## Linear Algebra Lecture 2 - Vector Spaces

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satisfying the following rules:

i) 
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 for any  $v, w \in V$  (addition is commutative),

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- v)  $(\alpha + \beta)v = \alpha v + \beta v$  for any  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $v \in V$ (multiplication is distributive with respect to scalar addition),

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viii) 
$$1v = v$$
 for any  $v \in V$ .

The following facts are direct consequences of these rules:

i) The element  $\mathbf{0} \in V$  is unique. Suppose there is another  $\mathbf{0}' \in V$ , then  $\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0}' = \mathbf{0}'$ .

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$$\mathbf{0} = (0v + 0v) + (-0v)$$
, that is  $\mathbf{0} = 0v$ .

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unique, hence (-1)v = -v.

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You may try to prove in a similar fashion that  $\alpha \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$  or that  $\alpha \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  implies  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

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ii) the *n*-tuple space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , with addition  $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) + (y_1, \ldots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \ldots, x_n + y_n)$ , multiplication  $\alpha(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = (\alpha x_1, \ldots, \alpha x_n)$  and the zero vector  $\mathbf{0} = (0, \ldots, 0)$ , in particular  $\mathbb{R}$  =line,  $\mathbb{R}^2$  =plane,  $\mathbb{R}^3$  =three-dimensional space,

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iii) the space  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$  of infinite sequences of real numbers, with addition  $(x_i) + (y_i) = (x_i + y_i)$ , multiplication  $\alpha(x_i) = (\alpha x_i)$  and the zero vector  $\mathbf{0} = (0, 0, \ldots)$ ,

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- iv) the space of real functions on any non-empty set X $\mathcal{F}(X,\mathbb{R}) = \{f : X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$  with addition and multiplication defined pointwise: (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) and  $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$ . The zero vector is the constant function admitting 0 everywhere on X.

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A subspace W of V is called **proper** if  $W \neq V$ . Any subspace is a vector space.

The set of solutions of any homogeneous system of linear equations in n unknowns is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$\begin{cases} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0\\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n = 0\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots\\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = 0 \end{cases}$$

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	a <sub>21</sub> x <sub>1</sub>	+	<i>a</i> <sub>22</sub> <i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	+		+	a <sub>1n</sub> x <sub>n</sub> a <sub>2n</sub> x <sub>n</sub>	= 0
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	$a_{m1}x_1$	+	a <sub>m2</sub> x <sub>2</sub>	+		+	a <sub>mn</sub> x <sub>n</sub>	= 0

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It can be shown that any subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is of that form. Every subspace contains **0**. Note that the set of solutions of a non-homogeneous system of linear equations is not a subspace since it does not contain **0**.

 $\mathbb{R}_{c}^{\infty} = \{ \text{sequences } (x_i) \text{ such that } x_i = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } i \}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$ .

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Let  $x_0 \in X$ . Then  $\{f \in \mathcal{F}(X, \mathbb{R}) \mid f(x_0) = 0\}$  is a subspace of  $\mathcal{F}(X, \mathbb{R})$ .

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All proper subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  are lines through the origin (0,0) and the zero subspace  $\{(0,0)\}$ . Similarly, all proper subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  are planes and lines through the origin (0,0,0) and the zero subspace  $\{(0,0,0)\}$ .

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If  $U, V \subset W$  are subspaces of vector space W, then  $U \cap V$  is a subspace of W.

## Examples (continued)

 $\mathbb{R}_{c}^{\infty} = \{ \text{sequences } (x_i) \text{ such that } x_i = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } i \}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^{\infty}$ .

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If  $U, V \subset W$  are subspaces of vector space W, then  $U \cap V$  is a subspace of W. You may try to prove that  $U \cup V$  is a subspace of W if and only if  $U \subset V$  or  $V \subset U$ .

### Linear Combinations

Let *V* be a vector space. The **linear combination** of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$  with coefficients  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$  is the vector  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \ldots + \alpha_k v_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i \in V$ .

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$$lin(v_1,\ldots,v_k) = \{\alpha_1v_1 + \ldots + \alpha_kv_k \in V \mid \alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

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### Linear Combinations

Let *V* be a vector space. The **linear combination** of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$  with coefficients  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$  is the vector  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \ldots + \alpha_k v_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i \in V$ . The set of all linear combinations of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$  will be denoted by  $lin(v_1, \ldots, v_k)$ .

$$lin(v_1,\ldots,v_k) = \{\alpha_1v_1 + \ldots + \alpha_kv_k \in V \mid \alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

For example, the vector (4, 1, 3) is a linear combination of vectors  $v_1 = (1, 0, 1), v_2 = (0, 1, 0), v_3 = (1, -1, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  with coefficients 3, 2, 1, because (4, 1, 3) = 3(1, 0, 1) + 2(0, 1, 0) + (1, -1, 0).

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Proposition

If vectors  $v, w \in V$  are linear combinations of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$  then so is v + w.

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#### Proof.

Let  $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \ldots \alpha_k v_k$  and  $w = \beta_1 v_1 + \ldots \beta_k v_k$ . Then  $v + w = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1)v_1 + \ldots + (\alpha_k + \beta_k)v_k$ .

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If vector  $v \in V$  is a linear combination of vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$ then so is  $\alpha v$  for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

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Let  $\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + \alpha_k \mathbf{v}_k$ . Then  $\alpha \mathbf{v} = (\alpha \alpha_1) \mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + (\alpha \alpha_k) \mathbf{v}_k$ .  $\Box$ 

Corollary

The set  $lin(v_1, \ldots, v_k)$  is a subspace of V.

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#### Definition

If  $W = lin(v_1, ..., v_k)$  then we call W the **linear span** of the vectors  $v_1, ..., v_k$ .

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If  $W = lin(v_1, ..., v_k)$  then we call W the **linear span** of the vectors  $v_1, ..., v_k$ . We say W is **spanned** by the vectors  $v_1, ..., v_k$ .

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### Corollary

If  $w_1, \ldots, w_l \in lin(v_1, \ldots, v_k)$  then

$$\mathsf{lin}(w_1,\ldots,w_l)\subset\mathsf{lin}(v_1,\ldots,v_k)$$

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For any  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  the following hold: i)  $lin(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k) = lin(v_2, v_1, v_3, \ldots, v_k),$ 

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Corollary

We have

$$lin(v_1,\ldots,v_k) = lin(v_1 + \alpha v_2, v_2,\ldots,v_k),$$

that is, elementary operations on vectors do not change the spanned subspace.

Proof.

i)  $\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \ldots + \alpha_k \mathbf{v}_k = \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \ldots + \alpha_k \mathbf{v}_k$ 

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- ii) if  $v \in lin(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$  then there exist  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

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# Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and Homogenous Systems of Linear Equations

#### Proposition

Let  $V = lin(v_1, ..., v_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be the linear span of vectors  $v_1, ..., v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $k \ge 1$ . Then there exists a homogeneous system of linear equations in n variables whose set of solutions is equal to V.

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#### Proof.

Let  $A = [a_{ij}] \in M(k \times n; \mathbb{R})$  be a matrix whose rows are equal to  $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ , i.e.  $v_1 = (a_{11}, \ldots, a_{1n}), \ldots, v_k = (a_{k1}, \ldots, a_{kn})$ . Let  $B = [b_{ij}] \in M(k \times n; \mathbb{R})$  be a matrix equal to the reduced echelon form of A, where  $w_1, \ldots, w_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are rows of B, i.e.  $w_1 = (b_{11}, \ldots, b_{1n}), \ldots, w_k = (b_{k1}, \ldots, b_{kn})$ .

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$$V = \ln(v_1, \ldots, v_k) = \ln(w_1, \ldots, w_k).$$

# Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and Homogenous Systems of Linear Equations (continued)

#### Proof.

For simplicity assume that pivots appear in columns of numbers 1, 2, ..., m, where  $m \le k$ , i.e.

$$w_{1} = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 0, b_{1m}, b_{1(m+1)}, \dots, b_{1n}),$$

$$w_{2} = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, 0, b_{2m}, b_{2(m+1)}, \dots, b_{2n}),$$

$$\vdots$$

$$w_{m} = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, b_{km}, b_{k(m+1)}, \dots, b_{1n}),$$
and  $w_{m+1} = \dots = w_{k} = \mathbf{0}.$ 

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# Subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and Homogenous Systems of Linear Equations (continued)

$$V = lin(v_1, ..., v_k) = lin(w_1, ..., w_m) =$$
  
= {x\_1w\_1 + ... + x\_mw\_m \in \mathbb{R}^n | x\_1, ..., x\_m \in \mathbb{R}} =  
{(x\_1, x\_2, ..., x\_m, b\_{1m}x\_1 + b\_{2m}x\_2 + ... + b\_{km}x\_m,  
, b\_{1(m+1)}x\_1 + b\_{2(m+1)m}x\_2 + ... + b\_{k(m+1)}x\_m, ...  
..., b\_{1n}x\_1 + b\_{2n}x\_2 + ... + b\_{kn}x\_m) | x\_1, ..., x\_m \in \mathbb{R}},

which is equal to the set of solutions of the system

$$\begin{cases} x_{m+1} = b_{1m}x_1 + b_{2m}x_2 + \dots + b_{km}x_m, \\ x_{m+2} = b_{1(m+1)}x_1 + b_{2(m+1)}x_2 + \dots + b_{k(m+1)}x_m, \\ \vdots \\ x_n = b_{1n}x_1 + b_{2n}x_2 + \dots + b_{kn}x_m, \end{cases}$$
of  $n-m$  equations with free variables  $x_1, \dots, x_m \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Subspaces and Homogenous Systems of Linear Equations (continued)

#### Proof.

In general, if the numbers of columns with pivots are equal to  $1 \le j_1 < j_2 < \ldots < j_m \le n$  then one should consider vector

$$x_{j_1}w_1+x_{j_2}w_2+\ldots+x_{j_m}w_m,$$

which leads to a homogeneous system of n - m equations in n unknowns and free variables  $x_{j_1}, \ldots, x_{j_m} \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## Example

Let  $V = \text{lin}((1,2,1,0), (0,2,1,1), (1,4,2,1), (3,8,4,1)) \subset \mathbb{R}^4$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Find a system of linear equations which set of solutions is equal to V.

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Let  $V = \text{lin}((1,2,1,0), (0,2,1,1), (1,4,2,1), (3,8,4,1)) \subset \mathbb{R}^4$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Find a system of linear equations which set of solutions is equal to V.

Put vectors horizontally in a matrix and perform elementary row operations to get the reduced echelon form (up to column permutation).

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 8 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{r_3-r_1}{\longrightarrow} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example (continued)

Any vector in the space V is equal to  $x_1(1,2,1,0) + x_4(0,2,1,1) = (x_1,2x_1+2x_4,x_1+x_4,x_4)$  for some  $x_1, x_4 \in \mathbb{R}$ . This is a general solution of the following system of linear equations

$$\begin{cases} x_2 = 2x_1 + 2x_4 \\ x_3 = x_1 + x_4 \end{cases}$$

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The system is equal to

$$\begin{cases} 2x_1 - x_2 + 2x_4 = 0\\ x_1 - x_3 + x_4 = 0 \end{cases}$$

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## Remarks

#### Remark The system corresponding to the subspace $V = lin(v_1, ..., v_k) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is not unique.

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So far we have shown that

$$\begin{cases} subspaces\\ of \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases} \supset \begin{cases} linear spans\\ of v_1, ..., v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases} = \\ = \begin{cases} sets of solutions of\\ homogeneous systems of\\ linear equations in\\ n variables \end{cases}$$

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So far we have shown that

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Later we will show that any subspace  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is equal to a linear span of some vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , that is the first inclusion is an equality.

# Hölder and Minkowski Inequalities<sup>1</sup>

### Proposition (Hölder)

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For any p, q > 1 such that

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1,\\ &\text{nd any } (x_1, \dots, x_n), (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ (or } \in \mathbb{C}^n)\\ &\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i y_i| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.\end{aligned}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For proofs see W. Rudin, *Functional Analysis* 

## Hölder and Minkowski Inequalities<sup>1</sup>

### Proposition (Hölder)

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and any  $(x_1,\ldots,x_n),(y_1,\ldots,y_n)\in\mathbb{R}^n$  (or  $\in\mathbb{C}^n$ )

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i y_i| \le \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^q\right)^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Corollary (Minkowski) For any  $p \ge 1$  and any  $(x_1, ..., x_n), (y_1, ..., y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (or  $\mathbb{C}^n$ )

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i + y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

<sup>1</sup>For proofs see W. Rudin, *Functional Analysis* 

The Spaces  $\ell^1$  and  $\ell^2$ 

### Definition Let

$$\ell^1 = \left\{ (x_i) \in \mathbb{R}^\infty \mid \sum_{i=1}^\infty |x_i| < +\infty 
ight\}, \ \ell^2 = \left\{ (x_i) \in \mathbb{R}^\infty \mid \sum_{i=1}^\infty |x_i|^2 < +\infty 
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$$\ell^{1} = \left\{ (x_{i}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\infty} \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_{i}| < +\infty \right\},$$
$$\ell^{2} = \left\{ (x_{i}) \in \mathbb{R}^{\infty} \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_{i}|^{2} < +\infty \right\},$$

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#### Corollary

The sets  $\ell^1, \ell^2, \ell^\infty \subset \mathbb{R}^\infty$  are subspaces and

$$\ell^1 \subsetneq \ell^2 \subsetneq \ell^\infty \subsetneq \mathbb{R}^\infty.$$

Proof.  
If 
$$(x_i), (y_i) \in \ell^{\infty}$$
 then  $|x_i| < M$ ,  $|y_i| < N$ , therefore  
 $|x_i + y_i| \le |x_i| + |y_i| < M + N$ ,  
 $|\alpha x_i| < |\alpha|M$ ,

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 $|x_i + y_i| \le |x_i| + |y_i| < M + N$ ,  
 $|\alpha x_i| < |\alpha|M$ ,  
for any  $\alpha \ne 0$ . For  $\ell^1$  and  $\ell^2$ , since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i = \lim_{n \to +\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i,$$

it is enough to take limits in the Minkowski inequality for p = 1 and p = 2, respectively.

Proof. If  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i| < \infty$  then  $\lim_{i \to +\infty} |x_i| = 0$  and the sequence  $(x_i)$  is bounded.

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$$\begin{aligned} |x_i|^2 &\leq |x_i|,\\ \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2 &\leq \sum_{i=N+1}^{\infty} |x_i| < \infty, \end{aligned}$$

which implies

$$\ell^1 \subset \ell^2 \subset \ell^\infty.$$

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If  $x_i = 1$  then  $(x_i) \in \ell^{\infty}$  but  $(x_i) \notin \ell^2$ .

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If  $x_i = 1$  then  $(x_i) \in \ell^{\infty}$  but  $(x_i) \notin \ell^2$ . If  $y_i = \frac{1}{i}$  then  $(y_i) \in \ell^2$  but  $(y_i) \notin \ell^1$ .

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Let  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be an open set. If

 $\mathcal{C}(\Omega) = \{ f \colon \Omega \to \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous} \},\$ 



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$$\mathcal{H}(\Omega) = \left\{ f \in \mathcal{C}^2(\Omega) \mid \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} + \ldots + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} = 0 \right\},\,$$

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then

 $\mathcal{H}(\Omega)\subset \mathcal{C}^\infty(\Omega)\subset \ldots \subset \mathcal{C}^2(\Omega)\subset \mathcal{C}^1(\Omega)\subset \mathcal{C}(\Omega)\subset \mathbb{F}(\Omega,\mathbb{R}),$ 

are subspaces of  $\mathbb{F}(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$ .

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are subspaces of  $\mathbb{F}(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$ . The first inclusion is a theorem in the theory of harmonic functions.

# Homogeneous (Ordinary) Linear Differential Equations

If 
$$X = (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$$
 and  
 $V = \{x \in \mathcal{C}^n(X) \mid x^{(n)} + a_1 x^{(n-1)} + \ldots + a_n x = 0\},$ 

i.e., V is the set of all functions  $x \colon X \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $x \in \mathcal{C}^n(X)$  and

$$x^{(n)}(t) + a_1(t)x^{(n-1)}(t) + \ldots + a_n(t)x(t) = 0,$$

for all  $t \in X$ , where

$$a_i: X \to \mathbb{R},$$

are continuous functions then

$$V \subset \mathcal{C}^n(X),$$

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is a subspace of dimension n.

## Grassmannian

This material is meant to be read at the end of the course.

#### Definition

Grassmanian Gr(k, n) is the set of all subspaces of dimension k in the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , that is

$$Gr(k, n) = \{V \subset \mathbb{R}^n \mid \dim V = k\}.$$

It is possible to identify this set with a smooth algebraic variety (you might think of it a special version of a submanifold of  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ )

$$\operatorname{Gr}(k,n) = \{A \in M(n \times n; \mathbb{R}) \mid A^2 = A, \quad A^{\mathsf{T}} = A, \quad \operatorname{rk} A = k\}.$$

There exists a bijection between subspaces of dimension k of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and matrices as above (exercise). Note that Grassmanian is given by a system of polynomial equations in the entries  $a_{ij}$  of matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$ .

## Grassmannian (continued)

There are several methods of inducing a topology on G(k, n). A metric on Gr(k, n) can be defined by

$$d(V,W) = \|P_V - P_W\|,$$

where  $P_V$ ,  $P_W$  are (matrices) of orthogonal projections onto k-dimensional subspaces V and W, respectively and  $\|\cdot\|$  is (some) matrix norm.

Using the SVD decomposition it is possible to give interpretation of those distances in the terms of principal angles between the subspaces V and W for  $\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_2$  and  $\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_F$  (exercise).