

4th basic algebra

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polynomial definitions.

- ①
- ②
- ③
- ④

division algorithm of polynomials

factor theorem

Euclidean algorithm of polynomials.

$$P \Leftrightarrow Q \quad \text{if } P \text{ then } Q \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } Q \text{ then } P \\ \text{if } P \text{ then } Q \end{cases} \quad \text{if } Q \text{ then } P \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } P \text{ then } Q \\ \text{if } Q \text{ then } P \end{cases} \quad \square$$

$P = (a_0, \dots, a_n, 0, 0, \dots)$ we can evaluate P at r . fixed.

obtaining a result $P(r) = a_0 + a_1 r + \dots + a_n r^n \Leftarrow x=r$.

$$\begin{array}{c} (5, 3, 0, 0, \dots) \\ (3, 5, 7, 0, \dots) \\ \underbrace{\quad\quad\quad}_{F[x]} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\text{evaluate}} P(\cdot) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{if } r \\ \text{if } cP \end{array} \right. \quad \begin{array}{l} (P+Q)(r) = P(r) + Q(r) \\ (P-Q)(r) = P(r) - Q(r) \\ (cP)(r) = c P(r) \end{array}$$

$$PQR \\ (ab) \cdot c = a(bc).$$

arithmetic operations.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{\text{evaluate}} & P(\cdot) \\ \downarrow & \xrightarrow{\text{operations}} & \downarrow \text{operations} \\ \text{operations} & \xrightarrow{\text{evaluate}} & \text{operations} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} f(ab) = f(a)f(b), \\ f(abc) = f(ab)f(c) = f(a)f(b)f(c) \end{array}$$

the mapping $P \rightarrow P(\cdot)$ respects the arithmetic operations.

we say r is a root of P if $P(r) = 0$.

unique factorization.

A factor of a polynomial A is a nonzero polynomial B such that $A = BQ$ for some polynomial Q . \uparrow

that $A = BQ$ for some polynomial Q . \uparrow

B divides A . B is a divisor of A . A is a multiple of B .
 $B \mid A$.

If A is nonzero, any product formula: $A = BQ_1 \cdots Q_r$ is a factorization of A .

A unit in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is a divisor of

any polynomial of degree 0. a constant polynomial
 $A(x) = c$, c is a nonzero scalar.

$A = BQ$ of $A \neq 0$ is called nontrivial if neither B nor Q is a unit.

$$(5x+2) \times 2 = 10x+4$$

\uparrow
unit. factorization. (trivial).

A prime P in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is a nonzero polynomial that is not a unit and has no nontrivial factorization $P = BQ$.

Observe that the product of a prime and a unit is always a prime.

$$R: \underline{x+1} \Rightarrow 2x+2 \Rightarrow 3x+3 \quad \text{prime.}$$

\nwarrow leading coefficient is 1.

division algorithm: If \underline{A} and \underline{B} are polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and $B \neq 0$.

then there exist unique polynomial \underline{Q} and R in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ s.t.

(a) $\underline{A} = \underline{BQ} + R$ and

(b) either R is the 0 polynomial or $\deg R < \deg B$.

$$\frac{\underline{A}}{\underline{B}} = \underline{Q} + \frac{\underline{R}}{\underline{B}}$$

\nwarrow Quotient \nwarrow remainder.

undefined

\uparrow

proof: i) uniqueness.

$$A = BQ + R = BQ_1 + R,$$

$$B(Q - Q_1) = R - R \quad \text{if } R_1 - R = 0 \quad Q = Q_1$$

$$\text{if } R_1 - R \neq 0 \quad \deg B + \deg(Q - Q_1) = \deg(R - R) \leq \max(\deg R, \deg R_1),$$

$$< \deg B.$$

contradiction.

ii). existence.

If $A=0$ or $\deg A < \deg B$ then $Q=0$ and $R=A$. \checkmark

$\deg A \geq \deg B$. induct on $\deg A$. valid for $n-1$

$\deg A = n$. $A = a_n x^n + A_1$, with $A_1 = 0$ or $\deg A_1 < \deg A$.

$B = b_k x^k + B_1$, with $B_1 = 0$ or $\deg B_1 < \deg B$.

$Q_1 = \underline{a_n b_k^{-1} x^{n-k}}$ Then.

$$A - BQ_1 = a_n x^n + A_1 - a_n x^n - a_n b_k^{-1} x^{n-k} B_1$$

$$= A_1 - a_n b_k^{-1} x^{n-k} B_1$$

$$= 0 \text{ or } \deg(A_1) < \deg A.$$

$A = B(Q_1 + Q_2) + R$. is required decomposition. \square

Factor theorem. If r is a root and if P is a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.
then $x-r$ divides P if and only if $P(r)=0$.

$$\underbrace{(x-r)}_{\dots} \cdots = P \quad P(1) = 0$$

Proof: $\Rightarrow P = (x-r) \cdot Q$. $P(r) = (r-r) \cdot Q = 0$.

$\Leftarrow P(r)=0$ take $B(x)=x-r$ in the division algorithm.

$P = \underline{(x-r) \cdot Q + R}$ with $R=0$ or $\deg R < \deg(x-r)=1$
 R is a constant polynomial, or 0. $R=C$

$$P(r)=0 = \underline{(r-r) \cdot Q(r) + R(r)} \quad R=0$$

$$P(r) = 0 = \underbrace{(r-r)}_{\text{1}} \cdot Q(r) + \underbrace{R(r)}_{R=0}$$

$P = (x-r) \cdot Q$. $\Rightarrow x-r$ divides P . \square

Corollary: If P is a nonzero polynomial with coefficients in \mathbb{F} and if $\deg P = n$, then P has at most n distinct roots.

$$P = x^2 - 1 \quad \deg P = 2 \quad P = x^8 + x^7 - x^5 + 7x^3 - 1 \quad \deg P = 8$$

$= (x-1)(x+1) \quad x=1 \text{ or } x=-1 \quad \uparrow$

$$P = x^2 - 2x + 1 \quad \deg P = 2$$

$= (x-1)^2 \quad x=1 \quad (\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$

observe.

\mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} .

infinite.

$\mathbb{F} \rightarrow P(r)$

cannot be identically 0.

$\mathbb{F} \rightarrow 0$

$$\mathbb{F} = \{0, 1\}. \quad P(x) = x^2 + x. \quad P(0) = 0 \Rightarrow r=0 \quad P(1) = 0 \Rightarrow r=1$$

$1+1=0$

proof: Let r_1, \dots, r_{n+1} be distinct roots of $P(x)$

By the factor theorem: $x-r_1$ is a factor of $P(x)$,
induct $(x-r_1)(x-r_2)\dots(x-r_k)$ is a factor of $P(x)$ \Leftarrow .

Assume it holds for k : $P(x) = (x-r_1)\dots(x-r_k) \cdot Q(x)$.

$$0 = P(r_{k+1}) = (r_{k+1}-r_1)\dots(r_{k+1}-r_k) \cdot \underline{Q(r_{k+1})}$$

since r_j are distinct. we must have $Q(r_{k+1}) = 0$.

By factor theorem: $Q(x) = (x-r_{k+1}) \cdot R(x)$ for some $R(x)$.

$$P(x) = \underbrace{(x-r_1)\dots(x-r_k)(x-r_{k+1})}_{\text{this completes the induction.}} \cdot R(x)$$

this completes the induction.

$$P(x) = \underbrace{(x-r_1)\dots(x-r_{n+1})}_{\deg = n} \cdot S(x) \quad \text{for some polynomial } S(x).$$

$\deg = n+1$

$\underbrace{\deg = n}_{\text{deg } A(x)}$ $\underbrace{\deg = n+1}_{\text{deg } B(x)}$
 $\deg A(x) = -1$ contradiction. \square

A greatest common divisor of polynomials A and B with $B \neq 0$.
is any polynomial D of maximum degree such that D divides A and D divides B .

D is unique up to multiplication by nonzero scalar.

$$A: 10x+4. \quad B: 15x+6.$$

$$\text{GCD}(A, B) = 5x+2. \quad \deg D = 1$$

$$1 \rightarrow \boxed{x + \frac{2}{5}}.$$

$$2x + \frac{4}{5}.$$

Euclidean algorithm: $A = BQ_1 + R_1$ $R_1 = 0$ or $\deg R_1 < \deg B$.
 $B = R_1 Q_2 + R_2$ $R_2 = 0$ or $\deg R_2 < \deg R_1$,
 $R_1 = R_2 Q_3 + R_3$ $R_3 = 0$ or $\deg R_3 < \deg R_2$
 \vdots

$$R_{n-2} = R_{n-1} Q_n + R_n \quad R_n = 0 \text{ or } \deg R_n < \deg R_{n-1}$$

$$R_{n-1} = R_n Q_{n+1} + R_{n+1} \quad R_{n+1} = 0.$$

such n must exist since $\deg B > \deg R_1 > \dots \geq 0$.

is defined as $R_n \neq 0$. $R_{n+1} = 0$

Proposition: Let A and B be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ with $B \neq 0$
let R_1, \dots, R_n be the remainders generated by the Euclidean
algorithm when applied to A and B . Then:

- R_n is a greatest common divisor of A and B .
- any D that divides both A and B necessarily divides R_n .
- the GCD of A and B is unique up to multiplication by a nonzero scalar \Leftarrow .
- now GCD D has the property that there exist polynomials

nonzero scalar \Leftarrow

d). any GCD D has the property that there exist polynomials P and Q with $AP + BQ = \underline{D}$.

proof: a) and b). similarly. }
 d) $D = R_n$.

c) If D is a greatest common divisor of A and B .

from a), b). $\underline{\deg D = \deg R_n}$. thus. C \square .

Lemma. If A and B are nonzero polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{F} and if P is a prime polynomial such that P divides AB , then P divides A or P divides B .

proof: If P does not divide A then 1 is the GCD of A and P .

from [↑]d) $AS + PT = 1$.
 $\underline{ABS} + \underline{PTB} = B$.
 $P \nmid AB$ $P \nmid PTB$ $P \mid B$. \square .

unique factorization Every member of $\mathbb{F}[X]$ of degree ≥ 1 is a product of polynomials.

of primes.
 This factorization is unique up to order and up to multiplication of each prime factor by a unit.

proof: induction, similarly as FToA. \square .

$\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$. $x^2 + 1$ is prime. $r^2 + 1 = 0$ for some r .

$\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. $x^2 + 1$ is not prime $x^2 = (x+i)(x-i)$.

Fundamental theorem
of Algebra.

Any polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[X]$ with degree ≥ 1 has at least one root. $\triangle \checkmark$ $p(x)=0$

proof: 1). Liouville's theorem from complex analysis.

2) Heine-Borel theorem from real analysis.

3). compactness.

* 4). sylow theory. Galois theory. elementary calculus. proposition.

Proposition⁴⁾: Any polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ with odd degree has at least one root. \checkmark

Corollary: Let P be a nonzero polynomial of degree n in $\mathbb{C}[X]$.

let r_1, \dots, r_k be the distinct roots. Then there exist unique integers $m_j > 0$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$ s.t. $P(x)$ is a scalar multiple

$$\prod_{j=1}^k (x - r_j)^{m_j} \quad \text{The number } m_j \text{ have } \sum_{j=1}^k m_j = n.$$

proof: $\deg(P) > 0$.

up to,
 $15 = 5 \times 3$
 3×5

we apply unique factorization to $P(x)$.

in $\mathbb{C}[X]$, prime polynomial has degree 1.

in $\mathbb{R}[X]$

$$P(x) = C \cdot \prod_{l=1}^n (x - z_l)^{m_l} \quad \text{for some } C \neq 0, \text{ for some complex number}$$

z_l that are unique up to order.

z_l are roots.

Grouping like factors proves the existence and uniqueness. \square .

mg multiplicities of the roots of the polynomial $P(x)$.

Proof. 4) $P(x)$: leading coefficient is 1.

$$P(x) = x^{2n+1} + a_{2n}x^{2n} + \dots + a_1x + a_0 = \underline{x^{2n+1}} + \underline{R(x)}.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{P(x)}{x^{2n+1}} = 1$$

$$\begin{array}{l} x \rightarrow -\infty \\ x \rightarrow +\infty \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^{2n+1}} \approx 0^- \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{x^{2n+1}} = 0^+ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} P(x) > 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} P(x) < 0 \end{array}$$

there is some positive r_0 s.t. $P(-r_0) < 0$

$$P(r_0) > 0.$$

By intermediate value theorem. *

$$[-r_0, r_0] \quad P(\underline{r})=0 \text{ for some } r \text{ with } -r_0 \leq r \leq r_0.$$

□.

14 May. 4 pm. (China)