

Eisenstein Criterion for Irreducibility of a Polynomial : Algebra

Jonathan L.F. King

University of Florida, Gainesville FL 32611-2082, USA

squash@ufl.edu

Webpage <http://squash.1gainesville.com/>

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ABSTRACT: Proofs of Eisenstein Criterion and the Gauss Lemma.

Nomenclature. Use^{♥1} *poly* for “polynomial” and *coeff* for “coefficient”. I will be considering three polys,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(x) &= A_0 + A_1x + A_2x^2 + \cdots + A_Jx^J, \\ \beta(x) &= B_0 + B_1x + \cdots + B_Kx^K, \\ 1: \mu(x) &= M_0 + M_1x + M_2x^2 + \cdots + M_Lx^L, \end{aligned}$$

with each of A_J, B_K, M_L non-zero.

My convention is that later coefficients are all defined, and equal zero; so $0 = M_{L+1} = M_{L+2}, \dots$. An *intpoly* is a poly whose coefficients are integers. A *ratpoly* has rational coefficients. Traditionally, the symbol $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is used for the set of intpolys, and $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ for the collection of ratpolys. These sets are rings.

A poly α is “a *unit*” in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, if its reciprocal is also in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. There are only two units in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$; the constant polys ± 1 . In $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, however, each constant poly $x \mapsto q$ is a unit, where q ranges over the non-zero rationals.

^{♥1}Use \equiv_N to mean “congruent mod N ”. Let $n \perp k$ mean that n and k are co-prime [no prime in common].

Use $k \blacklozenge n$ for “ k divides n ”. Its negation $k \nblacklozenge n$ means “ k does not divide n .” Use $n \blacklozenge k$ and $n \nblacklozenge k$ for “ n is/is-not a multiple of k .” Finally, for p a prime and E a natnum: Use double-verticals, $p^E \blacklozenge n$, to mean that E is the *highest* power of p which divides n . Or write $n \blacklozenge p^E$ to emphasize that this is an assertion about n . Use **PoT** for Power of Two and **PoP** for Power of (a) Prime.

A poly μ is “*irreducible* over \mathbb{Z} ” if, whenever it can be factored into intpolys $\mu = \alpha\beta$, then either α or β is a unit (in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$). Thus $6x - 15$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z} , since

$$2: \quad 6x - 15 = 3 \cdot [2x - 5].$$

However $6x - 15$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} , since 3 is a \mathbb{Q} -unit.

Reversing a poly. Below is a “trivial” factoring result; I put it here so that we can apply the Eisenstein criterion to it later.

Say that a poly μ is *good* if its constant term is non-zero. The *reversal* of a deg- L good μ is

$$M_L + M_{L-1}x + M_{L-2}x^2 + \cdots + M_1x^{L-1} + M_0x^L,$$

denoted by $\overleftarrow{\mu}(x)$. On the set of good polys, “reversal” is an involution.

If a good poly factors as $\mu = \alpha\beta$, then evidently each of α, β is good.

3: Reverse factor lemma. (Here “factorization” and “irreducible” mean over \mathbb{Q} .) Suppose

$$\dagger: \quad \mu = \alpha\beta$$

is a factorization of a good poly. Then α and β are necessarily good and

$$\ddagger: \quad \overleftarrow{\mu} = \overleftarrow{\alpha}\overleftarrow{\beta}.$$

Furthermore, (\ddagger) is a non-trivial factorization iff (\dagger) is non-trivial.

In particular, μ is irreducible iff $\overleftarrow{\mu}$ is. So if A is a non-zero algebraic number, then $1/A$ is also an algebraic number, and of the same degree. \diamond

Proof. The degrees add, $L = J + K$. Plug $\frac{1}{x}$ into (\dagger) , then multiply by x^L . This produces

$$x^L \mu(1/x) = x^J \alpha(1/x) \cdot x^K \beta(1/x).$$

And this is simply (\dagger) , rewritten.

WLOG each of μ, α, β is monic. If (\dagger) is trivial, say $\alpha() = 1$, then $\overleftarrow{\alpha}()$ is also 1; so (\dagger) is a trivial factorization. [The argument uses that we work with *good* polys, so that reversal is involutory.] \blacklozenge

The Gauss Lemma

To rule out the above “uninteresting” factorization (2) over \mathbb{Z} , we restrict the polys we look at. A poly μ is **primitive** if: *It is an intpoly with positive high-order coefficient and the GCD of its coeffs is 1.*

4: Gauss Lemma. *The product of primitive polys is primitive.* \blacklozenge

Proof of Gauss lemma. Take a product $\mu = \alpha \cdot \beta$ of primitive polys. To show μ primitive, ISTFix an arbitrary prime p and produce an index ℓ for which

$$4a: \quad M_\ell \not\vdash p.$$

Since α, β are primitive, there are *smallest* indices $\hat{j}, \hat{k} \in \mathbb{N}$ so that

$$A_{\hat{j}} \not\vdash p \quad \text{and} \quad B_{\hat{k}} \not\vdash p.$$

Let $\ell := \hat{j} + \hat{k}$. Then $M_\ell = A_{\hat{j}} B_{\hat{k}} + S$ where S is the sum, of products $A_j B_k$, taken over all *other*

pairs $j + k = \hat{j} + \hat{k}$. Relation (4a) is equivalent, since $A_{\hat{j}} B_{\hat{k}}$ is *not* a multiple of p , to showing that S is a multiple of p . Hence ISTProve that the product

$$4b: \quad A_j \cdot B_k \vdash p$$

for each “other” index-pair (j, k) . But if $j < \hat{j}$ then $A_j \vdash p$; otherwise $j > \hat{j}$ and thus $k < \hat{k}$, in which case $B_k \vdash p$. Either case yields (4b). \blacklozenge

The **Gauss content** of a non-zip ratpoly μ is the unique rational number q , where we write $\mu() = q \cdot \alpha()$, with $\alpha()$ primitive. Write $\text{GC}(\mu) = q$.

5: Corollary. *For non-zip ratpolys μ_1 and μ_2 ,*

$$\text{GC}(\mu_1 \cdot \mu_2) = \text{GC}(\mu_1) \cdot \text{GC}(\mu_2). \quad \blacklozenge$$

Proof. Write $\mu_i() = q_i \cdot \alpha_i()$, with α_i primitive. Hence $\mu_1 \mu_2 = [q_1 q_2] \cdot \alpha_1 \alpha_2$. By the Gauss Lemma, $\alpha_1 \alpha_2$ is primitive. So $\text{GC}(\mu_1 \mu_2) = q_1 q_2$. \blacklozenge

6: Corollary. *Suppose that a primitive poly μ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} . Then μ is \mathbb{Q} -irreducible.* \blacklozenge

Proof. Supposing $\mu = \mu_1 \mu_2$ over $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, write $\mu_i() = q_i \cdot \alpha_i()$, with α_i primitive. But

$$q_1 q_2 = \text{GC}(\mu_1 \mu_2) = \text{GC}(\mu) = 1.$$

So $\mu = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$. But μ is $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ -irreducible, so WLOG $\alpha_2() = \pm 1$. Hence $\mu_2()$ is the constant poly q_2 , which is a $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ -unit. \blacklozenge

7: Coro. (Rational root thm). *Suppose rational number $\frac{p}{q}$, with $p \perp q$, is a root of intpoly $B_N x^N + \dots + B_1 x + B_0$. Then $q \mid B_N$ and $p \mid B_0$.* \blacklozenge

Proof. Factoring the intpoly as

$$[qx - p] \cdot [C_{N-1}x^{N-1} + \cdots + C_1x + C_0]$$

implies that $\boxed{C_{N-1} = \frac{B_N}{q}}$ and $\boxed{C_0 = \frac{-B_0}{p}}$. Now $\text{GC}(x \mapsto [qx - p])$ is 1, since $p \perp q$. Thus the Gauss content of $C_{N-1}x^{N-1} + \cdots + C_0$ is an integer. In particular, both C_{N-1} and C_0 are integers. \blacklozenge

We now come to the induction proof that we have all been waiting for.

8: Eisenstein Criterion (E.C). Consider an intpoly

$$\mu(x) = M_0 + M_1x + M_2x^2 + \cdots + M_{L-1}x^{L-1} + M_Lx^L,$$

with M_L non-zero. Suppose there exists a prime number p such that

$$8a: \quad p^2 \nmid M_0,$$

$$8b: \quad p \nmid M_L, \text{ yet}$$

$$8c: \quad p \mid M_0, M_1, M_2, \dots, M_{L-1}.$$

Then μ is \mathbb{Q} -irreducible. \blacklozenge

Example. The poly $\mu(x) := 5 + 50x + x^2$ is irreducible, using E.C with the prime 5. Since this μ only has degree 2, we can deduce irreducibility just from the discriminant $50^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot 5$, which is not a perfect square. \square

Proof of E.C. Courtesy the Gauss Lemma we may assume that μ is primitive and endeavor to show that if $\mu = \alpha\beta$ is a factorization into intpolys as in (1), then degree J or K indeed equals L .

For specificity, suppose that the prime asserted in the hypotheses is 23. Since $23 \mid M_0 = A_0B_0$, WLOG $23 \mid A_0$. Courtesy (8a) then,

$$8a': \quad 23 \nmid B_0.$$

Suppose we could establish that

$$8c': \quad A_j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{23}, \quad \text{for each } j = 0, 1, 2, \dots, L-1.$$

Were J strictly less than L , then this would imply that 23 divides *all* the α -coeffs, hence all the coeffs of μ (since β has integer coeffs). But this latter contradicts (8b). Hence it suffices to establish (??').

Inducting along the coeffs. Were (??') to fail, then there would be a smallest value $j \in [0..L-1]$ for which $A_j \equiv 0 \pmod{23}$. Multiplying out, M_j equals

$$A_jB_0 + [A_{j-1}B_1 + A_{j-2}B_2 + \cdots + A_0B_j].$$

(If $j = 0$ then the bracketed sum is empty, hence zero.) Since j is the *smallest* bad index, necessarily 23 divides the bracketed sum. Since 23 divides M_j , we conclude that $23 \mid A_jB_0$. And (??') now assures that $23 \mid A_j$; this contradicts that j was bad. \blacklozenge

Example uses of E.C.

Suppose f is an intpoly which has is no prime fulfilling the E.C. (Eisenstein criterion). Sometimes one can find an appropriate integer T so that the translated intpoly

$$g(z) := f(z + T)$$

does fulfill E.C. This end-around shows f to be irreducible. Here is an example.

9: Cyclo-poly \mathbf{C}_p is irreducible. Fixing a prime p , we endeavor to show that the p^{th} **cyclotomic polynomial**

$$\mathbf{C}_p(x) = x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \cdots + x^2 + x + 1$$

$$\stackrel{\text{note}}{=} \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$$

is irreducible. Although the E.C (Eisenstein criterion) doesn't directly apply to \mathbf{C}_p , we *can* apply E.C to translation $g(z) := \mathbf{C}_p(z+1)$. Expanding,

$$g(z) = \frac{[z+1]^p - 1}{z} = \frac{1}{z} \cdot \sum_{\substack{j+k=p \\ j \in [1..p]}} \binom{p}{j, k} \cdot z^j \cdot 1^k,$$

by the binomial thm. Letting $\ell := j-1$, rewrite this [using M_ℓ to denote the coeff of z^ℓ] as

$$g(z) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{p-1} \binom{p}{\ell+1} \cdot z^\ell =: \sum_{\ell=0}^{p-1} M_\ell \cdot z^\ell.$$

For each $\ell \in [0..p-2]$: Since p is prime, coeff M_ℓ is a multiple of p ; yet $M_{p-1} \stackrel{\text{note}}{=} 1$ is not. And $M_0 \stackrel{\text{note}}{=} p$ fails to be divisible by p^2 . The conditions of E.C being satisfied, g is irreducible; hence so is cyclotomic \mathbf{C}_p . \square

10: Quartic example. Here is a pretty application that I read in J. S. Milne's "Fields and Galois Theory" at

<http://www.jmilne.org/math/CourseNotes/index.html>

in pdf form.

One way to show that an intpoly $f(x)$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}[[x]]$ is to produce a prime p for which $f(x)$ is $\mathbb{Z}_p[[x]]$ -irreducible. But there isn't always such a p , and here is a nice example. We will show that this (note: primitive) polynomial

$$10a: \quad f(x) := x^4 - 10x^2 + 1.$$

is irreducible as a \mathbb{Q} -poly but, for each prime p , factors non-trivially as a \mathbb{Z}_p -poly.

In \mathbb{Z} , does f have a degree-1 factor, i.e., an integer root? Well, $f(x)=0$ becomes

$1 = [10 - x^2] \cdot x^2$. So both x and $[10 - x^2]$ must be ± 1 ; this has no solution.

Could f have a quadratic factor? Then

$$f(x) = [x^2 - Ax \pm 1] \cdot [x^2 - Bx \pm 1]$$

for some $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$. And $f(x)$ has no x^3 term, so $B = -A$. Thus $f(x) = [x^2 + Bx \pm 1] \cdot [x^2 - Bx \pm 1]$, i.e.

$$f(x) = x^4 - [B^2 \mp 2]x^2 + 1.$$

So $[B^2 \mp 2] = 10$. But equation $B^2 = 10 \pm 2$ has no integer solution. The upshot is that

10b: $f(x)$ is $\mathbb{Z}[[x]]$ -irreducible.

10c: Lemma. For each prime p : Polynomial $f(x)$ factors non-trivially over $\mathbb{Z}_p[[x]]$. \diamond

Proof. If 2 is a mod- p square (whether or not $2 \perp p$), then

$$10d: \quad f(x) = [x^2 - 2\sqrt{2}x - 1] \cdot [x^2 + 2\sqrt{2}x - 1].$$

Similarly, if 3 is a mod- p square then

$$10e: \quad f(x) = [x^2 - 2\sqrt{3}x + 1] \cdot [x^2 + 2\sqrt{3}x + 1].$$

So WLOG $p > 3$.

Now $2 \perp p$ and $3 \perp p$. So if neither (10d) nor (10e) applies, then both 2 and 3 are non-quadratic-residues, mod- p . Thus $2 \cdot 3 = 6$ is a p -quadratic-residue. And

$$10f: \quad f(x) = [x^2 - A] \cdot [x^2 - B], \text{ where } \begin{matrix} A := 5 + 2\sqrt{6}; \\ B := 5 - 2\sqrt{6}. \end{matrix}$$

This, since $A + B = 10$ and $A \cdot B = 1$. \diamond

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