

Summer term 2024 – Cyrill Stachniss

5 Minute Preparation for Today



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=giOpcCPHitY

Photogrammetry & Robotics Lab

Some Math Basics

Cyrill Stachniss

The slides have been created by Cyrill Stachniss.

Motivation

- We use several concepts from math
- Goal: Provide a short reminder for few things that we will use on our way

Brief, informal, incomplete, and unordered set of explanations

Motivation

- We use several concepts from math
- Goal: Provide a short reminder
- Topics
 - Solving Ax=b
 - Solving Ax=0 using SVD
 - Least squares with Gauss Newton
 - Skew-symmetric matrix
 - Derivative of rotation matrices
 - Homogenous coordinates (own lecture)

System of Linear Equations

$$Ax = b$$

Linear Equation System: Ax=b

Three cases:

- A is squared and has full rank
- A is overdetermined
- A is underdetermined

Solving Ax=b, w/ Exact Solution

- A is a square matrix with full rank
- Best-case situation, unique solution
- Can be solved in many ways...

Solving Ax=b, w/ Exact Solution

- A is a square matrix with full rank
- Best-case situation, unique solution
- Can be solved through
 - Gauss elimination
 - Inversion of $A: x = A^{-1}b$
 - Cholesky decomposition $\operatorname{chol}(A) = LL^{\mathsf{T}}$ with lower triangular matrix L and then solving Ly = b and $L^{\mathsf{T}}x = y$
 - QR decomposition
 - Conjugate gradients

Solving Ax=b, A overdetermined

- Common real-world situation
- No exact solution exists
- We aim at finding minimizing ||Ax b|| instead of solving Ax = b:

$$oldsymbol{x}^* = \arg\min_{oldsymbol{x}} \|Aoldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{b}\|$$

- Ordinary least squares approach
- Solution can be obtained through

$$\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{A})^{-1}\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{b}$$

Solving Ax=b, A underdetermined

- Infinitively many solutions exist (or no solution if inconsistent)
- Not enough information available
- ullet Approach: Find $oldsymbol{x}$ which solves $Aoldsymbol{x}=oldsymbol{b}$ and minimizes $\|oldsymbol{x}\|$
- Solution

$$\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{A}^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1} \boldsymbol{b}$$

Homogenous System

$$Ax = 0$$

Homogenous System: Ax=0

- ullet Find a solution $oldsymbol{x}
 eq oldsymbol{0}$ fulfilling $oldsymbol{A} oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{0}$
- Means system is underdetermined
- There exists a null space of A called $\operatorname{null}(A)$ and all \boldsymbol{x} fulfilling $A\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{0}$ are elements of it
- A's rank deficiency defines the dimensionality of the null space

Eigenvalues

For a squared matrix, we have

$$\dim(A) = \dim(\text{null}(A)) + \text{rank}(A)$$

• Which impact does this have on the Eigenvalues of A?

Eigenvalues

For a squared matrix, we have

$$\dim(A) = \dim(\text{null}(A)) + \text{rank}(A)$$

- Which impact does this have on the Eigenvalues of A?
- There are rank(A) non-zero
 Eigenvalues
- There are dim(null(A)) Eigenvalues that are zero

Eigenvector

- For each Eigenvector $oldsymbol{
 u}$ holds $Aoldsymbol{
 u}=\lambdaoldsymbol{
 u}$
- Thus, for those with Eigenvalue 0 we have $A\nu = 0\nu = 0$

Eigenvector

- For each Eigenvector $oldsymbol{
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- Thus, for those with Eigenvalue 0 we have $A\nu=0\nu=0$
- Result: all Eigenvectors corresponding to an Eigenvalue of 0 solve $Ax=\mathbf{0}$
- The same holds for all linear combinations of these Eigenvectors
- These Eigenvectors form null(A)

Eigenvector & Singular Vectors

- If A is square, real, symmetric and has non-negative Eigenvalues, then Eigenvalues equal to singular values
- Singular vectors and values also defined for non-square matrices
- We can use SVD to compute the singular values and vectors

Singular Value Decomposition

SVD decomposes a matrix A into

$$A = UDV^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U \\ D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V^{\top} \\ M \times N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M \times N \qquad M \times N \qquad N \times N$$

Singular Values

SVD decomposes a matrix A into

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$$M \times N = M \times M = M \times N = N \times N$$

- D is a diagonal matrix of singular values sorted from large to small
- U, V are orthogonal matrices

Singular Vectors

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$$D V^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$M \times N \qquad M \times M \qquad M \times N \qquad N \times N$$

• V^{\top} stores the corresponding singular vectors to the values

Singular Vectors

SVD decomposes a matrix A into

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$$D V^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$M \times N \qquad M \times M \qquad M \times N \qquad N \times N$$

- Math libraries often returns V not V
- The last column of V stores the vector corresponding to the smallest value

Solution to Ax=0 via SVD

- Decompose A using SVD: $A = UDV^T$
- Check of the smallest singular value in D is zero: $D_{NN} \stackrel{?}{=} 0$
- If so, the last column of V is a non-trivial solution $oldsymbol{x}$ to $Aoldsymbol{x}=oldsymbol{0}$

Solution to Ax=0 via SVD

- Decompose A using SVD: $A = UDV^T$
- Check of the smallest singular value in D is zero: $D_{NN} \stackrel{?}{=} 0$
- If so, the last column of V is a non-trivial solution $oldsymbol{x}$ to $Aoldsymbol{x}=oldsymbol{0}$
- If not, there is no non-trivial solution (i.e., only the trivial exists)
- However, the last column of V represents the vector that minimizes $\|Ax\|$ under the constraint $\|x\|=1$

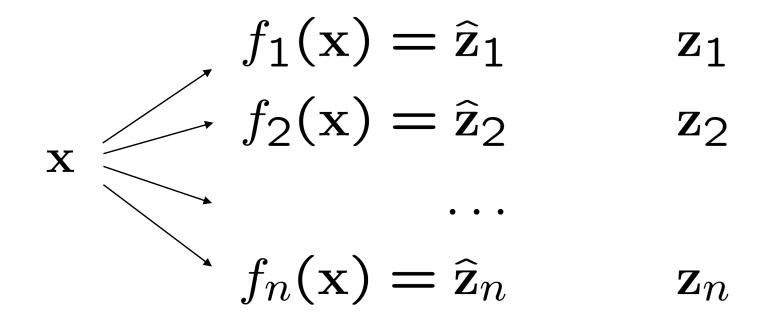
Least Squares (an non-Geodetic view)

Least Squares in 5 Minutes



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=87S82fh4rI4

Graphical Explanation



state (unknown)

predicted measurements

real measurements

Error Function

 Error e_i is typically the difference between the predicted and actual measurement

$$\mathbf{e}_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{z}_i - f_i(\mathbf{x})$$

- We assume that the error has zero mean and is normally distributed
- Gaussian error with information matrix $oldsymbol{\Lambda}_i$
- The squared error of a measurement depends only on the state and is a scalar

$$e_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{e}_i(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{\Lambda}_i \mathbf{e}_i(\mathbf{x})$$

Linearizing the Error Function

 Approximate the error functions around an initial guess x via Taylor expansion

$$\mathbf{e}_i(\mathbf{x} + \Delta \mathbf{x}) \simeq \underbrace{\mathbf{e}_i(\mathbf{x})}_{\mathbf{e}_i} + \mathbf{J}_i(\mathbf{x}) \Delta \mathbf{x}$$

J is the Jacobian

$$\mathbf{J}_{f}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \\ \frac{\partial f_{2}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial f_{2}(x)}{\partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{2}(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Gauss-Newton

Iterate the following steps:

 Linearize around x and compute for each measurement

$$e_i(x + \Delta x) \simeq e_i(x) + J_i \Delta x$$

- Compute the terms for the linear system $\mathbf{b}^{\top} = \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{\Lambda}_{i} \mathbf{J}_{i} \quad \mathbf{H} = \sum_{i} \mathbf{J}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{\Lambda}_{i} \mathbf{J}_{i}$
- Solve the linear system

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}^* = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

• Updating state $x \leftarrow x + \Delta x^*$

Skew-Symmetric Matrices

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• A skew-symmetric matrix is a matrix S for which holds $S^{\top} = -S$

Skew-Symmetric Matrices

- A skew-symmetric matrix is a matrix S for which holds $S^{\top} = -S$
- S has zeros on the main diagonal
- $\forall S \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} : \det(S) = 0$
- $\bullet \det(S) = 0 \quad \text{if } \dim(S) \text{ odd.}$

Skew-Symmetric Matrices in 3D

• In ${\rm I\!R}^3$ we can express the cross product through a skew-symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}]_{\times} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{S}_{a} \mathbf{b}$$

$$[\mathbf{a}]_{\times} = \mathbf{S}_{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_{3} & a_{2} \\ a_{3} & 0 & -a_{1} \\ -a_{2} & a_{1} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Skew-Symmetric Matrices in 3D

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$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{a}} \times \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}} = \begin{bmatrix} -a_3b_2 + a_2b_3 \\ a_3b_1 - a_1b_3 \\ -a_2b_1 + a_1b_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -a_3 & a_2 \\ a_3 & 0 & -a_1 \\ -a_2 & a_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{S}_a} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}}$$

- Skew-symmetric matrices are useful to formulate the derivative of a rotation matrix
- For any rotation matrix R holds $RR^{\top} = I$
- Consider a rotation by θ around x-axis $R_x(\theta)$
- Then, we have $R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta)=I$

Compute derivative (chain rule)

$$R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) = I$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \left(R_x(\theta) R_x^{\top}(\theta) \right) = \frac{d}{d\theta} I$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) + R_x(\theta)\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x^{\top}(\theta) = 0$$

Compute derivative (chain rule)

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$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \left(R_x(\theta) R_x^{\top}(\theta) \right) = \frac{d}{d\theta} I$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) + R_x(\theta)\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x^{\top}(\theta) = 0$$

■ Exploiting $(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top}A^{\top}$ leads us to

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) + \left(\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta)\right)^{\top} = 0$$

- Rewrite $\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) + \left(\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta)\right)^{\top} = 0$
- as $S + S^{\top} = 0$
- This directly leads to $S^{\top} = -S$, which is a skew-symmetric matrix
- We can now exploit the fact that $\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta)$ is a skew-symmetric matrix

• We have $S = \frac{d}{d\theta} R_x(\theta) R_x^{\top}(\theta)$

$$R_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$
 Remember:
$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \sin(\theta) = \cos(\theta)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \cos(\theta) = -\sin(\theta)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\sin(\theta) = \cos(\theta)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}\cos(\theta) = -\sin(\theta)$$

So

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & -\cos\theta \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\frac{\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)}{R_x^{\top}(\theta)}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & -\cos\theta \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= Se_x$$

with the unit vector
$$oldsymbol{e}_x = \left[egin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right]$$

- This means $\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)R_x^{\top}(\theta) = S_{\boldsymbol{e}_x}$
- and thus

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta)\underbrace{R_x^{\top}(\theta)R_x(\theta)}_{I} = S_{\boldsymbol{e}_x}R_x(\theta)$$

• The derivative of a rotation matrix $R_x(\theta)$ is the skew-symmetric matrix S_{e_x} times the rotation matrix itself

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta) = S_{\boldsymbol{e}_x}R_x(\theta)$$

The Same for x,y,z Axes

• We can repeat the same to x, y, z and obtain

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_x(\theta) = S_{\boldsymbol{e}_x}R_x(\theta)$$

$$rac{d}{d heta}R_y(heta) = S_{m{e}_y}R_y(heta)$$

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_z(\theta) = S_{\boldsymbol{e}_z}R_z(\theta)$$

ullet and even for an arbitrary rot. axis r

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}R_r(\theta) = S_r R_r(\theta)$$

Infinitesimal Small Rotations

Similarly, we can also approximate an infinitesimally small rotation by

$$R \approx I + dR = I + S_{dr} = I + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -d\kappa & d\phi \\ d\kappa & 0 & -d\omega \\ -d\phi & d\omega & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$dR = S_{dr} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -d\kappa & d\phi \\ d\kappa & 0 & -d\omega \\ -d\phi & d\omega & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Summary

This lecture was a **brief and informal** reminder of concepts we will need

- Solving Ax=b
- Solving Ax=0 using SVD
- Least squares with Gauss Newton
- Skew-symmetric matrix
- Derivative of a rotation matrix
- Own lecture: Homogenous coordinates