

## Course 11

### 2.7 Polynomial rings (continued)

**Definition 2.7.7** Let  $0 \neq f \in R[X]$  be a polynomial with unique algebraic form

$$f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n,$$

where  $a_0, \dots, a_n \in R$  and  $a_n \neq 0$ . Then  $n$  is called the *degree* of  $f$  and is denoted by  $\deg(f)$ .

By convention, the degree of the zero polynomial is  $-\infty$ .

**Theorem 2.7.8** Let  $f, g \in R[X]$ . Then:

- (i)  $\deg(f + g) \leq \max(\deg(f), \deg(g))$ ;
- (ii)  $\deg(f \cdot g) \leq \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ ;
- (iii) If  $R$  is an integral domain, then  $\deg(f \cdot g) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .

*Proof.* If  $f = 0$  or  $g = 0$ , then the properties (i) and (ii) hold by assuming the conventions  $-\infty + n = n + (-\infty) = -\infty$ ,  $(-\infty) + (-\infty) = -\infty$  and  $-\infty \leq n$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Consider now the non-trivial cases, when  $f = \sum_{i=0}^m a_iX^i$ ,  $g = \sum_{j=0}^n b_jX^j \in R[X]$ , where  $a_m \neq 0$  and  $b_n \neq 0$ . Hence  $\deg(f) = m \geq 0$  and  $\deg(g) = n \geq 0$ .

(i) We may suppose that  $m \geq n$ . If  $m > n$ , then

$$f + g = \sum_{j=0}^n (a_j + b_j)X^j + \sum_{i=n+1}^m a_iX^i,$$

hence  $\deg(f + g) = m$ . If  $m = n$ , then

$$f + g = \sum_{j=0}^m (a_j + b_j)X^j,$$

hence  $\deg(f + g) \leq m$ . In any case,  $\deg(f + g) \leq \max(\deg(f), \deg(g))$ .

(ii) We have

$$f \cdot g = a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)X + \cdots + (a_mb_n)X^{m+n} \in R[X],$$

hence  $\deg(f \cdot g) \leq m + n$ .

(iii) In the proof of (ii), notice that if  $a_mb_n \neq 0$ , then  $\deg(f \cdot g) = m + n$ . But since  $a_m \neq 0$ ,  $b_n \neq 0$  and  $R$  is an integral domain, we have  $a_mb_n \neq 0$  and consequently  $\deg(f \cdot g) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .  $\square$

**Example 2.7.9** (a) Let  $f = 1 + X + X^2$ ,  $g = 1 - X^2 \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ . Then  $f + g = 2 + X$  and we have  $\deg(f + g) = 1 < 2 = \max(\deg(f), \deg(g))$ .

(b) Let  $f = \hat{1} + \hat{2}X$ ,  $g = \hat{1} + \hat{3}X^2 \in \mathbb{Z}_6[X]$ . Then  $f \cdot g = \hat{1} + \hat{2}X + \hat{3}X^2$  and we have  $\deg(f \cdot g) = 2 \neq 3 = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .

**Corollary 2.7.10** If  $R$  is an integral domain, then  $R[X]$  is an integral domain.

*Proof.* Let  $f, g \in R[X]$  with  $f \neq 0$  and  $g \neq 0$ . Then  $\deg(f) \geq 0$  and  $\deg(g) \geq 0$ . Now by Theorem 2.7.8, we have  $\deg(f \cdot g) = \deg(f) + \deg(g) \geq 0$ , whence it follows that  $f \cdot g \neq 0$ . Hence  $R[X]$  has no zero divisors. Clearly,  $R[X] \neq \{0\}$  is commutative and has identity. Consequently,  $R[X]$  is an integral domain.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.7.11** Let  $R$  be an integral domain. Then the invertible elements in the ring  $R[X]$  coincide with the invertible elements in the ring  $R$ .

*Proof.* First, let  $f \in R[X]$  be invertible in  $R[X]$ . Then there exists  $g \in R[X]$  such that  $f \cdot g = 1$ . It follows that  $\deg(f \cdot g) = 0$ , whence  $\deg(f) + \deg(g) = 0$  by Theorem 2.7.8. Then  $\deg(f) = \deg(g) = 0$  (note that  $f \neq 0$  and  $g \neq 0$ ), that is,  $f, g \in R$ . But since  $f \cdot g = 1$ , it follows that  $f$  is invertible in  $R$ .

Secondly, if  $f \in R$  is invertible in  $R$ , then clearly  $f$  is invertible in  $R[X]$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.7.12** *Let  $K$  be a field. Then the invertible elements in the ring  $K[X]$  are exactly the polynomials of degree zero.*

We denote by  $U(R)$  the set (group) of invertible elements in the ring  $R$ .

**Example 2.7.13** (a)  $U(\mathbb{Z}[X]) = U(\mathbb{Z}) = \{-1, 1\}$ .

(b)  $U(\mathbb{Q}[X]) = \mathbb{Q}^*$ ,  $U(\mathbb{R}[X]) = \mathbb{R}^*$ ,  $U(\mathbb{C}[X]) = \mathbb{C}^*$ .

(c)  $U(\mathbb{Z}_p[X]) = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  (where  $p$  is a prime number).

## 2.8 Polynomial functions. Roots of polynomials

**Definition 2.8.1** Let  $f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in R[X]$  and  $c \in R$ .

The element

$$a_0 + a_1c + \cdots + a_nc^n,$$

obtained by formally replacing in  $f$  the indeterminate  $X$  by  $c$ , is called the *value of the polynomial  $f$  at the point  $c$* , and is denoted by  $f(c)$ .

An element  $c \in R$  is called a *root* of  $f$  if  $f(c) = 0$ .

The function  $\bar{f} : R \rightarrow R$  defined by

$$\bar{f}(c) = f(c) = a_0 + a_1c + \cdots + a_nc^n,$$

is called the *polynomial function* associated to the polynomial  $f$ .

**Theorem 2.8.2** *The function  $\varphi : R[X] \rightarrow R^R$  defined by  $\varphi(f) = \bar{f}$  is a unitary ring homomorphism between the rings  $(R[X], +, \cdot)$  and  $(R^R, +, \cdot)$ .*

*Proof.* Recall that  $R^R$  denotes the set of all functions  $f : R \rightarrow R$ .

Clearly,  $\varphi(1) = 1_R$ . Let  $f, g \in R[X]$ . For every  $c \in R$ , we have:

$$\overline{(f+g)}(c) = (f+g)(c) = f(c) + g(c) = \bar{f}(c) + \bar{g}(c) = (\bar{f} + \bar{g})(c),$$

$$\overline{(f \cdot g)}(c) = (f \cdot g)(c) = f(c) \cdot g(c) = \bar{f}(c) \cdot \bar{g}(c) = (\bar{f} \cdot \bar{g})(c).$$

It follows that:

$$\varphi(f+g) = \overline{f+g} = \bar{f} + \bar{g} = \varphi(f) + \varphi(g),$$

$$\varphi(f \cdot g) = \overline{f \cdot g} = \bar{f} \cdot \bar{g} = \varphi(f) \cdot \varphi(g).$$

Hence  $\varphi$  is a unitary ring homomorphism.

**Definition 2.8.3** With the above notation,  $Im \varphi$  is a subring of the ring  $(R^R, +, \cdot)$ , called the *ring of polynomial functions*.

**Remark 2.8.4** (1) If the ring  $R$  is finite and  $R \neq \{0\}$ , then the ring  $R[X]$  is infinite, while the ring  $R^R$  is finite. Hence  $\varphi$  is not injective, and so there are different polynomials having the same associated polynomial function.

For instance,  $f = X + X^2 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[X]$  and  $g = \hat{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_2[X]$  have the same associated polynomial function. Indeed, we have  $\bar{f}(\hat{0}) = f(\hat{0}) = \hat{0} = g(\hat{0}) = \bar{g}(\hat{0})$  and  $\bar{f}(\hat{1}) = f(\hat{1}) = \hat{0} = g(\hat{1}) = \bar{g}(\hat{1})$ , and so  $\bar{f} = \bar{g}$ .

(2) Let  $f \in R[X]$ . Then  $f \in Ker \varphi \Leftrightarrow \bar{f} = 0$  (the zero function)  $\Leftrightarrow f(a) = 0, \forall a \in R$ .

**Theorem 2.8.5** (The Division Algorithm for polynomials) *Let  $R$  be an integral domain and let  $f \in R[X]$  and  $g = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j X^j \in R[X]$  with  $b_n$  invertible in  $R$ . Then there exist unique polynomials  $q, r \in R[X]$  such that*

$$f = gq + r, \quad \text{where } \deg(r) < \deg(g).$$

*Proof.* Let us first discuss two trivial cases.

If  $f = 0$  or  $\deg(f) < \deg(g)$ , then clearly  $f = g \cdot 0 + f$ , whence  $q = 0$  and  $r = f$ .

If  $n = 0$ , then  $g = b_0 \in R$  is invertible by hypothesis and we have

$$f = g \cdot (g^{-1} \cdot f) + 0,$$

whence  $q = g^{-1} \cdot f$  and  $r = 0$ .

In the sequel suppose that  $f \neq 0$  and  $\deg(f) \geq \deg(g) = n \geq 1$ . Let  $f = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$  with  $a_m \neq 0$ . We will prove the existence of the requested  $q, r \in R[X]$  by induction on  $m = \deg(f)$ .

If  $m = 1$ , then we have  $m = n = 1$ , say  $f = a_0 + a_1 X$  and  $g = b_0 + b_1 X$ , with  $a_1, b_1 \neq 0$ . It follows that

$$f = g \cdot (a_1 b_1^{-1}) + (a_0 - b_0 a_1 b_1^{-1}),$$

whence  $q = a_1 b_1^{-1}$  and  $r = a_0 - b_0 a_1 b_1^{-1}$ .

Suppose now that the result holds for every polynomial of degree strictly less than  $m$  and we prove that it holds for every polynomial  $f$  of degree  $m$ . Consider

$$\begin{aligned} h &= f - (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n}) \cdot g \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i + a_m X^m - (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n}) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j X^j - (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n}) b_n X^n \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i - (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n}) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j X^j. \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\deg(h) < m$  and we may apply the induction hypothesis. Hence there exist  $q', r \in R[X]$  such that

$$h = gq' + r, \quad \text{where } \deg(r) < \deg(g).$$

Then

$$f = h + (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n}) \cdot g = g \cdot (a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n} + q') + r,$$

whence  $q = a_m b_n^{-1} X^{m-n} + q'$ . Therefore, we have proved the existence of the required  $q, r \in R[X]$ .

Let us now prove the uniqueness. Suppose that there exist  $q, q_1, r, r_1 \in R[X]$  such that

$$f = gq + r, \quad \text{where } \deg(r) < \deg(g),$$

$$f = gq_1 + r_1, \quad \text{where } \deg(r_1) < \deg(g).$$

Then  $r_1 - r = g \cdot (q_2 - q_1)$ . But  $\deg(r_1 - r) < \deg(g)$ . Since  $g \neq 0$ , we get  $q_2 - q_1 = 0$ . Then  $q_1 = q_2$  and  $r_1 = r_2$ , that end the proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.8.6** *Let  $K$  be a field and let  $f, g \in K[X]$  with  $g \neq 0$ . Then there exist unique polynomials  $q, r \in K[X]$  such that*

$$f = gq + r, \quad \text{where } \deg(r) < \deg(g).$$

**Corollary 2.8.7** *Let  $R$  be an integral domain,  $f \in R[X]$  and  $c \in R$ .*

(i) *The remainder of the division of  $f$  by the polynomial  $X - c$  is  $f(c)$ .*

(ii)  *$X - c \mid f$  if and only if  $f(c) = 0$  (Bézout).*

(iii) *If  $\deg(f) = n \geq 0$ , then  $f$  has at most  $n$  roots in  $R$ . Hence every polynomial of degree  $n$  over an integral domain  $R$  has at most  $n$  roots in  $R$ .*

*Proof.* (i) By Theorem 2.8.5, there exist  $q, r \in R[X]$  such that  $f = (X - c)q + r$ , where  $\deg(r) < 1$ , that is, either  $\deg(r) = 0$  or  $\deg(r) = -\infty$ . Hence  $r \in R$ . It follows that  $f(c) = r$ .

(ii) Immediate by (i).

(iii) The proof is by induction on the degree of  $f$ .

For  $n = 0$  the result holds, since polynomials of degree zero do not have any roots.

Suppose that the result holds for any polynomial of degree strictly less than  $n$  and let us prove it for  $f$  with  $\deg(f) = n$ . Let  $c \in R$  be a root of  $f$ , that is,  $f(c) = 0$ . Then clearly,  $f = (X - c) \cdot g$ , where  $\deg(g) < \deg(f) = n$ . By the induction hypothesis,  $g$  has at most  $n - 1$  roots in  $R$ . But  $R$  is an integral domain, hence the roots of  $g$  are also roots of  $f$ . It follows that  $f$  has at most  $n$  roots in  $R$ , which completes the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.8.8** *Let  $R$  be an infinite integral domain. Then the unitary ring homomorphism  $\varphi : R[X] \rightarrow R^R$  defined by  $\varphi(f) = \bar{f}$  (see Theorem 2.8.2) is injective. Hence the polynomial ring  $R[X]$  is isomorphic to the ring  $\text{Im } \varphi$  of polynomial functions.*

*Proof.* Let  $f \in \text{Ker } \varphi$ . Then  $\bar{f} = 0$  (the zero function), and so  $f(a) = 0, \forall a \in R$ . Hence  $f$  has an infinite number of roots. It follows that  $f = 0$  by Corollary 2.8.7 (iii). Hence  $\text{Ker } \varphi = \{0\}$ , and so  $\varphi$  is injective. By the first isomorphism theorem for rings it follows that  $R[X] \cong R[X]/\{0\} \cong R[X]/\text{Ker } \varphi \cong \text{Im } \varphi$ .

**Corollary 2.8.9** *Let  $R$  be an infinite integral domain and let  $f, g \in R[X]$ . Then:*

$$\bar{f} = \bar{g} \Leftrightarrow f = g.$$

**Example 2.8.10** (a) Let  $f = X^2 - \hat{4} \in \mathbb{Z}_{12}[X]$ . Then its roots are  $\hat{2}, \hat{4}, \hat{8}$  and  $\hat{10}$ . Hence  $f$  has more roots than its degree.

(b) If  $\mathbb{H}$  is the quaternion division ring, then the polynomial  $f = X^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{H}[X]$  has an infinite number of roots. Indeed, there are infinitely many  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 1$ . Then every  $x = ai + bj + ck$  is a root of  $f$ , because  $f(x) = x^2 + 1 = -(a^2 + b^2 + c^2) + 1 = 0$ .

We mention without proof the following result, also called the *Fundamental Theorem of Algebra*.

**Theorem 2.8.11** (D'Alembert-Gauss) *Every polynomial of degree  $n \geq 1$  with complex coefficients has at least one complex root.*

**Corollary 2.8.12** *Every polynomial of degree  $n \geq 0$  with complex coefficients has exactly  $n$  complex roots.*