

Linear Algebra Review

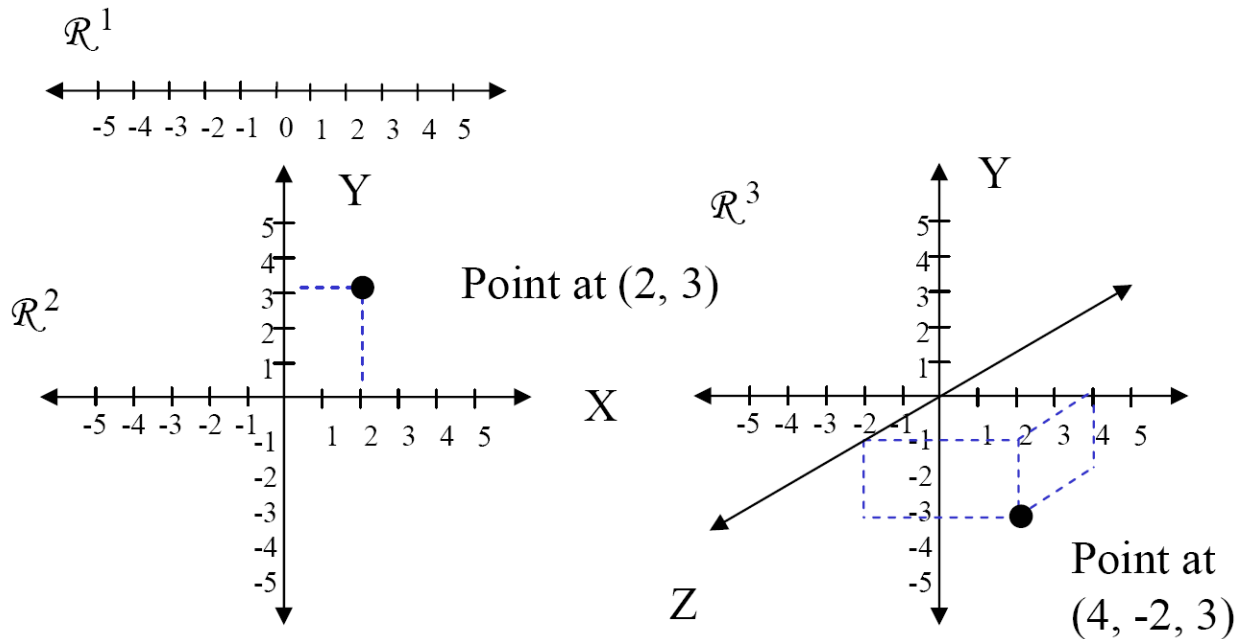
Credits: Brown University's
cs123 staff

What We Should Know About Linear Algebra

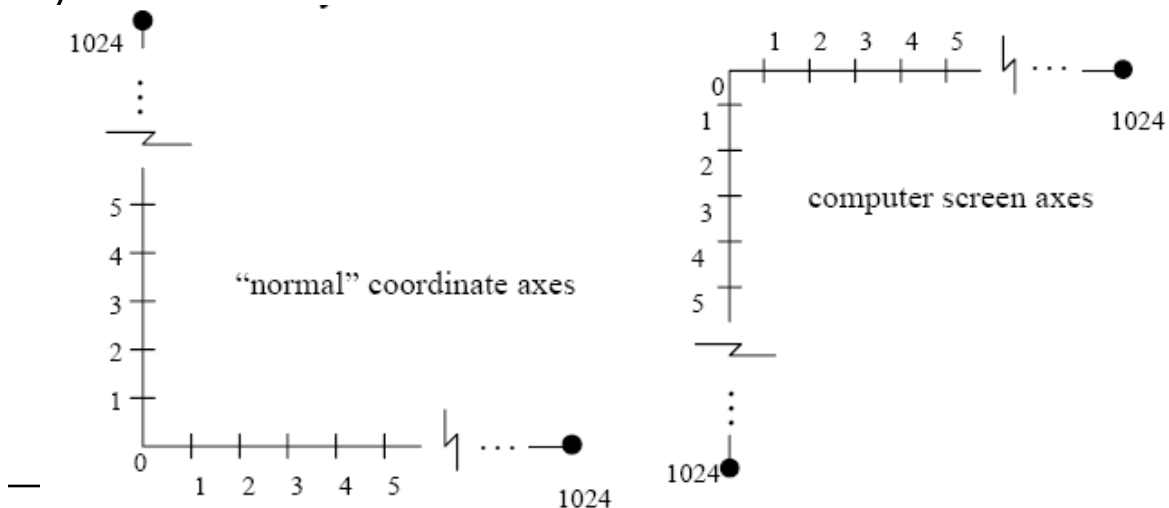
- 3D Coordinate geometry
- Vectors in 2 space and 3 space
- Dot product and cross product – definitions and uses
- Vector and matrix notation and algebra
- Properties (matrix associativity but **NOT** matrix commutativity)
- Matrix transpose and inverse – definition, use, and calculation
- Homogenous coordinates

Cartesian Coordinate Space

- Examples: one, two and three dimensional real coordinate spaces

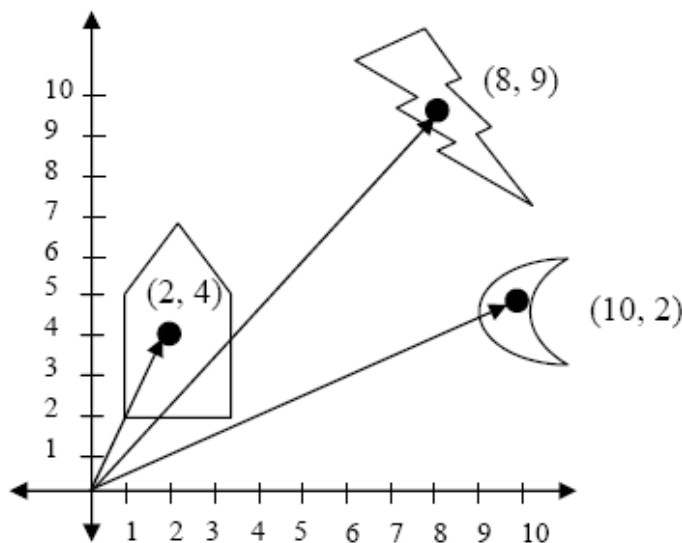


- Real numbers: between any two real numbers on an axis there exists another real number
- Compare with the computer screen, a positive integer coordinate system



Vectors & Vector Space (1/2)

- Consider all locations in relationship to one central reference point, called origin



- A vector tells us which direction to go with respect to the origin, and also the length of the trip
 - A vector does **not** specify where the trip begins, to continue this analogy

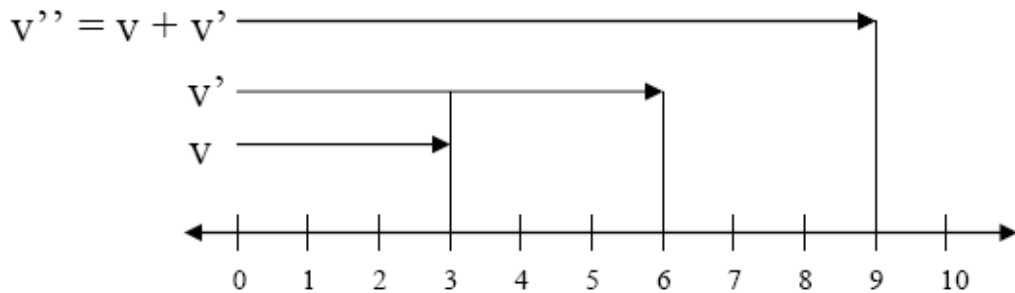
Vectors & Vector Space (2/2)

- Vectors are used extensively in computers to
 - represent positions of vertices of objects
 - determine orientation of a surface in space (“surface normal”)
 - represent relative distances and orientations of lights, objects, and viewers in a 3D scene, so the rendering algorithms can create the impression of light interacting with solid and transparent objects (e.g., vectors from light sources to surfaces)

Vector Addition

Vector addition in \mathbb{R}^1

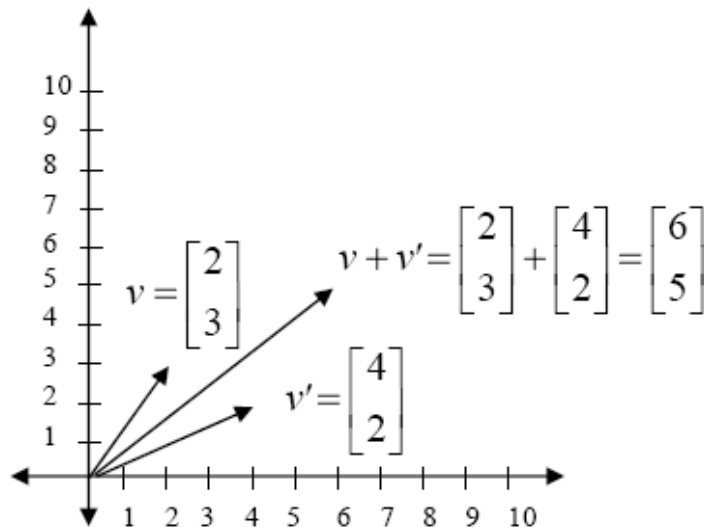
- Familiar addition of real numbers



$$v = [3], v' = [6], v'' = [9]$$

Vector addition in \mathbb{R}^2

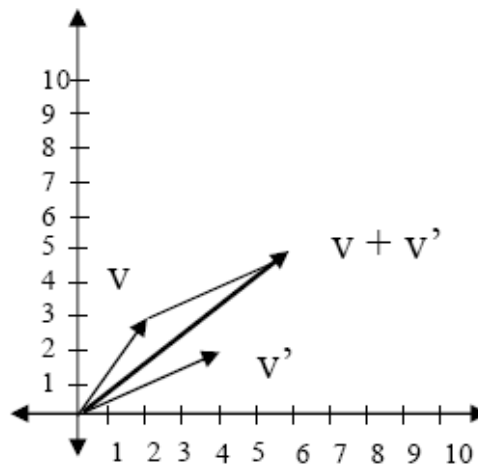
- The x and y parts of vectors can be added using addition of real numbers along each of the axes (component-wise addition)



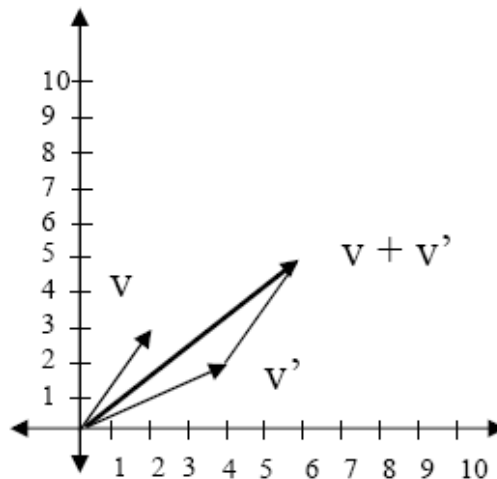
Result, $v + v'$, plotted in \mathbb{R}^2 is the new vector

Adding Vectors Visually

- v' added to v , using the parallelogram rule: take vector from the origin to v' ; reposition it so that its tail is at the head of vector v ; define $v+v'$ as the head of the new vector

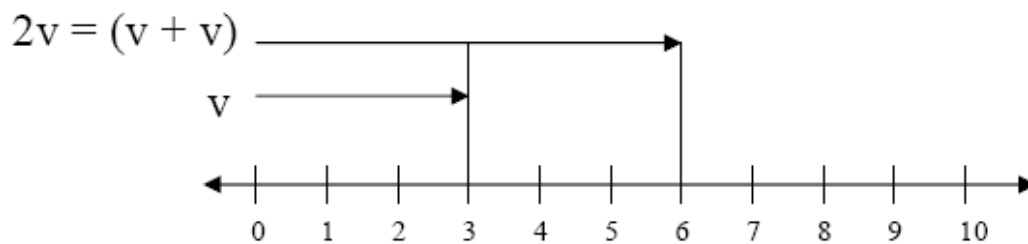


- or, equivalently, add v' to v

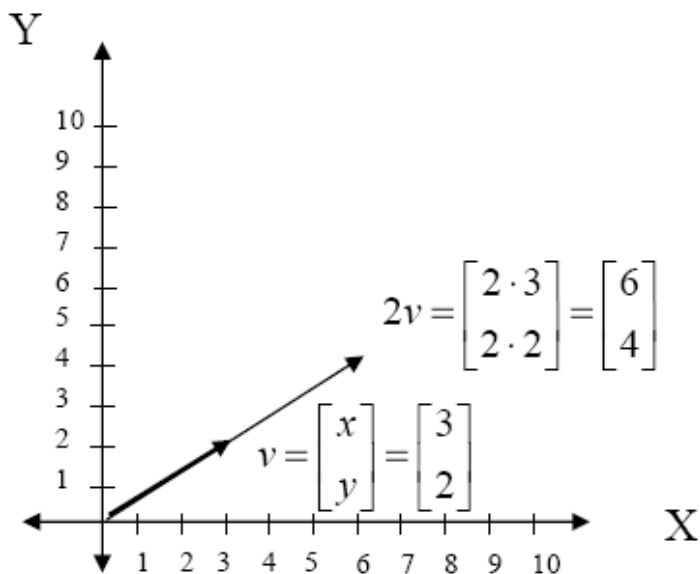


Scalar Multiplication (1/2)

On \mathbb{R}^1 , familiar multiplication rules

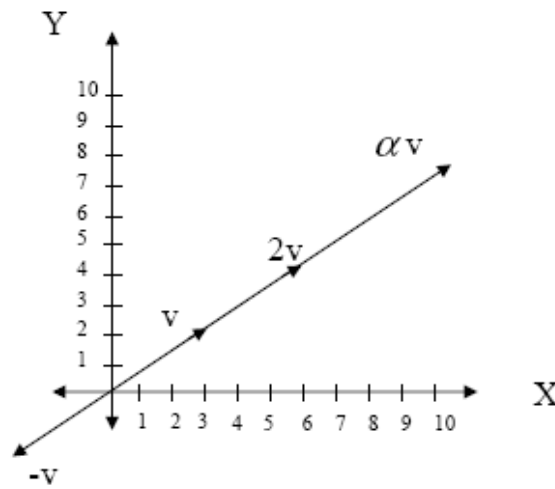


On \mathbb{R}^2 also



Scalar Multiplication (2/2) : Linear Dependence

- Set of all scalar multiples of a vector is a line through the origin



- Two vectors are linearly dependent when one is a multiple of the other

Basis Vectors of the Plane

- The unit vectors (i.e., whose length is one) on the x and y-axes are called the standard basis vectors of the plane
- The collection of all scalar multiples of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ gives the first coordinate axis
- The collection of all scalar multiples of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ gives the second coordinate axis
- Then any vector $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ can be expressed as the sum of scalar multiples of the unit vectors:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We call these two vectors **basis** vectors for because any other vector can be expressed in terms of them
 - **This is an important concept. Make sure that you understand it.**

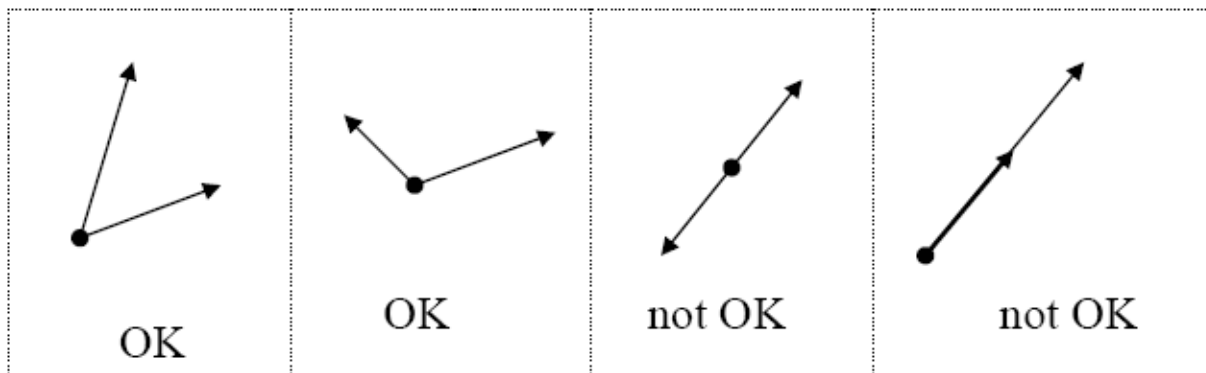
Non-orthogonal Basis Vectors

Question: Must the vectors be perpendicular in order to form a basis?

Answer: No.

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ m \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha a + \beta c \\ \alpha b + \beta d \end{bmatrix}$$

But: The vectors cannot be linearly dependent.



Rule for Dot Product

- Also known as scalar product, or inner product. The result is a scalar (i.e., a number, not a vector)
- Defined as the sum of the pairwise multiplications
- Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = ax + by + cz + dw$$

- Note, the result is not a vector of the component-wise multiplications, it is a scalar value

Uses of the Dot Product

- Define length or magnitude of a vector
- Normalize vectors (generate vectors whose length is 1, called unit vectors)
- Measure angles between vectors
- Determine if two vectors are perpendicular
- Find the length of a vector projected onto a coordinate axis
- There are applets for the dot product under *Applets -> Linear Algebra*

Finding the Length of a Vector

- The dot product of a vector with itself, $(\mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{v})$, is the square of the length of the vector
- We define the norm of a vector (i.e., its length) to be

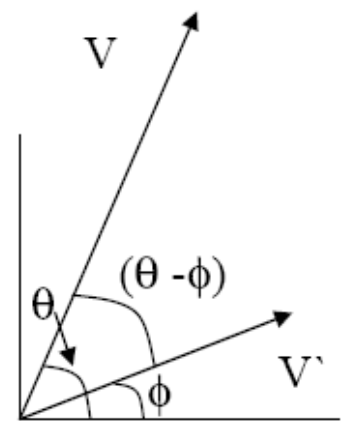
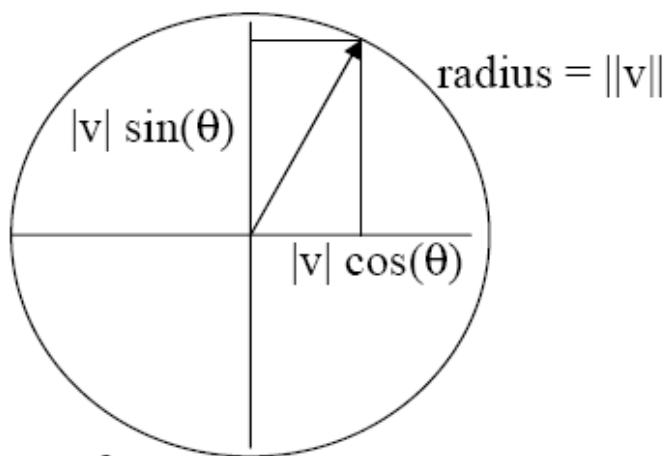
$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{v}}$$

- \mathbf{v} is called a unit vector if $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{v}} = 1$
- To make an arbitrary vector \mathbf{v} into a unit vector, i.e. to “normalize” it, divide by the length (norm) of \mathbf{v} , which is denoted $\|\mathbf{v}\|$. Note that if $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, then its unit vector is undefined. So in general (with the 0 exception) we have

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \mathbf{v}$$

Finding the Angle Between Two Vectors

- The dot product of two non-zero vectors is the product of their lengths and the cosine of the angle between them: $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}' = \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}'\| \cos(\theta - \phi)$



Proof:

$$\mathbf{v} = [v_x \ v_y] = \|\mathbf{v}\| [\cos \theta \ \sin \theta]$$

$$\mathbf{v}' = [v'_x \ v'_y] = \|\mathbf{v}'\| [\cos \phi \ \sin \phi]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{v}' &= \left(\|\mathbf{v}\| \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \bullet \|\mathbf{v}'\| \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi \\ \sin \phi \end{bmatrix} \right) = \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}'\| \left(\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \bullet \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi \\ \sin \phi \end{bmatrix} \right) \\ &= \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}'\| (\cos \theta \cos \phi + \sin \theta \sin \phi) \end{aligned}$$

and, by a basic trigonometric identity

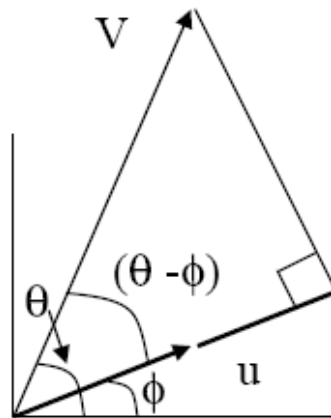
$$\cos \theta \cos \phi + \sin \theta \sin \phi = \cos(\theta - \phi)$$

$$\text{so, } \mathbf{v} \bullet \mathbf{v}' = \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}'\| \cos(\theta - \phi)$$

More Uses of the Dot Product

Finding the length of a projection

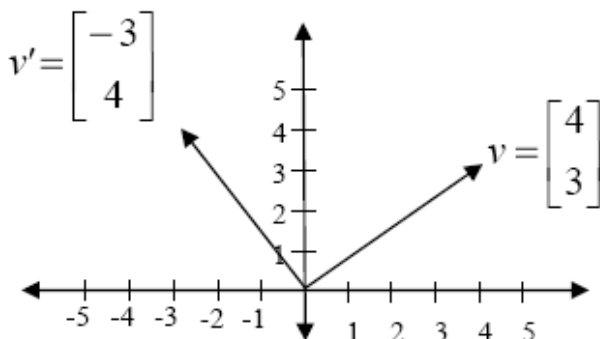
- If u is a unit vector, then $v \bullet u$ is the length of the projection of v onto the line containing u



Determining right angles

- Perpendicular vectors always have a dot product of 0 because the cosine of 90° is 0

- Example: $v = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $v' = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$



$$v \bullet v' = xx' + yy' = (4 \cdot -3) + (3 \cdot 4) = 0$$

$$v \bullet v' = \|v\| \|v'\| \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \|v\| \|v'\| \cdot 0 = 0$$

Cross Product

- Cross product of $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$, written $\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$ is

defined as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3 \\ a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The resulting vector is perpendicular to both original vectors. That is, it is normal to the plane containing the two vectors.
- Its length is equal to the area of the parallelogram formed by the two vectors
- Thus, we can write:

$$\|v_1 \times v_2\| = \|v_1\| \|v_2\| \sin \theta, \text{ where } \theta \text{ is the angle between } v_1 \text{ and } v_2$$

Note that the cross-product does not generate a normalized vector (a vector of unit length).

- An easier way to represent the math for the cross product:

- $$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

(This is for those who know how to get the determinant of a 3x3 matrix. $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$ are the unit basis vectors.)

- Cross product follows right-hand rule, so switching order of vectors gives vector in opposite direction.

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} \neq \vec{b} \times \vec{a}, \text{ in fact } (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) = -(\vec{b} \times \vec{a})$$

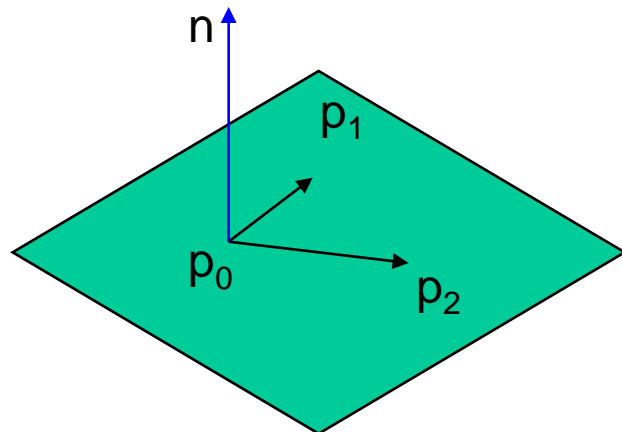
Computing the Surface Normals

- All photorealistic lighting methods need to know normal to the polygon/face
- Each face/polygon has at least 3 vertices/points
- Three non-collinear points p_0, p_1, p_2 determine a plane
- The normal is \perp to the plane: use cross-product

$$\mathbf{n} = (\mathbf{p}_2 - \mathbf{p}_0) \times (\mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{p}_0)$$

(to get unit normal need to normalize)

- Counter-clockwise order makes the normal face outwards (good)



Computing the Vertex Normals

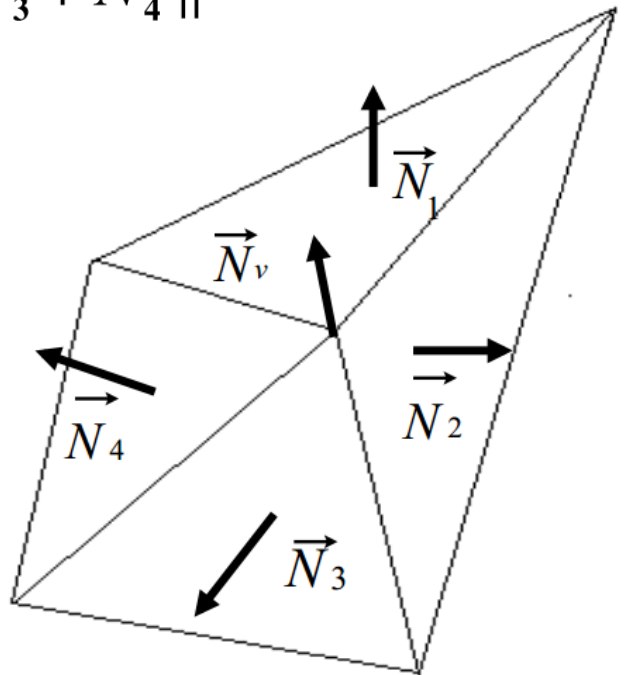
- Vertex normals are used in addition to surface normals to produce smooth shading
- They are calculated by averaging the surrounding polygons' normals:

$$\vec{N}_v = \frac{\vec{N}_1 + \vec{N}_2 + \vec{N}_3 + \vec{N}_4}{\|\vec{N}_1 + \vec{N}_2 + \vec{N}_3 + \vec{N}_4\|}$$

- More generally:

$$\vec{N}_v = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \vec{N}_i}{\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{N}_i \right\|}$$

where $n=3$ or 4
usually



Algebraic Properties of Vectors

- Commutative (vector) $v + v' = v' + v$
- Associative (vector) $(v + v') + u = v + (v' + u)$
- Additive identity
There is a vector 0 , such that for all v ,
 $(v + 0) = v = (0 + v)$
- Additive inverse
For any v there is a vector $-v$ such that $v + (-v) = 0$
- Distributive (vector) $r(v + v') = rv + rv'$
- Distributive (scalar) $(r + s)v = rv + sv$
- Associative (scalar) $r(sv) = (rs)v$
- Multiplicative identity
For any v , $1 \in \mathfrak{R}$, $1 \cdot v = v$

Digression: Types of Transformations

- Projective \supset affine \supset linear
- Linear: preserves parallel lines, acts on a line to yield either another line or point. The vector $[0, 0]$ is always transformed to $[0, 0]$. Examples: Scale and Rotate.
- Affine: preserves parallel lines, acts on a line to yield either another line or point. The vector $[0, 0]$ is not always transformed to $[0, 0]$. Examples: Translate, as well as Rotate, and Scale (since all linear transformations are also affine).
- Projective: parallel lines not necessarily preserved, but acts on a line to yield either another line or point (not curves). Examples: you'll see a transformation in our camera model which is not Linear or Affine, but is projective. Translate, Rotate, and Scale are all Projective, since this is even more general than Affine.
- All of these transformations send lines to lines, therefore we only need to store endpoints
 - Note that we're just talking about transformations here, and not matrices specifically (yet)

Matrix-Vector Multiplication (1/2)

$$v' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by \\ cx + dy \end{bmatrix} = Mv$$

$$\text{where } M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}, v = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}, v' = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$

- The new vector is the dot product of each row of the matrix with the original column vector. Thus, the k th entry of the transformed vector is the dot product of the k th row of the matrix with the original vector.
- Example: scaling the vector $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ by 7 in the x direction

and 0.5 in the y direction

$$\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (7 \cdot 3) + (0 \cdot 6) \\ (0 \cdot 3) + (0.5 \cdot 6) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 + 0 \\ 0 + 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 21 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Vector Multiplication (2/2)

- In general:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \cdots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \cdots & b_n \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 & \cdots & c_n \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ m_1 & m_2 & m_3 & \cdots & m_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \cdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (a_1x_1) + (a_2x_2) + (a_3x_3) + \cdots + (a_nx_n) \\ (b_1x_1) + (b_2x_2) + (b_3x_3) + \cdots + (b_nx_n) \\ (c_1x_1) + (c_2x_2) + (c_3x_3) + \cdots + (c_nx_n) \\ \cdots \\ (m_1x_1) + (m_2x_2) + (m_3x_3) + \cdots + (m_nx_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Can also be expressed as:

$$MX = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i \\ \cdots \\ \sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \bullet x \\ b \bullet x \\ \cdots \\ m \bullet x \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

- Generally, how do we compute the product MN from matrices M and N ?
- One way to think of matrix multiplication is in terms of row and column vectors: MN_{ij} = the dot product of the i^{th} row of M and the j^{th} column of N
- It is important to note that the rows of M and the columns of N must be the same size in order to compute their dot product
- So for M , an $m \times n$ matrix, and N , an $n \times k$ matrix:

$$MN = \begin{bmatrix} \text{row}_{M,1} \bullet \text{col}_{N,1} & \cdots & \cdots & \text{row}_{M,1} \bullet \text{col}_{N,k} \\ \vdots & \text{row}_{M,i} \bullet \text{col}_{N,j} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{row}_{M,m} \bullet \text{col}_{N,1} & \cdots & \cdots & \text{row}_{M,m} \bullet \text{col}_{N,k} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Where row_A, x means the x th row of A , and similarly, col_A, x means the x th column of A

Correct or Incorrect?

Can we multiply (mind the order):

- A 4×4 matrix with a 4×1 matrix (i.e., column vector)?
- A 4×4 matrix with a 1×4 matrix (i.e., row vector)?
- A 1×4 matrix (i.e., row vector) with a 4×4 matrix?
- A 4×1 matrix (i.e., column vector) with a 4×4 matrix?

Algebraic Properties of Matrices

Properties of matrix addition

- Commutative
- Associative
- Identity

$$A + B = B + A$$

$$(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$$

There is a matrix 0 , such that, for all A ,

$$(A + 0) = A = (0 + A)$$

- Inverse
- Distributive (matrix)
- Distributive (scalar)

For any A , there is a $-A$ such that $A + (-A) = 0$

$$r(A + B) = rA + rB$$

$$(r + s)A = rA + sA$$

Properties of matrix multiplication

- NOT commutative
- Associative (matrix)
- Associative (scalar)
- Distributive (vector)
- Identity

$$AB \neq BA$$

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

$$(rs)A = r(sA)$$

$$A(v + v') = Av + Av'$$

There is a matrix I , such that, for all A ,

$$AI = A = IA$$

- Inverse (more later)

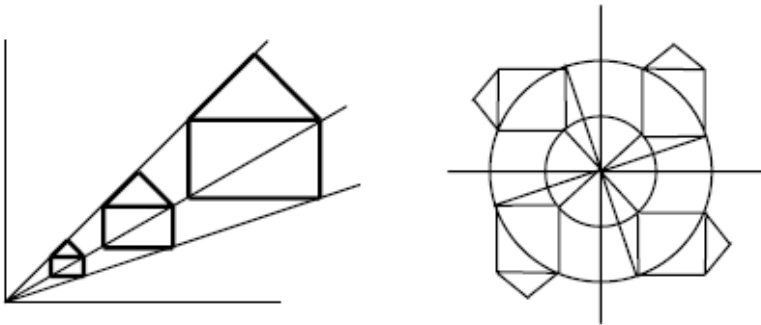
For some A , there is a matrix A^{-1} such that:

$$AA^{-1} = I = A^{-1}A$$

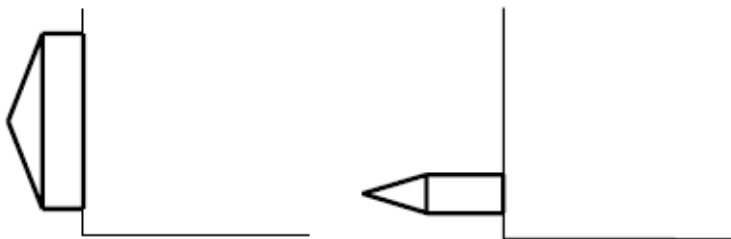
Combining Transformations

Matrices representing transformations performed in a sequence can be composed into a single matrix

- However, there are problems with combining matrices
 - Matrix multiplication is not commutative.
- Rotating or scaling object not centered at the origin introduces unwanted translation



Translation induced by scaling and rotation



Rotation followed by non-uniform scale; next same scale followed by same rotation

Commutative and Non-Commutative Combinations of Transformations – Be Careful!

In 2D

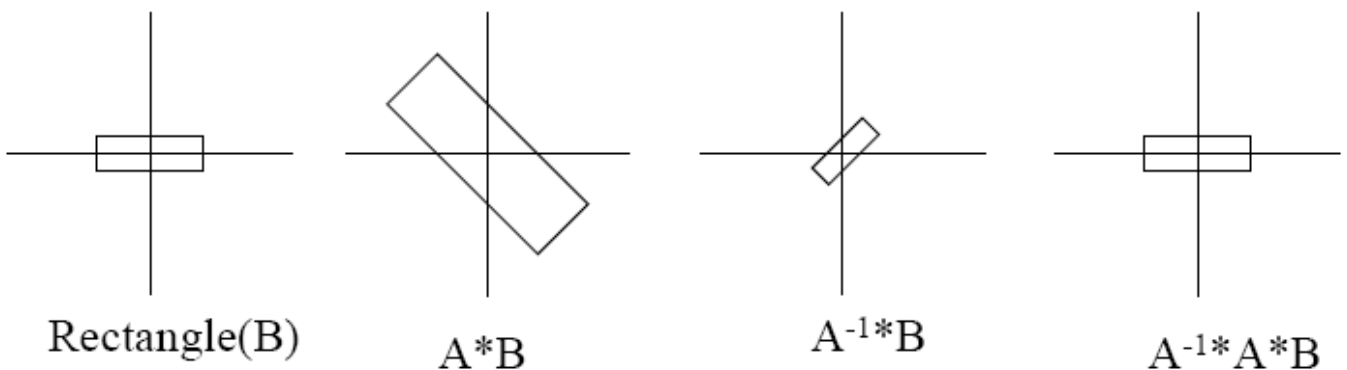
- Commutative
 - Translate, translate
 - Scale, scale
 - Rotate, rotate
 - Scale uniformly, rotate
- Non-commutative
 - Non-uniform scale, rotate
 - Translate, scale
 - Rotate, translate

In 3D

- Commutative
 - Translate, translate
 - Scale, scale
 - Scale uniformly, rotate
- Non-commutative
 - Non-uniform scale, rotate
 - Translate, scale
 - Rotate, translate
 - **Rotate, rotate**

What Does an Inverse Do?

- The inverse A^{-1} of transformation A will “undo” the result of transforming by A
- For example: if A scales by a factor of two and rotates 135° , then A^{-1} will rotate by -135° and then scale by one half
- Computing the inverse of a matrix: *Elementary Linear Algebra*, by Howard Anton, which can be found at the library



Correct or Incorrect?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Addendum – Matrix Notation

- The application of matrices in the row vector notation is executed in the reverse order of applications in the column vector notation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow [x \ y \ z]$$

- Column format: vector follows transformation matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

- Row format: vector precedes matrix and is post-multiplied by it.

$$[x' \ y' \ z'] = [x \ y \ z] \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

- By convention, we always use column vectors.

But, There's a Problem...

- Notice that

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + dy + gz & bx + ey + hz & cx + fy + iz \end{bmatrix}$$

- while

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax + by + cz \\ dx + ey + fz \\ gx + hy + iz \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution to Notational Problem

- In order for both types of notations to yield the same result, a matrix in the row system must be the transpose of the matrix in the column system
- Transpose is defined such that each entry at (i,j) in M , is mapped to (j,i) in its transpose (which is denoted M^T). You can visualize M^T as rotating M around its main diagonal

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}, M^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & d & g \\ b & e & h \\ c & f & i \end{bmatrix}$$

- Again, the two types of notation are equivalent:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & d & g \\ b & e & h \\ c & f & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax+by+cz & dx+ey+fz & gx+hy+iz \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ax+by+cz \\ dx+ey+fz \\ gx+hy+iz \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

- Different texts and graphics packages use different notations. Be careful!

Matrix Notation and Composition

- Application of matrices in row-major notation is reverse of application in column-major notation:

$$\text{TRSv}$$

← Matrices applied right to left

$$\text{vS}^T\text{R}^T\text{T}^T$$

→ Matrices applied left to right

- In cs1566 we use the column-major notation

Are OpenGL Matrices Column-major or Row-major?

- For programming purposes, OpenGL matrices are 16-value arrays with base vectors laid out contiguously in memory. The translation components occupy the 13th, 14th, and 15th elements of the 16-element matrix.
- Column-major versus row-major is purely a notational convention. Note that post-multiplying with column-major matrices produces the same result as pre-multiplying with row-major matrices.
- The OpenGL Specification and the OpenGL Reference Manual both use column-major notation. One can use any notation, as long as it's clearly stated.