

## Lecture 8 : $SO(3)$

Note Title

2/26/2017

We have proved (Lecture 4 + Lecture 7) that it is a submanifold of  $\mathbb{R}^9 \approx \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ . Also, it is a Lie group (Lecture 5.)

The reason why we still have more to say about  $SO(3)$  is :

- it is important on its own, so would be useful to know more details
- it exemplifies some of the important structures of Lie groups in general.

Recall at the end of Lecture 4, we showed that the tangent vectors of  $SO(3)$  (represented by matrices in  $\mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ ) are exactly the skew-symmetric matrices.

$$T_{id}SO(3) = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} : A^T = -A\}.$$

This must be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} (\approx \mathbb{R}^9)$ , let's check it explicitly :

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, A^T = -A, B^T = -B$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha A + \beta B)^T &= \alpha A^T + \beta B^T \\ &= -\alpha A - \beta B = -(\alpha A + \beta B) \end{aligned}$$

On top of the vector space structure, there is another structure that is very important called the Lie-bracket, which is something I want you to see briefly :

If  $A, B \in \text{Id } SO(3)$ , then so is their matrix commutator:

$$[A, B] := AB - BA.$$

Proof: If  $A^T = -A$ ,  $B^T = -B$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} [A, B]^T &= (AB - BA)^T = B^T A^T - A^T B^T \\ &= (-B)(-A) - (-A)(-B) \\ &= BA - AB \\ &= -[A, B]. \end{aligned}$$

Def: A real vector space  $V$  is a Lie algebra if there is defined on it an operation

$$[, ] : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

(called bracket) that satisfies

1. (Bilinearity)  $[au + bv, w] = a[u, w] + b[v, w]$   
 $[u, av + bw] = a[u, v] + b[u, w]$
2. (Skew-symmetry)  $[u, v] = -[v, u]$
3. (Jacobi identity)  $[u, [v, w]] + [w, [u, v]] + [v, [w, u]] = 0$

There is also something called:

"Lie bracket of vector fields on a manifold"

whose definition is irrelevant to Lie group:

It goes like this: any vector field  $V$  on a manifold  $M$  can be thought of as a map

from  $C^\infty(M)$  to  $C^\infty(M)$ .

For  $f \in C^\infty(M)$   $V(f)(p) := V(p)(f)$

Easy to check  $V(f) : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is smooth, so  $V(f) \in C^\infty(M)$ . As such,  $V$  maps every  $f \in C^\infty(M)$  to a function in  $C^\infty(M)$ .

Let  $V, W : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$  be vector fields.

Define the (vector field) Lie bracket of  $V$  and  $W$ , denoted

$$[V, W] : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$$

by

$$[V, W]f = V(Wf) - W(Vf).$$

[Note: Every vector field be viewed as a map from  $C^\infty(M)$  to  $C^\infty(M)$ , but not any map from  $C^\infty(M)$  to  $C^\infty(M)$  is a vector field. The map has to satisfy linearity and the Leibniz product rule. It's not hard to check that  $[V, W] : C^\infty(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M)$  is linear and Leibnizian.]

Easy to check: matrix commutator is a bracket on  $\text{Mat}SO(3)$ .

Not hard to check: the (vector field) Lie bracket is a bracket on  $\mathcal{T}(M) =$  the vector space of all vector fields on  $M$ .

Define  $v \in \text{Lie } \text{SO}(3) \mapsto V \in T(\text{SO}(3))$   
 $V_g = L_{g*}(v) \in T_g \text{SO}(3)$

(such a vector field is called a left-invariant vector field.)

This correspondence is a vector space isomorphism.

$\text{Lie } \text{SO}(3) \longleftrightarrow \{\text{left invariant vector fields of } \text{SO}(3)\} \subset T(\text{SO}(3))$

Under this correspondence, the matrix Lie bracket on  $\text{Lie } \text{SO}(3)$  is "the same" as the vector field Lie bracket.

🚩 What's the point of all these Lie bracket / commutator stuff in the last three pages?

Every Lie group  $G$  has a tangent space at the identity that, together with the Lie bracket, is called the Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$ . The key idea is that there is a so-called **exponential map** from  $\mathfrak{g}$  to  $G$   
 $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G,$

that is not only a local diffeomorphism, but also specifies the group structure of  $G$  based on the Lie algebra on  $\mathfrak{g}$ . One way to see this connection is via the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff (BCH) formula:

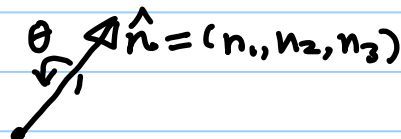
$$\exp(A) \exp(B) = \exp\left(A + B + \frac{1}{2}[A, B] + \frac{1}{12}[A, [A, B]] + \dots\right)$$

Note: In general,  $\exp(A+B) \neq \exp(A)\exp(B)$ , and it is the commutator (or Lie bracket) that accounts for the difference, via the BCH formula.

We shall define and use the exp map for  $SO(3)$  (in fact  $GL(n)$ ) below.

### Euler's rotation theorem

In three-dimensional space, any displacement of a rigid body such that a point on the rigid body remains fixed, is equivalent to a single rotation about some axis that runs through the fixed point.



i.e. For any  $R \in SO(3)$ ,

$R$  = rotation of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  through  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  radians about an axis in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  along  $\hat{n} = (n_1, n_2, n_3)$  in the sense determined by the right-hand rule from the direction of  $\hat{n}$ .

Moreover, the angle  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  is uniquely determined by  $R$ , and

- a) If  $\theta \in (0, \pi)$ , then  $\hat{n}$  is unique
- b) If  $\theta = 0$ , then any  $\hat{n}$  will do.
- c) If  $\theta = \pi$ , then  $\hat{n}$  is unique up to sign.

This way of representing  $SO(3)$  is called the axis-angle representation.

Given  $R \in SO(3)$ , the existence of rotation axis is equivalent to the existence of a direction which  $R$  leaves invariant, i.e.

$\exists n \in \mathbb{R}^3, n \neq 0$  s.t.  $R \cdot n = n$ ,  
which is equivalent to saying that

(\*) 1 is an eigenvalue of every  $R \in SO(3)$ .

Once the direction determined by  $n$  is established,  $R$  has to behave like a 2-D rotation in the remaining  $2 (= 3-1)$  dimensions. The uniqueness part of the theorem should be clear.

Proof of (\*):

Let  $R \in SO(3)$ , i.e.  $R^T R = I$ ,  $\det(R) = 1$

$$(*) \Leftrightarrow \det(R - 1 \cdot I) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(R - I) &= \det((R - I)^T) = \det(R^T - I) \\ &= \det(R^{-1} - R^{-1}R) \\ &= \det(R^{-1}(I - R)) \\ &= \det(R^{-1}) \det(-(R - I)) \\ &= \det(-(R - I)) \quad (\text{note: } \det(R^{-1}) = 1) \\ &= -\det(R - I) \quad (\text{we are 3-D.}) \end{aligned}$$

So  $\det(R - I) = 0$



Note: Without the help of linear algebra, Euler's original proof is purely geometric (and quite tricky.)

How to go back and forth the matrix representation (of 3-D rotation) and the axis-angle rotation?

$$SO(3) \ni R \xleftrightarrow{?} (\hat{n}, \theta)$$

We showed  $\lambda_1 = 1$  is an eigenvalue of  $R$ , and hence  $R\hat{n} = \hat{n}$  for some unit vector  $\hat{n} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ .

Since

$$\det(R) = 1 = \text{product of the 3 eigenvalues, } 1 = \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \text{ of } R$$

so we must have

$$\lambda_2 \lambda_3 = 1,$$

and it can be shown (some details omitted):

$$\theta = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (\lambda_2, \lambda_3) = (1, 1) \\ \pi & \text{if } (\lambda_2, \lambda_3) = (-1, -1) \\ \cos^{-1}(\alpha) \in (0, \pi) & \text{if } \lambda_1, \lambda_2 = \alpha \pm i\beta \\ & \alpha^2 + \beta^2 = 1, \beta \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

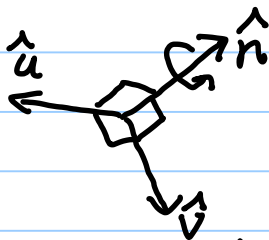
When  $R$  is given, its eigenvalues are uniquely determined, so  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$  is uniquely determined as above. But the eigenvector associated with eigenvalue 1 is, of course, non-unique and we must choose the correct unit eigenvector  $\hat{n}$  so that  $(\hat{n}, \theta)$  represents  $R$  according to the right-hand convention. (There are only two possible choices of  $\hat{n}$ , it is not hard to come

up with a way to determine which.)

Once this is done, we have :

$$\textcircled{*} - R = [\hat{n} \hat{u} \hat{v}] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} [\hat{n} \hat{u} \hat{v}]^T$$

where  $\hat{u}$  and  $\hat{v}$  are two arbitrary orthogonal unit vectors s.t.  $\hat{u} \times \hat{v} = \hat{n}$ .



Note : the choice of  $\hat{u}, \hat{v}$  would not affect  $\textcircled{*}$ .

When the axis-angle representation  $(\hat{n}, \theta)$  is given,  $\textcircled{*}$  can be used to determine the rotation matrix  $R$ .

But it seems like the approach above of going back and forth the two representations is neither aesthetically pleasing nor convenient to compute with.

Here is a better way called the Rodrigues' rotation formula :

$R = I + (\sin \theta) K + (1 - \cos \theta) K^2$ , where

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & 0 & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$



The way we prove it will involve the following ideas

- flow of a velocity vector fields
- ODE and exponential maps.

It seems like an overkill to use these techniques for proving a linear algebra result. Indeed, there is a more elementary proof. But I found the following proof really useful for understanding a nonlinear version of rotation called the curl of a vector field.

Let's begin with a linear algebra exercise:

Ex: Show

$$\hat{n} \times v = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & 0 & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{=K}{=} v$$

Show

$$\begin{aligned} & (I + (\sin\theta)K + (1-\cos\theta)K^2)v \\ &= v \cos\theta + (\hat{n} \times v) \sin\theta + \hat{n}(\hat{n} \cdot v)(1-\cos\theta) \end{aligned}$$

(This is how Rodrigues formula can be used in practice; no  $3 \times 3$  matrix is even needed.)

We divide the proof of Rodrigues formula into 3 parts:

(1) Imagine a linear (time-independent) **velocity vector field** in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{velocity} \\ \text{vector} \end{array} \rightarrow v(x) = Ax$$

$\uparrow$   
location

$\uparrow$  — an arbitrary  $3 \times 3$  matrix

If a particle truly moves in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  according to this velocity vector field, what is the trajectory of the particle, assuming the particle starts at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$  at time 0? This is equivalent to following question:

If  $X : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  satisfies

$$X'(t) = V(x(t)) = Ax(t), \quad x(0) = x_0$$

what is  $X(t)$ ?

This is a linear, constant coefficient system of ordinary differential equations of which the solution is well-known:

$$\underset{3 \times 1}{X(t)} = \underset{3 \times 3}{\exp(A t)} \cdot \underset{3 \times 1}{x(0)}, \quad \text{where}$$

$$\exp(A) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} A^k = I + A + \frac{1}{2} A^2 + \frac{1}{6} A^3 + \dots$$

I assume that you have seen this part of ODE (you sure have seen the 1-D case since Calculus I). And you know that the series above converge absolutely for any  $A$  and uniformly on any bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$  or  $\mathbb{C}^{n^2}$ .

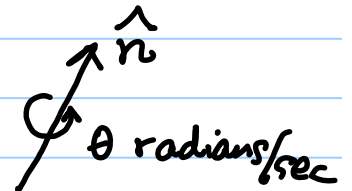
(2) Armed with (1), we need one more observation to show that:

$$\boxed{R = \exp(K\theta)} \quad (\text{same notations in the Rodrigues formula.})$$

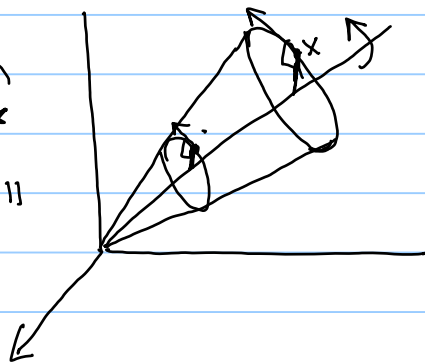
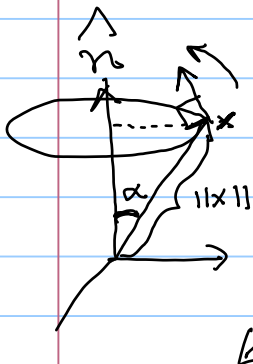
Consider the velocity vector field  $V(x)$  generated by rotating about  $\hat{n}$  at a constant angular velocity of

$\theta$  radians/second.

What is  $V(x)$ ?



[Note: It is a dynamics, not static, problem.]



- ①  $V(\vec{x}) \perp \vec{x}$
- ②  $V(\vec{x}) \perp \hat{n}$
- ③  $||V(\vec{x})|| = (||x|| \sin \alpha) \cdot \theta$   
speed at  $\vec{x}$ 
(unit length/sec)

①, ②, ③ and right-hand convention  $\Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} V(\vec{x}) &= \theta \hat{n} \times \vec{x} \\ &= \theta \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & 0 & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \theta K \vec{x} \end{aligned}$$

This shows  $V(\vec{x})$  is the kind of linear vector field considered in (1), so:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(t, x) &= \text{where the particle is after } t \text{ secs} \\ &\quad \text{if its beginning location is } x \\ &= \exp(\theta K t) \cdot \vec{x} \end{aligned}$$

$$R\vec{x} = \Phi(1, \vec{x}) = \exp(\theta K) \vec{x}, \text{ or } \boxed{R = \exp(\theta K)}$$

(3) From  $R = \exp(\theta K)$  to Rodrigues formula:

First note that  $K^3 = -K$ .

So,  $K^4 = -K^2$ ,  $K^5 = K$ ,  $K^6 = K^2$ ,  $K^7 = -K$ , etc.

One way is see this is to check it directly (by writing  $n_3 = \sqrt{1 - n_1^2 - n_2^2}$  and verify that  $K^3 + K = 0$ ).

Another way is to observe that the characteristic polynomial of  $K$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\lambda) = \det(K - \lambda I) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & -n_3 & n_2 \\ n_3 & -\lambda & -n_1 \\ -n_2 & n_1 & -\lambda \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -\lambda^3 - \lambda(n_1^2 + n_2^2 + n_3^2) \\ &= -\lambda^3 - \lambda \end{aligned}$$

So, by the Hamilton-Cayley theorem,  $p(K) = 0$ , or  $-K^3 - K = 0$ , or  $K^3 = -K$ .

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} R = \exp(\theta K) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\theta K)^k}{k!} \\ &= I + \frac{\theta}{1!} K + \frac{\theta^2}{2!} K^2 + \frac{\theta^3}{3!} K^3 + \dots \\ &= I + \left( \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \dots \right) K \\ &\quad + \left( \frac{\theta^2}{2!} - \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \frac{\theta^6}{6!} - \dots \right) K^2 \\ &= I + \sin \theta K + (1 - \cos \theta) K^2. \end{aligned}$$

Ex Directly check that  $I + (\sin \theta) K + (1 - \cos \theta) K^2$  is in  $SO(3)$ .

You need 1. below to do this Ex.

0. If  $A = UDU^{-1}$ ,  $\exp(A) = U \exp(D) U^{-1}$ .

1.  $\det(\exp(A)) = \exp(\text{Tr}(A))$

2.  $\exp(A+B) = \exp(A)\exp(B)$  if  $AB=BA$

Proof: Let  $A = UDU^{-1}$  be the Jordan canonical of 1. decomposition of  $A$ .

$$\exp(A) = U \exp(D) U^{-1},$$
$$\det(\exp(A)) = \det(\exp(D))$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & * \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad D^k = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & *' \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\exp(D) = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(\lambda_1) & & *'' \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \exp(\lambda_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{so } \det(\exp(D)) = \prod_{i=1}^n \exp(\lambda_i) = \exp(\sum \lambda_i) = \exp(\text{Tr}(A)).$$

Let us summarize what we have proved earlier:

$\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$  maps the axis-angle representation to the matrix representation (in the sense discussed) so it has a intuitive geometric interpretation. Moreover, it shows that

$\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$  is surjective.

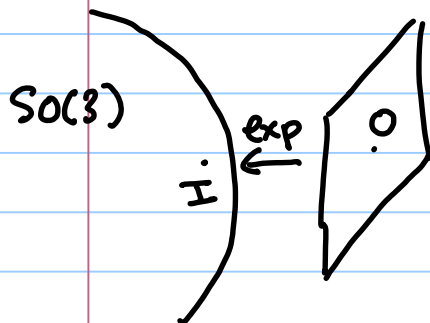
So it seems like using the three parameters  $(a, b, c)$  in  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & c & b \\ -c & 0 & a \\ -b & a & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is a very good way to parameterize  $SO(3)$ .

It can also be shown that

$\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$  is smooth (in fact real analytic)

$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$   
 a (linear) a submanifold  
 submanifold of  $\mathbb{R}^9$

Claim:  $\exp_{*0} = \text{id}_{\mathfrak{so}(3)}$ , and hence an atlas on  $SO(3)$  can be obtained from  $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ .



Proof: Let  $A \in \mathfrak{so}(3)$ . Then  $\alpha: (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow \mathfrak{so}(3)$  given by  $\alpha(t) = 0 + tA$  is a smooth curve in  $\mathfrak{so}(3)$  with  $\alpha(0) = 0$ ,  $\alpha'(0) = A$ .

Thus,

$$\exp_{*0}(A) = \exp_{*0}(\alpha'(0)) = (\exp \circ \alpha)'(0)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} \underbrace{\exp(tA)}_{I + tA + \frac{1}{2}t^2A^2 + \dots} \Big|_{t=0} = A.$$

This shows  $\exp_{*0} = \text{id}_{\mathfrak{so}(3)}$ .

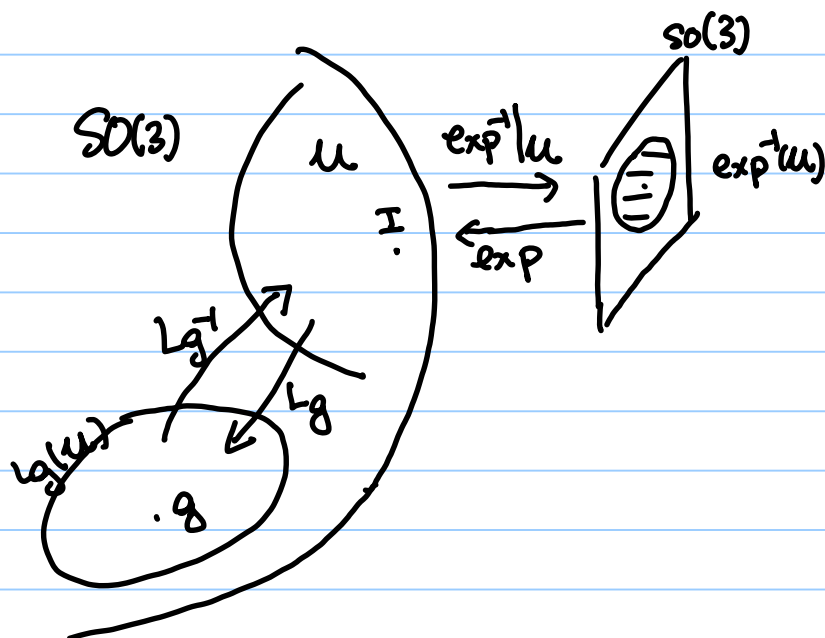
The inverse function theorem therefore implies that  $\exp : \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$  is a local diffeomorphism near  $0 \in \mathfrak{so}(3)$ . Since  $\exp(0) = I \in SO(3)$  we can find an open neighborhood  $U$  of  $I$  in  $SO(3)$  on which  $\exp^{-1}$  exists and is smooth and maps onto a neighborhood of  $0$  in  $\mathfrak{so}(3) \cong \mathbb{R}^3$ . Thus

$(U, \exp^{-1})$  is a chart at  $I \in SO(3)$ .

To get an atlas, notice that the chart at  $I$  can be translated to a chart at any  $g \in SO(3)$  because

$L_g : SO(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$ ,  $L_g(h) = gh$  is a diffeomorphism, so

$(L_g(U), \exp^{-1} \circ L_g^{-1})$  is a chart at  $g \in SO(3)$ .

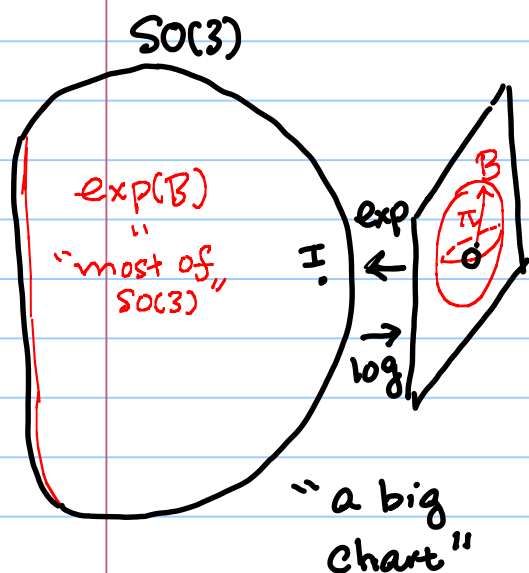


Remark : The inverse function theorem only tells us  $\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)$  is locally invertible near 0. And it is enough for the purpose of creating an atlas for  $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ . But from Euler's theorem and what is proved in this lecture, we also know that:

$\exp: \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)$   
is injective when restricted to

$$B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & c & b \\ -c & 0 & a \\ -b & -a & 0 \end{bmatrix} : a^2 + b^2 + c^2 < \pi^2 \right\}$$

and  $\exp(B)$  is exactly missing those elements in  $\mathrm{SO}(3)$  that "rotate by  $180^\circ$  about some axis."



So  $\exp|_B: B \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(3)$  is injective. Moreover, it can be shown that

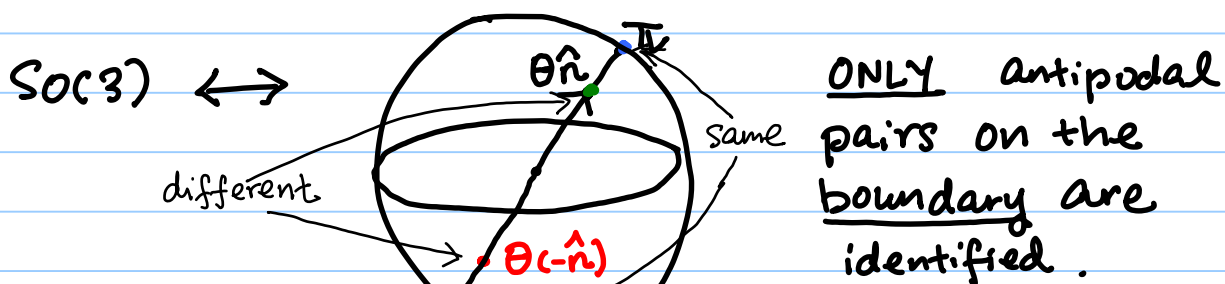
$$\exp^{-1}: \exp(B) \rightarrow B$$

is smooth and is usually called the "matrix logarithm".



## Global Issues:

The uniqueness part of Euler's theorem actually suggests a correspondence between  $SO(3)$  and  $\mathbb{RP}^3 = G(4,1) = S^3/\{+, -\}$



$$R \leftrightarrow \underbrace{\theta \hat{n}}_{(x,y,z)} \in \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{the solid ball in } \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ with} \\ \text{radius } \tau_V, \text{ but with} \\ \text{antipodal points on the} \\ \text{boundary identified.} \end{array} \right)$$

$$\leftrightarrow \pm (x, y, z, \sqrt{\tau_V^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2}) \in \mathbb{RP}^3$$

Ex: Show that this is not only a bijection, but also a diffeomorphism between  $SO(3)$  and  $\mathbb{RP}^3$ .

From this you see that  $S^3 =$  unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  forms a double cover of  $\mathbb{RP}^3 \cong SO(3)$ . But more is true:  $S^3$  is not just a sphere but also a Lie group if you identify it with either

$SU(2) = \{A \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} : A^\dagger A = I, \det(A) = 1\}$  or the "unit quaternions". This double cover happens to be very meaningful to the physicists.

Related to this double cover is the fact that the first fundamental group of  $SO(3) = \mathbb{Z}_2$

This means there are two kinds of continuous loops in  $SO(3)$ , one that is homotopic to the trivial loop, and the other that is not. To get a hint that this topological fact is of significance to the physicists, take a look at the famous

"Dirac belt trick",

credited to Physics Nobel laureate Paul Dirac for illustrating the two kinds of loops above.

See, for example,

<https://vimeo.com/62228139>