

FFTs in Graphics and Vision

Representing Rotations

Outline



- Math Review
 - Polynomials
 - Eigenvectors
 - Orthogonal Transformations
 - Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations
- Representing 3D Rotations



Polynomials:

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Claim:

If d is odd, the polynomial P(x) must have at least one real root.



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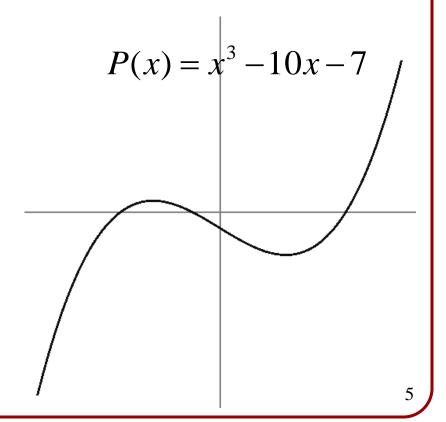
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Proof:

Consider the sign of a_d :

- If a_d is positive:
 - \Rightarrow As $x \rightarrow -\infty$: $P(x) \rightarrow -\infty$
 - » As $x \to \infty$: $P(x) \to \infty$





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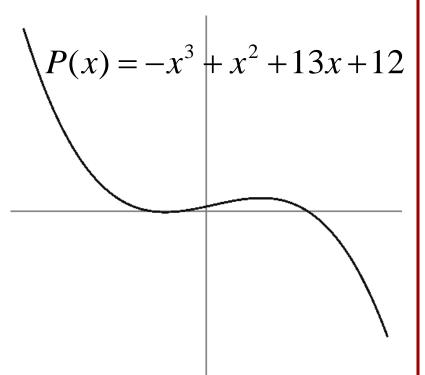
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 - » As $x \to \infty$: $P(x) \to \infty$
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Polynomials:

Let P(x) be a polynomial of degree d: $P(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_d x^d$

Proof:

In either case, the value of P(x) changes signs so it must have a zero-crossing somewhere.



Eigenvectors:

Given a vector space V and an invertible linear operator A, if v is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ then v is also an eigenvector of A^{-1} with eigenvalue $1/\lambda$.



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$$= A^{-1} \mathbf{Q}v$$

$$= \lambda A^{-1}v$$



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$$\frac{1}{\lambda}v = A^{-1}v$$



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If the determinant of *R* is 1, the transformation is called a rotation.



Orthogonal Transformations (Property 1):

The set of orthogonal transformations is a group.



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To show this we need to show that if *R* and *S* are orthogonal transformations than:

- RS is orthogonal
- R-1 is orthogonal



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If *R* and *S* are orthogonal transformations, than so is the transformation *RS*.

Using the fact that *R* is orthogonal, we get:

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Thus, we get:

$$\langle RSv, RSw \rangle = \langle v, w \rangle$$

showing that RS also preserves the inner product.



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Starting with the identity:

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$$\downarrow$$

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Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

Let V be the space of 2D arrays with the standard inner product:

$$\langle (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) \rangle = x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2$$



Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

We can express a linear operator *R* as a matrix:

$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$



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The diagonal entries give rise to the equations:

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For appropriate θ and ϕ , this gives:

$$a = \cos \theta$$
 $c = \sin \theta$
 $b = \cos \phi$ $d = \sin \phi$



Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

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The other equation(s) then becomes:

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Or equivalently:

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Which implies that:

$$\phi = \theta + k\pi + \pi/2$$



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If R is an orthogonal transformation, then in matrix form we have one of two cases:



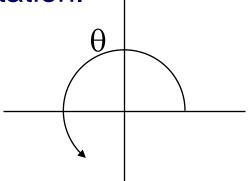
Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

If R is an orthogonal transformation, then in matrix form we have one of two cases:

• <u>k is even</u>:

$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

The determinant is 1, and this is a rotation.





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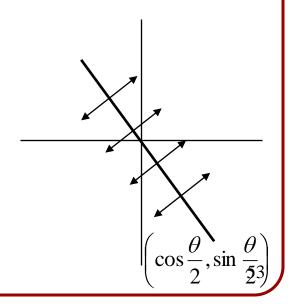
The determinant is -1, and this is a reflection.



Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

Claim:

In the case that *k* is odd, the orthogonal transformation has eigenvalues 1 and -1.



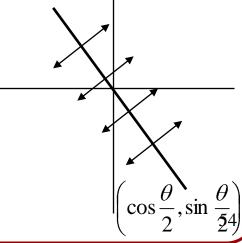


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$$= \lambda^{2} - \cos^{2} \theta - \sin^{2} \theta$$

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$$= \lambda^{2} - 1$$

$$\cos \frac{\theta}{2}, \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$



Classifying the 2D Orthogonal Transformations:

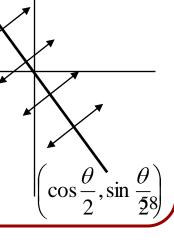
Claim:

In the case that *k* is odd, the orthogonal transformation has eigenvalues 1 and -1.

To compute the eigenvalues, we need to solve for the roots of the polynomial:

$$P_R(\lambda) = \lambda^2 - 1$$

This polynomial has two roots, $\lambda=\pm 1$.



Outline



- Math Review
- Representing 3D Rotations
 - Quaternions
 - Euler Angles

We will show that any rotation *R* can be thought of as a rotation about some axis.

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In particular, we need to show that every rotation R fixes some vector v and acts as a rotation in the plane P perpendicular to v.

Let V be the space of 3D arrays with the standard inner product:

$$\langle (x_1, y_1, z_1), (x_2, y_2, z_2) \rangle = x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 + z_1 z_2$$

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We can compute the eigenvalues of *R* by finding the roots of the determinant:

$$P_R(\lambda) = \det(R - \lambda \operatorname{Id}) = \det\begin{pmatrix} (a - \lambda) & b & c \\ d & (e - \lambda) & f \\ g & h & (i - \lambda) \end{pmatrix}$$

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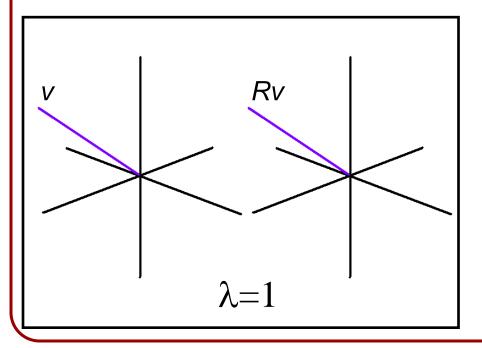
Thus, R must have an eigenvector ν with real eigenvalue λ .

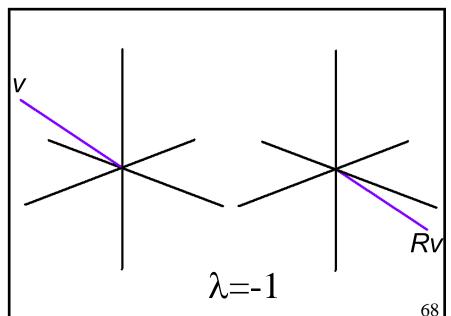
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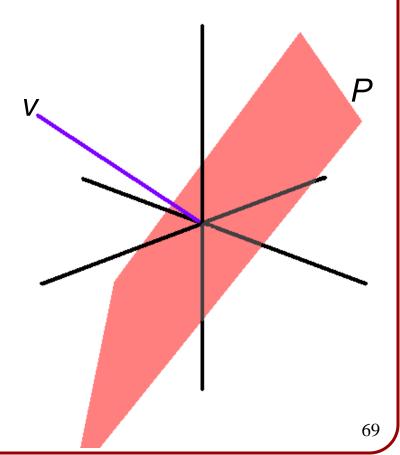
When *R* is orthogonal, we know that $\lambda=\pm 1$.

Thus, for every orthogonal transformation R, there must exist a vector v that is either fixed by R or mapped to its antipode.



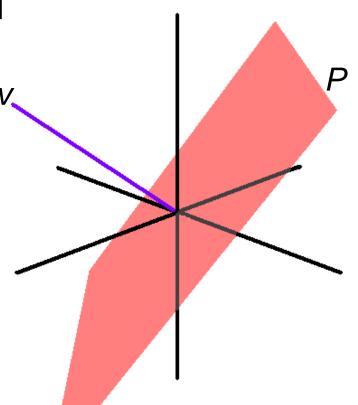


What happens to the plane *P* that is orthogonal to the eigenvector *v*?



What happens to the plane P that is orthogonal to the eigenvector $\sqrt{?}$

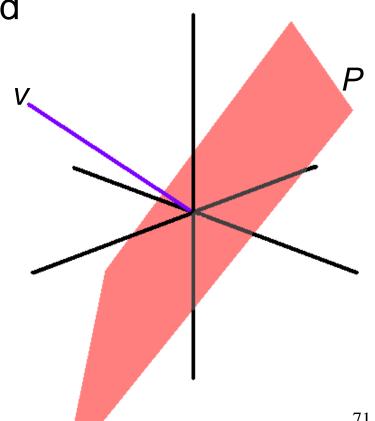
Since *R* maps the line spanned by *v* back into itself, and since *R* is orthogonal, *R* must map *v* the plane *P* back into itself.



What happens to the plane P that is orthogonal to the eigenvector *v*?

Since R maps the line spanned by v back into itself, and since R is orthogonal, R must map the plane P back into itself.

Since R must preserve the inner product within P, the restriction of R to P is a 2D orthogonal operator.



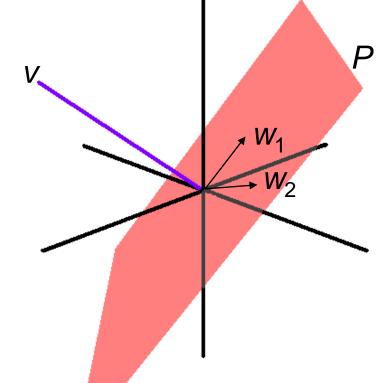
Thus, if we let w_1 and w_2 be an orthonormal basis for the plane P, then with respect to the basis $\{v, w_1, w_2\}$, we can express R in matrix form as

either:

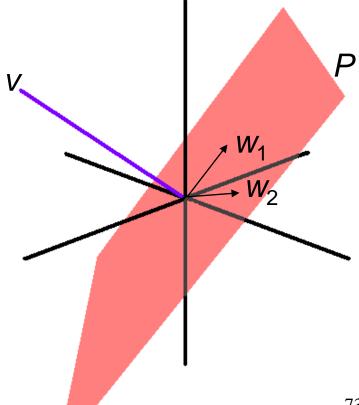
$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \qquad V$$

or:

$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta - \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

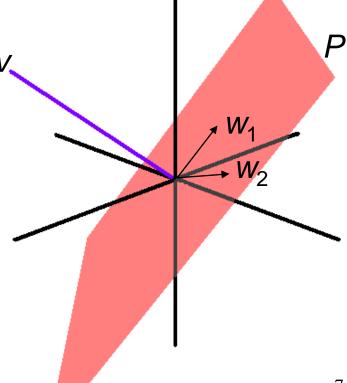


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If *R* is a rotation, then in addition to being orthogonal, it must have determinant 1.

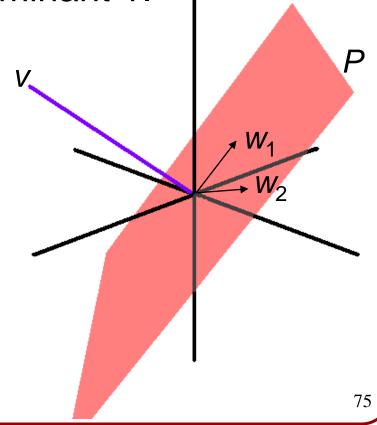


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For the two representations of *R* we get:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} = \lambda$$
$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta & -\cos\theta \end{pmatrix} = -\lambda$$

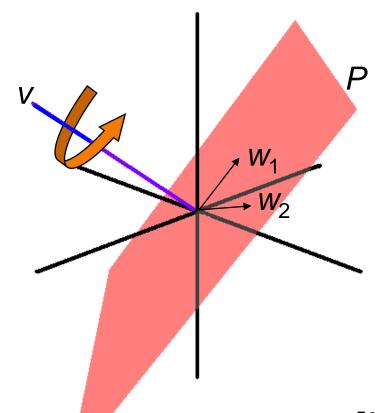


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Thus, if λ =1, we must have:

$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

and R is a rotation in the plane P by angle θ .

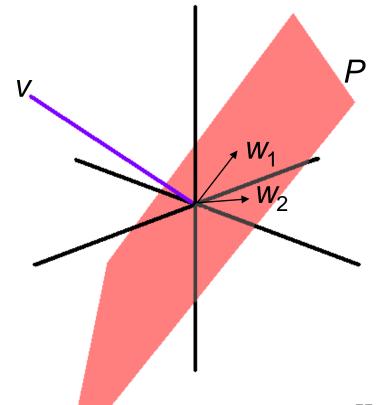


What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

On the other hand, if λ =-1, we get:

$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & \sin\theta & -\cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

and *R* is the composition of a reflection in the plane *P* and a flip about the line spanned by *v*.



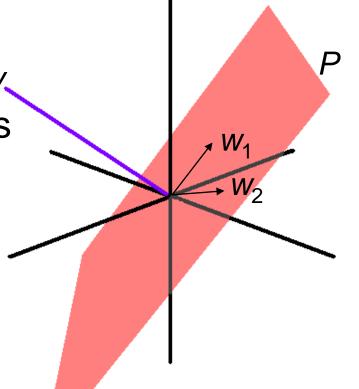
What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

Restricting *R* to the plane *P*, we get:

$$R_P \to \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & -\cos\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

which we know has eigenvalues

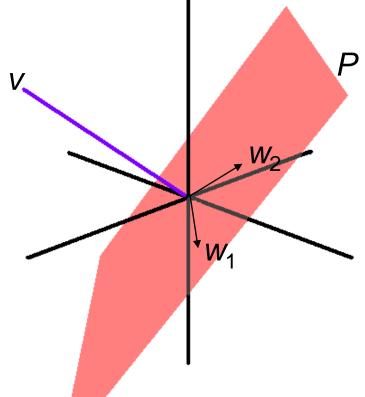
-1 and 1.



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Thus, if we set w_1 and w_2 to be the corresponding eigenvectors, we get:

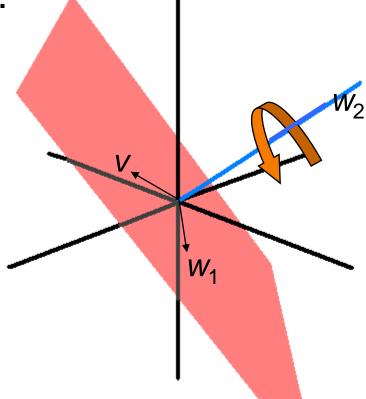
$$R \to \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

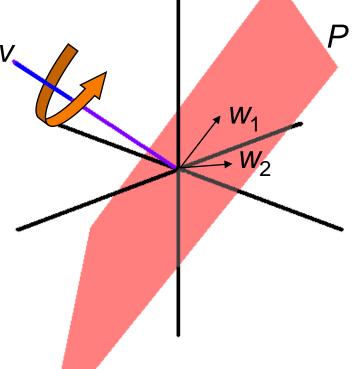
This implies that R must be a rotation by 180° in

the plane spanned by v and w_1 .



What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

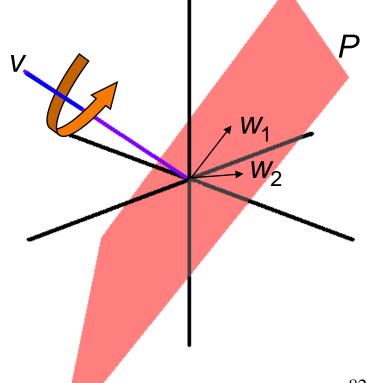
So, in both cases, the rotation R can be realized as a rotation by some angle θ about an axis v.



What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

So, in both cases, the rotation R can be realized as a rotation by some angle θ about an axis v.

That is, R sends the vector v back into itself and rotates vectors in the plane that is perpendicular to v by the angle θ .



What happens in the case that *R* is a rotation?

This motivates a representation of rotations by specifying the axis about which the rotation occurs and the angle of the 2D rotation.

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This is precisely the information represented by the quaternion representation of rotation.

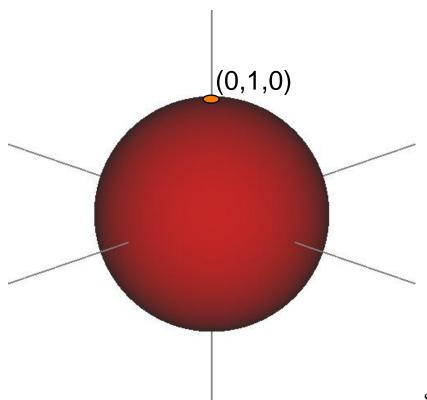
Outline



- Math Review
- Representing 3D Rotations
 - Quaternions
 - Euler Angles



We will consider a representation of rotations that describe a rotation in terms of what it does to the point (0,1,0) on the North pole of the sphere.

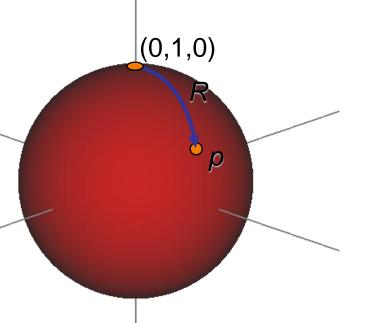


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We will consider a representation of rotations that describe a rotation in terms of what it does to the point (0,1,0) on the North pole of the sphere.

Given a rotation R, if we know that R maps the North pole to the point p, is that enough information to define R?

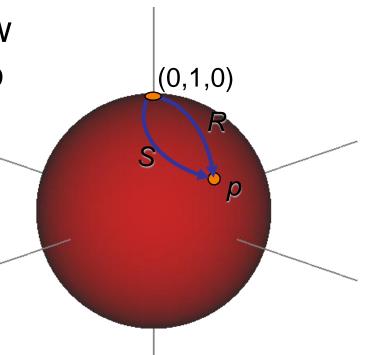




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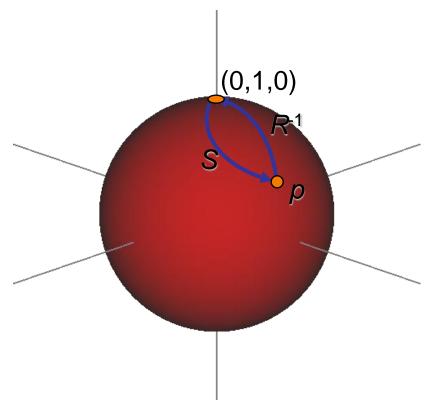
Given a rotation R, if we know that R maps the North pole to the point p, is that enough information to define R?

No. There can be many different rotations that all send (0,1,0) to the point *p*.





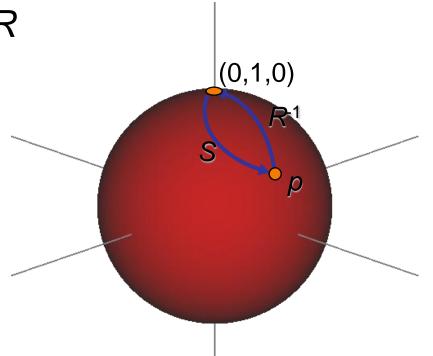
In particular, if R and S are two rotations mapping the North pole to the point p, we know that $R^{-1}S$ must map the North pole back to itself.





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That is, for any rotations *R* and *S* mapping the North pole to the point *p*, *R*⁻¹*S* must be a rotation about the North pole.



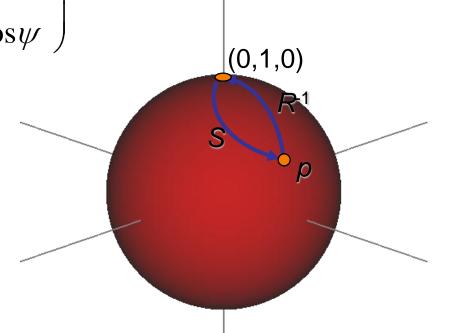


Thus, if we denote by $R_y(\psi)$ a rotation about the y-axis (North pole) by ψ degrees:

$$R_{y}(\psi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\psi & 0 & -\sin\psi \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\psi & 0 & \cos\psi \end{pmatrix}$$

then if *R* and *S* are two rotations sending the North pole to *p*, then:

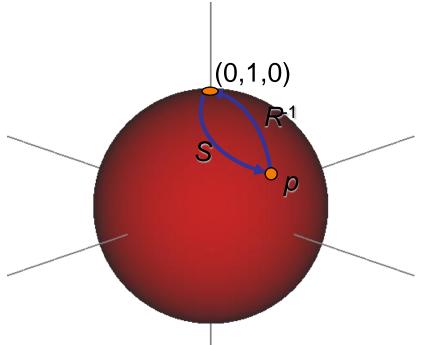
$$R^{-1}S = R_{y}(\psi)$$





In particular, this implies that if *R* is a rotation sending the North pole to *p*, then any other rotation *S* that sends the North pole to *p* must be of the form:

$$S = R \cdot R_{y}(\psi)$$



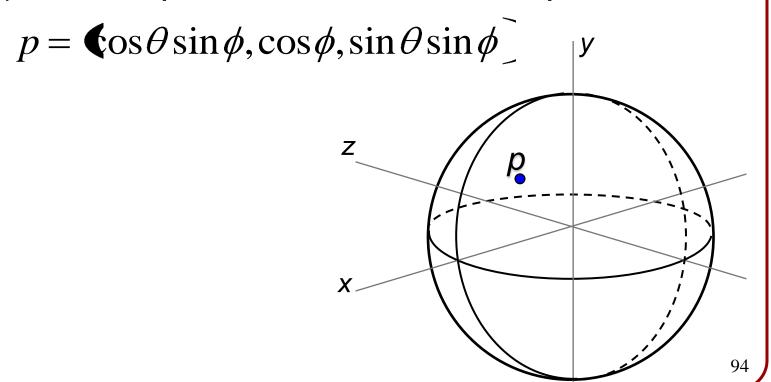


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Let (θ, ϕ) be the spherical coordinates of p:



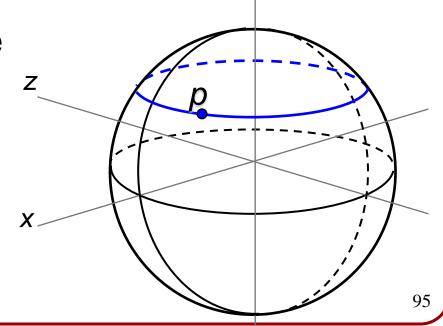


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Let (θ, ϕ) be the spherical coordinates of p:

 $p = \left(\cos\theta\sin\phi, \cos\phi, \sin\theta\sin\phi\right)$

The point p must lie on the circle about the y-axis with z height $\cos \phi$.





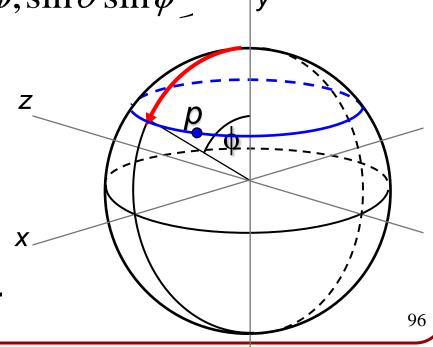
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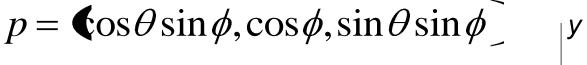
We can get (0,1,0) to this circle with a rotation by an angle of ϕ about the z-axis.



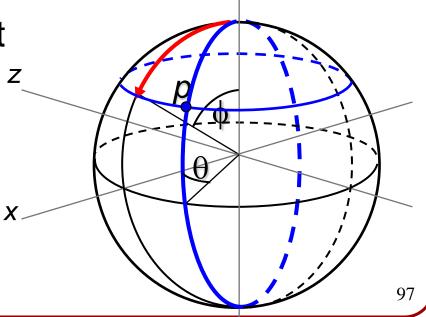


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We also know that the point p makes an angle of θ with z the xy-plane.





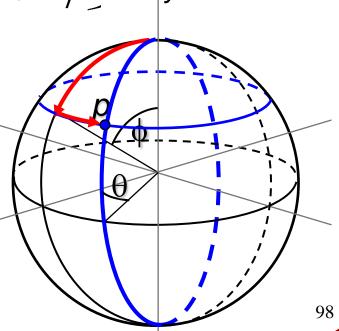
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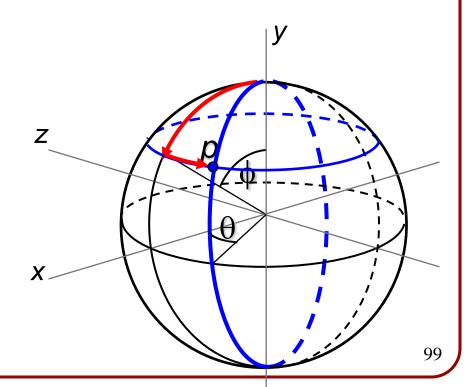
We can get the rotation of (0,1,0) to p by rotating by x an angle of θ about the y-axis.





Thus, when the spherical coordinates of the point p are (θ,ϕ) , we can rotate (0,1,0) to p by:

- First rotating by φ degrees about the z-axis, and
- Then rotating by θ degrees about the *y*-axis.





Since a rotation R can be described by a rotation about the y-axis, followed by a rotation that maps (0,1,0) to R(0,1,0), we can represent rotations by:

$$R = R_{y}(\theta) \cdot R_{z}(\phi) \cdot R_{y}(\psi)$$

where $R_y(\alpha)$ is the rotation about the *y*-axis by α , and $R_z(\beta)$ is the rotation about the *z*-axis by β .



In matrix form, the triplet of angles (θ, ϕ, ψ) represents the rotation:

$$R(\theta, \phi, \psi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & -\sin\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & -\sin\phi & 0 \\ \sin\phi & \cos\phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\psi & 0 & -\sin\psi \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\psi & 0 & \cos\psi \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation sending Rotation about (0,1,0) to $p=\Phi(\theta,\phi)$ the y-axis by ψ



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Rotation sending Rotation about (0,1,0) to $p=\Phi(\theta,\phi)$ the *y*-axis by ψ

This is the <u>Euler Angle</u> parameterization of 3D rotations.