

# Linear Algebra

## CS425: Computer Graphics I

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# Overview



- Basic linear algebra concepts
- Coordinate systems
- Coordinate frame

# Euclidian space

- A  $n$ -dimensional real Euclidian space is denoted  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- A vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in this space is an  $n$ -tuple (an ordered list of real numbers).

$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ with } v_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 0, \dots, n - 1$$

- $v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}$ : elements, coefficients, or components of vector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

# Operations

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_0 + v_0 \\ u_1 + v_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_{n-1} + v_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{Addition}$$

$$\alpha \mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha u_0 \\ \alpha u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha u_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{Multiplication by scalar}$$

# Properties

- i.  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$  (associativity)
- ii.  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$  (commutativity)
- iii.  $\mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$  (zero identity)
- iv.  $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$  (additive inverse)
- v.  $(ab)\mathbf{u} = a(b\mathbf{u})$
- vi.  $(a + b)\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{u}$  (distributive law)
- vii.  $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$  (distributive law)
- viii.  $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$

# Dot product

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} u_i v_i \text{ (dot product)}$$

Properties:

- i.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \geq 0$ , with  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = (0, 0, \dots, 0) = \mathbf{0}$
- ii.  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- iii.  $(\alpha \mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \alpha(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$
- iv.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  (commutative)
- v.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{v}$

# Norm of a vector

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} u_i^2} \text{ (norm)}$$

Properties:

- i.  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{u} = (0, 0, \dots, 0) = \mathbf{0}$
- ii.  $\|\alpha \mathbf{u}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{u}\|$
- iii.  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$  (triangle inequality)
- iv.  $\|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$  (Cauchy-Schawrtz inequality)

# Geometrical interpretation

- A set of vectors  $\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$  is *linearly independent* if:  
 $\alpha_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1} = 0$  if and only if  $\alpha_0 = \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_{n-1} = 0$
- If a set of vectors is linearly independent, we cannot represent one in terms of the other.
- If a set of vectors is linearly dependent, at least one can be written in terms of the other.



# Geometrical interpretation

- Example:  $\mathbf{v}_0 = (4,3)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1 = (8,6)$  are not linearly independent, since  $\alpha_0 = 2$  and  $\alpha_1 = -1$  satisfy.
- Example:  $\mathbf{v}_0 = (4,3)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1 = (2,6)$  are linearly independent, since the only scalars to satisfy previous equation are  $\alpha_0 = 0$  and  $\alpha_1 = 0$ .

# Geometrical interpretation

If a set of vectors  $\mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is linearly independent and any vector  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  can be written as a combination of:

$$\mathbf{u} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} u_i \mathbf{v}_i$$

Then we can say that the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$  span the Euclidian space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Geometrical interpretation

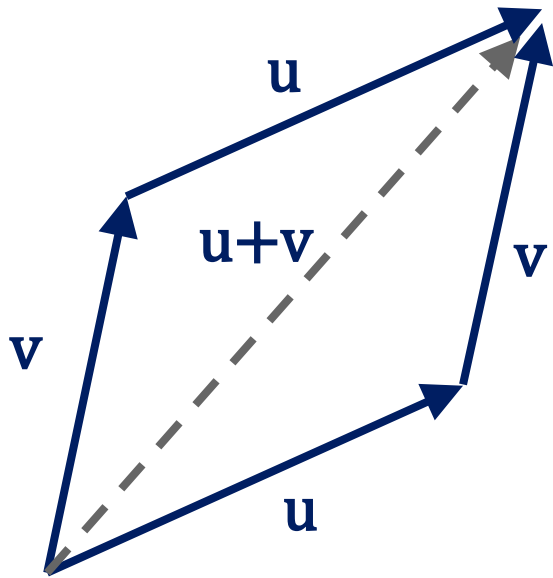
- In addition, if  $u_0, \dots, u_{n-1}$  are uniquely determined by  $\mathbf{u}$  for all  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$  is called a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- What this means: every vector can be described **uniquely** by  $n$  scalars  $(u_0, \dots, u_{n-1})$ , and the basis vectors  $\mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$ .
- $(1,0), (0,1)$ 
  - Linearly independent? Yes.
  - Spans  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Yes.
  - Basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Yes.
- $(1,0), (1,1), (0,2)$ 
  - Linearly independent? No.
  - Spans  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Yes.
  - Basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? No.
- $(1,1,0), (0,1,1)$ 
  - Linearly independent? Yes.
  - Spans  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? No.
  - Basis for  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? No.
- $(1,1), (1,-1)$ 
  - Linearly independent? Yes.
  - Spans  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Yes.
  - Basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ? Yes.

# Coordinate systems

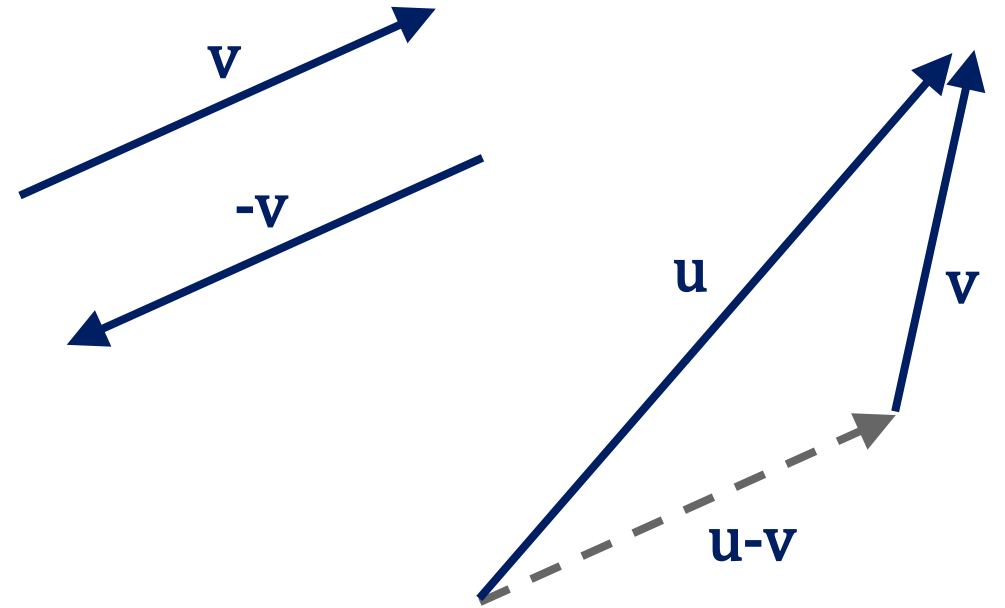
- Consider a basis  $\mathbf{v}_0, \dots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$
- A vector can be written as  $\mathbf{v} = \alpha_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$
- List of scalars is the representation of  $\mathbf{v}$  with respect to given basis.
- A vector describes a direction and a length (norm).
- We can write this as:

$$\mathbf{v} = (\alpha_0 \quad \alpha_1 \quad \dots \quad \alpha_{n-1})^T = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \dots \\ \alpha_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Operations

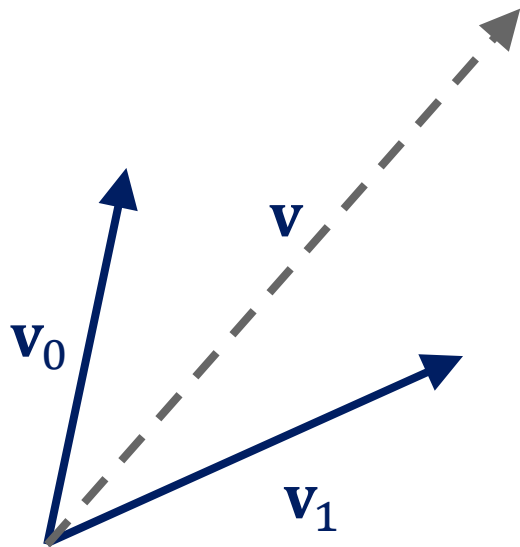


$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \text{ (commutativity)}$$

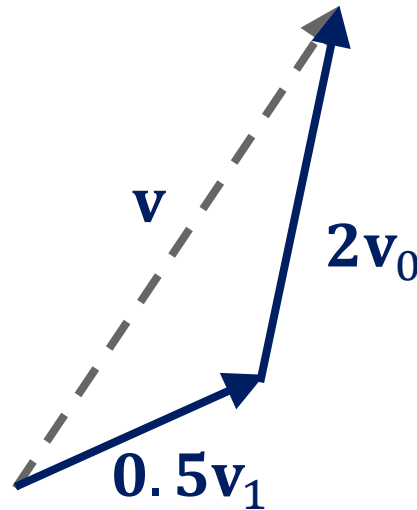


$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$$

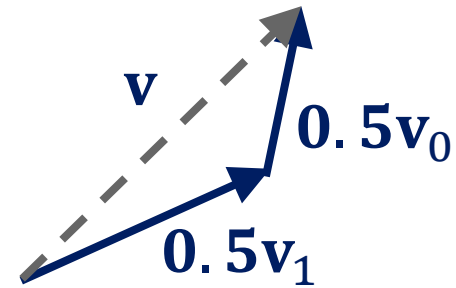
# Coordinates



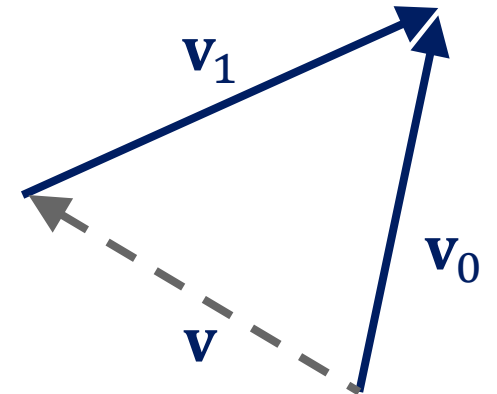
$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1$   
 $\mathbf{v}_0$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1$  form a 2D basis



$$\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{v}_0 + 0.5\mathbf{v}_1$$



$$\mathbf{v} = 0.5\mathbf{v}_0 + 0.5\mathbf{v}_1$$



$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_0 - \mathbf{v}_1$$

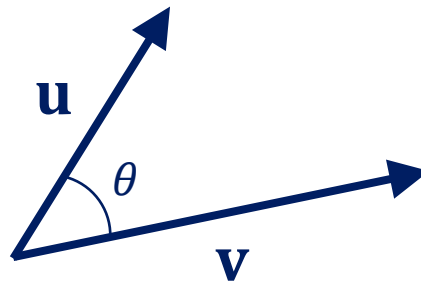
# Length

- Length of a vector is denoted as  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$
- A vector can be normalized, to change its length to 1, without affecting its direction:  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$

# Dot product

- The dot product is related to the length of two vectors and the angle between them.

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta$$



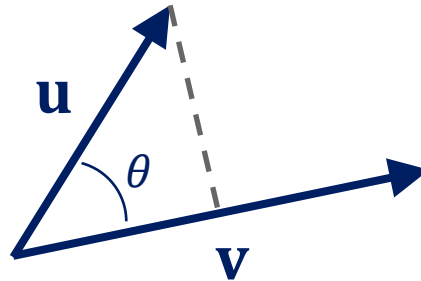
- If both are normalized, it is directly the cosine of the angle between them.



# Projection

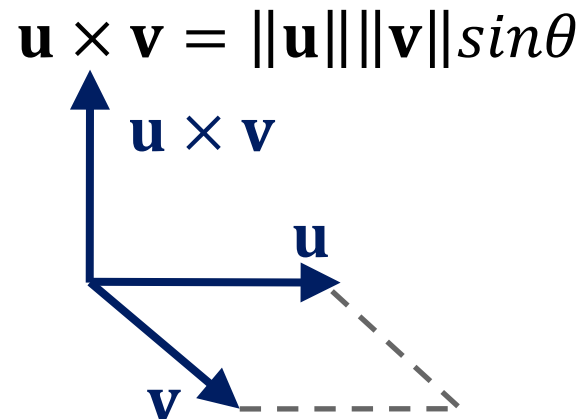
- The length of the projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  onto  $\mathbf{v}$  can be computed using the dot product

$$\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$$



# Cross product

- Defined only for 3D vectors.
- The resulting vector is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , the direction depends on the right hand rule.
- The magnitude is equal to the area of the parallelogram formed by  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ .

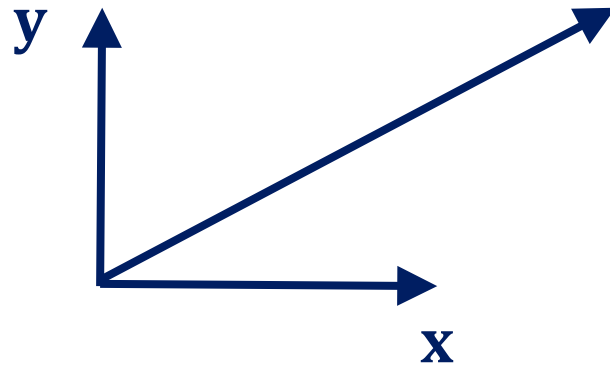


# Properties

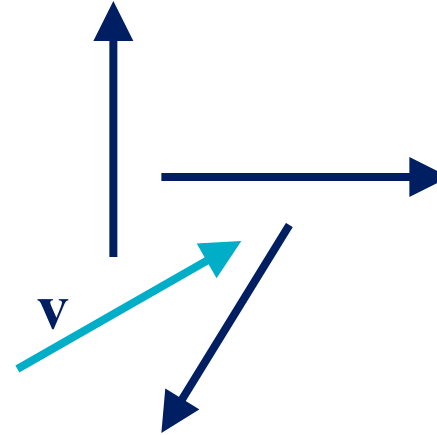
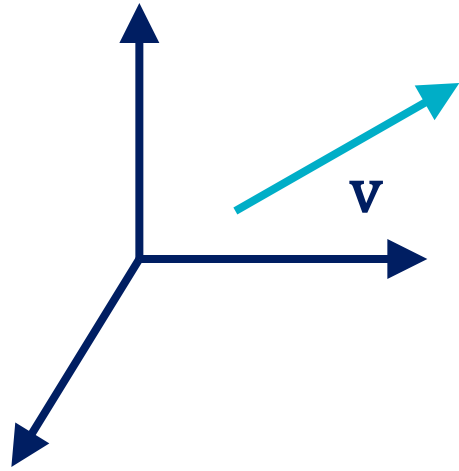
- i.  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$  (anti-commutativity)
- ii.  $(a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w} = a(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w}) + b(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})$  (linearity)
- iii.  $\mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  (zero identity)
- iv.  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{w}$  (vector triple product)

# Cartesian coordinates

- $\mathbf{x} = (1,0)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (0,1)$  form a canonical, Cartesian basis.



# Coordinate systems



Which one is correct? Both, vectors don't have fixed location.

# Coordinate systems

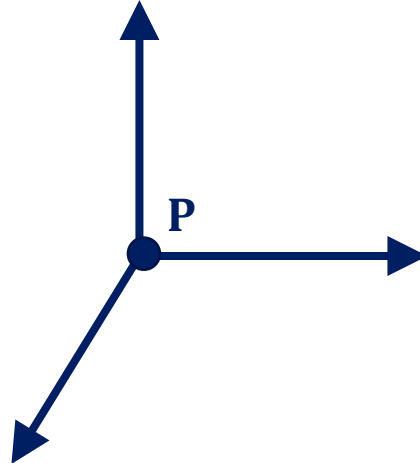
- We will always use orthonormal bases, which are formed by pairwise orthogonal unit vectors:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \begin{cases} 0, i \neq j \\ 1, i = j \end{cases}$$

- This means that every basis vector must have a length of one, and also that each pair of basis vectors must be orthogonal.

# Coordinate frames

- Note that a coordinate system is insufficient to represent points.
- We can add an origin to the basis vectors to form a frame.



# Coordinate frames

- Frame determined by  $(\mathbf{P}_0, \mathbf{v}_0, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2)$ .
- Within this frame, every vector can be written as:

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$$

- Within this frame, every point can be written as:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_0 + \beta_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \beta_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$$



# Points and vectors

- Consider the point and the vector:

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$$
$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_0 + \beta_0 \mathbf{v}_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \beta_{n-1} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}$$

- Similar representations:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

- But: a vector has no position.

# References

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- Real-time Rendering, 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed. by Tomas Akenine-Möller, Eric Haines, and Naty Hoffman (Appendix A)
- Interactive Computer Graphics 7<sup>th</sup> Ed. by Ed Angel and Dave Shreiner (Chapter 3)