

7210 HW 9

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Problem 1 (D&F 8.3.1). Let $G = \mathbb{Q}^\times$ be the multiplicative group of nonzero rational numbers. If $\alpha = p/q \in G$, where p and q are relatively prime integers, let $\varphi : G \rightarrow G$ be the map which interchanges the primes 2 and 3 in the prime power factorizations of p and q (so, for example, $\varphi(2^4 3^{11} 5^1 13^2) = 3^4 2^{11} 5^1 13^2$, $\varphi(3/16) = \varphi(3/2^4) = 2/3^4 = 2/81$, and φ is the identity on all rational numbers with numerators and denominators relatively prime to 2 and 3).

1. Prove that φ is a group isomorphism.
2. Prove that there are infinitely many isomorphisms of the group G to itself.
3. Prove that none of the isomorphisms above can be extended to an isomorphism of the **ring** \mathbb{Q} to itself. In fact, prove that the identity map is the only ring isomorphism of \mathbb{Q} .

Proof. First, φ is a homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(ab) &= \varphi\left(\frac{2^{\epsilon_1} 3^{\epsilon_2} p_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots p_n^{\epsilon_n} 2^{\epsilon_1} 3^{\epsilon_2} r_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots r_m^{\epsilon_m}}{2^{\sigma_1} 3^{\sigma_2} q_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots q_j^{\sigma_j} 2^{\sigma_1} 3^{\sigma_2} s_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots s_k^{\sigma_k}}\right) \\ &= \frac{3^{\epsilon_1} 2^{\epsilon_2} p_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots p_n^{\epsilon_n} 3^{\epsilon_1} 2^{\epsilon_2} r_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots r_m^{\epsilon_m}}{3^{\sigma_1} 2^{\sigma_2} q_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots q_j^{\sigma_j} 3^{\sigma_1} 2^{\sigma_2} s_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots s_k^{\sigma_k}} \\ &= \varphi\left(\frac{2^{\epsilon_1} 3^{\epsilon_2} p_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots p_n^{\epsilon_n}}{2^{\sigma_1} 3^{\sigma_2} q_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots q_j^{\sigma_j}}\right) \varphi\left(\frac{2^{\epsilon_1} 3^{\epsilon_2} r_3^{\epsilon_3} \cdots r_m^{\epsilon_m}}{2^{\sigma_1} 3^{\sigma_2} s_3^{\sigma_3} \cdots s_k^{\sigma_k}}\right) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) \end{aligned}$$

It is also bijective: it's self-inverse, as swapping 2 and 3 and then swapping them again yields the same prime factorization, so $\varphi(\varphi(a)) = a$; this implies φ is bijective.

The choice of interchanging 2 and 3 was arbitrary; the proof holds for a function interchanging *any* two primes p, p' by replacing the symbols 2 and 3 (when not appearing in a subscript or superscript) by p and p' . Since there are infinitely many primes, there are infinitely many pairs of primes, and so this exhibits infinitely many automorphisms of G .

Suppose $\phi : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ is a ring isomorphism. Then, in particular, $1 \mapsto 1$; since for all integers $n = \underbrace{1 + \cdots + 1}_{n \text{ times}}$, $\phi(n) = \underbrace{\phi(1) + \cdots + \phi(1)}_{n \text{ times}} = n$. Additionally, $\phi(\frac{n}{m}) = \phi(n \cdot \frac{1}{m}) = \phi(n)\phi(m)^{-1} = nm^{-1} = \frac{n}{m}$, so $\phi = id_{\mathbb{Q}}$. □

Problem 2 (D&F 8.3.5). Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$ where n is a squarefree integer greater than 3.

1. Prove that 2, $\sqrt{-n}$, and $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ are irreducible in R .

2. Prove that R is not a U.F.D. Conclude that the quadratic integer ring \mathcal{O} is not a U.F.D. for $D \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, $D < -3$ (so also not Euclidean and not a P.I.D.).
3. Give an explicit ideal in R that is not principal.

Proof. Restricting the complex absolute value to $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$, the norm of $a+b\sqrt{-n}$ is a^2+nb^2 . First, note that this norm is positive-definite, and there do not exist elements of R of norm 2: if $N(a+b\sqrt{-n}) = a^2 + nb^2 = 2$, one must have $b = 0$, since a^2, b^2 being positive and $n > 3$ implies that even $b = 1$ yields $a^2 + nb^2 > 3 > 2$. But, neither 0 nor 1 squares to 2, and if $a \geq 2$ then $a^2 \geq 4$. So, there do not exist elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$ that have norm 2. Similarly, if $N(a+b\sqrt{-n}) = a^2 + nb^2 = 1$, then $a = 1$ and $b = 0$, as if $b \geq 1$ then $n > 3$ makes it too big already. Since the norm is multiplicative on \mathbb{C} , it is multiplicative on $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$. Suppose $2 = (a+b\sqrt{-n})(c+d\sqrt{-n})$; then $N(2) = 4 = N(a+b\sqrt{-n})N(c+d\sqrt{-n})$. The only way to factor 4 as a product of nonnegative integers (which is what the norm will output) is as $1 \cdot 4$, $4 \cdot 1$, or $2 \cdot 2$. In either of the first two cases, the argument about norm-1 elements implies one factor is 1 and therefore a unit, and the last is prohibited by the argument about norm-2 elements; accordingly, 2 is irreducible.

Suppose $\sqrt{-n}$ is reducible. Then, as the norm is multiplicative, there must exist some element whose norm divides that of n ; its norm is less than or equal than n . Elements with norm at most n have $a^2 + nb^2 \leq n$; if $b > 1$, then things are already too big, and since n is squarefree, $b \neq 0$, (as otherwise $a^2 \mid n$) so we can only have $b = 1$. In such a case, one rearrange to get $a = 0$ as the only solution; accordingly, $\sqrt{-n}$ is the only element whose norm divides n , and it is on those grounds irreducible.

Suppose $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ is reducible. Then, as the norm is multiplicative, there must exist some element whose norm divides $1 + n$; its norm is less than or equal to $1 + n$. If it's of the form $a + b\sqrt{-n}$, $a^2 + nb^2 \leq n + 1$; if $b > 1$, then the norm is $\geq 4n$ —too big already. If $b = 0$, then the factor is a mere integer; if any other element of R is to exist such that $a(c + d\sqrt{-n}) = 1 + \sqrt{-n}$, then $ad = 1$, so $a = d = 1$ or $a = d = -1$. Therefore, $b = 1$ is the only possible choice. Solving the inequality, one gets $a^2 \leq 1 \Rightarrow a = 1$, so the only elements whose norm divides that of $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ are either $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ itself, or have no $\sqrt{-n}$ part and so can't divide $1 + \sqrt{-n}$. This implies $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ is irreducible.

Were R a U.F.D., it would have the property that being irreducible is equivalent to being prime. We've shown that 2 is irreducible, but it is never prime. If n is even, then $2 \mid \sqrt{-n}\sqrt{-n} = -n$, but $\sqrt{-n}$ is irreducible, so $2 \nmid \sqrt{-n}$, so 2 isn't prime. If n is odd, then $2 \mid (1 + \sqrt{-n})(1 + \sqrt{-n}) = (1 - n) + 2\sqrt{-n}$, since it divides each summand, but $1 + \sqrt{-n}$ is irreducible, so $2 \nmid 1 + \sqrt{-n}$, meaning 2 isn't prime. Therefore, R isn't a U.F.D.

If n is even, then the ideal $(2, \sqrt{-n})$ is not principal: presuming it had generator d , then for all $x, y \in R$ $2x + y\sqrt{-n} = dz$ for some $z \in R$; in particular, for $x = 1, y = 0$ one has $2 = dz$. Since 2 is irreducible, then exactly one of d, z is a unit. If it's d , then the ideal is the whole ring, so there exist x, y such that $1 = 2x + y\sqrt{-n}$; multiplying by $\sqrt{-n}$, this implies $\sqrt{-n} = 2x\sqrt{-n} + y\sqrt{-n}^2$, and since we showed above that $2 \mid \sqrt{-n}^2 = -n$, the right-hand side is divisible by 2, which would imply $2 \mid \sqrt{-n}$, which is false since $\sqrt{-n}$ is irreducible. If z is a unit, then d is irreducible, and $d = 2z^{-1}$. One can instead choose $x = 0, y = 1$ to deduce that $d \mid \sqrt{-n}$; since $2 \mid d$ by the above, this would also imply $2 \mid \sqrt{-n}$, which is false since $\sqrt{-n}$ is irreducible.

For n odd, merely textually substitute $(1 + \sqrt{-n})$ for $\sqrt{-n}$ in the preceding paragraph. \square

Problem 3 (D&F 8.3.10a). Let R be an integral domain and let $N : R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$ be a norm on R . The ring R is Euclidean with respect to N if for any $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$, there exist elements q and r in R with

$$a = qb + r \text{ with } r = 0 \text{ or } N(r) < N(b).$$

Suppose now that this condition is weakened, namely that for any $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$, there exist elements q, q' and r, r' in R with

$$a = qb + r, b = q'r + r' \text{ with } r' = 0 \text{ or } N(r') < N(b),$$

i.e., the remainder after two divisions is smaller. Call such a domain a **2-stage Euclidean domain**. Prove that iterating the divisions in a 2-stage Euclidean domain produces a greatest common divisor of a and b which is a linear combination of a and b . Conclude that every finitely generated ideal of a 2-stage Euclidean domain is principal.

Proof. The division algorithm tells us that for any $a, b \in R$ there's a finite (since the norm is decreasing and bounded below) sequence of equations

$$\begin{aligned} r_{-1} &= a = q_0b + r_0, \quad r'_{-1} = b = q'_0r_0 + r'_0 \\ r_0 &= q_1r'_0 + r_1, \quad r'_0 = q'_1r_1 + r'_1 \\ &\vdots \\ r_{n-2} &= q_{n-1}r'_{n-2} + r_{n-1}, \quad r'_{n-2} = q'_{n-1}r_{n-1} + r'_{n-1} \\ r_{n-1} &= q_nr'_{n-1} + r_n, \quad r'_{n-1} = q'_nr_n + 0. \end{aligned}$$

By induction on $0 \leq k \leq n$ indexing the $n+1-k$ th statement, with the hypothesis $r_n \mid r_{n-k-1}$ and $r_n \mid r_{n-k-1}$, one has that r_n divides both a and b . For $k=0$, $r'_{n-1} = q'_nr_n \Rightarrow r_n \mid r'_{n-1}$; accordingly, $r_n \mid q_nr'_{n-1}$, and certainly $r_n \mid r_n$, so $r_n \mid r_{n-1} = q_nr'_{n-1} + r_n$. Suppose it holds that $r_n \mid r_{n-k}$ and $r_n \mid r_{n-k}$. Then, one has

$$r_{n-(k+1)} = q_{n-k}r'_{n-k-1} + r_{n-k}, \quad r'_{n-k-1} = q'_{n-k}r_{n-k} + r'_{n-k}$$

In the last equation, one has by the induction hypothesis that $r_n \mid r_{n-k-1}$, since it divides each summand; accordingly, r_n divides each summand in the former equation, and so divides $r_{n-(k+1)}$, proving the statement for any k . Taking $k=n$, one gets the property for the first statement, namely

$$r_n \mid r_{-1} = a, \quad r_n \mid r'_{-1} = b.$$

Since r_n is a common divisor of a and b , one has $(a, b) \subseteq (r_n)$.

We next prove that $r_n = ax + by$ for some $x, y \in R$, so that $r_n \in (a, b) \Rightarrow (d) \subseteq (a, b)$. This is done by inducting in the other direction: let $1 \leq k \leq n+2$ be the k th statement, with the hypothesis that $r_{k-2} = ax + by$ and $r'_{k-2} = ax' + by'$. If $k=1$, then $r_0 = a - q_0b$ and $r'_0 = b - q'_0r_0 = b - q'_0(a - q_0b) = -q'_0a + (1 + q_0q'_0)b$, forming a base case. Suppose that the statement holds for some arbitrary k . Then

$$\begin{aligned} r_k &= q_{k+1}r'_k - r_{k+1} \Leftrightarrow r_{k+1} = q_{k+1}r'_k - r_k = q_{k+1}(ax' + by') - (ax + by) \\ &= a[q_{k+1}x' - x] + b[q_{k+1}y' - y] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} r'_k &= q'_{k+1}r_{k+1} + r'_{k+1} \Leftrightarrow r'_{k+1} = q'_{k+1}r_{k+1} - r'_k = q'_{k+1}[a(q_{k+1}x' - x) + b(q_{k+1}y' - y)] - (ax' + by') \\ &= a[q'_{k+1}(q_{k+1}x' - x) - x'] + b[q'_{k+1}(q_{k+1}y' - y) - y']. \end{aligned}$$

So, the statement holds for arbitrary k ; consider in particular the last statement $k = n + 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} r_{n-1} &= q_nr'_{n-1} + r_n = ax + by, \quad r'_{n-1} = q'_nr_n = ax' + by' \\ \Rightarrow r_n &= ax + by - q_nr'_{n-1} = ax + by - q_n(ax' + by') = a(x + q_nx') + b(y + q_ny'). \end{aligned}$$

This proves that r_n is an R -linear combination of a and b ; as elements of (a, b) are precisely such combinations, this implies that $r_n \in (a, b)$ and accordingly $(r_n) \subseteq (a, b)$, because multiples of $r_n = ax + by$ remain R -linear combinations of a and b .

The above shows that all ideals generated by two elements are principal. Suppose for induction that all ideals generated by n elements are principal. Any ideal I generated by $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, a_{n+1}$ has elements of the form $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n + a_{n+1}x_{n+1}$, where all $x_i \in R$. The induction hypothesis says that the ideal I_0 generated by a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n is principal, i.e. our $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$ can be written dy for some $d \in I_0$ and some $y \in R$. Accordingly, the above arbitrary element of I can be written $dy + a_{n+1}x_{n+1}$, so $I = (d, a_{n+1})$. Once again, such ideals are principal by the main argument, so the arbitrary finitely-generated ideal I is principal. \square

Problem 4 (D&F 8.3.11). *Prove that R is a P.I.D. iff R is a U.F.D. that is also a Bezout domain, that is, a domain in which every ideal generated by two elements is principal.*

Proof. If R is a P.I.D., then it is immediately a U.F.D., and ideals generated by two elements are principal because all ideals are principal.

Conversely, suppose R is a U.F.D. and a Bezout domain, and consider an arbitrary ideal I of R . Order elements of I according to their number of irreducible factors (a well-defined quantity, by the definition of a U.F.D). This is bounded below by zero, so it must have a least element; call it a . If any element $b \in I$ is not in (a) , then $a \nmid b$. Since R is a Bezout domain, $(a, b) = (d)$ for some $d \in I$, and in particular for all $x, y \in R$, $ax + by = zd$ for some $z \in R$. Choosing $x = 1, y = 0$ shows that $d \mid a$, but a has the least number of irreducible factors in I ; writing out the prime factorizations in $a = ud$ as $va_1a_2 \dots a_n = v'u_1u_2 \dots u_jd_1d_2 \dots d_k$ where $j + k = n$, v, v' are units, and a_i, u_i, d_i are irreducible, one can see if $k < n$, then d has fewer irreducible factors than a , so u must be a unit.

However, choosing $x = 0, y = 1$ shows that $d \mid b$, but $d = u^{-1}a$, so $cu^{-1}a = b$, a contradiction with $a \nmid b$. So, all elements of I must be elements of (a) , proving that I is principal; since I was arbitrary, R is a P.I.D. \square

Problem 5 (D&F 9.3.3). *Let F be a field. Prove that the set R of polynomials in $F[x]$ whose coefficient of x is equal to 0 is a subring of $F[x]$ and that R is not a U.F.D.*

Proof. Let $a = p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2 + \dots + p_nx^n, b = q_0 + q_1x + q_2x^2 + \dots + q_nx^n \in R$, n is the greatest of the two polynomials degrees, $p_1 = q_1 = 0$, and where (even leading) coefficients are allowed to be zero. Then $a - b = (p_0 - q_0) + (p_2 - q_2)x^2 + \dots + (p_n - q_n)x^n \in R$; the i th coefficient of ab is $\sum_{k=0}^i p_k q_{i-k}$, and in particular, the 1st coefficient is $\sum_{k=0}^1 p_k q_{1-k} = p_0q_1 + p_1q_0 = p_0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot q_0 = 0$, so $ab \in R$.

The polynomials x^2 and x^3 are irreducible in R , intuitively, because one can't factor out an x . If $x^2 = p(x)q(x)$, then $\deg p(x), \deg q(x) \leq 2$; if either equals 2, then the other must have degree zero,

so the only factorization where one of the terms has degree 2 and the other 0 is as $x^2 = (ux^2)(v)$ where $u, v \in F$ are units in R . It can't happen that both are of degree 1, since polynomials of such degree aren't in R , and if one is of degree zero, the other is of degree 2, which reduces to the first case by commutativity. Thus, x^2 is irreducible. If $x^3 = p(x)q(x)$, then $\deg p(x), \deg q(x) \leq 3$; if either equals 3, then the other must have degree zero, so the only factorization where one of the terms has degree 3 and the other 0 is as $x^3 = (ux^3)(v)$ where $u, v \in F$ are units in R . It can't happen that one of the degrees is two, since then the degree of the other must be 1, and polynomials of such degree aren't in R , which also prohibits the case any of the degrees is zero; again, the case when one of the degrees is 0 reduces to the first case. Then x^3 is also irreducible.

However, this implies that $x^6 = x^3x^3 = x^2x^2x^2$ are two distinct factorizations of an element of R as a product of irreducibles, so R is not a U.F.D. \square

Problem 6 (D&F 9.3.4). Let $R = \mathbb{Z} + x\mathbb{Q}[x] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the set of polynomials in x with rational coefficients whose constant term is an integer.

1. Prove that R is an integral domain and its units are ± 1 .
2. Show that the irreducibles in R are $\pm p$ where p is a prime in \mathbb{Z} and the polynomials $f(x)$ that are irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ and have constant term ± 1 . Prove that these irreducibles are prime in R .
3. Show that x cannot be written as the product of irreducibles in R (in particular, x is not irreducible) and conclude that R is not a U.F.D.
4. Show x is not prime in R and describe the quotient ring $R/(x)$.

Proof. Since any subring of an integral domain containing 1 is an integral domain, the ring of polynomials over a field is an integral domain, and R contains the 1 of $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, R is an integral domain. An element of a subring can only be a unit if it is also a unit in the parent ring, as its inverse is necessarily in the parent; the units of $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ are exactly \mathbb{Q} , so the only possible units are the constant polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, which include the constant polynomials in R . Those constant polynomials form a further subring, \mathbb{Z} , in which the only units are ± 1 , so these are the only units of R .

Suppose $f(x)$ is irreducible in R , meaning for all $p(x), q(x) \in R$ such that if $f(x) = p(x)q(x)$, one of $p(x), q(x)$ is a unit, i.e. equal to ± 1 . Break into cases based on degree: if f has degree zero, $f = pq$ for $f, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ implying $p, q = \pm 1$ is precisely the definition of irreducibility in \mathbb{Z} , so f is a prime integer $\pm p$ for a positive prime p . If f has degree greater than zero, then it must have constant term equal to ± 1 , as otherwise a prime (in \mathbb{Z}) divides the constant term; continuing to divide this prime through to the other terms with rational coefficients yields a (non-unit, since it has a non-constant term by the degree assumption) polynomial whose product with the prime divided by (which is also non-unit by definition of prime) equals the supposedly irreducible polynomial one started with. If a polynomial with constant coefficient ± 1 is reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, then the product of the factors' constant terms must be ± 1 ; the product formula gives the 0th coefficient of a product as the product of the constant terms of the factors alone. The product of two rational numbers being ± 1 implies that one is \pm the inverse of the other, and since for the integers, the only units are ± 1 , if an element of R is reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ then it must reduce into factors with constant coefficient ± 1 , which are again an element of R . Accordingly, we've shown "in R , possibly irreducible constant coefficient, and reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x] \Rightarrow$ reducible in R ," so if an element is not reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, then it's either not in R , doesn't have a possibly irreducible constant coefficient, or is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$; the first two cannot hold, so irreducible elements of R with degree larger than 0 are irreducible

in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ with constant coefficient ± 1 . Since $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a polynomial ring over a field, it is a Euclidean domain, and so irreducible and prime are equivalent. Accordingly, these elements are also prime in the subring R , as if $a \mid bc \Rightarrow a \mid b \vee a \mid c$ for all b, c in a parent ring, then certainly the same holds when b, c are restricted to R .

If $x = p_1(x)p_2(x) \cdots p_n(x)$ for p_i irreducible, then the above implies that each p_i either is a prime integer or a non-constant polynomial with constant coefficient ± 1 ; the degrees must match, so that of the right must be 1, but then the only non-constant factor is a single degree-1 polynomial, as adding anything more would make this degree too big. Since all irreducible, degree-1 polynomials must have a constant term ± 1 , and, consequently, the product must have a product of the primes making up the rest of the factors as its constant term, it is impossible for x to be factored into irreducibles. This implies R is not a U.F.D.

Since x is also not irreducible, it cannot be prime, as prime implies irreducible in a general integral domain. Accordingly, since R/I is an integral domain iff I is a prime ideal, and (x) is not a prime ideal by definition of a prime element, the quotient ring $R/(x)$ is not an integral domain. \square

Problem 7 (D&F 9.4.1). *Determine whether the following polynomials are irreducible in the rings indicated. For those that are reducible, determine their factorization into irreducibles. The notation \mathbb{F}_p denotes the finite field $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, p a prime*

1. $x^2 + x + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$.
2. $x^3 + x + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_3[x]$.
3. $x^4 + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_5[x]$.
4. $x^4 + 10x^2 + 1$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Proof. $x^2 + x + 1$ has no root in \mathbb{F}_2 ($1 + 1 + 1 \equiv 0 + 0 + 1 = 1 \pmod{2}$), so it is irreducible. $x^3 + x + 1$ has root $x = 1$ in \mathbb{F}_3 ($1 + 1 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$), so it is reducible; the linear factor with root 1 divides it, so $x^3 + x + 1 = (x - 1)(x^2 + x + 2)$ (using $-2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$); the latter has no roots ($0 + 0 + 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, $1 + 1 + 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, $1 + 2 + 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$), and so this is a factorization into irreducibles. We have $(x^2 + 2)(x^2 - 2) = x^4 - 4 = x^4 + 1$ (since $-4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$); $x^2 + 2$ has no root in \mathbb{F}_5 ($2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$, $3 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$, $6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, $11 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, $16 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$) and so is irreducible, and likewise for $x^2 - 2$ ($-2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$, $-1 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$, $2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$, $7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$, $14 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$).

Taking the quotient ring $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$, the polynomial reduces to $x^4 + 1$ over \mathbb{F}_5 , which is irreducible by the above; accordingly, it is also irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. \square

Appendix

This is entirely for my own records and interest. I attempted to argue in problem 8.3.5 that 2 was prime, which required a lot of bookkeeping to handle a bunch of cases. As such, I used notation inspired by Fitch notation for natural deduction to keep track of what's been refuted.

1	$2 \mid (a + b\sqrt{-n})(c + d\sqrt{-n})$	
2	$2 \mid (ac - bdn) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{-n}$	Distributing
3	$(2 \mid ac)$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (2)
4	$(2 \mid bdn)$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (2)
5	$(2 \mid ad)$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (2)
6	$(2 \mid bc)$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (2)
7	$2 \mid a \vee 2 \mid c$	2 is prime in \mathbb{Z} (3)
8	$2 \mid b \vee 2 \mid d \vee 2 \mid n$	2 is prime in \mathbb{Z} (4)
9	$2 \mid a \vee 2 \mid d$	2 is prime in \mathbb{Z} (5)
10	$2 \mid b \vee 2 \mid c$	2 is prime in \mathbb{Z} (6)
11	$2 \nmid a$	
12	$2 \mid c$	\vee -Elim (7)
13	$2 \mid d$	\vee -Elim (9)
14	$2 \mid (c + d\sqrt{-n})$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (12, 13)
15	$2 \mid a$	
16	$2 \nmid c$	
17	$2 \mid b$	\vee -Elim (10)
18	$2 \mid (a + b\sqrt{-n})$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (15, 17)
19	$2 \mid c$	
20	$2 \mid b$	
21	$2 \mid (a + b\sqrt{-n})$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (15, 20)
22	$2 \nmid b$	
23	$2 \mid d \vee 2 \mid n$	\vee -Elim (8)
24	$2 \mid d$	
25	$2 \mid (c + d\sqrt{-n})$	$a \mid (b + c) \Leftrightarrow a \mid b \wedge a \mid c$ (19, 24)
26	$2 \nmid d$	
27	$2 \mid n$	\vee -Elim (23)
28	$4 \mid ad$	Product of two multiples of 2 (15, 19)
29	$4 \mid bdn$	$ac - bdn = 2 \Rightarrow ac \pmod{4} = 2 + bdn \pmod{4} = 0$

At this point, one is stuck; one might hope to find a modular or linear algebraic argument that leads to contradiction in this last case, but it's to no avail. However, the logical elimination of all

of these cases provides a significant computational simplification. An even more naïve algorithm wouldn't be impossible to run, because the first example is pretty small, but this suggests seeking an algorithmic solution may be productive. I did the following, in GNU Guile:

```
(use-modules (srfi srfi-1) (ice-9 pretty-print))

;; Cartesian product of sets, implemented on lists.
(define (cart-product lists)
  (fold-right (lambda (xs ys)
    (append-map (lambda (x)
      (map (lambda (y)
        (cons x y))
        ys))
      xs))
    '())
    lists))

;; Cartesian power of a single set, implemented on lists.
;; These first two functions
(define (cart-power xs n)
  (if (= n 1)
      (map list xs)
      (cart-product (map (lambda (-) xs)
        (iota n)))))

;; Check if the 5-tuple of the form (a,b,c,d,n) representing the product
;; (a + b√-n)(c + d√-n) has the desired form.
;; Doesn't check for square-freeness, as that'd add factorization complexity;
;; it's easy enough to do that by inspection.
(define (suitable? five)
  (and
    (= (modulo (car five) 2) 0)
    (not (= (modulo (cadr five) 2) 0))
    (= (modulo (caddr five) 2) 0)
    (not (= (modulo (cadddr five) 2) 0))
    (> (car (cddddr five)) 3)))

;; Run through the pair products in R with entries smaller than ``limit''
;; that satisfy the criteria and check if they multiply to 2.
(define (check target limit start)
  (filter (lambda (five)
    (= 2
      (- (* (car five)
        (caddr five))
        (* (cadr five)
          (cadddr five))
      )))
    (range start limit)))
```

```

(caddr five)
(car (cddddr five))))))
(filter suitable?
  (cart-power (iota limit start) 5))))

(check 15 -2)
;; => ((2 1 4 1 6) (4 1 2 1 6) (4 1 8 5 6) (4 5 8 1 6) (8 1 4 5 6) ...)

```