

# Algebra

## COURSE NOTES

Fall 2009, Math 145

### CONTENTS

1. Commutative Rings and Fields	1
1.1. Characteristics of commutative rings	1
1.2. The integers	1
2. The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic	1
2.1. Greatest Common Divisor properties	1
2.2. Linear Diophantine equations	1
2.3. The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic	2
3. Congruences	2
3.1. Properties of congruences	2
3.2. Equivalence relations	3
3.3. Least Common Multiple	3
3.4. The integers modulo $n$	3
3.5. Fermat's Little Theorem	4
3.6. Chinese Remainder Theorem	4
4. Cryptography	4
4.1. Background	4
4.2. Primality testing	4
4.3. RSA public-key encryption scheme	5
5. Quadratic Number Domains	6
5.1. Background	6
5.2. Prime Factorization in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$	7
5.3. Gaussian Integers	8
6. Polynomial Rings	8
6.1. Background	8
6.2. Polynomial factorization	9
6.3. Polynomial congruences	9
6.4. Galois Fields	9
6.5. Irreducible polynomials over $\mathbb{Q}$	10

© J. Lazovskis

Professor: A. Menezes

## 1. COMMUTATIVE RINGS AND FIELDS

## 1.1. Characteristics of commutative rings.

A commutative ring, denoted by  $(R, +, \cdot)$  consists of a set  $R$  and two binary operations.

The characteristics of a commutative ring are:

- i. Addition and multiplication are commutative and associative.
- ii. There exists additive and multiplicative identities.
- iii. There exists an additive inverse.
- iv. The distributive law holds.

A commutative ring is a field if  $1 \neq 0$  and multiplicative inverses exist.

## 1.2. The integers.

The properties of divisibility for the integers, for  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , are:

- i. If  $a|b$  and  $b|c$  then  $a|c$
- ii. If  $a|b$  and  $a|c$  then  $a|bx + cy$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$
- iii. If  $a|b$  and  $b|a$  then  $a = \pm b$
- iv. If  $a|b$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $b \geq a$

Let  $a, b, x \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x \geq 2$ .

Then  $x^a - 1 | x^b - 1$  if and only if  $a|b$

Let  $a, b, x \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x \geq 2$ .

Then  $\gcd(x^a - 1, x^b - 1) = x^{\gcd(a,b)} - 1$

## 2. THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ARITHMETIC

## 2.1. Greatest Common Divisor properties.

Let  $a, b, q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b = qa + r$

Then  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, r)$

By the GCD characterization theorem, if  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  then  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  if and only if

- i.  $d \geq 0$
- ii.  $d|a$  and  $d|b$
- iii. There exist  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ax + by = d$
- iv. If  $c|a$  and  $c|b$  then  $c|d$

## 2.2. Linear Diophantine equations.

Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then  $ax + by = c$  has an integer solution if and only if  $\gcd(a, b)|c$

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , not both zero.

Then  $\gcd(a, b)$  is the smallest positive integer  $d$  for which  $ax + by = d$  has a solution

Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a|b$ , not both zero.

Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  and suppose that  $d|c$

Then, given that a particular solution to the Diophantine equation  $ax + by = c$  is  $(x_o, y_o)$ , the complete integer solution to this equation is given by:

$$x = x_o + \frac{b}{d}k \quad , \quad y = y_o - \frac{a}{d}k \quad , \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

### 2.3. The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic.

An integer  $p \geq 2$  is prime if its only positive divisors are 1 and  $p$ . Otherwise  $p$  is composite.

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p$  is prime and  $p|ab$ , then  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ .

Every integer  $n \geq 2$  can be expressed as the product of primes. This is termed the prime factorization of  $n$ . Moreover, this expression is unique up to rearrangement of prime factors.

Let  $n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then  $\sqrt[k]{n}$  is either an integer or an irrational.

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , then there are infinitely many primes of the form  $an + b$ .

## 3. CONGRUENCES

### 3.1. Properties of congruences.

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be fixed and let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

If  $n|(a - b)$ , then  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $n$ , and we write  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be fixed and let  $a, b, c, a', b' \in \mathbb{Z}$

**i.**  $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$  [Reflexivity]

**ii.** If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$  [Symmetry]

**iii.** If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ , then  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$  [Transitivity]

If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $a' \equiv b' \pmod{n}$ , then

**iv.**  $a + a' \equiv b + b' \pmod{n}$

**v.**  $aa' \equiv bb' \pmod{n}$

**vi.**  $a - a' \equiv b - b' \pmod{n}$

**vii.** If  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{n}$

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $a$  is congruent modulo  $n$  to exactly one of  $x \in [1, n - 1]$ .

The linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$  has a solution if and only if  $\gcd(a, n)|b$

The following are equivalent:

- i.  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$
- ii.  $n \mid (a - b)$
- iii.  $a = b + kn$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
- iv.  $a, b$  leave the same remainder upon division by  $n$
- v.  $[a] = [b]$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$

### 3.2. Equivalence relations.

A relation on a set  $S$  is a subset  $R \subseteq S \times S$

For  $a, b \in S$  we write  $aRb$  if  $(a, b) \in R$ .

A relation  $R$  on  $S$  is an equivalence relation if for all  $a, b, c \in S$

- i.  $aRa$  (Reflexivity)
- ii.  $aRb \Rightarrow bRa$  (Symmetry)
- iii.  $aRb \wedge bRc \Rightarrow aRc$  (Transitivity)

Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on  $S$  and let  $a \in S$ . Then the equivalence class of  $a$  is  $[a] = \{x \in S : xRa\}$ , where  $a$  is called the representative of  $[a]$ .

Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on  $S$ . Then

- i.  $a \in [a]$  for all  $a \in S$
- ii. If  $\neg(aRb)$ , then  $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$
- iii.  $[a] = [b]$  if and only if  $aRb$

Equivalence classes are either equal or completely disjoint.

### 3.3. Least Common Multiple.

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\text{Then } \text{lcm}(a, b) = \frac{ab}{\text{gcd}(a, b)}$$

### 3.4. The integers modulo $n$ .

The equivalence classes of the relation “congruence mod  $n$ ” are called “congruence classes mod  $n$ ”. The integers mod  $n$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_n$ ) is the set of all congruence classes mod  $n$ .

Let  $n \geq 2$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a finite commutative ring.

Additive identity:  $[0]$

Multiplicative identity:  $[1]$

Additive inverse:  $[a] + [-a] = 0$

If  $p$  is prime, then  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a finite field. The converse also holds.

**3.5. Fermat's Little Theorem.**

Let  $p$  be prime, and let  $a$  be any integer with  $p \nmid a$ . Then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

If  $p$  is prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p \nmid a$ , and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $a^k \equiv a^{k \pmod{p-1}} \pmod{p}$

**3.6. Chinese Remainder Theorem.**

Let  $m_1, m_2, m_3 \dots m_k$  be pairwise relatively prime natural numbers, and  $a_1, a_2, a_3 \dots a_k \in \mathbb{Z}$   
Then the set of congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$x \equiv a_3 \pmod{m_3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}$$

has a unique solution modulo  $m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot m_3 \dots m_k$

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

Then  $[a]^{-1}$  exists in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  if and only if  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

**4. CRYPTOGRAPHY****4.1. Background.**

The bit length of  $n \in \mathbb{R}$  is  $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1$

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions such that  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0}$

Then  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  if there exists  $c > 0$  and  $n_o \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n) \forall n \geq n_o$

Let  $a, b$  be  $k$ -bit numbers. Then we have the following running time for algorithms:

Operation	Running time
$a + b, a - b$	$O(k)$ bit operations
$a \cdot b$	$O(k^2)$ bit operations
$a = bq + r$	$O(k^2)$ bit operations
$\gcd(a, b)$	$O(k^2)$ bit operations (by EEA)

**4.2. Primality testing.**

*Wilson's Theorem.*

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$

Then  $p$  is prime if and only if  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

*Fermat's test.*

Repeat the following  $\ell$  times:

1. Select  $a$  at random in  $[1, n - 1]$
2. Compute  $t = a^{n-1} \pmod n$
3. If  $t \neq 1$  then output “ $n$  is COMPOSITE” and STOP

Output “ $n$  is PROBABLY PRIME”

The worst-case running time for Fermat's test is  $O(k^2)$  bit operations.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}_n^* &= \{a : 1 \leq a \leq n - 1, \gcd(a, n) = 1\} \\ &= \{a : a^{-1} \pmod n \text{ exists}\} \end{aligned}$$

Let  $n$  be composite.

Suppose there exists at least 1 Fermat witness,  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  for  $n$

Then at least half of all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  are also Fermat witnesses for  $n$

Let  $n$  be odd and composite.

Then  $n$  is a Carmichael number if  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

*Miller-Rabin test.*

Write  $n - 1$  as  $2^s \cdot d$  by factoring powers of 2 from  $n - 1$ .

Repeat the following  $\ell$  times:

1. Select  $a$  at random in  $[1, n - 1]$
2. If  $\gcd(a, n) > 1$  then output “ $n$  is COMPOSITE” and STOP
3. Compute  $t = a^{n-1} \pmod n$ . If  $t = 1$  or  $t = n - 1$  then go to the next iteration.
4. For  $j$  from 0 to  $s - 1$  do:
  - i. Compute  $t = a^{2^j d} \pmod n$
  - ii. If  $t = n - 1$  then go to next iteration
5. Output “ $n$  is COMPOSITE” and STOP

Output “ $n$  is PROBABLY PRIME”

The worst-case running time for the Miller-Rabin test is  $O(k(\log n)^3)$  bit operations.

*Agrawal-Kayal-Saxena test.*

Let  $n, a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n \geq 2$  and  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } n \text{ is prime if and only if } (x + a)^n &\equiv x^n + a^n \pmod n \\ &\equiv x^n + a \pmod n \end{aligned}$$

where  $x$  is indeterminate.

### 4.3. RSA public-key encryption scheme.

Used so that two parties can engage in confidential communications over an unsecured channel, having never before used a secure channel.

Created by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman in 1976.

*Key generation* works when each user, A and B, does the following:

1. Randomly select two large distinct primes  $p$  and  $q$ .
  2. Compute  $n = pq$  and  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
  3. Select an arbitrary  $e, 1 < e < \phi(n)$  such that  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
  4. Compute  $d, 1 < d < \phi(n)$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
- Then the public key of A is  $(n, e)$  while the private key of A is  $d$ .

To *encrypt* a message  $m$  for Bob, Alice does the following:

1. Obtains an authenticated copy of Bob's public key.
2. Represents  $m$  as an integer in  $[0, n - 1]$
3. Computes  $c \equiv m^e \pmod{n}$
4. Sends  $c$  to Bob.

To *decrypt* a message  $m$  from Alice, Bob does the following:

1. Computes  $r \equiv c^d \pmod{n}$ . Then  $r = m$ .

To ensure that Alice has an *authenticated* public key, the following happens:

1. Bob obtains a "certificate" from VeriSign.
2. Bob sends Alice the certificate.
3. Alice verifies VeriSign's signature, and then is assured she has Bob's public key.
4. Alice can encrypt any message  $m$  to Bob, and only he can decrypt it.

## 5. QUADRATIC NUMBER DOMAINS

### 5.1. Background.

Let  $d \neq 1$  be a square free integer. Then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) := \{a + b\sqrt{d} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$   
 $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] := \{a + b\sqrt{d} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Properties of  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  and  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ :

- i.  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$
- ii. If  $r_1 + s_1\sqrt{d}, r_2 + s_2\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ ,  
then  $r_1 + s_1\sqrt{d} = r_2 + s_2\sqrt{d}$  if and only if  $r_1 = r_2$  and  $s_1 = s_2$ .
- iii. If  $d > 0$ , then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$
- iv. If  $d < 0$ , then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \not\subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , but  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$

$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  is a field.

$\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is a commutative ring.

Let  $a + b\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ .

Then  $a + b\sqrt{d}$  is a unit if there exists  $x + y\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  such that  $(a + b\sqrt{d})(x + y\sqrt{d}) = 1$ .

Let  $x = r + s\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ .

Then the conjugate of  $x$  is  $\tilde{x} = r - s\sqrt{d}$

Then the norm of  $x$  is  $N(x) = x\tilde{x}$ .

Properties of the norm:

- i.  $N(x) = 0 \iff x = 0$
- ii.  $\widetilde{(x + y)} = \tilde{x} + \tilde{y}$
- iii.  $\widetilde{(xy)} = \tilde{x} \cdot \tilde{y}$
- iv.  $N(xy) = N(x)N(y)$

Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ . Then

- i.  $N(x) \in \mathbb{Z}$
- ii.  $x$  is a unit if and only if  $N(x) = \pm 1$

A commutative ring  $R$  is an *integral domain* if

- i.  $1 \neq 0$
- ii.  $ab = 0$ , with  $a, b \in R$ , implies  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

## 5.2. Prime Factorization in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ .

Every nonzero  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  can be expressed as the product of a unit and finitely many primes.

If  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is not a unique factorization domain (UFD).

If  $d < 0$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is a unique factorization domain only if  $d = -1$  or  $d = -2$ .

If  $d > 0$  and  $d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is a UFD for (at least)  $d = \{2, 3, 6, 7, 11, 14, 19, 22, 23, 31 \dots\}$ .

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ . Then  $x|y$  if  $y = xz$  for some  $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$

An element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is prime if

- i.  $x$  is not a unit
- ii. If  $x = yz$  for  $y, z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ , then either  $y$  or  $z$  is a unit.

Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ .

If  $|N(x)|$  is prime, then  $x$  is prime.

Note that the converse is not true in general.

Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ .

Then  $x$  is an associate of  $y$  if  $x = yu$  for some unit  $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ .



Properties of the associate:

- i. The relation “ $x$  is an associate of  $y$ ” is an equivalence relation of  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$
- ii. If  $x$  and  $y$  are associates, then  $N(x) = \pm N(y)$
- iii. If  $x|z$ , then  $y|z$  for all associates  $y$  of  $x$ .
- iv. If  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is prime and  $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$  is a unit, then  $pu$  is prime.

### 5.3. Gaussian Integers.

The Gaussian integers are a quadratic number domain with  $d = -1$

- $\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{x + yi \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- $N(x + yi) = x^2 + y^2 \geq 0$
- Units in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  are  $\pm 1, \pm i$

By convention,  $\gcd(a, b)$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  must have an argument in the first quadrant.

If  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  is an integer prime, then it is also a Gaussian prime.

If  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  then there exists a unique expression  $p = a^2 + b^2$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

The Gaussian primes are:

- i.  $1 + i$
- ii.  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $p$  is prime,  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$
- iii.  $a \pm bi$ , where  $a^2 + b^2 = p$  for  $p$  prime and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

## 6. POLYNOMIAL RINGS

### 6.1. Background.

Let  $R$  be a commutative ring. Then a polynomial in  $x$  over  $R$  is an expression

$$f(x) = a_d x^d + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0 \quad \text{where } d \geq 0 \text{ and } a_i \in R$$

The set of all such polynomials is denoted by  $R[x]$

If the leading coefficient is 1, then  $f$  is said to be *monic*.

The degree of  $f \in R[x]$ , denoted by  $\deg(f)$ , is the highest power of any variable in  $f$ .

The degree of the zero polynomial is  $-\infty$

If  $f, g$  are polynomials in  $R[x]$ , then  $\deg(f + g) \leq \max\{\deg(f), \deg(g)\}$

Associations between polynomial rings and other domains:

- i. If  $R$  is a commutative ring, then  $R[x]$  is a commutative ring.
- ii. If  $R$  is an integral domain, then  $R[x]$  is an integral domain.
- iii. If  $F$  is a field, then the only invertible elements in  $F[x]$  are the constant polynomials (for which the degree is 0), denoted by  $F^*$

## 6.2. Polynomial factorization.

Note that  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  has no division algorithm.

If  $d$  is a gcd of  $f, g \in F[x]$ , then  $d$  must be monic.  
Also the gcd of any two polynomials is unique.

Let  $p \in F[x]$ . Then  $p$  is irreducible over  $F$  if

- i.  $\deg(p) \geq 1$
- ii.  $p$  cannot be expressed as  $p = fg$  where  $f, g \in F[x]$ , with  $1 \leq \deg(f), \deg(g) < \deg(p)$

The factor theorem states that:

- i.  $(x - a) \mid f(x)$  if and only if  $f(a) = 0$
- ii.  $a \in F$  is a root of  $f \in F[x]$  if  $f(a) = 0$

Let  $F$  be a field. Then  $F[x]$  is a UFD. More precisely, every nonzero polynomial  $f \in F[x]$  has a unique factorization  $f = ap_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2}\dots p_k^{e_k}$  where  $p_i$ 's are distinct monic irreducible polynomials in  $F[x]$ , and  $a$  is some nonzero constant in  $F$ , and  $e_i \in \mathbb{N}$ .

If  $f \in F[x]$  is of degree  $n \neq 0$ , then  $f$  has at most  $n$  roots in  $F$ .

## 6.3. Polynomial congruences.

The basic properties of congruences over polynomial fields are:

- i. Congruence modulo  $f$  is an equivalence relation on  $F$ .
- ii. The equivalence class of  $g \in F[x]$  is denoted by  $\{h \in F[x] : h \equiv g \pmod{f}\}$ .
- iii. The set of all equivalence classes is denoted by  $F[x]/(f)$ .
- iv. Addition and multiplication in  $F[x]/(f)$  is denoted in the usual way.

$F[x]/(f)$  is a commutative ring.

If  $f \in F[x]$ ,  $\deg(f) \geq 1$ , is irreducible over  $F$ , then  $F[x]/(f)$  is a field; the converse also holds.

## 6.4. Galois Fields.

The *order* of a finite field is the number of elements in the field.

Let  $F$  be a finite field of order  $q$ . Let  $f \in F[x]$  of degree  $n \geq 1$  be irreducible over  $F$ . Then  $F[x]/(f)$  is a finite field of order  $q^n$ .

Two fields  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are isomorphic if there exists a bijection  $\phi : F_1 \rightarrow F_2$  such that  $\underbrace{\phi(\alpha + \beta)}_{\text{addition in } F_1} = \underbrace{\phi(\alpha) + \phi(\beta)}_{\text{addition in } F_2}$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in F_1$ . Similarly,  $\phi(\alpha\beta) = \phi(\alpha)\phi(\beta)$ .

Any two fields of the same order are isomorphic.

The finite field of order  $q$  is denoted by  $GF(q)$ , where  $GF$  indicates a Galois Field.

*Fermat's Little Theorem for finite fields.*

Let  $F$  be any finite field of order  $q$ .

Then when  $\alpha$  is a nonzero element in  $F$ ,  $\alpha^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  for all  $q \in F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$ .

*Corollary:*

$$\alpha^q = \alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in F$$

*Corollary:*

$$\text{In } F[x], x^q - x = \prod_{\alpha \in F} (x - \alpha)$$

Let  $F$  be a field.

Then the *characteristic* of  $F$  is denoted by  $m = \text{char}(F)$ , such that  $m$  is the smallest positive integer such that  $\underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}_m = 0$ . If no such  $m$  exists, we define  $\text{char}(F) = 0$ .

If  $\text{char}(F) = 0$ , then  $F$  is an infinite field.

Let  $F$  be a finite field with  $\text{char}(F) = m$ . Then  $m$  is prime.

If  $F$  is an infinite field with  $\text{char}(F) = m \neq 0$ , then  $m$  is prime.

*Freshman's Dream.*

If  $F$  is a field with  $\text{char}(F) = p$ , then  $(\alpha + \beta)^{p^n} = \alpha^{p^n} + \beta^{p^n}$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in F$  and  $n \geq 1$ .

Every finite field  $F$  with  $\text{char}(F) = p$  has  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  as a subfield.

*Vector space corollaries for finite fields.*

Every finite field has  $p^n$  elements, where  $p$  is the (prime) characteristic of the field, and  $n \geq 1$ .

If  $F$  is a finite field of order  $q$ , where  $q$  is a prime power, and  $n \geq 2$ , there exists a finite field of order  $q^n$ .

Hence if  $p$  is prime and  $n \geq 1$ , then there exists a finite field of order  $q^n$ .

## 6.5. Irreducible polynomials over $\mathbb{Q}$ .

It is much easier to determine if polynomials with integer coefficients are irreducible, so we have to devise a way to convert polynomials in  $\mathbb{Q}$  to polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

There exists an efficient (polynomial time) algorithm for deciding whether  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is irreducible.

An efficient (polynomial time) deterministic algorithm for deciding irreducibility of  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$  is not known.

*Gauss's Lemma.*

Let  $f(x)$  be a polynomial such that  $f \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Let  $\lambda$  be the lcm of all denominators of the nonzero coefficients of  $f$ .

Then let  $\tilde{f}(x) = \lambda f(x)$

Gauss's Lemma states that  $\tilde{f}$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  if and only if  $\tilde{f}$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

*Rational Root Theorem.*

Let  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} \dots a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  such that  $\deg(f) = n \geq 1$

Then if  $c = \frac{s}{t}$ , where  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}, t > 0, s \neq 0, \gcd(t, s) = 1$  is a root of  $f$ , then  $s|a_0$  and  $t|a_n$ .

*Eisenstein's Criterion.*

Let  $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , with  $\deg(f) = n$ .

Suppose  $p$  is prime such that:

- i.  $p|a_i$  such that  $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$
- ii.  $p \nmid a_n$
- iii.  $p^2 \nmid a_0$

Then  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

*Factoring modulo primes.*

Let  $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  and let  $p$  be a prime.

Let  $\bar{f}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be obtained from  $f$  by reducing its coefficients modulo  $p$ .

Then if  $\bar{f}$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , then  $f$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

*Number domains.*

