

# Rotations

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*I did not have time to proof-read these notes, these are likely to have more errors than usual :-/*

Let's start by analyzing the orthogonal group in 2 dimensions  $O(2)$ .

$$O(2) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} = I_2 \right\} \quad (0.1)$$

$$SO(2) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} = I_2, ad - bc = 1 \right\} \quad (0.2)$$

By a direct computation we can show that every element of  $O(2)$  is one of the two forms (Exercise 3.1)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (0.3)$$

These matrices have determinants 1 and  $-1$  respectively and represent rotations and reflections in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . The eigenvalues are of the form  $e^{i\theta}, e^{-i\theta}$  for the rotation matrices and  $\pm 1$  for the reflection ones and so we get

**Proposition 0.1.** *Every matrix in  $O(2)$  is either a rotation, in which case it is similar to a matrix of the form  $\begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta} & \\ & e^{-i\theta} \end{bmatrix}$  or a reflection about a line, in which case it is similar to a matrix of the form  $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .*

## 1 Orthogonal matrices

This method does not generalize to higher dimensions (or does it?) instead we use eigenvalues to analyze the matrices.

**Theorem 1.1** (Spectral theorem). *Every matrix in  $O(n)$  and  $U(n)$  is diagonalizable over the complex numbers.*

Recall that diagonalizable means that the matrix is similar to a diagonal matrix i.e. it becomes diagonal after doing some base change. Even though  $O(n)$  has real entries it's eigenvalues and eigenvectors might be complex i.e. the eigenvectors can be vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^n$  instead of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Because  $O(n) \subseteq U(n)$  it suffices to analyze the eigenvectors of unitary matrices. Let  $M \in U(n)$  be a unitary matrix. By the Spectral theorem there exist  $n$  eigenvectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{C}^n$  with corresponding eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  i.e.  $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$ . Using the definition of unitary matrices we must have

$$\langle Av_i, Av_i \rangle = \langle v_i, v_i \rangle \quad (1.1)$$

$$\implies \langle \lambda_i v_i, \lambda_i v_i \rangle = \langle v_i, v_i \rangle \quad (1.2)$$

$$\implies \bar{\lambda}_i \lambda_i \langle v_i, v_i \rangle = \langle v_i, v_i \rangle \quad (1.3)$$

$$\implies \bar{\lambda}_i \lambda_i = 1 \quad (1.4)$$

As  $O(n) \subseteq U(n)$  the same holds for  $O(n)$  so we get the following proposition.

**Proposition 1.2.** *Every eigenvalue of an unitary or an orthogonal matrix is a complex number of norm 1 and hence is of the form  $e^{i\theta}$  for some  $\theta$ .*

### 1.1 Orthogonal matrices in 3 dimensions

Consider a matrix  $A \in O(3)$ , by the previous section  $A$  has 3 eigenvalues of the form  $\lambda_1 = e^{i\theta_1}$ ,  $\lambda_2 = e^{i\theta_2}$ ,  $\lambda_3 = e^{i\theta_3}$  for some  $\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3$ . But  $O(3)$  has real entries and hence the complex eigenvalues of  $A$  should come in conjugate pairs. The only way this can happen is if  $\theta_1 = 0$  or  $\pi$  and  $\theta_2 = -\theta_3$ .

**Proposition 1.3.** *For any  $A \in O(3)$  the eigenvalues of  $A$  are of the form  $\lambda_1 = \pm 1, \lambda_2 = e^{i\theta}, \lambda_3 = e^{-i\theta}$  for some  $\theta$ . Further  $\lambda_1 = 1$  iff  $A \in SO(3)$ .*

If  $A \in SO(3)$  then  $A$  is similar to

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & e^{i\theta} & \\ & & e^{-i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.5)$$

This is saying that any matrix in  $SO(3)$  represents rotation around an axis.

If  $A \in O(3) \setminus SO(3)$  then  $A$  is similar to

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} -1 & & \\ & e^{i\theta} & \\ & & e^{-i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} -1 & & \\ & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.6)$$

This is saying that any matrix in  $O(3) \setminus SO(3)$  represents rotation around an axis followed by a reflection along the perpendicular plane.

**Proposition 1.4.** *Every linear transformation of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that preserves distances is either a rotation about an axis or a rotation about an axis followed by a reflection about the perpendicular plane.*

## 2 Quaternions

There is another way to talk about rotations, using quaternions! Recall that **quaternions** form a non-abelian group, denoted  $\mathbb{H}$ , that is isomorphic as a set to  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Elements of  $\mathbb{H}$  are of the form  $a + bi + cj + dk$  and satisfy the relations

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k, jk = i, ki = j \quad (2.1)$$

A quaternion  $p \in \mathbb{H}$  defines a linear transformation  $\Phi(p) : \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  that sends  $v \mapsto pvp^{-1}$ . These transformations turn out to be rotations when restricted to the unit quaternion group!

Let  $S\mathbb{H}$  denote the group of unit quaternions i.e.  $\{p \in \mathbb{H} : \|p\| = 1\}$ . We think of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  as the set of *purely imaginary* quaternions i.e. the vector  $(x, y, z)$  represents the quaternion  $xi + yj + zk$ . It turns out to be the case that when  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  the transformation  $v \mapsto pvp^{-1}$  preserves the set of purely imaginary quaternions. In fact a much stronger result holds.

**Theorem 2.1.** *The map sending  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  to  $\Phi(p)$  defines a homomorphism*

$$\Phi : S\mathbb{H} \rightarrow SO(3) \quad (2.2)$$

*This homomorphism is surjective with kernel  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ .*

The proof of this has several steps and is in Exercises in 3.1.

The group  $S\mathbb{H}$  shows up in several avatars in various branches of mathematics. It is the spin group in 3 dimensions, denoted  $Spin(3)$ . Because  $SO(3)$  is the group of rotation of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  the above theorem is asserting that there are two quaternions over each rotation of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . In physics this fact becomes relevant because in quantum mechanics certain systems have  $S\mathbb{H}$  as their symmetry groups and for such systems there is a physical quantity, called **spin** which has two possible values for each value of the angular momentum.

### 3 Exercise

**Exercise 3.1.** Consider a matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in O(2)$ .

1. Show that for some  $\theta, \phi$  we must have  $a = \cos \theta, b = \sin \theta$ , and  $c = \cos \phi, d = \sin \phi$ .
2. Find the relations between  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  and prove that every matrix in  $O(2)$  is of the form (0.3).
3. Describe the matrices in (0.3) geometrically and compute their eigenvalues.

**Exercise 3.2.** Show that the matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ & \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} -1 & & \\ & \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ & \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \qquad (3.1)$$

are in  $O(3)$ . What do these geometrically represent? Find the matrices of type (1.5) or (1.6) to which these are similar.

**Exercise 3.3.** Describe the matrices in  $SO(n)$  geometrically for arbitrary positive integer  $n$ . Do these matrices still represent rotations? What is the difference between matrices in  $SO(2n)$  and matrices in  $SO(2n+1)$ .

#### 3.1 Quaternions

The following exercises prove theorem 2.1.

**Exercise 3.4.** The first step is to figure out how to deal with inner products using quaternions. Let  $\Re(a + bi + cj + dk) = a$  denote the real part of quaternions.

1. Show that for two vectors  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$  the dot product  $\langle x, y \rangle$  is equal to  $-\Re(xy)$ .
2. Show that for any quaternion  $p\bar{p} = \|p\|^2$  and hence if  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  then  $p^{-1} = \bar{p}$ .
3. Show that for  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  and  $v \in \mathbb{H}$  we have  $\Re(x) = \Re(xp^{-1})$ . This implies in particular that  $\Phi(p)$  takes the purely imaginary quaternions to purely imaginary quaternions.
4. Show that for  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  and  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$  we have  $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle px\bar{p}, py\bar{p} \rangle$ .

**Exercise 3.5.** Let  $p \in S\mathbb{H}$  be a unit quaternion. The above exercise proves that the transformation  $\Phi(p)$  preserves the dot product.

1. Show that for  $q \in \mathbb{H}$  we have  $\Phi(pq) = \Phi(p)\Phi(q)$  and hence we have a group homomorphism  $\Phi : S\mathbb{H} \rightarrow SO(3)$ . (It is  $SO(3)$  and not  $SO(4)$  because we're looking at the transformations of the space of purely imaginary quaternions.)
2. Argue that because  $S\mathbb{H}$  is connected the image of  $\Phi$  should be a subgroup of  $SO(3)$  and hence  $\Phi$  is a homomorphism  $S\mathbb{H} \rightarrow SO(3)$ .
3. Show that for the unit quaternion  $p = \cos(\theta/2) + \sin(\theta/2)(xi + yj + zk)$  the transformation  $\Phi(p)$  fixes the vector  $(x, y, z)$ . Use this to argue that  $\Phi$  is surjective.
4. Show that the center of  $S\mathbb{H}$  is the set of purely real quaternions. Argue that the kernel of  $\Phi$  is  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ .

**Exercise 3.6.**

$$O_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\} \qquad (3.2)$$

Let  $O_8 \subseteq \mathbb{H}$  be the finite quaternion group. Describe the image of  $O_8$  under the homomorphism  $\Phi$  (defined in Section ??).