# Math (P)Review Part II: Vector Calculus

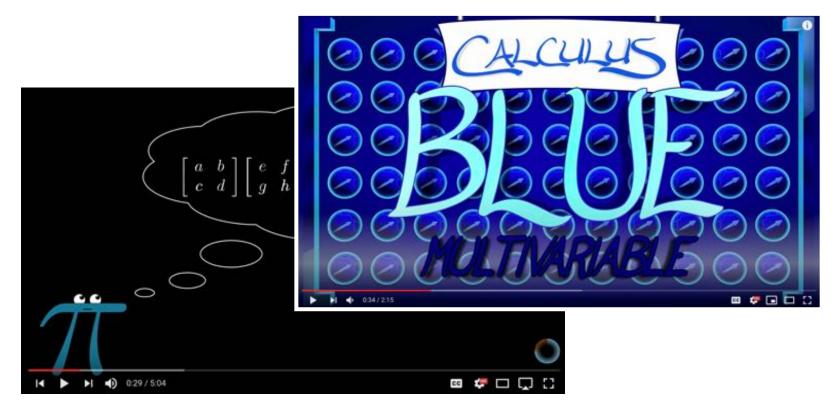
Computer Graphics CMU 15-462/662

# Last Time: Linear Algebra

## Touched on a variety of topics:

vectors & vector spaces norm  $L^2$  norm/inner product span Gram-Schmidt linear systems quadratic forms

Don't have time to cover everything! But there are some fantastic lectures online:

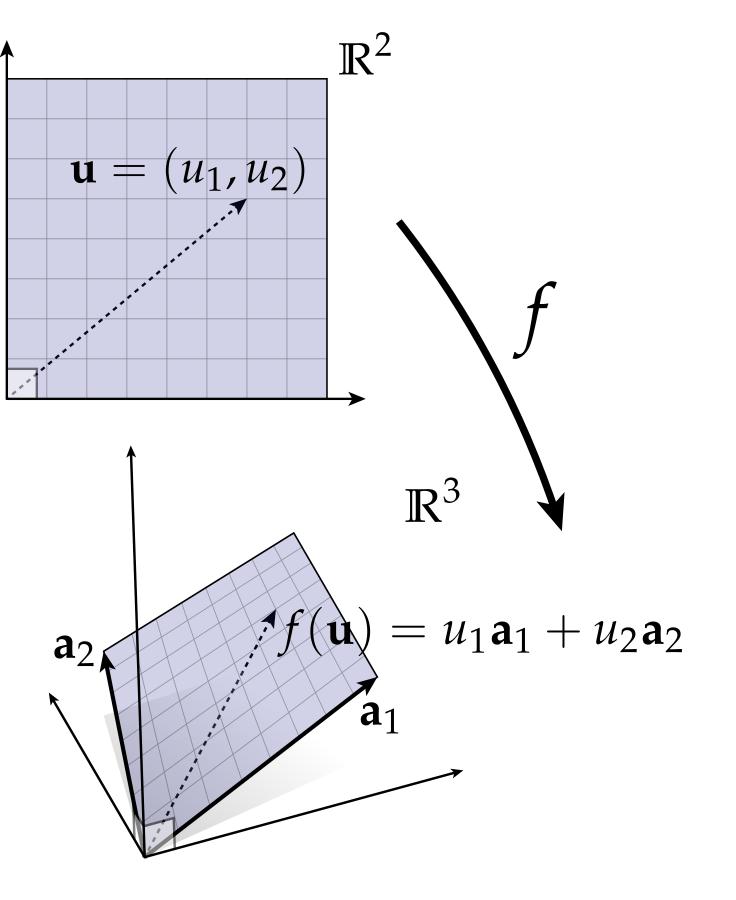


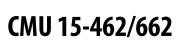
- vectors as functions
  - inner product
  - linear maps
    - basis
- frequency decomposition
  - bilinear forms
    - matrices

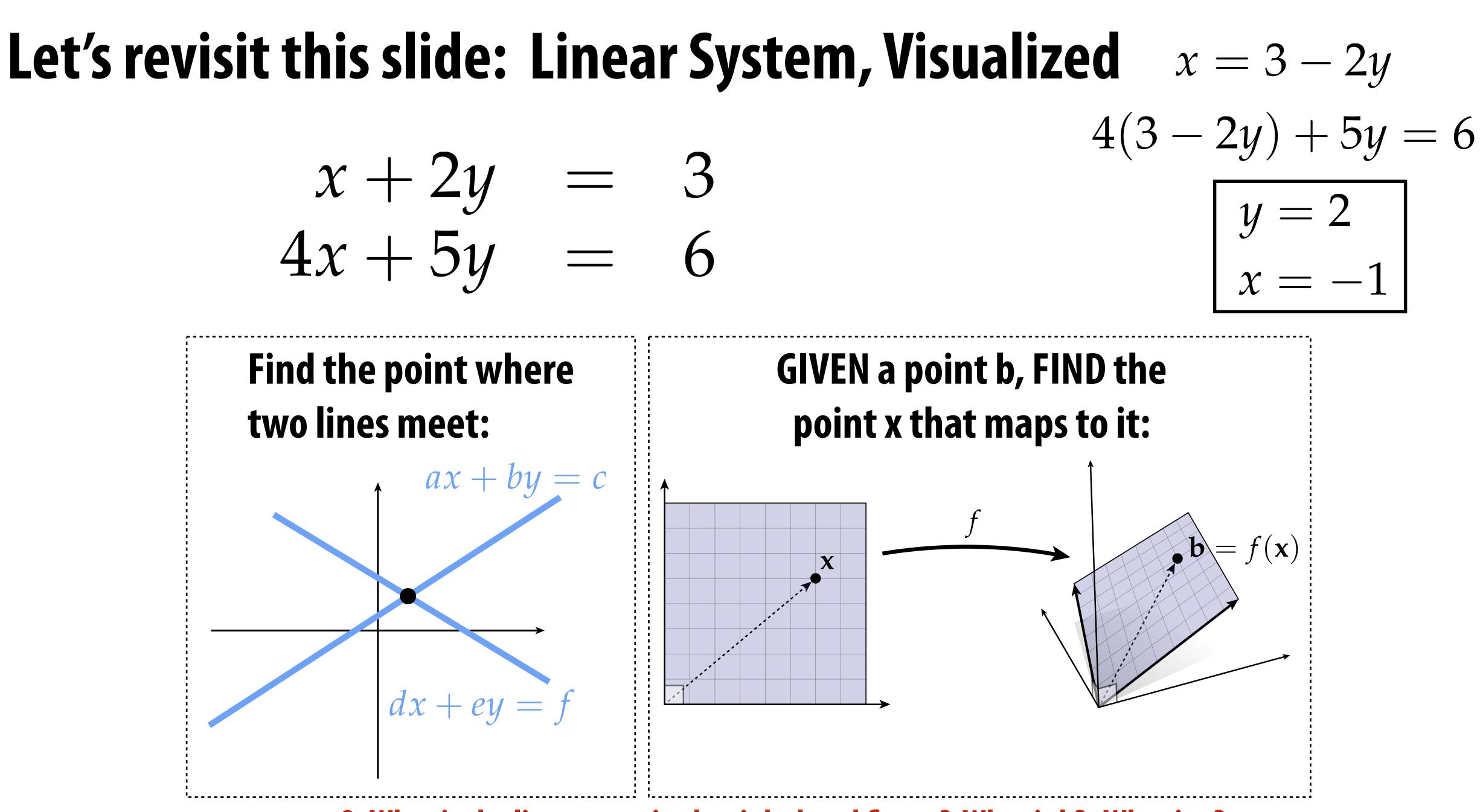
- **3Blue1Brown Essence of Linear Algebra**
- **Robert Ghrist Calculus Blue**

## $\bullet$ $\bullet$ $\bullet$

(Let us know about others online!)







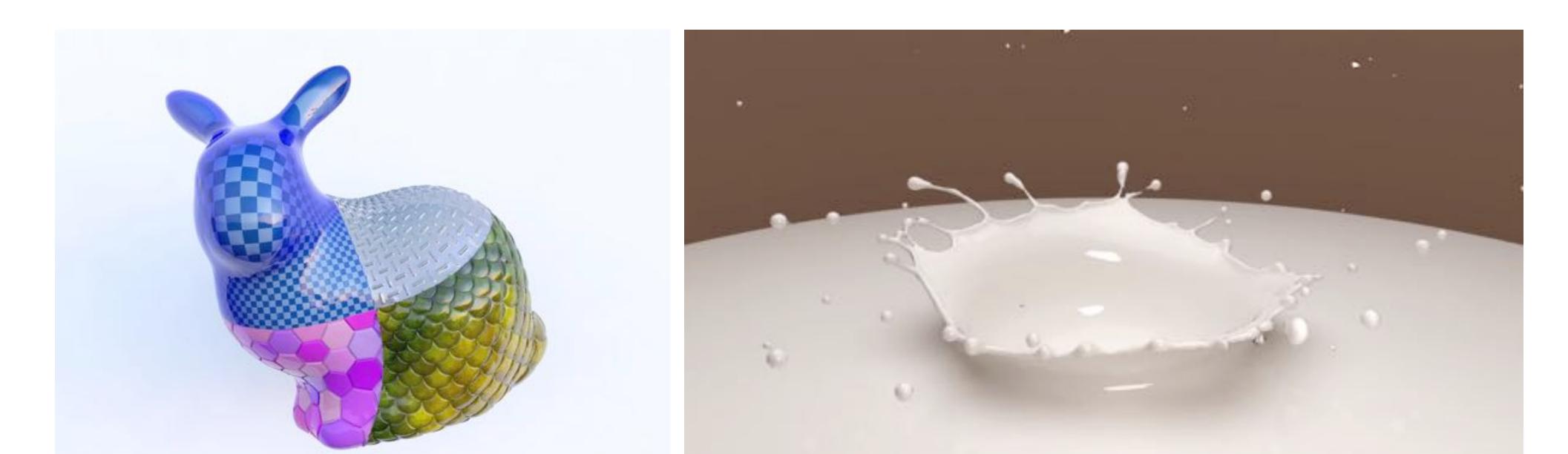
Q: What is the linear map in the right hand figure? What is b? What is x?





## **Vector Calculus in Computer Graphics** Today's topic: vector calculus.

- Why is vector calculus important for computer graphics?
  - Basic language for talking about spatial relationships, transformations, etc.
  - Much of modern graphics (physically-based animation, geometry processing, etc.) formulated in terms of partial differential equations (PDEs) that use div, curl, Laplacian...
  - As we saw last time, vector-valued data is everywhere in graphics!

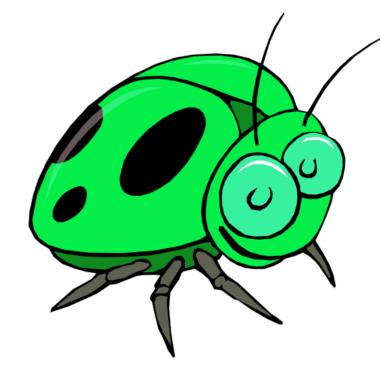


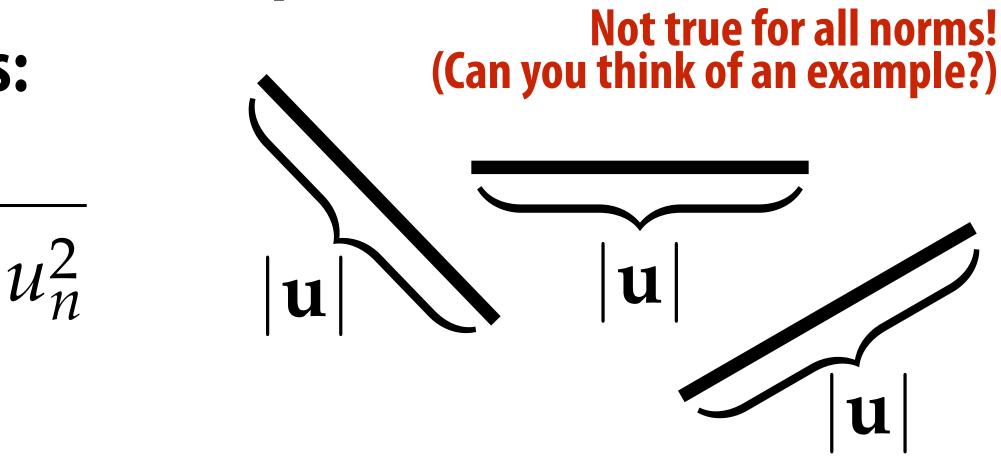


## **Euclidean Norm**

- Last time, developed idea of norm, which measures total size, length, volume, intensity, etc.
- For geometric calculations, the norm we most often care about is the Euclidean norm
- Euclidean norm is any notion of length preserved by rotations/translations/reflections of space.
  - In orthonormal coordinates:

$$|\mathbf{u}| := \sqrt{u_1^2 + \cdots + u_1^2}$$





WARNING: This quantity does not encode geometric length unless vectors are encoded in an orthonormal basis. (Common source of bugs!)



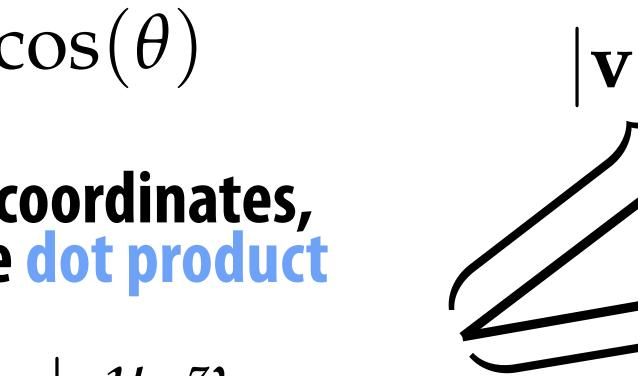
# **Euclidean Inner Product / Dot Product**

- Likewise, lots of possible inner products—intuitively, measure some notion of "alignment."
- For geometric calculations, want to use inner product that captures something about geometry!
- **For n-dimensional vectors, Euclidean inner product defined as**

 $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle := |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos(\theta)$ 

In orthonormal Cartesian coordinates, can be represented via the dot product

 $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} := u_1 v_1 + \cdots + u_n v_n$ 



WARNING: As with Euclidean norm, no geometric meaning unless coordinates come from an orthonormal basis.

 $\theta$ 

U

U



# **Cross Product**

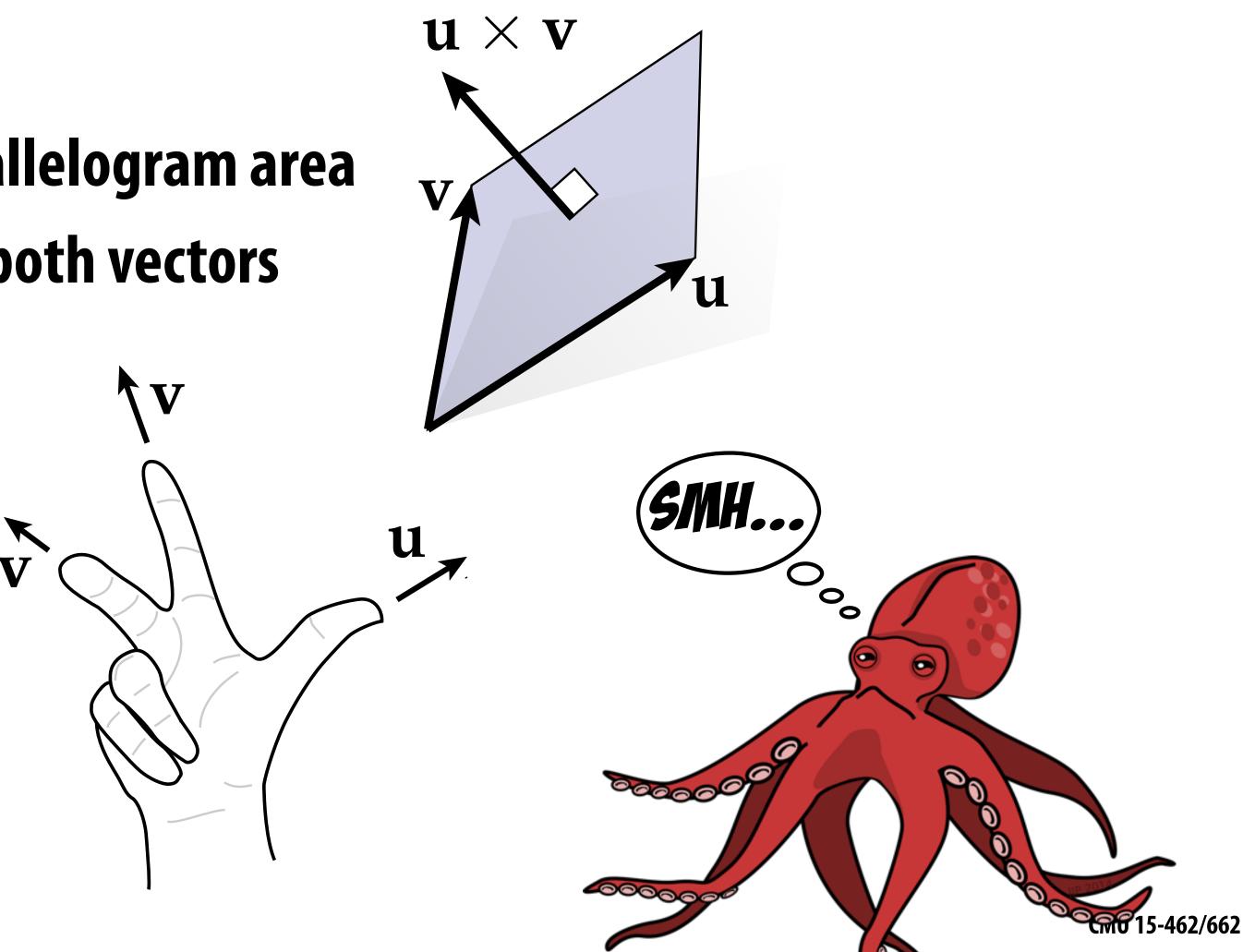
- Inner product takes two vectors and produces a scalar
- In 3D, cross product is a natural way to take two vectors and get a vector, written as "u x v"

## **Geometrically:**

- magnitude equal to parallelogram area
- direction orthogonal to both vectors
- ...but which way?
- Use "right hand rule"

 $\mathbf{u} \times$ 

## (Q: Why only 3D?)



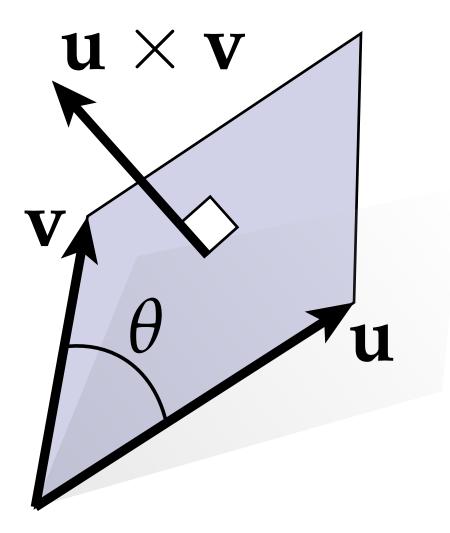
## **Cross Product, Determinant, and Angle** More precise definition (that does not require hands):

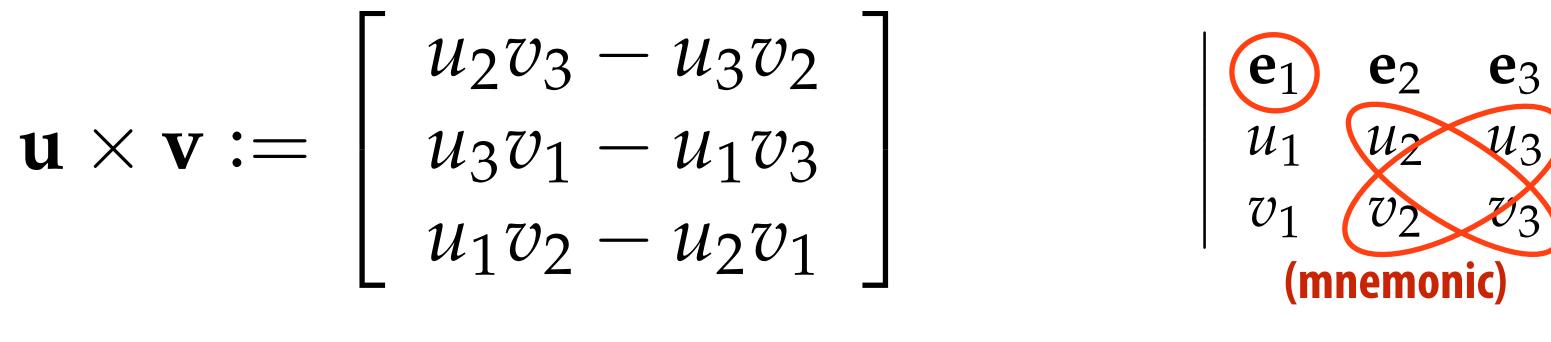
$$\sqrt{\det(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v},\mathbf{u}\times\mathbf{v})} =$$

- $\bullet$  is angle between u and v "det" is determinant of three column vectors Uniquely determines coordinate formula:

• Useful abuse of notation in 2D:  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} := u_1 v_2 - u_2 v_1$ 

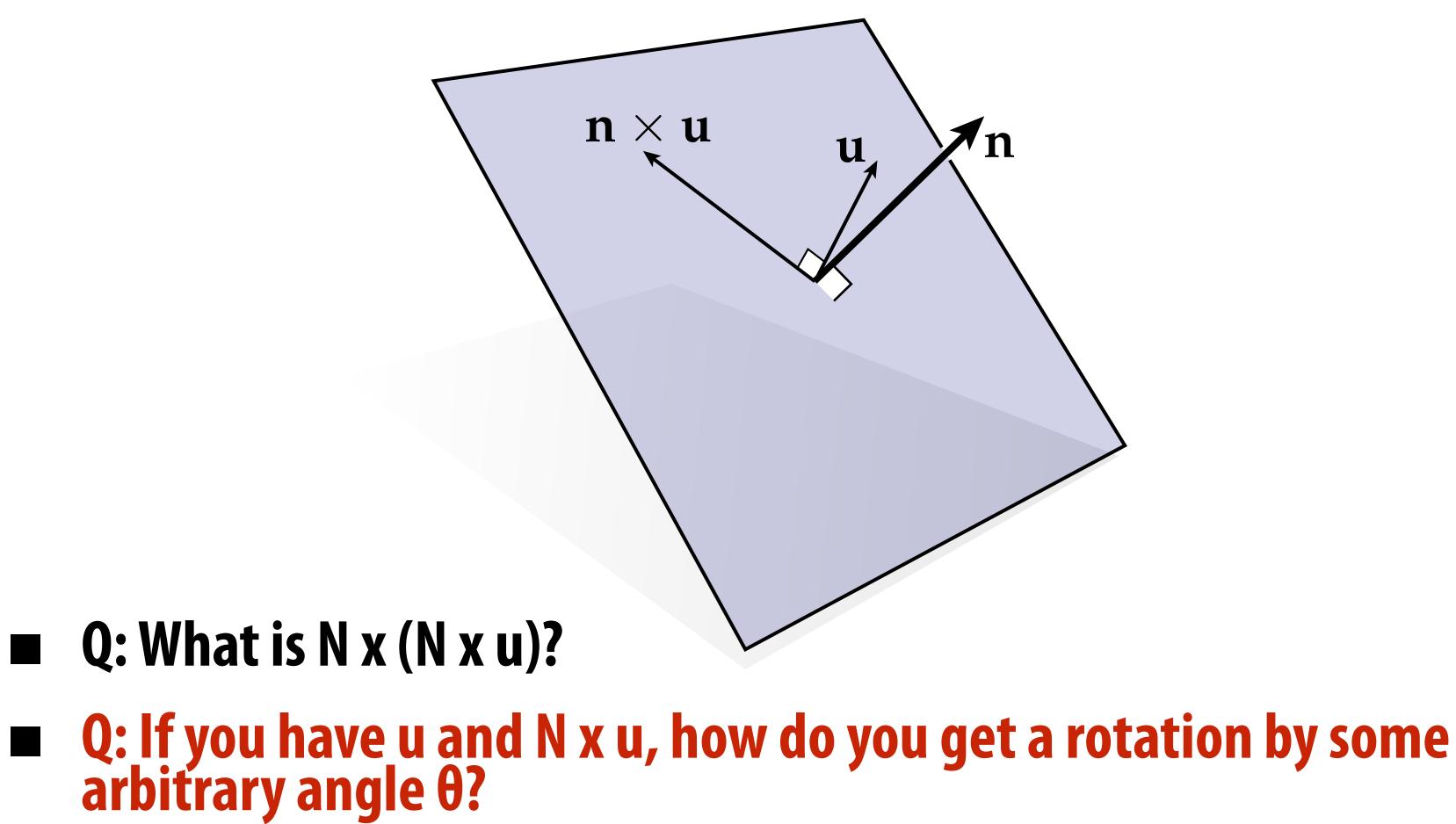
 $= |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \sin(\theta)$ 







## **Cross Product as Quarter Rotation**



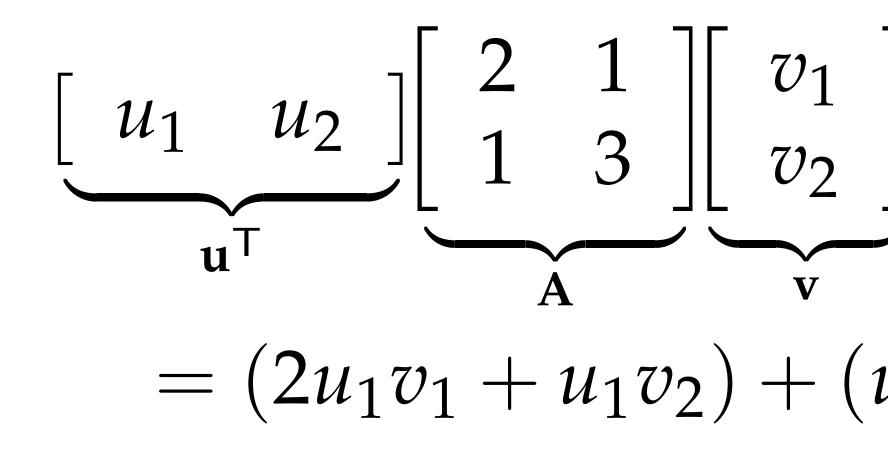
# Simple but useful observation for manipulating vectors in 3D: cross product with a unit vector N is equivalent to a quarter-rotation in the plane with normal N:



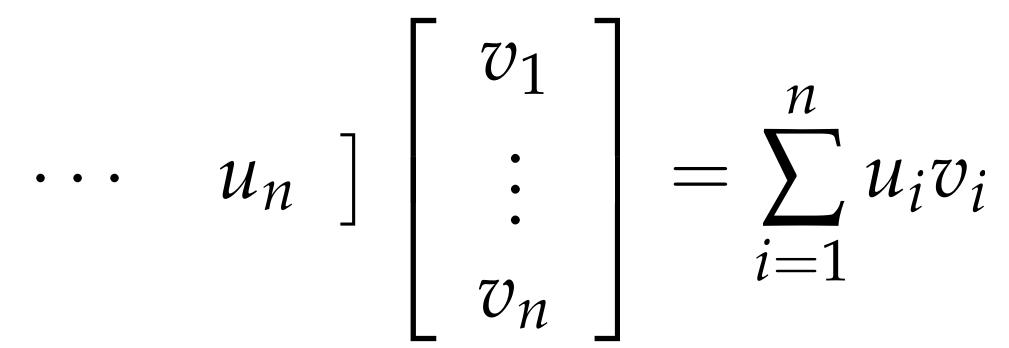
## **Matrix Representation of Dot Product** Often convenient to express dot product via matrix product:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

By the way, what about some other inner product?  $\blacksquare E.g., <u,v>:= 2 u1 v1 + u1 v2 + u2 v1 + 3 u2 v2$ 



Q: Why is matrix representing inner product always symmetric  $(A^T = A)$ ?



$$] = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2v_1 + v_2 \\ v_1 + 3v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(u_2v_1 + 3u_2v_2).$$
  $\checkmark$ 



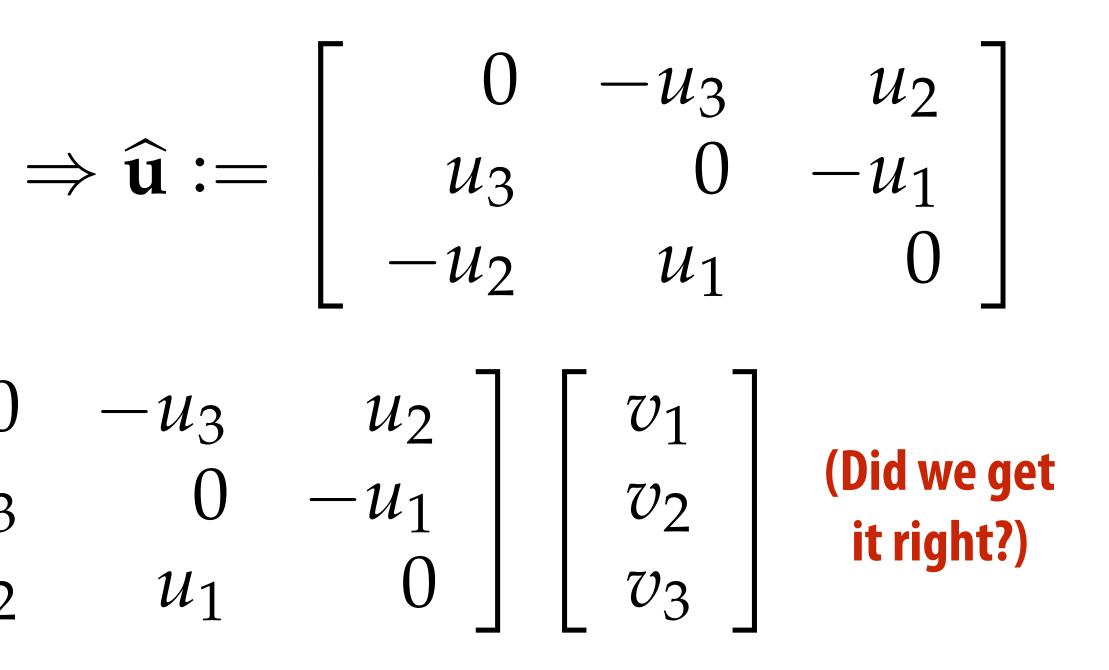
# **Matrix Representation of Cross Product**

$$\mathbf{u} := (u_1, u_2, u_3)$$

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \widehat{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ u_3 \\ -u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

# • A: Useful to notice that $v \ge u = -u \ge v \pmod{2}$ . Hence,

Can also represent cross product via matrix multiplication:



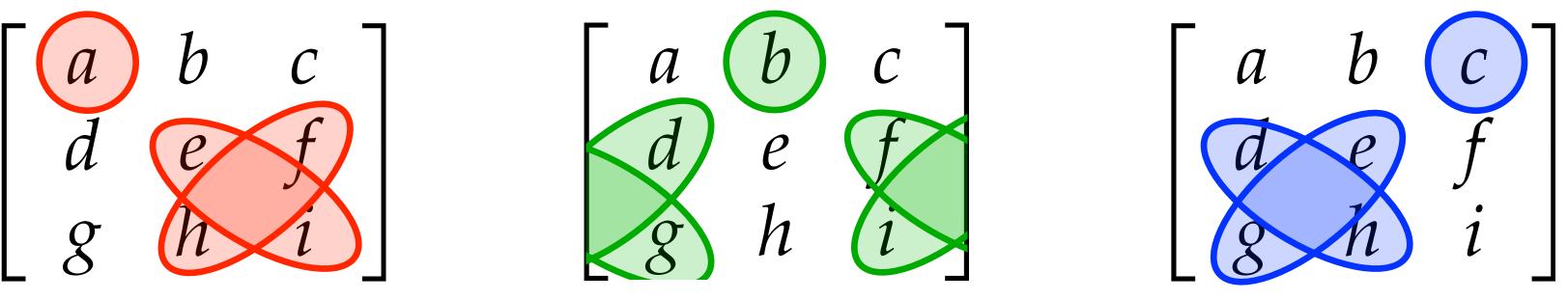
Q: Without building a new matrix, how can we express v x u?

 $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u} = -\widehat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{v} = \widehat{\mathbf{u}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{v}$ 



# Determinant Q: How do you compute the determinant of a matrix?

- $\mathbf{A} := \begin{bmatrix} a \\ d \\ g \end{bmatrix}$



Q: No! What the heck does this number mean?!

$$\begin{array}{c} b & c \\ e & f \\ h & i \end{array} \right]$$

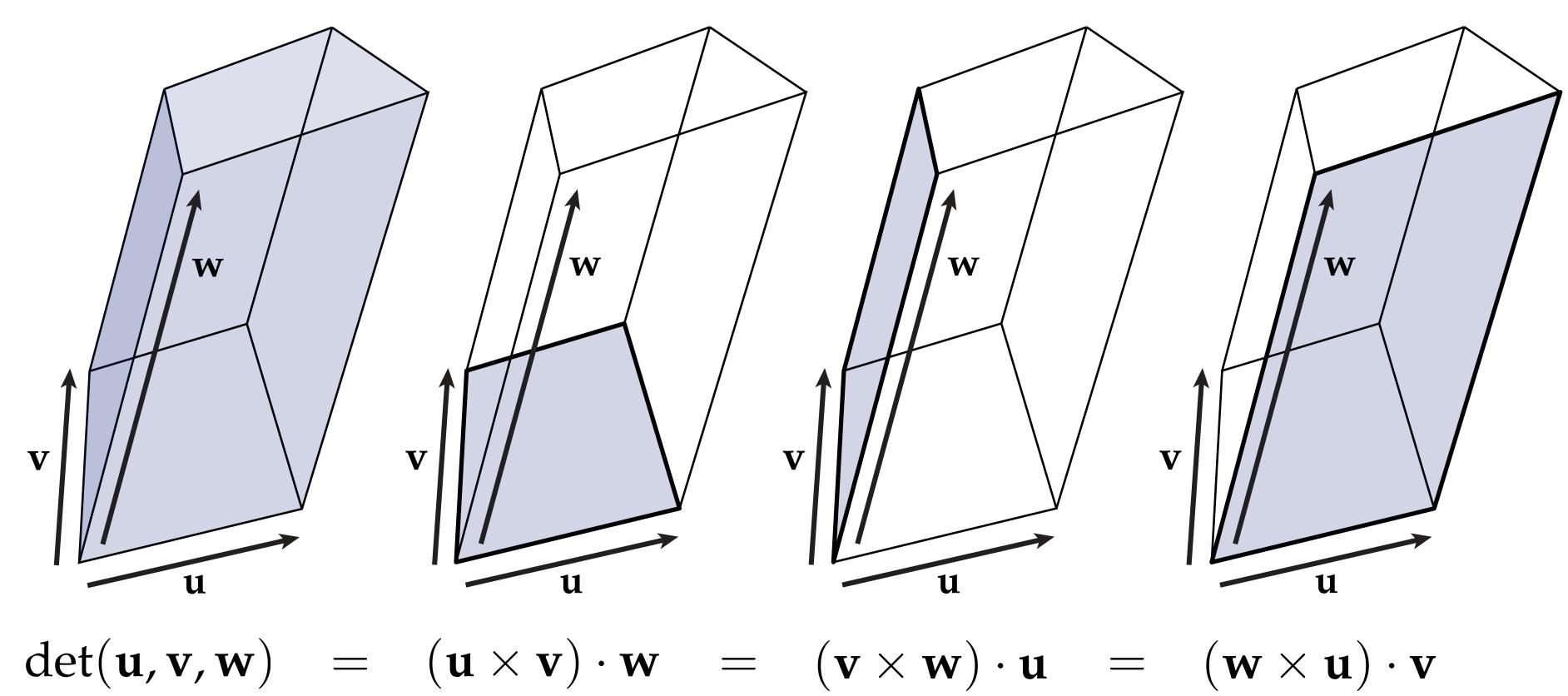
## A: Apply some algorithm somebody told me once upon a time:

 $det(\mathbf{A}) = a(ei - fh) + b(fg - di) + c(dh - eg)$ 

**Totally obvious... right?** 



# **Determinant, Volume and Triple Product**



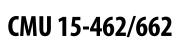
Relationship known as a "triple product formula" Q: What happens if we reverse order of cross product?)

# Better answer: det(u,v,w) encodes (signed) volume of parallelepiped with edge vectors u, v, w.



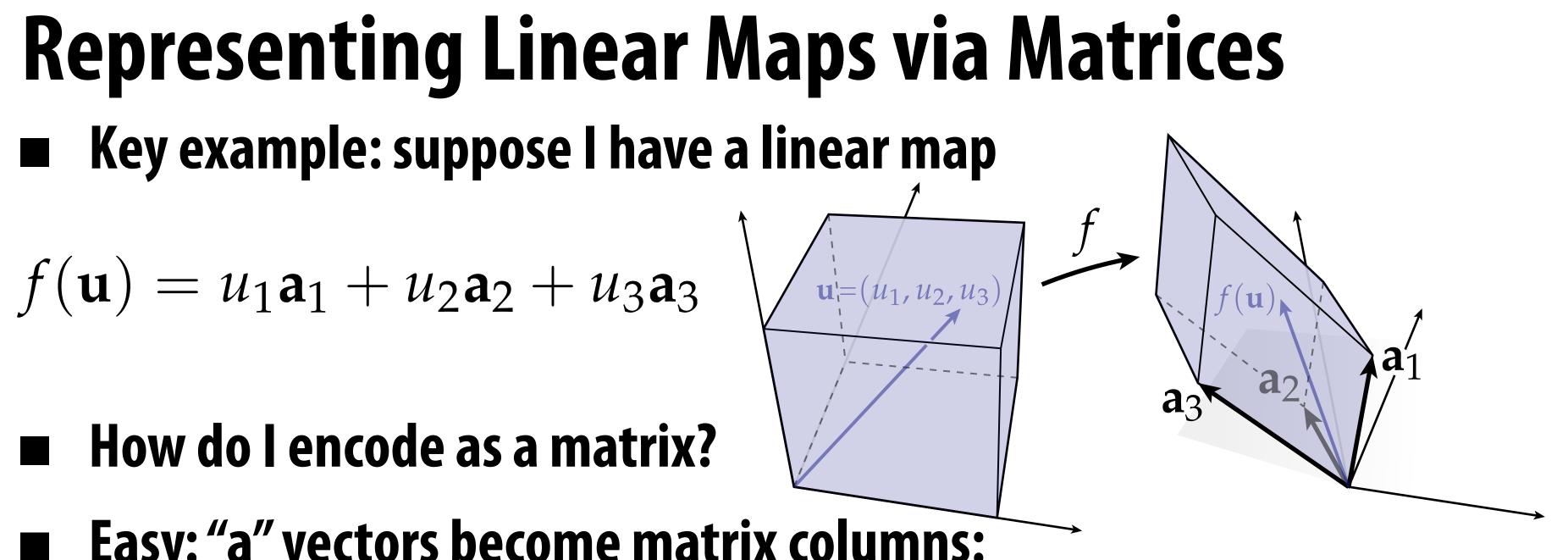
## **Determinant of a Linear Map** Q: If a matrix A encodes a linear map f, what does det(A) mean?

## (First: need to recall how a matrix encodes a linear map!)



## **Representing Linear Maps via Matrices** Key example: suppose I have a linear map

How do I encode as a matrix? Easy: "a" vectors become matrix columns:  $A := \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2 & \mathbf{a}_3 \\ | & | & | & | \end{vmatrix}$ Now, matrix-vector multiply recovers original map:  $|u_1| |a_{1,x}u_1 + a_{2,x}|$  $\begin{array}{c|c} u_2 \\ u_3 \end{array} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,y}u_1 + a_{2,y}u_1 \\ a_{1,z}u_1 + a_{2,z}u_1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

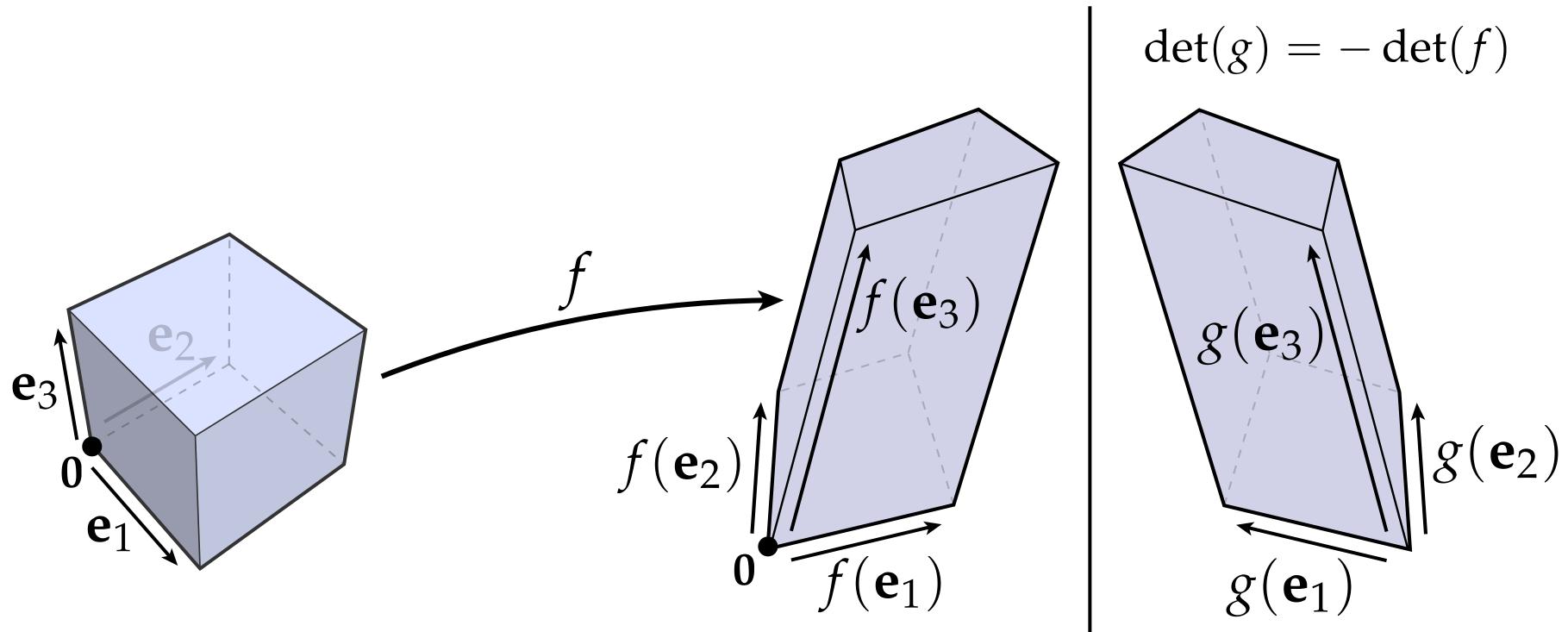


<i>a</i> <sub>1,x</sub>	$a_{2,x}$	<i>a</i> <sub>3,x</sub> –
<i>a</i> <sub>1,y</sub>	<i>a</i> <sub>2,y</sub>	<i>a</i> <sub>3,y</sub>
<i>a</i> <sub>1,z</sub>	$a_{2,z}$	<i>a</i> <sub>3,z</sub> _

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_2 + a_{3,x}u_3 \\ u_2 + a_{3,y}u_3 \\ u_2 + a_{3,z}u_3 \end{bmatrix} = u_1\mathbf{a}_1 + u_2\mathbf{a}_2 + u_3\mathbf{a}_3$$



## **Determinant of a Linear Map** Q: If a matrix A encodes a linear map f, what does det(A) mean?



A: It measures the change in volume. Q: What does the sign of the determinant tell us, in this case? • A: It tells us whether orientation was reversed (det(A) < 0)

(Do we really need a matrix in order to talk about the determinant of a linear map?)

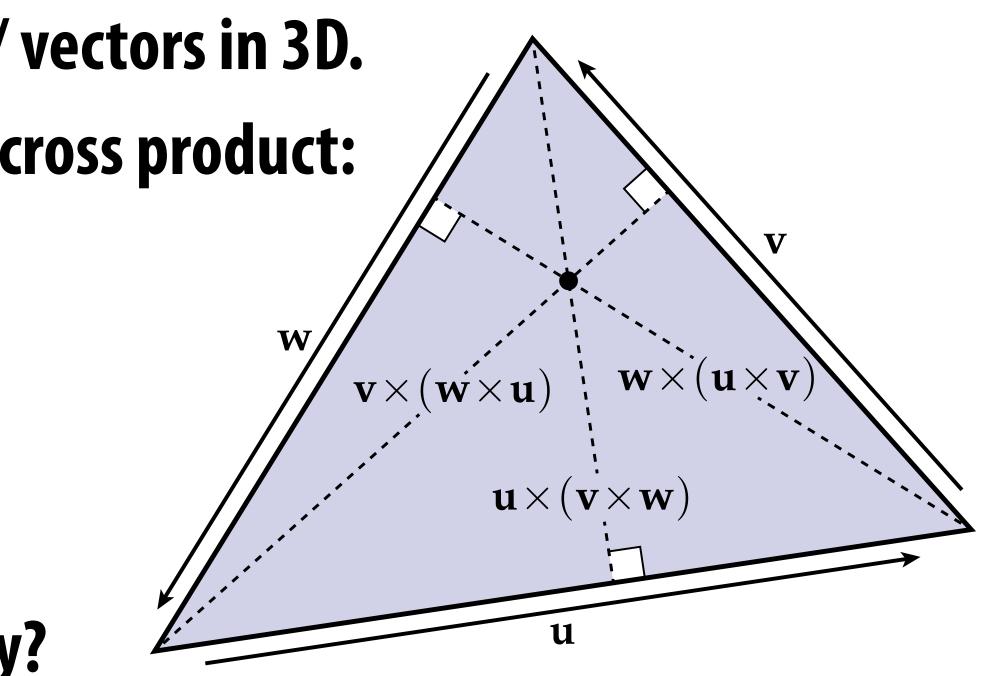


## **Other Triple Products** Super useful for working w/ vectors in 3D. **E.g., Jacobi identity for the cross product:**

$$\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{v} \times (\mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{u}) + \mathbf{w} \times (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = 0$$

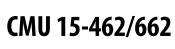
- Why is it true, geometrically?
- Yet another triple product: Lagrange's identity

$$\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) =$$



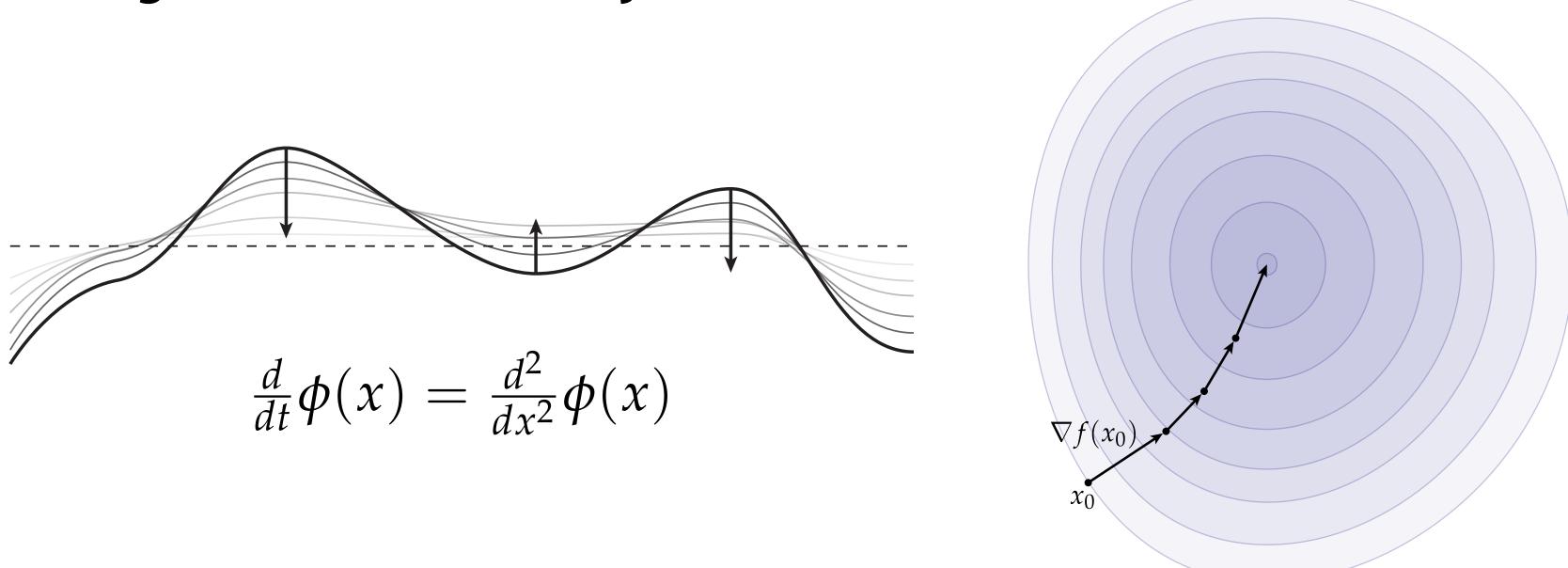
# There is a geometric reason, but not nearly as obvious as det: has to do w/ fact that triangle's altitudes meet at a point.

- $= \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$
- (Can you come up with a geometric interpretation?)



# **Differential Operators - Overview**

- Next up: differential operators and vector fields.
- Why is this useful for computer graphics?
  - Many physical/geometric problems expressed in terms of relative rates of change (ODEs, PDEs).
  - These tools also provide foundation for numerical optimization—e.g., minimize cost by following the gradient of some objective.





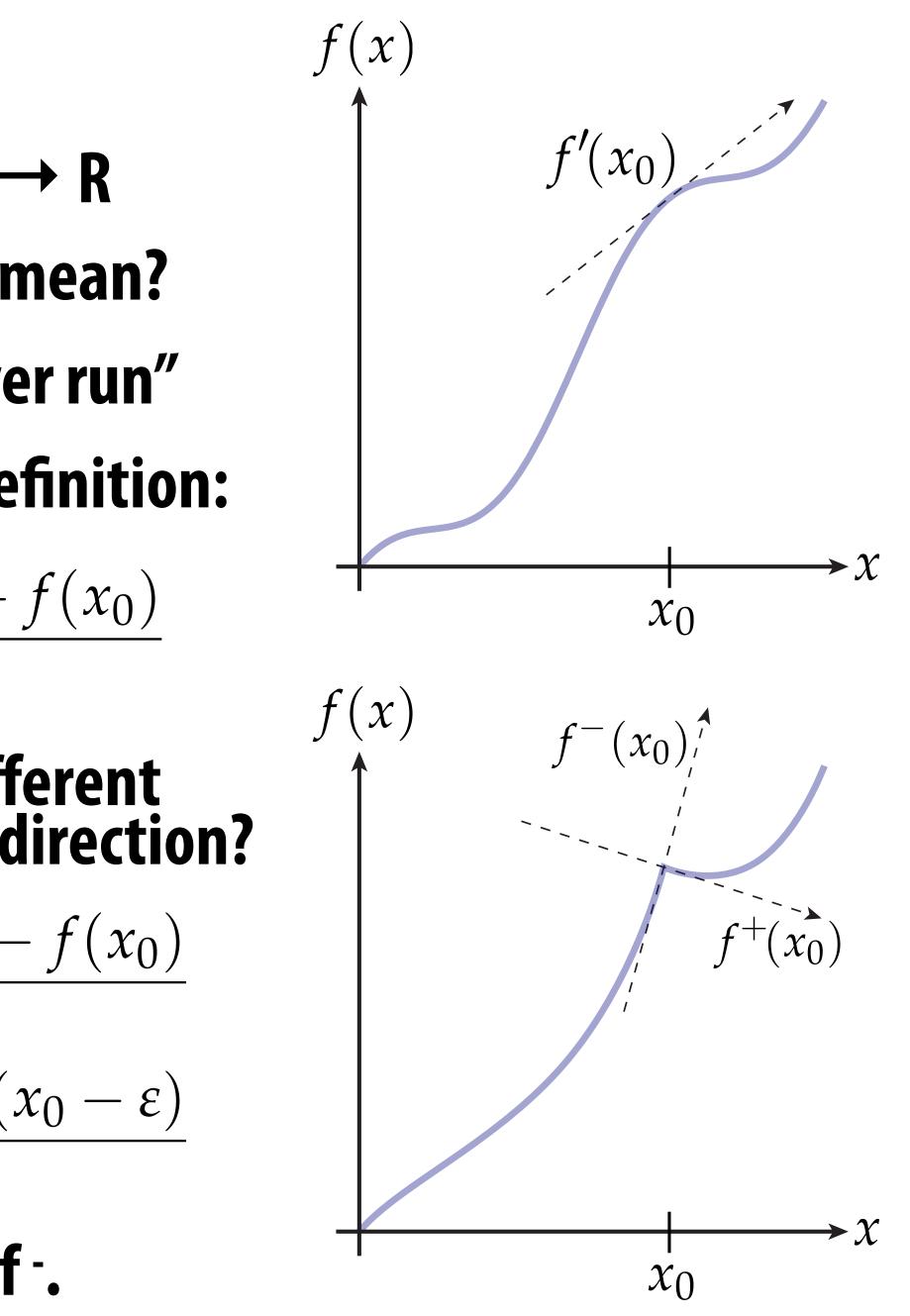
- **Derivative as Slope**
- Consider a function  $f(x): R \rightarrow R$
- What does its derivative f' mean?
- **One interpretation "rise over run"**
- **Corresponds to standard definition:**

$$f'(x_0) := \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \varepsilon) - \varepsilon}{\varepsilon}$$

Careful! What if slope is different when we walk in opposite direction?

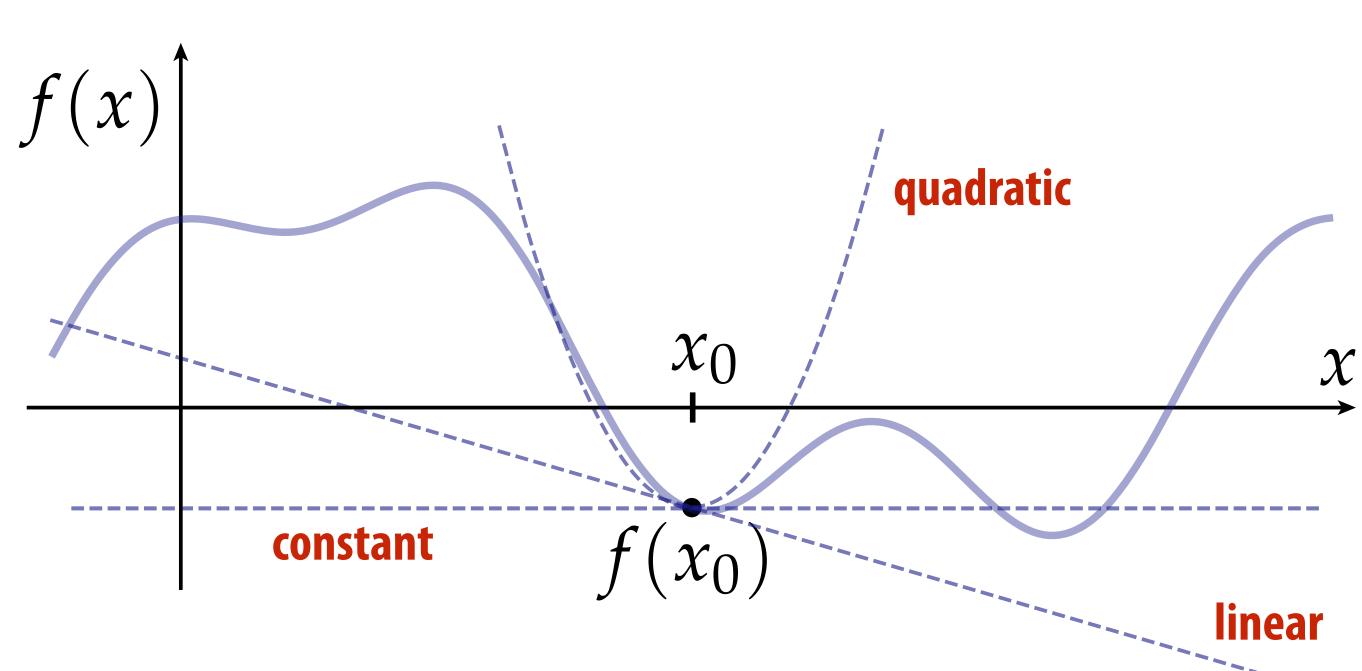
$$f^{+}(x_{0}) := \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{f(x_{0} + \varepsilon) - \varepsilon}{\varepsilon}$$
$$f^{-}(x_{0}) := \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{f(x_{0}) - f(\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon}$$

## **Differentiable** at x0 if $f^+ = f^-$ . **Many functions in graphics are NOT differentiable!**





## **Derivative as Best Linear Approximation** Any smooth function f(x) can be expressed as a Taylor series: linear quadratic constant



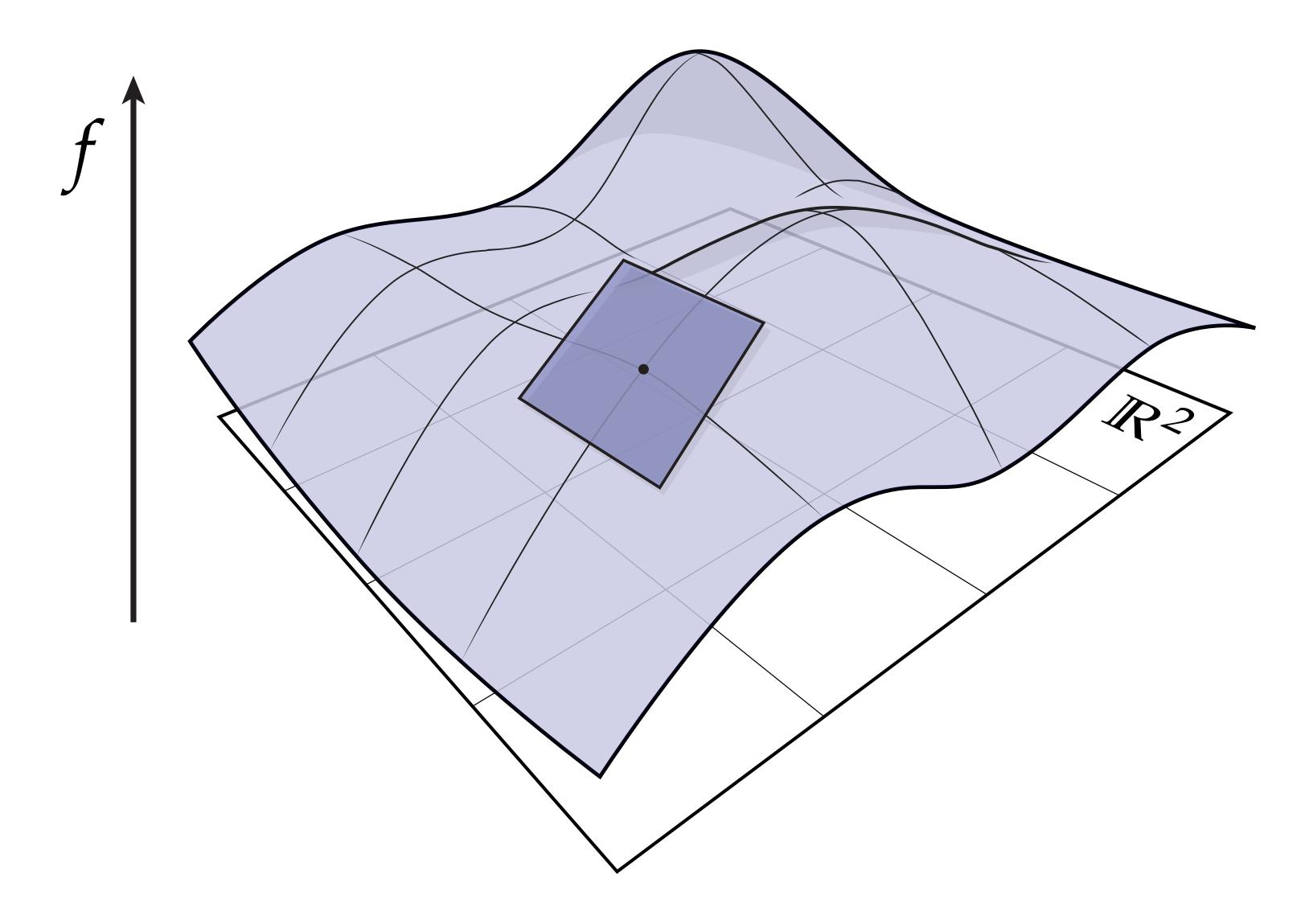
Replacing complicated functions with a linear (and

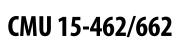
 $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{(x - x_0)^2}{2!}f''(x_0) + \cdots$ 

# sometimes quadratic) approximation is a powerful trick in graphics algorithms—we'll see many examples.

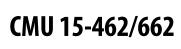


## **Derivative as Best Linear Approximation** Intuitively, same idea applies for functions of multiple variables:





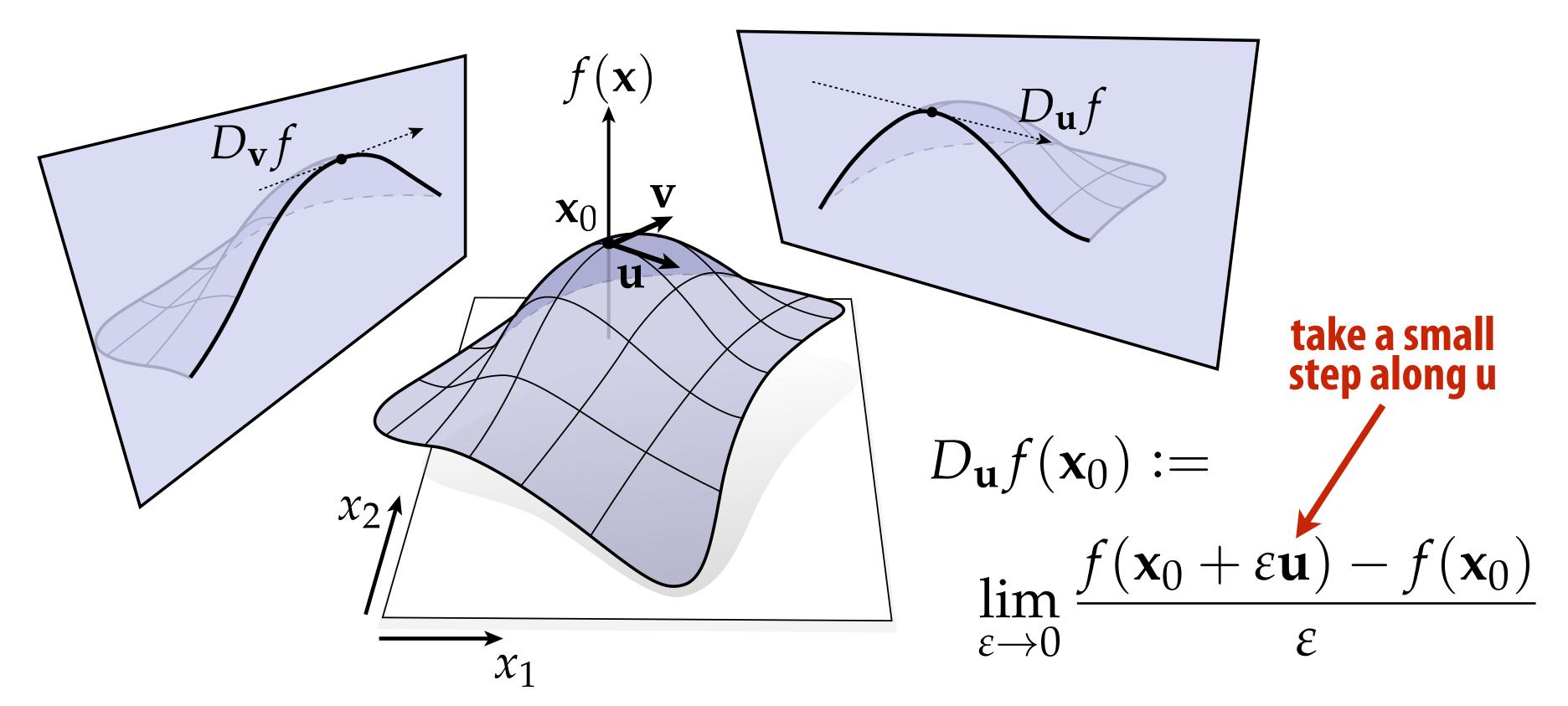
## How do we think about derivatives for a function that has multiple variables?



## **Directional Derivative**

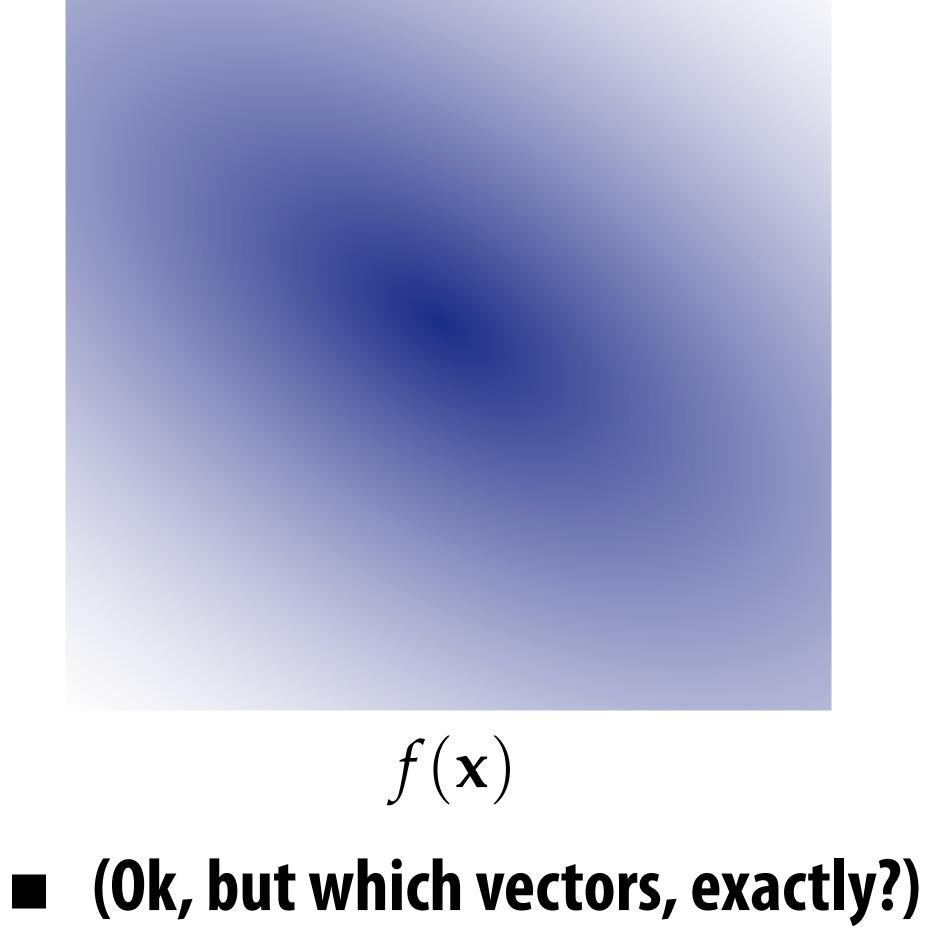
One way: suppose we have a function f(x1,x2) - Take a "slice" through the function along some line

- Then just apply the usual derivative!
- Called the directional derivative





## "nabla" Gradient Given a multivariable function $f(\mathbf{x})$ , gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ assigns a vector at each point:



\*  $\int \langle - - \rangle$ 



# **Gradient in Coordinates**

- Most familiar definition: list of partial derivatives
- I.e., imagine that all but one of the coordinates are just constant values, and take the usual derivative

- Two potential problems:
  - Role of inner product is not clear (more later!)
- Still, extremely common way to calculate the gradient...

$$\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

# No way to differentiate functions of functions F(f) since we don't have a finite list of coordinates x<sub>1</sub>, ..., x<sub>n</sub>



## **Example: Gradient in Coordinates**

 $f(\mathbf{x}) := x_1^2 + x_2^2$ 

 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} x_1^2 + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} x_2^2 = 2x_1 + 0$ 

 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} x_1^2 + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} x_2^2 = 0 + 2x_2$ 

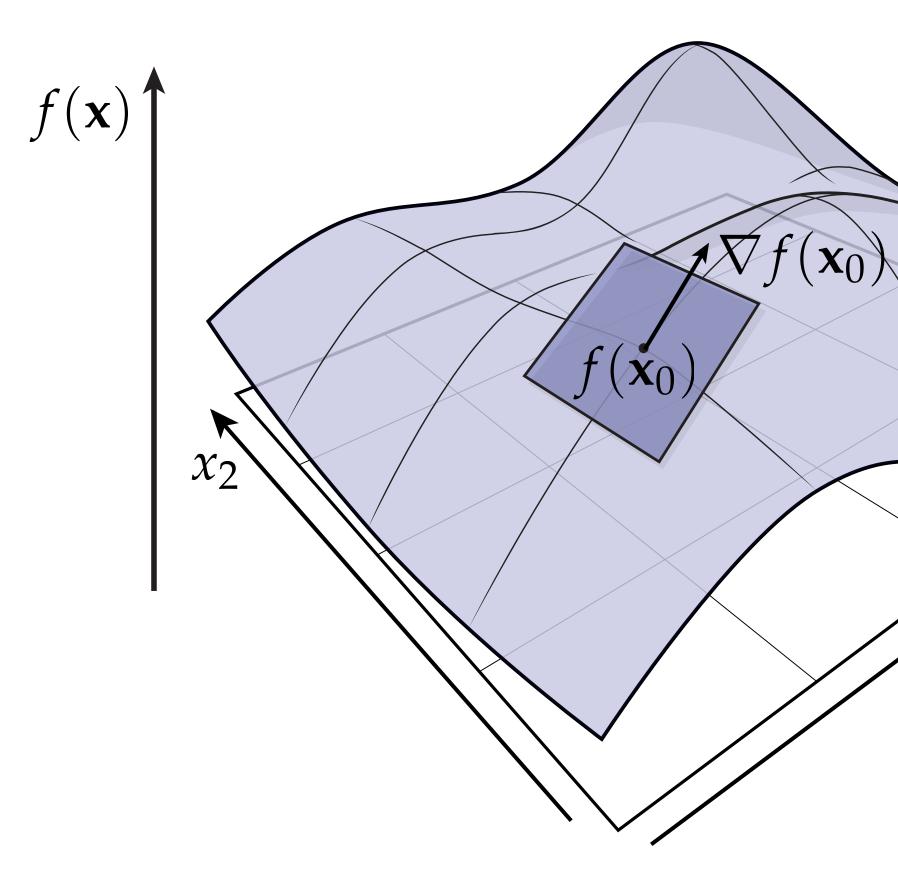
 $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{vmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \end{vmatrix} = 2\mathbf{x}$ 

 $\chi_1$  $f(\mathbf{x})$  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ 



# **Gradient as Best Linear Approximation**

Another way to think about it: at each point x0, gradient is the vector  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  that leads to the best possible approximation



 $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0 \rangle$ 

AP?

 $x_1$ 

Starting at x<sub>0</sub>, this term gets:



•smaller if we move in the opposite direction, and

•doesn't change if we move orthogonal to gradient.



# The gradient takes you uphill...

**X**<sub>1</sub>

 $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$ 

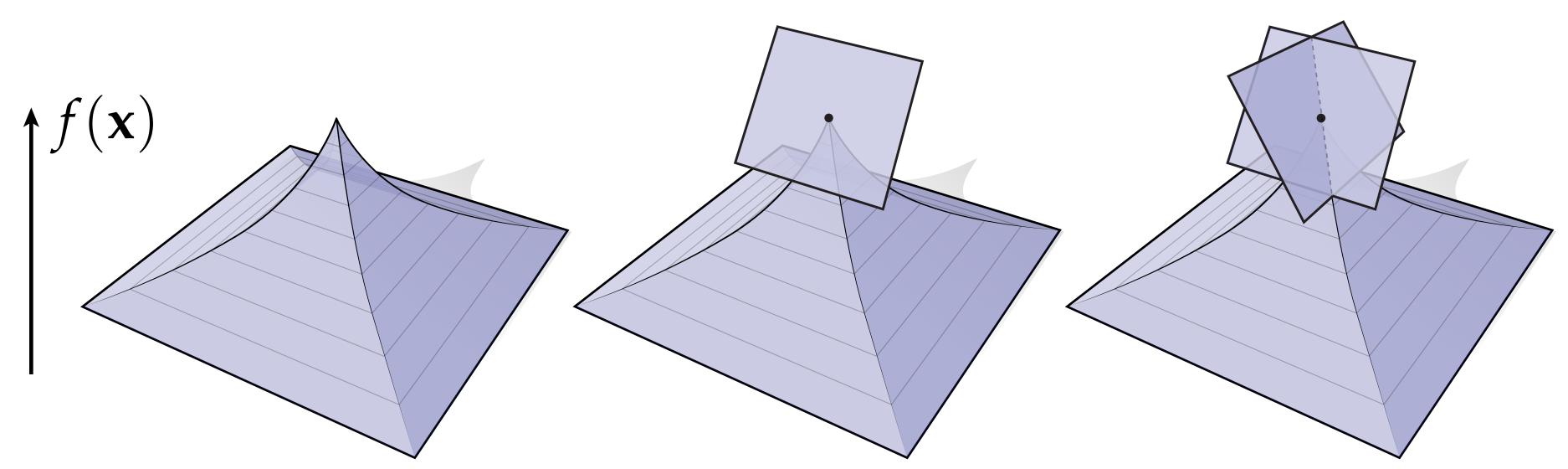
 $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_1)$ 

- Another way to think about it: direction of "steepest ascent" I.e., what direction should we travel to increase value of function as quickly as possible?
- This viewpoint leads to algorithms for optimization, commonly used in graphics.



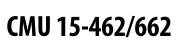
## **Gradient and Directional Derivative** At each point x, gradient is unique vector $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ such that $\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{u} \rangle = D_{\mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{x})$

**Can't happen if function is not differentiable!** 



(Notice: gradient also depends on choice of inner product...)

- for all u. In other words, such that taking the inner product w/ this vector gives you the directional derivative in any direction u.



## **Example: Gradient of Dot Product** Consider the dot product expressed in terms of matrices: $f := \mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{I}} \mathbf{v}$

What is gradient of f with respect to u? One way: write it out in coordinates:  $\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{i}v_{i} \qquad \text{(equals zero unless i = k)}$  $\frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial u_k} (u_i v_i) = v_k$  $v_1$  $\Rightarrow \nabla_{\mathbf{u}} f = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \dots \\ v_n \end{array} \right]$ 

## In other words:

$$abla_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}$$

Not so different from  $\frac{d}{dx}(xy) = y!$ 



# **Gradients of Matrix-Valued Expressions**

# EXTREMELY useful in graphics to be able to differentiate expressions involving matrices

## Ultimately, expressions look much like ordinary derivatives

For any two vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and **symmetric** matrix  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ :

MATRIX DERIVA

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}$$
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{T}\mathbf{x}) = 2\mathbf{x}$$
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{T}A\mathbf{y}) = A\mathbf{y}$$
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}^{T}A\mathbf{y}) = A\mathbf{y}$$

**Excellent resource: Petersen & Pedersen, "The Matrix Cookbook"** 

Then... forget about coordinates altogether!

• • •

ATIVE	LOOKS LIKE
y 1 x	$ \begin{array}{l} \frac{d}{dx}xy = y \\ \frac{d}{dx}x^2 = 2x \\ \frac{d}{dx}axy = ay \\ \frac{d}{dx}ax^2 = 2ax \end{array} $

# At least once in your life, work these out meticulously in coordinates (to convince yourself they're true).



## Advanced\*: L<sup>2</sup> Gradient

- Consider a function of a function F(f)
- What is the gradient of F with respect to f?
- Can't take partial derivatives anymore!
- Instead, look for function VF such that for all functions u,

What is directional derivative of a function of a function?? Don't freak out—just return to good old-fashioned limit:

$$D_{u}F(f) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

\*as in, NOT on the test! (But perhaps somewhere in the test of life...)

 $\langle \langle \nabla F, u \rangle \rangle = D_u F$ 

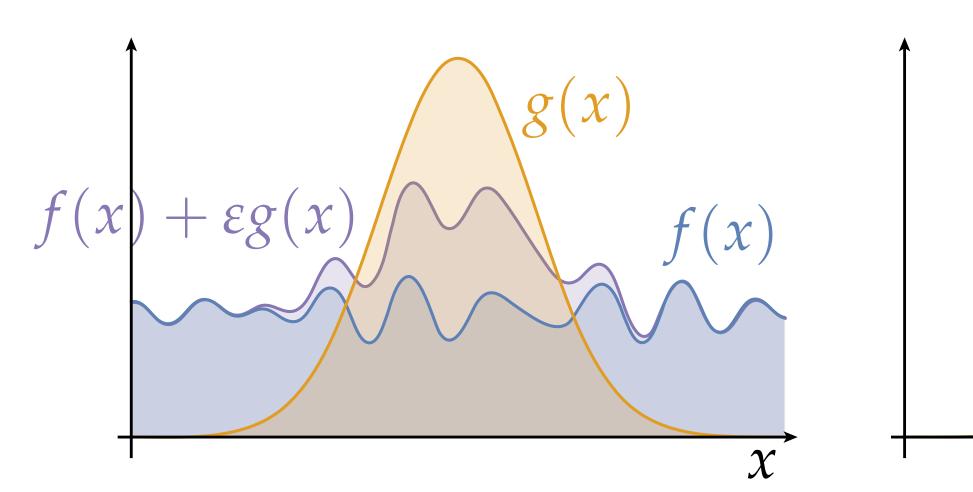
 $F(f + \varepsilon u) - F(f)$  $\mathcal{E}$ 

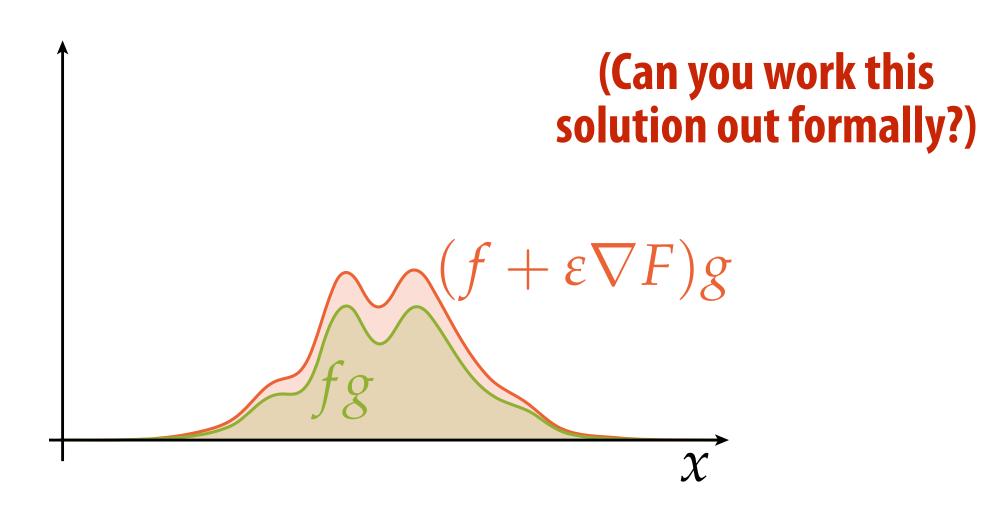
- This strategy becomes much clearer w/ a concrete example...



# **Advanced Visual Example: L<sup>2</sup> Gradient**

- Consider function  $F(f) := \langle \langle f, g \rangle \rangle$  for f,g: [0,1]  $\rightarrow$  R
- I claim the gradient is:  $\nabla F = g$
- Does this make sense intuitively? How can we increase inner product with g as quickly as possible?
  - inner product measures how well functions are "aligned"
  - g is definitely function best-aligned with g!
  - so to increase inner product, add a little bit of g to f







# **Advanced Example: L<sup>2</sup> Gradient**

- At each "point" f0, we want function VF such that for all functions u

$$\langle\!\langle \nabla F(f_0), u \rangle\!\rangle = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{F(f_0 + \varepsilon u) - F(f_0)}{\varepsilon}$$

- Expanding 1st term in numerator, we get  $||f_0 + \varepsilon u||^2 = ||f_0||^2$
- Hence, limit becomes  $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} (\varepsilon ||u||^2 + 2\langle \langle f_0 |$
- The only solution to  $\langle \langle \nabla F($

## • Consider function $F(f) := ||f||^2$ for arguments f: [0,1] $\rightarrow$ R

$$|^{2} + \varepsilon^{2}||u||^{2} + 2\varepsilon\langle\langle f_{0}, u\rangle\rangle$$

$$(f_0, u) \rangle = 2\langle\langle f_0, u \rangle\rangle$$
  
 $(f_0), u \rangle = 2\langle\langle f_0, u \rangle\rangle$  for all u is

 $\nabla F(f_0) = 2f_0$  |  $\leftarrow$  not much different from  $\frac{d}{dx}x^2 = 2x!$ 



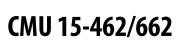
# Key idea: **Once you get the hang of taking the gradient** of ordinary functions, it's (superficially) not much harder for more exotic objects like matrices, functions of functions, ...



## **Vector Fields**

- Gradient was our first example of a vector field **E.g.**, can think of a 2-vector field in the plane as a map  $X: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$
- For example, we saw a gradient field
  - $\nabla f(x, y) = (2x)$
  - (for the function  $f(x,y) = x^2$

# In general, a vector field assigns a vector to each point in space



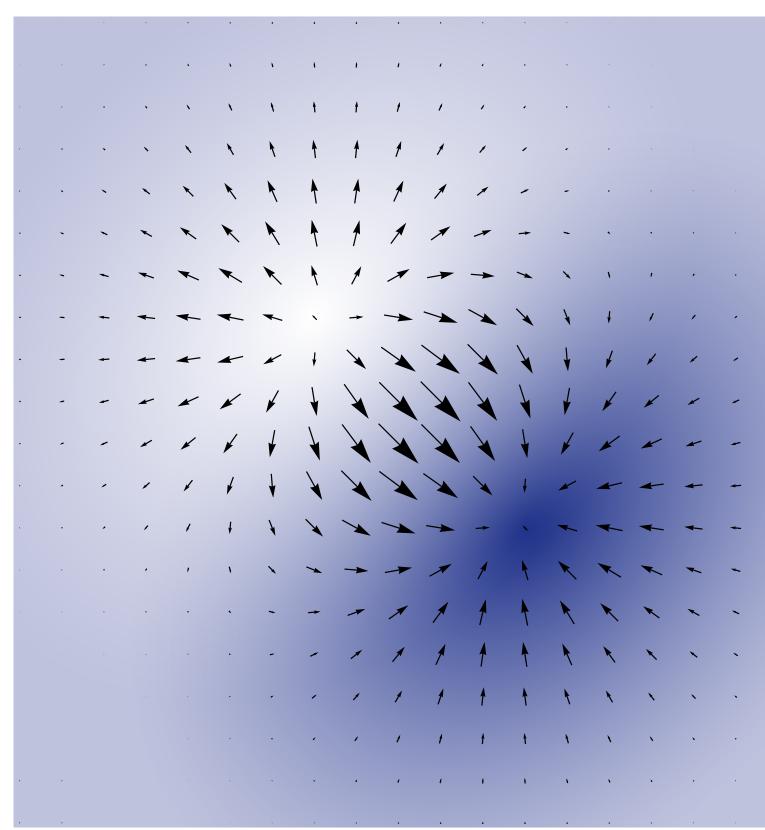
# Q: How do we measure the change in a vector field?



# **Divergence and Curl**

### Two basic derivatives for vector fields:

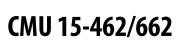
"How much is field shrinking/expanding?" "How much is field spinning?"



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curl Y

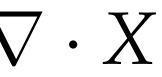


Divergence • Also commonly written as  $\nabla \cdot X$ Suggests a coordinate definition for divergence ■ Think of  $\nabla$  as a "vector of derivatives"  $\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_n}\right)$ 

Think of X as a "vector of functions"  $X(\mathbf{u}) = (X_1(\mathbf{u}), \ldots,$ 

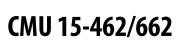
Then divergence is

$$\nabla \cdot X := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial u_i}$$



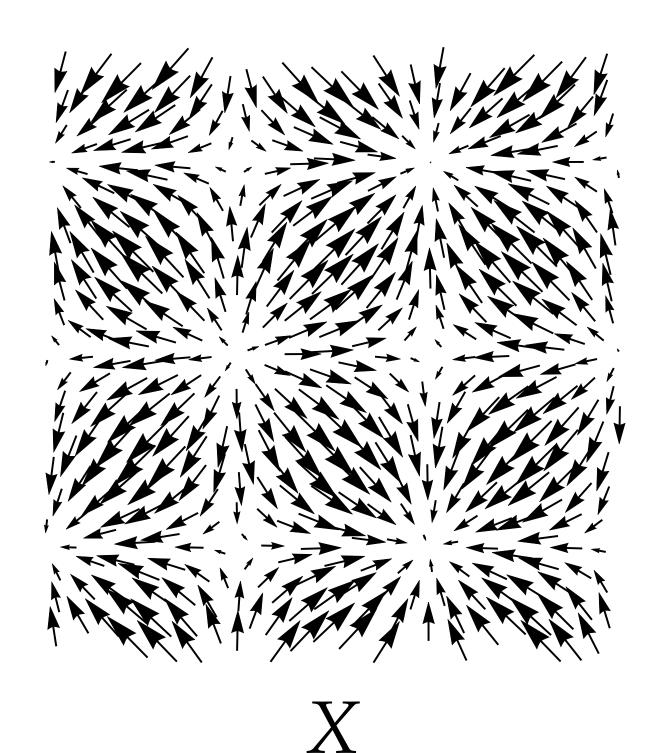
$$X_n(\mathbf{u}))$$

 $\nabla \cdot X$ 

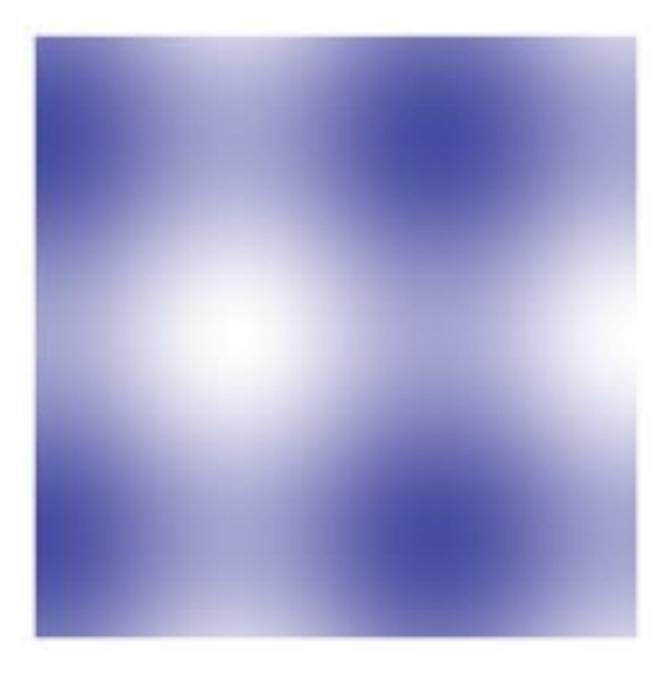


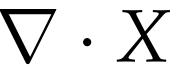
## **Divergence - Example**

### • Consider the vector field $X(u, v) := (\cos(u), \sin(v))$ Divergence is then



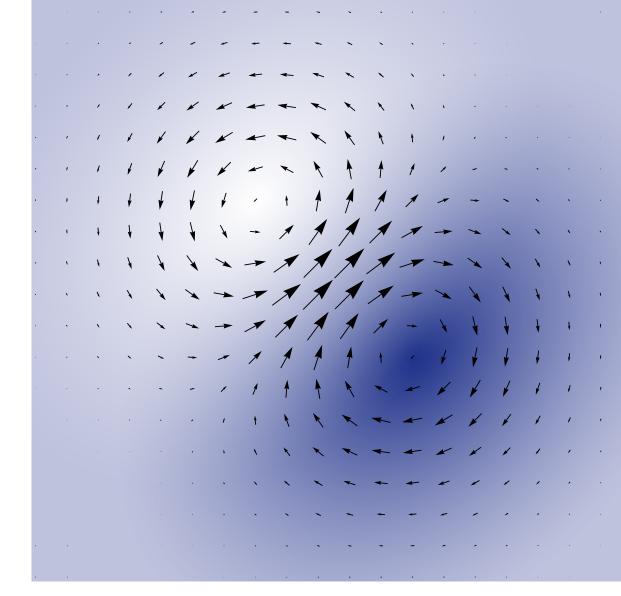
### $\nabla \cdot X = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \cos(u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \sin(v) = -\sin(u) + \cos(v).$







Curl Also commonly written as  $\nabla \times X$ Suggests a coordinate definition for curl ■ This time, think of V as a vector of just three derivatives:  $\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial u_3}\right)$ Think of X as vector of three functions:  $X(\mathbf{u}) = (X_1(\mathbf{u}), X_2(\mathbf{u}), X_3(\mathbf{u}))$ Then curl is  $\nabla \times X := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial X_3}{\partial u_2} - \frac{\partial X_2}{\partial u_2} \\ \frac{\partial X_1}{\partial u_3} - \frac{\partial X_3}{\partial u_1} \end{bmatrix}$  $\partial X_2 / \partial u_1 - \partial X_1 / \partial u_2$ (2D"curl":  $\nabla \times X := \partial X_2 / \partial u_1 - \partial X_1 / \partial u_2$ )

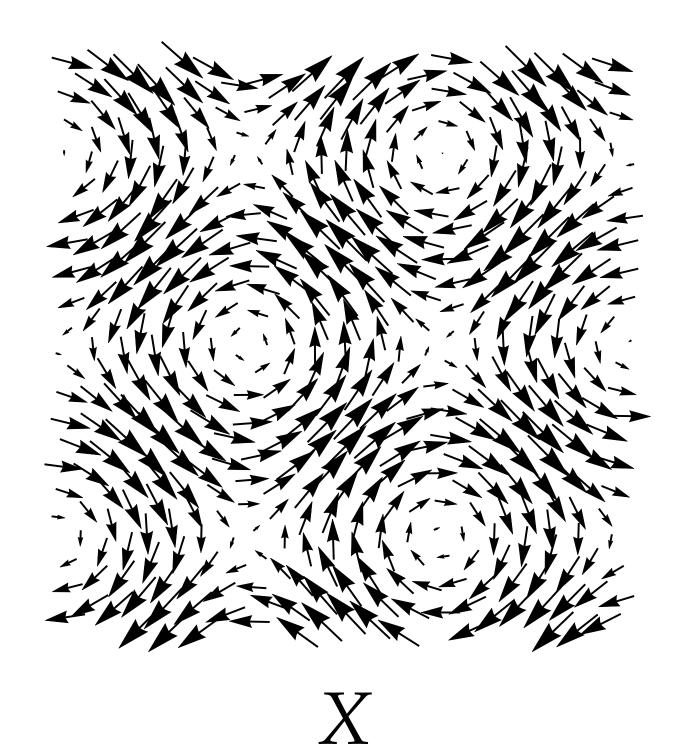




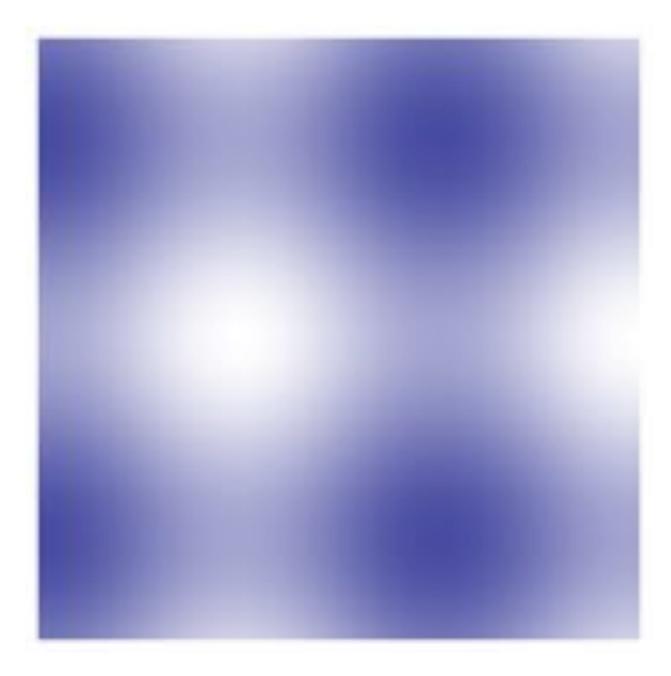


## Curl - Example

### • Consider the vector field $X(u, v) := (-\sin(v), \cos(u))$ ■ (2D) Curl is then

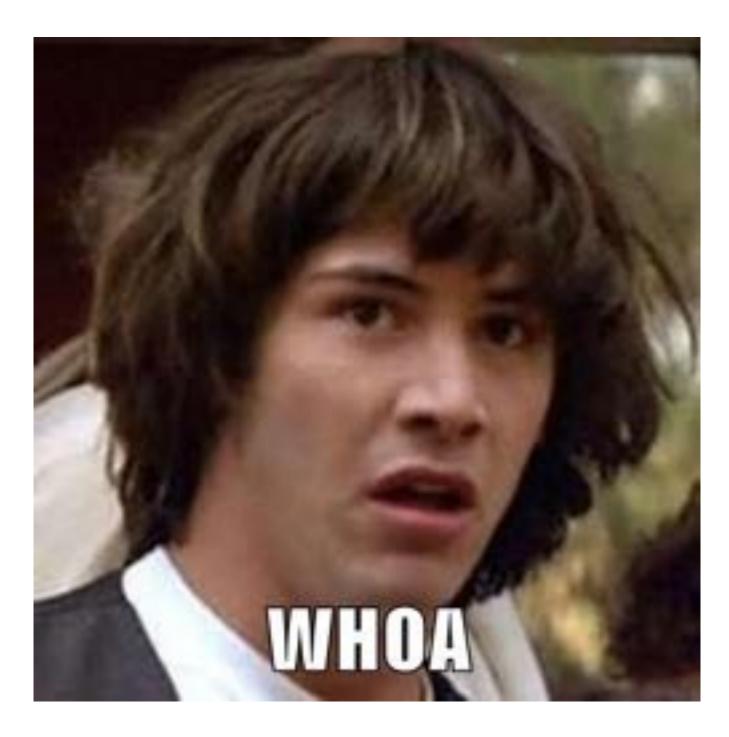


### $\nabla \times X = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \cos(u) - \frac{\partial}{\partial v} (-\sin(v)) = -\sin(u) + \cos(v).$

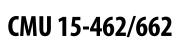




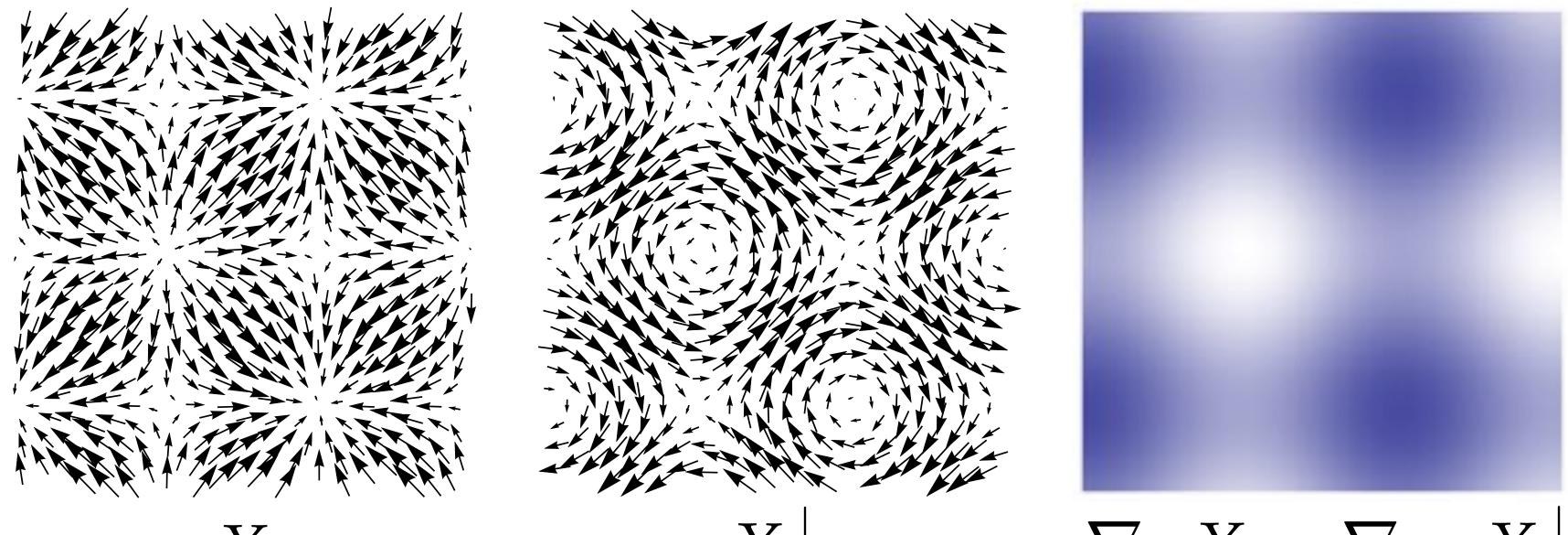




## Notice anything about the relationship between curl and divergence?



# Divergence vs. Curl (2D) **Divergence of X is the same as curl of 90-degree rotation of X:**



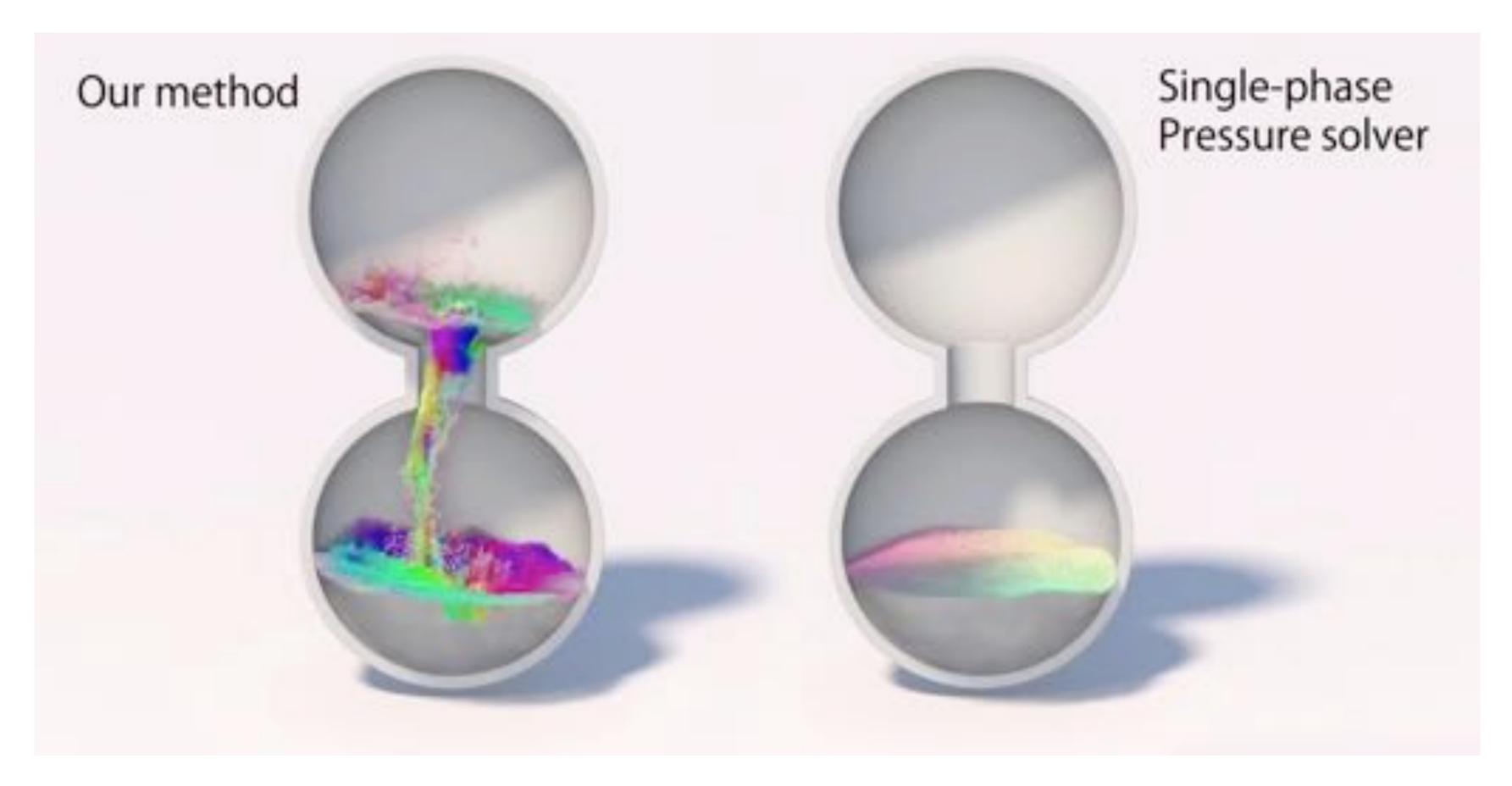
# Playing these kinds of games w/ vector fields plays an important role in algorithms (e.g., fluid simulation)

Q: Can you come up with an analogous relationship in 3D?

### $\nabla \cdot X = \nabla \times X^{\perp}$



# **Example: Fluids w/ Stream Function**

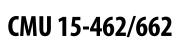


### $\min_{\Psi} ||u^* - \nabla \times \Psi||^2$ $u = \nabla \times \Psi$

Ando et al, "A Stream Function Solver for Liquid Simulations" (SIGGRAPH 2015)

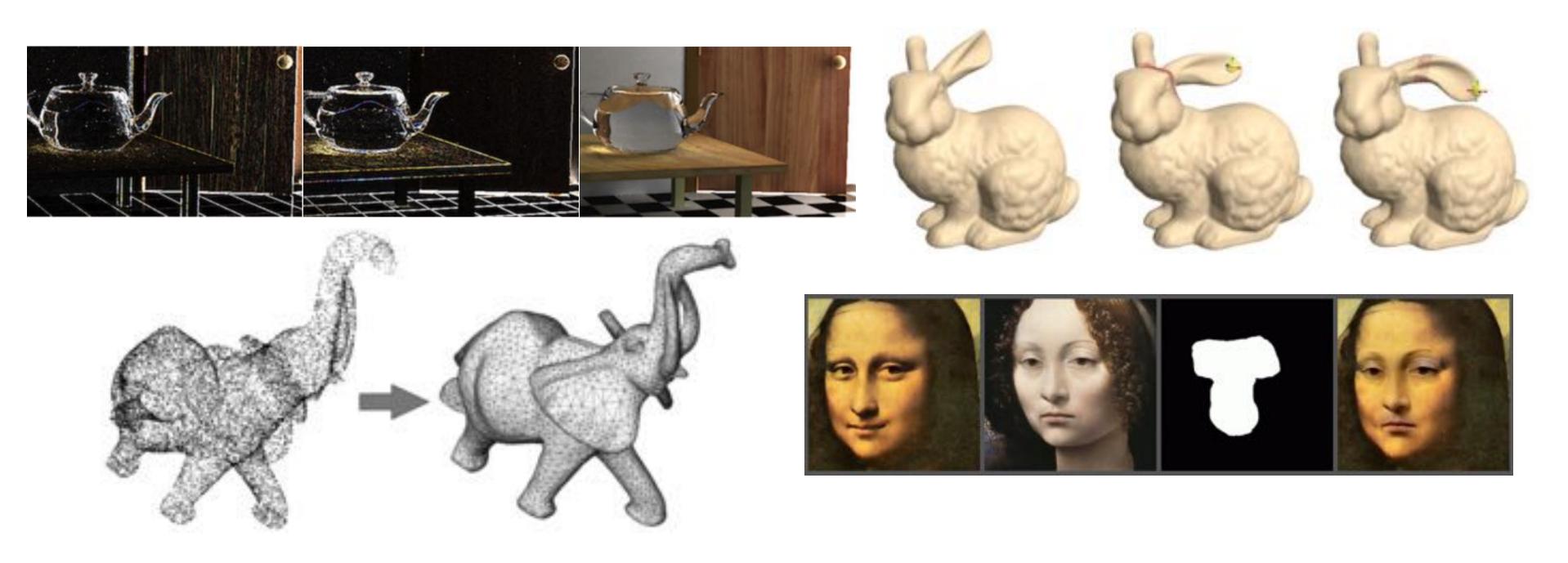
$$\Delta p = \nabla \cdot u^*$$

$$u = u^* - \nabla p$$



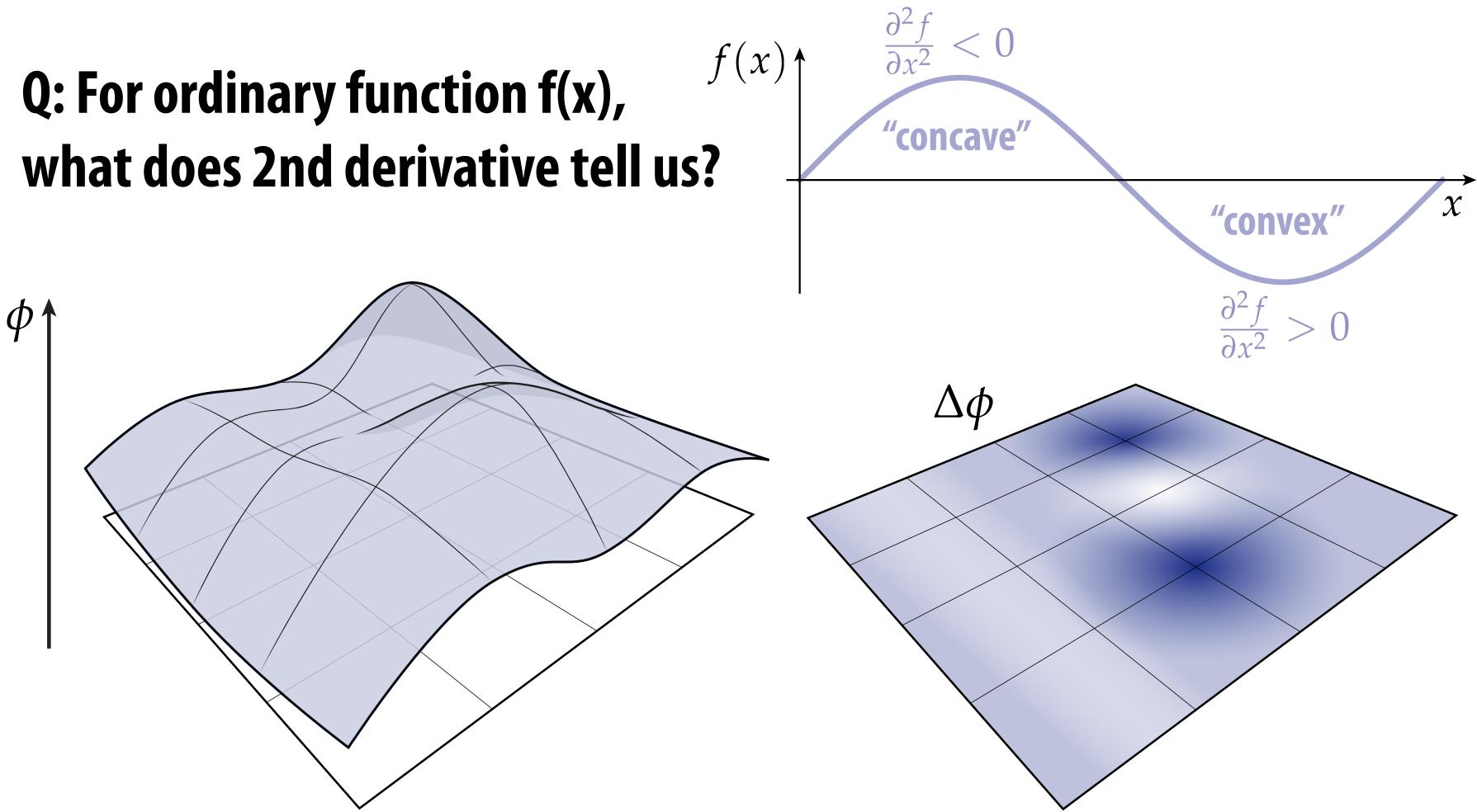
# Laplacian

- One more operator we haven't seen yet: the Laplacian
- Unbelievably important object in graphics, showing up across geometry, rendering, simulation, imaging
  - basis for Fourier transform / frequency decomposition
  - used to define model PDEs (Laplace, heat, wave equations)
  - encodes rich information about geometry





# Laplacian—Visual Intuition



### Likewise, Laplacian measures "curvature" of a function.

For further interpretations of the Laplacian, see https://youtu.be/oEq9R0I9Umk

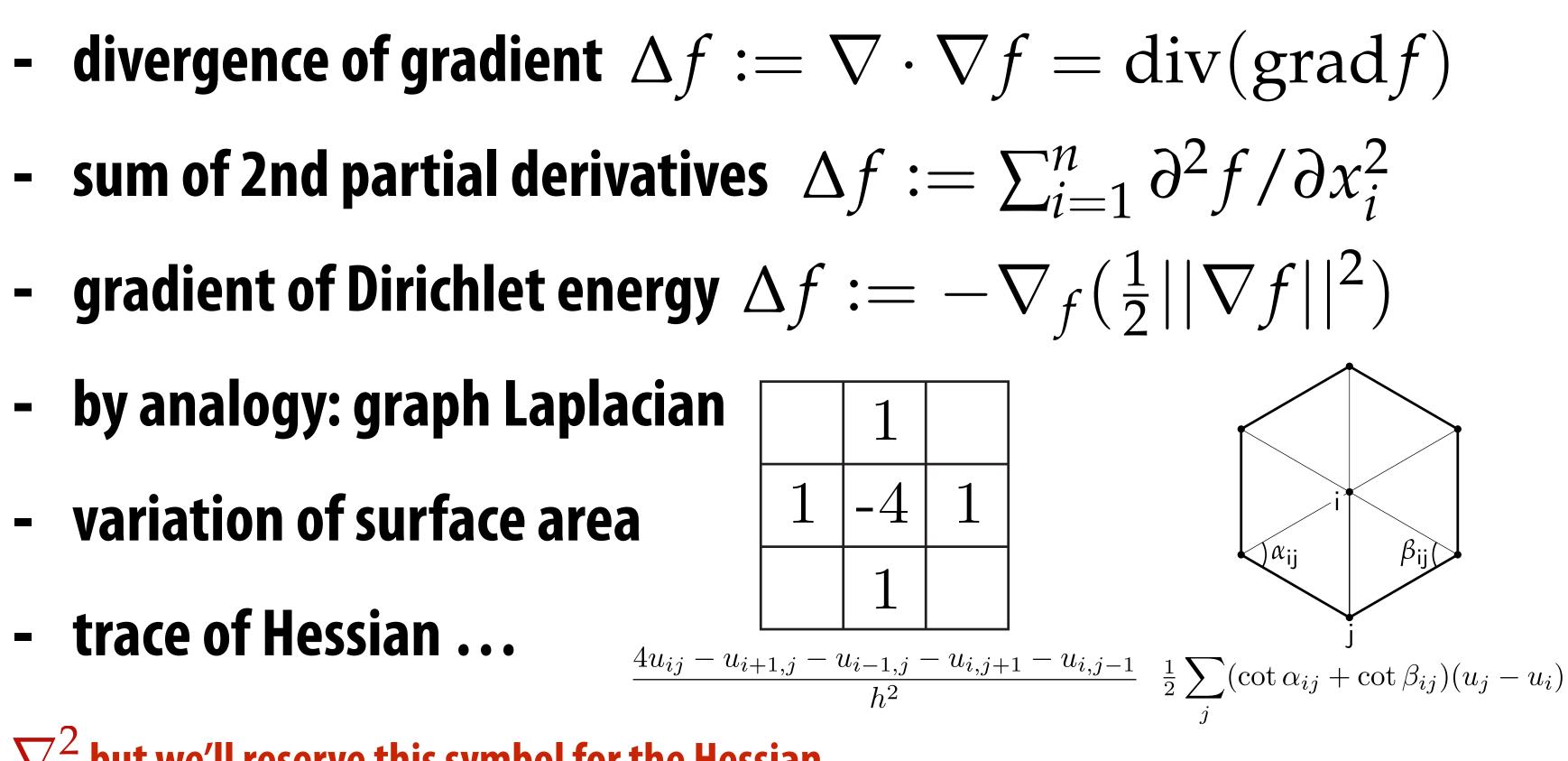


- Laplacian—Many Definitions
- Usually\* denoted by  $\Delta$  -----"Delta"
- Many starting points for Laplacian:

  - by analogy: graph Laplacian
  - variation of surface area
  - trace of Hessian ...

\*Or by  $\nabla^2$ , but we'll reserve this symbol for the Hessian

### Maps a scalar function to another scalar function (linearly!)





Laplacian—Example • Let's use coordinate definition:  $\Delta f := \sum_i \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$ We have

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} f = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} \cos(3x_1) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1} \sin(3x_1) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1}$$
and

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2}f = -9\sin(3x_2).$$

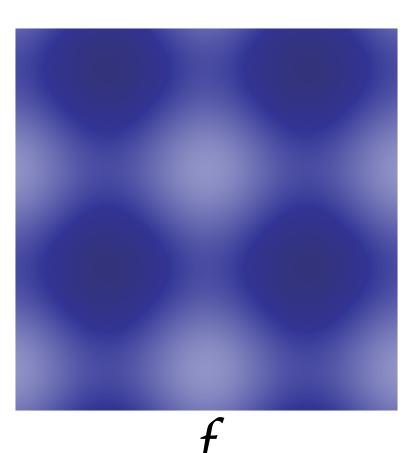
Hence,

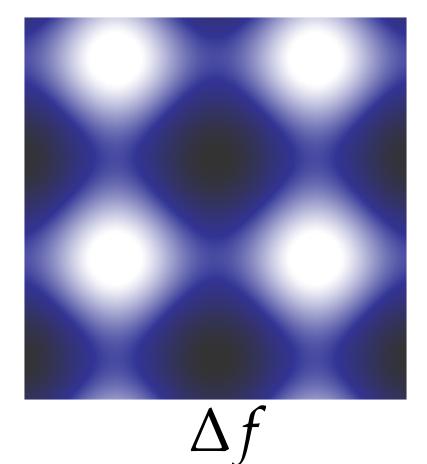
 $\Delta f = -9(\cos(3x_1) + \sin(3x_2))$ 

# • Consider the function $f(x_1, x_2) := \cos(3x_1) + \sin(3x_2)$



 $= -9\cos(3x_1).$ 





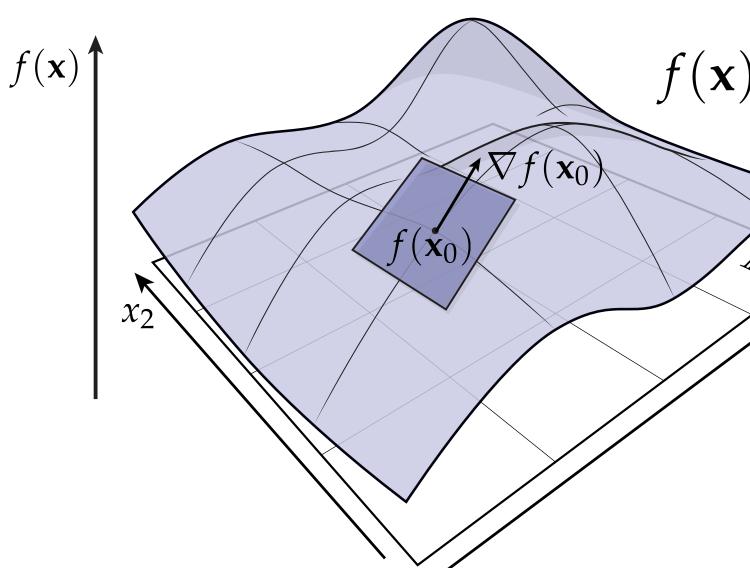


# Hessian

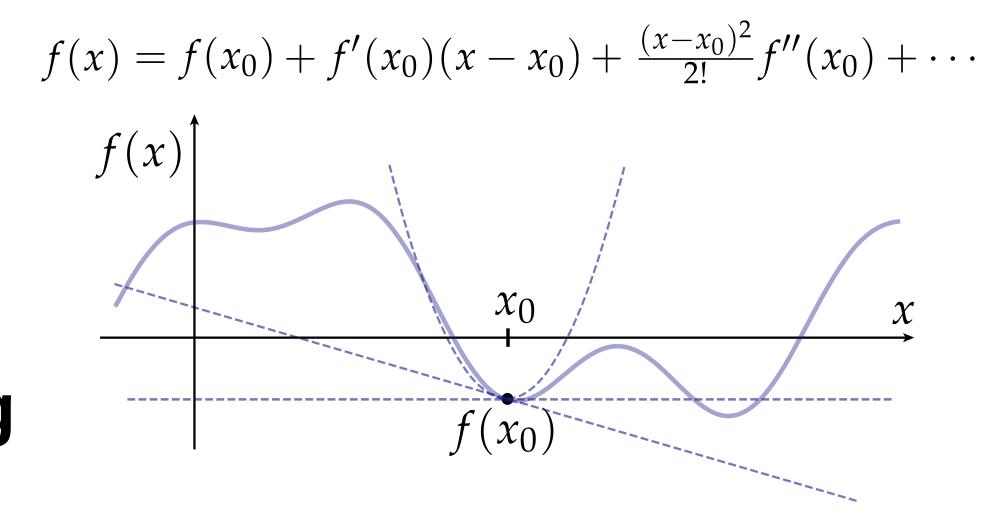
- Recall our Taylor series

How do we do this for multivariable functions?

Already talked about best linear approximation, using gradient:



# Our final differential operator—Hessian will help us locally approximate complicated functions by a few simple terms



 $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0 \rangle$ 

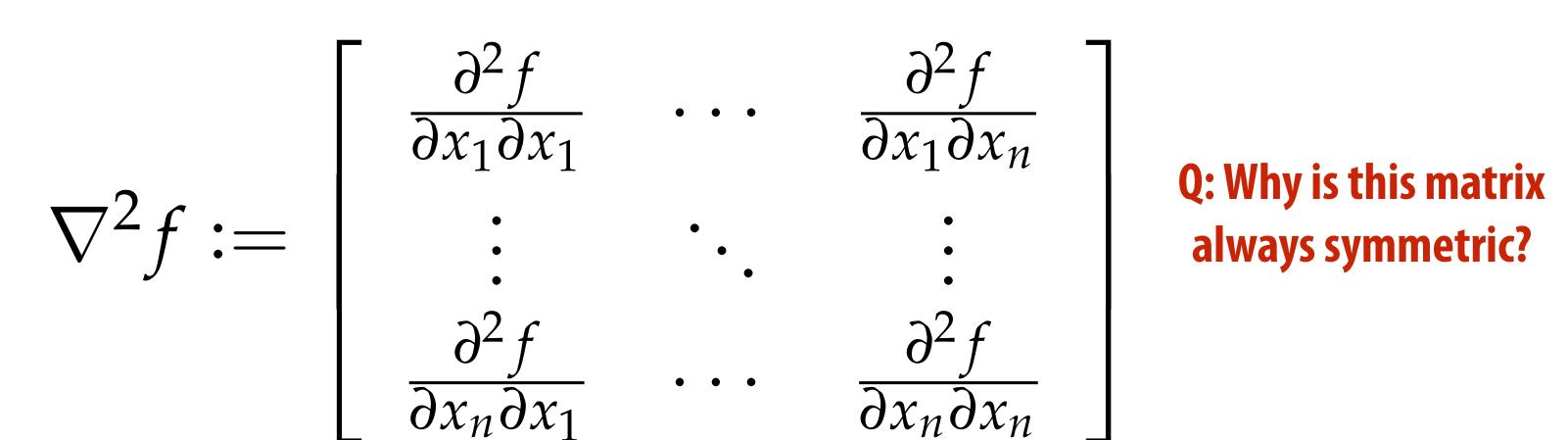
### Hessian gives us next, "quadratic" term.



# Hessian in Coordinates

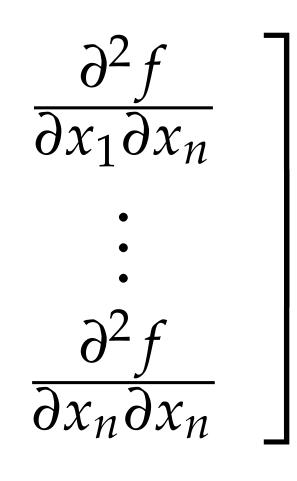
- **Typically denote Hessian by symbol**  $abla^2$
- $(\nabla^2 f)\mathbf{u}$

For a function  $f(x): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , can be more explicit:



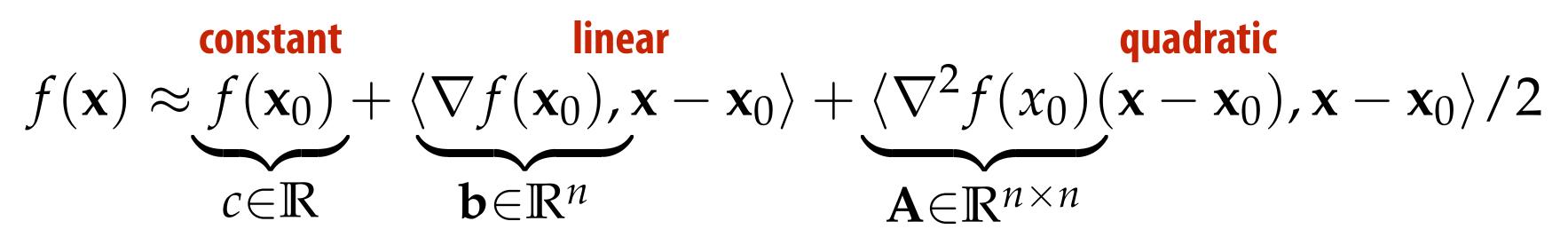
# Just as gradient was "vector that gives us partial derivatives of the function," Hessian is "operator that gives us partial derivatives of the gradient":

$$:= D_{\mathbf{u}}(\nabla f)$$

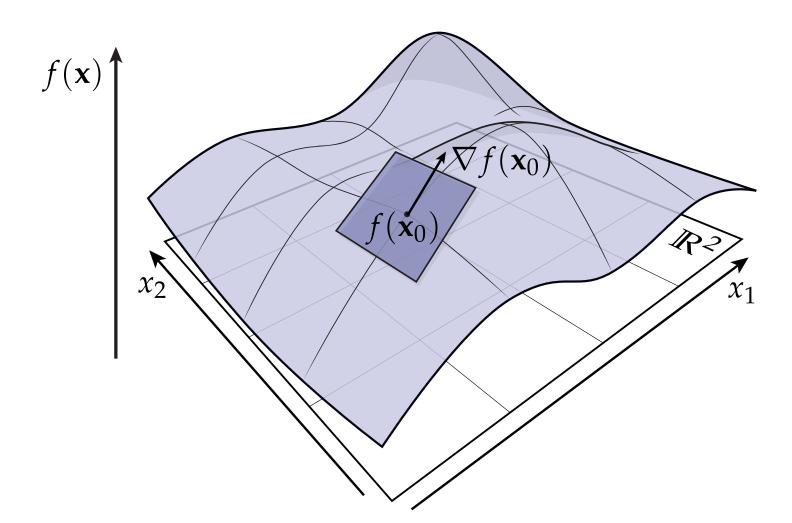




### **Taylor Series for Multivariable Functions** Using Hessian, can now write 2nd-order approximation of any smooth, multivariable function f(x) around some point x<sub>0</sub>:

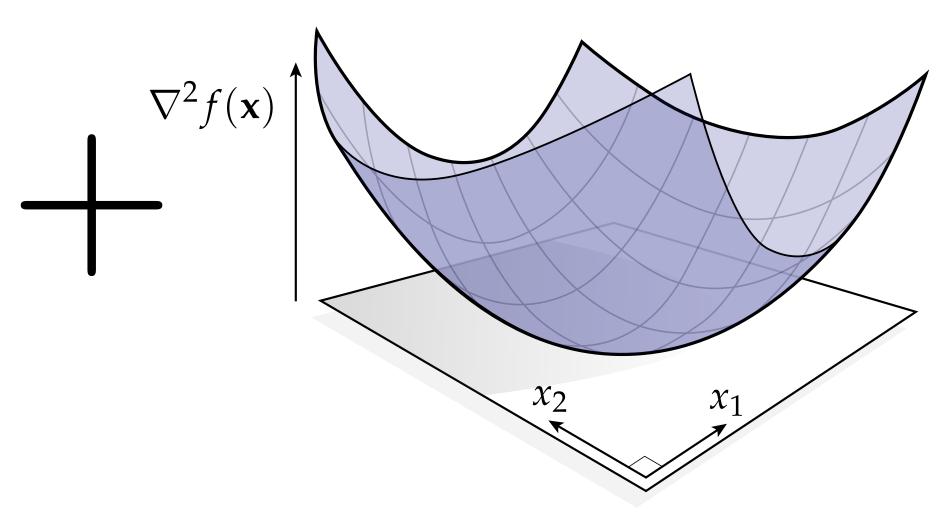


# Can write this in matrix form as



### Will see later on how this approximation is very useful for optimization!

 $f(\mathbf{u}) \approx \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{u} + c, \quad \mathbf{u} := \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0$ 





# Next time: Rasterization

Next time, we'll talk about how to draw triangles 


### A lot more interesting (and difficult!) than it might seem...

### Leads to a deep understanding of modern graphics hardware

