

# Assignment Three Solutions

Jason K.C. Polák

October 23, 2013

## 1 Question One

Find the gcd of  $f(x) = x^4 + 3x^3 + 16x^2 + 33x + 55$  and  $g(x) = x^3 + x^2 - x - 10$ .

Performing long division gives

$$f(x) = (x + 2)g(x) + 15(x^2 + 3x + 5).$$

Also, long division shows that  $(x - 2)(x^2 + 3x + 5) = x^3 + x^2 - x - 10$  so the gcd is the monic polynomial  $x^2 + 3x + 5$ . By the first long division

$$\frac{1}{15}f(x) - \frac{1}{15}(x + 2)g(x) = x^2 + 3x + 5.$$

Here is how to do it in Sage:

```
R.<x> = PolynomialRing(QQ)
f = x^4 + 3*x^3 + 16*x^2 + 33*x + 55
g = x^3 + x^2 - x - 10
g.xgcd(f)
>>(x^2 + 3*x + 5, -1/15*x - 2/15, 1/15)
```

## 2 Question Two

Find the gcd of  $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x + 1$  and  $g(x) = x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]$  and express it as a linear combination of  $f$  and  $g$

Via long division, or possibly by inspection since  $\mathbb{Z}/2$  is so nice:

$$\begin{aligned}g(x) &= f(x) + x^5 + x^3 + x^2 \\f(x) &= x(x^5 + x^3 + x^2) + x^3 + x + 1 \\x^5 + x^3 + x^2 &= x^2(x^3 + x + 1).\end{aligned}$$

Hence the gcd is  $x^3 + x + 1 = (1 + x)f + xg$ .

Here is how to do it in Sage:

---

```

R.<x> = PolynomialRing(Integers(2))
f = x^6 + x^4 + x + 1
g = x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1
g.xgcd(f)
>>(x^3 + x + 1, x, x + 1)

```

### 3 Question Three

List all the irreducible degree four polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]$ .

Any irreducible quartic  $f \in \mathbb{Z}/2[x]$  has to be of the form  $f(x) = x^4 + ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + 1$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}/2$  since polynomials without a constant term have the irreducible factor  $x$ . However, polynomials with an even number of terms in  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]$  all have  $x = 1$  as a root, so there are four remaining possibilities

- $x^4 + x + 1$ ,
- $x^4 + x^2 + 1$ ,
- $x^4 + x^3 + 1$ , and
- $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ .

These are either irreducible or else they must be a product of quadratic factors, since a linear factor would give a root, and these have no roots. There is only one irreducible quadratic, which is  $x^2 + x + 1$ . Squaring this gives

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

Hence the irreducible quartics are

- $x^4 + x + 1$ ,
- $x^4 + x^3 + 1$ , and
- $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ .

Note that if you want to try your hand at finding the irreducible quartics in  $\mathbb{Z}/p[x]$  for any prime  $p$  then there are  $\frac{1}{4}p^2(p^2 - 1)$  monic ones.

### 4 Question Four

If  $p = 4m + 1$  is a prime then  $(2m)!$  is a root in  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  of  $x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}/p[x]$ .

Since  $p$  is a prime, Wilson's theorem gives  $(4m)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Hence modulo  $p$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} -1 &\equiv (4m)! \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (2m)(2m+1)(2m+2) \cdots (2m+2m) \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (2m)(-2m)(-2m+1)(-2m+2) \cdots (-2)(-1). \end{aligned}$$

Since there are an even number of terms the last line reduces to  $[(2m)!]^2$ , so in conclusion,

$$[(2m)!]^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

which is exactly what we were trying to prove.

## 5 Question Five

A polynomial  $f \in F[x]$  for a field  $F$  has at most  $d = \deg(f)$  roots. Find a counterexample to this statement without the assumption that  $F$  is a field.

There are many possibilities here, such as the examples coming out of the next question! Here is another: consider the ring  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  where addition and multiplication are given pointwise:

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) + (a', b') &= (a + a', b + b') \\ (a, b) \cdot (a', b') &= (aa', bb').\end{aligned}$$

Consider the polynomial  $f \in (\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z})[x]$  given by  $f(x) = (1, 0)x$ . It is a nonzero polynomial of degree two. However, it has infinitely many roots. In fact,  $(0, z)$  is a root for any  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

The same trick can be used for any ring with *zero divisors*: recall that an element  $a \in R$  is called a zero divisor if there exists a  $b \in R$  such that  $ab = 0$  and  $b \neq 0$ . If  $R$  is any ring with some  $a, b \in R$ , both nonzero such that  $ab = 0$ , then  $f(x) = ax$  will have at least two solutions.

## 6 Question Six

Let  $n = pq$  where  $p$  and  $q$  are distinct primes. Find the best upper bound for the number of roots of polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}/n[x]$  as a function of the degree, and show that this upper bound can always be attained.

Let  $f$  be the polynomial of degree  $d$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/n[x]$ . If  $r \in \mathbb{Z}/n$  is a root then  $f(r) = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/n$  and consequently also when we reduce modulo  $p$  and modulo  $q$  via the Chinese remainder theorem. Moreover, if  $s \in \mathbb{Z}/p$  is a root of  $f$  modulo  $p$  and  $t \in \mathbb{Z}/q$  is a root modulo  $q$ , then there exists a unique element  $r \in \mathbb{Z}/n$ , necessarily a root, that reduces to  $s \pmod{p}$  and  $t \pmod{q}$ .

Since there are at most  $\min(d, p)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  and  $\min(d, q)$  roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/q$ ,  $f$  must have at most  $R(d) = \min(d, p) \min(d, q)$  roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/pq$ . We claim that this is the best possible upper bound. In fact, following our above reasoning  $x(x-1) \cdots (x-d)$  shows this.

### 6.1 Example

Consider the ring  $\mathbb{Z}/21$ . Let us try and find a quartic polynomial with twelve roots. The above scheme actually allows us to find it easily: it is  $f(x) = x(x-1)(x-2)(x-3) =$

$x^4 - 6x^3 + 11x^2 - 6x$ . Modulo 3, it has the roots, 0, 1, 2 (one is repeated on this reduction) and modulo 7 it has the roots 0, 1, 2, 3.

Of course now finding all the roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/21$  is just an exercise in reversing the reduction modulo  $p$  in the Chinese remainder theorem. Since  $\gcd(p, q) = 1$  we can write 1 as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combination of  $p$  and  $q$ :

$$-2 \cdot 3 + 7 = 1.$$

Recall now that if we want to find the unique element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}/21$  such that  $x \equiv a \pmod{3}$  and  $x \equiv b \pmod{7}$  then we just take  $a(1 + 6) + b(1 - 7) = 7a - 6b$ . Doing this we find the roots:

a	b	7a - 6b
0	0	0
0	1	15
0	2	9
0	3	3
1	0	7
1	1	1
1	2	16
1	3	10
2	0	12
2	1	8
2	2	2
2	3	17

## 7 Question Seven

Write the nonzero powers of  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$  and every nonzero element can be written as a power of  $x$ .

The powers are:

1.  $x$
2.  $x^2$
3.  $x^3 = 1 + x$
4.  $x^4 = x + x^2$
5.  $x^5 = 1 + x + x^2$
6.  $x^6 = x + x^2 + 1 + x = 1 + x^2$
7.  $x^7 = x + x^3 = 1$

All of these powers have degree less than two and hence are distinct, and since all the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$  are represented by a polynomial of degree at most two, these are all the elements, since each such polynomial appears in this list. (Since  $x^3 + x + 1$  has no root in  $\mathbb{Z}/2$  and it is cubic, it is irreducible so  $\mathbb{Z}/2[x]/(x^3 + x + 1)$  is a field with  $2^3 = 8$  elements.).

## 8 Question Eight

For any  $g \in \mathbb{Z}/p[x]$  the degree of  $f = \gcd(x^p - x, g(x))$  is exactly the number of distinct roots of  $g$ .

By Fermat's little theorem,  $x^p - x$  has  $p$  distinct roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  and so  $x - a \mid x^p - x$  for every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p$ . Hence  $x^p - x$  is just the polynomial  $x(x - 1) \cdots (x - p + 1)$ , since they are both monic and differ by multiplication of some invertible element

Thus  $f$  is some subproduct of  $x(x - 1) \cdots (x - p + 1)$ , and  $x - a \mid f$  if and only if  $a$  is a root of  $g$ . Since  $f$  has no repeated roots,  $\deg(f)$  is the number of roots of  $g$ .

## 9 Question Nine

The polynomial  $x^2 + 1$  has no roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  if  $p = 4m + 3$ .

We use the results of Question Eight and compute  $\gcd(x^p - x, x^2 + 1)$ . First,

$$(x^2 + 1)(x - x^3 + x^5 - x^7 + x^9 - \cdots - x^{4m-1} + x^{4m+1}) = x^{4m+3} + x.$$

In other words,  $x^{4m+3} \equiv -2x \pmod{x^2 + 1}$ . By inspection,  $\gcd(x^2 + 1, x) = 1$ , so  $x^2 + 1$  has  $\deg(1) = 0$  roots.

## 10 Question Ten

Describe a realistic algorithm to find the number of roots of a polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}/p[x]$ .

If we use Question Eight, then the Euclidean algorithm can determine the greatest common divisor of  $f(x)$  and  $x^p - x$ , so that the number of roots can be read off from the degree of this gcd. In order to make this computation efficient for very large  $p$ , then it is necessary to use something more than naive division, since if  $p$  is very large then dividing  $f(x)$  into  $x^p - x$  will take an exceptionally large number of steps (think of dividing  $x^p - x$  by  $x - 1$ : since  $x^p - x = x(x^{p-1} - 1) = x(x - 1)(x^{p-2} + x^{p-3} + \cdots + 1)$ ). Using the naive division algorithm would result on the order of  $p$  operations. For a 30-digit prime,  $p$  operations at 10 billion operations per second would take about 32 billion millenia.)

Hence, the first step in the algorithm,  $x^p - x = qf(x) + r(x)$  ought to be done a bit more efficiently. To do this, we find the remainder of  $x^p$  on division by  $f(x)$ . To do this

we use successive squaring: computing  $x^2, x^4, x^8, \dots$  modulo  $f(x)$ . Once  $x^{2^{n-1}}$  is found modulo  $f(x)$ , we just square that to and then reduce.

Then writing  $x^p = x^{\sum 2^k}$  where  $\sum 2^k = p$  is the binary expansion of  $p$ , we just have to multiply all the powers we found above, and then reduce modulo  $f$  again. Since the total number of binary digits of  $p$  is on the order of  $\log_2(p)$ , this is much more efficient. For instance, a thirty digit prime has  $30 \log_2(10) \approx 43.4$  so we should need at most 44 squarings.