

Spatial Transforms

COMP 6912: Autonomous Robotics

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May 31, 2017

Introduction

- Spatial transforms describe coordinate frames (a.k.a reference frames, coordinate systems, or often just *frames*)
- We have already seen two different reference frames:
 - Inertial (or global) reference: Defined by origin O and axes X_I and Y_I
 - Robot reference frame: Defined **w.r.t.** the inertial frame by origin P and axes X_R and Y_R
 - Both were specialized to motion in the plane, we need a more general representation for motion in 3-D
- We will look at transforms in two different ways: as mappings and as operators
- We will discuss two different orientation representations: rotation matrices and quaternions

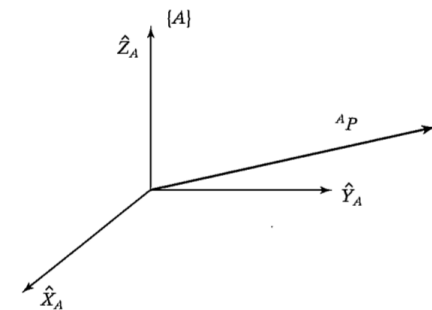
Notation

We use the notation from "Introduction to Robotics: Mechanics and Control", 3rd Edition by John J. Craig
Point P described in frame A is denoted as follows:

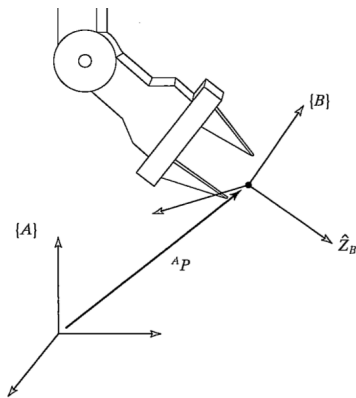
$${}^A P = \begin{bmatrix} p_x \\ p_y \\ p_z \end{bmatrix}$$

The A superscript appears to the left of the actual point and means that we are describing the point with respect to A . The same point described in frame B would be ${}^B P$.

Frame A is described by three mutually orthogonal unit vectors \hat{X}_A , \hat{Y}_A , and \hat{Z}_A . The components of ${}^A P$ are the projections of the vector corresponding to this point onto these axes.



Lets now say that this point ${}^A P$ actually gives the origin of another frame called B . Perhaps this frame gives the position of a robot's end effector.



We can describe one frame w.r.t. to another by specifying the **rotation** and **translation** of the movement that separates them.

Rotation

The **rotation** of frame B w.r.t. frame A is defined through the mutually orthogonal unit vectors ${}^A \hat{X}_B$, ${}^A \hat{Y}_B$, and ${}^A \hat{Z}_B$. If we stack these three vectors as columns of a 3×3 matrix we get the rotation matrix that encodes the orientation of frame B w.r.t. frame A :

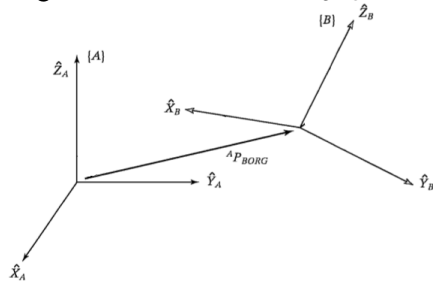
$${}^A_B R = [{}^A \hat{X}_B \quad {}^A \hat{Y}_B \quad {}^A \hat{Z}_B] = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

For justification, see Craig's book, chapter 2. You see that the rotation matrix is special: it has mutually orthogonal columns. It turns out that the rows are mutually orthogonal too. Also, the inverse of the rotation is just equal to the transpose.

$${}^A_B R = {}^B_A R^{-1} = {}^B_A R^T$$

Translation

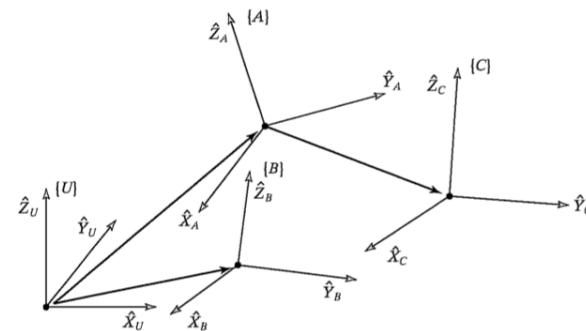
We describe the **translation** between frames by specifying the origin of B w.r.t. A as ${}^A P_{BORG}$.



We now have everything we need to describe frame B :

$$\{B\} = \{ {}^A_B R, {}^A P_{BORG} \}$$

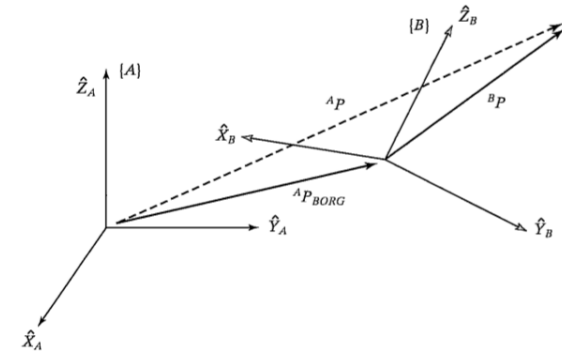
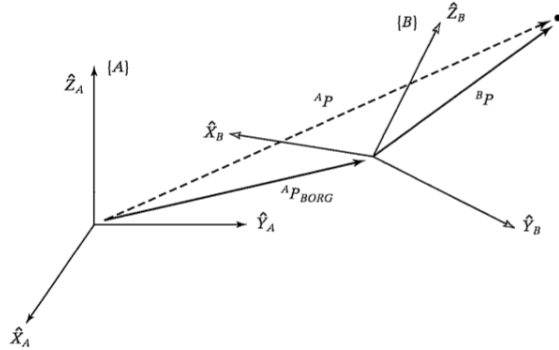
There is usually a universal (a.k.a. global or inertial) frame that others are defined w.r.t.. However, its often the case that we don't have a direct description of a frame with respect to the universal (e.g. for frame C below).



We would like a way of mapping descriptions of points from one frame to another.

Mappings

A mapping is a change in our description of the same entity from one frame to another. Lets say we know the position of a point w.r.t. B but we want to compute it w.r.t. A . For example, we wish to find ${}^A P$ below:



If we have ${}^B P$ and our description of B we can get ${}^A P$.

$${}^A P = {}^A R^B P + A P_{BORG}$$

Here again is this mapping:

$${}^A P = {}^A R^B P + A P_{BORG}$$

It would be convenient to combine both operations together into one big matrix so that we can do the following:

$${}^A P = {}^A T^B P$$

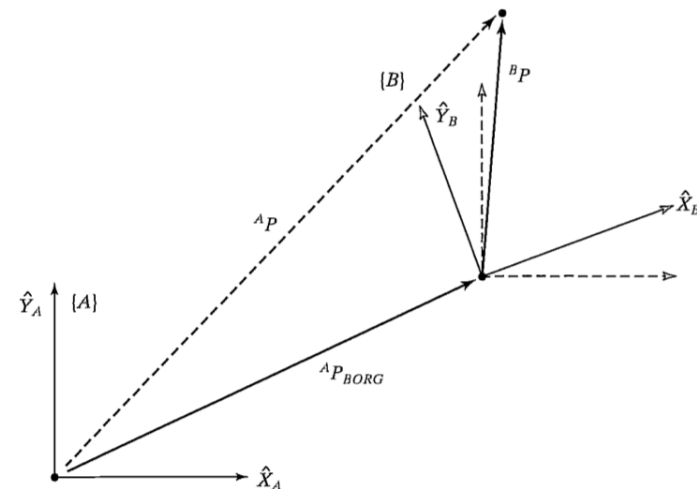
We can do this by moving to **homogeneous coordinates**. In homogeneous coordinates, we just augment our 3×1 vectors with an additional row that is always set to 1.

$$\begin{bmatrix} A P \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A R^B & A P_{BORG} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B P \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This yields the equation at the top of this slide, as well as $1 = 1$ (uninformative, but reassuring). We can represent other sorts of transformations (e.g. shearing, scaling, perspective projection) by modifying particular entries in the augmented matrix.

2-D Example

Frame B lies at position $(10, 5)$ w.r.t. frame A and is rotated by 30° . Given ${}^B P = [3 \ 7 \ 0]^T$ find ${}^A P$.



We get the following transform matrix:

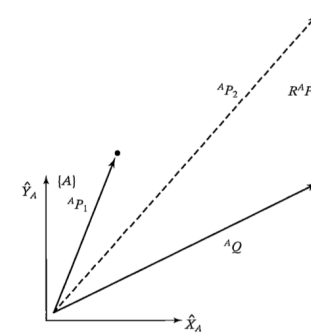
$${}^A_B T = \begin{bmatrix} 0.866 & -0.500 & 0.000 & 10.0 \\ 0.500 & 0.866 & 0.000 & 5.0 \\ 0.000 & 0.000 & 1.000 & 0.0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We now apply the transform (notice how the B's "cancel"):

$$\begin{aligned} {}^A P &= {}^A_B T {}^B P \\ &= {}^A T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 9.098 \\ 12.562 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Transform as Operator

We have used transforms to relate the mapping of a point from one frame to another. We can also view a transform as an **operator** which translates and/or rotates points. For example, let's say we have a point ${}^A P_1 = [3 \ 7 \ 0]^T$ and we wish to rotate it by 30° about \hat{Z} and translate it by $[10 \ 5 \ 0]^T$. Now we wish to find the transformed point ${}^A P_2$, pictured below:

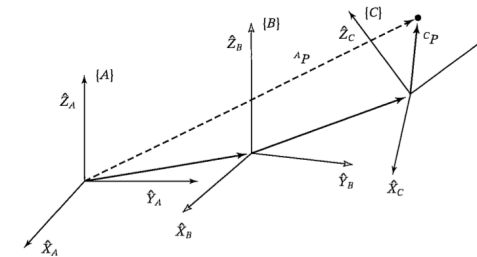


This example is identical to the previous one, except that we view this as an operator, not as a mapping. In this case, there is only one frame, A. The transformation matrix is the same as before, although we have no preceding super- or subscripts because the operation takes place within the same frame.

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 0.866 & -0.500 & 0.000 & 10.0 \\ 0.500 & 0.866 & 0.000 & 5.0 \\ 0.000 & 0.000 & 1.000 & 0.0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} {}^A P_2 &= T {}^A P_1 \\ &= T \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9.098 \\ 12.562 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

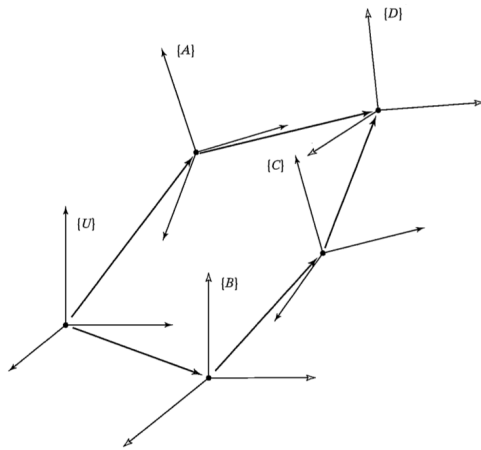
Compound Transforms



Considering the above with ${}^C P$ given, we can express this point in frames B and then A,

$$\begin{aligned} {}^B P &= {}^B_C T {}^C P \\ {}^A P &= {}^A_B T {}^B P \\ &= {}^A_B T {}^B_C T {}^C P \end{aligned}$$

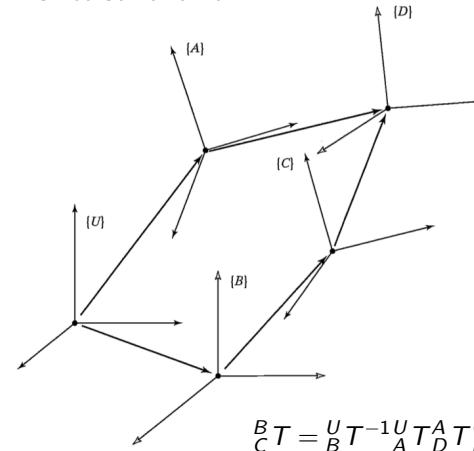
We can define a direct $C \rightarrow A$ transform: ${}^A_C T = {}^A_B T {}^B_C T$.



We can express the transform of D with respect to U in two different ways:

$${}^U T_D = {}^U T_A {}^A T_D \quad \text{and} \quad {}^U T_D = {}^U T_B {}^B T_C {}^C T_D$$

The direction of the arrows indicates how existing transforms are defined. Lets say that all transforms but ${}^B_C T$ are known and we wish to solve for it.



$${}^B_C T = {}^U T_B^{-1} {}^U T_A {}^A T_D {}^C T_D^{-1}$$

Representing 3-D Orientation

Rotation matrices must be orthonormal, meaning that their rows and columns are orthogonal unit vectors. Even further, rotation matrices must have a determinant of +1. Cayley's formula for orthonormal matrices states that any such matrix can be rewritten as follows:

$$R = (I - S)^{-1} (I + S)$$

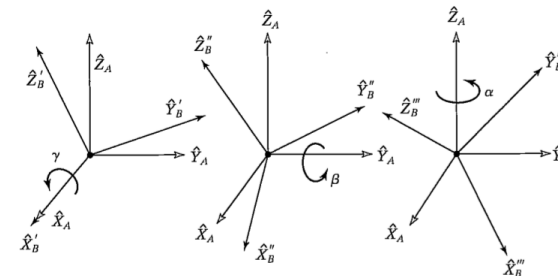
where

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -s_z & s_y \\ s_z & 0 & -s_x \\ -s_y & s_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The important point is that a rotation matrix actually has only three free parameters. In fact any 3-D rotation can be represented by as little as three numbers. We will look at a couple of example representations...

X-Y-Z Fixed Angles

We can describe the rotation of a frame B with respect to a frame A as a sequence of rotations about \hat{X}_A , \hat{Y}_A , and \hat{Z}_A (other orders beside X-Y-Z are possible). We are rotating about A which is fixed.

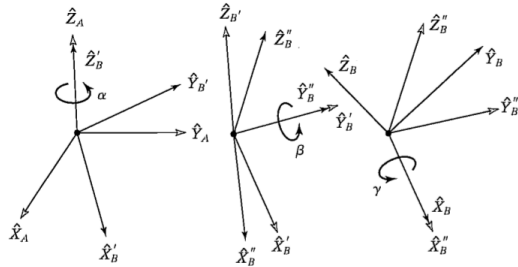


The rotation angles are γ , β , and α . We can generate a rotation matrix by combining all three:

$${}^A R_{XYZ}(\gamma, \beta, \alpha) = R_Z(\alpha) R_Y(\beta) R_X(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} c\alpha & -s\alpha & 0 \\ s\alpha & c\alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c\beta & 0 & s\beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -s\beta & 0 & c\beta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c\gamma & -s\gamma \\ 0 & s\gamma & c\gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

Euler Angles

Euler angles are defined by rotating the "moving" frame, B , about its own axes. The following is for the order Z-Y-X:



We can view this as a series of rotations: $A \rightarrow B'$, $B' \rightarrow B''$, and $B'' \rightarrow B$, where B' and B'' are intermediary frames.

$${}^A R_B = {}^A R_{B'} R_{B''} R_B$$

From this perspective the rotation by γ happens first, then β , then α . Interestingly, this is the same order and the same angles as for the X-Y-Z fixed angle representation—the two are equivalent!

Various Conventions

- So the X-Y-Z fixed angle convention is equivalent to the Z-Y-X Euler angle convention. There are 12 equivalent pairs of conventions.
- We also have the **axis-angle** representation which represents the rotation via an equivalent axis of rotation specified by a unit vector \hat{N} (2 free parameters) and an angle θ .
- Finally, the unit quaternion representation (see additional notes) is cleanly defined from the axis-angle representation:

$$q = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \hat{N}$$

- Note the difference between the representation of a rotation and a rotation operator. The only rotation operators we have seen are our rotation matrices and unit quaternions.