



# Matrix Calculations: Determinants and Basis Transformation

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# Outline

Determinants

Change of basis

Matrices and basis transformations





# Last time

- Any linear map can be **represented** as a matrix:

$$f(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{v} \qquad g(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

- Last time, we saw that **composing** linear maps could be done by **multiplying** their matrices:

$$f(g(\mathbf{v})) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

- Matrix multiplication is **pretty easy**:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 0 & 1 \cdot (-1) + 2 \cdot 4 \\ 3 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 0 & 3 \cdot (-1) + 4 \cdot 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$$

...so if we can solve other stuff by matrix multiplication, we are **pretty happy**.



## Last time

- For example, we can solve systems of linear equations:

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

...by finding the **inverse** of a matrix:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

- There is an easy shortcut formula for  $2 \times 2$  matrices:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \implies \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

...as long as  $ad - bc \neq 0$ .

- We'll see today that " $ad - bc$ " is an example of a special number we can compute for any square matrix (not just  $2 \times 2$ ) called the **determinant**.



# Determinants

## What a determinant does

For an  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , the determinant  $\det(\mathbf{A})$  is a number (in  $\mathbb{R}$ )

It satisfies:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\mathbf{A}) = 0 &\iff \mathbf{A} \text{ is not invertible} \\ &\iff \mathbf{A}^{-1} \text{ does not exist} \\ &\iff \mathbf{A} \text{ has } < n \text{ pivots in its echolon form} \end{aligned}$$

Determinants have useful properties, but calculating determinants involves some work.



## Determinant of a $2 \times 2$ matrix

- Assume  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$
- Recall that the inverse  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  exists if and only if  $ad - bc \neq 0$ , and in that case is:

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

- In this  $2 \times 2$ -case we **define**:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

- Thus, indeed:  $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0 \iff \mathbf{A}^{-1}$  does not exist.





## Determinant of a $2 \times 2$ matrix: example

- Example:

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.1 \\ 0.2 & 0.9 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{10} \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 1 \\ 2 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\mathbf{P}) &= \frac{8}{10} \cdot \frac{9}{10} - \frac{1}{10} \cdot \frac{2}{10} \\ &= \frac{72}{100} - \frac{2}{100} \\ &= \frac{70}{100} = \frac{7}{10} \end{aligned}$$

- We have already seen that  $\mathbf{P}^{-1}$  exists, so the determinant must be non-zero.





# Determinant of a $3 \times 3$ matrix

- Assume  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

- Then one defines:

$$\det \mathbf{A} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= +a_{11} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{21} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{31} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix}$$

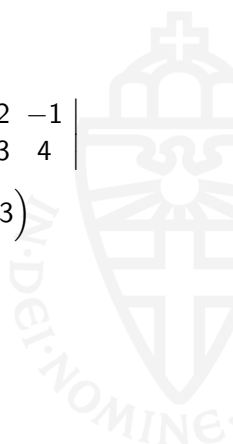
- Methodology:
  - take entries  $a_{i1}$  from first column, with alternating signs (+, -)
  - take determinant from square submatrix obtained by deleting the first column and the  $i$ -th row





## Determinant of a $3 \times 3$ matrix, example

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 5 & 3 & 4 \\ -2 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} &= 1 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - 5 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} + -2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (3 - 0) - 5(2 - 0) - 2(8 + 3) \\ &= 3 - 10 - 22 \\ &= -29 \end{aligned}$$





# The general, $n \times n$ case

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = +a_{11} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} - a_{21} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{32} & \cdots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix} \\
 + a_{31} \begin{vmatrix} \cdots \\ \cdots \\ \cdots \end{vmatrix} \cdots \pm a_{n1} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{(n-1)2} & \cdots & a_{(n-1)n} \end{vmatrix}$$

(where the last sign  $\pm$  is  $+$  if  $n$  is odd and  $-$  if  $n$  is even)

Then, each of the smaller determinants is computed recursively.



# Applications

- Determinants detect when a matrix is invertible
- Though we showed an inefficient way to compute determinants, there is an efficient algorithm using, you guessed it...Gaussian elimination!
- Solutions to non-homogeneous systems can be expressed directly in terms of determinants using *Cramer's rule* (wiki it!)
- Most importantly: determinants will be used to calculate *eigenvalues* in the next lecture



# Vectors in a basis

**Recall:** a basis for a vector space  $V$  is a set of vectors

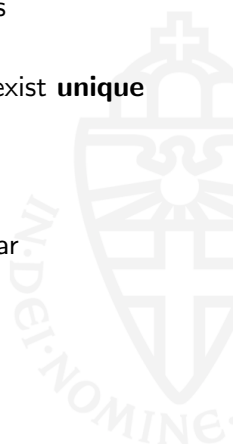
$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  in  $V$  such that:

- 1 They **uniquely span**  $V$ , i.e. for all  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , there exist **unique**  $a_i$  such that:

$$\mathbf{v} = a_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_n \mathbf{v}_n$$

Because of this, we use a special **notation** for this linear combination:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} := a_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_n \mathbf{v}_n$$





## Same vector, different outfits

The *same vector* can look different, depending on the choice of basis. Consider the standard basis:  $\mathcal{S} = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$  vs. another basis:

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Is this a basis? Yes...

- It's **independent** because:  $\begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  has 2 pivots.
- It's **spanning** because... we can make every vector in  $\mathcal{S}$  using linear combinations of vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{100} \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

...so we can also make any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .



# Same vector, different outfits

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Examples:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{S}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 300 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{S}} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{S}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{100} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{S}} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$



# Why???

- Many find the idea of *multiple bases* confusing the first time around.
- $\mathcal{S} = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$  is a perfectly good basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Why bother with others?
  - 1 Some vector spaces don't have one "obvious" choice of basis. Example: subspaces  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .
  - 2 Sometimes it is way more efficient to write a vector with respect to a different basis, e.g.:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 93718234 \\ -438203 \\ 110224 \\ -5423204980 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}_S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}_B$$

- 3 The choice of basis for *vectors* affects how we write *matrices* as well. Often this can be done cleverly. Example: JPEGs, MP3s, search engine rankings, ...



# Transforming bases, part I

- **Problem:** given a vector written in  $\mathcal{B} = \{(100, 0), (100, 1)\}$ , how can we write it in the standard basis? Just use the definition:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} = x \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 100x + 100y \\ y \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{S}}$$

- Or, as matrix multiplication:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{B}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 100x + 100y \\ y \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{S}}$$

- Let  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}$  be the matrix whose *columns* are the basis vectors  $\mathcal{B}$ . Then  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}$  *transforms* a vector written in  $\mathcal{B}$  into a vector written in  $\mathcal{S}$ .





## Transforming bases, part II

- How do we transform back? Need  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{S} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}}$  which **undoes** the matrix  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}$ .
- Solution: use the inverse!  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{S} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}} := (\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}})^{-1}$
- Example:

$$(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{100} & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ...which indeed gives:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{100} & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a-100b}{100} \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$



# Transforming bases, part IV

- How about two non-standard bases?

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \mathcal{C} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

- **Problem:** translate a vector from  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$  to  $\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{C}}$
- **Solution:** do this in two steps:

$$\underbrace{T_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}} \cdot \mathbf{v}}$$

first translate from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{S}$ ...

$$\underbrace{T_{\mathcal{S} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}} \cdot T_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = (T_{\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}})^{-1} \cdot T_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

...then translate from  $\mathcal{S}$  to  $\mathcal{C}$





## Transforming bases, example

- For bases:

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 100 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \mathcal{C} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

- ...we need to find  $a'$  and  $b'$  such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{C}} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- Translating both sides to the standard basis gives:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

- This we can solve using the matrix-inverse:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$



## Transforming bases, example

For:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{C}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}}_{\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{S} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{B}}$$

we compute

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 100 & 100 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} -200 & -199 \\ 200 & 201 \end{pmatrix}$$

which gives:

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{C}} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} -200 & -199 \\ 200 & 201 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{in basis } \mathcal{B}}$$



# Basis transformation theorem

## Theorem

Let  $S$  be the standard basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n\}$  be other bases.

- Then there is an invertible  $n \times n$  **basis transformation matrix**  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}}$  such that:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a'_1 \\ \vdots \\ a'_n \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{pmatrix} a'_1 \\ \vdots \\ a'_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{C}} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow S}$  is the matrix which has the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  as columns, and

$$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}} := (\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow S})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow S}$$

- $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}} = (\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}})^{-1}$



## Matrices in other bases

- Since *vectors* can be written with respect to different bases, so too can *matrices*.
- For example, let  $g$  be the linear map defined by:

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_S\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_S \qquad g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_S\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_S$$

- Then, naturally, we would represent  $g$  using the matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}_S$$

- Because indeed:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(the columns say where each of the vectors in  $S$  go, **written in the basis  $S$** )



## On the other hand...

- Lets look at what  $g$  does to another basis:

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

- First  $(1, 1) \in \mathcal{B}$ :

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}\right) = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) \equiv \dots$$

- Then, by linearity:

$$\dots = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) + g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$



## On the other hand...

$$\mathcal{B} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

- Similarly  $(1, -1) \in \mathcal{B}$ :

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}\right) = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \dots$$

- Then, by linearity:

$$\dots = g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) - g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$





## A new matrix

- From this:

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}} \qquad g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- It follows that we should instead use *this* matrix to represent  $g$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}_{\mathcal{B}}$$

- Because indeed:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(the columns say where each of the vectors in  $\mathcal{B}$  go, **written in the basis  $\mathcal{B}$** )



## A new matrix

- So on different bases,  $g$  acts in a totally different way!

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_S\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_S \qquad g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_S\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_S$$

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_B\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_B \qquad g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_B\right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}_B$$

- ...and hence gets a totally different matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}_S \qquad \text{vs.} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}_B$$



## Transforming bases, part II

### Theorem

Assume again we have two bases  $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

If a linear map  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  has matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  w.r.t. to basis  $\mathcal{B}$ , then, w.r.t. to basis  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $f$  has matrix  $\mathbf{A}'$  :

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}} \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}}$$

Thus, via  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C}}$  and  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}}$  one transforms  $\mathcal{B}$ -matrices into  $\mathcal{C}$ -matrices. In particular, a matrix can be translated from the standard basis to basis  $\mathcal{B}$  via:

$$\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{S} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}} \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}}$$



## Example basis transformation, part I

- Consider the standard basis  $\mathcal{S} = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$  for  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and as alternative basis  $\mathcal{B} = \{(-1, 1), (0, 2)\}$
- Let the linear map  $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ , w.r.t. the standard basis  $\mathcal{S}$ , be given by the matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- What is the representation  $\mathbf{A}'$  of  $f$  w.r.t. basis  $\mathcal{B}$ ?
- Since  $\mathcal{S}$  is the standard basis,  $\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  contains the  $\mathcal{B}$ -vectors as its columns



## Example basis transformation, part II

- The basis transformation matrix  $T_{S \Rightarrow B}$  in the other direction is obtained as **matrix inverse**:

$$T_{S \Rightarrow B} = (T_{B \Rightarrow S})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2-0} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}' &= T_{S \Rightarrow B} \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot T_{B \Rightarrow S} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & 2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$