

## POLYNOMIALS WITH COEFFICIENTS FROM A DIVISION RING

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**1. Introduction.** Let  $R$  be any division ring and let

$$(1) f(X) = a_0 + a_1X + a_2X^2 + \dots + a_nX^n, \quad (a_i \in R, 1 \leq i \leq n)$$

be a polynomial, in the indeterminate  $X$ , with coefficients in  $R$ . Note that the powers of  $X$  are always to the right of the coefficients. We denote the set of all such polynomials by  $R[X]$ .

B. Beck [3] proved the following theorem for the generalized quaternion division algebra; i.e., any division ring of dimension 4 over its center:

**THEOREM 1.** *If  $f(X)$  is of degree  $n$  then  $f(X)$  has either infinitely many or at most  $n$  zeros in  $R$ .*

Under a reasonable definition of multiplicity Beck also proved:

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$  be a set of pairwise non-conjugate elements of  $R$ , and  $(m_1, \dots, m_N)$  positive integers such that  $\sum m_i = n = \deg f(x)$ .*

(A) *If the  $m_i$  are all equal to 1, there is a unique  $f(X)$  of degree  $n$  and leading coefficient 1 with  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  as its only zeros.*

(B) *If one of the  $m_i$  is greater than 1, then there are infinitely many  $f(X)$  of degree  $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i$ , leading coefficient 1,  $c_i$  a zero of multiplicity  $m_i$  and no other zeros.*

In this paper we present elementary proofs that Theorems 1 and 2A hold for every division ring  $R$  and Theorem 2B holds for every division algebra.

**2. Polynomials.** Let  $R$  denote any division ring and  $k$  its center. We make  $R[X]$  into a ring by defining addition in the usual way and multiplication, which we shall denote by “ $\circ$ ”, also in the usual way:

$$(2) f(X) \circ g(X) = h(X) = \sum_{\nu=0}^n a_\nu g(X) X^\nu.$$

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Obviously this product does not in general correspond to the product of polynomial functions but we do have:

**PROPOSITION 1.** *Let  $f(X)$  and  $g(X)$  be in  $R[X]$ . (a) Every zero of  $g(X)$  is also a zero of  $f(X) \circ g(X)$ . (b) Every zero of  $f(X) \circ g(X)$  which is not a zero of  $g(X)$  is a conjugate of a zero of  $f(X)$ . (c) If  $c \in R$  then  $c$  is a zero of  $g(X) \Leftrightarrow g(X) = q(X) \circ (X - c)$  for some  $q(X) \in R[X]$ .*

*Proof.* To prove (a) let  $c$  be a zero of  $g(X)$  and substitute  $c$  for  $X$  in (2). For (b), let  $h(X) = f(X) \circ g(X)$  and suppose  $g(c) \neq 0$ ; then by (2) we have

$$h(c) = f(g(c)cg(c)^{-1})g(c)$$

which cannot be zero unless  $c$  is a conjugate of a zero of  $f(X)$ .

To prove (c) note that by the ordinary division algorithm (taking care to keep products of coefficients in the correct order) we can find an identity

$$g(X) = q(X) \circ (X - c) + b \quad \text{with } b \in R.$$

By (a),  $g(c) = b$ .

**PROPOSITION 2.** *Let  $f(X)$  be given by (1), let  $c \in R$ , and let  $S$  denote the set of all  $y \in R$  with  $f(ycy^{-1}) = 0$ . Then  $S$  equals the set of all nonzero  $y \in R$  with*

$$(3) \quad \sum_{\nu=0}^n a_{\nu}yc^{\nu} = 0.$$

*Proof.* The left side of (3) equals  $f(ycy^{-1}) \circ y$ .

Now the left side of (3) defines a  $k$ -linear homogeneous function

$$y \rightarrow l(y) = \sum_{\nu} a_{\nu}yc^{\nu}$$

of  $R \rightarrow R$  where  $k$  is the center of  $R$ . This is an analytic linear function  $R \rightarrow R$  of the type studied in [2]. The set of solutions of (3) forms a vector space over  $k$ . If  $R$  should be finite dimensional over  $k$  then the set of solutions of (3) can be computed by solving a system of linear equations over  $k$ . Hence, when  $R$  is a division algebra, we can by a programmable computation find for each  $c \in R$  the set of all  $y \in R$  with  $f(ycy^{-1}) = 0$ .

**PROPOSITION 3.** *If  $f(X) \in R[X]$  and  $f(X)$  has two different conjugates of an element  $c \in R$  as zeros then  $f(X)$  has infinitely many conjugates of  $c$  as zeros.*

*Proof.* We may assume that  $f(X)$  is given by (1), that  $f(c) = 0$ , and that (3) has a solution  $b_1$  with  $b_1cb_1^{-1} \neq c$ .

Let  $R^{(c)}$  denote the set of all  $z \in R$  which commute with  $c$ . It is a sub-division-ring of  $R$  which contains the commutative subfield  $k(c)$ . If  $l(y) = \sum a_n y c^n$  then

$$l(yz) = l(y) \cdot z \quad \text{for every } z \in R^{(c)}.$$

Note that  $l$  is a right  $R^{(c)}$ -linear map from  $R$  to  $R$ . The set of solutions of  $l(y) = 0$  is a right vector space over  $R^{(c)}$ .

Let  $b_0, \dots, b_n$  be a family of solutions of (3) which are linearly independent as elements of the right vector space over  $R^{(c)}$ . Under the assumption of the first paragraph  $1$  and  $b_1$  are linearly independent because  $b_1 \notin R^{(c)}$ . (The case  $n = 1$  suffices for this proof, but we shall need the more general case later.) Let  $Y$  be the set of all

$$\sum_{\nu=0}^n b_\nu z_\nu \neq 0, \quad z_\nu \in R^{(c)},$$

and  $S_Y$  the set of all  $ycy^{-1}$  with  $y \in Y$ . Then  $S_Y$  is a subset of the set of all conjugates of  $c$  which are zeros of  $f(X)$ .

If

$$y = \sum_{\nu=0}^n b_\nu z_\nu \quad \text{and} \quad y' = \sum_{\nu=0}^n b_\nu z'_\nu$$

then

$$ycy^{-1} = y'cy'^{-1} \Leftrightarrow y' = yz \quad \text{for some } z \in R^{(c)};$$

and from this we can see that the elements of  $S_Y$  are in one-one correspondence with the set of equivalence classes of  $n + 1$  tuples  $(z_0, z_1, \dots, z_n) \neq 0$  of elements of  $R^{(c)}$  where we define  $(z_0, \dots, z_n)$  and  $(z'_0, \dots, z'_n)$  to be equivalent if and only if there is a  $z$  in  $R^{(c)}$  with

$$(z'_0, \dots, z'_n) = (z_0z, z_1z, \dots, z_nz).$$

So we may say: The elements of  $S_Y$  are in one-one correspondence with the elements of an  $n$ -dimensional right projective space over  $R^{(c)}$  [1].

If  $R^{(c)}$  has infinitely many elements and  $n \geq 1$  then such a projective space has infinitely many elements. Now the proof of Proposition 3 is reduced to proving:

**PROPOSITION 4.** *If  $R$  is any noncommutative division ring and  $c \in R$  then  $R^{(c)}$  has infinitely many elements.*

*Proof.* We use the following notation: If  $A$  and  $B$  are division rings with  $B \subset A$  then  $(A:B)$  denotes the dimension of  $A$  as a left vector space over  $B$ . If  $A \supset B \supset C$ , then  $(A:C) = (A:B)(B:C)$  if  $(A:B)$  and  $(B:C)$  are finite.

Suppose  $R^{(c)}$  is a finite set. Then  $k$  must be a finite field and  $(R^{(c)}:k)$  finite; since  $k(c)$  is a commutative field with  $k(c) \subset R^{(c)}$ , then  $(k(c):k)$  is also finite. By Theorem 13, part 4, of [2], taking  $A = k(c)$ , we get

$$(R:R^{(c)}) = (k(c):k).$$

Therefore,  $(R:k) = (R:R^{(c)})(R^{(c)}:k)$  is finite, hence  $R$  has only finitely many elements and, by a theorem of Wedderburn, [7],  $R$  is commutative.

**PROPOSITION 5.** *Let  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  be a set of pairwise non-conjugate elements of  $R$ . Then there is a unique monic  $f(X) \in R[X]$  of degree  $n$  such that:*

- (a)  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  are zeros of  $f(X)$ .
- (b) Every zero of  $f(X)$  is a conjugate of one of the  $c_i$ .
- (c) If  $h(X)$  has all the  $c_i$  as zeros then  $h(X) = q(X) \circ f(X)$  for a  $q(X) \in R[X]$ .

*Proof.* This is true for  $n = 1$  by Proposition 1. We use induction, assuming  $n > 1$  and that the proposition is true for all sets of fewer than  $n$  pairwise non-conjugate elements. In particular there is a unique monic  $g(X)$  satisfying our conditions for the set  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{n-1}$ . Consider the polynomial

$$f(X) = (X - u) \circ g(X)$$

where  $u$  is an undetermined element of  $R$ . For each  $c \in R$ ,

$$f(c) = g(c)c - ug(c)$$

so  $f(c) = 0$  if and only if  $g(c) = 0$  or  $u = g(c)cg(c)^{-1}$ . If we take

$$u = g(c_n)c_n g(c_n)^{-1},$$

then  $f(X)$  has properties (a) and (b): Namely, if  $f(c') = 0$  then either  $g(c') = 0$  so that  $c'$  is a conjugate of one of the  $c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  by our induction assumption, or  $c' = g(c')^{-1}ug(c')$  is a conjugate of  $c_n$ .

Now, let  $f(X)$  denote any monic polynomial of degree  $n$  with  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  as zeros. (We have proven there is at least one such polynomial.) Let  $h(X) \in R[X]$ ; then

$$h(X) = q(X) \circ f(X) + r(X) \quad \text{where } r(X) = 0,$$

or

$$r(X) = cr'(X) \quad \text{with } c \neq 0$$

and  $r'(X)$  is either  $= 1$  or is a monic polynomial of degree  $m < n$ . If  $h(X)$  has each of  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  as zeros then so does  $r'(X)$ . Hence,  $r'(X)$  cannot be a nonzero constant. If it has degree  $m$  it follows from our induction assumption that, for each subset of  $m$  elements contained in  $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$ ,  $r'(X)$  must be the degree  $m$  polynomial associated with that subset by our proposition. However, condition (b) leads to a contradiction because there is more than one such subset. Therefore,  $r'(X) = 0$  and our  $f(X)$  satisfies condition (c). From this uniqueness follows.

**3. Proof of theorem 1.** Let  $h(X)$  have a finite number,  $n$ , of zeros. By Proposition 3 this set of zeros is pairwise non-conjugate. By Proposition 5,  $h(X) = q(X) \circ f(X)$  for a certain  $f(X)$  of degree  $n$ . This means degree  $h(X) \cong n$ .

**PROPOSITION 6.** *Suppose  $f(X)$  has zeros in  $n$  distinct conjugacy classes and has two (hence, by Proposition 3, infinitely many) zeros in one of these classes. Then degree  $f(X) > n$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose  $f(X)$  has  $c_1', c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  as zeros where  $c_1'$  and  $c_1$  lie in the same conjugacy class and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  in different ones. We can construct

$$g(X) = (X - u) \circ (X - c_1)$$

with  $c_1'$  and  $c_1$  as zeros; by Proposition 1, all its zeros lie in the conjugacy class of  $c_1$ . By the division algorithm and the proof of Proposition 6, we get

$$f(X) = q(X) \circ g(X) + r(X) \quad \text{with degree } r(X) \leq 1.$$

Since both  $c_1$  and  $c_1'$  are zeros of  $f(X)$  and  $g(X)$  we see  $r(X) = 0$ . The set of conjugacy classes of zeros of  $f(X)$  is contained in the union of the set of conjugacy classes of zeros of  $q(X)$  and  $g(X)$ . The former set of conjugacy classes contains at least  $n - 1$  elements, which implies degree  $q(X) \cong n - 1$  by Proposition 5, and degree  $f(X) \cong n + 1$ .

**4. Proof of theorem 2.** Theorem 2A follows at once from Propositions 5 and 6.

For Theorem 2B we need a definition of multiplicity. From Theorem 5, page 34 of [8] it follows that if  $f(X) \in R[X]$  has two factorizations into irreducible factors then these factors can be placed into a one-one correspondence so that corresponding factors are similar; from the definition of similarity given in [6], this implies for each  $c \in R$  that the

number of factors  $(X - u)$  with  $u$  conjugate to  $c$  is the same for both factorizations.

*Definition.* We say  $c \in R$  is a zero of  $f(X)$  of multiplicity  $m$  if  $f(c) = 0$  and in every factorization of  $f(X)$  into monic irreducible factors exactly  $m$  of the factors are of the form  $(X - c')$  with  $c'$  conjugate to  $c$ .

To prove Theorem 2B we use induction. Suppose  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_r$  is a pairwise non-conjugate set of elements of  $R$ . From Theorem 2B we already know that we can find a unique  $g(X)$  of degree  $r$  which has the  $c_i$  as its only zeros, each with multiplicity 1. We use induction: Assume  $c_1$  is not in the center and we have a polynomial of degree

$$m = \sum_{\rho=1}^r m_\rho$$

which has each  $c_i$  as a zero of multiplicity  $m_i \geq 1$ , and has no other zeros. We want to construct infinitely many  $h(X)$  with degree  $m + 1$ , the same set of zeros, and  $c_1$  of multiplicity  $m_1 + 1$ . Suppose  $h(X) = (X - u) \circ g(X)$ . If  $X$  is any element of  $R$  with  $g(X) \neq 0$ , it follows from (2) that

$$h(X) = (g(X)Xg(X)^{-1} - u)g(X).$$

Let  $X = yc_1y^{-1}$  be a conjugate of  $c_1$  different from  $c_1$ ; then:

$$(4) \quad h(X) = (g(yc_1y^{-1})yc_1y^{-1}(g(yc_1y^{-1}))^{-1} - u)g(yc_1y^{-1}).$$

Let  $g(X) = \sum b_\nu X^\nu$ ; then

$$g(yc_1y^{-1}) = l(y)y^{-1} \quad \text{where } l(y) = \sum b_\nu yc_1^\nu;$$

and (4) becomes:

$$h(X) = (l(y)y^{-1}yc_1y^{-1}(l(y)y^{-1})^{-1} - u)g(X),$$

i.e.,

$$(5) \quad h(yc_1y^{-1}) = (l(y)c_1(l(y))^{-1} - u)g(yc_1y^{-1}).$$

Now we claim: If  $(k(c_1):k)$  is finite there is a conjugate  $u$  of  $c_1$  which is not of the form  $l(y)c_1(l(y))^{-1}$  for any  $y \notin R(c_1)$ .

To see this note first that, from Proposition 2 and our assumptions about zeros of  $g(X)$ , it follows that  $l(y) = 0$  if and only if  $y \in R^{(c_1)}$ . As in the proof of Proposition 3,  $l$  is an  $R^{(c_1)}$ -linear map  $R \rightarrow R$ ; by Proposition 2,

$$l(y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow g(yc_1y^{-1}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow y \in R^{(c_1)}.$$

Suppose now that  $k(c_1)$  is of finite dimension  $d$  over the center  $k$ . Then as in the proof of Proposition 4,  $(R:R^{(c)}) = d$  also. So  $l$  is an  $R^{(c)}$ -linear map  $R \rightarrow R$  with a kernel of dimension 1 over  $R^{(c)}$ . Its image is of dimension  $d - 1$  over  $R^{(c)}$ . ( $d \geq 2$  because we assumed  $c_1$  is not in the center.)

By the argument used in the proof of Proposition 3, the set of all conjugates of  $c_1$  in  $r$  is in one-one correspondence with the set of elements of a  $(d - 1)$  dimensional right projective space over  $R^{(c)}$  while under the same correspondence the conjugates of the special form

$$l(y)c_1(l(y))^{-1} \quad \text{with } l(y) \neq 0$$

correspond to a  $(d - 2)$  dimensional space. Hence, there are infinitely many choices for  $u$ , conjugate to  $c_1$ , such that  $h(X)$  has no zeros except  $c_1, \dots, c_r$  and the multiplicity of  $c_i$  is  $m_i + 1$ . This proves Theorem 2B in case  $R$  is an algebra.

We have as yet found no proof or counterexample of Theorem 2B for the general case.

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