

Derivatives and Differentials

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Part I Theory

1 Optimization

We will be concerned with minimizing a non-linear least squares objective of the form

$$x^* = \arg \min_x \|h(x) - z\|_{\Sigma}^2 \quad (1.1)$$

where $x \in \mathcal{M}$ is a point on an n -dimensional manifold (which could be \mathbb{R}^n , an n -dimensional Lie group G , or a general manifold \mathcal{M}), $z \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is an observed measurement, $h : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a measurement function that predicts z from x , and $\|e\|_{\Sigma}^2 \triangleq e^T \Sigma^{-1} e$ is the squared Mahalanobis distance with covariance Σ .

To minimize (1.1) we need a notion of how the non-linear measurement function $h(x)$ behaves in the neighborhood of a linearization point a . Loosely speaking, we would like to define an $m \times n$ Jacobian matrix H_a such that

$$h(a \oplus \xi) \approx h(a) + H_a \xi \quad (1.2)$$

with $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and the operation \oplus “increments” $a \in \mathcal{M}$. Below we more formally develop this notion, first for functions from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, then for Lie groups, and finally for manifolds.

Once equipped with the approximation (1.2), we can minimize the objective function (1.1) with respect to δx instead:

$$\xi^* = \arg \min_{\xi} \|h(a) + H_a \xi - z\|_{\Sigma}^2 \quad (1.3)$$

This can be done by setting the derivative of (1.3) to zero, yielding the **normal equations**,

$$H_a^T H_a \xi = H_a^T (z - h(a))$$

which can be solved using Cholesky factorization. Of course, we might have to iterate this multiple times, and use a trust-region method to bound ξ when the approximation (1.2) is not good.

2 Multivariate Differentiation

2.1 Derivatives

For a vector space \mathbb{R}^n , the notion of an increment is just done by vector addition

$$a \oplus \xi \triangleq a + \xi$$

and for the approximation 1.2 we will use a Taylor expansion using multivariate differentiation. However, loosely following [2], we use a perhaps unfamiliar way to define derivatives:

Definition 1. We define a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ to be **differentiable** at a if there exists a matrix $f'(a) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that

$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(a) + f'(a)\xi - f(a + \xi)|}{|\xi|} = 0$$

where $|e| \triangleq \sqrt{e^T e}$ is the usual norm. If f is differentiable, then the matrix $f'(a)$ is called the **Jacobian matrix** of f at a , and the linear map $Df_a : \xi \mapsto f'(a)\xi$ is called the **derivative** of f at a . When no confusion is likely, we use the notation $F_a \triangleq f'(a)$ to stress that $f'(a)$ is a matrix.

The benefit of using this definition is that it generalizes the notion of a scalar derivative $f' : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to multivariate functions from $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. In particular, the derivative Df_a maps vector increments ξ on a to increments $f'(a)\xi$ on $f(a)$, such that this linear map locally approximates f :

$$f(a + \xi) \approx f(a) + f'(a)\xi$$

Example 1. The function $\pi : (x, y, z) \mapsto (x/z, y/z)$ projects a 3D point (x, y, z) to the image plane, and has the Jacobian matrix

$$\pi'(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{z} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x/z \\ 0 & 1 & -y/z \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2 Properties of Derivatives

This notion of a multivariate derivative obeys the usual rules:

Theorem 1. (*Chain rule*) If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ is differentiable at a and $g : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is differentiable at $f(a)$, then the Jacobian matrix H_a of $h = g \circ f$ at a is the $m \times n$ matrix product

$$H_a = G_{f(a)} F_a$$

where $G_{f(a)}$ is the $m \times p$ Jacobian matrix of g evaluated at $f(a)$, and F_a is the $p \times n$ Jacobian matrix of f evaluated at a .

Proof. See [2] □

Example 2. If we follow the projection π by a calibration step $\gamma : (x, y) \mapsto (u_0 + fx, u_0 + fy)$, with

$$\gamma'(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} f & 0 \\ 0 & f \end{bmatrix}$$

then the combined function $\gamma \circ \pi$ has the Jacobian matrix

$$(\gamma \circ \pi)'(x, y) = \frac{f}{z} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x/z \\ 0 & 1 & -y/z \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem 2. (Inverse) If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable and has a differentiable inverse $g \triangleq f^{-1}$, then its Jacobian matrix G_a at a is just the inverse of that of f , evaluated at $g(a)$:

$$G_a = [F_{g(a)}]^{-1}$$

Proof. See [2] □

Example 3. The function $f : (x, y) \mapsto (x^2, xy)$ has the Jacobian matrix

$$F_{(x,y)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x & 0 \\ y & x \end{bmatrix}$$

and, for $x \geq 0$, its inverse is the function $g : (x, y) \mapsto (x^{1/2}, x^{-1/2}y)$ with the Jacobian matrix

$$G_{(x,y)} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} x^{-1/2} & 0 \\ -x^{-3/2}y & 2x^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

It is easily verified that

$$g'(a, b)f'(a^{1/2}, a^{-1/2}b) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} a^{-1/2} & 0 \\ -a^{-3/2}b & 2a^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2a^{1/2} & 0 \\ a^{-1/2}b & a^{1/2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Problem 1. Verify the above for $(a, b) = (4, 6)$. Sketch the situation graphically to get insight.

2.3 Computing Multivariate Derivatives

Computing derivatives is made easy by defining the concept of a partial derivative:

Definition 2. For $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the **partial derivative** of f at a ,

$$D_j f(a) \triangleq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a^1, \dots, a^j + h, \dots, a^n) - f(a^1, \dots, a^n)}{h}$$

which is the ordinary derivative of the scalar function $g(x) \triangleq f(a^1, \dots, x, \dots, a^n)$.

Using this definition, one can show that the Jacobian matrix F_a of a differentiable *multivariate* function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ consists simply of the $m \times n$ partial derivatives $D_j f^i(a)$, evaluated at $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$F_a = \begin{bmatrix} D_1 f^1(a) & \cdots & D_n f^1(a) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ D_1 f^m(a) & \cdots & D_n f^m(a) \end{bmatrix}$$

Problem 2. Verify the derivatives in Examples 1 to 3.

3 Multivariate Functions on Lie Groups

3.1 Lie Groups

Lie groups are not as easy to treat as the vector space \mathbb{R}^n but nevertheless have a lot of structure. To generalize the concept of the total derivative above we just need to replace $a \oplus \xi$ in (1.3) with a suitable operation in the Lie group G . In particular, the notion of an exponential map allows us to define a mapping from **local coordinates** ξ back to a neighborhood in G around a ,

$$a \oplus \xi \triangleq a \exp(\hat{\xi}) \quad (3.1)$$

with $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for an n -dimensional Lie group. Above, $\hat{\xi} \in \mathfrak{g}$ is the Lie algebra element corresponding to the vector ξ , and $\exp \hat{\xi}$ the exponential map. Note that if G is equal to \mathbb{R}^n then composing with the exponential map $ae^{\hat{\xi}}$ is just vector addition $a + \xi$.

Example 4. For the Lie group $SO(3)$ of 3D rotations the vector ξ is denoted as ωt and represents an angular displacement. The Lie algebra element $\hat{\xi}$ is a skew symmetric matrix denoted as $[\omega t]_{\times} \in \mathfrak{so}(3)$, and is given by

$$[\omega t]_{\times} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega_z & \omega_y \\ \omega_z & 0 & -\omega_x \\ -\omega_y & \omega_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} t$$

Finally, the increment $a \oplus \xi = ae^{\hat{\xi}}$ corresponds to an incremental rotation $R \oplus \omega t = Re^{[\omega t]_{\times}}$.

3.2 Local Coordinates vs. Tangent Vectors

In differential geometry, **tangent vectors** $v \in T_a G$ at a are elements of the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , and are defined as

$$v \triangleq \left. \frac{\partial \gamma(t)}{\partial t} \right|_{t=0}$$

where γ is some curve that passes through a at $t = 0$, i.e. $\gamma(0) = a$. In particular, for any fixed local coordinate ξ the map (3.1) can be used to define a **geodesic curve** on the group manifold defined by $\gamma : t \mapsto ae^{t\hat{\xi}}$, and the corresponding tangent vector is given by

$$\left. \frac{\partial ae^{t\hat{\xi}}}{\partial t} \right|_{t=0} = a\hat{\xi} \quad (3.2)$$

This defines the mapping between local coordinates $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and actual tangent vectors $a\hat{\xi} \in \mathfrak{g}$: the vector ξ defines a direction of travel on the manifold, but does so in the local coordinate frame a .

Example 5. Assume a rigid body's attitude is described by $R_b^n(t)$, where the indices denote the navigation frame N and body frame B , respectively. An extrinsically calibrated gyroscope measures the angular velocity ω^b , in the body frame, and the corresponding tangent vector is

$$\dot{R}_b^n(t) = R_b^n(t) \widehat{\omega^b}$$

3.3 Derivatives

We can generalize Definition 1 to map local coordinates ξ to increments $f'(a)\xi$ on $f(a)$, such that the linear map Df_a approximates the function f from G to \mathbb{R}^m in a neighborhood around a :

$$f(ae^{\hat{\xi}}) \approx f(a) + f'(a)\xi$$

Definition 3. We define a function $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ to be **differentiable** at $a \in G$ if there exists a matrix $f'(a) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(a) + f'(a)\xi - f(ae^{\hat{\xi}})|}{|\xi|} = 0$$

If f is differentiable, then the matrix $f'(a)$ is called the **Jacobian matrix** of f at a , and the linear map $Df_a : \xi \mapsto f'(a)\xi$ is called the **derivative** of f at a .

3.4 Derivative of an Action

The (usual) action of a matrix group G is matrix-vector multiplication on \mathbb{R}^n , i.e., $f : G \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with

$$f(T, p) = Tp$$

Since this is a function defined on the product $G \times \mathbb{R}^n$ the derivative is a linear transformation $Df : \mathbb{R}^{m+n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ with

$$Df_{(T,p)}(\xi, \delta p) = D_1f_{(T,p)}(\xi) + D_2f_{(T,p)}(\delta p)$$

where m is the dimensionality of the manifold G .

Theorem 3. The Jacobian matrix of the group action $f(T, p) = Tp$ at (T, p) is given by

$$F_{(T,p)} = \begin{bmatrix} TH(p) & T \end{bmatrix} = T \begin{bmatrix} H(p) & I_n \end{bmatrix}$$

with $H : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ a linear mapping that depends on p , and I_n the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

Proof. First, the derivative D_2f with respect to p is easy, as its matrix is simply T :

$$f(T, p + \delta p) = T(p + \delta p) = Tp + T\delta p = f(T, p) + D_2f(\delta p)$$

For the derivative D_1f with respect to a change in the first argument T , we want to find the linear map D_1f such that

$$Tp + D_1f(\xi) \approx f(Te^{\hat{\xi}}, p) = Te^{\hat{\xi}}p$$

Since the matrix exponential is given by the series $e^A = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots$ we have, to first order

$$Te^{\hat{\xi}}p \approx T(I + \hat{\xi})p = Tp + T\hat{\xi}p$$

and $D_1f(\xi) = T\hat{\xi}p$. Hence, to complete the proof, we need to show that

$$\hat{\xi}p = H(p)\xi \tag{3.3}$$

with $H(p)$ an $n \times m$ matrix that depends on p . Expressing the map $\xi \rightarrow \hat{\xi}$ in terms of the Lie algebra generators G^i , using tensors and Einstein summation, we have $\hat{\xi}_j^i = G_{jk}^i \xi^k$ allowing us to calculate $\hat{\xi} p$ as

$$\left(\hat{\xi} p\right)^i = \hat{\xi}_j^i p^j = G_{jk}^i \xi^k p^j = \left(G_{jk}^i p^j\right) \xi^k = H_k^i(p) \xi^k$$

□

Example 6. For 3D rotations $R \in SO(3)$, we have $\hat{\omega} = [\omega]_{\times}$ and

$$G_{k=1} : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad G_{k=2} : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad G_{k=3} : \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrices $(G_k^i)_j$ are obtained by assembling the j^{th} columns of the generators above, yielding $H(p)$ equal to:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} p^1 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} p^2 + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} p^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p^3 & -p^2 \\ -p^3 & 0 & p^1 \\ p^2 & -p^1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = [-p]_{\times}$$

Hence, the Jacobian matrix of $f(R, p) = Rp$ is given by

$$F_{(R,p)} = R \left([-p]_{\times} \quad I_3 \right)$$

3.5 Derivative of an Inverse Action

Applying the action by the inverse of $T \in G$ yields a function $g : G \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ defined by

$$g(T, p) = T^{-1} p$$

Theorem 4. The Jacobian matrix of the inverse group action $g(T, p) = T^{-1} p$ is given by

$$G_{(T,p)} = \left[-H(T^{-1} p) \quad T^{-1} \right]$$

where $H : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the same mapping as before.

Proof. Again, the derivative $D_2 g$ with respect to in p is easy, the matrix of which is simply T^{-1} :

$$g(T, p + \delta p) = T^{-1}(p + \delta p) = T^{-1} p + T^{-1} \delta p = g(T, p) + D_2 g(\delta p)$$

Conversely, a change in T yields

$$g(Te^{\hat{\xi}}, p) = \left(Te^{\hat{\xi}}\right)^{-1} p = e^{-\hat{\xi}} T^{-1} p$$

Similar to before, if we expand the matrix exponential we get

$$e^{-A} = I - A + \frac{A^2}{2!} - \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots$$

so

$$e^{-\hat{\xi}} T^{-1} p \approx (I - \hat{\xi}) T^{-1} p = g(T, p) - \hat{\xi} (T^{-1} p)$$

□

Example 7. For 3D rotations $R \in SO(3)$ we have $R^{-1} = R^T$, $H(p) = -[p]_{\times}$, and hence the Jacobian matrix of $g(R, p) = R^T p$ is given by

$$G_{(R,p)} = \left([R^T p]_{\times} \quad R^T \right)$$

4 Instantaneous Velocity

For matrix Lie groups, if we have a matrix $T_b^n(t)$ that depends on a parameter t , i.e., $T_b^n(t)$ follows a curve on the manifold, then it would be of interest to find the velocity of a point $q^n(t) = T_b^n(t)p^b$ acted upon by $T_b^n(t)$. We can express the velocity of $q(t)$ in both the n-frame and b-frame:

$$\dot{q}^n = \dot{T}_b^n p^b = \dot{T}_b^n (T_b^n)^{-1} p^n \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{q}^b = (T_b^n)^{-1} \dot{q}^n = (T_b^n)^{-1} \dot{T}_b^n p^b$$

Both the matrices $\hat{\xi}_{nb}^n \triangleq \dot{T}_b^n (T_b^n)^{-1}$ and $\hat{\xi}_{nb}^b \triangleq (T_b^n)^{-1} \dot{T}_b^n$ are skew-symmetric Lie algebra elements that describe the **instantaneous velocity** [1, page 51 for rotations, page 419 for SE(3)]. We will revisit this for both rotations and rigid 3D transformations.

5 Differentials: Smooth Mapping between Lie Groups

5.1 Motivation and Definition

The above shows how to compute the derivative of a function $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. However, what if the argument to f is itself the result of a mapping between Lie groups? In other words, $f = g \circ \varphi$, with $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and where $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ is a smooth mapping from the n -dimensional Lie group H to the p -dimensional Lie group G . In this case, one would expect that we can arrive at Df_a by composing linear maps, as follows:

$$f'(a) = (g \circ \varphi)'(a) = G_{\varphi(a)} \varphi'(a)$$

where $\varphi'(a)$ is an $n \times p$ matrix that is the best linear approximation to the map $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$. The corresponding linear map $D\varphi_a$ is called the **differential** or **pushforward** of the mapping φ at a .

Because a rigorous definition will lead us too far astray, here we only informally define the pushforward of φ at a as the linear map $D\varphi_a : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ such that $D\varphi_a(\xi) \triangleq \varphi'(a)\xi$ and

$$\varphi\left(ae^{\widehat{\xi}}\right) \approx \varphi(a) \exp\left(\widehat{\varphi'(a)\xi}\right) \quad (5.1)$$

with equality for $\xi \rightarrow 0$. We call $\varphi'(a)$ the **Jacobian matrix** of the map φ at a . Below we show that even with this informal definition we can deduce the pushforward in a number of useful cases.

5.2 Left Multiplication with a Constant

Theorem 5. *Suppose G is an n -dimensional Lie group, and $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$ is defined as $\varphi(g) = hg$, with $h \in G$ a constant. Then $D\varphi_a$ is the identity mapping and*

$$\varphi'(a) = I_n$$

Proof. Defining $y = D\varphi_a x$ as in (5.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(ae^{\hat{x}}) \\ hae^{\hat{y}} &= hae^{\hat{x}} \\ y &= x \end{aligned}$$

□

5.3 Pushforward of the Inverse Mapping

A well known property of Lie groups is the fact that applying an incremental change $\hat{\xi}$ in a different frame g can be applied in a single step by applying the change $Ad_g \hat{\xi}$ in the original frame,

$$ge^{\hat{\xi}}g^{-1} = \exp\left(Ad_g \hat{\xi}\right) \quad (5.2)$$

where $Ad_g : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ is the **adjoint representation**. This comes in handy in the following:

Theorem 6. *Suppose that $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$ is defined as the mapping from an element g to its **inverse** g^{-1} , i.e., $\varphi(g) = g^{-1}$, then the pushforward $D\varphi_a$ satisfies*

$$(D\varphi_a x)^\wedge = -Ad_a \hat{x} \quad (5.3)$$

In other words, and this is intuitive in hindsight, approximating the inverse is accomplished by negation of $\hat{\xi}$, along with an adjoint to make sure it is applied in the right frame. Note, however, that (5.3) does not immediately yield a useful expression for the Jacobian matrix $\varphi'(a)$, but in many important cases this will turn out to be easy.

Proof. Defining $y = D\varphi_a x$ as in (5.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(ae^{\hat{x}}) \\ a^{-1}e^{\hat{y}} &= (ae^{\hat{x}})^{-1} \\ e^{\hat{y}} &= -ae^{\hat{x}}a^{-1} \\ \hat{y} &= -Ad_a \hat{x} \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 8. For 3D rotations $R \in SO(3)$ we have

$$Ad_g(\hat{\omega}) = R\hat{\omega}R^T = [R\omega]_\times$$

and hence the pushforward for the inverse mapping $\varphi(R) = R^T$ has the matrix $\varphi'(R) = -R$.

5.4 Right Multiplication with a Constant

Theorem 7. *Suppose $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$ is defined as $\varphi(g) = gh$, with $h \in G$ a constant. Then $D\varphi_a$ satisfies*

$$(D\varphi_a x)^\wedge = Ad_{h^{-1}} \hat{x}$$

Proof. Defining $y = D\varphi_a x$ as in (5.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(ae^{\hat{x}}) \\ ahe &= ae^{\hat{x}}h \\ e^{\hat{y}} &= h^{-1}e^{\hat{x}}h = \exp(Ad_{h^{-1}} \hat{x}) \\ \hat{y} &= Ad_{h^{-1}} \hat{x} \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 9. In the case of 3D rotations, right multiplication with a constant rotation R is done through the mapping $\varphi(A) = AR$, and satisfies

$$[D\varphi_A x]_{\times} = Ad_{R^T} [x]_{\times}$$

For 3D rotations $R \in SO(3)$ we have

$$Ad_{R^T}(\hat{\omega}) = R^T \hat{\omega} R = [R^T \omega]_{\times}$$

and hence the Jacobian matrix of φ at A is $\varphi'(A) = R^T$.

5.5 Pushforward of Compose

Theorem 8. If we define the mapping $\varphi : G \times G \rightarrow G$ as the product of two group elements $g, h \in G$, i.e., $\varphi(g, h) = gh$, then the pushforward will satisfy

$$D\varphi_{(a,b)}(x, y) = D_1\varphi_{(a,b)}x + D_2\varphi_{(a,b)}y$$

with

$$(D_1\varphi_{(a,b)}x)^{\wedge} = Ad_{b^{-1}}\hat{x} \text{ and } D_2\varphi_{(a,b)}y = y$$

Proof. Looking at the first argument, the proof is very similar to right multiplication with a constant b . Indeed, defining $y = D\varphi_a x$ as in (5.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a, b)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(ae^{\hat{x}}, b) \\ abe^{\hat{y}} &= ae^{\hat{x}}b \\ e^{\hat{y}} &= b^{-1}e^{\hat{x}}b = \exp(Ad_{b^{-1}}\hat{x}) \\ \hat{y} &= Ad_{b^{-1}}\hat{x} \end{aligned} \tag{5.4}$$

In other words, to apply an incremental change \hat{x} to a we first need to undo b , then apply \hat{x} , and then apply b again. Using (5.2) this can be done in one step by simply applying $Ad_{b^{-1}}\hat{x}$.

The second argument is quite a bit easier and simply yields the identity mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a, b)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(a, be^{\hat{x}}) \\ abe^{\hat{y}} &= abe^{\hat{x}} \\ y &= x \end{aligned} \tag{5.5}$$

□

Example 10. For 3D rotations $A, B \in SO(3)$ we have $\varphi(A, B) = AB$, and $Ad_{B^T}[\omega]_{\times} = [B^T \omega]_{\times}$, hence the Jacobian matrix $\varphi'(A, B)$ of composing two rotations is given by

$$\varphi'(A, B) = \begin{bmatrix} B^T & I_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

5.6 Pushforward of Between

Finally, let us find the pushforward of **between**, defined as $\varphi(g, h) = g^{-1}h$. For the first argument we reason as:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(g, h)e^{\hat{y}} &= \varphi(ge^{\hat{x}}, h) \\ g^{-1}he^{\hat{y}} &= (ge^{\hat{x}})^{-1}h = -e^{\hat{x}}g^{-1}h \\ e^{\hat{y}} &= -(h^{-1}g)e^{\hat{x}}(h^{-1}g)^{-1} = -\exp \text{Ad}_{(h^{-1}g)}\hat{x} \\ \hat{y} &= -\text{Ad}_{(h^{-1}g)}\hat{x} = -\text{Ad}_{\varphi(h,g)}\hat{x}\end{aligned}\tag{5.6}$$

The second argument yields the identity mapping.

Example 11. For 3D rotations $A, B \in SO(3)$ we have $\varphi(A, B) = A^T B$, and $\text{Ad}_{B^T A}[-\omega]_{\times} = [-B^T A \omega]_{\times}$, hence the Jacobian matrix $\varphi'(A, B)$ of between is given by

$$\varphi'(A, B) = \begin{bmatrix} (-B^T A) & I_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

5.7 Numerical PushForward

Let's examine

$$f(g)e^{\hat{y}} = f(ge^{\hat{x}})$$

and multiply with $f(g)^{-1}$ on both sides:

$$e^{\hat{y}} = f(g)^{-1}f(ge^{\hat{x}})$$

We then take the log (which in our case returns y , not \hat{y}):

$$y(x) = \log \left[f(g)^{-1}f(ge^{\hat{x}}) \right]$$

Let us look at $x = 0$, and perturb in direction i , $e_i = [0, 0, 1, 0, 0]$. Then take derivative,

$$\frac{\partial y(d)}{\partial d} \triangleq \lim_{d \rightarrow 0} \frac{y(d) - y(0)}{d} = \lim_{d \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{d} \log \left[f(g)^{-1}f(ge^{\widehat{de}_i}) \right]$$

which is the basis for a numerical derivative scheme.

5.8 Derivative of the Exponential Map

Theorem 9. The derivative of the function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow G$ that applies the wedge operator followed by the exponential map, i.e., $f(\xi) = \exp \hat{\xi}$, is the identity map for $\xi = 0$.

Proof. For $\xi = 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}f(\xi)e^{\hat{y}} &= f(\xi + x) \\ f(0)e^{\hat{y}} &= f(0 + x) \\ e^{\hat{y}} &= e^{\hat{x}}\end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 1. *The derivative of the inverse f^{-1} is the identity as well, i.e., for $T = e$, the identity element in G .*

For $\xi \neq 0$, things are not simple. As with pushforwards above, we will be looking for an $n \times n$ Jacobian $f'(\xi)$ such that

$$f(\xi + \delta) \approx f(\xi) \exp\left(\widehat{f'(\xi)\delta}\right) \quad (5.7)$$

Differential geometry tells us that for any Lie algebra element $\hat{\xi} \in \mathfrak{g}$ there exists a *linear* map $d \exp_{\hat{\xi}} : T_{\hat{\xi}}\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow T_{\exp(\hat{\xi})}G$, which is given by¹

$$d \exp_{\hat{\xi}} \hat{x} = \exp(\hat{\xi}) \frac{1 - \exp(-ad_{\hat{\xi}})}{ad_{\hat{\xi}}} \hat{x} \quad (5.8)$$

with $\hat{x} \in T_{\hat{\xi}}\mathfrak{g}$ and $ad_{\hat{\xi}}$ itself a linear map taking \hat{x} to $[\hat{\xi}, \hat{x}]$, the Lie bracket. The actual formula above is not really as important as the fact that the linear map exists, although it is expressed directly in terms of tangent vectors to \mathfrak{g} and G . Equation (5.8) is a tangent vector, and comparing with (3.2) we see that it maps to local coordinates y as follows:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1 - \exp(-ad_{\hat{\xi}})}{ad_{\hat{\xi}}} \hat{x}$$

which can be used to construct the Jacobian $f'(\xi)$.

Example 12. For $SO(3)$, the operator $ad_{\hat{\xi}}$ is simply a matrix multiplication when representing $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ using 3-vectors, i.e., $ad_{\hat{\xi}}x = \hat{\xi}x$, and the 3×3 Jacobian corresponding to $d \exp$ is

$$f'(\xi) = \frac{I_{3 \times 3} - \exp(-\hat{\xi})}{\hat{\xi}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(k+1)!} \hat{\xi}^k$$

which, similar to the exponential map, has a simple closed form expression for $SO(3)$.

¹See <http://deltaepsilons.wordpress.com/2009/11/06/> or https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Derivative_of_the_exponential_map.

6 General Manifolds

6.1 Retractions

General manifolds that are not Lie groups do not have an exponential map, but can still be handled by defining a **retraction** $\mathcal{R} : \mathcal{M} \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$, such that

$$a \oplus \xi \triangleq \mathcal{R}_a(\xi)$$

A retraction [?] is required to be tangent to geodesics on the manifold \mathcal{M} at a . We can define many retractions for a manifold \mathcal{M} , even for those with more structure. For the vector space \mathbb{R}^n the retraction is just vector addition, and for Lie groups the obvious retraction is simply the exponential map, i.e., $\mathcal{R}_a(\xi) = a \cdot \exp \hat{\xi}$. However, one can choose other, possibly computationally attractive retractions, as long as around a they agree with the geodesic induced by the exponential map, i.e.,

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \frac{|a \cdot \exp \hat{\xi} - \mathcal{R}_a(\xi)|}{|\xi|} = 0$$

Example 13. For $SE(3)$, instead of using the true exponential map it is computationally more efficient to define the retraction, which uses a first order approximation of the translation update

$$\mathcal{R}_T \left(\begin{bmatrix} \omega \\ v \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{[\omega] \times} & v \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Re^{[\omega] \times} & t + Rv \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

6.2 Derivatives

Equipped with a retraction, then, we can generalize the notion of a derivative for functions f from general a manifold \mathcal{M} to \mathbb{R}^m :

Definition 4. We define a function $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ to be **differentiable** at $a \in \mathcal{M}$ if there exists a matrix $f'(a)$ such that

$$\lim_{\xi \rightarrow 0} \frac{|f(a) + f'(a)\xi - f(\mathcal{R}_a(\xi))|}{|\xi|} = 0$$

with $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for an n -dimensional manifold, and $\mathcal{R}_a : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ a retraction \mathcal{R} at a . If f is differentiable, then $f'(a)$ is called the **Jacobian matrix** of f at a , and the linear transformation $Df_a : \xi \mapsto f'(a)\xi$ is called the **derivative** of f at a .

For manifolds that are also Lie groups, the derivative of any function $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ will agree no matter what retraction \mathcal{R} is used.

Part II

Practice

Below we apply the results derived in the theory part to the geometric objects we use in GTSAM. Above we preferred the modern notation $D_1 f$ for the partial derivative. Below (because this was written earlier) we use the more classical notation

$$\frac{\partial f(x,y)}{\partial x}$$

In addition, for Lie groups we will abuse the notation and take

$$\left. \frac{\partial \varphi(g)}{\partial \xi} \right|_a$$

to be the Jacobian matrix $\varphi'(a)$ of the mapping φ at $a \in G$, associated with the pushforward $D\varphi_a$.

7 SLAM Example

Let us examine a visual SLAM example. We have 2D measurements z_{ij} , where each measurement is predicted by

$$z_{ij} = h(T_i, p_j) = \pi(T_i^{-1} p_j)$$

where T_i is the 3D pose of the i^{th} camera, p_j is the location of the j^{th} point, and $\pi : (x, y, z) \mapsto (x/z, y/z)$ is the camera projection function from Example 1.

8 BetweenFactor

BetweenFactor is a factor in GTSAM that is used ubiquitously to process measurements indicating the relative pose between two unknown poses T_1 and T_2 . Let us assume the measured relative pose is Z , then the code that calculates the error in **BetweenFactor** first calculates the predicted relative pose T_{12} , and then evaluates the error between the measured and predicted relative pose:

```
T12 = between(T1, T2);  
return localCoordinates(Z, T12);
```

where we recall that the function **between** is given in group theoretic notation as

$$\varphi(g, h) = g^{-1}h$$

The function **localCoordinates** itself also calls **between**, and converts to canonical coordinates:

```
localCoordinates(Z, T12) = Logmap(between(Z, T12));
```

Hence, given two elements T_1 and T_2 , **BetweenFactor** evaluates $g : G \times G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$g(T_1, T_2; Z) = f^{-1}(\varphi(Z, \varphi(T_1, T_2))) = f^{-1}(Z^{-1}(T_1^{-1}T_2))$$

where f^{-1} is the inverse of the map $f : \xi \mapsto \exp \hat{\xi}$. If we assume that the measurement has only small error, then $Z \approx T_1^{-1}T_2$, and hence we have $Z^{-1}T_1^{-1}T_2 \approx e$, and we can invoke Theorem 9, which says that the derivative of the exponential map $f : \xi \mapsto \exp \hat{\xi}$ is identity at $\xi = 0$, as well as its inverse.

Finally, because the derivative of **between** is identity in its second argument, the derivative of the **BetweenFactor** error is identical to the derivative of pushforward of $\varphi(T_1, T_2)$, derived in Section 5.6.

9 Point3

A cross product $a \times b$ can be written as a matrix multiplication

$$a \times b = [a]_{\times} b$$

where $[a]_{\times}$ is a skew-symmetric matrix defined as

$$[x, y, z]_{\times} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -z & y \\ z & 0 & -x \\ -y & x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

We also have

$$a^T [b]_{\times} = -([b]_{\times} a)^T = -(a \times b)^T$$

The derivative of a cross product

$$\frac{\partial(a \times b)}{\partial a} = [-b]_{\times} \tag{9.1}$$

$$\frac{\partial(a \times b)}{\partial b} = [a]_{\times} \tag{9.2}$$

10 2D Rotations

10.1 Rot2 in GTSAM

A rotation is stored as $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$. An incremental rotation is applied using the trigonometric sum rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \theta' &= \cos \theta \cos \delta - \sin \theta \sin \delta \\ \sin \theta' &= \sin \theta \cos \delta + \cos \theta \sin \delta\end{aligned}$$

where δ is an incremental rotation angle.

10.2 Derivatives of Actions

In the case of $SO(2)$ the vector space is \mathbb{R}^2 , and the group action $f(R, p)$ corresponds to rotating the 2D point p

$$f(R, p) = Rp$$

According to Theorem 3, the Jacobian matrix of f is given by

$$f'(R, p) = [RH(p) \quad R]$$

with $H : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$ a linear mapping that depends on p . In the case of $SO(2)$, we can find $H(p)$ by equating (as in Equation 3.3):

$$[w]_{+p} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega \\ \omega & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -y \\ x \end{bmatrix} \omega = H(p)\omega$$

Note that

$$H(p) = \begin{bmatrix} -y \\ x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = R_{\pi/2}p$$

and since 2D rotations commute, we also have, with $q = Rp$:

$$f'(R, p) = [R(R_{\pi/2}p) \quad R] = [R_{\pi/2}q \quad R]$$

10.3 Pushforwards of Mappings

Since $Ad_R[\omega]_+ = [\omega]_+$, we have the derivative of **inverse**,

$$\frac{\partial R^T}{\partial \omega} = -Ad_R = -1$$

compose,

$$\frac{\partial (R_1 R_2)}{\partial \omega_1} = Ad_{R_2^T} = 1 \text{ and } \frac{\partial (R_1 R_2)}{\partial \omega_2} = 1$$

and **between**:

$$\frac{\partial (R_1^T R_2)}{\partial \omega_1} = -Ad_{R_2^T R_1} = -1 \text{ and } \frac{\partial (R_1^T R_2)}{\partial \omega_2} = 1$$

11 2D Rigid Transformations

11.1 The derivatives of Actions

The action of $SE(2)$ on 2D points is done by embedding the points in \mathbb{R}^3 by using homogeneous coordinates

$$f(T, p) = \hat{q} = \begin{bmatrix} q \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = T\hat{p}$$

To find the derivative, we write the quantity $\hat{\xi}\hat{p}$ as the product of the 3×3 matrix $H(p)$ with ξ :

$$\hat{\xi}\hat{p} = \begin{bmatrix} [\omega]_+ & v \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [\omega]_+p + v \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & R_{\pi/2}p \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ \omega \end{bmatrix} = H(p)\xi \quad (11.1)$$

Hence, by Theorem 3 we have

$$\frac{\partial (T\hat{p})}{\partial \xi} = TH(p) = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & R_{\pi/2}p \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R & RR_{\pi/2}p \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R & R_{\pi/2}q \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11.2)$$

Note that, looking only at the top rows of (11.1) and (11.2), we can recognize the quantity $[\omega]_+p + v = v + \omega(R_{\pi/2}p)$ as the velocity of p in \mathbb{R}^2 , and $\begin{bmatrix} R & R_{\pi/2}q \end{bmatrix}$ is the derivative of the action on \mathbb{R}^2 .

The derivative of the inverse action $g(T, p) = T^{-1}\hat{p}$ is given by Theorem 4 specialized to $SE(2)$:

$$\frac{\partial (T^{-1}\hat{p})}{\partial \xi} = -H(T^{-1}p) = \begin{bmatrix} -I_2 & -R_{\pi/2}(T^{-1}p) \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

11.2 Pushforwards of Mappings

We can just define all derivatives in terms of the adjoint map, which in the case of $SE(2)$, in twist coordinates, is the linear mapping

$$Ad_T \xi = \begin{bmatrix} R & -R_{\pi/2}t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$

and we have

$$\frac{\partial T^{-1}}{\partial \xi} = -Ad_T$$

$$\frac{\partial (T_1 T_2)}{\partial \xi_1} = Ad_{T_2^{-1}} \text{ and } \frac{\partial (T_1 T_2)}{\partial \xi_2} = I_3$$

$$\frac{\partial (T_1^{-1} T_2)}{\partial \xi_1} = -Ad_{T_2^{-1} T_1} = -Ad_{\text{between}(T_2, T_1)} \text{ and } \frac{\partial (T_1^{-1} T_2)}{\partial \xi_2} = I_3$$

12 3D Rotations

12.1 Derivatives of Actions

In the case of $SO(3)$ the vector space is \mathbb{R}^3 , and the group action $f(R, p)$ corresponds to rotating a point

$$q = f(R, p) = Rp$$

To calculate $H(p)$ for use in Theorem (3) we make use of

$$[\omega]_{\times} p = \omega \times p = -p \times \omega = [-p]_{\times} \omega$$

so $H(p) \triangleq [-p]_{\times}$. Hence, the final derivative of an action in its first argument is

$$\frac{\partial (Rp)}{\partial \omega} = RH(p) = -R[p]_{\times} \quad (12.1)$$

Likewise, according to Theorem 4, the derivative of the inverse action is given by

$$\frac{\partial (R^T p)}{\partial \omega} = -H(R^T p) = [R^T p]_{\times}$$

12.2 Instantaneous Velocity

For 3D rotations R_b^n from a body frame b to a navigation frame n we have the spatial angular velocity ω_{nb}^n measured in the navigation frame,

$$[\omega_{nb}^n]_{\times} \triangleq \dot{R}_b^n (R_b^n)^T = \dot{R}_b^n R_n^b$$

and the body angular velocity ω_{nb}^b measured in the body frame:

$$[\omega_{nb}^b]_{\times} \triangleq (R_b^n)^T \dot{R}_b^n = R_n^b \dot{R}_b^n$$

These quantities can be used to derive the velocity of a point p , and we choose between spatial or body angular velocity depending on the frame in which we choose to represent p :

$$v^n = [\omega_{nb}^n]_{\times} p^n = \omega_{nb}^n \times p^n$$

$$v^b = [\omega_{nb}^b]_{\times} p^b = \omega_{nb}^b \times p^b$$

We can transform these skew-symmetric matrices from navigation to body frame by conjugating,

$$[\omega_{nb}^b]_{\times} = R_n^b [\omega_{nb}^n]_{\times} R_n^b$$

but because the adjoint representation satisfies

$$Ad_R[\omega]_{\times} \triangleq R[\omega]_{\times} R^T = [R\omega]_{\times}$$

we can even more easily transform between spatial and body angular velocities as 3-vectors:

$$\omega_{nb}^b = R_n^b \omega_{nb}^n$$

12.3 Pushforwards of Mappings

For $SO(3)$ we have $Ad_R[\omega]_{\times} = [R\omega]_{\times}$ and, in terms of angular velocities: $Ad_R\omega = R\omega$. Hence, the Jacobian matrix of the **inverse** mapping is (see Equation 5.3)

$$\frac{\partial R^T}{\partial \omega} = -Ad_R = -R$$

for **compose** we have (Equations 5.4 and 5.5):

$$\frac{\partial (R_1 R_2)}{\partial \omega_1} = R_2^T \text{ and } \frac{\partial (R_1 R_2)}{\partial \omega_2} = I_3$$

and **between** (Equation 5.6):

$$\frac{\partial (R_1^T R_2)}{\partial \omega_1} = -R_2^T R_1 = -\text{between}(R_2, R_1) \text{ and } \frac{\partial (R_1 R_2)}{\partial \omega_2} = I_3$$

12.4 Retractions

Absil [?, page 58] discusses two possible retractions for $SO(3)$ based on the QR decomposition or the polar decomposition of the matrix $R[\omega]_{\times}$, but they are expensive. Another retraction is based on the Cayley transform $\mathcal{C} : \mathfrak{so}(3) \rightarrow SO(3)$, a mapping from the skew-symmetric matrices to rotation matrices:

$$Q = \mathcal{C}(\Omega) = (I - \Omega)(I + \Omega)^{-1}$$

Interestingly, the inverse Cayley transform $\mathcal{C}^{-1} : SO(3) \rightarrow \mathfrak{so}(3)$ has the same form:

$$\Omega = \mathcal{C}^{-1}(Q) = (I - Q)(I + Q)^{-1}$$

The retraction needs a factor $-\frac{1}{2}$ however, to make it locally align with a geodesic:

$$R' = \mathcal{R}_R(\omega) = R\mathcal{C}\left(-\frac{1}{2}[\omega]_{\times}\right)$$

Note that given $\omega = (x, y, z)$ this has the closed-form expression below

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{4 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \begin{bmatrix} 4 + x^2 - y^2 - z^2 & 2xy - 4z & 2xz + 4y \\ 2xy + 4z & 4 - x^2 + y^2 - z^2 & 2yz - 4x \\ 2xz - 4y & 2yz + 4x & 4 - x^2 - y^2 + z^2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{4 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \left\{ 4(I + [\omega]_{\times}) + \begin{bmatrix} x^2 - y^2 - z^2 & 2xy & 2xz \\ 2xy & -x^2 + y^2 - z^2 & 2yz \\ 2xz & 2yz & -x^2 - y^2 + z^2 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

so it can be seen to be a second-order correction on $(I + [\omega]_{\times})$. The corresponding approximation to the logarithmic map is:

$$[\omega]_{\times} = \mathcal{R}_R^{-1}(R') = -2\mathcal{C}^{-1}(R^T R')$$

13 3D Rigid Transformations

13.1 The derivatives of Actions

The action of $SE(3)$ on 3D points is done by embedding the points in \mathbb{R}^4 by using homogeneous coordinates

$$\hat{q} = \begin{bmatrix} q \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = f(T, p) = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = T\hat{p}$$

The quantity $\hat{\xi}\hat{p}$ corresponds to a velocity in \mathbb{R}^4 (in the local T frame), and equating it to $H(p)\xi$ as in Equation 3.3 yields the 4×6 matrix $H(p)$ ²:

$$\hat{\xi}\hat{p} = \begin{bmatrix} [\omega]_{\times} & v \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \omega \times p + v \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [-p]_{\times} & I_3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega \\ v \end{bmatrix} = H(p)\xi$$

Note how velocities are analogous to points at infinity in projective geometry: they correspond to free vectors indicating a direction and magnitude of change. According to Theorem 3, the derivative of the group action is then

$$\frac{\partial(T\hat{p})}{\partial\xi} = TH(p) = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [-p]_{\times} & I_3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R[-p]_{\times} & R \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial(T\hat{p})}{\partial\hat{p}} = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

in homogenous coordinates. In \mathbb{R}^3 this becomes $R \begin{bmatrix} -[p]_{\times} & I_3 \end{bmatrix}$.

The derivative of the inverse action $T^{-1}p$ is given by Theorem 4:

$$\frac{\partial(T^{-1}\hat{p})}{\partial\xi} = -H(T^{-1}\hat{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} [T^{-1}\hat{p}]_{\times} & -I_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial(T^{-1}\hat{p})}{\partial\hat{p}} = \begin{bmatrix} R^T & -R^T t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 14. Let us examine a visual SLAM example. We have 2D measurements z_{ij} , where each measurement is predicted by

$$z_{ij} = h(T_i, p_j) = \pi(T_i^{-1}p_j) = \pi(q)$$

where T_i is the 3D pose of the i^{th} camera, p_j is the location of the j^{th} point, $q = (x', y', z') = T^{-1}p$ is the point in camera coordinates, and $\pi : (x, y, z) \mapsto (x/z, y/z)$ is the camera projection function from Example 1. By the chain rule, we then have

$$\frac{\partial h(T, p)}{\partial\xi} = \frac{\partial\pi(q)}{\partial q} \frac{\partial(T^{-1}p)}{\partial\xi} = \frac{1}{z'} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x'/z' \\ 0 & 1 & -y'/z' \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [q]_{\times} & -I_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi'(q)[q]_{\times} & -\pi'(q) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial h(T, p)}{\partial p} = \pi'(q)R^T$$

² $H(p)$ can also be obtained by taking the j^{th} column of each of the 6 generators to multiply with components of \hat{p}

13.2 Instantaneous Velocity

For rigid 3D transformations T_b^n from a body frame b to a navigation frame n we have the instantaneous spatial twist $\hat{\xi}_{nb}^n$ measured in the navigation frame,

$$\hat{\xi}_{nb}^n \triangleq \dot{T}_b^n (T_b^n)^{-1}$$

and the instantaneous body twist $\hat{\xi}_{nb}^b$ measured in the body frame:

$$\hat{\xi}_{nb}^b \triangleq (T_b^n)^T \dot{T}_b^n$$

13.3 Pushforwards of Mappings

As we can express the Adjoint representation in terms of twist coordinates, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \omega' \\ v' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R & 0 \\ [t]_{\times} R & R \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence, as with $SO(3)$, we are now in a position to simply posit the derivative of **inverse**,

$$\frac{\partial T^{-1}}{\partial \xi} = -Ad_T = - \begin{bmatrix} R & 0 \\ [t]_{\times} R & R \end{bmatrix}$$

compose in its first argument,

$$\frac{\partial (T_1 T_2)}{\partial \xi_1} = Ad_{T_2^{-1}}$$

in its second argument,

$$\frac{\partial (T_1 T_2)}{\partial \xi_2} = I_6$$

between in its first argument,

$$\frac{\partial (T_1^{-1} T_2)}{\partial \xi_1} = -Ad_{T_2^{-1} T_1} = \begin{bmatrix} -R_2^T R_1 & 0 \\ R_2^T [t_2 - t_1]_{\times} R_1 & -R_2^T R_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and in its second argument,

$$\frac{\partial (T_1^{-1} T_2)}{\partial \xi_2} = I_6$$

13.4 Retractions

For $SE(3)$, instead of using the true exponential map it is computationally more efficient to design other retractions. A first-order approximation to the exponential map does not quite cut it, as it

yields a 4×4 matrix which is not in $SE(3)$:

$$\begin{aligned}
T \exp \hat{\xi} &\approx T(I + \hat{\xi}) \\
&= T\left(I_4 + \begin{bmatrix} [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}\right) \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R} & \boldsymbol{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_3 + [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R}(I_3 + [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}) & \boldsymbol{t} + \boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

However, we can make it into a retraction by using any retraction defined for $SO(3)$, including, as below, using the exponential map $Re^{[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}}$:

$$\mathcal{R}_T\left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\omega} \\ \boldsymbol{v} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R} & \boldsymbol{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Re^{[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}} & \boldsymbol{t} + \boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly, for a second order approximation we have

$$\begin{aligned}
T \exp \hat{\xi} &\approx T\left(I + \hat{\xi} + \frac{\hat{\xi}^2}{2}\right) \\
&= T\left(I_4 + \begin{bmatrix} [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} & \boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}\right) \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R} & \boldsymbol{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} I_3 + [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} + \frac{1}{2}[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}^2 & \boldsymbol{v} + \frac{1}{2}[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}\boldsymbol{v} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \right) \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R}(I_3 + [\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} + \frac{1}{2}[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}^2) & \boldsymbol{t} + \boldsymbol{R}[\boldsymbol{v} + (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \boldsymbol{v})/2] \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

inspiring the retraction

$$\mathcal{R}_T\left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\omega} \\ \boldsymbol{v} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{R} & \boldsymbol{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}} & \boldsymbol{v} + (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \boldsymbol{v})/2 \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Re^{[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times}} & \boldsymbol{t} + \boldsymbol{R}[\boldsymbol{v} + (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \boldsymbol{v})/2] \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix}$$

14 The Sphere S^2

14.1 Definitions

The sphere S^2 is the set of all unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 , i.e., all directions in three-space:

$$S^2 = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \|p\| = 1\}$$

The tangent space $T_p S^2$ at a point p consists of three-vectors $\hat{\xi}$ such that $\hat{\xi}$ is tangent to S^2 at p , i.e.,

$$T_p S^2 \triangleq \left\{ \hat{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid p^T \hat{\xi} = 0 \right\}$$

While not a Lie group, we can define an exponential map, which is given in Ma et. al [?], as well as in this CVPR tutorial by Anuj Srivastava: http://stat.fsu.edu/~anuj/CVPR_Tutorial/Part2.pdf.

$$\exp_p \hat{\xi} = \cos(\|\hat{\xi}\|) p + \sin(\|\hat{\xi}\|) \frac{\hat{\xi}}{\|\hat{\xi}\|}$$

The latter also gives the inverse, i.e., get the tangent vector z to go from p to q :

$$z = \log_p q = \frac{\theta}{\sin \theta} (q - p \cos \theta) p$$

with $\theta = \cos^{-1}(p^T q)$.

14.2 Local Coordinates

We can find a basis B_p for the tangent space $T_p S^2$, with $B_p = [b_1 | b_2]$ a 3×2 matrix, by either

1. Decompose $p = QR$, with Q orthonormal and R of the form $[100]^T$, and hence $p = Q_1$. The basis $B_p = [Q_2 | Q_3]$, i.e., the last two columns of Q .
2. Form $b_1 = p \times a$, with a (consistently) chosen to be non-parallel to p , and $b_2 = p \times b_1$.

Now we can write $\hat{\xi} = B_p \xi$ with $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^2$ the 2D coordinate in the tangent plane basis B_p .

14.3 Retraction

The exponential map uses \cos and \sin , and is more than we need for optimization. Suppose we have a point $p \in S^2$ and a 3-vector $\hat{\xi} \in T_p S^2$, Absil [?] tells us we can simply add $\hat{\xi}$ to p and renormalize to get a new point q on the sphere. This is what he calls a **retraction** $\mathcal{R}_p(\hat{\xi})$,

$$q = \mathcal{R}_p(\hat{\xi}) = \frac{p + \hat{\xi}}{\|p + \hat{\xi}\|} = \frac{p + \hat{\xi}}{\alpha}$$

with α the norm of $p + \hat{\xi}$.

We can also define a retraction from local coordinates $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^2$:

$$q = \mathcal{R}_p(\xi) = \frac{p + B_p \xi}{\|p + B_p \xi\|}$$

Inverse Retraction

If $\hat{\xi} = B_p \xi$ with $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^2$ the 2D coordinate in the tangent plane basis B_p , we have

$$\xi = \frac{B_p^T q}{p^T q}$$

Proof. We seek

$$\alpha q = p + B_p \xi$$

If we multiply both sides with B_p^T (project on the basis B_p) we obtain

$$\alpha B_p^T q = B_p^T p + B_p^T B_p \xi$$

and because $B_p^T p = 0$ and $B_p^T B_p = I$ we trivially obtain ξ as the scaled projection $B_p^T q$:

$$\xi = \alpha B_p^T q$$

To recover the scale factor α we multiply with p^T on both sides, and we get

$$\alpha p^T q = p^T p + p^T B_p \xi$$

Since $p^T p = 1$ and $p^T B_p \xi = 0$, we then obtain $\alpha = 1/(p^T q)$, which completes the proof. \square

14.4 Rotation acting on a 3D Direction

Rotating a point $p \in S^2$ on the sphere obviously yields another point $q = Rp \in S^2$, as rotation preserves the norm. The derivative of $f(R, p)$ with respect to R can be found by equating

$$Rp + B_{Rp} \xi = R(I + [\omega]_{\times})p = Rp + R[\omega]_{\times} p$$

$$B_{Rp} \xi = -R[p]_{\times} \omega$$

$$\xi = -B_{Rp}^T R[p]_{\times} \omega$$

whereas with respect to p we have

$$Rp + B_{Rp} \xi_q = R(p + B_p \xi_p)$$

$$\xi_q = B_{Rp}^T R B_p \xi_p$$

In other words, the Jacobian matrix is given by

$$f'(R, p) = \begin{bmatrix} -B_{Rp}^T R[p]_{\times} & B_{Rp}^T R B_p \end{bmatrix}$$

14.5 Error between 3D Directions

We would like to define a distance metric $e(p, q)$ between two directions $p, q \in \mathcal{S}^2$. An obvious choice is

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}(p^T q)$$

which is exactly the distance along the shortest path (geodesic) on the sphere, i.e., this is the distance metric associated with the exponential. The advantage is that it is defined everywhere, but it involves \cos^{-1} . The derivative with respect to a change in q , via ξ , is then

$$\frac{\partial \theta(p, q)}{\partial \xi} = \frac{\partial \cos^{-1}(p^T q)}{\partial \xi} = \frac{p^T B_q}{\sqrt{1 - (p^T q)^2}}$$

which is also undefined for $p = q$.

A simpler metric is derived from the retraction but only holds when $q \approx p$. It simply projects q onto the local coordinate basis B_p defined by p , and takes the norm:

$$\theta(p, q) = \|B_p^T q\|$$

The derivative with respect to a change in q , via ξ , is then

$$\frac{\partial \theta(p, q)}{\partial \xi_q} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi_q} \sqrt{(B_p^T q)^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(B_p^T q)^2}} (B_p^T q) B_p^T B_q = \frac{B_p^T q}{\theta(p, q)} B_p^T B_q$$

Note that this again is undefined for $\theta = 0$.

For use in a probabilistic factor, a signed, vector-valued error will not have the discontinuity:

$$\theta(p, q) = B_p^T q$$

Note this is the inverse retraction up to a scale. The derivative with respect to a change in q , via ξ , is found by

$$\frac{\partial \theta(p, q)}{\partial \xi_q} = B_p^T \frac{\partial q}{\partial \xi_q} = B_p^T B_q$$

Application

We can use the above to find the unknown rotation between a camera and an IMU. If we measure the rotation between two frames as $c_1 Z c_2$, and the predicted rotation from the IMU is $i_1 R i_2$, then we can predict

$$c_1 Z c_2 = i R c^T \cdot i_1 R i_2 \cdot i R c$$

and the axis of the incremental rotations will relate as

$$p = i R c \cdot z$$

with p the angular velocity axis in the IMU frame, and z the measured axis of rotation between the two cameras. Note this only makes sense if the rotation is non-zero. So, given an initial estimate R for the unknown rotation $i R c$ between IMU and camera, the derivative of the error is (using 12.1)

$$\frac{\partial \theta(Rz; p)}{\partial \omega} = B_p^T (Rz) B_p^T B_{Rz} \frac{\partial (Rz)}{\partial \omega} = B_p^T (Rz) B_p^T R [z]_{\times}$$

Here the 2×3 matrix $B_{Rz}^T [z]_{\times}$ translates changes in R to changes in Rz , and the 1×2 matrix $B_p^T (Rz)$ describes the downstream effect on the error metric.

15 The Essential Matrix Manifold

We parameterize essential matrices as a pair (R, t) , where $R \in SO(3)$ and $t \in S^2$, the unit sphere. The epipolar matrix is then given by

$$E = [t]_{\times} R$$

and the epipolar error given two corresponding points a and b is

$$e(R, t; a, b) = a^T E b$$

We are of course interested in the derivative with respect to orientation (using 12.1)

$$\frac{\partial (a^T [t]_{\times} R b)}{\partial \omega} = a^T [t]_{\times} \frac{\partial (R b)}{\partial \omega} = -a^T [t]_{\times} R [b]_{\times} = -a^T E [b]_{\times}$$

and with respect to change in the direction t

$$\frac{\partial e(a^T [t]_{\times} R b)}{\partial \xi} = a^T \frac{\partial (B \xi \times R b)}{\partial v} = -a^T [R b]_{\times} B$$

where we made use of the fact that the retraction can be written as $t + B \xi$, with B a local basis, and we made use of (9.1):

$$\frac{\partial (a \times b)}{\partial a} = [-b]_{\times}$$

16 2D Line Segments (Ocaml)

The error between an infinite line (a, b, c) and a 2D line segment $((x1, y1), (x2, y2))$ is defined in `Line3.ml`.

17 Line3vd (Ocaml)

One representation of a line is through 2 vectors (v, d) , where v is the direction and the vector d points from the origin to the closest point on the line.

In this representation, transforming a 3D line from a world coordinate frame to a camera at (R_w^c, t^w) is done by

$$v^c = R_w^c v^w$$

$$d^c = R_w^c (d^w + (t^w v^w) v^w - t^w)$$

18 Line3 (Ocaml)

For 3D lines, we use a parameterization due to C.J. Taylor, using a rotation matrix R and 2 scalars a and b . The line direction v is simply the Z-axis of the rotated frame, i.e., $v = R_3$, while the vector d is given by $d = aR_1 + bR_2$.

Now, we will *not* use the incremental rotation scheme we used for rotations: because the matrix R translates from the line coordinate frame to the world frame, we need to apply the incremental rotation on the right-side:

$$R' = R(I + \Omega)$$

Projecting a line to 2D can be done easily, as both v and d are also the 2D homogenous coordinates of two points on the projected line, and hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} l &= v \times d \\ &= R_3 \times (aR_1 + bR_2) \\ &= a(R_3 \times R_1) + b(R_3 \times R_2) \\ &= aR_2 - bR_1 \end{aligned}$$

This can be written as a rotation of a point,

$$l = R \begin{pmatrix} -b \\ a \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

but because the incremental rotation is now done on the right, we need to figure out the derivatives again:

$$\frac{\partial(R(I + \Omega)x)}{\partial \omega} = \frac{\partial(R\Omega x)}{\partial \omega} = R \frac{\partial(\Omega x)}{\partial \omega} = R[-x]_{\times} \quad (18.1)$$

and hence the derivative of the projection l with respect to the rotation matrix R of the 3D line is

$$\frac{\partial(l)}{\partial \omega} = R \left[\begin{pmatrix} b \\ -a \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right]_{\times} = [aR_3 \quad bR_3 \quad -(aR_1 + bR_2)] \quad (18.2)$$

or the a, b scalars:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial(l)}{\partial a} &= R_2 \\ \frac{\partial(l)}{\partial b} &= -R_1 \end{aligned}$$

Transforming a 3D line $(R, (a, b))$ from a world coordinate frame to a camera frame (R_w^c, t^w) is done by

$$\begin{aligned} R' &= R_w^c R \\ a' &= a - R_1^T t^w \\ b' &= b - R_2^T t^w \end{aligned}$$

Again, we need to redo the derivatives, as R is incremented from the right. The first argument is incremented from the left, but the result is incremented on the right:

$$\begin{aligned} R'(I + \Omega') &= (AB)(I + \Omega') = (I + [S\omega]_{\times})AB \\ I + \Omega' &= (AB)^T(I + [S\omega]_{\times})(AB) \\ \Omega' &= R'^T [S\omega]_{\times} R' \\ \Omega' &= [R'^T S\omega]_{\times} \\ \omega' &= R'^T S\omega \end{aligned}$$

For the second argument R we now simply have:

$$\begin{aligned} AB(I + \Omega') &= AB(I + \Omega) \\ \Omega' &= \Omega \\ \omega' &= \omega \end{aligned}$$

The scalar derivatives can be found by realizing that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \\ \dots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - R^T t^w$$

where we don't care about the third row. Hence

$$\frac{\partial((R(I + \Omega_2))^T t^w)}{\partial \omega} = -\frac{\partial(\Omega_2 R^T t^w)}{\partial \omega} = -[R^T t^w]_{\times} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & R_3^T t^w & -R_2^T t^w \\ -R_3^T t^w & 0 & R_1^T t^w \\ \dots & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

19 Aligning 3D Scans

Below is the explanation underlying Pose3.align, i.e. aligning two point clouds using SVD. Inspired but modified from CVOnline...

Our model is

$$p^c = R(p^w - t)$$

i.e., R is from camera to world, and t is the camera location in world coordinates. The objective function is

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum (p^c - R(p^w - t))^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum (p^c - R p^w + R t)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum (p^c - R p^w - t')^2 \quad (19.1)$$

where $t' = -R t$ is the location of the origin in the camera frame. Taking the derivative with respect to t' and setting to zero we have

$$\sum (p^c - R p^w - t') = 0$$

or

$$t' = \frac{1}{n} \sum (p^c - R p^w) = \bar{p}^c - R \bar{p}^w \quad (19.2)$$

here \bar{p}^c and \bar{p}^w are the point cloud centroids. Substituting back into (19.1), we get

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum (p^c - R(p^w - t))^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum ((p^c - \bar{p}^c) - R(p^w - \bar{p}^w))^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum (\hat{p}^c - R \hat{p}^w)^2$$

Now, to minimize the above it suffices to maximize (see CVOnline)

$$\text{trace}(R^T C)$$

where $C = \sum \hat{p}^c (\hat{p}^w)^T$ is the correlation matrix. Intuitively, the cloud of points is rotated to align with the principal axes. This can be achieved by SVD decomposition on C

$$C = U S V^T$$

and setting

$$R = UV^T$$

Clearly, from (19.2) we then also recover the optimal t as

$$t = \bar{p}^w - R^T \bar{p}^c$$

Appendix

Differentiation Rules

Spivak [2] also notes some multivariate derivative rules defined component-wise, but they are not that useful in practice:

- Since $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is defined in terms of m component functions f^i , then f is differentiable at a iff each f^i is, and the Jacobian matrix F_a is the $m \times n$ matrix whose i^{th} row is $(f^i)'(a)$:

$$F_a \triangleq f'(a) = \begin{bmatrix} (f^1)'(a) \\ \vdots \\ (f^m)'(a) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scalar differentiation rules: if $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable at a , then

$$(f + g)'(a) = F_a + G_a$$

$$(f \cdot g)'(a) = g(a)F_a + f(a)G_a$$

$$(f/g)'(a) = \frac{1}{g(a)^2} [g(a)F_a - f(a)G_a]$$

Tangent Spaces and the Tangent Bundle

The following is adapted from Appendix A in [1].

The **tangent space** $T_p M$ of a manifold M at a point $p \in M$ is the vector space of **tangent vectors** at p . The **tangent bundle** TM is the set of all tangent vectors

$$TM \triangleq \bigcup_{p \in M} T_p M$$

A **vector field** $X : M \rightarrow TM$ assigns a single tangent vector $x \in T_p M$ to each point p .

If $F : M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map from a manifold M to a manifold N , then we can define the **tangent map** of F at p as the linear map $F_{*p} : T_p M \rightarrow T_{F(p)} N$ that maps tangent vectors in $T_p M$ at p to tangent vectors in $T_{F(p)} N$ at the image $F(p)$.

Homomorphisms

The following *might be* relevant [?, page 45]: suppose that $\Phi : G \rightarrow H$ is a mapping (Lie group homomorphism). Then there exists a unique linear map $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$

$$\phi(\hat{x}) \triangleq \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dt} \Phi(e^{t\hat{x}})$$

such that

1. $\Phi(e^{\hat{x}}) = e^{\phi(\hat{x})}$
2. $\phi(T\hat{x}T^{-1}) = \Phi(T)\phi(\hat{x})\Phi(T^{-1})$
3. $\phi([\hat{x}, \hat{y}]) = [\phi(\hat{x}), \phi(\hat{y})]$

In other words, the map ϕ is the derivative of Φ at the identity. As an example, suppose $\Phi(g) = g^{-1}$, then the corresponding derivative *at the identity* is

$$\phi(\hat{x}) \triangleq \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dt} (e^{t\hat{x}})^{-1} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{dt} e^{-t\hat{x}} = -\hat{x} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} e^{-t\hat{x}} = -\hat{x}$$

In general it suffices to compute ϕ for a basis of \mathfrak{g} .

References

- [1] Richard M Murray, Zexiang Li, S Shankar Sastry, and S Shankara Sastry. *A mathematical introduction to robotic manipulation*. CRC press, 1994.
- [2] Michael Spivak. *Calculus on manifolds*, volume 1. WA Benjamin New York, 1965.