

Math 127, Mon Apr 05

- ▶ Use a laptop or desktop with a large screen so you can read these words clearly.
- ▶ In general, please turn off your camera and mute yourself.
- ▶ Exception: When we do groupwork, please turn both your camera and mic on. (Groupwork will not be recorded.)
- ▶ Please always have the chat window open to ask questions.
- ▶ Reading for today: 7.3–7.4.
- ▶ PS07 outline due Wed, full version due in one week.
- ▶ Problem session Fri Apr 09, 10am–noon.

Ideals: A long recap

Definition

$v \mid 1$

Let R be a (commutative) ring. An **ideal** of R is $I \subseteq R$ s.t.:

1. (Zero) The zero element of R is contained in I .
2. (Closed under addition) If $x, y \in I$, then $x + y \in I$.
3. (Closed under R -multiplication) If $x \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $rx \in I$.

Ideals are very abstract, very important — and very lucrative.

Proofs (review/reboot)

Proofs are mostly not:

~~induction (weak and strong)~~

~~contradiction~~

(contrapositive)

direct
proof



Most of the time, we prove statements of the form "If P , then Q ."

A proof of that statement **EXPLAINS** logically how the assumption P must lead to the conclusion Q .

To set up (outline) the proof of "If P , then Q ":

Assume P true

logic logic logic logic logic
logic logic logic logic logic
logic logic logic logic

[A] P true

Conclude Q true

[C] Q true

Example

R a ring, $a \in R$. Prove that

(a) is all things that look like this
(have form ra)

the ideal generated by $a \rightarrow (a) = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$ and satisfy this condition

is an ideal of R . The ideal test says that the set (a) is an ideal of R exactly when all of the following are true: = I

- ▶ (Zero) The zero element of R is contained in I .
- ▶ (Closed under addition) If $x, y \in I$, then $x + y \in I$.
- ▶ (Closed under R -multiplication) If $x \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $rx \in I$.] Q

In reverse order:

R : (A) $x \in (a), r \in R$
 $x = sa$ for some $s \in R$
mult $\Rightarrow rx = r(sa) = (rs)a$
 $rx = ta$ for some $t \in R$ ($t = rs$)
(C) $rx \in (a)$



$$\textcircled{A} x, y \in (a)$$

$$cl \quad x = ra, y = sa \text{ for } r, s \in \mathbb{R} \quad \dots$$

$$+ \Rightarrow x + y = ra + sa = (r+s)a$$

$$x + y = ta \text{ for } t \in \mathbb{R} \left(\begin{matrix} t \\ = r+s \end{matrix} \right)$$

$$\textcircled{C} x + y \in (a)$$

(a) generalizes "multiples of a "

$$(5) = \{ \dots, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, 15, \dots \}$$

$$0 \in (a)$$

Observe: $0 = 0a$. (r or s = 0)

$$\textcircled{C} 0 \in (a)$$



Definition of quotient ring

Let R be a ring and let I be an ideal of R . We define the **quotient ring** R/I as follows.

- ▶ **Set:** The elements of R/I are the cosets of I in R . Note that if r and s represent the same coset of I , then the cosets $r + I$ and $s + I$ are actually the same element of R/I , since $r + I = s + I$.
- ▶ **Addition:** For $r + I, s + I \in R/I$, we define the sum

$$(r + I) + (s + I) = (r + s) + I.$$

- ▶ **Multiplication:** For $r + I, s + I \in R/I$, we define the product

$$(r + I)(s + I) = rs + I.$$

The zero element of R/I is $0 + I = I$, and the one element is $1 + I$.

Review/revision: Computation in $\mathbf{Z}/(m)$

Let $I = (m)$ (the integer multiples of m). Working mod I , we have:

- ▶ **Elements:** The cosets of I in \mathbf{Z} , which we can write as $0 + I, 1 + I, \dots, (m-1) + I$, or $\{0, \dots, m-1\}$ for short, since division by m gives remainders between 0 and $m-1$.
- ▶ **Operations:** Addition and multiplication are computed in \mathbf{Z} and then reduced mod I . I.e., you use division by m with remainder to choose a **reduced representative** for the final answer.

Example:

$$m = 13 \quad \text{In } \mathbf{Z}/(13):$$

$$(7 + (13)) + (8 + (13)) = 15 + (13)$$

prev: $7 + 8 = 2 \pmod{13} = 2 + (13)$

$$(7 + (13))(2 + (13)) = 14 + (13) = 1 + (13)$$

Computation in $F[x]/(m(x))$, version 1

$$F = \mathbb{F}_2$$

F a field, $m(x) \in F[x]$ ($\deg m > 0$), $I = (m(x))$ (the polynomial multiples of $m(x)$). Working mod I , we have:

- ▶ **Elements:** The cosets of I in $F[x]$, which we can write as $r(x) + I$ where $\deg r(x) < \deg m(x)$, since division by $m(x)$ gives remainders of degree $< \deg m(x)$.
- ▶ **Operations:** Addition and multiplication are computed in $F[x]$ and then reduced mod I . I.e., you use division by $m(x)$ with remainder to choose a **reduced representative** for the final answer.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ex. } I &= (x^3), F = \mathbb{F}_2. I \text{ in } F[x]/I: \\ &((x^2+1) + I)((x+1) + I) \\ &= (\cancel{x^3} + x^2 + x + 1) + I \\ &= (x^2 + x + 1) + I \end{aligned}$$

Reduce mod x^3

Computation in $F[x]/(m(x))$, version 2

F a field, $m(x) \in F[x]$ ($\deg m = k > 0$), $I = (m(x))$ (the polynomial multiples of $m(x)$). Abbreviate $\alpha = x + I$. Working mod I , we have:

- ▶ **Elements:** The cosets of I in $F[x]$, which we can write as $r(\alpha)$ where $\deg r < k$, since setting $m(\alpha) = 0$ allows you to reduce any polynomial of degree $\geq k$.

More specifically, if $\deg m = k$, then you rewrite $m(\alpha) = 0$ as a **reduction relation** $\alpha^k = \dots$ and apply that repeatedly to reduce any higher-degree terms to terms of degree $< k$.

- ▶ **Operations:** Addition and multiplication are computed in polynomials in α and then reduced. I.e., you use the relation $m(\alpha) = 0$ to choose a **reduced representative** for the final answer.

$F = \mathbb{F}_2$
Ex: $m(x) = x^4 + x + 1$

$m(\alpha) = 0$, so $\alpha^4 + \alpha + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha^4 = \alpha + 1$

Example: $\mathbf{F}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$

$$t=4$$

Let $m(x) = x^4 + x + 1$ and consider $\bar{R} = \mathbf{F}_2[x]/(m(x))$.

I.e., let $\bar{R} = \mathbf{F}_2[\alpha]$, where α is a root of $m(x)$. So $\alpha^4 + \alpha + 1 = 0$, which means that:

$$\alpha^4 = \alpha + 1$$

Elements of \bar{R} :

Can reduce any polynomial in α of degree ≥ 4 until it has $\text{deg} \leq 3$.

So elements of the ring are exactly the polynomials in α of $\text{deg} \leq 3$:

$$\bar{R} = \{ b_3 \alpha^3 + b_2 \alpha^2 + b_1 \alpha + b_0 \mid b_i \in \mathbf{F}_2 \}$$

So \bar{R} has 16 elts $16 = 2^4$

$\mathbb{F}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$, cont.

Reduction relations:

$$\alpha^4 = \alpha + 1$$
$$\alpha = 0 \quad \hookrightarrow \quad \alpha^5 = \alpha^2 + \alpha$$

Addition in \bar{R} :

$$(\alpha^3 + \alpha^2 + 1) + (\alpha^2 + \alpha) = \alpha^3 + \alpha + 1$$

$= \alpha^3 + 2\alpha^2 + \alpha + 1$

Multiplication in \bar{R} :

$$(\alpha^3 + 1)(\alpha^2 + \alpha)$$
$$= \alpha^5 + \alpha^4 + \alpha^2 + \alpha \quad \text{not reduced}$$
$$= \cancel{(\alpha^2 + \alpha)} + \cancel{(\alpha + 1)} + \cancel{\alpha^2} + \alpha$$
$$= \alpha + 1$$

Reciprocals in $F[x]/(m(x))$

Let $\bar{R} = F[\alpha]$, where α is a root of $m(x) \in F[x]$, and suppose $b(x) \in F[x]$.

Follows from polynomial Euclidean Reduction that:

Thm: For $b(x) \in F[x]$, the element $b(\alpha) \in \bar{R}$ has an inverse in \bar{R} if and only if $\gcd(b(x), m(x)) = 1$, in which case the inverse $g(\alpha)$ of $b(\alpha)$ can be computed by solving

$$f(x)m(x) + g(x)b(x) = 1$$

in $F[x]$, using Euclidean Reduction for polynomials.

Cor: \bar{R} is a field if and only if $m(x)$ is irreducible.

(Analogue of fact that $\mathbf{Z}/(m)$ is a field if and only if m is prime.)

EA: $g(\alpha)$ of $b(\alpha)$
ER: eqn

Example: $\mathbf{F}_2[x]/(x^4 + x + 1)$

Let $m(x) = x^4 + x + 1$, $\overline{R} = \mathbf{F}_2[x]/(m(x)) = \mathbf{F}_2[\alpha]$. Turns out that $m(x)$ is irreducible. Find inverse of:

Principal ideal domains

To say that a ring R is a **principal ideal domain**, or **PID**, means that R is an integral domain and that every ideal of R is principal. In other words, the second condition says that if I is an ideal of R , then $I = (a)$ (the set of all R -multiples of a) for some $a \in I$.

Theorem

Let R be either \mathbf{Z} or $F[x]$ (F a field), or more generally, let R be a Euclidean domain. Then R is a PID.

Proof, case $R = \mathbf{Z}$: We apply signed division:

If $a, d \in \mathbf{Z}$, $d \neq 0$, then for some $q, r \in \mathbf{Z}$,

$$a = dq + r \quad \text{with } |r| \leq \frac{|d|}{2}.$$

The minimal polynomial

To recap: We know in the abstract that if I is an ideal of $F[x]$, then there is some $d(x)$ such that $I = (d(x))$. If we choose $d(x)$ to be **monic** (leading coefficient 1), then we call $d(x)$ the **minimal polynomial** of I .

Note that we only know $d(x)$ exists in the abstract, and in practice, we use different methods to figure out what $d(x)$ is in different circumstances. For example:

Theorem

Let F be a field, and consider the ideal $I = (a(x), b(x))$ of $F[x]$, where $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ are nonzero polynomials in $F[x]$. Then the minimal polynomial of I is $\gcd(a(x), b(x))$, which can be computed by the Euclidean algorithm. □