

§ Polynomials (chapter 4)

We will take a brief break from the linear algebra and discuss polynomials.

Let us first recall a few basic notions for complex numbers:

Def. For a complex number  $z = a + bi$

- the real part of  $z$  is  $\operatorname{Re}(z) := a$

- the imaginary part of  $z$  is  $\operatorname{Im}(z) := b$ .

- The complex conjugate is  $\bar{z} := a - bi$

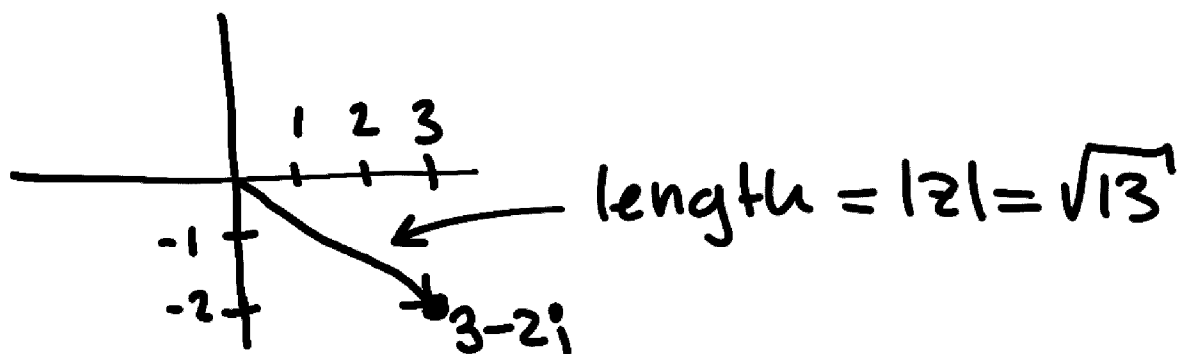
- The absolute value (or modulus) is  $|z| = \sqrt{\operatorname{Re}(z)^2 + \operatorname{Im}(z)^2}$

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Ex:  $z = 3 - 2i$ , then

$$\operatorname{Re}(z) = 3, \operatorname{Im}(z) = -2$$

$$\bar{z} = 3 + 2i, |z| = \sqrt{3^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{13}$$



$|z|$  = length of  $z$  viewed as a vector  
= distance from  $(3, -2)$  to the  
origin in the plane

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Prop: For any  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$

$$(1) |z|^2 = z \cdot \bar{z}$$

$$(2) \overline{z+w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}, \quad \overline{zw} = \bar{z} \cdot \bar{w}$$

$$(3) \bar{\bar{z}} = z$$

$$(4) z + \bar{z} = 2\operatorname{Re}(z)$$

$$(5) |\operatorname{Re}(z)| \leq |z|, |\operatorname{Im}(z)| \leq |z|$$

$$(6) |zw| = |z| \cdot |w|, \quad |\bar{z}| = |z|$$

$$(7) |z+w| \leq |z| + |w| \quad (\text{triangle inequality})$$

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Proof: (1)-(6): Exercise

$$\begin{aligned}(7) \quad |z+w|^2 &= (z+w)(\overline{z+w}) \stackrel{(2)}{=} (z+w)(\bar{z}+\bar{w}) \\&= z\bar{z} + z\bar{w} + \bar{z}w + w\bar{w} \\&= |z|^2 + |w|^2 + z\bar{w} + \overline{z\bar{w}} = |z|^2 + |w|^2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(z\bar{w}) \\&\stackrel{(5)}{\leq} |z|^2 + |w|^2 + 2|z\bar{w}| = |z|^2 + |w|^2 + 2|z|\cdot|w| \\&= (|z|+|w|)^2\end{aligned}$$

Taking square roots gives the result.  $\square$

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Def: A scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  is a zero  
(or root) of  $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F})$  if  $p(\lambda) = 0$ .

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Prop: Let  $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F})$  be a polynomial of degree  $m \geq 1$ , and let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ .

Then  $p(\lambda) = 0 \Leftrightarrow$  there's a degree  $m-1$  polynomial  $q \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{F})$  such that  
 $p(x) = (x-\lambda)q(x)$ .

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Proof:  $\implies$ : Assume  $p(\lambda) = 0$ .

Then let  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_mx^m$ . Then

$$p(x) = p(x) - p(\lambda)$$

$$= (a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_mx^m) - (a_0 + a_1\lambda + \dots + a_m\lambda^m)$$

$$= a_1(x - \lambda) + a_2(x^2 - \lambda^2) + \dots + a_m(x^m - \lambda^m).$$

Now, for any  $k$  we have

$$x^k - \lambda^k = (x - \lambda) \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda^{j-1} x^{k-j}, \text{ so}$$

every term in the above polynomial contains a factor of  $(x - \lambda)$ , so we can factor it out & get

$$p(x) = (x - \lambda)q(x).$$

$\Leftarrow$ : If  $p(x) = (x - \lambda)q(x)$  then

$$\text{obviously } p(\lambda) = \underbrace{(\lambda - \lambda)}_{=0} q(\lambda) = 0. \quad \square$$

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Prop:  $p \in P(F)$  of degree  $n$  has at most  $n$  zeros.

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Proof: We prove it by induction on the degree  $m$ , with base case  $m=0$ .

If  $m=0$ ,  $p$  is a non-zero constant. So it has no zeros, which shows that the prop is true in this case.

Assume the prop is true for all  $m \leq r$  for some  $r$ . Then we need to prove it's true for  $r+1$ .

Consider  $p$  of degree  $r+1$ . If it has no zeros we are done. Else if there's a zero  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  we write

$$P(x) = (x - \lambda)q(x)$$

where  $\deg q = r$ . By the induction hypothesis  $q$  has at most  $r$  roots, so  $p(x)$  has at most  $r+1$  roots.  $\square$

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Polynomials can be divided.

Prop: Let  $p, s \in P(F)$  with  $s \neq 0$ .  
Then there are unique polynomials  
 $q, r \in P(F)$  such that  
 $p = qs + r$  and  $\deg r < \deg s$ .

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↑ "quotient"  
↑ "remainder"

Let us now discuss differences  
between real and complex polynomials.

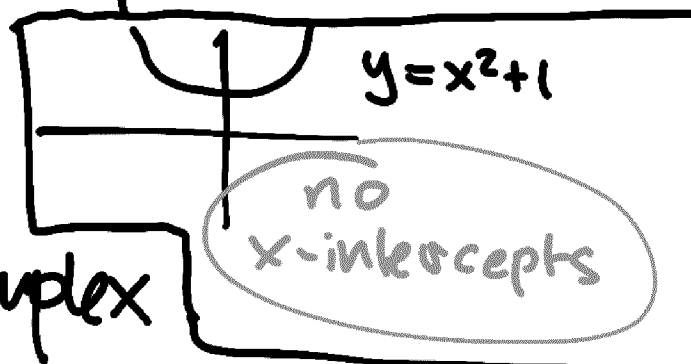
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Theorem (Fundamental theorem of algebra)  
Every non-constant polynomial in  $P(\mathbb{C})$   
has a zero in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

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Remark: This is of course not true  
for real polynomials.  $p(x) = x^2 + 1$  has  
no real solution.

This difference  
between real & complex



Polynomials is what is responsible for the difference between real & complex vector spaces, as we will see later.

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Prop: If  $p \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{C})$  is non-constant, then  $p$  has a unique factorization

$$p(x) = c(x - \lambda_1) \cdots (x - \lambda_m)$$

Where  $c, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in \mathbb{C}$ .

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Proof: If  $p$  is non-constant, it has a zero by the fundamental thm of algebra, so we write

$p(x) = (x - \lambda_1)q(x)$  where  $\lambda_1 \in \mathbb{C}$  is the zero.

Now if  $q(x)$  is constant we're done, else we iterate this:

$q(x)$  non-const mean it has a

zero  $\lambda_2$  so  $p(x) = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)r(x)$

etc, until we reach

$$p(x) = (x - \lambda_1) \cdots (x - \lambda_m) c$$

Constant  
Polynomial

□

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Prop: If  $p$  is a polynomial with real coefficients &  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is a zero for  $p$ , then so is  $\bar{\lambda}$ .

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Proof:  $\lambda$  is a zero:

$$p(\lambda) = a_0 + a_1 \lambda + \cdots + a_m \lambda^m = 0.$$

Take complex conjugates to get

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \overline{a_0 + a_1 \lambda + \cdots + a_m \lambda^m} = \bar{a}_0 + \bar{a}_1 \bar{\lambda} + \cdots + \bar{a}_m \bar{\lambda}^m \\ &= a_0 + a_1 \bar{\lambda} + \cdots + a_m \bar{\lambda}^m \end{aligned}$$

□

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Prop: Let  $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ . We have

$$x^2 + bx + c = (x - \lambda_1)(x - \lambda_2)$$

for  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  iff  $b^2 \geq 4c$ .

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Proof: The abc-formula gives that the zeros of  $x^2+bx+c$  are  $x = -\frac{b}{2} \pm \sqrt{(\frac{b}{2})^2 - c}$  which are real iff  $(\frac{b}{2})^2 - c \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow b^2 - 4c \geq 0$

This gives two real zeros  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  & hence we may factor  $x^2+bx+c$  as described earlier.  $\square$

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Even though not every real polynomial has a zero, we can still break real polynomials into reasonably small pieces.

Prop: Let  $p \in P(\mathbb{R})$  be non-constant. Then  $p$  has a unique factorization

$$P(x) = C(x-\lambda_1)\cdots(x-\lambda_m) \cdot (x^2+b_1x+c_1)\cdots(x^2+b_mx+c_m)$$

Where  $C, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, b_1, c_1, \dots, b_m, c_m \in \mathbb{R}$

and  $b_k^2 < 4c_k \forall k.$

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