

MATH1050 Roots of polynomials with complex coefficients.

1. Here we take for granted everything that you have learnt about polynomials at schools, up to the point where *calculus* is involved.

Every definition and every result will remain valid when we replace the word *real* by the word *complex* and replace the symbol \mathbb{R} by the symbol \mathbb{C} in every definition/result concerned with polynomials.

In particular:—

- When $f(z)$ is a polynomial with complex coefficients, we are allowed to ‘substitute’ a number, say, α , into its indeterminate z to obtain the number $f(\alpha)$.
- When $f(z), g(z)$ are polynomials, we will say that $f(z)$ is divisible by $g(z)$, exactly when there is a polynomial $k(z)$ such that $f(z) = k(z)g(z)$.
- **Remainder Theorem** holds:
Suppose $f(z)$ is a polynomial with complex coefficients, and α is a complex number. Then there exists some unique polynomial $g(x)$ with complex coefficients and some unique complex number r , namely $r = f(\alpha)$, such that $f(z) = (z - \alpha)g(z) + r$ as polynomials.
- **Factor Theorem** holds:
Suppose $f(z)$ is a polynomial with complex coefficients, and α is a complex number.
Then $f(z)$ is divisible by $z - \alpha$ iff $f(\alpha) = 0$.

2. Definition. (Roots of polynomials.)

Let $f(z)$ be a polynomial with complex coefficients. Let α be a complex number.

We say α is a **root of the polynomial $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C}** if $f(\alpha) = 0$.

3. Theorem (1).

Let n be a positive integer. Write $\theta_n = \frac{2\pi}{n}$. Define $\omega_n = \cos(\theta_n) + i \sin(\theta_n)$.

The polynomial $z^n - 1$ with indeterminate z is completely factorized as

$$z^n - 1 = (z - 1)(z - \omega_n)(z - \omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \omega_n^{n-1}).$$

4. Proof of Theorem (1). Let n be a positive integer. Write $\theta_n = \frac{2\pi}{n}$. Define $\omega_n = \cos(\theta_n) + i \sin(\theta_n)$.

Write $f(z) = z^n - 1$.

(a) By definition, each of $1, \omega_n, \omega_n^2, \dots, \omega_n^{n-1}$ is a root of the polynomial $f(z)$.

(b) In particular $f(1) = 0$.

Then by Factor Theorem, there exists some polynomial $f_1(z)$ such that $f(z) = (z - 1)f_1(z)$ as polynomials.

(c) We have $0 = f(\omega_n) = (\omega_n - 1)f_1(\omega_n)$.

Since $\omega_n \neq 1$, we have $f_1(\omega_n) = 0$.

Then by Factor Theorem, there exists some polynomial $f_2(z)$ such that $f_1(z) = (z - \omega_n)f_2(z)$ as polynomials.

So $f(z) = (z - 1)(z - \omega_n)f_2(z)$ as polynomials.

(d) We have $0 = f(\omega_n^2) = (\omega_n^2 - 1)(\omega_n^2 - \omega_n)f_2(\omega_n^2)$.

Since ω_n^2 is distinct from each of $1, \omega_n$, we have $f_2(\omega_n^2) = 0$.

Then by Factor Theorem, there exists some polynomial $f_3(z)$ such that $f_2(z) = (z - \omega_n^2)f_3(z)$ as polynomials.

Then $f(z) = (z - 1)(z - \omega_n)(z - \omega_n^2)f_3(z)$ as polynomials.

(e) Repeating this argument, we deduce that there exists some polynomial $g(z)$ such that

$$f(z) = (z - 1)(z - \omega_n)(z - \omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \omega_n^{n-1})g(z)$$

as polynomials.

Note that $(z - 1)(z - \omega_n)(z - \omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \omega_n^{n-1})$ is a degree- n polynomial with leading coefficient 1.

$f(z)$ is also a degree- n polynomial with leading coefficient 1.

Then $g(z)$ is the constant polynomial 1.

Therefore $f(z) = (z - 1)(z - \omega_n)(z - \omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \omega_n^{n-1})$ as polynomials.

5. Theorem (2).

Let n be a positive integer. Write $\theta_n = \frac{2\pi}{n}$. Define $\omega_n = \cos(\theta_n) + i \sin(\theta_n)$.

Let v be a non-zero complex number, and ζ be an n -th root of v .

The polynomial $z^n - v$ with indeterminate z is completely factorized as

$$z^n - v = (z - \zeta)(z - \zeta\omega_n)(z - \zeta\omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \zeta\omega_n^{n-1}).$$

Proof of Theorem (2). Exercise. (Imitate the argument for Theorem (1).)

Remark. Suppose φ is an argument for v . Take $\zeta_0 = \sqrt[n]{|v|}(\cos(\frac{\varphi}{n}) + i \sin(\frac{\varphi}{n}))$. Then ζ_0 is an n -th root of v .

Therefore

$$z^n - v = (z - \zeta_0)(z - \zeta_0\omega_n)(z - \zeta_0\omega_n^2) \cdots (z - \zeta_0\omega_n^{n-1})$$

as polynomials.

6. Theorem (3).

Let n be a positive integer. Write $\theta_n = \frac{2\pi}{n}$. Define $\omega_n = \cos(\theta_n) + i \sin(\theta_n)$.

Suppose s, t are complex numbers.

Then the equality

$$s^n - t^n = (s - t)(s - t\omega_n)(s - t\omega_n^2) \cdots (s - t\omega_n^{n-1})$$

holds.

Proof of Theorem (3). Exercise. (Apply Theorem (2).)

7. Using the same argument as in Theorem (1), we can prove Theorem (4).

Theorem (4).

Let $f(z)$ be a non-constant polynomial with complex coefficients. Suppose the degree of $f(z)$ is n .

Then $f(z)$ has at most n distinct roots in \mathbb{C} .

Polynomials with real coefficients are automatically polynomial with complex coefficients. Hence Theorem (4) trivially gives rise to the corollary below:

Corollary to Theorem (4).

Let $f(x)$ be a non-constant polynomial with real coefficients. Suppose the degree of $f(x)$ is n .

Then $f(x)$ has at most n distinct roots in \mathbb{C} . In particular, $u(x)$ has at most n distinct roots in \mathbb{R} .

8. Proof of Theorem (4). Exercise in proof-by-contradiction argument. Fill in the missing steps in the outline below:

Suppose $f(z)$ is a non-constant polynomial with complex coefficients. Suppose the degree of $f(z)$ is n . By assumption $n \geq 1$.

Suppose it were true that $f(z)$ had more than n distinct roots in \mathbb{C} . Suppose $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ were $n + 1$ distinct roots of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

By assumption, $f(\alpha_j) = 0$ for each $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

By applying the Factor Theorem, we deduce that there would exist some polynomial $g(z)$ such that $f(z) = (z - \alpha_0)(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdots (z - \alpha_n)g(z)$ as polynomials. (Fill in the missing steps.)

Then $f(z)$ would be of degree at least $n + 1$. (Fill in the missing steps.)

However, by assumption the degree of $f(z)$ is n . Contradiction arises.

Hence $f(z)$ has at most n distinct roots in \mathbb{C} in the first place.

9. We know that every quadratic polynomial with complex coefficients has exactly two (not necessarily) distinct roots in \mathbb{C} , and completely factorize into a product of linear polynomials. (Refer to the handout *Polar form*.)

This result can be generalized to non-constant polynomials of arbitrary degrees.

Theorem (5). (Factorization of polynomials with complex coefficients into ‘linear factors’)

Let $f(z)$ be a non-constant polynomial with complex coefficients. Suppose the degree of $f(z)$ is n . Suppose the leading coefficient of $f(z)$ is a_n .

Then there exist some n complex numbers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$, not necessarily distinct, such that

$$f(z) = a_n(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (z - \alpha_n) \quad \text{as polynomials.}$$

These n numbers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are all the roots of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

10. The result in Theorem (1) and Theorem (2) are manifestations of Theorem (5) in a special case.

The proof of Theorem (5) relies on a non-trivial result, called the **Fundamental Theorem of Algebra**, first proved by Gauss. Here we take the validity of this result for granted. (Its proof is beyond the scope of this course.)

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

Every non-constant polynomial with complex coefficients has a root in \mathbb{C} .

11. **Proof of Theorem (5).** Exercise in mathematical induction. Fill in the steps in the roughwork below:

For each positive integer n , denote by $P(n)$ the proposition below:

‘Suppose $f(z)$ is a polynomial of degree n . Suppose the leading coefficient of $f(z)$ is a_n . Then there exist some n complex numbers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$, not necessarily distinct, such that

$$f(z) = a_n(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (z - \alpha_n)$$

as polynomials.’

$P(1)$ is trivial true.

In the inductive argument, apply the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra and the Factor Theorem to an arbitrary degree- $(k + 1)$ polynomial so as ensure that it is factorized as a product of a linear polynomial and a degree- k polynomial. Then apply the induction hypothesis on that degree- k polynomial.

12. **Theorem (6). (Vieta’s Theorem, relating roots and coefficients of polynomials.)**

Let $f(z)$ be a polynomial with complex coefficients, of degree $n \geq 1$, with its k -th coefficient being a_k for each $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Suppose $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are all the n roots of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

Then

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k, \\ \frac{a_{n-2}}{a_n} = \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < j_2 \leq n} \alpha_{j_1} \alpha_{j_2}, \\ -\frac{a_{n-3}}{a_n} = \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < j_2 < j_3 \leq n} \alpha_{j_1} \alpha_{j_2} \alpha_{j_3}, \\ \vdots \\ (-1)^n \cdot \frac{a_0}{a_n} = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdot \dots \cdot \alpha_n \end{array} \right.$$

Proof of Theorem (6). This is a tedious exercise in ‘comparing coefficients’ for the two sides of the equality

$$a_0 + a_1 z + a_2 z^2 + \dots + a_n z^n = a_n(z - \alpha_1)(z - \alpha_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (z - \alpha_n) \quad \text{as polynomials,}$$

Theorem (5) has been used in guaranteeing the availability of such an equality.

13. Digression on Theorem (6).

Below are some special cases of Theorem (6), for ‘polynomials of low degrees’:

- (a) Suppose $n = 2$. Then Theorem (6) gives $-\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$, $\frac{a_0}{a_2} = \alpha_1\alpha_2$.

These equalities relate the coefficients of the quadratic polynomial $f(z)$ with its sum of roots and its product of roots. You have learnt them in school maths.

Out of these equalities we can obtain a ‘formula’ for the individual α_j ’s in terms of the a_k ’s, through the application of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and extraction of square roots.

This is the ‘quadratic formula’ for the solutions of the equation $a_2z^2 + a_1z + a_0 = 0$.

- (b) Suppose $n = 3$. Then Theorem (6) gives

$$-\frac{a_2}{a_3} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3, \quad \frac{a_1}{a_3} = \alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_2\alpha_3 + \alpha_3\alpha_1, \quad -\frac{a_0}{a_3} = \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3.$$

After some hard work, we can obtain a ‘formula’ for the individual α_j ’s in terms of the a_k ’s, through the application of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, extraction of square roots and cubic roots (and with a little help from the cubic roots of unity).

This formula is known as the ‘cubic formula’ for the solution of the cubic equation $a_3z^3 + a_2z^2 + a_1z + a_0 = 0$.

- (c) Suppose $n = 4$. Then Theorem (6) gives

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\frac{a_3}{a_4} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 + \alpha_4, \\ \frac{a_2}{a_4} = \alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_3\alpha_4 + \alpha_1\alpha_3 + \alpha_2\alpha_4 + \alpha_1\alpha_4 + \alpha_2\alpha_3, \\ -\frac{a_1}{a_4} = \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3 + \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_4 + \alpha_1\alpha_3\alpha_4 + \alpha_2\alpha_3\alpha_4 \\ \frac{a_0}{a_4} = \alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3\alpha_4. \end{array} \right.$$

After some hard work, we can obtain a ‘formula’ for the individual α_j ’s in terms of the a_k ’s, through the application of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, extraction of square roots, cubic roots and quartic roots (and with a little help from the cubic roots of unity and the quartic roots of unity).

This formula is known as the ‘quartic formula’ for the solution of the quartic equation $a_4z^4 + a_3z^3 + a_2z^2 + a_1z + a_0 = 0$.

- (d) How about the situation for ‘ $n \geq 5$ ’?

We can certainly write down n equalities relating the α_j ’s and the a_k ’s. However, as discovered by Galois and Abel in the early nineteenth century, we do not have ‘formulae’ for the individual α_j ’s in terms of the a_k ’s, through the application of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, extraction of square roots, cubic roots, ..., n -th roots alone.

Why this happens will be explained in the course *Fields and Galois Theory*.

14. From now on we focus on polynomials with real coefficients.

Theorem (7). (‘Pairing-up’ of complex roots for polynomials with real coefficients.)

Let $f(z)$ be a polynomial with real coefficients. Let α be a complex number.

Suppose α is a root of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

Then $\bar{\alpha}$ is also a root of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

15. Proof of Theorem (7).

Let $f(z)$ be a polynomial with real coefficients, say, of degree n . For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, denote by a_k the k -th coefficient of $f(z)$.

Let α be a complex number. Suppose α is a root of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} . Then $0 = f(\alpha) = a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2 + \cdots + a_n\alpha^n$.

By assumption $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$ for each $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \overline{f(\alpha)} = \overline{a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2 + \cdots + a_n\alpha^n} \\ &= \overline{a_0} + \overline{a_1\alpha} + \overline{a_2\alpha^2} + \cdots + \overline{a_n\alpha^n} \\ &= a_0 + a_1\bar{\alpha} + a_2\bar{\alpha}^2 + \cdots + a_n\bar{\alpha}^n = f(\bar{\alpha}). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\bar{\alpha}$ is also a root of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

16. **Theorem (8).**

Let $f(z)$ be a polynomial with real coefficients. Let α be a complex number.

Suppose α is a non-real root of $f(z)$ in \mathbb{C} .

Then $f(z)$ is divisible by the quadratic polynomial with real coefficients $z^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(\alpha)z + |\alpha|^2$, which has a negative discriminant.

Proof of Theorem (8). Exercise. (Apply the Factor Theorem to show that there exists some polynomial $g(z)$ such that $f(z) = (z - \alpha)(z - \bar{\alpha})g(z)$ as polynomials. Et cetera.)

17. With the help of Theorem (8), we can deduce the result below.

Theorem (9). (Factorization of polynomials with real coefficients into linear or quadratic factors.)

Suppose $f(z)$ is a non-constant polynomial with real coefficients.

Then $f(z)$ factorizes as a product of linear polynomials with real coefficients and quadratic polynomials with real coefficients of negative discriminant.

Proof of Theorem (9). Omitted. (The argument is tedious but not technically difficult.)

18. **Illustrations on the content of Theorem (9).**

- (a) $x^3 - 1 = (x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)$ as polynomials.
- (b) $x^4 - 4 = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})(x^2 + 2)$ as polynomials.
- (c) $x^4 + 2x^2 + 1 = (x^2 + 1)^2$ as polynomials.
- (d) $x^4 + 1 = (x^2 - \sqrt{2}x + 1)(x^2 + \sqrt{2}x + 1)$ as polynomials.
- (e) $x^5 - 1 = (x - 1)(x^2 - \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}x + 1)(x^2 + \frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2}x + 1)$ as polynomials.
- (f) $x^6 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 - x + 1)$ as polynomials.

Some of these examples are in fact special cases described by Theorem (10).

19. **Theorem (10).**

Let n be a positive integer. Write $\theta_n = \frac{2\pi}{n}$. Define $\omega_n = \cos(\theta_n) + i \sin(\theta_n)$.

- (a) Suppose n is odd. Then the polynomial $z^n - 1$ is factorized as a product of polynomials with real coefficients given by

$$z^n - 1 = (z - 1)(z^2 - 2z \cos(\theta_n) + 1)(z^2 - 2z \cos(2\theta_n) + 1) \cdots (z^2 - 2z \cos(\frac{n-1}{2}\theta_n) + 1).$$

- (b) Suppose n is even. Then the polynomial $z^n - 1$ is factorized as a product of polynomials with real coefficients given by

$$z^n - 1 = (z - 1)(z + 1)(z^2 - 2z \cos(\theta_n) + 1)(z^2 - 2z \cos(2\theta_n) + 1) \cdots (z^2 - 2z \cos(\frac{n-2}{2}\theta_n) + 1).$$