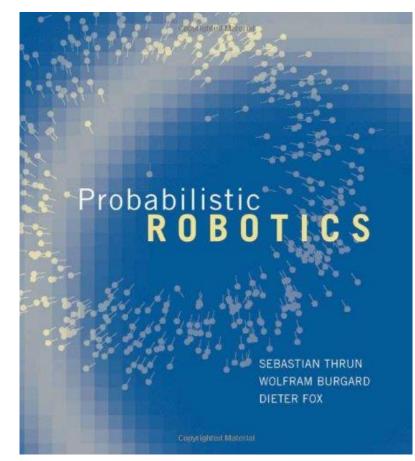
Introduction to Mobile Robotics Compact Course on Linear Algebra

Wolfram Burgard, Diego Tipaldi



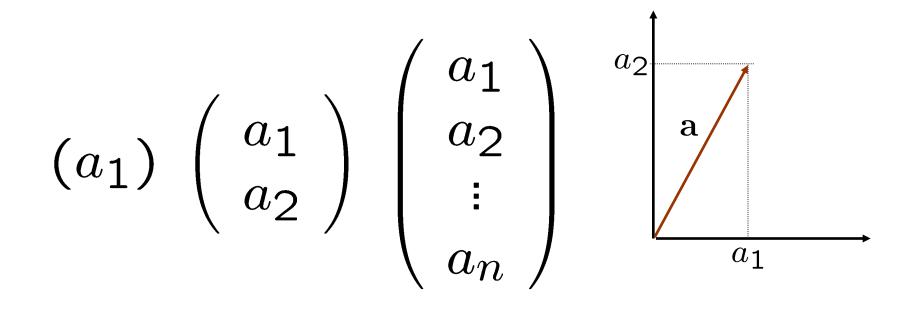
Reference Book

Thrun, Burgard, and Fox: "Probabilistic Robotics"



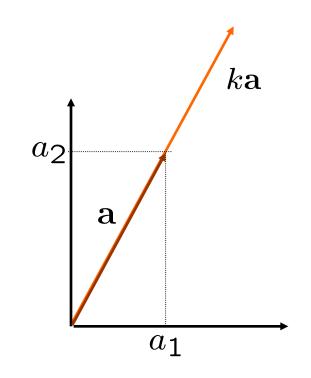
Vectors

- Arrays of numbers
- Vectors represent a point in a n dimensional space



Vectors: Scalar Product

- Scalar-Vector Product ka
- Changes the length of the vector, but not its direction

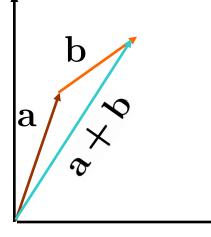


Vectors: Sum

Sum of vectors (is commutative)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Can be visualized as "chaining" the vectors.

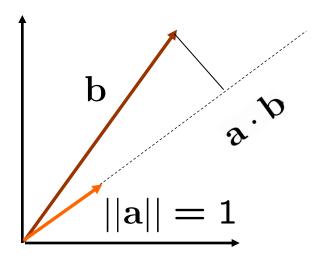


Vectors: Dot Product

Inner product of vectors (is a scalar)

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \sum_{i} a_{i} b_{i}$$

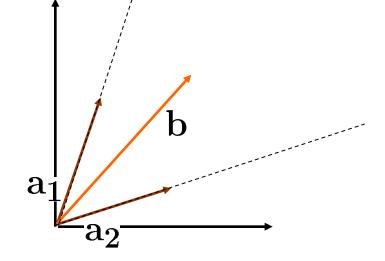
• If one of the two vectors, e.g. a , has ||a||=1 the inner product $a\cdot b$ returns the length of the projection of b along the direction of a



 If a · b = 0, the two vectors are orthogonal

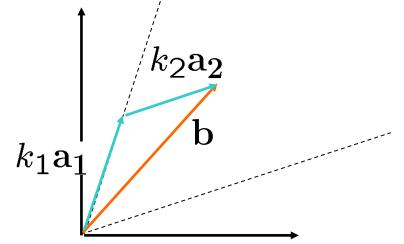
Vectors: Linear (In)Dependence

- A vector **b** is **linearly dependent** from $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ if $b = \sum k_i a_i$
- In other words, if \mathbf{b}^{i} can be obtained by summing up the \mathbf{a}_{i} properly scaled
- If there exist no $\{k_i\}$ such that $\mathbf{b} = \sum_i k_i \mathbf{a}_i$ then \mathbf{b} is independent from $\{\mathbf{a}_i\}$



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Matrices

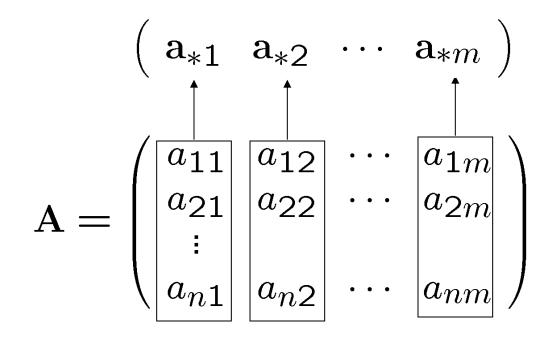
A matrix is written as a table of values

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} A \vdots n \times m \\ & & \uparrow \\ \text{rows columns} \end{array}$$

- 1st index refers to the row
- 2nd index refers to the column
- Note: a d-dimensional vector is equivalent to a dx1 matrix

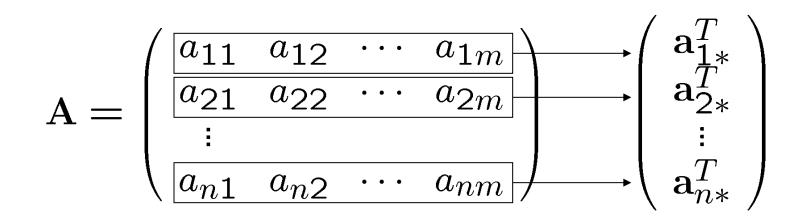
Matrices as Collections of Vectors

Column vectors



Matrices as Collections of Vectors

Row vectors



Important Matrices Operations

- Multiplication by a scalar
- Sum (commutative, associative)
- Multiplication by a vector
- Product (not commutative)
- Inversion (square, full rank)
- Transposition

Scalar Multiplication & Sum

- In the scalar multiplication, every element of the vector or matrix is multiplied with the scalar
- The sum of two vectors is a vector consisting of the pair-wise sums of the individual entries
- The sum of two matrices is a matrix consisting of the pair-wise sums of the individual entries

Matrix Vector Product

- The *i*th component of Ab is the dot product $\mathbf{a}_{i*}^T \cdot \mathbf{b}$
- The vector Ab is linearly dependent from the column vectors {a_{*i}} with coefficients {b_i}

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1*}^T \\ \mathbf{a}_{2*}^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{n*}^T \end{pmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{1*}^T \cdot \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a}_{2*}^T \cdot \mathbf{b} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{n*}^T \cdot \mathbf{b} \end{pmatrix} = \sum_k \mathbf{a}_{*k} b_k$$

for vectors

Matrix Vector Product

61a*1

If the column vectors of A represent a reference system, the product Ab computes the global transformation of the vector b according to {a*i}

column vectors

Matrix Matrix Product

- Can be defined through
 - the dot product of row and column vectors
 - the linear combination of the columns of *A* scaled by the coefficients of the columns of *B*

$$C = AB$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{1*}^T \cdot b_{*1} & a_{1*}^T \cdot b_{*2} & \cdots & a_{1*}^T \cdot b_{*m} \\ a_{2*}^T \cdot b_{*1} & a_{2*}^T \cdot b_{*2} & \cdots & a_{2*}^T \cdot b_{*m} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n*}^T \cdot b_{*1} & a_{n*}^T \cdot b_{*2} & \cdots & a_{n*}^T \cdot b_{*m} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (Ab_{*1} Ab_{*2} \dots Ab_{*m})$$
column vectors

Matrix Matrix Product

- If we consider the second interpretation, we see that the columns of *C* are the "transformations" of the columns of *B* through *A*
- All the interpretations made for the matrix vector product hold

$$C = AB$$

= $(Ab_{*1} Ab_{*2} ... Ab_{*m})$
$$c_{*i} = Ab_{*i}$$

column vectors

Rank

- Maximum number of linearly independent rows (columns)
- Dimension of the **image** of the transformation $f(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$
- When A is $m \times n$ we have
 - $rank(A) \ge 0$ and the equality holds iff A is the null matrix
 - $\operatorname{rank}(A) \le \min(m, n)$
- Computation of the rank is done by
 - Gaussian elimination on the matrix
 - Counting the number of non-zero rows

Inverse

AB = I

- If A is a square matrix of full rank, then there is a unique matrix *B=A⁻¹* such that *AB=I* holds
- The *ith* row of **A** is and the *jth* column of **A⁻¹** are:
 - orthogonal (if $i \neq j$)
 - or their dot product is 1 (if i = j)

Matrix InversionAB = I

The *ith* column of *A⁻¹* can be found by solving the following linear system:

$$\mathrm{Aa}^{-1}{}_{*i}=\mathbf{i}_{*i}$$
 — This is the identity matrix

Determinant (det)

- Only defined for square matrices
- The inverse of \mathbf{A} exists if and only if $det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$
- For 2×2 matrices:

Let $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$ and $|\mathbf{A}| = det(\mathbf{A})$, then

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \cdot a_{22} - a_{12} \cdot a_{21}$$

• For 3×3 matrices the Sarrus rule holds:

Determinant

• For **general** $n \times n$ matrices?

Let A_{ij} be the submatrix obtained from A by deleting the *i*-th row and the *j*-th column

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & -1 \\ -5 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \mathbf{A}_{32} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rewrite determinant for 3×3 matrices:

$$det(\mathbf{A}^{3\times3}) = a_{11}a_{22}a_{33} + a_{12}a_{23}a_{31} + a_{13}a_{21}a_{32}$$
$$-a_{11}a_{23}a_{32} - a_{12}a_{21}a_{33} - a_{13}a_{22}a_{11}$$
$$= a_{11} \cdot det(\mathbf{A}_{11}) - a_{12} \cdot det(\mathbf{A}_{12}) + a_{13} \cdot det(\mathbf{A}_{13})$$

Determinant

• For **general** $n \times n$ matrices?

$$det(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11}det(\mathbf{A}_{11}) - a_{12}det(\mathbf{A}_{12}) + \dots + (-1)^{1+n}a_{1n}det(\mathbf{A}_{1n})$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (-1)^{1+j}a_{1j}det(\mathbf{A}_{1j})$$

Let
$$\mathbf{C}_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} det(\mathbf{A}_{ij})$$
 be the (*i*,*j*)-cofactor, then

$$det(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11}\mathbf{C}_{11} + a_{12}\mathbf{C}_{12} + \dots + a_{1n}\mathbf{C}_{1n}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{1j}\mathbf{C}_{1j}$$

This is called the **cofactor expansion** across the first row

Determinant

- Problem: Take a 25 x 25 matrix (which is considered small). The cofactor expansion method requires n! multiplications. For n = 25, this is 1.5 x 10^25 multiplications for which a today supercomputer would take 500,000 years.
- There are much faster methods, namely using Gauss elimination to bring the matrix into triangular form.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & d_2 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_i$$

Because for **triangular matrices** the determinant is the product of diagonal elements

Determinant: Properties

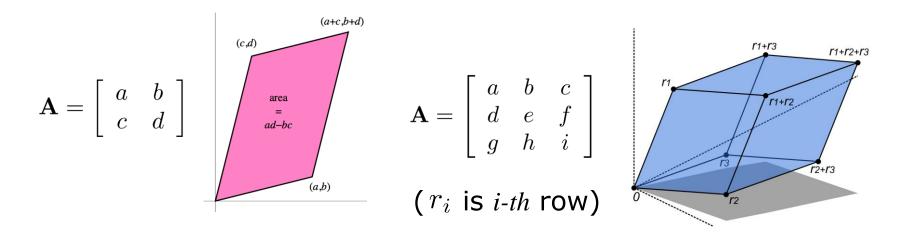
- **Row operations** (A is still a $n \times n$ square matrix)
 - If **B** results from **A** by interchanging two rows, then $det(\mathbf{B}) = -det(\mathbf{A})$
 - If B results from A by multiplying one row with a number c, then det(B) = c · det(A)
 - If B results from A by adding a multiple of one row to another row, then $det(\mathbf{B}) = det(\mathbf{A})$
- Transpose: $det(\mathbf{A}^T) = det(\mathbf{A})$
- Multiplication: $det(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = det(\mathbf{A}) \cdot det(\mathbf{B})$
- Does **not** apply to addition! $det(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) \neq det(\mathbf{A}) + det(\mathbf{B})$

Determinant: Applications

Compute Eigenvalues:

Solve the characteristic polynomial $det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \cdot \mathbf{I}) = 0$

• Area and Volume: $area = |det(\mathbf{A})|$



Orthogonal Matrix

 A matrix Q is orthogonal iff its column (row) vectors represent an orthonormal basis

$$q_{*i}^T \cdot q_{*j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}, \forall i, j$$

- As linear transformation, it is norm preserving
- Some properties:
 - The transpose is the inverse $QQ^T = Q^TQ = I$
 - Determinant has unity norm (±1)

 $1 = det(I) = det(Q^TQ) = det(Q)det(Q^T) = det(Q)^2$

Rotation Matrix

- A Rotation matrix is an orthonormal matrix with det =+1
 - 2D Rotations $R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$
 - 3D Rotations along the main axes

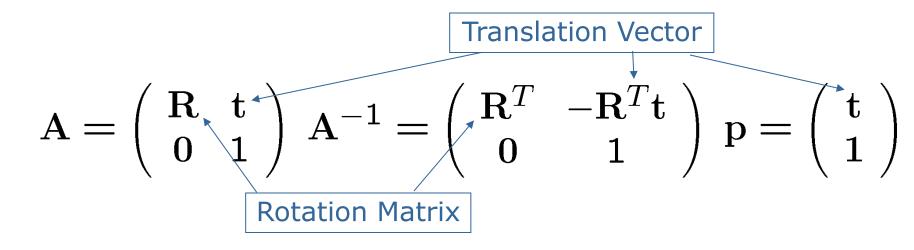
$$R_x(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \quad R_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & 0 & -\sin(\theta) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

IMPORTANT: Rotations are not commutative

$$R_{x}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot R_{y}(\frac{\pi}{4}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.707 & 0 & -0.707 \\ -0.5 & 0.707 & -0.5 \\ 0.5 & 0.707 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}, R_{x}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot R_{y}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.414 \\ 0.586 \\ 3.414 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$R_{y}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot R_{x}(\frac{\pi}{4}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.707 & -0.5 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 0.707 & -0.5 & -0.5 \\ 0.707 & 0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}, R_{y}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot R_{x}(\frac{\pi}{4}) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.793 \\ 0.707 \\ 3.207 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrices to Represent Affine Transformations

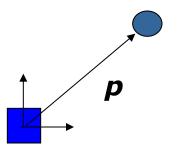
A general and easy way to describe a 3D transformation is via matrices



- Takes naturally into account the noncommutativity of the transformations
- Homogeneous coordinates

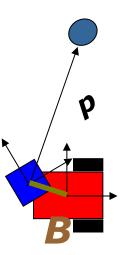
Combining Transformations

- A simple interpretation: chaining of transformations (represented as homogeneous matrices)
 - Matrix A represents the pose of a robot in the space
 - Matrix **B** represents the position of a sensor on the robot
 - The sensor perceives an object at a given location p, in its own frame [the sensor has no clue on where it is in the world]
 - Where is the object in the global frame?



Combining Transformations

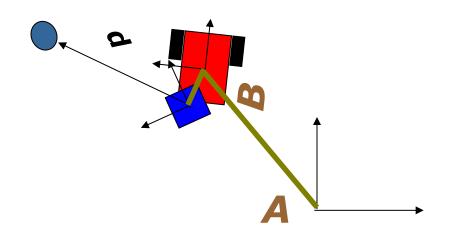
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Bp gives the pose of the object wrt the robot

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Bp gives the pose of the object wrt the robot

ABp gives the pose of the
 object wrt the world

Positive Definite Matrix

- The analogous of positive number
- Definition M > 0 iff $z^T M z > 0 \forall z \neq 0$

Example

•
$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} z_1 & z_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} = z_1^2 + z_2^2 > 0$$

Positive Definite Matrix

- Properties
 - Invertible, with positive definite inverse
 - All real eigenvalues > 0
 - **Trace** is > 0
 - Cholesky decomposition $A = LL^T$

Linear Systems (1) Ax = b

Interpretations:

- A set of linear equations
- A way to find the coordinates x in the reference system of A such that b is the result of the transformation of Ax
- Solvable by Gaussian elimination

Linear Systems (2) Ax = b

Notes:

- Many efficient solvers exit, e.g., conjugate gradients, sparse Cholesky decomposition
- One can obtain a reduced system (A', b') by considering the matrix (A, b) and suppressing all the rows which are linearly dependent
- Let A'x=b' the reduced system with A':n'xm and b':n'x1 and rank A' = min(n',m) rows A columns
- The system might be either over-constrained (n'>m) or under-constrained (n'<m)

Over-Constrained Systems

- "More (ind.) equations than variables"
- An over-constrained system does not admit an exact solution
- However, if rank A' = cols(A) one often computes a minimum norm solution

$$\mathbf{x} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\operatorname{argmin}} ||\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}'||$$

Note: rank = Maximum number of linearly independent rows/columns

Under-Constrained Systems

- "More variables than (ind.) equations"
- The system is under-constrained if the number of linearly independent rows of A' is smaller than the dimension of b'
- An under-constrained system admits infinite solutions
- The degree of these infinite solutions is cols(A') - rows(A')

Jacobian Matrix

- It is a **non-square matrix** $n \times m$ in general
- Given a vector-valued function

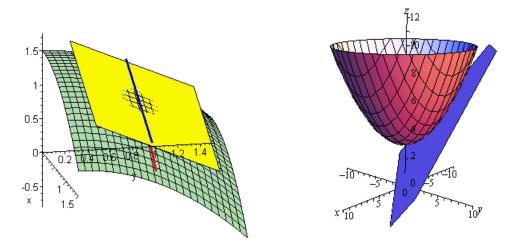
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the Jacobian matrix is defined as

$$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Jacobian Matrix

 It is the orientation of the tangent plane to the vector-valued function at a given point



 Generalizes the gradient of a scalar valued function

Further Reading

 A "quick and dirty" guide to matrices is the Matrix Cookbook available at:

http://matrixcookbook.com