

# Lecture 10

Polynomial Rings (多項式環)

# What you will learn in Lecture 10

10.1 Polynomial Rings (多項式環)

10.2 The Division Algorithm (除法の算法) for Polynomial rings

10.3 Irreducible Polynomials (既約多項式)

In this lecture, we assume that R is a commutative ring with identity.

#### **Definition 10.1**

We assume that R is a commutative ring with identity. A polynomial (多項式) f(x) with indeterminate (不定元) x over R is a formal sum

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$$

where  $a_i \in R$ , and  $a_n \neq 0$ . The  $a_i$  are coefficients (係数) of f(x). If n is the largest nonnegative number for which  $a_n \neq 0$ , we say that n is the degree (次数) of f(x) and write  $\deg f(x) = n$ . If all  $a_i = 0$ , then f = 0 is the zero polynomial, the degree of f(x) is undefined or say  $-\infty$ . We call f(x) constant polynomial when  $\deg f(x) = 0$ . Notice that here we call x indeterminate but not variable.

We will denote the set of all polynomials with indeterminate x in a ring R by R[x].

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Two polynomials are equal exactly when their corresponding coefficients are equal; that is, if we let

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$$
$$q(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m$$

then p(x) = q(x) if and only if  $a_i = b_i$  for all  $i \ge 0$ .

Most people are fairly familiar with polynomials by the time they begin to study abstract algebra. When we examine polynomial expressions such as

$$p(x) = x^3 - 3x + 2$$
$$q(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 5$$

we have a pretty good idea of what p(x) + q(x) and p(x)q(x) mean. We just add and multiply polynomials as functions; that is,

$$(p+q)(x) = p(x) + q(x)$$

$$= (x^3 - 3x + 2) + (3x^2 - 6x + 5)$$

$$= x^3 + 3x^2 - 9x + 7$$

$$(pq)(x) = p(x)q(x)$$

$$= (x^3 - 3x + 2)(3x^2 - 6x + 5)$$

$$= 3x^5 - 6x^4 - 4x^3 + 24x^2 - 27x + 10$$

It is probably no surprise that polynomials form a ring. In this lecture we shall emphasize the algebraic structure of polynomials by studying polynomial rings. We can prove many results for polynomial rings that are similar to the theorems we proved for the integers. **Analogs of prime numbers**, the division algorithm, and the **Euclidean algorithm exist for polynomials**.

and

To show that the set of all polynomials forms a ring, we must first define addition and multiplication. We define the sum of two polynomials as follows. Let

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x_n$$
  

$$q(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x_m$$

Then the sum of p(x) and q(x) is

$$p(x) + q(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + ... + c_k x_k$$

where  $c_i = a_i + b_i$  for each i.

We define the product of p(x) and q(x) to be

$$p(x)q(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_{m+n}x_{m+n}$$

where

$$c_i = \sum_{k=0}^{i} a_k b_{i-k} = a_0 b_i + a_1 b_{i-1} + \dots + a_{i-1} b_1 + a_i b_0$$

for each i. Notice that in each case some of the coefficients may be zero.

#### Example 10.1

Suppose that

$$p(x) = 3 + 0x + 0x^2 + 2x^3 + 0x^4$$

and

$$q(x) = 2 + 0x - x^2 + 0x^3 + 4x^4$$

are polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . If the coefficient of some term in a polynomial is zero, then we usually just omit that term. In this case we would write  $p(x) = 3 + 2x^3$  and  $q(x) = 2 - x^2 + 4x^4$ .

The sum of these two polynomials is

$$p(x) + q(x) = 5 - x^2 + 2x^3 + 4x^4$$

The product,

 $p(x)q(x) = (3 + 2x^3)(2 - x^2 + 4x^4) = 6 - 3x^2 + 4x^3 + 12x^4 - 2x^5 + 8x^7$ ; can be calculated either by determining the  $c_i s$  in the definition or by simply multiplying polynomials in the same way as we have always done.

#### Example 10.2

Let  $p(x) = 3 + 3x^3$  and  $q(x) = 4 + 4x^2 + 4x^4$  be polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}[x]$ . We know  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$  is not a integral domain.

The sum of p(x) and q(x) is  $7 + 4x^2 + 3x^3 + 4x^4$ .

The product of the two polynomials is the zero polynomial.

This example tells us that we can not expect R[x] to be an integral domain if R is not an integral domain.

#### Theorem 10.1

Let R be a commutative ring with identity. Then R[x] is a commutative ring with identity.

#### **Proof**

Our first task is to show that R[x] is an abelian group under polynomial addition.

The zero polynomial, f(x) = 0, is the additive identity.

Given a polynomial  $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i$ , the inverse of p(x) is easily verified to be

$$-p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} (-a_i) x^i = -\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i.$$

Commutativity and associativity follow immediately from the definition of polynomial addition and from the fact that addition in R is both commutative and associative.

To show that polynomial multiplication is associative, let

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i$$
  $q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i$   $r(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{p} c_i x^i$ 

**Proof (cont.)** 

$$[p(x)q(x)]r(x) = \left[\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i\right) \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i\right)\right] \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p} c_i x^i\right)$$

$$= \left[\sum_{i=0}^{m+n} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{i} a_j b_{i-j}\right) x^i\right] \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p} c_i x^i\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m+n+p} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{i} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{j} a_k b_{j-k}\right) c_{i-j}\right] x^i$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m+n+p} \left(\sum_{j+k+l=i}^{m+n+p} a_j b_k c_l\right) x^i$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{m+n+p} \left[\sum_{j=0}^{i} a_j \left(\sum_{k=0}^{i-j} b_k c_{i-j-k}\right)\right] x^i$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i\right) \left[\sum_{i=0}^{n+p} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{i} b_j c_{i-j}\right) x^i\right]$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i x^i\right) \left[\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i x^i\right) \left(\sum_{i=0}^{p} c_i x^i\right)\right]$$

$$= p(x)[q(x)r(x)]$$

The commutativity and distribution properties of polynomial multiplication are proved in a similar manner.

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#### **Proposition**

Let p(x) and q(x) be polynomials in R[x], where R is an integral domain. Then  $\deg p(x) + \deg q(x) = \deg(p(x)q(x))$ . Furthermore, R[x] is an integral domain.

**Proof** 

#### Theorem 10.2

Let R be a commutative ring with identity and  $\tau \in R$ . Then we have a ring homomorphism (環準同型)  $f_{\tau}$ :  $R[x] \to R$  defined by

$$f_{\tau}(p(x)) = p(\tau) = a_n \tau^n + \dots + a_1 \tau + a_0$$

where  $p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ .

**Proof** 

The map  $f_{\tau} \colon R[x] \to R$  is called the **evaluation homomorphism** at .

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## 10.2 The Division Algorithm (除法の算法)

for Polynomial rings

Recall that the **division algorithm** (除法の算法) for integers says that if a and b are integers with b > 0, then there exist **unique** integers q and r such that a = bq + r, where  $0 \le r < b$ .

A similar theorem exists for polynomials.

The division algorithm for polynomials has several important consequences.

#### Theorem 10.3

Let f(x) and g(x) be polynomials in F[x], where F is a field and g(x) is a nonzero polynomial. Then there exist unique polynomials  $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$  such that

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

where either  $\deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$  or r(x) is the zero polynomial.

#### **Proof**

We will first consider the existence of q(x) and r(x). If f(x) is the zero polynomial, then  $0 = 0 \cdot g(x) + 0$ 

hence, both q and r must also be the **zero polynomial**.

Now suppose that f(x) is **not the zero polynomial** and that  $\deg f(x) = n$  and  $\deg g(x) = m$ . If m > n, then we can let q(x) = 0 and r(x) = f(x). Hence, we may assume that  $m \le n$  and proceed by induction on n. If

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$
  

$$g(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

The polynomial

$$f'(x) = f(x) - \frac{a_n}{b_m} x^{n-m} g(x)$$

has degree less than n or is the **zero polynomial**. By induction, there exist polynomials q'(x) and r(x) such that

$$f'(x) = q'(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

where r(x) = 0 or the degree of r(x) is less than the degree of g(x). Now let

$$q(x) = q'^{(x)} + \frac{a_n}{b_m} x^{n-m}$$

Then

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

with r(x) the zero polynomial or  $\deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$ .

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#### **Proof (cont.)**

To show that q(x) and r(x) are unique, suppose that there exist two other polynomials  $q_1(x)$  and  $r_1(x)$  such that  $f(x) = g(x)q_1(x) + r_1(x)$  with  $\deg r_1(x) < \deg g(x)$  or  $r_1(x) = 0$ , so that

$$f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x) = g(x)q_1(x) + r_1(x)$$

and

$$g(x)[q(x) - q_1(x)] = r_1(x) - r(x)$$
:

If  $q(x) - q_1(x)$  is not the zero polynomial, then

$$\deg(g(x)[q(x) - q_1(x)]) = \deg(r_1(x) - r(x)) \ge \deg g(x)$$

However, the degrees of both r(x) and  $r_1(x)$  are strictly less than the degree of g(x); therefore,  $r(x) = r_1(x)$  and  $q(x) = q_1(x)$ .

#### Example 10.3

The division algorithm merely formalizes long division of polynomials, a task we have been familiar with since high school. For example, suppose that we divide  $x^3 - x^2 + 2x - 3$  by x - 2.

$$\begin{array}{r}
x^{2} + x + 4 \\
x - 2 \overline{)x^{3} - x^{2} + 2x - 3} \\
\underline{x^{3} - 2x^{2}} \\
x^{2} + 2x - 3 \\
\underline{x^{2} - 2x} \\
4x - 3 \\
\underline{4x - 8} \\
5
\end{array}$$

Hence, 
$$x^3 - x^2 + 2x - 3 = (x - 2)(x^2 + x + 4) + 5$$
.

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#### Example 10.4

Let's work with polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$  and divide

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

by  $g(x) = x^2 - 2x + 3$  to find q(x) and r(x) of Theorem 10.3. Notice we are in  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ , so, for example 4x - (-3x) = 2x.

$$x^{2} - x - 3$$

$$x^{2} - 2x + 3$$

$$x^{4} - 3x^{3} + 2x^{2} + 4x - 1$$

$$x^{4} - 2x^{3} + 3x^{2}$$

$$-x^{3} - x^{2} + 4x$$

$$-x^{3} + 2x^{2} - 3x$$

$$-3x^{2} + 2x - 1$$

$$-3x^{2} + x - 4$$

$$x + 3$$

Thus

$$q(x) = x^2 - x - 3$$
 and  $r(x) = x + 3$ 

### Theorem (Remainder Theorem) 10.4

Let R be a commutative ring with identity. For  $f(x) \in R[x]$  and  $\tau \in R$ , there exists  $q(x) \in R[x]$  such that

$$f(x) = (x - \tau)q(x) + f(\tau)$$

#### **Proof**

Hint: Theorem of Division Algorithm

#### **Definition 10.2**

Let R be a commutative ring with identity and  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \in R[x]$ . For all  $\tau \in R$ , define  $f(\tau) = a_0 + a_1 \tau + \dots + a_n \tau^n$ . when  $f(\tau) = 0$ , we call  $\tau$  a root (根) or zero of f(x).

### Corollary 10.1

Let R be a commutative ring with identity. For  $f(x) \in R[x]$  and  $\tau \in R, x - \tau$  divides f(x) if and only if  $\tau$  is a **root** of f(x).

#### **Proof**

Suppose  $(x - \tau) \mid f(x)$ . Then there exists  $q(x) \in R[x]$  such that  $f(x) = (x - \tau)q(x)$ . Hence,  $f(\tau) = (\tau - \tau)q(\tau) = 0$ , so  $\tau$  is a root of f(x). Conversely, suppose  $\tau$  is a root of f(x). Then by the remainder theorem and the fact that  $f(\tau) = 0$ , we have  $f(x) = (x - \tau)q(x)$ . Consequently,  $(x - \tau) \mid f(x)$ .

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#### Example 10.5

Working again in  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$  note that  $\tau = 1$  is a root of

$$f(x) = x^4 + 3x^3 + 2x + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x]$$

Thus by Corollary 10.1, we should be able to factor  $x^4 + 3x^3 + 2x + 4$  into (x - 1)q(x) in  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ . Let us find the factorization by long division

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

#### Example 10.5 (cont.)

Since 1 is also a root of  $x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x + 1$ , we can divide this polynomial by x - 1 and get

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
x^2 + 4 \\
x - 1 & x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x + 1 \\
\underline{x^3 - x^2} & \\
0 + 4x + 1 \\
\underline{4x - 4} & \\
0
\end{array}$$

Since 1 is still the root of  $x^2 + 4$ , we can divide again by x - 1 and get

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
x+1 \\
x-1 \\
x^2 + 4 \\
x^2 - x \\
x+4 \\
x-1 \\
0
\end{array}$$

Thus  $x^4 + 3x^3 + 2x + 4 = (x - 1)^3(x + 1)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ .

#### **Definition 10.3**

A nonconstant polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  is irreducible (既約な) over a field F if f(x) cannot be expressed as a product of two polynomials g(x) and h(x) in F[x], where the degrees of g(x) and h(x) are both smaller than the degree of f(x).

Irreducible polynomials function as the "prime numbers" of polynomial rings.

### Example 10.6

The polynomial  $x^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is **irreducible** since it cannot be factored any further over the rational numbers.

Similarly,  $x^2 + 1$  is **irreducible** over the real numbers.

### Example 10.7

The polynomial  $p(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 2$  is **irreducible** over  $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ .

Suppose that this polynomial was reducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ .

By the division algorithm there would have to be a factor of the form  $x - \tau$ , where  $\tau$  is some element in  $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ .

Hence, it would have to be true that  $p(\tau) = 0$ . However,

$$p(0) = 2$$
  
 $p(1) = 1$   
 $p(2) = 2$ 

Therefore, p(x) has no roots/zeros in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  and must be irreducible.

### Review for Lecture 10

- Polynomials
- Zero Polynomial
- Polynomial Rings (多項式環)
- The Division Algorithm (除法の算法) for Polynomial rings
- Remainder Theorem
- Irreducible Polynomials (既約多項式)

# Assignment

Please Check <a href="https://github.com/uoaworks/Applied-Algebra">https://github.com/uoaworks/Applied-Algebra</a>

### References

- [1] Thomas W. Judson etc. Abstract Algebra Theory and Applications, 2018
- [2] D. S. Malik, John N. Mordeson, M.K. Sen, Introduction to Abstract Algebra, 2007
- [3] (おすすめ) 松本 眞, 代数系への入門, <a href="http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/TEACH/daisu-nyumon2014.pdf">http://www.math.sci.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~m-mat/TEACH/daisu-nyumon2014.pdf</a>
- [4] Wikipedia
- [5] Materials from internet.