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B. Sc. (Honrs) Part 1 Paper 1

Subject Mathematics

Title/Heading of topic: Theory of equations

(fundamental theorem of algebra)

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1 Theory of equations

1.1. Polynomial Functions

Definition:

A function defined by

$$f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n, \text{ where } a_0 \neq 0, n \text{ is a non negative}$$

integer and a_i ($i = 0, 1, \dots, n$) are fixed complex numbers is called a **polynomial** of **degree** n in x . Then numbers a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are called the **coefficients** of f .

If α is a complex number such that $f(\alpha) = 0$, then α is called **zero** of the polynomial.

1.1.1 Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra)

Every polynomial function of degree $n \geq 1$ has at least one zero.

Remark:

Fundamental theorem of algebra says that, if $f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$,

where $a_0 \neq 0$ is the given polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$, then there exists a complex number α such that $a_0\alpha^n + a_1\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$.

We use the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, to prove the following result.

1.1.2 Theorem

Every polynomial of degree n has n and only n zeroes.

Proof:

Let $f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$, where $a_0 \neq 0$, be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$.

By fundamental theorem of algebra, $f(x)$ has at least one zero, let α_1 be that zero.

Then $(x - \alpha_1)$ is a factor of $f(x)$.

Therefore, we can write:

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)Q_1(x), \text{ where } Q_1(x) \text{ is a polynomial function of degree } n - 1.$$

If $n - 1 \geq 1$, again by Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, $Q_1(x)$ has at least one zero, say α_2 .

Therefore, $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)Q_2(x)$ where $Q_2(x)$ is a polynomial function of degree $n - 2$.

Repeating the above arguments, we get

$f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)\dots(x - \alpha_n)Q_n(x)$, where $Q_n(x)$ is a polynomial function of degree $n - n = 0$, i.e., $Q_n(x)$ is a constant.

Equating the coefficient of x^n on both sides of the above equation, we get

$$Q_n(x) = a_0.$$

Therefore, $f(x) = a_0(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)\dots(x - \alpha_n)$.

If α is any number other than $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$, then $f(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha$ is not a zero of $f(x)$.

Hence $f(x)$ has n and only n zeros, namely $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$.

Note:

Let $f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n; a_0 \neq 0$ be an n^{th} degree polynomial in x .

Then, $a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$ ----- (1)

is called a **polynomial equation** in x of degree n .

A number α is called a **root** of the equation (1) if α is a zero of the polynomial $f(x)$.

So theorem (1.1.2) can also be stated as : "Every polynomial equation of degree n has n and only n roots".

1.1.3 Theorem

If the equation $a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$, where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are real numbers ($a_0 \neq 0$), has a complex root $\alpha + i\beta$, then it also has a complex root $\alpha - i\beta$. (i.e., complex roots occur in conjugate pairs for a polynomial equation with real coefficients).

Proof:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n, a_0 \neq 0$$

Given that $\alpha + i\beta$ is a root of $f(x) = 0$.

Consider $(x - (\alpha + i\beta))(x - (\alpha - i\beta)) = (x - \alpha)^2 + \beta^2$.

Divide $f(x)$ by $(x - \alpha)^2 + \beta^2$.

Let $Q(x)$ be the quotient and $Ax + B$ be the remainder.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } f(x) &= [(x - \alpha)^2 + \beta^2]Q(x) + Ax + B \\ &= [(x - (\alpha + i\beta))(x - (\alpha - i\beta))]Q(x) + Ax + B \\ \Rightarrow f(\alpha + i\beta) &= 0 + A(\alpha + i\beta) + B = A(\alpha + i\beta) + B = (A\alpha + B) + iA\beta \end{aligned}$$

But $f(\alpha + i\beta) = 0$.

Equating real and imaginary parts, we see that $A\alpha + B = 0$ and $A\beta = 0$

$$\text{But } \beta \neq 0 \Rightarrow A = 0 \text{ and so } B = 0$$

\Rightarrow The remainder $Ax + B$ is zero. i.e., $[(x - (\alpha + i\beta))(x - (\alpha - i\beta))]$ is a factor of $f(x)$
i.e., $\alpha - i\beta$ is a root of $f(x) = 0$.

1.1.4. Theorem

In an equation with rational coefficients, the roots which are quadratic surds occur in conjugate pairs.

Proof:

Let $f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n, a_0 \neq 0$, be an n^{th} degree polynomial with rational coefficients.

$$\text{Let } \alpha + \sqrt{\beta} \text{ is a root of } f(x) = 0.$$

Divide $f(x)$ by $[(x - (\alpha + \sqrt{\beta}))(x - (\alpha - \sqrt{\beta}))] = (x - \alpha)^2 - \beta$.

Let $Q(x)$ be the quotient and $Ax + B$ be the remainder.

Proceeding exactly as in the above theorem, we get $Ax + B = 0$.

Thus we conclude that $\alpha - \sqrt{\beta}$ is also a root of $f(x) = 0$.

1.1.5. Theorem

If the rational number $\frac{p}{q}$, a fraction in its lowest terms (so that p, q are integers prime to each other, $q \neq 0$) is a root of the equation $a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} \dots + a_n = 0$ where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are integers and $a_0 \neq 0$, then p is a divisor of a_n and q is a divisor of a_0 .

Proof:

Since $\frac{p}{q}$ is a root the given polynomial equation, we have

$$a_0\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n + a_1\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1}\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) + a_n = 0$$

Multiplying by q^n , we get

$$a_0p^n + a_1p^{n-1}q + \dots + a_{n-1}pq^{n-1} + a_nq^n = 0 \quad \text{----- (1)}$$

Dividing by p , we have

$$a_0p^{n-1} + a_1p^{n-2}q + \dots + a_{n-1}q^{n-1} = \frac{-a_nq^n}{p}$$

Now, the left side of the above equation is an integer and therefore $\frac{-a_nq^n}{p}$ is also must be an integer. Since p and q have no common factor, p must be a divisor of a_n .

Also, from (1),

$$a_1p^{n-1}q + \dots + a_{n-1}pq^{n-1} + a_nq^n = -a_0p^n$$

Dividing this expression by q , we get

$$a_1p^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1}pq^{n-2} + a_nq^{n-1} = \frac{-a_0p^n}{q}$$

Since the left side is an integer and since q does not divide p , q must be a divisor of a_0 . This completes the proof.

Corollary

Every rational root of the equation $x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$, where each a_i is an integer must be an integer.

Moreover, every such root must be a divisor of the constant a_n .

Proof:

This follows from the above theorem, by putting $a_0 = 1$.

Multiple Roots

If a root α of $f(x) = 0$ repeats r times, then α is called an **r-multiple root**.

A 2- multiple root is usually called a **double root**.

For example, consider $f(x) = (x - 2)^3 (x - 5)^2 (x + 1)$.

Here 2 is a 3 - multiple root, 5 is a double root, and -1 is a single root of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

1.1.6. Theorem

If α is an r - multiple root of $f(x) = 0$ then α is an $(r - 1)$ multiple root of $f^1(x) = 0$, where $f^1(x)$ is the derivative of $f(x)$.

Proof:

Given that α is an r - multiple root of $f(x) = 0$.

Then $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^r \phi(x)$ where $\phi(\alpha) \neq 0$.

Now, by applying product rule of differentiation, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} f^1(x) &= (x - \alpha)^r \phi^1(x) + \phi(x) \cdot r(x - \alpha)^{r-1} \\ &= (x - \alpha)^{r-1} [(x - \alpha) \phi^1(x) + r \phi(x)] \end{aligned}$$

When $x = \alpha$, $(x - \alpha) \phi^1(x) + r \phi(x) = r \phi(\alpha) \neq 0$

$\Rightarrow \alpha$ is an $(r - 1)$ multiple root of $f^1(x) = 0$.

Remark:

If α is an $(r - 1)$ -multiple root of $f^1(x) = 0$, similarly as above, we can see that α will be an $(r - 2)$ multiple root of $f^{11}(x) = 0$; $(r - 3)$ - multiple root of $f^{111}(x) = 0$, and so on.

Solved Problems

1. Solve $x^4 - 4x^2 + 8x + 35 = 0$, given $2 + i\sqrt{3}$ is a root.

Solution :

Given that $2 + i\sqrt{3}$ is a root of $x^4 - 4x^2 + 8x + 35 = 0$; since complex roots occurs in conjugate pairs $2 - i\sqrt{3}$ is also a root of it.

$\Rightarrow [x - (2 + i\sqrt{3})][x - (2 - i\sqrt{3})] = (x - 2)^2 + 3 = x^2 - 4x + 7$ is a factor of the given polynomial.

Dividing the given polynomial by this factor, we obtain the other factor as $x^2 + 4x + 5$.

The roots of $x^2 + 4x + 5 = 0$ are given by $\frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 20}}{2} = -2 \pm i$.

Hence the roots of the given polynomial are $2 + i\sqrt{3}$, $2 - i\sqrt{3}$, $-2 + i$ and $-2 - i$.

2. Solve $x^4 - 5x^3 + 4x^2 + 8x - 8 = 0$, given that one of the roots is $1 - \sqrt{5}$.

Solution:

Since quadratic surds occur in conjugate pairs as roots of a polynomial equation, $1 + \sqrt{5}$ is also a root of the given polynomial.

$\Rightarrow [x - (1 - \sqrt{5})][x - (1 + \sqrt{5})] = (x - 1)^2 - 5 = x^2 - 2x - 4$ is a factor.

Dividing the given polynomial by this factor, we obtain the other factor as $x^2 - 3x + 2$.

Also, $x^2 - 3x + 2 = (x - 2)(x - 1)$

Thus the roots of the given polynomial equation are $1 + \sqrt{5}, 1 - \sqrt{5}, 1, 2$.

3. Find a polynomial equation of the lowest degree with rational coefficients having $\sqrt{3}$ and $1 - 2i$ as two of its roots.

Solution:

Since quadratic surds occur in pairs as roots, $-\sqrt{3}$ is also a root.

Since complex roots occur in conjugate pairs, $1 + 2i$ is also a root of the required polynomial equation. Therefore the desired equation is given by

$$(x - \sqrt{3})(x + \sqrt{3})(x - (1 - 2i))(x - (1 + 2i)) = 0$$

$$\text{i.e., } x^4 - 2x^3 + 2x^2 + 6x - 15 = 0$$

4. Solve $4x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 3x + 1 = 0$, given that it has rational roots.

Solution:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = 4x^5 + x^3 + x^2 - 3x + 1.$$

By theorem (1.1.5.), any rational root $\frac{p}{q}$ (in its lowest terms) must satisfy the

condition that, p is divisor of 1 and q is positive divisor of 4.

So the possible rational roots are $\pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm \frac{1}{4}$.

Note that $f(-1) = 0, f(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$. But $f(1) \neq 0, f(-\frac{1}{2}) \neq 0, f(\frac{1}{4}) \neq 0$ and $f(-\frac{1}{4}) \neq 0$.

Since $f(-1) = 0$ and $f(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$, we see that $(x + 1)$ and $(x - \frac{1}{2})$ are factors of the given polynomial. Also by factorizing, we find that

$$f(x) = (x - \frac{1}{2})(x + 1)(4x^3 - 2x^2 + 4x - 2)$$

Note that $x = \frac{1}{2}$ is a root of the third factor, if we divide $4x^3 - 2x^2 + 4x - 2$ by $x - \frac{1}{2}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{we obtain } f(x) &= (x - \frac{1}{2})^2 (x + 1)(4x^2 + 4) \\ &= 4(x - \frac{1}{2})^2 (x + 1)(x^2 + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Hence the roots of $f(x) = 0$, are $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, -1, \pm i$.

5. Solve $x^3 - x^2 - 8x + 12 = 0$, given that has a double root.

Solution:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 8x + 12$$

Differentiating, we obtain:

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 8.$$

Since the multiple roots of $f(x) = 0$ are also the roots of $f'(x) = 0$, the product of the factors corresponding to these roots will be the g.c.d of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$. Let us find the g.c.d of $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$.

3x	3x ² - 2x - 8	x ³ - x ² - 8x + 12	
	3x ² - 6x	3	
4	4x - 8	3x ³ - 3x ² - 24x + 36	x
	4x - 8	3x ³ - 2x ² - 8x	
0	0	- x ² - 16x + 36	
		3	
		- 3x ² - 48x + 108	
		- 3x ² + 2x + 8	
		-50	- 1
		- 50x + 100	
		x - 2	

Therefore, g.c.d = $(x - 2)$

$\Rightarrow f(x)$ has a factor $(x - 2)^2$.

Also, $f(x) = (x - 2)^2 (x + 3)$

Thus the roots are 2, 2, -3 .

6. Show that the equation $x^3 + qx + r = 0$ has two equal roots if $27r^2 + 4q^3 = 0$.

Solution:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 + qx + r \text{ ----- (1)}$$

$$\text{Differentiating, we obtain: } f'(x) = 3x^2 + q \text{ ----- (2)}$$

Given that $f(x) = 0$ has two equal roots, i.e., it has a double root, say α .

Then α is a root of both $f(x) = 0$ and $f'(x) = 0$.

From the 2nd equation, we obtain $\alpha^2 = -q/3$

Now the first equation can be written as: $\alpha (\alpha^2 + q) + r = 0$

$$\text{i.e., } \alpha (-q/3 + q) + r = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{-3r}{2q}$$

Squaring and simplifying, we obtain: $27r^2 + 4q^3 = 0$
