Rotations for Computer Vision and Robotics

Umberto Castellani Robotics, vision and control

Rotations

- Rotation matrix,
- Euler angles,
- Axis-angles representation,
- Quaternions,
- Exponential matrix

Rotations

Matrix exponential

Remind the Taylor expansion of a generic function f(x) that is infinitesimally differentiable in a point x_0 :

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + f''(x_0) \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2} + \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f^{(n)}(x_0) \frac{(x - x_0)^n}{n!}$$

When we consider the exponential function $f(x) = e^x$ and we fix $x_0 = 0$ we obtain the following very known power series:

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2} + \frac{x^{3}}{6} + \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}$$

Other interesting power series are sin(x):

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} - \dots$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

Other interesting power series are cos(x):

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} - \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2n!}$$

Other interesting power series is the matrix exponential series for a square matrix M:

$$e^{M} = I + M + \frac{M^{2}}{2} + \frac{M^{3}}{6} + \cdots$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{M^{n}}{n!}$$

Property 1: the inverse matrix of the matrix exponential of M is the matrix exponential of M.

$$(e^M)^{-1} = e^{-M}$$

DEMO:

It is known that if two square matrices *M* and *N* commute (i.e., MN=NM), then:

$$e^M \cdot e^N = e^{M+N}$$

Property 1: the inverse matrix of the matrix exponential of M is the matrix exponential of M.

$$(e^M)^{-1} = e^{-M}$$

DEMO:

In our case M and –M commute, therefore:

$$e^{M} \cdot e^{-M} = e^{M+(-M)} = e^{0} = I$$

Property 2: the transpose matrix of the matrix exponential of M is the matrix exponential of M^{\top}

$$(e^M)^{\top} = e^{M^{\top}}$$

DEMO:

$$(e^{M})^{\top} = (I + M + \frac{M^{2}}{2} + \frac{M^{3}}{6} + \cdots)^{\top}$$

= $I + (M)^{\top} + (\frac{M^{2}}{2})^{\top} + (\frac{M^{3}}{6})^{\top} \cdots$
= $e^{M^{\top}}$

Property 3: For a skew-symmetric matrix S the matrix exponential of the transpose matrix is the matrix exponential of the negative matrix:

$$e^{S^{\top}} = e^{-S}$$

DEMO:

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -a & -b \\ a & 0 & -c \\ b & c & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow$$
 Skey symmetric matrix

by definition $S = -S^T$, and therefore $S^T = -S$

From the properties of matrix exponential and the use of a skew-symmetric matrix *S* we can define a rotation matrix, i.e., an **orthogonal** matrix with determinat

$$(e^S)^{-1} = (e^S)^{\top}$$

$$\det(e^S) = 1$$

We define $R=e^S$, and considering properties 1,2 and 3 we get:

$$R^{\top} = (e^S)^{\top} = e^{S^{\top}} = e^{-S} = (e^S)^{-1}$$

= R^{-1}

 $R = e^{S}$ is an **orthogonal** matrix

Moreover, the curve of orthogonal matrices e^{tS} is a path connecting the identity matrix I (when t = 0, that is $e^0 = I$) and the matrix R (when t = 1).

Therefore, R and I have the same determinant that is 1.



This shows that det(R) = 1 and therefore R is a rotation matrix.

Now we can write a generic skew-symmetric matrix in 3D as:

$$S = \theta \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & -z & y \\ z & 0 & -x \\ -y & x & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

where θ, x, y, z are real numbers with $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$. This means that x, y, z are the coordinates of a vector \mathbf{v} such that $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$. In particular, vector \mathbf{v} represents the rotation axis encoded by the rotation matrix R, and θ is the rotation angle.

The vector $\mathbf{v}' = \theta \cdot \mathbf{v}$ is such that:

$$\mathbf{v}' \times \mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{v}']_{\times} \mathbf{w}$$

for any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{R}$, where $[\mathbf{v}']_{\times} = S$ is the matrix that encodes the cross product with vector \mathbf{v}' .

Now we can consider the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem that states:

$$-S^3 - \theta^2 S = 0$$

We can recover interesting properties of higher powers of S:

$$\begin{array}{lll} S^3 & = & -\theta^2 S \\ S^4 & = & S^3 S = (-\theta^2 S) S = -\theta^2 S^2 \\ S^5 & = & S^4 S = (-\theta^2 S^2) S = -\theta^2 S^3 = -\theta^2 (-\theta^2 S) = \theta^4 S \\ S^6 & = & S^5 S = \theta^4 S S = \theta^4 S^2 \end{array}$$

We can plug these relations to the matrix exponential power series:

$$R = e^{S}$$

$$= I + S + \frac{S^{2}}{2} + \frac{S^{3}}{3!} + \frac{S^{4}}{4!} + \frac{S^{5}}{5!} + \frac{S^{6}}{6!} + \dots$$

$$= I + S + \frac{S^{2}}{2} - \frac{\theta^{2}S}{3!} - \frac{\theta^{2}S^{2}}{4!} + \frac{\theta^{4}S}{5!} + \frac{\theta^{4}S^{2}}{6!} + \dots$$

$$= I + (1 - \frac{\theta^{2}}{3!} + \frac{\theta^{4}}{5!} + \dots)S + (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\theta^{2}}{4!} + \frac{\theta^{4}}{6!} + \dots)S^{2}$$

$$= I + \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}S + \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta^{2}}S^{2}$$



The power series of $\sin \vartheta$ and $\cos \vartheta$ have been considered!

Rotations

Now, if we define $\hat{S} = \frac{S}{\theta}$ then we get:

$$R = I + \sin \theta \hat{S} + (1 - \cos \theta)\hat{S}^2$$

that is the well-known **Rodrigues**' formula for a rotation matrix derived by the rotation angle ϑ and the rotation axis \mathbf{v} .

Recall also that
$$S = [\mathbf{v'}]_{\times}$$
 and $\theta = \|\mathbf{v'}\|$

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mathbf{v'}}{\theta} = \frac{\mathbf{v'}}{\|\mathbf{v'}\|}$$
 is a unitary vector!

A similar definition of rotation matrix from matrix exponentials is given by the Lie algebra. Here we get the group of SO(3) whose elements $R \in SO(3)$ are 3D rotation matrices. The matrix exponential is defined as $e^{[\mathbf{w}]}$ where:

$$[\mathbf{w}]_{\times} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -w_3 & w_2 \\ w_3 & 0 & -w_1 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where **w** is the vector of non-zero components of the skew-symmetric matrix that represents the rotation vector such that $\theta = \|\mathbf{w}\|$ is the rotation angle.

The power series is:

$$e^{[\mathbf{w}]\times} = I + [\mathbf{w}]_{\times} + \frac{[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^n}{n!}$$

Remember also that $[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v}, \ \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{R}^3$.

We can pair the terms of power series in this way:

$$e^{[\mathbf{w}]\times} = I + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^{2i+1}}{(2i+1)!} + \frac{[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^{2i+2}}{(2i+2)!}$$

Now we know that $[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^2 = -(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{w})[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}$. Therefore:

$$\theta^{2} = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$$
$$[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^{2i+1} = (-1)^{i} \theta^{2i} [\mathbf{w}]_{\times}$$
$$[\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^{2i+2} = (-1)^{i} \theta^{2i} [\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^{2}$$

We get the same Rodrigues' formula as:

$$R = e^{[\mathbf{w}] \times} = I + \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} [\mathbf{w}]_{\times} + \left(\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta^2}\right) [\mathbf{w}]_{\times}^2$$

This is the rotation matrix that encodes a rotation (in radiants) around the axis \mathbf{w} of an angle θ .

The exponential map can be inverted using the logaritm. We get:

$$\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{Tr(R) - 1}{2}\right)$$

That is derived from: $Tr(R) = 1 + 2\cos\theta$, and

$$[\mathbf{w}]_{\times} = \log(R) = \frac{\theta}{2\sin\theta} (R - R^{\top})$$

Note that by definition $(R-R^{\top})$ is skew-symmetric. Note also that $||vec((R-R^{\top}))|| = 2\sin\theta$, and therefore $||\vec{c}(\mathbf{w})|| = \theta$

Euler angles

The Euler angles are the three angles (α, β, γ) around the axis X, Y, and Z. We can define the following rotation matrices:

$$R_x(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} R_y(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta & 0 & \sin \beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \beta & 0 & \cos \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Euler angles

The generic rotation *R* can be represented by the products of the above three rotation matrices:

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

Euler angle

We can therefore compute the matrix product and recover the rotation matrix from the Euler angles:

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta \cos \gamma & \sin \alpha \sin \beta \cos \gamma - \cos \alpha \sin \gamma & \cos \alpha \sin \beta \cos \gamma + \sin \alpha \sin \gamma \\ \cos \beta \sin \gamma & \sin \alpha \sin \beta \sin \gamma + \cos \alpha \cos \gamma & \cos \alpha \sin \beta \sin \gamma - \sin \alpha \cos \gamma \\ -\sin \beta & \sin \alpha \cos \beta & \cos \alpha \cos \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

We can also recover the Euler angles from the rotation matrix:

$$\beta: R_{3,1} = -\sin\beta, i.e., \beta = \arcsin(-R_{3,1}),
\alpha: \frac{R_{3,2}}{R_{3,3}} = \frac{\sin\alpha\cos\beta}{\cos\alpha\cos\beta} = \tan(\alpha), i.e., \alpha = \arctan_2(R_{3,2}, R_{3,3}),
\gamma: \frac{R_{2,1}}{R_{1,1}} = \frac{\cos\beta\sin\gamma}{\cos\beta\cos\gamma} = \tan(\gamma), i.e., \gamma = \arctan_2(R_{2,1}, R_{1,1}).$$

Every rotation R in 3D is defined by its rotation axis \mathbf{u} .

This rotation axis is such that $R\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$, i.e., the vector \mathbf{u} remains unchanged after the rotation (by definition of rotation axis).

We can also write $R\mathbf{u} = l\mathbf{u}$ or:

$$(R - I)\mathbf{u} = 0$$

This means that \mathbf{u} lies in the null space of matrix (R - I), and \mathbf{u} is an eigenvector of R corresponding to the eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$.

- Every rotation matrix must have this eigenvalue, the other two eigenvalues being complex conjugate of each other.
- It follows that a general rotation matrix in 3D has, up to a multiplicative constraint, only one real eigenvector.
- In principle the rotation axis can be computed by the eigen-decomposition of the matrix *R*.
- Then the rotation angle is recovered by the equation $tr(R) = 1 + 2 \cos \vartheta$.

A more specific procedure to compute the rotation axis is given by:

$$0 = R^{\top} \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}$$

$$= R^{\top} (R - I) \mathbf{u} + (R - I) \mathbf{u}$$

$$= (R^{\top} R - R^{\top} + R - I) \mathbf{u}$$

$$= (I - R^{\top} + R - I) \mathbf{u}$$

$$= (R - R^{\top}) \mathbf{u}$$

Since by definition $(R - R^T)$ is a skwe-symmetric matrix we can choose **u** such that:

$$[\mathbf{u}]_{\times} = (R - R^{\top}).$$

We get:

$$(R - R^{\mathsf{T}})\mathbf{u} = [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathsf{X}}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u} = 0$$

In more details, if R is defined as:

$$R = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{array}\right)$$

therefore:

$$(R - R^{\top}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b - d & c - g \\ d - b & 0 & f - h \\ g - c & h - f & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

from which we recover:

$$\mathbf{u} = \left(\begin{array}{c} h - f \\ c - g \\ d - b \end{array}\right)$$

Note that in this representation the $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|vec(R - R^{\top}\| = 2\sin\theta$, where θ is the rotation angle. Also in this case the rotation angle can be directly computed from the rotation matrix R by $tr(R) = 1 + 2\cos\theta$.

Now if we consider the unit vector $\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}$ representing the rotation axis, and the rotation angle θ , the rotation matrix R can be recovered as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta + x^2(1 - \cos\theta) & xy(1 - \cos\theta) - z\sin\theta & xz(1 - \cos\theta) + y\sin\theta \\ yx(1 - \cos\theta) + z\sin\theta & \cos\theta + y^2(1 - \cos\theta) & yz(1 - \cos\theta) - x\sin\theta \\ zx(1 - \cos\theta) - y\sin\theta & zy(1 - \cos\theta) + x\sin\theta & \cos\theta + z^2(1 - \cos\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\mathbf{u} = (x, y, z)$. This matrix can be written in a more concise form as:

$$R = (\cos \theta)I + (\sin \theta)[\mathbf{u}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \theta)(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}),$$

where $(\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}^{\top}$ is the outer product. This expression is equivalent to the Rodrigue's rotation formula.