

MATH 314 (Lecture 17)

Topics to be discussed today

Polynomial algebra

Let F be a field.

Define $F[x] = \text{Set of polynomials with coefficients in } F$

$$f = q_0 + q_1 x + \dots + q_n x^n$$

$$g = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m$$

$$f+g = (q_0+b_0) + (q_1+b_1)x + \dots$$

For a scalar $c \in F$

$$cf = cq_0 + cq_1 x + \dots + cq_n x^n$$

With addition & scalar multiplication defined as above $F[x]$ is a vector space over F .

Qn: What is the dimension of $F[x]$ over F ?

We can also multiply two polynomials.

$$f = q_0 + q_1 x + \dots + q_n x^n$$

$$g = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m$$

$$\begin{aligned} fg &= q_0 (b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m) + \\ &\quad q_1 x (b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Some properties of this multiplication

1) Multiplication is associative

$$f(gh) = (fg)h$$

2) Distributive

$$f(g+h) = fg + fh$$

$$(f+g)h = fh + gh$$

3) $\forall c \in F$

$$c(fg) = (cf)g = f(cg)$$

$F[x]$ is an example of linear algebra
over F .

Defn: Let F be a field. A linear algebra
over the field F is a vector space

V over F with an additional operation
of multiplication of vectors such that

1) Multiplication is associative

2) Distributive property holds

3) For scalar $c \in F$

$$c(\alpha\beta) = (\alpha)c\beta = \alpha(c\beta)$$

Defn: let V be a linear algebra over F .
If there exists a multiplicative identity in V , i.e., there exists an element $1 \in V$ such that $(\alpha)(1) = (1)\alpha$ $\forall \alpha \in V$,

we say that V is a linear algebra with identity. We say V is commutative if $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$ $\forall \alpha, \beta \in V$.

Example: 1) F over F

2) $F[x]$ over F

3) $M_{n \times n}(F)$ over F

4) $L(V, V)$ over F

Polynomial Algebra

Terminology

$$f(x) \neq 0$$

$$q_0 + q_1x + \dots + q_nx^n$$

If n is the largest power of x such that $q_n \neq 0$, then n is called degree of f .

q_0, q_1, \dots, q_n are called Coefficients of f .

If $q_n = 1$ (n being degree of f) we say that $f(x)$ is monic.

Lemma: Let $f, g \in F[x]$ both non-zero.

Then

i) fg is a non-zero polynomial.

ii) $\deg(fg) = \deg f + \deg g$

iii) Assume $f+g \neq 0$, then

$$\deg(f+g) \leq \max(\deg f, \deg g)$$

Pf: $f = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \quad \deg f = n$
 $a_n \neq 0$

$$g = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m \quad b_m \neq 0$$

$\deg g = m$

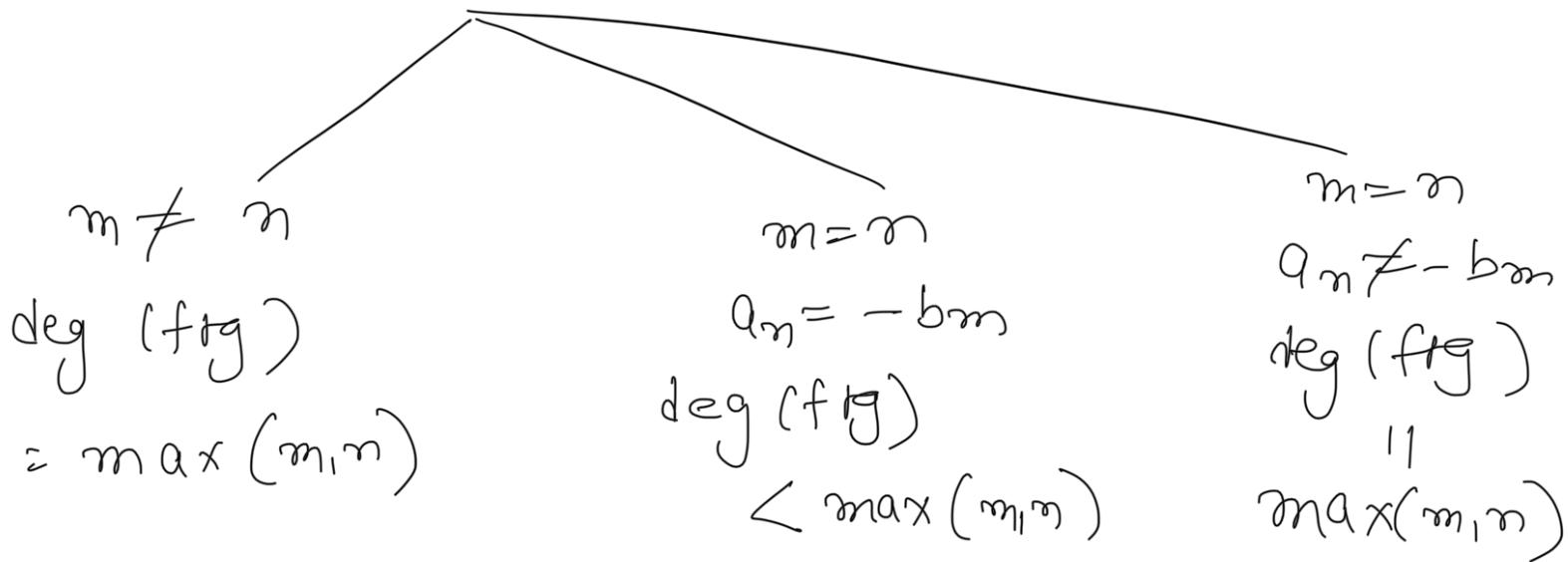
$$fg = a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x + \dots + a_n b_m x^{n+m}$$

$a_n b_m \neq 0$ because $a_n \neq 0$ & $b_m \neq 0$

$$\deg(fg) = n+m = \deg f + \deg g$$

So, (i) & (ii) are proved.

iii) $f + g$



So, $\deg(f+g) \leq \max(m, n)$

Evaluating polynomials

$$f(x) \in F[x]$$

x can take values in any linear algebra over F , not just F .

Example: Consider $x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$

We can plug in X for any element
of linear algebra over \mathbb{R} .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(A) = A^2 + I$$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^2 + I = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$$

We will revisit this idea when we
discuss characteristic polynomials.

Revisiting integers \mathbb{Z}

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{ \dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots \}$$

We have division algorithm in \mathbb{Z} .

Division algorithm: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \neq 0$

there exists a quotient q and a remainder r such that

$$a = bq + r$$

where $r=0$ or $0 < r < |a|$

This division algorithm allows us to compute GCD of two integers.

\downarrow
Greatest Common
Divisor

Example: Let us compute $\text{GCD}(36, 20)$.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 36 & = & 20(1) + 16 \\ & & \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 20 & = & 16(1) + 4 \quad \leftarrow \quad 4 \text{ is the} \\ & & \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{GCD} \\ 16 & = & 4(4) + 0 \end{array}$$

In general

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a & = & b q_0 + r \quad r < b \\ & & \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ b & = & r q_1 + r_1 \quad r_1 < r < b \\ & & \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ r & = & r_1 q_2 + r_2 \\ & & \vdots \\ & & \vdots \\ & & \vdots \end{array}$$

$$r_i = r_{i+1} q_{i+1} + 0 \quad \xrightarrow{\text{GCD}}$$

Division algorithm allows us to define
prime numbers.

Defn: An integer p is called prime if its only divisors are $\pm p$ and ± 1 .

Example: $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots$

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ARITHMETIC

Let $N \in \mathbb{Z}$, $N \neq 0, \pm 1$. Then, there exists unique (upto permutations of primes & signs) factorization of N as a product of primes.

Proof: Let's see an example.

$$36 = 4 \cdot 9 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 = 3^2 \cdot 2^2 = (-3)^2 \cdot 2^2$$

It is sufficient to prove this result for positive integers.

We will prove this via induction on N .

If $N=2$, then N is already a prime.

Suppose the theorem holds for

$$N \in \{2, 3, \dots, k-1\}.$$

Consider $N=k$. If N is already a prime, we are done. Otherwise N is composite and hence

$$N = N_1 N_2$$

$$2 \leq N_i \leq k-1$$

Apply induction on N_1 & N_2 to get their prime factorizations.

$$\text{So, } N = p_1^{q_1} p_2^{q_2} \cdots p_r^{q_r}.$$

Analogous to \mathbb{Z} , we have division algorithm in $F[x]$. (F field).

Example: Let us divide $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 & & x^3 + x \\
 & \xrightarrow{\text{Multiplying}} & \hline
 x+1 & | & x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \\
 & - & x^4 + x^3 \\
 \hline
 & & 0 + 0 + x^2 + x + 1 \\
 & \xrightarrow{\substack{\text{(Multiply } x \text{)} \\ \text{with } x+1}}} & x^2 + x \\
 \hline
 & & 1
 \end{array}$$

Remainder

$$(x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1) = (x+1)(x^3 + x) + 1$$

Quotient
 remainder

Thm: Let $f, g \in F[x]$, $g \neq 0$. Then
 there exists $q(x)$ (quotient) and
 $r(x)$ (remainder) such that
 $f = gq + r$ where $r=0$
 or $\deg r < \deg g$.

Proof: If $\deg f < \deg g$, then
 $q=0$ & $r=f$.

Otherwise say

$$f = q_0 + q_1x + \dots + q_n x^n \quad n > m$$

$$g = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_m x^m$$

$$f - \left(\frac{q_n}{b_m}\right)x^{n-m}g = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1}$$

If $n-1 < m$ or $RHS = 0$ then stop

Otherwise, repeat.

$$\left(C_0 + C_1 x + \dots + C_{n-1} x^{n-1} \right) - \left(\frac{C_{n-1}}{b^m} \right) x^{n-1-m} g$$



$$= - - - - .$$

$$f - \left(\frac{a_n}{b^m} x^{n-m} + \frac{C_{n-1}}{b^m} x^{n-1-m} \right) g$$

$$= h(x)$$

:

Repeat this till RHS = 0 or $\deg(\text{RHS}) < \deg g$.

$$f - q(x)g = r(x)$$



quotient



remainder

Irreducible Polynomials

(Analog of prime numbers)

Defn: We say a non-constant polynomial $f(x)$ is irreducible in $F[x]$ if

whenever $f = gh$, $\deg g = 0$ or $\deg h = 0$.

Example: 1) All degree 1 polynomials are irreducibles.

2) $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$.

3) $x^2 - 2$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

but reducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$.

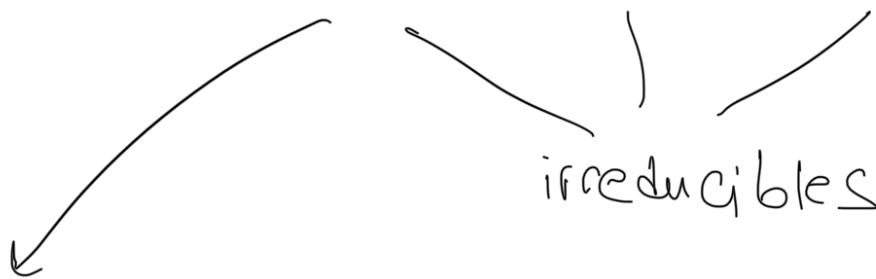
$$x^2 - 2 = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})$$

Thm: A non-constant monic polynomial in
 (top degree)
 (coefficient is)
 $F[x]$ can be factored as a product
 of monic irreducibles in $F[x]$
 uniquely (upto ordering).

Pf: Same as \mathbb{Z} . Use induction on
 degree.

So, if $f \in F[x]$, monic non-constant
 then

$$f = f_1^{q_1} f_2^{q_2} \cdots f_n^{q_n}$$



This decomposition is called primary decomposition.

\mathbb{Z}

Absolute value

Division algorithm

Primes

Unique factorization
into primes

$F[x]$

Degree

Division algorithm

irreducibles

Unique factorization
into irreducibles.