

Quotient Rings of Polynomial Rings

In this section, I'll look at quotient rings of polynomial rings.

Let F be a field, and suppose $p(x) \in F[x]$. $\langle p(x) \rangle$ is the set of all multiples (by polynomials) of $p(x)$, the **(principal) ideal generated by $p(x)$** . When you form the quotient ring $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$, it is as if you've set multiples of $p(x)$ equal to 0.

If $a(x) \in F[x]$, then $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$ is the **coset** of $\langle p(x) \rangle$ represented by $a(x)$.

Define $a(x) = b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$ ($a(x)$ is **congruent** to $b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$) to mean that

$$p(x) \mid a(x) - b(x).$$

In words, this means that $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ are congruent mod $p(x)$ if they differ by a multiple of $p(x)$. In equation form, this says $a(x) - b(x) = k(x) \cdot p(x)$ for some $k(x) \in F[x]$, or $a(x) = b(x) + k(x) \cdot p(x)$ for some $k(x) \in F[x]$.

Lemma. Let R be a commutative ring, and suppose $a(x), b(x), p(x) \in R[x]$. Then $a(x) = b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$ if and only if $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$.

Proof. Suppose $a(x) = b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$. Then $a(x) = b(x) + k(x) \cdot p(x)$ for some $k(x) \in R[x]$. Hence,

$$a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + k(x) \cdot p(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle.$$

Conversely, suppose $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$. Then

$$a(x) \in a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle.$$

Hence,

$$a(x) = b(x) + k(x) \cdot p(x) \quad \text{for some } k(x) \in R[x].$$

This means that $a(x) = b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$. \square

Depending on the situation, I may write $a(x) = b(x) \pmod{p(x)}$ or $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle = b(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$.

Example. (A quotient ring of the rational polynomial ring) Take $p(x) = x - 2$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Then two polynomials are congruent mod $x - 2$ if they differ by a multiple of $x - 2$.

(a) Show that $2x^2 + 3x + 5 = x^2 + 4x + 7 \pmod{x - 2}$.

(b) Find a rational number r such that $x^3 - 4x^2 + x + 11 = r \pmod{x - 2}$.

(c) Prove that $\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x - 2 \rangle} \approx \mathbb{Q}$.

(a)

$(2x^2 + 3x + 5) - (x^2 + 4x + 7) = x^2 - x - 2 = (x + 1)(x - 2)$, so $2x^2 + 3x + 5 = x^2 + 4x + 7 \pmod{x - 2}$. \square

(b) By the Remainder Theorem, when $f(x) = x^3 - 4x^2 + x + 11$ is divided by $x - 2$, the remainder is

$$f(2) = 2^3 - 4 \cdot 2^2 + 2 + 11 = 5.$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 - 4x^2 + x + 11 &= (x - 2)q(x) + 5 \\ x^3 - 4x^2 + x + 11 &= 5 \pmod{x - 2} \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

(c) I'll use the First Isomorphism Theorem. Define $\phi : \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by

$$\phi(f(x)) = f(2).$$

That is, ϕ evaluates a polynomial at $x = 2$. Note that

$$\phi(f(x) + g(x)) = f(2) + g(2) = \phi(f(x)) + \phi(g(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(f(x)g(x)) = f(2)g(2) = \phi(f(x))\phi(g(x)),$$

It follows that ϕ is a ring map.

I claim that $\ker \phi = \langle x - 2 \rangle$. Now $f(x) \in \ker \phi$ if and only if

$$f(2) = \phi(f(x)) = 0.$$

That is, $f(x) \in \ker \phi$ if and only if 2 is a root of f . By the Root Theorem, this is equivalent to $x - 2 \mid f(x)$, which is equivalent to $f(x) \in \langle x - 2 \rangle$.

Next, I'll show that ϕ is surjective. Let $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. I can think of q as a constant polynomial, and doing so, $\phi(q) = q$. Therefore, ϕ is surjective.

Using these results,

$$\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x - 2 \rangle} = \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\ker \phi} \approx \text{im } \phi = \mathbb{Q}.$$

The first equality follows from the fact that $\langle x - 2 \rangle = \ker \phi$. The isomorphism follows from the First Isomorphism Theorem. The second equality follows from the fact that ϕ is surjective. \square

In the last example, $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ was a field. The next result says that this is the case exactly when $p(x)$ is irreducible.

Theorem. $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ is a field if and only if $p(x)$ is irreducible.

Proof. Since $F[x]$ is a commutative ring with identity, so is $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$.

Suppose $p(x)$ is irreducible. I need to show that $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ is a field. I need to show that nonzero elements are invertible.

Take a nonzero element of $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ — say $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$, for $a(x) \in F[x]$. What does it mean for $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$ to be nonzero? It means that $a(x) \notin \langle p(x) \rangle$, so $p(x) \nmid a(x)$.

Now what is the greatest common divisor of $a(x)$ and $p(x)$? Well, $(a(x), p(x)) \mid p(x)$, but $p(x)$ is irreducible — its only factors are units and unit multiples of $p(x)$.

Suppose $(a(x), p(x)) = k \cdot p(x)$, where $k \in F$ and $k \neq 0$. Then $k \cdot p(x) \mid a(x)$, i.e. $k \cdot p(x)b(x) = a(x)$ for some $b(x)$. But then $p(x)[k \cdot b(x)] = a(x)$ shows that $p(x) \mid a(x)$, contrary to assumption.

The only other possibility is that $(a(x), p(x)) = k$, where $k \in F$ and $k \neq 0$. So I can find polynomials $m(x), n(x)$, such that

$$a(x)m(x) + p(x)n(x) = k.$$

Then

$$a(x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{k}m(x) \right) + p(x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{k}n(x) \right) = 1.$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} a(x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{k}m(x) \right) + p(x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{k}n(x) \right) + \langle p(x) \rangle &= 1 + \langle p(x) \rangle \\ a(x) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{k}m(x) \right) + \langle p(x) \rangle &= 1 + \langle p(x) \rangle \\ (a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle) \left(\frac{1}{k}m(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \right) &= 1 + \langle p(x) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $\frac{1}{k}m(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$ is the multiplicative inverse of $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$. Therefore, $a(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle$ is invertible, and $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ is a field.

Going the other way, suppose that $p(x)$ is *not* irreducible. Then I can find polynomials $c(x)$, $d(x)$ such that $p(x) = c(x)d(x)$, where $c(x)$ and $d(x)$ both have smaller degree than $p(x)$.

Because $c(x)$ and $d(x)$ have smaller degree than $p(x)$, they're not divisible by $p(x)$. In particular,

$$c(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad d(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \neq 0.$$

But $p(x) = c(x)d(x)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle &= c(x)d(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle \\ 0 &= (c(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle)(d(x) + \langle p(x) \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $\frac{F[x]}{\langle p(x) \rangle}$ has zero divisors. Therefore, it's not an integral domain — and since fields are integral domains, it can't be a field, either. \square

Example. (A quotient ring which is not an integral domain) Prove that $\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x^2 - 1 \rangle}$ is not an integral domain by exhibiting a pair of zero divisors.

$(x - 1) + \langle x^2 - 1 \rangle$ and $(x + 1) + \langle x^2 - 1 \rangle$ are zero divisors, because

$$(x - 1)(x + 1) = x^2 - 1 = 0 \pmod{x^2 - 1}. \quad \square$$

Example. (A quotient ring which is a field) (a) Show that $\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle}$ is a field.

(b) Find the inverse of $(x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle$ in $\frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle}$.

(a) Since $x^2 + 2x + 2 = (x + 1)^2 + 1 > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, it follows that $x^2 + 2x + 2$ has no rational roots. Hence, it's irreducible, and the quotient ring is a field. \square

(b) Apply the Extended Euclidean algorithm to $x^3 + 1$ and $x^2 + 2x + 2$:

$x^3 + 1$	-	$\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{5x}{4} + \frac{3}{2}$
$x^2 + 2x + 2$	$x - 2$	$\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4}$
$2x + 5$	$\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4}$	1
$\frac{13}{4}$	$\frac{8x}{13} + \frac{20}{13}$	0

Therefore,

$$\frac{13}{4} = \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{5x}{4} + \frac{3}{2} \right) (x^2 + 2x + 2) - \left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) (x^3 + 1).$$

Hence,

$$1 = \frac{4}{13} \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{5x}{4} + \frac{3}{2} \right) (x^2 + 2x + 2) - \frac{4}{13} \left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) (x^3 + 1).$$

Reducing mod $x^2 + 2x + 2$, I get

$$1 + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle = -\frac{4}{13} \left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) (x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle$$

$$1 + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle = \left(-\frac{4}{13} \left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle \right) ((x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle)$$

Thus, $-\frac{4}{13} \left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle$ is the inverse of $(x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + 2x + 2 \rangle$. \square

Example. (A field with 4 elements) (a) Prove that $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle}$ is a field.

(b) Find $ax + b \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ so that

$$(x^4 + x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle = (ax + b) + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle.$$

(c) Construct addition and multiplication tables for $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle}$.

(a) Let $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$. Then $f(0) = 1$ and $f(1) = 1$. Since f has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_2 , it's irreducible. Hence, $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle}$ is a field. \square

(b) By the Division Algorithm,

$$x^4 + x^3 + 1 = (x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 + 1) + x.$$

This equation says that $x^4 + x^3 + 1$ and x differ by a multiple of $x^2 + x + 1$, so they represent the same coset mod $x^2 + x + 1$.

Therefore,

$$(x^4 + x^3 + 1) + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle = x + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle. \quad \square$$

(c) By the Division Algorithm, if $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$, then

$$f(x) = (x^2 + x + 1)q(x) + (ax + b), \quad \text{where } a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_2.$$

There are two possibilities for a and two for b , a total of 4. It follows that $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle}$ is a field with 4 elements. The elements are

$$0 + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle, 1 + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle, x + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle, (x + 1) + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle.$$

Here are the addition and multiplication tables for $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle}$:

+	0	1	x	$x + 1$
0	0	1	x	$x + 1$
1	1	0	$x + 1$	x
x	x	$x + 1$	0	1
$x + 1$	$x + 1$	x	1	0

\cdot	0	1	x	$x+1$
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	x	$x+1$
x	0	x	$x+1$	1
$x+1$	0	$x+1$	1	x

The addition table is fairly easy to understand: For example, $x + (x + 1) = 1$, because $2x = 0 \pmod{2}$. For the multiplication table, take $x \cdot x$ as an example. $x \cdot x = x^2$; I apply the Division Algorithm to get

$$x^2 = 1 \cdot (x^2 + x + 1) + (x + 1).$$

So $x \cdot x = x + 1 \pmod{x^2 + x + 1}$.

Alternatively, you can use the fact that in the quotient ring $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$ (omitting the coset notation), so $x^2 = x + 1$ (remember that $-1 = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_3). \square

Remark. In the same way, you can construct a field of order p^n for any prime n and any $n \geq 1$. Just take $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ and form the quotient ring $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_p[x]}{\langle f(x) \rangle}$, where $f(x)$ is an irreducible polynomial of degree n .

Example. (Computations in a quotient ring) (a) Show that $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle}$ is a field.

(b) How many elements are there in $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle}$?

(c) Compute

$$[(x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle] [(2x^2 + 1) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle].$$

Express your answer in the form $(ax^2 + bx + c) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle$, where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_3$.

(d) Find $[(x^2 + 1) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle]^{-1}$.

(a) $x^3 + 2x + 1$ has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_3 :

x	0	1	2
$x^3 + 2x + 1 \pmod{3}$	1	1	1

Since $x^3 + 2x + 1$ is a cubic, it follows that it's irreducible. Hence, $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle}$ is a field. \square

(b) By the Division Algorithm, every element of $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle}$ can be written in the form

$$(ax^2 + bx + c) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle, \quad \text{where } a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

There are 3 choices each for a , b , and c . Therefore, $\frac{\mathbb{Z}_3[x]}{\langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle}$ has $3^3 = 27$ elements. \square

(c)

$$[(x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle] [(2x^2 + 1) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle] = (2x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle.$$

By the Division Algorithm,

$$2x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 2 = (2x + 2)(x^3 + 2x + 1) + x^2.$$

Therefore,

$$(2x^4 + 2x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle = x^2 + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle. \quad \square$$

(d) Apply the Extended Euclidean algorithm:

$x^3 + 2x + 1$	-	$x^2 + 2x + 1$
$x^2 + 1$	x	$x + 2$
$x + 1$	$x + 2$	1
2	$2x + 2$	0

$$(x^2 + 2x + 1)(x^2 + 1) - (x + 2)(x^3 + 2x + 1) = 2$$

$$(2x^2 + x + 2)(x^2 + 1) - (2x + 1)(x^3 + 2x + 1) = 1$$

Therefore,

$$[(2x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle] [(x^2 + 1) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle] = 1 + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle.$$

Hence,

$$[(x^2 + 1) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle]^{-1} = (2x^2 + x + 2) + \langle x^3 + 2x + 1 \rangle. \quad \square$$
