

Lecture 7. Representing Rotation

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Mechanics of Manipulation
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Kinematic
representation:
goals, overview

Planar
displacements

Spatial rotations

Preview

Axis-angle

Rodrigues's formula

Rotation matrices

Euler angles

Today's outline

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Readings, etc.

- ▶ We are starting chapter 3 of the text
- ▶ Lots of stuff online on representing rotations
- ▶ Murray, Li, and Sastry for matrix exponential
- ▶ Roth, Crenshaw, Ohwovoriole, Salamin, all cited in text

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Analytic geometry

So far, Euclidean geometry. Why?

- ▶ Insight
- ▶ Visualization
- ▶ Economy of expression

Now Cartesian, analytic geometry. Why?

- ▶ Beyond 2D, beyond 3D. We need to work with high dimensional configuration spaces!
- ▶ For implementation
- ▶ For additional insight

The best of all possible worlds: use both. Understand geometrical or physical meaning for all terms.

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Agenda for kinematic representation

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Following the kinematic agenda:

- ▶ Planar displacements
- ▶ Spherical displacements
- ▶ Spatial displacements
- ▶ Constraints

Representing planar displacements

Obvious idea 1

- ▶ Displacement is rotation or translation
- ▶ Choose a coordinate frame (O, \hat{x}, \hat{y})
- ▶ For rotation, (center, angle), i.e. $((x, y), \theta)$
- ▶ For translation, (Δ_x, Δ_y)
- ▶ Ugly

Obvious idea 2

- ▶ Given O , displacement is rotation about O ;
translation
- ▶ Choose a coordinate frame (O, \hat{x}, \hat{y})
- ▶ $(\Delta_x, \Delta_y, \theta)$

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What are representations for?

- ▶ Obvious ideas didn't yield homogeneous coordinate transform matrices?
- ▶ We didn't consider all the uses of representations!

Uses of representations

- ▶ Communicate with humans and computers
- ▶ Operate on points, lines and stuff
- ▶ Compose
- ▶ Sample, interpolate, average, smooth
- ▶ Differentiate, integrate

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Operating on stuff

- ▶ $(\Delta_x, \Delta_y, \theta)$ is good for communication. How would you operate on points? Composition? Averaging? Sampling?
- ▶ To operate on points:
 - ▶ Represent points by Cartesian coordinates: (x, y)
 - ▶ Rotate using rotation matrix
 - ▶ Translate using component-wise addition
 - ▶ Tidy it up using homogeneous coordinates
 - ▶ We will revisit later

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Why representing rotations is hard.

- ▶ Rotations do not commute. Vectors are out.
- ▶ For computation we like to represent things with real numbers, so our representations all live in \mathbb{R}^n .
- ▶ Even though $SO(3)$ is a three-dimensional space, it has the topology of projective three space \mathbb{P}^3 , which cannot be smoothly mapped to \mathbb{R}^3 .
- ▶ *And*, we have lots of different applications, with different requirements: communication, operating on things, composition, interpolation, etc.

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- ▶ **Axis-angle**
 - ▶ Good for communication, geometrical insight
- ▶ **Rotation matrices**
 - ▶ Good for operating on stuff, composition, analytical insight
- ▶ **Unit quaternions (aka Euler parameters)**
 - ▶ Good for composition, analytical insight, sampling
- ▶ **Euler angles**
 - ▶ Good for communication, geometrical insight

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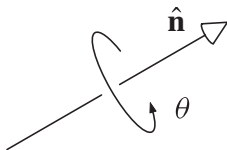
Rotation matrices

Euler angles

Axis-angle

Euler's theorem: every spatial rotation has a rotation axis.

- ▶ Let O , $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, θ , be ...
- ▶ Let $\text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta)$ be the corresponding rotation.
- ▶ Many to one:
 - ▶ $\text{rot}(-\hat{\mathbf{n}}, -\theta) = \text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta)$
 - ▶ $\text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta + 2k\pi) = \text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta)$, for any integer k .
 - ▶ So, restrict θ to $[0, \pi]$. But not smooth at the edges.
 - ▶ When $\theta = 0$, the rotation axis is indeterminate, giving an infinity-to-one mapping.
 - ▶ Again you can fix by adopting a convention for $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, but result is not smooth.
 - ▶ (Or, what about using the product, $\theta\hat{\mathbf{n}}$? Later.)



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What do we want from axis-angle?

- ▶ Operate on points
 - ▶ Rodrigues's formula
- ▶ Compose rotations, average, interpolate, sampling, ...?
 - ▶ Not using axis-angle
- ▶ Convert to other representations? There aren't any yet. But, later we will use axis-angle *big time*. It's very close to *quaternions*.

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- ▶ Choose O on rotation axis. Choose frame $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3)$.
- ▶ Let $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3)$ be the image of that frame.
- ▶ Write the $\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_i$ vectors in $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_j$ coordinates, and collect them in a matrix:

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{32} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{13} \\ a_{23} \\ a_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 \\ \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3 \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = (a_{ij}) = (\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 | \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 | \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3)$$

So many numbers!

- ▶ A rotation matrix has nine numbers,
- ▶ but spatial rotations have only three degrees of freedom,
- ▶ leaving six excess numbers . . .
- ▶ There are six constraints that hold among the nine numbers.

$$|\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1| = |\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2| = |\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3| = 1$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 = \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 \times \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2$$

- ▶ *i.e.* the $\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_i$ are unit vectors forming a right-handed coordinate system.
- ▶ Such matrices are called *orthonormal* or *rotation* matrices.

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Rotating a point

- ▶ Let (x_1, x_2, x_3) be coordinates of \mathbf{x} in frame $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3)$.
- ▶ Then \mathbf{x}' is given by the same coordinates taken in the $(\hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2, \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3)$ frame:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}' &= x_1 \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_1 + x_2 \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_2 + x_3 \hat{\mathbf{u}}'_3 \\ &= x_1 A \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 + x_2 A \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2 + x_3 A \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3 \\ &= A(x_1 \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 + x_2 \hat{\mathbf{u}}_2 + x_3 \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3) \\ &= A\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ So rotating a point is implemented by ordinary matrix multiplication.

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Sub- and superscript notation for rotating a point

- ▶ Let A and B be coordinate frames.
- ▶ Let ${}^A\mathbf{x}$ be coordinates in frame A .
- ▶ Let ${}^B_A R$ be the rotation matrix that rotates frame B to frame A .
- ▶ Then (see previous slide) ${}^B_A R$ represents the rotation of the point x :

$${}^B\mathbf{x}' = {}^B_A R {}^B\mathbf{x}$$

- ▶ Note presuperscripts all match. Both points, and xform, must be written in same coordinate frame.

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Coordinate transform

There is another use for ${}^B R_A$:

- ▶ ${}^A \mathbf{x}$ and ${}^B \mathbf{x}$ represent the same point, in frames A and B resp.
- ▶ To transform from A to B :

$${}^B \mathbf{x} = {}^B R_A {}^A \mathbf{x}$$

- ▶ For coord xform, matrix subscript and vector superscript “cancel”.

Rotation from B to A is the same as coordinate transform from A to B .

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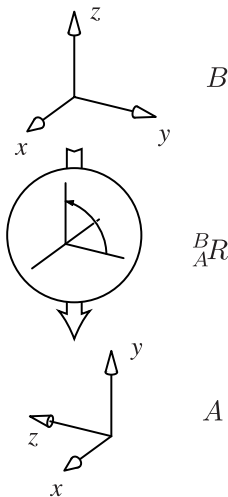
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Example rotation matrix

$$\begin{aligned} {}^B_A R &= ({}^B \mathbf{x}_A \mid {}^B \mathbf{y}_A \mid {}^B \mathbf{z}_A) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

How to remember what ${}^B_A R$ does? Pick a coordinate axis and see. The x axis isn't very interesting, so try y :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



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Nice things about rotation matrices

- ▶ Composition of rotations: $\{R_1; R_2\} = R_2 R_1$.
($\{x; y\}$ means do x then do y .)
- ▶ Inverse of rotation matrix is its transpose
 ${}^B R_A^{-1} = {}^A R_B = {}^B R_A^T$.
- ▶ Coordinate xform of a rotation matrix:

$${}^B R = {}^B R_A {}^A R_B$$

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Converting $\text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta)$ to R

- ▶ Ugly way: define frame with $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ aligned with $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, use coordinate xform of previous slide.
- ▶ Keen way: Rodrigues's formula!

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} + (\sin \theta) \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x} + (1 - \cos \theta) \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times (\hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x})$$

- ▶ Define “cross product matrix” N :

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & 0 & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

so that

$$N\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x}$$

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... using Rodrigues's formula ...

- ▶ Substituting the cross product matrix N into Rodrigues's formula:

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} + (\sin \theta)N\mathbf{x} + (1 - \cos \theta)N^2\mathbf{x}$$

- ▶ Factoring out \mathbf{x}

$$R = I + (\sin \theta)N + (1 - \cos \theta)N^2$$

- ▶ That's it! Rodrigues's formula in matrix form. If you want to you could expand it:

$$\begin{pmatrix} n_1^2 + (1 - n_1^2)c\theta & n_1 n_2(1 - c\theta) - n_3 s\theta & n_1 n_3(1 - c\theta) + n_2 s\theta \\ n_1 n_2(1 - c\theta) + n_3 s\theta & n_2^2 + (1 - n_2^2)c\theta & n_2 n_3(1 - c\theta) - n_1 s\theta \\ n_1 n_3(1 - c\theta) - n_2 s\theta & n_2 n_3(1 - c\theta) + n_1 s\theta & n_3^2 + (1 - n_3^2)c\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

where $c\theta = \cos \theta$ and $s\theta = \sin \theta$. Ugly.

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Rodrigues's formula for differential rotations

Consider Rodrigues's formula for a differential rotation $\text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, d\theta)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}' &= (I + \sin d\theta N + (1 - \cos d\theta)N^2)\mathbf{x} \\ &= (I + d\theta N)\mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}d\mathbf{x} &= N\mathbf{x} d\theta \\ &= \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x} d\theta\end{aligned}$$

It follows easily that differential rotations are vectors: you can scale them and add them up. We adopt the convention of representing angular velocity by the unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ times the angular velocity.

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Converting from R to $\text{rot}(\hat{\mathbf{n}}, \theta) \dots$

- ▶ Problem: $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ isn't defined for $\theta = 0$.
- ▶ We will do it indirectly. Convert R to a unit quaternion (next lecture), then to axis-angle.

Converting from Euler angles to rotation matrices

notation

- ▶ Define frames $\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}$ so that
- ▶ $\text{rot}(\alpha, \hat{\mathbf{z}})$ maps $\{0\}$ to $\{1\}$, etc.,
- ▶ As before ${}^i_j R$ is the rotation matrix rotating frame $\{i\}$ to frame $\{j\}$, written in frame $\{i\}$ coordinates.
- ▶ Let ${}^k(i)R$ be the same matrix, written in frame $\{k\}$ coordinates.
- ▶ Then the correct sequence, written in a common coordinate frame, would be

$${}^0_3 R = {}^0_3 R {}^0_2 R {}^0_1 R$$

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Moving frame versus fixed frame

Switch to moving frame

- ▶ Use the coordinate transform of a matrix formula:

$$\begin{aligned} {}^0_3R &= {}^0({}_3^2R) {}^0({}_2^1R) {}^0_1R \\ &= ({}^0_2R {}^2_3R {}^2_0R) ({}^0_1R {}^1_2R {}^1_0R) {}^0_1R \\ &= {}^0_1R {}^1_2R {}^2_3R \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ *Wow!* You can switch between moving frame and fixed frame, if you also switch the order!
- ▶ You could also have derived the above, just by interpreting 0_3R as a coordinate transform.

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From (α, β, γ) to R

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$$\begin{aligned} {}^0_3R &= {}^0_1R {}^1_2R {}^2_3R \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} c\alpha & -s\alpha & 0 \\ s\alpha & c\alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c\beta & 0 & s\beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s\beta & 0 & c\beta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c\gamma & -s\gamma & 0 \\ s\gamma & c\gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} c\alpha c\beta c\gamma - s\alpha s\gamma & -c\alpha c\beta s\gamma - s\alpha c\gamma & c\alpha s\beta \\ s\alpha c\beta c\gamma + c\alpha s\gamma & -s\alpha c\beta s\gamma + c\alpha c\gamma & s\alpha s\beta \\ -s\beta c\gamma & s\beta s\gamma & c\beta \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

From R to (α, β, γ) the ugly way

- ▶ Case 1: $r_{33} = 1, \beta = 0$. $\alpha - \gamma$ is indeterminate.

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \gamma) & -\sin(\alpha + \gamma) & 0 \\ \sin(\alpha + \gamma) & \cos(\alpha + \gamma) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ Case 2: $r_{33} = -1, \beta = \pi$ or $-\pi$. $\alpha + \gamma$ is indeterminate.

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} -\cos(\alpha - \gamma) & -\sin(\alpha - \gamma) & 0 \\ -\sin(\alpha - \gamma) & \cos(\alpha - \gamma) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ For generic case: solve 3rd column for β . (Sign is free choice.) Solve third column for α and third row for γ .
- ▶ ... but there are numerical issues ...

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From R to (α, β, γ) the clean way

- ▶ Let

$$\sigma = \alpha + \gamma$$

$$\delta = \alpha - \gamma$$

- ▶ Then

$$r_{22} + r_{11} = \cos \sigma (1 + \cos \beta)$$

$$r_{22} - r_{11} = \cos \delta (1 - \cos \beta)$$

$$r_{21} + r_{12} = \sin \delta (1 - \cos \beta)$$

$$r_{21} - r_{12} = \sin \sigma (1 + \cos \beta)$$

(No special cases for $\cos \beta = \pm 1$?)

- ▶ Solve for σ and δ , then for α and γ , then finally

$$\beta = \tan^{-1}(r_{13} \cos \alpha + r_{23} \sin \alpha, r_{33})$$

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But what about $\sin \beta = 0$?

- ▶ How can this method work without explicitly addressing the singularity?
- ▶ When $\beta = 0$, σ is determined and δ is not. When $\beta = \pi$, δ is determined and σ is not.
- ▶ If your \tan^{-1} handles $(0, 0)$, you can just let it go!

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