

Introductions. Name a little misleading, as truly understanding rotations would require a deep understanding of group theory, which I honestly neither have, nor have time to present. So a better name might be



Which isn't say I won't be covering other aspects of rotation, it's just that that will be the primary focus of this talk.



The order here is an attempt to compare similar formats across 2D and 3D.







On the previous slide, I mentioned orientation and rotation. Throughout the talk I may use them interchangeably, and I want to make sure that the distinction between them is clear. Orientation refers to where the axes of the reference frame (or coordinate system) lie.



Those axes are relative to a fixed reference frame, marked in green in this diagram.



Rotation is the operation that takes us from one orientation to another one, represented here by the black arrow.



So, it is possible to represent orientation as a rotation from the reference frame, which is what we usually do.

Ideal Rotation Format

• Represent degrees of freedom with minimum number of values

- Allow concatenations of rotations
- Math should be simple and efficient
 - concatenation
 - interpolation
 - rotation

So what do we look for in an ideal rotation format?





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Topics

- Angle (2D)
- Euler Angles (3D)
- Axis-Angle (3D)
- Matrix (2D)
- Matrix (3D)
- Complex number (2D)
- Quaternion (3D)



The simplest rotation format is just the angle between the original coordinate axes and the new ones. It's the same for x and y axes, so...



To simplify things I'll just use the angle between the old and new \boldsymbol{x} axes.



This angle can also be negative, btw.



Concatenation is very simple. If we rotate by an angle theta and then an angle phi...



We can represent this by a single angle theta plus phi



Note that because addition is commutative, this concatenation is commutative, so rotating by phi first and then theta we get the same result.



And so we have the final rotation.



Blending between angles is just about as simple, but there are some gotchas to be aware of. So suppose we have a rotation theta and a rotation phi (a different phi than the previous one, in this case)...



And we want to find a rotation between them, using an interpolation factor t that varies from 0 to 1.



This is pretty simple, we can just do a linear interpolation between theta and phi. This formula should seem familiar after Squirrel's talk.

2D Angle: Interpolation

What if θ = 30° & ϕ = 390°?

Expect always same angle But $(1-t)\theta+t\phi$ will vary from 30° to 390°

However, as mentioned, there are gotchas. Suppose we have angles of 30 degrees and 390 degrees. These are the same rotation, but if we do a straight linear interpolation, we'll end up with angles between 30 and 390, when we'd expect to not rotate at all.



So that's one problem with angles: you can have an infinite number of values that represent one rotation. The simplest solution here is to just constrain the angles to a range, 0 to 360 or 0 to 2 pi if you're using radians.



How about rotation. Here things get a little more complicated, but not too bad. As the slide says, the coordinates that we use for both vectors and points are relative to the coordinate frame we're using. So if we track how the frame changes, we can compute the new coordinates. It's all part of the magic of vector spaces... or affine spaces in this case.



So, returning to our original diagram, with both angles in this case.



The original axes have coordinates (1,0) for the x axes and (0,1) for the y axes. Their length is one, so by trigonometry, we can easily compute the coordinates of the new axes relative to the new ones, namely (show) cos theta here and sin theta here. And the same for the y axes.



So our new coordinates are cos theta, sin theta for the x axis and -sin theta cos theta for the y-axis.



Simplifying, just to make it a little more clear.



So as I mentioned, the coordinates that we use are relative to our current frame. So for a point x, y, this just means that we take x and multiply it by (1,0) and take y and multiply it by (0,1). That gives us x,y as we expect. For the new frame, we just take our original x, y and multiply by the new axes. So that's x times cos theta, sin theta, and y times -sin theta cos theta, which simplifies to this final result for our rotation equation.



So we derived our rotation formula, but as we can see, in order to compute this we'll have to compute a sin and cos, which is not always the fastest operation.

2D Angle: Summary

- Compact (1 value)
- Concat easy (add)
- Interpolation doable
- Rotation not ideal
- Be careful of infinite values

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So that's angles in 2D. Now we're going to look at formats that use angles for 3D rotation. We'll begin with Euler angles.



Euler angles are just like single 2D angle, except that instead of rotating around a single (implied) axis, we're rotating around 3 different axes. This follows from Euler's theorem that all 3D rotations can be represented by three ordered rotations, hence the name.



Often there are differences in terminology for these -- some people like to refer to Euler angles as those rotate only around the local axes of the object, while they refer to rotations around the world axes as fixed angles. They behave similarly -- to get from one to the other you just reverse the rotation order. But often times you'll just see both kinds referred to as Euler angles, so just be aware of which axes you're rotating around.

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Euler Angle Issues

- •No easy concatenation of rotations
- •Still has interpolation problems
- •Can lead to gimbal lock

Euler angles, despite being compact, have some serious problems that make it undesirable as a general rotation format. First, our easy addition of angles goes out the window with Euler angles. Secondly, our interpolation problems are even worse. Finally, when axes align after a series of rotations, we can end up with something called gimbal lock, where we lose one degree of freedom. Let's look at these problems in turn.








So in summary: Euler angles -- avoid them!

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So let's look at another 3D angle format and see if that works better for us: axis-angle.



Euler also proved that any 3D rotation can be represented as a rotation around an arbitrary axis. So axis-angle is just as it sounds -- we specify an axis and how much we're going to rotate around it, in a counterclockwise direction (right-hand rule). I'm not going to spend a lot of time on axis-angle as it has it's own brand of problems. Interpolation is pretty simple -- you can just blend the axis and angle separately and get a reasonable result. However, concatenation is much the same as Euler angles -- you have to convert to a matrix (or another format, which we'll get to) -- concatenate, then convert back. In my opinion, it's just not worth it.



However, it is convenient at times to be able to rotate something by an axis-angle representation, so here's the formula for that. As you can see, this is not the simplest operation either.



We'll see an example of this with 3D matrices in a bit.

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Ok, now we're going to bounce back to 2D and consider a much nicer and (hopefully) familiar format, the matrix.





2D Matrix

 Idea: Bake new frame in matrix and multiply by vector to rotate

Matrix represents transformation

The idea of a matrix is simple: we bake this new frame in the matrix, and then matrix multiplication will do the coordinate transformation for us. By the way, if you understand this -- and I am going to go a bit fast on this, so I apologize -- but if you understand it, you can handle any transformation you need to compute. If you want one area of linear algebra to study that will help you be successful in computer graphics or even physics, this is it.



So in the standard case, where we're working with Euclidean frames, we don't need to do anything special, just drop the new frame in. Assuming that we're using row vectors, that is, our multiplication order is from left to right, then we're going to insert our new frame in as the rows of the rotation matrix.



Just to make it more clear, our first row is the same as our new x-axis...



And the second row is the same as the new y-axis.



And multiplying it out, we get the same result as before from our angle formula.



Concatenation also uses multiplication, but this time we're multiplying two rotation matrices together. After multiplying and using some trigonometric identities to simply, we can see that we get the result we expect: the angle in the new matrix is just the sum of the original two angles. Note again that the multiplication order doesn't matter here because we're doing 2D rotation. That won't be the case when we get to 3D.



So rotating a vector and concatenating rotations are fairly nice. What about interpolation. Well, here things start to fall apart. If we take these two rotation matrices: one with no rotation and the other a rotation of negative 90 degrees, and try to do a linear interpolation between them, we get a bad result. The resulting row vectors are not unit length, so this is not a rotation matrix. Now, we can do Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization to solve this problem, but it doesn't solve all of our problems.



For example, interpolating from a rotation of negative 90 degrees to a rotation of positive 90 degrees, gives us an extremely bad matrix. So what can we do about this?



Let's take a look at what's going on here, by examining where the axis vectors go. So here are the frames for two possible rotations, the red being about a rotation of -45 degrees, the blue being a rotation of about positive 90 degrees.



And suppose we want to interpolate between them.



To simplify things, let's just look at the x-axis.



If we linearly interpolate between the two x-axes, that's basically just drawing a line from vector tip to vector tip...



And picking points along the line. Here I've spaced them out at t values of 1/4, 1/2, and 3/4. Note that they are clearly shorter than our original vectors, so they're no longer unit length. Now, we could do our orthonormalization process, which would make these vectors unit length again.



And here we see the result of that. However, now we have another problem.



Note that along the line, the vectors are equally spaced, but along the rotation arc they're not. What we'd really like is that as we move in time, using our interpolant t, that our rotation would move equally as well.



So here's a diagram showing that -- note that now the arc of rotation is now subdivided equally. This is called spherical linear interpolation, or (as Ken Shoemake says, because it's fun): slerp.



So how can we compute slerp? One way to think about this -and for any mathematicians in the audience this is admittedly not a formal proof, but perfectly appropriate -- we can take the operations we use for linear interpolation and take them up one level to get the appropriate operations for rotation matrices. Then we can use this to convert our linear interpolation formula to a spherical linear interpolation formula. So where we would add two angles, we multiply two matrices. Where we would subtract one angle from another, we multiply by the matrix inverse. And where we would scale an angle, we instead take the rotation matrix to the same power.



Apply this to our lerp formula, we get the following slerp formula. And as I mentioned on the previous slide, this order is important -- while any order is reasonable for 2D rotations because (all together now) they're commutative, this is not the same for 3D rotations. However, both of these slides do bring up a question.



What is M to the t? For general matrices, this is just a function, and you can compute an approximation by using a Taylor series expansion (Gino will say more about Taylor series in the next talk). However, in our case we're only considering rotation matrices, so the answer is much simpler. All you need to do is pull the angle out of the matrix, multiply it by t, and generate a new matrix for that angle.



So the process is just this. Note that M0,1 is sin theta, and m0,0 is cos theta, so we can take the arc tangent to get the correct angle.







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3D Matrix: Summary

- Workhorse of 3D graphics
- Great for rotation and concatentation (especially w/vector processors)
- Inconvenient for interpolation

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2D: Complex Numbers

 Multiply general complex number by unit one

 $(x + y\mathbf{i})(\cos\theta + \sin\theta\mathbf{i}) =$

 $(x\cos\theta - y\sin\theta) + (x\sin\theta + y\cos\theta)\mathbf{i}$

- Look familiar?
- Gives us rotation



2D: Complex Numbers

Concatenation

 $(\cos\theta + \sin\theta \mathbf{i})(\cos\phi + \sin\phi \mathbf{i}) =$

 $(\cos(\theta + \phi)) + (\sin(\theta + \phi))\mathbf{i}$



Lerping our complex numbers is much like matrixes, except in this case each arrow represents an entire complex number instead of just the x-axis of a matrix. So rather than doing the full orthonormalization process we can just perform our linear interpolation and then just do one normalization operation. This is often called nlerp. That said, the same problems still remain with non-equal subdivision of our rotation arc, so let's look at slerp again.



In generating a formula for slerp with complex numbers we can take a different approach than with matrices. Suppose we have two complex numbers q0 and q1 and we want to blend between them. The angle between them is alpha, and we want to find the complex number that's alpha t between the two.



Suppose we can find a perpendicular to q0 based on q1 -we'll just call that q1'. That gives us a coordinate frame..



And we can use this frame to generate coordinates for our new q_t. As before, the distance along the q0 axis is just cos alpha t, and the distance along the q1' axis is sin alpha t.



So for an arbitrary q0 and q1', our slerped complex number is this.



That leaves one open question: how to we compute this q1'? Well, in 2D we can just rotate q0 90 degrees to get the perpendicular.



But let's consider the general case -- this will be useful when we get to quaternions. We can compute this by projecting q1 onto q0, subtracting the result from q1, and then normalizing. This is just one step in Gramm-Schmidt orthonormalization. For the case of our unit complex numbers (or any unit vector, for that matter), this just simplifies to this.



Combining our two formulas together we get the following,



which is our final slerp formula.



Btw, it can be shown that this gives the same result as our other slerp formula. However, this one is more practical to compute.



Also, depending on how we calculate alpha, this can be noncommutative as well, I.e. slerping from q0 to q1 is not the same as slerping from q1 to q0 -- you end up going different ways around the circle. That said, most implementations assume that alpha is greater than 0, which will make it commutative.



Demo





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Complex Numbers

•Note: complex multiplication is commutative, as is 2D rotation







Complex Numbers: Summary

•In practice not used all that often

•Not sure why -- probably because angles are simple enough

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Why 4 values?

•One way to think of it:

- •2D rotation ->
 - One degree of freedom
- •Unit complex number ->
 - One degree of freedom
- •3D rotation ->
 - Three degrees of freedom
- •Unit quaternion ->
 - Three degrees of freedom







That's gives a particular solution. But suppose we want to generate a quaternion a little more programmatically. A case that comes up often is that we have a vector pointing in one direction, and we want to generate a quaternion that will rotate it to a new direction. One way we might think of doing this is just take the cross product to get our axis of rotation r, then take the dot product of the normalized vectors, and take the arccos of that to get the angle, and plug the result into the quaternion.



In most cases that will work, but there are some problems when v1 and v2 are pointing pretty much the same direction. Stan Melax has a great solution for this, which is to normalize v1 and v2, compute these quantities r and s, and then plug into the quaternion as follows.



So that provides a way to create a quaternion. Suppose we want to concatenate them. As with matrices and complex numbers, multiplication does the trick. However, in this case the multiplication operator is a little more complicated. Still, it's all simple vector math, so it isn't too bad. Note again that due to the cross product this is non-commutative.


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Computing Inverse

• $(w, \mathbf{v})^{-1} = (\cos(\theta/2), \sin(\theta/2) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})$ $(w, \mathbf{v})^{-1} = (\cos(-\theta/2), \sin(-\theta/2)\hat{\mathbf{r}})$ $= (\cos(\theta/2), -\sin(\theta/2)\hat{\mathbf{r}})$ $= (w, -\mathbf{v})$ •Only true if **q** is unit • i.e. **r** is a unit vector



Possible to show that this formula is the same as the rotation formula for axis and angle.











This is due to the half-angle form of quaternions.

Interpolation Caveat

- How to test?
- If dot product of two interpolating quats is < 0, takes long route around sphere
- Solution, negate one quat, then interpolate
- Preprocess to save time

As mentioned...

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Operation Wrap-Up

• Multiply to concatenate rotations

• Addition only for interpolation (don't forget to normalize)

- Be careful with scale
 - Quick rotation assumes unit quat
 - Don't do (0.5 q) p
 - Use lerp or slerp with identity quaternion

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Summary

- Talked about orientation
- Formats good for internal storage
 - Angle
 - Matrices (2D or 3D)
 - Quaternions
- Formats good for UI
 - Euler angles
 - Axis-angle
- Complex numbers not really used

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