
Linear Algebra Review

Machine Learning

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Overview

- Scalars, Vectors, Matrices and Tensors
- Basic matrix operations (+, -, *)
- Cross and dot products
- Determinants and inverses
- Orthonormal basis
- Tensors

Introduction

- Linear algebra is a branch of mathematics that is widely used throughout science and engineering.
- However, because linear algebra is a form of continuous rather than discrete mathematics, many computer scientists have little experience with it.
- A good understanding of linear algebra is essential for understanding and working with many machine learning algorithms, especially deep learning algorithms.
- Linear Algebra is a branch of mathematics that lets you concisely describe coordinates and interactions of planes in higher dimensions and perform operations on them.

Scaler, Vector, Matrix

Scalar

24

Vector

$[2 \ -8 \ 7]$

row

or
column

$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -8 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$

Matrix

$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 & 24 \\ 1 & -9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

row(s) × column(s)

Vector and Matrix

- We want to buy “Apple” and “Banana” at two occasions.
- First occasion two Apple and 5 banana and cost is ₹25. $2A + 5B = 25$
- Second occasion 5 Apple and 7 Banana and Cost is 30. $5A + 7B = 30$

Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 \\ 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

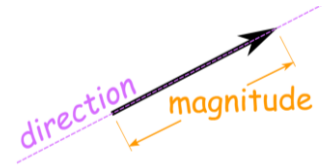
Vector

Scalars

- **Scalars:** A scalar (a) is just a single number, in contrast to most of the other objects studied in linear algebra, which are usually arrays of multiple numbers.
- It is written in italics and usually scalars are given in lower-case variable names.
- It can be “integer or real number”.
- Scalars are real numbers used in linear algebra.
- Scalar: variable described by a single number (magnitude)
 - **Temperature = 20 °C**
 - **Density = 1 g.cm⁻³**
 - **Image intensity (pixel value) = 2546 a. u.**

Vectors

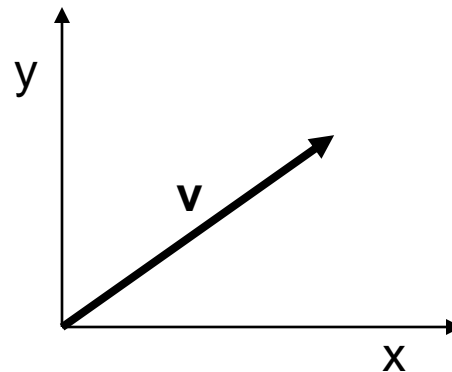
- A vector has magnitude (size) and direction.
- A vector is an array of numbers.
- $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ \dots \dots \dots x_n]^T$
- x_{-1} vector containing all element except x_1 .
- Similarly, if $S = \{x_1 \ x_2 \ x_5\}$
- x_{-S} vector containing all elements except $x_1 \ x_2$ and x_5 .



Vector Operations

- Vector: 1 x N matrix
- Interpretation: a line in N dimensional space.
- Dot Product, Cross Product, and Magnitude defined on vectors only.

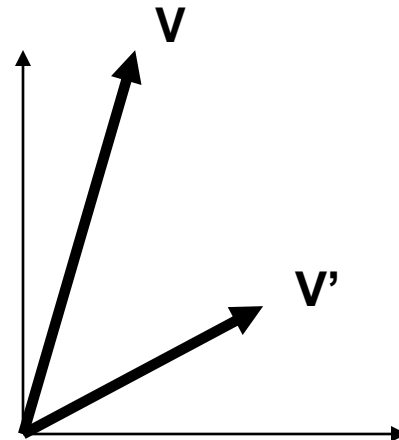
$$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$



Vector Interpretation

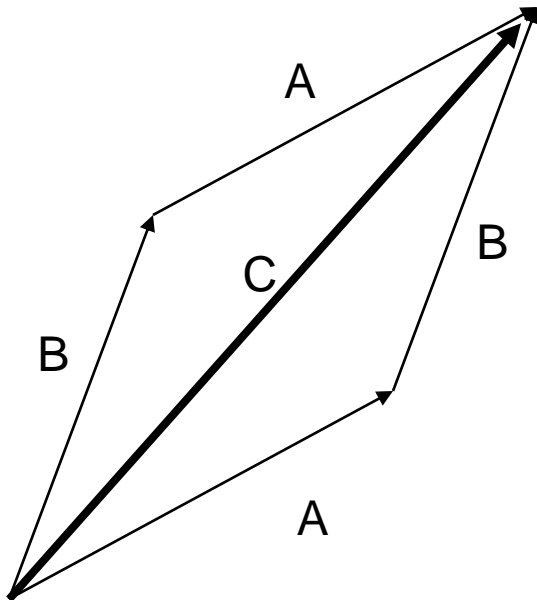
- Think of a vector as a line in 2D or 3D
- Think of a matrix as a transformation on a line or set of lines

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix}$$



Vectors: Dot Product

- Interpretation: the dot product measures to what degree two vectors are aligned



$A+B = C$
(use the head-to-tail method
to combine vectors)

Vectors: Dot Product

$$a \cdot b = ab^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} d \\ e \\ f \end{bmatrix} = ad + be + cf$$

Think of the dot product as a matrix multiplication

$$\|a\|^2 = aa^T = \sqrt{aa + bb + cc}$$

The magnitude is the dot product of a vector with itself

$$a \cdot b = \|a\| \|b\| \cos(\theta)$$

The dot product is also related to the angle between the two vectors – but it doesn't tell us the angle

Vectors: Cross Product

- The cross product of vectors A and B is a vector C which is perpendicular to A and B
- The magnitude of C is proportional to the cosine of the angle between A and B
- The direction of C follows the **right hand rule** – this is why we call it a “right-handed coordinate system”

$$\|a \times b\| = \|a\| \|b\| \sin(\theta)$$

What is a Matrix?

- A matrix is a set of elements, organized into rows and columns

(a) 3×2 matrix (3 rows, 2 columns)

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{rows} \rightarrow \\ \text{columns} \downarrow \end{array} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) $r \times c$ matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1c} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2c} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{r1} & b_{r2} & \cdots & b_{rc} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & a_{32} \end{bmatrix}$$

Types of Matrix

Square

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Upper Triangular

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ 0 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{25} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} & a_{34} & a_{35} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{44} & a_{45} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{55} \end{bmatrix}$$

Strictly Upper Triangular

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ 0 & 0 & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{25} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{34} & a_{35} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{45} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Lower Triangular

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} & 0 \\ a_{51} & a_{52} & a_{53} & a_{54} & a_{55} \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Tridiagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_{54} & a_{55} \end{bmatrix}$$

Types of Matrix...

Unit	Null	Symmetry
$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$\mathbf{O} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 1.00 & -0.23 & -0.27 \\ -0.23 & 1.00 & 0.64 \\ -0.27 & 0.64 & 1.00 \end{bmatrix}$

Skew-symmetric matrix: a square matrix in which $a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$ for all i and j

Transpose Matrix: $A = (A^T)^T$ $a_{ij}^T = a_{ji}$

$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 140 & 35 & 7.7 \\ 195 & 12 & 7.1 \\ 283 & 53 & 6.4 \\ 132 & 188 & 8.3 \\ 60 & 55 & 6.5 \end{bmatrix}$	$\mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 140 & 195 & 283 & 132 & 60 \\ 35 & 12 & 53 & 188 & 55 \\ 7.7 & 7.1 & 6.4 & 8.3 & 6.5 \end{bmatrix}$
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Basic Operations

- Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+e & b+f \\ c+g & d+h \end{bmatrix}$$

Just add elements

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a-e & b-f \\ c-g & d-h \end{bmatrix}$$

Just subtract elements

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae+bg & af+bh \\ ce+dg & cf+dh \end{bmatrix}$$

**Multiply each row
by each column**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ae+bg & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ea+fc & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

Is $AB = BA$? Maybe, but maybe not! Multiplication is not commutative

Basic Operations...

- **trace** of a square matrix = sum of diagonal elements.
- **matrix augmentation**: addition of a column or columns to the initial matrix.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{A}_a = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Rank of Matrix E.g.1

- A matrix of r rows and c columns is said to be of order r by c . If it is a square matrix, r by r , then the matrix is of order r .
- The rank of a matrix equals the order of highest-order nonsingular submatrix.

2×3 order matrix, $\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

3-Sub Matrices $\mathbf{R}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{R}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{R}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$

Each of these has a determinant of 0, so the rank is less than 2. Thus the rank of \mathbf{R} is 1.

Rank of Matrix E.g.2

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since $|\mathbf{A}|=0$, the rank is not 3. The following submatrix has a nonzero determinant:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 2(3) - 4(1) = 2$$

Thus, the rank of \mathbf{A} is 2.

Inverse of a Matrix

- Identity matrix:
 $\mathbf{AI} = \mathbf{A}$
- Some matrices have an inverse, such that:
 $\mathbf{AA}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$
- Inversion is tricky:
 $(\mathbf{ABC})^{-1} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- Derived from non-commutativity property.

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

If the inverse of a matrix \mathbf{A} exists, then \mathbf{A} is said to be nonsingular and if does not exist, then \mathbf{A} is said to be singular.

Properties

\mathbf{A}^{-1} only exists if \mathbf{A} is **square** ($n \times n$)

If \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists then \mathbf{A} is **non-singular** (invertible)

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

$$(\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T; (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T \mathbf{A}^T = (\mathbf{AA}^{-1})^T = \mathbf{I}$$

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

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

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \left(a_{ij}^{(-1)} \right), \quad a_{ij}^{(-1)} = \frac{C_{ji}}{\det \mathbf{A}} = \frac{\tilde{C}_{ij}}{\det \mathbf{A}}$$

Determinant of a Matrix

- If $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$, then \mathbf{A} has no inverse.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \det(\mathbf{A}) = ad - bc$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \cancel{a} & \cancel{b} & \cancel{c} \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = a \det \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{pmatrix} - b \det \begin{pmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{pmatrix} + c \det \begin{pmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j} (-1)^{(1+j)} M_{1j}$$

Properties

Determinants are defined only for square matrices.

If $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$, \mathbf{A} is singular, \mathbf{A}^{-1} does not exist

If $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$, \mathbf{A} is non-singular, \mathbf{A}^{-1} exists

Orthonormal Basis

- Basis: a space is totally defined by a set of vectors – any point is a *linear combination* of the basis
- Ortho-Normal: orthogonal + normal
- Orthogonal: dot product is zero
- Normal: magnitude is one
- **Orthogonal** $AA^T = I, \Rightarrow A^{-1}AA^T = A^{-1}I, \Rightarrow IA^T = A^{-1}I$
- $A^T = A^{-1}$

Orthonormal Basis

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T \quad x \cdot y = 0$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T \quad x \cdot z = 0$$

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \quad y \cdot z = 0$$

X, Y, Z is an orthonormal basis. We can describe any 3D point as a linear combination of these vectors.

How do we express any point as a combination of a new basis **U, V, N**, given **X, Y, Z**?

Orthonormal Basis

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & v_1 & n_1 \\ u_2 & v_2 & n_2 \\ u_3 & v_3 & n_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \cdot u + b \cdot v + c \cdot n \\ a \cdot v + b \cdot v + c \cdot v \\ a \cdot n + b \cdot n + c \cdot n \end{bmatrix}$$

(not an actual formula – just a way of thinking about it)

To change a point from one coordinate system to another, compute the dot product of each coordinate row with each of the basis vectors.

Eigen Value and Vector

- Eigenvalue problem (one of the most important problems in the linear algebra):
 - If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, do there exist nonzero vectors \mathbf{x} in R^n such that $A\mathbf{x}$ is a scalar multiple of \mathbf{x} ?
 - (The term eigenvalue is from the German word *Eigenwert*, meaning “proper value”)
- Eigen Value and Eigen Vector

A : an $n \times n$ matrix

λ : a scalar (could be **zero**)

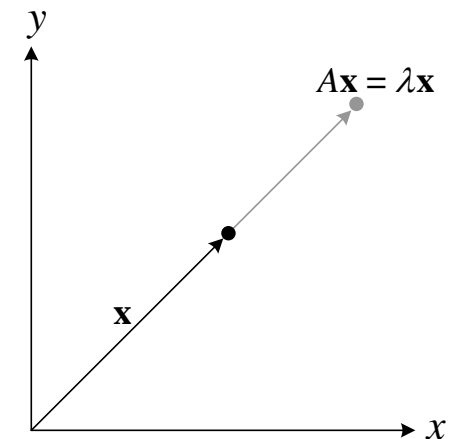
x: a nonzero vector in R^n

Eigenvalue

$A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$

Eigenvector

Geometric Interpretation



Eigen Values

- To find the eigenvalues of: $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$
- Solve the characteristic equation: $\begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 1 \\ 3 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$
- That is: $(\lambda-1)(\lambda-5) = 0$
- Eigenvalues are: $\lambda_1 = 1; \lambda_2 = 5$

Let x be a **Eigen Vector** $\begin{bmatrix} 4-\lambda & 1 \\ 3 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$
for each λ , eigen vector can be computed

$$\lambda = 1, \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$3x_1 + x_2 = 0$ or $x_2 = -3x_1$,
Hence Eigen Vector : $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\lambda = 5, \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 3 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$-x_1 + x_2 = 0$ or $x_2 = x_1$,
Hence Eigen Vector : $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Eigen Value...

- Finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix $A \in M_{n \times n}$
 - ✓ Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix.
 - ✓ An eigenvalue of A is a scalar λ such that $(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
 - ✓ The eigenvectors of A corresponding to λ are the nonzero solutions of $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$
- **Note: following the definition of the eigenvalue problem**
 $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow A\mathbf{x} = \lambda I\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow (\lambda I - A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (homogeneous system)
 $(\lambda I - A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has nonzero solutions for \mathbf{x} iff $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$
- **Characteristic equation of A : $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$**
- **Characteristic polynomial of $A \in M_{n \times n}$:**
$$\det(\lambda I - A) = |(\lambda I - A)| = \lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1\lambda + c_0$$

Eigen Value E.x.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{so } A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & -2 \\ 3 & -4 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= (1 - \lambda)(-4 - \lambda) - (3)(-2) \\ &= \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2 \end{aligned}$$

Set $\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2$ to 0

$$\text{Then } \lambda = (-3 \pm \sqrt{9-8})/2$$

So the two values of λ are -1 and -2.

Eigen Vector E.x.

Once you have the eigenvalues, you can plug them into the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ to find the corresponding sets of eigenvectors \mathbf{x} .

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = -1 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{so} \quad \begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 &= -x_1 \\ 3x_1 - 4x_2 &= -x_2 \end{aligned}$$

(1)	$2x_1 - 2x_2 = 0$
(2)	$3x_1 - 3x_2 = 0$

These equations are not independent. If you multiply (2) by $2/3$, you get (1).

The simplest form of (1) and (2) is $x_1 - x_2 = 0$, or just $x_1 = x_2$.

Eigen Vector E.x...

- Since $x_1 = x_2$, we can represent all eigenvectors for eigenvalue -1 as **multiples of a simple basis vector**: $E = t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, where t is a parameter. So $[1 \ 1]^T$, $[4 \ 4]^T$, $[3000 \ 3000]^T$ are all possible eigenvectors for eigenvalue -1.
- For the second eigenvalue (-2) we get
$$\begin{aligned} x_1 - 2x_2 &= -2x_1 \\ 3x_1 - 4x_2 &= -2x_2 \end{aligned}$$
- $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad 3x_1 - 2x_2 &= 0 \\ (2) \quad 3x_1 - 2x_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

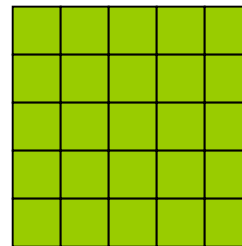
so eigenvectors are of the form $t \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Tensors (A)

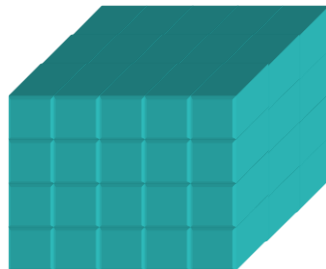
- Generalization of an n-dimensional array.
- Array of number arranged on a regular grid with variable number of axes is called tensor. ($A_{i,j,k}$)
- A multidimensional array.

• **Scalar:** 11  • **Vector : (order-1 tensor)** 10, 11, 12, 32    

• **Matrix : (order-2 tensor)** $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$



• **Tensor:**



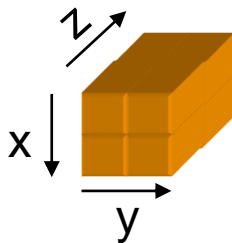
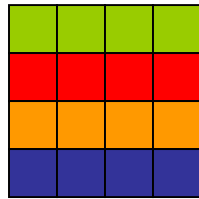
Why tensor?

- Tensors can be used when matrices are not enough.
- A matrix can represent a binary relation.
 - A tensor can represent an n-ary relation
 - E.g. subject–predicate–object data
 - A tensor can represent a set of binary relations
 - Or other matrices

Tensors (A) Reshaping

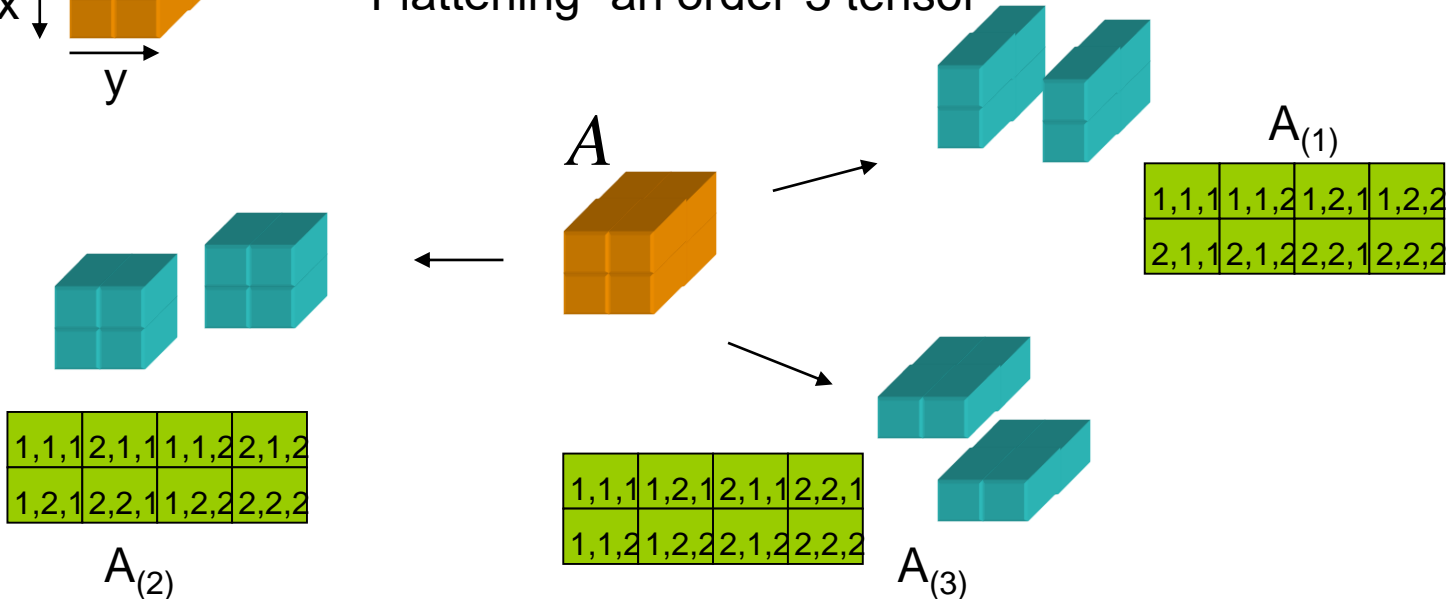
Matrix to vector

“Vectorizing” a matrix



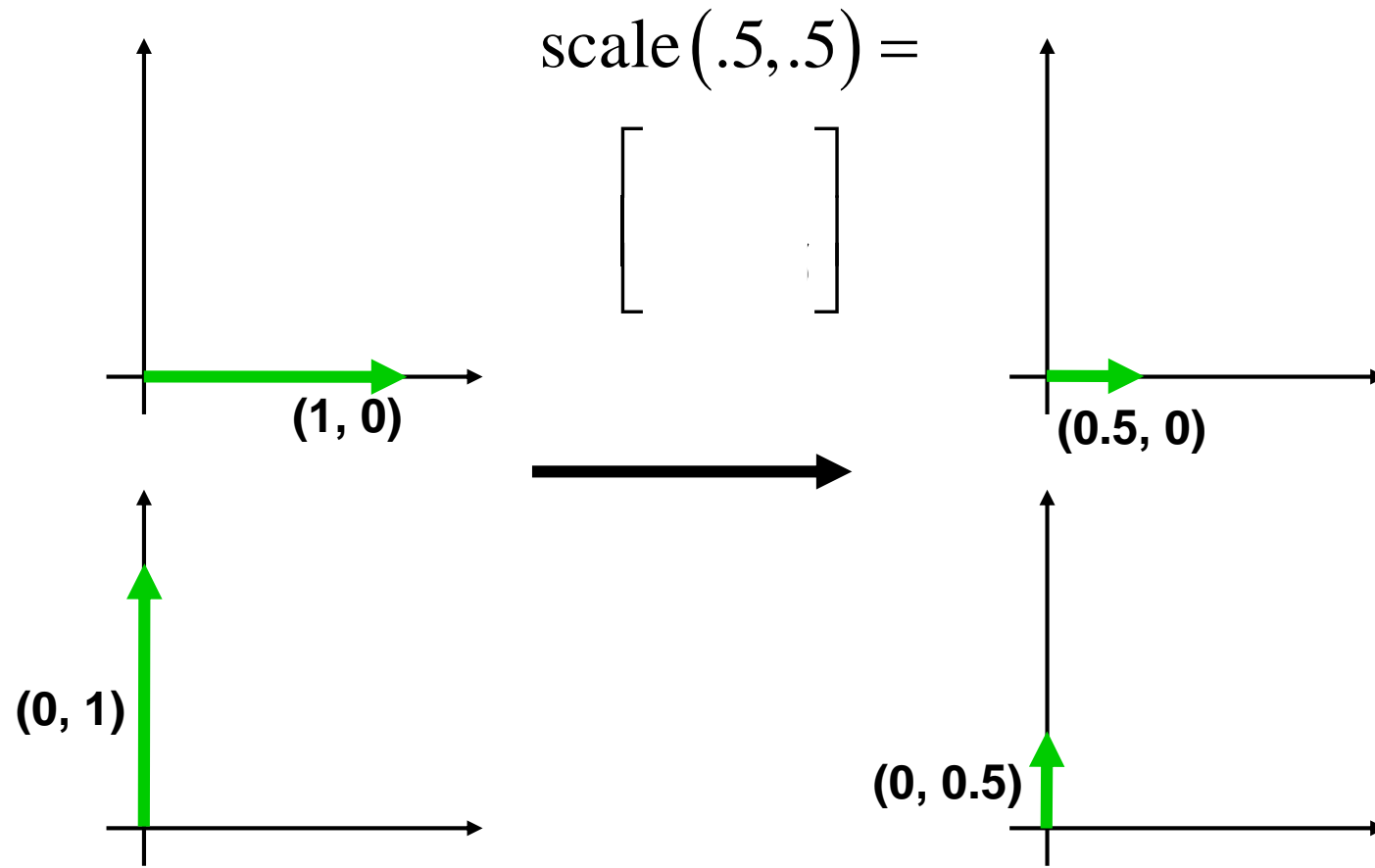
Order-3 tensor to matrix

“Flattening” an order-3 tensor

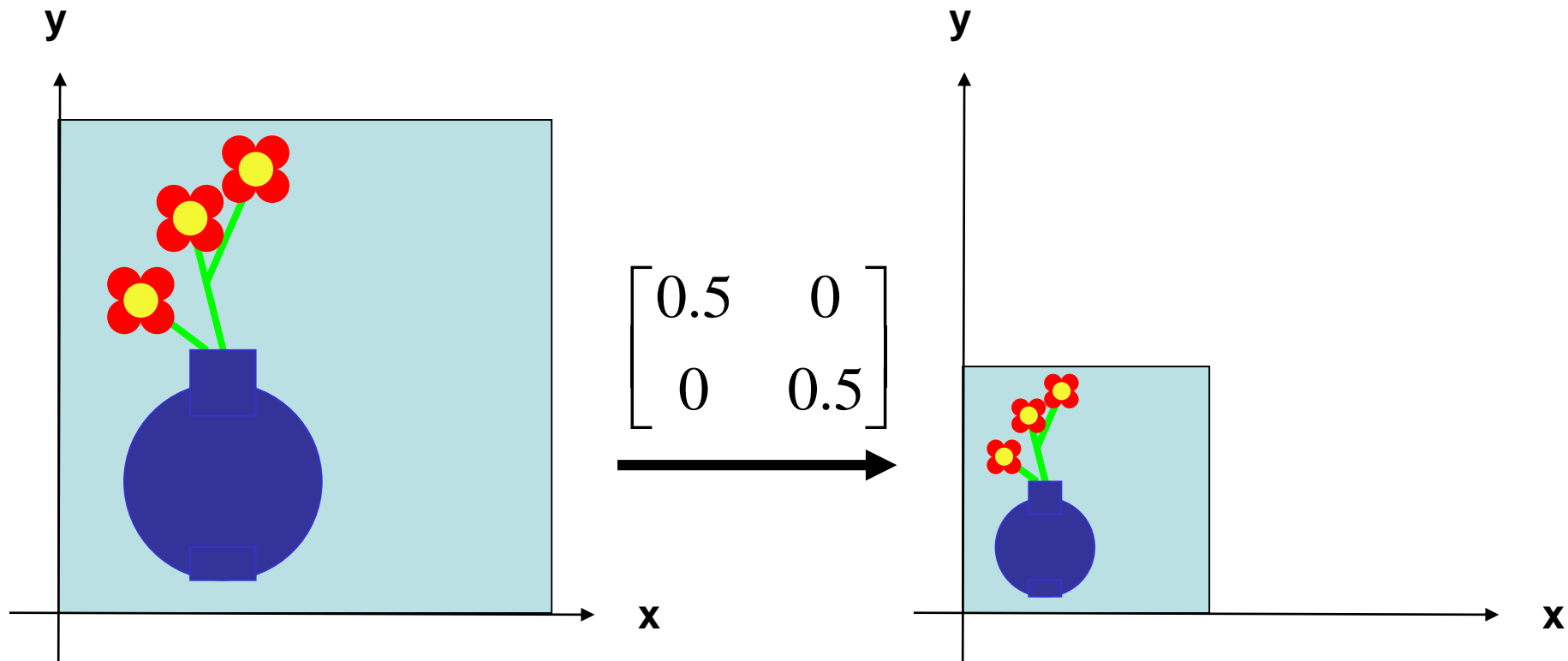


Application of Matrices

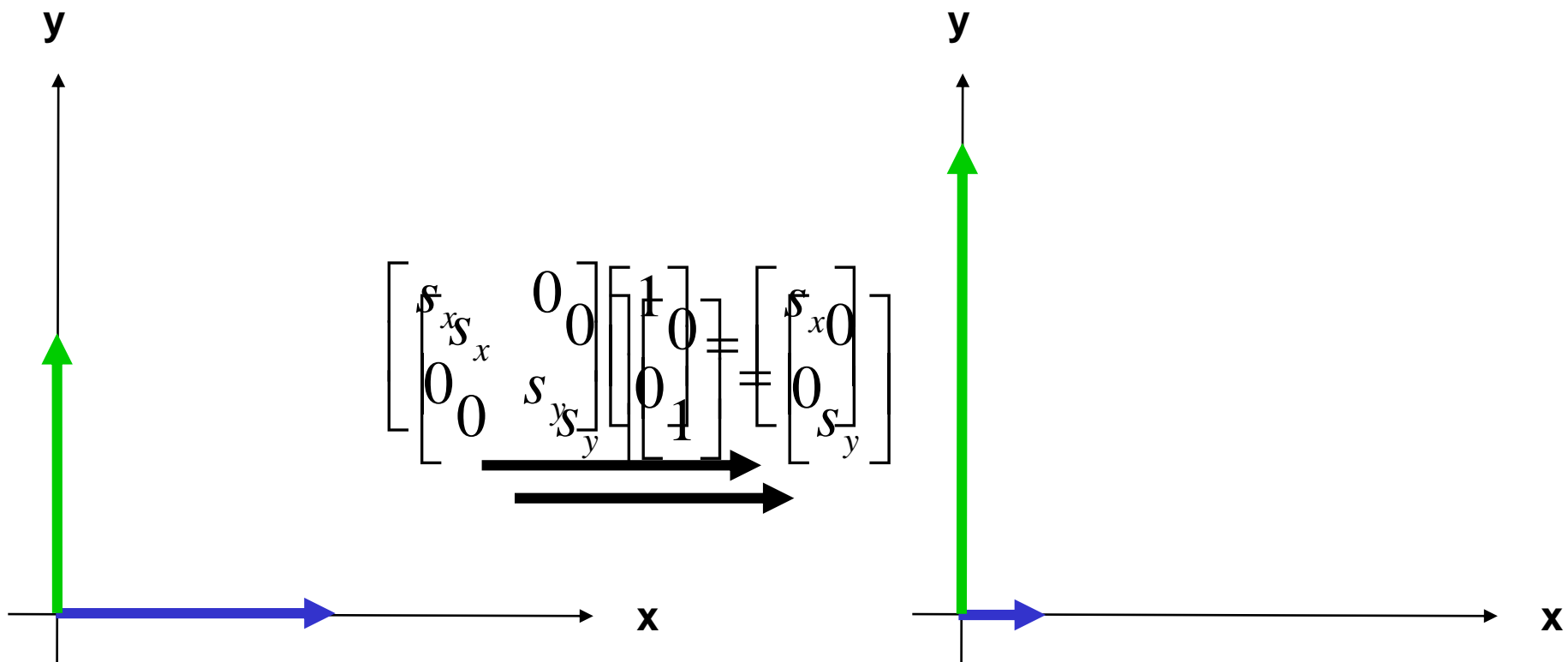
Scaling of a vector by .5



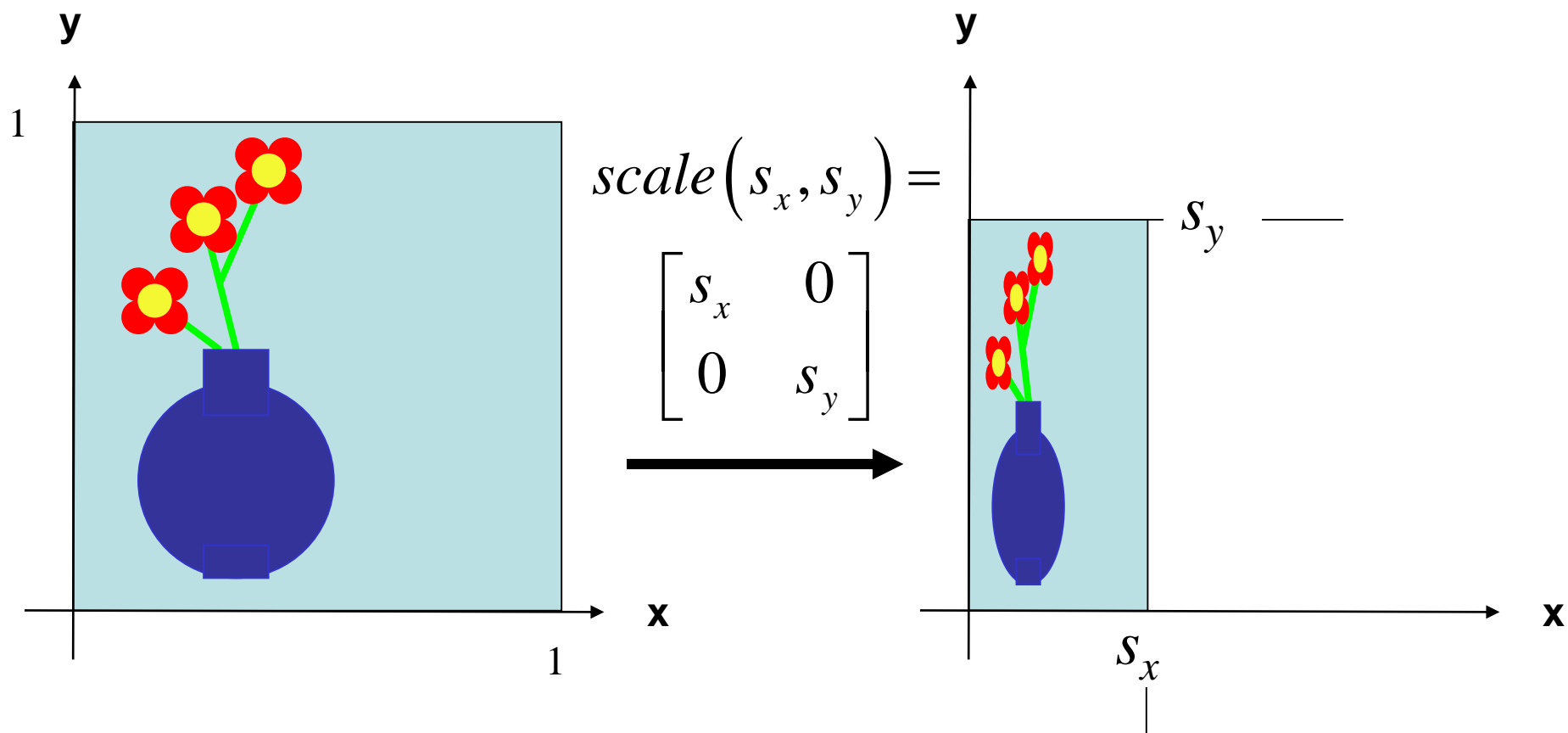
Scaling by .5



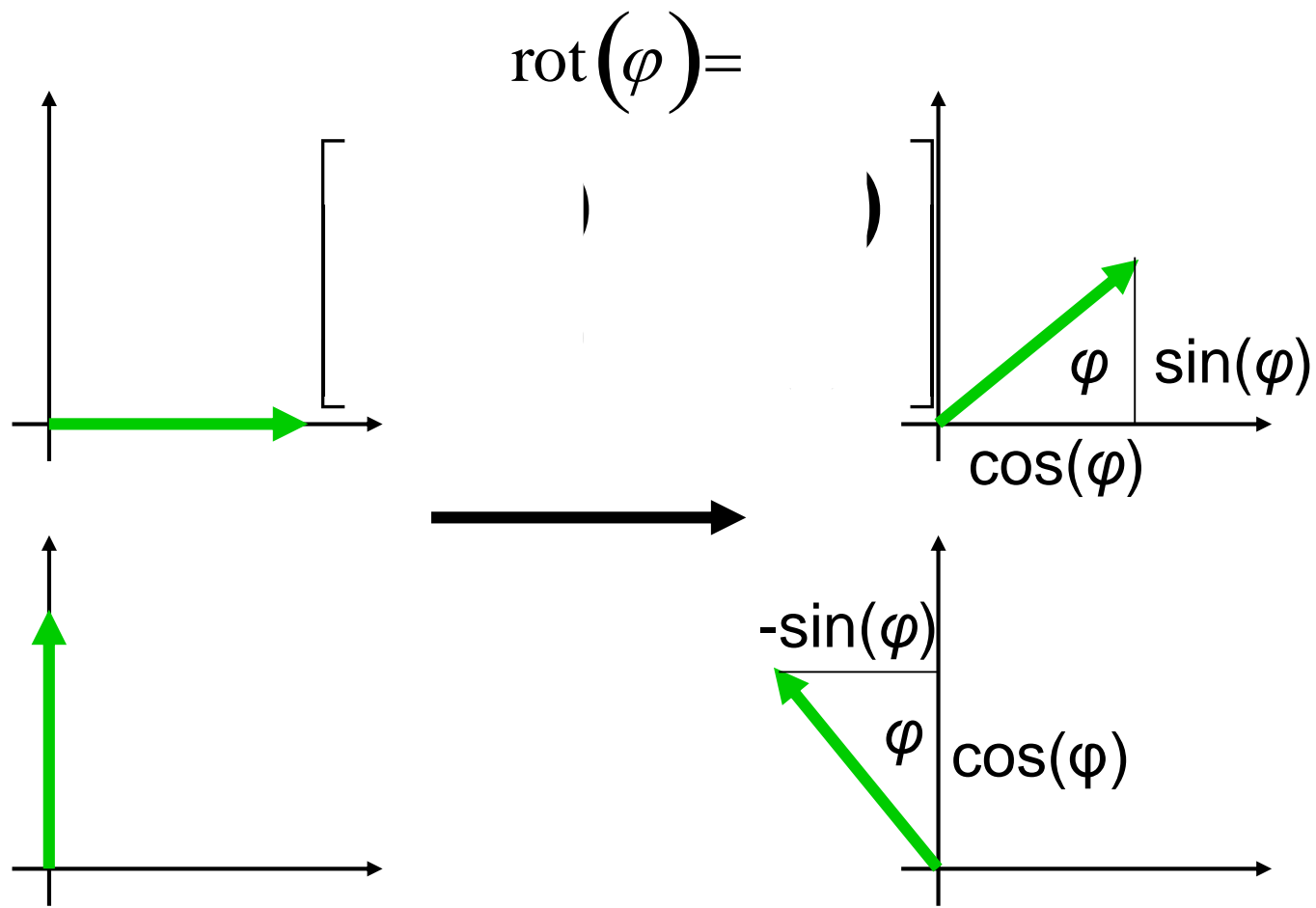
General Scaling



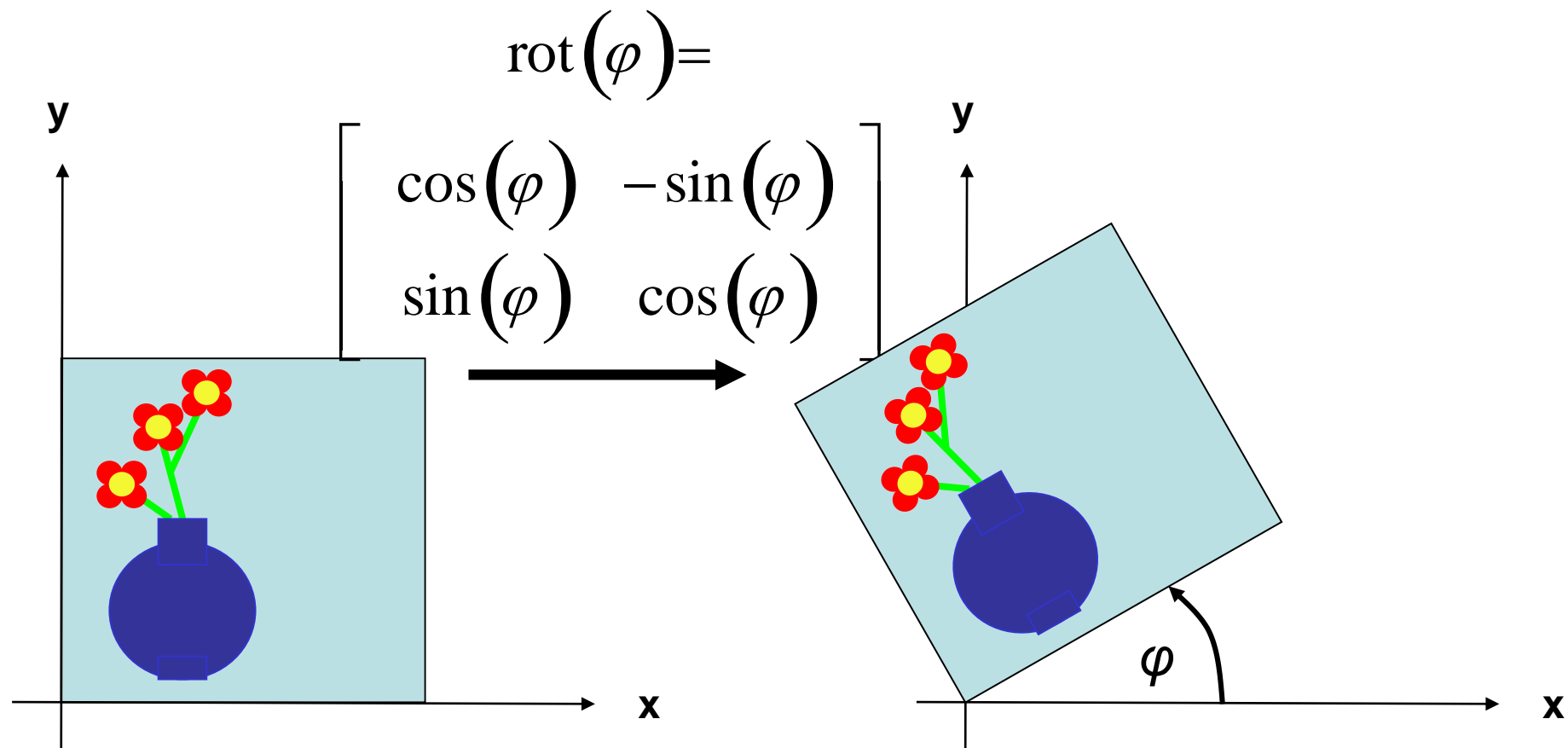
General Scaling



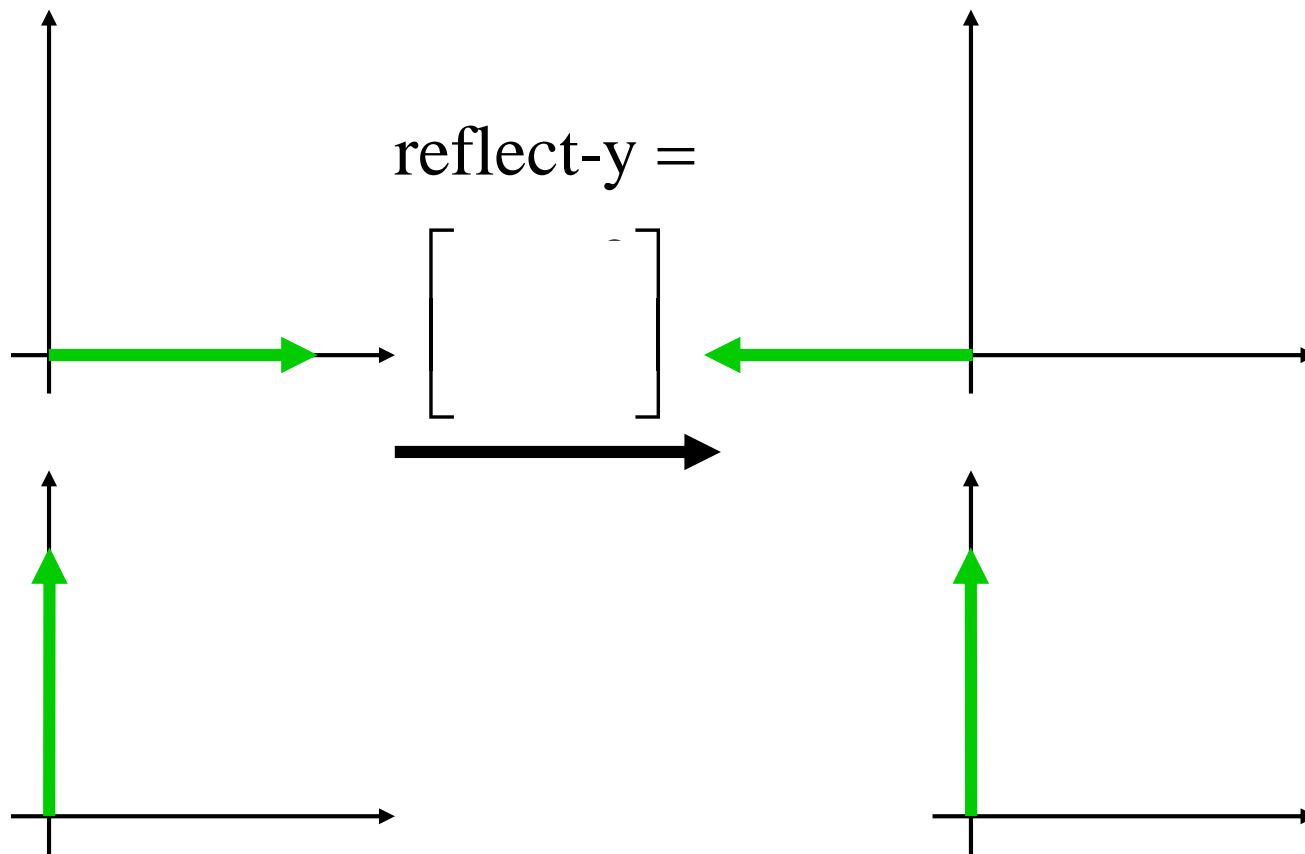
Rotation



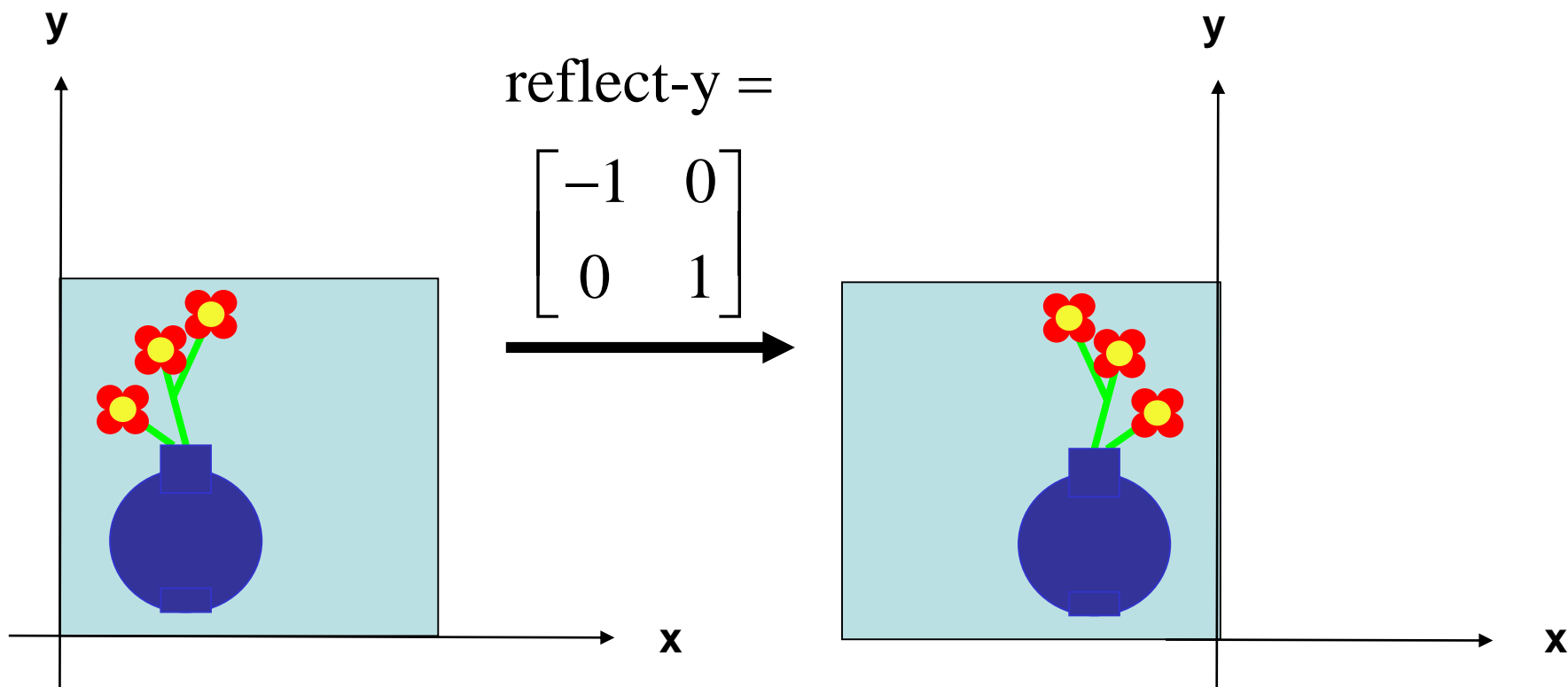
Rotation



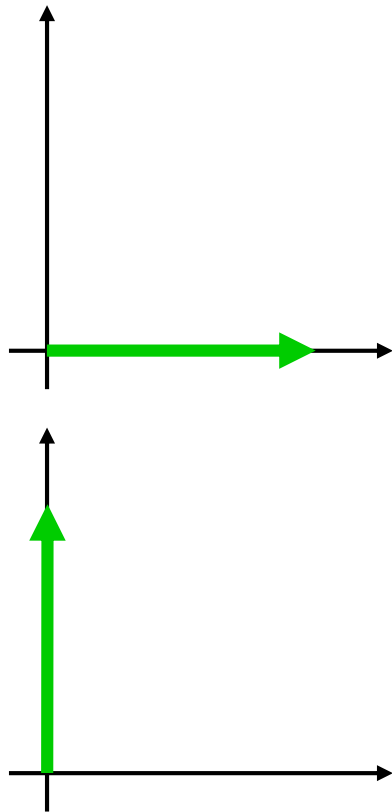
Reflection in y-axis



Reflection in y-axis

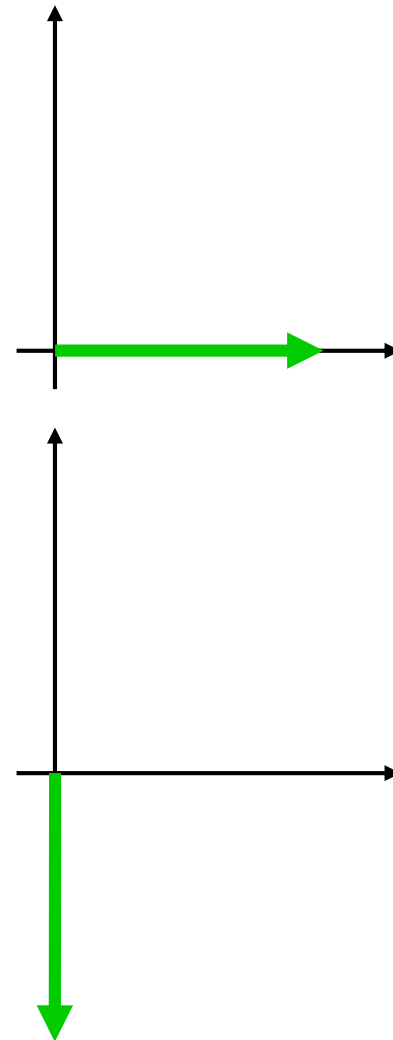


Reflection in x-axis

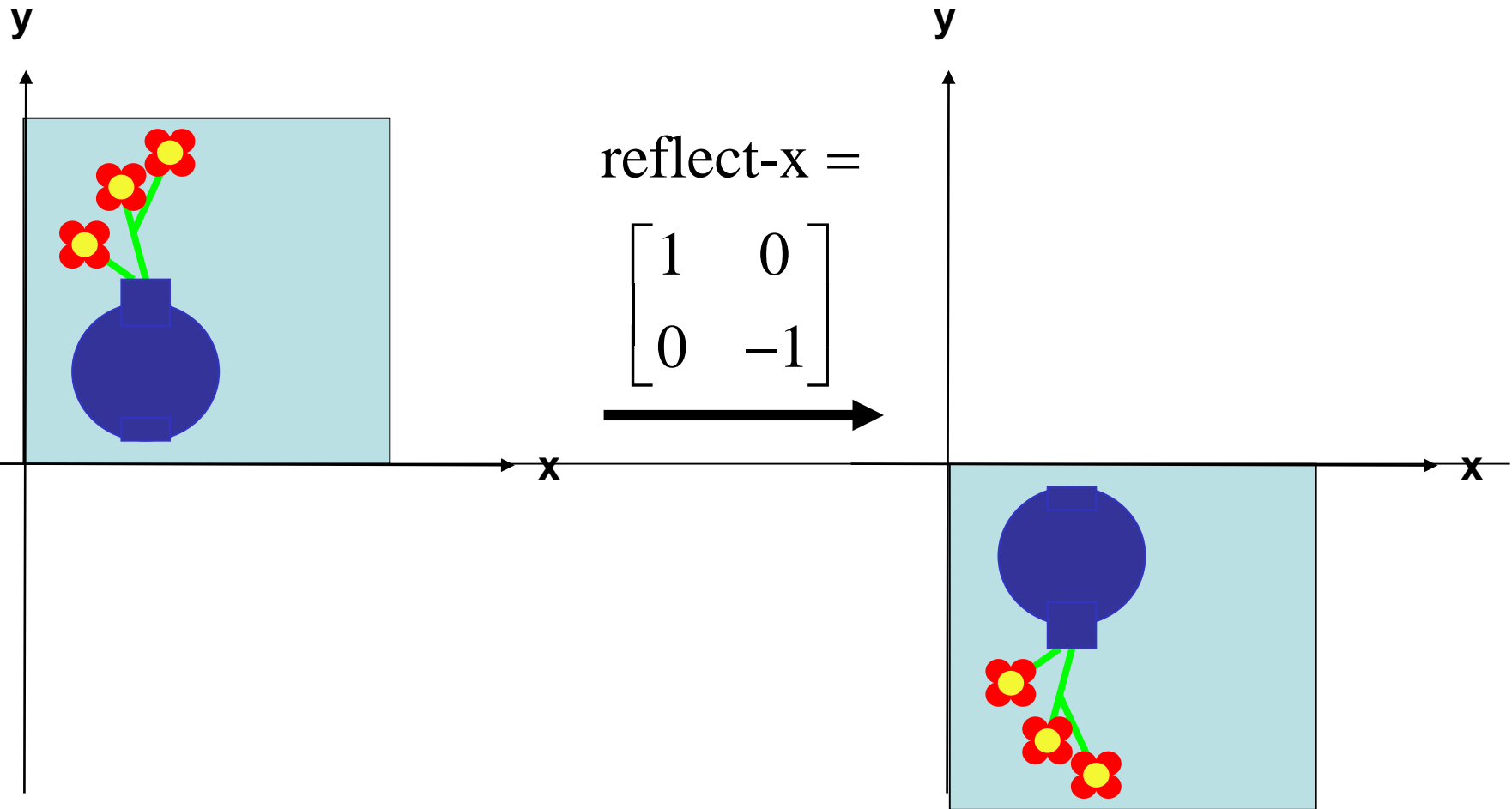


reflect-x =

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



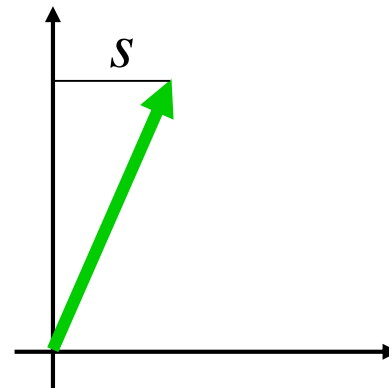
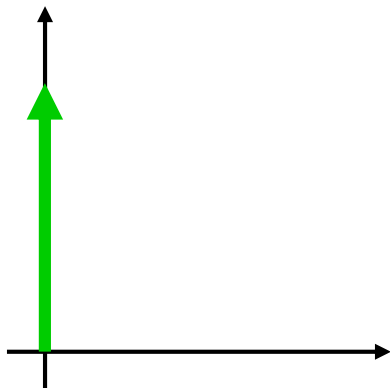
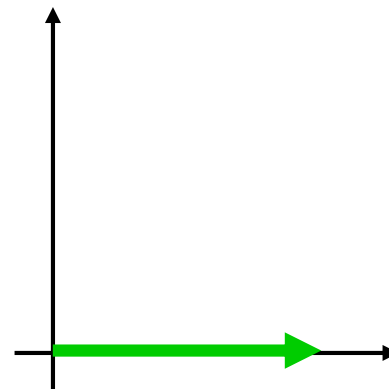
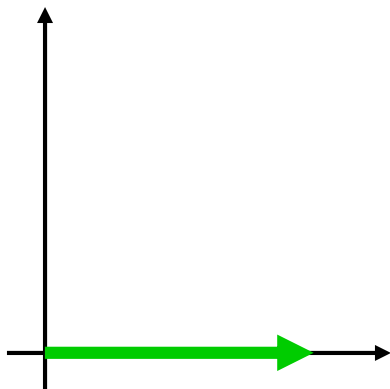
Reflection in x-axis



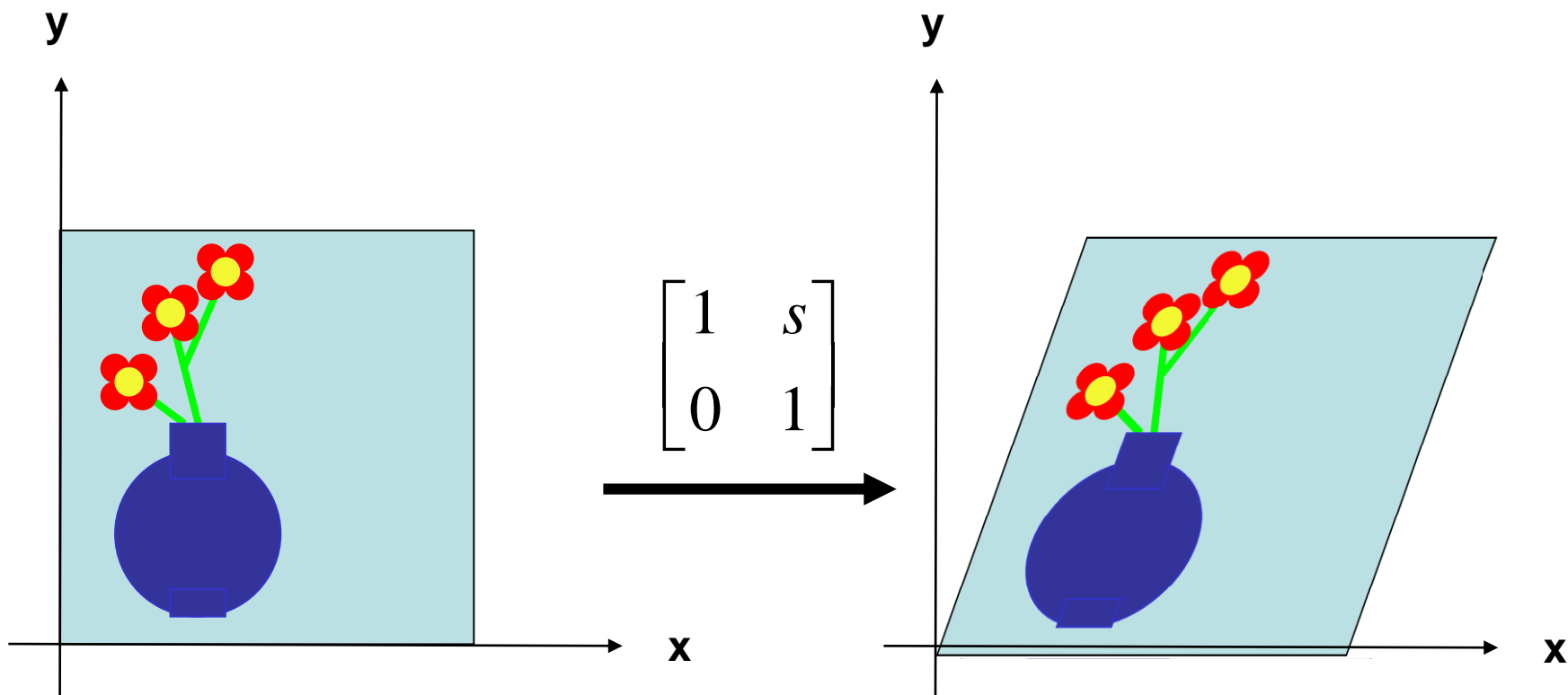
Shear-x

$$\text{shear-x}(s) =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \\ & \end{bmatrix}$$



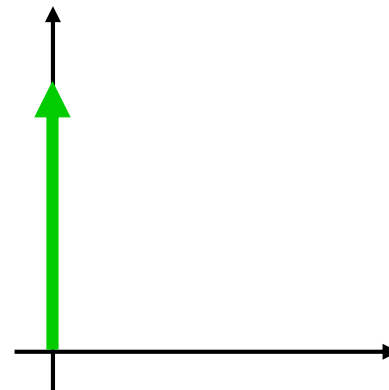
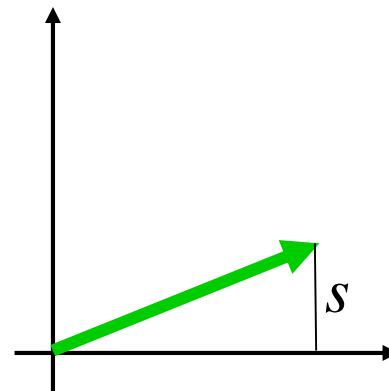
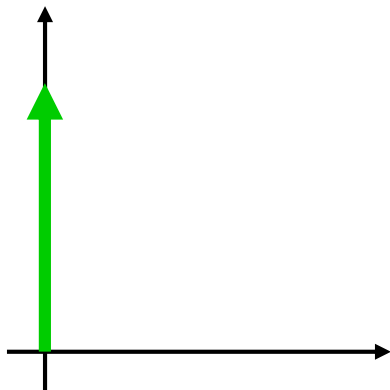
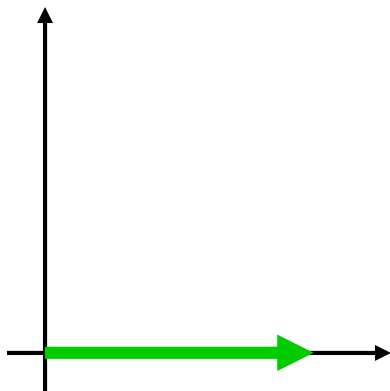
Shear x



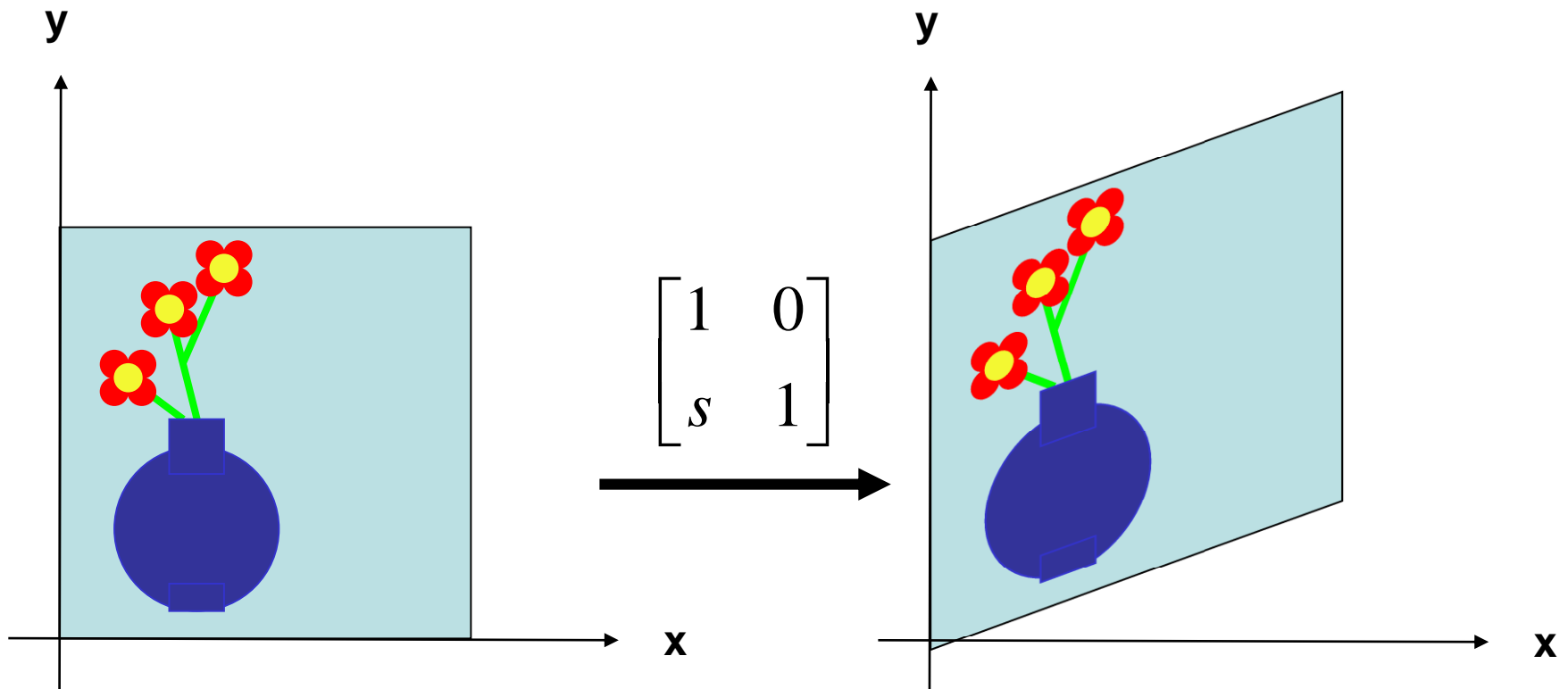
Shear-y

shear-y(s) =

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ s & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Shear y



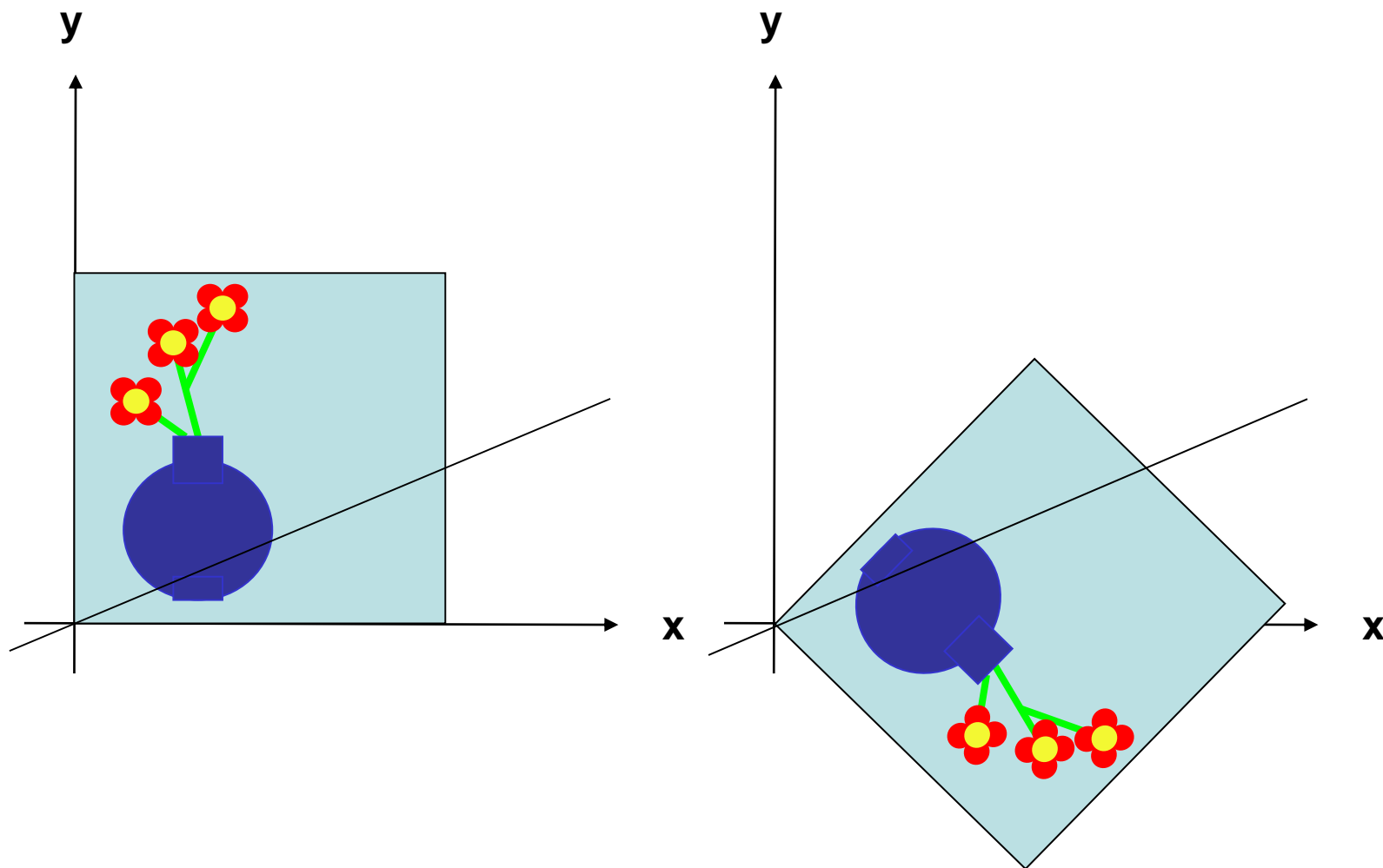
Linear Transformations

- Scale, Reflection, Rotation, and Shear are all linear transformations
- They satisfy: $T(a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{v}) = aT(\mathbf{u}) + bT(\mathbf{v})$
 - \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors
 - a and b are scalars
- If T is a linear transformation
 - $T((0, 0)) = (0, 0)$

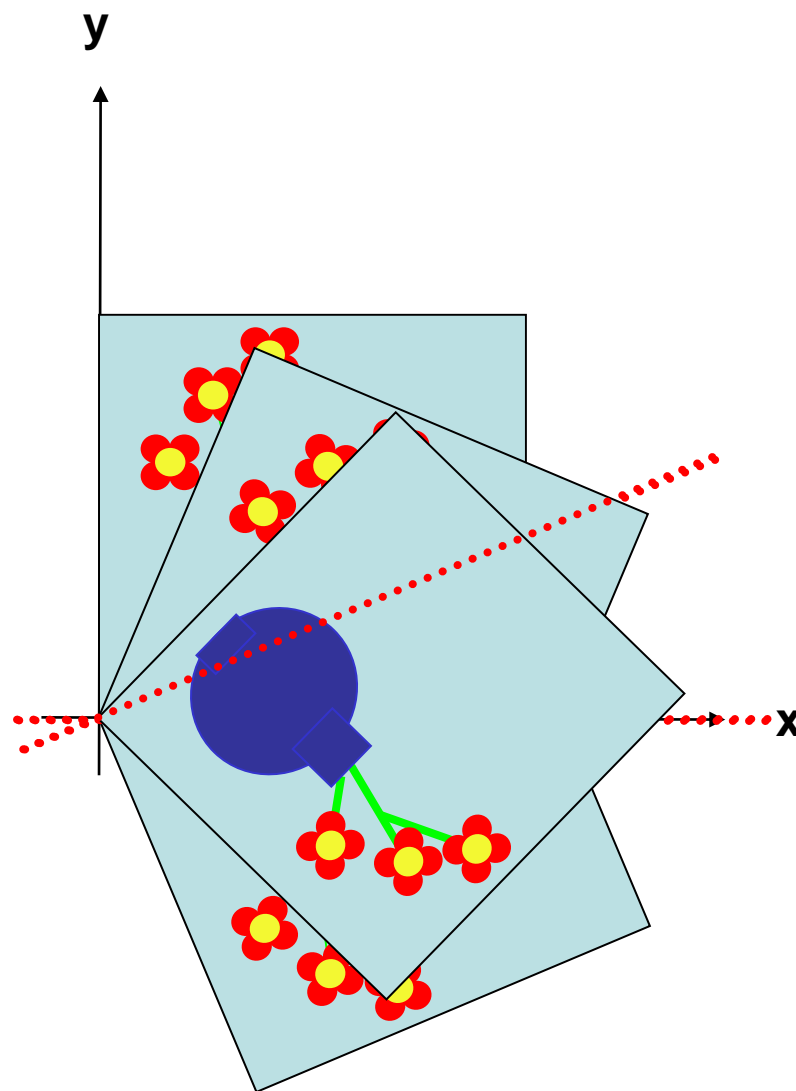
Composing Linear Transformations

- If T_1 and T_2 are transformations
 - $T_2 T_1(\mathbf{v}) =_{\text{def}} T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v}))$
- If T_1 and T_2 are linear and are represented by matrices M_1 and M_2
 - $T_2 T_1$ is represented by $M_2 M_1$
 - $T_2 T_1(\mathbf{v}) = T_2(T_1(\mathbf{v})) = (M_2 M_1)(\mathbf{v})$

Reflection About an Arbitrary Line (through the origin)



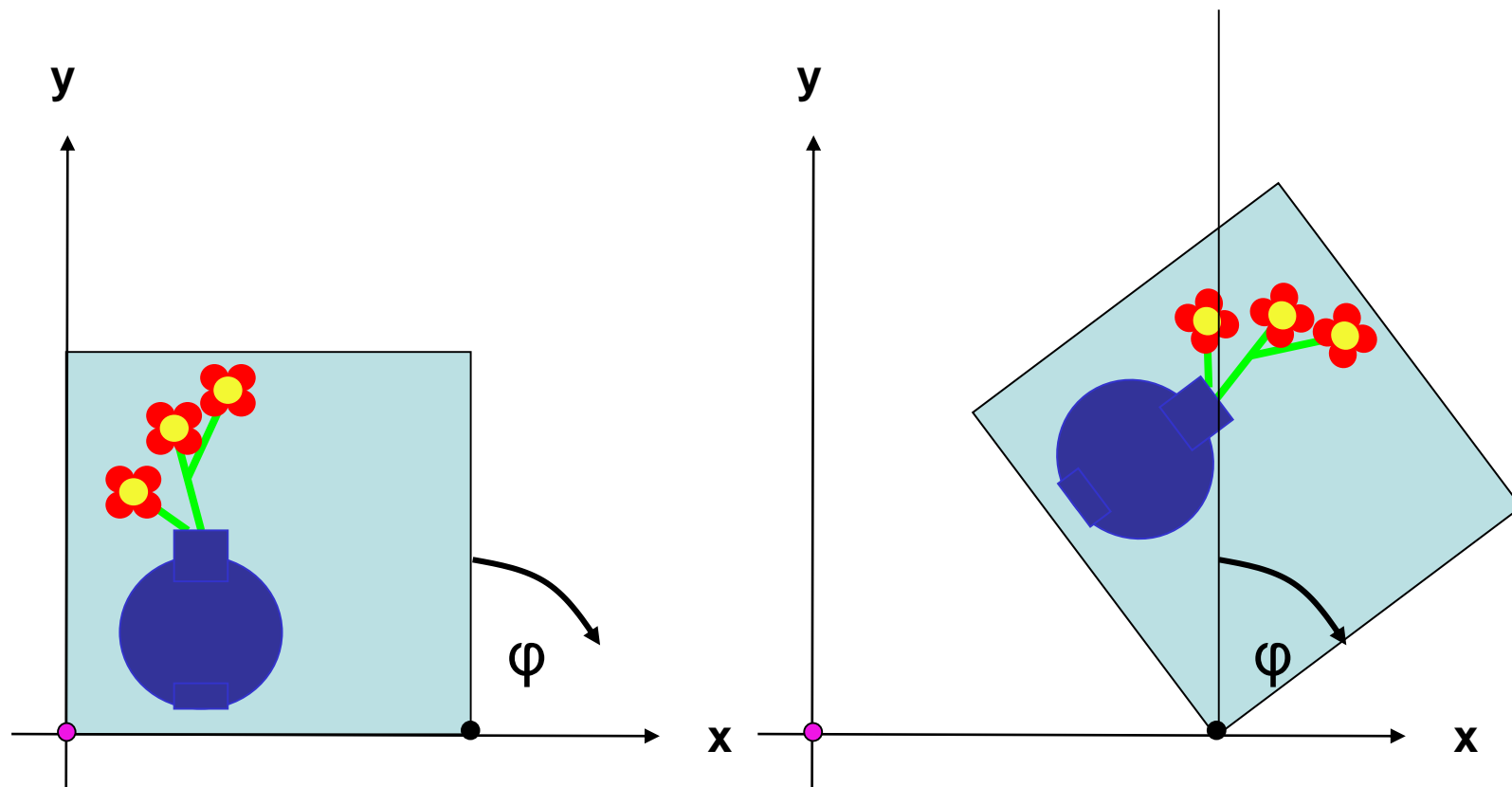
Reflection as a Composition



Decomposing Linear Transformations

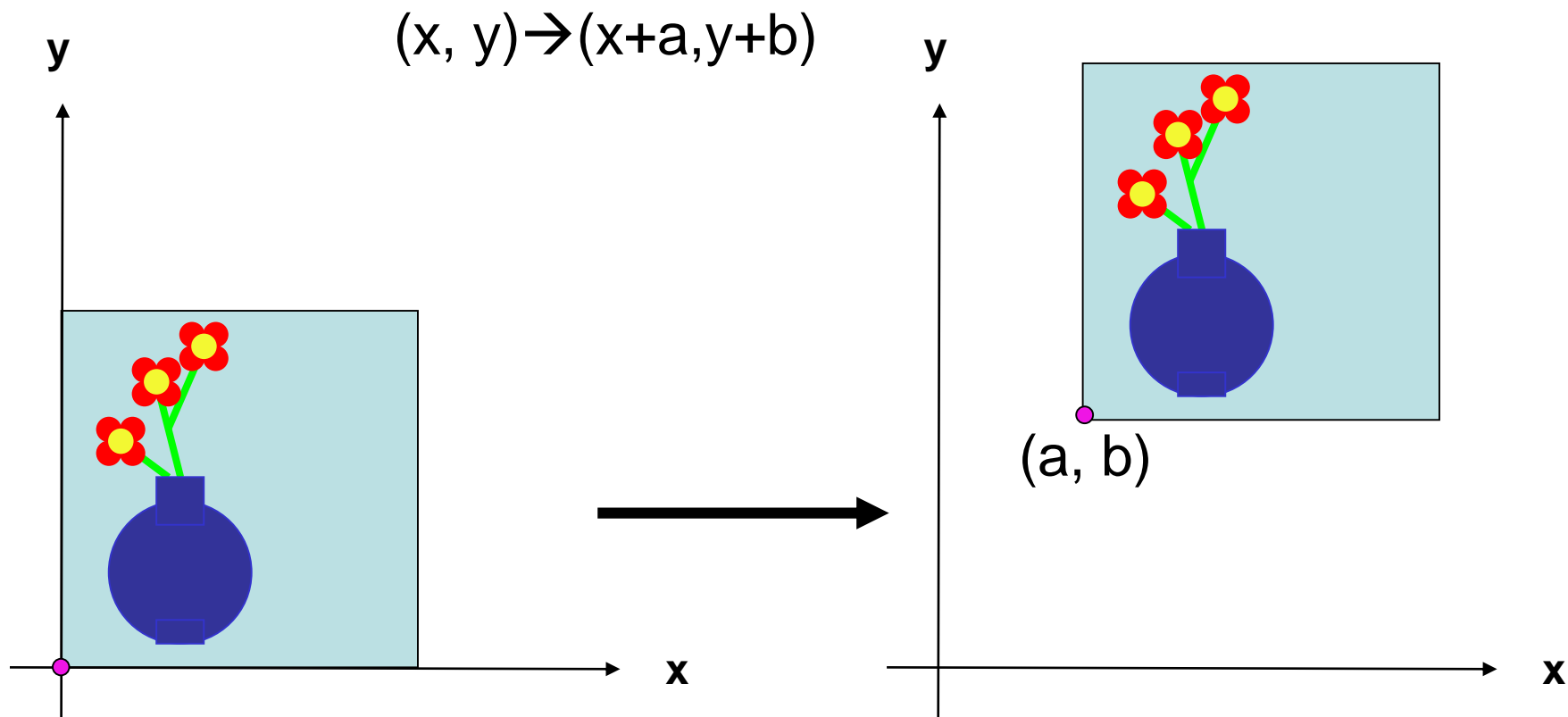
- Any 2D Linear Transformation can be decomposed into the product of a rotation, a scale, and a rotation if the scale can have negative numbers.
- $M = R_1 S R_2$

Rotation about an Arbitrary Point



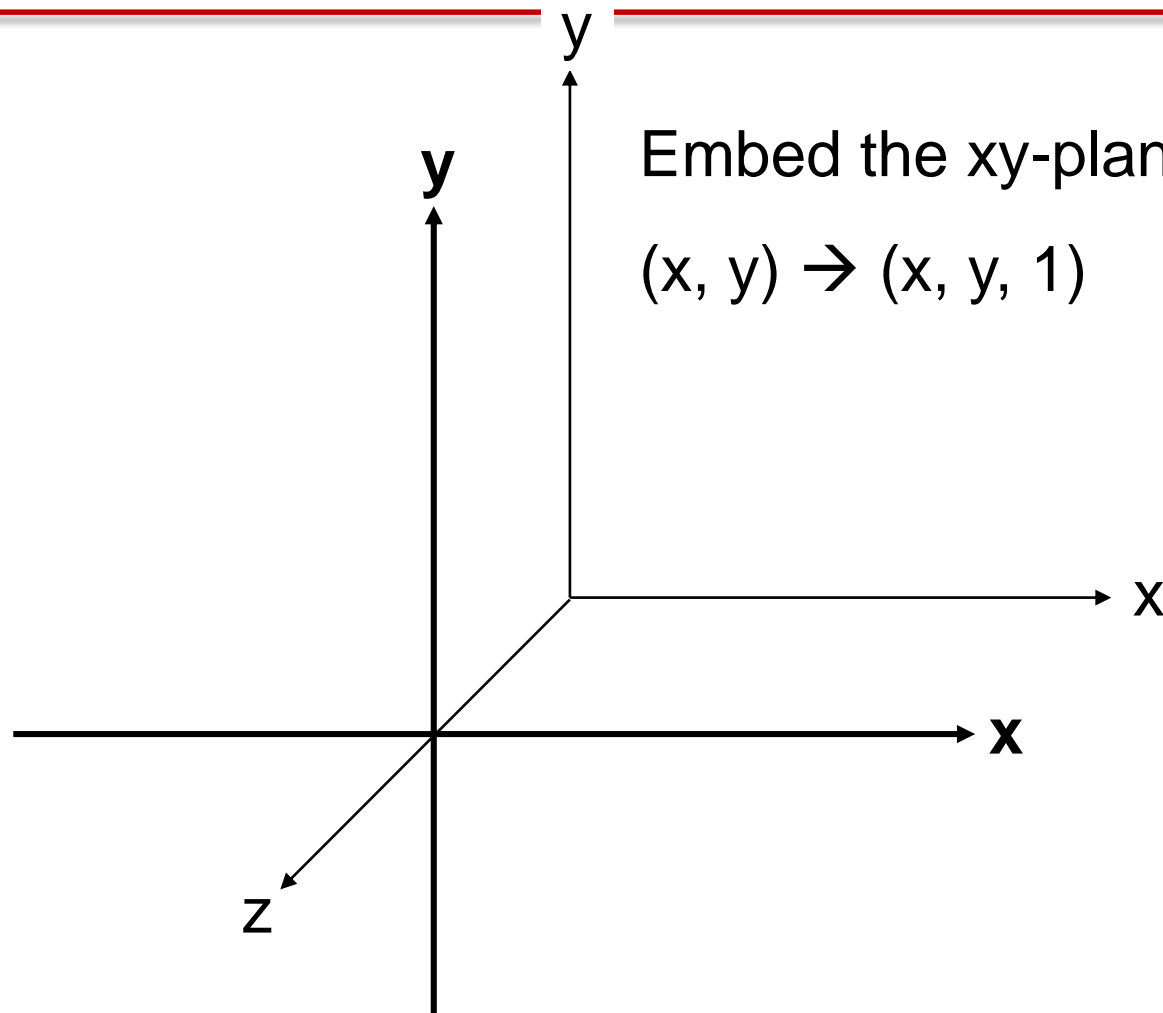
This is not a linear transformation. The origin moves.

Translation



This is not a linear transformation. The origin moves.

Homogeneous Coordinates



2D Linear Transformations as 3D Matrices

Any 2D linear transformation can be represented by a 2x2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x + a_{12}y \\ a_{21}x + a_{22}y \end{bmatrix}$$

or a 3x3 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x + a_{12}y \\ a_{21}x + a_{22}y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

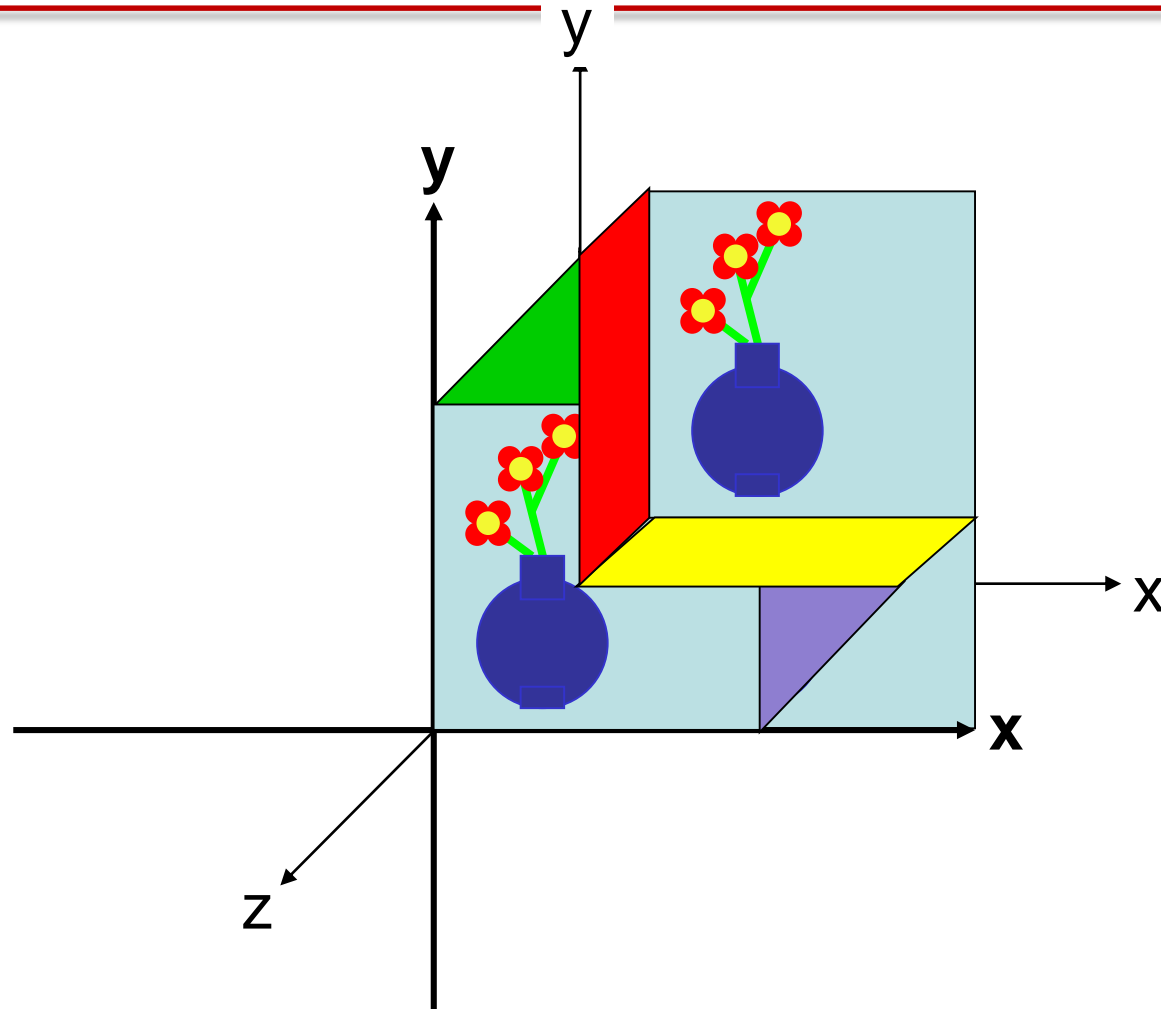
2D Linear Translations as 3D Matrices

Any 2D translation can be represented by a 3x3 matrix.

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

This is a 3D shear that acts as a translation on the plane $z = 1$.

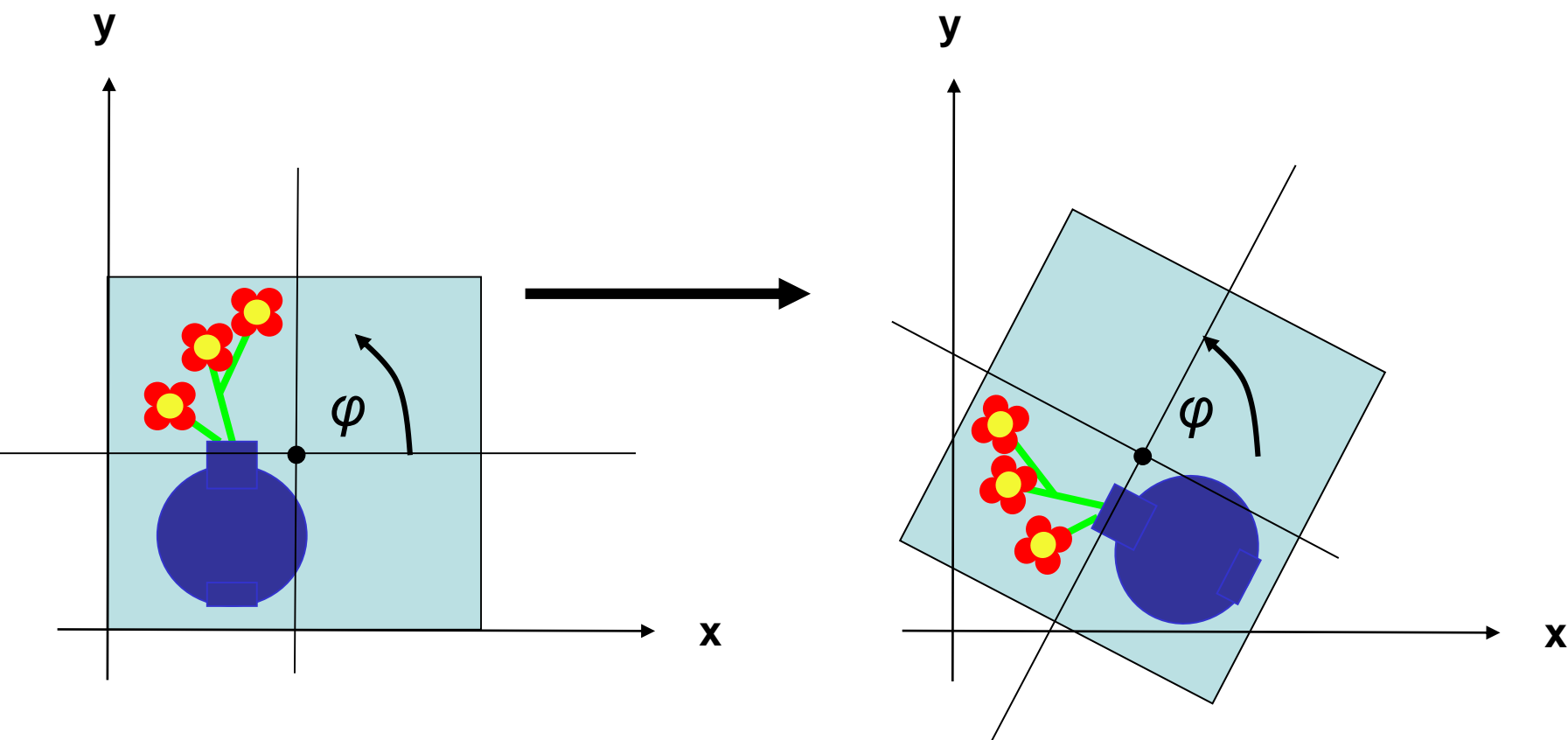
Translation as a Shear



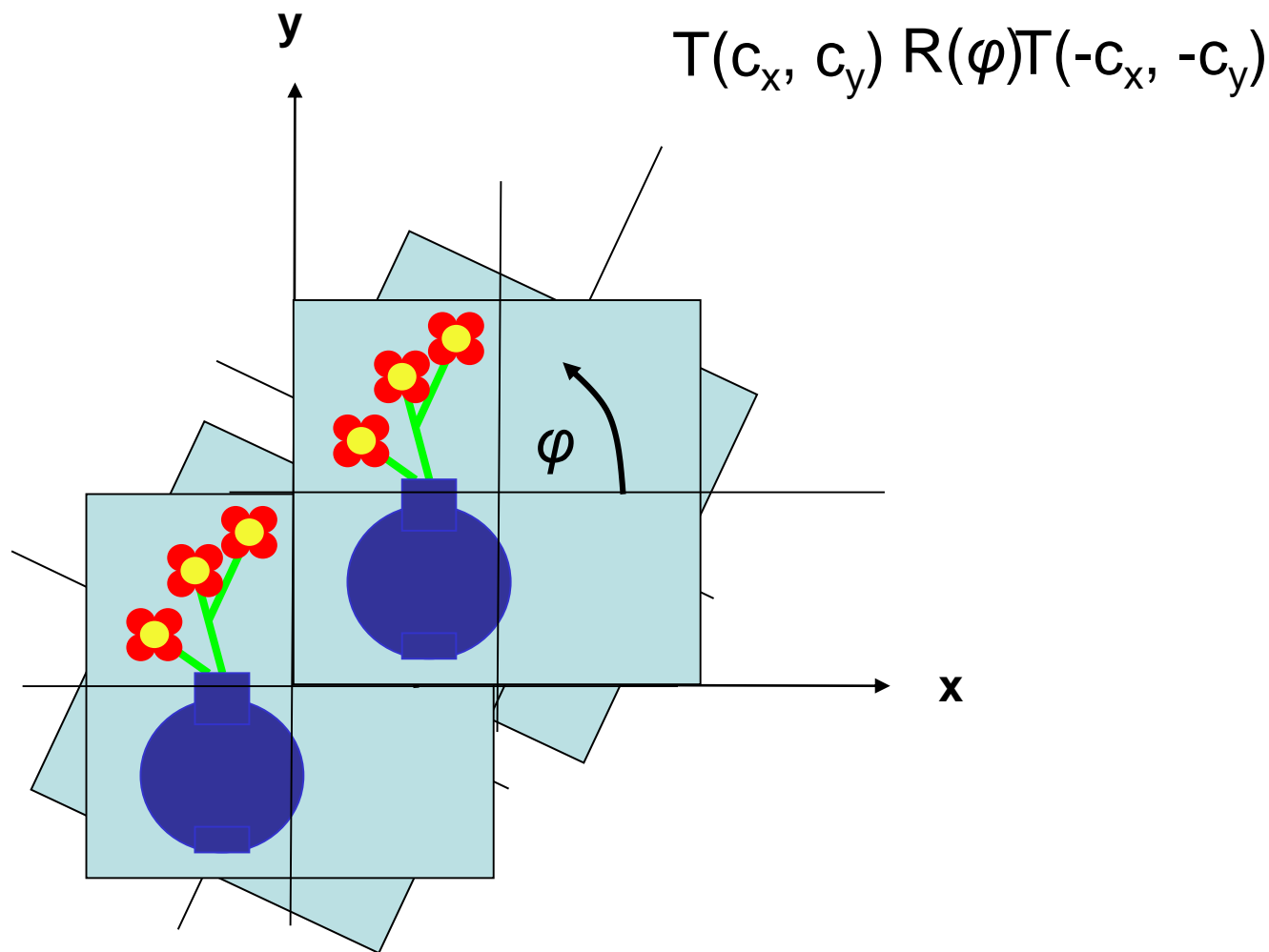
2D Affine Transformations

- An *affine transformation* is any transformation that preserves **co-linearity** (i.e., all points lying on a line initially still lie on a line after transformation) and **ratios of distances** (e.g., the midpoint of a line segment remains the midpoint after transformation).
- With homogeneous coordinates, we can represent all 2D affine transformations as 3D linear transformations.
- We can then use matrix multiplication to transform objects.

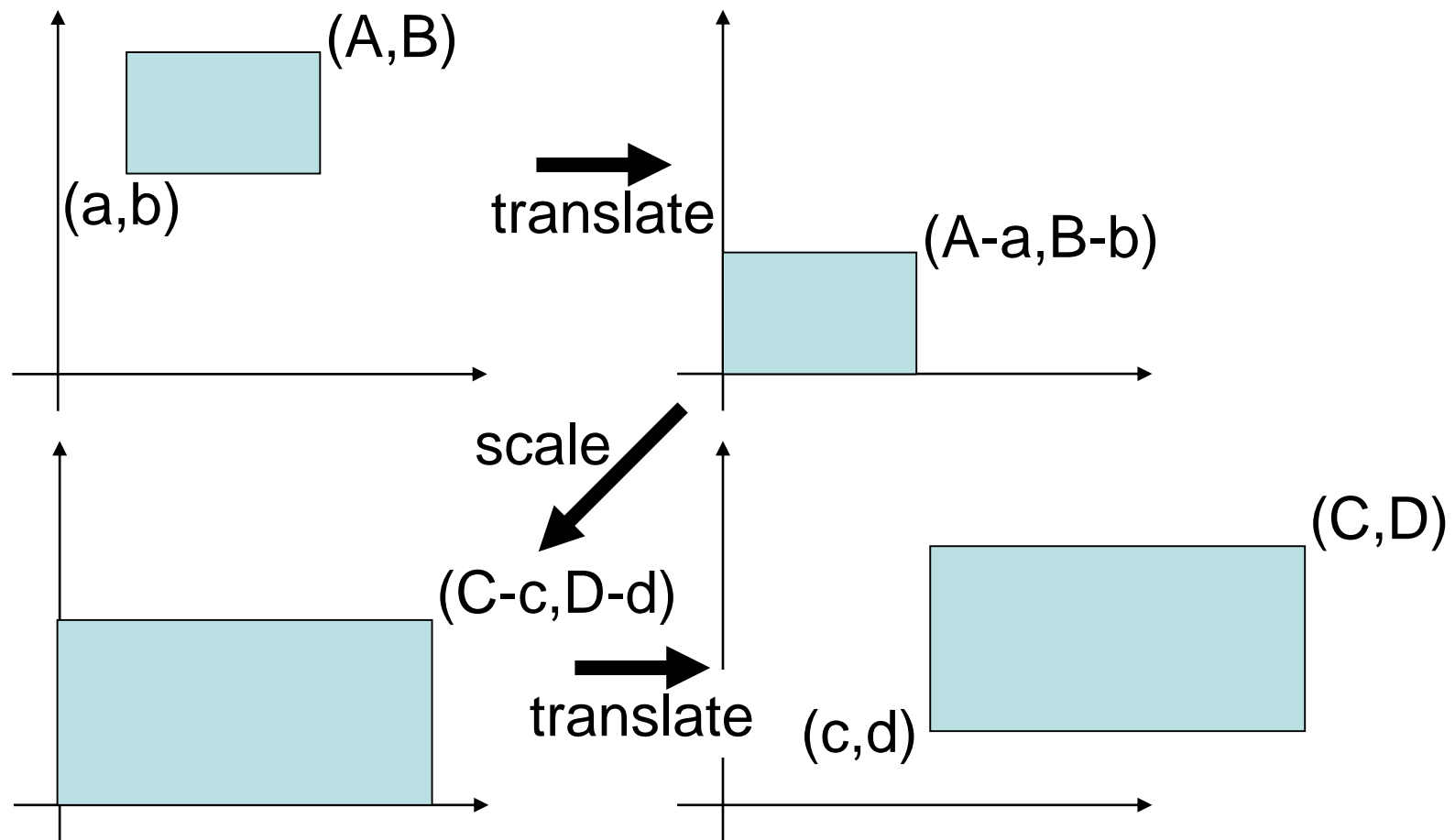
Rotation about an Arbitrary Point



Rotation about an Arbitrary Point



Windowing Transforms



3D Transformations

Remember:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A 3D linear transformation can be represented by a 3x3 matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D Affine Transformations

$$\text{scale}(s_x, s_y, s_z) = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{translate}(t_x, t_y, t_z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

3D Rotations

$$\text{rotate}_x(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rotate}_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & 0 & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{rotate}_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$