## Coordinates, Change of Basis, and Matrix of a Linear Transformation Notes by Tom Zaslavsky

The book's treatments are okay but some can be simplified.

## 1. Coordinates

Finding the coordinates of a vector ("coordinatizing" it) means solving a certain linear system. You have a basis  $\mathcal{B} = {\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n}$  and a vector **v**, all in some arbitrary vector space  $V$ , and you want to find the coordinates of  $\bf{v}$  in the basis  $\bf{B}$ . The complete meaning of that is the following equation:

$$
\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_n \mathbf{b}_n.
$$

The coordinates of **v** are  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n$ , which we write in a vector called the coordinate vector of v, namely,

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

No matter what vector space V is, the coordinate vector is always in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , where n is always the dimension of  $V$ . Your task in finding the coordinates is to solve the first equation. There are plenty of examples in the book, so I recommend you turn to Section 6.6.

Think of coordinates this way: Each basis in  $V$  creates a coordinate system for  $V$ . That means, if you know the coordinates, you know where the vector is. For instance, in  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ , the standard basis creates the standard coordinate system (the one we usually use for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Some other vector spaces also have a standard basis, for instance  $\mathcal{P}_d(t)$  or  $\mathbb{R}_{m \times n}$ , but most vector spaces don't, so we can't depend on having a standard basis. Even when there is one, many other bases are valuable, as we'll see in Chapter 8.

Coordinatization is a linear transformation from V to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . (I leave the proof to you.) We call it  $T_{\mathcal{B}}$ . The formula is  $T_{\mathcal{B}}(\mathbf{v}) = [\mathbf{v}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ , i.e., we transform **v** in V into its coordinate vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . (Our book does not discuss this explicitly.)

## 2. Matrix of a Linear Transformation

The book's treatment in and around Theorem 6.7.1 is good. (The diagram 6.7.1 is not so good because it assumes there is a standard basis.) The basic idea is that you want a matrix for a linear transformation  $T$  between any two vector spaces  $U$  and  $V$  (they may be the same one), not just  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , so you have to have a coordinate system in each vector space. A coordinate system means a basis; that's how we get coordinates (see the preceding). So, we have to have a basis B in U and a basis C in V. (Note that even if  $U = V$  we may want B and C to be different bases; that is okay.) Then the matrix that gives the effect of T on the coordinates in U and V is  $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}}$  in Theorem 6.7.1.

Note that this matrix doesn't act directly with  $U$  and  $V$ . It works with the coordinates, which belong to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  (where  $m = \dim U$ ) and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (where  $n = \dim V$ ), respectively. So we have a diagram like this:



 $T_{\mathcal{B}}$  and  $T_{\mathcal{C}}$  are the coordinatization transformations, which are linear transformations (see above).

The diagram means that if you start with vector  $\mathbf{u} \in U$  and apply T (the top arrow), you get to  $T(\mathbf{u}) \in V$ . If you then take coordinates (the right-hand down arrow), you wind up with the coordinates of  $T(\mathbf{u})$ , i.e., the column vector  $[T(\mathbf{u})]_e \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . (In the diagram I mention the basis for each vector space.) However, if you first take coordinates of u, you get the column vector  $[\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Multiply it by the matrix  $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}}$ , giving  $[T]_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{C}} \cdot [\mathbf{u}]_{\mathcal{B}}$ , and lo! and behold! you have the same column vector  $[T(u)]_c$ . That is, the linear transformation T is turned into a matrix multiplication on coordinate vectors. This is often very convenient.

(We call this a "commutative diagram" because you get the same result whether you take the right-down path or the down-right path from U to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . You don't need to memorize that name.)

## 3. Change of Basis

Change of basis means changing from one coordinate system to another in the same vector space. Remember, a coordinate system is the system of coordinates obtained from a basis. That's why changing coordinate system is called change of basis. The book treats this in Section 6.6.

The situation is that we have one vector space, V, and two bases,  $\mathcal{B} = {\bf{b}_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n}$ and  $C = {\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n}$ . Theorem 6.6.1 in the book is good for this. The first main point is that there is a single matrix, which they write  $P_{\varepsilon \leftarrow \mathcal{B}}$ , that changes coordinates with respect to B into coordinates with respect to C by multiplication. Specifically,  $[\mathbf{v}]_e = \prod_{e \leftarrow B} \cdot [\mathbf{v}]_B$ (Theorem 6.6.1). Note that there are no "standard bases" involved in this process. We call  $P_{\mathcal{C}\leftarrow\mathcal{B}}$  the transition matrix, or the change-of-basis matrix, from B to C.

The second main point is how to find the P matrix. I showed this in class, without bothering with standard bases. The formula is simple: Column *i* of  $P_{e \leftarrow B}$  equals  $[\mathbf{b}_i]_e$ , the coordinate vector in the second basis  $C$  of the *i*-th basis vector in the first basis  $B$ . I will show this in matrix form:

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

(A way to think of basis change is to put  $U = V$  and  $T =$  the identity transformation in the diagram above, but you don't have to think of it that way.)