$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times n}}_{A} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{n\times 1}}_{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}_{m\times 1}}_{b}$$

CX1104: **Linear Algebra for Computing**

Chap. No : **8.1.5A**

Topic : **Revision – coordinate systems**

Concept : **Coordinate systems and Change of basis**

Note: This is a quick revision on coordinates and change of basis

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Basis

Let H be a subspace of a vector space V. An indexed set of vectors $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$ in V is a **basis** for H if

(i) $\mathcal{B}$ is a linearly independent set, and

(ii) the subspace spanned by $\mathcal{B}$ coincides with H; that is,

$$H = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$$

Lay,4th,pg209,ch4.3

Two Views of a Basis

When the Spanning Set Theorem is used, the deletion of vectors from a spanning set must stop when the set becomes linearly independent. If an additional vector is deleted, it will not be a linear combination of the remaining vectors, and hence the smaller set will no longer span V. Thus a basis is a spanning set that is as small as possible.

A basis is also a linearly independent set that is as large as possible. If S is a basis for V, and if S is enlarged by one vector—say, $\mathbf{w}$—from V, then the new set cannot be linearly independent, because S spans V, and $\mathbf{w}$ is therefore a linear combination of the elements in S.

Lay,4th,pg212,ch4.3

Basis

EXAMPLE 10 The following three sets in $\mathbb{R}^3$ show how a linearly independent set can be enlarged to a basis and how further enlargement destroys the linear independence of the set. Also, a spanning set can be shrunk to a basis, but further shrinking destroys the spanning property.

$$\left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix}\right\} \qquad \left\{\begin{bmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}4\\5\\6\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix}7\\8\\9\end{bmatrix}\right\}$$

Linearly independent but does not span $\mathbb{R}^3$ — A basis for $\mathbb{R}^3$ — Spans $\mathbb{R}^3$ but is linearly dependent ■

Lay,4th,pg212,ch4.3

Revision: Coordinate system

THEOREM 7 **The Unique Representation Theorem**

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be a basis for a vector space V. Then for each $\mathbf{x}$ in V, there exists a unique set of scalars $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ such that

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n \tag{1}$$

PROOF Since $\mathcal{B}$ spans V, there exist scalars such that (1) holds. Suppose $\mathbf{x}$ also has the representation

$$\mathbf{x} = d_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + d_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

for scalars $d_1, \ldots, d_n$. Then, subtracting, we have

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

Since $\mathcal{B}$ is linearly independent, the weights in (2) must all be zero. That is, $c_j = d_j$ for $1 \le j \le n$. ■

Lay4th, Sec 4.4, pg 216

Another way to look at this:
e.g if $x \in R^n$, $c \in R^n$, and
$P_B = [b_1 \ldots b_n] \in R^{nxn}$,
P_B is invertible since cols are independent, and relating
x and c by
$x = P_B c$

Then
$$c = P_B^{-1} x$$

Since P_B^{-1} $exist, then$
c is unique. $[x]_b = c$ is a vector $\in R^n$ representing x
In the B basis.

Revision: Coordinate Systems

DEFINITION

Suppose $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is a basis for V and $\mathbf{x}$ is in V. The **coordinates of x relative to the basis $\mathcal{B}$** (or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of x**) are the weights $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ such that $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$.

If $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ 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 x (relative to $\mathcal{B}$)**, or the **$\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of x**. The mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the **coordinate mapping (determined by $\mathcal{B}$)**.[1]

[1] The concept of a coordinate mapping assumes that the basis $\mathcal{B}$ is an indexed set whose vectors are listed in some fixed preassigned order. This property makes the definition of $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ unambiguous.

Lay,4th,pg216,ch4.4

Revision: Coordinate Systems

EXAMPLE 1 Consider a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$ for $\mathbb{R}^2$, where $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Suppose an $\mathbf{x}$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$ has the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find $\mathbf{x}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ tell how to build $\mathbf{x}$ from the vectors in $\mathcal{B}$. That is,

$$\mathbf{x} = (-2)\mathbf{b}_1 + 3\mathbf{b}_2 = (-2)\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 3\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \blacksquare$$

EXAMPLE 2 The entries in the vector $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ are the coordinates of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to the *standard basis* $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \mathbf{e}_1 + 6 \cdot \mathbf{e}_2$$

If $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$, then $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathbf{x}$. $\blacksquare$

Revision: coordinate system

EXAMPLE 4 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 $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find the coordinate vector $[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$ of $\mathbf{x}$ relative to $\mathcal{B}$.

SOLUTION The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinates c_1, c_2 of $\mathbf{x}$ satisfy

$$c_1 \underset{\mathbf{b}_1}{\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} + c_2 \underset{\mathbf{b}_2}{\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}}$$

or

$$\begin{array}{cc} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 \end{array} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}} \tag{3}$$

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

$$[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

See Fig. 4.

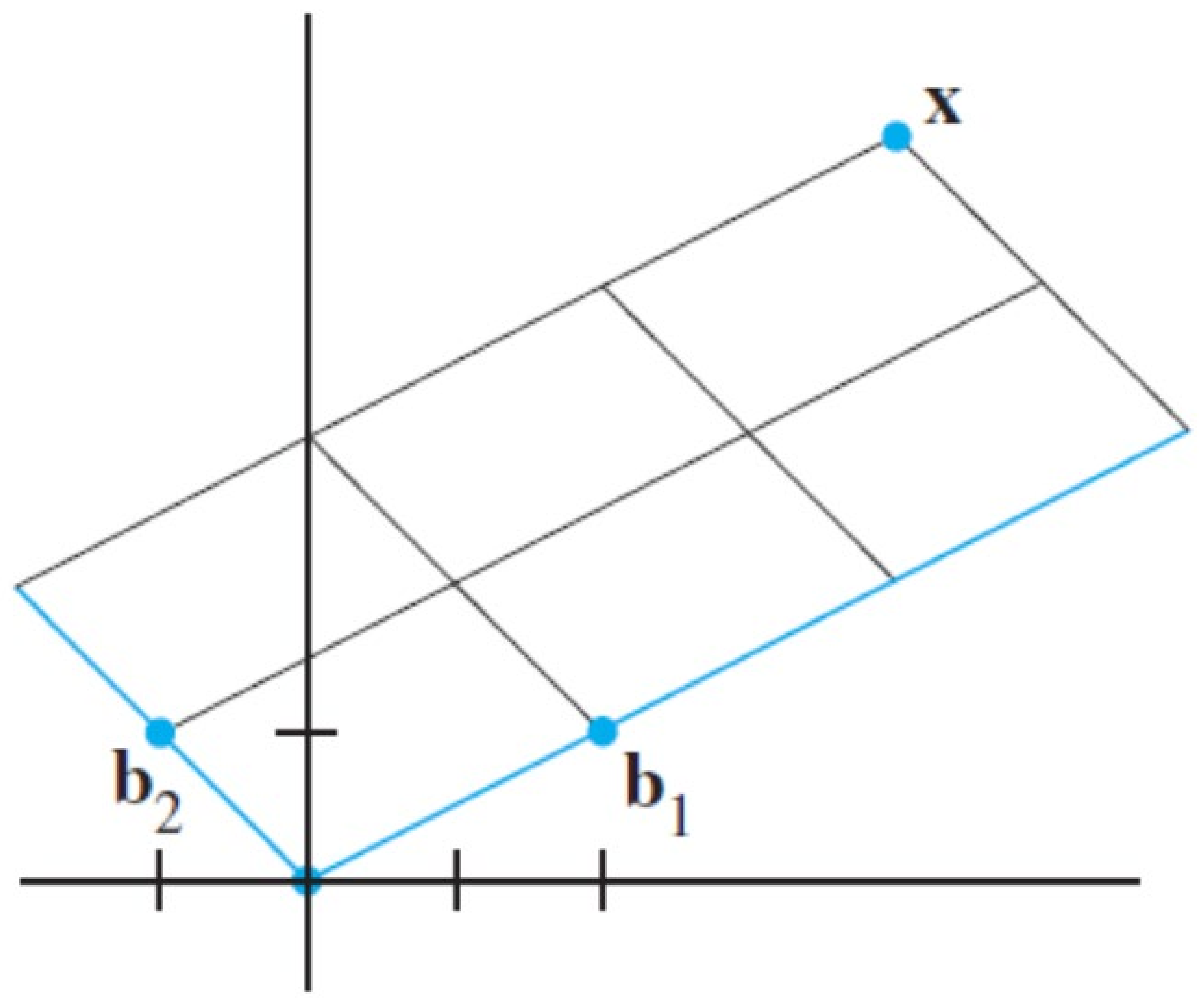


FIGURE 4
The $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector of $\mathbf{x}$ is $(3, 2)$.

Lay,4th,pg218,ch4.4

Revision: change of coordinate matrix

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & P_B & [x]_B & = & x \\ & \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} & = & \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \\ & \mathbf{b}_1 \quad \mathbf{b}_2 & & & \mathbf{x} \end{array} \tag{3}$$

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

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + c_2\mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$$

is equivalent to

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}} \tag{4}$$

We call $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ 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 $\mathbf{x}$. The change-of-coordinates equation (4) is important and will be needed at several points in Chapters 5 and 7.

Lay,4th,pg219,ch4.4

Revision: change of coordinate matrix

Since the columns of $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ form a basis for $\mathbb{R}^n$, $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is invertible (by the Invertible Matrix Theorem). Left-multiplication by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ converts $\mathbf{x}$ into its $\mathcal{B}$-coordinate vector:

$$P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}\mathbf{x} = [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

The correspondence $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\,\mathbf{x}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$, produced here by $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$, is the coordinate mapping mentioned earlier. Since $P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1}$ is an invertible matrix, the coordinate mapping is a one-to-one linear transformation from $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto $\mathbb{R}^n$, by the Invertible Matrix Theorem.

Working:

$$P_B[x]_B = x$$

$$(P_B)^{-1}\ P_B[x]_B = (P_B)^{-1}x$$

$$[x]_B = (P_B)^{-1}x$$

Revision: Coordinate System

THEOREM 8

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ 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 $\mathbb{R}^n$.

The Coordinate Mapping

Choosing a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ for a vector space V introduces a coordinate system in V. The coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ connects the possibly unfamiliar space V to the familiar space $\mathbb{R}^n$. See Fig. 5. Points in V can now be identified by their new "names."

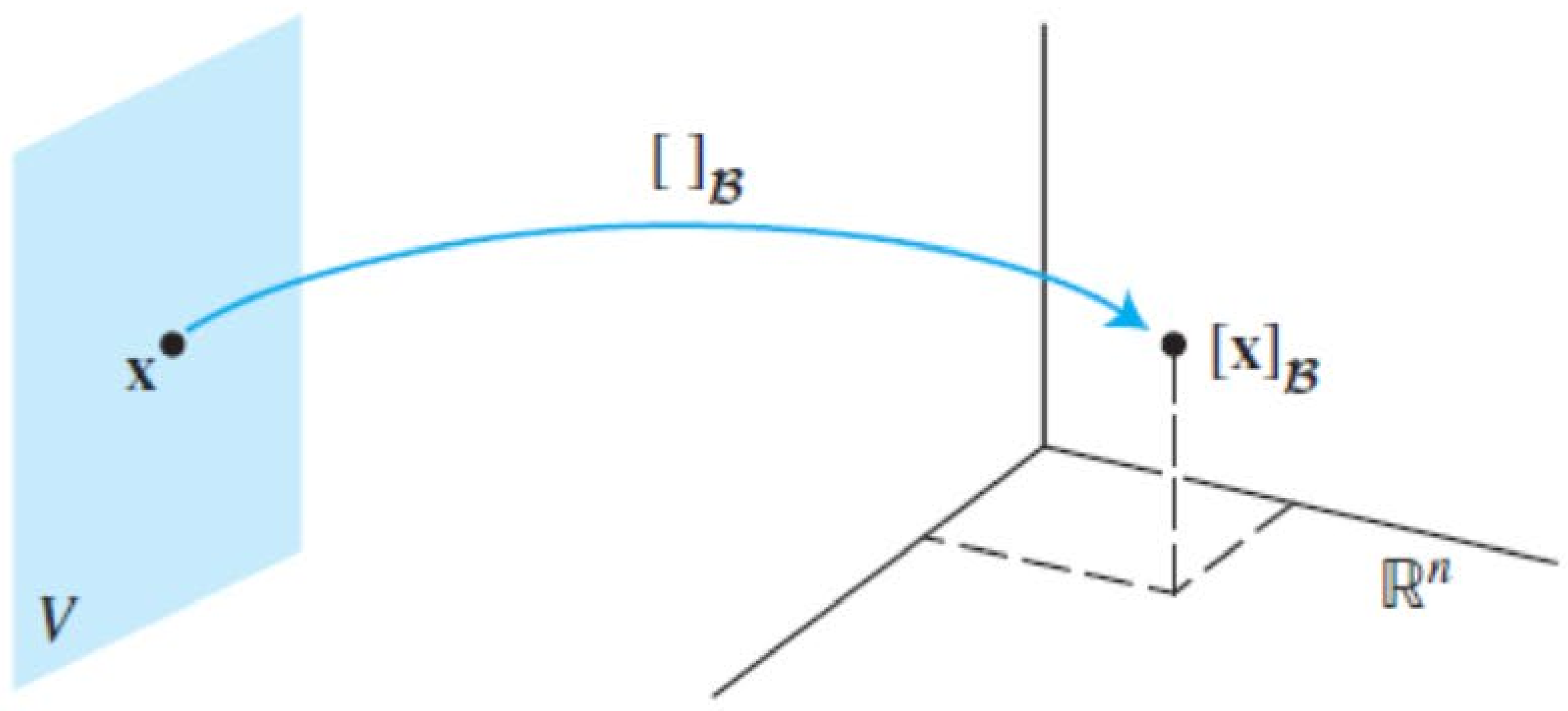


FIGURE 5 The coordinate mapping from V onto $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Lay,4th,pg219,ch4.3

Terminology:
$[x]_B$ is isomorphic to x and
x is isomorphic to $[x]_B$

"isomorphism"
is not part of syllabus.

8 Why are Isomorphisms useful? – Jonathan Dewein Jul 12 '13 at 3:33

55 Lots of reasons; one of the primary ones, however, is that it allows you to replace an object that you need to deal with with another object which has the same structure, but you are more familar with. For instance, The vector space $P_2(\mathbb{R}) = \{ax^2 + bx + c \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}\}$ of polynomials of degree at most 2 is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^3$; which one do you have more intuition about when it comes to vector space properties? – Nick Peterson Jul 12 '13 at 3:37

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/441758/what-does-isomorphic-mean-in-linear-algebra

Revision: Coordinate System

THEOREM 8 Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ 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,

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

Then, using vector operations,

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

It follows that

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

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

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

So

$$[\,r\mathbf{u}\,]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} rc_1 \\ \vdots \\ rc_n \end{bmatrix} = r\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = r[\,\mathbf{u}\,]_{\mathcal{B}}$$

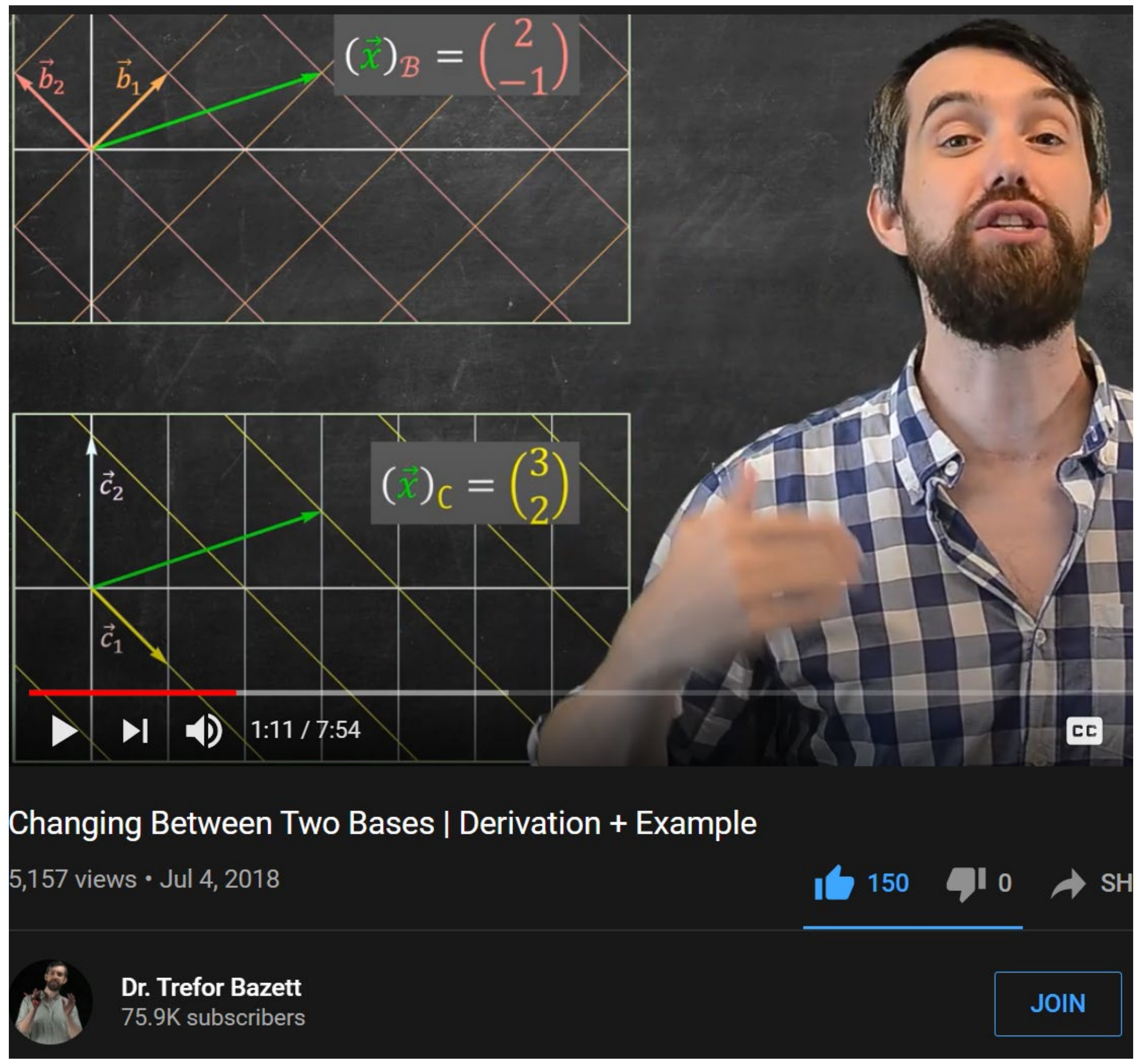
Thus the coordinate mapping also preserves scalar multiplication and hence is a linear transformation.

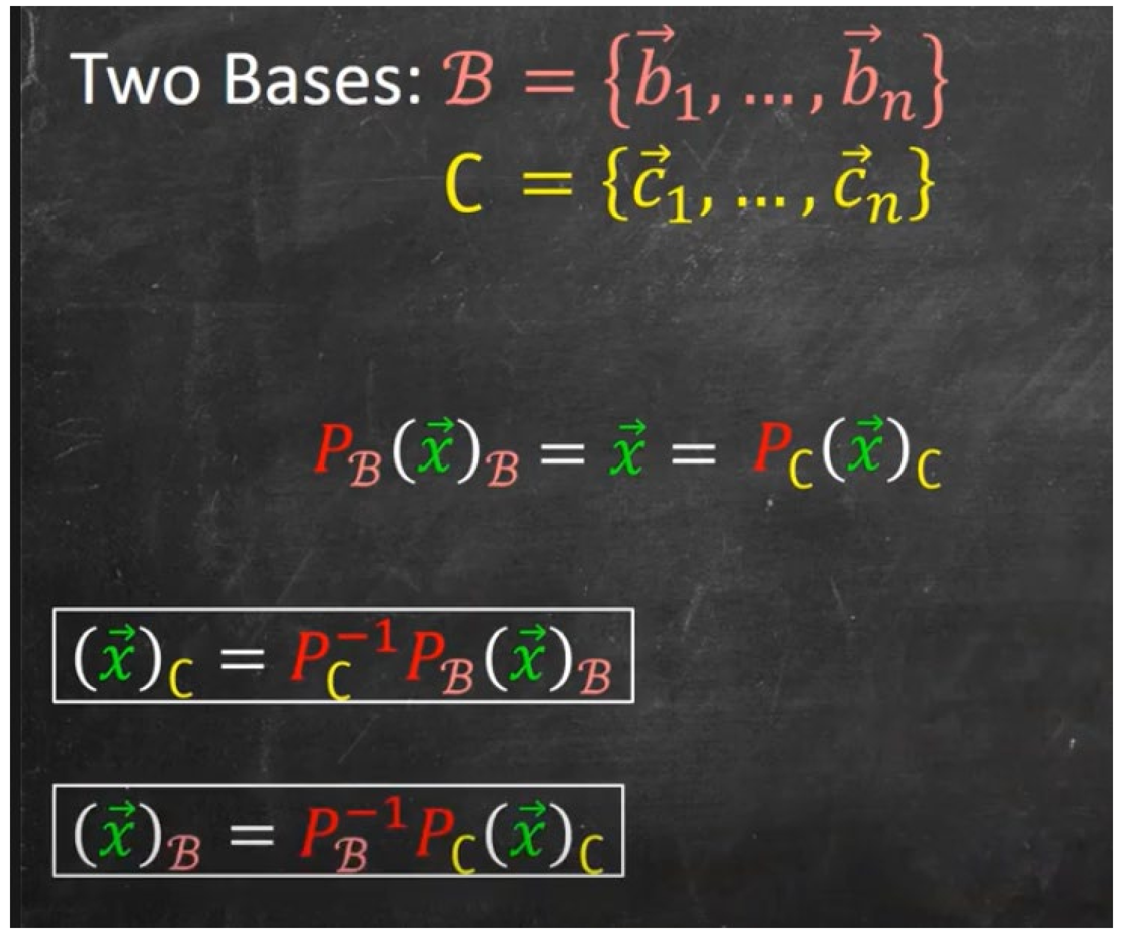
Lay,4th,pg219,ch4.3

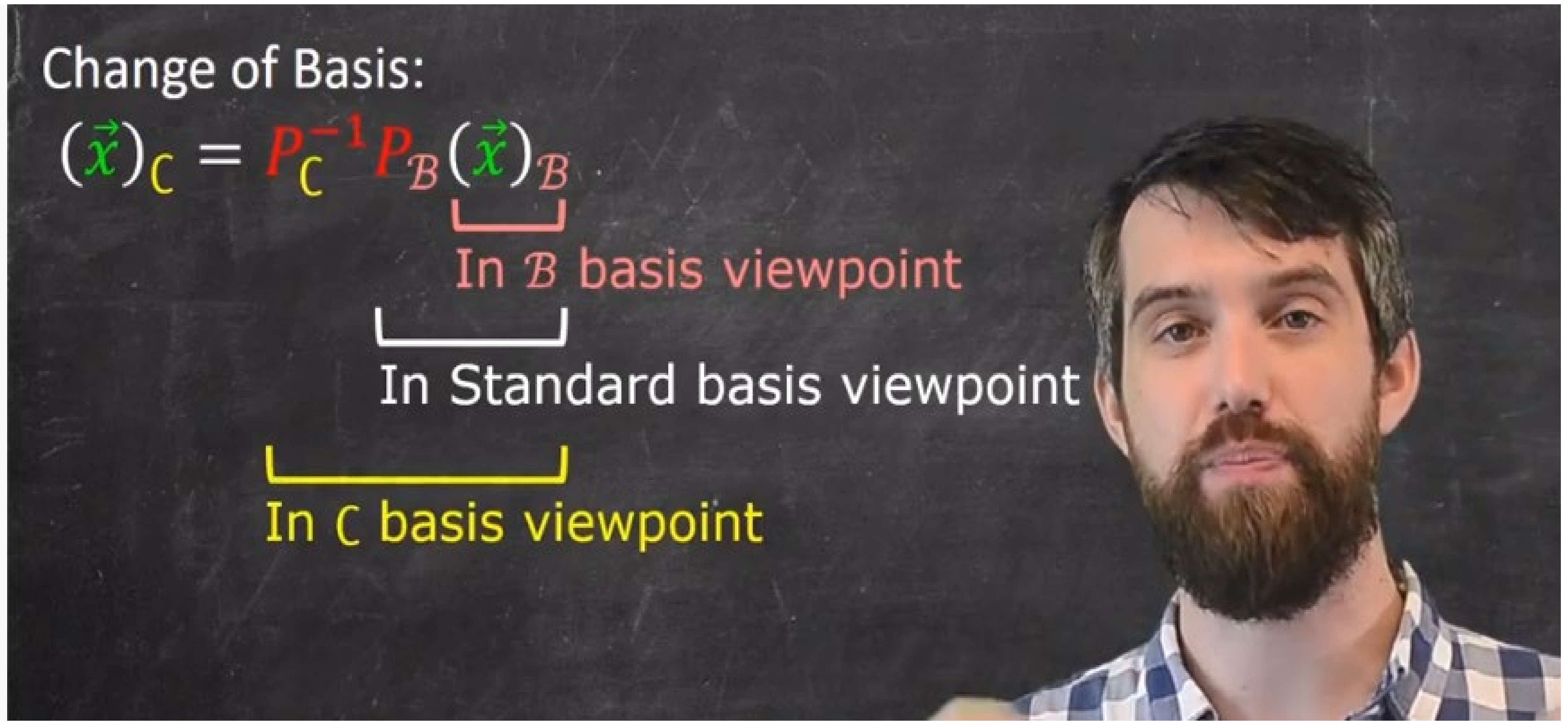
Ref: Trefor Bazett explaining Change of Basis

Trefor Bazett: Changing between 2 bases
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KjlTOLhal9s

- Trefor Bazett:Visualizing Change Of Basis Dynamically
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s4GC6zoULi0







Ref: Other notable explanations of change of coordinate

1) Looking Glass Universe (Change of Basis)

- https://youtu.be/Qp96zg5YZ_8

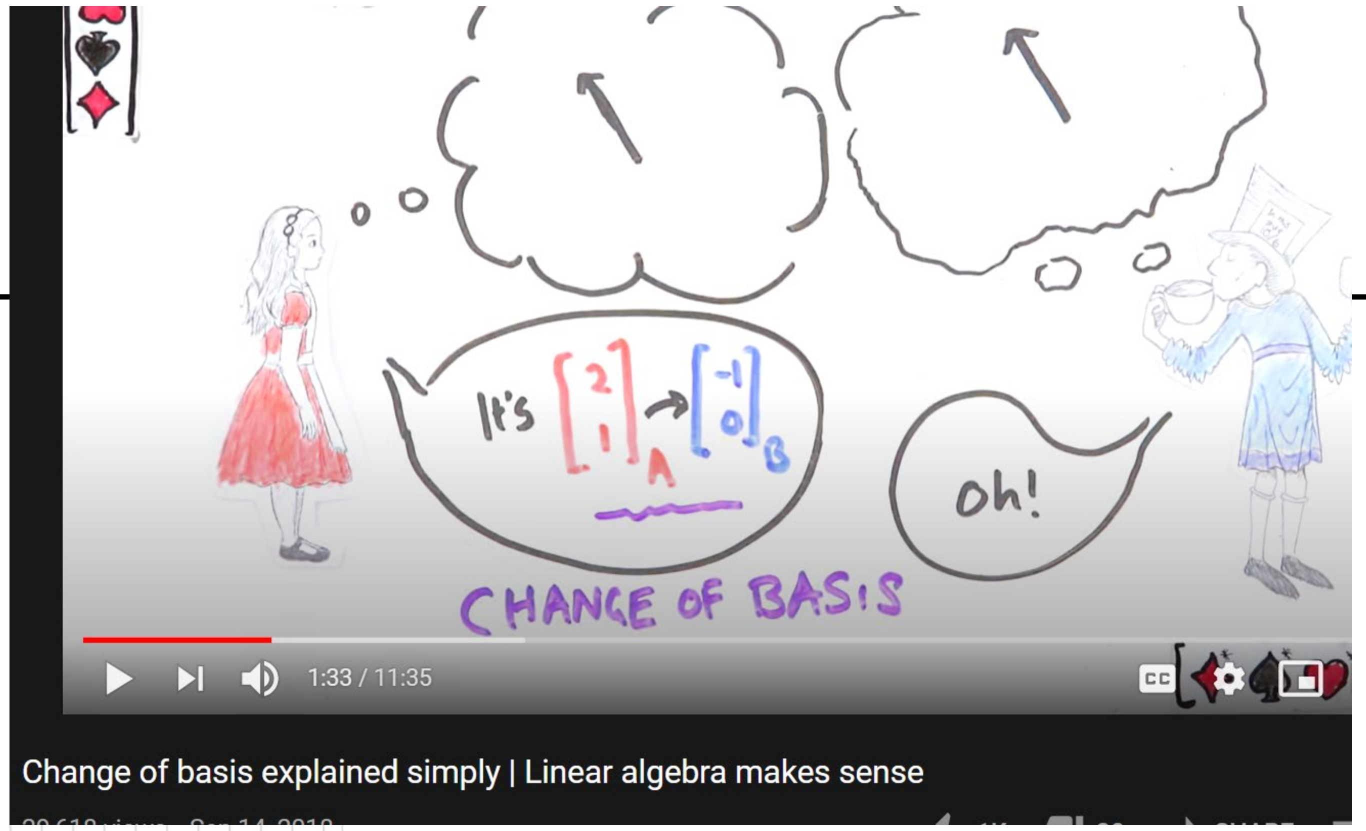
2) Adam Panagos – 2examples change of coordinates

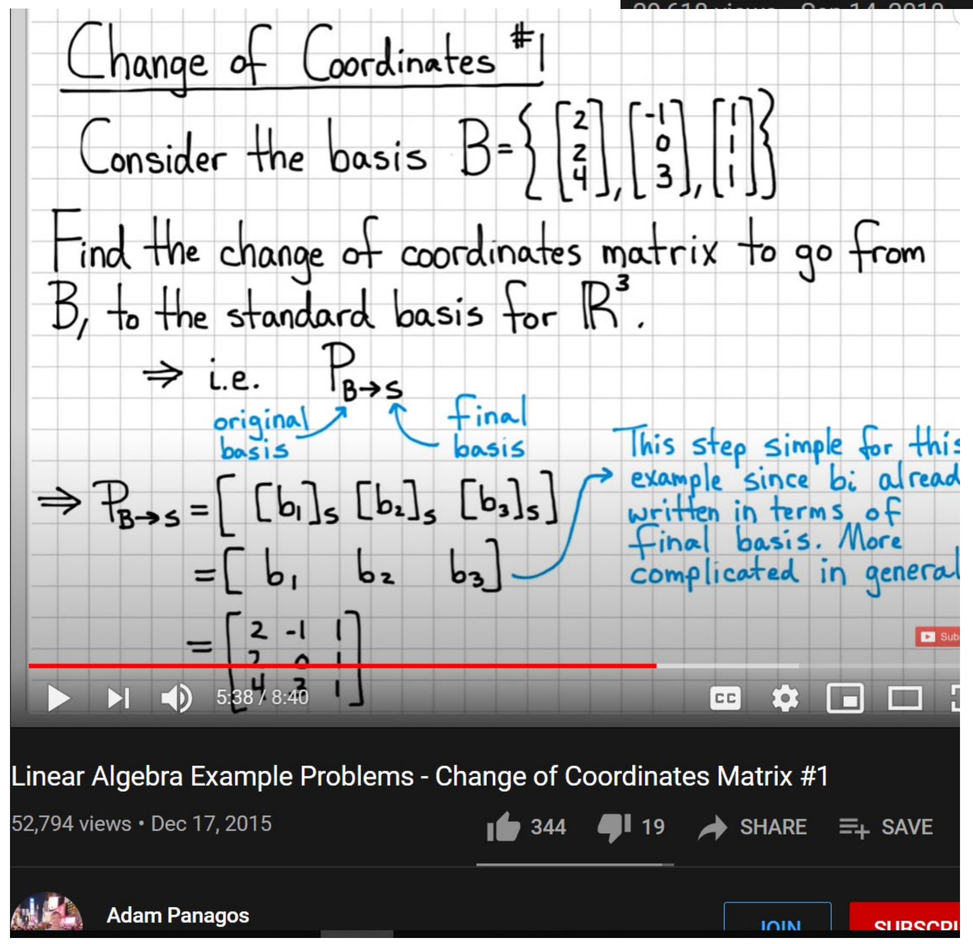
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VG4-8yW3Ce8
- https://youtu.be/2K6ipONMIgg

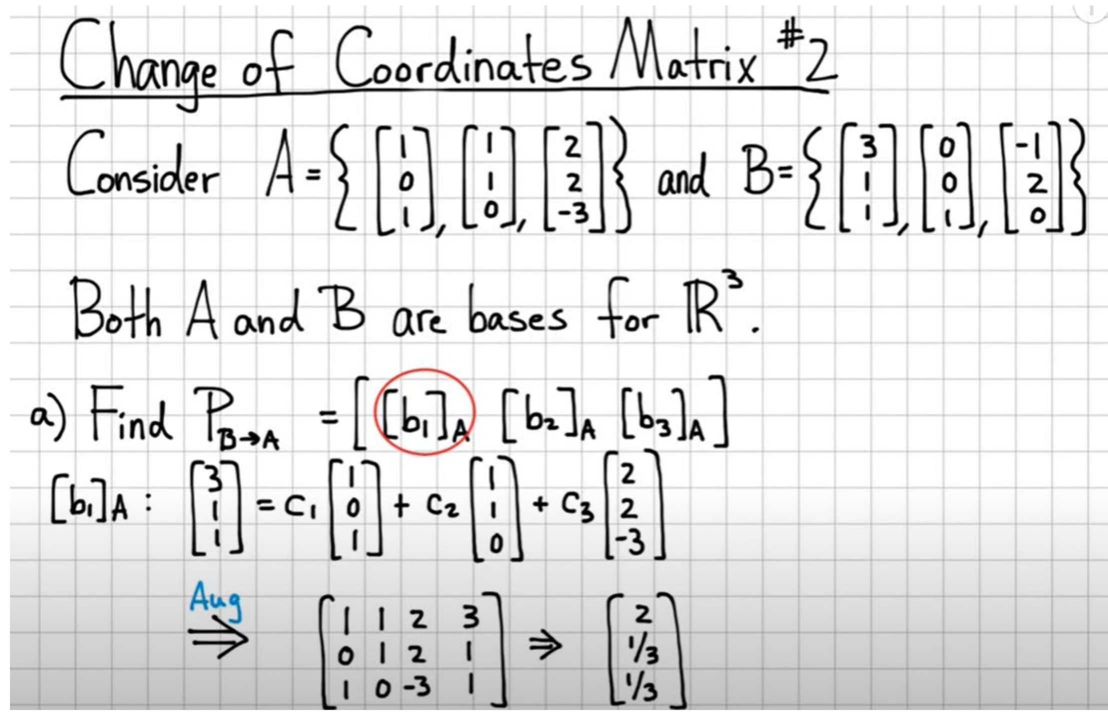
3) 3Blue1Brown: change of basis

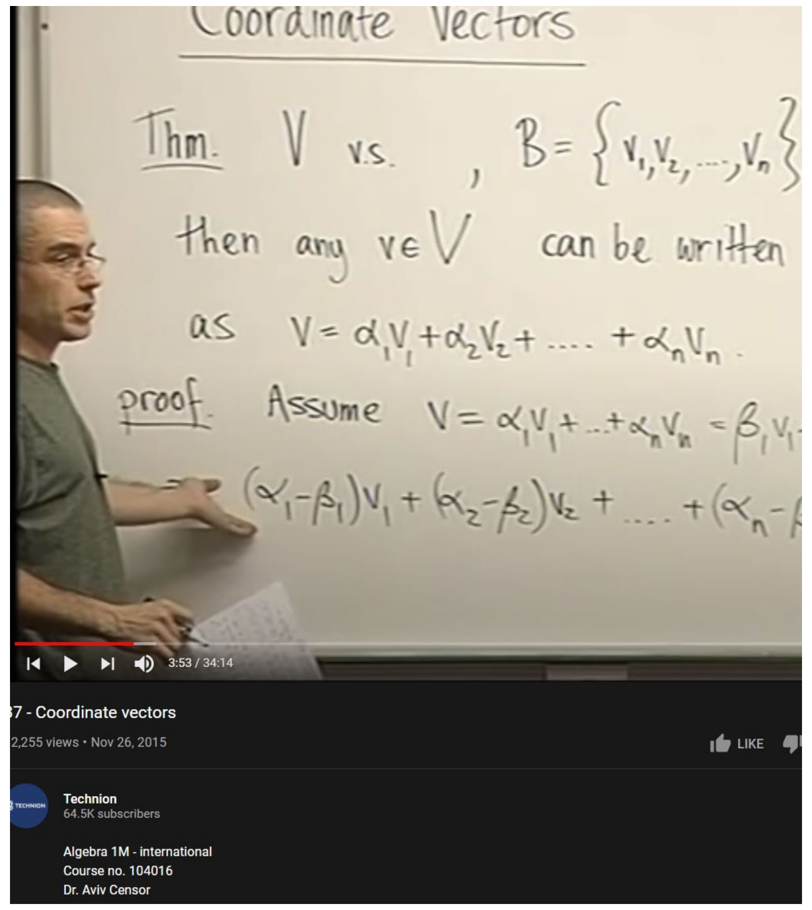
- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P2LTAUO1TdA

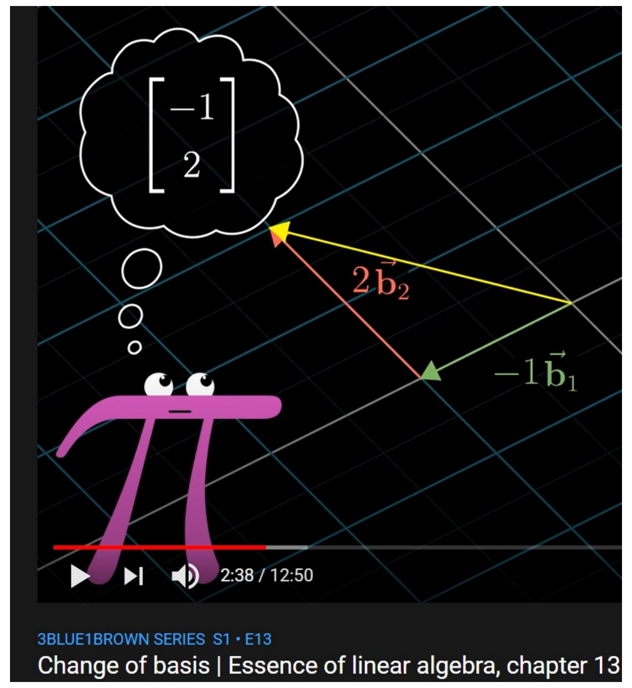
4) Technion, Dr Aviv Censor (lecture 37 – coordinate vectors)
https://youtu.be/XxRwKd9qPxw











Appendix: Isomorphism (not in syllabus)

1.3 Definition An *isomorphism* between two vector spaces V and W is a map $f\colon V \to W$ that

(1) is a correspondence: f is one-to-one and onto;*

(2) *preserves structure:* if $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \in V$ then

$$f(\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2) = f(\vec{v}_1) + f(\vec{v}_2)$$

and if $\vec{v} \in V$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$ then

$$f(r\vec{v}) = r\, f(\vec{v})$$

(we write $V \cong W$, read "V is isomorphic to W", when such a map exists).

("Morphism" means map, so "isomorphism" means a map expressing sameness.)

1.2 Example Another two spaces we can think of as "the same" are $\mathcal{P}_2$, the space of quadratic polynomials, and $\mathbb{R}^3$. A natural correspondence is this.

$$a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \quad\longleftrightarrow\quad \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad (\text{e.g., } 1 + 2x + 3x^2 \longleftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix})$$

The structure is preserved: corresponding elements add in a corresponding way

$$\begin{array}{r} a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 \\ +\ b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 \\ \hline (a_0+b_0) + (a_1+b_1)x + (a_2+b_2)x^2 \end{array} \quad\longleftrightarrow\quad \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_0+b_0 \\ a_1+b_1 \\ a_2+b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and scalar multiplication corresponds also.

$$r \cdot (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) = (ra_0) + (ra_1)x + (ra_2)x^2 \quad\longleftrightarrow\quad r \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ra_0 \\ ra_1 \\ ra_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

An isomorphism of vector spaces is a linear map, which has a two sided inverse **linear** map.

Ref:

1) Isa Jubran - https://web.cortland.edu/jubrani/272ch3.pdf

2) https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/2535063/if-t-is-invertible-prove-it-is-isomorphic

3) http://pi.math.cornell.edu/~andreim/Lec25.pdf