Math 3152 - Rational Functions

Prof. Philip Pennance¹ –March 16, 2020

1. Definition.

Let F be a field. A function $p: F \to F$ is called a *polynomial* over F if there exist $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$ such that

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 \dots + a_n x^n$$

2. Notation.

The set of all polynomials over F will be denoted F[x]. Henceforth F will be either \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} . Thus, for example, Q[x] will denote the set of polynomials with rational coefficients.

3. Definition.

A polinomial $p \in F[x]$ has degree n if there exist $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$, with $a_n \neq 0$ such that

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 \cdots + a_n x^n.$$

The zero polynomial has degree $-\infty$.

4. Remark.

It is assumed that the student is familiar with the usual addition (+) and multiplication (or convolution) (*) of polynomials.

- 5. Let $f, g \in F[x]$ where F is a field. Then,
 - (a) $d(f+g) \le \max\{d(f), d(g).\}$
 - (b) d(f * g) = d(f) + d(g).

6. Claim. [omit]

Let F be field. Then (F[x], +, *) is a ring. I.e.,

- (a) (F[x], +, *) is an abelian group.
- (b) * associative.
- (c) f * (g + h) = f * g + f * h
- (d) (g+h)*f = g*f + h*f

7. Division Theorem.

Let F be a field and let $f, g \in F[x]$, with $g \neq 0$. Then there exist unique polynomials $q, r \in F[x]$ such that f = qg + r and either r = 0 or d(r) < d(g) (and so F[x] is a Euclidean domain.)

8. Special cases of the Division Theorem:

(a) Remainder Theorem.

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and g(x) = x - a where $a \in \mathbb{C}$, then:

$$f(x) = q(x)(x - a) + r$$

where r is a constant. Moreover r = f(a).

(b) Factor Theorem.

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $a \in \mathbb{C}$. Then the following are equivalent:

- i. x a is a factor of f.
- ii. f(a) = 0.
- 9. Fundamental Theorem of Algebra Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ with deg $f \geq 1$. Then fhas a root $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$.

10. Corollary.

If $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ has degree n > 0, then f has a factorization of the form

$$f(x) = c(x - w_1)(x - w_2) \cdots (x - w_n)$$

= $c \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{n} (x - w_i)$. (1)

where $c, w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n \in \mathbb{C}$.

Proof (By induction).

If deg f=1 the result is trivial. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and assume that the result holds for all polynomials of degree greater than zero but less than n. Let f be a polynomial of degree n. By the fundamental theorem of algebra $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such

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that $f(\alpha) = 0$. By the division theorem, $x - \alpha$ is a factor and there exists a polynomial q such that

$$f(x) = (x - \alpha)q(x).$$

Since $\deg q = n - 1$, by the induction hypothesis, it has the form

$$c(x-w_1)(x-w_2)\cdots(x-w_{n-1}).$$

It follows that

$$f = c \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} (x - w_i).$$

where $w_n = \alpha$.

11. Remark.

In the case n=2 the factorization guaranteed by the Fundamental Theorem is found by completing the square. For example:

$$x^{2} - 4x + 5 = (x - 2)^{2} + 1$$

$$= (x - 2)^{2} - i^{2}$$

$$= (x - 2 - i)(x - 2 + i).$$

Notice that this factorization has the form

$$(x-z)(x-\bar{z})$$

where z = 2 + i. This is not an accident but rather is a consequence of the following claim.

12. Claim.

Let $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then:

$$f(z) = 0 \Rightarrow f(\bar{z}) = 0.$$

Thus, if a polynomial has real coefficients and $z = \alpha + \beta i$ is a root, then so is the conjugate $\bar{z} = \alpha - \beta i$

13. Corollary.

Let $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ be a polynomial of degree n with real coefficients. If p has m real roots r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_m and 2l complex roots

$$(\alpha_1 \pm i\beta_1), (\alpha_2 \pm i\beta_2), \dots (\alpha_l \pm i\beta_l)$$

then p has factorisation of the form:

$$c \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{m} (x - r_i) \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{l} \left[(x - \alpha_j)^2 + \beta_j^2 \right]$$

Proof.

By the fundamental theorem of algebra, p must have the form (1). If $z = \alpha + i\beta$ is a complex root of p then so to is \bar{z} . Hence, by the factor theorem, p has a factor $(x-z)(x-\bar{z})$. But

$$(x-z)(x-\bar{z}) = x^2 - (z+\bar{z})x + z\bar{z}$$
$$= x^2 - 2\alpha x + \alpha^2 + \beta^2$$
$$= (x-\alpha)^2 + \beta^2)$$

The result follows by applying this observation to every conjugate pair of roots.

14. Remark.

It is seen from the preceding proof that if $z \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$(x-z)(x-\bar{z}) = x^2 - 2\operatorname{Re}(z)x + |z^2|^2.$$

15. Example.

Let z = 2 + i. Then Re(z) = 2 and $|z|^2 = 5$, and so

$$(x-z)(x-\bar{z}) = x^2 - 4x + 5.$$

16. Definition.

A function of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

where p(x) and q(x) are polynomials is called a *rational function*.

17. For purposes of integration, we interested in the case $\deg p < \deg q$. This can always be achieved by polynomial division:

$$\frac{x^2 + x}{x - 1} = \frac{x^2 - x + 2x}{x - 1}$$

$$= x + \frac{2x}{x - 1}$$

$$= x + \frac{2x - 2 + 2}{x - 1}$$

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

- 18. By cancellation, we can assume that p and q have no common factors (and, hence, no common zeros). If all common zeros (if any) have been cancelled, any remaining zero of q(x) is called a singularity or pole of the rational expresion.
- 19. Partial Fraction Decomposition Let $p, q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ with $\deg p < \deg q$. Then $\frac{p}{q}$ is a sum of terms of the following forms:

For each factor (x - w) of q with multiplicity m, there is a term:

$$\frac{A_1}{x-w} + \frac{A_2}{(x-w)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_m}{(x-w)^m}.$$

For each factor $(x - \alpha)^2 + \beta^2$ of q with multiplicity r there is a term:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{B_i x + C_i}{(x-\alpha)^2 + {\beta_i}^2}.$$

20. Example.

If $q(x) = (x-2)^3[(x+1)^2 + 2]^2$, then the exist constants A_1 , A_2 , A_3 , B_1 , C_1 , B_2 , C_2 such that

$$\frac{1}{q} = \frac{A_1}{x - 2} + \frac{A_2}{(x - 2)^2} + \frac{A_3}{(x - 3)^3} + \frac{B_1 x + C_1}{(x + 1)^2 + 2} + \frac{B_2 x + C_2}{[(x + 1)^2 + 2]^2}$$

21. Example

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

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

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

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

Since the denominators are equal the numerators can be equated. Hence

$$\begin{cases} A+B=0\\ -A+B+C=0\\ A+C=3 \end{cases}$$

Hence A = 1, B = -1, C = 2 and so

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

22. Example.

Let p(x) = x and $q(x) = (x-1)^4$. Then

$$\frac{p}{q} = \frac{A_1}{x - 1} + \frac{A_2}{(x - 1)^2} + \frac{A_3}{(x - 1)^3} + \frac{A_4}{(x - 1)^4}$$

Multiplying by q gives:

$$x = A_1(x-1)^3 + A_2(x-1)^2 + A_3(x-1) + A_4$$

Substituting x = 1 shows that $A_4 = 1$. Differentiating yields

$$1 = 3A_1(x-1)^2 + 2A_2(x-1) + A_3.$$

Substituting x = 1 shows that $A_3 = 1$. Differentiating again:

$$0 = 3 \cdot 2A_1(x-1) + 2A_2$$

Substituting x = 1 shows that $A_2 = 0$. Differentiating yet again:

$$0 = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot A_1$$

Hence $A_1 = 0$. It follows that

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

23. Claim.

Suppose that $q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is a polynomial of degree n, with distinct non zero roots w_i , $1 \le i \le n$, $w_i \in \mathbb{C}$ so that

$$q = \lambda(x - w_1)(x - w_2) \dots (x - w_n)$$

then there exist constants A_1, \dots, A_n such that

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{x - w_1} + \frac{A_2}{x - w_2} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{x - w_n}$$

Proof.

We seek A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n such that:

$$p = \frac{A_1 q(x)}{x - w_1} + \frac{A_2 q(x)}{x - w_2} + \dots + \frac{A_n q(x)}{x - w_n}$$

$$= A_1 \lambda (x - w_2)(x - w_3) \dots (x - w_n)$$

$$+ \frac{A_2 q}{x - w_2} + \dots + \frac{A_n q}{x - w_n}$$

Since $q(w_1) = 0$, putting $x = w_1$ yields:

$$p(w_1) = A_1 \lambda(w_1 - w_2)(w_1 - w_3) \dots (w_1 - w_n)$$

and so

$$A_1 = \frac{p(w_1)}{\prod_{j \neq 1}^{m} (w_1 - w_j)}$$
 (2)

It is left as a simple exercise in differentiation to show that

$$A_1 = \frac{p(w_1)}{q'(w_1)}$$

The same argument shows that:

$$A_i = \frac{p(w_i)}{q'(w_i)}$$
 $i = 2, ..., n$ (3)

Conversely, it is easy to verify that the A_i obtained satisfy the required partial fraction decomposition.

24. Example using (2).

$$\frac{2x^2 + x + 1}{(x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)} = \frac{A_1}{x - 1} + \frac{A_2}{x - 2} + \frac{A_3}{x - 3}.$$
Using (2):

$$A_{1} = \frac{2x^{2} + x + 1}{(x - 2)(x - 3)} \Big|_{x=1} = 2,$$

$$A_{2} = \frac{2x^{2} + x + 1}{(x - 1)(x - 3)} \Big|_{x=2} = -11,$$

$$A_{3} = \frac{2x^{2} + x + 1}{(x - 1)(x - 2)} \Big|_{x=3} = 11,$$

25. Example using (3).

$$\frac{x+2}{x^2+4x+3} = \frac{x+2}{(x+3)(x+1)}$$
$$= \frac{A_1}{x+3} + \frac{A_2}{x+1}$$

Let

$$p(x) = x + 2$$
, $q(x) = x^2 + 4x + 3$.

Then

$$q'(x) = 2x + 4.$$

Hence, using (3)

$$A_1 = \frac{p(-3)}{q'(-3)} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad A_2 = \frac{p(-1)}{q'(-1)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

and so

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

26. Example:

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

$$= \frac{3}{(x+1)(x-\omega)(x-\overline{\omega})}$$

$$= \frac{A_1}{x+1} + \frac{A_2}{x-\omega} + \frac{A_3}{x-\overline{\omega}}$$

where ω is a complex root of -1. Let p(x) = 3 and $q(x) = x^3$, so that

$$q'(x) = 3x^2.$$

Then, by (3), $A_1 = \frac{p(-1)}{q'(-1)} = 1$,

$$A_2 = \frac{p(\omega)}{q'(\omega)} = \frac{1}{\omega^2} = -\omega$$

Similarly, $A_3 = -\bar{\omega}$.

Hence

$$\frac{3}{x^3 + 1} = \frac{1}{x + 1} - \frac{\omega}{x - \omega} - \frac{\bar{\omega}}{x - \bar{\omega}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x + 1} - \frac{(\omega + \bar{\omega})x + 2\omega\bar{\omega}}{x^2 - x + 1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x + 1} - \frac{x - 2}{x^2 - x + 1}$$

(Recall that in a quadratic $x^2 + bx + c$, The product of the roots is c and their sum is -b.)

Exercises—Rational Functions

Prof. Philip Pennance ² Version: – February 2019.

1. Let

$$p(x) = 2x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$q(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)$$

Find A_1 , A_2 , A_3 such that

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{x-1} + \frac{A_2}{x-2} + \frac{A_3}{x-3}.$$

- 2. Find the partial fraction expansion of:
 - (a) $\frac{x^2}{1+x}$
 - (b) $\frac{1}{x^2 1}$
 - (c) $\frac{x+1}{x^2+5x+6}$
 - (d) $\frac{x^2 + 2x + 3}{(x-1)^2(x-4)}$
 - (e) $\frac{1}{(x-a)(x-b)(x-c)} \text{ if } a \neq b \neq c.$
 - (f) $\frac{rx+s}{(x+a)(x+b)}$ if $a \neq b$.

(g)
$$\frac{3x^2 + 2x + 1}{(x-1)(x-2)^2(1+x+x^2)}$$

- 3. Let $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$. Show that:
 - (a) $\overline{(z+w)} = \overline{z} + \overline{w}$
 - (b) $\overline{z^n} = (\overline{z})^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- 4. Let p be a polynomial with real coefficients. Show that if $w \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of p then so is \overline{w} .
- 5. Let $p \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ be a polynomial with real coefficients. Show that if $\beta + i\gamma$ is a root of p, where β and γ are real, then $(x \beta)^2 + \gamma^2$ is a factor.
- 6. Use the substitution $t = \tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ to evaluate $\int \sec x \, dx$.

- 7. A polynomial $q \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is of the lowest degree possible such that q(2) = q(1+i) = 0, $q(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and q(1) = 1.
 - (a) Find q.
 - (b) Find the partial fraction expansion of 1/q.
 - (c) Find $\int \frac{1}{q(x)} dx$.
- 8. Evaluate

(a)
$$\int \frac{1000}{x^2 + 2x} dx$$

(b)
$$\int \frac{x+3}{x^2+2x+2} \, dx$$

(c)
$$\int \frac{x^3}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

(d)
$$\int \frac{x^8}{x^4 - 1} dx$$

(e)
$$\int \frac{x-1}{(x^2+2x+5)^3} \, dx$$

(f)
$$\int \frac{1}{x^3 - x} dx$$

(g)
$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 5} dx$$

(h)
$$\int \frac{1}{x^3 + 27} dx$$

$$(i) \int \frac{x}{x^2 + x + 1} \, dx$$

9. Integrate by reduction to rational functions:

(a)
$$\int_{1/3}^{3} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x^2 + x} dx$$

(b)
$$\int \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x - 3\cos x} dx$$

(c)
$$\int \frac{\cosh t}{\sinh^2 t + \sinh^4 t} dt.$$

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