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# Comparison of point foot, collisional and smooth rolling contact models on the bifurcations and stability of bipedal walking. 

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#### Abstract

Traditional biped walkers based on passive dynamic walking usually have flat or circular feet. This foot contact may be modelled with an effective rocker - represented as a roll-over shape - to describe the function of the knee-ankle-foot complex in human ambulation. Mahmoodi et al. has represented this roll-over shape as a polygon with a discretized set of collisions. In this paper point foot, collisional and smooth rolling contact models are compared. An approach based on the Lagrangian mechanics are used to formulate the equations for the swing phase that conserves mechanical energy. Qualitative insight can be gained by studying the bifurcation diagrams of gait descriptors such as average velocity, step period, mechanical energy and inter-leg angle for different gain and length values for the feet, as well as different mass and length ratios. The results from the three approaches are compared and discussed. In the case of a rolling disk, the collisional contact model gives a negligible energy loss; incorporated into the double inverted pendulum system, however, reveals much greater errors. This research is not only useful for understanding the stability of bipedal walking, but also for the design of rehabilitative devices such as prosthetic feet and orthoses.


Key Words: Passive walking; Gait analysis; Roll-over shape; Prosthetic foot; Foot contact; Bifurcation diagrams; Basin of attraction

## 1. Introduction

An unpowered mechanical biped walker can traverse down an inclined plane with a steady, symmetric gait comparable to human walking [13]. The amount of energy lost at heel strike is made up by the potential energy gained from walking down the slope. These 'compass-like' passive dynamic walkers are usually preferred because of their simplicity and may be used as a tool to analyse efficient bipedal locomotion. Research into the simple point foot model is still being used today, not only as a simple approach to the biomechanics of walking but also for in-depth analysis of the inverted double pendulum dynamics [5] [1] [10] [8]. Other walkers are commonly modelled with flat [7] or curved/circular feet; however it has been shown that foot kinematics has a direct influence on the stability of a bipedal robot [11]. This rolling contact may be modelled using an effective rocker to describe the function of the knee-ankle-foot complex in human walking as shown in Figure 1. This effective rocker can be obtained from the physiological roll-over shape defined as the trajectory of the centre of pressure in the local co-ordinate system aligned with the stance leg [14]. A roll-over shape can be determined experimentally from motion capture systems and ground reaction measurement. The roll-over shape represents the knee-ankle-foot kinematics, whereas the majority of bipedal walking models would have a single point foot contact at the end of the leg. From numerous studies it has been shown that an individual's roll-over shape does not change appreciably with walking speed [4], with shoe heel

(a) Markers show the trajectory of the ankle and hip, while force plates obtain the Centre of Pressure (CoP) locations in a laboratory based coordinate system

(b) Trajectory of Centre of Pressure plotted in a local coordinate system aligned with the stance leg

Figure 1: Roll-over shape is obtained from motion capture data and applied to a passive dynamic walker to match the trajectory of the hip mass
height [2] or when carrying extra weight [3]. Modelling the physiological knee-ankle-foot system can give a better understanding of its functions during able-bodied gait and can improve the stability of designs for ankle-foot prosthesis and orthoses. Using the roll-over function in order to predict the movement of hip mass can reduce the number of degrees of freedom, while still matching kinematics as the flexions of ankles, knees and other muscles or bones are incorporated within the roll-over concept. Basin of attraction plots [17] [10] and bifurcation diagrams [8] are often used to study the stability and periodicity of bipedal walking. This paper compares the effect of using three computational models to capture the hip, ankle, foot kinematics and study its influence on predicting the stability and periodicity of the walking process. In Section 2 it is described how point foot, collisional and smooth rolling foot contact models are used to approximate the hip, ankle and foot kinematics. The roll over shape concept is introduced and the formulations of the three mathematical models are compared. The conditions used to compare the walking steps (and rolling disc comparison) are described in Section 3 and the results are are discussed in Section 4. The paper is concluded in Section 5 with a discussion on future challenges.

## 2. Incorporating foot contact into a biped walker

### 2.1. Roll-over function definition

Hip-ankle-foot roll-over shapes are obtained first by attaching markers to the hip and ankle then plotting the trajectory in a global coordinate system as shown in Figure 1a. The Centre of Pressure $(\mathrm{CoP})$ location is also obtained via ground reaction force plates. A local coordinate system is then defined by aligning the axis along the stance leg as in Figure 1b. In this way the knee-ankle-foot system can be simplified into a rigid rocker attached at the end of the leg. The rollover function $y=f(x)$ is assumed to be a simple polynomial function

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\frac{1}{r}\left(x-x_{m}\right)^{2}+y_{m} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is comparable to a curve with a constant radius of curvature. $x_{m}$ and $y_{m}$ represent the coordinates of the $x, y$ frame when the stance leg is vertical $\left(\theta_{1}=0\right)$. At the end of the roll-over shape, rolling
contact is locked and the rocker will act as a pivot point at the end of the foot. In a human system, this can be comparable to rocking on the heel or the metatarsals at the ball of the foot.

### 2.2. Discretized collisions to emulate the rolling contact

Mahmoodi et al. [11] modelled this rolling contact as a concave polygon as shown in Fig. 2b. In this model the stance leg pivots about pivot point 1 with inverted pendulum dynamics until pivot point 2 makes contact with the floor. At this point there is a completely inelastic collision. A transition occurs that conserves the angular momentum of the walker using the initial conditions that consists of virtual leg lengths, initial angular velocities and initial angular displacements. As the number of pivot points across the polygon increase, less energy will be lost during the swing phase. This approach was done in order to overcome the inability to model the complex non-circular geometry of rollover shapes. Before this, only point contact or curved/circular feet could be used. The details of the equations of motion for the collisional pivot point model are discussed in the following Section 2.3. From this study, an interest was gained in the qualitative analysis using a complex roll-over shape in an inverted pendulum passive dynamic model. A method of still incorporating a roll-over function as the foot contact, without the need for discretizing the rolling contact as a set of collisions is proposed in Section 2.4. Both of these methods can easily be simplified into the point foot model.

(a) Coordinate system for the model proposed by Mahmoodi et al.

(b) Rolling collision model with 5 pivot points along a circular arc at an inclined plane with angle $\alpha$

Figure 2: The collisional rolling model described by Mahmoodi et al [11]. The roll-over shape outlined in Equation 1 is discretized into a concave polygon to emulate the rolling contact.

### 2.3. Collisional equations to emulate rolling contact [12]

The parameters for the collisional rolling walking model can be seen in Figure 2a. The upper body mass $m_{H}$ is concentrated at the hip joint, while the leg masses are defined as $m_{s}$ and $m_{n s}$. The vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}=\left[\theta_{s}, \theta_{n s}\right]^{T}$ with $\theta_{s}$ and $\theta_{n s}$ being the angles made by respectively the support leg and the swinging leg. We define $l_{v s}$ as the virtual stance leg length and $a_{v s}$ as the virtual stance lower leg length, with $\theta_{v s l}$ and $\theta_{v s}$ being the angles made respectively. For both models the dynamical equations can be derived from the Euler-Lagrange approach:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}\right)-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ is the difference between kinetic and potential energies $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})=$ $K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})-P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. For the collisional model, the double pendulum equations of motion as the system rotates around each pivot point, $i$, can be described as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{M}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \ddot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\boldsymbol{N}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\boldsymbol{g}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\boldsymbol{M}, \boldsymbol{N}$ and $\boldsymbol{g}$ defined as

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\boldsymbol{M}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
m_{s} a_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2}+m_{H} l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2}+m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} & -m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s}-\theta_{n s}\right) \\
-m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s}-\theta_{n s}\right) & m_{n s} c^{2}
\end{array}\right) \\
\boldsymbol{N}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i} c \dot{\theta}_{n s} \sin \left(\theta_{v s}-\theta_{n s}\right) \\
m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i} c \dot{\theta}_{n s} \sin \left(\theta_{v s}-\theta_{n s}\right) & 0
\end{array}\right) \\
\boldsymbol{g}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=\left(\begin{array}{c}
m_{s} g a_{v s}^{i} \sin \theta_{v s l}+\left(m_{H} g l_{v s}^{i}+m_{n s} g g_{v s}^{i}\right) \sin \left(\theta_{v s}\right) \\
-m g c \sin \left(\theta_{n s}\right)
\end{array}\right. \tag{6}
\end{array}
$$

and the superscript $i$ referring to the $i$ th pivot point. What makes the collisional model unique is the idea that the rolling contact is modelled with a large number of discrete collisions. If the next pivot point, $i+1$ comes into contact with the ground a completely inelastic collision occurs, at which point pivot point $i$ will leave the ground. The following instantaneous collision takes place:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\dot{+}}=\frac{\boldsymbol{H}^{i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\boldsymbol{H}_{d}^{i}} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{i-} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{gather*}
H_{11}^{i}=m_{H} l_{v s}^{i} l_{v s}^{i-1} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{v s}^{-}\right)+m_{s} a_{v s}^{i} a_{v v}^{i-1} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{v s s}^{-}\right) \\
+m_{n s} l_{v s s}^{i} l_{v s}^{-i} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{v s}^{-}\right)-m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i} l_{v s}^{i-1} c \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{-}-\theta_{n s}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}\right)  \tag{8}\\
H_{12}^{i}=0  \tag{9}\\
H_{21}^{i}=\left(m_{H}+m_{n s}\right) l_{v s}^{i} l_{v s}^{i-1} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{v s}^{-}\right) \\
+m_{s} l_{v s}^{i} a_{v s}^{i} a_{v s}^{i-1} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{v s s}^{-}\right)  \tag{10}\\
-\left(m_{H}+m_{n s}\right) l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} l_{v s}^{i-1} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{-}-\theta_{n s}\right)-m_{s} l_{v s}^{i-1} a_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{-}-\theta_{n s}\right)
\end{gather*}
$$

Note that $H_{21}^{i} \rightarrow 0$ as the number of pivot points increase.

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{22}^{i}=H_{d}^{i}=m_{H} l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} c+m_{s} a_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} c+m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} c-m_{n s} l_{v s}^{i}{ }^{2} c \cos ^{2}\left(\theta_{v s}^{i+}-\theta_{n s}^{i+}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.4. Smooth rolling contact model

The new biped model is shown in Figure 3. The model's configuration can be described by $\boldsymbol{\theta}=$ $\left[\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right]^{T}$ with $\theta_{1}$ being the angle made between the support leg with the normal to the ground and $\theta_{2}$ the angle between the support leg and the non-support swinging leg. Note that this reference frame is slightly different to the one proposed in Section 2.3. The state vector $\boldsymbol{q}$ associated with the robot is then:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{q}=[\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}]^{T}=\left[\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \dot{\theta}_{1}, \dot{\theta}_{2}\right]^{T} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The motion of the stance leg is determined by the roll-over shape having form $y=f(x)$ (Eqn. 1) in the reference frame defined $\{x, y\}$ above. The analogous reference frame $\left\{x^{n s}, y^{n s}\right\}$ describes the


Figure 3: Smooth rolling contact model with a hip mass and a point mass at each leg. The roll-over shape from Equation 1 is included at the end of each leg.
non-support swinging leg. Values for the inertia matrix from Equation 3 are now given by:

$$
\begin{align*}
\boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\Theta_{1} & \Theta_{12} \\
\Theta_{12} & \Theta_{2}
\end{array}\right)  \tag{13}\\
\boldsymbol{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}} \dot{\theta}_{1}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{1}}{\partial \theta_{2}} \dot{\theta}_{2} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{1}}{\partial \theta_{2}} \dot{\theta}_{1}+\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}}-\frac{\partial \Theta_{12}}{\partial \theta_{2}}\right) \dot{\theta}_{2} \\
\left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{1}}{\partial \theta_{2}}-\frac{\partial \Theta_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right) \dot{\theta}_{1}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}} \dot{\theta}_{2} & \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}} \dot{\theta}_{1}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \Theta_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}} \dot{\theta}_{2}
\end{array}\right)  \tag{14}\\
\boldsymbol{g}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial P}{\partial \theta_{1}} & \left.\frac{\partial P}{\partial \theta_{2}}\right)
\end{array}\right) \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

with $\Theta_{1}, \Theta_{12}$ and $\Theta_{2}$ are given by:

$$
\begin{align*}
\Theta_{1}= & m_{1}\left(\left(\frac{\partial X_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial Y_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}\right)+m_{c}\left(\left(\frac{\partial X_{c}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial Y_{c}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}\right)  \tag{16}\\
& +m_{2}\left(\left(\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}}\right)^{2}\right)  \tag{17}\\
\Theta_{12}= & m_{2}\left(\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}} \frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}}+\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}} \frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}}\right)  \tag{18}\\
\Theta_{2}= & m_{2}\left(\left(\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}}\right)^{2}\right) \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

$P$ being the potential energy given in the appendix Equation (34) and the coordinates for each point mass $\left[X_{1}, Y_{1}\right],\left[X_{2}, Y_{2}\right] \&\left[X_{c}, Y_{c}\right]$ in Equations (35)-(40).

### 2.5. The double support transition phase

The walker has rigid, non-elastic legs so there is assumed to be a completely non-elastic collision at heel strike. The contact made with the floor with the swinging leg results in an instantaneous impact with no slipping. As the body configuration remains unchanged during impact:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\theta}^{+}=\boldsymbol{J} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{-} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where he superscripts ${ }^{-}$and ${ }^{+}$indicate respectively pre-impact and post-impact variables and the matrix $\boldsymbol{J}$ for each model is found in the appendix. Conservation of angular momentum leads to the condition:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{+}=\frac{\boldsymbol{Q}^{-}(\theta)}{\boldsymbol{Q}^{+}(\theta)} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the matrixes for $\boldsymbol{Q}^{-}$and $\boldsymbol{Q}^{+}$given in Appendix B.2. The point model uses the same mathematics as the rolling contact, however the hindfoot and forefoot lengths are set to 0 . This means that with no foot contact the walker rotates around a pivot point at the 'ankle'..

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Rolling disk verification for the collisional model

The drawbacks of discretizing the rolling contact is that this approach is unable to conserve mechanical energy through the infinitesimal jumps that occur as the walker rolls over from one pivot point to another throughout the swing phase. However, with a large number of points on a curve, the mechanical losses can be negligible, represented with the case of a ball rolling down a slope (Fig. 4). A circular disk is represented as a concave polygon with a large number of corners or pivot-points and set to roll down a slope, where NP is the number of pivot points. The analytical equation for acceleration is $g \sin (\alpha)$, with $\alpha$ being the angle of slope. An average walking step takes around $0.6-0.7 \mathrm{~s}$, while the rolling disk solution gives good results up to 4 seconds with NP=7962. The method described in Section 2.4 is computationally more efficient an provides more accurate results by conserving mechanical energy throughout the swing phase. Hence, it will give a greater insight into the dynamics of bipedal locomotion.

(a) Circular disk represented as a concave polygon with NP corners. Each corner is said to be a 'pivot point' for the collisional model.

(b) Results for the collisional contact model for a rolling disk on an inclined surface of $4^{\circ}$.

Figure 4: Rolling disk is discretized into NP points with a completely inelastic transfer collision occuring at each pivot point

### 3.2. Comparing one walking step

The parameters for the model can be non-dimensionalised in order to reduce the number of free parameters. A mass ratio is defined as the ratio of hip mass, $m_{H}$ to leg mass, $m$, while a length ratio is the ratio of upper leg length, $b$, to lower leg length, $a$ (refer to Fig. 2a). Roll-over gain is defined in

Equation 1 and represents curvature of the foot. Physiological values for the three point masses can be used by inspecting body dimensions and centre of mass locations for the legs. The Naval Biodynamics Laboratory [15] yield a mass and length ratio of 3.5822 and 0.6 respectively. The walking incline is set to $2^{\circ}$ to give a good steady walking speed for all models. The foot contact for the discrete and smooth rolling contact models have a roll-over gain, $r$, of 1.2 as in Eqn. 1. The hindfoot length is 6.2 cm and forefoot length 17.8 cm . The collisional model has 3400 points distributed along the foot. By using exactly the same model parameters and initial conditions, we can evaluate the results at the evolution of one walking step. Values are converted from the coordinate system defined in Fig. 3 into coordinates as in Fig. 2a in order to compare the two models. The smooth rolling contact is completely conservative during the swing phase, while the collisional contact has a difference in energy of $0.14 \%$ as shown in Figure 5a. Figure 5b proves that loss of this energy is related to the length of the foot. Figure 6 shows the difference in angular displacements and velocities, $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and $\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$. Although the rolling disk in Section 3.1 showed negligible divergence at 0.7 seconds, there appears to be some divergence during rolling contact in a walking model. The swing leg diverges, while the stance leg seems to remain. As this system is a double inverted pendulum, it is likely that the swing leg mass it is sensitive to even the slightest perturbation.

(a) Mechanical energy difference in stance phase time with physiological values. Hindfoot length of 0.062 m and a forefoot length of 0.178 m . Mechanical Energy at the initial start is 698.23 J

(b) Mechanical losses from the rolling contact model at increasing foot lengths. Foot has a gain of 1.2 and is symmetric at the ankle joint.

Figure 5: Mechanical Energy difference with the collisional and rolling contact models. The blue line shows the mechanical energy difference in the collisional model, while the red line shows that the analytical solution has constant mechanical energy throughout the stance phase.

### 3.3. Bifurcation diagrams

Bifurcation diagrams can be used to show gait factors such as inter-leg angle, step period and average velocity as a function of model parameters. The walker is set in motion for 40 steps, at which point it is assumed to be stable and values for the next 10 steps are plotted. Bifurcation diagrams show certain behaviour such as periodic asymmetric walking that leads to chaotic behaviour. Parameters of a robot walker can include slope angle, mass ratios and leg length ratios, while different curvatures for the feet can also be compared to see how this effects the dynamics of human locomotion. The bifurcation diagrams outlined in Figure 7 show the evolution of step period and inter-leg angle as a function of slope angle. The model parameters are the same as in Section 3.2. From the following figures it can


Figure 6: Angular displacement and velocity variation at one walking step with the same initial conditions. The blue dotted line is the collision model, red is rolling contact model.
be seen that the collisional model enters the chaotic region at shallower inclines. In a passive biped walker, the slope angle is increased in order to increase the potential energy at each walking step to offset the energy lost at heel strike. With the multiple collisional model, an increased amount of energy is lost during the swing phase as the model rolls along the foot contact. This is different to the point foot and smooth rolling models in which mechanical energy is completely conserved during the swing phase.


Figure 7: Bifurcation diagrams for inter-leg angle and step period for stable walking at steps 40-50. The black dots are for the point foot model, the blue represents collisional rolling and red shows the smooth rolling contact model

### 3.4. Basin of Attraction

At heel strike, there are 3 initial conditions that can have an effect on the stability of the walker; angle between the legs, $\theta_{2}$ and the angular velocities of both legs, $\dot{\theta}_{1} \& \dot{\theta}_{2}$. Studying the basin of attraction


Figure 8: Average walking speed at a given slope angle for the point foot model (black) and with physiological foot contact (red)


Figure 9: Basin of Attraction for the pivot point (green, dotted), rolling collision (blue, normal line) and smooth rolling (red, dashed) contact models
will give us a good indication of the stability of a walker [17]. The walker is set to walk with a set of initial conditions up to 50 steps. If the walker manages to reach 50 steps, the walker is said to be stable and that set of initial conditions lies inside the basin of attraction. Figure 9 shows the boundaries of basin of attraction comparison to show the robustness of the walker at a range of initial conditions. In simple terms, a greater area of basin of attraction shows that the walker will be less likely to fall over due to perturbations. As the collision model has a slow running time, calculation of the basin of attraction can take a very long time.

## 4. Discussion of results

The point foot model is usually used as a simplification for bipedal walking, however there can be seen to be a large difference in gait descriptors at a given slope angle. Using a roll-over shape can give better walking speed without going into the chaotic region (Fig. 8). A physiological walking speed is said to be around $1.4 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$. Although with a roll-over gain, $r$, of 1.2 the average velocity is $1.25 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ before bifurcating, for passive walking this is a great improvement from $0.95 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$ for the point foot model. Differences between the collisional and smooth rolling models is due to the error in mechanical energy
at the collisions of each pivot point in the swing phase. Although the difference should be negligible as in the rolling disk benchmark in Section 3.1, the actual deviation is noticeable. It should be noted that the double inverted pendulum mechanics is a chaotic system, so a small deviation from one walking step could possibly lead to a greater difference at stable walking or up to a convergence at around $20-50$ walking steps. An important aspect of the mechanical system is the point at which bifurcation occurs. In further work, it will be interesting to compare both models until the transition to a chaotic region. The basin of attraction plots (Fig. 9) show the robustness of using smooth rolling contact over the point foot or the collisional model. The smooth rolling contact model has maximum overlapping area with the other two models. However, the basin of attraction area is different for each model. This reinforces the importance of the hypothesis that the smooth rolling contact should be preferred over collisional and point foot models. Before the bifurcation region both models are comparable, however computationally the smooth rolling model is approximately 60 times faster. This substantial increase in speed is particularly advantageous when performing basin of attraction work, in which computational times are demanding.

## 5. Conclusions

The point foot single mass model is usually preferred for its simplicity. However, we believe it is worth adapting the point model to include rolling contact in order to make the results more accurate without needing to increase the number of DoF. The rolling contact gives a better estimation for the trajectory of CoM and hence can more accurately predict the dynamics of human walking. Using rolling contact also increases the stability (Fig. 9) and average walking velocity for a given slope angle (Fig. 8). Using multiple collisions to simulate rolling contact seemed to yield accurate results with a very large number of pivot points on a rolling disk, however incorporated into the double pendulum mechanics it makes a much larger difference with the swing leg. This leads to differences on the time of heel-strike, in addition to step length and touch-down velocity. An analytical approach for modelling a rolling contact in a biped walker with a roll-over shape has been presented and compared with collisional rolling and point foot model. This approach conserves mechanical energy throughout the stance phase and can be used to more accurately predict gait descriptors such as average velocity, step period, mechanical energy and inter-leg angle for different gain and length values for the feet, as well as different mass and length ratios. This is particularly useful when incorporating roll-over shapes obtained experiments of the human system. This study has shown insight into the fact that even a negligible deviation in mechanical energy can have a great effect on the double inverted pendulum dynamics. Future passive walking systems should consider using the roll-over shape to more accurately predict the trajectory of hip mass without increasing the number of DoF in a system. The next task is to compare results with unbalanced mass distributions in order to explore prosthetic design applications such as the work by Mahmoodi et al. [12]. Future work can also include adding a linear or torsional spring in order to emulate the muscle contractions in human walking and compare the ground reaction forces with experimental data [9] [6]. This research is not only useful in order to improve stability and correct gait for the design of prosthetic feet, but also for rehabilitative devices such as ankle-foot orthoses [16] [12].

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## Disclosure Statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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## A. Collisional rolling model mechanics

A.1. Derivation of Equation $3\left(M^{i}(\theta) \ddot{\theta}+N^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta}) \dot{\theta}+g^{i}(\theta)=0\right)$ using the Euler-Langrangian approach for the single support phase
The Euler-Lagrange equation for each pivot point of the concave polygon, $i$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{\partial L^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})}{\partial \dot{\theta}}\right)-\frac{\partial L^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})}{\partial \theta}=0, \quad \quad L^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})=K^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})-P^{i}(\theta) \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Kinetic energy $K^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})$ and potential energy $P^{i}(\theta)$ are given by:

$$
\begin{gather*}
K^{i}(\theta, \dot{\theta})=\frac{1}{2} m_{H}\left\|\vec{v}_{H}\right\|^{2}+\frac{1}{2} m_{s}\left\|\vec{v}_{s}\right\|^{2}+\frac{1}{2} m_{n s}\left\|\vec{v}_{n s}\right\|^{2}  \tag{23}\\
P^{i}(\theta)=-m_{H} g l_{v s}^{i} \cos \theta_{v s}-m_{s} g a_{v s}^{i} \cos \theta_{v s l}-m_{n s} g\left(l_{v s}^{i} \cos \theta_{v s}-c \cos \theta_{n s}\right) \tag{24}
\end{gather*}
$$

and the velocities of each point mass are given by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \overrightarrow{v_{H}}=l_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \cos \theta_{v s} \vec{i}+l_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \sin \theta_{v s} \vec{j} \\
& \overrightarrow{v_{s}}=a_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \cos \theta_{v s l} \vec{i}+a_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \sin \theta_{v s l} \vec{j}  \tag{25}\\
& \overrightarrow{v_{n s}}=\left(l_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \cos \theta_{v s}-c \dot{\theta}_{n s} \cos \theta_{n s}\right) \vec{i}+\left(l_{v s} \dot{\theta}_{s} \sin \theta_{v s}-c \dot{\theta}_{n s} \sin \theta_{n s}\right) \vec{j}
\end{align*}
$$

## A.2. The double-support phase momentum transfer

An instantaneous impact for the double support transition occurs in all models. The double support phase for the collisional model has been derived from Mahmoodi et al. [12] and is as follows: The matrix $\boldsymbol{J}$ in Equation (20) takes the form

$$
\begin{gather*}
\boldsymbol{J}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]  \tag{26}\\
\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{1+}=\frac{\boldsymbol{H}^{1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\boldsymbol{H}_{d}^{1}} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{1-} \tag{27}
\end{gather*}
$$

where elements of $\boldsymbol{H}^{1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$
\begin{gather*}
H_{11}^{1}=m_{H} m_{s} b^{2} l_{l v s}^{e-} l_{v v}^{1+} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{-}-\theta_{v s}^{+}\right)+m_{s}^{2} b^{2} l_{l v s}^{1+} a_{v s}^{e-} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{v s l}^{-}\right) \\
+m_{s} m_{n s} b^{2} l_{v s}^{e} a_{v s}^{1+} \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{v s}^{-}\right) \\
-m_{s}^{2} b^{2} l_{v s}^{+} a_{v s}^{e-} \cos \left(\theta_{n s}^{+}-\theta_{v s l}^{-}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right) \\
H_{12}^{1}=-m_{s} m_{n s} b^{2} c a_{v s}^{1+} \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{-}\right) \tag{28}
\end{gather*}
$$

$$
\begin{gather*}
H_{21}^{1}=m_{s} m_{H} b l_{v l}^{e-} l_{v s}^{1+2} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{-}-\theta_{v s}^{+}\right) \\
+m_{s}^{2} b a_{v s}^{e-} l_{v s}^{1+2} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{v s l}^{-}\right) \\
+m_{s} m_{n s} b l_{v s}^{-} l_{v s}^{1+} a_{v s}^{1+} \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{v s}^{-}\right)  \tag{29}\\
-m_{s} m_{H} b a_{v s}^{e-} l_{v s}^{1+2} \cos \left(\theta_{n s}^{+}-\theta_{v v l}^{-}\right) \\
-m_{s} m_{n s} b a_{v s}^{e-} a_{v s}^{1+2} \cos \left(\theta_{n s}^{+}-\theta_{v s l}^{-}\right)-m_{s}^{2} b a_{v s}^{e-} l_{v s}^{1+2} \cos \left(\theta_{n s}^{+}-\theta_{v s l}^{-}\right) \\
H_{22}^{1}=-m_{s} m_{n s} b c l_{v s}^{1+} a_{v s}^{1+} \cos \left(\theta_{v s l}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{-}\right) \cos \left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right)  \tag{30}\\
H_{d}^{1}=m_{s} b^{2}\left(m_{H} l_{v s}^{1+2}+m_{s} l_{v s}^{1+2}+m_{n s} a_{v s}^{1+2}-m_{s} l_{v s}^{1+2} \cos ^{2}\left(\theta_{v s}^{+}-\theta_{n s}^{+}\right)\right) \tag{31}
\end{gather*}
$$

and $e$ represents the $e$ th pivot point.

## B. Mathematical derivation of smooth rolling contact method outlined in Section 2.4.

## B.1. Swing phase mechanics

The planar double-pendulum equations is adapted to include roll-over support for the foot contact. Its dynamical equations are derived from the Euler-Lagrange approach:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}\right)-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}=0 \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ is the difference between kinetic and potential energies $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})=$ $K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})-P(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})=\frac{1}{2} m_{H}\left|\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{H}\right|^{2}+\frac{1}{2} m_{s}\left|\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{s}\right|^{2}+\frac{1}{2} m_{n s}\left|\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{n s}\right|^{2} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the ground plane is at an angle, $\alpha$, with the horizontal plane ( $\alpha<0$ if walking downhill as in Fig. $2 b)$ then the potential energy can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(\boldsymbol{\theta})=m_{H} g\left(X_{H} \sin \alpha+Y_{H} \cos \alpha\right)+m_{s} g\left(X_{s} \sin \alpha+Y_{s} \cos \alpha\right)+m_{n s} g\left(X_{n s} \sin \alpha+Y_{n s} \cos \alpha\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let point mass $m_{1}$ be located in point $\mathbf{P}_{1}$ having fixed co-ordinates $\left[x_{1}, y_{1}\right]$ in the $\{x, y\}$ reference frame and point mass $m_{2}$ be located in point $\mathbf{P}_{2}$ having fixed co-ordinates $\left[x_{2}^{n s}, y_{2}^{n s}\right]$ in the $\left\{x^{n s}, y^{n s}\right\}$ reference frame. Also the third mass $m_{c}$ is located in hip joint at the centre of rotation between $\{x, y\}$ and $\left\{x^{n s}, y^{n s}\right\}$ reference frames and having the same co-ordinates, $\left\{x_{c}, y_{c}\right\}$ in the both frames.
The vectors are given by:

$$
\begin{align*}
\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{H} & =\dot{X}_{H} \vec{\imath}+\dot{Y}_{H} \vec{\jmath}  \tag{35}\\
\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{s} & =\dot{X}_{s} \vec{l}+\dot{Y}_{s} \vec{\jmath}  \tag{36}\\
\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{v}}_{n s} & =\dot{X}_{n s} \vec{l}+\dot{Y}_{n s} \vec{\jmath} \tag{37}
\end{align*}
$$

With the coordinates,

$$
\begin{align*}
X_{1}\left(\theta_{1}\right) & =\left(x_{1}-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \theta_{1}+\left(y_{1}-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \left(\theta_{1}\right)+s\left(\theta_{1}\right) \\
Y_{1}\left(\theta_{1}\right) & =-\left(x_{1}-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \theta_{1}+\left(y_{1}-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right)  \tag{38}\\
X_{c}\left(\theta_{1}\right) & =\left(x_{c}-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \theta_{1}+\left(y_{c}-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \left(\theta_{1}\right)+s\left(\theta_{1}\right) \\
Y_{c}\left(\theta_{1}\right) & =-\left(x_{c}-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \theta_{1}+\left(y_{c}-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \left(\theta_{1}\right) \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

where functions $x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)$ and $y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)$ are defined previously (insert ref). Also for the swinging leg

$$
\begin{align*}
& X_{2}\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right)=\left(x_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \theta_{1}+\left(y_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \theta_{1}+s\left(\theta_{1}\right) \\
& Y_{2}\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}\right)=-\left(x_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)-x_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \sin \theta_{1}+\left(y_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)-y_{\theta}\left(\theta_{1}\right)\right) \cos \theta_{1} \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\left[x_{2}, y_{2}\right]$ are coordinates of point $\mathbf{P}_{2}$ in the $\{x, y\}$ reference frame:

$$
\begin{align*}
& x_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)=\left(x_{2}^{n s}-x_{c}\right) \cos \theta_{2}+\left(y_{2}^{n s}-y_{c}\right) \sin \theta_{2}+x_{c} \\
& y_{2}\left(\theta_{2}\right)=-\left(x_{2}^{n s}-x_{c}\right) \sin \theta_{2}+\left(y_{2}^{n s}-y_{c}\right) \cos \theta_{2}+y_{c} \tag{41}
\end{align*}
$$

Inserting equations 35,36 and 37 into $33, K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ can be rewritten as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
K(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}})=\frac{1}{2} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{T} \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Which is comparable to the well-known double pendulum equations with the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \ddot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\boldsymbol{N}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{\theta})=0 \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

## B.2. Double-support phase for the smooth contact model

Section 2.5 outlines the double support phase: At post impact the leading becomes the swinging leg and the trailing leg becomes the stance leg. This leads to the equation

$$
\boldsymbol{J}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1  \tag{44}\\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{Q}^{-} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-}=\mathbf{Q}^{+} \dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{+} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the matrix $\mathbf{Q}^{-}$consists of

$$
\begin{align*}
Q_{11}^{-} & =m_{H}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{H}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}}\left(X_{H}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{H}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}} Y_{H}\right) \\
& \left.+m_{1}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}}\left(X_{1}^{+}-s^{+}\right)\right)-\frac{\partial X_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}} Y_{1}\right)  \tag{46}\\
& +m_{2}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}}\left(X_{2}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}} Y_{2}\right) \\
Q_{12}^{-} & =m_{2}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{-}}\left(X_{H}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{-}} Y_{2}\right)  \tag{47}\\
Q_{21}^{-} & =m_{1}\left(X_{c} \vec{X}_{1 p r e} \frac{\partial Y_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}}-Y_{c} \vec{Y}_{1 p r e} \frac{\partial X_{1}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{-}}\right)  \tag{48}\\
Q_{22}^{-} & =0 \tag{49}
\end{align*}
$$

and the matrix for post-impact, $\mathbf{Q}^{+}$:

$$
\begin{align*}
Q_{11}^{+} & =m_{H}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{H}^{+}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}}\left(X_{H}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{H}^{+}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}} Y_{H}^{+}\right) \\
& +m_{1}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{1}^{+}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}}\left(X_{1}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{1}^{+}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}} Y_{1}\right)  \tag{50}\\
& +m_{2}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}}\left(X_{2}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}} Y_{c}\right) \\
Q_{12}^{+} & =m_{1}\left(\frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{+}}\left(X_{2}^{+}-s^{+}\right)-\frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{+}} Y_{2}\right)  \tag{51}\\
Q_{21}^{+} & =m_{1}\left(X_{c} X_{1 \text { post }} \frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}}-Y_{c} \vec{Y}_{1 \text { post }} \frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{1}^{+}}\right)  \tag{52}\\
Q_{22}^{+} & =m_{1}\left(X_{c} X_{1 \text { post }} \frac{\partial Y_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{+}}-Y_{c} \vec{Y}_{1_{\text {post }}} \frac{\partial X_{2}}{\partial \theta_{2}^{+}}\right) \tag{53}
\end{align*}
$$

