

Section 4.3: Linearly Independent Sets and Bases

We defined **linear dependence/independence** and **span** for elements of general vector spaces. Then, we defined a basis.

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) $H = \text{Span}(\mathcal{B})$.

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.

A Spanning Set Theorem

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

(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 $H \neq \{\mathbf{0}\}$, 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

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$\vec{b}_1 \quad \vec{b}_2 \quad \vec{b}_3 \quad \vec{b}_4 \quad \vec{b}_5$

$$\vec{b}_2 = 4\vec{b}_1$$

$$\vec{b}_4 = 2\vec{b}_1 - \vec{b}_3$$

$\{\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_3, \vec{b}_5\}$ is linearly independent

So this is a basis for $\text{Col } B$.

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 $\text{Nul } A = \text{Nul } B$. That is, the equations

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

have the same solution set.

Note what this means! It means that $\{\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n\}$ and $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ have **exactly the same linear dependence relationships!**

Theorem:

The pivot columns of a matrix A form a basis of $\text{Col } A$.

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 $\text{Col } A^1$

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

↓ rref

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ ↑ ↑
pivot columns

we'll use rref of A

The pivot columns of A
form a basis for $\text{Col } A$

$$\text{Col } A = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

¹Use a calculator to do the row reduction.

Find bases for Nul A and Col A

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ ↑
pivot
columns

$$\text{Col } A = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

From the rref, $A\vec{x} = \vec{0}$ requires

$$x_1 = -3x_3 + 2x_4$$

$$x_2 = x_3 - 5x_4$$

x_3, x_4 - free

$$\text{So } \vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -3x_3 + 2x_4 \\ x_3 - 5x_4 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } \text{Nul } A = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

Both spanning sets are bases for the respective vector space.

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

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

The key point here is that there is exactly one set of coefficients (c_i) for a given \vec{x} .

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

and $\vec{x} = d_1 \vec{b}_1 + d_2 \vec{b}_2 + \dots + d_n \vec{b}_n$

$$\vec{x} - \vec{x} = \vec{0} \quad \text{so}$$

$$\vec{0} = (c_1 - d_1)\vec{b}_1 + (c_2 - d_2)\vec{b}_2 + \dots + (c_n - d_n)\vec{b}_n$$

Since the \vec{b} 's are linearly independent,
each coefficient must be zero.

$$\text{That is } \left. \begin{array}{l} c_1 - d_1 = 0 \\ c_2 - d_2 = 0 \\ \vdots \\ \text{etc} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow c_i = d_i \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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

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

Example

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$[\tilde{\mathbf{x}}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where}$$

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

This equation is equivalent to

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

Using row reduction

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{x} \\ x \end{bmatrix}_{\text{DB}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \right]_{\text{DB}} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

Example

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

$$P_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(P_{\mathcal{B}}) = 2+1=3 \quad P_{\mathcal{B}}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Use this to find

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

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

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

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

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

$$\vec{x} = P_{\mathcal{B}} [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

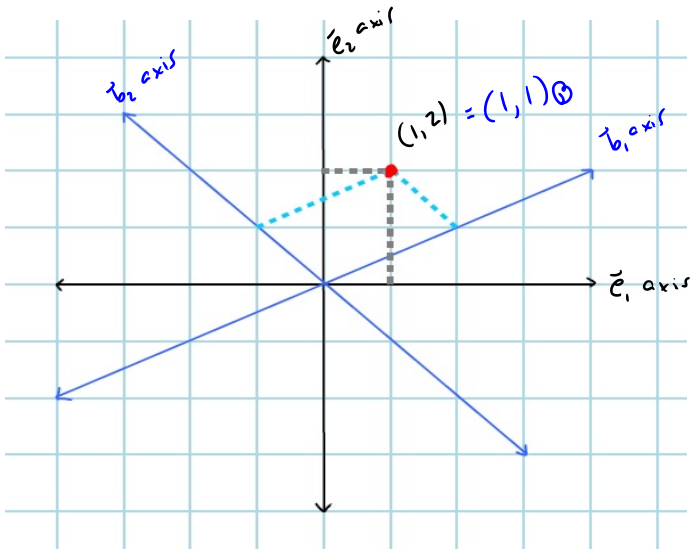


Figure: \mathbb{R}^2 shown using elementary basis $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and with the alternative basis $\{(2, 1), (-1, 1)\}$.