

SETS AND BINARY OPERATIONS

SET

Set is a well-defined collection of objects. A set is represented by capital letter and the elements by small letters.

EXAMPLES

- \mathbb{N} of natural numbers
- \mathbb{Z} of integers
- \mathbb{R} of real numbers

BINARY OPERATION ON A SET

- A binary operation $*$ on a set A is a mapping from $A \times A$ in to A .
- For each $(a, b) \in A \times A$ we denote $*$ $(a, b) = a * b$
- The number of binary operations on a set A of cardinality n is n^{n^2} .

PROPERTIES

COMMUTATIVE BINARY OPERATION

A binary operation $*$ on a set A is commutative if $a * b = b * a, \forall a, b \in A$. Total number of commutative binary operations on a set A of cardinality n is $n^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}$.

ASSOCIATIVE BINARY OPERATION

A binary operation $*$ on a set A is associative if $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c, \forall a, b, c \in A$.

IDENTITY ELEMENT

An element e of a set A is said to be an identity element if $a * e = a = e * a, \forall a \in A$.

INVERSE ELEMENT

$a \in A$ is said to have an inverse in A if $\exists b \in A$ such that $a * b = e = b * a$, and we write $a^{-1} = b$.

EXAMPLES FOR BINARY OPERATION

- Usual addition $' + '$ on the set \mathbb{R}
- Usual multiplication $' \cdot '$ on the set \mathbb{R}

ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURES

QUASI GROUP

Quasi-group is a set $A \neq \phi$ with a binary operation on it.

Example: $(\mathbb{Z}, +), (\mathbb{R}, -)$...etc

SEMI GROUP

Semi group is a quasi-group with associative binary operation on it.

Example: $(\mathbb{N}, +)$

MONOID

Monoid is a semi group having identity element

Example: $(\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, +)$, $(P(A), \cup)$, $(P(A), \cap)$, etc, where $P(A)$ is the power set of A.

GROUP

Group is a monoid in which the inverse element exists for all elements. ie,

GROUP THEORY

GROUP

The set G together with a binary operation $*$ is said to be a group $(G, *)$ if it satisfies the following axioms.

- **Closure property:** if $x, y \in G \Rightarrow x * y \in G$.
- **Associativity:** For any $a, b, c \in G$, we have, $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$
- **Identity:** There exist an element $e \in G$, such that for any $a \in G$, we have, $a * e = a = e * a$
- **Inverse:** for any element $a \in G$, there exist $b \in G$ such that
$$a * b = e = b * a \text{ and we denote } b \text{ as } a^{-1}$$

EXAMPLES

- $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ matrix addition
- $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ under matrix addition
- $F = \{f \mid f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ under function addition

ABELIAN AND NON-ABELIAN GROUPS

A group G is said to be abelian if $a * b = b * a$ for all $a, b \in G$. otherwise G is non-abelian.

CANCELLATION LAW

There are two types of cancellation laws

- Right cancellation law: $a * b = a * c \Leftrightarrow b = c \forall a, b, c \in G$.
- Left cancellation law: $a * c = b * c \Leftrightarrow a = b, \forall a, b, c \in G$.

ORDER OF AN ELEMENT

If $(G, *)$ be a group then, order of an element a in G is the least positive integer r such that

$a^r = e$ where e is the identity element of $(G, *)$. If no such least positive integer exists for an element a in G then we say that a has infinite order. We write $o(a)$ to denote order of an element a .

SUBGROUP

Let $(G, *)$ be a group and a non-empty subset H of G is said to be a subgroup of G if H itself is a group under same binary compositions as that of G .

EXAMPLE

- $(n\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$
- $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{C}, +)$

COSETS

Let G be a group and $H \leq G$, then the subset $aH = \{ah : a \in G, h \in H\}$ of G is known as the left coset of H containing 'a' and similarly the subset $Ha = \{ha : a \in G, h \in H\}$ of G is known as the right coset of H containing 'a'.

- The number of left/right cosets of H in G is called the index of H in G , and is denoted by $[G : H]$.

SOME IMPORTANT THEOREMS**LAGRANGE'S THEOREM**

Let G be a finite group, then $O(a)$ divides $|G|$ for all $a \in G$

LAGRANGE'S THEOREM FOR FINITE ORDER GROUPS

Let G be a group of finite order, and $H \leq G$, then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

THEOREM

Let G be a group and $H, K \leq G$ such that $K \leq H \leq G$ and $[G : H], [H : K]$ are finite, then $[G : K] = [G : H][H : K]$.

CYCLIC GROUPS

A group G is said to be cyclic group if $G = \langle a \rangle$ for some $a \in G$, here a is called Generator for G

EXAMPLE

Consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, it is clear that $\langle -1 \rangle = \langle 1 \rangle = \{n \cdot 1 | n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \mathbb{Z}$.

NOTE

- $(\mathbb{R}, +), (\mathbb{Q}, +)$ has no generators.
- Cyclic groups are always abelian. But converse is not true.
Example: K_4 is abelian but not cyclic.
- Subgroups of cyclic groups are cyclic. Converse not true.
Example: $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is cyclic but $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$ is not cyclic.

GROUP HOMOMORPHISM

Let $(G, *)$, $(G', *')$ be two group structures, then a map $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ is said to be a group homomorphism if $\phi(a * b) = \phi(a) *' \phi(b)$.

PROPERTIES

suppose that $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ is a group homomorphism then,

- $\phi(e) = e'$
- $\phi(a^{-1}) = \phi(a)^{-1}$
- $O(\phi(a))$ divides $O(a)$

E ▶ ENTRI

- $H \leq G \Rightarrow \phi(H) \leq G'$
- $K \leq G' \Rightarrow \phi^{-1}(K) \leq G$
- $\ker(\phi) = \{x \in G: \phi(x) = e'\}$
- $\ker(\phi) \leq G$
- $\phi(G) \leq G'$
- ϕ is said to be a Monomorphism if it is injective.
- ϕ is said to be a Epimorphism if it is surjective.
- ϕ is said to be a Isomorphism if it is bijective. In this case we write $G \cong G'$
- ϕ is said to be a Automorphism on the group G if $\phi : G \rightarrow G$ is an isomorphism.

NORMAL SUBGROUP

Let G be a group and $H \leq G$, then H is said to be normal in G (denoted by $H \triangleleft G$ or $H \trianglelefteq G$) if $gH = Hg, \forall g \in G$.

NOTE

Let G, G' be two groups and $H \leq G$, then

- $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ is a group homo $\Rightarrow \ker(\phi) \trianglelefteq G$.
- $Z(G) \trianglelefteq G$
- $C(a) \trianglelefteq G, \forall a \in G$
- $[G:H] = 2 \Rightarrow H \trianglelefteq G$

FIRST ISOMORPHISM THEOREM

Let $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism with $\ker(\phi) = H$. let $\mu: G/H \rightarrow \phi(G)$ be a homomorphism defined by $\mu(gH) = \phi(g)$, then μ is an isomorphism.

i.e $G/H \cong \phi(G)$

- Equivalent necessary and sufficient conditions for $H \leq G$ to be normal in G
 - (i) $ghg^{-1} \in H, \forall g \in G \ \& \ h \in H$
 - (ii) $gHg^{-1} = H, \forall g \in G$
 - (iii) $gH = Hg, \forall g \in G$

FINITELY GENERATED GROUPS

Let G be a group, $a_i \in G, i \in I$ for some index set I, we know that the subgroup generated by $\{a_i | i \in I\}$ is the smallest subgroup containing $\{a_i | i \in I\}$. If the referred subgroup is all of G, then G is said to be finitely generated by $\{a_i | i \in I\}$. In this case a_i s are the generators of G.

- Every cyclic group is finitely generated.

MULTIPLICATIVE GROUP OF nth ROOT OF UNITY

The set of all $z \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $z^n = 1$ is given by $U_n = \{e^{\frac{i2\pi k}{n}} | k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$

Properties

- $|U_n| = n$.
- U_n is cyclic.

- $(U_n, \cdot) \leq (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot)$
- Generators of U_n are called the primitive n^{th} roots of unity.
 $\{e^{\frac{i2\pi k}{n}} \mid (n, k) = 1\}$

GROUP OF QUATERNIONS

Consider the set $Q_8 = \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ with the following operational properties.

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$$

$$ij = k = -ji, jk = i = -kj, ki = j = -ik$$

then Q_8 form a multiplicative group known as Group of quaternions.

Note

- Q_8 is not abelian.
- $O(\pm i) = O(\pm j) = O(\pm k) = 4$

THE GROUP $GL(n, \mathbb{Z}_p)$

Let $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{Z}_p)$, then the number of choices of the entries in each row is given by

$$A \begin{bmatrix} * & * & \dots & * \\ * & * & \dots & * \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ * & * & \dots & * \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow p^n - 1 \text{ choices} \\ \rightarrow p^n - p \text{ choices} \\ \vdots \\ \rightarrow p^n - p^{n-1} \text{ choices} \end{array}$$

Thus,

- $|GL(n, \mathbb{Z}_p)| = (p^n - 1)(p^n - p) \dots (p^n - p^{n-1})$
 $= p^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (p^n - 1)(p^{n-1} - 1)(p^{n-2} - 1) \dots (p - 1)$
- $|GL(2, \mathbb{Z}_2)| = (2^2 - 1)(2^2 - 2) = 3 \times 2 = 6$

SYLOW THEOREMS

P-GROUP

Let G be a group and p be a prime, then G is said to be a p -group if $o(a) = p^n, \forall a \in G$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- G is a p -group $\Leftrightarrow |G| = p^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- For every prime p there exist a p -group.
- A finite group G is a p -group if and only if $O(G)=p^n$.
- Every subgroup of a p -group is again a p -group.
- A non- p -group can have a p -subgroup.

EXAMPLES

- Q_8 is a 2 group of finite order.
- $K_4 = \{e, a, b, c\}$ is a 2 group of finite order.

FIRST SYLOW THEOREM

Let G be a group and p be a prime so that $|G| = p^n m, n \geq 1, p \nmid m$, then

1. $\exists H_k \leq G$ such that $|H_k| = p^k, \forall k, 1 \leq k \leq n$.
2. $H_{k-1} \trianglelefteq H_k$

SECOND SYLOW THEOREM

Let G be a group and p be a prime so that P_1 & P_2 are two Sylow- p subgroups of G , then P_1 & P_2 are two conjugates to each other. i.e $\exists g \in G$ such that $gP_1 = P_2g$, & $P_1 \cap P_2 = \{e\}$.

THIRD SYLOW THEOREM

Let G be a group and p be prime so that $|G| = p^n m$, then n_p divides $|G|$, where n_p is the number of Sylow- p subgroups of G and also $n_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

NOTES

- Since $n_p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $n_p | p^n m$ then n_p must be a divisor of m .
- A sylow- p subgroup of G is normal in $G \Leftrightarrow n_p = 1$.
- Let G be a group and p be a prime so that $|G| = n$, n is composite, $p|n$ & $d = 1$ is the only divisor of n such that $d \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow \nexists$ a simple group with order n .
- Let G be a group with $|G| = 2n$, where $n(> 1)$ is odd, then G cannot be simple.
- Let G be a group and p, q be a prime so that $|G| = pq, p < q$, then G is not simple (here $n_q = 1$) also. $|G| = pqr, p < q < r \Rightarrow G$ is not simple.
- Intersection of sylow- p with a sylow- q subgroup is trivial.
- $H, K \trianglelefteq G \Rightarrow HK \trianglelefteq G$.
- Let G be a group and p be a prime such that $|G| = p^3$, then G can be abelian (cyclic) and also non-abelian.

RINGS AND IDEALS

RING

A ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a set together with '+' and '·' as binary operations so that the following axioms are satisfied,

1. $(R, +)$ is abelian
2. (R, \cdot) is a semi group (holds associativity)
3. '+' is distributive(L/R) over '·'

EXAMPLE

$(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot), (\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot), (\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot), (\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot), (M_n(\mathbb{R}), +, \cdot), (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \times_n), (n\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)...$

NOTES

- The requirements for (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot) to become abelian group:
 1. Existence of identity (Unity 1)
 2. Existence of inverse, those having inverse (here multiplicative inverse) are known as Units.

3. Commutativity (here R is said to be Commutative ring).

CHARACTERISTIC OF A RING

The least positive integer n such that $na = 0, \forall a \in R$.

- If there is no such integer then $char = 0$.
- Char of the ring $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \times_n)$ is n .
- Finite product of rings are again rings.
- $Char(\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n) = l.c.m\{m, n\}$.
- $Char(\mathbb{R}) = Char(\mathbb{Q}) = Char(\mathbb{Z}) = Char(\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_n) = 0$.
- Let F be a field, then $|F| = p^n \Rightarrow Char(F) = p$.
- $Char(\mathbb{R}) = 0$ or p .
- Ring R is infinite $\Rightarrow Char(R) = 0$, converse need not be true. ($\{0\}$)
- Let S, R be finite rings and S is a quotient ring of $R \Rightarrow char(s) | Char(R)$.

SUBRINGS

Let R be a ring, $S \subset R$ is said to be a ring if

1. $\forall a, b \in S$
2. $ab \in S \forall a, b \in S$

EXAMPLE

- Sub rings of \mathbb{Z} are trivial and $n\mathbb{Z}$.
- $\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{a + ib \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ (Gaussian integers) is a sub ring of \mathbb{C} .
- \mathcal{F} cannot be a ring under function addition and function composition, since by taking $f(x) = \sin x, g(x) = x$ and $h(x) = \sqrt{x}$, we are not able to conform the distributive laws.
- $S = \{f \in \mathcal{F} \mid f(0) = 0\}$ form a sub ring of \mathcal{F} .

IDEAL

TWO SIDED IDEALS

Let R be a ring, A be a subring of R , then A is said to be a two sided ideal of R if $ar \in A, \forall a \in A, \& r \in R$.

- $\{0\}$ is a trivial ideal.
- Let F be a field, then F has no trivial proper Ideals, only ideals of F are trivial and F itself.

IDEAL TEST

Let $A \subset R$ (ring) is said to be an ideal of R if

1. $a - b \in A, \forall a, b \in A$
 2. $ra \in A \& Ar \in A \forall r \in R$.
- For a finite field F , the group (F^*, \cdot) is a cyclic group.

PRINCIPAL IDEAL

Let R be a commutative ring with unity, $a \in R$, then the set,

$\langle a \rangle = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$ is an ideal of R known as the Principal ideal of R generated by a

- The ring $n\mathbb{Z}, n > 1$ has no principal ideals.
- Ideals of R generated by a_1 & a_2
 $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle = \{r_1 a_1 + r_2 a_2 \mid r_1, r_2 \in R\}$

EXAMPLE

Consider $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, then the ideal I of all polynomials with constant term even/zero,
 $I = \langle x, 2 \rangle = \{P_1(x)x + 2P_2(x) \mid P_1(x), P_2(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}$

NOTE

- Let R be a ring with unity $1 \neq 0$ and I is an ideal of R , containing unity 1 , then $I = R$.
- For a field F , every ideal of $F[x]$ are principal.

PRIME IDEAL

An ideal A of R is said to be Prime if for $a, b \in R$ & $ab \in A \Rightarrow a \in A$ or $b \in A$.

EXAMPLE

From the ideals $n\mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{Z} , prime ideals are $p\mathbb{Z}$.

MAXIMAL IDEAL

Suppose A is a proper Ideal of R , then A is said to be Maximal ideal of R , if \exists an ideal B such that $A \subseteq B \subseteq R \Rightarrow B = A$ or $B = R$.

- Let R be a finite commutative ring with unity, A is a non-trivial ideal of R , then A is maximal $\Leftrightarrow A$ is prime.

Ring	Ideals
\mathbb{R}	$\{0\}, \mathbb{R}$
\mathbb{Q}	$\{0\}, \mathbb{Q}$
\mathbb{Z}	$n\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}$
\mathbb{Z}_n, n is composite	$\{0\}, \langle d \rangle \mid d \mid n, \mathbb{Z}_n$
\mathbb{Z}_p	$\{0\}, \mathbb{Z}_p$
$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$	
$F[x]$	

- Maximal ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ are of the form $\langle r(x), p \rangle$, where $r(x)$ is an irreducible polynomial \mathbb{Z}_t where t is a prime in \mathbb{Z} .
- $\langle p(x) \rangle$ is a maximal ideal in $F[x] \Leftrightarrow \langle p(x) \rangle$ is irr. Over F .
- Every maximal ideal in a commutative ring with unity is a prime ideal.

FACTOR RING

Let R be a ring, A be an ideal of R , then the set of all additive cosets $\frac{R}{A} = \{r + A \mid r \in R\}$ form a ring with the binary operations defined by,

$$(a + A) + (b + A) = (a + b) + A \text{ and } (a+A)(b+A)=(ab)+A$$

EXAMPLE

- ❖ $\langle 2 + i \rangle$ is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

FIELDS

FIELD

a field is a set together with two binary operations $+$ and \cdot on F such that $(F, +)$ is an abelian group and (F^*, \cdot) is where $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$ is also an abelian group and distributive law holds.

- If all nonzero elements of $(R, +, \cdot)$ are units, then R is said to be Division Ring/Skew field (here, existence of unity trivially hold.)
- A non-commutative division ring is called a Strictly skew field.
- A Field is a commutative division ring.
- Let F be a field, then $|F| = p^n \Rightarrow \text{Char}(F) = p$.
- $\text{Char}(\mathbb{R}) = 0$ or p .

SUB FIELD

A non-empty subset S of F is said to be a sub field of F if

- $a \in S, b \in S \Rightarrow a + b \in S, ab \in S$
- S is a field under the induced addition and multiplication compositions.

- Number of sub fields for F is $d(n)$ (no. of divisors of n , i.e, $n = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \dots p_k^{r_k} \Rightarrow d(n) = (r_1 + 1)(r_2 + 1) \dots (r_k + 1)$)

ZERO DEVISORS

Let R be a ring, $a \neq 0, b \neq 0 \in R$ such that $(ab = 0)$ then a & b are said to be zero divisors.

- Number of zero divisors in \mathbb{Z}_n is $n - \phi(n) - 1$.
- \mathbb{Z}_p has no zero divisors
- $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is a ring having zero divisors.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
- $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ is not a ring.
- Cancellation law holds in a ring R , if it has no zero divisors (since, if $a \neq 0, b \neq 0, \& ab = 0 \in R, a \cdot 0 = ab \Rightarrow b = 0$) i.e zero divisors are not units.

INTEGRAL DOMAINS(ID)

An integral domain is a commutative ring with unity having no zero divisors.

EXAMPLE

$(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot), (\mathbb{Z}_p, +_p, \times_p)$

PROPERTIES

ENTRI

- Every field is an integral domain.
- Every finite integral domain is a field.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +_p, \times_p)$ is a field
- Order of finite field is p^n .
- Char of an integral domain is 0 or $p(\mathbb{Z}_p)$.
- product of two I.D s is not an I.D, that's why product fields (since $(1,0)(0,1)=(0,0)$)

FIELD OF QUOTIENTS OF AN ID

Let D be an I.D, take $F = \{\frac{p}{q} \mid p \in D, q(\neq 0) \in D\}$, then F is the smallest field containing D known as the quotient field of D .

- \mathbb{Q} is the Q.F of \mathbb{Z} .

EXTENSION FIELDS

FIELD EXTENSION

A field extension of a field F is a pair (K, ϕ) where K is a field and ϕ is a monomorphism of F into K .

EXAMPLE

- Let $F = \mathbb{Q}$ and $E = \mathbb{R}$ or $E = \mathbb{C}$. Then E/F is an extension.
- Let E be any field and F be its prime subfield then, E/F is an extension.

DEGREE OF A VECTOR SPACE OVER FIELD

The dimension of K as a vector space over F is called the degree of K over F and is written as $[K:F]$ or $\dim_F K$.

FINITE/INFINITE EXTENSION

K is said to be a finite or infinite extension according as the degree of K over F is finite or infinite.

RESULT

- If K is a finite field extension of F and L is a finite field extension of K , then L is a finite field extension of F and $[L:F] = [L:K][K:F]$

SIMPLE EXTENSION

Let K be an extension of the field F and if the field K is generated by a single element α over F , i.e,

$K = F(\alpha)$ then K is said to be a simple extension of F and the element α is called the primitive element.

ALGEBRAIC EXTENSION

An element a of K is said to be algebraic over F if a is a root of a non-zero polynomial $f(x)$ in $F[x]$. K is said to be an algebraic extension of F if every element of K is algebraic over F .

EXAMPLE

- $\sqrt{2}$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} because it satisfies $x^2 - 2$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

NOTE

- Every field extension of prime degree is simple.
- Every finite extension of a field is an algebraic extension but converse is not true.
- An element a of K is algebraic over F if and only if $[F(a): F]$ is finite.

MONIC POLYNOMIAL

A non-zero polynomial $f(x)$ in $F[x]$ is said to be a monic polynomial over F if the coefficient of highest power of x in $f(x)$ is equal to 1, the unity of F .

MINIMAL POLYNOMIAL

If any element a in K is algebraic over F then a monic polynomial of smallest degree over F satisfied by a is called the minimal polynomial of a over F . If the degree of the minimal polynomial of a is n , then a is said to be algebraic over F of degree n .

SPLITTING FIELD

Let $f(x)$ be any polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ over a field F . Then a field extension E of F is called splitting field of $f(x)$ if

- $f(x)$ can be factored into n linear factors over E and
- there does not exist any proper subfield E' of E containing F such that $f(x)$ can be factored into n linear factors over E' .

equivalently, one can say that E is a splitting field of $f(x)$ if E contains all roots of $f(x)$ and

$E = F(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$, the field generated by F and n roots a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n of $f(x)$ in E .

RINGS OF POLYNOMIALS

RING OF POLYNOMIAL

Let R be a commutative ring, then

$R[x] = \{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \mid a_i \in R, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ forms a ring under polynomial addition and polynomial multiplication, known as the ring of polynomials.

- $f \in R[x] \Leftrightarrow f(x) = a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0, a_n \neq 0$
- $a_n = 1$, then $f(x)$ is said to be monic.
- $f(x) = 0$, then $\deg(f(x))$ is not defined (since $a_n \neq 0$)
- $f(x) = c$, then $\deg(f) = 0$

NOTE

- $\deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g) \Leftrightarrow R$ is an I.D
- $\deg(f + g) \leq \max\{\deg(f), \deg(g)\}$
- D is an I.D $\Rightarrow D[x]$ is an I.D.
- F is a field $\Rightarrow F[x]$ is an I.D, ($x^{-1} \notin F[x]$)

DIVISION ALGORITHM

Let F be a field, $f, g \in F[x]$, then \exists unique polynomial $q(x), r(x) \in F(x)$ such that

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x), \quad r(x) = 0 \text{ or } \deg(r) < \deg(g)$$

REMAINDER THEOREM

Let F be a field, $a \in F$, then $f(a)$ is the remainder when f is divided by $x - a$.

FACTOR THEOREM

Let F be a field, $a \in F$ such that $f(a) = 0$, then $x - a$ is a factor of f .

CONTENT OF A POLYNOMIAL

Let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, then $g.c.d\{a_i\}$ is known as the content of f .

- Content of a monic polynomial is 1.
- Polynomials with content 1 is known as primitive polynomials.
- The product of two primitive polynomials is primitive.

REDUCIBLE AND IRREDUCIBLE POLYNOMIAL

Let $f(x) \in D[x]$, where D is an I.D and $f \neq 0$ or a unit in $D[x]$, then f is said to be Irreducible over D if, whenever $f(x)$ can be expressed as $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$, $g(x), h(x) \in D[x]$ then h or g is a unit in $D[x]$.

- $f(x) \in F[x]$, where F is a field and $f \neq c$ in $F[x]$ then f is said to be irreducible over F if $f(x)$ cannot be expressed as $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$, $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$ with $\deg(g), \deg(h) < \deg(f)$

EXAMPLE

- $x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $2x^2 + 4 = 2(x^2 + 2)$, neither 2 nor $x^2 + 2$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, thus $2x^2 + 4$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z} .
- $2x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, $2x^2 + 4 = 2(x^2 + 2)$ but $\deg(x^2 + 2) < \deg(2x^2 + 4)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, thus $2x^2 + 4$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

REDUCIBILITY TEST IN FIELDS

- $f \in F[x]$, $\deg(f) = 2$ or 3 , then f is reducible over $F \Leftrightarrow f$ has a zero in F .
- $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, $\deg(f) \geq 3 \Rightarrow f$ is reducible over \mathbb{R} .
- $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and f is reducible over $\mathbb{Q} \Rightarrow f$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z} .
- $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and f is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow f$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

mod p TEST

Let $f \neq c \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $f(x) = \bar{f}(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ & $\deg(f) = \deg(\bar{f})$, if \bar{f} is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}_p \Rightarrow f$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

EINSTEIN'S CRITERION

Let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, if \exists a prime p such that $p \nmid a_n$, $p \mid a_{n-1}$, $p \mid a_{n-2}, \dots, p \mid a_1$ and $p^2 \nmid a_0$, then $f(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

GALOIS THEORY

GALOIS EXTENSION

An extension K of F is called Galois extension if K/F is finite extension and F is fixed field of a group of automorphisms of K denoted by $Aut(K)$.

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF GALOIS THEORY

Let K/F be a Galois extension and $Gal(K/F)$ is a Galois group of K/F .i.e, the group of all F -automorphisms of K . Then

- 1) There is one-one correspondence between the set $A = E/F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ and $B = \{H/H \text{ subgroup of } Gal(K/F)\}$.
- 2) If H is subgroup of (K/F) in B corresponding to field E in A , then $O(H) = [K : E]$ and $[Gal(K/F) : H] = [E : F]$.
- 3) If $H_1, H_2 \in B$ corresponding to field $E_1, E_2 \in A$ respectively. Then E_1, E_2 are conjugate under an automorphism $\sigma \in Gal(K/F)$ iff $\sigma^{-1}H_1\sigma = H_2$.
- 4) If $H \in B$ corresponds to $E \in A$, then E/F is a normal extension iff H is normal subgroup of $Gal(K/F)$ and moreover, $Gal(E/F) \cong Gal(K/F)/H$.