

Section 4.4: Coordinate Systems

We begin with a theorem about uniqueness of linear combinations (of linearly independent vectors).

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

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

Suppose we had two representations for a vector \vec{x} .

$$\vec{x} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + c_n \vec{b}_n \quad \text{and}$$

$$\vec{x} = a_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{b}_n$$

The theorem says the c 's must be the same as the a 's. Let's subtract the bottom line from the top - note $\vec{x} - \vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

$$\vec{0} = (c_1 - a_1)\vec{b}_1 + (c_2 - a_2)\vec{b}_2 + \dots + (c_n - a_n)\vec{b}_n$$

* The vectors $\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}$ are linearly independent!

$$\Rightarrow c_1 - a_1 = 0 \quad c_2 - a_2 = 0, \dots, c_n - a_n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 = c_1, \quad a_2 = c_2, \dots, a_n = c_n$$

That is, there is only one set of coefficients for \vec{x} .

Coordinate Vectors

Definition: Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be an **ordered** basis of the vector space V . For each \mathbf{x} in V we define the **coordinate vector of \mathbf{x} relative to the basis \mathcal{B}** to be the unique vector (c_1, \dots, c_n) in \mathbb{R}^n where these entries are the weights $\mathbf{x} = c_1\mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{b}_n$.

We'll use the notation

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}.$$

* No matter what kind of vector \vec{x} is, $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n .

Example

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{1, t, t^2, t^3\}$ (in that order) in \mathbb{P}_3 . Determine $[\mathbf{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ where

(a) $\mathbf{p}(t) = 3 - 4t^2 + 6t^3 = (3)\mathbf{1} + (0)t + (-4)t^2 + (6)t^3$

$$[\vec{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ -4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

a vector in \mathbb{R}^4

(b) $\mathbf{p}(t) = p_0 + p_1t + p_2t^2 + p_3t^3$

$$[\vec{p}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} p_0 \\ p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

again, $[\vec{p}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is in \mathbb{R}^4

Example

Let $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and $B = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find $[\mathbf{x}]_B$ for

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$[\vec{x}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ if } \vec{x} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_2.$$

We can set up a vector equation.

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

In matrix format

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

This can be solved in various ways (e.g. rref, matrix inverse, Cramer's rule).

Using a matrix inverse: $\det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2+1=3$

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

$$\begin{aligned} [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \vec{x} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ has coordinate vector $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$
for basis $\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

Coordinates in \mathbb{R}^n

Note from this example that $\mathbf{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}}[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ where $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the matrix $[\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2]$. The matrix $P_{\mathcal{B}}$ is called the **change of coordinates matrix** for the basis \mathcal{B} (or from the basis \mathcal{B} to the standard basis).

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ be an ordered basis of \mathbb{R}^n . Then the change of coordinate mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto [\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ is the linear transformation defined by

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

where the matrix

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = [\mathbf{b}_1 \ \mathbf{b}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{b}_n].$$

Example

Let $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$. Determine the matrix P_B and its inverse.

From before

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

Use this to find

(a) the coordinate vector of $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_B = P_B^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

* Note $[\vec{b}_1]_B = \vec{e}_1$

(b) the coordinate vector of $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} = P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} = \vec{e}_2$

(c) a vector \mathbf{x} whose coordinate vector is $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\vec{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} \quad , \text{ so}$$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

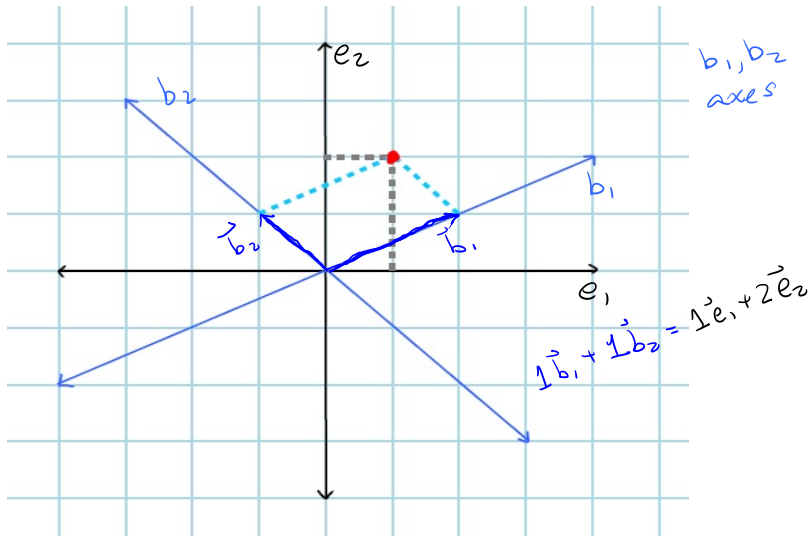


Figure: \mathbb{R}^2 shown using elementary basis $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and with the alternative basis $\{(2, 1), (-1, 1)\}$.