THE DIVISION THEOREM IN \( \mathbb{Z} \) AND \( F[T] \)

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1. Introduction

In the integers we can carry out a process of division with remainder, as follows.

**Theorem 1.1.** For any integers \( a \) and \( b \), with \( b \neq 0 \) there are unique integers \( q \) and \( r \) such that
\[
a = bq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < |b|.
\]

Division with remainder is also possible for polynomials with coefficients in a field (such as \( \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \) or \( \mathbb{C} \)), and the statement is very similar to Theorem 1.1.

**Theorem 1.2.** Let \( F \) be a field. For any \( f(T) \) and \( g(T) \) in \( F[T] \), with \( g(T) \neq 0 \), there are unique \( q(T) \) and \( r(T) \) in \( F[T] \) such that
\[
f(T) = g(T)q(T) + r(T), \quad r(T) = 0 \text{ or } \deg r(T) < \deg g(T).
\]

In both Theorem 1.1 and 1.2, there are two things to be proved: for each \( a \) and nonzero \( b \) in \( \mathbb{Z} \), or \( f(T) \) and nonzero \( g(T) \) in \( F[T] \), a quotient and remainder exist satisfying the conclusions of the theorem and there is only one such quotient and remainder. Often when proving such “existence and uniqueness” theorems, it is convenient to split up the proof into an existence part and a uniqueness part.

Not only do Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 look the same, but they can be proved in similar (although not exactly identical) ways. First we will prove Theorem 1.1, and then we will adapt the ideas there for a proof of Theorem 1.2.

2. Proof of Theorem 1.1

**Proof.** Uniqueness: For a choice of integers \( a \) and \( b \) with \( b \neq 0 \), assume there are \( q_1, r_1 \) and \( q_2, r_2 \) in \( \mathbb{Z} \) that both satisfy the conclusion of the theorem for that \( a \) and \( b \). That is,
\[
a = bq_1 + r_1, \quad 0 \leq r_1 < |b|
\]
and
\[
a = bq_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < |b|.
\]
Comparing the equations in (2.1) and (2.2), we have \( bq_1 + r_1 = bq_2 + r_2 \). Subtracting,
\[
b(q_1 - q_2) = r_2 - r_1.
\]
This implies the difference \( r_2 - r_1 \) is a multiple of \( b \).

Because \( r_1 \) and \( r_2 \) range from 0 to \( |b| - 1 \), the difference \( r_2 - r_1 \) is smaller in absolute value than \( |b| \). (Why?) Feeding this into (2.3) implies
\[
|b(q_1 - q_2)| = |r_2 - r_1| < |b|.
\]
The only integer multiple of $b$ that is smaller in absolute value than $|b|$ is 0, so $b(q_1 - q_2) = 0$. Because $b \neq 0$ (aha...), we must have $q_1 - q_2 = 0$, so $q_1 = q_2$. Then, returning to (2.3), $r_2 - r_1 = b \cdot 0 = 0$ and we get $r_1 = r_2$.

**Existence:** For a choice of integers $a$ and $b$ with $b \neq 0$, we want to prove there are $q$ and $r$ in $\mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = bq + r$ and $0 \leq r < |b|$. We will give two proofs. The first one will be very short, while the second may look more fussy and formal. It is the second proof, not the first, whose ideas can generalize to the polynomial setting of Theorem 1.2.

The most interesting case is $b > 0$, so we treat this first. Consider all the integer multiples of $b$: $\{0, \pm b, \pm 2b, \ldots\}$. Since $b \neq 0$, these multiples are equally spaced all along the real line. The integer $a$ lies in the interval between consecutive multiples of $b$:

\begin{equation}
 bq \leq a < b(q + 1)
\end{equation}

for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. (Why is $b > 0$ necessary here?) Now subtract $bq$ from all terms in (2.4) to get $0 \leq a - bq < b$. Set $r = a - bq$, so $0 \leq r < b = |b|$. We are done.

For a second proof of existence of $q$ and $r$ when $b > 0$, we treat the cases $a \geq 0$ and $a < 0$ separately. We fix $b > 0$ and will show for each $a \geq 0$ there are appropriate $q$ and $r$, and then we will show for each $a < 0$ there are appropriate $q$ and $r$.

When $a \geq 0$, we argue by (strong) induction on $a$. If $0 \leq a < b$ we can use $q = 0$ and $r = a$. Suppose now that $a \geq b$ and for all integers $a_0$ with $0 \leq a_0 < a$ we have the existence of $q_0$ and $r_0$ for $a_0$ and $b$ in Theorem 1.1. To get $q$ and $r$ for $a$ and $b$, consider the number $a_0 := a - b$. Since $a \geq b > 0$, we have $0 \leq a_0 < a$. Therefore there are integers $q_0$ and $r_0$ such that $a_0 = bq_0 + r_0$ and $0 \leq r_0 < b$. Writing this as

\[ a - b = bq_0 + r_0, \quad 0 \leq r_0 < b, \]

add $b$ to both sides: $a = b(q_0 + 1) + r_0$. Use $q = q_0 + 1$ and $r = r_0$. This completes the second proof of existence for $b > 0$ and $a \geq 0$.

If $a < 0$ and $b > 0$, then consider $-a$ and $b$. Both are positive, so by the previous case we can write

\[ -a = bQ + R, \quad 0 \leq R < b. \]

Negating, we have $a = b(-Q) - R$ with $-b < -R \leq 0$. If $R = 0$ then $a = b(-Q)$ so we can use $q = -Q$ and $r = 0$. If $R > 0$, so $-b < -R < 0$, we want to add $b$ to $-R$ to make it positive (and still small), so write $a = b(-Q + 1) + (b - R)$ with $0 < b - R \leq b$. We can use $q = -Q + 1$ and $r = b - R$.

Finally, if $b < 0$ and $a$ is arbitrary, then consider $a$ and $-b$. From what we already showed, we can write $a = -bQ + R$ where $0 \leq R < b$. Writing this as $a = b(-Q) + R$, we can use $q = -Q$ and $r = R$. $\Box$

Reread this proof until you see what’s going on. Run through the proof with several choices for $a$ and $b$, such as $a = 17$ and $b = 5$, or $a = -17$ and $b = 3$.

3. **Proof of Theorem 1.2**

As with the proof of Theorem 1.1, we first show uniqueness and then existence.

**Proof.** Uniqueness: Picking $f(T)$ and $g(T)$ in $F[T]$ with $g(T)$ being nonzero, suppose there are $q_1(T), r_1(T)$ and $q_2(T), r_2(T)$ in $F[T]$ that both satisfy the conclusion of Theorem 1.2:

\begin{equation}
 f(T) = g(T)q_1(T) + r_1(T), \quad r_1(T) = 0 \text{ or } \deg r_1(T) < \deg g(T)
\end{equation}

\begin{equation}
 f(T) = g(T)q_2(T) + r_2(T), \quad r_2(T) = 0 \text{ or } \deg r_2(T) < \deg g(T)
\end{equation}

Subtracting, we get

\begin{equation}
 g(T) r_1(T) - g(T) r_2(T) = q_1(T) - q_2(T)
\end{equation}

By the preceding possibilities, we must have $q_1(T) = q_2(T)$ and $r_1(T) = r_2(T)$.

Existence: Let $f(T) = a_n T^n + \cdots + a_0$ and $g(T) = b_m T^m + \cdots + b_0$. Then $a_n b_m$ is not zero, and we can write $a_n b_m = bq + r$ with $0 \leq r < |b|$. We claim

\[ a_0 b_m = b(q_1) + r_1 \]

where $q_1$ and $r_1$ satisfy the conclusion of Theorem 1.2.

Proof: By induction. If $a_0 = 0$ and $b_m = 0$, then $q_1 = 0$ and $r_1 = 0$. Otherwise, let $a_0 = bq_0 + r_0$ with $0 \leq r_0 < |b|$. Then

\[ a_0 b_m = bq_0 b_m + r_0 b_m = b(q_0) b_m + r_0 b_m \]

Since $a_0$ is not a multiple of $b_m$, $q_0$ and $r_0$ satisfy the conclusion of Theorem 1.2, and the claim follows.

\[ \Box \]
and
\[(3.2) \quad f(T) = g(T)q_2(T) + r_2(T), \quad r_2(T) = 0 \text{ or } \deg r_2(T) < \deg g(T).\]

Comparing the equations in (3.1) and (3.2), we have \(g(T)q_1(T) + r_1(T) = g(T)q_2(T) + r_2(T)\).

Subtracting,
\[(3.3) \quad g(T)(q_1(T) - q_2(T)) = r_2(T) - r_1(T).\]

This implies the difference \(r_2(T) - r_1(T)\) is a polynomial multiple of \(g(T)\).\(^1\)

From the degree bounds\(^2\) on \(r_1(T)\) and \(r_2(T)\) in (3.1) and (3.2), if \(r_1(T) \neq r_2(T)\) then
\[(3.4) \quad \deg(r_1(T) - r_2(T)) \leq \max(\deg r_1(T), \deg r_2(T)) < \deg g(T).\]

Equation (3.3) tells us \(r_1(T) - r_2(T)\) is a multiple of \(g(T)\), so \(\deg(r_1(T) - r_2(T)) \geq \deg g(T)\) if \(r_1(T) - r_2(T) \neq 0\). This contradicts (3.4), so we must have \(r_1(T) - r_2(T) = 0\), and hence \(r_1(T) = r_2(T)\). Then by (3.3), \(g(T)(q_1(T) - q_2(T)) = 0\). That implies the difference \(q_1(T) - q_2(T)\) is 0 since \(g(T) \neq 0\), so \(q_1(T) = q_2(T)\).

Existence: Given \(f(T)\) and \(g(T)\) in \(F[T]\) with nonzero \(g(T)\), we want to find \(q(T)\) and \(r(T)\) in \(F[T]\) such that
\[
\begin{align*}
(1) \quad f(T) &= g(T)q(T) + r(T), \\
(2) \quad r(T) &= 0 \text{ or } \deg r(T) < \deg g(T).
\end{align*}
\]

We will do this by modifying a proof for the analogous situation in \(\mathbb{Z}\) (existence of \(q\) and \(r\)) that we have already discussed in Theorem 1.1.

The first proof of the existence of \(q\) and \(r\) in Theorem 1.1 does not generalize to polynomials; what would “equally spaced” polynomials mean? However, the second proof of the existence part of Theorem 1.1 will carry over to polynomials, using induction on the degrees of polynomials.

The case when \(f(T) = 0\) is easy: for any \(g(T)\) use \(q(T) = 0\) and \(r(T) = 0\). The case when \(g(T)\) is constant (that is, \(\deg g(T) = 0\)) is also easy: if \(g(T) = c\) is a nonzero constant then for any \(f(T)\) we can use \(q(T) = (1/c)f(T)\) and \(r(T) = 0\).

Fix now a nonconstant \(g(T) \in F[T]\). We want to show for all nonzero \(f(T)\) in \(F[T]\) that there are polynomials \(q(T)\) and \(r(T)\) in \(F[T]\) such that \(f(T) = g(T)q(T) + r(T)\) with \(r(T) = 0\) or \(\deg r(T) < \deg g(T)\). We will prove this by strong induction on \(\deg f(T)\). That is, for every integer \(n \geq 0\) we will prove the existence of \(q(T)\) and \(r(T)\) for all \(f(T)\) of degree \(n\) by strong induction on \(n\).

If \(n < \deg g(T)\), then for any \(f(T)\) of degree \(n\) we can use \(q(T) = 0\) and \(r(T) = f(T)\).\(^3\)

Now assume that \(n \geq \deg g(T)\) and the existence of \(q(T)\) and \(r(T)\) is true for \(g(T)\) and all polynomials \(f(T)\) of degree less than \(n\). We will use this to show there are \(q(T)\) and \(r(T)\) for \(g(T)\) and every \(f(T)\) of degree \(n\). Write the leading terms of \(f(T)\) and \(g(T)\) as
\[
\begin{align*}
   f(T) &= a_nT^n + \text{lower order terms}, \\
   g(T) &= c_dT^d + \text{lower order terms}.
\end{align*}
\]

\(^1\)The argument so far is just like the proof of uniqueness in \(\mathbb{Z}\).

\(^2\)Here we need a slightly different argument than in \(\mathbb{Z}\), since polynomials don’t have absolute values. We use the degree as a measure of size instead.

\(^3\)This corresponds to the case \(0 \leq a < b\) in the proof for \(\mathbb{Z}\) when \(b > 0\), where we can use \(q = 0\) and \(r = a\).
We have \( n \geq d \) (why?). Multiplying \( g(T) \) by \( T^{n-d} \) raises its degree to \( n \), and then scaling by a suitable constant makes its leading term match that of \( f(T) \):

\[
T^{n-d}g(T) = c_d T^n + \text{lower order terms} \implies \frac{a_n}{c_d} T^{n-d}g(T) = a_n T^n + \text{lower order terms}.
\]

In this step we used the fact that our coefficients are in a field (!) because that is how we know that we can divide by \( c_d \). Since \( f(T) \) and \( (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}g(T) \) have the same leading term \( a_n T^n \), the difference \( f(T) - (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}g(T) \) is a polynomial of degree less than \( n \), so by the inductive hypothesis there are \( q_0(T) \) and \( r_0(T) \) in \( F[T] \) such that

1. \( f(T) - (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}g(T) = g(T)q_0(T) + r_0(T) \),
2. \( r_0(T) = 0 \) or \( \deg r_0(T) < \deg g(T) \).

Bring \((a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}g(T)\) to the other side in (1):

\[
f(T) = (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}g(T) + g(T)q_0(T) + r_0(T) = g(T)(q_0(T) + (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d}) + r_0(T).
\]

Therefore \( f(T) = g(T)q(T) + r(T) \) where \( q(T) = q_0(T) + (a_n/c_d)T^{n-d} \) and \( r(T) = r_0(T). \) \( \square \)

In the last part of the proof (the ‘reduction’ part), we multiplied \( g(T) \) by a monomial to make the top term match the top term of \( f(T) \) (in both degree and coefficient), so the difference has lower degree. This process can be repeated to drop the degree further, until we finally get a polynomial that has degree less than \( \deg g(T) \) or is the polynomial 0. This is exactly the algorithm taught in high school to divide one polynomial by another, but perhaps said in a slightly different way.

**Example 3.1.** Let \( f(T) = 7T^4 - 1 \) and \( g(T) = T^2 + 5T \). What are \( q(T) \) and \( r(T) \) making \( f(T) = g(T)q(T) + r(T) \) with \( r(T) = 0 \) or \( \deg r(T) < 2 \)? Since \( f(T) \) has the same leading term as \( 7T^2g(T) \), we compute

\[
f(T) - 7T^2g(T) = -35T^3 - 1.
\]

Since \(-35T^3 - 1\) has the same leading term as \(-35Tg(T)\), we compute

\[
(-35T^3 - 1) - (-35Tg(T)) = 175T^2 - 1.
\]

Since \(175T^2 - 1\) has the same leading term as \( 175g(T) \), we compute

\[
(175T^2 - 1) - 175g(T) = -875T - 1,
\]

whose degree is less than \( 2 = \deg g(T) \), so we stop. Feeding each equation into the previous ones gives

\[
f(T) = 7T^2g(T) - 35T^3 - 1
= 7T^2g(T) - 35Tg(T) + (175T^2 - 1)
= 7T^2g(T) - 35Tg(T) + 175g(T) - 875T - 1
= g(T)(7T^2 - 35T + 175) - 875T - 1.
\]

Thus \( q(T) = 7T^2 - 35T + 175 \) and \( r(T) = -875T - 1 \).

**Example 3.2.** Let \( f(T) = 2T^4 + T^2 + 6 \) and \( g(T) = 3T^2 + 1 \). Since \( f(T) \) has the same leading term as \( \frac{2}{3}T^2g(T) \), we compute

\[
f(T) - \frac{2}{3}T^2g(T) = \frac{1}{3}T^2 + 6.
\]

\(^4\)This is the analogue, in the proof for \( \mathbb{Z} \), of considering \( a_0 = a - b \) in place of \( a \) when \( a \geq b > 0 \).
The right side has the same leading term as $\frac{1}{9}g(T)$, so we compute

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}T^2 + 6\right) - \frac{1}{9}g(T) = \frac{53}{9},$$

whose degree is less than $2 = \deg g(T)$, so we stop. Feeding the equations into each other gives

$$f(T) = \frac{2}{3}T^2g(T) + \frac{1}{3}T^2 + 6$$
$$= \frac{2}{3}T^2g(T) + \frac{1}{9}g(T) + \frac{53}{9}$$
$$= g(T)\left(\frac{2}{3}T^2 + \frac{1}{9}\right) + \frac{53}{9},$$

so $q(T) = \frac{2}{3}T^2 + \frac{1}{9}$ and $r(T) = \frac{53}{9}$.

4. Division theorem in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$  

Theorem 1.2 is not true if we work in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ instead of $F[T]$. More precisely, the existence part breaks down: if $f(T)$ and $g(T)$ are in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$, the proof of Theorem 1.2 does not generally lead to $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ such that $f(T) = g(T)q(T) + r(T)$ where $r(T) = 0$ or $\deg r(T) < \deg g(T)$. (The uniqueness part goes through in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ without a problem.) Look at Example 3.2. The initial data $f(T)$ and $g(T)$ are in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ while $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ are not in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$. Why is that? Where does the proof break down?

The proof of the existence of $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ has a problem in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ in exactly one step: when we want to multiply $g(T)$ by a suitable monomial to get the top term to match that of $f(T)$, we want to multiply by $a_n/c_d$, and that involves division by $c_d$, the leading coefficient of $g(T)$. When $a_n$ and $c_d$ are in $\mathbb{Z}$, the ratio $a_n/c_d$ is usually not an integer. The denominators that get introduced in $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ will come from the leading coefficient $c_d$ of $g(T)$. For instance, in the second example after the proof of Theorem 1.2, $g(T)$ has leading coefficient 3 and $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ have coefficients with denominators 3 and 9.

There is a special (and important!) case where division in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ is valid: if the leading coefficient of $g(T)$ is 1. Division by 1 does not introduce denominators. Therefore, when $g(T)$ has leading coefficient 1, the difficulty in the proof of Theorem 1.2 for $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ does not arise. So there is a restricted division theorem in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$, as follows.

**Theorem 4.1.** For any $f(T)$ and $g(T)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$, with $g(T)$ having leading coefficient 1, there are unique $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$ such that

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

It is left to the reader, as an exercise, to check that the proof of Theorem 1.2 carries over to the setting of Theorem 4.1.

We already saw an example of Theorem 4.1 in Example 3.1. There $g(T)$ has leading coefficient 1 and the resulting $q(T)$ and $r(T)$ are in $\mathbb{Z}[T]$. 