

MATH 369 Fall 2025 - Class Notes

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Scribe: Brooke McConnell

Summary: These notes review polynomials concepts such as degree, leading coefficient, and the division algorithm. They explain roots, divisibility, and how to find the gcd of polynomials using Euclid's Algorithm.

Quiz #8 Question 1 Brief Go Over

Let $H = \langle (2, 1) \rangle \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$

$H = \{(0, 0), (2, 1), (1, 2)\}$

$\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 / \langle (2, 1) \rangle =$ group of all cosets of H

What are the cosets?

1 coset is $H = \{(0, 0), (2, 1), (1, 2)\}$

and another is $(1, 1) + H = \{(1, 1), (0, 2), (2, 0)\}$

$(1, 0) + H = \{(1, 0), (0, 1), (2, 2)\}$

	$(0, 0) + H$	$(1, 1) + H$	$(1, 0) + H$
$(0, 0) + H$	$(0, 0)$	$(1, 1)$	$(1, 0)$
$(1, 1) + H$	$(1, 1)$	$(1, 0)$	$(0, 0)$

Polynomials with coefficients in a field F are denoted $F[x]$. These polynomials obey all the usual rules for polynomials.

Definition. We call a polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ **monic** if $f(x) = 1x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$.

The **leading** coefficient of a polynomial is the coefficient of the highest power of x in the polynomial with a nonzero coefficient.

The **degree** of a polynomial is the highest power of x appearing in the polynomial with nonzero coefficient.

Example. $f(x) = \mathbb{Q}[x]$

$f(x) = \frac{2}{3}x^5 + \frac{1}{2}x + 2$ has degree 5 and leading coefficient $\frac{2}{3}$.

The 0 polynomial doesn't have a degree, but for convenience we sometimes define it to have degree $-\infty$.

Theorem. If $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ with degrees m and n respectively then the degree of $f(x)g(x)$ is $m + n$.

Proof. Suppose $f(x), g(x)$ are not 0 then $f(x) = a_mx^m + \dots$ where $a_m \neq 0$ and $g(x) = b_nx^n + \dots$ so $f(x)g(x) = (a_mx^m + \dots)(b_nx^n + \dots) = (a_mb_nx^{m+n} + \dots)$ and $a_mb_n \neq 0$ since $a_m, b_n \in f$ both nonzero. So the degree of $f(x)g(x)$ is $m + n$. $\square$

Note: Our definition of 0 having degree $-\infty$ works with the statement of this theorem.

Polynomials with coefficients in a field have many of the same properties as $\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem. The division algorithm applies to polynomials just like the integers.

Recall for integers: If $a, b \neq 0, b > 0$ then we can find q and r so that $a = bq + r$ and $0 \leq r < b$.

Analogous Statement for polynomials. If $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ and $g(x) \neq 0$ then there exists $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ where $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) + \dots$ and the degree of $r(x)$ is less than the degree of $g(x)$

($\deg(r(x)) < \deg(g(x))$) furthermore these polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ are unique.

Proof. Do long division of polynomials. $f(x) = a_mx^m + \dots$ and $g(x) = b_nx^n + \dots$

Note that $f(x) - \frac{a_m}{b_n}x^{m-n}g(x)$ has degree less than m so we can use induction on the degrees of the polynomials to show that the division algorithm works. $\square$

If the remainder when $f(x)$ is divided by $g(x)$ is zero we say that $g(x)$ divides $f(x)$ and write $g(x)|f(x)$.

Definition. If $\alpha \in F$ satisfies $f(\alpha) = 0$ then we say that α is a **root** of $f(x)$ in F .

Theorem. If $\alpha \in F$ is a root of $f(x) \in F[x]$ then $(x - \alpha)|f(x)$.

Proof. By the division algorithm we can find $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ with $f(x) = q(x)(x - \alpha) + r(x)$ and $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(x - \alpha) = 1$ so $r(x) = c \in F[x]$ and $f(x) = q(x)(x - \alpha) + c$. Plug in α to both sides. $f(\alpha) = q(\alpha)(\alpha - \alpha) + c$ so $0 = 0 + c$ so $c = 0$. Since our remainder is 0, $(x - \alpha)$ divides $f(x)$. $\square$

Polynomials are not necessarily equal if they result in the same function on F .

Definition. We say that $d(x) \in F[x]$ is the **greatest common divisor** of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ if $d(x)|f(x)$ and $d(x)|g(x)$, if $m(x)|f(x)$ and $m(x)|g(x)$ then $m(x)|d(x)$ (so $\deg(m(x)) \leq \deg(d(x))$) and $d(x)$ is monic.

Theorem. The greatest common divisor of any two polynomials exists.

Proof. Suppose $I \subseteq F[x]$ with 3 properties.

1) $0 \in I$

2) If $f(x) \in I$ and $g(x) \in I$ then $a(x)f(x) + b(x)g(x) \in I$

3) If $f(x)$ and $g(x) \in I$ then $f(x)g(x) \in I$

In other words I is closed under addition, multiplication, and linear combination. Then there exists a monic polynomial $d(x) \in F[x]$ such that $I = \{a(x)d(x) | a(x) \in F[x]\}$

Exactly the same as what we saw for integers same idea of proof as the integers. Let $d(x)$ be a polynomial of minimal degree in I . Multiply by the inverse of the leading coefficient to

make it monic.

Claim: Every element of I is a multiple of $d(x)$.

Proof by contradiction:

Suppose $g(x) \in I$ is not divisible by $d(x)$. Use the division algorithm to write $g(x) = q(x)d(x) + r(x)$ where $\deg(r) < \deg(d)$, $r(x) = g(x) - q(x)d(x)$. So $r(x) \in I$, $r(x) \neq 0$ since $d(x) \nmid g(x)$, this contradicts $d(x)$ having minimal degree in I . Now, if $f(x), g(x) \in I$ then the set $I = a(x)f(x) + b(x)g(x)$ satisfies these three requirements so this I is the set of all multiples of some polynomial $d(x)$. This $d(x)$ is the gcd of $f(x), g(x)$. $\square$

Definition. If $\gcd(f(x), g(x)) = 1$ then we say $f(x), g(x)$ are relatively prime.

Euclid's Algorithm for Polynomials. By repeatedly applying the division algorithm to $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ we can find the gcd.

Steps:

1. Repeatedly divide with the remainder
2. Pull out leading coefficient of remainder
3. Repeat until we get a remainder of 0
4. Last nonzero remainder is our gcd