

**Lecture 1:**

# **Math (P)Review Part I:**

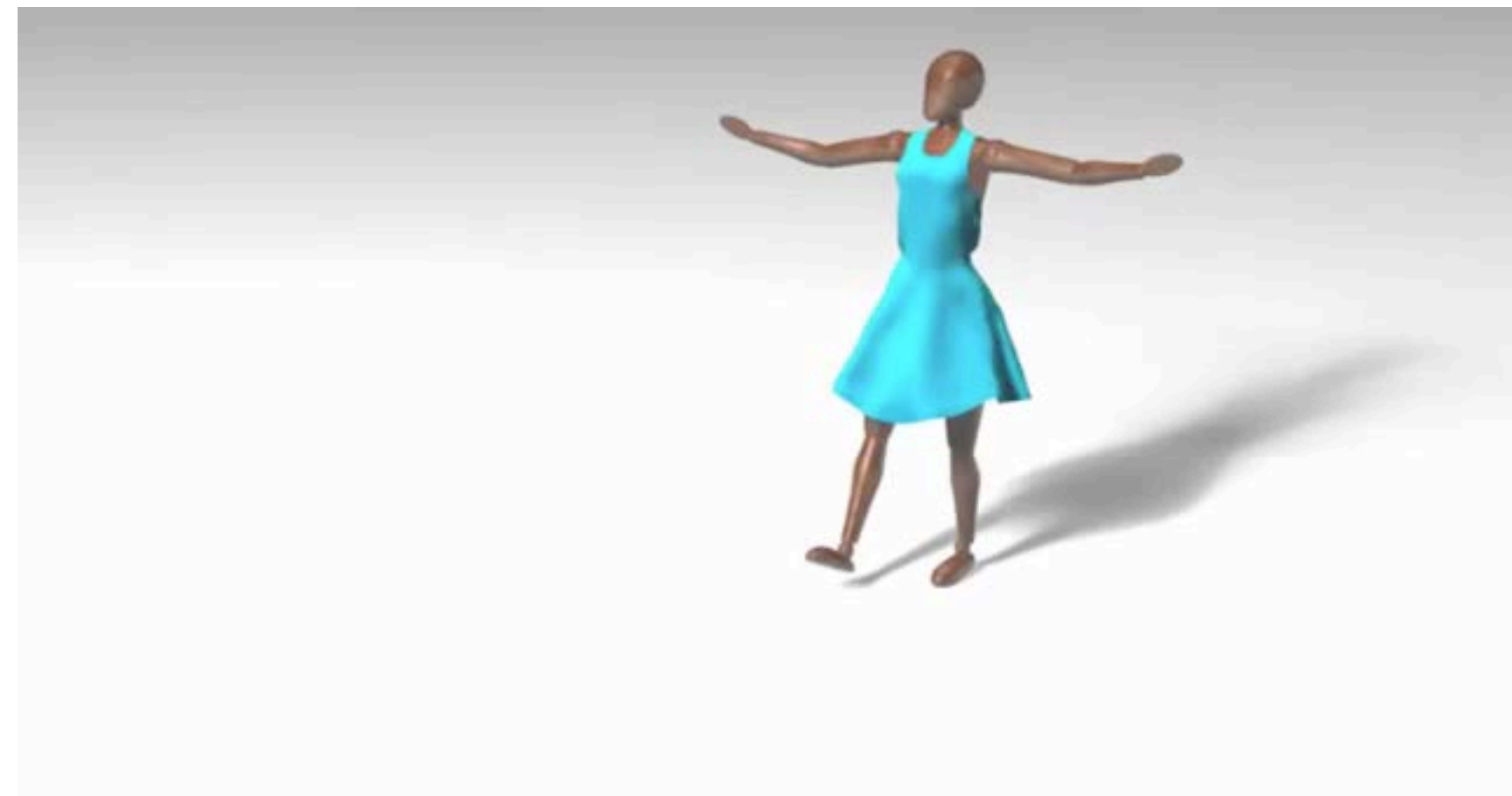
# **Linear Algebra**

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**Computer Graphics**  
**CMU 15-462/15-662**

# Linear Algebra in Computer Graphics

- Today's topic: **linear algebra**.
- Why is linear algebra important for computer graphics?
  - Effective bridge between geometry, physics, etc., and *computation*.
  - In many areas of graphics, once you can express the solution to a problem in terms of linear algebra, you're essentially done: now ask the computer to solve  $Ax=b$ .
  - Fast numerical linear algebra has really made modern computer graphics possible (image processing, physically-based animation, geometry processing...)



# Vector Space—Formal Definition

- Linear algebra is the study of **vector spaces** and **linear maps** between them—here's the formal definition\*:

For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  and scalars  $a, b$ :

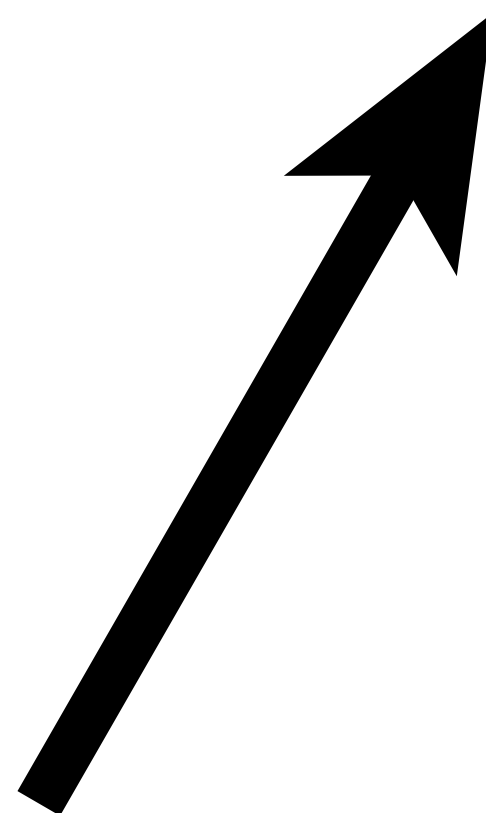
- $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$
- There exists a *zero vector* “ $\mathbf{0}$ ” such that  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
- For every  $\mathbf{v}$  there is a vector “ $-\mathbf{v}$ ” such that  $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$
- $1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
- $a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$
- $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$
- $(a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}$

- *Where do these rules come from?*
- In mathematics (and in life) you should never simply accept a set of rules handed to you by an authority...
- Let's try to understand where these “rules” come from.

**\*this will NOT be on the test!**

# Vectors - Intuition

- First things first: what is a **vector**?
- Intuitively, a vector is a little arrow:

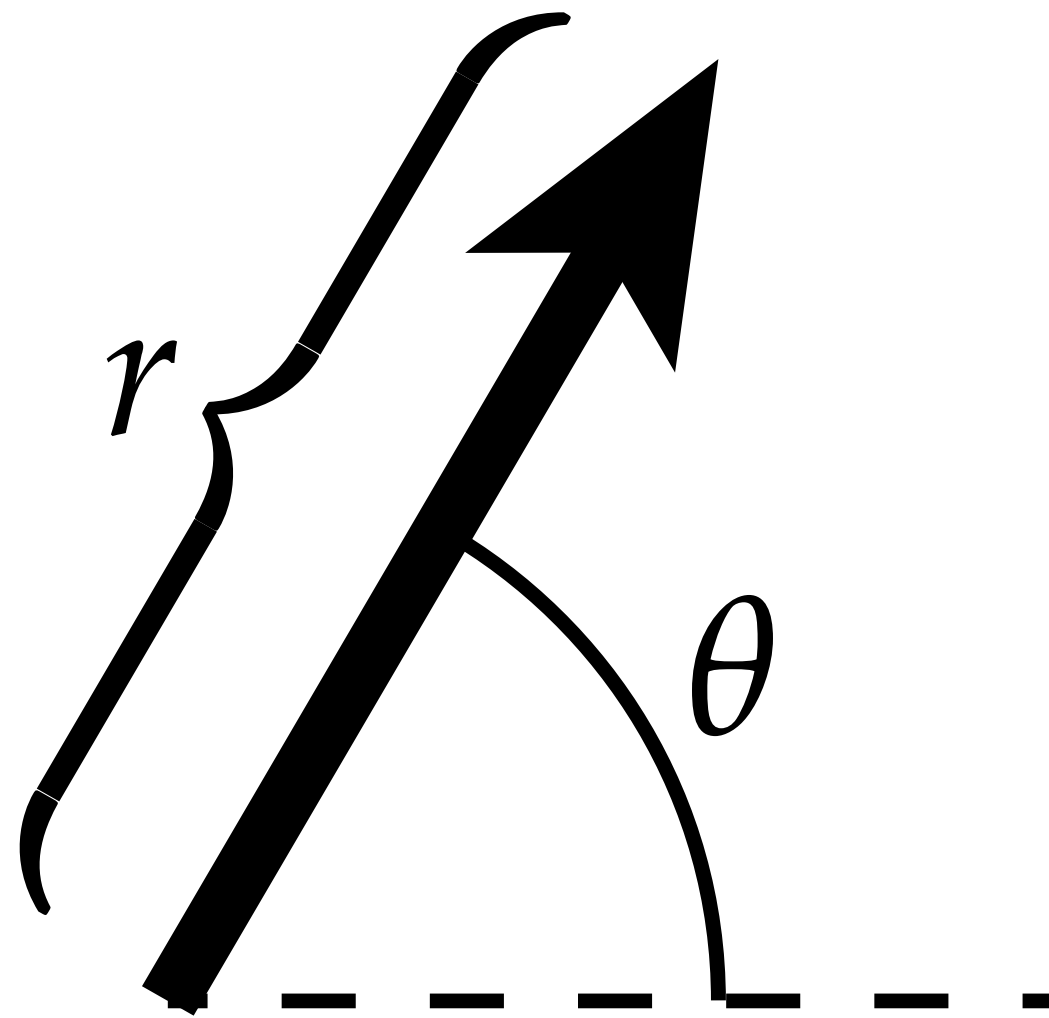


**A vector.**

- In computer graphics, we work with many types of data that may not look like little arrows (polynomials, images, radiance...). But they still *behave* like vectors. So, this little arrow is still often a useful mental model.

# Vectors - What Can We Measure?

- What information does a vector encode?
- Fundamentally, just **direction** and **magnitude\***:



- For instance, a vector in 2D can be encoded by a length and an angle relative to some fixed direction (“polar coordinates”).
- (Side note: are these values the same in any coordinate system?)
- How else might we encode a vector?

*\*Traditionally, a vector does not include a “basepoint”; a vector with a basepoint is sometimes called a **tangent vector**.*

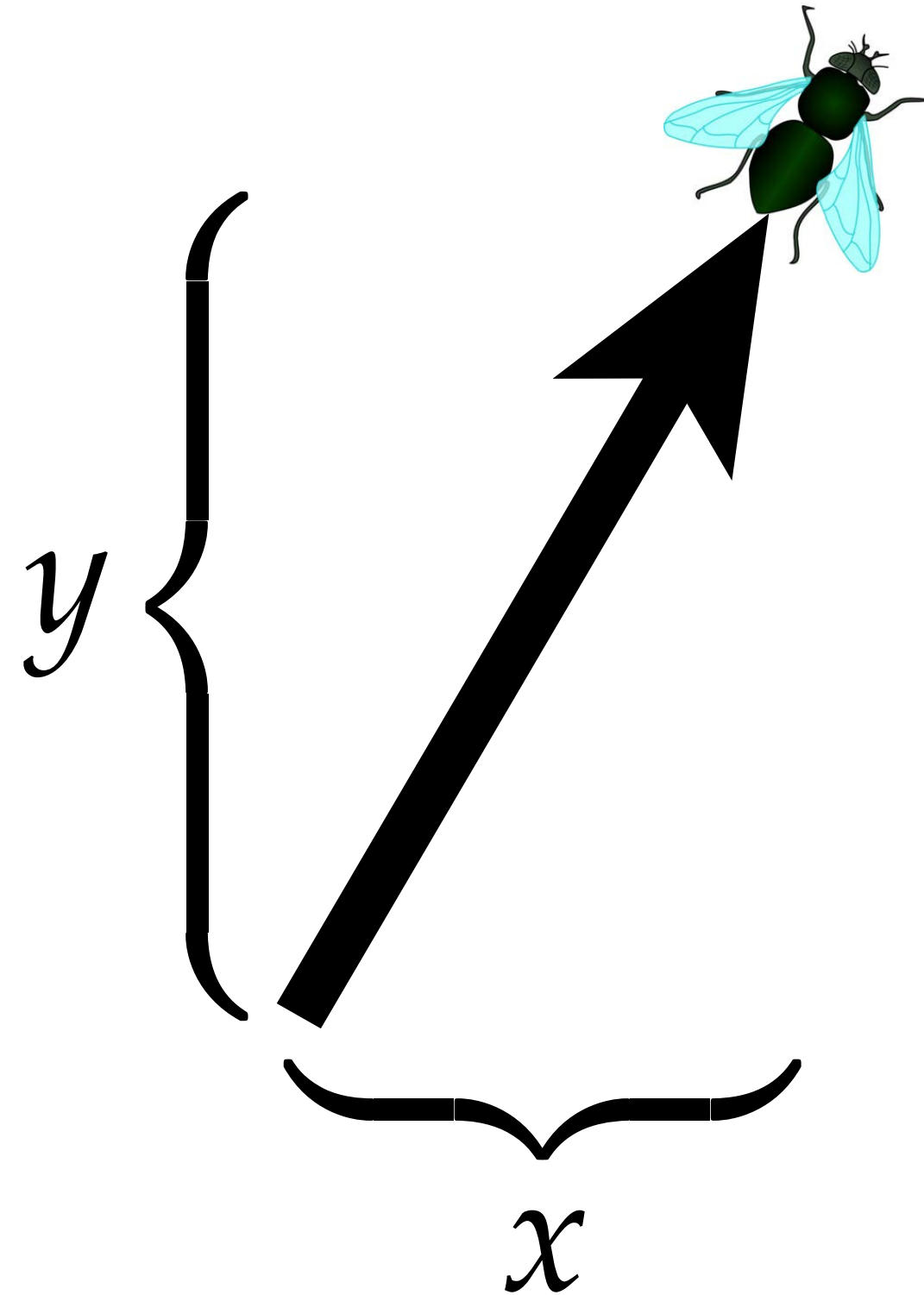


# Vector in Cartesian Coordinates

- Can also measure components of a vector with respect to some chosen *coordinate system*:



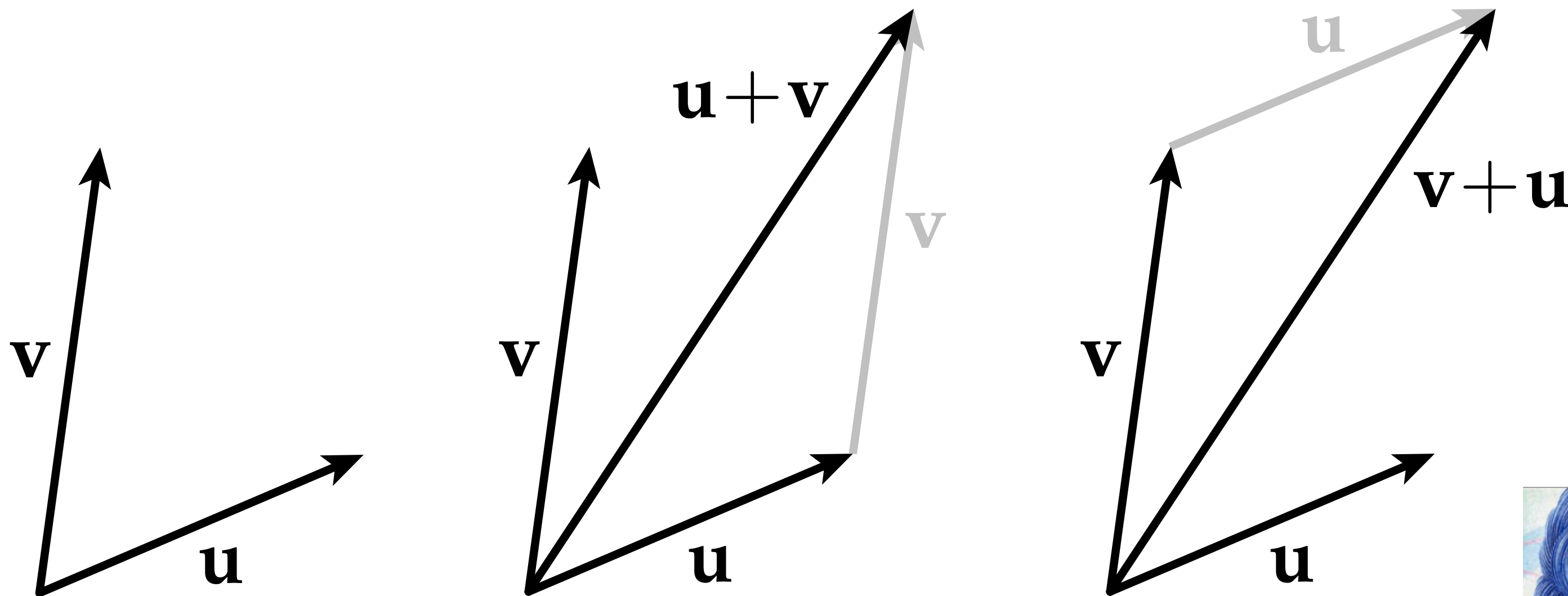
René Descartes, Est. 1596



- **WARNING:** Can't directly compare coordinates in different systems! (Also shouldn't compare  $(r, \theta)$  to  $(x, y)$ .)

# What Can We Do with a Vector?

- Two basic operations. First, we can add them “end to end”:



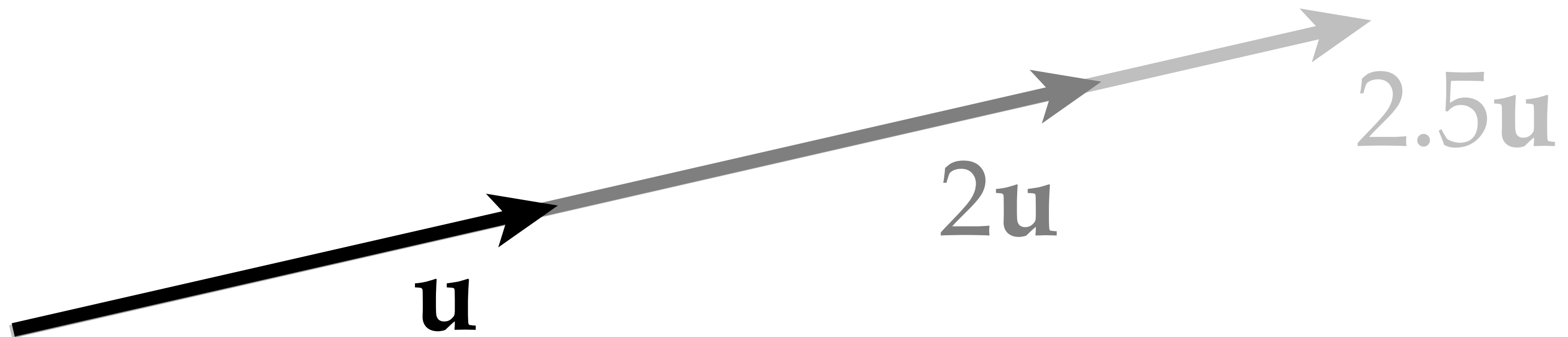
- What if we walk along  $v$  first, then  $u$ ?
- Actually, it doesn't seem to matter:  $u + v = v + u$
- Language: vector addition is “commutative” or “abelian”



Niels Henrik Abel

# What Else Can We Do with a Vector?

- Other basic operation? Scaling:



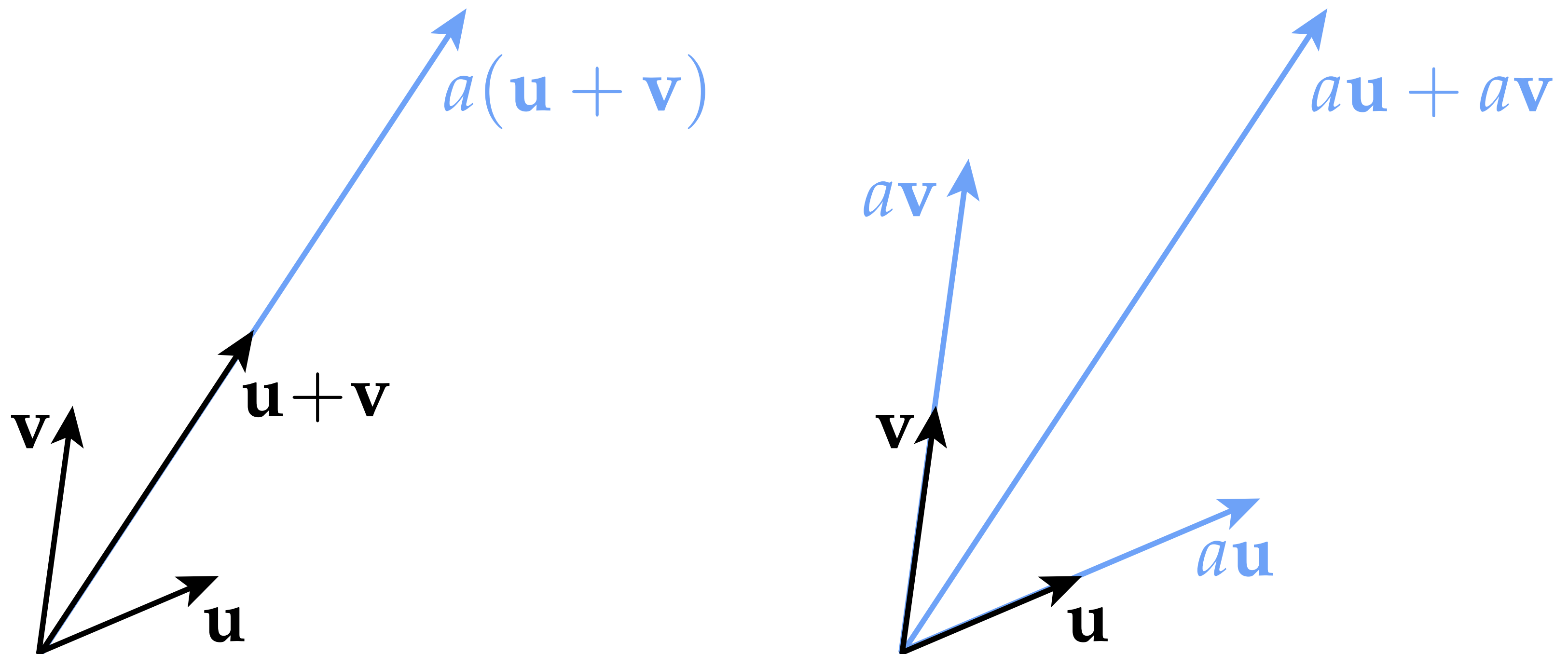
- In general, can multiply any vector  $u$  by a number or “scalar”  $a$  to get a new vector  $au$ .
- Multiplication behaves the way we would expect, based on the geometric behavior of scaling “little arrows.” E.g.,

$$a(bu) = (ab)u$$



# Interaction of Addition & Scaling

- What if we try to add two scaled vectors? Or scale two vectors that have been added together?



- Interesting—seems we get the same result either way:

$$a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$$

# Vector Space—Formal Definition

- If we keep playing around vectors, eventually we come up with a complete set of “rules” that vectors seem to obey:

For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  and scalars  $a, b$ :

- $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$
- There exists a *zero vector* “ $\mathbf{0}$ ” such that  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
- For every  $\mathbf{v}$  there is a vector “ $-\mathbf{v}$ ” such that  $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$
- $1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
- $a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$
- $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$
- $(a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}$

- ***These rules did not “fall out of the sky!”*** Each one comes from the geometric behavior of “little arrows.” (Can you draw a picture for each one?)
- ***Any* collection of objects satisfying all of this properties is a **vector space** (even if they don’t look like little arrows!)**

# Euclidean Vector Space

- **Most common example: Euclidean n-dimensional space**
- **Typically denoted by  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , meaning “n real numbers”**
- **E.g.,  $(1.23, 4.56, \pi/2)$  is a point in  $\mathbb{R}^3$**
- **Why such a common example?**
  - **Looks a lot like the space we live in!**
  - **That’s what we can easily encode on a computer (a list of floating-point numbers).**

$\mathbb{R}$



$\mathbb{R}^2$

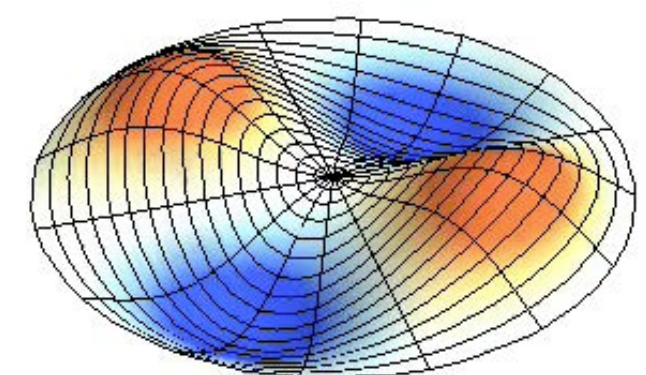
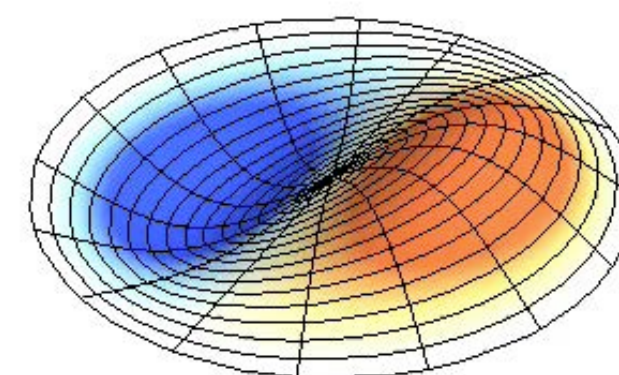
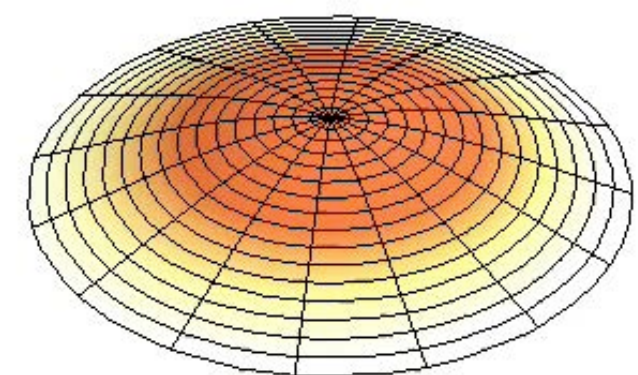
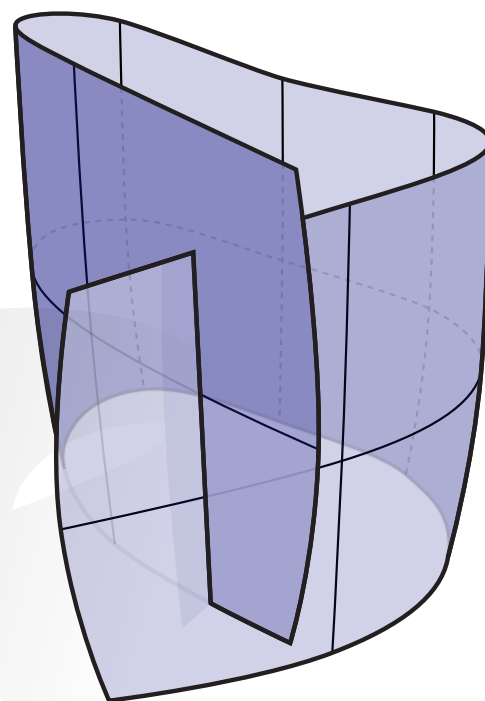
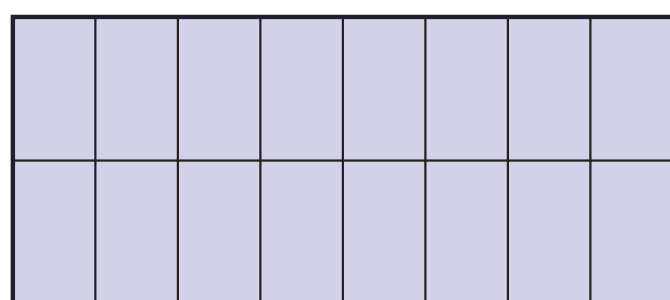
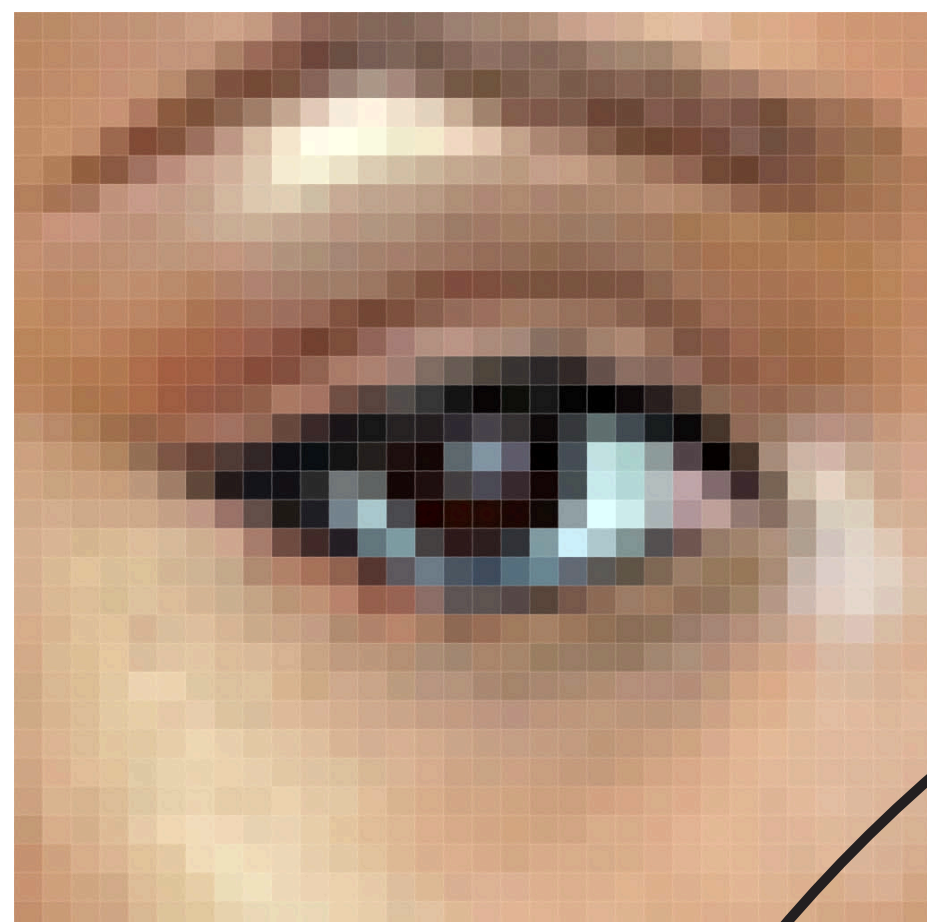


$\mathbb{R}^3$



# Functions as Vectors

- Another very important example of vector spaces in computer graphics are spaces of *functions*.
- Why? Because many of the objects we want to work with in graphics are functions! (Images, radiance from a light source, surfaces, modal vibrations, ...)

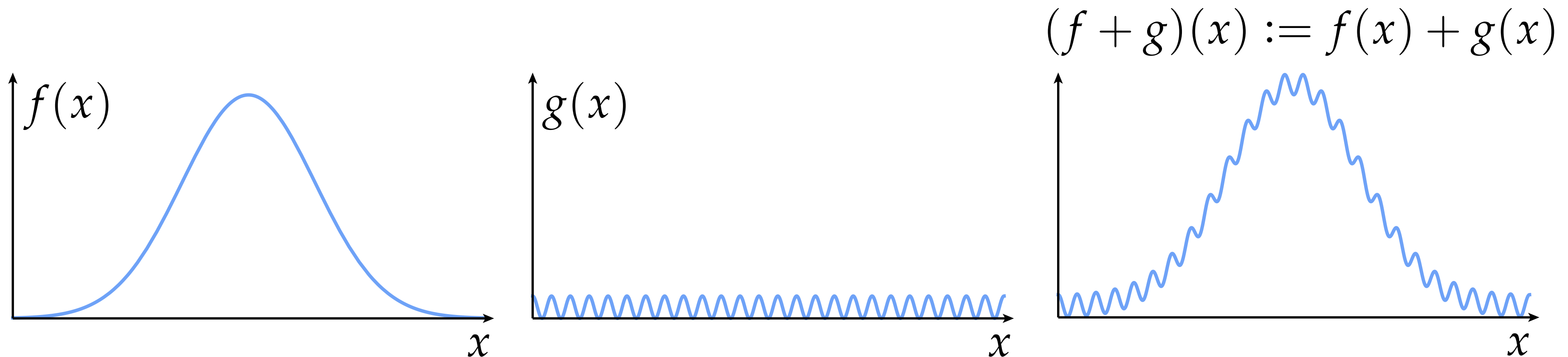


**These are all vectors! :-)**

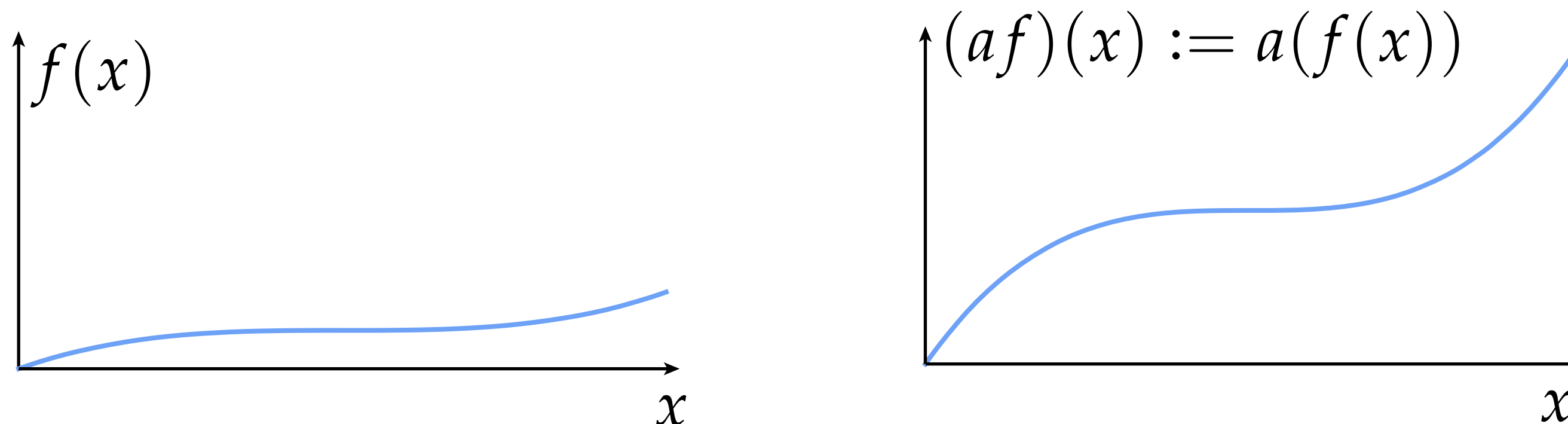


# Functions as Vectors

- Do functions exhibit the same behavior as “little arrows?”
- Well, we can certainly add two functions:



- We can also scale a function:



# Functions as Vectors

## ■ What about the rest of these properties?

For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  and scalars  $a, b$ :

- $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$
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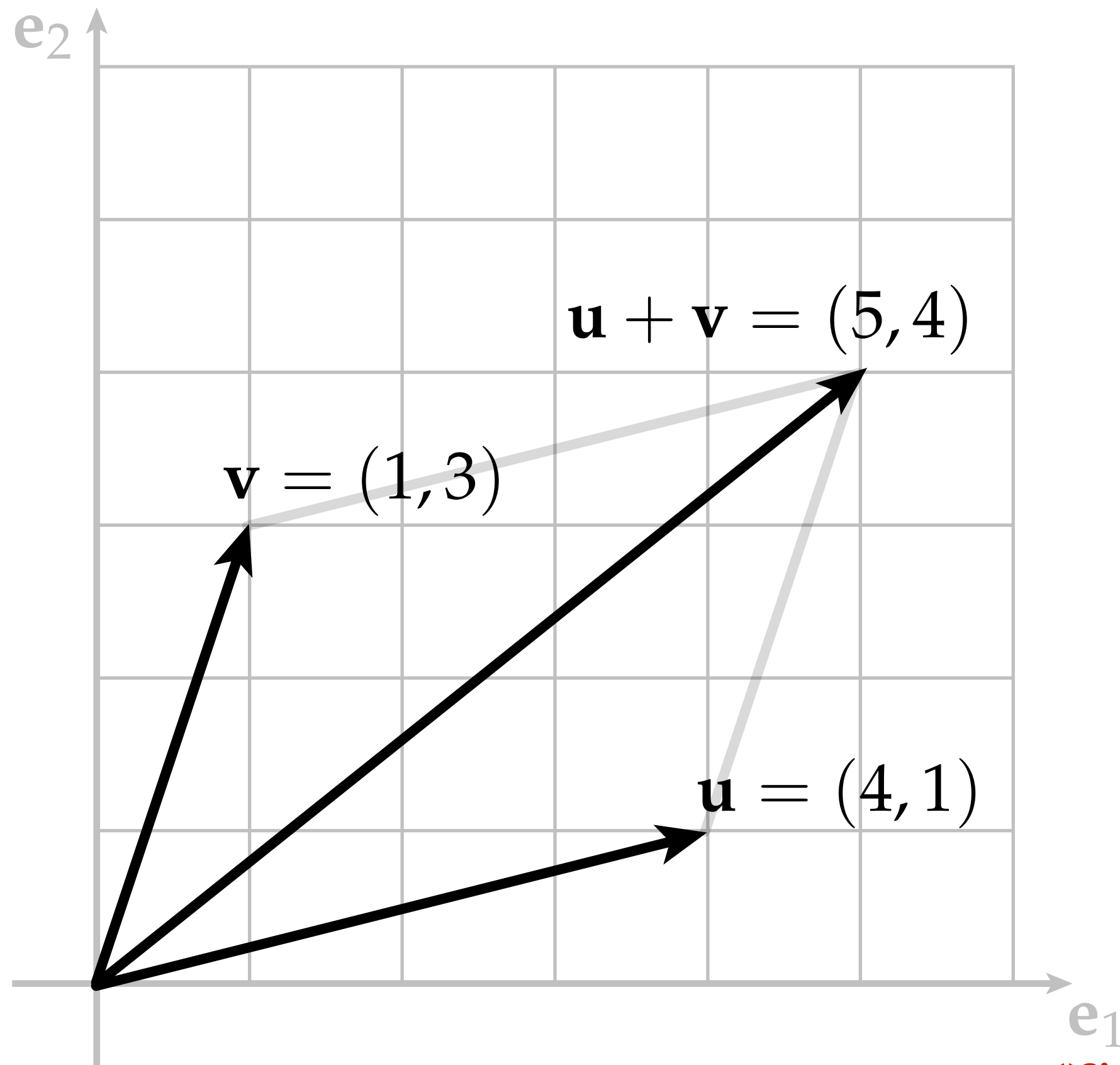
## ■ Try it out at home!

## ■ E.g., the “zero vector” is the function equal to zero for all $x$ .

## ■ Short answer: yes, functions are vectors! (Even if they don’t look like “little arrows”.)

# Vectors in Coordinates

- So far, we've only drawn our vector operations via pictures.
- How do we actually compute with vectors?
- Return to our coordinate representation:



$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \\ &= (1, 3) + (4, 1) \\ &= (1 + 4, 3 + 1) \\ &= (5, 4) \end{aligned}$$

**\*Side note: does it make sense to add vectors encoded as  $(r, \theta)$ ?**

**Ok, so we came up with some  
rule for adding pairs of numbers.**

**How can we check that it faithfully encodes  
geometric behavior of “little arrows?”**



# From Geometry to Algebra

- Just check that it agrees with our list of rules that we know (from reasoning *geometrically*) “little arrows” must obey:

For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  and scalars  $a, b$ :

- $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$
- There exists a *zero vector* “ $\mathbf{0}$ ” such that  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$
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- For instance, for any two vectors  $\mathbf{u} := (u_1, u_2)$  and  $\mathbf{v} := (v_1, v_2)$  we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} &= (u_1, u_2) + (v_1, v_2) = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2) = \\ &= (v_1 + u_1, v_2 + u_2) = (v_1, v_2) + (u_1, u_2) = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}.\end{aligned}$$

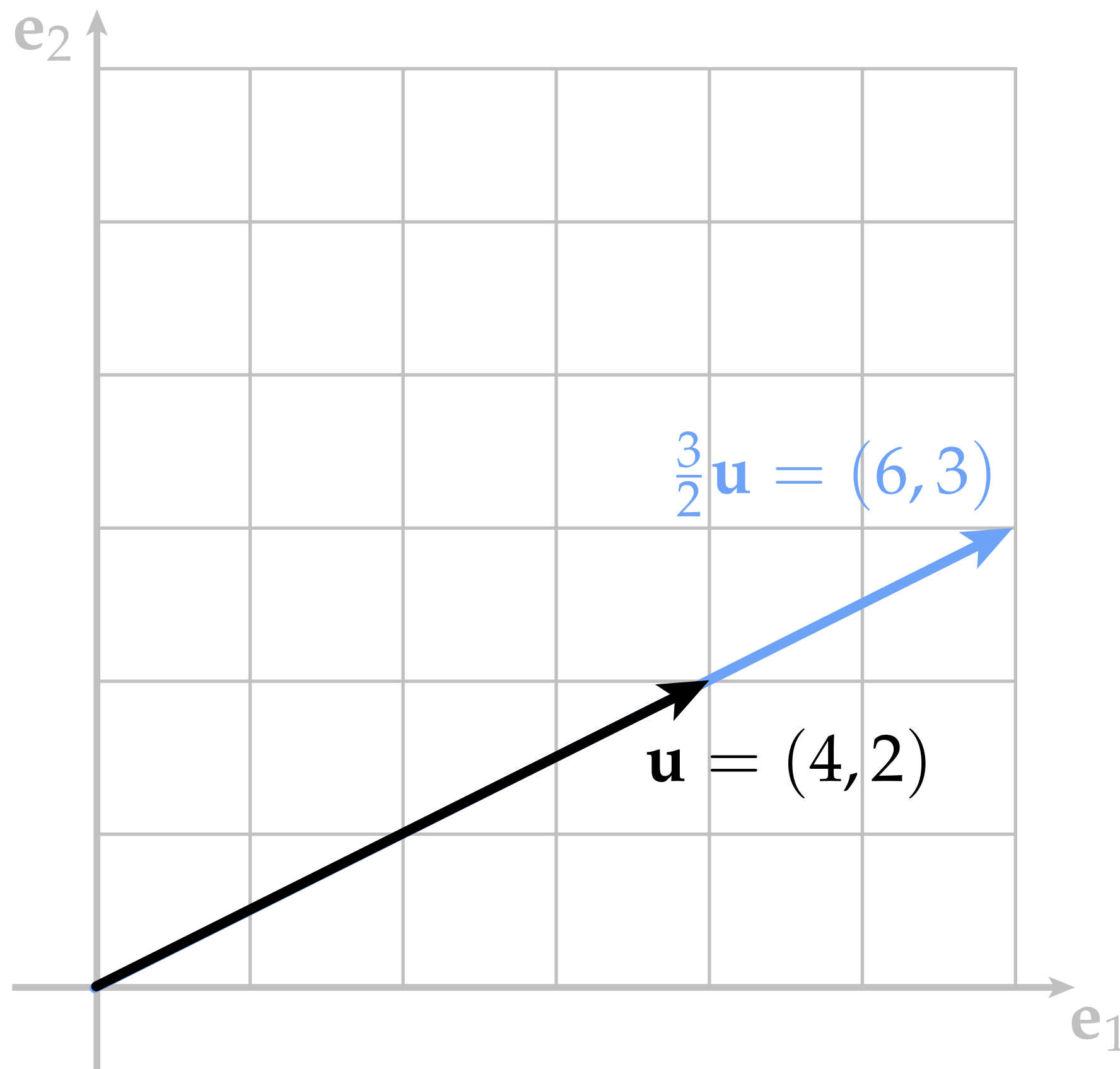
**Turning geometric observations into algebraic rules is convenient for symbolic manipulation & numerical computation.**

**But you should *never* blindly accept a rule given by authority.**

**Always ask: where does this rule come from?  
What does it mean geometrically?  
(Can you draw a picture?)**

# Scaling Vectors in Coordinates

- We'd also like to be able to scale vectors using coordinates.
- Any ideas?



$$\frac{3}{2}\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2}(4, 2)$$

$$= (4 \cdot 3/2, 2 \cdot 3/2)$$

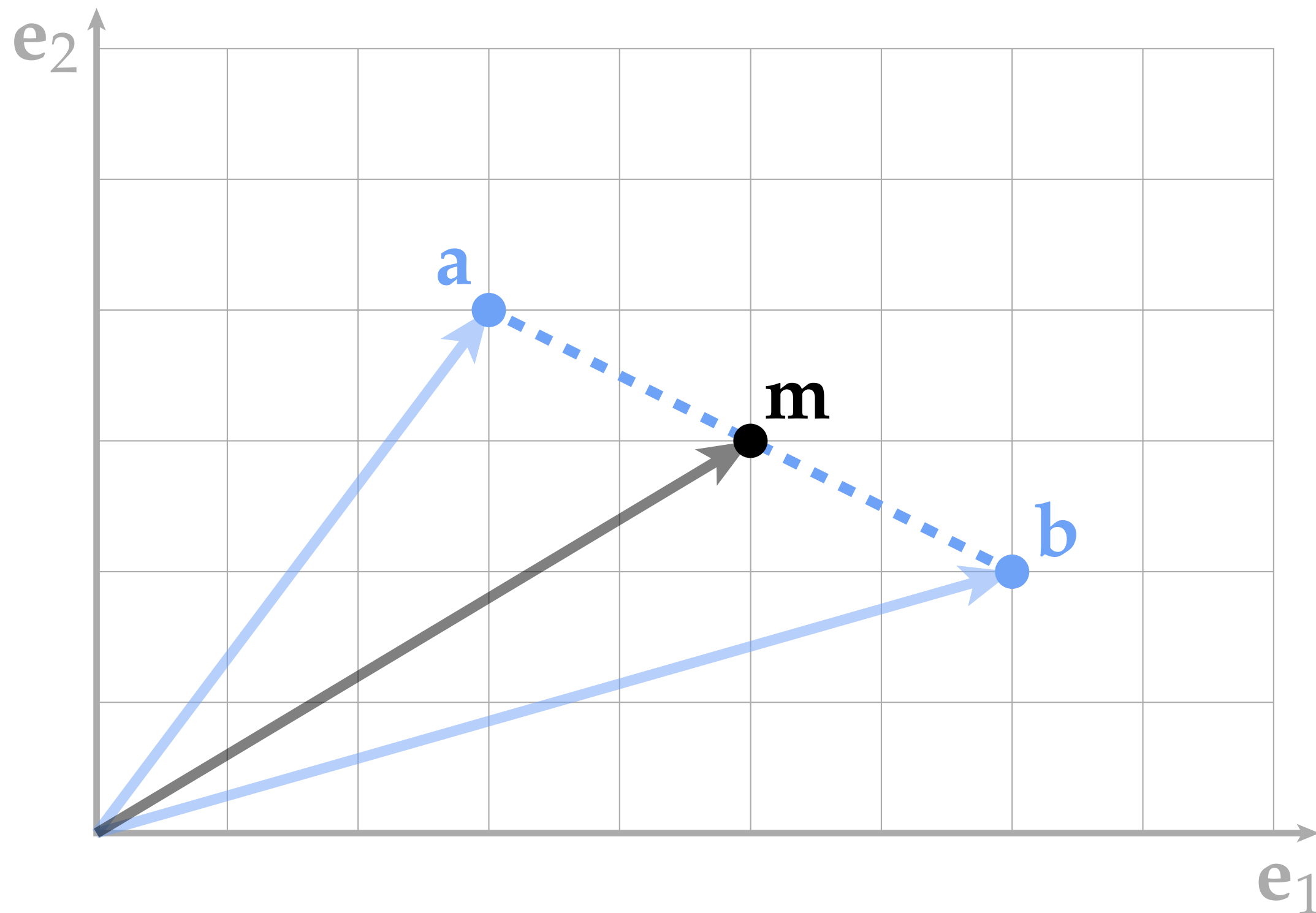
$$= (12/2, 6/2)$$

$$= (6, 3)$$

(From here, check the rest of the properties...)

# Computing the Midpoint

- As we start to combine vector operations, we build up operations needed for computer graphics.
- E.g., how would I compute the midpoint  $m$  of  $a = (3,4)$  and  $b = (7,2)$ ?

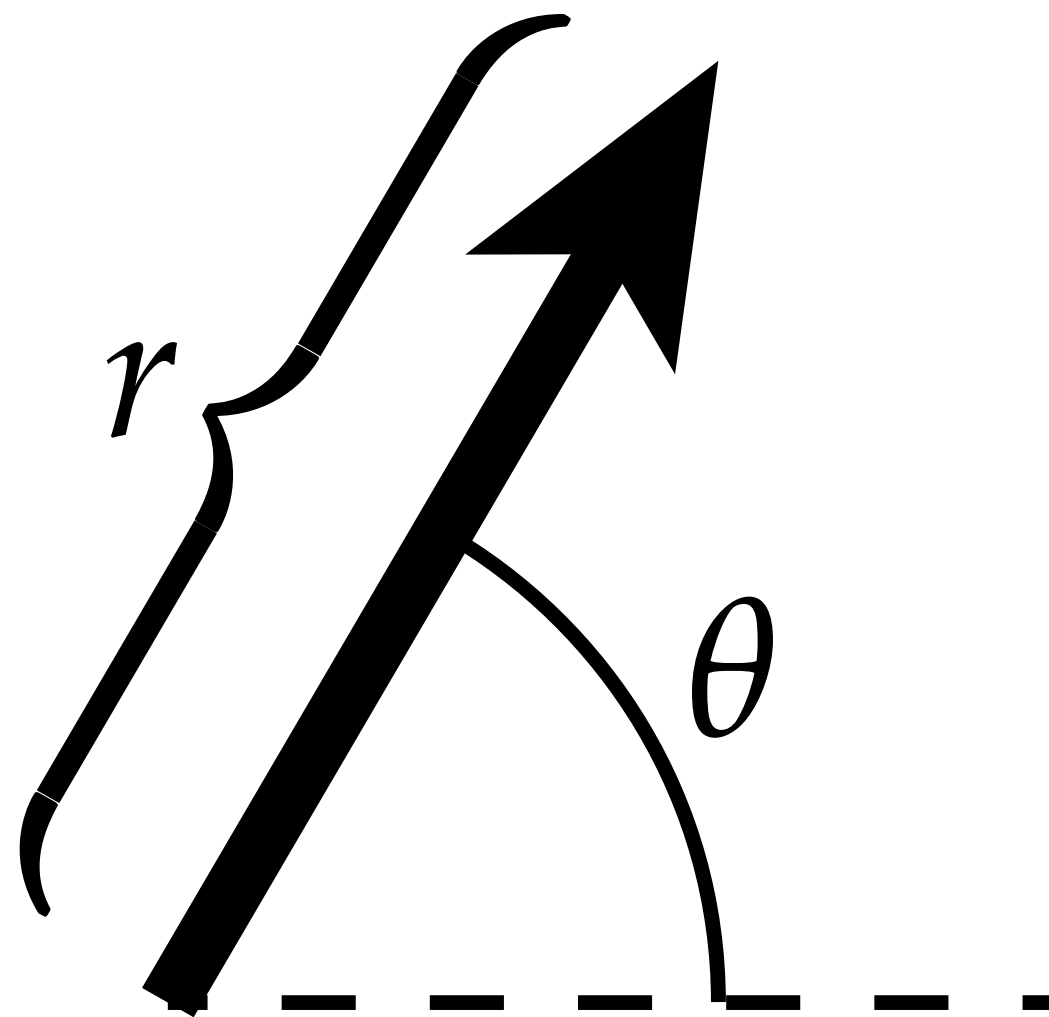


$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{m} &= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}((3,4) + (7,2)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(10,6) \\ &= (5,3) \end{aligned}$$



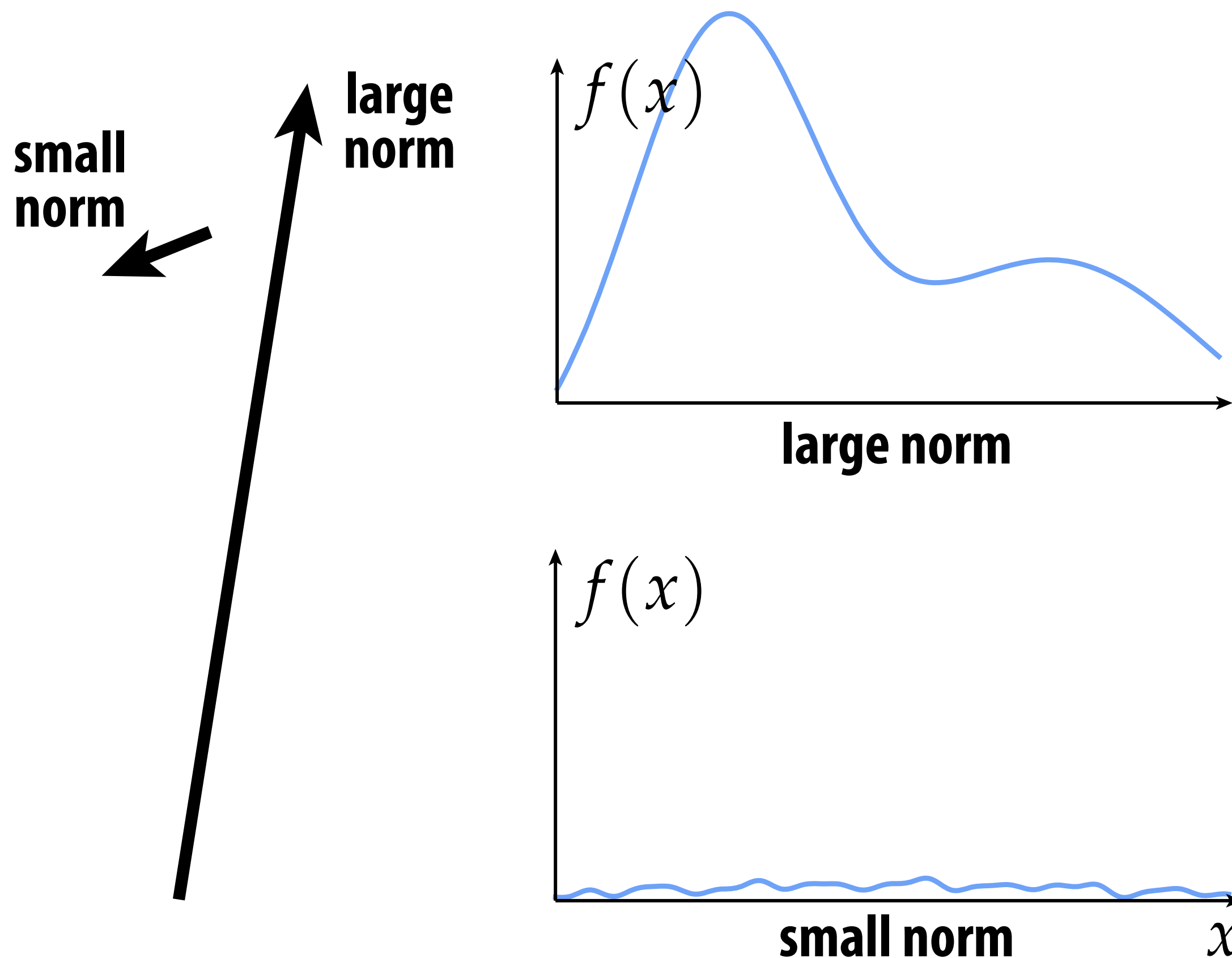
# Measuring Vectors

- Earlier we asked, “what information does a vector encode?”
- (A: Orientation and magnitude.)
- How do we actually *measure* these quantities?

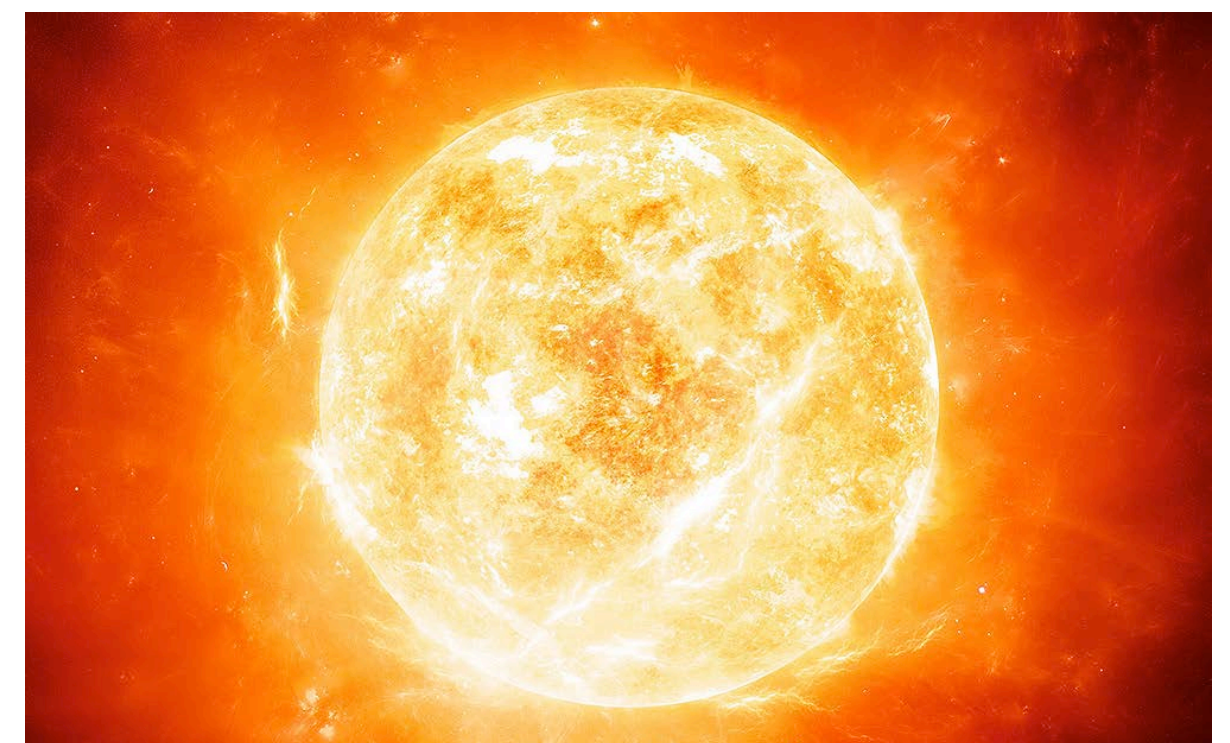


# Norm of a Vector

- Let's start with magnitude—for a given vector  $v$ , we want to assign it a number  $|v|$  called its **length** or **magnitude** or **norm**.
- Intuitively, the norm should capture how “big” the vector is.



small norm



large norm



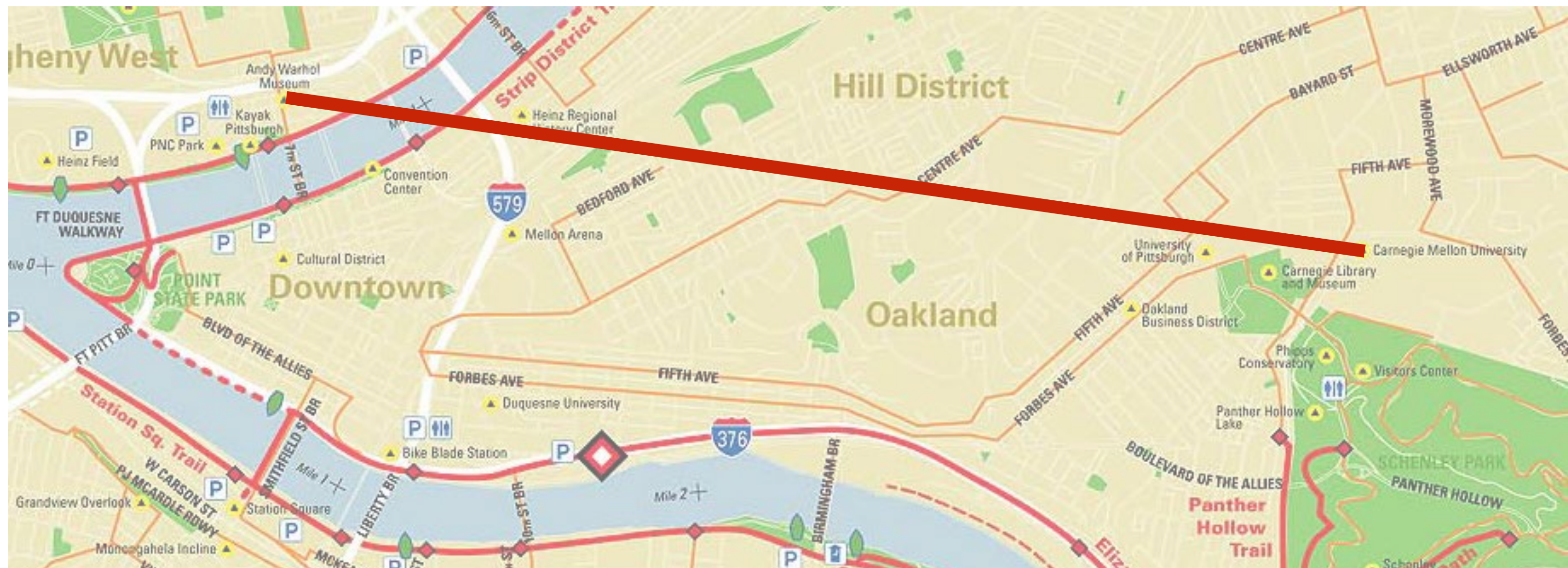
# Natural Properties of Length—Positivity

- What properties might you expect the norm (or length) of a vector to satisfy?
- For one thing, it probably shouldn't be negative!

$$|\mathbf{u}| \geq 0$$

- And probably it should be zero only for the zero vector:

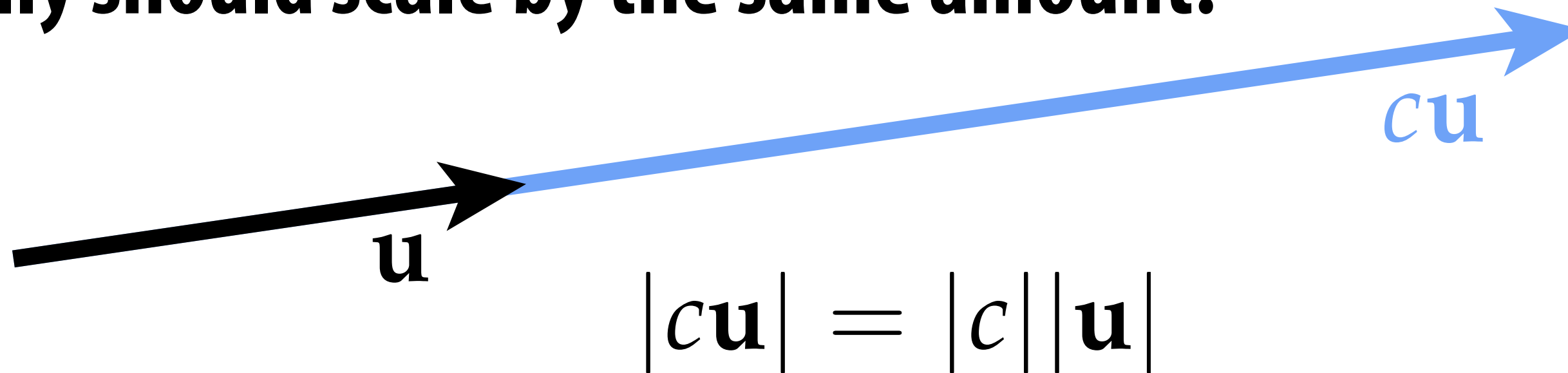
$$|\mathbf{u}| = 0 \iff \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$$



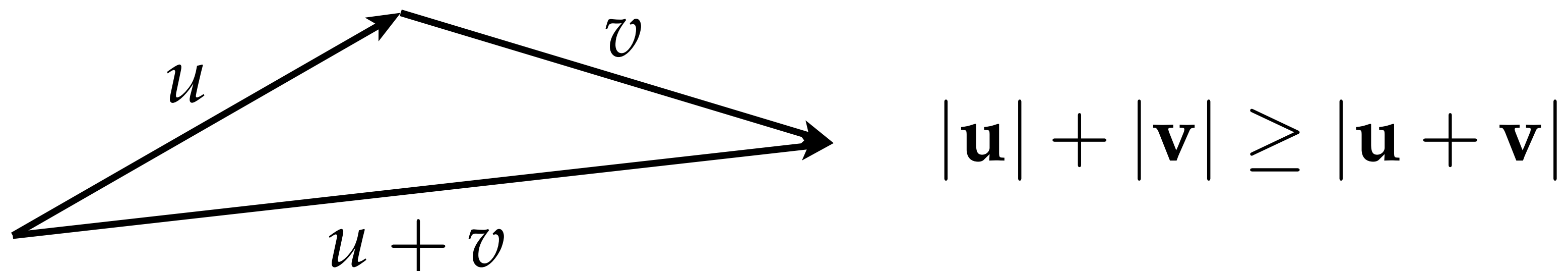


# Natural Properties of Length, Continued

- Also, if we scale a vector by a factor  $c$ , its norm (i.e., length) really should scale by the same amount:



- Finally, we know that the shortest path between two points is always along a straight line:



- (This final property is sometimes called the “pentagon inequality,” since the diagram looks like a pentagon.)



# Norm—Formal Definition

- A norm is any function that assigns a number to each vector and satisfies the following properties for all vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and all scalars  $a$ :

- $|\mathbf{v}| \geq 0$

- $|\mathbf{v}| = 0 \iff \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

- $|a\mathbf{v}| = |a||\mathbf{v}|$

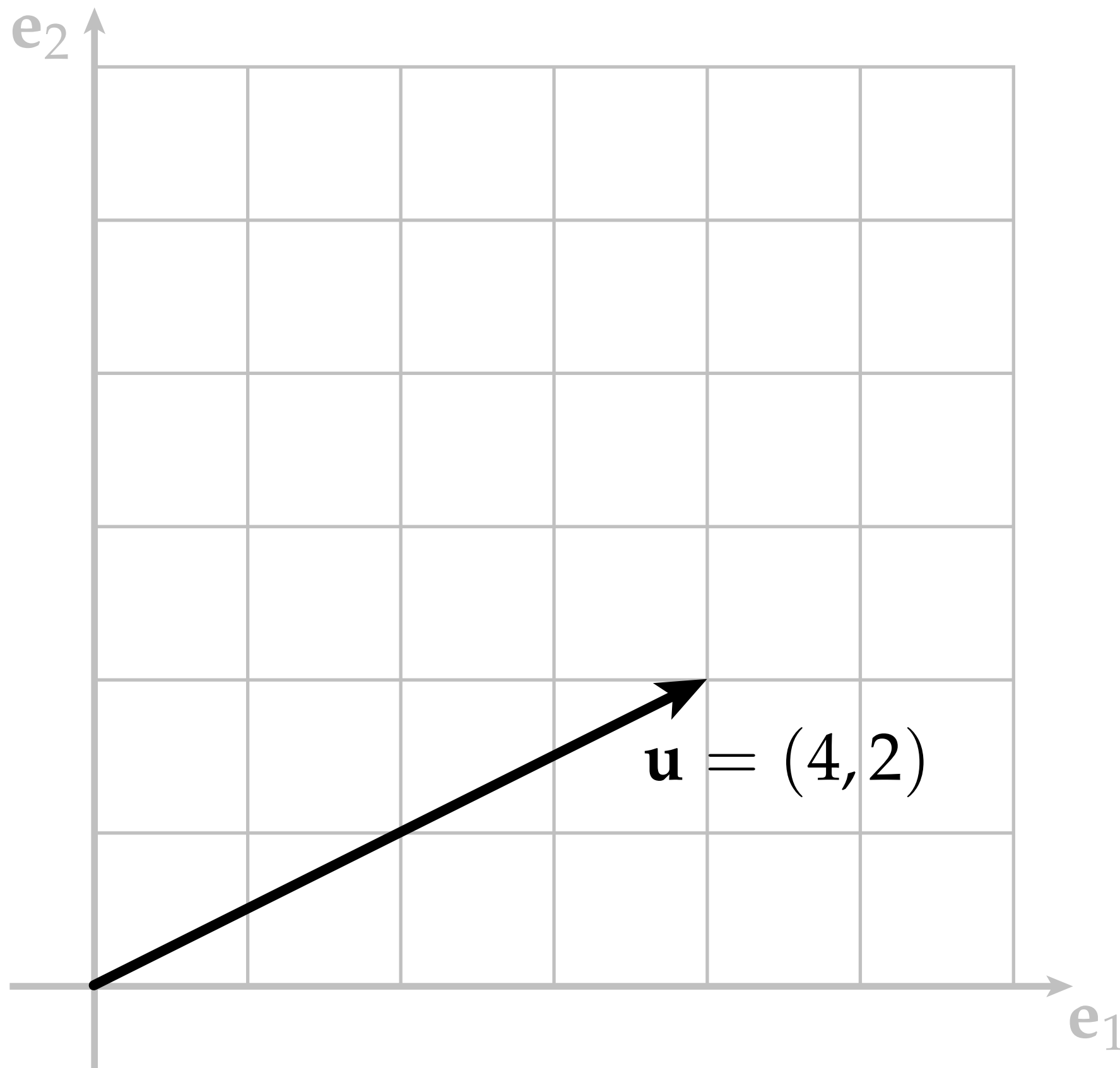
- $|\mathbf{u}| + |\mathbf{v}| \geq |\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}|$

- But you don't have to take my word for it—for each rule, you now have a concrete geometric picture explaining why this “rule” is there.

# Euclidean Norm in Cartesian Coordinates

- A standard norm is the so-called *Euclidean norm* of  $n$ -vectors:

$$|\mathbf{u}| = |(u_1, \dots, u_n)| := \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}$$



**Example:**  $\mathbf{u} = (4, 2)$

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{u}| &= \sqrt{4^2 + 2^2} \\ &= 2\sqrt{5} \end{aligned}$$

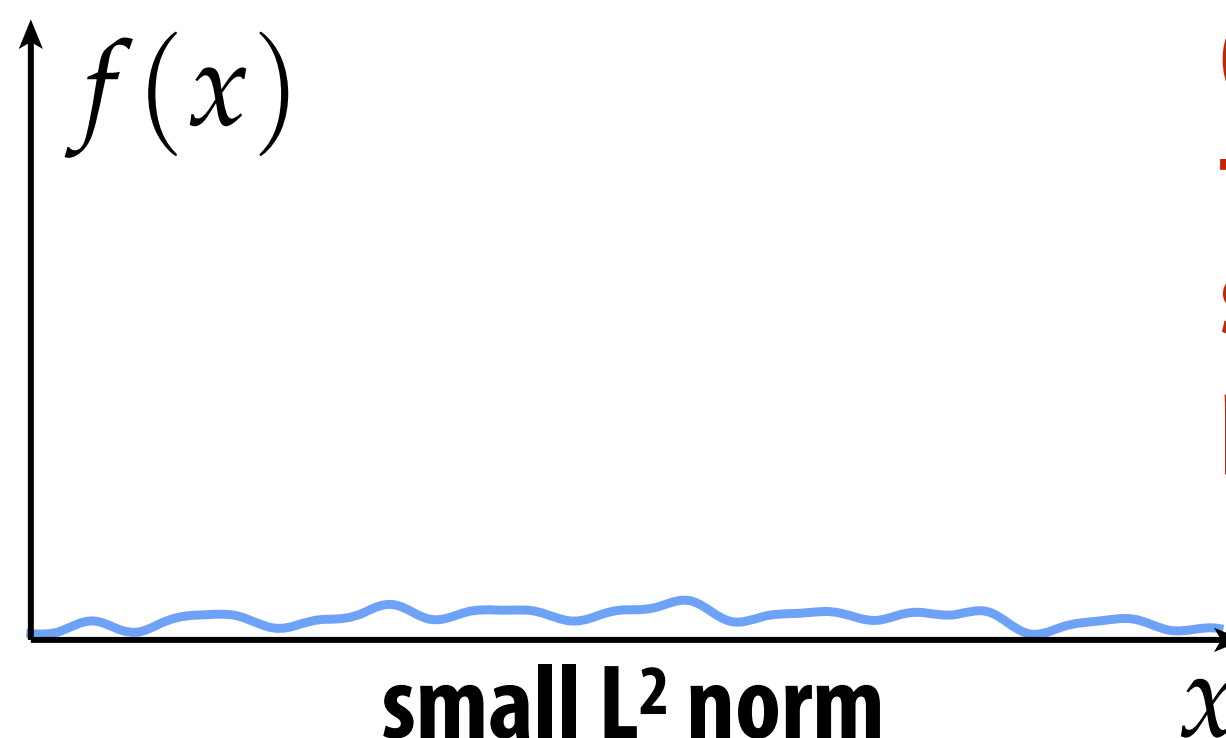
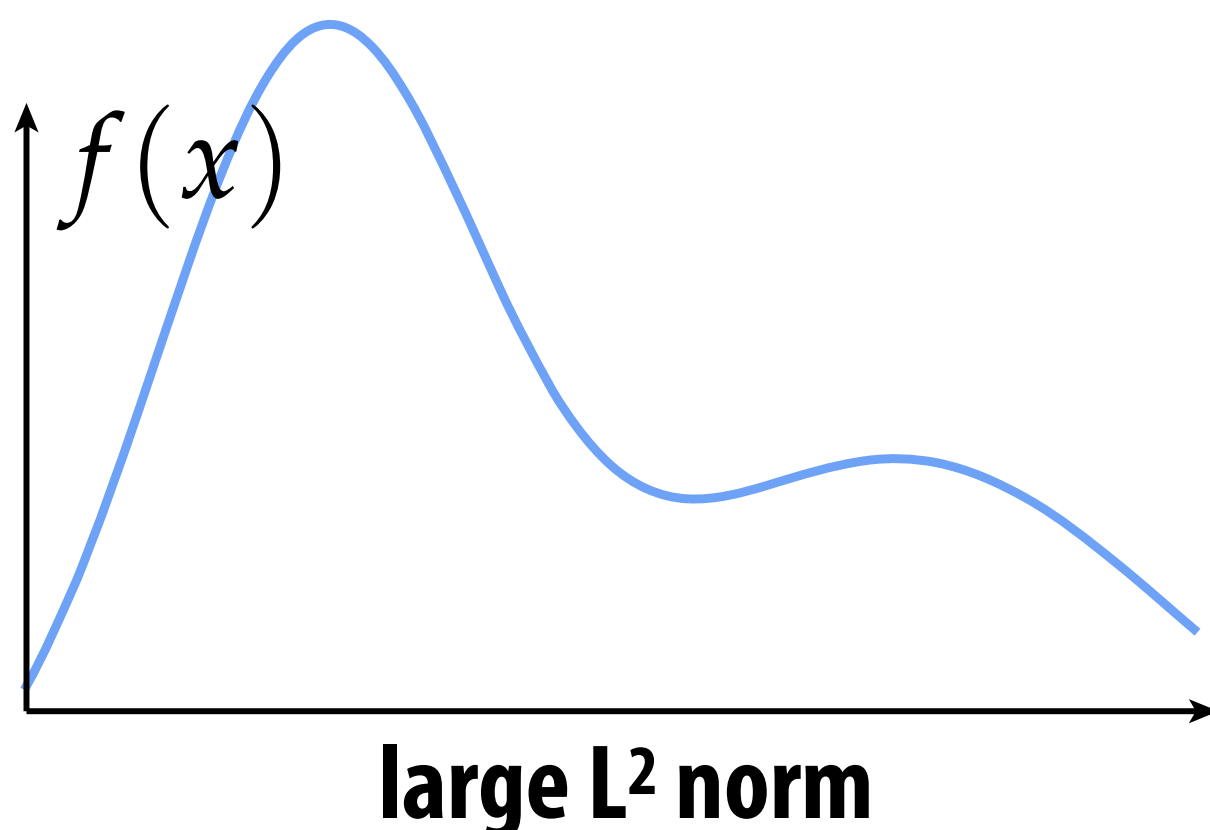
**Q: Does this formula satisfy all the natural, geometric properties of a norm?  
(Answer in the slide comments!)**

# L<sup>2</sup> Norm of Functions

- Less familiar idea, but same basic intuition: the so-called *L<sup>2</sup> norm* measures the total magnitude of a function.
- Consider real-valued functions on the unit interval [0,1] whose square has a well-defined integral. The L<sup>2</sup> norm is defined as:

$$||f|| := \sqrt{\int_0^1 f(x)^2 dx}$$

- Not too different from the Euclidean norm: we just replaced a sum with an integral (which is kind of like a sum...).



**Q: Careful—does the formula above *exactly* satisfy all our desired properties for a norm?**

# L<sup>2</sup> Norm of Functions—Example

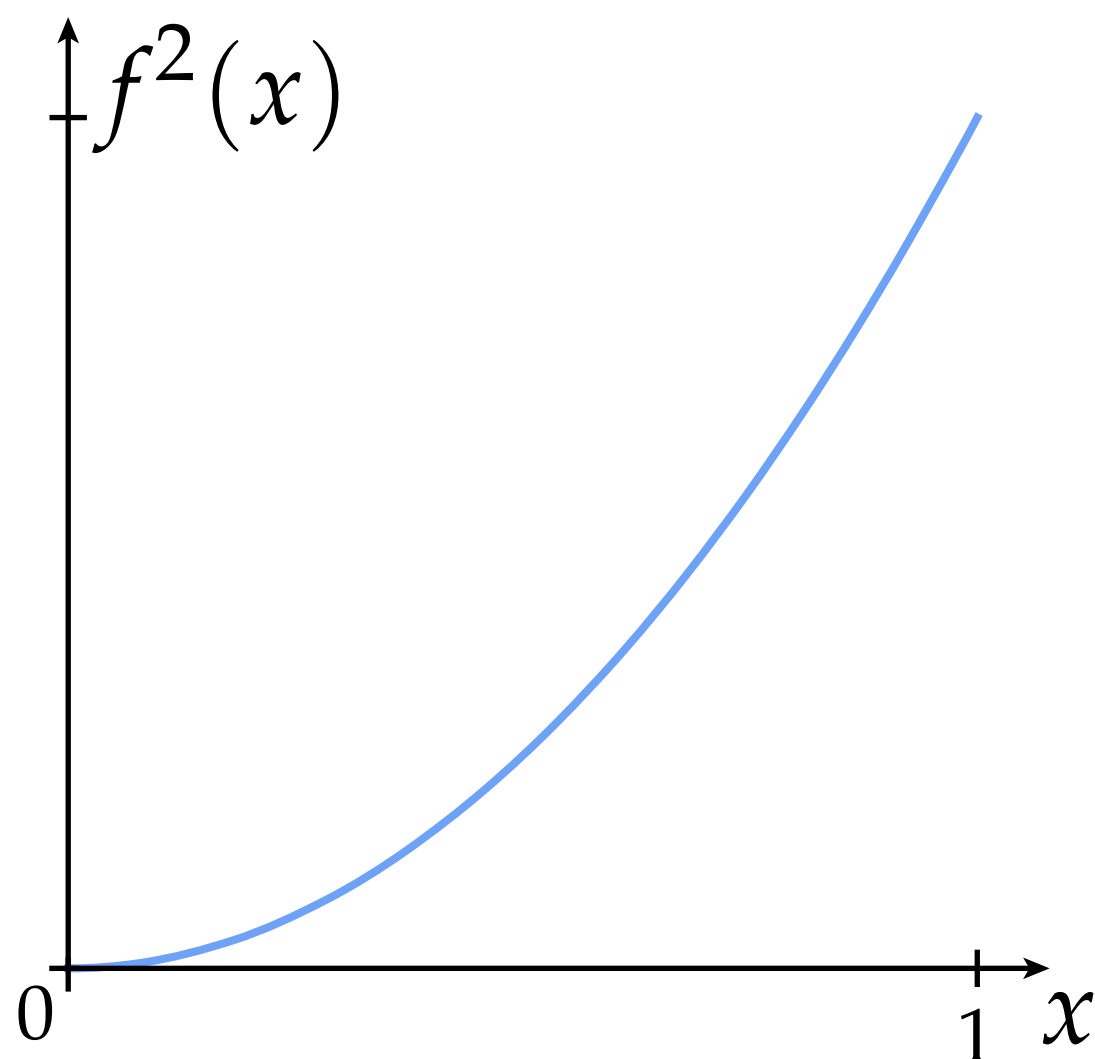
- Consider the function  $f(x) := x\sqrt{3}$ , defined over the unit interval  $[0,1]$ .  $\|f\| := \sqrt{\int_0^1 f(x)^2 dx}$

- Q: What is its L<sup>2</sup> norm?

- A:

$$\|f\|^2 = \int_0^1 3x^2 dx = \left[ x^3 \right]_0^1 = 1^3 - 0^3 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \|f\| = \sqrt{1} = 1.$$



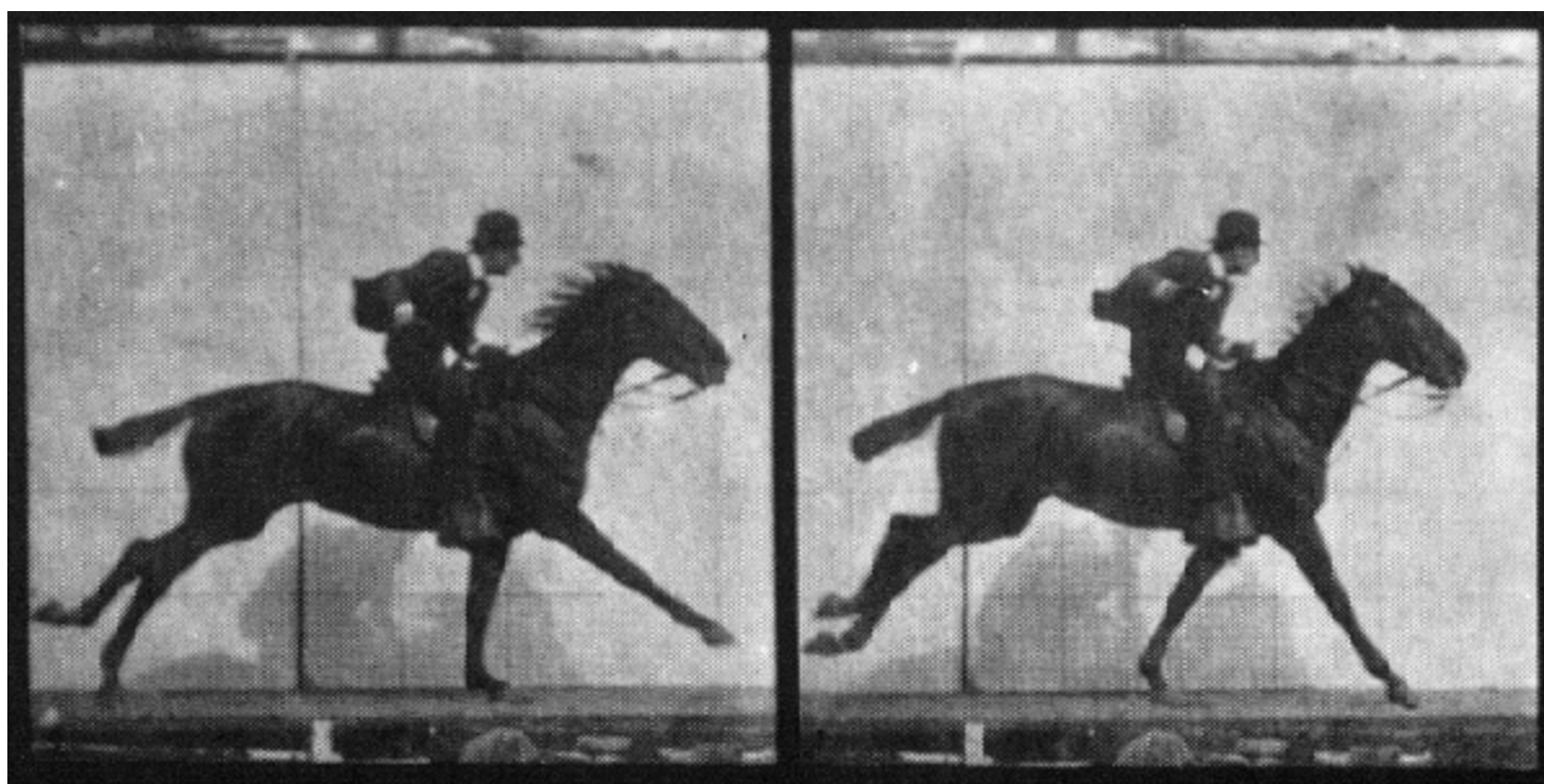
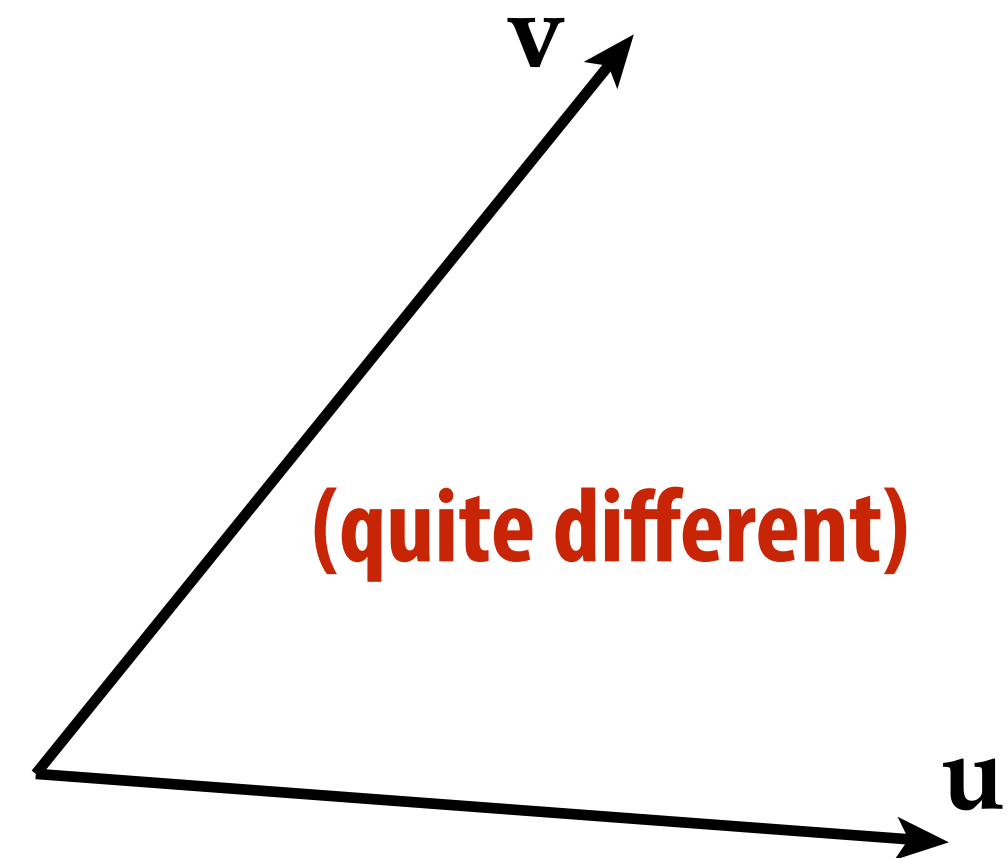
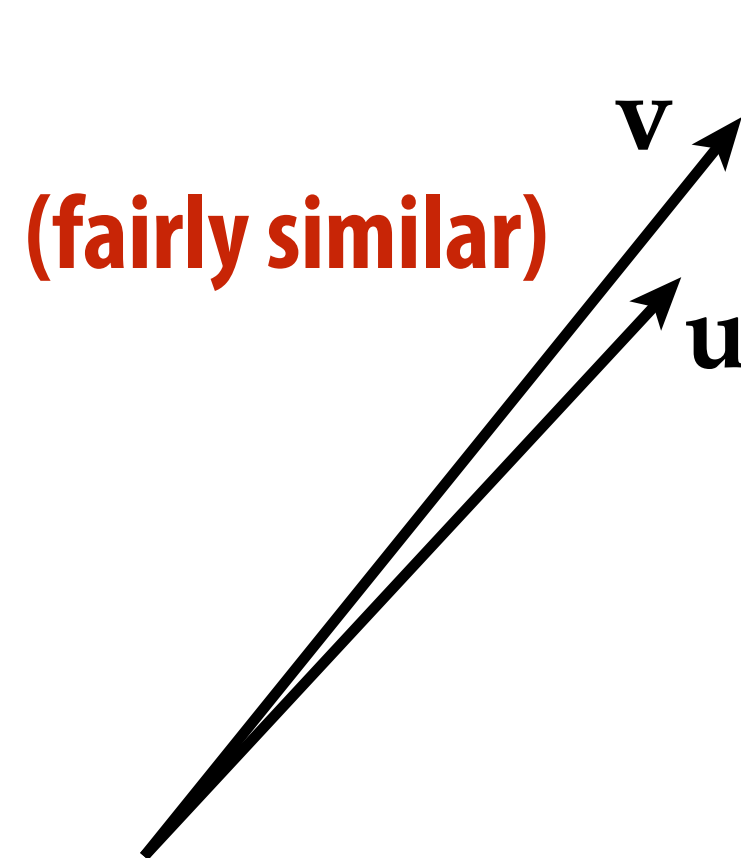
For clarity we will use  $\|\cdot\|$  for the norm of a function, and  $|\cdot|$  for the norm of a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

P.S. Most integrals in graphics are not calculated this way (at least not for more challenging functions, or functions described by data). Later on we'll talk a *lot* about numerical integration.

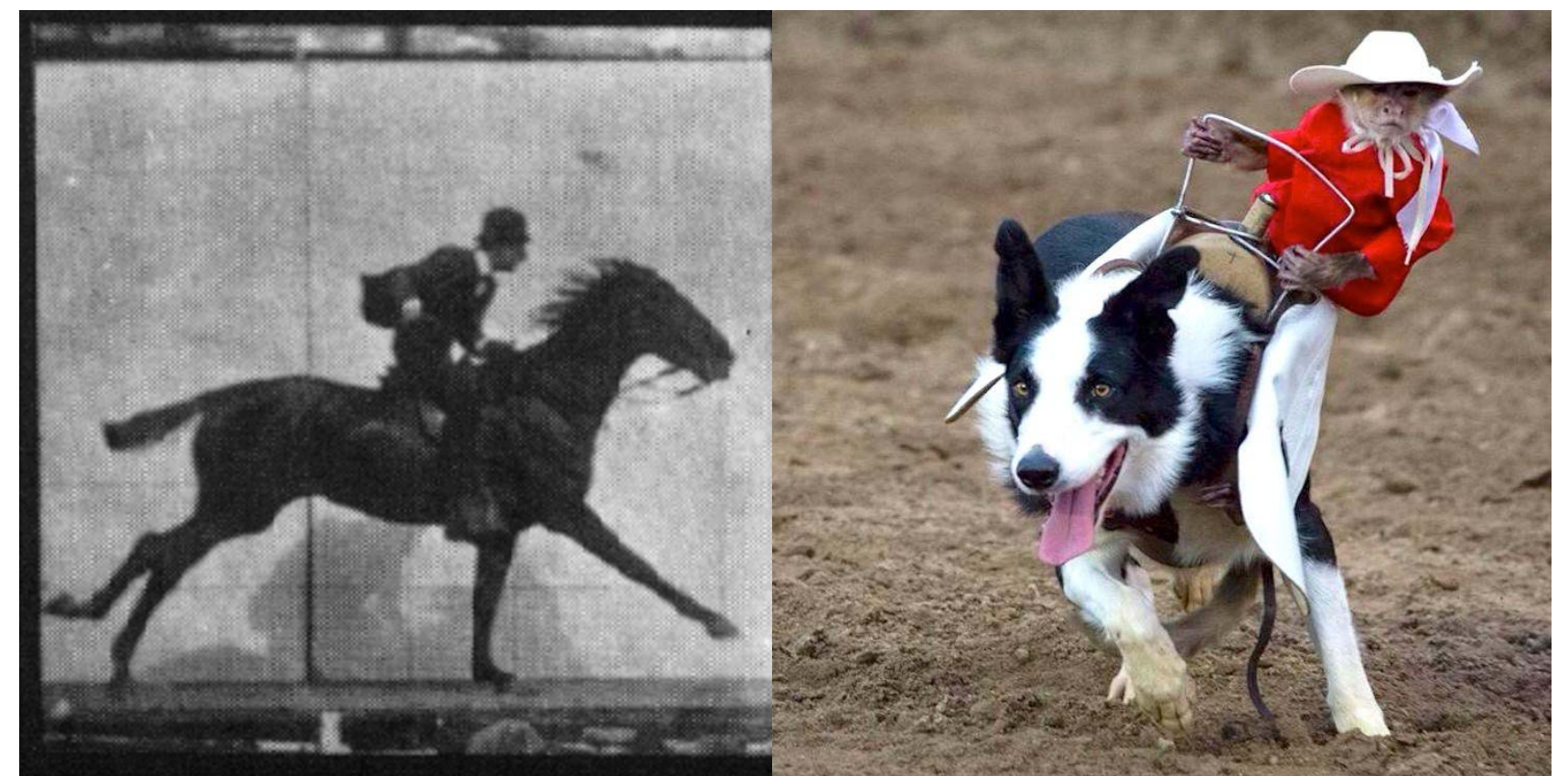


# Inner Product—Motivation

- What else can we measure? In addition to magnitude, we said that vectors have *orientation*. Just as norm measured length, **inner product** measures how well vectors “line up.”



(fairly similar)

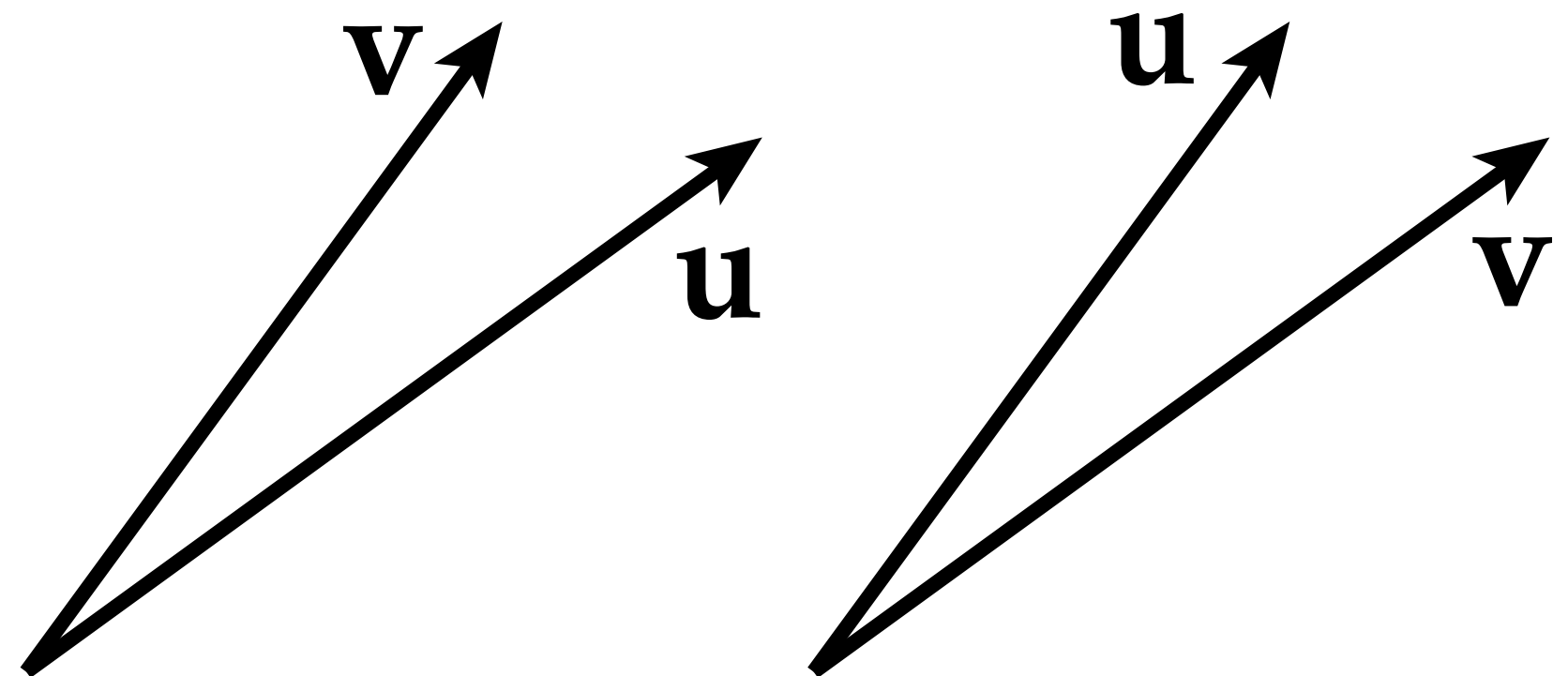


(quite different!)

# Inner Product—Symmetry

- Will write inner product (also sometimes called the **scalar product** or **dot product**) using the notation  $\langle u, v \rangle$  (some folks also write it as  $u \cdot v$ ).
- When measuring the alignment of two vectors  $u, v$ , what are some natural properties you might expect?
- One “obvious” property: order shouldn’t matter, since  $u$  is just as well-aligned with  $v$  as  $v$  is with  $u$ :

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$$

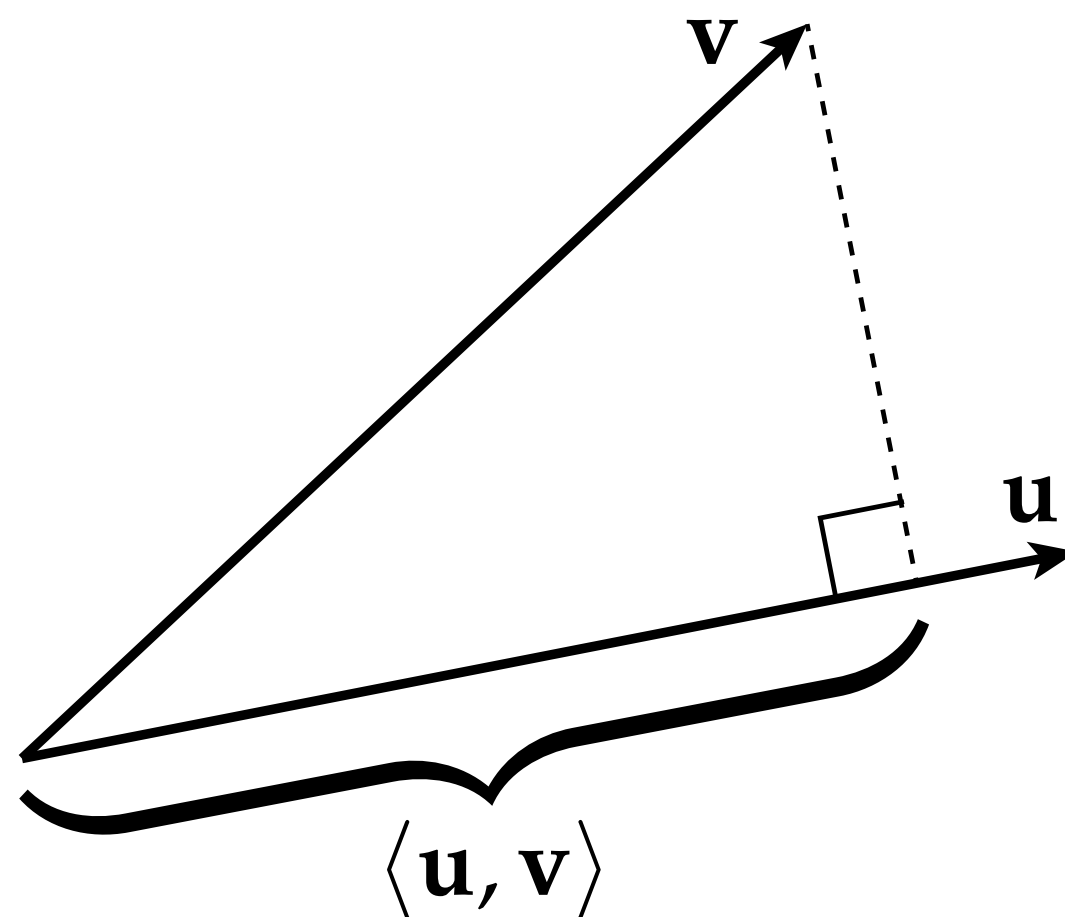


- Moreover, simply *re-naming* the vectors should have no effect on how well-aligned they are!



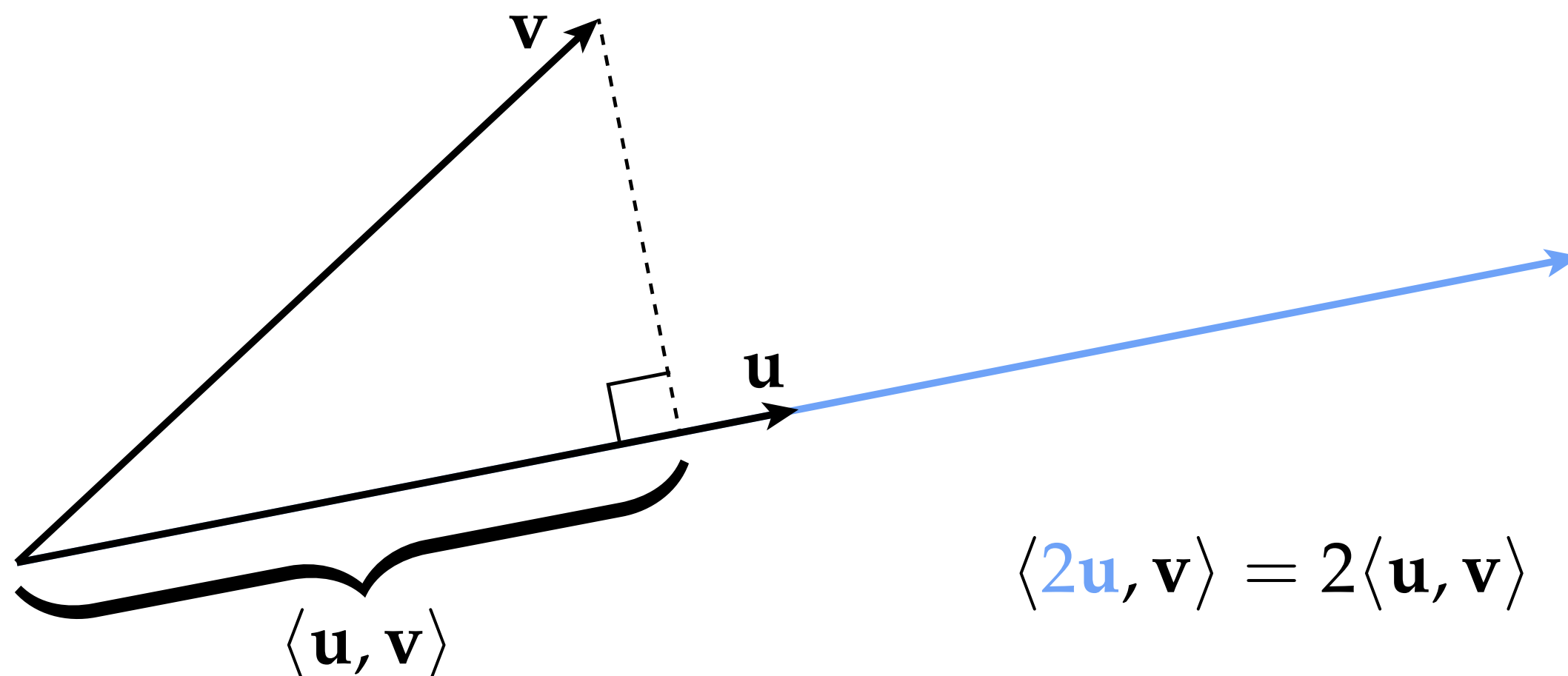
# Inner Product—Projection & Scaling

- For unit vectors  $|u|=|v|=1$ , an inner product measures the extent of one vector along the direction of the other:



**Q: Is this property symmetric?  
I.e., is the length of v along u the  
same as the length of u along v?**

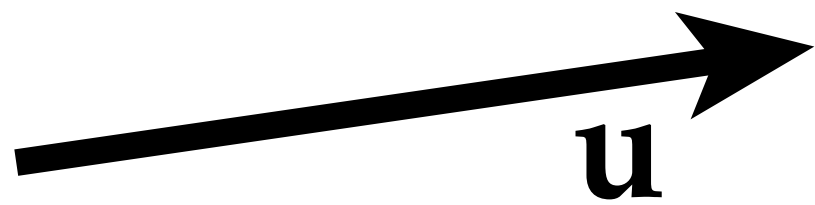
- If we scale either of the vectors, the inner product also scales:



$$\langle 2\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

# Inner Product—Positivity

- Also, a vector should always be aligned with itself, which we can express by saying that the inner product of a vector with itself should be positive (or at least, non-negative):



$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0$$

- In fact, if we continue to think of the inner product of a vector as the length of one vector along another then for unit-length vectors we must have

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 1$$

- Q: In general, then, what must  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$  be equal to?
- A: Letting  $\hat{\mathbf{u}} := \mathbf{u} / |\mathbf{u}|$ , we have

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \langle |\mathbf{u}| \hat{\mathbf{u}}, |\mathbf{u}| \hat{\mathbf{u}} \rangle = |\mathbf{u}|^2 \langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{\mathbf{u}} \rangle = |\mathbf{u}|^2 \cdot 1 = |\mathbf{u}|^2$$

# Inner Product—Formal Definition

- An inner product is any function that assigns to any two vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  a number  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  satisfying the following properties:

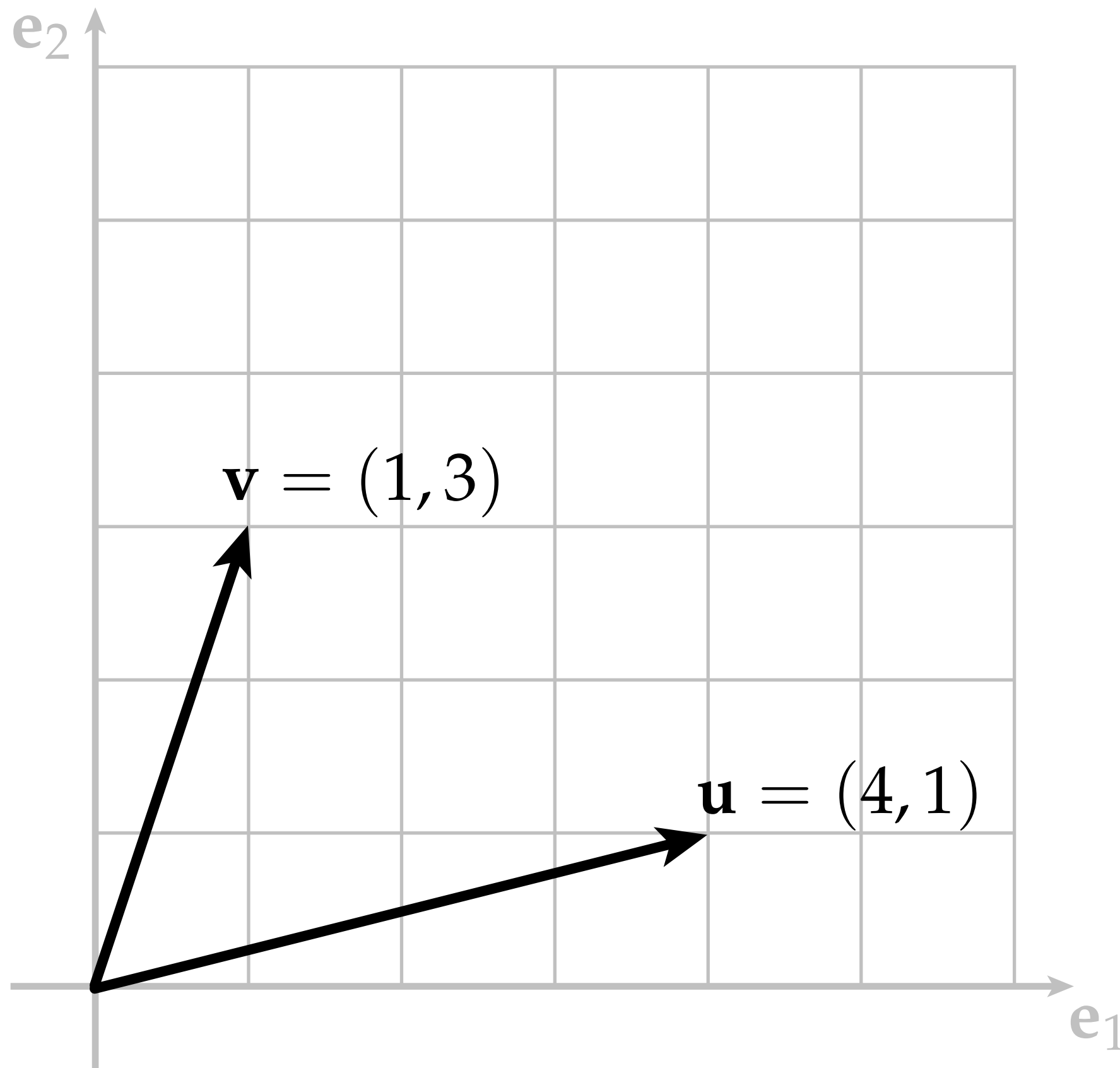
- $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$
- $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0$
- $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0 \iff \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$
- $\langle a\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = a\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$
- $\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$

- Q: Which of these properties didn't we talk about? Can you argue that they make sense geometrically? (Discuss online!)

# Inner Product in Cartesian Coordinates

- A standard inner product is the so-called *Euclidean* inner product, which operates on a pair of  $n$ -vectors:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle (u_1, \dots, u_n), (v_1, \dots, v_n) \rangle := \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i$$



**Example:**

$$\mathbf{u} = (4, 1)$$

$$\mathbf{v} = (1, 3)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 4 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 3 = 7$$

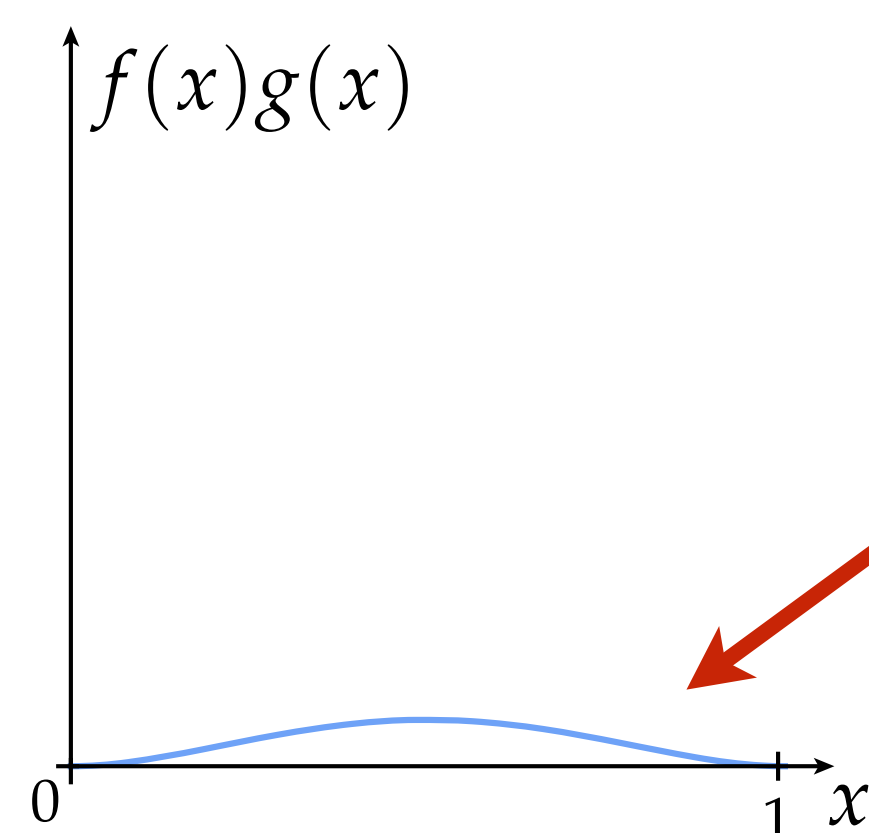
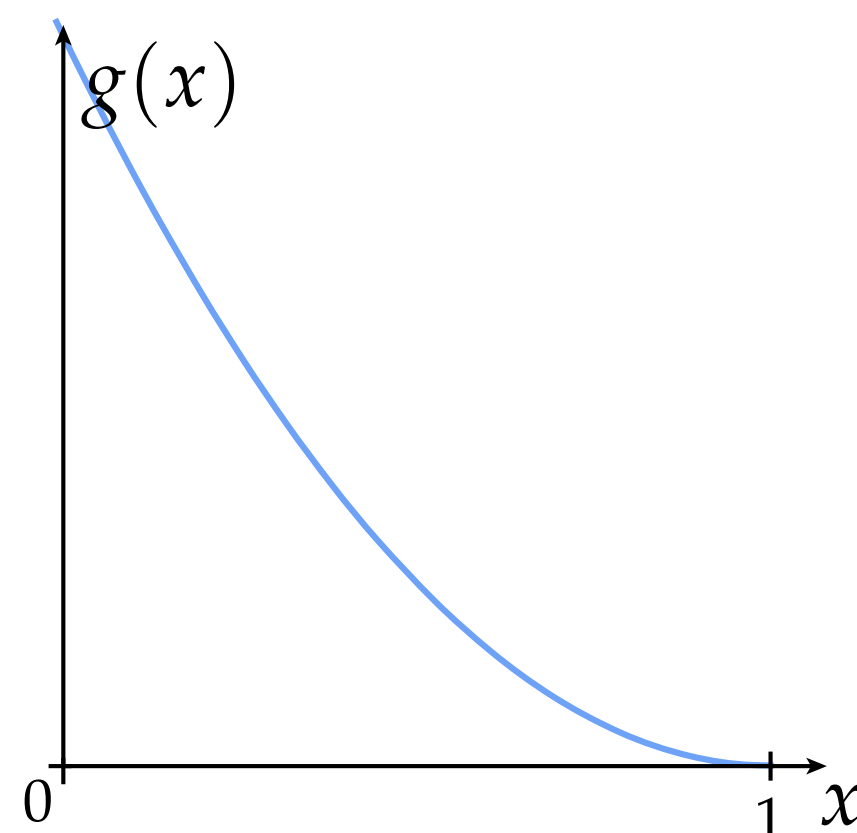
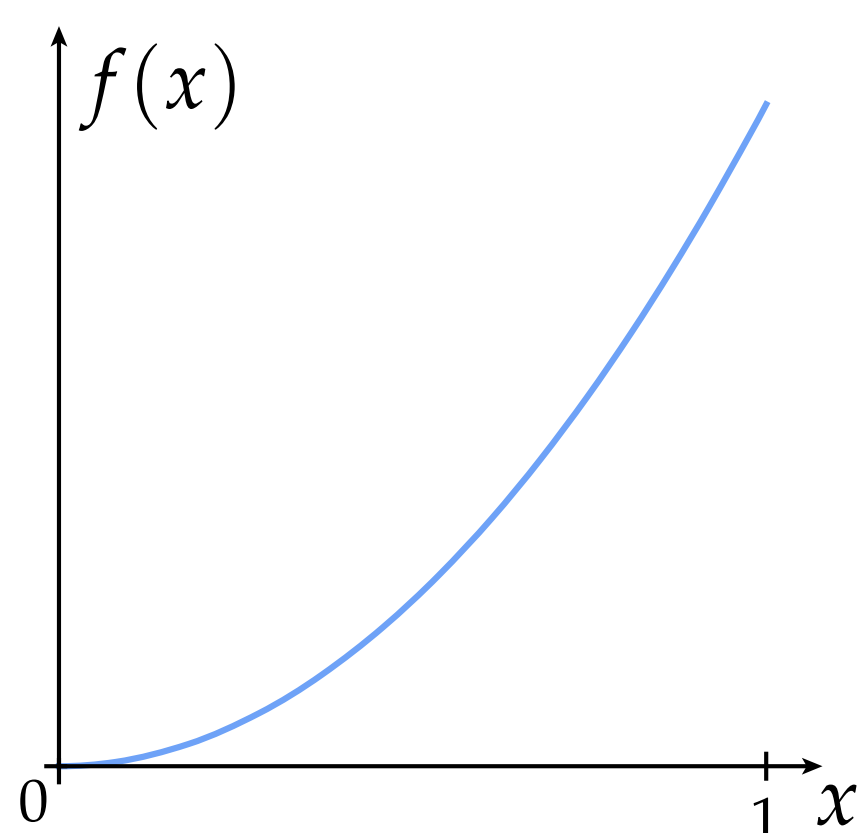
# L<sup>2</sup> Inner Product of Functions—Example

- Just like we had a norm for functions, we can also define an inner product that measures how well two functions “line up”.
- E.g., for square-integrable functions on the unit interval:

$$\langle\langle f, g \rangle\rangle := \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) \, dx$$

**Example:**  $f(x) := x^2$ ,  $g(x) := (1 - x)^2$

$$\langle\langle f, g \rangle\rangle = \int_0^1 x^2(1 - x)^2 \, dx = \dots = \frac{1}{30}$$



**small number;  
functions don't  
“line up” much!**

# Measuring Images, Other Signals?

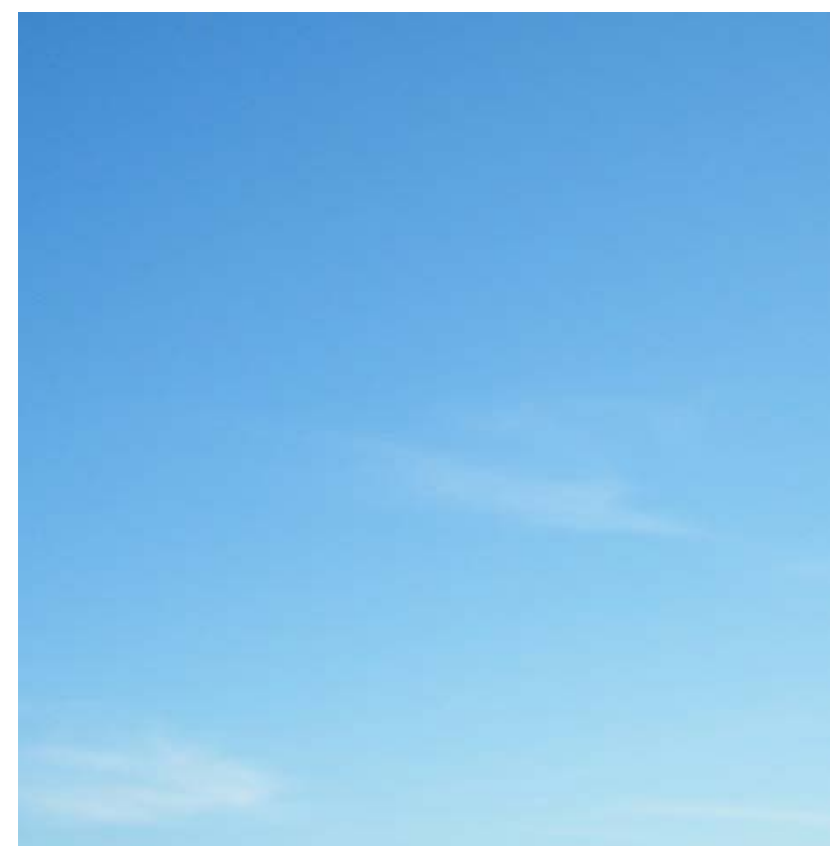
- Many ways to measure “how big” a signal is (norm) or “how well-aligned” two signals are (inner product).
- Choice of inner product depends on application.
- For instance, suppose we want images with “interesting stuff”
- Might try measuring norm of *derivative* (captures edges):



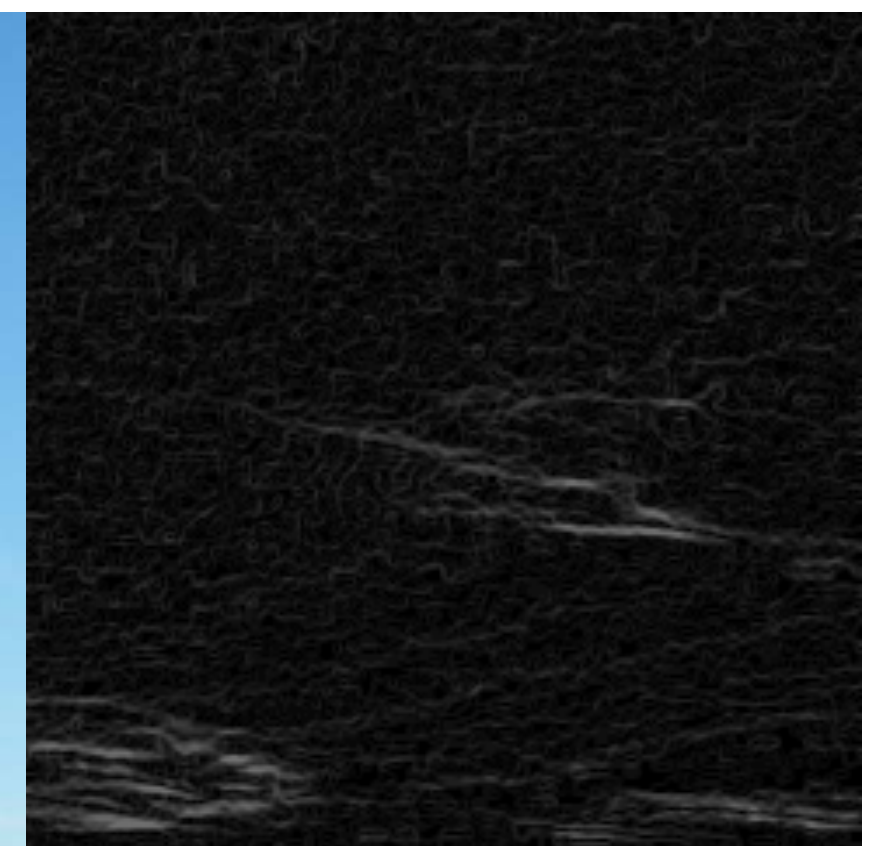
(dimmer)



**LARGER**



(brighter)



**SMALLER**

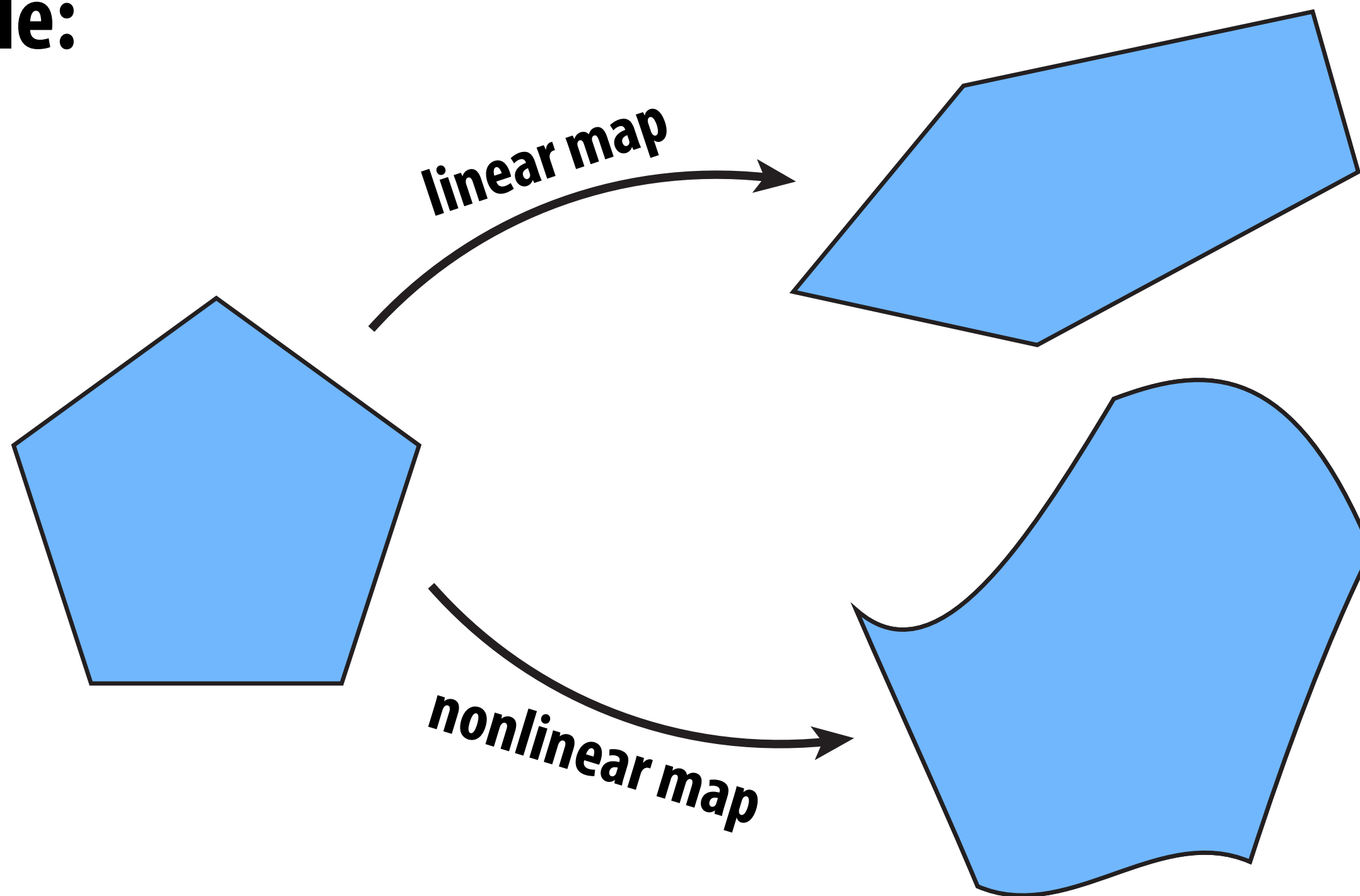


# Linear Maps

- At the beginning, said linear algebra was study of **vector spaces** and **linear maps** between them.
- Have a pretty good handle on vector (and inner product) spaces.
- But what's a linear map? And why is it useful for graphics?
- We'll get to the 1st question in a moment. As for the 2nd question, a few reasons:
  - Computationally, easy to solve systems of linear equations.
  - Basic transformations (rotation, translation, scaling) can be expressed as linear maps. *(Will see this in a later lecture!)*
  - *All* maps can be approximated as linear maps over a short distance/short time. (Taylor's theorem). This approximation is used all over geometry, animation, rendering, image processing...

# Linear Maps—Geometric Definition

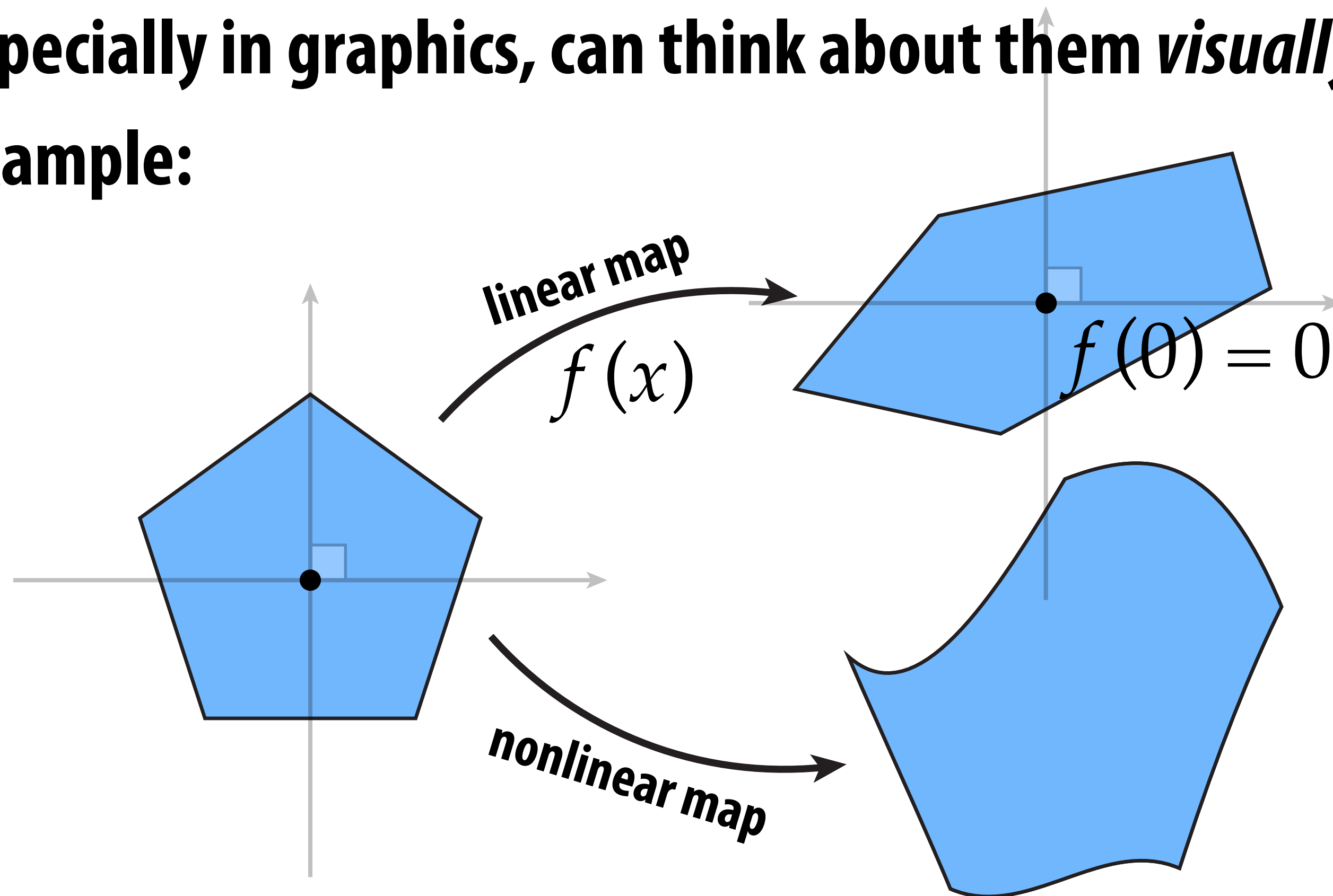
- What is a linear map?
- Especially in graphics, can think about them *visually*.
- Example:



**Key idea: *linear maps take lines to lines\****

# Linear Maps—Geometric Definition

- What is a linear map?
- Especially in graphics, can think about them *visually*.
- Example:



**Key idea: *linear maps take lines to lines*\***

**\*...while keeping the origin fixed.**

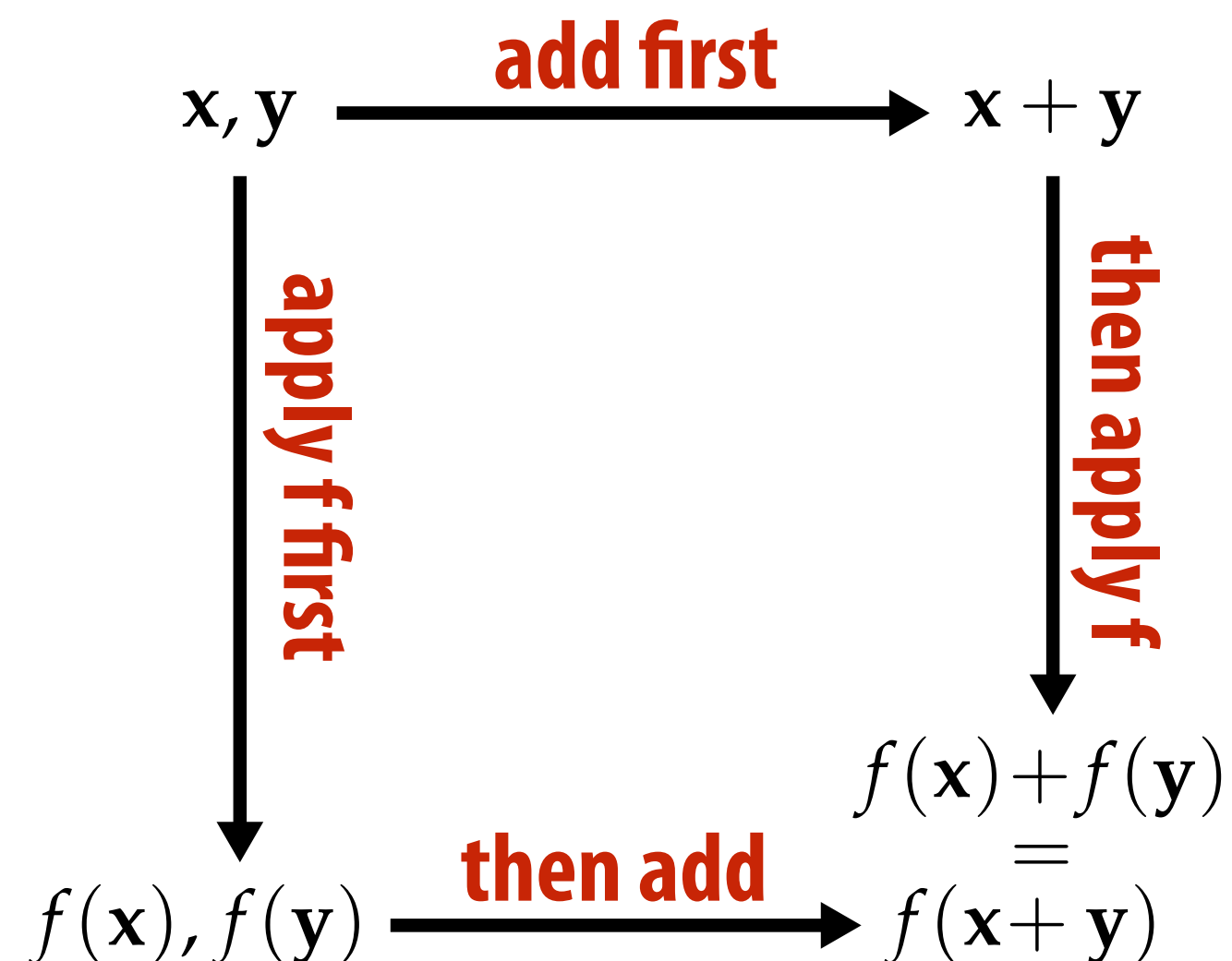
# Linear Maps—Algebraic Definition

- A map  $f$  is **linear** if it maps *vectors to vectors*, and if for all vectors  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}$  and scalars  $a$  we have

$$f(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{u}) + f(\mathbf{v})$$

$$f(a\mathbf{u}) = af(\mathbf{u})$$

- In other words: if it doesn't matter whether we add the vectors and then apply the map, or apply the map and then add the vectors (and likewise for scaling):

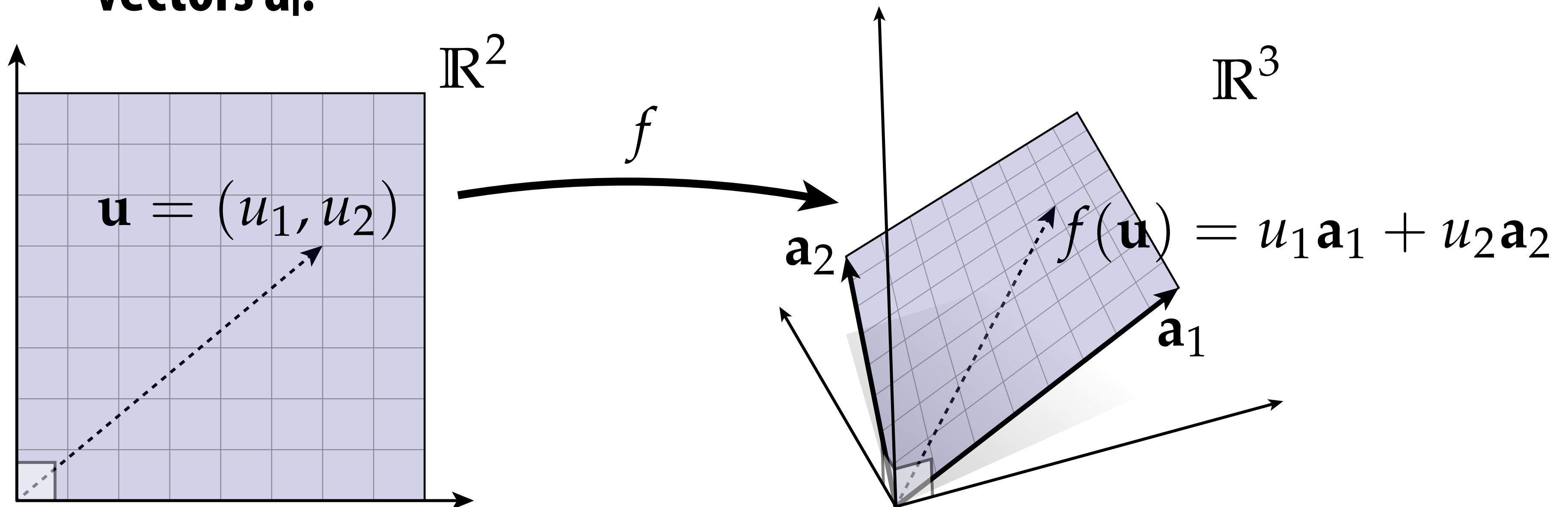


# Linear Maps in Coordinates

- For maps between  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (e.g., a map from 2D to 3D), we can give an even more explicit definition.
- A map is linear if it can be expressed as

$$f(u_1, \dots, u_m) = \sum_{i=1}^m u_i \mathbf{a}_i$$

- In other words, if it is a linear combination of a fixed set of vectors  $\mathbf{a}_i$ :

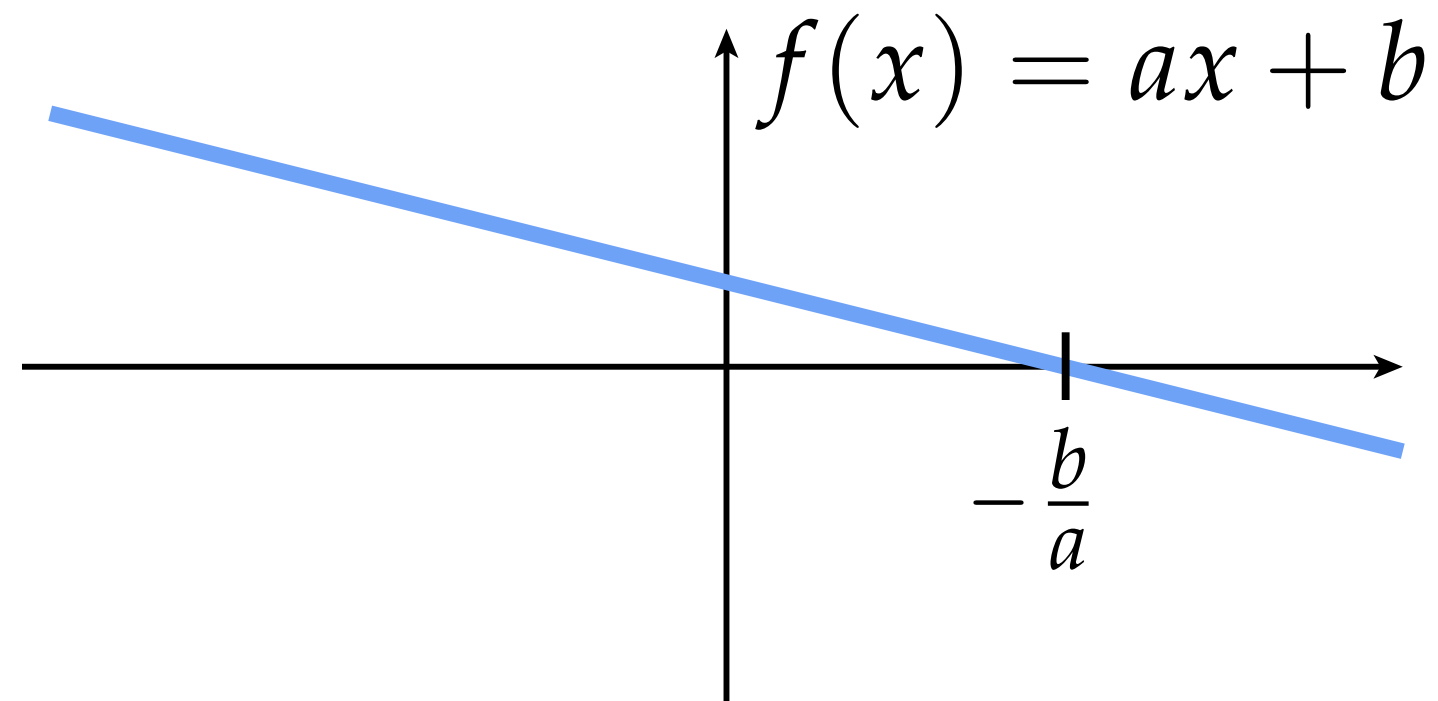


**Q: Is  $f(x) := ax + b$  a linear function?**



# Linear vs. Affine Maps

- No! But it's easy to be fooled, since the graph looks like a line:



- However, it's not a line through the *origin*, i.e.,  $f(0) \neq 0$ .
- Another way to see it's not linear? Doesn't preserve sums:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1 + x_2) &= a(x_1 + x_2) + b = ax_1 + ax_2 + b \\ f(x_1) + f(x_2) &= (ax_1 + b) + (ax_2 + b) = ax_1 + ax_2 + 2b \end{aligned}$$

- This function is called an **AFFINE** function (not a **LINEAR** one).
- Later we'll see an important computer graphics magic trick: turn affine functions (e.g., translation) into linear ones via *homogeneous coordinates*.

**More interesting question:**

**Q: Is  $f(u) := \int_0^1 u(x) dx$  a linear map?**

**(Think about it—it will be  
part of your homework!)**

# Span

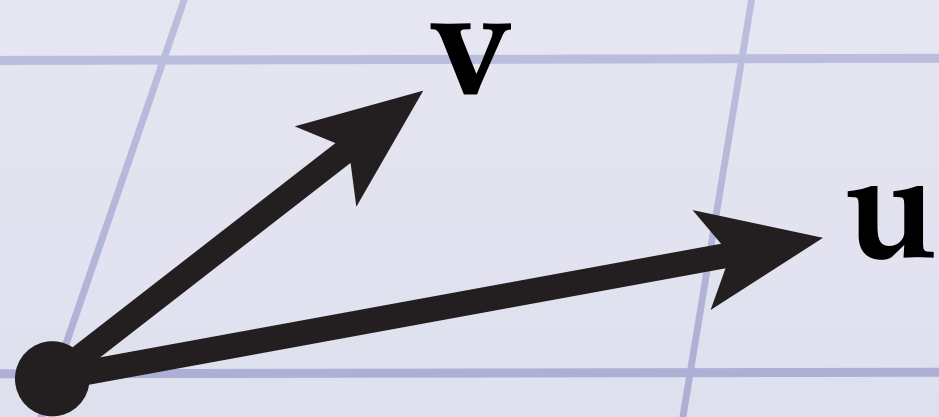
**Q: Geometrically, what is the *span* of two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ ?**

**A: The span is the set of all vectors that can be written as a linear combination of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , i.e., vectors of the form**

$$a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{v}$$

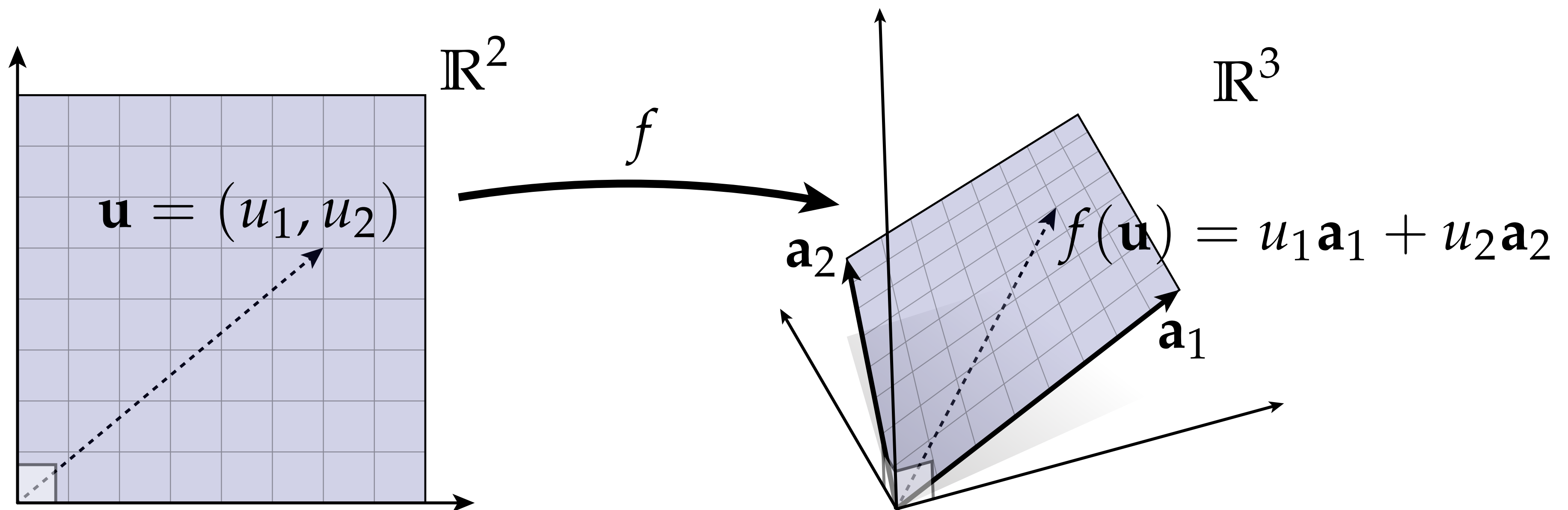
**for any two numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ .**

**More generally:**  $\text{span}(\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k) = \left\{ \mathbf{x} \in V \mid \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \mathbf{u}_i, a_1, \dots, a_k \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$



# Span & Linear Maps

- Just a bit of language—can connect “span” and “linear map”:
- “The *image* of any linear map is the span of some collection of vectors.”



**Q: What's the *image* of a function?**

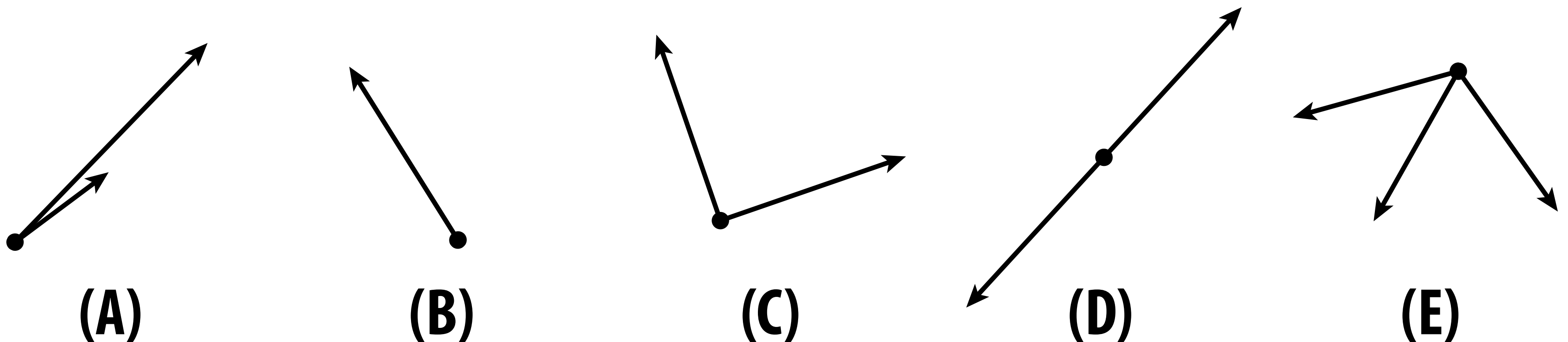


# Basis

- Span is also closely related to the idea of a *basis*.
- In particular, if we have exactly  $n$  vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  such that

$$\text{span}(\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n) = \mathbb{R}^n$$

- Then we say that these vectors are a **basis** for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Note: many different choices of basis!
- Q: Which of the following are bases for the 2D plane ( $n=2$ )?

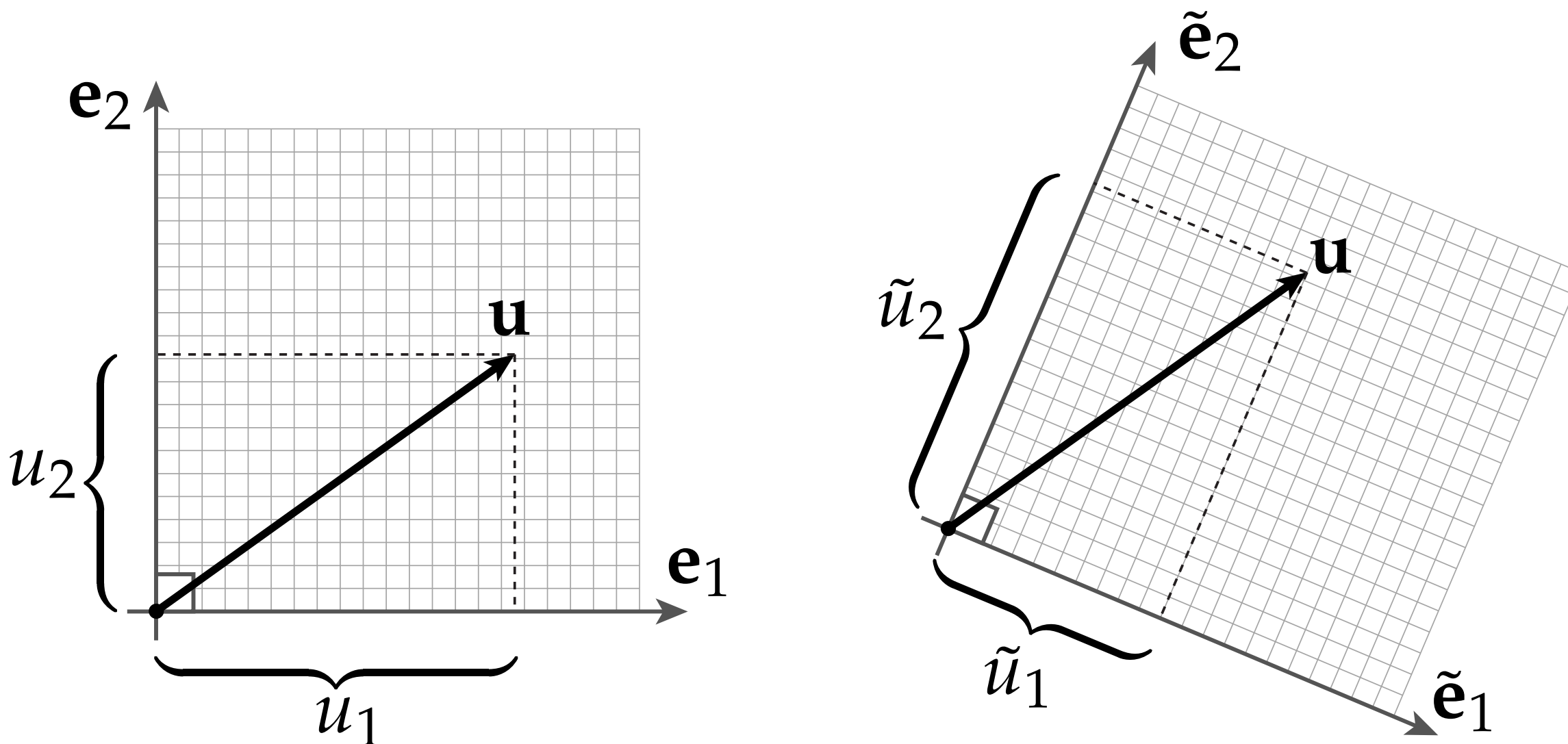


# Orthonormal Basis

- Most often, it is convenient to have basis vectors that are (i) unit length and (ii) mutually orthogonal.
- In other words, if  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  are our basis vectors then

$$\langle \mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

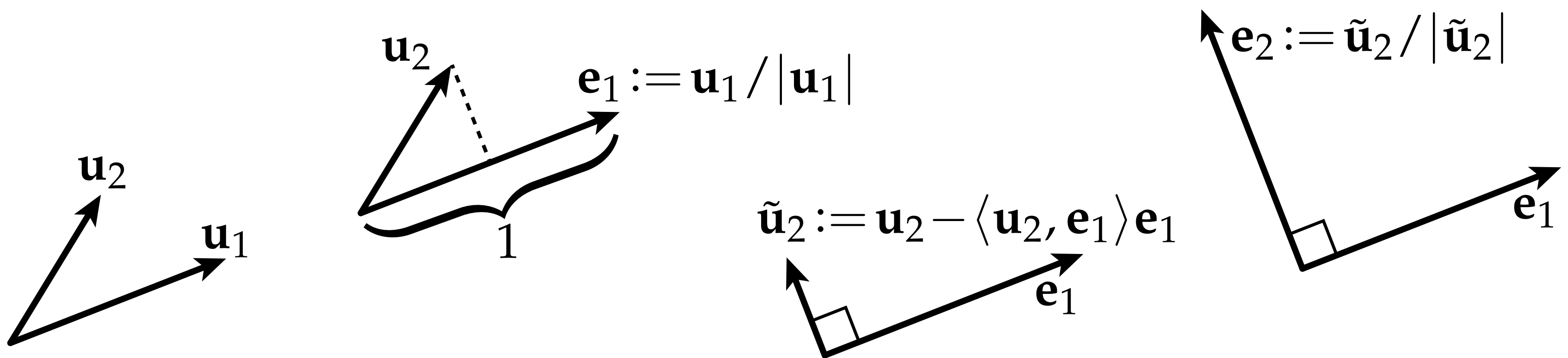
- This way, the geometric meaning of the sum  $u_1^2 + \dots + u_n^2$  is maintained: it is the length of the vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .



**Common bug: projecting a vector onto a basis that is NOT orthonormal while continuing to use standard norm / inner product.**

# Gram-Schmidt

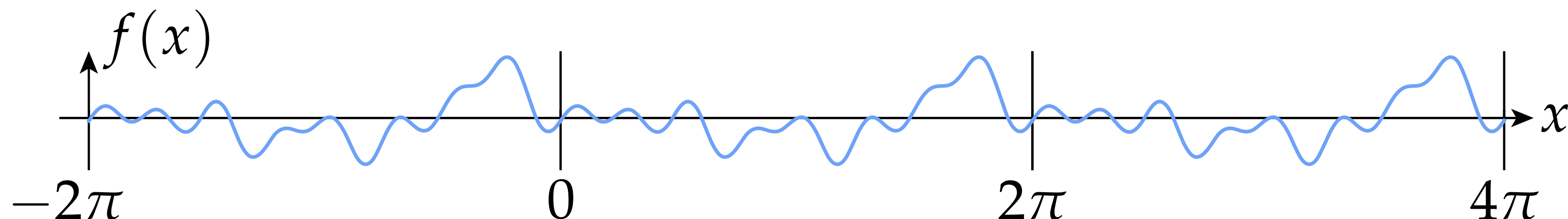
- Given a collection of basis vectors  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$ , how do we find an **orthonormal** basis  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ ?
- Gram-Schmidt algorithm:
  - normalize the first vector (i.e., divide by its length)
  - subtract any component of the 1st vector from the 2nd one
  - normalize the 2nd one
  - repeat, removing components of first  $k$  vectors from vector  $k+1$



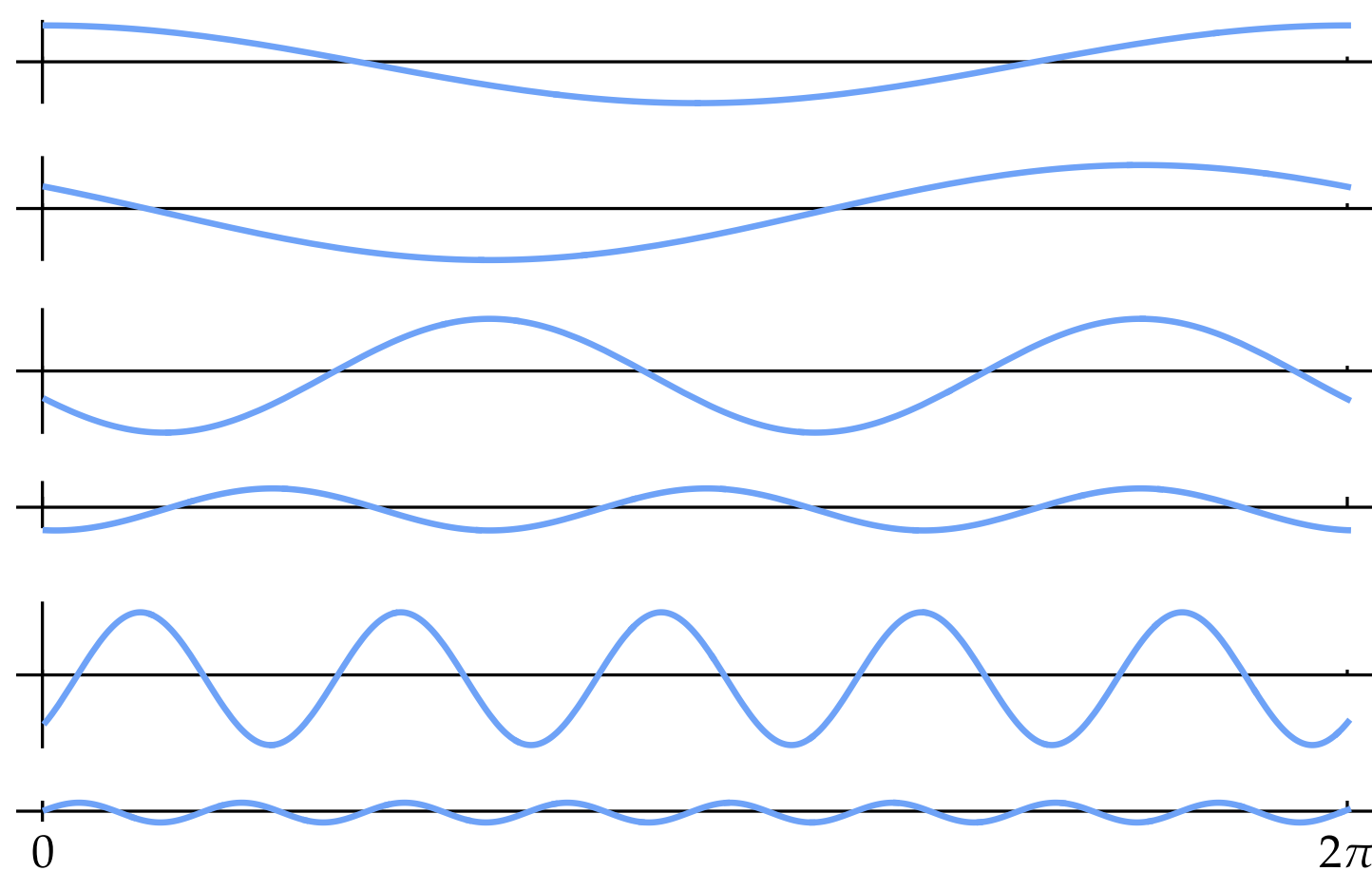
**\*WARNING:** for large number of vectors / nearly parallel vectors, not the best algorithm...

# Fourier Transform

- Functions are also vectors. Do they have an orthonormal basis?
- Yes! This is the basic idea behind the *Fourier transform*.
- Simple example: functions that repeat at intervals of  $2\pi$ :



- Can project onto basis of sinusoids:  $\cos(nx), \sin(mx)$ ,  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ 
  - really just a **linear map** from one basis to another
  - fundamental building block for many graphics algorithms



lots of low- and mid-frequency oscillation

not as much high-frequency oscillation

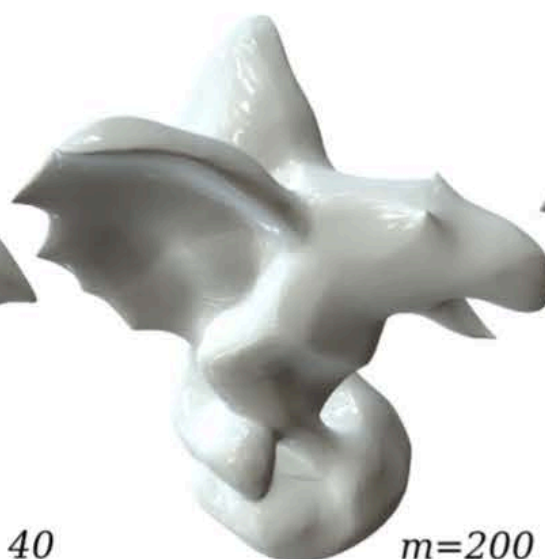


# Frequency Decomposition of Signals

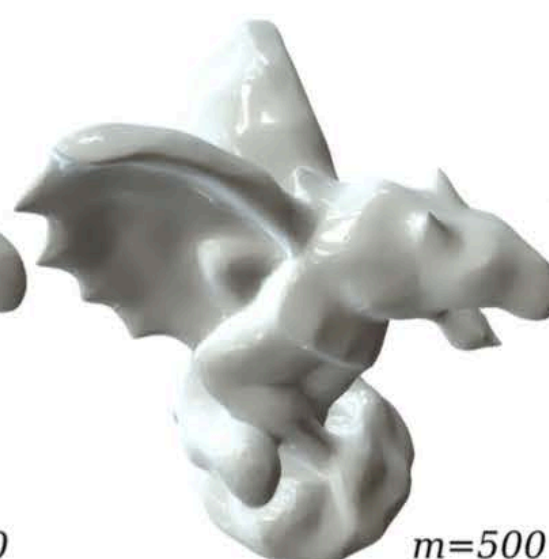
- More generally, this idea of projecting a signal onto different “frequencies” is known as **Fourier decomposition**
- Can be applied to all sorts of signals; basic tool used across, image processing, rendering, geometry, physical simulation...
- Will have plenty more to say as course goes on!



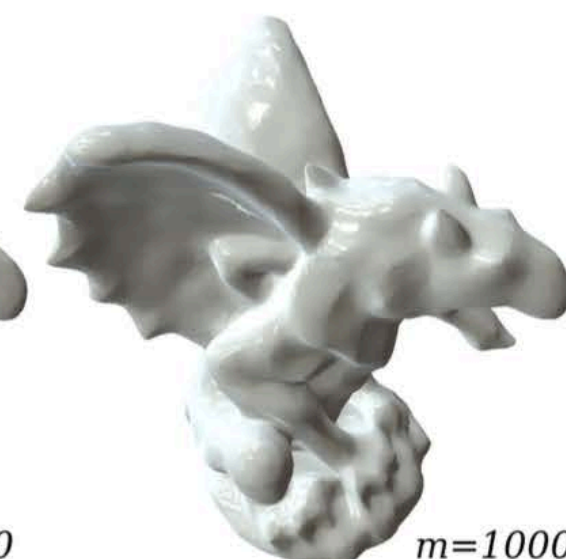
$m = 40$



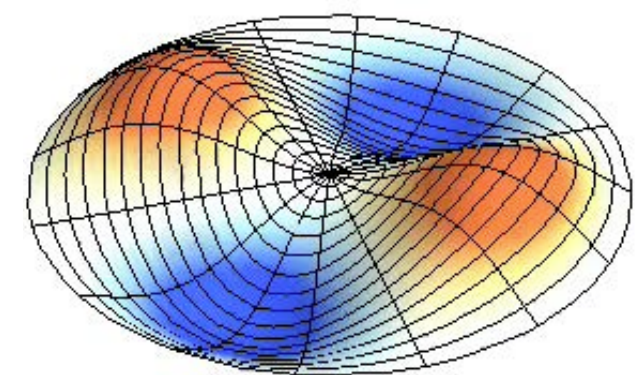
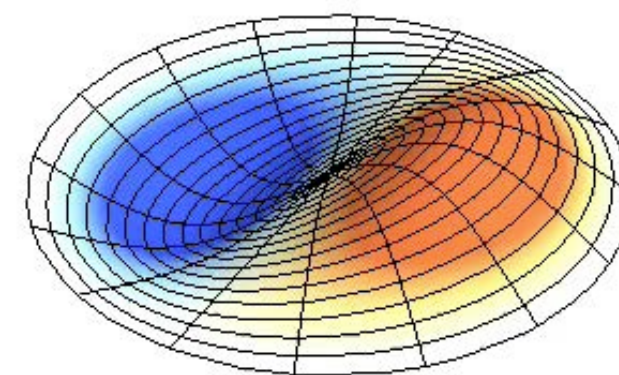
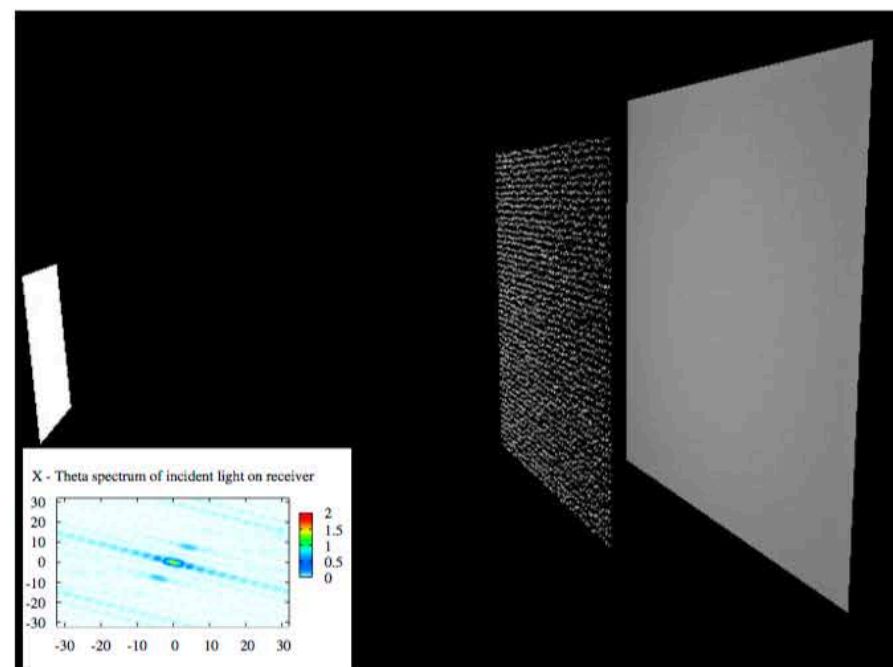
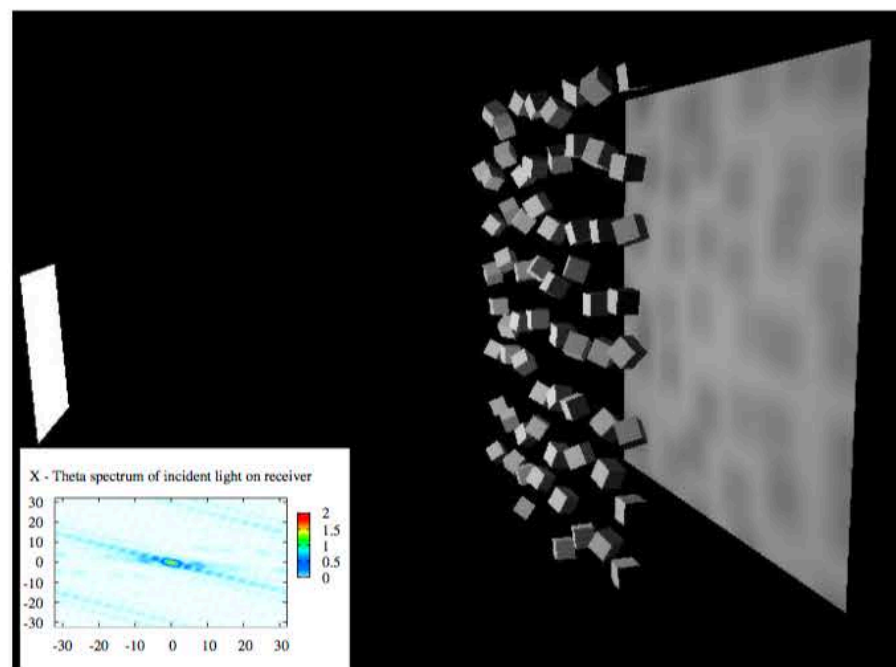
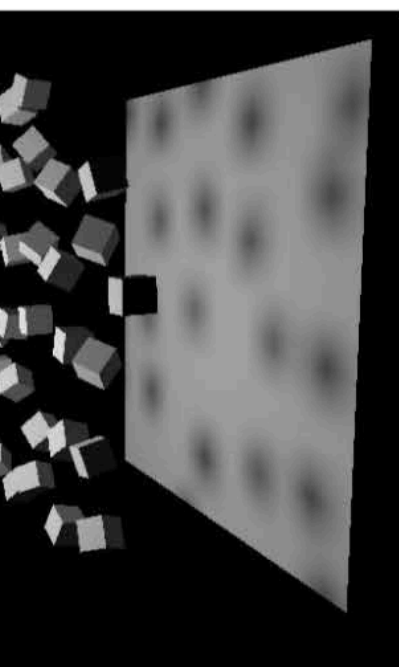
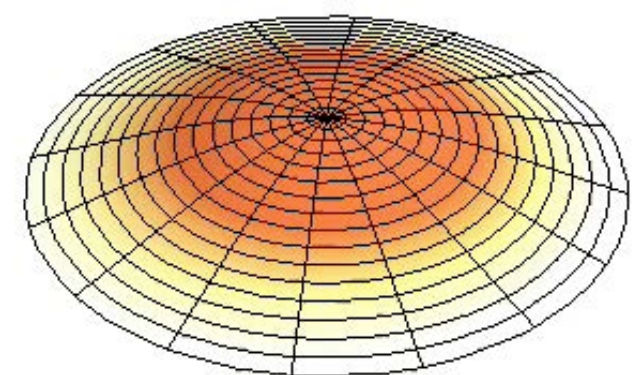
$m=200$



$m=500$



$m=1000$





# System of Linear Equations

- A system of linear equations is exactly what it sounds like: a bunch of equations where left-hand side is a linear function, right hand side is constant. E.g.,

$$\begin{aligned}x + 2y &= 3 \\4x + 5y &= 6\end{aligned}$$

- Unknown values are sometimes called “degrees of freedom” (DOFs); equations sometimes called “constraints”
- Goal: solve for DOFs that simultaneously satisfy constraints:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= 3 - 2y \\4(3 - 2y) + 5y &= 6\end{aligned}$$

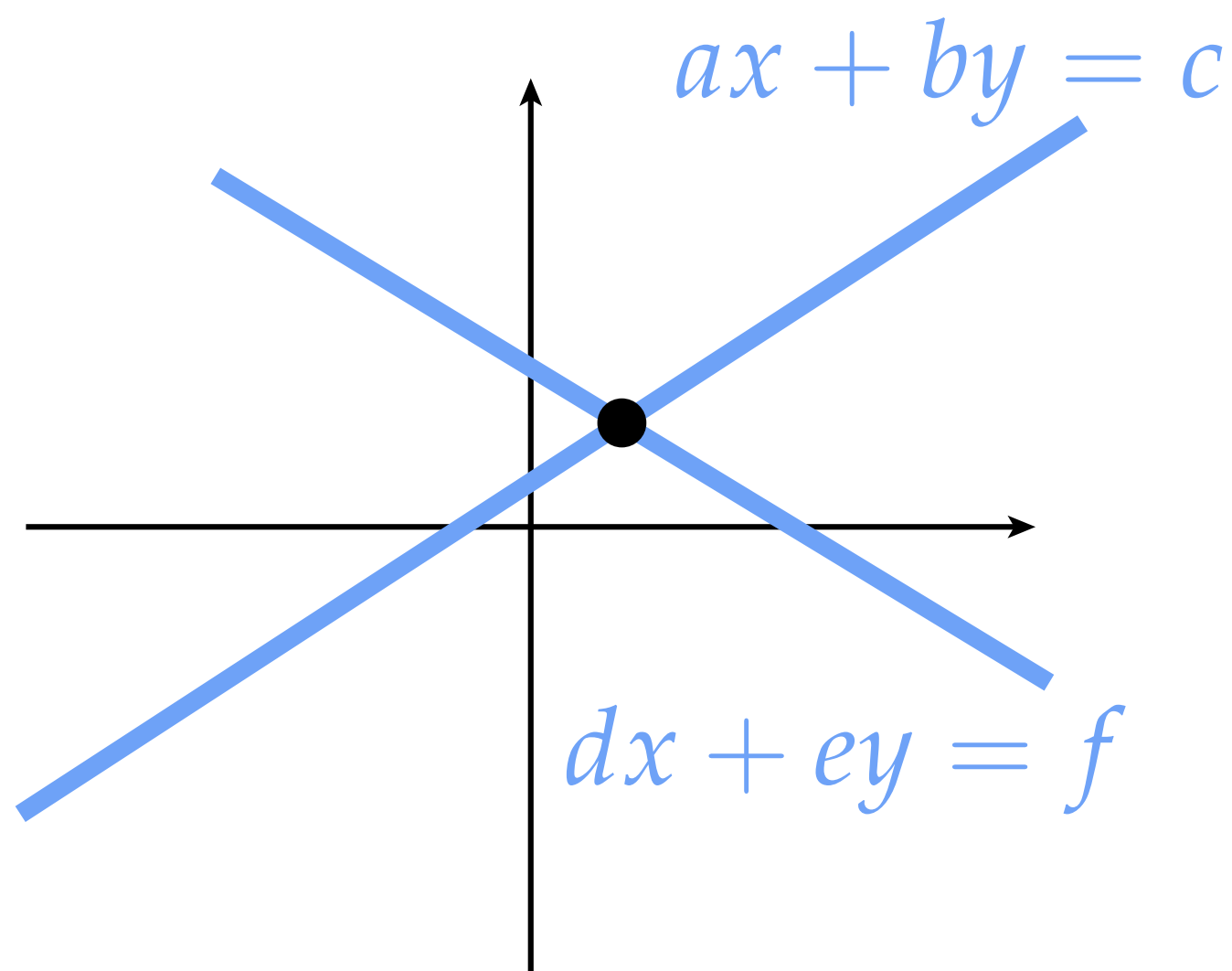
$$\boxed{\begin{aligned}y &= 2 \\x &= -1\end{aligned}}$$

**What does solving a linear system *mean*?**

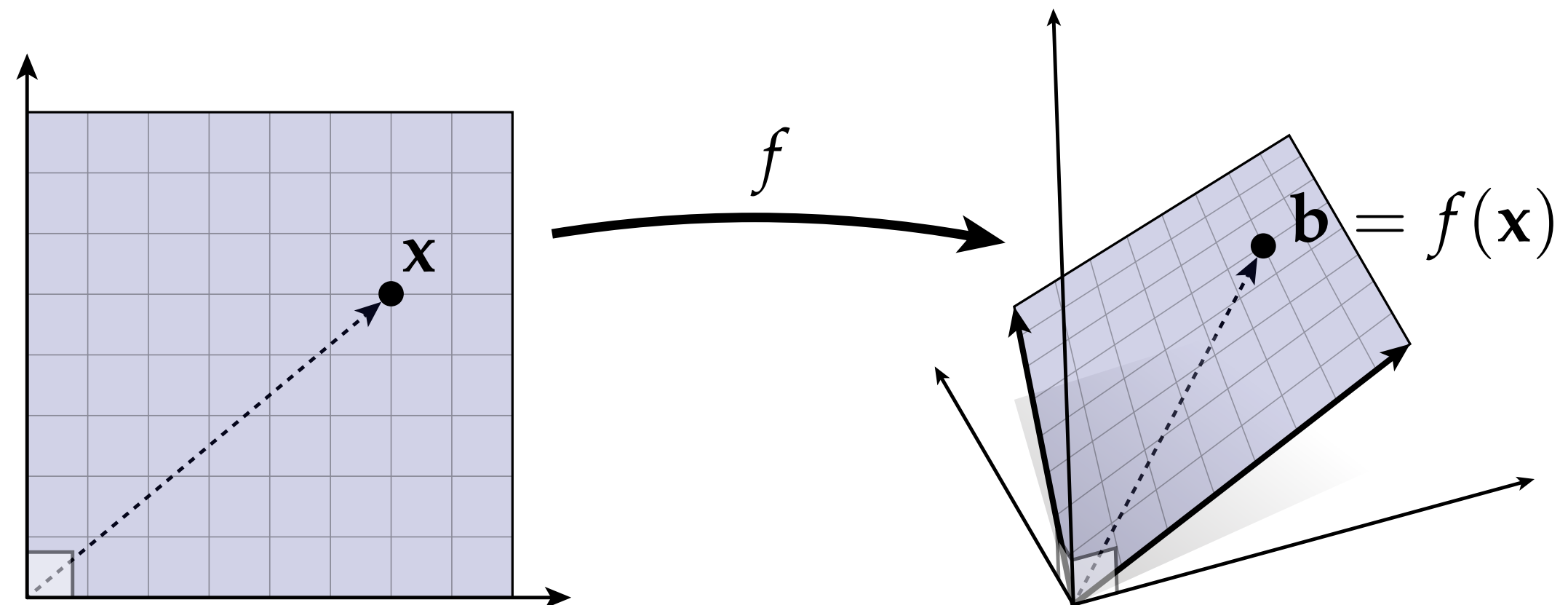
# Linear System, Visualized

- Of course, a linear system can be used to represent many different practical tasks (simulation, processing, etc.).
- But for any linear system, there are some good mental models to visualize:

Find the point where two lines meet:

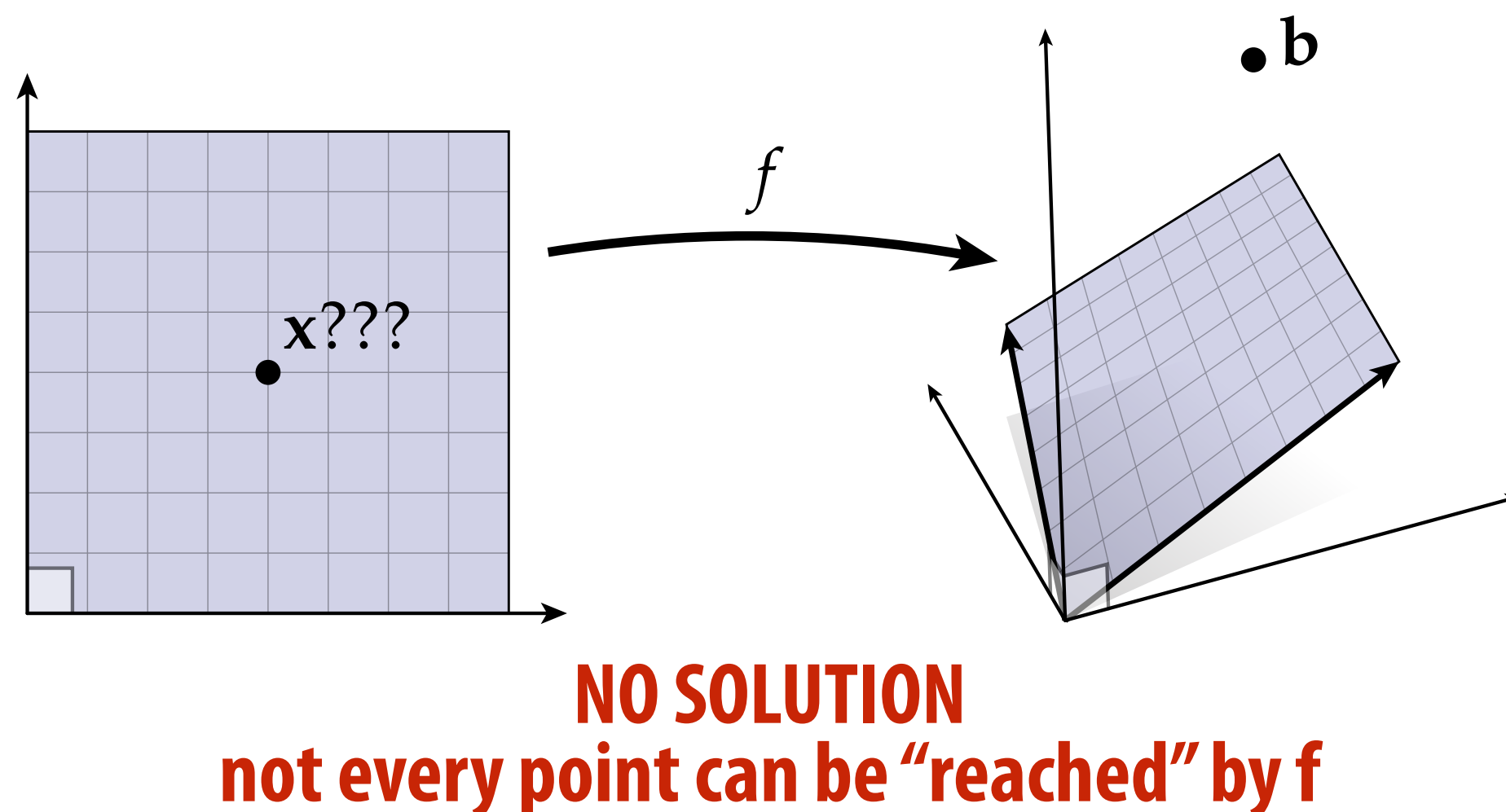
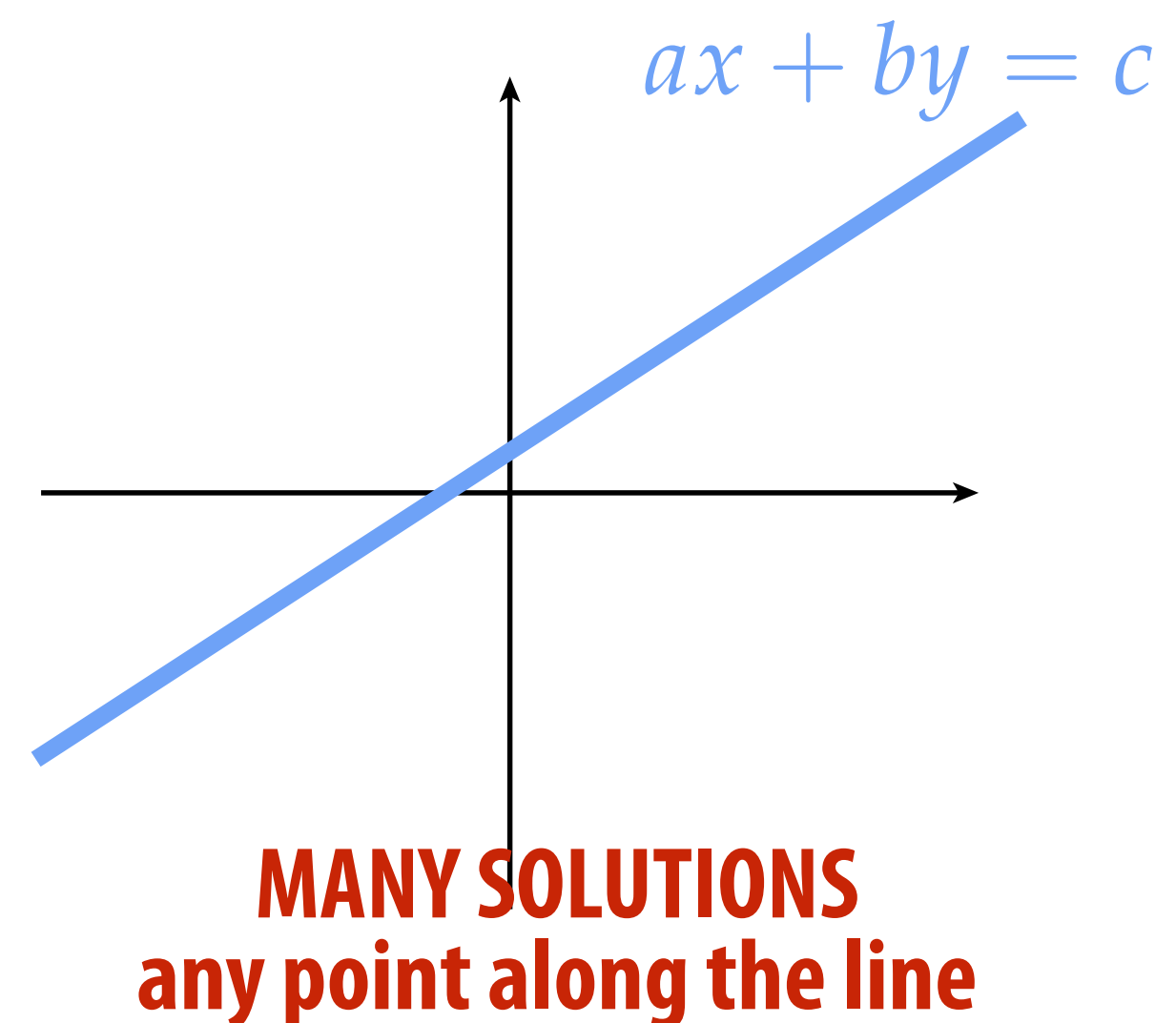
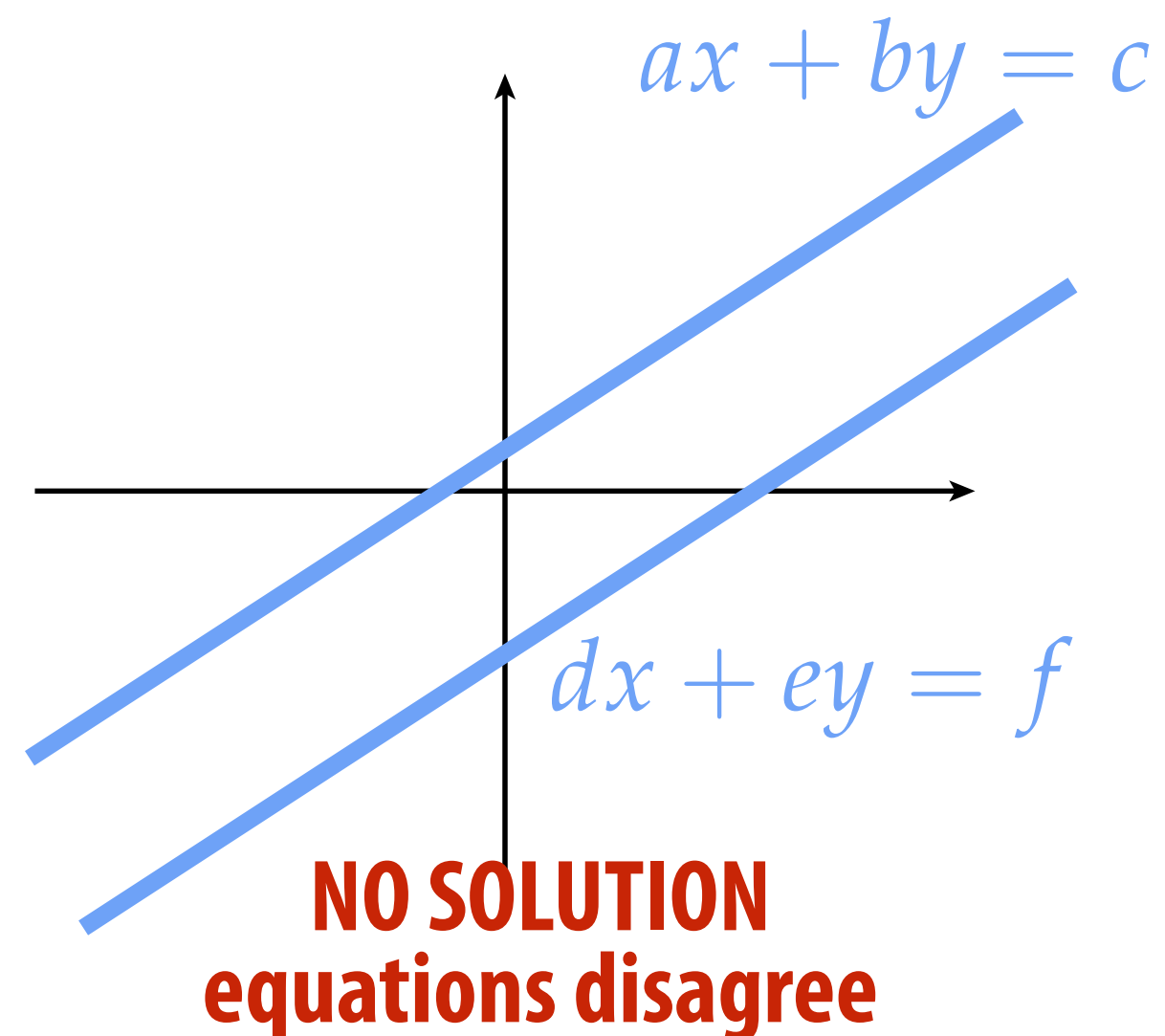


GIVEN a point  $b$ , FIND the point  $x$  that maps to it:



# Uniqueness, Existence of Solutions

- Of course, not all linear systems can be solved! (And even those that can be solved may not have a unique solution.)



**Wait, what about matrices?!**



# Matrices in Linear Algebra

- Linear algebra often taught from the perspective of *matrices*, i.e., pushing around little blocks of numbers.
- But linear algebra is not fundamentally *about* matrices.
- As you've just seen, you can understand almost all the basic concepts without ever touching a matrix!
- Likewise, matrices can interfere with understanding / lead to confusion, since the same object (a block of numbers) is used to represent many different things (linear map, quadratic form, ...) in many different bases.
- Still, VERY useful!
  - symbolic manipulation
  - numerical computation

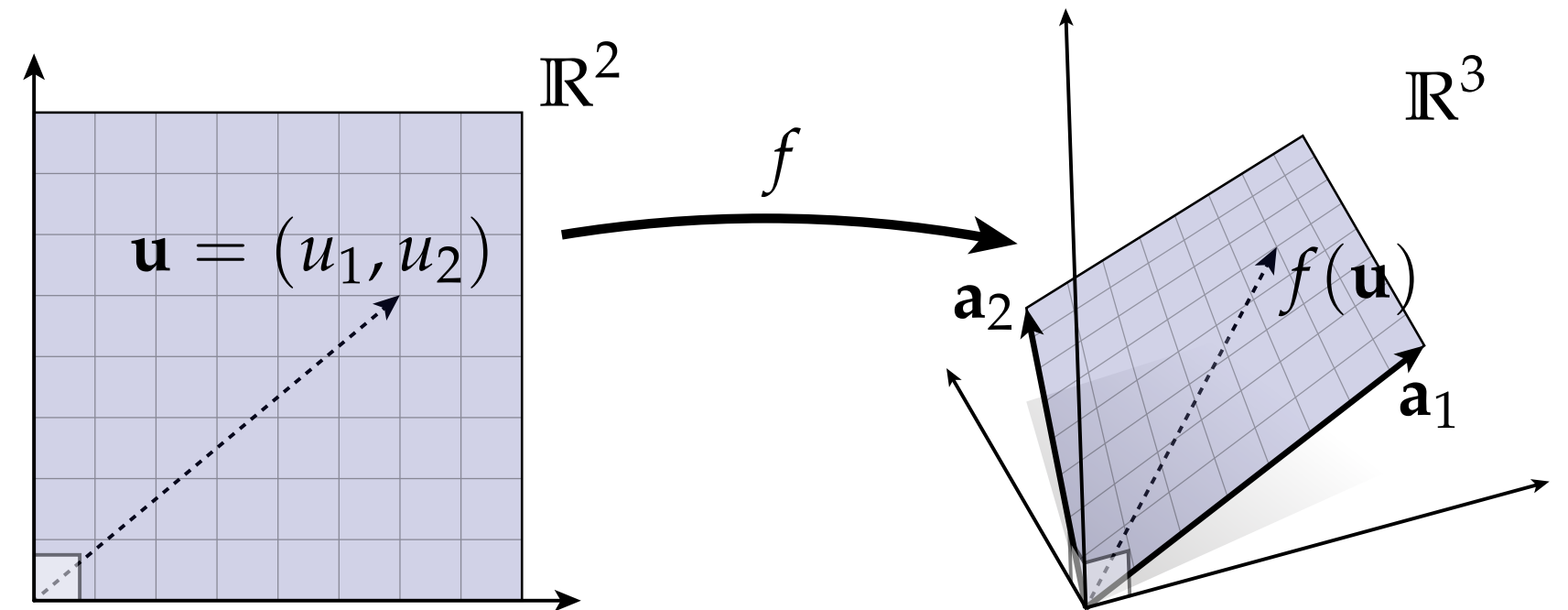
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 3 \\ 4 & 9 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

What does this thing mean/  
encode/do/represent?

# Representing Linear Maps via Matrices

- Key example: suppose I have a linear map

$$f(\mathbf{u}) = u_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + u_2 \mathbf{a}_2$$



- How do I encode as a matrix?
- Easy: “a” vectors become matrix columns:

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,x} & a_{2,x} \\ a_{1,y} & a_{2,y} \\ a_{1,z} & a_{2,z} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Now, matrix-vector multiply recovers original map:

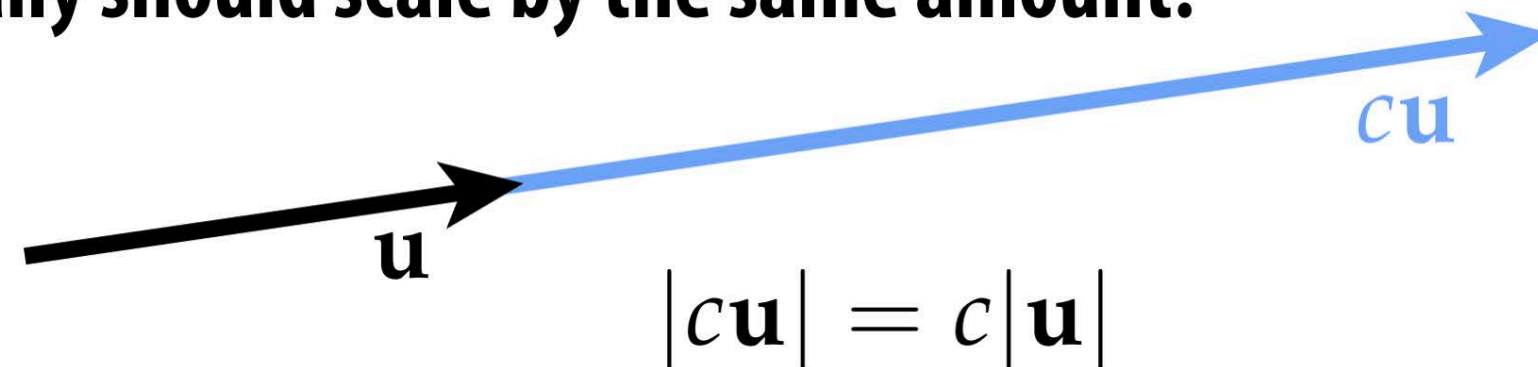
$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,x} & a_{2,x} \\ a_{1,y} & a_{2,y} \\ a_{1,z} & a_{2,z} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,x}u_1 + a_{2,x}u_2 \\ a_{1,y}u_1 + a_{2,y}u_2 \\ a_{1,z}u_1 + a_{2,z}u_2 \end{bmatrix} = u_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + u_2 \mathbf{a}_2$$

**Don't worry:** if you love matrices, there will  
be plenty of them in your homework!

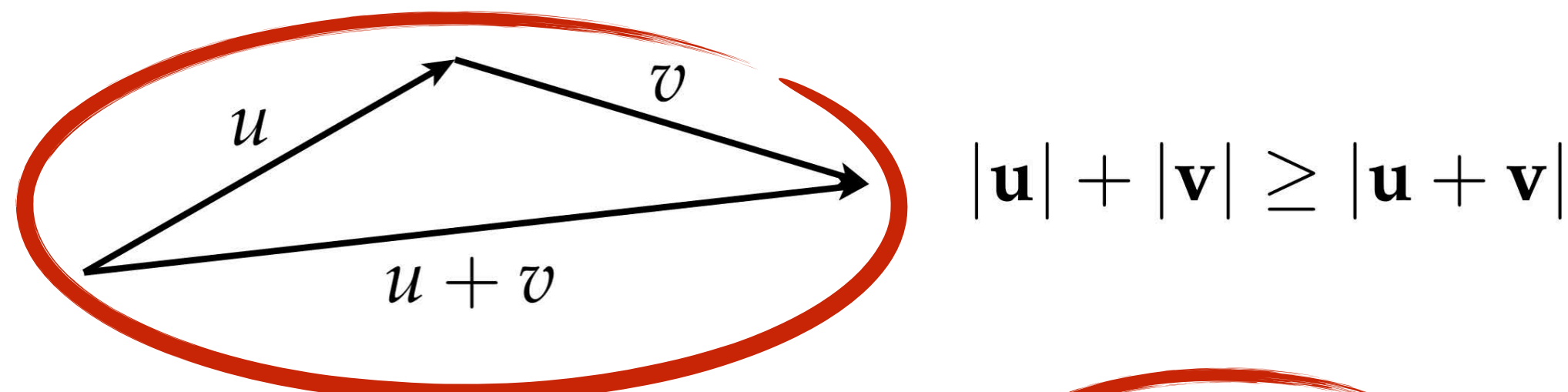
# P.S. What's the “Pentagon inequality?”

## Natural Properties of Length, Continued

- Also, if we scale a vector by a factor  $c$ , its norm (i.e., length) really should scale by the same amount:



- Finally, we know that the shortest path between two points is always along a straight line:



- (This final property is sometimes called the “pentagon inequality,” since the diagram looks like a pentagon.)

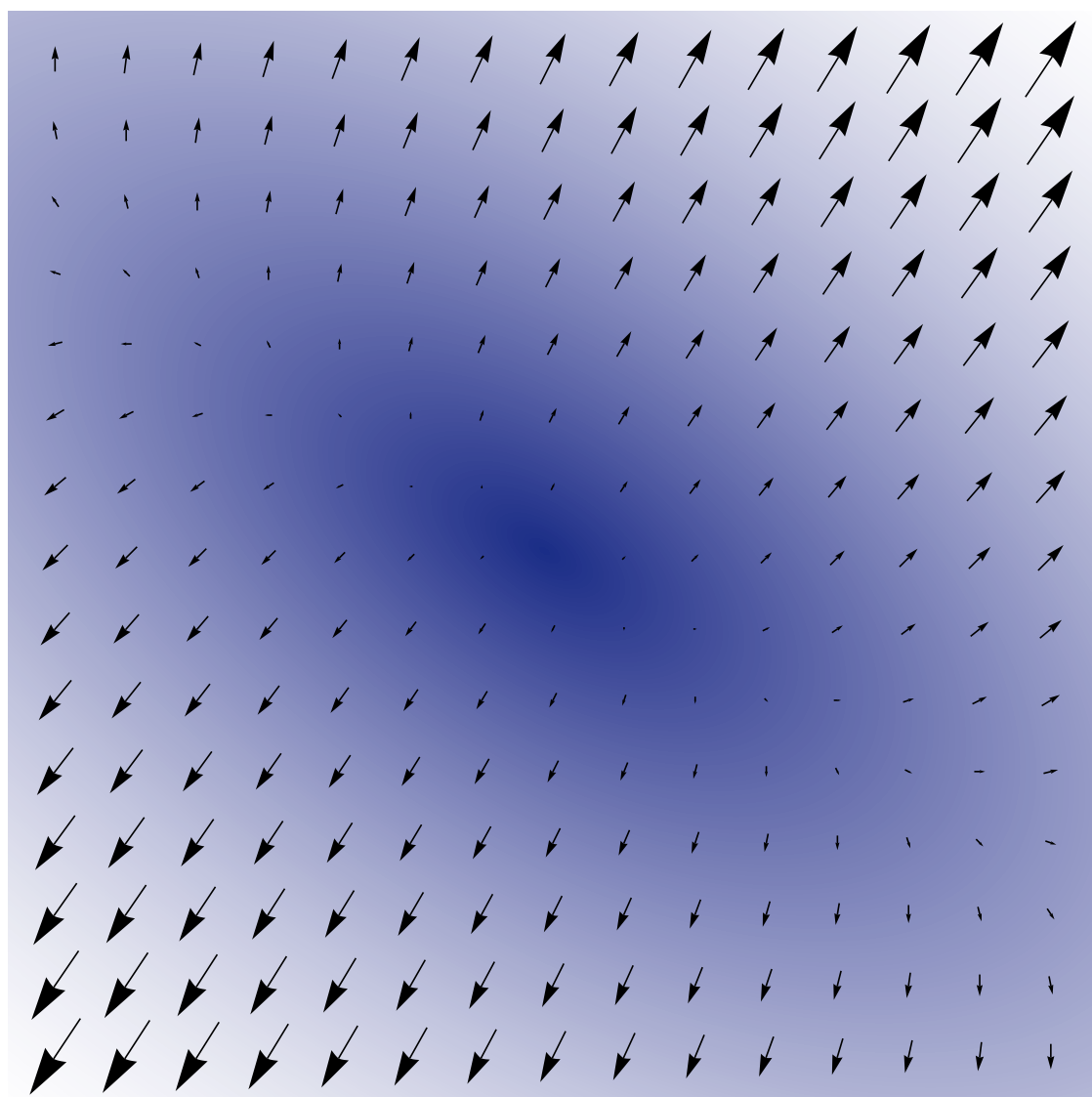
CMU 15-462/662, Fall 2017

Clearly not a pentagon... **ASK QUESTIONS!**

# Next time: Math (P)Review Part II

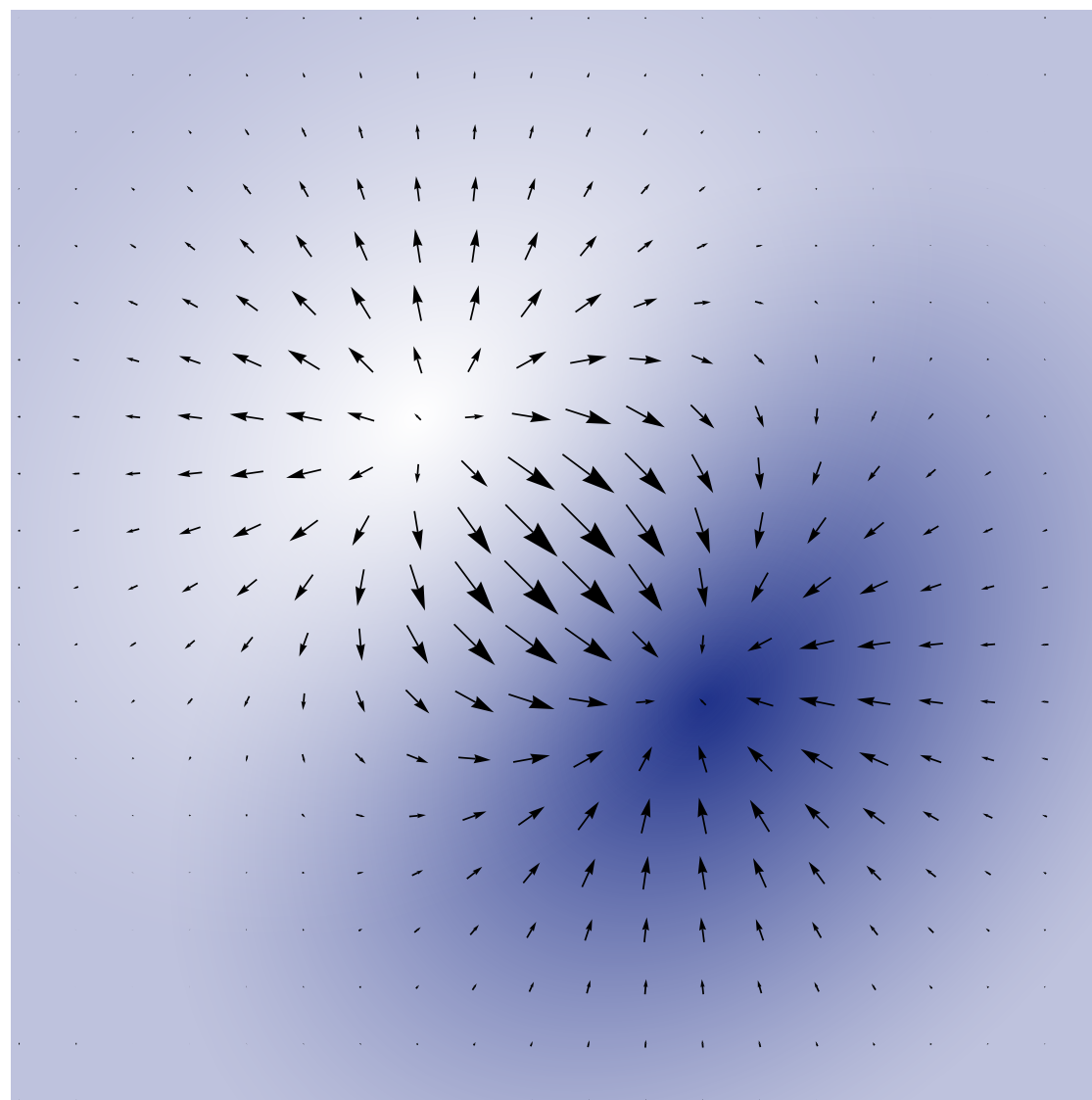
- Vector calculus
- Eigenvalue problems
- Complex numbers

$\phi$



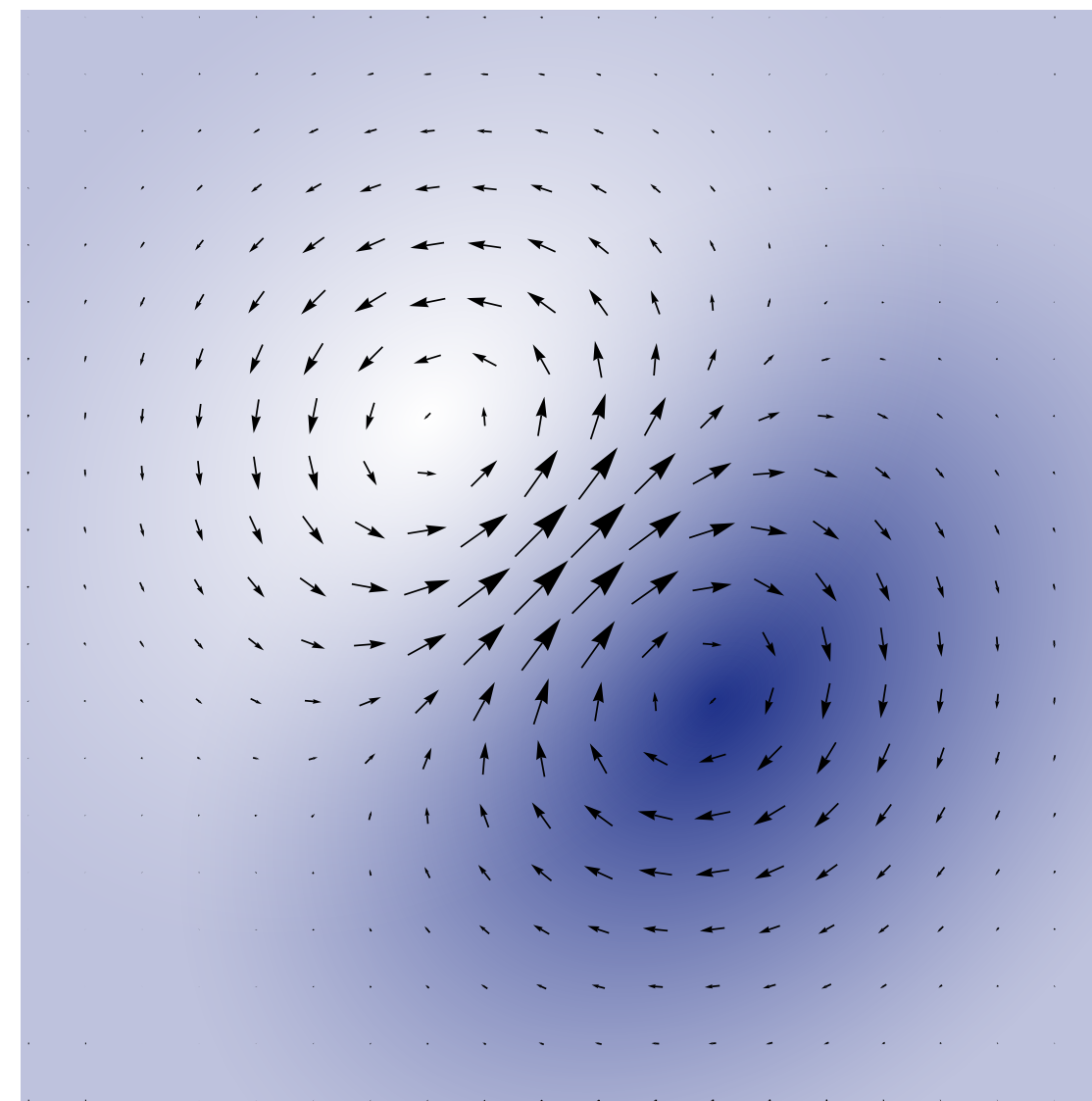
$\text{grad } \phi$

$X$



$\text{div } X$

$Y$



$\text{curl } Y$