

# Math 2070 Week 7

## Polynomials, Rings

---

### 7.1 Polynomials with Rational Coefficients

**Notation:**

$\mathbb{Q}$  = Set of rational numbers

$\mathbb{Q}[x]$  = Set of polynomials with rational coefficients

$$= \{a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}, a_i \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

**Theorem 7.1** (Division Theorem for Polynomials with Rational Coefficients). *For all  $f, g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , such that  $f \neq 0$ , there exist unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , satisfying  $\deg r < \deg f$ , such that  $g = fq + r$ .*

*Proof.* We first prove the existence of  $q$  and  $r$ , via induction on the degree of  $g$ . The base step corresponds to the case  $\deg g < \deg f$ . In this case, the choice  $q = 0, r = g$  works, since  $g = f \cdot 0 + g$ , and  $\deg r = \deg g < \deg f$ .

Now, we establish the inductive step. Let  $f$  be fixed. Given  $g$ , suppose for all  $g'$  with  $\deg g' < \deg g$ , there exist  $q', r' \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $g' = fq' + r'$ , with  $\deg r' < \deg f$ . We want to show that there exist  $q, r$  such that  $g = fq + r$ , with  $\deg r < \deg f$ .

Suppose  $g = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_mx^m$  and  $f = b_0 + b_1x + \cdots + b_nx^n$ , where  $a_m, b_n \neq 0$ . We may assume that  $m \geq n$ , since the case  $m < n$  (i.e.  $\deg g < \deg f$ ) has already been proved.

Consider the polynomial:

$$g' = g - \frac{a_m}{b_n}x^{m-n}f.$$

Then,  $\deg g' < \deg g$ , and by the induction hypothesis we have:

$$g' = fq' + r'$$

for some  $q', r' \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $\deg r' < \deg f$ .

Hence,

$$g - \frac{a_m}{b_n} x^{m-n} f = g' = f q' + r',$$

which implies that:

$$g = f \left( q' + \frac{a_m}{b_n} x^{m-n} \right) + r'$$

This establishes the existence of the quotient  $q = q' + \frac{a_m}{b_n} x^{m-n}$  and the remainder  $r = r'$ .

Now, we prove the uniqueness of  $q$  and  $r$ . Suppose  $g = f q + r = f q' + r'$ , where  $q, q', r, r' \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , with  $\deg r, \deg r' < \deg f$ . We have:

$$f q + r = f q' + r',$$

which implies that:

$$\deg f(q - q') = \deg(r' - r) < \deg f.$$

The above inequality can hold only if  $q = q'$ , which in turn implies that  $r' = r$ . It follows that the quotient  $q$  and the remainder  $r$  are unique.  $\square$

**Definition 7.2.** Given  $f, g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , a **Greatest Common Divisor**  $d$  of  $f$  and  $g$  is a polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  which satisfies the following two properties:

1.  $d$  divides both  $f$  and  $g$ .
2. For any  $e \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  which divides both  $f$  and  $g$ , we have  $\deg e \leq \deg d$ .

**Claim 7.3.** If  $g = f q + r$ , and  $d$  is a GCD of  $g$  and  $f$ , then  $d$  is a GCD of  $f$  and  $r$ .

*Proof.* See the proof of Lemma 6.2.  $\square$

**Corollary 7.4.** The Euclidean Algorithm applies to  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

Namely: Suppose  $\deg g \geq \deg f$ . let  $g_0 = g$ ,  $f_0 = f$ , and let  $r_0$  be the unique polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that:

$$g_0 = f_0 q_0 + r_0, \quad \deg r_0 < \deg f_0,$$

for some  $q_0 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

For  $k > 0$ , let:

$$g_k = f_{k-1}, \quad f_k = r_{k-1}.$$

Let  $r_k$  be the remainder such that:

$$g_k = f_k q_k + r_k,$$

for some  $q_k \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

Since  $\deg r_k < \deg f_k = \deg r_{k-1}$ , we have:

$$\deg r_0 > \deg r_1 > \deg r_2 > \cdots \geq -\infty$$

(where by convention we let  $\deg 0 = -\infty$ ).

Eventually,  $r_n = 0$  for some  $n$ , and it follows from the previous claim and arguments similar to those used in the case of  $\mathbb{Z}$  that  $r_{n-1}$  is a GCD of  $f$  and  $g$ .

**Example 7.5.** 1. Find a GCD of  $x^5 + 1$  and  $x^3 + 1$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

2. Find a GCD of  $x^3 - x^2 - x + 1$  and  $x^3 + 4x^2 + x - 6$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

**Corollary 7.6** (Bézout's Identity for Polynomials). For any  $f, g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  which are not both zero, and  $d$  a GCD of  $f$  and  $g$ , there exist  $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that:

$$d = fu + gv.$$

## 7.2 Factorization of Polynomials

**Definition 7.7.** A polynomial  $p$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  is **irreducible** if it satisfies the following conditions:

1.  $\deg p > 0$ ,
2. if  $p = ab$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , then either  $a$  or  $b$  is a constant.

---

**Claim 7.8.** If  $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is irreducible and  $p \mid f_1 f_2$ , where  $f_1, f_2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , then  $p \mid f_1$  or  $p \mid f_2$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $p$  does not divide  $f_2$ , then the only common divisors of  $p$  and  $f_2$  are constant polynomials. In particular, 1 is a GCD of  $p$  and  $f_2$ . Then, by Bézout's Identity for Polynomials, there exist  $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $1 = pu + f_2v$ . We have:

$$f_1 = puf_1 + f_1f_2v.$$

Since  $p$  divides the right-hand side of the above equation, it must divide  $f_1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 7.9.** A polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  of degree greater than zero is either irreducible or a product of irreducibles.

*Proof.* Suppose there is a nonempty set of polynomials of degree  $> 0$  which are neither irreducible nor products of irreducibles. Let  $p$  be an element of this set which has the least degree. Since  $p$  is not irreducible, there are  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  of degrees  $> 0$  such that  $p = ab$ . But,  $a, b$ , having degrees strictly less than  $\deg p$ , must be either irreducible or products of irreducibles. This implies that  $p$  is a product of irreducibles, a contradiction.  $\square$

**Remark:** Compare this proof with that of Part 1 of the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic (The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic).

**Theorem 7.10** (Unique Factorization for Polynomials). *For any  $p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  of degree  $> 0$ , if:*

$$p = f_1 f_2 \cdots f_n = g_1 g_2 \cdots g_m,$$

*where  $f_i, g_j$  are irreducible polynomials in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ , then  $n = m$ , and the  $g_j$ 's may be reindexed so that  $f_i = \lambda_i g_i$  for some  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .*

*Proof. Exercise .* See the proof of Part 2 of The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic ).  $\square$

## 7.3 Rings

### 7.3.1 Definition of a Ring

**Definition 7.11.** *A ring  $R$  (or  $(R, +, \times)$ ) is a set equipped with two operations:*

$$\times, + : R \times R \rightarrow R$$

*which satisfy the following properties:*

1. *Properties of  $+$ :*

- (a) *Commutativity:  $a + b = b + a, \forall a, b \in R$ .*
- (b) *Associativity:  $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ .*
- (c) *There is an element  $0 \in R$  (called the **additive identity element** ), such that  $a + 0 = a$  for all  $a \in R$ .*
- (d) *Every element of  $R$  has an additive inverse; namely: For all  $a \in R$ , there exists an element of  $R$ , usually denoted  $-a$ , such that  $a + (-a) = 0$ .*

2. *Properties of  $\times$ :*

- (a) *Associativity:  $a(bc) = (ab)c$ .*

(b) There is an element  $1 \in R$  (called the **multiplicative identity element**), such that  $1 \times a = a \times 1 = a$  for all  $a \in R$ .

3. *Distributativity:*

(a)  $a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$ , for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

(b)  $(a + b) \times c = a \times c + b \times c$ , for all  $a, b, c \in R$ .

**Note:**

1. For convenience's sake, we often write  $ab$  for  $a \times b$ .
2. In the definition, commutativity is required of addition, but not of multiplication.
3. Every element has an additive inverse, but *not necessarily* a multiplicative inverse. That is, there may be an element  $a \in R$  such that  $ab \neq 1$  for all  $b \in R$ .

**Example 7.12.** *The following sets, equipped with the usual operations of addition and multiplication, are rings:*

1.  $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$
2.  $\mathbb{Z}[x], \mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x]$  (Polynomials with integer, rational, real coefficients, respectively.)
- 3.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] &= \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^n a_k (\sqrt{2})^k \mid a_k \in \mathbb{Q}, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \right\} \\ &= \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}.\end{aligned}$$

4.  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ , the set of  $n \times n$  real matrices,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
5. For a fixed  $n$ , the set of  $n \times n$  matrices with integer coefficients.
6.  $C[0, 1] = \{f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous.}\}$

*The following sets, under the usual operations of addition and multiplication, are not rings:*

1.  $\mathbb{N}$ , no additive identity element, i.e. no 0.
2.  $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ , nonzero elements have no additive inverses.

3.  $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ , the set of  $n \times n$  invertible real matrices,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Claim 7.13.** *In a ring  $R$ , there is a unique additive identity element and a unique multiplicative identity element.*

*Proof.* Suppose there is an element  $0' \in R$  such that  $0' + r = r$  for all  $r \in R$ , then in particular  $0' + 0 = 0$ .

Since  $0$  is an additive identity, we have  $0' + 0 = 0'$ . So,  $0' = 0$ .

Suppose there is an element  $1' \in R$  such that  $1'r = r$  or all  $r \in R$ , then in particular  $1' \cdot 1 = 1$ .

But  $1' \cdot 1 = 1'$  since  $1$  is a multiplicative identity element, so  $1' = 1$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 7.14.** *Prove that: For any  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , its additive inverse  $-r$  is unique. That is, if  $r + r' = r + r'' = 0$ , then  $r' = r''$ .*

## 7.3.2 WeBWorK

### 1. WeBWorK

### 2. WeBWorK

**Claim 7.15.** *For all elements  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , we have  $0r = r0 = 0$ .*

*Proof.* By distributativity,

$$0r = (0 + 0)r = 0r + 0r.$$

Adding  $-0r$  (additive inverse of  $0r$ ) to both sides, we have:

$$0 = (0r + 0r) + (-0r) = 0r + (0r + (-0r)) = 0r + 0 = 0r.$$

The proof of  $r0 = 0$  is similar and we leave it as an **exercise**.  $\square$

**Claim 7.16.** *For all elements  $r$  in a ring, we have  $(-1)(-r) = (-r)(-1) = r$ .*

*Proof.* We have:

$$0 = 0(-r) = (1 + (-1))(-r) = -r + (-1)(-r).$$

Adding  $r$  to both sides, we obtain

$$r = r + (-r + (-1)(-r)) = (r + -r) + (-1)(-r) = (-1)(-r).$$

We leave it as an **exercise** to show that  $(-r)(-1) = r$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 7.17.** *Show that: For all  $r$  in a ring  $R$ , we have:*

$$(-1)r = r(-1) = -r.$$

**Exercise 7.18.** *Show that: If  $R$  is a ring in which  $1 = 0$ , then  $R = \{0\}$ . That is, it has only one element.*

*(We call such an  $R$  the **zero ring**.)*