

Recall last time the unique representation theorem:

If  $B = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$  is a basis for  $V$ ,

each  $x \in V$  can be expressed uniquely as

$$x = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_p v_p$$

for some  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$

We say these  $c_i$  are the coordinates of  $x$   
relative to the basis  $B$  and write

$$[x]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}.$$

Different bases give different coordinates: ①

Say  $B = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$  and  $E = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

the standard basis  
of  $\mathbb{R}^2$

If  $[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $x = 2b_1 + 2b_2 = 2\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 2\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$

so  $[x]_E = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$ .

but nothing essential changes about  
our vector space when we  
choose a different basis.

(2)

Def<sup>n</sup>: A one-to-one and onto linear transformation between vector spaces is called an isomorphism.

If there is an isomorphism

$$T: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$$

we say that the vector spaces  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are isomorphic.

(3)

Isomorphisms preserve structure.

Say  $T: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  is an isomorphism.

Then:

1) ~~preserves addition~~

$$a+b=c \text{ in } V_1 \iff T(a)+T(b)=T(c) \text{ in } V_2$$

$$2) c \cdot x = y \text{ in } V_1 \iff c \cdot T(x) = T(y) \text{ in } V_2$$

$$3) \{u_1, \dots, u_k\} \text{ span } H \text{ in } V_1 \iff \{T(u_1), \dots, T(u_k)\} \text{ span } T(H) \text{ in } V_2$$

$$4) \{u_1, \dots, u_k\} \text{ are linearly independent in } V_1 \iff \{T(u_1), \dots, T(u_k)\} \text{ are linearly independent in } V_2.$$

$$5) \{u_1, \dots, u_k\} \text{ is a basis for } V_1 \iff \{T(u_1), \dots, T(u_k)\} \text{ is a basis for } V_2.$$

(4)

## Theorem

Suppose  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  is a basis for a vector space  $V$ .

Then the coordinate mapping

$$P: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

defined by

These are both vector spaces

$$P(x) = [x]_B$$

and we're defining a particular linear map between them by this formula.

We're claiming:

- it's really a linear transformation
- it's one-to-one: i.e.  $[x]_B = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  only if  $x = 0 \in V$
- it's onto: for every  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there's some  $x \in V$  so  $[x]_B = v$ .

This has many important consequences: (5)

- any vector space with an  $n$ -element basis is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$

Say  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  is a basis for  $V$

- a set of vectors  $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\} \subset V$  spans  $V$  if and only if  $\{[u_1]_B, [u_2]_B, \dots, [u_p]_B\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- a set of vectors  $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\} \subset V$  is linearly independent in  $V$  iff the coordinate vectors  $\{[u_1]_B, \dots, [u_p]_B\}$  are linearly independent in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$  is a basis for  $V \iff \{[u_1]_B, \dots, [u_p]_B\}$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

(6)

## Theorem

If a vector space  $V$  has a basis  $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$  then

1) any set in  $V$  with more than  $n$  elements  
is linearly dependent

2) any set in  $V$  with fewer than  $n$  elements  
does not span  $V$

3) any other basis for  $V$  also has  
exactly  $n$  elements.

Every basis for a vector space has the same  
number of elements.

We call this number the dimension of the vector space.

## Changing coordinates

Say  $B$  and  $C$  are two bases for  $V$ .

How are  $x \in V$ ,  $[x]_B \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $[x]_C \in \mathbb{R}^n$  related?

### Example

$$B = \{b_1, b_2\}, C = \{c_1, c_2\}$$

are bases for  $V$ .

Suppose

$$b_1 = -c_1 + 4c_2$$

$$b_2 = 5c_1 - 3c_2,$$

and  $[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ .

What is  $[x]_C$ ?

$$[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ means}$$

$$x = 2b_1 + 3b_2$$

$$= 2(-c_1 + 4c_2) + 3(5c_1 - 3c_2)$$

$$= \cancel{B \text{ base}} (-2 + 15)c_1 + (8 - 9)c_2$$

$$= 13c_1 - c_2$$

so  $[x]_C = \begin{pmatrix} 13 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

(8)

Let's look at that again.

Since  $x \mapsto [x]_e$  is a linear transformation,

$$[x]_e = [2b_1 + 3b_2]_e$$

$$= 2[b_1]_e + 3[b_2]_e$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ [b_1]_e & [b_2]_e \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

rewriting as  
a matrix  
equation.

the matrix with columns

$$[b_i]_e.$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 5 \\ 4 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Notice this was  $[x]_B$ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We just proved:

⑨

## Change of coordinates theorem

Let  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  and  $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$  be bases for  $V$ .

Define an  $n \times n$  matrix

$$P_{e \leftarrow B} = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & 1 \\ 1 & & & & \\ [b_1]_e & [b_2]_e & \cdots & [b_n]_e \\ & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then  $[x]_C = P_{e \leftarrow B} [x]_B$

for any vector  $x \in V$ .

This matrix is called the change of coordinates matrix  
(from  $B$  to  $C$ ).

Observe  $[x]_B = \underset{B \leftarrow e}{P} [x]_e$

$$= \underset{B \leftarrow e}{P} \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} [x]_B,$$

so  $\underset{B \leftarrow e}{P}$  and  $\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P}$  are inverses of each other.

The columns of  $\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P}$  are the  $e$ -coordinates of the vectors in the basis  $B$ .

How to remember?  $[b_i]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$[b_i]_e = \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} [b_i]_B = \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \text{"the first column of } \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} \text{"}$$

## Example

Find  $P_{e \leftarrow B}$  and  $P_{B \leftarrow e}$

when

$$B = \{1, x, x^2\}$$

$$e = \{1+x, x+x^2, 1+x^2\}$$

are bases for  $P_2$ .

One direction is easy. (11)

$$[1+x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad [x+x^2]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad [1+x^2]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus  $P_{B \leftarrow e} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$

We can compute

$$P_{e \leftarrow B} = P_{B \leftarrow e}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \dots = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let's sanity check. What is  $[p]_{e \leftarrow e}$  when  $p(x) = 1+2x-3x^2$ ?

$$[p]_B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ so } [p]_e = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } 3(1+x) - (x+x^2) - 2(1+x^2) = (3-2) + (3-1)x + (-1-2)x^2 = p(x).$$

(12)

Sometimes the best way to change bases is to go via a third basis (usually a 'standard' basis).

If  $B, C$  and  $E$  are bases, then

$$\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} = \underset{e \leftarrow E}{P} \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} = \underset{e \leftarrow E}{P}^{-1} \underset{e \leftarrow C}{P}$$

Example

Consider

$$B = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$C = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

What is

$$\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} ?$$

Well,  $\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\underset{e \leftarrow C}{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ , so

$$\underset{e \leftarrow E}{P} = \underset{e \leftarrow C}{P}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $\underset{e \leftarrow B}{P} = \underset{e \leftarrow E}{P} \underset{e \leftarrow B}{P}$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -5 \\ -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 24 & 12 \\ -15 & -6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 4 \\ -5 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$