

LO8 Rotations

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- The set of linear operators is restricted to $n \times n$ matrices, composed by multiplication. An operator M is represented by a grid of parallel (nonorthogonal) lines formed from linear combinations of the columns of \mathbb{M} which are the components of $\vec{M}(\vec{e}_i)$.
 - You can visualize this as shearing a grid, keeping parallel lines parallel.
 - In general, any operator $M = RS$ is the composition of a **rotation** R and a **stretch** S , (polar decomposition theorem), in analogy with the complex polar representation $z = pe^{i\phi}$.
 - We will treat rotations first, since they are needed to describe stretches.
- Derivation of 2d rotation matrix from $e^{i\phi}$ in the complex plane
 - $x' + iy' = z' = e^{i\phi} z = (c_\phi + is_\phi)(x + iy) = (c_\phi + is_\phi)x + (-s_\phi + ic_\phi)y = (c_\phi x - s_\phi y) + i(s_\phi x + c_\phi y)$.
 - The matrix equation for this rotation $\vec{v}' = \vec{R}(\vec{v})$ is $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}$ or $\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi \\ s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$.
 - The rows of \mathbb{R} come from real, imag parts of z' : $x' = c_\phi x - s_\phi y$ and $y' = s_\phi x + c_\phi y$.
 - The cols of \mathbb{R} are the unit vectors \hat{x}, \hat{y} rotated: $\hat{x}' = \hat{x}c_\phi + \hat{y}s_\phi$ and $\hat{y}' = -\hat{x}s_\phi + \hat{y}c_\phi$.
 - Note: the row equations are contractions, while the col equations are linear combinations.
- Active versus Passive rotations
 - An **active** rotation physically rotates vectors including unit vectors $\hat{x} \sim \mathbf{e}_1$ and $\hat{y} \sim \mathbf{e}_2$ into new vectors, like \mathbf{e}'_1 and \mathbf{e}'_2 , with different components in the same basis.
 - The new components are $\mathbf{e}'_1 = \mathbb{R} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{e}'_2 = \mathbb{R} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, which augments to $(\mathbf{e}'_1 \mathbf{e}'_2) = \mathbb{R} \mathbb{I} = \mathbb{R}$.
 - A **passive** rotation or basis transformation rotates the basis into a linear combination of the old one: $\begin{pmatrix} \hat{x}' & \hat{y}' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{x} & \hat{y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi \\ s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix}$ or $\hat{\mathbf{e}}' = \hat{\mathbf{e}}\mathbb{R}$. Note: $\hat{\mathbf{e}}, \hat{\mathbf{e}}'$ are vectors, not components.
 - Physical vectors $\vec{v} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{v}$ are not rotated, they just change components in a new basis: $\vec{v} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}'\mathbf{v}' = \hat{\mathbf{e}}\mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}' = \hat{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{v}$, and thus $\mathbf{v} = \mathbb{R}\mathbf{v}'$ or $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbb{R}^{-1}\mathbf{v}$, which is in the opposition direction.
 - If you tip your head (reference) to the left, the vector looks like it rotates to the right. Thus, normal vectors components are called **contravariant**—they vary against the basis.
 - A foolproof method to perform passive transformations of components is to write $\vec{v} = \vec{b}_1 v_1 + \vec{b}_2 v_2 + \dots$, substitute $\vec{b}_1 = \vec{b}'_1 \dots + \vec{b}'_2 \dots$, etc., and collect components of \vec{b}'_1 , etc.
- Properties of rotations
 - Orthogonal transformation: $\mathbb{R}^T \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{I}$

$$\mathbb{R}^T \mathbb{R} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & s_\phi \\ -s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi \\ s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi c_\phi + s_\phi s_\phi & -c_\phi s_\phi + s_\phi c_\phi \\ -s_\phi c_\phi + c_\phi s_\phi & s_\phi s_\phi + c_\phi c_\phi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{I}.$$
 - This is true in general, as seen by treating T as the dot product of columns

$$\mathbb{R}^T \mathbb{R} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1' & \mathbf{e}_2' \end{pmatrix}^T (\mathbf{e}_1' \quad \mathbf{e}_2') = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1' \\ \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2' \end{pmatrix} \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1' \quad \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2') = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{I}.$$

- Rotation (orthogonal transformation) preserves shape (lengths/angles or dot product).
- The most general orthogonal transformation preserves the metric: $\mathbf{g}' = \mathbb{R}^T \mathbf{g} \mathbb{R} = \mathbf{g}$

○ Composition of rotations in the xy -plane: (in general, the 'angle' is an axial vector

$$\mathbb{R}_\phi \mathbb{R}_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi \\ s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_\psi & -s_\psi \\ s_\psi & c_\psi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi c_\psi - s_\phi s_\psi & -c_\phi s_\psi - s_\phi c_\psi \\ c_\phi s_\psi + s_\phi c_\psi & s_\phi s_\psi + c_\phi c_\psi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{\phi+\psi} & -s_{\phi+\psi} \\ s_{\phi+\psi} & c_{\phi+\psi} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{R}_{\phi+\psi}.$$

- Rotations in the same plane commute $\mathbb{R}_\phi \mathbb{R}_\psi = \mathbb{R}_\psi \mathbb{R}_\phi$. Even if they don't commute,
- the product $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}_2 \mathbb{R}_1$ is a rotation: $\mathbb{R}^T \mathbb{R} = (\mathbb{R}_2 \mathbb{R}_1)^T (\mathbb{R}_2 \mathbb{R}_1) = \mathbb{R}_1^T (\mathbb{R}_2^T \mathbb{R}_2) \mathbb{R}_1 = \mathbb{R}_1 \mathbb{R}_1 = \mathbb{I}$.

○ Inverse rotation: $\mathbb{R}^{-1} = \mathbb{R}^T$, from $(\mathbb{R}^T \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{I}) \mathbb{R}^{-1}$

$$\mathbb{R}_\phi^{-1} = \mathbb{R}_{-\phi} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{-\phi} & -s_{-\phi} \\ s_{-\phi} & c_{-\phi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & s_\phi \\ -s_\phi & c_\phi \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{R}^T.$$

- This makes it trivial to invert a rotation, which is needed to find components
- This also simplifies similarity and congruence transforms as seen in LO7.

○ Rotations form a group under composition (matrix multiplication).

• Symmetry of rotation matrices

- Like the complex rotation $e^{-i\phi}$, a rotation operator is $R = e^A$, where A is antisymmetric.
- Any operator (matrix) has the decomposition $M = S + A$, where $S^T = S$ and $A^T = -A$, as seen by taking the transpose $M^T = S^T + A^T$ and solving the two equations for S, A .
- Orthogonality: $R^T R = e^{A^T} e^A = e^{-A} e^A = e^{A-A} = e^0 = I$.
- Inverse: $R^{-1} = (e^A)^{-1} = e^{-A} = e^{A^T} = (e^A)^T = R^T$.

• 3d rotation matrices

○ Along the z -axis, x, y rotate as above and the z component stays the same:

$$\mathbb{R}_{z\phi} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi & 0 \\ s_\phi & c_\phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{R}_\phi \oplus \mathbb{I}. \text{ Similarly, } \mathbb{R}_{y\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\theta & 0 & s_\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s_\theta & 0 & c_\theta \end{pmatrix}, \text{ with cyclic ordering.}$$

- Like general matrices, 3d rotations do not commute unless along the same axis.
- Any 3d rotation can be constructed from three rotations (Euler/Tate angles)

$$\mathbb{R}_{\psi,\theta,\phi} = \mathbb{R}_{z\phi} \mathbb{R}_{y\theta} \mathbb{R}_{z\psi} = \begin{pmatrix} c_\phi & -s_\phi & 0 \\ s_\phi & c_\phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_\theta & 0 & s_\theta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s_\theta & 0 & c_\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_\psi & -s_\psi & 0 \\ s_\psi & c_\psi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Any rotation can be identified with an axial vector $\vec{v} = \hat{n}\phi$, where \hat{n} is the axis of rotation. Rodrigues' formula: $R = e^{\vec{\mathcal{E}} \cdot \vec{v}} = I c_\phi + \vec{\mathcal{E}} \cdot \hat{n} s_\phi + (1 - c_\phi) \hat{n} \hat{n}$. Last term projects R in the plane.