

Ring Theory

Defn: A ring 'R' is a set with two binary operations called (+) addition and multiplication (.) which satisfying the following properties :-

- 1) $(R, +)$ is an abelian group with identity 0.
- 2) Multiplication is associative i.e., $(ab)c = a(bc) \quad \forall a, b, c \in R$.
- 3) $\exists 1 \in R$ s.t. $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in R$.
- 4) Distributive law.

$$(a+b)c = ac + bc$$

$$c(a+b) = ca + cb \quad \forall a, b, c \in R$$

If in addition $ab = ba \quad \forall a, b \in R$
then R is called commutative ring.

Example :-

- 1.) $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Q}$ are all commutative ring.
- 2.) $M_n(R) = \text{set of all } n \times n \text{ matrices over } R$.
 $\boxed{\text{It is ring which is not commutative for } n \geq 2.}$
- 3.) $C(R) = \{f: R \rightarrow R^{\mathbb{R}} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$
 $\boxed{\text{is a ring w.r.t}}$

$$(f+g)x = f(x) + g(x) \quad \text{and}$$

$$(fg)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x) \quad \text{which is commutative.}$$
- 4.) Let R be any ring. $R[x] = \text{set of all polynomials in } x \text{ with coeff. in } R$.
 \rightarrow If R is commutative then $R[x]$ is a commutative ring.
- 5.) Any field is a ring.

6) The zero ring $R = \{0\}$ consists of a single element 0. In which the multiplicative identity is same as additive identity.

Remark: Let R be a ring in which $1 = 0$, then R is the zero ring.

Proof: Let $a \in R$, then $a = a \cdot 1 = a \cdot 0 = 0$. Hence R is a zero ring.

Defn: An element $u \neq 0 \in R$ is called a unit in R if there is some $v \in R$ s.t. $uv = vu = 1$. The set of units in R is denoted by R^\times .

Example: 1) The units in \mathbb{Z} are called 1 and -1.
2) In $R[x]$ the units are non-zero constant polynomials.

Defn: Let R be a ring. A non-zero element $a \in R$ is called a zero divisor if \exists a non-zero element $b \in R$ s.t. $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$.

Example: Consider the ring $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$.

$\bar{2} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{0}$, but $\bar{2} \neq \bar{0}$, $\bar{3} \neq \bar{0}$
So $\bar{2}$ is a zero divisor.

If a is a zero divisor then $a \cdot b = 0$.

* Observe that a zero divisor (can) never be a unit. Suppose that a is a unit and a is a zero divisor then \exists a non-zero b s.t. $ab = 0$.

(But if a is a unit then a^{-1} exists such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = 1$)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{S.t., } a \cdot a' &= a' \cdot a = 1 \\ &= a' \cdot (ab) = a' \cdot 0 \\ &= (a' \cdot a) b = 0 \\ &= b = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Defn - A subring of a ring R is a subgroup of R which is closed under multiplication, and contains 1 .

Example: \mathbb{Z} is a subring of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{Z} is a subring of R .

Proposition: Let R be a ring. Then

$$1) 0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 0 \quad \forall a \in R$$

$$2) (-a) \cdot b = a \cdot (-b) = -ab \in R$$

$$3) (-a) \cdot (-b) = ab$$

$$4) (-a)^2 = (-1) \cdot a \quad \forall a \in R.$$

* Ring Homomorphism:

Let R and S be two rings. Then a map,

$\phi: R \rightarrow S$ is called a ring homomorphism if

$$\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b), \quad \text{and}$$

$$\phi(ab) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b), \quad \text{and}$$

$$\phi(0_R) = 0_S. \quad \rightarrow \text{additive identity preserved}$$

when homomorphism is in unit rings:- (In all books).
then one more property of multiply identity pres.

$$\phi(1_R) = 1_S.$$

in case of unit ring -

Defⁿ let,
then, ke
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* Subring

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$$(S, +, \cdot, 0)$$

a set

Asian elephants live in the
tropical forests
Asian elephants live in the
tropical grasslands
Asian elephants live in the
other

$R[\alpha]$ \Rightarrow R is commutative

Defⁿ Let, $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism
then, $\ker \phi = \{a \in R \mid \phi(a) = 0\}$

Ex: Is the $\ker \phi$ a subring of R ?

* Subring :-

It is a subset of $(R, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ that preserves
the structure of the ring, i.e., a ring
 $(S, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ with $S \subseteq R$. Equivalently it is both
a subgroup of $(R, +, 0)$ and a submonoid of
 $(R, \cdot, 1)$.

S/3/19. Always assume rings are always wrt multiplication.

Defⁿ: Let, $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homo. Then
 $\ker \phi = \{a \in R \mid f(a) = 0\}$.
An bijective homo. is called an isomorphism.
→ This is the subring.

Proposition: Let $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homo.

- (1) The image of ϕ is a subring of S .
- (2) The kernel of ϕ is not a subring of R unless it is the whole ring. Furthermore, if $\alpha \in \ker \phi$ then $\forall x \in R$, $\alpha \cdot x \in \ker \phi$.

Proof: For any $x \in R$ and $\alpha \in \ker \phi$.

$$\phi(\alpha \cdot x) = \phi(\alpha) \cdot \phi(x) = 0 \cdot \phi(x) = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha \cdot x \in \ker \phi.$$

Defⁿ: Let R be a ring and I be a subset of R . Then I is said to be a left ideal if I is a subgroup of $(R, +)$, and I is closed under left multiplication.
i.e., $x \cdot I \subseteq I$.

and I is said to be a right ideal if I is a subgroup of $(R, +)$ and I is closed under right multiplication i.e., $I \cdot x \subseteq I$.

A subset I which is both a left ideal and a right ideal is called the ideal of R .

Ex & (1) check that
(2) consider
check
(3) Define
 $\ker(\phi) = \{x \in R \mid \phi(x) = 0\}$
claim :-

Note that linear

let,

→ $\phi(x)$

→ where,

$x \in R$

→ $\phi(x)$

∴ $\ker \phi$

★ In a par
prin
deno

$$f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{Ex: } (1) f(m) = \overline{m}$$

check that 'f' is a ring homo.

(2) consider, $f: R[x] \rightarrow R$

$$(2) f\left(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i\right) \Rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \cdot \alpha^i \text{ where, } \alpha \in R.$$

check 'f' is a ring homo.

(3) Define $\phi: \mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow R$ by

$$\phi(f(x)) = f(\sqrt{2})$$

$$\ker(\phi) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \mid \phi(f(x)) = 0\}$$

$$\text{claim: } \ker(\phi) = \{(x^2 - 2)q(x) \mid q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}$$

Note that if $f \in \ker(\phi)$, then 'f' cannot be a linear polynomial.

$$\text{Also, } (x^2 - 2) \in \ker(\phi).$$

$$\text{Let, } g(x) \in \ker(\phi). \text{ and } g(x) = (x^2 - 2)q(x) + r(x).$$

$\rightarrow r(x)$ is strictly linear or const.

\rightarrow where, degree of $r(x) < 2$ or $r(x) = 0$.

$$r(x) = g(x) - (x^2 - 2)q(x)$$

$$\rightarrow r(\sqrt{2}) = 0 \Rightarrow r(x) \in \ker \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow r(x) = 0$$

$$\therefore \ker(\phi) = \{(x^2 - 2)q(x) \mid q(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}$$

* In any ring 'R', the set of multiples of a particular element 'a' form an ideal, called principal ideal generated by 'a' and is denoted by, $(a) = \{ax \mid x \in R\}$ [Here R is commutative].

We may consider the set consisting of zero and elements a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , an ER which is defined to be the smallest ideal containing these elements and it is denoted by, $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \{x_1a_1 + \dots + x_na_n \mid x_i \in R\}$.

In any ring R , the set consisting of zero alone is an ideal called the zero ideal and it is principal ideal. and the whole ring is called the unit ideal denoted by (1) .

The unit ideal is the only ideal which contain an unit.

An ideal I is said to be proper if it is not (0) or (1) .

Proposition. Let F be a field. The only ideals of F are zero and unit ideal.

2) conversely, if a ring R has exactly two ideals then R is a field.

Proof (2)

Assume that R has exactly two ideals.

WTS, $1 \neq 0$.

If $1 = 0$, then it is the zero ring and then it will have only one ideal, which is a contradiction.

Since, $1 \neq 0$. Then (1) and (0) are two different ideals. let $a \neq 0$ be an element of R , $(a) = (1)$, $(a) = (0)$

$\exists b \in F$ s.t., $ab = 1 \therefore a$ is a unit.

Proposition:-

Let F be a field and R' be a non-zero ring and $\phi: F \rightarrow R'$ be a ring homo.

Then ϕ is injective.

Proof:- Since F is a field, therefore $\ker \phi$ is either (0) or (1). But if $\ker \phi = (1)$, then R' will be the zero ring.

$\therefore \ker \phi = (0)$. Thus ϕ is injective.

Defn A ring in which all ideals are principal \Downarrow ideal is called a principal ideal ring (PIR).

Proposition:- Every ideal in \mathbb{Z} is principal ideal.

Proposition:- Let F be a field. Every ideal in $F[x]$ is a principal ideal.

Proof Let, $0 \subseteq I \subseteq F[x]$ be a proper ideal.

\exists a poly of (+)ve degree in I . Let, $f(x) \in I$ having the smallest (+)ve degree. Let $g(x) \in I$.

Then by division algorithm we have,

$$g(x) = f(x) \cdot q(x) + r(x), \quad (1)$$

where, degree of $r(x) <$ degree of $f(x)$

or $r(x) = 0$ {identically equal} (2)

$$\Rightarrow r(x) = g(x) - f(x) \cdot q(x) \in I \quad (3)$$

$\Rightarrow r(x) = 0$ [by minimality of minimal deg $f(x)$] (4)

Remark f. Suppose ideal is gen. by two elements $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, where $f, g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

$\pm = (2, x) = (f)$ where $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.
Since, $2 \in (f)$ $\therefore 2 = f \cdot g \Rightarrow f$ is a const.

\rightarrow Since, $\deg 2 = 0 \Rightarrow \deg f = 0$.

and $f \mid 2 \Rightarrow f = \pm 1$ or ± 2 .

Since, $(1) = (-1) = \mathbb{Z}[x] \neq I$.

$\therefore f = \pm 2$, but ± 2 doesn't divide x ,

so, $x \notin (2)$ or (-2) . $\therefore (2, x)$ is not a principal ideal.

$\therefore (2, x)$ is not a principal ideal ring.

So, $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not a principal ideal ring.

Remark F $\mathbb{Z}, F[x]$ where F is a field are PIR.

* Integral Domain:

An integral domain R is a nonzero ring having no zero divisors, i.e., if $ab = 0$ then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

Example: (1) Fields are int. domains.

(2) \mathbb{Z} is an int. domain.

(3) $F[x]$ where F is a field is an int. domain.

(4) $C(R) = \{f: R \rightarrow R \mid f \text{ is a continuous f}\}$

$C(R)$ is not an int. domain.

Define, $f: R \rightarrow R$ by $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ x & x > 0 \end{cases}$
 and $g: R \rightarrow R$ by $g(x) = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ 0 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$
 Then, $f \circ g = 0$ but, $f \neq 0$ and $g \neq 0$.

Proposition: Let R be an int. domain then $R[x]$ is also an int. domain.

Proposition: Let R be an int. domain if $ab = ac$ and $a \neq 0$ then $b = c$.
Proof: $ab = ac \Rightarrow a(b - c) = 0$.
 Since R is an int. domain, $\because a \neq 0 \Rightarrow b - c = 0 \Rightarrow b = c$.

Proposition: A finite int. domain is a field.

Proof: Let R be a finite int. domain. Let $0 \neq x$ WTS, x is a unit.
 Consider the element $(1, x, x^2, x^3, \dots)$
 $\therefore R$ is finite: $\exists s \in R$ s.t.,
 $x^s = x^s$; $1 + x^s = 0$
 $\Rightarrow x^s (x^{s-1} - 1) = 0$.
 $\Rightarrow x^{s-1} = 1$. [$\because x^s \neq 0$]
 $\Rightarrow x \cdot x^{s-1} = 1$.
 $\therefore x$ is an inverse of x .
 Thus R is a field.

* Quotient Ring:-

Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R . Then we have already seen that the set of all cosets of I forms a group R/I .

want to show:-

R/I has a ring structure. want to define multiplication of two cosets.

$$(a+I)(b+I) = ab+I$$

well defined?

$$(a+I) = (a'+I)$$

$$(b+I) = (b'+I)$$

want to show:-

$$ab+I = a'b'+I$$

$$\Rightarrow a-a' \in I \text{ & } b-b' \in I$$

$$\text{say, } a-a' = I_1 \text{ ; } b-b' = I_2$$

$$ab = (a'+I_1)(b'+I_2)$$

$$= a'b' + a'I_2 + b'I_1 + I_1I_2$$

$$ab = a'b' + I, \text{ where } I \in I$$

$$\Rightarrow ab - a'b' \in I$$

This is well defined!

1st Isomorphism Theorem:-

Let, $f: R \rightarrow S$ be a surjective ring homomorphism. $I = \ker f$. Then $R/\ker f \cong S$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} & \bar{f}: R/I \rightarrow S \\ & \bar{f}(a+I) \\ & \bar{f} \text{ is well def} \\ & \rightarrow \bar{f}(a+I)(b+I) \\ & \text{LHS} = \bar{f}(a+I)(b+I) \\ & \therefore \bar{f} \end{aligned}$$

[not shown
follow]

→ since, \bar{f}

$$\ker \bar{f} = \{$$

$$\dots\}$$

∴

hence,

Example:-

ϕ is

→ check

$\ker \phi$

Note th

$f: R/I \rightarrow S$

Proof

$$\bar{f}(a+I) = f(a)$$

\bar{f} is well defined? check.

$$\bar{f}((a+I)(b+I)) = \bar{f}(a+I) \cdot \bar{f}(b+I) ?$$

$$LHS = \bar{f}(ab+I) = f(ab)$$

$$= f(a) \cdot f(b) \quad [as f is ring homomorphism]$$

$$= \bar{f}(a+I) \cdot \bar{f}(b+I)$$

$\therefore \bar{f}$ is a ring homomorphism

[not shown other prop. For homomorphism as follows from group theory.]

\rightarrow Since, \bar{f} is surjective, so \bar{f} is surjective.

$$\ker \bar{f} = \{a+I \in R/I \mid \bar{f}(a+I) = 0\}$$

$$= \{a+I \in R/I \mid f(a) = 0\} = \{I\}$$

$\therefore \bar{f}$ is injective.

Hence, \bar{f} is an isomorphism.

$$\therefore R/I \cong S.$$

Example:- $\phi: R[x] \rightarrow C$

$$\phi(r) = r \quad \forall r \in R$$

$$\phi(x) = i$$

ϕ is a ring homomorphism.

\rightarrow Check its surjectiveness.

$$\phi(a+bi) = a+bi$$

$$\ker \phi = \{f(x) \in R[x] \mid f(i) = 0\}$$

Note that, $x^2 + 1 \in \ker \phi$

Let, $g(x) \in \ker \phi$. Then by definition of ϕ , where $\deg. r(x)$ is the degree of $r(x)$.

$$g(x) = (x^2+1).q(x) + r(x)$$

$$\text{or, } r(x) = 0.$$

$$r(x) = g(x) - (x^2+1).q(x)$$

$$r(i) = g(i) - 0 = 0$$

$$r(x) \notin \ker \phi. \quad (\text{as } r(x) \text{ cannot have degree 2})$$

$$\Rightarrow r(x) = 0$$

$$\therefore g(x) = (x^2+1).q(x)$$

.. By 1st Isomorphism theorem, $\ker \phi \cong \text{Im } \phi$:

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(x^2+1)} \cong \text{Im } \phi \text{ in } \mathbb{F}$$

$$\text{containing } x^2+1=0 \Rightarrow x^2 = -1$$

any element, $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n$ in \mathbb{F} will be replaced by $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n$.

= How this look like; consider in \mathbb{F} :

$$\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(x^2)} \xrightarrow{\text{midpoint}} \frac{\mathbb{R}[x, y]}{(y^3)} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{degree } y \text{ is at most 2.} \\ \downarrow \end{array} \right.$$

$$\deg. x \rightarrow \text{at most 1}$$

$$* \phi: \mathbb{Z}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[i] := \{a+bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

$$\phi(f(x)) = f(i)$$

$\ker \phi$? (x^2+1) is defined as in ϕ

Ex- Show that, $\mathbb{Z}[i] \cong \mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$

$$1+3i = 0 \Rightarrow (1+3i)^2 = 10 \Rightarrow 10 \in \ker \phi$$

$$3i = -1 \Rightarrow i^2 = 1 \Rightarrow 10 \in \ker \phi$$

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proof:- 1st step. WTS: $f(J)$ is an ideal of S .
clearly $f(J)$ is a subgroup of S . Let $z \in S$,
and $a \in f(J)$. WTS $za \in f(J)$.
Since f is surjective $\exists x \in R$ s.t. $f(x) = z$.
and $\exists b \in J$ s.t. $a = f(b)$.
 $za = z(f(b)) \cdot f(b) = f(xb) \in f(J)$.

2nd step: $f^{-1}(I) = \{a \in R \mid (f(a)) \in I\} \subseteq K$
WTS $f^{-1}(I)$ is an ideal of R .
clearly $f^{-1}(I)$ is a subgroup of R .
Let $a \in R$ and $x \in f^{-1}(I)$.
WTS, $ax \in f^{-1}(I)$.
 $f(ax) = f(a) \cdot f(x) \in I$.

Thus, $f^{-1}(I)$ is an ideal of R .

3rd step: WTS $f^{-1}(f(J)) = J$
and $f(f^{-1}(I)) = I$

It is clear that $J \subseteq f^{-1}(f(J))$

WTS $f^{-1}(f(J)) \subseteq J$

Let $a \in f^{-1}(f(J))$
 $= f(a) \in f(J)$
 $= f(a) = f(y)$

where, $y \in J$.

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow f(a-y) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow a-y &\in K \quad (\text{ker } f) \\ \rightarrow K &\subseteq J \\ \text{so, } a &\in J \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore f^{-1}(f(J)) = J \quad (\text{ker } f)$$

If it is clear that $f(f^{-1}(J)) \subseteq J$.

WTS. $I \subseteq f(f^{-1}(I))$

Let, $a \in I$. $\therefore f$ is surjective $\exists x \in f^{-1}(a)$ s.t. $f(f(x)) = a$ s.e.r.

$$\Rightarrow x \in f^{-1}(I).$$

$$\therefore I \subseteq \{f(f^{-1}(I))\} = I^+$$

Theorem:- Let R be a ring and I is an ideal of R : $R \xrightarrow{\pi} R/I$.

$$\pi(a) = a + I.$$

Is this a surjective ring homomorphism?
 \rightarrow Yes. $\because \pi(a) = a + I$

* By Previous theorem, \exists a bijection

$$\{\text{ideals of } R \supseteq \text{ker } \pi\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{ideals of } R/I\}.$$

Ex:- Let, $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $I = 6\mathbb{Z}$. Then find the ideals of R/I .

Sol:-

$$\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \quad ((\mathbb{Z})^+)^6$$

$$\rightarrow \{0, 2, 4\} \quad \{0, 3\} \quad ((\mathbb{Z})^+)^6 \rightarrow 3 \text{ sets}$$

Theorem:- Let, f homo. and $f^{-1}(S)$ is a

Proof:- $R \xrightarrow{f} S$

Then, $\pi \circ f$

$$\text{ker } (\pi \circ f) =$$

$$=$$

$$=$$

$$=$$

Thus, by

Conversely to

Remark

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Let, J
 (ideal)

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Remark

where,

Theorem:- Let, $f: R \rightarrow S$ be a surjective ring homo. and $J \subseteq S$ be an ideal. Then, $f^{-1}(J)$ is an ideal of R and $R/f^{-1}(J) \cong S/J$.

$$\text{Proof: } R \xrightarrow{f} S \xrightarrow{\pi} S/J$$

Then, $\pi \circ f : R \rightarrow S/J$ is a surjective ring homo.

$$\begin{aligned} \ker(\pi \circ f) &= \{a \in R \mid (\pi \circ f)(a) \in J\} \\ &= \{a \in R \mid f(a) + J \in J\} \\ &= \{a \in R \mid f(a) \in J\} \\ &= f^{-1}(J). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by 1st isomorphism theorem,

$$R/f^{-1}(J) \cong S/J$$

Remark: Let, $\pi: R \rightarrow R/I$ be natural ring homomorphism defined by $\pi(a) = a+I$. Then, $\pi^{-1}(J/I) = \{a+I \mid a \in J\}$

is an ideal of R . $R/\pi^{-1}(J/I) \cong R/J$

By previous theorem,

$$R/J \cong R/\pi^{-1}(J/I)$$

because, $\pi^{-1}(J/I) = J \cdot I$.

Remark: Ideals of R/I have the form, $J/I = \{b+I \mid b \in J\}$ where, J is an ideal of $R \supseteq I$.

* Construction of rationals from integers?
 consider the $\mathbb{F} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$

Define a relation on \mathbb{F}

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff ad - bc = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \rightarrow (a_1, b_1) \sim (a_2, b_2) \text{ and } (a_2, b_2) \sim (a_3, b_3) \\ & \rightarrow (a_1, b_1) \sim (a_3, b_3) \\ & \text{WTS. } (a_1, b_1) \sim (a_3, b_3) \text{ and } a_1 b_3 - a_3 b_1 = 0 \\ & \rightarrow a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1 = 0 \text{ and } a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2 = 0 \\ & \quad \left. \begin{aligned} & a_1 b_2 b_3 - a_2 b_1 b_3 = 0 \\ & a_2 b_3 b_1 - a_3 b_2 b_1 = 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (+) \\ & a_1 b_2 b_3 + a_2 b_1 b_3 = 0 \quad \text{L.H.S. and R.H.S.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow b_2 (a_1 b_3 - a_3 b_1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_1 b_3 - a_3 b_1 = 0 \quad (\text{proved transitivity})$$

$\therefore \sim$ is an equivalence relation.

So, rational numbers are nothing but the equivalence classes.

WTS.

\rightarrow Equivalence class of $(a, b) \in \mathbb{F}$ is denoted by $\frac{a}{b}$.

$\rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is the set of all equivalence classes.

Define $(+)$ and (\cdot) in \mathcal{B} by,

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd} \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{closed}$$

$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}.$$

I said to take, not a, b, c, d such that $b, d \neq 0$

ken ϕ

Theorem: Let R be an integral domain. Then
 \exists a field F and an injective ring
 homomorphism $R \rightarrow F$.

Proof: Consider the $F = \{ (a, b) \mid a, b \in R, b \neq 0\}$.
 Define a relation \sim on F , by $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$ iff $ad - bc = 0$.
 \sim is an equivalence relation.

Equivalence classes of $(a, b) \in F$ is denoted
 by $\frac{a}{b}$.
 $F =$ The set of all equivalence classes.

Define $(+)$ and (\cdot) as follows:

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd} \quad \& \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}.$$

WTS: F is a field.

$$\text{Let, } \frac{a}{b} \neq \frac{0}{1} \Rightarrow a \neq 0.$$

Then, $\frac{b}{a} \in F$ which is the inverse of $\frac{a}{b}$.

$\therefore F$ is a field.

$\phi: R \rightarrow F$ defined by $\phi(r) = \frac{r}{1}$, check ϕ is a ring homo.

$$\text{ker } \phi = \{ r \in R \mid \frac{r}{1} = \frac{0}{1} \}$$

$$= \{0\}$$

$\therefore \phi$ is injective ring homomorphism.

\rightarrow We identify 'R' with $\phi(R) = \left\{ \frac{r}{1} \mid r \in R \right\}$

Defⁿ: F is called the quotient field of R and is denoted by $\phi(R)$.

Ex: (1) \mathbb{Q} is the quotient field of \mathbb{Z}

(2) For $k[x]$ the quotient field is the field of rational functions,

$$k(x) = \left\{ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \mid g(x) \neq 0 \right\}$$

Question: Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R. When is R/I an integral domain?

Let $a, b \in R$ and $\bar{a} = a + I$, $\bar{b} = b + I$. i.e., $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in R/I$. Let $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{0}$.

If R/I is an integral domain then either $\bar{a} = \bar{0}$ or $\bar{b} = \bar{0}$.

Now, it means that if $ab \in I$ then either $a \in I$ or $b \in I$.

Defⁿ: An ideal $I \subset R$ is called a prime ideal iff if $ab \in I$ then either $a \in I$ or $b \in I$.

Proposition: Let R be a ring. Then an ideal P is a prime ideal of R iff R/P is an integral domain.

Ex: (1) $n\mathbb{Z}$ is a prime ideal in \mathbb{Z} iff n is a prime number.

(2) Let us let us
 $k[x]$
 A polynomial
 be irreducible
 constant
 product
 polynomials

8) when
 prime
 $f(x)$
 then
 if
 \Rightarrow WTS.

→ If

→ Definition

→ Spans

(2) Let us consider the polynomial ring $k[x]$ where, k is a field.

→ A polynomial with coeff. in k is said to be irreducible over k if it is non constant and can't be factored into the product of two or more non-constant polynomials with coeff. in k .

Q] When an ideal $(f(x)) \subset k[x]$ is a prime ideal?

$(f(x))$ is a prime ideal i.e., if $gh \in f(x)$
 then, either $g \in (f(x))$ or $h \in (f(x))$.
 if $f(x) | gh$ then either $f | g$ or $f | h$.

\Rightarrow WTS. If $f(x)$ is irreducible then $(f(x))$ is a prime ideal.

\rightarrow If $f(x) \nmid g$ then $\gcd(f, g) = 1$.

$$1 = f p + g q.$$

$$\Rightarrow h = f^{ph} + ghq = f \cdot p \cdot h + f \cdot q \cdot q' \\ = f(ph + q \cdot q')$$

$\Rightarrow n \in (f)^{\text{large}}$ as f is next care

if and only if f is irreducible poly. then $(f(x))$ is a prime ideal.

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totaly
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Proposition
Maxim

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proof:-

or

Since

$\Rightarrow P_m$

in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ $(1+i)$ is a prime ideal.

Proposition: A ring R is an integral domain iff (0) is a prime ideal.

Example: In $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ consider the ideal (2) , is not a prime ideal because $(1+i)(1-i) = 2$,

but, $(1+i) \notin (2)$ and $(1-i) \notin (2)$. suppose $(1+i) \in (2)$, $(1+i) = 2(a+ib)$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = 2a, \quad 1 = 2b$$

which is not possible!

Q.1 when is R/I a field?

Q.2 Now we investigate subjective homomorphism $\phi: R \rightarrow F$ where F is a field & R is a ring.

Defn: An ideal M of a ring R is called a maximal ideal if whenever $M \subset I \subset R$ then either $I = M$ or $I = R$.

i.e., M is not contained in any ideal other

than M and R .

Zorn's Lemma: Let S be a partially ordered set. If every totally ordered subset of S has an upper bound then S contains a maximal element. (Maximal ideal is not necessarily unique.)

Proposition:-

Maximal ideal exists in a non-zero ring.

proof:- consider the set $S = \{I \mid I \text{ is a proper ideal of } R\}$.

under inclusion, S is a partially ordered set. Let T be a totally ordered subset of S i.e., for all $I, J \in T$ either $I \subset J$ or $J \subset I$.
either $I \subset J$ or $J \subset I$.
and $I \neq J$ (otherwise $I = J$)

Let, $U = \bigcup \{I \mid I \in T\}$. Then U is an ideal of R and U is a proper ideal.

By Zorn's lemma ' S ' has a maximal element.

Proposition:-

An ideal M of R is a maximal ideal

if and only if R/M is a field.

proof:- Let M be a maximal ideal. R/M has only two ideals (0) and $R/M = \{M\} \subset (1)$. Since R/M has exactly two ideals so, R/M is a field.

\Rightarrow Prove the converse of above?

Remark: Every maximal ideal is a prime but the converse is not true. Eg., in \mathbb{Z} , (0) is a prime ideal but not a maximal ideal as $(0) \subsetneq (n)$.

Ex: $R[x, y]$. Then, (x) is not a maximal

$$R[x, y]/(x) \cong R[y].$$

$\therefore (x)$ is a prime ideal but not a maximal ideal.

Corollary: The zero ideal is a maximal ideal iff R is a field.

Example ①: In \mathbb{Z} , the maximal ideals are generated by prime integers.

② consider the $k[x]$. Is there a do

Every maximal ideal is generated by an irreducible polynomial.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\in M \\ (f(x)) &\subset (g(x)) \\ f(x) &= g(x) \cdot h(x) \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow In $C[x]$ every maximal ideal is generated by a linear polynomial say $(x-a)$

$\{$ maximal ideals of $C[x]$ $\} \longleftrightarrow \{$ ideals of C $\}$ correspondence.

E.g. What is the structure of maximal ideals in $C[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$.

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$$C[x] \rightarrow C$$

$$\phi(f(x)) = f(a), \quad a \in C$$

$$\ker(\phi) = \{(x-a)g(x) \mid g(x) \in C[x]\}$$

$$\frac{C[x]}{\ker \phi} \cong C$$

$\therefore \ker \phi$ is a maximal ideal.

Every maximal ideal of $C[x]$ is of the form

$$ma = (x-a), \quad a \in C.$$

$$\{\text{maximal ideals}\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{pts. of } C\}$$

→ Extension of above theorem to several variable is one of the most important theorem which connects algebra and geometry.

Theorem: (Hilbert's Nullstellensatz)

Hilbert's Nullstellensatz: If f_1, f_2, \dots, f_r are polynomials in n variables such that f_1, f_2, \dots, f_r have no common root in C^n , then there exist non-negative integers m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r and a polynomial g in n variables such that $f_1^{m_1} f_2^{m_2} \dots f_r^{m_r} + g = 0$.

→ The maximal ideals of the poly. ring $R = C[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ are in 1-1 correspondence with the pts. in C^n .

A pt. in C^n is $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in C^n$.

$$C[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \xrightarrow{\text{evaluation at } (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)} C$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n).$$

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in C^n \iff f(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = 0 \quad \forall f \in I(C[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]).$$

kernel of the map = $(x_1 - a_1, x_2 - a_2, \dots, x_n - a_n)$
 Infact, every maximal ideal of $C[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is
 of the form, $ma = (x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_n - a_n)$.
 No proof - proof in Artin's Book.

The maxim
of general
so, it
which

Defⁿ: Let V be a subset of \mathbb{C}^n . If V can be defined as the set of common zeroes of a finite number of polynomials in n -variables, then ' V ' is called an algebraic variety.

$$V = \mathbb{Z}(f_1, \dots, f_n).$$

Example: In \mathbb{C}^2 every point is a variety because $Z(x-a, y-b)$.

complex line in \mathbb{C}^2 is $\mathbb{Z}(ax+by+c)$ is a variety.

Theorem:- Let f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n be polynomials in

$C[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ and $V = Z(f_1, \dots, f_n)$.

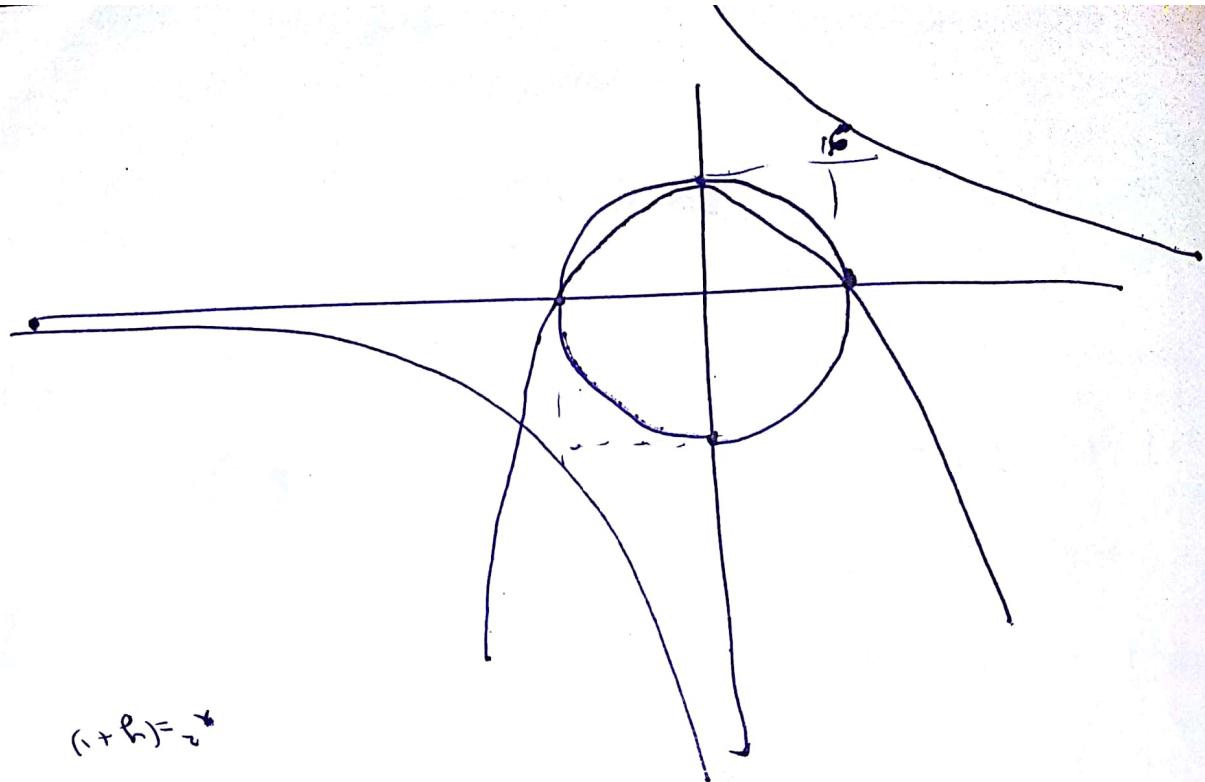
The maximal ideals of the quotient ring

Example:-

$R = \frac{C[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]}{(I)}$ is in bijection with
correspondence with the pts. of $V = S$

proof The maximal ideals of R corresponds to those maximal ideals of $C[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ which contains I .

Now, $(x_1 - a_1, x_2 - a_2, \dots, x_n - a_n) \supset I = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$



Example: $x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ is a circle.

Therefore if I is the ideal generated by $\phi = (f_1, f_2)$, then there is no maximal ideal containing I .
 If $\phi = (f_1, f_2) \subset R[x_1, x_2]$, then ϕ is a prime ideal.
 If $f_1 = f_2 = 0$, then $\phi = (0) = R$.
 If $f_1 = f_2 \neq 0$, then $\phi = (f_1, f_2) = (f_1)$.
 If $f_1 \neq f_2$, then $\phi = (f_1, f_2) = (f_1, f_2, f_1 - f_2)$.

so if $f_i \in M_2$ then $f_i(g) = 0$ for all $g \in V^+(G)$.

So, here, $v(f_1, f_2, f_3) = \emptyset$ so, $1 \in (f_1, f_2, f_3)$.

* Unique Factorization Domain:

Let R be an integral domain throughout.

Defn:

We say an element ' a ' divides another ' b ' then
($a|b$) if $b = aq$ for some $x, q \in R$.

The element ' a ' is a proper divisor of ' b ' if
neither ' a ' nor ' q ' is any unit.

A non-zero element ' a ' of R is called irreducible
if ' a ' is not a unit and has no proper
divisor. [i.e., if $a = bc$ then either ' b ' or ' c '
is an unit].

We say an element ' a ' is prime if (a)
is a prime ideal.

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proposition.

Let R be an integral domain and $0 \neq a \in R$.
If a is prime element, then it is irreducible.

Proof: (a) is a prime ideal. If $a = bc$, then either b or $c \in (a)$.

WLOG, say $b \in (a) \Rightarrow b = ad$, $d \in R$
 $\therefore a = bc = (ad)c$ is a unit.

$$a = a dc$$

$\Rightarrow dc = 1$ ($\because R$ is an int. domain)

$\Rightarrow 'c'$ is a unit. Hence a is irreducible.

Example: ① The irreducible elements of \mathbb{Z} are

prime numbers.

② The irreducible elements of $K[x]$ are irreducible polynomials.

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}] = \{a + b\sqrt{-3} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Consider 2 .

$$2 = (a + ib\sqrt{-3})(e + id\sqrt{-3})$$

$$2 \cdot \bar{2} = (a + ib\sqrt{-3})(a - ib\sqrt{-3})(e + id\sqrt{-3})(e - id\sqrt{-3})$$

$$4 = (a^2 + 3b^2)(e^2 + 3d^2)$$

$\therefore (a^2 + 3b^2)$ must divide 4 , and $a^2 + 3b^2$ cannot be $2 \rightarrow$ Hence, $a^2 + 3b^2 = 4$ and $e^2 + 3d^2 = 1$. (and vice-versa).

$$\therefore d = 0, e = \pm 1.$$

\therefore one of the factors of 2 is an unit.
 \Rightarrow Thus, 2 is an irreducible element.

$(1+\sqrt{-3}) \cdot (1-\sqrt{-3}) = 4 \in (2)$

But neither $(1+\sqrt{-3})$ nor $(1-\sqrt{-3}) \in (2)$

$\therefore (2)$ is not a prime ideal.

Hence 2 is not a prime ideal.

Defn:

A unique factorization domain (UFD) is an int. domain R satisfying that:-

1) every element $a \neq 0, 1 \in R$ can be written as a product of irreducible factors say,

p_1, \dots, p_n upto units namely

$$a = u p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$$

2.) The above factorization is unique if

$$a = u_1 p_1 p_2 \dots p_n = v_1 q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$$

are two factorizations and irreducible elements p_i and q_i with units 'u' and 'v' then $n=m$ and p_i and q_i are associates.

Proposition:

We say that two elements $a, b \in R$ are associates if $a = xb$ for some unit $x \in R$.

Example:-

① $\mathbb{Z}, K[x]$ are UFD.

~~Ex. If R is a principal ideal of R , then every proper ideal of R is maximal.~~

(a) $a \in R$ is a proper divisor of a . $\Rightarrow a \subset (a)$ and $a \neq R$.
Since a is a unit, $a = R$.
 $\therefore (a) = R$ and a is maximal.

Let R be an integral domain and $a, b \in R$,
such that b is a divisor of a .
Then, $a = bc$ for some $c \in R$.

Since a is a unit, $a = R$.
 $\therefore (a) = R$ and a is maximal.

Since the factorization is unique, it follows that
 b is associate with c or $b \mid c$.

Since R is a UFD, it can be decomposed
into irreducible factors.

$\therefore a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n$ and $b = q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$

WTS (a) is a prime ideal, then
 $p_i, q_j \in (a)$ for all i, j .

If a is a prime ideal, a is irreducible.

In a UFD, an ideal a is irreducible if and only if a is a prime ideal.

Defn: An integral domain R is called a factorization domain if every non-zero element of R can be written as a product of irreducible elements.

Proposition:

Let R be an integral domain. Then TFAE

- ① For every non-zero element $a \in R$, which is not a unit, the process of "factoring" a terminates after finitely many steps and result a factorisation of a into irreducible elements.
- ② R doesn't contain an infinite increasing chain of principal ideals.

$$\text{e.g. } (a_1) \subset (a_2) \subset (a_3) \subset \dots$$

Proof: R contains an infinite increasing sequence, $(a_1) \subset (a_2) \subset \dots \subset (1)$

Since, $(a_{n-1}) \subset (a_n)$ $\rightarrow a_{n-1} = a_n b_n$ where, a_n, b_n are not units.

$$\Rightarrow a_1 = a_2 b_2 = a_3 b_3 b_2 = \dots$$

Ex: Do the converse.

Example: consider the polynomial ring $k[x_1]$.
Let $R = k[x_1, x_2, \dots]$

where, $x_2^2 = x_1$, $x_3^2 = x_2$, $x_4^2 = x_3$, $x_5^2 = x_4$, ...

and we can factor x_1 as :-

$$x_1 = x_2^2 = (x_3^2)^2 = \dots$$

we can factor x_1 indefinitely in the Ring R ,
and get an infinite chain.

$$(x_1) \subset (x_2) \subset (x_3) \subset \dots$$

GCD

In our example, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ so we have

$$(a, b) = (d)$$
 where $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a PID

Now, $d = \text{gcd}(a, b)$. $\therefore d \neq 0$

If $\text{gcd}(a, b) = 1$ $\Leftrightarrow (a, b) = 1$

then $(a, b) = 1$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = ua + vb$$

In $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, consider $(2, x)$

Now, $\text{gcd}(2, x) = 1$

but, $1 \neq 2x + xs$

proposition

Let 'a' and 'b' be two non-zero elements of a UFD, and let,

$$a = u p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_m^{e_m} \quad \text{if } (p_i \text{'s are distinct})$$

$$b = v p_1^{f_1} \cdots p_m^{f_m} \quad \text{if not}$$

are unique factorizations of a, b into irreducible where u, v are units, and p_i 's are distinct.

Let the element $d = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n$ be the gcd of a and b .

Def An integral domain R is called a principal ideal domain (PID) if every ideal of R is principal ideal.

Ex- \mathbb{Z} , $k[x]$ are PID.

\Rightarrow In a PID, irreducible elements are prime. Let p be an irreducible element.

NTS (p) is a prime ideal.

Let $ab \in (p) \Rightarrow p \mid ab$

Let, $p \nmid a$. Then $(p) \subsetneq (p, a)$

* $*$ (p) is maximal among all the principal ideals, $(p, a) = (p)$.

$\Rightarrow 1 = pc + ad$ for $c, d \in R$.

Then $b = pcb + abd \in (p)$ (since $ab \in p$)

(p) is a prime ideal.

\rightarrow Every non-zero prime ideal in a PID is a maximal ideal.

Corollary

a PI

proof:

\Rightarrow

Since;

max

Ex:

proof Let (p) be a non-zero prime ideal, and (p) is not a maximal ideal.

Then, \exists a maximal ideal s.t $(p) \subset (m)$.

$\Rightarrow p = rm$ for some $r \in R$.

Since, (p) is a prime ideal, and $rm \in (p)$

then either $r \in (p)$ or $m \in (p)$.

If $m \in (p)$, then $(p) = (m)$ is a maximal ideal of $r \in (p)$, then $r = p \cdot s$ for some, $s \in R$.

$$\therefore p = psm \Rightarrow sm = 1 \quad (\because R \text{ is integral domain})$$

$\Rightarrow m$ is a unit.

Hence it's proved.

Corollary Let R be any ring and $R[x]$ is a PID. Then R is a field.

Proof $\frac{R[x]}{(x)} \cong R$

$\underbrace{R \subset R[x]}$
 $\hookrightarrow R \text{ is an integral domain.}$

$\Rightarrow (x)$ is a prime ideal.

Since, $R[x]$ is a PID, so (x) is a maximal ideal. Hence R is a field.

Ex:- A PID is an UFD.

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Propositions

A 'PID' is an 'UFD'.

proof: WTS. Existence of factorisation in R , which is equivalent to show, R contain no infinite increasing chain of principal ideals. Suppose, $(a_1) \subset (a_2) \subset \dots$

is an infinite chain of principal ideals.

Let I be the union of this chain of principal ideals. Then I is an ideal.

since ' R ' is a PID, so $I = (b)$.

Now, since ' b ' is in the union of the ideals (a_n) , it is one of these ideals $b \in (a_n)$.

On the other hand,

$$(a_n) \subset (a_{n+1}) \subset (b), \text{ (by assumption)}$$

$$\therefore (a_n) = (a_{n+1}) = (b).$$

which is a contradiction.

→ Therefore every element of R can be written as products of irreducible elements. Since every irreducible elements. Since every irreducible is prime so R is an 'UFD'.

Example:- $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is an UFD, but not a PID. ??

→ Euclidean Domain.

Let us now abstract the procedure of division with remainder. To do this we need notion of size of an element of a ring.

In general a size of an integral domain R

will be any function f_n
 $N: R \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$
from the set of non-zero elements of R
to the set of non-negative integers.

Def'n. An integral domain R is an Euclidean domain if there is a size function N on R s.t. for all $a, b \in R$ s.t. $b \neq 0$ there are elements $q, r \in R$ s.t. $a = bq + r$ and either $r = 0$ or $N(r) < N(b)$ where q is called the quotient and r is the remainder.

Ex:- (1) Fields are E.D. where if $N(a) = 0$ & $a \neq 0$ then $a = qb + 0$ where $q = ab^{-1}$.

(2) \mathbb{Z} is an E.D. with $N(a) = |a|$.

(3) If F is a field then $F[x]$ is E.D. with $N(f(x)) = \deg(f(x))$.

(4) $\mathbb{Z}[i] :=$ Ring of Gaussian integers
 $= \{a+bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

is E.D. with $N(a+bi) = a^2 + b^2$.

\rightarrow let $\alpha = a+bi$, $\beta = c+id \neq 0$.

$$\frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \frac{a+bi}{c+id} \times \frac{c-id}{c-id} = \frac{(ac+bd) + i(bc-ad)}{c^2 + d^2}$$

so $\alpha^{-1} = c-id$ and $\alpha^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$

Let p and q be integers closest to τ & s respectively.
 $\therefore |\tau-p| \& |s-q|$ are at most $\frac{1}{2}$.

$$\theta = (\tau-p) + i(s-q).$$

$$\gamma = \beta \cdot \theta = \beta [(\tau-p) + i(s-q)]$$

$$= \beta(\tau+is) - \beta(p+iq)$$

$$= \alpha - \beta(p+iq)$$

$$\therefore \alpha = \beta(p+iq) + \gamma.$$

$$N(\gamma) = N(\beta \cdot \theta) = N(\beta) \cdot N(\theta)$$

$$\geq N(\beta) \cdot [(s-p)^2 + (q-q)^2]$$

$$\leq N(\beta) \cdot \left[\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \right]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot N(\beta).$$

$$\therefore \boxed{N(\gamma) \leq N(\beta)}.$$

$\therefore z[i]$ is an E.D.

Theorem:-

If R be an E.D. then R is a PID.

Ex: Find the units in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

$$\text{if } (u) \text{ is a unit then } u \bar{u} = 1.$$

Example: $1 + 2i$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

Now $(1+2i)(a+bi) = 1 + 2i$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Now $1 + 2i$ is a unit if and only if $(1+2i)$ has a multiplicative inverse.

That is $(1+2i)$ has a multiplicative inverse if and only if $(1+2i)$ is a unit.

That is $(1+2i)$ has a multiplicative inverse if and only if $(1+2i)$ is a unit.

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Field \subset ED \subset PID \subset UFD \subset Int. domain.

- $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is an ED but not a field.
- $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{(1+\sqrt{-19})}{2}\right]$ is a PID but not ED.
- $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[\pi]$ is an UFD but not a PID.
- $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$ is an int. domain but not UFD.

$\mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow$ Ring of Gaussian integers.

If $u \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ then,
 $N(u) = 1$ and the units are $\pm 1, \pm i$.

Defⁿ A prime element in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is called a Gaussian prime.

Proposition:

1) if $N(a+ib) = a^2+b^2 = p$ is a prime number
then $a+ib$ is a gaussian prime.

2) If π is a Gaussian prime then,

$N(\pi) = \pi \cdot \bar{\pi}$ is either a prime number
or a square of a prime number.

Proof:

① Let $\alpha = a+ib$ st $N(\alpha) = p$.

WTS, α is a prime element.

Since, $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is an ED so it is an UFD.
have prime is equivalent to irreducible
element. WTS α is an irreducible element.

\Rightarrow Let $\alpha = \beta \cdot \gamma$ where, $\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$

Then, $N(\alpha) =$
Hence β is
Thus α is
Let π b
WTS. $N(\pi)$
square
 $(\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z}$
integer

$\rightarrow (\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z}$

Exercise Hence,

Theorem:-

- 1) $p =$
- 2) $p =$
- 3) $p =$
- 4) $p =$

Then, $N(\alpha) = N(\beta\gamma) = N(\beta) \cdot N(\gamma) = p$.

Hence either $N(\beta)$ or $N(\gamma)$ is an unit.
Thus α is irreducible have a prime element.

Let π be a Gaussian prime.

WTS. $N(\pi)$ is either a prime number or square of a prime number.

$(\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z} \neq (0)$ since $\pi \cdot \bar{\pi}$ is a non-zero integer.

$\Rightarrow (\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z}$ is an ideal of \mathbb{Z} . and it's a subgroup.

Exercise Show that $(\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z}$ is a prime ideal in \mathbb{Z} .

Hence, $(\pi) \cap \mathbb{Z} = (p)$, for some prime number p .

$\therefore p \in (\pi)$.

$\therefore p = \pi \cdot u$ \rightarrow element of the Gaussian prime.

$$N(p) = N(\pi \cdot u) = N(\pi) \cdot N(u)$$

$$N(p) = p^2 = N(\pi) \cdot N(u)$$

$$N(\pi) = p \text{ or } p^2$$

Theorem:-

The following are equivalent for prime integer p .

1) $p = \pi \cdot \bar{\pi}$, where π is a Gaussian prime.

2) $p = a^2 + b^2$, for $(a, b) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ with $a, b \neq 0$.

3) $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ has an integral soln.

4) $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

$(\pm i)$ is unit of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ if p divides 4 .

proof

$$(1) \Rightarrow (2)$$

Let, $\pi = a + ib$ $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Then, $\pi \cdot \bar{\pi} = a^2 + b^2 = p$.

$$(2) \Rightarrow (3)$$

If $p = a^2 + b^2$ then $a, b \neq 0$.
 $a^2 \equiv -b^2 \pmod{p}$.

Since, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field.

$$\therefore (ab^{-1})^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

$$(3) \Rightarrow (4)$$

Assuming (3) is true we have to prove (4) is true.

Let, p be an odd prime.

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $ma^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

Then, $O(a) = 4$ in the multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$.

Hence, $4 \mid p-1$

$$\Rightarrow p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$(4) \Rightarrow (3)$$

For $p=2$,

± 1 is a solution to $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

Now let $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow 4 \mid p-1$.

consider the group $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ whose order is $p-1$.

{ Go to Sylow's theorem once }

\rightarrow since, $4 \mid p-1$, so there is a subgroup of order 4 in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$.

Let H be the
and let H :
 $a^4 \equiv 1$

$$p \mid a^{4-1} \Rightarrow$$

If $p \mid a^{2-1}$
which is

$$\therefore p \mid a^2$$

Claim: $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$

If $m^2 \equiv$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid (m+1)$$

↓

$$m \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

so, -1

order

$$(3) \Rightarrow (1)$$

Z

$$\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{p}]$$

\downarrow

At " " subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ of order 4
and let H is cyclic group of order 4
 $a^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

$$\Rightarrow p \mid a^{4-1} \Rightarrow p \mid (a^{2-1})(a^{2+1})$$

If $p \mid a^2-1$ then $a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

which is a contradiction since $\text{o}(a) = 4$.

$$\therefore p \mid a^2+1 \Rightarrow a^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

Claim: $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ contains a unique element of order 2.

$$\text{If } m^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow p \mid m^2-1 \Rightarrow p \mid (m-1)(m+1)$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid (m+1) \text{ or } p \mid (m-1)$$

$$\Downarrow \quad \Downarrow \\ m \equiv -1 \pmod{p}; \quad m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

So, -1 is the unique residue class of order 2 in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}[i] &\xrightarrow{\text{isomorphic}} \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(1+x^2)} \\ \frac{\mathbb{Z}[i]}{(p)} &\cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(p, 1+x^2)} \\ \downarrow & \\ \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(1+x^2)} &\cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(p, x^2+1)} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(p)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(p, x^2+1)} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]/p\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(p, x^2+1)/p\mathbb{Z}[x]} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(x^2+1)_{\text{image}}}$$

$$\text{Ex: } \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{p\mathbb{Z}[x]} \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{p\mathbb{Z}}$$

\rightarrow We have $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ has a solution,
s.t., $a^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

Thus, 'p' is not an irreducible element in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Let, $p = \pi \cdot \delta$, where δ and π are not unit.

$$\therefore N(p) = N(\pi), N(\delta) = p^2.$$

$$\text{Thus, } N(\pi) = p, \pi = \pi \cdot \bar{\pi} \text{ (as } \pi \text{ is not a unit)}$$

Corollary: [Fermat's two square theorem]

Let 'p' be a prime no. then 'p' is a sum of two square iff $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Corollary:

The irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ are

1) $(1+i)$ and its associates.

2) Rational primes 'p' s.t., $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

3) If $a+ib, a-ib$ (then here p itself is a Gaussian prime factor of $p = a^2+b^2$)

$p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ for the prime

{in this case factors of p are Gaussian prime}.

\Rightarrow Polynomial rings over UFDs:

Q. 1] Let R be an UFD. Is $R[x]$ an UFD?

→ We know that $F[x]$ is an UFD where F is field.
Let K be the quotient field of R . Then $R[x]$ is a subring of $K[x]$. Since $K[x]$ is an UFD, we try to relate factorization in $R[x]$ and $K[x]$.

Q. 2] Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is reducible then is it reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$?

Q. 3] Is an irreducible polynomial over $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ remains irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[x]$?

E.g:- consider the polynomial $2x \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Then $2x = 2 \cdot x$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and 2 is not an unit so $2x$ is reducible. But $2x$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, because 2 is a unit in \mathbb{Q} .

Defn

Let R be an UFD. The content of $f(x) \in R[x]$ denoted by $c(f)$ is the gcd of coefficients of $f(x)$. If $c(f)=1$ we say $f(x)$ is "primitive"

Theorem:

Let R be an UFD. If $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ primitive then $f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is also primitive.

Proof: Suppose $f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is not primitive. Let p be a prime in R dividing the coefficients of $f(x) \cdot g(x)$.

Consider the following map $\pi: R[x] \rightarrow R[\frac{1}{p}]$

$$\pi(\sum a_n x^n) = \sum \bar{a}_n x^n \quad \{ \text{here, } \bar{a}_n = a_n p \}$$

$$\text{Then, } \overline{f(x) \cdot g(x)} = \overline{0} \text{ in } R[\frac{1}{p}]$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{f(x)} \cdot \overline{g(x)} = \overline{0} \text{ in } R[\frac{1}{p}]$$

\rightarrow Since, $R[\frac{1}{p}]$ is an integral domain. so

$$\text{either } \overline{f(x)} = \overline{0} \text{ or } \overline{g(x)} = \overline{0}$$

Hence, either $P | c(f)$ or $P | c(g)$,

which is a contradiction.

Corollary:

For $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ we have

$$c(fg) = c(f) \cdot c(g)$$

Proof:

Let $c(f) = a$ and $c(g) = b$.

Then, $f(x) = a \cdot f_1(x)$ and $g(x) = b \cdot g_1(x)$.

where $c(f_1) = 1$ and $c(g_1) = 1$.

$$f(x) \cdot g(x) = ab \cdot f_1(x) \cdot g_1(x)$$

Since $f_1(x), g_1(x)$ are primitive so $f_1(x) \cdot g_1(x)$ is also primitive.

$$\text{Hence, } c(fg) = ab = c(f) \cdot c(g)$$

Suppose and $f(x) \& g(x)$ is $f(x) \& g(x)$ proposition?

Let R be a If $f(x), g(x)$ associates associates

Proof: Let $f(x)$

Then, b

Since,

$c(f)$ = b

Since in multiple

a is

$\therefore f(x)$

*Proposition:

* Let R

and

in K

More per-

son co-

Then

s.t.

and

is a

\Rightarrow suppose $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ both primitive
and $f(x) \& g(x)$ are associates in $K[x]$.
(ii) Is $f(x) \& g(x)$ are associates in $R[x]$?

Proposition:

Let R be an UFD with quotient field K .
If $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$ are primitive and
associates in $K[x]$ then, they are
associates in $R[x]$.

Proof: Let $f(x) = \frac{a \cdot g(x)}{b}$ $b \neq 0$ and $a, b \in R$

$$\text{Then, } b \cdot f(x) = a \cdot g(x).$$

Since, $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are primitive so
 $c(f) = b$ and $c(a \cdot g) = a$.

Since in a UFD the gcd is unique upto
multiple by a unit so, $a = ub$ where
 u is a unit in R .

$$\therefore f(x) = u \cdot g(x) \text{ when } u \in R \text{ is a unit.}$$

* * K
proposition:

[Gauss lemma]

Let R be an UFD with quotient field K
and let $p(x) \in R[x]$. If $p(x)$ is reducible
in $K[x]$ then $p(x)$ is reducible in $R[x]$.

More precisely, if $p(x) = A(x) \cdot B(x)$ for some
non constant polynomials $A(x)$ and $B(x) \in K[x]$.

Then there are non-zero elements $r, s \in K$

$$\text{s.t., } r \cdot A(x) = a(x) \text{ and } s \cdot B(x) = b(x).$$

and $p(x) = a(x) \cdot b(x)$ where $a(x), b(x) \in R[x]$

is a factorization in $R[x]$.

[To prove its prove]