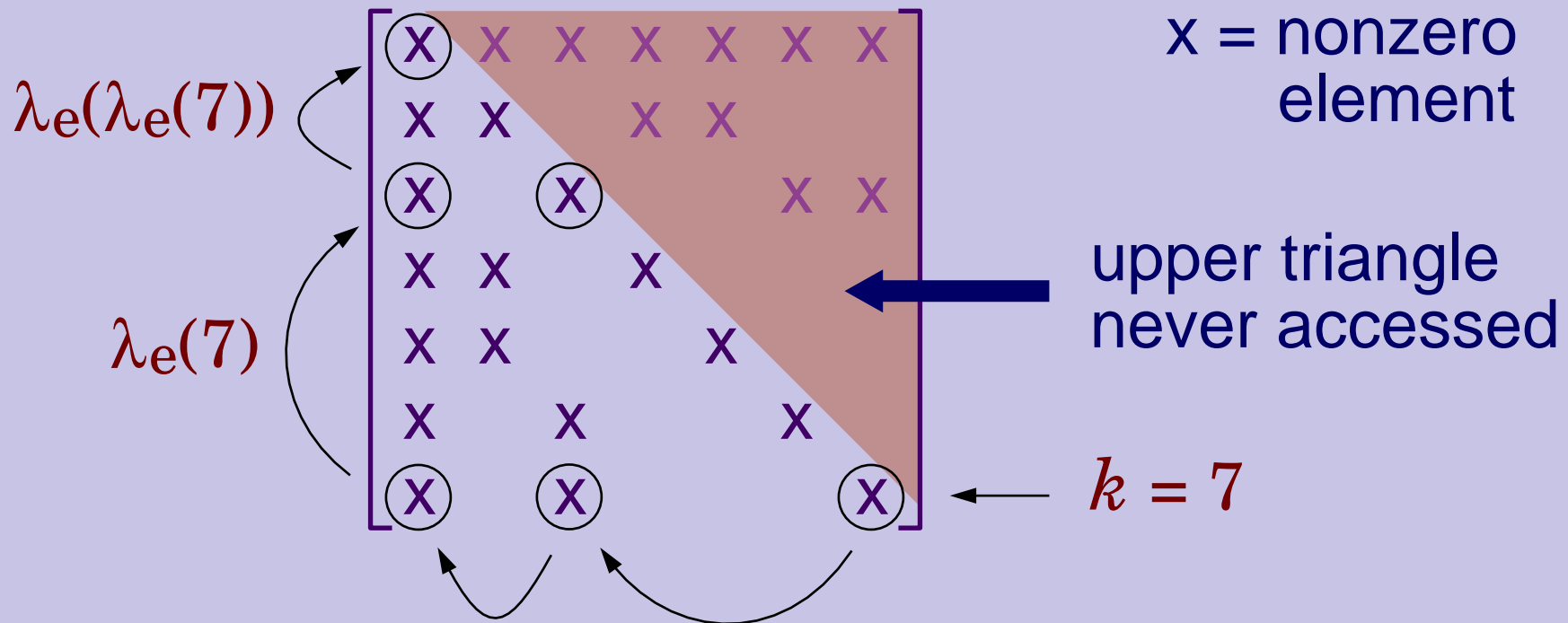
```
  end
```

← loop runs backwards

} loops iterate over  
ancestors of  $k$

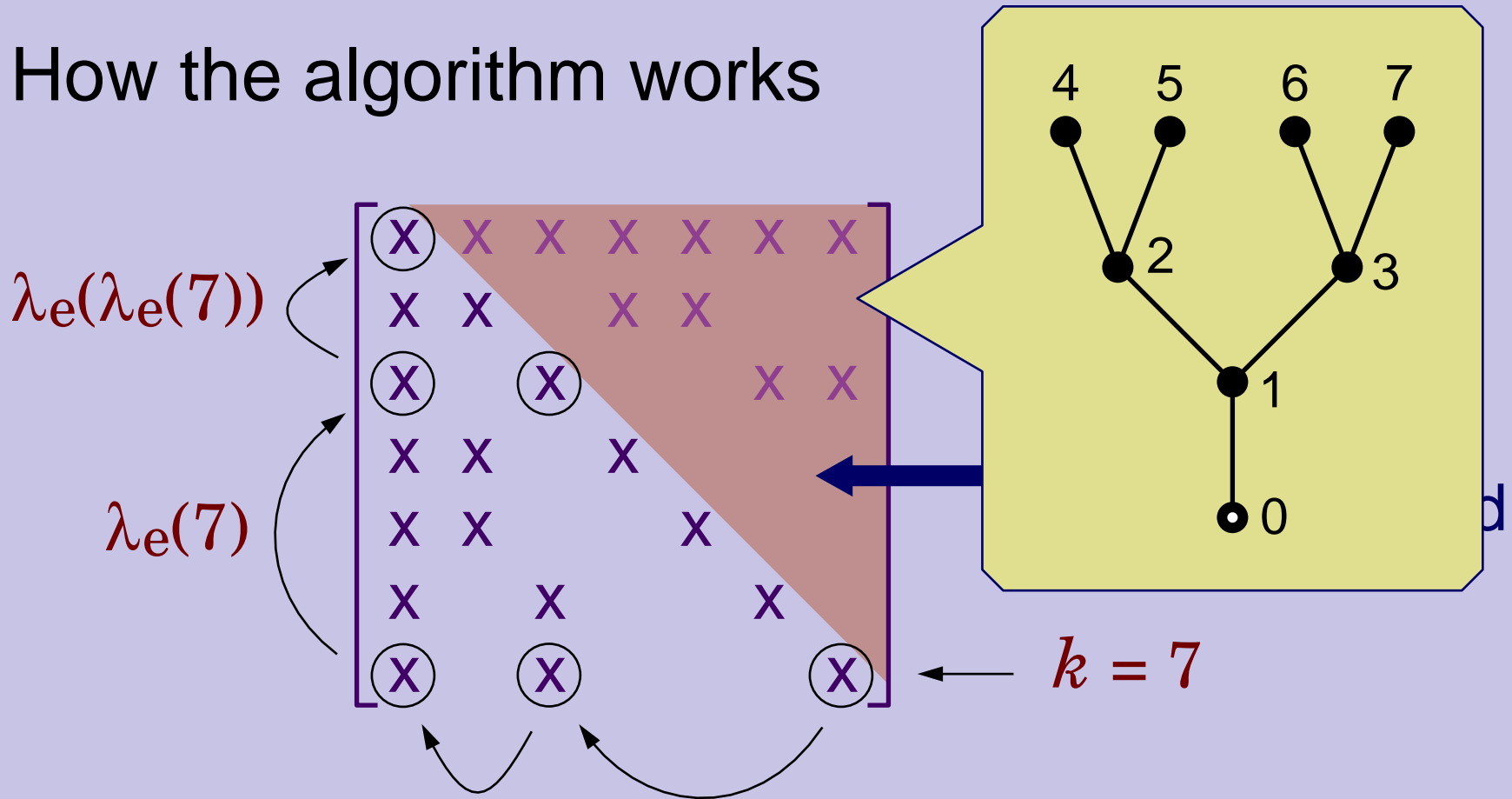


# How the algorithm works



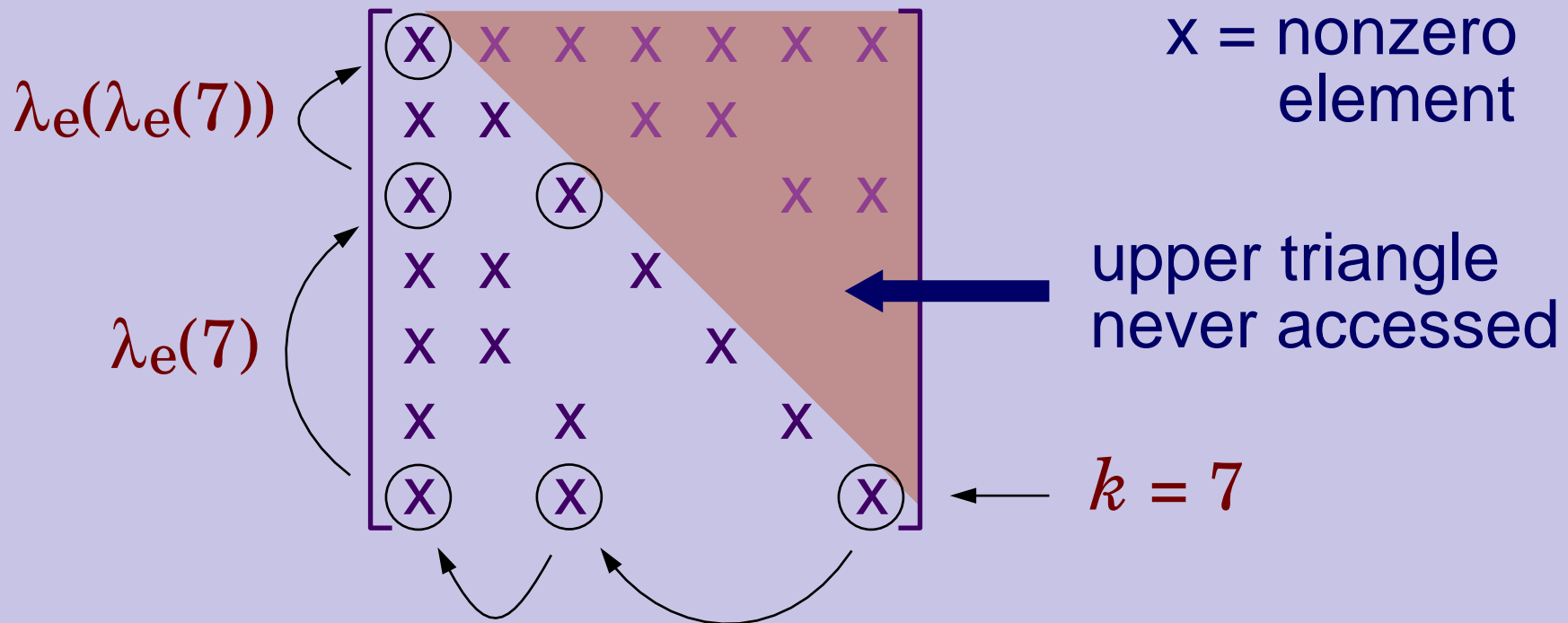
By iterating only over the ancestors of  $k$ , the algorithm performs the least possible amount of work, e.g. by updating only 5 elements at  $k = 7$  instead of 27.

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## Computational Cost Formulae

$L^T DL$ factorization	$D_1 d + D_2(m + a)$
back-substitution	$nd + 2D_1(m + a)$

where

$$D_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n (d_i - 1) \quad D_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d_i(d_i - 1)}{2}$$

and

$$d_i = 1 + d\lambda_e(i) \quad (d_0 = 1)$$

$d_i$  is the depth of node  $i$  in the expanded connectivity graph; and  $d$ ,  $m$  and  $a$  are the costs of floating-point divide, multiply and add/subtract operations.

# Computational Complexity

$D_1$  and  $D_2$  are bounded by

$$D_1 \leq n(d - 1) \quad \text{and} \quad D_2 \leq nd(d - 1)/2$$

where  $d = \max_i d_i$  is the depth of the expanded connectivity graph.

The complexity of factorization is therefore  $O(nd^2)$

# Dynamics Calculation Efficiency

- $O(n)$  algorithms
  - branches have little effect on these algorithms.
- $O(n^3)$  algorithms
  - branches substantially improve the efficiency of these algorithms, and reduce their complexity from  $O(n^3)$  to  $O(nd^2)$ .

# Dynamics Calculation Efficiency

A typical  $O(n^3)$  algorithm performs three steps:

1. calculate  $\mathbf{C}$   $O(n)$
2. calculate  $\mathbf{H}$   $O(n^2) \rightarrow O(nd)$
3. solve  $\mathbf{H}\ddot{\mathbf{q}} = \boldsymbol{\tau} - \mathbf{C}$   $O(n^3) \rightarrow O(nd^2)$

Branches accelerate steps 2 and 3, and reduce their computational complexity.

## Calculating $\mathbf{H}$

The *composite-rigid-body algorithm* (CRBA) is the best available algorithm for calculating  $\mathbf{H}$ .

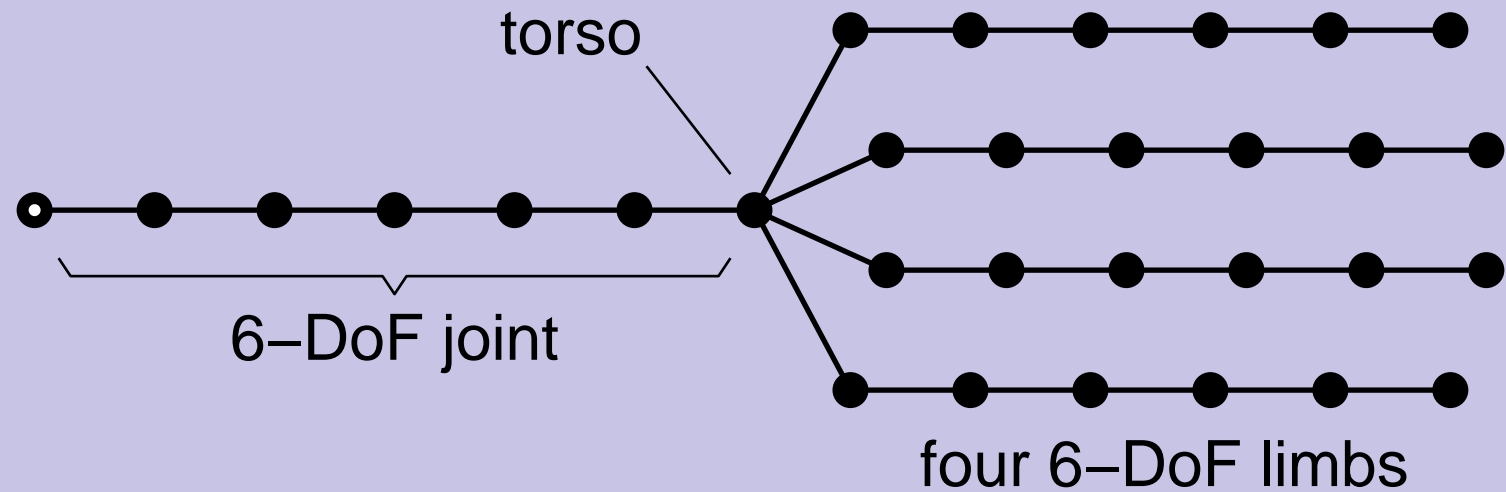
Branch-induced sparsity *improves the efficiency* of this algorithm, and *reduces its complexity* to  $O(nd)$ , because

1. the CRBA implicitly exploits branch-induced sparsity by calculating only the nonzero elements of  $\mathbf{H}$ , and
2. there are only  $n + 2D_1$  nonzero elements in  $\mathbf{H}$ , which is  $O(nd)$ .

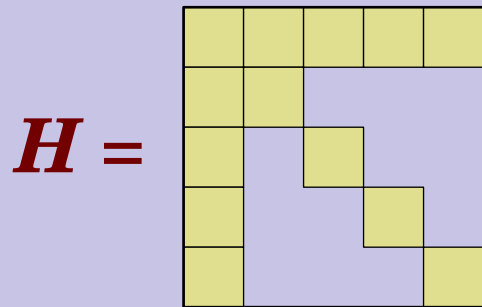
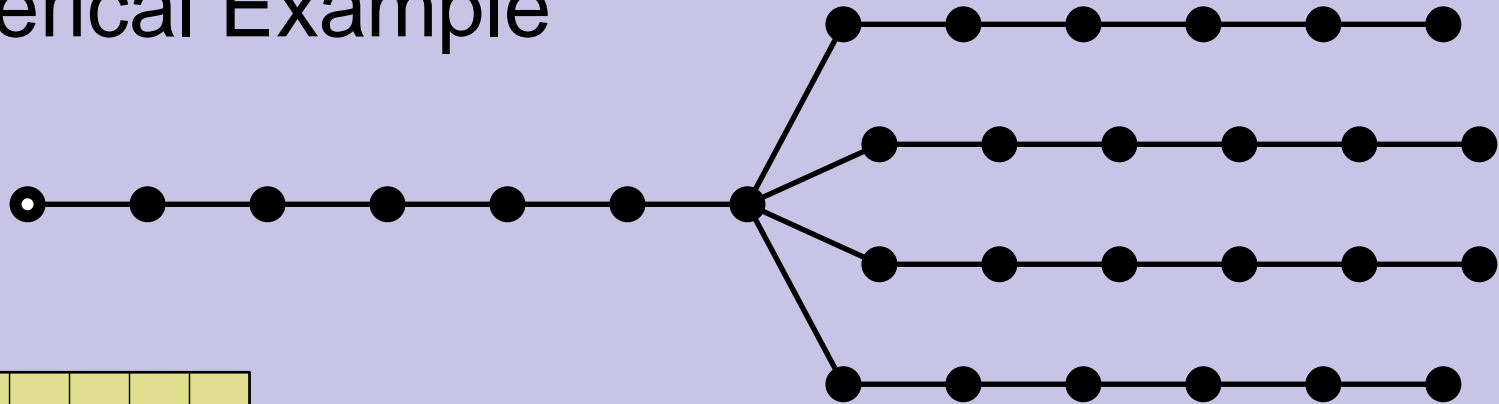


# A Numerical Example

Let us compare the computational cost of forward dynamics for a 30-DoF unbranched chain and the 30-DoF humanoid (or quadruped) shown below.



# A Numerical Example



each ■ is a  
6x6 matrix

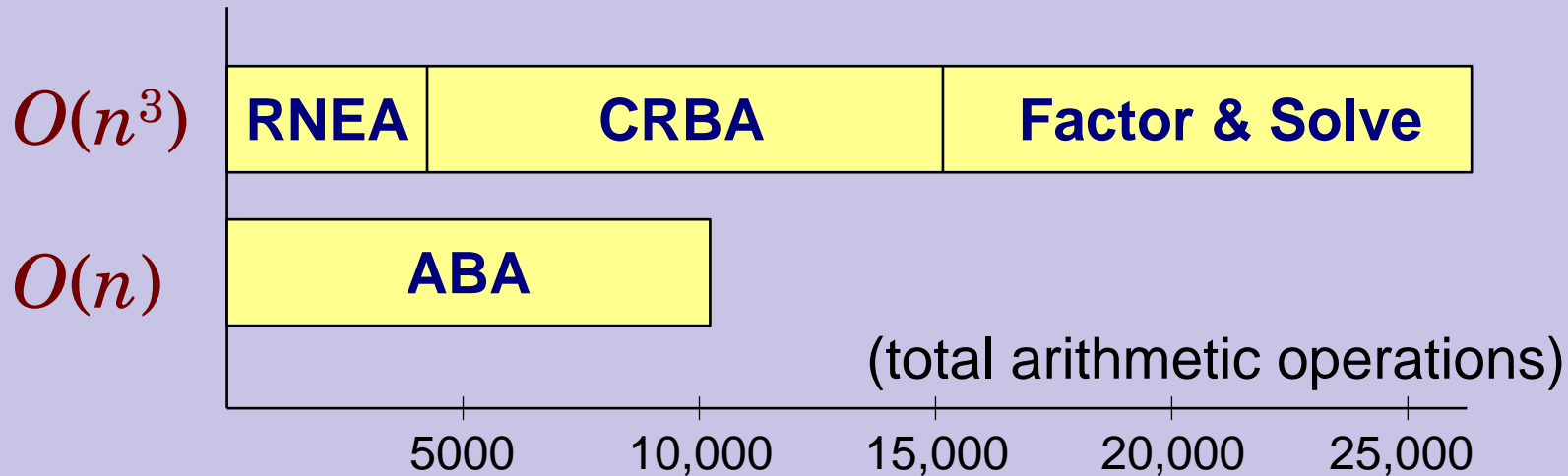
$H$  contains:

468 nonzero elements

432 zero elements

$H$  is therefore 48% zeros

# Cost Figures for Unbranched Chain

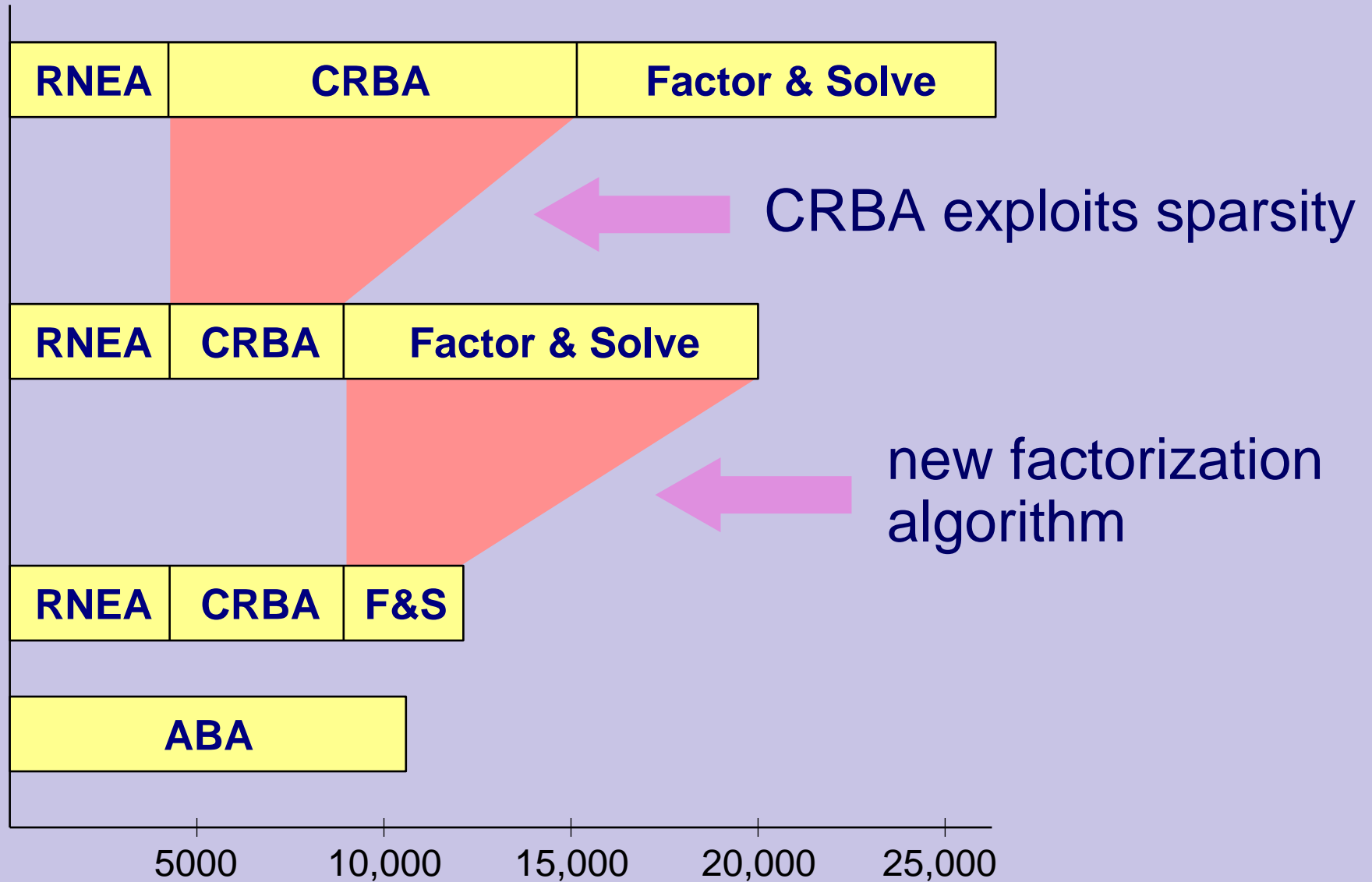


RNEA: Recursive Newton–Euler Algorithm

CRBA: Composite Rigid Body Algorithm

ABA: Articulated–Body Algorithm

# Cost Figures for Humanoid/Quadruped



## Summary

- branches in a kinematic tree cause sparsity in the joint–space inertia matrix
- exploiting this sparsity, using the new factorization algorithms presented here, greatly improves the efficiency and computational complexity of  $O(n^3)$  dynamics algorithms

## Further Reading

- R. Featherstone, 2005. Efficient Factorization of the Joint Space Inertia Matrix for Branched Kinematic Trees. *Int. J. Robotics Research*, 24(6):487–500.
- R. Featherstone, 2008. *Rigid Body Dynamics Algorithms*. New York: Springer.