

Current Topic: "The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra," which says that every polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ has some root in \mathbb{C} , say $\alpha_1 \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$\text{Descartes: } f(x) = (x - \alpha_1) g(x).$$

$\text{deg } n \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{deg } n-1$

But then for the same reason, $g(x)$ has a complex root, say $\alpha_2 \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$\text{Descartes: } f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)h(x)$$

$\text{deg } n \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{deg } n-2.$

Continuing ...

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_n) c$$

for some $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, c \in \mathbb{C}$.

Equivalent statements of F.T.A.

- every $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ has a root in \mathbb{C} .
- every $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ splits over \mathbb{C} .
- every prime polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has degree 1.

Our current goal is to prove this.
The proof is not easy.
Indeed, Leonhard Euler tried & failed
to prove it. Lagrange fixed some
problems with Euler's approach, then
Laplace (~1815) finally gave a
correct version. We will follow
Laplace's proof, but it has some
pre-requisites!

History of F.T.A.

In the 1600s people tried to
compute antiderivatives / integrals.

$$\text{Fermat: } \int x^n dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} & n \neq -1 \\ \ln|x| & n = -1 \end{cases}$$

From this we can integrate any
polynomial $\in \mathbb{R}[x]$:

$$\int \sum_{k \geq 0} a_k x^k dx = \sum_{k \geq 0} a_k \frac{1}{k+1} x^{k+1} \quad \text{|| } \smile$$

Next Problem: Integrate "rational functions" of the form $f(x)/g(x)$ where $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$:

$$\int \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx = ?$$

A few "basic" examples:

$$\bullet \int \frac{1}{x+a} dx = \ln|x+a| \quad a \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\bullet \int \frac{1}{x^2+b^2} dx = \frac{1}{b} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{b}\right) \quad b \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\bullet \int \frac{x}{x^2+c^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+c^2) \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

It was realized early on that these 3 rules are enough to integrate any rational function as long as the denominator can be factored into deg 1 & deg 2 polynomials.

Method of "Partial Fractions."

Example: Compute $\int \frac{1}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} dx$.

Idea: $\exists A, B, C \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\frac{1}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+4}.$$

Find them!

$$\frac{1}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A(x^2+4) + (Bx+C)(x-1)}{(x-1)(x^2+4)}$$

$$1 \equiv A(x^2+4) + (Bx+C)(x-1)$$

$$1 = Ax^2 + Bx^2 - Bx + Cx + 4A - C$$

$$1 + 0x + 0x^2 = (A+B)x^2 + (C-B)x + (4A-C)$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \begin{cases} A+B=0 \\ C-B=0 \\ 4A-C=1 \end{cases} \right\} \begin{aligned} A+C &= 0 \\ C &= -A \\ 4A+A &= 1 \\ 5A &= 1 \\ A &= 1/5 \end{aligned}$$

$$B = -A = -1/5$$
$$C = -A = -1/5.$$

Conclude:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} &= \frac{1}{5} \frac{1}{(x-1)} - \frac{1}{5} \frac{x+1}{x^2+4} \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \left[\frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{1}{x^2+4} - \frac{x}{x^2+4} \right] \end{aligned}$$

each is one of the three basic forms.

$$\int \frac{1}{(x-1)(x^2+4)} dx = \frac{1}{5} \left[\ln|x-1| - \frac{1}{2} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+4) \right]$$

||
)

Note that the F.T.A. implies that every $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ factors into deg 1 & deg 2 polynomials. Indeed,

$$f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x] \cong \mathbb{C}[x]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \text{FTA} \quad f(x) &= (x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_2) \cdots (x-\alpha_n) \\ &\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{C}. \end{aligned}$$

But since f has real coeffs, the complex roots come in conjugate pairs,
non-real

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{deg 1} \\
 f(x) = & \underbrace{(x-a_1) \cdots (x-a_k)}_{\text{deg 1}} \\
 & \cdot \underbrace{(x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_1^*)}_{\substack{x^2 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_1^*)x - \alpha_1\alpha_1^* \\ \text{real} \quad \text{real}}} \cdots \underbrace{(x-\alpha_k)(x-\alpha_k^*)}_{\text{real of deg 2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

That's good enough to integrate any rational function (in principle).

"Partial Fractions"

We can compute partial fractions over \mathbb{Z} and $\mathbb{F}[x]$.

"Euclidean Domains"

(Integral domains that have division with remainder)

DEF: A Euclidean domain is a (commutative) ring R such that

- R is an "integral domain":

$$ab = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0 \text{ or } b = 0.$$

- There is a "norm function" $N: R \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall a, b \in R, b \neq 0, \exists q, r \in R$ such that

$$\begin{cases} a = qb + r, \\ r = 0 \text{ or } N(r) < N(b). \end{cases}$$

Examples: $R = \mathbb{Z}$ with $N(a) = |a|$.

$R = \mathbb{F}[x]$ with $N(f) = \deg(f)$.

The whole apparatus of "unique prime factorization" holds in a general Euclidean domain.

Similarly, we can compute "partial fraction expansions" over any Euclidean domain.

Example: Expand $\frac{8}{15}$ into partial fractions.

Factor the denominator:

$$\frac{8}{15} = \frac{8}{3 \cdot 5} = \frac{?}{3} + \frac{?}{5} .$$

Now what ?

PAUSE .