Chapter 7: Linear maps and transformation matrices

K. Jünemann
Department Informations- und Elektrotechnik
HAW Hamburg

Content

Chapter 7: Linear maps and transformation matrices
Linear maps and matrices
Linear maps in 2D
Rotations in 3D

In the following: think of vectors as columns!

A map $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$ is called *linear* iff

- $f(\alpha \vec{x}) = \alpha f(\vec{x})$
- $f(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = f(\vec{x}) + f(\vec{y})$

for any two vector $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and any scalar α .

Remarks:

- ► Each linear map satisfies $f(\vec{0}) = \vec{0}$. Proof: $\vec{0} = 0 \cdot \vec{x} \implies f(\vec{0}) = f(0 \cdot \vec{x}) = 0 \cdot f(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$ for an arbitrary vector \vec{x} .
- A linear map is determined by its action on basis vectors, e.g. in \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$f(\vec{x}) = f(x_1\vec{e}_1 + x_2\vec{e}_2) = x_1f(\vec{e}_1) + x_2f(\vec{e}_2)$$

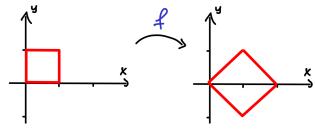
Example: Consider a linear map f in \mathbb{R}^2 , defined by

$$f(\vec{e}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $f(\vec{e}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

What ist $f(\vec{x})$ with $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2$?

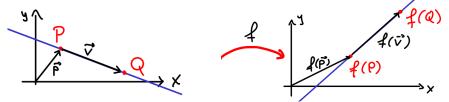
$$f(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{e}_1 + \vec{e}_2) = f(\vec{e}_1) + f(\vec{e}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Visualize by action on unit square: rotation and scaling



Consider straight line through points *P* and *Q*:

$$ec{m{p}} + lpha ec{m{v}} \qquad ext{with } ec{m{v}} := \overline{m{PQ}} \ ext{ and any } lpha \in \mathbb{R}$$



Apply linear map *f* to straight line:

$$f(\vec{p} + \alpha \vec{v}) = f(\vec{p}) + \alpha f(\vec{v})$$

Result: straight line through points f(P) and f(Q)!

Linear maps map straight lines to straight lines.

Matrices and linear maps are the same because

1. Every $N \times N$ matrix **A** defines a linear map $f : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$ by the rule

$$f(\vec{x}) := \mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{x}$$
.

2. For any given linear map $f : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$ there is a matrix \mathbf{A}_f such that $f(\vec{x}) = \mathbf{A}_f \cdot \vec{x}$.

The first statement is obvious but why is the second true?

Let $\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_N$ be a basis \implies any \vec{x} has the form

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{b}_1 + \ldots + x_N \vec{b}_N$$

Apply some given linear map *f*:

$$f(\vec{x}) = f(x_1\vec{b}_1 + \dots + x_N\vec{b}_N)$$

$$= x_1f(\vec{b}_1) + \dots + x_Nf(\vec{b}_N)$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} | & \dots & | \\ f(\vec{b}_1) & \dots & f(\vec{b}_N) \\ | & \dots & | \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}_f} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}_f}$$

$$= \mathbf{A}_f \cdot \vec{x}$$

Any linear map $f: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$ has the form

$$f(\vec{x}) = \mathbf{A}_f \cdot \vec{x}$$

where the columns of the $N \times N$ matrix \mathbf{A}_f consists of f applied to the basis vectors.

Remarks:

- $ightharpoonup A_f$ is called *representation matrix* of the map f.
- $ightharpoonup A_f$ depends on choice of basis.
- ▶ The identity map $id(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}$ is represented by unit matrix **E**.
- ► The inverse matrix \mathbf{A}_{f}^{-1} is the representation matrix of the inverse map f^{-1} .

Example: Again the linear map f in \mathbb{R}^2 , defined by

$$f(\vec{e_1}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $f(\vec{e_2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Representation matrix:

$$\mathbf{A}_f = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

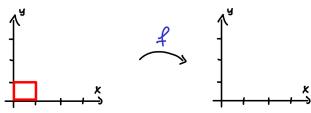
Check:

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{A}_f \cdot \vec{\boldsymbol{e}}_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \boldsymbol{A}_f \cdot \vec{\boldsymbol{e}}_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \boldsymbol{A}_f \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

For some linear map in \mathbb{R}^2 we know

$$f(\vec{e}_1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $f(\vec{e}_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

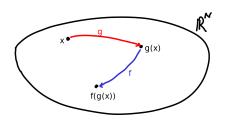
- Find the matrix \mathbf{A}_f of the linear map.
- ▶ What is $f(\vec{x})$ with $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$?
- Draw the image of the unit square under f?

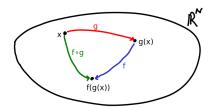


Consider two linear maps f and g with representation matrices \mathbf{A}_f and \mathbf{A}_g . What is the meaning of the matrix product $\mathbf{A}_f \cdot \mathbf{A}_g$?

$$\mathbf{A}_f \cdot \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_g \cdot \vec{x}}_{g(\vec{x})} = f\left(g(\vec{x})\right) =: f \circ g(\vec{x})$$

The product $\mathbf{A}_f \cdot \mathbf{A}_g$ of two representation matrices is the representation matrix of the composition map $f \circ g$.





Remarks on the composition of linear maps:

- Read composition of maps f ∘ g from right to left!
 A_f · A_g means:
 - First apply the map g with representation matrix \mathbf{A}_g .
 - ► Then apply the map f with representation matrix \mathbf{A}_f .
- The order of maps matters:
 - $f \circ g \neq g \circ f$
 - $\blacktriangleright \ \mathbf{A}_f \cdot \mathbf{A}_g \neq \mathbf{A}_g \cdot \mathbf{A}_f$
- Composition of many maps represented by single matrix:

$$f_1 \circ f_2 \circ \ldots \circ f_N(\vec{x}) = \underbrace{\mathbf{A}_{f_1} \cdot \mathbf{A}_{f_2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathbf{A}_{f_N}}_{\mathbf{A}} \cdot \vec{x} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \vec{x}$$

allows for efficient implementation of $f_1 \circ f_2 \circ ... \circ f_N$ applied to a large number of vectors \vec{x} !

General form of a linear map in \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

contains 4 paramters.

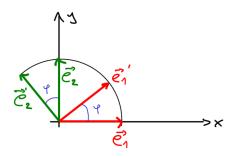
Every linear map in \mathbb{R}^2 is the composition of a

- rotation
- scale transform
- shear transform

These are called *elementary* transforms.

Rotations in \mathbb{R}^2 :

- ▶ Rotation angle: φ defined modulo 2π (1 parameter)
- ► Rotation matrix \mathbf{R}_{φ} : columns are rotated basis vectors \vec{e}_1' and \vec{e}_2'



$$ec{e}_1' = egin{pmatrix} \cos(arphi) \ \sin(arphi) \end{pmatrix} \; , \qquad ec{e}_2' = egin{pmatrix} -\sin(arphi) \ \cos(arphi) \end{pmatrix}$$

A rotation matrix in 2D has the form

$$\mathbf{R}_{arphi} = egin{pmatrix} \cos(arphi) & -\sin(arphi) \ \sin(arphi) & \cos(arphi) \end{pmatrix}$$

where φ is the angle of rotation.

Check that \mathbf{R}_{ω} satisfies the conditions

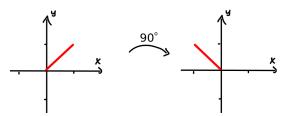
- 1. $\det(\mathbf{R}_{\varphi}) = 1$
- $2. \ \mathbf{R}_{\varphi}^{T} = \mathbf{R}_{\varphi}^{-1}$
- Any rotation matrix in any dimension satisfies these two conditions.
- A matrix satisfying 2. is called *orthogonal* matrix. Orthogonal matrices preserve length and angles of transformed vectors.

Example: rotation by 90°.

$$\mathbf{R}_{90^{\circ}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

applied to (1, 1):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Consider a rotation in \mathbb{R}^2 by 45°.

- Write down the rotation matrix.
- 2. What is the result of rotating the vector (2, 1) by 45°?
- 3. Draw the image of the square with vertices (1,0),(2,0),(2,1),(1,1) under a rotation of 45°.

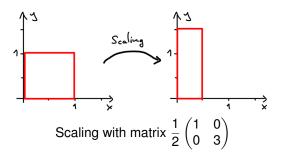
Hint:
$$\cos(\pi/4) = \sin(\pi/4) = 1/\sqrt{2}$$

Scale transforms in \mathbb{R}^2 (2 parameters): $\begin{pmatrix} s_1 & 0 \\ 0 & s_2 \end{pmatrix}$

- scale factor > 1: expansion
- scale factor < 1: contraction</p>

Action on a vector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} s_1 & 0 \\ 0 & s_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_1 x_1 \\ s_2 x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

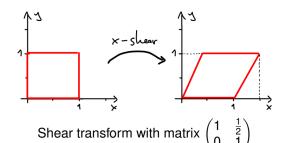


Shear transforms in \mathbb{R}^2 (2 parameters):

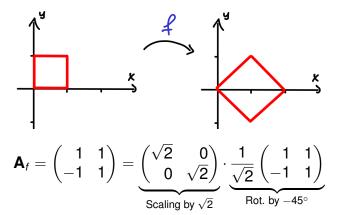
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sigma_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} , \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \sigma_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Action on a vector:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sigma_1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + \sigma_1 x_2 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$



The example from pages 4 and 9 as composition of two maps:

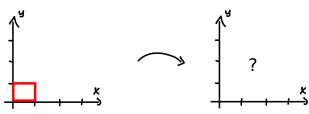


f is the composition of a rotation and a scaling

Write the map of exercise 1 on slide 10 as a composition of two elementary transforms.

Let **R** be a 2D-rotation by 45° and **S** be a scaling by $\frac{1}{2}$ into the *y*-direction.

- What happens to the unit square when it is first rotated by R and then scaled by S?
- 2. What happens to the unit square when it is first scaled by S and then rotated by R?
- 3. What happens to the unit square when it is first rotated by R, then scaled by S and then rotated back by R⁻¹?



Rotations in 3D

- Shear and scale matrices are similar in 2D and 3D.
- Rotations in 3D depend on 3 parameters more complicated in 3D!
- The order of rotations matter!

In general:
$$\mathbf{R}_1 \cdot \mathbf{R}_2 \neq \mathbf{R}_2 \cdot \mathbf{R}_1$$

for two different rotation matrices.

- Several approaches to 3D rotations exist:
 - Quaternions (generalized complex numbers) used internally in three.js
 - ► Euler (or Tait-Bryan) angles
 - Axis-angle matrices

Rotations in 3D

A word about quaternions:

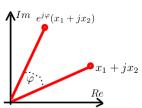
2D rotations can be implemented using complex numbers:

$$(x_1 + ix_2) \cdot e^{i\varphi}$$

$$= (x_1 + ix_2) \cdot (\cos(\varphi) + i\sin(\varphi))$$

$$= (x_1 \cos(\varphi) - x_2 \sin(\varphi))$$

$$+ i(x_1 \sin(\varphi) + x_2 \cos(\varphi))$$



- Extend this to 3D by adding more imaginary units:
 - Just adding one more imaginary unit j doesn't work.
 - Adding two units works! Definition of a quaternion q:

$$q = x_1 + ix_2 + jx_3 + kx_4$$
 with $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$

and

$$ij = -ji = k$$
, $jk = -kj = i$, $ki = -ik = j$,

Rotations in 3D: Euler angles

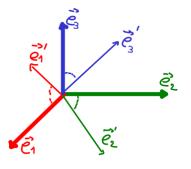
- More precisely: Tait-Bryan angles
- Euler observed that any rotation can be thought of as succession of three elementary rotations:

$$\mathbf{R}_{z''}(\gamma) \cdot \mathbf{R}_{y'}(\beta) \cdot \mathbf{R}_{x}(\alpha)$$

- $ightharpoonup \alpha$, β , γ : angles of elementary rotations.
- ▶ Axes of elementary rotations define an order, here *XYZ*.

Rotations in 3D

Digression: Fixed and rotated frames



Given

- ▶ a basis \vec{e}_1 , \vec{e}_2 , \vec{e}_3 defining a fixed frame,
- ▶ a rotation matrix \mathbf{M} , one defines a rotated (or primed) frame with basis $\vec{e}_{1'}$, $\vec{e}_{1'}$, $\vec{e}_{3'}$:

Relation between bases:

$$\vec{e}_{1'} = \mathbf{M} \cdot \vec{e}_1 \; , \qquad \vec{e}_{2'} = \mathbf{M} \cdot \vec{e}_2 \; , \qquad \vec{e}_{3'} = \mathbf{M} \cdot \vec{e}_3$$

Rotations in 3D: Euler angles

Axes of elementary rotations for order XYZ

- First rotation $\mathbf{R}_x(\alpha)$ around x-axis of fixed coordinate system.
- Second rotation $\mathbf{R}_{y'}(\beta)$ around y'-axis of $\mathbf{R}_x(\alpha)$ rotated coordinate system.
- ► Third rotation $\mathbf{R}_{z''}(\gamma)$ around z''-axis of $\mathbf{R}_{y'}(\beta) \cdot \mathbf{R}_{x}(\alpha)$ -rotated coordinate system.

Remarks:

- 6 possible orders: XYZ, XZY, YXZ, YZX, ZXY, ZYX.
- ➤ XYZ is the default in three.js.
- Euler orders are read from left to right.

Rotations in 3D: Euler angles in three.js

Object3D.rotation is Euler object:

```
THREE.Euler = function ( x, y, z, order ) {
   this._x = x || 0; // angle around x-axis
   this._y = y || 0; // angle around y-axis
   this._z = z || 0; // angle around z-axis
   this._order = order
   || THREE.Euler.DefaultOrder; // = XYZ
};
```

Code to test example on next slide:

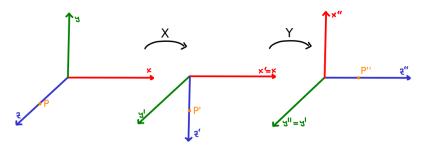
```
const a = Math.PI/2;
const eu = new THREE.Euler(a,a,0,"XYZ");
const m = new THREE.Matrix4();
m.makeRotationFromEuler(eu);
const v = new THREE.Vector3(0,0,1).applyMatrix4(m);
```

Rotations in 3D: Euler angles

Example: consider an Euler rotation with

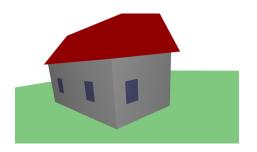
- ightharpoonup x-angle $\alpha = 90^{\circ}$
- *y*-angle $\beta = 90^{\circ}$
- ightharpoonup z-angle $\gamma = 0^{\circ}$

The result of applying this Euler rotation to (0,0,1) with order XYZ is (1,0,0) (in the original coordinate system).



- 1. Do the example of the with order *YXZ*.
- 2. Check your result with three.js.

Add windows to the house:



- Implement windows as thin black box geometries.
- Position them correctly on the walls.

Hint: Add axes showing the *local* frame of any object

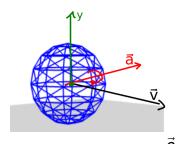
```
// len: length of axes
obj.add(new THREE.AxesHelper(len));
```

Rotations in 3D: Euler angles

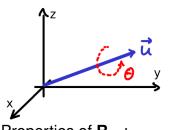
Features of Euler angles:

- Given angles and order, rotation is hard to visualize in the fixed frame.
- Easier to visualize in body frame.
- Loss of degree of freedom if two axes of rotation happen to coincide, e.g. $\beta = \pi/2$ (gimbal lock).

How to implement a rolling ball?



- Assume ball moves in x-z-plane
- Speed of ball: $\vec{v} = (v_x, 0, v_z)$ arbitrary
- Radius of ball: R
- Axis of rotation: $\vec{a} = \frac{\vec{e}_y \times \vec{v}}{|\vec{e}_y \times \vec{v}|}$ \vec{e}_y : normal to rolling plane
- Angular velocity: $\omega = \frac{|\vec{v}|}{R}$
- ▶ Task: Rotate ball around axis \vec{n} by angle $\theta = \omega \cdot t$:



A rotation is specified by

- its axis of rotation \vec{u} (unit vector, 2 parameters)
- the rotation angle θ (1 parameter)
- Notation: $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}$

Properties of $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}$:

▶ The axis remains unchanged by the rotation:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}\cdot\vec{u}=\vec{u}$$

▶ The angle θ is given by

$$\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, heta}
ight)=1+2\cos(heta)$$

 $tr(\mathbf{M})$: trace of $\mathbf{M} = sum$ of its diagonal elements.

Big question: Given \vec{u} and θ , what does the rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}$ look like?

Easy cases (with $c := cos(\theta), s := sin(\theta)$):

$$\mathbf{R}_{\vec{e}_{x},\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c & -s \\ 0 & s & c \end{pmatrix}$$
 $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{e}_{y},\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} c & 0 & s \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s & 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$
 $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{e}_{z},\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} c & -s & 0 \\ s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

For a given rotation axis $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$ and rotation angle θ the axis-angle rotation matrix is

$$\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} (1-c)u_1^2 + c & (1-c)u_2u_1 - su_3 & (1-c)u_3u_1 + su_2 \\ (1-c)u_1u_2 + su_3 & (1-c)u_2^2 + c & (1-c)u_3u_2 - su_1 \\ (1-c)u_1u_3 - su_2 & (1-c)u_2u_3 + su_1 & (1-c)u_3^2 + c \end{pmatrix}$$

with $c := \cos(\theta)$ and $s := \sin(\theta)$.

- Note: \vec{u} must be a unit vector!
- Properties:
 - **R**_{\vec{u},θ} is orthogonal matrix with unit determinant, i.e.

$$\det(\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}) = 1$$
 and $\mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}^T = \mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},\theta}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}_{\vec{u},-\theta}$

Consecutive rotations with same axis:

$$\mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, heta} \cdot \mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, arphi} = \mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, heta + arphi}$$

- 1. Check that $\vec{u} = \vec{e}_z$ reproduces the correct result.
- 2. Work out the rotation matrix for a rotation by 60° around an axis pointing into direction (1, 1, 1)*Hint:* $\cos(\pi/3) = 1/2$, $\sin(\pi/3) = \sqrt{3}/2$
- 3. What do the vectors (1, -1, 0) and (2, 2, 2) rotate into?
- 4. Read the THREE. Matrix4 documentation (look for makeRotationAxis) to create this rotation matrix in the browser. Use this to check the results of parts 2. and 3.

Hint: Use the provided printMat function (see lib directory).

Use three.js to verify the relation

$$\mathsf{R}_{ec{m{\textit{u}}}, heta}\cdot\mathsf{R}_{ec{m{\textit{u}}},arphi}=\mathsf{R}_{ec{m{\textit{u}}}, heta+arphi}$$

- 1. Create a random unit vector \vec{u} .
- 2. Create two random angles θ and φ .
- 3. Calculate both sides of the equation and compare by inspection (use printMat).
- 4. Verify that in this case the rotation matrices commute:

$$\mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, heta}\cdot\mathbf{R}_{ec{u},arphi}=\mathbf{R}_{ec{u},arphi}\cdot\mathbf{R}_{ec{u}, heta}$$