

A QUICK AND PRATICAL INTRO TO MATRIX LIE GROUPS

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1. MATRIX LIE GROUPS AND LIE ALGEBRAS

1.1. Matrix Groups as Transformation Groups. A **matrix Lie group** is a differentiable manifold whose elements form a matrix group. Key examples include:

- $GL(n)$, the group of invertible linear transformations on \mathbb{R}^n .
- $SO(n)$, the group of $n \times n$ rotation matrices.
- $SE(n)$, the group of $(n+1) \times (n+1)$ matrices of the form

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $R \in SO(n)$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$, viewed as the set of rigid transformations on \mathbb{R}^n using homogeneous coordinates.

A matrix Lie group G of $n \times n$ matrices has a natural **group action** on \mathbb{R}^n , by matrix multiplication: $p \mapsto xp$ for $x \in G$. We view the action of a matrix x as a **change-of-coordinate-frame**, taking a point p_A expressed with respect to some frame A , to *the same point*, but expressed with respect to a second frame, B . When it helps with clarity, we augment the notation to represent this viewpoint: We write a matrix $x \in G$ as x_{BA} , and write

$$p_B = x_{BA}p_A.$$

for $p_A \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Transforms chain and invert in the natural way:

$$x_{CA} = x_{CB}x_{BA}$$

and

$$x_{BA}^{-1} = x_{AB}.$$

1.2. Derivatives of Time-Parameterized Transforms (The Wrong Way).

Consider a **time-parameterized transform**, or, a curve $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$. Naively, one might think that the most “natural” way to consider the derivative of x is to simply take the coordinate-wise derivative of the matrix, \dot{x} . This is undesirable for (at least) one simple reason: we want the derivatives of curves to be vectors, and the naive matrix curve derivatives do not form a vector space! These quantities are closed under scaling, as

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(at) = a\dot{x},$$

but since $x + y \notin G$ in general, they are not closed under addition. That is, the quantity $\dot{x} + \dot{y}$ is generally not the derivative of any curve in G .

Now, without motivation, say we consider the “true” derivative to of a curve to be the derivative of the matrix, right-multiplied by the inverse of the matrix: $\dot{x}x^{-1}$. Clearly, these quantities are still closed under scaling, but now they are also closed under addition: A simple calculation shows that, if $x, y : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$, then the sum of their derivatives

$$\dot{x}x^{-1} + \dot{y}y^{-1}$$

at $t = t_0$ is actually the derivative of the curve

$$t \mapsto x(t)x(t_0)^{-1}y(t)$$

at $t = t_0$. Hence we have a notion of derivative where the “tangent vectors” to curves actually form a vector space, which provides motivation from a mathematical perspective. In the next section, we will derive this notion of derivative $\dot{x}x^{-1}$ (and its symmetric counterpart, $-x^{-1}\dot{x}$) from physical intuition.

1.3. Derivatives of Time-Parameterized Transforms (The Right Way).

Consider a **time-parameterized transform**, or, a curve $x_{BA} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G$. We can motivate the notion of derivative for such a curve by asking, “what instantaneous velocity does this transform induce on points via the group action?” That is, we can view the “velocity” of a transform implicitly as a **velocity field on the points it transforms**, assigning to each point in space the vector rooted at that point indicating the instantaneous direction in which the transform sends that point.

We can derive such a velocity field two different ways, by taking two different viewpoints of the transformation. For any $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have the relation

$$p_B = x_{BA}p_A$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Now we can either take a **right-invariant view**, where we view the *left* (output) frame as moving with time, and the right (input) frame as static; or the **left-invariant view**, where we view the right frame as static and the left frame as moving. In the right-invariant view, the quantity p_A is fixed, while p_B is a function of time, so differentiating yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{p}_B &= \dot{x}_{BA}p_A \\ &= \dot{x}_{BA}x_{BA}^{-1}x_{BA}p_A \\ &= [\dot{x}_{BA}x_{BA}^{-1}]p_B. \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have a differential equation

$$\dot{p}_B = [\dot{x}_{BA}x_{BA}^{-1}]p_B$$

describing the velocity field expressed in B coordinates, at any given time.

Dually, if we take the left-invariant view, the quantity p_B is fixed and p_A varies with time, so differentiating yields

$$0 = \dot{x}_{BA}p_A + x_{BA}\dot{p}_A,$$

and we can solve for

$$\dot{p}_A = -x_{BA}^{-1}\dot{x}_{BA}p_A,$$

giving us a velocity field in the right frame.

The term *left-* (resp. *right-*) *invariant* is justified by noting that the value of $\dot{x}x^{-1}$ (resp. $x^{-1}\dot{x}$) is not changed when x is right- (resp. left-) multiplied by a constant group element c .

The **Lie algebra** \mathfrak{g} is a vector space consisting of all such **infinitesimal transformation** matrices, or, derivatives of smooth curves in G . The left- and right-invariant views are equivalent and dual to each other:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathfrak{g} &= \{\dot{x}x^{-1} : x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G\} \\ &= \{-x^{-1}\dot{x} : x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G\}\end{aligned}$$

When we restrict to derivatives at the identity element $e \in G$, the left- and right-invariant views become identical, as $x^{-1} = e$. Hence to avoid making the arbitrary choice of left versus right, is it standard to define the Lie algebra as the **tangent space at the identity**:

$$\mathfrak{g} = \{\dot{x}(0) : x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow G, x(0) = e\}$$

Hence the Lie algebra consists of matrices of the same size as elements of G , and has the same (vector space) dimension as the (manifold dimension of the) group. The Lie algebra structure can be computed by differentiating the group. $R \in \text{SO}(n)$ satisfies $RR^\top = R^\top R = I$, differentiating this yields

$$\dot{R}R^\top + R\dot{R}^\top = 0,$$

meaning that the elements $\dot{R}R^\top$ of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{so}(n)$ are skew-symmetric matrices.

1.4. Example: $\text{SO}(3)$. Consider the 3D rotation group $\text{SO}(3)$. Let R be a time-parameterized rotation. Then the right-invariant velocity field induced on \mathbb{R}^3 at an instant is given by a skew-symmetric matrix: $p \mapsto \Omega p$ for $\Omega = \dot{R}R^\top \in \mathfrak{so}(3)$. For $n = 3$, set of $n \times n$ skew-symmetric matrices is isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^3 by the mapping

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{R}^3 &\cong \mathfrak{so}(3) \\ \omega &\mapsto \omega_\times,\end{aligned}$$

where ω_\times is the matrix for the linear mapping given by the cross product with ω :

$$\omega_\times p = \omega \times p.$$

Letting $\omega_\times = \Omega$, and noting that $\Omega\omega = \omega \times \omega = 0$, we can see that the instantaneous velocity of $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^3$ induced by R is zero. Hence ω is the **instantaneous axis of rotation** of R (expressed in the left frame), and the velocity field induced by R is given by the cross product with this axis:

$$\dot{p} = \omega \times p.$$

1.5. Example: $\text{SE}(3)$. Now consider the rigid transformation group $\text{SE}(3)$ on \mathbb{R}^3 , consisting of 4×4 matrices

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

This group acts on homogeneous vectors $(p^\top \ 1)^\top$:

$$p \mapsto x \begin{pmatrix} p \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = Rp + t.$$

The inverse of x is

$$x^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} R^\top & -R^\top t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

Hence elements of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{se}(3)$ have the form

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}x^{-1} &= \begin{pmatrix} \dot{R} & \dot{t} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} R^\top & -R^\top t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \dot{R}R^\top & -\dot{R}R^\top t + \dot{t} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \omega_\times & -\omega \times t + \dot{t} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the instantaneous velocity field (in the left frame) is given by a rigid transformation with rotational component R and translation t is

$$\dot{p} = \omega \times (p - t) + \dot{t}.$$

Note that the general form of an $\mathfrak{se}(3)$ element is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \omega_\times & v \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

so we have an isomorphism with \mathbb{R}^6 by concatenating ω and v . We will use ξ to denote such a 6-vector representing an $\mathfrak{se}(3)$ element.

1.6. The Lie Bracket. We haven't yet discussed what makes the Lie algebra an **algebra**. The answer is that the Lie algebra is endowed with an antisymmetric vector product, called the **Lie bracket**, defined as

$$[X, Y] = XY - YX$$

for $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$.

The Lie bracket on $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ is given by the cross product:

$$[\omega_\times, \eta_\times] = (\omega \times \eta)_\times,$$

whereas the bracket of $\mathfrak{se}(3)$ elements is given by

$$[\xi_1, \xi_2] = \begin{pmatrix} \omega_1 \times \omega_2 \\ \omega_1 \times v_2 - \omega_2 \times v_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

2. THE ADJOINT REPRESENTATION

In general, if we have a transform T_A on a vector space, expressed in a coordinate system A , we change the coordinate representation of T_A to a coordinate system B by **conjugation** by the change-of-coordinates x_{BA} from A to B :

$$T_B = x_{BA} T_A x_{BA}^{-1},$$

so that if

$$q_A = T_A p_A,$$

then

$$q_B = [x_{BA} T_A x_{BA}^{-1}] p_B.$$

Changing the coordinates of a Lie algebra element is of particular significance; the map $\text{Ad} : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathfrak{g})$ taking $x \in G$ to the linear isomorphism “conjugate by x ” is called the **adjoint representation** of the group G :

$$\text{Ad}_x X = x X x^{-1}.$$

For instance, the (negative) adjoint maps between the left- and right-invariant derivatives of a time-parameterized transform:

$$\begin{aligned} -x^{-1} \dot{x} &= -\text{Ad}_{x^{-1}} [\dot{x} x^{-1}] \\ \dot{x} x^{-1} &= -\text{Ad}_x [-x^{-1} \dot{x}]. \end{aligned}$$

The map Ad is a *group homomorphism*, so that

$$\text{Ad}_{xy} = \text{Ad}_x \text{Ad}_y$$

and

$$\text{Ad}_{x^{-1}} = \text{Ad}_x^{-1}.$$

The adjoint representation as a function on the 3-vector realization of $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ (given by $\omega \mapsto \omega_\times$) is simply multiplication by the respective matrix:

$$\text{Ad}_R = R.$$

We say that $\text{SO}(3)$ is **self-adjoint**. For the 6-vector realization of $\text{SE}(3)$, it is

$$\text{Ad}_x = \begin{pmatrix} R & 0 \\ t_\times R & R \end{pmatrix},$$

so that

$$\text{Ad}_x \xi = \begin{pmatrix} R\omega \\ t \times (R\omega) + Rv \end{pmatrix},$$

3. DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS

3.1. Left- and Right-Invariant Pushforwards. The **pushforward** of a function $f : G \rightarrow H$ between Lie groups is a linear mapping from $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{h}$ which takes derivatives of a curve x in G to derivatives of the curve $f \circ x$ in H . For the right-invariant view, this means

$$f_* [\dot{x} x^{-1}] = [f(\dot{x})] f(x)^{-1}.$$

That is, the pushforward of a velocity field $\dot{x} x^{-1}$ is the velocity field given by the same curve x mapped through f . Note that here there is an implicit “base point” x for the pushforward (i.e. we could write $(f_*)_x$, but the base point x is already expressed by the $\dot{x} x^{-1}$ notation).

We can check basic properties: if $f : G \rightarrow H$ is constant, then clearly, $f_* = 0$, and if $f : G \rightarrow G$ is the identity, then the derivative is the identity as well. These properties, together with the **product rule for Lie groups**, allow us to compute

derivatives of more complicated functions between Lie groups. The product rule can be derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (fg)_* [\dot{x}x^{-1}] &= [f(x)\dot{g}(x)] [f(x)g(x)]^{-1} \\
 &= \left([f(\dot{x})]g(x) + f(x)[g(\dot{x})] \right) g(x)^{-1} f(x)^{-1} \\
 &= [f(\dot{x})]f(x)^{-1} + f(x)[g(\dot{x})]g(x)^{-1} f(x)^{-1} \\
 &= f_* [\dot{x}x^{-1}] + \text{Ad}_{f(x)} g_* [\dot{x}x^{-1}].
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have the **right-invariant product rule**:

$$(fg)_* = f_* + \text{Ad}_f g_*.$$

Dually, we can take the left-invariant view and get an analogous definition:

$$_*f [-x^{-1}\dot{x}] = -f(x)^{-1}[f(\dot{x})].$$

Note that we moved the $_*$ to the other side of f to disambiguate the left vs the right pushforward. This yields a **left-invariant product rule**:

$$_*(fg) = [\text{Ad}_g^{-1}]_*f + _*g.$$

Naturally, the left- and right-invariant pushforwards are invariant under left- and right-translation of the function, respectively. That is, if $c \in G$ is constant, then

$$(fc)_* = f_*$$

and

$$_*(cf) = f_*.$$

3.2. Example: Differentiating the Group Inverse. The pushforwards of the group inverse follows from the product rule:

$$\iota_* = -\text{Ad}_\iota$$

and

$$_*\iota = -\text{Ad}_{\text{id}_G}.$$

where $\iota(x) = x^{-1}$.

3.3. Example: Differentiating the Group Action. Let $A_p(x) = xp$ be the group action on a point $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$(A_p)_* \dot{x}x^{-1} = [\dot{x}p] = \dot{x}x^{-1}xp = \dot{x}x^{-1}A_p(x).$$

(note that we can drop the $-A_p x$ on the right-hand side since the output space is a vector space). Hence the (right-invariant) pushforward of the group action with respect to the group is the mapping “right-multiply by the transformed point”.

For example, consider $\text{SO}(3)$. The pushforward of the action A_p with respect to a rotation R is

$$\omega_\times \mapsto \omega_\times R p = -(R p)_\times \omega.$$

So in the 3-vector representation, the matrix for the pushforward of A_p evaluated at group element R is simply $-(R p)_\times$.

4. THE EXPONENTIAL MAP

4.1. Lie Algebra Elements as Infinitesimal Generators. Consider a time-parameterized transform M_{BA} whose instantaneous velocity field is constant:

$$\dot{p}_B(t) = X p_B(t),$$

where $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ does not vary with time. Then the velocity field is given by a time-independent homogeneous linear ODE, for which the solution is well-known: we can write x_B over time as

$$p_B(t) = \exp(tX)p_B(0),$$

where \exp is the **matrix exponential**, given by

$$\exp(A) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^k}{k!}.$$

When viewed as a mapping $\exp : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow G$, the matrix exponential is called the **exponential map**. For a Lie algebra element X , $\exp(tX)$ transforms points by moving according to the **flow** determined by the velocity field $x \mapsto Xx$ for time t .

4.2. The Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff Formula.

4.3. Example: $\text{SO}(3)$. For certain Lie groups, the exponential map has a closed form. Consider $\text{SO}(3)$. The exponential map is

$$\exp(\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\omega_{\times}^k}{k!}.$$

Writing $\theta = \|\omega\|$ and $\hat{\omega} = \omega/\theta$, we can apply properties of the cross product to see that $\hat{\omega}_{\times}^3 = -\hat{\omega}_{\times}$, and so higher powers of $\hat{\omega}_{\times}$ in the power series collapse:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\omega}_{\times}^3 &= -\hat{\omega}_{\times} \\ \hat{\omega}_{\times}^4 &= -\hat{\omega}_{\times}^2 \\ \hat{\omega}_{\times}^5 &= \hat{\omega}_{\times}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence we can group all of the power series terms into a $\hat{\omega}_{\times}$ term and a $\hat{\omega}_{\times}^2$ term:

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(\omega) &= I + \left(1 - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \cdots\right) \hat{\omega}_{\times} + \left(\frac{\theta^2}{2!} - \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + \frac{\theta^6}{6!}\right) \hat{\omega}_{\times}^2 \\ &= I + \left(\frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}\right) \omega_{\times} + \left(\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta^2}\right) \omega_{\times}^2.\end{aligned}$$

Hence we have a practical formula for the exponential map on $\text{SO}(3)$. The geometric interpretation of the exponential map on $\text{SO}(3)$ is that $\exp(\omega)$ is the (right-handed) rotation of θ radians about the axis $\hat{\omega}$.

4.4. Example: $\text{SE}(3)$. Now consider $\text{SE}(3)$.