# ME/AER 676 Robot Modeling \& Control Spring 2023 

## Rotations

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T_{B}^{A}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
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- If det $T_{B}^{A}=1$, then the ordering of the basis of $B$ satisfies some order defined by basis of $B$


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- Since $\left(T_{B}^{A}\right)^{T} T_{B}^{A}=I$, the magnitude of vectors doesn't change, only the direction
- Therefore, these transformations are rotations, and they form the special orthogonal group SO(3) (in 3D).


## SO(3)

## Definition (Special Orthogonal group in 3D)

The Special Orthogonal Group $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is the set of matrices
$R \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ such that

$$
R^{T} R=I d, \text { and } \operatorname{det} R=1
$$

$S O(3)$ is known as the orientation group and the rotation group.

Exercise: Show that $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ forms a group under matrix multiplication.

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$$
\begin{aligned}
e_{B}^{1} & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e_{A}^{1}-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e_{A}^{2} \\
e_{B}^{2} & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e_{A}^{1}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e_{A}^{2} \\
e_{B}^{3} & =1 \cdot e_{A}^{3} \\
\Longrightarrow R=T_{B}^{A} & =\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\
-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$



## Constructing Coordinate Frames

- Given any three non-collinear 3D vectors, we may define a rotation matrix by Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization.
- Therefore, four non-coplanar points $a, b, c, d$ on a rigid body are enough to define a cartesian frame fixed to the body
- One point becomes the origin
- The remaining three points define a vector relative to the origin point
- orthonormalize vectors to get vectors defining cartesian frame and its orientation
- origin + rotation matrix $=$ coordinate of body (frame)


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- We've called this matrix $T_{B}^{A}, R_{B}^{A}, R, T$
- The $G$-Torsor nature is why $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is called both the rotation group and the orientation group.
- Assigning coordinates to an orientation is the same as defining the rotation that generates that frame relative to a reference.


## Basic Rotations

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$$
R_{x, \theta}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos (\theta) & -\sin (\theta) \\
0 & \sin (\theta) & \cos (\theta)
\end{array}\right] \quad x_{A} \stackrel{x_{B}}{u_{B} \uparrow \uparrow_{A} z_{A}}
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\end{array}\right] \\
& \xrightarrow[x_{A}]{\substack{z_{B} \\
x_{B}}{ }_{y_{A}}^{z_{A}} y_{A}} \\
& R_{y, \theta}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos (\theta) & 0 & \sin (\theta) \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-\sin (\theta) & 0 & \cos (\theta)
\end{array}\right] \\
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## General Rotations

- We can construct a general rotation using a sequence of basic rotations. (Compare to Euclidean space)
- So, orientation coordinates can be derived by sequences of basic rotations (combined through multiplications).
- For Euclidean vector spaces, the order of a sequence of (vector space) operations didn't matter: $v+w=w+v$.
- For rotations, they do. In general, $R_{1} R_{2} \neq R_{2} R_{1}$.
- One interpretation of the two orders of multiplication is extrinsic vs. intrinsic rotations (next slide)


## Extrinsic vs Intrinsic Rotations



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Rotate about $z$

## Extrinsic vs Intrinsic Rotations



## Extrinsic vs Intrinsic Rotations

- A first rigid motion corresponding to rotation $R_{1}$ relative to a frame $A$ produces frame $B$
- A second rigid motion rotation $R_{2}$ can be applied relative to either $A$ or $B$.
- When applied relative to $B$, the second rotation is an intrinsic rotation. $R=R_{1} R_{2}$.
- When applied relative to $A$, the second rotation is an extrinsic rotation. $R=R_{2} R_{1}$.


## Euler Angles

- Euler angles use three basic rotations to define any orientation
- Many possible conventions based on
- Choice of axes of three basic rotations
- Sequence of extrinsic vs intrinsic rotations
- See notes and texts for more details


## Axis-Angle Formula

Alternatively, we may represent a rotation as a single angle of rotation $\theta$ and an axis $\mathbf{k}=\left[\begin{array}{lll}k_{1} & k_{2} & k_{3}\end{array}\right]^{T}$, leading to a formula for $R$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=I+(\sin \theta) K+(1-\cos \theta) K^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
K=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -k_{3} & k_{2} \\
k_{3} & 0 & -k_{1} \\
-k_{2} & k_{1} & 0
\end{array}\right],
$$

and $\mathbf{k}$ has unit norm.
The notes provide another formula where we represent the vector $\mathbf{k}$ using two angles $\alpha$ and $\beta$ that define basic rotations to produce $R$.

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Which rotation $R_{B}^{C}$ below correctly defines the new orientation of $B$ relative to orientation $C$ ?

1. $R_{B}^{C}=R_{B}^{A} R_{A}^{C}$
2. $R_{B}^{C}=R_{B}^{A} R_{C}^{A}$
3. $R_{B}^{C}=R_{A}^{C} R_{B}^{A}$
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How would you pick the right transformation? Why did we not consider $R_{A}^{B}$ ?

## Change-of-Basis For Orientations

- For example, imagine you, a driver, and a passenger in a car. Your orientation frames are aligned: Forward: x, upwards: z.
- When the car stops, the passenger opens the door spins to their right ( $R_{C}^{A}=R_{z,-90^{\circ}}$ )
- You lean back in your driver's seat $\left(R_{B}^{A}=R_{y,-20^{\circ}}\right)$
- What is your orientation according to the passenger?

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We want to change the frame of these coordinates to frame $C$.
To change the coordinates of vectors from $A$ to $C$, we must pre-multiply by $\left(R_{C}^{A}\right)^{-1}=R_{A}^{C}$. So,

$$
R_{B}^{C}=R_{A}^{C} R_{B}^{A}
$$

## Change-of-Basis For Orientations

Alternatively, The rigid motion in $A$ corresponding to moving to frame $B$ is $R_{B}^{A}$; the rigid motion in frame $C$ corresponding to moving to frame $A$ is $R_{A}^{C}$.

The combined rigid motion in $C$ is achieved by first moving by $R_{B}^{A}$ in C, then moving the result by $R_{A}^{C}$.
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Instead of orientation $R_{B}^{A}$ in frame $A$, what if we define rotation $R^{A}$ in frame $A$.
How do we represent this rotation in frame $C$ ?

## Change-of-Basis For Rotations

- The rotation $R^{A}$ is relative to frame $A$.
- Any generic orientation $P$ has coordinates $R_{P}^{A}$ in frame $A$
- Rotating this orientation results in a new orientation $R^{A} R_{P}^{A}$ in frame $A$ :

$$
R_{P}^{A} \mapsto R^{A} R_{P}^{A}
$$

- But, note that $R_{P}^{A}=R_{C}^{A} R_{P}^{C}$
- Therefore :

$$
\begin{gathered}
R_{C}^{A} R_{P}^{C} \mapsto R^{A} R_{C}^{A} R_{P}^{C}, \text { or } \\
R_{P}^{C} \mapsto\left(R_{C}^{A}\right)^{-1} R^{A} R_{C}^{A} R_{P}^{C}, \text { or }
\end{gathered}
$$

- Therefore, a rotation $R^{A}$ in frame $A$ becomes a rotation

$$
R^{C}=\left(R_{C}^{A}\right)^{-1} R^{A} R_{C}^{A}
$$

in frame $C$.

## Summary

- Rotations of bodies (equivalently, cartesian frames) correspond to a specific linear transformation
- The matrix representing any rotation belongs to $\mathrm{SO}(3)$, a group under matrix multiplication
- A rotation defines an orientation (part of the coordinates of a frame), given a reference orientation.
- We may use basic rotations defined about axes to construct any orientation
- Changing reference frames requires changing orientations, and also rotations, appropriately

