

Linear Algebra Primer

Overview

In this box, you will find references to Eigen

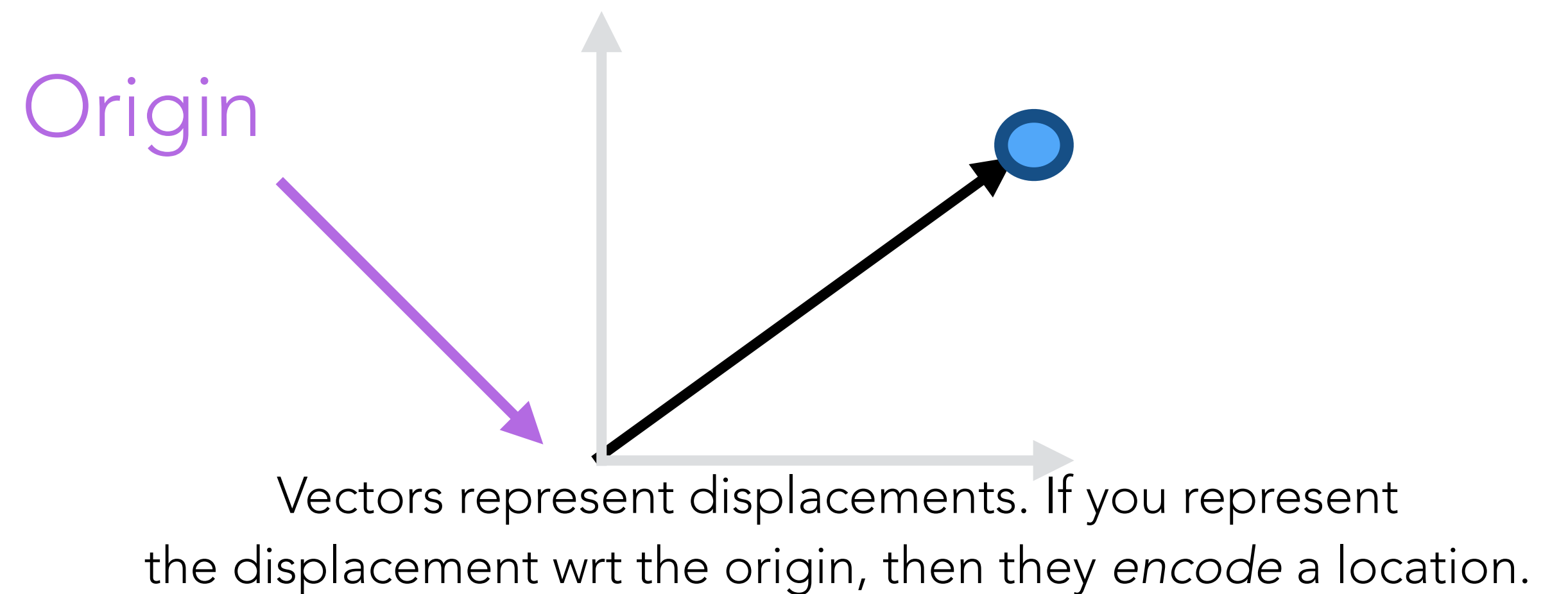
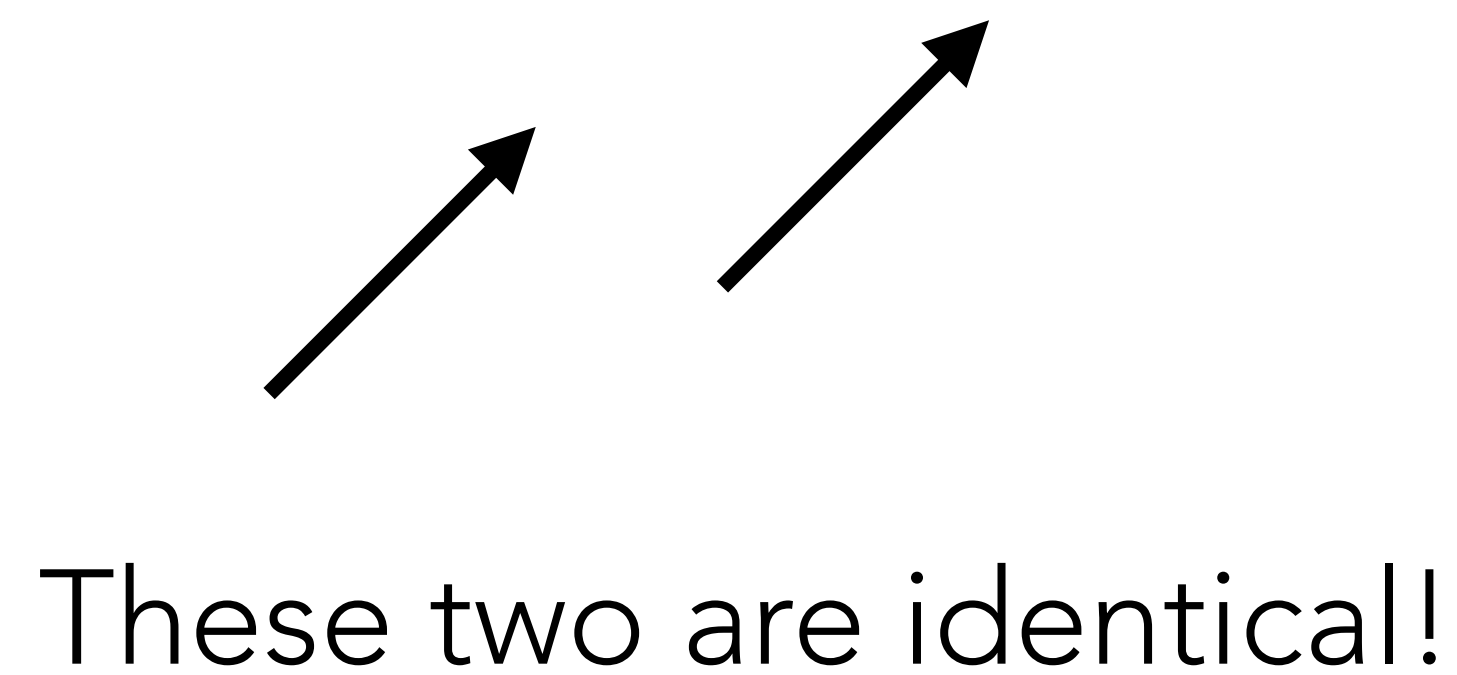
- We will briefly overview the basic linear algebra concepts that we will need in the class
- You will not be able to follow the next lectures without a clear understanding of this material

Vectors

Vectors

Eigen::VectorXd

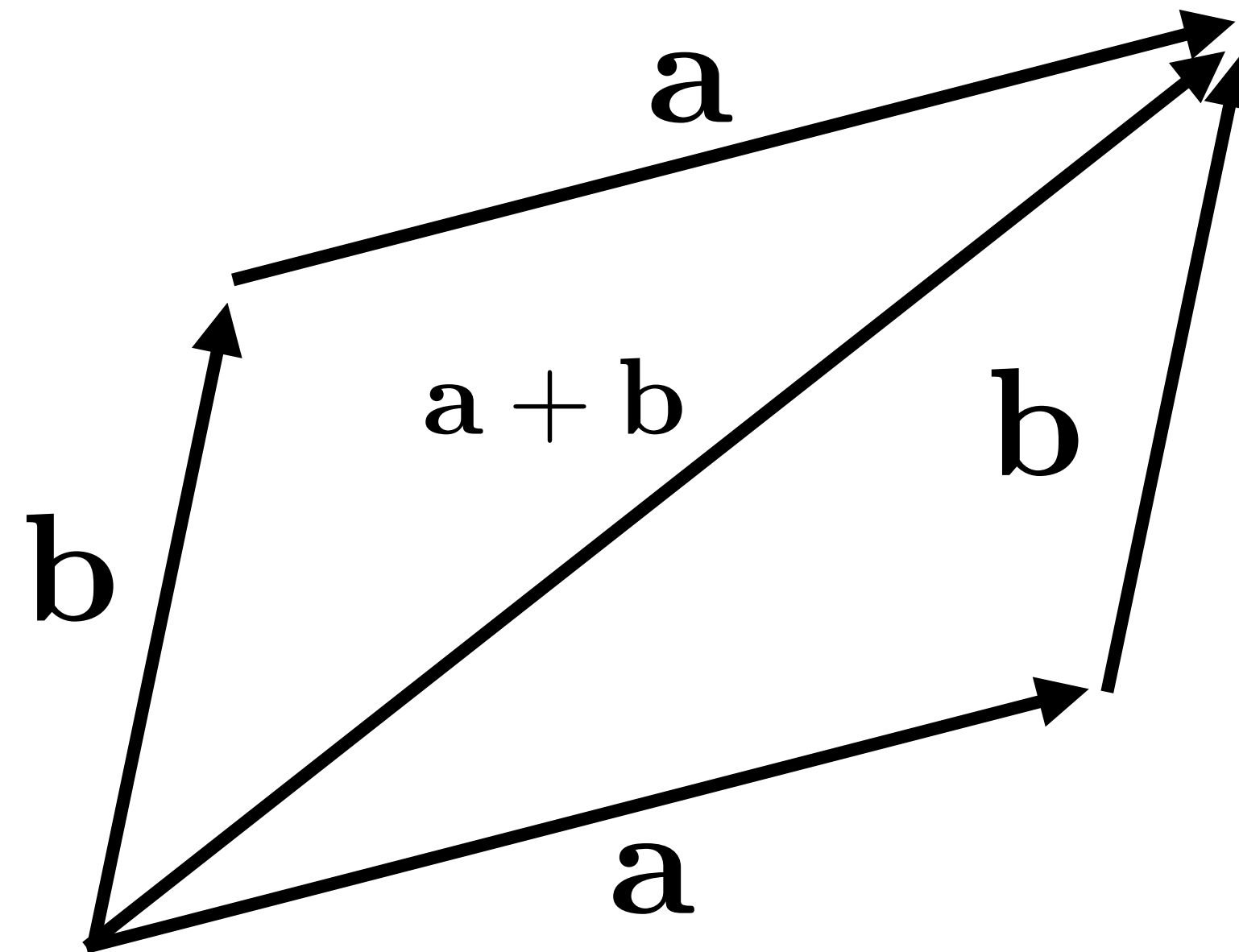
- A *vector* describes a direction and a length
- Do not confuse it with a location, which represent a position
- When you encode them in your program, they will both require 2 (or 3) numbers to be represented, but they are not the same object!



Sum

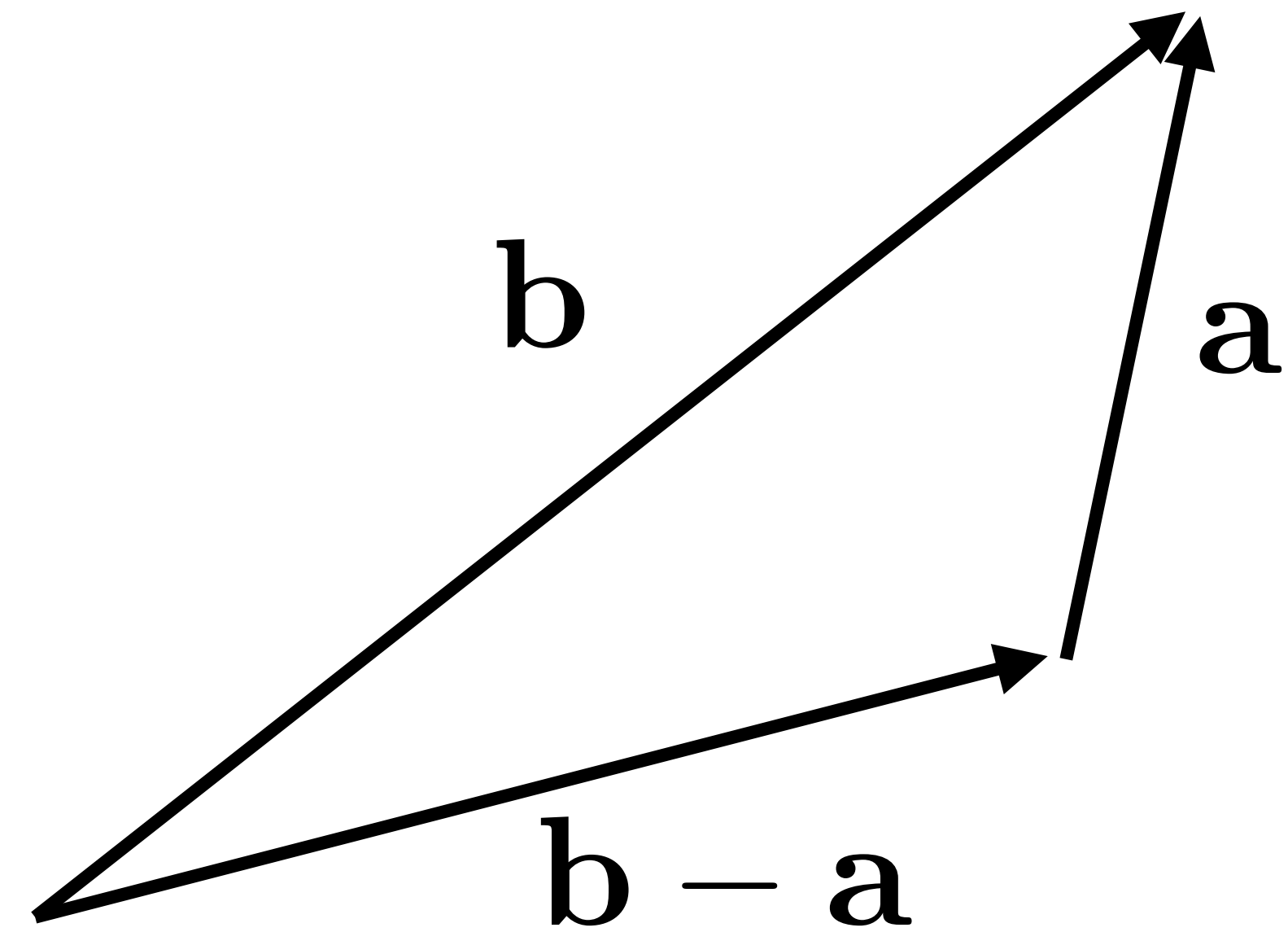
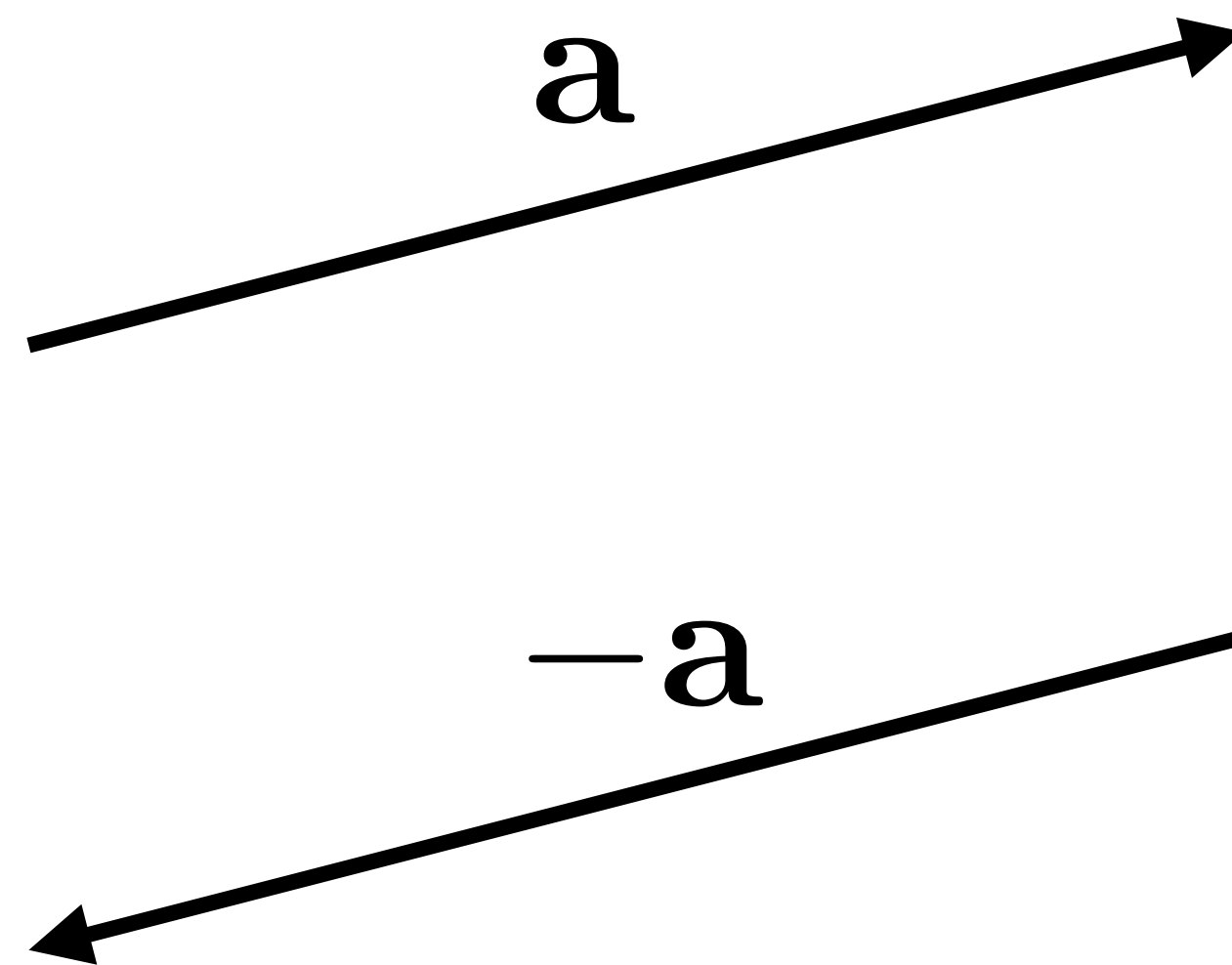
Operator +

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$$



Difference

Operator -



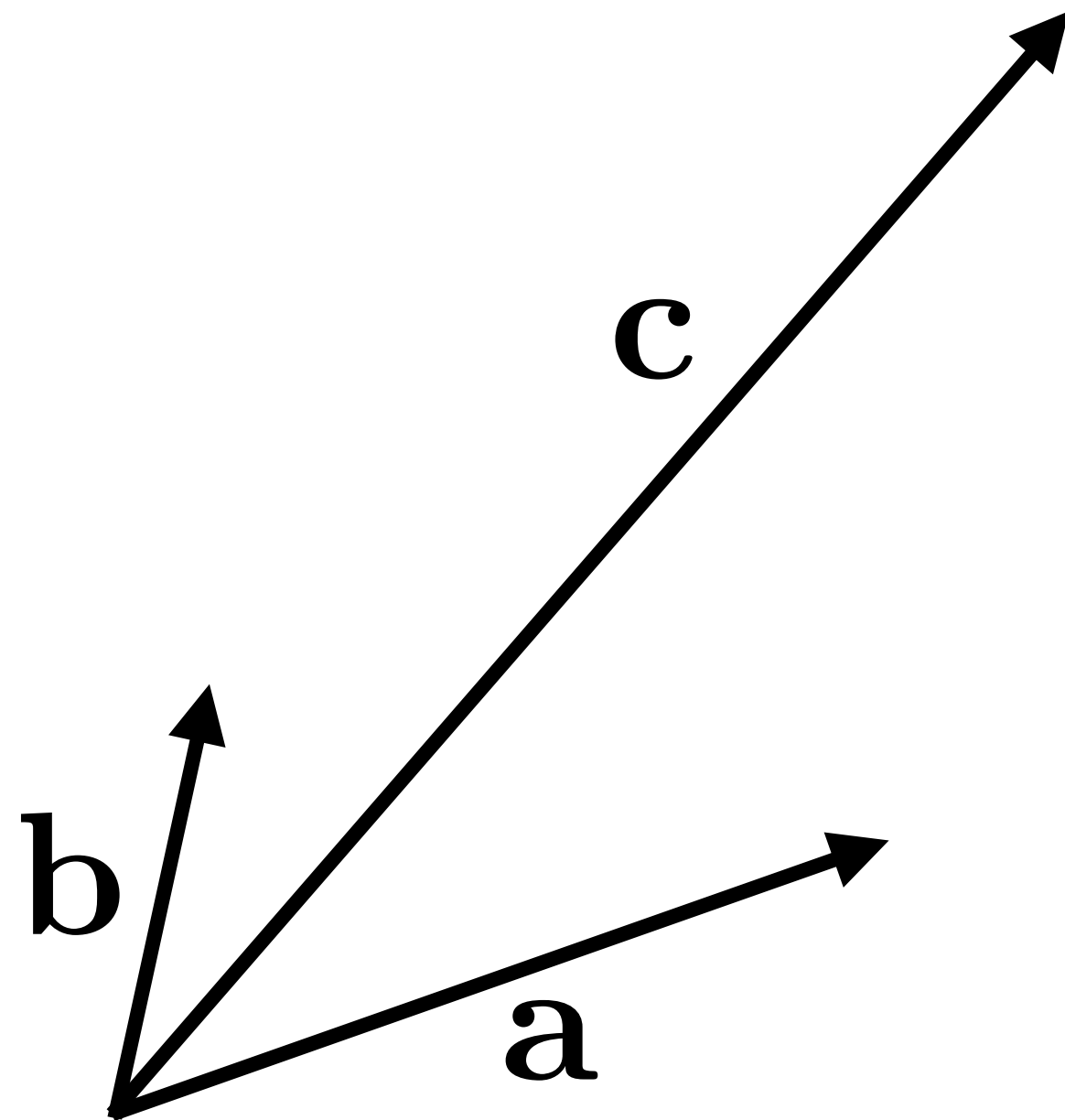
$$\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$$

Coordinates

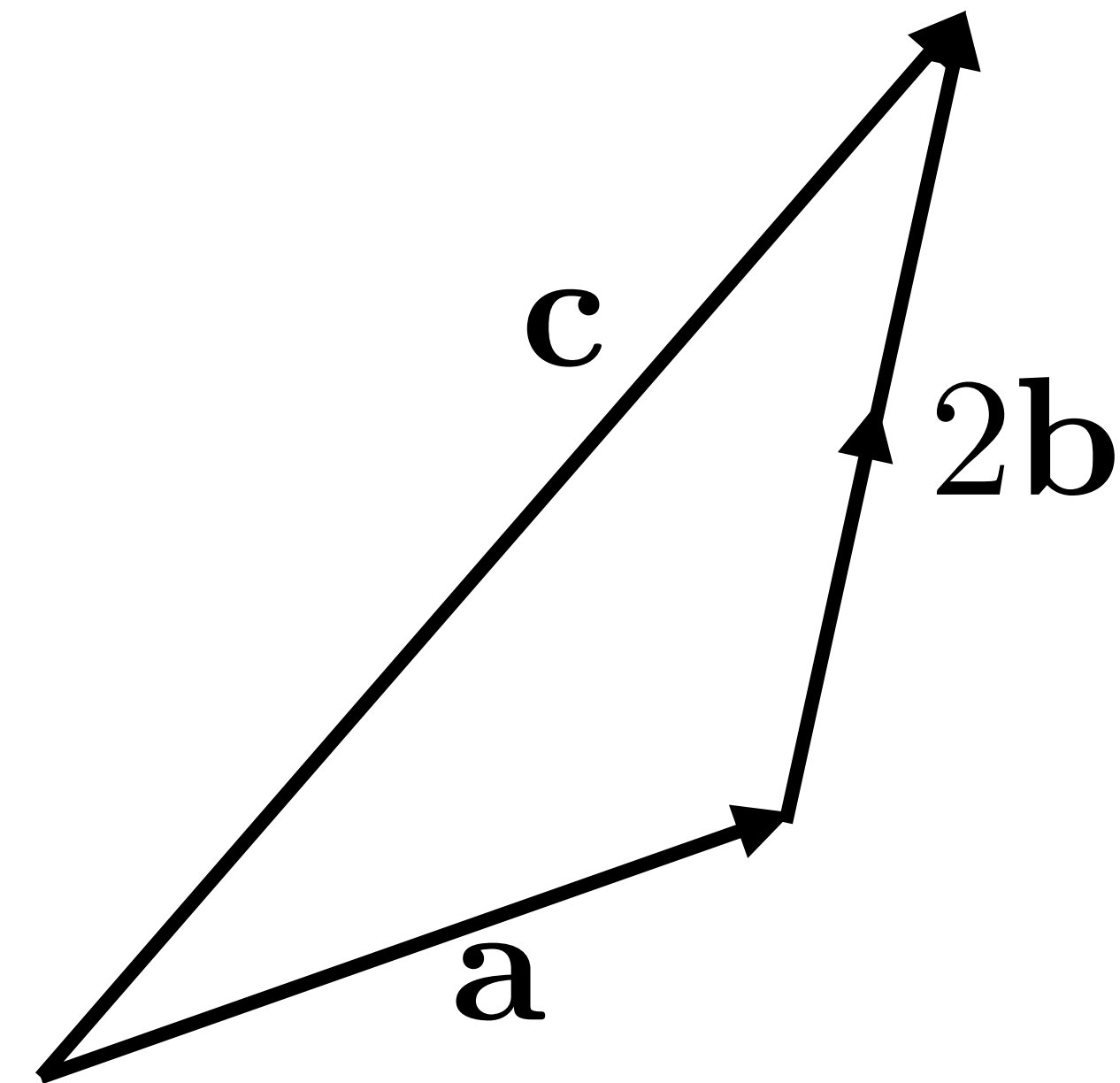
Operator []

$$\mathbf{c} = c_1 \mathbf{a} + c_2 \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + 2\mathbf{b}$$



a and **b** form a 2D basis



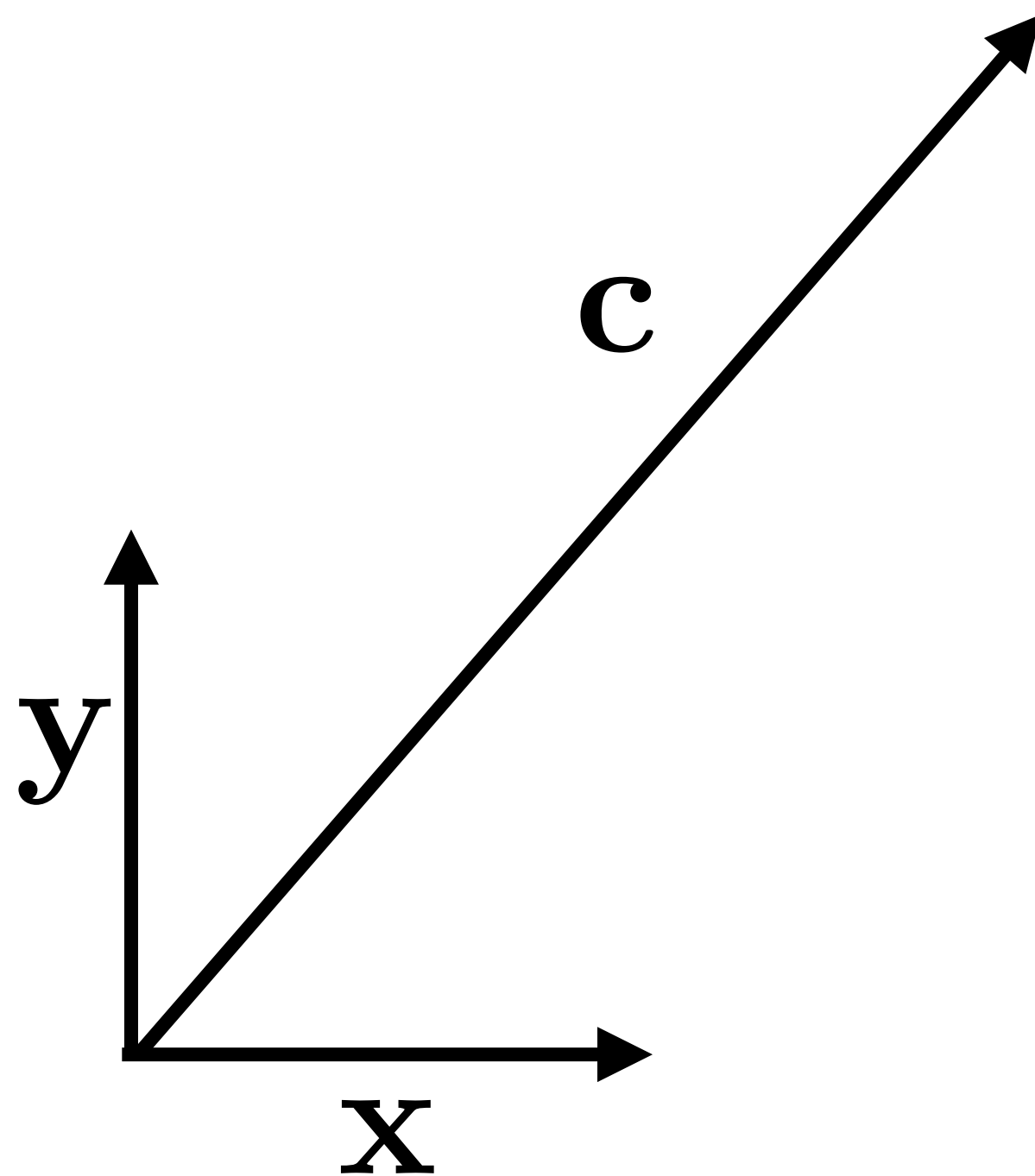
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Cartesian Coordinates

$$\mathbf{c} = c_1 \mathbf{x} + c_2 \mathbf{y}$$

- \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} form a canonical, Cartesian basis



Length

- The length of a vector is denoted as $||\mathbf{a}||$ a.norm()
- If the vector is represented in cartesian coordinates, then it is the L2 norm of the vector:

$$||\mathbf{a}|| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2}$$

- A vector can be normalized, to change its length to 1, without affecting the direction:

$$\mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{||\mathbf{a}||}$$

CAREFUL:

b.normalize() \leftarrow in place
b.normalized() \leftarrow returns the
normalized vector



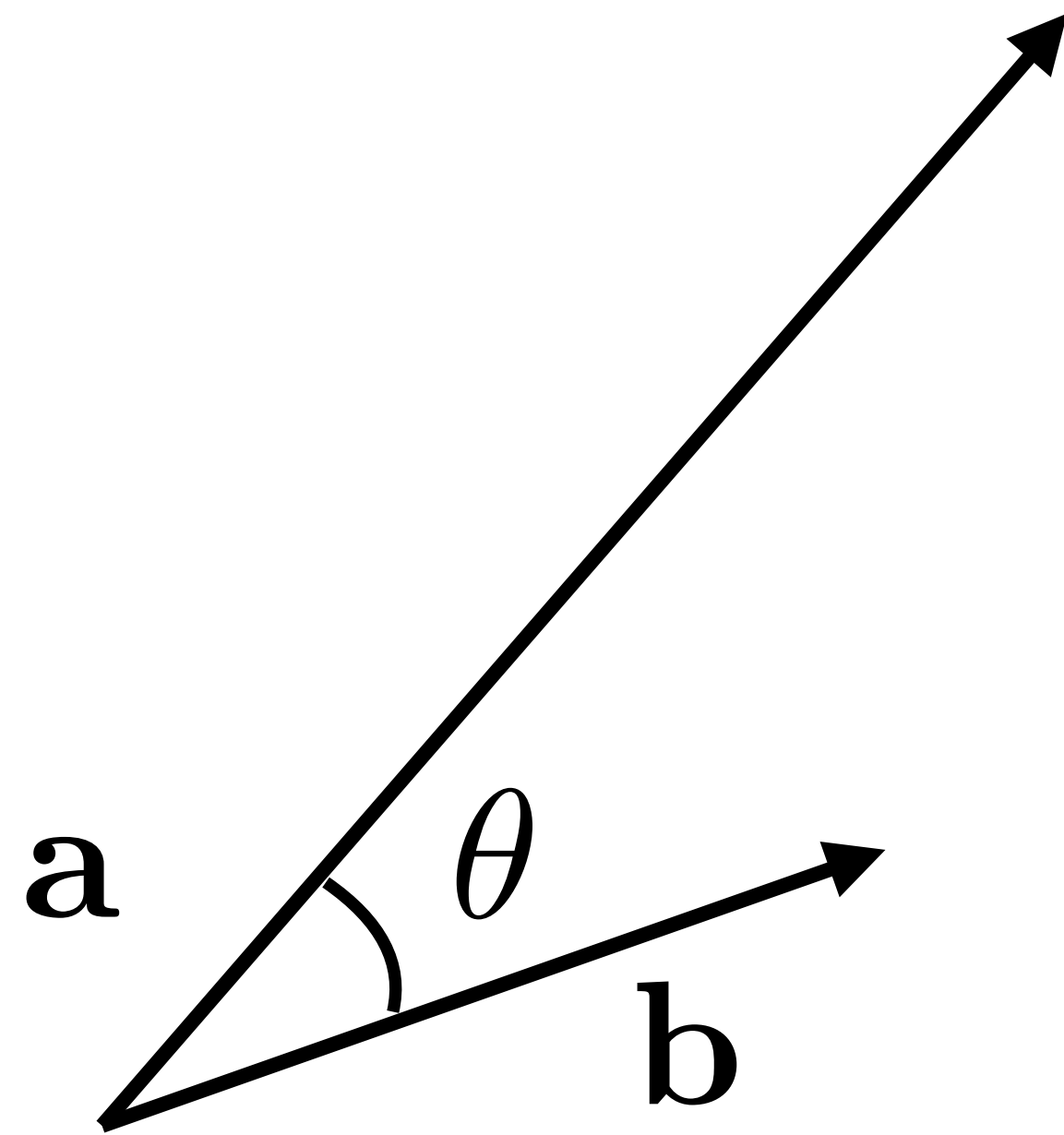
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Dot Product

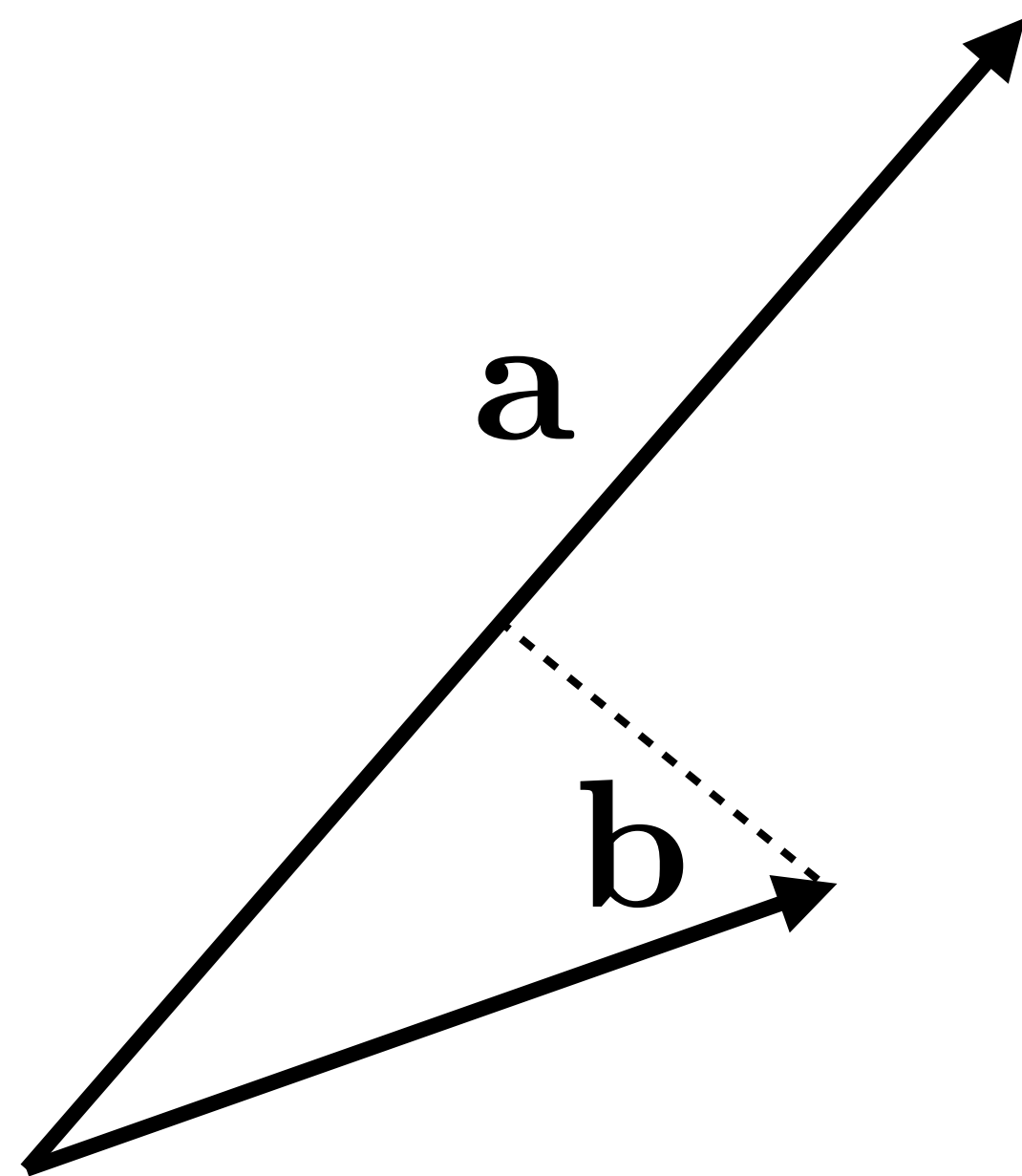
$a \cdot b$
 $a.\text{transpose()} * b$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos \theta$$



- The dot product is related to the length of vector and of the angle between them
- If both are normalized, it is directly the cosine of the angle between them

Dot Product - Projection



- The length of the projection of **b** onto **a** can be computed using the dot product

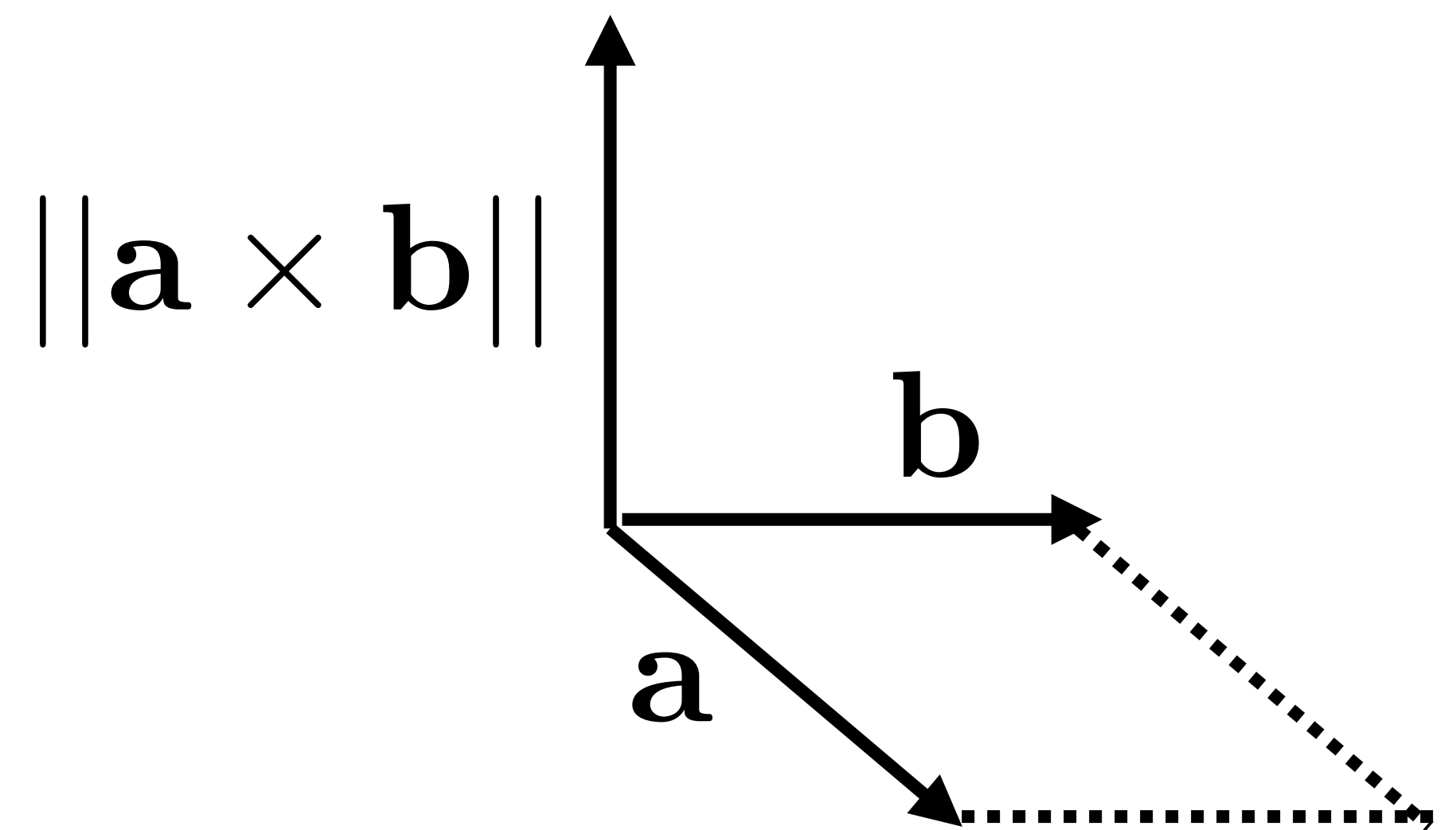
$$\mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{a} = \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|}$$

Cross Product

```
Eigen::Vector3d v(1, 2, 3);  
Eigen::Vector3d w(4, 5, 6);  
v.cross(w);
```

- Defined only for 3D vectors
- The resulting vector is perpendicular to both **a** and **b**, the direction depends on the *right hand rule*
- The magnitude is equal to the area of the parallelogram formed by **a** and **b**

$$||\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|| = ||\mathbf{a}|| ||\mathbf{b}|| \sin \theta$$



Coordinate Systems

- You will often need to manipulate coordinate systems (i.e. for finding the position of the pixels in Assignment 1)
- You will always use *orthonormal bases*, which are formed by pairwise orthogonal unit vectors :

2D

$$\begin{aligned} ||\mathbf{u}|| &= ||\mathbf{v}|| = 1, \\ \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

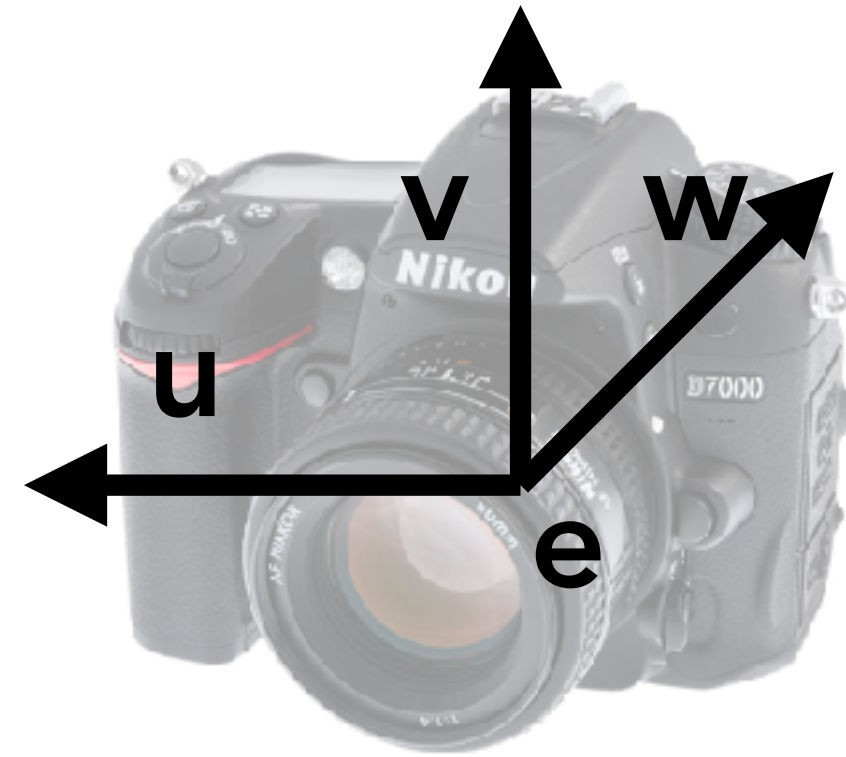
3D

$$\begin{aligned} ||\mathbf{u}|| &= ||\mathbf{v}|| = ||\mathbf{w}|| = 1, \\ \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

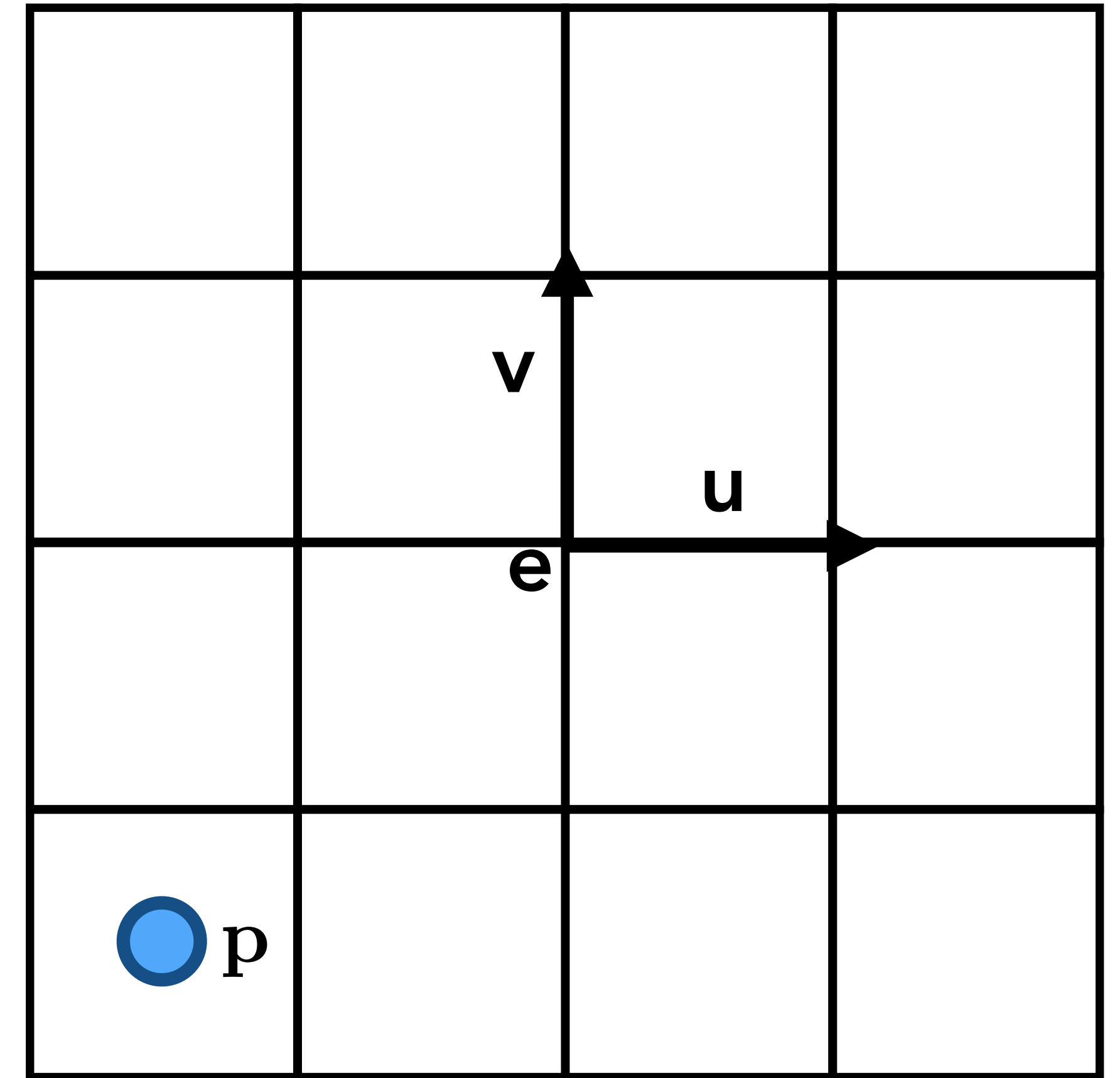
Right-handed if: $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$

Coordinate Frame

e is the origin of the reference system
p is the center of the pixel

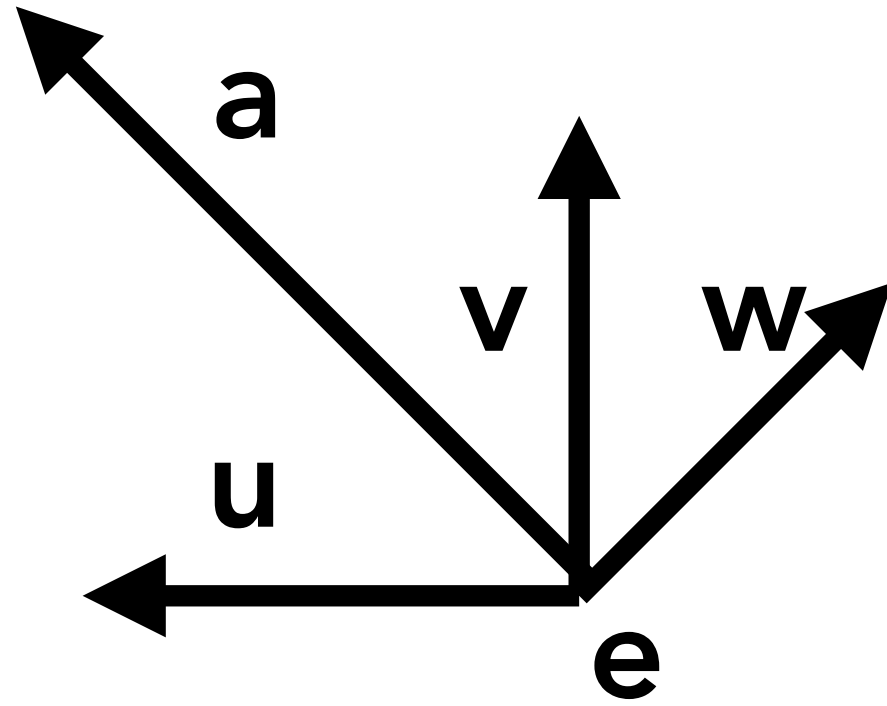


u, v, w are the coordinates of **p**
wrt the frame of reference or coordinate frame
(note that they depend also on the origin **e**)



$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{e} + u\mathbf{u} + v\mathbf{v} + w\mathbf{w}$$

Change of frame



- If you have a vector **a** expressed in global coordinates, and you want to convert it into a vector expressed in a local orthonormal **u-v-w** coordinate system, you can do it using projections of **a** onto **u**, **v**, **w** (which we assume are expressed in global coordinates):

$$\mathbf{a}^C = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{w})$$

References

Fundamentals of Computer Graphics, Fourth Edition
4th Edition **by Steve Marschner, Peter Shirley**

Chapter 2

Matrices

Overview

- Matrices will allow us to conveniently represent and ally transformations on vectors, such as translation, scaling and rotation
- Similarly to what we did for vectors, we will briefly overview their basic operations

Matrices

- A matrix is an array of numeric elements $\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ `Eigen::MatrixXd A(2,2)`

Sum $\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} + y_{11} & x_{12} + y_{12} \\ x_{21} + y_{21} & x_{22} + y_{22} \end{bmatrix}$

`A + B = A.array() + B.array()`

Scalar Product $y * \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} yx_{11} & yx_{12} \\ yx_{21} & yx_{22} \end{bmatrix}$ `A * y = A.array() * y`



Transpose

```
B = A.transpose();  
A.transposeInPlace();
```

- The transpose of a matrix is a new matrix whose entries are reflected over the diagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The transpose of a product is the product of the transposed, in reverse order

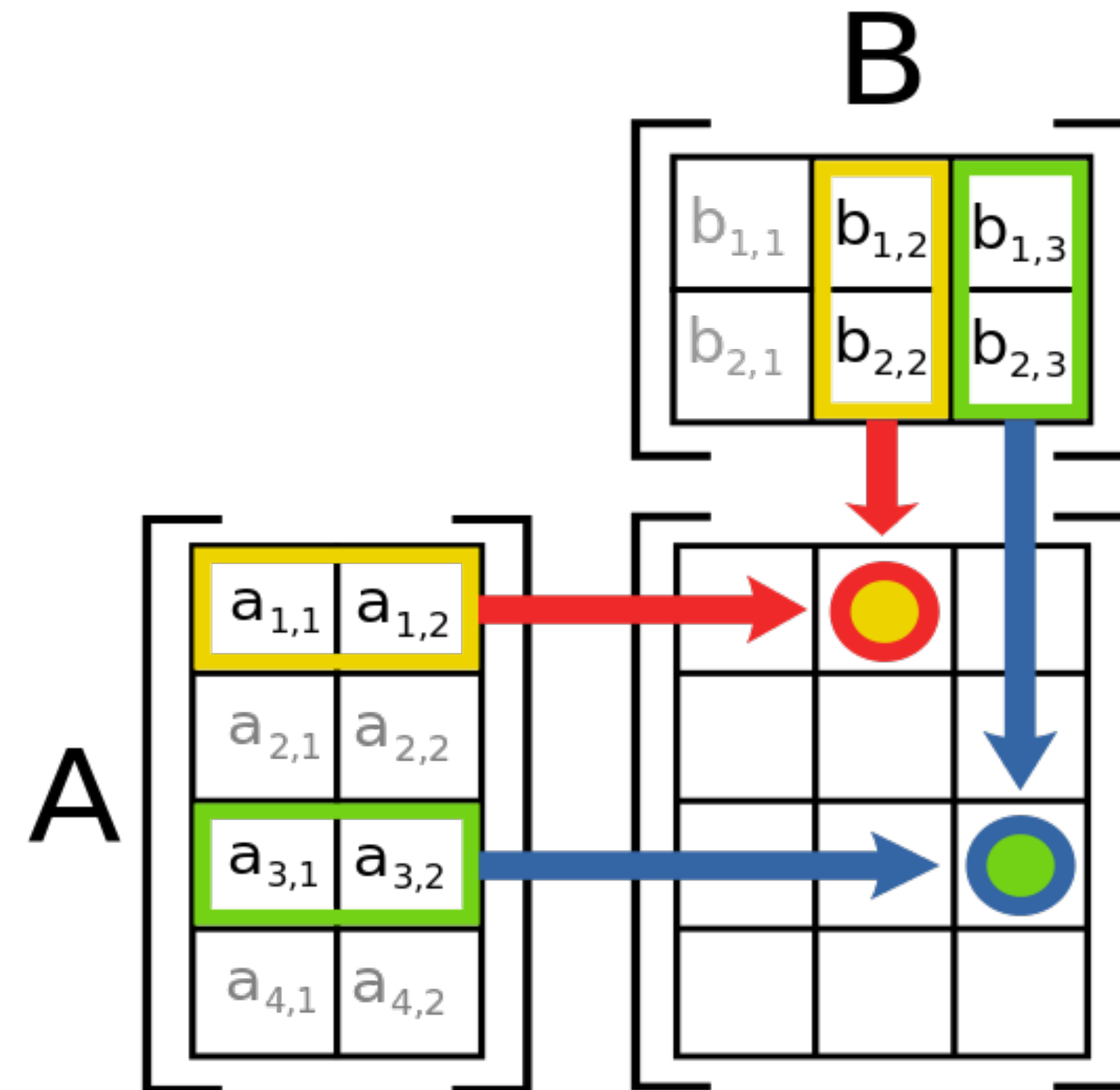
$$(\mathbf{AB})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$$



Matrix Product

- The entry i,j is given by multiplying the entries on the i -th row of A with the entries of the j -th column of B and summing up the results

```
Eigen::MatrixXd A(4,2);  
Eigen::MatrixXd B(2,3);  
A * B;
```



- It is NOT commutative (in general):
 $\mathbf{AB} \neq \mathbf{BA}$



Intuition

$$\begin{bmatrix} | \\ \mathbf{y} \\ | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{r}_1- \\ -\mathbf{r}_2- \\ -\mathbf{r}_3- \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} | \\ \mathbf{x} \\ | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_i = \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

Dot product on each row

$$\begin{bmatrix} | \\ \mathbf{y} \\ | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_2 & \mathbf{c}_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = x_1 \mathbf{c}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{c}_2 + x_3 \mathbf{c}_3$$

Weighted sum of the columns

Inverse Matrix

Eigen::MatrixXd A(4,4);
A.inverse() \leftarrow do not use this
to solve a large linear systems!

- The inverse of a matrix \mathbf{A} is the matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$

where \mathbf{I} is the *identity matrix* $\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- The inverse of a product is the product of the inverse in opposite order:

$$(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$



Diagonal Matrices

```
Eigen::Vector3d v(1,2,3);  
A = v.asDiagonal()
```

- They are zero everywhere except the diagonal:

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

- Useful properties:

$$\mathbf{D}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} a^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D}^T$$

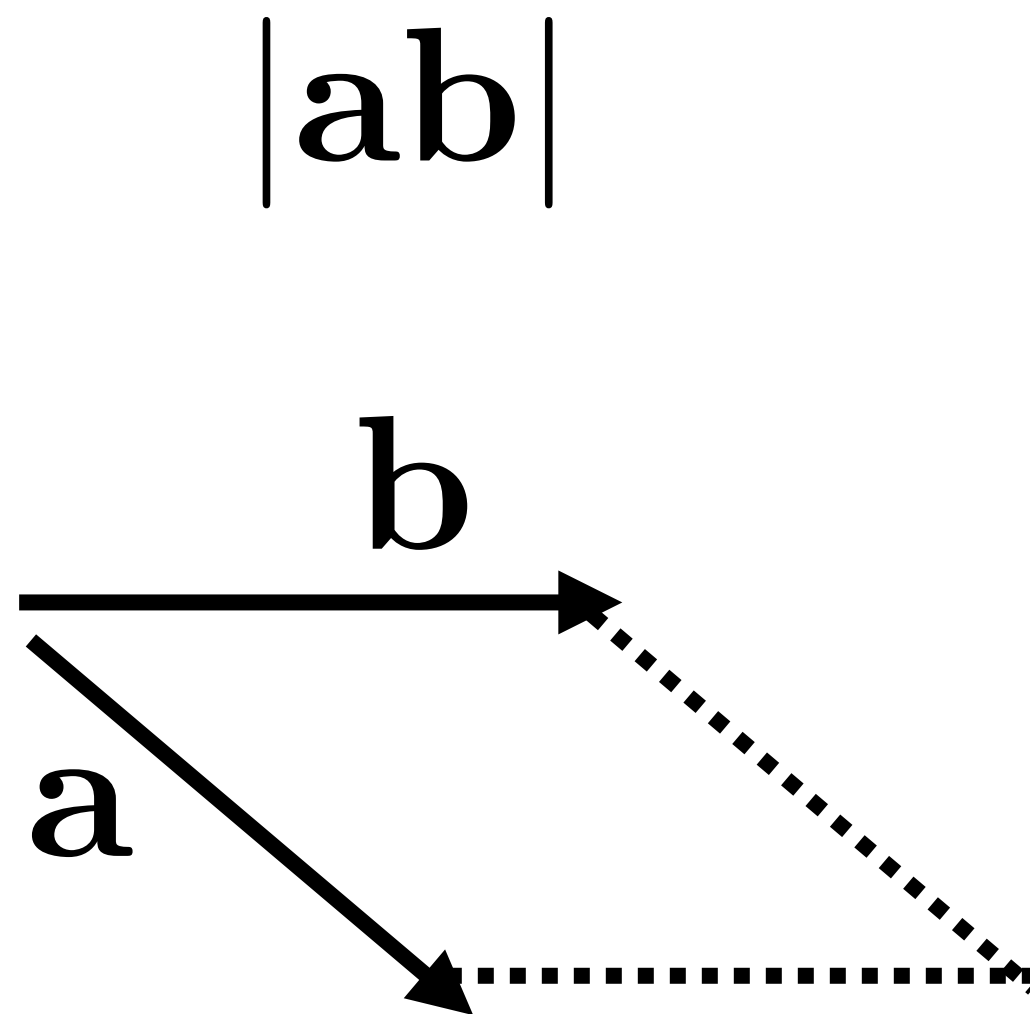
Orthogonal Matrices

- An orthogonal matrix is a matrix where
 - each column is a vector of length 1
 - each column is orthogonal to all the others
- A useful property of orthogonal matrices that their inverse corresponds to their transpose:

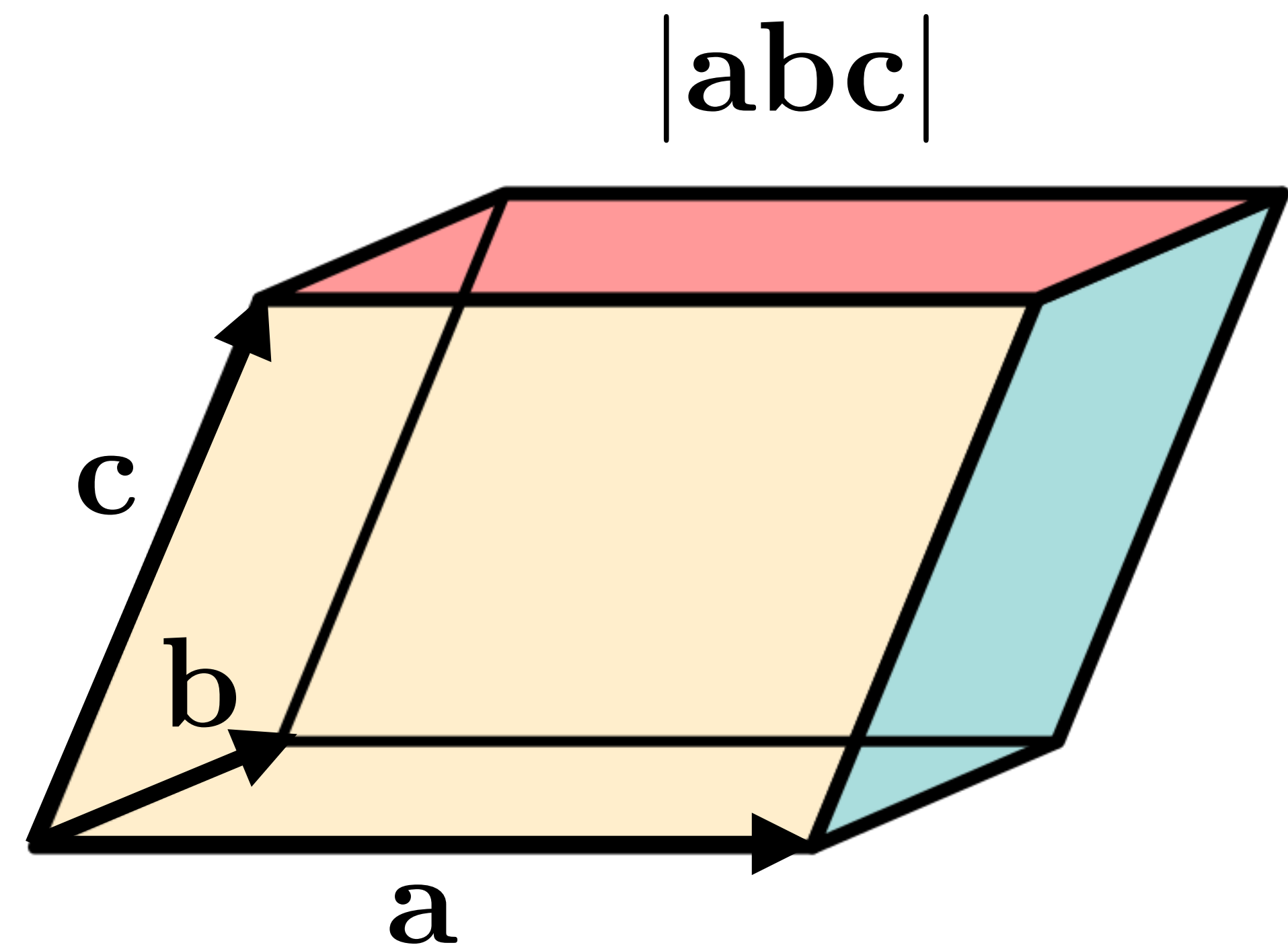
$$(\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{I} = (\mathbf{R} \mathbf{R}^T)$$

Determinants

- Think of a determinant as an operation between vectors.



Area of the parallelogram



Volume of the parallelepiped
(positive since \mathbf{abc} is a right-handed basis)

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Linear Systems

- We will often encounter in this class linear systems with n linear equations that depend on n variables.

- For example:

$$5x + 3y - 7z = 4$$

$$-3x + 5y + 12z = 9$$

$$9x - 2y - 2z = -3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & -7 \\ -3 & 5 & 12 \\ 9 & -2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 9 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- To find x, y, z you have to “solve” the linear system. Do not use an inverse, but rely on a direct solver:

```
Matrix3f A;  
Vector3f b;  
A << 5,3,-7, -3,5,12, 9,-2,-2;  
b << 4, 9, -3;  
cout << "Here is the matrix A:\n" << A << endl;  
cout << "Here is the vector b:\n" << b << endl;  
Vector3f x = A.colPivHouseholderQr().solve(b);  
cout << "The solution is:\n" << x << endl;
```



References

Fundamentals of Computer Graphics, Fourth Edition
4th Edition **by Steve Marschner, Peter Shirley**

Chapter 5