

Lecture 3: Fundamental Theorem of Algebra and Vector Geometry

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1.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Gauss completed the first proof for this theorem which states:

Every polynomial $p(z) = a_n z^n + a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 z_1 + a_0 z_0$ with complex coefficients $a_n, a_{n-1}, a, a \in \mathbb{C}$, can be factored using complex numbers.

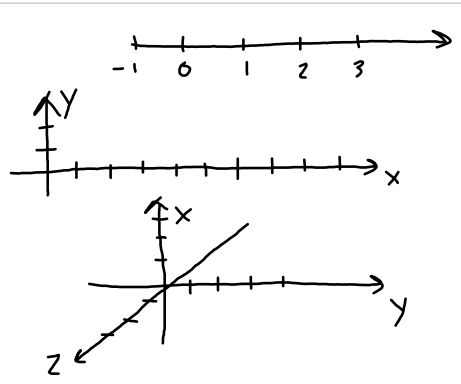
$$p(z) = a_n * (z - w_1) * \dots * (z - w_n)$$

roots

2 Vector Geometry

2.1 Introduction

Visualizing vectors in different dimensions:

algebraically	geometrically
\mathbb{R} ("scalars") $\mathbb{R}^2 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$ $\mathbb{R}^3 = \{(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$ We can keep going like this... $\mathbb{R}^4 = \{(x, y, z, w) \mid x, y, z, w \in \mathbb{R}\}$	 eg. space-time

Therefore, for any number, n , in the natural number set:

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

2.2 Algebraic structure of \mathbb{R}^n :

- (1) $(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ OR $x_i = y_i$ when $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$
- (2) $(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$
- (3) **zero vector:** $0 = (0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- (4) **negative** if $x = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ then $-x = (-x_1, \dots, -x_n)$
- (5) **multiplication by a scalar** Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$
 $k(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (kx_1, \dots, kx_n)$

2.3 Linear Combinations

Definition: Let $k_1, \dots, k_m \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u_1, \dots, u_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, the vector $k_1 u_1 + k_2 u_2 + k_3 u_3 + \dots + k_m u_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a **linear combination** of u_1, \dots, u_m

Example:

$u_1=(1,2,3)$	$u_2=(1,0,0)$
$k_1=1$	$k_2=7$

Hence,

$1*(1,2,3) + 7*(1,0,0) = (8,2,3)$ is a linear combination of u_1 and u_2 .

Observe that $(0,1,0)$ is not a linear combination of u_1 and u_2 :

$$(0,1,0) = k_1(1,2,3) + k_2(1,0,0)$$

$$0 = k_1 + k_2$$

$$1 = 2k_1$$

$$0 = 3k_1$$

When solving for k_1 and k_2 , the second and third equations contradict each other, and so $(0,1,0)$ is not a linear combination of u_1 and u_2 .

2.4 Properties of vector addition and scalar multiplication

V1 Associativity

$$u+(v+w)=(u+v)+w$$

→ "there exists"
V2 \exists adding identity ($0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$)

that is: $v+0=v$

→ for all
V3 $\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n \exists$ inverse $-v \in \mathbb{R}^n$

that is: $v+(-v)=0$

V4 Commutativity

$$v+w=w+v$$

S1 Distributivity I

$$k*(v+w)=k*v + k*w$$

S2 Distributivity II

$$(k+m)*v=k*v + m*v$$

S3 Associativity

$$k*(m*v)=(k*m)*v$$

S4 $1 \in \mathbb{R}$ does nothing

that is: $1v=v$

for: $u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $k, m \in \mathbb{R}$

These rules are also known as the **vector spaces axioms**.

2.5 The Dot Product

Define two arbitrary vectors in 3D, and the dot product is equivalent to $u \cdot v$

$$u = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \quad v = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$$

$$u \cdot v = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + x_3 y_3 \in \mathbb{R}$$

Now that we have the dot product, we can define:

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{u \cdot u} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$$

→ length/norm of u

$$\|u-v\| = \text{distance between } u \text{ and } v$$

u and v are perpendicular, or orthogonal, if and only if their dot product equals 0.

$$u \cdot v = 0$$

The above example is the dot product in the third dimension. We can expand this to the n th dimension below:

$$u = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad v = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

$$u \cdot v = x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n \in \mathbb{R}$$

→ the dot product is always a real number

