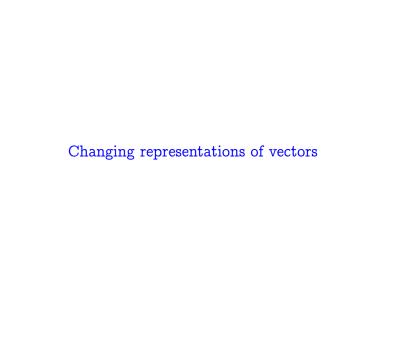
Three.V Change of Basis

Linear Algebra
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Coordinates vary with the basis

Consider this vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and bases for the space.

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathcal{E}_3 = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle \quad B = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$$

With respect to the different bases, the coordinates of \vec{v} are different.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\mathcal{E}_3}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \operatorname{Rep}_{B}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In this section we will see how to convert the representation of a vector with respect to a first basis to its representation with respect to a second.

Change of basis matrix

Think of translating from $Rep_B(\vec{\nu})$ to $Rep_D(\vec{\nu})$ as holding the vector constant. This is the arrow diagram.

(This diagram is vertical to fit with the ones in the next subsection.)

Change of basis matrix

Think of translating from $Rep_B(\vec{v})$ to $Rep_D(\vec{v})$ as holding the vector constant. This is the arrow diagram.

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1.1 Definition The change of basis matrix for bases $B, D \subset V$ is the representation of the identity map $id: V \to V$ with respect to those bases.

$$Rep_{B,D}(id) = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & & \vdots \\ Rep_{D}(\vec{\beta}_{1}) & \cdots & Rep_{D}(\vec{\beta}_{n}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

1.3 Lemma To convert from the representation of a vector \vec{v} with respect to B to its representation with respect to D use the change of basis matrix.

$$\mathsf{Rep}_{B,D}(\mathsf{id})\,\mathsf{Rep}_B(\vec{\nu}) = \mathsf{Rep}_D(\vec{\nu})$$

Conversely, if left-multiplication by a matrix changes bases $M \cdot \text{Rep}_B(\vec{v}) = \text{Rep}_D(\vec{v})$ then M is a change of basis matrix.

The book has the proof.

Example To change a representation of a member of \mathcal{P}_2 from being with respect to $B = \langle 1, 1+x, 1+x+x^2 \rangle$ to being with respect to $D = \langle x^2-1, x, x^2+1 \rangle$, compute $Rep_{B,D}(id)$. The identity map acting on the elements of B has no effect. Represent those elements with respect to D.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{D}(1) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{D}(1+x) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1 \\ 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{D}(1+x+x^{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The change of basis matrix is the concatenation of those.

$$Rep_{B,D}(id) = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 & -1/2 & 0\\ 0 & 1 & 1\\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

For example, we can translate the representation of $\vec{v} = 2 - x + 3x^2$.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\operatorname{B}}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \operatorname{Rep}_{\operatorname{D}}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 5/2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/2 & -1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The book contains the proof; we will do an example.

Example Recall that any nonsingular matrix M decomposes into a product of elementary reduction matrices $M = R_1 \cdots R_r$. We can show that M changes bases by showing that each R_i changes bases. Consider this 3×3 case.

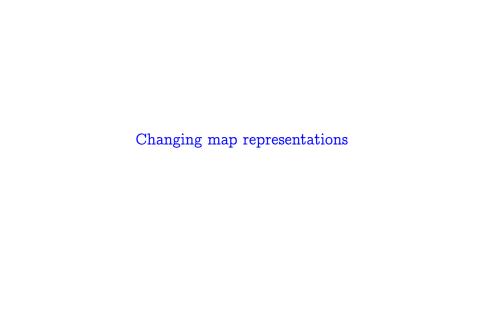
$$C_{1,3}(-4) \cdot \text{Rep}_B(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ r_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ -4r_1 + r_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Where $B=\langle \vec{\beta}_1,\vec{\beta}_2,\vec{\beta}_3\rangle$, the right side represents the same vector \vec{v} with respect to $\hat{B}=\langle \vec{\beta}_1+4\vec{\beta}_3,\vec{\beta}_2,\vec{\beta}_3\rangle$.

$$r_1 \cdot (\vec{\beta}_1 + 4\vec{\beta}_3) + r_2 \cdot \beta_2 + (-4r_1 + r_3) \cdot \vec{\beta}_3 = r_1 \vec{\beta}_1 + r_2 \beta_2 + r_3 \vec{\beta}_3$$

Verifying that \hat{B} is a basis is routine.

1.6 Corollary A matrix is nonsingular if and only if it represents the identity map with respect to some pair of bases.



The natural next step is to see how to convert $Rep_{B,D}(h)$ to $Rep_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(h)$. Here is the arrow diagram.

$$egin{array}{cccc} V_{wrt\;B} & \xrightarrow{\quad h \quad} W_{wrt\;D} \\ & & & & & \text{id} \ & & & & \text{id} \ & & & & \\ V_{wrt\;\hat{B}} & \xrightarrow{\quad h \quad} W_{wrt\;\hat{D}} \end{array}$$

To move from the lower-left to the lower-right we can either go straight over, or else up to V_B then over to W_D and then down. So we can calculate $\hat{H} = \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(h)$ either by directly using \hat{B} and \hat{D} , or else by first changing bases with $\operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},B}(\mathrm{id})$ then multiplying by $H = \operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(h)$ and then changing bases with $\operatorname{Rep}_{D,\hat{D}}(\mathrm{id})$.

Theorem To convert from the matrix H representing a map h with respect to B, D to the matrix \hat{H} representing it with respect to \hat{B} , \hat{D} use this formula.

$$\hat{H} = Rep_{D,\hat{D}}(id) \cdot H \cdot Rep_{\hat{B},B}(id) \tag{*}$$

Proof This is evident from the diagram.

QED

Example Consider the derivative map d/dx: $\mathcal{P}_2 \to \mathcal{P}_2$ as well as $B = \langle 1, 1+x, 1+x+x^2 \rangle, D = \langle 1+x^2, x, 1-x^2 \rangle$ and $\hat{B} = \langle 1, x, x^2 \rangle, \hat{D} = \langle 1+x, x+x^2, 1+x^2 \rangle$.

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We can find H and Ĥ using the methods we have already seen.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(d/dx) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(d/dx) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

These do the base changes.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{\mathsf{B}},\mathsf{B}}(\mathrm{id}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \operatorname{Rep}_{\mathsf{D},\hat{\mathsf{D}}}(\mathrm{id}) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can check this case of equation (*) by multiplying through.

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},\hat{D}}(d/dx) &= \operatorname{Rep}_{D,\hat{D}}(id) \cdot \operatorname{Rep}_{B,D}(d/dx) \cdot \operatorname{Rep}_{\hat{B},B}(id) \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1/2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

Example The map $t_{\pi/6}: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ rotating vectors counterclockwise by $\pi/6$ radians has this representation with respect to the standard bases.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\mathcal{E}_2,\mathcal{E}_2}(t_{\pi/6}) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can translate to the representatation with respect to

$$B = D = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$$

using the change of basis matrices. Here is the diagram, specialized for this case.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^2_{wrt \; \mathcal{E}_2} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{t}_{\pi/6}} & \mathbb{R}^2_{wrt \; \mathcal{E}_2} \\ & & & & & & \\ \mathrm{id} \downarrow & & & & & \mathrm{id} \downarrow \\ \mathbb{R}^2_{wrt \; \mathbf{B}} & \xrightarrow{\mathbf{t}_{\pi/6}} & \mathbb{R}^2_{wrt \; \mathbf{D}} \end{array}$$

To get \hat{H} we move up from the upper left, across, and then down.

With respect to the standard basis real vectors represent themselves, so the matrix representing moving up is easy.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{B,\mathcal{E}_2}(\operatorname{id}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrix for moving down is the inverse of the prior one.

$$\operatorname{Rep}_{\mathcal{E}_2,D}(\operatorname{id}) = (\operatorname{Rep}_{D,\mathcal{E}_2}(\operatorname{id}))^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{-1}{2} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus we have this.

$$\begin{split} \text{Rep}_{B,D}(t_{\pi/6}) &= \frac{-1}{2} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \\ 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3}/2 & 1/2 \\ -1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \end{pmatrix} \end{split}$$

2.4 Definition Same-sized matrices H and \hat{H} are matrix equivalent if there are nonsingular matrices P and Q such that $\hat{H} = PHQ$.

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Exercise 24 checks that matrix equivalence is an equivalence relation. Thus it partitions the set of matrices into matrix equivalence classes.



Canonical form for matrix equivalence

2.7 Theorem Any $m \times n$ matrix of rank k is matrix equivalent to the $m \times n$ matrix that is all zeros except that the first k diagonal entries are ones.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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This is a block partial-identity form.

$$\left(\frac{I \mid Z}{Z \mid Z}\right)$$

For an example, recall first that any nonsingular matrix M can be factored into a product $M = R_1 \cdots R_r$ where each R_t is an elementary reduction matrix $C_{i,j}(k)$, or $M_i(k)$, or $P_{i,j}$.

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Recall also that from the left matrices operate on rows

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

while from the right they act on columns: this does $-4 \cdot \text{col}_3 + \text{col}_1$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -11 & 2 & 3 \\ -20 & 5 & 6 \\ -29 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Example This matrix has rank 2.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

We will find P and Q to get the 3×3 canonical matrix of rank 2.

Row operations produce echelon form.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[-7\rho_1+\rho_3]{-4\rho_1+\rho_2} \xrightarrow{-2\rho_2+\rho_3} \xrightarrow{-(1/3)\rho_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiplying the reduction matrices gives P; note the right to left order.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -7 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So far we have this.

$$PHQ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} Q$$

Column operations produce the block partial identity.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{-2\operatorname{col}_2 + \operatorname{col}_3} \xrightarrow{-2\operatorname{col}_1 + \operatorname{col}_2} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{col}_1 + \operatorname{col}_3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Combine the reduction matrices to get Q. In contrast with the construction of P, here they come left to right.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In sum, we have this equation.

$$PHQ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Action of a canonical form matrix

This kind of matrix is has an easy to understand effect.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is a projection—the map $t: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$ represented with respect to the standard bases by this block partial identity matrix is projection from three space to the xy plane.

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Proof Two same-sized matrices with the same rank are equivalent to the same block partial-identity matrix. QED