Abstract Algebra by Pinter, Chapter 26

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Abstract

Chapter 26 on Substitution in Polynomials

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1 A. Finding Roots of Polynomials over Finite Fields

1.1 Q1

1.1.1
$$f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$$

$$f(4) = 0 \implies (x+1)$$
 is a factor.

$$f(x)/(x+1) = x^2+1$$
, and $x^2+1 = (x+3)(x-3)$ because $(2)^2+1 = 0$, so $f(x) = (x+1)(x+3)(x-3)$.

1.1.2
$$f(x) = 3x^4 + x^2 + 1$$

$$f(1) = 0 \implies (x+4)$$
 is a factor.

$$f(4) = 0 \implies (x+1)$$
 is a factor.

$$(x+4)(x+1) = x^2 + 4$$
. And $f(x)/(x^2 + 4) = 3x^2 + 4$

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

1.1.3 $f(x) = x^5 + 1$

(x+1) is a factor.

$$(x+1)^5 = x^5 + 5x^4 + 10x^3 + 10x^2 + 5x + 1$$
$$= x^5 + 1$$

1.1.4 $f(x) = x^4 + 1$

No roots

1.1.5 $f(x) = x^4 + 4$

f(1), f(2), f(3), f(4) = 0

 $x^4 + 4 = (x+1)(x+2)(x+3)(x+4)$. That is all values of $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ where $a \neq 0$.

1.2 Q2

1.2.1 $a(x) = x^{100} - 1$

 $\phi(7)=6$ and so $x^{100}\equiv (x^6)^{16}x^4\equiv x^4\pmod 7$ because $x^6=1$. This is true for all $a\in\mathbb{Z}_7$ so any root in $x^{100}-1$ must also be in x^4-1 .

f(1), f(6) = 0 so these are the roots.

1.2.2 $a(x) = 3x^{98} + x^{19} + 3$

 $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x], 3x^{98} + x^{19} + 3 = 3x^2 + x + 3.$ The only root is 1.

1.2.3 $a(x) = 2x^{74} - x^{55} + 2x + 6$

 $a(x) = 2x^2 + x + 6$. Roots are 4 and 6.

1.3 Q3

$$3x^3 - 5 + 2x - x^2$$

$$5 + 6x^5 - 2x^3$$

$$3x - x + 3x - x = 4x$$

1.4 Q4

Power act like an additive group modulo $\phi(p) = p - 1$, so any $x^{\phi(p)q+r}$ where $r < \phi(p)$ can be reduced to x^r .

2 B. Finding Roots of Polynomials over \mathbb{Q}

2.1 Q1

2.1.1 $9x^3 + 18x^2 - 4x - 8$

 $a_0 = -8$ and $a_n = 9$.

$$s = \pm 1, \pm 8, \pm 2, \pm 4$$

$$t = \pm 1, \pm 9, \pm 3$$

Possible roots are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 8, \pm 1/9, \pm 1/3, \pm 8/9, \pm 8/3, \pm 2/9, \pm 2/3, \pm 4/9, \pm 4/3$. Substituting in we find roots for $2, \pm 2/3$.

$$9x^3 + 18x^2 - 4x - 8 = 9(x - 2/3)(x + 2/3)(x + 2)$$

2.1.2 $4x^3 - 3x^2 - 8x + 6$

 $a_0 = 6$ and $a_n = 4$.

$$s = \pm 1, \pm 6, \pm 2, \pm 3$$

 $t = \pm 1, \pm 4, \pm 2$

Possible roots are $\pm 1, \pm 6, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 3/2, \pm 1/2, \pm 3/4$. Substituting in we find a root for 3/4. Dividing a(x) by (x-3/4) in sage, we get $4x^2-8$ as the remaining term.

$$4x^3 - 3x^2 - 8x + 6 = 4(x - 3/4)(x^2 - 2)$$

2.1.3 $2x^4 + 3x^3 - 8x - 12$

 $a_0 = -12$ and $a_n = 2$

$$s = \pm 1, \pm 12, \pm 3, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6$$

$$t = \pm 1, \pm 2$$

Possible roots: $\pm 1, \pm 12, \pm 3, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 3/2$. Root is -3/2. Dividing by (x + 3/2), we get $(2x^3 - 8)$ as the remaining term.

$$2x^4 + 3x^3 - 8x - 12 = 2(x + 3/2)(x^3 - 4)$$

2.1.4 $6x^4 - 7x^3 + 8x^2 - 7x + 2$

 $a_0=2 \ \mathrm{and} \ a_n=6$

$$s=\pm 1,\pm 2$$

$$t=\pm 1,\pm 6,\pm 2,\pm 3$$

Possible roots: $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 1/6, \pm 1/2, \pm 1/3, \pm 2/3$. Roots: 1/2, 2/3. Dividing by (x-1/2)(x-2/3), we get $6(x^2+1)$ as the remaining term.

$$6x^4 - 7x^3 + 8x^2 - 7x + 2 = 6(x - 1/2)(x - 2/3)(x^2 + 1)$$

2.2 Q2

2.2.1 $9x^3 + 18x^2 - 4x - 8$

$$9x^3 + 18x^2 - 4x - 8 = 9(x - 2/3)(x + 2/3)(x + 2)$$

2.2.1.1 $\mathbb{R}[x]$ Unchanged from above.

2.2.1.2 $\mathbb{C}[x]$ Unchanged from above. Every factor is of degree 1.

2.2.2 $4x^3 - 3x^2 - 8x + 6$

$$4x^3 - 3x^2 - 8x + 6 = 4(x - 3/4)(x^2 - 2)$$

2.2.2.1 $\mathbb{R}[x]$

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

$$4x^3-3x^2-8x+6=4(x-3/4)(x-\sqrt{2})(x+\sqrt{2})$$

2.2.2.2 $\mathbb{C}[x]$ Unchanged from above

2.2.3 $2x^4 + 3x^3 - 8x - 12$

$$2x^4 + 3x^3 - 8x - 12 = 2(x + 3/2)(x^3 - 4)$$

2.2.3.1 $\mathbb{R}[x]$

$$(x^3 - 4) = (x - \sqrt[3]{4})(x^2 + \sqrt[3]{4}x + (\sqrt[3]{4})^2)$$
$$2x^4 + 3x^3 - 8x - 12 = 2(x + 3/2)(x - \sqrt[3]{4})(x^2 + \sqrt[3]{4}x + (\sqrt[3]{4})^2)$$

2.2.3.2
$$\mathbb{C}[x]$$
 Let $A = \sqrt[3]{4}$

$$x^{2} + Ax + A^{2} = 0$$

$$(x + A/2)^{2} - (A/2)^{2} + A^{2} = (x + A/2)^{2} + (A/2)^{2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \sqrt{-(A/2)^{2}} - A/2 = \pm iA/2 - A/2$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{2} + Ax + A^{2} = (x - (\pm iA/2 - A/2))$$

$$= (x + A/2 + iA/2)(x + A/2 - iA/2)$$

$$2x^{4} + 3x^{3} - 8x - 12 = 2(x + 3/2)(x - A)(x + A/2 + iA/2)(x + A/2 - iA/2)$$

2.2.4
$$6x^4 - 7x^3 + 8x^2 - 7x + 2$$

$$6x^4 - 7x^3 + 8x^2 - 7x + 2 = 6(x - 1/2)(x - 2/3)(x^2 + 1)$$

2.2.4.1 $\mathbb{R}[x]$ Same as above.

2.2.4.2 $\mathbb{C}[x]$

$$(x^2+1) = (x-i)(x+i)$$

$$6x^4 - 7x^3 + 8x^2 - 7x + 2 = 6(x-1/2)(x-2/3)(x-i)(x+i)$$

2.3 Q3

$$18x^{3} + 27x^{2} - 8x - 12$$
$$2x^{3} - x^{2} - 2x + 1$$
$$3x^{3} + x^{2} - 3x - 1$$

2.4 Q4

2.4.1
$$18x^3 + 27x^2 - 8x - 12$$

$$a_0 = -12, a_n = 18$$

Factors of $a_0: \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 12$ Factors of $a_n: \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 6, \pm 9, \pm 18$ a = lambda x: 18*x**3 + 27*x**2 - 8*x - 12

Output:

- + 2 3
- 2 3
- 3 2
- + 4 6
- 4 6
 + 6 9
- 6 9
- + 12 18
- 12 18

Roots: $\pm 2/3, -3/2$

$$(x-2/3)(x+2/3)(x+3/2)$$

2.4.2 $2x^3 - x^2 - 2x + 1$

$$a_0 = 1, a_n = 2$$

Factors of $a_0: \pm 1$

Factors of $a_n: \pm 1, \pm 2$

Roots: $\pm 1, 1/2$

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

2.4.3 $3x^3 + x^2 - 3x - 1$

$$a_0 = -1, a_n = 3$$

Factors of $a_0:\pm 1$

Factors of $a_n: \pm 1, \pm 3$

Roots: $\pm 1, -1/3$

$$\sqrt{3}(x+1)(x-1)(x+1/3)$$

2.5 Q5

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

So there are no rational roots.

3 C. Short Questions Relating to Roots

3.1 Q1

Let a(x) = p(x) - p(c), then $a(c) = 0 \implies (x - c) \mid [p(x) - p(x)]$ and so p(x) - p(c) = q(x)(x - c) or p(x) = q(x)(x - c) + p(c). deg p(c) = 0 and deg(x - c) = 1.

3.2 Q2

$$\begin{split} p(x)-p(c) &= a_1(x-c)+\cdots + a_n(x^n-c^n)\\ &= q(x)(x-c)+r(x)\\ \deg r(x) &< \deg(x-c) \implies r(x) = r \geq 0\\ p(c)-p(c) &= 0 = q(x)(c-c)+r = 0+r = r \end{split}$$

Thus r = 0 and (x - c) | (p(x) - p(c)).

3.3 Q3

a(x) and b(x) are associates if $a(x) \mid b(x)$ and $b(x) \mid a(x) \iff$ they are constant multiples of each other. So a(x) = db(x), and $b(c) = 0 \implies a(x) = db(c) = d \cdot 0 = 0$.

3.4 Q4

 $a(x) = (x-c)^m$ and $b(x) = (x-c)^n$ both have the same roots but differ by non-constant factors and so are not associates.

3.5 Q5

a(x) has n roots $c_1,\ldots,c_n\in F$

$$\implies a(x) = q(x)[(x - c_1) \cdots (x - c_n)]$$

but $\deg[(x-c_1)\cdots(x-c_n)]=n=\deg a(x)$ and a(x) is monic, and so is $(x-c_1)\ldots(x-c_n)=x^n+\cdots+(-c_1)\cdots(-c_n)\implies q(x)=1$ and so

$$a(x) = (x - c_1) \cdots (x - c_n)$$

3.6 Q6

$$a(c) = b(c) \implies a(c) - b(c) = 0$$

Let $\deg[a(x)-b(x)]=m < n$, then a(x)-b(x) can be factored in at most m ways $(x-c_1)\cdots(x-c_m)$ but there exists a c such that $c\neq c_i$ for all m values, yet

$$a(c)-b(c)=0=k(c-c_1)\cdots(c-c_m)$$

by the fact F is a field, then F[x] is an integral domain and has no zero divisors. This means k=0 since all the other terms are nonzero.

$$a(x) - b(x) = 0$$
$$a(x) = b(x)$$

3.7 Q7

In \mathbb{Z}_5 , $2 \nmid 1$ and $2^2 \nmid 2$, so by Eisenstein's irreducibility criterion, any polynomial of the form

$$2 + \cdots + x^n$$

is irreducible. There are an infinite number of these polynomials.

3.8 Q8

$$\begin{split} x(x-1) &= 0 \\ \mathbb{Z}_{10} : 0, 1, 5, 6 \\ \mathbb{Z}_{11} : 0, 1 \end{split}$$

there are no divisors of zero in \mathbb{Z}_11 .

4 D. Irreducible Polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ by Eisenstein's Criterion (and Variations on the Theme)

4.1 Q1

$$\begin{array}{c} 2\mid (-8x^3+6x^2-4x)\\ 2\nmid 3x^4\\ 2^2\nmid 6\end{array}$$

So $3x^4 - 8x^3 + 6x^2 - 4x + 6$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

$$a(x) = \frac{1}{6}(4x^5 + 3x^4 - 12x^2 + 3)$$
$$3 \mid (3x^4 - 12x^2 + 3)$$
$$3 \mid 4x^5$$
$$3^2 \nmid 3$$

So a(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

$$a(x) = \frac{1}{15}(3x^4 - 5x^3 - 10x + 15)$$

$$5 \mid (-5x^3 - 10x + 15)$$

$$5 \mid 3x^4$$

$$5^2 \mid 15$$

So a(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

$$a(x) = \frac{1}{6}(3x^4 + 8x^3 - 4x^2 + 6)$$
$$2 \mid (8x^3 - 4x^2 + 6)$$
$$2 \mid 3x^4$$
$$2^2 \mid 6$$

So a(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

4.2 Q2

4.2.1 a

sage:
$$(x + 1)^4 + 4*(x + 1) + 1$$

 $x^4 + 4*x^3 + 6*x^2 + 8*x + 6$

$$(x+1)^4 + 4(x+1) + 1 = x^4 + 4x^3 + 6x^2 + 8x + 6$$

$$p = 2$$

$$p \mid (4x^3 + 6x^2 + 8x + 6)$$

$$p \nmid x^4$$

4.2.2 b

```
sage: x = PolynomialRing(RationalField(), 'x').gen()
sage: a = lambda x: x^4 + 2*x^2 - 1
sage: a(x + 1)
x^4 + 4*x^3 + 8*x^2 + 8*x + 2
p=2
sage: a = lambda x: x^3 + 3*x + 1
sage: a(x + 1)
x^3 + 3*x^2 + 6*x + 5
sage: a(x + 2)
x^3 + 6*x^2 + 15*x + 15
p = 3
sage: a = lambda x: x^4 + 1
sage: a(x + 1)
x^4 + 4*x^3 + 6*x^2 + 4*x + 2
sage: a = lambda x: x^4 - 10*x**2 + 1
sage: a(x + 1)
x^4 + 4*x^3 - 4*x^2 - 16*x - 8
p=4
```

4.3 Q3

$$\frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{x} = x^{p-1} + \binom{p}{p-1} x^{p-2} + \dots + p$$

 $p^2 \nmid 6$

All the coefficients except a_n are divisible by p, and p^2 does not divide p which is the constant term.

4.4 Q4

a(x) is irreducible $\implies h(a(x))$ is irreducible.

p divides every coefficient except a_0 and p^2 does not divide a_n , then a(x) is irreducible.

4.5 Q5

$$2 \mid (6x^4 + 4x^3 - 6x^2 - 8x), 2 \nmid 5, 2^2 \nmid 6x^4$$
$$3 \mid (6x^4 - 3x^2 + 9x), 3nmid - 8, 3^2 \nmid 6x^4$$
$$5 \mid (10x^3 + 5x^2 - 15x), 5 \nmid 12, 5^2 \nmid 10x^3$$

E. Irreducibility of Polynomials of Degree ≤ 4 5

5.1 $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{1}$

Any quadratic $ax^2 + bx + c$ is only reducible to degree 1 factors of the form $(x - c_1)(x - c_2)$. Likewise a cubic is reducible to either a quadratic and linear factor or 3 linear factors.

Since reducible polynomials of degree 2 and 3 both contain linear factors of the form (x-c) then they both have roots when x = c.

Thus an irreducible polynomial of degree 2 or 3 has no roots, and if a polynomial of degree 2 or 3 has no roots, then it is irreducible.

5.2 Q2

There are no roots for $x^3 + 4x = x(x^2 + 4) = 3$.

Using completing the square method $x^2 - \frac{2}{3}x - \frac{4}{3} = 0$ or $x^2 - \frac{2}{3}x = \frac{4}{3} = (x - \frac{2}{6})^2 - \frac{4}{36}$. Further solving for xwe get $x = \sqrt{\frac{1}{9} + \frac{4}{3}} + \frac{2}{6} = \sqrt{\frac{13}{9}} + \frac{2}{6}$. There is no rational root of 13 so the equation has no roots.

 $x(2x^2+2x+3)=-1 \implies x=\pm 1$ (NOTE: remember we are testing the equations in \mathbb{Z} for a solution). Therefore equation has no solution.

 $x^3 = -1/2$ has no rational roots.

Solving for x, we get $x = \sqrt{-\frac{3}{2} + \frac{5}{4}} = \sqrt{-\frac{1}{4}}$ which has no rational roots.

5.3 Q3

5.3.1
$$x^4 - 5x^2 + 1$$

a+c=0, ac+b+d=-5, bd=1. So $b=d=\pm 1$. And ac=-7 or ac=-3, but a=-c, so $c^2=7$ or $c^2=3$ which is has no rational roots.

5.3.2
$$3x^4 - x^2 - 2$$

a+c=0, ac+b+d=-1, bc+ad=0, bd=-2. Then $a=-c \implies bc-cd=c(b-d)=0$. Either c=0 or b-d=0. If c=0 then a=0 implies $ac+b+d=b+d=-1 \implies b=-1-d \implies bd=(-1-d)d=-2 \implies bd=(-1-d)d=-2$ $d^2+d+2=0 \implies d=\sqrt{-2-1/4}-1/2$ which has no solutions. If b-d=0 then $b=d \implies bd=b^2=-2$ which has no rational solution.

5.3.3
$$x^4 + x^3 + 3x + 1$$

a + c = 1, ac + b + d = 0, bc + ad = 3, bd = 1.

$$a = 1 - c$$

$$bc + ad = bc + (1-c)d = 3$$

 $bd=1 \implies b=d=\pm 1$ so bc+(1-c)d is either c+(1-c)=3 or -c-(1-c)=3. In the first case $c+(1-c)=1\neq 3$. In the second case $-c-(1-c)=-1\neq 3$. So the equation is inconsistent and has no solutions.

5.4 Q4

5.4.1
$$2x^3 + x^2 + 4x + 1$$

>>> a = lambda x: (2*x**3 + x**2 + 4*x + 1) % 5

>>> for i in range(5):

print(i, a(i), a(i) == 0)

- 0 1 False
- 1 3 False
- 2 4 False
- 3 1 False
- 4 1 False

5.4.2 $x^4 + 2$

 $a+c=0, ac+b+d=0, bc+ad=0, bd=2 \implies a=-c, c(b-d)=0$. Either c=0, then a=0 and $b+d=0 \implies b=-d$ and $d^2=-2$ which has no solutions, or $b-d=0 \implies b=d$ and $b^2=2$ which has no integer solutions.

5.4.3 $x^4 + 4x^2 + 2$

a + c = 0, ac + b + d = 4, bc + ad = 0, $bd = 2 \implies a = -c$.

Either b = 2, d = 1 or b = 1, d = 2.

$$b=2 \implies bc+ad=2c-c=c=0 \implies a=0 \implies ac+b+d=0+2+1=3\neq 0$$

 $b=1 \implies bc+ad=c-2c=-c=0$ which leads to the same conclusion as when b=2. Thus equation has no solution and cannot be reduced.

5.4.4 $x^4 + 1$

$$a + c = 0$$
, $ac + b + d = 0$, $bc + ad = 0$, $bd = 1$

 $\implies b = d = \pm 1$ and a = -c. Then $ac + b + d = -c^2 + 2b = 0$ or $c^2 = 2$ or -2, both of which do not have solutions.

6 F. Mapping onto \mathbb{Z}_n to Determine Irreducibility over \mathbb{Q}

6.1 Q1

If a(x) is reducible, this is the same as saying there exists b(x), c(x) such that a(x) = b(x)c(x). Since $\bar{h}(a(x))$ is homomorphic, then $\bar{h}(a(x)) = \bar{h}(b(x))\bar{h}(c(x))$. However the polynomial a(x) must be monic and hence so are its factors, otherwise a(x) could be reducible to factors with coefficients that divide n and so disappear from the homomorphism with the result not meaningfully factored (the degree of the result is less than the original preimage factorisation in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$).

6.2 Q2

 $\bar{h}(x^4 + 10x^3 + 7) = x^4 + 7$ cannot be reduced because 7 has no factors in \mathbb{Z}_5 . Therefore a(x) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

6.3 Q3

 $h: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_5, \bar{h}(x^4 - 10x + 1) = x^4 + 1$ which is irreducible.

 $h: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}_7, \bar{h}(x^4 + 7x^3 + 14x^2 + 3) = x^4 + 3$ which is irreducible.

This last one is wrong:

sage: x = PolynomialRing(QQ, 'x').gen()

sage: $(x^5 + 1).factor()$

 $(x + 1) * (x^4 - x^3 + x^2 - x + 1)$

7 F. Roots and Factors in A[x] When A Is an Integral Domain

7.1 Q1

$$(x-c)(x^{k-1}+\cdots+x^{k-2}c+\cdots+c^{k-1}) = x(x^{k-1}) + x(x^{k-2}c) + x(x^{k-3}c^2) + \cdots + x(c^{k-1}) - c(x^{k-1}) - c(x^{k-2}c) - \cdots - c(xc^{k-2}c) -$$

$$a_k(x-c)(x^{k-1}+\dots+xc^{k-2}+\dots+c^{k-1}) = a_k(x^k-c^k)$$

7.2 Q2

Because $a(x)-a(c)=a_1(x-c)+a_2(x^2-c^2)+\cdots+a_n(x^n-c^n)$ and from above we worked out that $a_k(x^k-c^k)=a_k(x-c)(x^{k-1}+x^{k-2}c+\cdots+xc^{k-2}+c^{k-1})$, so then $a(x)-a(c)=a_1(x-c)+a_2(x-c)(x+c)+a_3(x-c)(x^2+xc+c^2)+\cdots+a_n(x-c)(x^{n-1}+x^{n-2}c+\cdots+xc^{n-2}c+c^{k-1})$.

Let $q(x) = a_1 + a_2(x+c) + a_3(x^2 + xc + c^2) + \dots + a_n(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}c + \dots + xc^{n-2}c + c^{k-1})$, and then a(x) - a(c) = (x-c)q(x).

7.3 Q3

Every field is an integral domain. I think the book is asking when A is an integral domain (and not necessarily a field).

By above a(x) - a(c) = (x - c)q(x) in integral domains. If c is a root of a(x) then (x - c) is a factor and so a(c) = 0, or a(x) = (x - c)q(x). Likewise if (x - c) is a factor of a(x) then a(x) = (x - c)q(x) and a(c) = 0.

7.4 Q4

Theorem 2 follows automatically from theorem 1, because integral domains do not have zero divisors.

Theorem 3 also checks out.

8 H. Polynomial Interpolation

8.1 Q1

 $q_i(a_i) \neq 0$ because a_i is not a root of $q_i(x)$. All other values of $q_i(a_i) = 0$ because they are roots of $q_i(x)$.

8.2 Q2

For any i, $q_i(x) = c_i$ and

$$p(x) = \dots + b_i \frac{q_i(x)}{c_i} + \dots$$

All other terms of p(x) are $q_j(x)$ where $i \neq j$, and $q_j(a_i) = 0$, so $p(a_i) = b_i \frac{q_i(x)}{c_i}$ since all other terms are zero.

Lastly $q_i(x) = c_i$ and $b_i \frac{q_i(x)}{c_i} = b_i \implies p(a_i) = b_i$.

8.3 Q3

Let there be 2 polynomials p(x) and q(x) such that $p(a_i) = b_i = q(q_i)$, then $p(a_i) - q(a_i) = 0$, so p(x) - q(x) has n+1 distinct zeros, but $\deg p(x) - q(x) \le n$. From theorem 3, if p(x) - q(x) has degree n, it has at most n roots. Therefore no such q(x) exists.

8.4 Q4

Let $F = \{a_0, \dots, a_n\}$ and the function $f: F \to F$ be

$$f = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & a_n \\ \dots \\ b_0 & b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $a_i(x)=(x-a_0)\cdots(x-a_{i-1})(x-a_{i+1})\cdots(x-a_n)$ and $\deg q_i(x)=n-1.$

Since $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i \frac{q_i(x)}{q_i(a_i)}$, then $\deg p(x) = n-1$.

Lastly all terms $i \neq j$ in $p(a_i)$ are 0,

$$\frac{q_i(x)}{q_i(a_i)} = \frac{q_i(a_i)}{q_i(a_i)} = 1 \implies b_i \frac{q_i(x)}{q_i(a_i)} = b_i$$

So $p(a_i) = b_i$ and p = f from Q2 above since $\deg p(x) = n - 1 \implies p(x)$ is unique.

8.5 Q5

$$\begin{split} \forall a_i \in F, t(a_i) - p(a_i) &= 0 \implies t(x) - p(x) = (x - a_0) \cdots q(x) \\ \deg p(x) &= n - 1 < \deg[(x - a_0) \cdots (x - a_n)] = n \\ t(x) &= (x - a_0) \cdots (x - a_n) q(x) + p(x) \end{split}$$

9 I. Polynomial Functions over a Finite Field

9.1 Q1

 $x^2 + 4*x + 1$

```
f = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}
sage: x = PolynomialRing(IntegerModRing(5), 'x').gen()
sage: a = lambda x: x^2 -x + 1
sage: p = 0
sage: for i in range(5):
            b = a(x)(i)
. . . . :
           q = 1
. . . . :
. . . . :
            for j in range(5):
             if i == j:
                      continue
                 q *= (x - j)
. . . . :
          q_c = q(i)
. . . . :
            p += b*q/q_c
. . . . :
. . . . :
sage: p
```

So the other functions are determined by $x^2 - x + 1$ which is not surprising since it's degree is less than or equal to 4 which guarantees its uniqueness.

All other polynomials are determined by this one so they have a quotient equal to $(x-a_0)\cdots(x-a_n)$

```
sage: r = 1
sage: for i in range(5):
....: r *= (x - i)
sage: r
x^5 + 4*x
in our case x^5 + 4x.
3 examples:
sage: p
x^2 + 4*x + 1
sage: r
x^5 + 4*x
sage: f_1 = r*x + p
sage: f_2 = r*x^2 + p
sage: f_3 = r*x^3 + p
sage: (f_1, f_2, f_3)
(x^6 + 4*x + 1, x^7 + 4*x^3 + x^2 + 4*x + 1, x^8 + 4*x^4 + x^2 + 4*x + 1)
sage: for i in range(5):
. . . . :
        assert f_1(i) == p(i)
        assert f_2(i) == p(i)
        assert f_3(i) == p(i)
. . . . :
. . . . :
```

9.2 Q2

 $x^p=x$ so $x^p-x\equiv 0\pmod p$, because $x^{\phi(p)}=x$ and $\phi(p)=p-1$. $\implies x^p-x=x(x-1)\cdots [x-(p-1)]$

9.3 Q3

$$a(x) = x(x-1)\cdots[x-(p-1)]q(x) + p(x)$$

$$b(x) = x(x-1)\cdots[x-(p-1)]s(x) + p(x)$$

(see 26H5)

But $x(x-1)\cdots[x-(p-1)] = x^p - x$, so

$$a(x) = (x^p - x)q(x) + p(x)$$

$$b(x) = (x^p - x)s(x) + p(x)$$

$$a(x) - b(x) = (x^p - x)[q(x) - s(x)]$$

$$\implies (x^p - x) \mid (a(x) - b(x))$$

9.4 Q4

For every $c \in F$, a(c) = b(c). There are n values of c, but $\deg a(x) < n$ and $\deg b(x) < n$. From 26H3, there can only be one unique polynomial such that a(c) = y. Therefore a(x) = b(x).

9.5 Q5

$$a(x), b(x) \in F[x], \text{ then } a(x) = (x^p - x)q(x) + p(x), b(x) = (x^p - x)s(x) + p(x).$$

9.6 Q6

Let $a(x), b(x) \in F[x]$ be determined by $p_a(x)$ and $p_b(x)$ respectively. Then $h[a(x)] = p_a(x)$ and $h[b(x)] = p_b(x)$.

Then $a(x) = x(x-1)\cdots[x-(p-1)]q_a(x) + p_a(x)$ and b is defined similarly, which for every point in F evaluates to their determinants $p_a(x)$ and $p_b(x)$. Thus $h[a(x)b(x)] = p_a(x)p_b(x) = h[a(x)]h[b(x)]$.

From 26H4, we also see all functions from F to F, are a member of $\mathcal{F}(F)$, and have an equivalency with a polynomial in F[x]. Therefore the function $h: F[x] \to \mathcal{F}(F)$ is onto. Every element of the codomain $\mathcal{F}(F)$ has an equivalent value in the domain F[x], such that h is a map from domain to codomain.

9.7 Q7

$$\forall c \in F, p(c) = 0 \implies \forall q \in F[x], pq = 0 : J = p(x), h(J) = 0 \implies F[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle \cong \mathcal{F}(F)$$