

## §4.4 Coordinates in a vector space

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One of the most important features of a basis is that it allows us to represent an arbitrary vector (that is, element of our vector space) uniquely as a linear combination of the vectors in the basis.

Proposition If  $\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$  is a basis of a vector space  $V$  and if  $\vec{x} \in V$ , there exist unique  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}$  so that  $\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n$ .

Why? We know  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  exist because the basis spans  $V$ .

We know they're unique by linear independence of the basis:

$$c_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n = d_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + d_n \vec{b}_n \Rightarrow (c_1 - d_1) \vec{b}_1 + \dots + (c_n - d_n) \vec{b}_n = \vec{0}$$
$$\Rightarrow c_1 = d_1, \dots, c_n = d_n.$$

here we mean "ordered tuple  
of real numbers," not "element of  $V$ "

We write  $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  to mean the vector of weights that represent  $\vec{x}$  as a linear combination of the vectors in the basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ .

These are called the coordinates of  $\vec{x}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

The vector space here is  $\mathbb{P}_2$

Example Find  $[\vec{x}]_B$ , where  $\vec{x} = 4 - t + 2t^2$  and  $B = \{1, t, t^2\}$ .

Solution Easy:  $4(1) + (-1)t + (2)t^2 = \vec{x}$ , so  $[\vec{x}]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Example Find  $[\vec{x}]_{B'}$ , where  $\vec{x} = 4 - t + 2t^2$  and  $B' = \{1+t, t, t^2\}$ .

Solution Requires a bit more thought:

$$\vec{x} = 4(1+t) - 5t + 2t^3 \Rightarrow$$

$$[\vec{x}]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

These examples illustrate an important point:

\* \* Coordinates of a vector with respect to  
a basis depend on the basis! \* \*

So, strictly speaking, we can't talk about the coordinates of a vector without specifying our basis.

We do this in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (e.g., "6 is the 2<sup>nd</sup> coord. of  $\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 6 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ ")

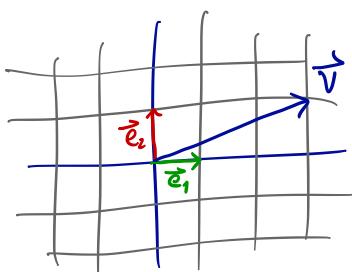
only because of a tacit agreement to use  $\{\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$

when no other basis is named.

<sup>↑</sup>  
"standard basis"

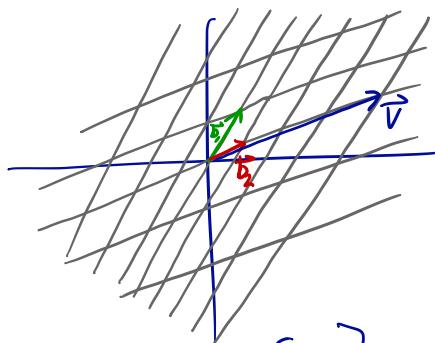
## Visualizing coordinates

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , changing coordinates from the standard ones to those represented by the basis  $\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2\}$  amounts to replacing the usual grid with a different parallelogram tiling of the plane:



$$[\vec{v}]_e = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

standard basis



$$[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2\}$

How does this change of coordinates work computationally? If  $\vec{v} = c_1 \vec{e}_1 + c_2 \vec{e}_2$ , how can we find  $c_1, c_2$  so that  $\vec{v} = d_1 \vec{b}_1 + d_2 \vec{b}_2$ ?

Just set up a system of equations

$$\underbrace{[B]}_{\begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}} \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = B^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

pop quiz: why is  
B invertible?

That's pretty tidy: to convert  $\vec{v}$ 's standard-basis coordinates to coordinates with respect to a basis  $\mathcal{B}$ , we assemble the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  into a matrix  $B$ ; then left-multiplying by  $B^{-1}$  does the trick.

Going the other way is even easier: to convert  $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$  to  $[\vec{v}]_{\mathcal{E}}$ , we just multiply by  $B$  — no inverse.

## The coordinate mapping

Consider a vector space  $V$  with a basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ . We define the **coordinate mapping**  $T: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  by  $T(\vec{x}) = [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ . I.e., send each vector to its coordinates w.r.t.  $\mathcal{B}$ .

**Claim**  $T$  is linear.

**Proof** Suppose  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$ . Then  $\vec{x} = x_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n$ , where  $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$ , &  $\vec{y} = y_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + y_n \vec{b}_n$ . So  $T(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = T((x_1 + y_1) \vec{b}_1 + \dots + (x_n + y_n) \vec{b}_n)$   
 $= \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{pmatrix}$ . But that's equal to  $T(\vec{x}) + T(\vec{y})$ !

Some idea for  $T(c\vec{x}) = cT(\vec{x})$ . ■

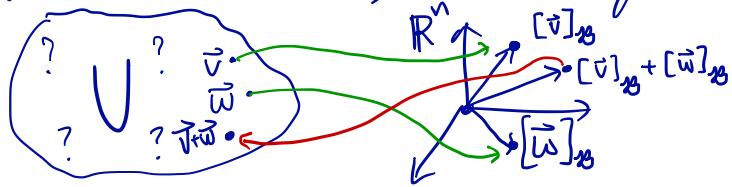
**Claim**  $T$  is <sup>surjective</sup>onto and <sup>injective</sup>one-to-one.

**Proof** If  $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then it gets mapped to from  $x_1 \vec{b}_1 + \dots + x_n \vec{b}_n$ . So  $T$  is onto. If  $T(\vec{x}) = T(\vec{y})$ ,

then  $\vec{x} = \vec{y}$  by the uniqueness of coordinates.

Def<sup>n</sup> A bijective linear map from a vector space  $V$  to a vector space  $W$  is called a vector space isomorphism.  
"same"

We have shown that the coordinate mapping is an isomorphism from  $V$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This means  $V$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are "the same" in the following sense: don't like performing a vector space operation in  $V$  for some reason? No problem: map your vectors over to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , do the desired operation over there, and map back.



Example Show that  $P_3$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^4$

Solution Let's use the basis  $\{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$  and consider the coordinate mapping:

$$4 - t^2 + 6t^3 \mapsto (4, 0, -1, 6) \in \mathbb{R}^4$$

We already know the coordinate mapping is an isomorphism, so we're done. ■

Actually, the previous example makes sense directly: the 'slots' in front of  $1, t, t^2, t^3$  are really just places to stick a real number, just like the 'slots' in  $(-, -, -, -) \in \mathbb{R}^4$ . And addition/multiplication work the same in both cases.

This example is not that special: it shows that any  $n$ -dimensional vector space is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ !

However, it remains useful to consider abstract vector spaces, because this isomorphism is a little arbitrary in the sense that it depends on a choice of basis.