ME 599/699 Robot Modeling & Control Fall 2021

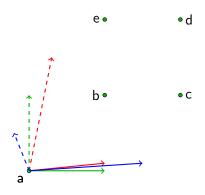
Homogenous Coordinate Transformations

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Same Vector Space, Different Bases



A basis and an origin together form a **coordinate frame** or **reference frame**.

Change Of Basis

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Let A, B, C, \ldots be different coordinate frames.

A point p then has coordinates p^A , p^B , p^C ... corresponding to each basis.

Given p^A , what is p^B , or p^C ?

Answer:

$$p^B = \left(T_B^A\right)^{-1} p^A,$$

where

$$\mathcal{T}_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} \left(e_B^1\right)^A & \left(e_B^2\right)^A & \cdots & \left(e_B^n\right)^A \end{bmatrix},$$

and $(e_B^i)^A$ is the coordinates in frame A of the i^{th} basis vector of frame B.

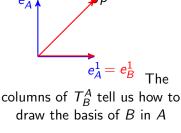
Example

Problem: Find p^B if $p^A = (1,1)$. **Solution:** From the diagram.

$$e_B^1 = e_A^1$$
 $e_B^2 = e_A^1 + e_A^2$
 $\Longrightarrow T_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Apply the formula:

$$p^{B} = \left(T_{B}^{A}\right)^{-1} p^{A}$$
$$= T_{A}^{B} p^{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Full derivation:

The vector e_B^i has coordinates $(e_B^i)^A = (T_{1i}, T_{2i}, \dots, T_{ni})$ in frame A.

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Let the coordinates of p in frame A be $p^A = (\alpha_1^A, \alpha_2^A, \dots, \alpha_n^A)$, so that the point p can be expressed as

$$p \iff \sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{j}^{A} e_{A}^{j}$$

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Note that p is an abstract point equivalent to the coordinate-given combination of the basis $\{e_A^1, e_A^2, \dots, e_A^n\}$.

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Note that p is an abstract point equivalent to the coordinate-given combination of the basis $\{e_A^1, e_A^2, \dots, e_A^n\}$.

Similarly, if $p^B = (\beta_1^B, \beta_2^B, \dots, \beta_n^B)$, then

$$p \iff \sum_{i}^{n} \beta_{i}^{B} e_{B}^{i}$$

So, we can write

$$e_{B}^{i} = \sum_{i}^{n} T_{ji} e_{A}^{i}; \quad p \iff \sum_{i}^{n} \beta_{i}^{B} e_{B}^{i}; \quad p \iff \sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{j}^{A} e_{A}^{j} \quad (1)$$

So, we can write

$$e_B^i = \sum_{i=1}^n T_{ji} e_A^i; \quad p \iff \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^B e_B^i; \quad p \iff \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_j^A e_A^j$$
 (1)

Combining the first and second equation in (1), we get

$$\rho \iff \sum_{i}^{n} \beta_{i}^{B} e_{B}^{i} = \sum_{i}^{n} \beta_{i}^{B} \left(\sum_{j}^{n} T_{ji} e_{A}^{j} \right) \\
\iff \sum_{j}^{n} \left(\sum_{i}^{n} \left(\beta_{i}^{B} T_{ji} \right) \right) e_{A}^{j} \tag{2}$$

Comparing (2) to the third equation in (1), we get

$$\alpha_j^A = \sum_{i}^{n} \left(\beta_i^B T_{ji} \right).$$

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$$p \iff \begin{bmatrix} e_A^1 & e_A^2 & \cdots & e_A^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1^A \\ \alpha_2^A \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n^A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_B^1 & e_B^2 & \cdots & e_B^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1^B \\ \beta_2^B \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n^B \end{bmatrix}$$

The coordinates of e_B^i in frame A give:

$$e_B^1 = \begin{bmatrix} e_A^1 & \cdots & e_A^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} \\ \vdots \\ T_{n1} \end{bmatrix}, e_B^2 = \begin{bmatrix} e_A^1 & \cdots & e_A^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_{12} \\ \vdots \\ T_{n2} \end{bmatrix}, \dots$$

We can collect these expressions for point e_B^i as

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_B^1 & e_B^2 & \cdots & e_B^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_A^1 & e_A^2 & \cdots & e_A^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \cdots & T_{1n} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \cdots & T_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \cdots & T_{nn} \end{bmatrix},$$

So that

$$\begin{bmatrix} e_{B}^{1} & e_{B}^{2} & \cdots & e_{B}^{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_{1}^{B} \\ \beta_{2}^{B} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{n}^{B} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{A}^{1} & e_{A}^{2} & \cdots & e_{A}^{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \cdots & T_{1n} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \cdots & T_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \cdots & T_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_{1}^{B} \\ \beta_{2}^{B} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{n}^{B} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Since

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} e_A^1 & e_A^2 & \cdots & e_A^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1^A \\ \alpha_2^A \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n^A \end{bmatrix},$$

we find that transforming coordinates is a linear operation represented by matrix operations:

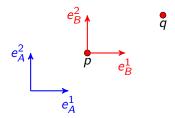
$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1^A \\ \alpha_2^A \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n^A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \cdots & T_{1n} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \cdots & T_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \cdots & T_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1^B \\ \beta_2^B \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n^B \end{bmatrix}$$

More compactly: $p^B = (T_B^A)^{-1} p^A$, where **volume**

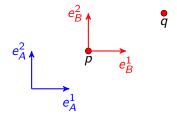
$$T_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} (e_B^1)^A & (e_B^2)^A & \cdots & (e_B^n)^A \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Suppose points p, q have coordinates p^A , q^A in a frame A. Consider frame B whose origin is at p, with the same basis elements for its vector space as the frame A. What is q^B ?

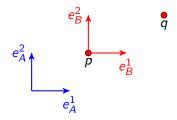


Suppose points p, q have coordinates p^A , q^A in a frame A. Consider frame B whose origin is at p, with the same basis elements for its vector space as the frame A. What is q^B ?



The coordinates of q in frame B is the same as coordinates of the vector v = q - p in the basis common to both frame A and B.

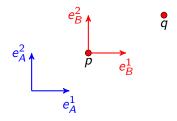
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Precisely because vectors are free, the coordinates of v in frame B will be the same as that in frame A. So, $q^B = q^A - p^A$.

In general, $q^B = q^A - (\text{coordinates of origin of } B \text{ in } A)$

Change Of Frames

Combining previous discussions, we get that to map coordinates from one frame to another we :

- 1. express the coordinates of the basis vectors of one frame in the other (through, say, matrix T_B^A),
- 2. express the coordinates of the origin of one frame in another (through, say coordinate vector o_B^A),
- 3. use the map

$$p^B = \left(T_B^A\right)^{-1} \left(p^A - o_B^A\right)$$

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If all bases for the plane give us two numbers, what's special about a basis where the two elements are at 90 degrees , and have the same 'length'?

Let's reconsider our earlier example:

$$T_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad q^A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies q^B = \left(T_B^A\right)^{-1}q^A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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$$||q^A||_A = \sqrt{2}. ||q^B||_B = 1.$$

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Note that
$$||q^B||_B = ||(T_B^A)^{-1} q^A||_A$$
.

Q: What kinds of matrices preserve the norms of the vectors they act upon?

Special Orthogonal Group in Three Dimensions

if $T_B^A \in SO(3)$, then we'd have norm-preservation.

Definition (SO(3))

The Special Orthogonal Group SO(3) is the set of matrices $R \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ such that

$$R^T R = Id$$
, and $\det R = 1$

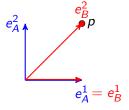
SO(3) is known as the orientation group and the rotation group.

Problem: Find p^B if $p^A = (1,1)$. Solution: From the diagram,

$$egin{aligned} e_B^1 &= e_A^1 \ e_B^2 &= e_A^1 + e_A^2 \ \implies T_B^A &= egin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

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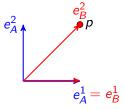
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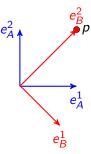
$$\left(T_A^B \right)^T \, T_A^B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$e_B^1 = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}e_A^1 - rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}e_A^2$$
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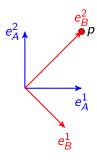
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Not norm-preserving.

$$\left(T_A^B\right)^T T_A^B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.75 & -0.25 \\ -0.25 & 0.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

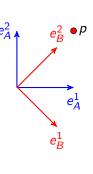
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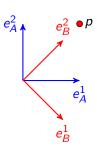
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norm-preserving!

$$\left(T_A^B\right)^T T_A^B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthonormal Vectors

We have seen that

$$\mathcal{T}_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} \left(e_B^1\right)^A & \left(e_B^2\right)^A & \cdots & \left(e_B^n\right)^A \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore.

$$\left(T_B^A\right)^T T_B^A = \begin{bmatrix} \left(\left(e_B^1\right)^A\right)^T \\ \left(\left(e_B^2\right)^A\right)^T \\ \vdots \\ \left(\left(e_B^1\right)^A\right)^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \left(e_B^1\right)^A & \left(e_B^2\right)^A & \cdots & \left(e_B^n\right)^A \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthonormal Vectors

$$(T_{B}^{A})^{T} T_{B}^{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \left((e_{B}^{1})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{1})^{A} & \left((e_{B}^{1})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{2})^{A} & \cdots & \left((e_{B}^{1})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{n})^{A} \\ \left((e_{B}^{2})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{1})^{A} & \left((e_{B}^{2})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{2})^{A} & \cdots & \left((e_{B}^{2})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{n})^{A} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \left((e_{B}^{n})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{1})^{A} & \left((e_{B}^{n})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{2})^{A} & \cdots & \left((e_{B}^{n})^{A} \right)^{T} (e_{B}^{n})^{A} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Effectively, the coordinates of basis vectors of B in frame A are unit length and perpendicular to each other.

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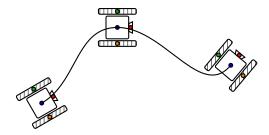
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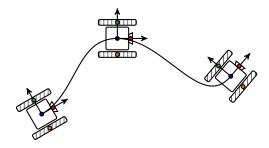
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- ▶ $T_B^A \in SO(3)$ when basis vectors are all unit length, mutually perpendicular.
- The coordinate transformation is then $p^{B} = (R_{B}^{A})^{-1} (p^{A} o_{B}^{A}) \quad \text{mobile robot}$



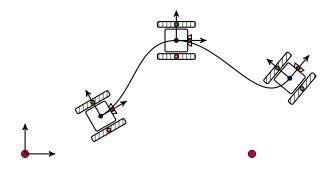
Consider a robot with a center, a camera in 'front', and two wheels to the side.



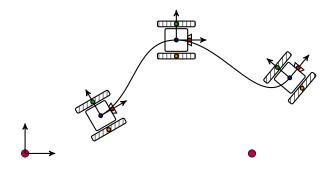
Whenever we move the robot, the distances between these points don't change.



As the robot moves, we can take a snapshot of these points, and they each define a coordinate frame for Euclidean space.



Q1: How would the robot compare observations of either purple point over time? A1: Coordinate transformations



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Q2: How do we keep track of all the points on the robots?

A2: Coordinate transformations, but reinterpreted. Prigid motion



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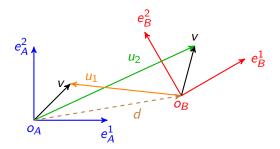
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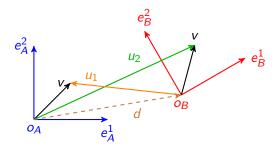
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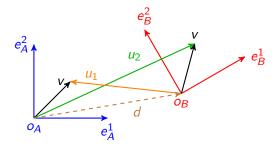
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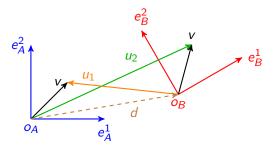




- ▶ If we view u_1 as coordinates in frame B, we've changed coordinates of v from world to body frame.
- ▶ If we view u_2 as coordinates in frame A, we've moved the point $o_A \oplus v$ relative to frame A.

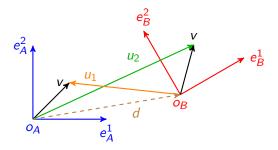


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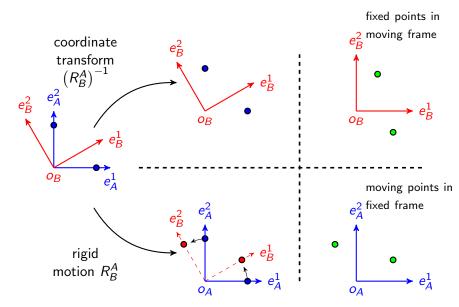
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Move in frame A = reorient by R and then move by d : Rv + d



Coordinates of points in 3D Euclidean space $= p^A \in \mathbb{R}^3$ Coordinates of cartesian frames in 3D Euclidean space $= (d, R) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \times SO(3)$

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Instead, we define an identity element (it's a group): the reference coordinate frame.

Homogenous Transformations

We can convert the affine map between two Euclidean spaces of dimension 3 into a linear map between two subsets of \mathbb{R}^4 .

Define a homogenization
$$h: \mathbb{R}^3 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^4$$
 as $h\left(p^A\right) = \begin{bmatrix} p^A \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

If $p^A = Rp^B + d$, then

$$h\left(p^{A}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} R & d \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} h\left(p^{B}\right). \tag{6}$$

The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} R & d \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ represents a homogenous transformation, and forms a group.

Checkpoint

- ▶ The coordinate transformation is $p^B = (R_B^A)^{-1} (p^A o_B^A)$
- ▶ Norm-preserving coordinate transformation = rigid motion of points within the same coordinate frame.
- ► Set of rigid body poses/rigid motions forms a group: SE(3)
- After choosing a reference frame, we assign coordinates aka rigid body pose (d, R) to frame (Torsor structure)

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- ▶ The G-Torsor nature is why SO(3) is called both the rotation group and the orientation group.
- ► Assigning coordinates to an orientation is the same as defining the rotation that generates that frame.

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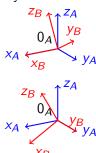
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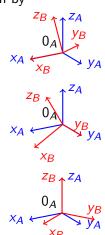


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For Euclidean vector spaces, the order of a sequence of (vector space) operations didn't matter: v + w = w + v.

For rotations, they do. In general, $R_1R_2 \neq R_2R_1$.

Suppose we define an orientation B relative to a orientation A through a rotation R_B^A .

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How would you pick the right transformation? Why did we not consider R_A^B ?

- For example, imagine you, a driver, and a passenger in a car. Your orientation frames are aligned: Forward: x, upwards: z.
- ▶ When the car stops, the passenger opens the door spins to their right $(R_C^A = R_{z,-90^\circ})$
- You lean back in your driver's seat $(R_R^A = R_{\nu,-20^{\circ}})$
- ▶ What is your orientation according to the passenger?
 - 1. $R_{B}^{C} = R_{B}^{A}R_{A}^{C}$ 2. $R_{B}^{C} = R_{B}^{A}R_{C}^{A}$ 3. $R_{B}^{C} = R_{A}^{C}R_{B}^{A}$ 4. $R_{B}^{C} = R_{C}^{C}R_{B}^{A}$

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To change the coordinates of vectors from A to C, we must pre-multiply by $\left(R_C^A\right)^{-1}=R_A^C$. So,

$$R_B^C = R_A^C R_B^A$$

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Alternatively, The rigid motion in A corresponding to moving to frame B is R_B^A ; the rigid motion in frame C corresponding to moving to frame A is R_A^C .

The combined rigid motion in C is achieved by first moving by R_B^A in \mathbf{C} , then moving the result by R_A^C . Therefore,

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Instead of orientation R_B^A in frame A, what if we define rotation R^A in frame A.

How do we represent this rotation in frame C?

Change-of-Basis For Rotations

- ▶ The rotation R^A is relative to frame A.
- ightharpoonup A general orientation P has coordinates R_P^A in frame A
- ▶ Rotating this orientation results in a new orientation $R^A R_P^A$ in frame A:

$$R_P^A \mapsto R^A R_P^A$$

- ▶ But, note that $R_P^A = R_C^A R_P^C$
- ► Therefore :

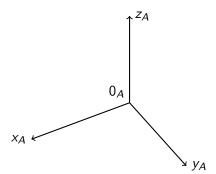
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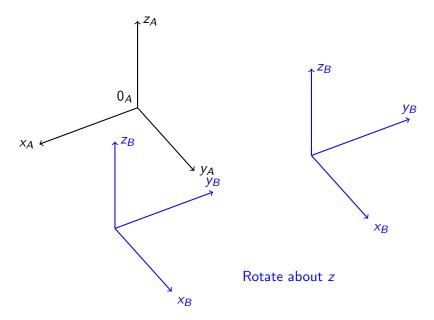
$$R_P^C \mapsto \left(R_C^A\right)^{-1} R^A R_C^A R_P^C$$
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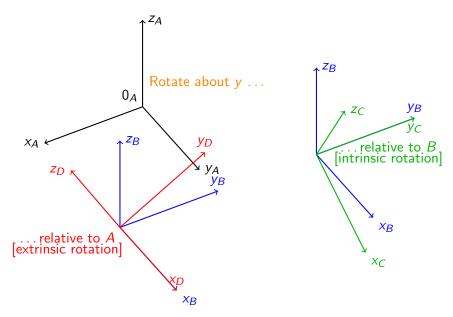
 \triangleright Therefore, a rotation R^A in frame A becomes a rotation

$$R^C = \left(R_C^A\right)^{-1} R^A R_C^A$$

in frame C.







- ► A first rigid motion corresponding to rotation R₁ relative to a frame A produces frame B
- A second rigid motion rotation R₂ can be applied relative to either A or B.
- ▶ When applied relative to B, the second rotation is an intrinsic rotation. $R = R_1 R_2$.
- When applied relative to A, the second rotation is an extrinsic rotation. $R = R_2 R_1$.