

34. Greatest Common divisor

(P9)



Let $f(x), g(x)$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. If $d(x)$ divides both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, then $d(x)$ is called a common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

Def 1 Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. A polynomial $d(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is called a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, if it satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) $d(x)$ is a common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$; $d(x) | f(x), d(x) | g(x)$
- (ii) $d(x)$ is divisible by every common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

If $q(x) | f(x)$ and $q(x) | g(x)$, then $q(x) | d(x)$.

For example, for arbitrary polynomial $f(x)$, $f(x)$ is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and 0; If $g(x) | f(x)$, then $g(x)$ is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

Lemma 1. If $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$, then the list of common divisors of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ coincides with the list of common divisors of $g(x)$ and $r(x)$.

(Here insert the Euclidean Algorithm)

Theorem 1 (Bézout). For any polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, there exists a greatest common divisor $d(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, and $d(x)$ can be represented as a linear combination of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, namely, there exist polynomials $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$d(x) = u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x). \quad (\text{Bézout's identity})$$

Example. For the pair of polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ below, use the Euclidean algorithm to find polynomials $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ such that $u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x)$ equals a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$:

(1) $f(x) = x^5 + 1$ and $g(x) = x^2 + 1$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$;

(2) $f(x) = x^4 + 3x^3 - x^2 - 4x - 3$, and $g(x) = 3x^3 + 10x^2 + 2x - 3$ in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. (Exercise)



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Euclidean Algorithm: Given two polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ with $g(x) \neq 0$, divide g into f , then the remainder into g , then that remainder into the previous remainder, etc., or symbolically,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= q_1(x) g(x) + r_1(x) \\ g(x) &= q_2(x) r_1(x) + r_2(x) \\ r_1(x) &= q_3(x) r_2(x) + r_3(x) \\ &\vdots \\ r_{k-2}(x) &= q_{k-1}(x) r_{k-1}(x) + r_k(x) \\ r_{k-1}(x) &= q_k(x) r_k(x) + 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since $\deg r_i(x) < \deg g(x)$, $\deg r_2(x) < \deg r_1(x)$, etc., the sequence of divisions ends after at most $\deg f(x) = k$ steps. Then we have

Theorem : In Euclid's Algorithm for $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, the last nonzero remainder $r_k(x)$ is a greatest common divisor of f and g .

Example. Find a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ by Euclid's Algorithm, where $f(x) = x^5 + 1$ and $g(x) = x^2 + 1$ in $(\mathbb{Q}[x])$.

Solution : $f(x) = x^5 + 1 = (x^3 - x)g(x) + (x+1)$

$$g(x) = (x-1)(x+1) + 2$$

$$x+1 = \frac{1}{2}(x+1) \cdot 2 + 0$$

This gives that 2 is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. \square



Answers.

(1) By the Euclidean algorithm, we have the following sequence of equalities:

$$f(x) = x^5 + 1 = (x^3 - x)g(x) + \frac{(x+1)}{r_1}$$

$$g(x) = x^3 + 1 = (x-1)(x^2 + x + 1) + \frac{2}{r_2}$$

$$x+1 = (\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}) \times 2 + 0$$

The last nonzero remainder is 2. Thus 2 is a greatest common divisor of $f(x) = x^5 + 1$ and $g(x) = x^3 + 1$. Bezout theorem asserts in this case 2 is a linear combination of $x^5 + 1$ and $x^3 + 1$. Indeed, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= g(x) - (x-1)(x+1) \\ &= g(x) - (x-1)[f(x) - (x^3 - x)g(x)] \\ &= ((x-1)(x^3 - x) + 1)g(x) - (x-1)f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Hence we can take

$$u(x) = -(x-1) \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = (x-1)(x^3 - x) + 1$$

which satisfy

$$2 = u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x).$$

(2) $9x+27$ is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. And

$$9x+27 = u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x)$$

$$\text{where } u(x) = \frac{27}{5}x - 9 \quad \text{and} \quad v(x) = -\frac{9}{5}x^2 + \frac{18}{5}x.$$

The greatest common divisor is determined up to a nonzero constant multiple.

Remark: The greatest common divisors of two polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are all non-zero constant multiples of each other. We use (f, g) or $(f(x), g(x))$ to denote the greatest common divisor with leading coefficient 1. (Uniquely determined)

For instance, if $9x+27$ is a g.c.d. of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, then

$$(f, g) = x+3.$$



Def2 If the greatest common divisor of two polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is equal to 1, then $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are said to be relatively prime or coprime.

Thm2 Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are coprime if and only if there exist $u(x), v(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x) = 1$$

proof: It suffices to prove the sufficiency. Suppose that $d(x)$ is a greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. Then $d(x) | f(x)$ and $d(x) | g(x)$. Thus $d(x)$ divides 1. This implies $d(x)$ is a non-zero constant. Hence, $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are coprime. \square

Corollary 1 If $(f(x), g(x)) = 1$ and $f(x) | g(x)h(x)$, then $f(x) | h(x)$.

proof: There exist $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ such that

$$u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x) = 1.$$

Then multiplying both sides of the equation by $h(x)$ yields

$$u(x)f(x)h(x) + v(x)g(x)h(x) = h(x).$$

It follows $f(x) | h(x)$, since $f(x)$ divides the left-hand side of the equation. \square

Corollary 2 If $f_1(x) | g(x)$, $f_2(x) | g(x)$ and $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = 1$, then $f_1(x)f_2(x) | g(x)$.

proof: By $f_1(x) | g(x)$, there exists $h(x)$ such that

$$g(x) = f_1(x)h(x)$$

Now $f_2(x) | f_1(x)h(x)$ and $(f_1(x), f_2(x)) = 1$, thus $f_2(x) | h(x)$. There exists $h_2(x)$ such that

$$h(x) = f_2(x)h_2(x)$$

This gives $g(x) = f_1(x)f_2(x)h_2(x)$ and thus $f_1(x)f_2(x) | g(x)$. \square



P3
Generalizations to more than two polynomials.

Def3 Let $f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ ($s \geq 2$) be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. A polynomial $d(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is called a greatest common divisor of f_1, f_2, \dots, f_s if it satisfies

- 1) $d(x) | f_i(x)$, $1 \leq i \leq s$;
- 2) if $h(x) | f_i(x)$, $1 \leq i \leq s$, then $h(x) | d(x)$.

We still use (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_s) to denote the greatest common divisor whose leading coefficient is equal to 1. If $f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ are non-zero polynomials, then

$$(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_s) = ((f_1, f_2, \dots, f_{s-1}), f_s).$$

Furthermore, there exist polynomials $u_i(x)$, $1 \leq i \leq s$, such that

$$u_1(x)f_1(x) + u_2(x)f_2(x) + \dots + u_s(x)f_s(x) = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_s).$$

Def4. Polynomials $f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ ($s \geq 2$) whose greatest common divisor (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_s) is equal to 1 are said to be relatively prime or Coprime.

Homework:

Pg. 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14.



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Appendix (I) The method of mathematical induction

(i)

Theorem 1. (Induction) Fix an integer n_0 and let $p(n)$ be a statement which makes sense for every integer $n \geq n_0$. Then $p(n)$ is true for all $n \geq n_0$, if the following two statements are true:

- (a) $p(n_0)$ is true;
- (b) for all $k \geq n_0$, if $p(k)$ is true, then $p(k+1)$ is true.

When using induction to prove a theorem, proving (a) is called the base case, and proving (b) is called the induction step.

Proof: Let $p(n)$ be \square

Example 1. For all $n \geq 1$, $1+3+5+\dots+(2n-1)=n^2$.

Proof: Let $p(n)$ be the statement

$$1+3+5+\dots+(2n-1)=n^2$$

The base case $p(1)$ is true, since $1=1^2$. For the induction step, let k be some unspecified number ≥ 1 , and assume that $p(k)$ is true, that is,

$$1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1)=k^2.$$

We want to show that then $p(k+1)$ is true, that is,

$$1+3+\dots+(2k-1)+(2k+1)=(k+1)^2.$$

To do so, we can add $(2k+1)$ to both sides of the equation $p(k)$ to get

$$1+3+\dots+(2k-1)+(2k+1)=k^2+(2k+1)=(k+1)^2$$

Thus, assuming $p(k)$ is true, it follows that $p(k+1)$ is true.

By induction, $p(n)$ is true for all ~~$n \geq 1$~~ , $n \geq 1$.

□



Theorem 2 (Complete Induction) Let n_0 be a fixed integer and let $p(n)$ be a statement which makes sense for every integer $n \geq n_0$. Then $p(n)$ is true for all integers $n \geq n_0$, if the following two statements are true:

(a) (base case) $p(n_0)$ is true;

(b) (induction step) For all $m \geq n_0$, if $p(k)$ is true for all $n_0 \leq k < m$, then $p(m)$ is true.

Example 2 Every natural number $n \geq 2$ is divisible by a prime number.

Proof. Let $p(n)$ be the statement " n is divisible by a prime number, where $n \geq 2$ ". Then the base case $p(2)$ is true, because 2 is prime and 2 divides itself. We'll use complete induction for the induction step. Thus we assume $p(k)$ is true for all k where $2 \leq k < m$: that is, we assume that every natural number ≥ 2 and $< m$ is divisible by a prime number. Now consider m . If m is prime, then m is divisible by a prime number, namely, itself, and $p(m)$ is true. If m is not prime, then m factors as $m = ab$, where $2 \leq a < m$ and also $2 \leq b < m$. Since $2 \leq a < m$, by assumption $p(a)$ is true, that is, a is divisible by a prime. Since a is divisible by a prime, and a divides m , m is divisible by the same prime. So $p(m)$ is true.

Thus $p(n)$ is true for all $n \geq 2$ by complete induction. \square



§5. Factorization

Example 1. In $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, we have

$$x^4 - 4 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 + 2)$$

In $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})[x]$ or $\mathbb{R}[x]$, we have

$$x^4 - 4 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 + 2) = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})(x - i\sqrt{2})(x + i\sqrt{2}).$$

In $\mathbb{C}[x]$, we have

$$x^4 - 4 = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})(x - i\sqrt{2})(x + i\sqrt{2})$$

Definition 1. Let $p(x)$ be a polynomial over the field $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree ≥ 1 . $p(x)$ is called an irreducible polynomial (or prime polynomial) if there exists no factorization $p(x) = r(x)s(x)$, where $r(x), s(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ and both $r(x)$ and $s(x)$ are of degree ≥ 1 . [otherwise, $p(x)$ is said to be reducible. Namely, there exists polynomials $r(x)$ and $s(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of degree ≥ 1 such that $f(x) = r(x)s(x)$.]

Example 2. Linear polynomials are irreducible.

Remark 1. (1) Whether a polynomial is irreducible depends on the field \mathbb{F} . (see example 1).

(2) The irreducible polynomials of $\mathbb{F}[x]$ are those polynomials $f(x)$ of positive degree, that are only divisible by units of $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and by associates of $f(x)$, i.e. polynomials of the form $c f(x)$ with $0 \neq c \in \mathbb{F}$.

(3) If $p(x)$ is irreducible and $f(x)$ is a polynomial which is not divisible by $p(x)$, then $(p(x), f(x)) = 1$.

proof: Suppose $d(x) = (p(x), f(x))$, then $d(x) | p(x)$. Since $p(x)$ is irreducible, ~~d(x)~~ $d(x)$ is a unit or $d(x) = c p(x)$ for some nonzero constant c . In the latter case, $p(x) | f(x)$, which contradicts the assumption. Hence $d(x)$ is a unit. \square



Theorem 1. Let $p(x)$ be an irreducible polynomial in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, \mathbb{F} a field. For any polynomials $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, if $p(x) | f(x)g(x)$, then $p(x) | f(x)$ or $p(x) | g(x)$.

Proof. If $p(x) \nmid f(x)$, then $(p(x), f(x)) = 1$. By $p(x) | f(x)g(x)$, we have $p(x) | g(x)$. \square .

Remark 2. The result applies when we have more than two polynomials. For example, Let $p(x), f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x)$ are polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, with $p(x)$ irreducible. If $p(x)$ divides the product of $f_1(x), \dots, f_s(x)$, then $p(x)$ must divide one of them. (Homework: prove it)

The following is the theorem on factorization.

Theorem 2 Let \mathbb{F} be a field. Every polynomial of degree ≥ 1 over \mathbb{F} is irreducible or factors into a product of irreducible polynomials.

Proof. Let f be a polynomial of degree n , with $n \geq 1$. We use induction on n . If $n=1$, then f is irreducible and thus the statement is true for $n=1$. For $n > 1$, suppose the statement is true for all $1 \leq k < n$, that is every polynomial of degree k with $1 \leq k < n$ is irreducible or factors into a product of irreducible polynomials. Now consider n . If f is irreducible, then the statement holds. If not, f can be factored into a product of two polynomials of degree ≥ 1 . Say $f = g(x)h(x)$, $1 \leq \deg g(x) < n$ and $1 \leq \deg h(x) < n$. By the induction assumption, $g(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x) \dots p_r(x)$, a product of irreducible polynomials, and also $h(x) = q_1(x)q_2(x) \dots q_s(x)$, a product of irreducible polynomials. So $f = p_1(x)p_2(x) \dots p_r(x)q_1(x)q_2(x) \dots q_s(x)$ is a product of irreducible polynomials.

By complete induction, the statement is true for all polynomials of positive degree. \square .



Here is the theorem on uniqueness of factorization:

Theorem 3. Let \mathbb{F} be a field. In $\mathbb{F}[x]$, if

$$f(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x) \cdots p_s(x) = q_1(x)q_2(x) \cdots q_t(x) \quad (1)$$

are two factorizations of the polynomial $f(x)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, then $s=t$ and there is a one to one correspondence between the factors $p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_s(x)$ and $q_1(x), q_2(x), \dots, q_t(x)$, where if $p_i(x)$ corresponds with $q_j(x)$, then p_i and q_j are associates.

Proof. Induction on s . For $s=1$, $f(x)=p_1(x)$ is irreducible. Thus $t=1$ and $p_1(x)=q_1(x)$. Suppose that ~~the statement holds~~ have proved the theorem for $s-1$. Now consider s . It follows from (1) that

$$p_1(x) \mid q_1(x)q_2(x) \cdots q_t(x).$$

Since $p_1(x)$ is irreducible, $p_1(x)$ must divide some $q_i(x)$. As $q_i(x)$ is irreducible, $p_1(x) = c_i q_i(x)$ for some nonzero constant $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$. Substituting this into (1) and by cancellation law, we get

◻

Without loss of generality, $p_1(x) \mid q_1(x)$. As $q_1(x)$ is irreducible, $p_1(x) = c_1 q_1(x)$ with $0 \neq c_1 \in \mathbb{F}$. Substituting this back into (1) and by Cancellation law, we get

$$c_1 p_2(x) \cdots p_s(x) = q_2(x) \cdots q_t(x) \quad (2)$$

Since the number of irreducible polynomials on the left-hand side of (2) is $s-1$, our inductive assumption applies and there is a one to one correspondence between the factors $c_1 p_2, p_3, \dots, p_s(x)$ and $q_2(x), \dots, q_t(x)$, and $s-1=t-1$. Thus $s=t$. This together with $p_1(x) = c_1 q_1(x)$ shows that the theorem is true for s .

By induction, the theorem is true. □.



Remark:

irreducible

of degree ≥ 1

(1) We can write the factorization of a polynomial $f(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ in exponential notation, as

$$f = p_1(x)^{e_1} p_2(x)^{e_2} \cdots p_s(x)^{e_s} \quad \text{and } e_1 + \cdots + e_s = \deg f \quad (2)$$

where $p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_s(x)$ are distinct irreducible polynomials. If any e_i is bigger than 1, we shall say that f has a multiple factor. For example, $f(x) = (x^2+2)^3(2x+1)$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ has a multiple factor, while $f(x) = (x^2+2)(2x+1)$ does not have any multiple factor.

(2) Since any polynomial is an associate of a unique monic polynomial, we can rewrite (2) as

$$f(x) = a q_1(x)^{e_1} q_2(x)^{e_2} \cdots q_s(x)^{e_s} \quad (\text{normalized factorization}) \quad (3)$$

where $q_1(x), \dots, q_s(x)$ are distinct monic irreducible polynomials, a is a nonzero element of \mathbb{F} (the leading coefficient of $f(x)$), and e_1, \dots, e_s are positive integers with $e_1 + \cdots + e_s = \deg f$. Such a factorization is called a normalized factorization of $f(x)$.

(3) If the factorization of f and g into products of irreducible polynomial are given in exponential notation, then it is easy to write down the greatest common divisor of f and g , and least common multiple of f and g .

Example: Find the greatest common divisor in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ of $f(x) = (x^2 - 3x - 4)^3(x - 3)^2$ and $g(x) = (x - 4)^3(x^2 - 3x - 4)^2$

Solution: $(x - 4)(x + 1)$ is the g. c. d. of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. □.



Here is the theorem on uniqueness of factorization:

Theorem 3. Let \mathbb{F} be a field. In $\mathbb{F}[x]$, if

$$f(x) = p_1(x)p_2(x)\cdots p_s(x) = q_1(x)q_2(x)\cdots q_t(x) \quad (1)$$

are two factorizations of the polynomial $f(x)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, then $s=t$ and there is a one-to-one correspondence between the factors $p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_s(x)$ and $q_1(x), q_2(x), \dots, q_t(x)$, where if $p_i(x)$ corresponds with $q_j(x)$, then p_i and q_j are associates.

Proof. Induction on s . For $s=1$, $f(x) = p_1(x)$ is irreducible. Thus $t=1$ and $p_1(x) = q_1(x)$. Suppose that ~~the statement holds~~ we have proved the theorem for $s-1$. Now consider s . It follows from (1) that

$$p_1(x) \mid q_1(x)q_2(x)\cdots q_t(x).$$

Since $p_1(x)$ is irreducible, $p_1(x)$ must divide some $q_i(x)$, ~~As $q_i(x)$ is irreducible,~~
 ~~$p_1(x) = c_i q_i(x)$ for some nonzero constant $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$. Substituting this into (1) and~~
~~by cancellation law, we get~~

□

Without loss of generality, $p_1(x) \mid q_1(x)$. As $q_1(x)$ is irreducible, $p_1(x) = c_1 q_1(x)$ with $0 \neq c_1 \in \mathbb{F}$. Substituting this back into (1) and by cancellation law, we get

$$c_1 p_2(x)\cdots p_s(x) = q_2(x)\cdots q_t(x) \quad (2)$$

Since the number of irreducible polynomials on the left-hand side of (2) is $s-1$, our inductive assumption applies and there is a one-to-one correspondence between the factors $c_1 p_2, p_3, \dots, p_s(x)$ and $q_2(x), \dots, q_{t-1}(x)$, and $s-1 = t-1$. Thus $s=t$. This together with $p_1(x) = c_1 q_1(x)$ shows that the theorem is true for s .

By induction, the theorem is true. □.



Remark

irreducible

of degree > 1

(1) We can write the factorization of a polynomial $f(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ in exponential notation, as

$$f = p_1(x)^{e_1} p_2(x)^{e_2} \cdots p_s(x)^{e_s} \quad \text{defn} \quad (2)$$

where $p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_s(x)$ are distinct irreducible polynomials. If any e_i is bigger than 1, we shall say that f has a multiple factor. For example, $f(x) = (x^2+2)^3(2x+1)$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ has a multiple factor, while $f(x) = (x^2+2)(2x+1)$ does not have any multiple factor.

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where $q_1(x), \dots, q_s(x)$ are distinct monic irreducible polynomials, a is a nonzero element of \mathbb{F} (the leading coefficient of $f(x)$), and e_1, \dots, e_s are positive integers. ~~$e_1 + \cdots + e_s = \deg f$~~ . Such a factorization is called a normalized factorization of $f(x)$.

(3) If the factorization of f and g into products of irreducible polynomials are given in exponential notation, then it is easy to write down the greatest common divisor of f and g , and least common multiple of f and g .

Example: Find the greatest common divisor in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ of $f(x) = (x^2 - 3x - 4)^3(x - 3)^2$ and $g(x) = (x - 4)^3(x^2 - 3x - 4)^2$

Solution: $(x - 4)(x + 1)$ is the g.c.d. of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$. □.



§6. Multiple factors

Def 1. An irreducible polynomial $p(x)$ is called a factor of a polynomial $f(x)$ of multiplicity k, if $p^k(x) | f(x)$, $p^{k+1}(x) \nmid f(x)$, where k is a positive integer. If $k=1$, we say $p(x)$ is a simple factor of $f(x)$; if $k>1$, we say $p(x)$ is a multiple factor of $f(x)$.

Remark 1. The multiplicity r of $p(x)$ as a factor of $f(x)$ is the largest positive integer k such that $p(x)^k$ divides $f(x)$. The multiplicity k is clearly less than or equal to the degree of $f(x)$.

Example. Write $f(x)$ as a standard/normalized factorization ~~as~~

$$f(x) = a^n p_1(x)^{r_1} p_2(x)^{r_2} \cdots p_s(x)^{r_s}.$$

When $r_i > 1$, then $p_i(x)$ is a multiple factor of multiplicity r_i .

The ~~higher~~ formal derivatives of a polynomial are useful in discussing multiple factors.

Def 2. The derivative of the polynomial

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

is the polynomial

$$f'(x) = n a_n x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1$$

We also use the notation $Df = f'$. We have the higher order formal derivatives

~~$Df(x) = f''(x)$~~ , $f^{(3)} = Df'(x) = D^2 f(x)$, and so on.

proposition 1. Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and let $c \in \mathbb{F}$. Then

$$(1) (cf(x))' = c f'(x), \quad (2) (f(x) + g(x))' = f'(x) + g'(x),$$

$$(3) (f(x)g(x))' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x), \quad (4) (f^m(x))' = m f^{m-1}(x) f'(x).$$

"product rule" "power rule"



Leave the proof of proposition as a homework.

Now we determine the polynomial whose derivative is the zero polynomial.

$$f(x) = a_m x^m + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$f'(x) = m a_m x^{m-1} + \dots + a_1$$

Hence $f'(x) = 0$ if and only if $n a_n = 0$ for $1 \leq n \leq m$, namely, $a_n = 0$, $1 \leq n \leq m$.

That is, $f'(x) = 0$ if and only if $f(x) = a_0$, i.e. $f(x)$ is a constant polynomial.

Fact: If $\deg f = n$, then $f^{(n)}(x) = n! a_n$ and $f^{(n+1)}(x) = 0$, and $\deg f' = n-1$.

Thm1. Let $p(x)$ be irreducible factor of the polynomial $f(x)$ of multiplicity k , with $k > 1$. Then $p(x)$ is a factor of $f'(x)$ of multiplicity $k-1$. In particular, if $k=1$, then $f'(x)$ is not divisible by $p(x)$.

Proof: By assumption, $f(x) = p^k(x)g(x)$, where $p(x) \nmid g(x)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= (p^k(x))'g(x) + p^k(x)g'(x) \\ &= k p^{k-1}(x)p'(x)g(x) + p^k(x)g'(x) \\ &= \cancel{p^{k-1}(x)} \left[\cancel{k p'(x)g(x)} + p(x)g'(x) \right] \end{aligned}$$

It suffices to show the polynomial in square brackets is not divisible by $p(x)$.

If $p(x)$ did divide this polynomial, then it would also divide $k p'(x)g(x)$, but this is impossible, since $g(x)$ is not divisible by $p(x)$, and $\deg(k p'(x)) < \deg(p(x))$. \square .

(Here insert the corollary 2)

Thm2. An irreducible polynomial $p(x)$ is a multiple factor of $f(x)$ if and only if $p(x)$ is a common factor of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$.

Proof: \Rightarrow Suppose $f(x) = p^k(x)h(x)$ with $k > 1$. Then using the product and power rules,

$$f'(x) = (p^k(x))'h(x) + p^k(x)h'(x)$$

$$= p^{k-1}(x) [k p'(x)g(x) + p(x)g'(x)]$$

So that if $k > 1$, then $p(x)$ is a common factor of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$.



Leave the proof of proposition as a homework.

P₁₉

Now we determine the polynomial whose derivative is the zero polynomial.

$$f(x) = a_m x^m + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$f'(x) = m a_m x^{m-1} + \dots + a_1$$

Hence $f'(x) = 0$ if and only if $n a_n = 0$ for $1 \leq n \leq m$, namely, $a_n = 0$, $1 \leq n \leq m$.

That is, $f'(x) = 0$ if and only if $f(x) = a_0$, i.e. $f(x)$ is a constant polynomial.

Fact: If $\deg f = n$, then $f^{(n)}(x) = n! a_n$ and $f^{(n+1)}(x) = 0$, and $\deg f' = n-1$.

Thm1. Let $p(x)$ be irreducible factor of the polynomial $f(x)$ of multiplicity k , with $k > 1$. Then $p(x)$ is a factor of $f'(x)$ of multiplicity $k-1$. In particular, if $k=1$, then $f'(x)$ is not divisible by $p(x)$.

Proof: By assumption, $f(x) = p^k(x)g(x)$, where $p(x) \nmid g(x)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= (p^k(x))'g(x) + p^k(x)g'(x) \\ &= k p^{k-1}(x) p'(x) g(x) + p^k(x) g'(x) \\ &= \cancel{p^{k-1}(x)} \left[\cancel{k p'(x) g(x)} + p(x) g'(x) \right] \end{aligned}$$

It suffices to show the polynomial in square brackets is not divisible by $p(x)$.

If $p(x)$ did divide this polynomial, then it would also divide $k p'(x) g(x)$, but this is impossible, since $g(x)$ is not divisible by $p(x)$, and $\deg(k p'(x)) < \deg(p(x))$. □.
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Thm2. An irreducible polynomial $p(x)$ is a multiple factor of $f(x)$ if and only if

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Proof: \Rightarrow Suppose $f(x) = p^k(x)h(x)$ with $k > 1$. Then using the product and power rules,

$$f'(x) = (p^k(x))'h(x) + p^k(x)h'(x)$$

$$= p^{k-1}(x) [k p'(x) g(x) + p(x) g'(x)]$$

so that if $k > 1$, then $p(x)$ is a common factor of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$.



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\Leftarrow Suppose $p(x)$ is an irreducible common factor of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$. Then P_{20}

$f(x) = p(x)h(x)$ for some polynomial $h(x)$. So by the product rule,

$$f'(x) = p'(x)h(x) + p(x)h'(x).$$

Since $p(x) | f'(x)$, $p(x)$ must divide $p'(x)h(x)$. Since $p(x)$ is irreducible, $p(x)$ must divide $p'(x)$ or $h(x)$. If $p(x) | p'(x)$, then $p(x) = 0$ $p(x) + p'(x)$ gives that $p'(x) = 0$, Thus $p(x)$ is a constant. This is impossible since $p(x)$ is irreducible. Hence $p(x) | h(x)$. Then $h(x) = p(x)g(x)$ for some $g(x)$ and so

$$f(x) = p^2(x)g(x),$$

and $p(x)$ is a multiple factor of $f(x)$, proving the theorem. □.

Corollary 1. $f(x)$ has no multiple factors if and only if $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$ are relatively prime.

The following is a direct corollary of Theorem 1.

Corollary 2. Let $p(x)$ be a multiple irreducible factor of $f(x)$ of multiplicity k ($k \geq 1$).

Then $p(x)$ is a factor of $f(x)$, $f'(x)$, ..., $f^{(k-1)}(x)$, but $p(x)$ is not a factor of $f^{(k)}(x)$.

Proof: Induction k . By the proof of Theorem 1, the corollary holds for $k=1$. Suppose that the corollary is true for k and suppose that $p(x)$ is a multiple irreducible factor of $f(x)$ of multiplicity $k+1$. By Theorem 1, $p(x)$ is a multiple factor of $f'(x)$ of multiplicity k . By the inductive assumption, $p(x)$ is a factor of $f'(x)$, $f''(x)$, ..., $f^{(k)}(x)$, but not a factor of $(f')^{(k)}(x) = f^{(k+1)}(x)$. Hence, $p(x)$ is a factor of $f(x)$, $f'(x)$, ..., $f^{(k)}(x)$, but not a factor of $f^{(k+1)}(x)$. □



Example: Let $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 8x - 12$ be in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Then $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2x - 8$. Doing Euclidean algorithm on f and f' gives

$$f(x) = \left(\frac{1}{3}x + \frac{1}{9}\right)f'(x) + \left(-\frac{50}{9}x - \frac{100}{9}\right).$$

Then dividing $f'(x)$ by $\cancel{x+2} \cancel{-50} \cancel{-100} / \cancel{9}$, we get

$$f'(x) = (x+2)(3x-4).$$

So $x+2$ is the greatest common divisor of f and f' . Hence $x+2$ is a multiple factor of $f(x)$. If we divide $f(x)$ by $(x+2)^2$, we obtain

$$f(x) = (x+2)^2(x-3).$$

Hence we factor $f(x)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials.

Remark: Consider the normalized factorization of $f(x)$:

$$f(x) = a p_1(x)^{r_1} p_2(x)^{r_2} \cdots p_s(x)^{r_s}$$

where $p_1(x), p_2(x), \dots, p_s(x)$ are distinct irreducible factors of $f(x)$. Then for each i ,

the highest power of $p_i(x)$ that divides $f'(x)$ is $\frac{r_{i+1}}{p_i(x)}$, and so the greatest common divisor of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$ is

$$(f(x), f'(x)) = p_1(x)^{\frac{r_1+1}{2}} p_2(x)^{\frac{r_2+1}{2}} \cdots p_s(x)^{\frac{r_s+1}{2}}.$$

Hence,

$$\frac{f(x)}{(f(x), f'(x))} = a p_1(x) p_2(x) \cdots p_s(x)$$

which is called the square free part of $f(x)$. It is obvious that $f(x)$ and $\frac{f(x)}{(f(x), f'(x))}$ have the same irreducible factors in $\mathbb{F}[x]$, except that $\frac{(f(x), f'(x))}{(f(x), f'(x))}$ all the irreducible factors have multiplicity 1.



§7. polynomial function

P₂₂

A field E that contains \mathbb{F} as a subfield is called an extension field of \mathbb{F} . Clearly, a polynomial $f(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ can be also regarded as a polynomial in $E[x]$.

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \in \mathbb{F}[x]$, and $\alpha \in E$. By substituting α for x , we obtain

$$f(\alpha) = a_n \alpha^n + a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \alpha + a_0 \in E,$$

which is called the value of $f(x)$ at $x=\alpha$. Hence, we may define a polynomial function $\hat{f}: E \rightarrow E$ by letting for every $\alpha \in E$,

$$\hat{f}(\alpha) = f(\alpha) = a_n \alpha^n + a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 \alpha + a_0.$$

Therefore, \hat{f} is determined by the polynomial $f(x)$. By abuse of notation, we also denote \hat{f} by f sometime.

Facts. Let $f(x), g(x)$ be in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. If $f(x) + g(x) = h(x)$ and $f(x)g(x) = k(x)$, then

$$f(\alpha) + g(\alpha) = h(\alpha), \quad f(\alpha)g(\alpha) = k(\alpha), \quad \forall \alpha \in E.$$

Definition 1. We shall say a number α is a root of $f(x)$, if $f(\alpha) = 0$.

Theorem 1. (Remainder Theorem) When dividing $f(x)$ by $x-\alpha$, then the remainder is equal to $f(\alpha)$.

proof: By Euclidean algorithm, there exist $q(x)$ and a number r such that

$$f(x) = q(x)(x-\alpha) + r$$

It follows that $f(\alpha) = q(\alpha)(\alpha-\alpha) + r = r$.

Corollary 1. α is a root of $f(x)$ if and only if $x-\alpha$ divides $f(x)$.



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Hence if α is a root of $f(x)$, then there exists $f_1(x) \in F[x]$ such that

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha) f_1(x).$$

If the factor $f_1(x)$ in $f(x) = (x - \alpha) f_1(x)$ has again the root α , then we obtain

$$f_1(x) = (x - \alpha) f_2(x), \text{ for some } f_2(x) \in F[x],$$

and thus $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^2 f_2(x)$. In case $f_2(\alpha) = 0$ we obtain a third factor $x - \alpha$.

Continuing in this way we finally arrive at a factorization

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha)^k f_k(x), \quad f_k(\alpha) \neq 0.$$

We say that α is a root of multiplicity k. A root of multiplicity 1 is also called a simple root. By a multiple root we mean a root whose multiplicity is greater than 1.

Let us assume that $\beta \in F$ is another root of $f(x)$ and let l denote the multiplicity of β . Then $f(\beta) = (\beta - \alpha)^k f_k(\beta) = 0$. Thus $f_k(\beta) = 0$ since $(\beta - \alpha)^k \neq 0$. Therefore $(x - \beta)^l$ divides $f_k(x)$, i.e., $f_k(x) = (x - \beta)^l f_l(x)$ for some $f_l(x) \in F[x]$, and

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha)^k (x - \beta)^l f_l(x)$$

If $f(x)$ has roots other than α and β , then we obtain more powers of linear factors that divides $f(x)$. Since $f(x)$ has finite degree, say n , the number of linear factors, each counted according to its multiplicity, cannot exceed n . This gives

Thm 5 (D'Alembert's Theorem) Let F be a field and let f be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ over F . Then f has at most n roots in F .

Example 1. Let $f(x) = -x^4 + 3x^2 - 4x - 5$. Use the remainder theorem to find $f(-3)$.

Solution: $f(x) = (x+3)(-x^3 + 3x^2 - 6x + 14) + 37$. Hence, $f(-3) = 37$.

