

Polynomials

Objectives of the course

- ▶ Introduction
- ▶ Definition
- ▶ Operations
- ▶ The indeterminate X
- ▶ Writing of a polynomial
- ▶ Constant polynomial, monomial
- ▶ Degree of a polynomial
- ▶ Rules of computation

Objectives of the course

- ▶ Leading coefficient, monic polynomial
- ▶ The ring structure
- ▶ Euclidean algorithm
- ▶ Division (ascending,,,))
- ▶ Evaluation and roots
- ▶ Derivative of a polynomial, Properties
- ▶ Taylor expansions
- ▶ Irreducible polynomials

Introduction

This course is devoted to polynomials with coefficients in a field K . In practice, it will be \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , sometimes \mathbb{Q} or a finite field.

Most of you knows polynomials as « expression of the form » :

$$a_n X^n + a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 X + a_0,$$

But what is X ? And what is the multiplication $a_i X^i$?

Introduction

This presentation makes sense when the a_i are real numbers and X is a real variable. However, in the general case, when X is an *indeterminate*, we need to be more precise. We will give below a rigorous definition of this mathematical object, and we will then study its properties.

Definition of a polynomial

Definition

Let K be a field. A polynomial with one indeterminate and coefficients in K is a sequence $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_p, \dots)$ of elements of K such that $a_p = 0$ for almost all p .

The term « $a_p = 0$ for almost all p » means that :

$$\exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } a_i = 0, \forall i > n.$$

Operations on polynomials

Let

$$P = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_p, \dots)$$

and

$$Q = (b_0, b_1, \dots, b_p, \dots)$$

be two polynomials with one indeterminate and coefficients in K ,

and let $\alpha \in K$. We define the following operations :

Sum of polynomials

Sum

$$P + Q =$$

$$(a_0 + b_0, a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_p + b_p, \dots)$$

Product of polynomials

Product

$$PQ = (c_0, c_1, \dots, c_p, \dots),$$

where

$$c_k = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}, k \geq 0.$$

Multiplication by a scalar

Multiplication by a scalar

$$\alpha P = (\alpha a_0, \alpha a_1, \dots, \alpha a_p, \dots).$$

The indeterminate X

The indeterminate X is none other than the sequence given by $(0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots)$.

With the product defined previously, we obtain

$$X^2 = (0, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots),$$

$$X^3 = (0, 0, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots), \text{ etc.}$$

We set by convention

$$X^0 = (1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots).$$

The product of a scalar $a \in K$ by X^i is given by

$$aX^i = (0, \dots, 0, a, 0, \dots, 0, \dots),$$

where a is at the $(i + 1)$ th position.

Writing a polynomial

With the definition of the indeterminate X and the operations given previously, a polynomial can be written *in ascending powers of X*

$$a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + a_nX^n,$$

or *in descending powers of X*

$$a_nX^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1X + a_0,$$

the a_i being zero for all $i > n$.

Set of polynomials

Notation

The set of polynomials with coefficients in K and indeterminate X is denoted by $K[X]$.

An element of $K[X]$ will be denoted by $P(X)$, or simply P .

Constant polynomial, zero polynomial, monomial

Definition

The polynomial

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$$

So that $a_i = 0$ for all $i \geq 1$ is called constant polynomial.

If $a_i = 0$ for all i , P is the zero polynomial, denoted by 0.

A monomial is a polynomial of the form

$$P = a_iX^i.$$

The sum

Definition

Let

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$$

and

$$Q = b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_mX^m$$

Two polynomials in $K[X]$. Set $r = \max(m, n)$.

Then the sum of P and Q is given by

$$P + Q = \sum_{i=0}^r (a_i + b_i)X^i.$$

The product

Definition

Let

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$$

and

$$Q = b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_mX^m$$

two polynomials in $K[X]$.

Then the product of P by Q is given by

$$PQ = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} c_k X^k,$$

where

$$\sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}, k \geq 0.$$

The product by a scalar

Definition

Let

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$$

a polynomial in $K[X]$ and let $\alpha \in K$. Then the product of α by P is given by

$$\alpha \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i = \sum_{i=0}^n \alpha a_i X^i .$$

Rules of computation

If P, Q and R are polynomials in $K[X]$, then

- ▶ $P + Q = Q + P,$
- ▶ $(P + Q) + R = P + (Q + R),$
- ▶ $PQ = QP,$
- ▶ $(PQ)R = P(QR),$
- ▶ $(P + Q)R = PR + QR,$
- ▶ $PQ = 0 \Rightarrow P = 0 \text{ ou } Q = 0.$

Leading coefficient, monic polynomial

Definition

If $P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$ is of degree n , a_n is called the leading coefficient of P . If, moreover, $a_n=1$, we say that P is a monic polynomial.

Example

The polynomial $3 + 4X - X^2 - 2X^3$ is of degree 3, it has -2 as leading coefficient, so it is not monic.

The polynomial $X^4 - 2X + 3$ is a monic polynomial of degree 4.

Degree of a polynomial

Definition

The degree of the polynomial

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$$

is the greatest integer h such that $a_h \neq 0$.

We denote it by $\deg P$.

By convention, we set $\deg(0) = -\infty$.

Properties of the degree

The degree verify the properties given in the next proposition.

Proposition

Let P and Q two polynomials in $K[X]$. Then we have

- 1) $\deg(P + Q) \leq \max(\deg P, \deg Q),$
- 2) $\deg(PQ) = \deg P + \deg Q.$

Ring structure

Proposition

Endowed with the sum and the product defined previously, $K[X]$ is an integral domain.

The invertible elements of this ring are the nonzero constant polynomials.

Euclidean division

Theorem

Let A and B two polynomials in $K[X]$ with $B \neq 0$. Then there exists a unique ordered pair $(Q, R) \in K[X]^2$ such that

$$A = BQ + R \text{ and } \deg R < \deg B.$$

Definition

The polynomials Q and R are called respectively quotient and remainder of the Euclidean division of A by B .

Proof of the theorem

Existence

If $\deg A < \deg B$, it suffices to take $Q = 0$ and $R = A$.

If $\deg A \geq \deg B$, we proceed as follows. Let

$$A = a_m X^m + \cdots + a_1 X + a_0$$

and

$$B = b_n X^n + \cdots + b_1 X + b_0,$$

with $a_m \neq 0$ and $b_n \neq 0$, and set $D_0 = a_m/b_n X^{m-n}$. We have then

$$\deg(A - D_0 B) \leq m - 1 < \deg A.$$

Proof of the theorem

If $\deg(A - D_0B) < \deg B$, we take $Q = D_0$ and $R = A - D_0B$.

Otherwise, we choose D_1 as previously so that

$$\deg(A - D_0B - D_1B) < \deg(A - D_0B).$$

After a finite number of iterations, we obtain

$$\deg(A - D_0B - \cdots - D_k B) < \deg B.$$

We take then

$$Q = D_0 + \cdots + D_k$$

and

$$R = A - D_0B - \cdots - D_k B.$$

Proof of the theorem

Unicity

Suppose that there exist two ordered pairs (Q_1, R_1) and (Q_2, R_2) in $K[X]^2$ so that $A = BQ_1 + R_1 = BQ_2 + R_2$ with $\deg R_i < \deg B$ for $1 \leq i \leq 2$. We have then

$$R_2 - R_1 = B(Q_1 - Q_2), \text{ and so} \\ \deg(R_2 - R_1) = \deg B + \deg(Q_1 - Q_2).$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\deg(R_2 - R_1) \leq \max(\deg R_1, \deg R_2) < \deg B, \\ \text{which gives } \deg B + \deg(Q_1 - Q_2) < \deg B.$$

It follows that $\deg(Q_1 - Q_2) = -\infty$, which means that $Q_1 = Q_2$ and, therefore, $R_1 = R_2$.

Example

Take $K = \mathbb{R}$, $A = X^3 + 2X^2 - X + 1$ and $B = X^2 + X + 1$.

$$\begin{array}{r} X^3 \quad + \quad 2X^2 \quad -X \quad +3 \\ \hline X^2 + X + 1 \\ \hline X \end{array}$$

Example

X^3	+	X^2	$-X$	$+3$	$X^2 + X + 1$
X^3	$+X^2$	$+X$			X

Example

X^3	$+2X^2$	$-X$	$+3$	$X^2 + X + 1$
$-(X^3$	$+X^2$	$+X)$		X
	$+X^2$	$-2X$	$+3$	

Example

X^3	$+2X^2$	$-X$	$+3$	$X^2 + X + 1$
$-(X^3$	$+X^2$	$+X)$		$X + 1$
	$+X^2$	$-2X$	$+3$	
	$+X^2$	$+X$	$+1$	

Example

$$\begin{array}{rrrr|l}
 X^3 & +2X^2 & -X & +3 & X^2 + X + 1 \\
 -(X^3 & +X^2 & +X) & & X + 1 \\
 & +X^2 & -2X & +3 & \\
 - & (+X^2 & +X & +1) & \\
 & -3X & +2 & &
 \end{array}$$

Example

Since the degree of $-3X + 2$ is less than the degree of $X^2 + X + 1$, then we have

$$Q = X + 1$$

and

$$R = -3X + 1.$$

Division in ascending powers

Theorem

Let A and B two polynomials in $K[X]$,

with $B(0) \neq 0$. Then, for any non negative integer k ,

there exists a unique ordered pair $(Q, R) \in K[X]^2$
such that

$$A = BQ + X^{k+1}R \text{ and } \deg Q \leq k.$$

Remark

k is called the order of the division.

Example

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} -X \\ +2X \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} +X^2 \\ -2X^2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} +X^3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1+X-X^2 \\ 2 \end{array}$$

Example

$$2 \quad -X \quad +X^2 \quad +X^3$$

$$2 \quad +2X \quad -2X^2$$

$$-3X \quad +3X^2 \quad +X^3$$

$$1+X-X^2$$

$$2$$

Example

$$2 \quad -X \quad +X^2 \quad +X^3$$

$$2 \quad +2X \quad -2X^2$$

$$-3X \quad +3X^2 \quad +X^3$$

$$-3X \quad -3X^2 \quad +3X^3$$

$$1+X-X^2$$

$$2-3X$$

Example

2	$-X$	$+X^2$	$+X^3$	$1+X-X^2$
2	$+2X$	$-2X^2$		$2-3X+6X^2$
	$-3X$	$+3X^2$	$+X^3$	
	$-3X$	$-3X^2$	$3X^3$	
		$6X^2$	$-2X^3$	
		$6X^2$	$+6X^3-6X^4$	
			$-8X^3+6X^4$	

Derivative of a polynomial

Definition

The derivative of the polynomial

$$P = a_n X^n + \cdots + a_1 X + a_0 \in K[X],$$

is the polynomial $P' \in K[X]$ given by

$$P' = na_n X^{n-1} + \cdots + 2a_2 X + a_1.$$

The derivative of order k of the polynomial P , denoted by $P^{(k)}$, where k is a nonnegative integer, is given by the recurrence relation

$$P^{(0)} = P \text{ et } P^{(k+1)} = (P^{(k)})' \text{ pour } k \geq 0.$$

Remark

This definition of the derivative is *formal*, ie, we do not use any notion of limit.

Properties of the derivatives

The rules of derivation are given by the next theorem.

Theorem

Let P and Q be two polynomials in $K[X]$ and let $\alpha \in K$. Then we have

$$1) (P + Q)' = P' + Q',$$

$$2) (\alpha P)' = \alpha P',$$

$$3) (PQ)' = P'Q + PQ',$$

$$4) (P^n)' = nP'P^{n-1}, \text{ where } n \text{ is a positive integer,}$$

$$5) (PQ)^{(k)} = \sum_{i=0}^k C_k^i P^{(i)} Q^{(k-i)}.$$

Remark

The formula given in 5) is known as Leibniz formula.

Evaluation, root of a polynomial

Definition

Let

$$P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X].$$

If we replace the indeterminate X by $\alpha \in K$, we get an element of K denoted by

$$P(\alpha) = a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_n\alpha^n,$$

called evaluation of P at α .

If $P(\alpha) = 0$, we say that α is a root of P .

Remark

Some authors use the term « zéro of P » instead of « root of P ».

Example

Example

The polynomial

$$P = X^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{R}[X] \subset \mathbb{C}[X]$$

has i et $-i$ as roots in \mathbb{C} , but it has no root in \mathbb{R} .

Taylor expansion

The following formula allows to develop any polynomial in $K[X]$ in ascending powers of $X - \alpha$, where α is an arbitrary element of K .

Theorem (Taylor expansion)

Let $P \in K[X]$ a polynomial of degree n and let $\alpha \in K$.
Then we have

$$P(X) = P(\alpha) + \frac{P'(\alpha)}{1!} (X - \alpha) + \cdots + \frac{P^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (X - \alpha)^n.$$

Example

Example

Consider in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ the polynomial

$$P = 2X^3 + 2X - 3$$

and let $\alpha = 1$.

We have

$$P' = 6X^2 + 2, P'' = 12X, \text{ and } P^{(3)} = 12,$$

which gives

$$\begin{aligned} P(X) &= 1 + \frac{8}{1!}(X - 1) + \frac{12}{2!}(X - 1)^2 + \frac{12}{3!}(X - 1)^3 \\ &= 1 + 8(X - 1) + 6(X - 1)^2 + 2(X - 1)^3. \end{aligned}$$

Multiple roots

Definition

Let $P \in K[X]$ and let α be a root of P . The multiplicity of the root α is the integer $k \geq 1$ verifying

$$P(X) = (X - \alpha)^k Q(X), Q \in K[X] \text{ and } Q(\alpha) \neq 0.$$

When $k = 1$ (resp. $k = 2, k = 3$), we say that α is a simple (resp. double, triple) root.

Example

Let $P(X) = X^3 - 3X - 2 \in \mathbb{R}[X]$. We have

$$P(X) = (X + 1)^2(X - 2),$$

Then -1 is a double root and 2 is a simple root.

Multiple roots and derivatives

In the next proposition and the following theorem, we assume that the field K contains the field of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} .

Proposition

If α is a root of $P \in K[X]$ of multiplicity $k > 1$, then α is a root of P' of multiplicity $k - 1$.

Preuve

As α is a root of P of order k , then we can write

$$P(X) = (X - \alpha)^k Q(X), Q \in K[X] \text{ with } Q(\alpha) \neq 0.$$

Multiple roots and derivatives

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} P'(X) &= k(X - \alpha)^{k-1} Q(X) + (X - \alpha)^k Q'(X) \\ &= (X - \alpha)^{k-1} (kQ(X) - (X - \alpha)Q'(X)). \end{aligned}$$

Setting $Q_1(X) = kQ(X) - (X - \alpha)^k Q'(X)$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} P'(X) &= (X - \alpha)^{k-1} Q_1(X), \quad Q_1 \in K[X] \text{ and} \\ Q_1(\alpha) &= kQ(\alpha) \neq 0, \end{aligned}$$

which means that α is a root of P' of multiplicity $k - 1$.

Multiplicity of a root

Theorem

Let $P \in K[X]$ a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ and let k be an integer such that $1 \leq k \leq n$. Then a root α of P has multiplicity k if and only if

$$P^{(i)}(\alpha) = 0 \text{ for } 0 \leq i \leq k - 1 \text{ and } P^{(k)}(\alpha) \neq 0.$$

Example

Let $P(X) = X^3 - 3X - 2 \in \mathbb{R}[X]$. We have $P' = 3X^2 - 3$ and $P'' = 6X$, then $P(-1) = P'(-1) = 0$ and $P''(-1) \neq 0$.

Therefore, -1 is a double root of P .

Proof of the theorem

Proof

If α is a root of P of multiplicity k , then, by the previous proposition, α is a root of P' of multiplicity $k - 1$. By iteration, we obtain $P^{(i)}(\alpha) = 0$ for $0 \leq i \leq k - 1$ and $P^{(k)}(\alpha) \neq 0$, since α is a simple root of $P^{(k-1)}$.

Conversely, if $P^{(i)}(\alpha) = 0$ for $0 \leq i \leq k - 1$ and $P^{(k)}(\alpha) \neq 0$, the Taylor expansion gives

$$\begin{aligned} P(X) &= \frac{P^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} (X - \alpha)^k + \dots + \frac{P^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (X - \alpha)^n \\ &= (X - \alpha)^k \left(\frac{P^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} + \dots + \frac{P^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (X - \alpha)^{n-k} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Then $P(X) = (X - \alpha)^k Q(X)$, with $Q(\alpha) = \frac{P^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} \neq 0$. This proves that α is a root of P of multiplicity k .

Roots and divisibility in $K[X]$

Definition

Let $A, B \in K[X]$.

We say that B divides A in $K[X]$ if there exists Q in $K[X]$ such that $A = BQ$. We will say That A is a multiple of B in $K[X]$.

Theorem (D'Alembert-Gauss)

Any polynomial $P \in \mathbb{C}[X]$ has a root in \mathbb{C} .

Roots and divisibility in $K[X]$

Theorem

Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be n distinct elements of K and $P \in K[X]$.

Then P is divisible by $(X - a_1)(X - a_2) \cdots (X - a_n)$ if, and only if, $P(a_1) = P(a_2) = \cdots = P(a_n) = 0$.

Theorem

Let $P = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. Let $\frac{p}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$ with

$\gcd(p, q) = 1$, such that $P\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 0$. Then p divides a_0 and q divides a_n .

Irreducible polynomial

Definition

Two polynomials $A, B \in K[X]$ are called associated if $A = \lambda B$, $\lambda \in K^*$.

Definition

A polynomial $P \in K[X]$ is called irreducible in $K[X]$ if $\deg P \geq 1$ and if the only divisors of P are the polynomials associated to 1 or to P .

Irreducible polynomial

Theorem

- The irreducible polynomials of $\mathbb{C}[X]$ are The polynomials of degree 1.
- The irreducible polynomials of $\mathbb{R}[X]$ are the polynomials of degree 1 and the polynomials of degree 2 with discriminant $\Delta < 0$.