

Polynomials and rational fractions

.1 Generalities about polynomials

1.1 Definition of a polynomial with real coefficients

Definition IV.1.1 We will call polynomial with real coefficients any function $P: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ of the form:

$$x \longrightarrow P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$

where n is a natural number, and $a_n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0$ are given real numbers called coefficients of the polynomial. The number a_0 is called the constant term.

The set of polynomials with real coefficients is denoted $\mathbb{R}[X]$.

Exemples :

1. The coefficients of the polynomial $P(x) = x^4 + x$ sont 1, 0, 0, 1, 0 ;
2. those of the polynomial $P(x) = 5x$ are 5, 0;
3. and those of the polynomial $P(x) = 2(3x + 1)(x^2 - 4) = 6x^3 + 2x^2 - 24x - 8$ are 6, 2, -24, -8.

Theorem IV.1.2 $P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ is zero if and only if all its coefficients are zero.

1.2 Degree of a polynomial

Definition IV.1.3 We call the degree of a non-zero polynomial P , denoted $\deg(P)$, the highest power of the variable x actually present in the polynomial.

In other words, let $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$, if $a_n \neq 0$ so $\deg(P) = n$.
Si a_n

- If $a_n = 1$, we say that the polynomial is unitary.
- If $P(x) = a_n x^n$, we say that $P(x)$ is a monome of degree n .
- The set of polynomials whose degree is equal to 0 is made up of constant polynomials.

Note : The zero polynomial $P(x) = 0$ has no degree..

Exemples :

1. Let the polynomial $P(x) = x^4 + x$, then $\deg(P) = 4$;
2. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 5x$, then $\deg(P) = 1$;
3. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 2x^2 + 6x^3 - 24x - 8$, then $\deg(P) = 3$;
4. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 3$, then $\deg(P) = 0$.

1.3 Valuation of a polynomial

Definition IV.1.4 We call the valuation of a polynomial P , denoted $val(P)$, the smallest power of the variable x actually present in the polynomial.

In other words, let $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n_0+1} x^{n_0+1} + a_{n_0} x^{n_0}$, if $a_{n_0} \neq 0$ then $val(P) = n_0$.

Examples :

1. Let the polynomial $P(x) = x^4 + x^2$, then $val(P) = 2$;
2. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 9x^6$, then $val(P) = deg(P) = 6$;
3. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 6x^3 + 2x^2 - 24x - 8$, then $val(P) = 0$;
4. Let the polynomial $P(x) = 3$, then $val(P) = deg(P) = 0$.

1.4 Eperation on polynomials

Two non-zero polynomials are equal if and only if they have the same degree and if the coefficients of their terms of the same power are equal.

1.5 Operation on polynomials

a/ Sum of polynomials

Definition IV.1.5 let $P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ and $Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$ two polynomials with real coefficients.

The sum $P + Q$ is a polynomial defined by:

$$P(x) + Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^s (a_i + b_i) x^i \quad \text{and } s \leq \max\{n, m\}.$$

In general, $deg(P + Q) \leq \max\{deg(P), deg(Q)\}$ and we have equality if the terms of higher degree do not eliminate each other..

Examples :

1. Let $P(x) = 4x^3 + 3x^2 + 4$ et $Q(x) = -x^2 + 2x + 5$.
then, $P(x) + Q(x) = 4x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + 9$ and $deg(P + Q) = \max\{deg(P), deg(Q)\}$;
2. Let $P(x) = x^2 + 4$ and $Q(x) = -x^2 + x + 6$.
then, $P(x) + Q(x) = x + 10$ and $deg(P + Q) < \max\{deg(P), deg(Q)\}$.

b/ Difference of polynomials

Definition IV.1.6 Let $P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ and $Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$ be two polynomials with real coefficients.

The difference $P - Q$ is a polynomial defined by:

$$P(x) - Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^s (a_i - b_i) x^i \quad \text{where } s \leq \max\{n, m\}.$$

In geral, $deg(P - Q) \leq \max\{deg(P), deg(Q)\}$ and we have equality if the higher degree term is not eliminated.

Examples :

1. Let $P(x) = 4x^3 + 3x^2 + 4$ et $Q(x) = -x^2 + 2x + 5$.
then, $P(x) - Q(x) = 4x^3 + 4x^2 - 2x - 1$ e $deg(P - Q) = \max\{deg(P), deg(Q)\}$;

2. Let $P(x) = x^2 + 6$ et $Q(x) = x^2 + x + 2$.

then, $P(x) - Q(x) = -x + 4$ and $\deg(P + Q) < \max\{\deg(P), \deg(Q)\}$.

c/ Product of a polynomial by a scalar

Definition IV.1.7 Let the polynomial be $P(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x^i$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^*$. We have (λP) is also a polynomial defined by :

$$(\lambda P)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n (\lambda a_i) x^i \text{ and } \deg(\lambda P) = \deg(P)$$

Exemple : Let $P(x) = x^5 - 7x^3 + 14$, then $(2P)(x) = 2x^5 - 14x^3 + 28$.

d/ Product of polynomials

Definition IV.1.8 Let $P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ and $Q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i$ be two non-zero polynomials with

coefficients real and of degrees n and m respectively. The product $P.Q$ is a non-zero polynomial of degree $s = n + m$ defined by :

$$P(x).Q(x) = \sum_{k=0}^s \left(\sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i} \right) x^k$$

Exemple :

The product of $P(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 4$ et de $Q(x) = -x^2 + 2x + 5$ is the polynomial of degree 5 defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3 + 3x^2 + 4) \times (-x^2 + 2x + 5) &= -x^5 + 2x^4 + 5x^3 - 3x^4 + 6x^3 + 15x^2 - 4x^2 + 8x + 20 \\ &= -x^5 - 5x^4 + 11x^3 + 11x^2 + 8x + 20. \end{aligned}$$

1.6 Divisibility in $\mathbb{R}[X]$

a/ Division according to the decreasing powers of the variable (Euclidean division)

Theorem IV.1.9 Given a polynomial $A(x)$ and a non-zero polynomial $B(x)$, there exists a unique pair $(Q(x), R(x))$ of polynomials such that:

$$A(x) = B(x)Q(x) + R(x)$$

$\underbrace{A(x)}_{\text{Dividend}}$	$\underbrace{B(x)}_{\text{Divisor}}$
	$\underbrace{Q(x)}_{\text{Quotient}}$
	$\underbrace{R(x)}_{\text{Rest}}$

and $\deg(R) < \deg(B)$

Exemple : Let us divide the polynomial $A(x)$ by the polynomial $B(x)$ with:

$$A(x) = 2x^4 - 3x^3 + 5x^2 + 7x - 2 \quad \text{et} \quad B(x) = x^2 + x - 2.$$

Beforehand, we will have ordered the two polynomials according to the decreasing powers of x . We then arrange the polynomials in the following way:

$$2x^4 - 3x^3 + 5x^2 + 7x - 2 \quad \Big| \quad x^2 + x - 2$$

Definition of a root of a polynomial

Definition IV.1.11 We say that the number a is the root (or zero) of the polynomial $P(x)$ if and only if $P(a) = 0$.

Exemples :

- 1 and 2 are two roots of the polynomial $P(x) = x^3 - 3x + 2$ since $P(1) = 0$ and $P(2) = 0$;
- 1 is root of the polynomial $P(x) = x^3 + x - 2$ since $P(1) = 0$.

ii/ Factorization of a polynomial by $(x - a)$

Definition IV.1.12 We say that the non-zero polynomial $P(x)$ can be factorized by $(x - a)$ or even $P(x)$ is divisible by $(x - a)$ if there exists a polynomial $Q(x)$ such that $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x)$.

Theorem IV.1.13 The polynomial $P(x)$ admits the number a as root if and only if $P(x)$ is divisible by $(x - a)$.

Proof : Using the Euclidean division of $P(x)$ by $(x - a)$ we write $P(x) = (x - a)Q(x) + R(x)$ with $\deg(R) = 0$, Therefore $R(x)$ is a real number and it is worth $P(a)$.

Corollary IV.1.14 if the polynomial $P(x)$ has k distinct roots a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k then $P(x)$ is divisible by $(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \dots (x - a_k)$

Proof : if a_1 is the root of $P(x)$, we can write $P(x) = (x - a_1)P_1(x)$; since $a_2 \neq a_1$ is the root of $P(x)$ it is also the root of $P_1(x)$ and we have $P_1(x) = (x - a_2)P_2(x)$. Hence, $P(x) = (x - a_1)P_1(x) = (x - a_1)(x - a_2)P_2(x)$. And we continue the process.

Corollary IV.1.15 A polynomial in $R[X]$ of degree n has at most n distinct roots.

.2 Fational fractions in $R[X]$

2.1 Definition of rational fractions

Rational functions are to polynomials what fractions are to integers.

Definition IV.2.1 The function $f(x)$ is a rational function if there exist two polynomials $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ prime among them such that :

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

And we have : $\deg(f) = \deg(P) - \deg(Q)$.

As with any fraction, the top (the polynomial $P(x)$) is called the numerator and the bottom (the polynomial $Q(x)$) the denominator.

Exemples :

- The rational fraction defined for all x by:

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{2x^2 - 5x + 5}{x + 3}$$

has degree $1 = 2 - 1$.

- The rational fraction defined for all x by:

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{2x}{x + 1}$$

Has degree $0 = 1 - 1$.

$$\frac{2x^2 - 4x + 5}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{2x}{x+3} = \frac{4x^3 + 2x^2 - 5x + 15}{x^3 + 3x^2 + x + 3}$$

Its degree is worth $0 = 3 - 3$.

Theorem IV.2.2 Any rational fraction is written uniquely as the sum of a polynomial (called integer part) and simple elements (called polar part) whose type is determined by the denominator of the rational fraction that we decompose.

2.2 Whole part of a rational fraction

Theorem IV.2.3 Consider two polynomials $P(x)$ of degree m and $Q(x)$ of degree n with $m \geq n$. Then, for all x such that $Q(x) \neq 0$, we can write :

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = E(x) + \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}$$

where $E(x)$ is the quotient of the Euclidean division of $P(x)$ by $Q(x)$ of degree $m - n$, $R(x)$ is the rest, and $\frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}$ is a rational fraction. The polynomial $E(x)$ est dit partie entière de $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$.

Exemple :

Consider the rational fraction $\frac{5x^4 + 3x + 2}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$. Noting that 1 is not the root of the numerator, we deduces that the polynomials are coprime. For $x \neq 1$, we have :

$$\begin{array}{r|l} \begin{array}{r} 5x^4 + 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 3x + 2 \\ - 5x^4 + 10x^3 - 5x^2 \\ \hline 10x^3 - 5x^2 + 3x + 2 \\ - 10x^3 + 20x^2 - 10x \\ \hline 15x^2 - 7x + 2 \\ - 15x^2 + 30x - 15 \\ \hline 23x - 13 \end{array} & \begin{array}{r} x^2 - 2x + 1 \\ \hline 5x^2 + 10x + 15 \end{array} \end{array}$$

Also,

$$\frac{5x^4 + 3x + 2}{x^2 - 2x + 1} = 5x^2 + 10x + 15 + \frac{23x - 13}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$$

2.2 Polar part of a rational fraction

Proposition IV.2.4 Let $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ be a rational fraction and let it have a root a of $Q(x)$ of multiplicity

m . Let us write $Q(x) = (x-a)^m Q_1(x)$ with $Q_1(a) \neq 0$. here exists a unique decomposition in the form:

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A(x)}{(x-a)^m} + \frac{B(x)}{Q_1(x)},$$

with $A(x)$ and $B(x)$ two polynomials, $A(x)$ being such that $\deg(A) < m$. The fraction $\frac{A(x)}{(x-a)^m}$

The fraction $A(x)$ is called the polar part of the rational fraction.