

# The evaluation homomorphisms

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In the previous lecture we defined the evaluation at  $a$ :

$$\phi_a(f(x)) = f(a).$$

Since both  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  have distributive law, when  $\mathbb{R}$  is a commutative ring, it is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_a(f+g) &= \phi_a(f) + \phi_a(g) \\ \text{and} \\ \phi_a(fg) &= \phi_a(f)\phi_a(g); \end{aligned}$$

which means:

Proposition. Let  $\mathbb{R}_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}_2$  be commutative rings. Then

for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}_2$ ,  $\phi_a: \mathbb{R}_1[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_2$ ,  $\phi_a(f) = f(a)$

is a ring homomorphism.

(Its proof is straight-forward; justify this for yourself.)

Ex. The evaluation  $\phi_0$  at 0 maps  $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$  to the constant term. And so

$$\begin{aligned} \ker \phi_0 &= x\mathbb{R}[x] := \text{the set of multiples of } x. \\ &= \{a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \mid a_i \in \mathbb{R}\}. \end{aligned}$$

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Ex. Give one non-zero element of  $\ker(\phi_i)$  where

$\phi_i: \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the evaluation at  $i$ ;

$$\phi_i(f(x)) = f(i) \text{ where } i^2 = -1.$$

Solution.  $f \in \ker(\phi_i) \iff f(i) = 0.$

So we need to find  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  s.t.  $i$  is a zero of  $f$ . By the definition of  $i$  we know that it is a zero of  $x^2 + 1$ . So  $x^2 + 1 \in \ker \phi_i$ . ■

Ex. Find all  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  s.t.  $x^2 - x - 12 \in \ker \phi_a$  where

$\phi_a: \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the evaluation at  $a$ .

Solution.  $x^2 - x - 12 \in \ker \phi_a \iff \phi_a(x^2 - x - 12) = 0$

$$\iff a^2 - a - 12 = 0$$

$$\iff (a-4)(a+3) = 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{C} \text{ (and } \mathbb{C} \text{ is a field.)}$$

$$\iff a = 4 \text{ or } a = -3. \quad \blacksquare$$

Ex. Find a non-zero element of  $\ker(\phi_{\sqrt{2}})$  where

$\phi_{\sqrt{2}}: \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the evaluation at  $\sqrt{2}$ .

Solution.  $f \in \ker \phi_{\sqrt{2}} \iff f(\sqrt{2}) = 0.$

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so we need to find a polynomial which has a zero at  $\sqrt{2}$ .

By the definition of  $\sqrt{2}$ , we have that it is a zero of  $x^2 - 2$ . So  $x^2 - 2 \in \ker \phi_{\sqrt{2}}$ . ■

Ex. Is there a non-zero element in  $\ker \phi_{\pi}$  where

$\phi_{\pi} : \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the evaluation at the  $\pi$ ?

Solution. No, it is a not-so-easy theorem in number theory that  $\pi$  is NOT a zero of a polynomial with rational coefficients. Such a number is called a transcendental number. ■

Def.  $a \in \mathbb{C}$  is called algebraic if  $\ker \phi_a \neq \{0\}$

where  $\phi_a : \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is the evaluation at  $a$ .

•  $a \in \mathbb{C}$ , which is not algebraic, is called a transcendental number.

Ex. Find  $\phi_2(x^{12} - x)$  where  $\phi_2 : \mathbb{Z}_{11}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{11}$  is the evaluation at 2.

Solution. Since 11 is prime,  $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_{11}$ ,  $a^{11} = a$ .

So  $2^{12} = 2^{11} \times 2 = 2 \times 2$ , which implies  $\phi_2(x^{12} - x) = 4 - 2 = 2$ . ■

# The division algorithm

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An extremely important property of ring of polynomials is the fact that we have a division algorithm:

Theorem. Suppose  $\mathbb{R}$  is a unital commutative ring and

$0 \neq 1$ . Let  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$  and

$g(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_0$ . Suppose  $b_m \in U(\mathbb{R})$ .

Then  $\exists q(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$  (called the quotient) and

$r(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$  (called the remainder) s.t.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \deg r < \deg g.$$

Moreover such pair  $(q, r)$  is unique.

In class we proved the existence first and then showed the uniqueness when  $\mathbb{R}$  is an integral domain.

Proof of existence. We proceed by the strong induction on

$\deg(f)$ . To do so first we have to address the case of

$f=0$ .

# The division algorithm (existence)

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Case of  $f=0$ . Set  $q=r=0$ . Then

$$\textcircled{1} \deg r = -\infty < m = \deg g. \quad \textcircled{2} f=0 = 0 \times g + 0.$$

Base of induction.  $\deg f = 0$ . Then  $f(x) = a_0$  and  $a_0 \neq 0$ .

Case 1.  $\deg g = m > 0$ .

Set  $q=0$  and  $r(x) = a_0$ . Then

$$\textcircled{1} \deg r = 0 < m = \deg g. \quad \textcircled{2} f = a_0 = 0 \times g(x) + r.$$

Case 2.  $\deg g = m = 0$ .

Then  $g(x) = b_0$  and  $b_0 \in U(R)$ .

Set  $q(x) = a_0 b_0^{-1}$  and  $r(x) = 0$ . Then

$$\textcircled{1} \deg r = -\infty < 0 = \deg g. \quad \textcircled{2} f(x) = a_0 = \underbrace{(a_0 b_0^{-1})}_q \underbrace{b_0}_g + \underbrace{0}_r.$$

Strong induction step. Suppose for any polynomial of  $\deg < k$  we can find a quotient and a remainder, and we want to get the same result for  $f(x)$  with degree  $k$ .

Case 1.  $\deg f = k < \deg g = m$ .

Set  $q=0$  and  $r(x) = f(x)$ ; check  $\textcircled{1}$  and  $\textcircled{2}$ .

## The division algorithm (existence)

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Case 2.  $\deg f = k \geq \deg g = m$ .

So  $f(x) = a_k x^k + a_{k-1} x^{k-1} + \dots + a_0$  and  $a_k \neq 0$ .

We look for a monomial, i.e.  $\square x^\square$ , s.t. the leading term of  $\square x^\square g(x)$  is the same as the leading term  $a_k x^k$  of  $f(x)$ .

That means we'd like to have  $(\square x^\square)(b_m x^m) = a_k x^k$ .

So the monomial is  $a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m}$  (notice that  $k-m \geq 0$ , and so  $a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m}$  is a monomial). Hence

$$\deg(f(x) - a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m} g(x)) < k.$$

So by the strong induction hypothesis there are  $q_1(x), r_1(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$

s.t. ①  $\deg r_1 < \deg g$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f(x) - a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m} g(x) = q_1(x) g(x) + r_1(x).$$

$$\textcircled{2} \text{ implies that } f(x) = (a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m} + q_1(x)) g(x) + r_1(x). \quad \textcircled{*}$$

Let  $r(x) = r_1(x)$  and  $q(x) = a_k b_m^{-1} x^{k-m} + q_1(x)$ .

Then ① implies  $\deg r < \deg g$  and  $\textcircled{*}$  gives us

$$f(x) = q(x) g(x) + r(x). \quad \blacksquare$$

# The division algorithm (uniqueness)

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Proof of uniqueness. Suppose

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \deg r_1, \deg r_2 < \deg g$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f(x) = q_1(x)g(x) + r_1(x) = q_2(x)g(x) + r_2(x).$$

We have to show  $q_1 = q_2$  and  $r_1 = r_2$ .

$$\textcircled{2} \text{ implies } (q_1(x) - q_2(x))g(x) = r_2(x) - r_1(x). \quad \textcircled{*}$$

$$\deg(r_2 - r_1) \leq \max(\deg r_1, \deg r_2) < \deg g.$$

Since the leading coeff. of  $g$  is a unit, we get

$$\deg((q_1 - q_2)g) = \deg(q_1 - q_2) + \deg g \text{ (why?)}$$

(In class we proved this in integral domains.)

$$\text{Hence } \deg(q_1 - q_2) + \deg g = \deg(r_2 - r_1) < \deg g.$$

And so  $\deg(q_1 - q_2) < 0$ , which implies  $\deg(q_1 - q_2) = -\infty$

and  $q_1 - q_2 = 0$ . Using  $\textcircled{*}$  we get that  $r_2 - r_1 = 0$ .

So  $q_1 = q_2$  and  $r_1 = r_2$ . ■

Next we use the division algorithm to study zeros of a polynomial.

# The factor theorem

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Theorem. Let  $R$  be a unital commutative non-zero ring, and  $f(x) \in R[x]$ . Then  $a \in R$  is a zero of  $f$  if and only if  $f(x) = (x-a)q(x)$  for some  $q(x) \in R[x]$ .

Pf. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Since the leading coeff. of  $x-a$  is 1 and  $1 \in U(R)$ , by the division algorithm  $\exists q(x), r(x) \in R[x]$  s.t.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \deg r < \deg(x-a) = 1. \quad \mapsto \quad r \text{ is constant.}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f(x) = (x-a)q(x) + r(x)$$

Since  $a$  is a zero of  $f$ ,  $\textcircled{2}$  implies

$$0 = f(a) = (a-a)q(a) + r(a); \text{ and so } r(a) = 0.$$

Since  $r$  is constant, we get that  $r(x) = r(a) = 0$ .

$$\text{So } f(x) = (x-a)q(x).$$

$$\Leftrightarrow f(x) = (x-a)q(x) \text{ implies } f(a) = (a-a)q(a) = 0.$$

And so  $a$  is a zero of  $f$ . ■

In the previous lectures we have seen that some degree 2 polynomials have more than 2 zeros. But this is not the



# Zeros of a polynomial over an integral domain

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the case over an integral domain.

Theorem. Let  $D$  be an integral domain, and  $f(x) \in D[x]$ .

Suppose  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  are distinct zeros of  $f(x)$ . Then

$\exists q(x) \in D[x]$  s.t.  $f(x) = (x-a_1) \dots (x-a_k) q(x)$ .

In particular, a polynomial  $f$  has at most  $\deg(f)$  zeros.

Pf. We proceed by induction on  $k$ .

Base of induction.  $k=1$ .

$a_1$  is a zero of  $f$ . So by the factor theorem,

$f(x) = (x-a_1) q(x)$  for some  $q(x) \in D[x]$ ; this

proves the base of induction.

Induction step. Suppose  $a_1, \dots, a_{k+1}$  are distinct zeros of  $f(x)$ .

Since  $a_{k+1}$  is a zero of  $f$ , by the factor theorem

$\exists h(x) \in D[x]$  s.t.  $f(x) = (x-a_{k+1}) h(x)$ . So, for any

$1 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $0 = f(a_i) = (a_i - a_{k+1}) h(a_i)$ . Since

## Zeros of a polynomial over an integral domain

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$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 0 = (a_i - a_{k+1}) h(a_i) \\ a_i \neq a_{k+1} \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ \mathcal{D} \text{ has no zero-divisor} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow h(a_1) = h(a_2) = \dots = h(a_k) = 0.$$

So  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  are distinct zeros of  $h$ . Hence by the induction hypothesis we have that

$$h(x) = (x - a_1) \dots (x - a_k) q(x)$$

for some  $q(x) \in \mathcal{D}[x]$ . Therefore

$$f(x) = (x - a_{k+1}) h(x) = (x - a_1) \dots (x - a_k) (x - a_{k+1}) q(x).$$

This gives us the first part of theorem.

To get the second part of theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \deg f &= \deg((x - a_1) \dots (x - a_k) q(x)) \\ &= k + \deg q, \end{aligned}$$

which implies  $\deg f \geq k$ . So  $f$  has at most  $\deg(f)$

zeros. ■