## Polynomials in one Variable.

Any linear algebra can be used as a ring of scalars; we are mostly concerned with a ring  $\mathbb{K}$  in general but the polynomial algebra  $\mathbb{K}_{\theta}$  is also needed when the subject develops. We provide a discussion here. Recall that for any ring  $\mathbb{K}$ ' two algebras  $\mathbb{K}_{\theta}$  of polynomials as polynomial arise: one in which we write polynomial as  $a(\theta) = \theta^n a_n + \ldots + \theta a_1 + a_0, a_i \varepsilon \mathbb{K}, a_n$  and the other in which we write polynomial as  $a(\theta) = a_n \theta^n + \ldots a_1 theta + a_0, a_i \varepsilon \mathbb{K}, a_n \neq 0$ ,

As modules, one of them is a right module and the other is a left modules and the development run in parallel. As rings they can be regarded as isomorphic via  $f(a_n\theta^n) = \theta^n a_n$  the element  $a_n\varepsilon\mathbb{K}$  is called the 'leading coefficient' of  $a(\theta)$ 

- (i) We take a ring  $\mathbb{K}[\theta]$  of polynomial writing its elements as  $a = a(\theta) = a_0 + \ldots + a_n \theta^n$ ,  $a_n \neq 0$  and recall that it obey the following relations:
  - (a) If  $a(\theta) = a_0 + a_1 \theta + \ldots + a_n \theta^n, a_n \neq 0$  $b(\theta) = b_0 + b_1 \theta + \ldots + b_m \theta^m, b_m \neq 0 \text{ and }$   $c(\theta) = (a(\theta))(b(\theta)) = c_0 + c_1 \theta + \ldots +$

 $=(ab)_0+(ab)_1\theta+\ldots$  then while this multiplication in  $\mathbb{K}[\theta]$  is in general noncommutative  $[c_n=(ab)_n=\sum_{n=p+q}a_pb_q\neq\sum_{n=p+q}b_pa_q=(ba)_n$  in general] we have  $deg[b(\theta)a(\theta)]=deg[a(\theta)b(\theta)]$   $[=deg(a(\theta))+deg(b(\theta))=n+m$  if "either  $a_n$  or  $b_n$  is not a zero divisor in  $\mathbb{K}i.e.$  if we do not get  $a_nb_m=0\varepsilon\mathbb{K}$  although  $a_n\neq 0, b_m\neq 0$ 

note that this may happen if  $\mathbb{K}$  is a matrix ring  $Mat_n(\mathbb{L})$  for some ring  $\mathbb{L}$ 

- (b)  $deg[a(\theta) + b(\theta)] \le max\{dega(\theta), degb(\theta)\} = max\{n, m\}$
- (c)  $dega(\theta) = 0iffa(\theta) = a_0 \varepsilon \mathbb{K}$ , we say that  $a = a(\theta)$  is a constant.
- (d) We set  $deg(0) = -\infty$  for the zero polynomial  $o\varepsilon \mathbb{K}[\theta]$ .

- (e)  $\theta \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  [i.e. $\theta a(\theta) = a(\theta)\theta$  for all  $a(\theta)\in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$ ] and thus each monomial  $\{\theta^k \mid k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ is } en \mathbb{K}[\theta]\}$ .
- (ii) (a) **Proposition** If  $\mu(\theta)$  has an invertible leading coefficient and  $dega(\theta) \ge deg\mu(\theta)$ , we can find some  $b(\theta)$  with  $deg[a(\theta) \mu(\theta)b(\theta)] < dega(\theta)$ .

**Proof:** Say 
$$a(\theta) = a_0 + \ldots + a_{n+m}\theta^{n+m}$$
,  $\mu(\theta) = \mu_0 + \ldots + \mu_m\theta^m$  then with  $b(\theta) = \mu_m^{-1}a_{m+n}\theta^n$ , we have  $a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)b(\theta) = a_0 + \ldots + a_{n+m}\theta^{n+m} - \mu_m\mu_m^{-1}a_{n+m}\theta^{n+m} - \mu_{m-1}\mu_m^{-1}a_{n+m}\theta^{n+m-1} - \ldots - \mu_0\mu_m^{-1}a_{n+m}\theta^n$  which has degree  $< n + m = dega(\theta)$  since the coefficient of  $\theta^{n+m}$  is 0.

(b) We note that the same argument works to prove that we can find  $c(\theta)$  with  $deg[a(\theta)-c(\theta)\mu(\theta)] < dega(\theta)$ 

## The left division algorithm:

Given  $a(\theta)\varepsilon\mathbb{K}[\theta]$ , and  $\mu(\theta)\varepsilon\mathbb{K}[\theta]$  with an invertible leading coefficient, there exists exactly one  $q(\theta)\varepsilon K[\theta]$  such that  $a(\theta) = \mu(\theta) + r(\theta), \deg r(\theta) < \deg \mu(\theta)$  and then  $r(\theta)$  is also uniquely determined we say q is the 'quotient' and r is the remainder.

**Proof :** If there are two polynomials  $q(\theta), q'(\theta)$  satisfying the requirement so that  $a(\theta) = \mu(\theta)q(\theta) + r(\theta) = \mu(\theta)q'(\theta) + r'(\theta)$ , we have

$$\mu(\theta)[q(\theta) - q'(\theta)] = r(\theta) - r'(\theta) \tag{1}$$

Assume  $deg[q(\theta) - q'(\theta)] = n$ ,  $deg \ \mu(\theta) = m$  so that LHS of (1) has degree n + m [:  $\mu(\theta)$ ] has invertible coefficient  $\mu_m$  and thus if ]  $\lambda$  is non zero we do not have  $\mu_m \lambda = 0$  since  $\lambda = \mu_m^{-1}(\mu_m \lambda)$ 

But  $deg(r(\theta)) < deg\mu(\theta), deg(r'(\theta)) < deg\mu(\theta)$  and  $deg[r'(\theta) - degr(\theta)] \le max\{degr'(\theta), degr(\theta)\} < deg\mu(\theta)$  and so we have n + m < m which forces  $n = -\infty$  and thus  $q(\theta) = q'(\theta)$  which then forces  $r'(\theta) = r(\theta)$  and consequently uniqueness is established for  $q(\theta)$  and then for  $r(\theta) = a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)q(\theta)$ . For existence, we note that the set  $S = \{deg[a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)b(\theta)] | b(\theta) \in k[\theta]\}$  will have a least element; let  $q(\theta)$  correspond to that i.e., let  $q(\theta)$  be such that  $deg[a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)q(\theta)]$ . We record  $r(\theta) = a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)q(\theta)$ ; thus  $degr(\theta)$  is the least element of S. If  $degr(\theta) \ge deg\mu(\theta)$  then [(iii)(a) on preceding page 11] we know there is some  $b(\theta)$  with  $deg[r(\theta) - \mu(\theta)b(\theta)] < degr(\theta)$  so that with  $q_1 = q(\theta) + b(\theta)$ , we have  $deg[a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)q_1(\theta)] < degr(\theta)$  which contradicts the choice of  $q(\theta)$  that had assumed  $deg(a(\theta) - \mu(\theta)q_1(\theta))$  as the least element of S. Therefore, we must have  $deg(r(\theta)) < deg(\mu(\theta))$  and we have found our  $q(\theta)$  with  $a(\theta) = \mu(\theta)q(\theta) + r(\theta), degr(\theta) < deg\mu(\theta)$  as required.

[this argument works for  $dega(\theta\theta) \ge deg\mu(\theta)$ ; if  $dega(\theta) < deg\mu(\theta)$  put $q(\theta) = 0, r(\theta) = a(\theta)$ . Further, note

that if  $dega(\theta) = 0$ , then  $deg\mu(\theta) = 0$  is forced since  $deg\mu(\theta) = \infty$  is not permissible with invertible leading coefficient; then  $a(\theta) = a_0, \mu(\theta) = \mu_0$  and  $\mu_0$  is invertible, take  $q = \mu_0^{-1} a_0$ .

(v) In this preceding, q is the left quotient and r is the left remainder on left division by  $\mu(\theta)$ ; we say  $\mu(\theta)$  is a left divisor of a iff r=0. we similarly have

## The right division algorithm:

Given  $a(\theta) \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$ , and  $\mu(\theta) \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  with invertible leading coefficient, there is exactly one  $q(\theta) \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  such that  $a(\theta) = q(\theta)\mu(\theta) + r(\theta)$  with  $degr(\theta) < deg\mu(\theta)$  and then  $r(\theta)$  is also uniquely determined. Further, we say  $q(\theta)$  is the right quotient,  $r(\theta)$  is the right remainder on right division by  $\mu(\theta)$ .

[The proof will use (iii) b on pase 11 preceding].

Example 0.1. If 
$$a_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
,  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$   $a_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $a_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\mu_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mu_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  where  $a(\theta) = a_0 + a_1\theta + a_2\theta^2 + a_3\theta^3$  
$$\mu(\theta) = \mu_0 + \mu_1\theta$$
. The right quotient and remainder are  $q(\theta) = q_0 + q_1\theta + q_2\theta^2$ ,  $r(\theta) = r_0$  with  $q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & -14 \\ -2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $q_0 = \begin{pmatrix} -43 & 81 \\ 12 & -24 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $r_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 43 & -206 \\ -11 & 62 \end{pmatrix}$  while the left quotient is  $q(\theta) = q_0 + q_1\theta + q_2\theta^2$  and the left remainder is  $r_0 = \begin{pmatrix} -94 & -169 \\ 115 & 206 \end{pmatrix}$  on left and right division of  $a(\theta)$  by  $\mu(\theta)$  respectively. [Please verify this].

**Proposition** For a ring  $\mathbb{K}$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}$ , the following are equivalent:

- 1. There is an invertible  $y \in \mathbb{K}$  such that  $\beta = \gamma \alpha \gamma^{-1}$
- 2. There are invertibles  $p(\theta), q(\theta) \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  with  $\theta \beta = p(\theta)(\theta \alpha)q(\theta)$

**Proof:** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) Since  $\theta \varepsilon cen \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  and the constants  $\gamma, \gamma^{-1} \varepsilon \mathbb{K}[\theta]$ , we find  $\theta - \beta = \theta \gamma \gamma^{-1} - \gamma \alpha \gamma^{-1} = \gamma \theta \gamma^{-1} - \gamma \alpha \gamma^{-1} = \gamma (\theta - \alpha) \gamma^{-1}$  which prove (2).

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1)Let invertibles  $p(\theta), q(\theta) \in \mathbb{K}[\theta]$  be given with  $\theta - \beta = p(\theta)(\theta - \alpha)q(\theta)$ . Since  $\theta - \alpha$  has leading coefficient  $1 \neq 0$  the division algorithm assume the existence of uniquely given  $a(\theta)$  and  $u(\theta)$  such that

 $\overline{(p(\theta)^{-1})\varepsilon\mathbb{K}[\theta]} \text{ can be written as } (p(\theta)^{-1}) = (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta) + u(\theta), degu(\theta) < deg(\theta - \alpha) = 1 \text{ which forces}$   $u = u(\theta)\varepsilon\mathbb{K}. \text{ then } u(\theta - \beta) = [p(\theta)^{-1} - (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)](\theta - \beta) = (p(\theta))^{-1}(\theta - \beta) - (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)(\theta - \beta) = (p(\theta))p(\theta)(\theta - \alpha)q(\theta) - (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)(\theta - \beta) = (\theta - \alpha)[q(\theta) - a(\theta)(\theta - \beta)]$ 

comparing the highest degree terms on both sides, we get  $q(\theta) - a(\theta)(\theta - \beta)u$  The equation is thus  $u(\theta - \beta) = (\theta - \alpha)u$  which has forces  $u\beta = \alpha u$ . Dividing  $p(\theta)$  by  $(\theta - \beta)$  [which has leading coefficient  $1 \neq 0$ ] we get  $p(\theta) = (\theta - \beta)b(\theta) + r(\theta)$ , with  $degr(\theta) < deg(\theta - \alpha) = 1$  forcing  $r(\theta) = r\varepsilon \mathbb{K}$ .

We have  $1 = p(\theta)[p(\theta)]^{-1} = p(\theta)[(\theta - \alpha)a(\theta) + u] = p(\theta)(\theta - \alpha)a(\theta) + p(\theta)u = (\theta - \beta)[q(\theta)]^{-1}a(\theta) + [(\theta - \beta)p(\theta + r)]u = (\theta - \beta)[q(\theta)a(\theta) + b(\theta)u] + ru$  so that  $1 - ru = (\theta - \beta)[q(\theta)a(\theta) + b(\theta)u]$  comparing the coefficient if on both sides,we get RHS=0 hence 1 - ru = 0 which forces ru = 1. Further,we have  $1 = [p(\theta)]^{-1}p(\theta) = [(\theta - \alpha)a(\theta) + u]p(\theta) = [(\theta - \alpha)a(\theta) + u][(\theta - \beta)b(\theta) + r] = (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)(\theta - \beta)b(\theta) + (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)r + u(\theta - \beta)b(\theta) + ur$  so that  $1 - ur = (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)(\theta - \beta)b(\theta) + (\theta - \alpha)a(\theta)r + u(\theta - \beta)b(\theta)$  Comparing the coefficients of  $\theta$  on both sides, we get RHS=0 which forces 1 - ur = 0. Therefore, u is invertible with inverse r.

## Euclidean domain:

We say a ring is an entire ring  $iff \ \lambda \mu = 0 \Rightarrow$  either  $\lambda = 0$  or  $\mu = 0$ ; a commutative entire ring is also called integral domain. [Some text books use 'integral domain' for 'entire ring' also ]. An integral domain  $\mathbb{K}$  is called a Euclidean domain iff there is an 'Euclidean function'  $\mathbb{K}|\{0\} \to g \mathbb{N}$  satisfying

 $E_1$  if  $\lambda$  divides  $\mu \neq 0$  then  $g(\lambda) \leq g(\mu)$ 

 $E_2$  For every pair of elements  $\alpha, \beta$  of  $\mathbb{K}, \alpha \neq 0$ 

there exists elements  $\gamma, \delta \varepsilon \mathbb{K}$  with  $\beta = \alpha \gamma + \delta$  with  $\delta = 0$  or  $g(\delta) < g(\alpha)$ .[thus in a domain, it is called 'Euclidean algorithm']. In the preceding section, we proved that if  $\mathbb{F}$  is a field,  $\mathbb{F}[\theta]$  is a Euclidean domain  $[g(a(\theta)) = dega(\theta)]$  The ring of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  is also an integral domain [ This is the reason for 'integral' domain'] with  $g(a) = |a|, a\varepsilon \mathbb{Z}$ . Indeed, if  $b = ac \neq 0$  then  $|c| \geq 1$  and hence  $|b| = |c||a| \geq |a|$ . Further, for any two integers  $a, b, a \neq 0$  the division algorithm in  $\mathbb{Z}$  ensures  $b = |a|q + r = a(\pm q) + r$  with r = 0 or 0 < r < |a|. These two examples of Euclidean domains are the ones we shall use in this course .However, there are other Euclidean domains: let  $d \neq 1$  be a square free integer [in the sense that its prime factorization has no square] and let  $\theta = \{\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{\sqrt{d}} \text{ if } d\equiv 1 \mod 4 \\ \text{otherwise} \}$ 

Consider  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$  [we met this on pase 8 preceding ] which is a field; for  $\alpha = p + q\sqrt{d}$  we write  $p^2 - q^2d$  as  $N(\alpha)$ . Then for d = -1, -2, -3, -7, -11, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 13, 17, 21, 29, the function  $g(\alpha) = |N(\alpha)|$  is a

Euclidean function; we shall not prove this here.

**Proposition** The gcd of any two elements  $\alpha, \beta$  not both zero, of Euclidean domain  $\mathbb{E}$  exists and can be expressed as  $\alpha\lambda + \beta\mu$  with  $\lambda, \mu\varepsilon\mathbb{E}$ .

**Proof :** Suppose g is the Euclidean function,  $g(\alpha) \geq g(\beta)$ . Then by the property of g [the 'Euclidean algorithm', also called 'division algorithm' ] we have  $\alpha = \beta \gamma_1 + \delta_1$ ,  $g(\delta_1) < g(\beta)$ ;  $\beta = \delta_1 \gamma_2 + \delta_2$ ,  $g(\delta_2) < g(\delta_1)$ 

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so that  $\delta_n$  divides  $\alpha$ .

Thus  $g(\beta) > g(\delta_1) > g(\delta_2) \dots$  is a decreasing sequence of nonnegative integers which must stop and after some time, we have  $\delta_{n-2} = \delta_{n-1}\gamma_n + \delta_n$ ,  $\delta_{n-1} = \delta_n\gamma_{n+1} + \delta_{n+1}$  with  $\delta_{n+1} = 0 = \delta_k$  for any k > n+1 now  $\delta_1 = \alpha - \beta\gamma_1$  so  $\delta_1$  has the form  $\alpha\lambda + \beta\mu$  with  $\lambda = 1, \mu = -\gamma_1$ . In general, if  $\delta_{i-1} = \alpha\lambda_{i-1} + \beta\mu_{i-1}$  and  $\delta_{i-2} = \alpha\lambda_{i-2} + \beta\mu_{i-2}$ 

 $\delta_i = -\delta_{i-1}\gamma_i + \delta_{i-2} = -(\alpha\lambda_{i-1} + \beta\mu_{i-1})\gamma_i + \alpha\lambda_{i-2} + \beta\mu_{i-2} = \alpha[\lambda_{i-2} - \lambda_{i-1}] + \beta[\mu_{i-2} - \mu_{i-1}\gamma_i] \text{ also has this form } \alpha\lambda + \beta\mu \text{ [with } \lambda = \lambda_{i-2} - \lambda_{i-1}, \mu = \mu_{i-2} - \mu_{i-1}\gamma_i \text{]}. \text{ Thus } \delta_n = \alpha\lambda_n + \beta\mu_n \text{ for some } \lambda_n, \mu_n \varepsilon \mathbb{E}.$   $\text{Now } \delta_n = \delta_n.1 + 0 \text{ so } \delta_n \text{ divides } \delta_n \text{ and } \delta_{n-1} = \delta_n\gamma_{n+1} + 0 \text{ so } \delta_n \text{ divides } \delta_{n-1}. \text{ But we have } \delta_{n-2} = \delta_{n-1}\gamma_n + \delta_n = \delta_n\gamma_{n+1}\gamma_n + \delta_n = \delta_n[\gamma_{n+1}\gamma_n + 1] \text{ so } \delta_n \text{ divides } \delta_{n-2}. \text{ Similarly, } \delta_n \text{ divides all the 'remainders'} \delta_i. \text{Let } \delta_i = \delta_n p_i, p_i \varepsilon \mathbb{E}. \text{ Then } \beta = \delta_1 \gamma_2 + \delta_2 = \delta_n p_1 \gamma_2 + \delta_n p_2 = \delta_n[p_1 \gamma_2 + \beta_2] \text{ so that } \delta_n \text{ divides } \beta \text{ and } \alpha = \beta\gamma_1 + \delta_1 = \delta_n[p_1 \gamma_2 + \beta_2] \gamma_1 + \delta_n p_1 = \delta_n[p_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_1 + p_1]$ 

Thus is a common divisor of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . If  $\gamma$  is any other divisor of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  say  $\alpha = \gamma p, \beta = \gamma q, p, q \in \mathbb{E}$  then  $\delta_n = \alpha \lambda_n + \beta \mu_n = \gamma p \lambda_n + \gamma q \mu_n = \gamma [p \lambda_n + q \mu_n]$  so that  $\gamma$  divides  $\delta_n$ . Thus  $\delta_n$  is the greatest common divisor of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , and is of the form  $\alpha \lambda + \beta \mu$  [with  $\lambda = \lambda_n, \mu = \mu_n$ ]. This proves that advertized result. But there is a further piece of information. Suppose  $\alpha = \delta_n a, \beta = \delta_n b$  then writing  $\delta_n m = \alpha \beta$ , we have  $\delta_n m = \delta_n a \delta_n b = a \delta_n^2 b = \delta_n^2 a b$  [because of commutativity] i.e.  $m = a \beta$  and  $m = b \alpha$  [:  $\mathbb{E}$  is a integral domain  $\delta_n \neq 0$ ] so that m is a common multiple. If m is another common multiple, then  $m' = \alpha c_1, m' = \beta c_2$  hence  $\delta_n m' = (\alpha \lambda_n + \beta \mu_n) m' = \alpha m' \lambda_n + \beta m' \mu_n = \alpha \beta c_2 \lambda_n + \beta \alpha c_1 \mu_n = \alpha \beta [c_2 \lambda_n + c_1 \mu_n] = \delta_n m [c_2 \lambda_n + c_1 \mu_n]$  But then  $\delta_n [m' - m(c_2 \lambda_n + c_1 \mu_n)] = 0$  and since  $\delta_n \neq 0$ , and  $\mathbb{E}$  is an integral domain, we get  $m' - m(c_2 \lambda_n + c_1 \mu_n) = 0$  which means  $m' = m(c_2 \lambda_n + c_1 \mu_n)$  so that m is a divisor of m. Thus m is the least common multiple of  $\alpha, \beta$ .

To sum up: In a Euclidean domain, both the LCM and GCD exists.

There are rings in which the LCM exists and the GCD dose not and vice versa; this is not the place

to go in more detail] Now suppose A is an ideal in a Euclidean domain  $\mathbb{E}$  [For 'ideal' see Modules, pase 14]. Pick  $a \in A$  with a = bq + r where g(b) has the least value for element of A.Then since  $a, b \in A$ , we have  $r = a - bq \in A$  with g(r) < g(b) which is not possible since b has the least value g(b) for elements of A.Thus r = 0 and we have ' $A = (a) = \{a\lambda | \lambda \in \mathbb{E}\}$ '. Such an ideal which is generated by a single element is called a principal ideal. To sum up: Every Euclidean domain  $\mathbb{E}$  is a principal ideal domain in the sense that every ideal in  $\mathbb{E}$  is a principal ideal.

