March 20 Math 3260 sec. 55 Spring 2018

Section 4.3: Linearly Independent Sets and Bases

Definition: 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** of H provided

- (i) \mathcal{B} is linearly independent, and
- (ii) $H = \operatorname{Span}(\mathcal{B})$.

We can think of a basis as a *minimal spanning set*. All of the *information* needed to construct vectors in *H* is contained in the basis, and none of this information is repeated.

Standard Basis in \mathbb{R}^n

The columns of the $n \times n$ identity matrix provide an obvious basis for \mathbb{R}^n . This is called the **standard basis** for \mathbb{R}^n . For example, the standard bases in \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 are

$$\left\{ \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right] \right\}, \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{array}\right] \right\} \quad \text{respectively}.$$

Other Vector Spaces

Other vector spaces have **standard** bases as well. For example,

$$\{1, t, t^2, \dots, t^n\}$$
 is a standard basis for \mathbb{P}_n

$$\left\{ \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array}\right] \right\} \text{ is a standard basis for } \textit{M}^{2\times2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Theorem:

Let $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ be a set in a vector space V and $H = \operatorname{Span}(S)$.

(a.) If one of the vectors in S, say \mathbf{v}_k is a linear combination of the other vectors in S, then the subset of S obtained by eliminating \mathbf{v}_k still spans H.

(b) If $H \neq \{0\}$, then some subset of S is a basis for H.

If we start with a spanning set, we can eliminate duplication and arrive at a basis.

Column Space

Find a basis for the column space matrix B that is in reduced row

echelon form

$$B = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right].$$

Col B is the subspace of IR's spanned by the columns of B. To get a basis, we need a linearly independent subsit of B's columns.

To doesn't depend on by or To, or To, or To, by?

A pasis for Col8 is

Using the rref

Theorem: If $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \cdots \mathbf{a}_n]$ and $B = [\mathbf{b}_1 \cdots \mathbf{b}_n]$ are row equivalent matrices, then Nul A = Nul B. That is, the equations

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
 and $B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

have the same solution set.

Note what this means! It means that $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ and $\{b_1, ..., b_n\}$ have **exactly the same linear dependence relationships**!

Theorem:

The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis of Col A.

Caveat: This means we can use row reduction to identify a basis, but the vectors we obtain will be from the original matrix A. (As illustrated in the following example.)

Find a basis for Col A¹

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 12 & 1 & 5 & 5 \\ 2 & 8 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 5 & 20 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\uparrow^{\text{ret}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

well use the met to identify

pivot columns are 1,3, and 5. we use the 1st, 3rd, 6th

This set is a basis.

Find bases for Nul A and Col A

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{rrrr} 1 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

We can set both from the rref. For ColA we identify pivot columns. For Nul A, we use it to find the solution set of $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.

1st two columns are pivot columns.



For NULA, note
$$A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow x_1 = -3x_3 + 2x_4$$

 $x_2 = x_3 - 5x_4$
 $x_3, x_4 - 6x_4$

For
$$\vec{x}$$
 in Nul A
$$\vec{x} = \chi_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \chi_4 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
A basis for Nul A is
$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$$

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

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

To see this, suppose

$$\vec{x} = C_1 \vec{b}_1 + C_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + C_n \vec{b}_n$$
and

 $\vec{x} = a_1 \vec{b}_1 + a_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{b}_n$
Subtract the 2nd line from the first



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

independent. Hence

$$C_1 - Q_1 = 0$$

$$C_2 - Q_2 = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$C_n - Q_n = 0$$

$$Q_1 = C_1$$

$$Q_2 = C_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Q_n = C_n$$

The coefficients are unique for a given

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

$$\left[egin{array}{c} egin{array}{c} \egin{array}{c} \egin{array}{c} \egin{array}{c} \egin{arra$$

Example

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

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

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

(b)
$$\mathbf{p}(t) = p_0 + p_1 t + p_2 t^2 + p_3 t^3$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{P} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathfrak{P}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p} \\ \mathbf{p} \\ \mathbf{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Example

Let
$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2\}$. Find $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ for $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

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

in maxix format
$$\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 1 \\
1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
c_1 \\
c_2
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
4 \\
5
\end{bmatrix}$$

Lit's use a matrix inverse to solve (not the only

option!).

If
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\text{det}(A) = 3$ so $A = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

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

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

