

4 Axis of Motion

4.1 Properties of rotation matrix

Let us study additional properties of the rotation matrix in three-dimensional space.

§ 9 **Eigenvalues of \mathbf{R}** Let \mathbf{R} be a rotation matrix. Then for every $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^3$

$$(\mathbf{R}\vec{v})^\top \mathbf{R}\vec{v} = \vec{v}^\top \mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{R}\vec{v} = \vec{v}^\top (\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{R}) \vec{v} = \vec{v}^\top \vec{v} \quad (4.1)$$

we see that for all $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^3$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$\mathbf{R}\vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v} \quad (4.2)$$

then holds

$$|\lambda|^2 (\vec{v}^\top \vec{v}) = (\vec{v}^\top \vec{v}) \quad (4.3)$$

and hence $|\lambda|^2 = 1$ for all $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$. We conclude that the absolute value of eigenvalues of \mathbf{R} is one.

Next, there is a real unit eigenvalue since \mathbf{R} is a real matrix with characteristic polynomial

$$p(\lambda) = |(\lambda \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{R})| = \left| \begin{pmatrix} \lambda - r_{11} & -r_{12} & -r_{13} \\ -r_{21} & \lambda - r_{22} & -r_{23} \\ -r_{31} & -r_{32} & \lambda - r_{33} \end{pmatrix} \right| \quad (4.4)$$

$$= \lambda^3 - (r_{11} + r_{22} + r_{33}) \lambda^2 \quad (4.5)$$

$$+ (r_{11} r_{22} - r_{21} r_{12} + r_{11} r_{33} - r_{31} r_{13} + r_{22} r_{33} - r_{23} r_{32}) \lambda \quad (4.6)$$

$$+ r_{11} (r_{23} r_{32} - r_{22} r_{33}) - r_{21} (r_{32} r_{13} - r_{12} r_{33}) + r_{31} (r_{13} r_{22} - r_{12} r_{23}) \quad (4.7)$$

$$= \lambda^3 - \text{trace } \mathbf{R} \lambda^2 + (\mathbf{R}_{11} + \mathbf{R}_{22} + \mathbf{R}_{33}) \lambda - |\mathbf{R}| \quad (4.8)$$

It follows from the Fundamental theorem of algebra [6] the $p(\lambda) = 0$ has always a solution in \mathbb{C} and since coefficients of $p(\lambda)$ are all real, the solutions must come in complex conjugated pairs. The degree of $p(\lambda)$ is three and thus at least one solution must be real and hence equal to ± 1 . Now, since $p(0) = -|\mathbf{R}| = -1$, $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} p(\lambda) = \infty$, and $p(\lambda)$ is a continuous function, it must (by the mean value theorem [2]) cross the positive side of the real axis and hence one eigenvalue has to be one. Let us denote the eigenvalues as $\lambda_1 = 1$, $\lambda_2 = x + yi$ and $\lambda_3 = x - yi$ with real x, y . It follows from above that $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. We see that there is either one real or three real solutions since if $y = 0$, then $x^2 = 1$ and hence $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \pm 1$. We conclude that we can encounter only two situations when all eigenvalues are real. Either $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1$, or $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -1$.

§ 10 Eigenvectors of \mathbf{R} . Let us now look at eigenvectors of \mathbf{R} and let's first investigate the situation when all eigenvalues of \mathbf{R} are real.

Let $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 1$. Then $p(\lambda) = (\lambda - 1)^3 = \lambda^3 - 3\lambda^2 + 3\lambda - 1$. It means that $r_{11} + r_{22} + r_{33} = 1$ and since $r_{11} \leq 1$, $r_{22} \leq 1$, $r_{33} \leq 1$, it leads to $r_{11} = r_{22} = r_{33} = 1$, which implies $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$. Then $\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{0}$ and all non-zero vectors of \mathbb{R}^3 are eigenvectors of \mathbf{R} . Notice that rank of $\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}$ is zero in this case.

Next consider $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -1$. The eigenvectors \vec{v} corresponding to $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = -1$ are solutions to

$$\mathbf{R} \vec{v} = -\vec{v} \quad (4.9)$$

There is always at least one one-dimensional space of such vectors. We also see that there is a rotation matrix

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.10)$$

with eigenvectors

$$r \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, r \neq 0, \quad \text{and} \quad s \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, s^2 + t^2 \neq 0, \quad (4.11)$$

which means that there is a one-dimensional space of eigenvectors corresponding to 1 and a two-dimensional space of eigenvectors corresponding to -1 . Notice that rank of $\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}$ is two here.

How does the situation look for a general \mathbf{R} with eigenvalues 1, -1 , -1 ? Consider an eigenvector \vec{v}_1 corresponding to 1 and an eigenvector \vec{v}_2 corresponding to -1 . They are linearly independent. Otherwise there has to be $s \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\vec{v}_2 = s \vec{v}_1 \neq 0$ and then

$$\vec{v}_2 = s \vec{v}_1 \quad (4.12)$$

$$\mathbf{R} \vec{v}_2 = s \mathbf{R} \vec{v}_1 \quad (4.13)$$

$$-\vec{v}_2 = s \vec{v}_1 \quad (4.14)$$

leading to $s = -s$ and therefore $s = 0$ which contradicts $\vec{v}_2 \neq 0$. Now, let us look at vectors $\vec{v}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ defined by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^\top \\ \vec{v}_2^\top \end{bmatrix} \vec{v}_3 = 0 \quad (4.15)$$

The above linear system has a one-dimensional space of solutions since the rows of its matrix are independent. Chose a fixed solution $\vec{v}_3 \neq 0$. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^\top \\ \vec{v}_2^\top \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^\top \mathbf{R}^\top \\ \vec{v}_2^\top \mathbf{R}^\top \end{bmatrix} \vec{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1^\top \\ -\vec{v}_2^\top \end{bmatrix} \vec{v}_3 = 0 \quad (4.16)$$

We see that $\mathbf{R} \vec{v}_3$ and \vec{v}_3 are in the same one-dimensional space, i.e. they are linearly dependent and we can write

$$\mathbf{R} \vec{v}_3 = s \vec{v}_3 \quad (4.17)$$

for some $s \in \mathbb{C}$. Multiplying equation 4.18 by \mathbf{R} from the left and dividing both sides by s gives

$$\frac{1}{s} \vec{v}_3 = \mathbf{R} \vec{v}_3 \quad (4.18)$$

Clearly \vec{v}_3 is an eigenvector of \mathbf{R} . Since it is not a multiple of \vec{v}_1 , it must correspond to eigenvalue -1 . Moreover, $\vec{v}_2^\top \vec{v}_3 = 0$ and hence they are linearly independent. We have shown that if -1 is an eigenvalue of \mathbf{R} , then there are always two linearly independent vectors corresponding to the eigenvalue -1 and therefore there is a two-dimensional space of eigenvectors corresponding to -1 . Notice that the rank of $\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}$ is two in this case since the two-dimensional subspace corresponding to -1 can be complemented only by a one-dimensional subspace corresponding to 1 to avoid intersecting the subspaces in a non-zero vector.

Finally, let us look at arbitrary (even non-real) eigenvalues. Assume $\lambda = x + yi$. Then we have

$$\mathbf{R} \vec{v} = (x + yi) \vec{v} \quad (4.19)$$

If $y \neq 0$, vector \vec{v} must be non-real in this case else we would have a real vector on the left and a non-real vector on the right. Furthermore, the eigenvalues are pairwise distinct and hence there are three one-dimensional subspaces of eigenvectors (we now understand the space as \mathbb{C}^3 over \mathbb{C}). In particular, there is exactly one dimensional subspace corresponding to eigenvalue 1 . Notice that, again, the rank of $\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}$ is two.

Let \vec{v} be an eigenvector of a rotation matrix \mathbf{R} . Then

$$\mathbf{R} \vec{v} = (x + yi) \vec{v} \quad (4.20)$$

$$\mathbf{R}^\top \mathbf{R} \vec{v} = (x + yi) \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{v} \quad (4.21)$$

$$\vec{v} = (x + yi) \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{v} \quad (4.22)$$

$$\frac{1}{(x + yi)} \vec{v} = \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{v} \quad (4.23)$$

$$(x - yi) \vec{v} = \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{v} \quad (4.24)$$

We see that the eigenvector \vec{v} of \mathbf{R} corresponding to eigenvalue $x + yi$ is the eigenvector of \mathbf{R}^\top corresponding to eigenvalue $x - yi$ and vice versa. Thus there is the following interesting correspondence between eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{R}^\top . Considering eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs $(1, \vec{v}_1)$, $(x + yi, \vec{v}_2)$, $(x - yi, \vec{v}_3)$ of \mathbf{R} we have $(1, \vec{v}_1)$, $(x - yi, \vec{v}_2)$, $(x + yi, \vec{v}_3)$ pairs of \mathbf{R}^\top .

§ 11 Matrix $(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I})$. We have seen that $\text{rank}(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}) = 0$ for $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$ and $\text{rank}(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}) = 2$ for all rotation matrices $\mathbf{R} \neq \mathbf{I}$.

Let us next investigate the relationship between the range and the null space of $(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I})$. The null space of $(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I})$ is generated by eigenvectors corresponding to 1 since $(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}) \vec{v} = \vec{0}$ implies $\mathbf{R} \vec{v} = \vec{v}$.

Now assume that vector \vec{v} is also in the range of $(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I})$. Then, there is a vector $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that $\vec{v} = (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}) \vec{a}$. Let us evaluate the square of the length of \vec{v}

$$\vec{v}^\top \vec{v} = \vec{v}^\top (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{I}) \vec{a} = (\vec{v}^\top \mathbf{R} - \vec{v}^\top) \vec{a} = (\vec{v}^\top - \vec{v}^\top) \vec{a} = 0 \quad (4.25)$$

which implies $\vec{v} = \vec{0}$. We have used result 4.24 with $x = 1$ and $y = 0$.

We conclude that in this case the range and the null space intersect only in the zero vector.

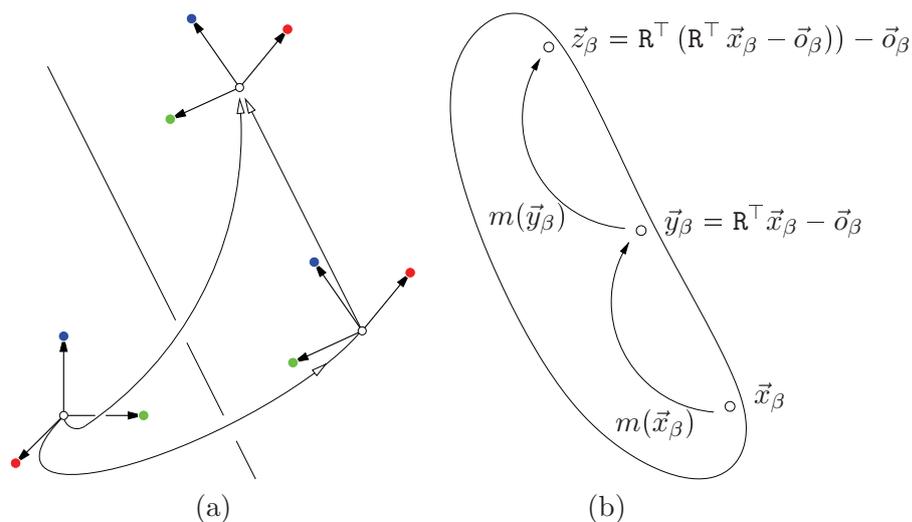


Figure 4.1: Axis of motion.

4.2 Axis of motion

We will study motion and show that every motion in three dimensional space has an axis of motion. *Axis of motion* is a line of points that remain in the line after the motion. The existence of such an axis will allow us to decompose every motion into a sequence of a rotation around the axis followed by a translation along the axis as shown in Figure 4.1(a).

§ 12 Algebraic characterization of the axis of motion. Consider Equation 3.9 and denote the motion so defined as $m(\vec{x}_\beta) = \mathbf{R}^\top \vec{x}_\beta - \vec{o}_\beta$ w.r.t. a fixed coordinate system (O, β) . Now let us study the sets of points that remain fixed by the motion, i.e. sets F such that for all $\vec{x}_\beta \in F$ motion m leaves the $m(\vec{x}_\beta)$ in the set, i.e. $m(\vec{x}_\beta) \in F$. Obviously, complete space and the empty set are fixed sets. How do look other, non-trivial, fixed sets?

A nonempty F contains at least one \vec{x}_β . Then, both $\vec{y} = m(\vec{x}_\beta)$ and $\vec{z}_\beta = m(\vec{y}_\beta)$ must be in F , see Figure 4.1(b). Let us investigate such fixed points \vec{x}_β for which

$$\vec{z}_\beta - \vec{y}_\beta = \vec{y}_\beta - \vec{x}_\beta \quad (4.26)$$

holds. We do not yet know whether such equality has to necessary hold for points of all fixed sets F but we see that it holds for the identity motion id that leaves all points unchanged, i.e. $id(\vec{x}_\beta) = \vec{x}_\beta$. We will find later that it holds for all motions

a fixed line of points for which Equation 4.26 holds. Therefore, every motion has a fixed line of points, every motion has an axis.

§ 13 Geometrical characterization of the axis of motion We now understand the algebraic description of motion. Can we also understand the situation geometrically? Figure 4.2 gives the answer. We shall concentrate on the general situation with $\mathbf{R} \neq \mathbf{I}$ and $\vec{o}_\beta \neq 0$. The main idea of the figure is that the axis of motion a consists of points that are first rotated away from a by the pure rotation \mathbf{R}^\top around r and then returned back to a by the pure translation $-\vec{o}_\beta$.

Figure 4.2 shows axis a of motion, which is parallel to the axis of rotation r and intersects the perpendicular plane σ passing through the origin O at a point P , which is first rotated in σ away from a to P' and then returned back to P'' on a by translation $-\vec{o}_\beta$. Point P is determined by the component $-\vec{o}_{\sigma\beta}$ of $-\vec{o}_\beta$, which is in the plane σ . Notice that every vector \vec{o}_β can be written as a sum of its component $\vec{o}_{r\beta}$ parallel to r and component $\vec{o}_{\sigma\beta}$ perpendicular to r .

§ 14 Motion axis is parallel to rotation axis. Let us verify algebraically that the rotation axis r is parallel to the motion axis a . Consider Equation 4.27, which we can rewrite as

$$(\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I})^2 \vec{x}_\beta = (\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I}) \vec{o}_\beta \quad (4.29)$$

Define axis r of motion as the set of points that are left fixed by the pure rotation \mathbf{R}^\top , i.e.

$$(\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I}) \vec{x}_\beta = 0 \quad (4.30)$$

$$\mathbf{R}^\top \vec{x}_\beta = \vec{x}_\beta \quad (4.31)$$

These are eigenvectors of \mathbf{R}^\top and the zero vector. Take any two solutions $\vec{x}_{1\beta}, \vec{x}_{2\beta}$ of 4.29 and evaluate

$$(\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I})^2 (\vec{x}_{1\beta} - \vec{x}_{2\beta}) = (\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I}) \vec{o}_\beta - (\mathbf{R}^\top - \mathbf{I}) \vec{o}_\beta = 0 \quad (4.32)$$

and thus a non-zero $\vec{x}_{1\beta} - \vec{x}_{2\beta}$ is an eigenvector of \mathbf{R}^\top . We see that the direction vectors of a lie in the subspace of direction vectors of r .

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