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§3.4 Coordinates (Homework: 1, 2, 6, 7, 19, 20, 28, 37–40, 47)

Theorem. [Unique Representation Theorem]

Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n and let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_p\}$ be a basis for V . Then **each** vector \vec{v} in V can be written as a linear combination

$$\vec{v} = c_1 \cdot \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_p \cdot \vec{b}_p,$$

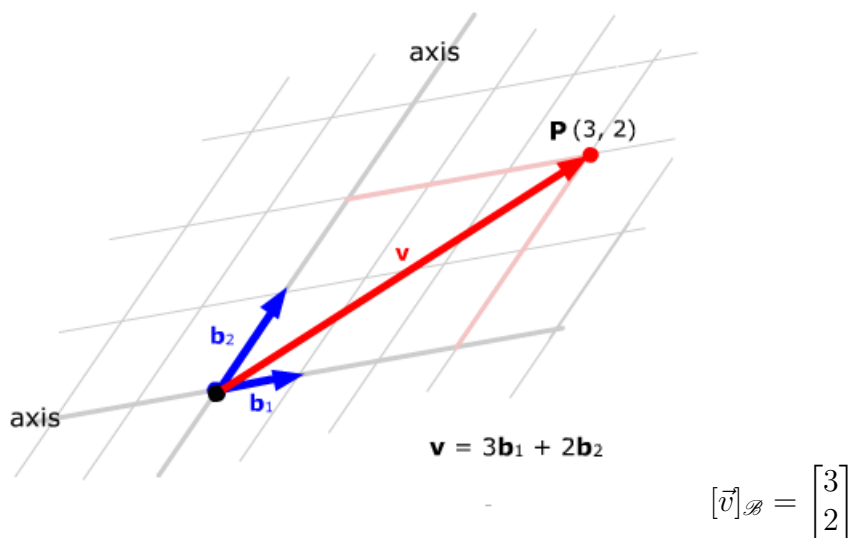
for a **unique** set of scalars c_1, \dots, c_p .

Definition. [Coordinates Relative to a Basis]

The **coordinates** of $\vec{v} \in V$ relative to \mathcal{B} are the unique weights c_1, \dots, c_p for which

$$\vec{v} = c_1 \cdot \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_p \cdot \vec{b}_p,$$

In this case, we write $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}$



Example 1 (The standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n).

The **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^n is the set $E = \{\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$. The associated E -coordinates are called the **standard coordinates** of a vector in \mathbb{R}^n , and

$$[\vec{x}]_E = \vec{x}$$

Example 2 (Coordinates Relative to a Basis). Consider a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2\}$ for \mathbb{R}^2 where $\vec{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ has the coordinate vector $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Find \vec{x} .

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{x} &= -3\vec{b}_1 + 2\vec{b}_2 = -3\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 2\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= [\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2][\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}\end{aligned}$$

Example 3 (The Change of Coordinates Matrix). Let $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the coordinate vector $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of \vec{x} relative to the basis \mathcal{B} for \mathbb{R}^2 as in the above example.

$$\begin{aligned}c_1\vec{b}_1 + c_2\vec{b}_2 &= \vec{x} \\ c_1\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right] &\xrightarrow{R_1 - R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 6 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2/3} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 + R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \\ c_1 &= 4 \\ c_2 &= 2 \quad \text{So } [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Theorem.

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ be a basis for \mathbb{R}^n and let $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be any vector. Let $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ be the $n \times n$ matrix whose columns are $\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n$ written in the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b}_1 & \dots & \vec{b}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the standard coordinates of $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be calculated from the \mathcal{B} -coordinates $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of \vec{x} as

$$\vec{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} \cdot [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}.$$

Definition. [Change-of-coordinates Matrix]

The matrix $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ from the previous theorem is called the **change-of-coordinates matrix** from the basis \mathcal{B} to the standard basis $\mathcal{E} = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$.

The change-of-coordinates matrix $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is always **invertible**, and equation $\vec{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} \cdot [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ can be used to find the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of \vec{x} in terms of the standard coordinates of \vec{x} as

$$[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} \cdot \vec{x}.$$

Example 4. Example3

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = P^{-1} \vec{x} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Theorem. The matrix of a linear transformation

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ be a basis for \mathbb{R}^n . Let T be a linear transformation from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n . There is an $n \times n$ matrix C such that

$$[T(\vec{x})]_{\mathcal{B}} = C[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

The matrix C can be calculated by

$$C = \left[[T(\vec{b}_1)]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad [T(\vec{b}_2)]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad \cdots \quad [T(\vec{b}_n)]_{\mathcal{B}} \right]$$

The matrix C is called the *matrix of T respect to basis \mathcal{B}* , or *\mathcal{B} -matrix*.

Suppose $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$. Denote $P = [\vec{b}_1 \ \vec{b}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{b}_n]$

Theorem.

$$A = PCP^{-1}$$

So

$$C = P^{-1}AP$$

Proof.

$$[A\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = C \cdot [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

$$P^{-1}A\vec{x} = C P^{-1}\vec{x}$$

$$P^{-1}A = CP^{-1}$$

$$A = PCP^{-1}$$

If A and C satisfy $A = PCP^{-1}$, then A and C are called **similar**.

Example 5. Consider a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2\}$ for \mathbb{R}^2 where $\vec{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose a transformation T is defined by matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. What is the matrix C of the transformation T respect to basis \mathcal{B} ?

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad P^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C = P^{-1}AP &= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Example 6. Let T be the projection transformation onto a line $L = \text{Span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \mathbb{R}^3$.

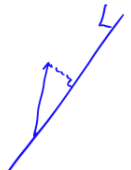
Find a basis \mathcal{B} for \mathbb{R}^3 such that the \mathcal{B} -matrix of the T is diagonal.

we need a basis $B = \{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \vec{b}_3\}$ such that

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} [T(\vec{b}_1)]_B & [T(\vec{b}_2)]_B & [T(\vec{b}_3)]_B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & c_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

So $[T(\vec{b}_1)]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

So $T(\vec{b}_1) = c_1(\vec{b}_1)$, similarly $T(\vec{b}_2) = c_2(\vec{b}_2)$
 $T(\vec{b}_3) = c_3(\vec{b}_3)$



Choose $\vec{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ so $T(\vec{b}_1) = \vec{b}_1$

Choose $\vec{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, so $T(\vec{b}_2) = 0 \vec{b}_2$

Choose $\vec{b}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ so $T(\vec{b}_3) = 0 \vec{b}_3$

$\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \vec{b}_3$ independent $C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition. (Abstract) Vector space

A **vector space** is any nonempty set V of objects, called *vectors*, on which there are defined two **closed** operations,

- **vector addition (sum)**, and
- **multiplication by a scalar (scalar product)**,

subject to the rules below, called **axioms of a vector space**:

1. $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$.
2. $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{v} + (\vec{u} + \vec{w})$.
3. There is a zero vector $\vec{0} \in V$ such that $\vec{u} + \vec{0} = \vec{u}$.
4. For each $\vec{u} \in V$, there is a vector $-\vec{u} \in V$ such that $\vec{u} + (-\vec{u}) = \vec{0}$.
5. $c \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) = c \cdot \vec{u} + c \cdot \vec{v}$.
6. $(c + d) \cdot \vec{u} = c \cdot \vec{u} + d \cdot \vec{u}$.
7. $c(d \cdot \vec{u}) = (cd) \cdot \vec{u}$.
8. $1 \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{u}$.

These must hold for all $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$ and all $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.

In this definition, we use real numbers as scalar. The vector space is called real vector space. The axioms of a vector space imply that for all $\vec{u} \in V$, $c \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$0 \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{0}, \quad c \cdot \vec{0} = \vec{0}, \quad -\vec{u} = (-1)\vec{u}.$$

1. \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space.

2. The set of all transformations $\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector space.
2. The set of all $m \times n$ matrices is a vector space.
3. The set of all functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a vector space.

Any definitions or theorems in Chapter 3 defined by **vectors** are true for the abstract vector spaces.

Like, **linear independence, subspace, linear combination, basis, dimension.**

1. Let P be the set of all polynomials.

$$P = \{ a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots \} \text{ for all real numbers } a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$$

2. Let P_n be the set of all polynomials of degree $\leq n$.

$$P = \{ a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \} \text{ for all real numbers } a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$$

3. Let H be the set of all polynomials of degree exactly 3, with real coefficients.

No.

$$H = \{ a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 \mid a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{R}, a_3 \neq 0 \}$$

4. Let $H = \{ ax^4 + b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}$. Is H a subspace of P_4 ?

Yes.

5. Let $H = \{ x^2 + a \mid a \in \mathbb{R} \}$. Is H a subspace of P ?

No.

6. The set $U_{n \times n}$ of all $n \times n$ upper triangular matrices with real entries.

Yes.

7. The set $L_{n \times n}$ of all $n \times n$ lower triangular matrices with real entries.

Yes.

8. The set $D_{n \times n}$ of all $n \times n$ diagonal matrices with real entries.

Yes.

9. The set $T_{n \times n}$ of all $n \times n$ triangular matrices with real entries.

No

Definition.

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V . The map

$$T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \text{ given by } T(\vec{x}) = [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

is called the **coordinate mapping** from V to \mathbb{R}^n with respect to \mathcal{B} .

The coordinate mapping allows us to view vectors \vec{x} in the abstract vector space V by means of coordinates of vectors in the concrete and familiar vector space \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem.

For any choice of basis \mathcal{B} of the vector space V , the associated coordinate mapping $T(\vec{x}) = [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation from V onto \mathbb{R}^n .

Example 7 (The Coordinate Mapping). Let V be the vector space of all polynomials of degree ≤ 2 .

$$T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$