



MAT 207- LINEAR ALGEBRA

Lecture 6 – Vector Space

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Coordinate Systems

THE UNIQUE REPRESENTATION THEOREM

- **Theorem 7:** Let $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis for vector space V . Then for each \mathbf{x} in V , there exists a unique set of scalars c_1, \dots, c_n such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 b_1 + \dots + c_n b_n \quad (1)$$

- **Proof:** Since B spans V , there exist scalars such that (1) holds.
- Suppose \mathbf{x} also has the representation

$$\mathbf{x} = d_1 b_1 + \dots + d_n b_n$$

for scalars d_1, \dots, d_n .

THE UNIQUE REPRESENTATION THEOREM

- Then, subtracting, we have

$$0 = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x} = (c_1 - d_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + (c_n - d_n)\mathbf{b}_n \quad (2)$$

- Since \mathbf{B} is linearly independent, the weights in (2) must all be zero. That is, for $1 \leq j \leq n$.
- **Definition:** Suppose $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V and \mathbf{x} is in V . **The coordinates of \mathbf{x} relative to the basis \mathbf{B}** (or the **\mathbf{B} -coordinate of \mathbf{x}**) are the weights c_1, \dots, c_n such that $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$

THE UNIQUE REPRESENTATION THEOREM

- If c_1, \dots, c_n are the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of \mathbf{x} , then the vector in \mathbb{R}^n

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

is the **coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} (relative to \mathcal{B})**, or the **\mathcal{B} -coordinate vector of \mathbf{x}** .

COORDINATES IN \mathbb{R}^n

- **Example 1:** Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathbf{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find the coordinate vector $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathbf{B}}$ of \mathbf{x} relative to \mathbf{B} .
- **Solution:** The \mathbf{B} -coordinate c_1, c_2 of \mathbf{x} satisfy

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

COORDINATES IN \mathbb{R}^n

- Or
- $$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$
- This equation can be solved by row operations on an augmented matrix or by using the inverse of the matrix on the left.
- In any case, the solution is $c_1 = 3$, $c_2 = 2$.
- Thus $\mathbf{x} = 3\mathbf{b}_1 + 2\mathbf{b}_2$ and

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

COORDINATES IN \mathbb{R}^n

- The matrix in (3) changes the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of a vector \mathbf{x} into the standard coordinates for \mathbf{x} .
- An analogous change of coordinates can be carried out in \mathbb{R}^n for a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$.
- Let $P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b}_n]$
- Then the vector equation
$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

is equivalent to

$$\underline{\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}}$$
(4)

COORDINATES IN \mathbb{R}^n

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- $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is called the **change-of-coordinates matrix** from \mathcal{B} to the standard basis in \mathbb{R}^n .
- Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ transforms the coordinate vector $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ into \mathbf{x} .
- Since the columns of $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n , $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is invertible (by the Invertible Matrix Theorem).

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

- **Theorem 8:** Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V . Then the coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a one-to-one linear transformation from V onto \mathbb{R}^n .
- **Proof:** Take two typical vectors in V , say,

$$\mathbf{u} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

$$\mathbf{w} = d_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + d_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

- Then, using vector operations,

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w} = (c_1 + d_1) \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + (c_n + d_n) \mathbf{b}_n$$

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

- It follows that

$$[\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}]_{\mathbf{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 + d_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n + d_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathbf{B}} + [\mathbf{w}]_{\mathbf{B}}$$

- So the coordinate mapping preserves addition.
- If r is any scalar, then

$$r\mathbf{u} = r(c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n) = (rc_1)\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + (rc_n)\mathbf{b}_n$$

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

- So

$$[ru]_B = \begin{bmatrix} rc_1 \\ \vdots \\ rc_n \end{bmatrix} = r \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = r[u]_B$$

- Thus the coordinate mapping also preserves scalar multiplication and hence is a linear transformation.
- The linearity of the coordinate mapping extends to linear combinations.
- If $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$ are in V and if c_1, \dots, c_p are scalars, then
- $$[c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p]_B = c_1[\mathbf{u}_1]_B + \dots + c_p[\mathbf{u}_p]_B \quad (5)$$

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

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- In words, (5) says that the \mathcal{B} -coordinate vector of a linear combination of $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$ is the *same* linear combination of their coordinate vectors.
- The coordinate mapping in Theorem 8 is an important example of an *isomorphism* from V onto \mathbb{R}^n .
- In general, a one-to-one linear transformation from a vector space V onto a vector space W is called an **isomorphism** from V onto W .

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

• **Example 7:** Let $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $x = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$,

and $B = \{v_1, v_2\}$. Then B is a basis for $H = \text{Span}\{v_1, v_2\}$

Determine if x is in H , and if it is, find the coordinate vector of x relative to B .

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

- **Solution:** If \mathbf{x} is in H , then the following vector equation is consistent:

$$c_1 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} + c_2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The scalars c_1 and c_2 , if they exist, are the **B**-coordinates of \mathbf{x} .

THE COORDINATE MAPPING

- Using row operations, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 3 \\ 6 & 0 & 12 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Thus $c_1 = 2$, $c_2 = 3$ and $[\mathbf{x}]_B$

The Dimension of a Vector Subspace

DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

Theorem 9: If a vector space V has a basis $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$, then any set in V containing more than n vectors must be linearly dependent.

Theorem 10: If a vector space V has a basis of n vectors, then every basis of V must consist of exactly n vectors.

Definition: If V is spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **finite-dimensional**, and the **dimension** of V , written as $\dim V$, is the number of vectors in a basis for V . The dimension of the zero vector space $\{0\}$ is defined to be zero. If V is not spanned by a finite set, then V is said to be **infinite-dimensional**.

DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

- **Example 3:** Find the dimension of the subspace

$$H = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a - 3b + 6c \\ 5a + 4d \\ b - 2c - d \\ 5d \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c, d \text{ in } \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

- H is the set of all linear combinations of the vectors

DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Clearly, $\mathbf{v}_1 \neq \mathbf{0}$, \mathbf{v}_2 is not a multiple of \mathbf{v}_1 , but \mathbf{v}_3 is a multiple of \mathbf{v}_2 .
- By the Spanning Set Theorem, we may discard \mathbf{v}_3 and still have a set that spans H .

DIMENSION OF A VECTOR SPACE

- Finally, \mathbf{v}_4 is not a linear combination of \mathbf{v}_1 and \mathbf{v}_2 .
 - So $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_4\}$ is linearly independent and hence is a basis for H .
 - Thus $\dim H = 3$
-
- **Theorem 11:** Let H be a subspace of a finite-dimensional vector space V . Any linearly independent set in H can be expanded, if necessary, to a basis for H . Also, H is finite-dimensional and
$$\dim H \leq \dim V$$

THE BASIS THEOREM

- **Theorem 12:** Let V be a p -dimensional vector space, $p \geq 1$. Any linearly independent set of exactly p elements in V is automatically a basis for V . Any set of exactly p elements that spans V is automatically a basis for V .
- **Proof:** By Theorem 11, a linearly independent set S of p elements can be extended to a basis for V .
- But that basis must contain exactly p elements, since $\dim V = p$.
- So S must already be a basis for V .

THE BASIS THEOREM

- Now suppose that S has p elements and spans V .
- Since V is nonzero, the Spanning Set Theorem implies that a subset S' of S is a basis of V .
- Since $\dim V = p$, S' must contain p vectors.
- Hence $S = S'$.

THE DIMENSIONS OF NUL A AND COL A

- Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, and suppose the equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ has k free variables.
- A spanning set for $\text{Nul } A$ will produce exactly k linearly independent vectors—say, $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k$ one for each free variable.
- So $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k\}$ is a basis for $\text{Nul } A$, and the number of free variables determines the size of the basis.

THE DIMENSIONS OF NUL A AND COL A

- Thus, the dimension of $\text{Nul } A$ is the number of free variables in the equation $Ax = 0$, and the dimension of $\text{Col } A$ is the number of pivot columns in A .
- **Example 5:** Find the dimensions of the null space and the column space of

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 6 & -1 & 1 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 \\ 2 & -4 & 5 & 8 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

THE DIMENSIONS OF NUL A AND COL A

- **Solution:** Row reduce the augmented matrix $[A \ 0]$ to echelon form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 & 3 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- There are three free variable— x_2 , x_4 and x_5 .
- Hence the dimension of Nul A is 3.
- Also $\dim \text{Col } A = 2$ because A has two pivot columns.

Rank

THE ROW SPACE

-
- If A is an $m \times n$ matrix, each row of A has n entries and thus can be identified with a vector in \mathbb{R}^n .
- The set of all linear combinations of the row vectors is called the **row space** of A and is denoted by $\text{Row } A$.
- Each row has n entries, so $\text{Row } A$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
- Since the rows of A are identified with the columns of A^T , we could also write $\text{Col } A^T$ in place of $\text{Row } A$.

THE ROW SPACE

Theorem 13: If two matrices A and B are row equivalent, then their row spaces are the same. If B is in echelon form, the nonzero rows of B form a basis for the row space of A as well as for that of B .

- **Example 2:** Find bases for the row space, the column space, and the null space of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & -5 & 8 & 0 & -17 \\ 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 11 & -19 & 7 & 1 \\ 1 & 7 & -13 & 5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

THE ROW SPACE

- **Solution:** To find bases for the row space and the column space, row reduce A to an echelon form:

$$A \sim B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -5 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 2 & -7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- By Theorem 13, the first three rows of B form a basis for the row space of A (as well as for the row space of B).

THE ROW SPACE

- Thus

Basis for Row A : $\{(1, 3, -5, 1, 5), (0, 1, -2, 2, -7), (0, 0, 0, -4, 20)\}$

- For the column space, observe from B that the pivots are in columns 1, 2, and 4.
- Hence columns 1, 2, and 4 of A (not B) form a basis for Col A :

$$\text{Basis for Col } A: \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 3 \\ 11 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 7 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

THE ROW SPACE

- Notice that any echelon form of A provides (in its nonzero rows) a basis for $\text{Row } A$ and also identifies the pivot columns of A for $\text{Col } A$.
- However, for $\text{Nul } A$, we need the *reduced echelon form*.
- Further row operations on B yield

$$A \sim B \sim C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

THE ROW SPACE

- The equation $Ax = 0$ is equivalent to $Cx = 0$, that is,

$$x_1 + x_3 + x_5 = 0$$

$$x_2 - 2x_3 + 3x_5 = 0$$

$$x_4 - 5x_5 = 0$$

- So $x_1 = -x_3 - x_5$, $x_2 = 2x_3 - 3x_5$, $x_4 = 5x_5$, with x_3 and x_5 free variables.
- The calculations show that

THE ROW SPACE

- Basis for $\text{Nul } A$: $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$
- Observe that, unlike the basis for $\text{Col } A$, the bases for $\text{Row } A$ and $\text{Nul } A$ have no simple connection with the entries in A itself.

The Rank Theorem

- **Definition:** The **rank** of A is the dimension of the column space of A .
- Since $\text{Row } A$ is the same as $\text{Col } A^T$, the dimension of the row space of A is the rank of A^T .
- The dimension of the null space is sometimes called the **nullity** of A .
- **Theorem 14:** The dimensions of the column space and the row space of an $m \times n$ matrix A are equal. This common dimension, the rank of A , also equals the number of pivot positions in A and satisfies the equation

$$\text{rank } A + \dim \text{Nul } A = n$$

The Rank Theorem

- **Example 3:**

- a. If A is a 7×9 matrix with a two-dimensional null space, what is the rank of A ?
- b. Could a 6×9 matrix have a two-dimensional null space?

- **Solution:**

- a. Since A has 9 columns, $(\text{rank } A) + 2 = 9$, and hence $\text{rank } A = 7$.
- b. No. If a 6×9 matrix, call it B , has a two-dimensional null space, it would have to have rank 7, by the Rank Theorem

THE INVERTIBLE MATRIX THEOREM (CONTINUED)

- - But the columns of B are vectors in \mathbb{R}^6 , and so the dimension of $\text{Col } B$ cannot exceed 6; that is, $\text{rank } B$ cannot exceed 6.
- **Theorem:** Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. Then the following statements are each equivalent to the statement that A is an invertible matrix.
 - m. The columns of A form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .
 - n. $\text{Col } A = \mathbb{R}^n$
 - o. $\text{Dim Col } A = n$
 - p. $\text{Rank } A = n$
 - q. $\text{Nul } A = \{0\}$
 - r. $\text{Dim Nul } A = 0$

Change Of Basis

Change Of Basis

- **Example 1** Consider two bases $\beta = \{b_1, b_2\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, c_2\}$ for a vector space V , such that

$$b_1 = 4c_1 + c_2 \quad \text{and} \quad b_2 = -6c_1 + c_2 \quad (1)$$

- Suppose $x = 3b_1 + b_2$ (2)
- That is, suppose $[x]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $[x]_{\mathcal{C}}$.

Change Of Basis

- **Solution** Apply the coordinate mapping determined by C to \mathbf{x} in (2). Since the coordinate mapping is a linear transformation,

$$\begin{aligned}[x]_C &= [3b_1 + b_2]_C \\ &= [3b_1]_C + [b_2]_C\end{aligned}$$

- We can write the vector equation as a matrix equation, using the vectors in the linear combination as the columns of a matrix:

$$[x]_C = [b_1]_C \quad [b_2]_C \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

Change Of Basis

- This formula gives $[x]_C$, once we know the columns of the matrix. From (1),

$$[b_1]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } [b_2]_C = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Thus, (3) provides the solution:

$$[x]_C = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -6 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The C -coordinates of \mathbf{x} match those of the \mathbf{x} in Fig. 1, as seen on the next slide.

Change Of Basis

- **Theorem 15:** Let $\beta = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ and $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_p\}$ for a vector space V . Then there is a unique $n \times p$ matrix $c \leftarrow^P \beta$ such that

$$[x]_C = c \leftarrow^P \beta [x]_\beta$$

- The columns of $c \leftarrow^P \beta$ are the C-coordinate vectors of the vectors in the basis β . That is,

$$c \leftarrow^P \beta = [[b_1]_C \quad [b_2]_C \quad \dots \quad [b_n]_C]$$

Change Of Basis

- The matrix ${}_C \leftarrow \beta^P$ in Theorem 15 is called the **change-of-coordinates matrix from β to \mathcal{C}** . Multiplication by ${}_C \leftarrow \beta^P$ converts β -coordinates into \mathcal{C} -coordinates.
- Figure 2 below illustrates the change-of-coordinates equation (4).

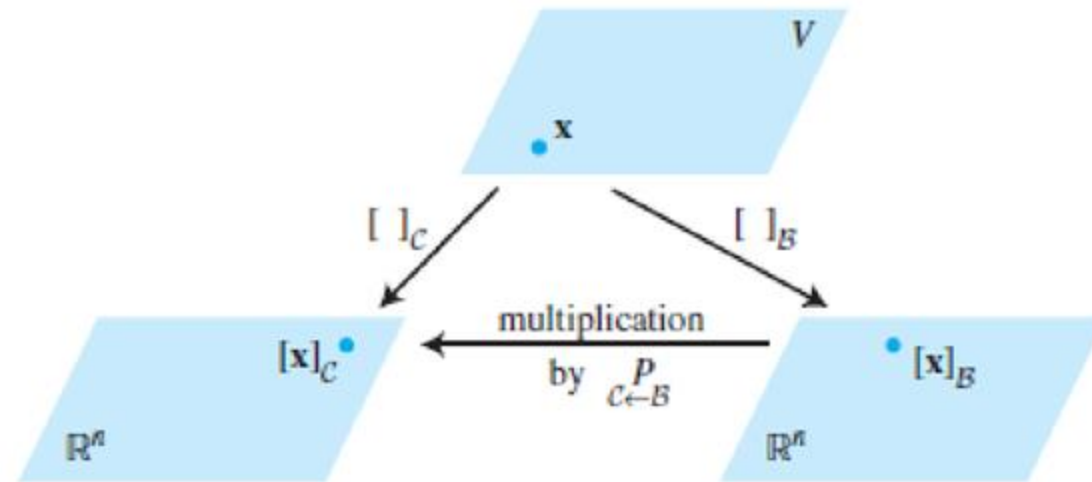


FIGURE 2 Two coordinate systems for V .

Change Of Basis

- **Example 2** Let $b_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $b_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $c_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$, $c_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$ and consider the bases for \mathbb{R}^n given by $\beta = \{b_1, b_2\}$ and $C = \{c_1, c_2\}$. Find the change-of-coordinates matrix from β to C .
- **Solution** The matrix $\beta \xleftarrow{P} C$ involves the C -coordinate vectors of b_1 and b_2 . Let $[b_1]_C = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $[b_2]_C = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then, by definition,
$$[c_1 \ c_2] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = b_1 \quad \text{and} \quad [c_1 \ c_2] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = b_2$$

Change Of Basis

- To solve both systems simultaneously, augment the coefficient matrix with b_1 and b_2 , and row reduce:

$$[c_1 \ c_2 \vdots b_1 \ b_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -9 & -5 \\ -4 & -5 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 6 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Thus

$$[b_1]_c = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } [b_2]_c = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The desired change-of-coordinates matrix is therefore

$${}^P_{c \leftarrow} \beta = \begin{bmatrix} [b_1]_c & [b_2]_c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 4 \\ -5 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thank you for listening