

MATH 494: HONORS ALGEBRA II

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1. JANUARY 4, 2017

Rings

Definition 1.1.

a) A **ring** is a tuple $(R, +, \cdot, 0)$ where:

- R is a set
- $0 \in R$
- $+, \cdot : R \times R \rightarrow R, \quad (a, b) \mapsto a + b, a \cdot b$

subject to:

- $(R, +, 0)$ is an abelian group
- $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$
- $(a + b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$
- $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$

b) A **ring with unity** is a tuple $(R, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$, where $(R, +, \cdot, 0)$ is a ring, and $1 \in R$ is subject to $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in R$.

c) A ring $(R, +, \cdot, 0)$ is called **commutative** if $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in R$.

d) A **field** is a commutative ring with unity $(R, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ such that $(R \setminus \{0\}, \cdot, 1)$ is a group.

Remark.

- We don't really need to include 0,1 in notation: they are unique if they exist
- There is a notion of a **skew field**: ring with unity $(R, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ such that $(R \setminus \{0\}, \cdot, 1)$ is a group. (This drops the commutative condition from the definition of a field).
- In French: *corps* is a skew field, and *corps commutatif* is a field.

Fact 1.2. Let R be a ring. For all $a \in R$, $0 \cdot a = 0$.

Proof. $(0 \cdot a) = (0 + 0) \cdot a = 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a \Rightarrow 0 = 0 \cdot a$ □

Example.

- \mathbb{Z} is a ring, commutative, with unity
- $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are fields
- $\mathbb{H} = \{a + bi + cj + dk \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$ where $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$ are called the **Hamiltonian Quaternions** and are a skew-field
- $\mathcal{C}_c(\mathbb{R}) =$ functions on \mathbb{R} with compact support
 $(\text{supp}(f) = \overline{\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) \neq 0\}})$ is a commutative ring without unity
- $R = \{\star\}, 0 = 1 = \star$ is the **zero ring**.

Fact 1.3. If $(R, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ is a ring with unity and $0 = 1$, then R is the zero ring.

Proof. Take $a \in R$. Then $a = a \cdot 1 = a \cdot 0 = 0$ by Fact 1.2. □

Convention: Unless otherwise noted, ring will refer to a commutative ring with 1.

Definition 1.4. Let R be a ring. Its **group of units** is

$$R^\times = \{a \in R \mid \exists b \in R : ab = 1\}$$

Fact 1.5.

- For $a \in R^\times$, there is a unique $b \in R$ such that $ab = 1$. Write $b = a^{-1}$.
- For $a, b \in R^\times$, $a \cdot b \in R^\times$.

Proof.

- Given b, b' , we have $b = b \cdot 1 = b(ab') = (ba)b' = 1 \cdot b' = b'$.
 - $(a \cdot b) \cdot (b^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}) = 1$
-

Example. $\mathbb{R}^\times = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, $\mathbb{Z}^\times = \{1, -1\}$

Definition 1.6. Let R, S be rings. A **morphism** $\phi : R \rightarrow S$ is a map of sets $\phi : R \rightarrow S$ satisfying

- $\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$
- $\phi(a \cdot b) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b)$
- $\phi(1) = 1$

Example. $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \ u \mapsto 0$ is not a morphism of rings with 1. (it is a morphism of general rings).

Fact 1.7. For any ring R there is a unique morphism $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$. Given $z \in \mathbb{Z}$, we write z_R , or simply z for its image under φ .

Example. $5 \in \mathbb{Z}$, $5_{\mathbb{Q}} \in \mathbb{Q}$ usual number 5. $5_{\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}} = 1_{\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}}$

Definition 1.8. Let R be a ring. A subset $I \subset R$ is called an **ideal** if

- I is a subgroup of $(R, +, 0)$
- $a \cdot f \in I$ for all $a \in R, f \in I$.

Definition 1.9. Let R be a ring. A subset $S \subset R$ is called a **subring** if

- S is a subgroup of $(R, +, 0)$
- $a \cdot b \in S$ for all $a, b \in S$.
- $1 \in S$.

Remark.

- The only subset that is both a subring and an ideal is R itself. (reason: if $1 \in I$, then $a \cdot 1 \in I$ for all $a \in R$, meaning $I = R$)

- $I = \{0\}, I = R$ are always ideals.
- In rings without unity, the 2 notions align closer: ideal becomes a special case of subring as $1 \in S$ condition is dropped.

Example.

- Every subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +, 0)$ is an ideal of \mathbb{Z} .
- If F is a field, then $\{0\}, R$ are the only ideals
- Let $R = \mathcal{C}_C(\mathbb{R}), S \in R$ subset.

$$I = \{f \in \mathcal{C}_C(\mathbb{R}) \mid f|_S = 0\}$$

is an ideal

Definition 1.10. An ideal $I \in R$ is called **principal** if $I = \{a \cdot r \mid r \in R\}$ for some $a \in R$. Then a is called a **generator**.

Definition 1.11. Let $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in R$. An **ideal generated by** a_1, \dots, a_n is

$$(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \{a_1 r_1 + \dots + a_n r_n \mid r_i \in R\}$$

Fact 1.12. Given ideals $I, J \subset R$ we have

- $I \cap J$ is an ideal
- $I + J = \{a + b \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$ is an ideal
- $I \cdot J = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \mid a_i \in I, b_i \in J \right\}$ is an ideal

2. JANUARY 6, 2017

Fact 2.1. Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a morphism. Then

$$\ker(\varphi) = \{x \in R \mid \varphi(x) = 0\}$$

is an ideal.

Proof. (A Pranav Exclusive) We first show that the kernel is a subgroup of $(R, +, 0)$. Well, we first show that $0 \in \ker(\varphi)$. Well,

$$\varphi(0) = \varphi(0 + 0) = \varphi(0) + \varphi(0)$$

so, we have that $\varphi(0) = 0$ and thus $0 \in \ker(\varphi)$. Next, we show that inverses are in the kernel as well. If we have that $\varphi(a) = 0$, then we have

$$0 = \varphi(0) = \varphi(a + (-a)) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(-a) = \varphi(-a)$$

Now, we complete this step by proving closure. Assume $a, b \in \ker(\varphi)$. Then,

$$\phi(a + b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b) = 0 + 0 = 0$$

Thus, we have that the kernel is a subgroup. Now, we verify the second condition. Fix $a \in R$ and $f \in \ker(\varphi)$. We have that

$$\phi(a \cdot f) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(f) = \phi(a) \cdot 0 = 0$$

Thus, we have that $a \cdot f \in \ker(\varphi)$, meaning that $\ker(\varphi)$ is an ideal. □

Question: Is every ideal the kernel of morphism?

Proposition 2.2. *Let R be a ring, $I \subset R$ an ideal. Let R/I be the quotient of abelian groups and $p : R \rightarrow R/I$ the canonical projection. Then there is a unique product map*

$$\cdot : R/I \times R/I \rightarrow R/I$$

making R/I into a ring such that p is a morphism.

Proof. For p to be a morphism of rings, we need

- $p(1_R) = 1_{R/I}$
- The following diagram to commute

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R \times R & \xrightarrow{\cdot_R} & R \\ p \times p \downarrow & & \downarrow p \\ R/I \times R/I & \xrightarrow{\cdot_{R/I}} & R/I \end{array}$$

Uniqueness of $\cdot_{R/I}$ follows from surjectivity of $p \times p$ (each element in $R/I \times R/I$ must go precisely to the result of the composition of p and \cdot_R)

For existence, define $1_{R/I} = p(1_R)$ and $(a + I) \cdot (b + I) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a \cdot b) + I$. We have to show this is well-defined (i.e it is independent of choice of a, b).

Well, choose a', b' such that $a' + I = a + I, b' + I = b + I$. Thus, $a' = a + i, b' = b + j$ for some $i, j \in I$. Then

$$(a' + I)(b' + I) = (a' \cdot b') + I = ((a + i) \cdot (b + j)) + I = (a \cdot b + a \cdot j + b \cdot i + i \cdot j) + I = a \cdot b + I$$

as we note that $a \cdot j, b \cdot i$, and $i \cdot j$ are all in I as I is an ideal.

We have that all of the ring axioms for R/I are inherited from the ring structure on R . □

Remark. $\ker(p) = I$

Theorem 2.3. (Homomorphism Theorem): *Let $\phi : R \rightarrow S$ be a morphism of rings, $I \subset \ker(\phi)$ be an ideal of R . There is a unique morphism $\bar{\phi} : R/I \rightarrow S$ such that $\bar{\phi} \circ p = \phi$ i.e.*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & R/I & \\ p \nearrow & & \nwarrow \bar{\phi} \\ R & \xrightarrow{\phi} & S \end{array}$$

commutes. Moreover, $\bar{\phi}$ is injective $\iff \ker(\phi) = I$

Proof. All statements follow from looking at the abelian group $(R, +, 0)$ and its subgroup I , except multiplicativity of $\bar{\phi}$.

(A Pranav Exclusive) Some justification: the uniqueness of this morphism follows because the projection map is surjective, meaning that in order for the composition to be commutative, we must have that each element in R/I maps exactly to where its associated element maps under ϕ . Now, the existence. We simply need to check that the map $\bar{\phi}$ that sends $a + I$ to $\phi(a)$ is well defined and is a morphism. We note that the additive morphism properties are inherited from the fact that ϕ is a morphism itself. So, we check the well-definedness of $\bar{\phi}$. Pick 2 representatives of $a + I$, call them $a + I$ and $a' + I$. We have that $a' = a + i$ for $i \in I$. Then, we have that

$$\bar{\phi}(a' + I) = \bar{\phi}(a + i + I) = \bar{\phi}(a + I) + \bar{\phi}(i + I) = \bar{\phi}(a + I) + \bar{\phi}(I) = \bar{\phi}(a + I) + 0$$

as we have that $\varphi(i) = 0$ for all $i \in I$ (since $I \subset \ker(\varphi)$). We finally verify the injective biconditional. Assume $\bar{\varphi}$ is injective. We already have that $I \subset \ker(\varphi)$. Now, since $\bar{\varphi}$ is injective, its kernel is trivial, and is thus the identity of R/I , namely I itself. For any $g \in \ker(\varphi)$ we note that $g + I$ must belong to the kernel of $\bar{\varphi}$, meaning that $g + I = I$ and thus $g \in I$. This gives us double containment and thus equality. Now, assume that $\ker(\varphi) = I$. We consider $\ker(\bar{\varphi})$. This is exactly the collection $\{a + I \mid a \in \ker(\varphi)\}$. Thus, this is $\{a + I \mid a \in I\}$ and thus we have that $\ker(\bar{\varphi}) = I$. Since the kernel of $\bar{\varphi}$ is trivial, we have that $\bar{\varphi}$ is injective.

Checking Multiplicativity: Let $A, B \in R/I$. Choose $a, b \in R$ such that $p(a) = A, p(b) = B$. Then

$$\bar{\varphi}(A \cdot B) = \bar{\varphi}(p(a) \cdot p(b)) = \bar{\varphi}(p(ab)) = \varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \bar{\varphi}(p(a))\bar{\varphi}(p(b)) = \bar{\varphi}(A)\bar{\varphi}(B)$$

□

Definition 2.4. Let R be a ring.

- Let $a, b \in R$. We say that a **divides** b (denoted $a \mid b$) if there is $c \in R$ such that $ac = b$.
- We say $0 \neq a \in R$ is a **zero divisor** if there is $0 \neq b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$.
- We call R a **domain** (or **integral domain**) if it has no zero divisors.

Fact 2.5. $a \mid b \iff (b) \subset (a) \iff b \in (a)$

Proof. (A Pranav Exclusive) We first show the first forward implication. Assume that $a \mid b$. Then, there is $c \in R$ such that $ac = b$. Now, fix $g \in (b)$. It is of the form br for some $r \in R$. Thus, we have that $g = (ac)r = a(cr)$. Since $cr \in R$, we have that $g \in (a)$.

Next, we show the second forward implication. Assume that $(b) \subset (a)$. Well, $b \in (b) \subset (a)$.

Finally, we show that $b \in (a)$ implies the original condition. Well, if $b \in (a)$, then $b = ar$ for $r \in R$. This is exactly what it means for $a \mid b$! Thus, we have shown equality of the above statements. □

Fact 2.6. (Cancellation Law) If $a \neq 0 \in R$ is not a zero divisor, then for $x, y \in R$

$$ax = ay \Rightarrow x = y$$

Proof. $ax = ay \iff a(x - y) = 0$. $a \neq 0$ implies that $x - y = 0$ as a is not a zero divisor. □

Definition 2.7. An ideal $I \subsetneq R$ is called

- **prime** if $a \cdot b \in I$ implies $a \in I$ or $b \in I$ for all $a, b \in R$.
- **maximal** if I and R are the only ideals containing I .

Example. In $R = \mathbb{Z}$, the ideals are of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$. $n\mathbb{Z}$ is prime $\iff n$ is prime or $n = 0$.

Proof. (A Pranav Exclusive). We start with the forward direction. We proceed by contrapositive. Assume that $n \neq 0$ and that n is not prime. Then, n is composite (we exclude $n = 1$ as we must have a properly contained ideal by definition). Thus, we have that $n = ab$ for some $1 < a, b < n$. Note that we have $ab = n \in n\mathbb{Z}$, but we have that both a and b are less than n , and thus there is no $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $nz = a$ or $nz = b$. This means that $n\mathbb{Z}$ is not prime, as we have found a, b such that $ab \in n\mathbb{Z}$ but neither a nor b are in $n\mathbb{Z}$.

Now, the reverse direction. First, we show the condition for n prime. Assume that we have $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ab \in n\mathbb{Z}$. This means that we have $ab = nq$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. In particular, this means that n divides the product ab . However, we note that as n is prime, we have that n must divide a or b by Euclid's lemma. Thus, we have that either $a = nr$ or $b = nr$ (or both), which implies that $a \in n\mathbb{Z}$ or $b \in n\mathbb{Z}$. Next, for $n = 0$. Well, if $ab \in 0\mathbb{Z}$, then $ab = 0$. This in \mathbb{Z} implies that either a or b is 0 and is also in $n\mathbb{Z}$. This completes the reverse direction. □

Theorem 2.8. Let R be a ring.

- i) R is a domain $\iff \{0\}$ is prime.
- ii) R/I is a domain $\iff I \subset R$ is a prime ideal.
- iii) Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a morphism, S a domain. Then $\ker(\varphi)$ is prime. The converse is true if φ is surjective.
- iv) R is a field $\iff \{0\}$ is maximal.
- v) R/I is a field $\iff I \subset R$ is a maximal ideal.
- vi) Every field is a domain.
- vii) Every maximal ideal is prime.

Proof. We first claim that iii) implies ii) which in turn implies i). First, for iii) implies ii), we note that letting S be R/I (which means φ is the projection map p (which is definitely surjective)) gives us ii). (We have that $\ker(p) = I$).

ii) implies i) simply by letting I be the zero ideal.

Now, we prove statement iii).

Let $a, b \in R$ such that $a \cdot b \in \ker(\varphi)$. Then $0 = \varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$. Since we have that S is a domain, then we have no zero divisors, meaning that either $\varphi(a) = 0$ or $\varphi(b) = 0$. This in turn implies that either $a \in \ker(\varphi)$ or $b \in \ker(\varphi)$, so we have show that $\ker(\varphi)$ is a prime ideal. Now, the converse assuming surjectivity. We want to show that S has no zero divisors. Well, fix $A, B \in S$ such that $A \cdot B = 0$. Since φ is surjective, we have $a, b \in R$ such that $\varphi(a) = A$ and $\varphi(b) = B$. Then, we have $0 = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab)$, meaning that ab is in $\ker(\varphi)$. Because we assume that $\ker(\varphi)$ is prime, this in turn implies that either a or b is in $\ker(\varphi)$ meaning that either $\varphi(a) = 0$ or $\varphi(b) = 0$. This means that either A or B is 0, and thus S is a domain, as desired.

Next, note that v) implies iv). This comes from letting I be the zero ideal.

The proof of v) comes from the bijection

$$\{\text{ideals in } R \text{ containing } I\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{ideals in } R/I\}$$

This is a homework problem.

Now, we show vi). Assume that F is a field. Pick $a, b \in F$ such that $a \cdot b = 0$ with $a \neq 0$. We will show that b must be 0, thereby showing that F is a domain. Well, since $a \neq 0$, and $F \setminus \{0\}$ is a group, we have that a^{-1} exists. Thus, we have that $ab = 0$ implies that $a^{-1}ab = 0$ and thus $b = 0$, as desired.

vii) follows from the facts vi), v) and ii). We have that

$$I \text{ is a maximal ideal} \xLeftrightarrow{\text{v}} R/I \text{ is a field} \xRightarrow{\text{vi}} R/I \text{ is a domain} \xLeftrightarrow{\text{ii}} I \text{ is prime.}$$

□

3. JANUARY 9, 2017

Definition 3.1. Let R be a domain. The canonical morphism $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$ of Fact 1.7 has a prime ideal as its kernel. By Thm 2.8, this is of the form $p\mathbb{Z}$ with p prime or $p = 0$. We call p the **characteristic** of R .

Example.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{char}(\mathbb{Z}) &= 0 & \text{char}(\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}) &= 3 \\ \text{char}(\mathbb{Q}) &= 0 & \text{char}(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}) &\text{ doesn't exist! } \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \text{ is not a domain.} \end{aligned}$$

Lemma. (Zorn's Lemma) (from Artin). An **inductive** (every totally ordered subset has an upper bound) partially ordered set S has at least one maximal element.

Theorem 3.2. Let R be a ring. Every proper ideal is contained in a max ideal.

Proof. Let $I \subset R$ be a proper ideal. Let \mathcal{M} be the set of all proper ideals of R that contain I , with partial order given by inclusion.

Let $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{M}$ be a totally ordered subset.

Claim. $J_0 = \left(\bigcup_{J \in \mathcal{C}} J \right) \in \mathcal{M}$

Proof. (of claim). We want to show that J_0 is a proper ideal containing I . First, we show it is an ideal by showing closure of the subgroup and the ideal multiplicative closure. Let $f_1, f_2 \in J_0$ and $a \in R$. Now, this means there is $J_1, J_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $f_1 \in J_1$ and $f_2 \in J_2$. However, since \mathcal{C} is totally ordered, we have that the larger of J_1 and J_2 contains both f_1 and f_2 , meaning that we have the existence of $J \in \mathcal{C}$ such that $f_1, f_2 \in J$. Since J is an ideal, we have that $f_1 + f_2 \in J$ and that $a \cdot f_1 \in J$. This thus implies that since $J \in \mathcal{C}$, we have that $a \cdot f_1$ and $f_1 + f_2$ are both in J_0 . Thus J_0 is an ideal. Since $I \in \mathcal{C}$, we also have that $I \subset J_0$. Finally, J_0 is not R , because otherwise $1 \in J_0$, which would mean that $1 \in J$ for some $J \in \mathcal{C}$. This would then imply that that $J = R$, which is not possible as J itself is a proper ideal. Thus, we have that $J_0 \in \mathcal{M}$. \square

Thus, for every totally ordered subset of \mathcal{M} , we have the existence of an upper bound (namely J_0). This gives us, by Zorn's Lemma, that \mathcal{M} has a maximal element. This maximal element is exactly what we wished to show existed. \square

Definition 3.3. Let R, S be rings. Their product is the set $R \times S$ with component-wise operations

- $(r, s) + (r', s') = (r + r', s + s')$
- $(r, s) \cdot (r', s') = (r \cdot r', s \cdot s')$
- $1_{R \times S} = (1_R, 1_S), 0_{R \times S} = (0_R, 0_S)$

Remark. Given morphisms $\varphi_1 : R \rightarrow S_1, \varphi_2 : R \rightarrow S_2$, we get a unique morphism $\varphi_1 \times \varphi_2 : R \rightarrow S_1 \times S_2$.

Remark. Given $I, J \subset R$ ideals we have

$$I \cdot J \subset I \cap J \subset I, J \subset I + J$$

Definition 3.4. Two ideals $I, J \subset R$ are **coprime** if $I + J = R$.

Theorem 3.5. (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let R be a ring, $I_1, \dots, I_n \subset R$ be pairwise coprime ideals. Then the natural morphism

$$p : R \rightarrow R/I_1 \times R/I_2 \times \dots \times R/I_n$$

factors through the quotient $R/(I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n)$ and induces an isomorphism of rings

$$\bar{p} : R/(I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n) \rightarrow R/I_1 \times R/I_2 \times \dots \times R/I_n$$

Moreover, $I_1 \cdot I_2 \cdot \dots \cdot I_n = I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n$

Proof. As p is the natural morphism to a product of rings, we let $p = p_1 \times p_2 \times \dots \times p_n$, where each p_i is the projection morphism from R to R/I_i . Now, we can say that $\ker(p) = \{r \in R \mid 0 = p_1(r), 0 = p_2(r), \dots, 0 = p_n(r)\}$. Well, since each p_i by definition has kernel exactly I_i , this is the same as saying that $\ker(p) = \{r \in R \mid r \in I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n\}$.

By the homomorphism theorem (2.3), we have that p factors through $R/I_1 \cap I_2 \cap \dots \cap I_n$ and also induces an injective ring morphism $\bar{p} : R/I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n \rightarrow R/I_1 \times \dots \times R/I_n$.

Claim. \bar{p} is also surjective, and hence a isomorphism.

Proof. (of claim) We note that since each of the ideals are coprime, we have that $I_1 + I_k = R$. Now, we also note that $R \cdot R = R$. Thus, we can express

$$R = (I_1 + I_2) \cdot (I_1 + I_3) \cdot \dots \cdot (I_1 + I_n)$$

expanding the product, we note that by the earlier remark that any term containing an I_1 (which is almost all of them) will be contained in I_1 . The only term that is outside arises from selecting the second term in every single term of the product, so we can write that the above expression is

$$\subset I_1 + (I_2 \cdot I_3 \cdots I_n)$$

Now, since $R \subset I_1 + (I_2 \cdot I_3 \cdots I_n)$, we can take $v_1 \in I_1$ and $u_1 \in I_2 \cdots I_n$ such that $u_1 + v_1 = 1$. Now, since $u_1 \in I_2 \cdots I_n$, $u_1 \in I_j$ for $j \neq 1$. Thus, we can say that u_1 maps to $0_{R/I_j}$ under the projection map, as it is in the kernel.

Similarly, since $u_1 = 1 - v_1$, with $v_1 \in I_1$, we have that $u_1 \in 1 + I$, meaning that u_1 maps to $1_{R/I_1}$ under the projection map.

So, we have (abusing notation) that $u_1 = 1$ in R/I_1 and $u_1 = 0$ in R/I_j for $j \neq 1$ (really, as we showed above, it belongs to the associated cosets).

Now, we can repeat this construction with any I_i instead of I_1 . Thus, we get for each such construction a $v_i \in I_i$ and $u_i \in I_1 \cdot I_2 \cdots \widehat{I_i} \cdots I_n$. With this construction, we now have the existence of the u_i that belong to the 1 coset in exactly R/I_i and the 0 coset in all remaining R/I_j . With this, we can prove surjectivity. Fix any $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in R/I_1 \times \dots R/I_n$. We have that there exists an associated $r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ such that $p_1(r_1) = x_1, \dots, p_n(r_n) = x_n$. Now, if we consider the element $r \in R$ that equals $u_1 r_1 + u_2 r_2 \dots u_n r_n$, note that $p(r) = (p_1(r), p_2(r) \dots p_n(r))$. However, since the u_i map to 1 under p_i and to 0 otherwise, this maps precisely to (x_1, \dots, x_n) . Thus, we have that $p(r)$ maps to the desired element in the product, meaning that the associated coset will map to the desired element under \bar{p} . This proves surjectivity. \square

Thus, we have that \bar{p} is an isomorphism. Now, we show the second part of part of the statement.

Well, we know by definition that $I_1 \cdot I_2 \cdots I_n \subset I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n$. So, we simply need to show the other containment, which we do by induction on n .

$n = 1$: $I_1 \subset I_1$.

$n = 2$: Take $u_1 \in I_1$ and $u_2 \in I_2$ such that $1 = u_1 + u_2$ (this exists as $I_1 + I_2 = R$.) Now, for any $u \in I_1 \cap I_2$, we have

$$u = u \cdot 1 = u \cdot (u_1 + u_2) = u \cdot u_1 + u \cdot u_2$$

Since $u \in I_1$ and $u \in I_2$, we have $u \cdot u_1 \in I_2 \cdot I_1$ and $u \cdot u_2 \in I_1 \cdot I_2$. Thus, we have the sum in $I_1 \cdot I_2$. This gives us $I_1 \cap I_2 \subset I_1 \cdot I_2$.

Now, for general n . By the inductive hypothesis, we have that $I_1 \cap I_2 \dots I_n \subset (I_1 \cdots I_{n-1}) \cap I_n$. From the claim above, we know that $R = (I_1 \cdot I_{n-1}) + I_n$. This implies thus that the ideals $(I_1 \cdots I_{n-1})$ and I_n are coprime. Thus, applying the $n = 2$ case on these 2 ideals, we have that $(I_1 \cdots I_{n-1}) \cap I_n \subset (I_1 \cdots I_{n-1}) \cdot I_n$, thereby proving the desired result. \square

4. JANUARY 11, 2017

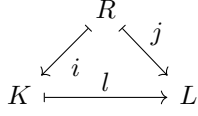
Remark. • Any field is a domain.

- Any subring of a domain is a domain.
- Any subring of a field is a domain.

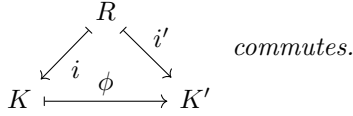
Is the opposite true?

Theorem 4.1. *Let R be a domain.*

1) *There exists a pair (i, K) with K a field, $i : R \rightarrow K$ an injective morphism such that if (j, L) is another such pair, there exists a morphism $l : K \rightarrow L$ such that $j = l \circ i$, which is to say that the following diagram commutes.*



2) If (i', K') is another pair as in 1) there exists a unique isomorphism $\phi : K \rightarrow K'$ such that



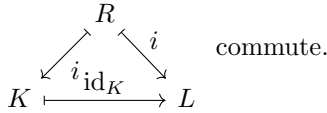
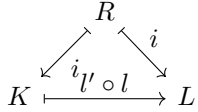
Remark. • (i, K) is an example of a “universal object”

- (j, L) is called a test object
- K is produced from R , just like the rationals are produced from the integers.

Proof. 2) Given two universal objects $(i, K), (i', K')$, apply 1) with (i, K) as the universal object, and (i', K') as a test object to get $l : K \rightarrow K'$. Do it the other way to get $l' : K' \rightarrow K$.

Claim. $l \circ l' = \text{id}_{K'}, l' \circ l = \text{id}_K$

Proof. Note that both $l' \circ l$ and id_K make the diagrams



When (i, k) is both a universal object and a test object, we get $l \circ l = \text{id}_K$. □

1) Consider the set $P = R \times R \setminus \{0\}$. Introduce the relation $(n, d) \sim (n', d') \iff nd' = n'd$.

Claim. \sim is an equivalence relation.

Proof. Reflexive: $(n, d) \sim (n, d) \iff nd = nd$.

Symmetric $(n, d) \sim (n', d') \iff nd' = n'd \iff n'd = nd' \iff (n', d') \sim (n, d)$.

Transitive: Assume $(n_1, d_1) \sim (n_2, d_2) \sim (n_3, d_3)$. We want $(n_1, d_1) \sim (n_3, d_3)$. We have $n_1d_2 = n_2d_1, n_2d_3 = n_3d_2$ and want $n_1d_3 = n_3d_1$. We see that $n_1d_3n_2d_2 = n_1d_3n_2d_3 = n_2d_1n_3d_2 = n_3d_1n_2d_2$. Since R is a domain, n_2d_2 is not a zero-divisor. If $n_2d_2 \neq 0$, then by Fact 6, Jan 6, we get $n_1d_3 = n_3d_1$. If $n_2d_2 = 0$, then $(d_2 \neq 0 \text{ and not a 0-divisor}) \implies n_2 = 0$. For the same reason, $n_1 = n_3 = 0$. Again, $n_1d_3 = n_3d_1$. Either way, we are done. □

Put $K = P / \sim$. Write $[n, d]$ for the image of $(n, d) \in P$ in K . Define

$$[n, d] \cdot [n', d'] = [nn', dd']$$

$$[n, d] + [n', d'] = [nd' + n'd, dd']$$

$$0 = [0, 1], 1 = [1, 1]$$

$$i : R \rightarrow K, i(r) = [r, 1].$$

We leave as homework the verifications that $+$, \cdot are well defined, that K is a field, and that i is a morphism. Injectivity is obvious. Given (j, L) , define $l : K \rightarrow L$ by

$$l([n, d]) = l(i(n)) \cdot l(i(d)^{-1}) = j(n)j(d)^{-1}.$$

Homework: l is well defined and a ring morphism. □

Definition 4.2. A pair (i, K) is called a (the) field of fractions (fraction field) of R .

Definition 4.3. 1) Let R be a ring. A polynomial in T over R is a formal expression $a_n T^n + a_{n-1} T^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$, $a_i \in R$.

2) Given $P(T) = a_n T^n + \dots + a_0$, $Q(T) = b_n T^n + \dots + b_0$ define

$$(P + Q)(T) = (a_n + b_n)T^n + \dots + (a_0 + b_0)$$

$$(P \cdot Q)(T) = (c_m T^m + c_{m-1} T^{m-1} + \dots + c_0)$$

where

$$c_k = \sum_{i+j=k} a_i \cdot b_j.$$

3) Given $r \in R$ we have the constant polynomial $r : (a_n T^n + \dots + a_0, a_0 = r, a_i = 0 \text{ for } i > 0)$. In particular, we have $0, 1$ as constant polynomials.

4) Let $R[T]$ be the set of all polynomial in T over R .

Fact 4.4. $(R[T], +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ is a ring. Moreover $R \rightarrow R[T]$, $r \rightarrow \text{constant polynomial } r$ is an injective morphism. The proof is left as an exercise to the reader.

Definition 4.5. Given $0 \neq P \in R[T]$, define $\deg(P) = \min\{n | a_m = 0 \forall m > n\}$, $\deg(0) = -\infty$.

Fact 4.6. 1) $\deg(P + Q) \leq \max(\deg(P), \deg(Q))$ with equality if $\deg(P) \neq \deg(Q)$. 2) $\deg(P \cdot Q) \leq \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$ with equality if the leading coefficient of P (or Q) is not a 0 divisor. 3) In particular, if R is a domain, so is $R[T]$. The proof is left as an exercise to the reader.

5. JANUARY 13, 2017

Remark. Any $P \in R[T]$ gives a function $R \rightarrow R$ by $r \mapsto P(r) = a_n r^n + \dots + a_0$. However, P is not necessarily determined by this function. For example, let $R = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ where p is a prime and $P(T) = T^p - T$. Since $x^p = x$ for all $x \in R$, P and 0 give the same function. However, $P \neq 0$.

Example.

$P = T^2 + 3T - 2$, $Q = -T^2 + 3T - 7$ gives $P + Q = 6T - 9$ ($\deg(P + Q) < \max(\deg(P), \deg(Q))$)

$R = \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$, $P = 2T^2 + 1$, $Q = 2T^3 + 3T$ gives $PQ = 3T$ ($\deg(PQ) < \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$)

Fact 5.1. Let $\phi : R \rightarrow S$ be a morphism and let $s \in S$. There exists a unique morphism $\phi_s : R[T] \rightarrow S$ such that $\phi_s(r) = \phi(r)$ for all $r \in R$ and $\phi_s(T) = s$.

Proof. If ϕ_s is any such morphism then $\phi_s(a_n T^n + \dots + a_0)$ must equal $\phi(a_n)s^n + \dots + \phi(a_0)$. This proves uniqueness and existence (upon checking that this is a morphism). □

Example.

- If $\phi = id : R \rightarrow R$ then we get evaluation morphism $R[T] \rightarrow R$ given by $P \mapsto P(s)$.

- Let $I \subseteq R$ be an ideal and let $\phi : R \rightarrow R/I \hookrightarrow R/I[T]$ and let $s = T$. We get “reduction mod I ” morphism $R[T] \rightarrow R/I[T]$.

Remark. (def. 1.5) $a \in R$ is **nilpotent** if $a^n = 0$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proposition 5.2. Let $P = a_n T^n + \dots + a_0 \in R[T]$. We have $P \in R[T]^\times$ iff $a_0 \in R^\times$ and a_1, \dots, a_n are nilpotent.

Proof.

Assume that R is a domain. We have that P is a unit iff there exists $Q \in R[T]$ such that $PQ = 1$. By 1-11 Fact 6, $0 = \deg(1) = \deg(PQ) = \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$ (R is a domain so the leading coefficient of P (alternatively Q) is not a zero divisor). Thus $\deg(P), \deg(Q) = 0$. Thus $a_1, \dots, a_n = 0$ are nilpotent and $a_0 \in R^\times$.

Let R be a general ring. Let $\mathcal{P} \subseteq R$ be a prime ideal. Since P is a unit in $R[T]$, the image of P in $R/\mathcal{P}[T]$ is a unit. Since R/\mathcal{P} is a domain by 1-6 thm. 8, by the above argument $a_1, \dots, a_n = 0_{R/\mathcal{P}}$ and thus $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathcal{P}$. Since this holds for all \mathcal{P} , by HW we have that a_1, \dots, a_n are nilpotent. \square

Lemma 5.3. Let $P \in R[T]$ and $r \in R$. We have $P(r) = 0$ iff $(T - r) \mid P$.

Proof. The backward direction is clear. Apply fact 1 with $S = R[T]$, $\phi : R \hookrightarrow R[T]$, $s = T + r$ to get a morphism $R[T] \rightarrow R[T]$. This is an isomorphism with inverse given by the same construction with $s = T - r$. Under this isomorphism, $P \mapsto Q$ with $Q(0) = 0$. Thus $Q(T) = b_n T^n + \dots + b_1 T$ so $T \mid Q$. Taking the preimage under the above isomorphism, we have $(T - r) \mid P$.

Gitlin’s thoughts: The constructed isomorphism can be thought of as the map $R[T] \rightarrow R[T]$ which “replaces every T with $T + r$.” Thus $Q(x) = P(x + r)$ for all $x \in R$. In particular, $Q(0) = P(r)$ which is 0. The inverse map is the map $R[T] \rightarrow R[T]$ which “replaces every T with $T - r$.” In particular, the preimage of $Q(T) = b_n T^n + \dots + b_1 T$ is $b_n(T - r)^n + \dots + b_1(T - r)$. \square

Proposition 5.4. Let $P, D \in R[T]$. Assume that $D \neq 0$ and that the leading coefficient of D is a unit. There exist unique $Q, Z \in R[T]$ with $\deg(Z) < \deg(D)$ such that $P = QD + Z$.

Proof.

Choose Q so that $\deg(Z)$ is minimal where $Z = P - QD$. We claim $\deg(Z) < \deg(D)$. Suppose not. Let $D = d_n T^n + \dots + d_0$ and $Z = z_m T^m + \dots + z_0$ with $m \geq n$. Note that $P - (Q + z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D = Z - (z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D$ has degree less than $\deg(Z)$, contradicting the minimality of Z . This shows existence.

Gitlin’s thoughts: The set of “candidates” is the set of elements of $R[T]$ that have the form $P - *D$ where $*$ varies over $R[T]$. Clearly $P - (Q + z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D$ is a candidate. Furthermore, the leading term $z_m T^m$ of Z cancels with the leading term $z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n} \cdot d_n T^n = z_m T^m$ of $(z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D$ in the subtraction $Z - (z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D$ so the degree of Z is at least one more than the degree of $Z - (z_m d_n^{-1} T^{m-n})D$.

Let Q', Z' be another such pair. We have $QD + Z = P = Q'D + Z'$ so $(Q - Q')D = Z' - Z$. Thus (1-11 fact 6) $\deg(D) > \max(\deg(Z'), \deg(Z)) \geq \deg(Z' - Z) = \deg((Q - Q')D) = \deg(Q - Q') + \deg(D)$ (the leading coefficient of D is a unit and thus not a divisor of zero). This means $\deg(Q - Q') = -\infty$ so $Q - Q' = 0$ so $Q = Q'$. Thus $Z = P - QD = P - Q'D = Z'$. This shows uniqueness.

Gitlin’s thoughts: My uniqueness proof likely differs from the one given in class. Sorry Tasho. I couldn’t follow your inequalities. \square

6. JANUARY 18, 2017

Lemma 6.1. (This is Lemma 3 from Jan. 13) Given $P \in R[T]$, $r \in R$, then $P(r) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (T - r) \mid P$.

Proposition 6.2. (This is Proposition 4 from Jan. 13) Given $P, D \in R[T]$ such that D has a unit as a leading coefficient, there exists unique $Q, Z \in R[T]$ with $\deg(Z) < \deg(D)$ such that $P = DQ + Z$.

Proof. This proof rehashes the one given in class by Tasho to rectify any mistakes or lack of clarity in the one given on Jan. 13 (no offense Gitlin). Following the proof given on Jan. 13 (before the proof of uniqueness), we have the following string of inequalities:

$$\deg(D) > \deg(Z) \geq \deg(Z - Z') = \deg(D) + \deg(Q - Q').$$

This implies that $\deg(Q - Q') = -\infty = \deg(Z - Z')$, so $Q - Q' = Z - Z' = 0$, i.e. $Q = Q'$ and $Z = Z'$, completing the proof. \square

The following is a proof Tasho gave of Lemma 3 from Jan. 13 which utilizes Proposition 4 from Jan. 13.

Proof. As per Proposition 4, write $P(T) = (T - r) \cdot Q(T) + Z(T)$ with $\deg(Z) < \deg(T - r) = 1 \Rightarrow Z \in R$. We have then $P(r) = (r - r) \cdot Q(r) + Z(r) = Z$, but since $P(r) = 0$ we have now $Z = 0 \Leftrightarrow (T - r) \mid P$. \square

Definition 6.3. Let $P \in R[T]$, $r \in R$. Define **the multiplicity of r in P** by $\max\{n \in \mathbb{N} : (T - r)^n \mid P\}$.

Corollary 1. Let R be a domain. Then $0 \neq P \in R[T]$ has at most $\deg(P)$ -many zeroes, counted with multiplicity.

Proof. We induct on $\deg(P)$. As a base case take $\deg(P) = 0$: $P \in R$ has no zeroes, as required. For an inductive step assume that the statement holds for all polynomials of degree less than $\deg(P)$. If P has no zeroes, we are done. Otherwise let $r \in R$ be a zero of P . By Lemma 3 from Jan. 13, $P = (T - r) \cdot Q(T)$ for some $Q \in R[T]$ with $\deg(Q) < \deg(P)$. By inductive hypothesis Q has at most $\deg(Q) = \deg(P) - 1$ zeroes. Since R is a domain, a zero of P is either r or a zero of Q , so P has at most $\deg(Q) + 1 = \deg(P)$ zeroes, as required. This completes the inductive step, and thus the proof. \square

The following example answers the question “does this fail when R is not a domain?”:

Example. If $R = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ and we define $P(T) = 3T$, then $\#\{\text{zeroes of } P\} = \#\{0, 2\} > 1 = \deg(P)$.

Definition 6.4. A field k is called **algebraically closed** provided that every nonconstant $P \in k[T]$ has a zero.

Proposition 6.5. Let k be an algebraically closed field, $P \in k[T]$. Then

$$P(T) = c \cdot (T - r_1)^{m_1} \cdots (T - r_n)^{m_n}$$

for $c, r_1, \dots, r_n \in k, m_1, \dots, m_n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. This is proved on Homework 2. (Future readers: feel free to input the proof here when completed.) \square

Definition 6.6. Define $\mathbf{R}[T_1, \dots, T_n]$ recursively as $(R[T_1, \dots, T_{n-1}])[T_n]$. More concretely: a **monomial** in T_1, \dots, T_n is an expression $T_1^{m_1} \cdots T_n^{m_n}$, for $m_i \in \mathbb{N}$. A polynomial in T_1, \dots, T_n with coefficients in R is an R -linear combination of monomials; the set of all polynomials in T_1, \dots, T_n is $R[T_1, \dots, T_n]$.

Recall: $P \in R[T] \Leftrightarrow$ an eventually-zero sequence $(a_0, a_1, \dots) \Leftrightarrow$ a map $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow R$ with finite support. So $P \in R[T_1, \dots, T_n] \Leftrightarrow$ a map $\mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow R$ with finite support, so we may think of a polynomial $P \in R[T_1, \dots, T_n]$ as

$$P(T) = \sum_{c_i \in \mathbb{N}} a_{c_1, \dots, c_n} \cdot T_1^{c_1} \cdots T_n^{c_n}.$$

Fact 6.7. Given a ring morphism $\phi: R \rightarrow S$, $s_1, \dots, s_n \in S$, there exists a unique ring morphism

$$\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}: R[T_1, \dots, T_n] \rightarrow S$$

such that $\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}(r) = \phi(r)$ for $r \in R$, and $\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}(T_i) = s_i$.

Proof. We induct on n . As a base case let $s \in S$. Fact 5.1, Jan. 13 above guarantees the existence of a unique morphism $\phi_s: R[T] \rightarrow S$ with the given properties. For an inductive case assume the statement holds for $n-1$. By inductive hypothesis we have a unique morphism $\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}}: R[T] \rightarrow S$ satisfying the given properties. Applying the base case to $\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_{n-1}}$ with $s = s_n$ gives the desired (unique) morphism, completing the inductive step and thus the proof. \square

Definition 6.8.

- The image of ϕ_{s_1, \dots, s_n} is called the **R -subalgebra of S generated by s_1, \dots, s_n**
- s_1, \dots, s_n are called **algebraically independent** provided that ϕ_{s_1, \dots, s_n} is injective.

To gain some intuition about algebraic independence, consider the algebraic relation

$$r_1 s_1^{m_{1,1}} \dots s_n^{m_{1,n}} + \dots + r_n s_1^{m_{n,1}} \dots s_n^{m_{n,n}} = 0.$$

Taking preimages under ϕ_{s_1, \dots, s_n} we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}^{-1}(r_1 s_1^{m_{1,1}} \dots s_n^{m_{1,n}} + \dots + r_n s_1^{m_{n,1}} \dots s_n^{m_{n,n}}) \in \phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}^{-1}(0) = \ker(\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}) \\ \Rightarrow & \phi^{-1}(r_1) T_1^{m_{1,1}} \dots T_n^{m_{1,n}} + \dots + \phi^{-1}(r_n) T_1^{m_{n,1}} \dots T_n^{m_{n,n}} \in \ker(\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n}) \end{aligned}$$

thus if there exists such a relation that is nontrivial, there is a nonzero element in $\ker(\phi_{s_1, \dots, s_n})$, so it is not injective. (Note from Ben: this seems to assume that the coefficients r_i are in the image of ϕ , which is not generally true. Will bring up with Tasho and edit as necessary.)

Definition 6.9. Let R be a ring, $0 \neq a \in R$ not a unit.

- a is called **irreducible** provided that $a = bc \Rightarrow b \in R^\times$ or $c \in R^\times$.
- a is called **prime** provided that $a = bc \Rightarrow a \mid b$ or $a \mid c$.

Fact 6.10. R a domain \Rightarrow every prime element of R is irreducible.

Proof. Let $p \in R$ be prime and write $p = ab$. Then without loss of generality we have $p \mid a \Rightarrow a = pc$ for some $c \in R$, so we may rewrite $p = pcb$, so $p(1 - bc) = 0$. Since R is a domain and $p \neq 0$, we have $1 = bc$, so $c = b^{-1} \Leftrightarrow b \in R^\times$. \square

Remark.

- If R is not a domain, prime elements need not be irreducible (see Homework 2).
- Even if R is a domain, irreducible elements need not be prime (see Homework 2).

Definition 6.11. Let R be a domain.

- (1) R has **factorization** provided that every $0 \neq r \in R$ can be written $\epsilon \cdot u_1 \dots u_k$ with $\epsilon \in R^\times$ and $u_i \in R$ irreducible.
- (2) Write $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow a = \epsilon \cdot b, \epsilon \in R^\times$.
- (3) R has **unique factorization** provided that R has factorization and if $\epsilon \cdot u_1 \dots u_k = \mu \cdot v_1 \dots v_m$ then $k = m$ and there exists a permutation $\sigma \in S_m$ such that $u_i \sim v_{\sigma(i)}$.
- (4) Such an R is called a **unique factorization domain**, or UFD.

7. JANUARY 20, 2017

Proposition 7.1. *Let R be a domain with factorization. Then R has unique factorization if and only if every irreducible element is prime.*

Proof. Say R has unique factorization. Let p be irreducible. We will show that p is prime. Let $a, b \in R$ be such that $p \mid ab$. Using factorization, we write that $a = \zeta u_1 u_2 \cdots u_k$, $b = \mu v_1 \cdots v_l$, and that $\frac{ab}{p} = \alpha w_1 w_2 \cdots w_m$. From the fact that $\frac{ab}{p} \cdot p = ab$, we have that $\alpha p w_1 w_2 \cdots w_m = \zeta \mu u_1 \cdots u_k v_1 \cdots v_l$. By uniqueness of factorization, we have that these expressions are permutations upto multiplication by units, so we have that $p \sim u_i$ or $p \sim v_j$. In the first case, we have that $p \mid a$ and in the second, we have that $p \mid b$. Assume now that every irreducible is prime. We will show uniqueness by induction on the length of the factorization.

Length = 0: Then, a is a unit, so a is not divisible by any irreducible.

Assume now that the statement holds for a length k factorization. Assume now that we have

$$a = \zeta u_1 \cdots u_{k+1} = \mu v_1 \cdots v_l$$

Now u_{k+1} divides $v_1 \cdots v_l$. But since u_{k+1} is prime, $u_{k+1} \mid v_j$ for some $1 \leq j \leq l$. Reordering the factors, we have that $u_{k+1} \mid v_l$. Since v_l is irreducible, this thus implies that if $u_{k+1}x = v_l$, x must be a unit, and thus $v_l \sim u_{k+1}$. Furthermore, we can write that $\zeta u_1 \cdots u_k = \mu \left(\frac{v_l}{u_{k+1}} \right) v_1 \cdots v_{l-1}$. Applying the inductive hypothesis, we have $l - 1 = k$ and the first k terms are simply a permutation of each other, while the last is simply a unit scaling away from the other. Thus, these are the same factorization. \square

Definition 7.2. A ring is called **principal**, if every ideal is principal. If, in addition, the ring is a domain, it is a **Principal Ideal Domain**, or **PID**.

Example. \mathbb{Z} is a PID. $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ are principal, any field is a PID. Quotients and products of principal rings are principals.

Theorem 7.3. *Every PID is a UFD*

Proof. Let R be a PID. We first show the existence of factorization. Say that $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$, $a \in R^\times$, and has no factorization. Then, a is not irreducible, (as otherwise, it itself is a factorization). So, we can right that $a = a_0 = a_1 b_1$. However, note that one of these must not have a factorization, as otherwise the product of their factorizations is a factorization of R . So, WoLOG assume that a_1 does not have a factorization. Again, a_1 is not irreducible, and we write $a_1 = a_2 b_2$. Recursively applying this argument, we have that $a_0 = a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots$ an infinite sequence with $a_i \neq 0$, $a_i \notin R^\times$ and $a_i \not\sim a_{i+1}$, and $a_{i+1} \mid a_i$. In terms of the ideals, we have that

$$(a_0) \subsetneq (a_1) \subsetneq \dots$$

Now, we consider $I = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} (a_i)$. Since we have a nested sequence of ideals, we have that I itself is an ideal.

We have that R is a principal ideal, which means that $I = (c)$ for some $c \in R$. This means though that $c \in I$, which means that $c \in (a_k)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. However, this means that for any $n \geq k$, we have that $(c) \subset (a_k) \subset I = (c)$, meaning that each $(a_n) = (c)$. However, we assumed proper inclusion above, and this is thus a contradiction. Thus, we have factorization.

Next, we verify uniqueness. We can show this by showing that every irreducible is prime. Let u be an irreducible. We want to show it is prime, so assume that $u \mid ab$. Assume that $u \nmid a$. We will show that $u \mid b$. Since we have that $u \nmid a$, we have that $u \notin (a)$, so we have that $(a) \subsetneq (a, u)$. Since R is principal, we have that $(u, a) = (d)$. Since $u \in (d)$ we have that $d \mid u$. However, since u is irreducible, d must be a unit, or $d \sim u$. We know because $(u) \subsetneq (u, a)$, we have that $d \sim u$ is impossible. Thus, assume that d is a unit. This

means though that $(u, a) = R$. This means that we have $1 \in R$, so $1 = \alpha u + \beta a$ (this is what it means to be in (u, a)). Scaling this equality by b , we have that $b = b\alpha u + \beta(ab)$. Now, since $u \mid ab$ and $u \mid u$, $u \mid b$, as desired. \square

Definition 7.4. A **Euclidean Domain** is a pair (R, H) , where R is a domain, and $H : R \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is a function such that

- (1) $H(ab) \geq H(a)$
- (2) Given $X, d \in R$ with $d \neq 0$, there are $q, r \in R$ such that
 - (a) $X = qd + r$
 - (b) either $r = 0$ or $H(r) < H(d)$

Example. If F is a field, then $(F[T], \deg)$ is a Euclidean domain.

Proposition 7.5. Every Euclidean domain is a PID.

Proof. Let $I \subset R$ be an ideal. WOLOG, $I \neq \{0\}$. Choose $d \in I$ such that $H(d)$ is minimal. To show that $I = (d)$, let $a \in I$ and take $q, r \in R$ such that $a = qd + r$. Then, $r = a - qd \in I$. If $r \neq 0$, we have that $H(r) < H(d)$, contradicting the minimality of d . Thus $r = 0$, and $a = qd$. Thus, every ideal is of the form (d) , showing it is principal. \square

Corollary 2. If F is a field, $F[T]$ is a PID, and hence a UFD.

Definition 7.6. Let R be a UFD. We call $0 \neq P \in R[T]$ **primitive** if $a \in R$ with $a \mid P$ means that $a \in R^\times$.

Remark. This is equivalent to no irreducible $p \in R$ divides all the coefficients of P . Intuitively, we can say the “gcd” of the coefficients of P is 1.

Lemma 7.7. (Gauss) If P, Q are primitive, so is PQ .

Proof. Let $P \neq 0, Q \neq 0$ such that PQ is not primitive. Let $p \in R$ prime such that $p \mid PQ$. Thus, PQ becomes 0 under the $R[T] \rightarrow (R/(p))[T]$.

But $R/(p)$ is a domain by 2.8, and thus, by 4.6, we have that $(R/(p))[T]$ is also a domain. Thus, we have that either P or Q is 0 in $(R/(p))[T]$, meaning it is also divisible by p , as desired. \square

8. JANUARY 23, 2017

Recall: $P \in R[T]$ is primitive if $a \mid P \implies a \in R^\times$. Lemma 8 (Gauss): P, Q primitive $\implies P \cdot Q$ primitive.
 R is a UFD, F is its fraction field

Lemma 8.1. Let $P, Q \in R[T]$, P primitive. If $Q = a \cdot P, a \in F$, then $a \in R$.

Proof. Write $a = \frac{n}{d}$ with $n, d \in R$. Decompose $n = \epsilon n_1 \dots n_k, d = \mu v_1 \dots v_k$ into irreducibles. We may assume $n_i \sim v_j$ for i, j . Then $\mu v_1 \dots v_k Q = \epsilon n_1 \dots n_k P$. So $v_1 \mid n_1 \dots n_k a_i$ for all i , where $P(T) = a_n T^n + \dots + a_0$. Since v_1 is prime, and n_i are irreducible, and $v_1 \not\sim u_1, \dots, u_k$, so $v_1 \mid a_i$ for all i . This contradicts primitivity of P . \square

Theorem 8.2. The ring $R[T]$ is a UFD and its irreducible elements are (1) $p \in R$ irreducible (2) $P \in R[T]$ primitive, and irreducible in $F[T]$.

Proof. Step 1: The above elements are irreducible. Given $p \in R$ irreducible, write $p = PQ$, with $P, Q \in R[T]$. Since R is a domain, we have $0 = \deg(P) = \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$, so $P, Q \in R$. But then either $P \in R^\times$ or $Q \in R^\times$. Let $P \in R[T]$ be primitive, irreducible in $F[T]$. Write $P = QS$ with $Q, S \in R[T]$. Since P is irreducible in $F[T]$, either Q or S lies in $F[T]^\times = F^\times$ by proposition 2, Jan 13th. Say WOLOG $S \in R[T] \cap F^\times = R \setminus \{0\}$. Then $S^{-1}P = Q$. By lemma 1, $S^{-1} \in R$. So $S \in R^\times$. Step 2: Every element

of $R[T]$ has a decompose with factors as in 1), 2). Take $P \in R[T]$. Decompose P as an element of $F[T]$. $P = c \cdot \tilde{Q}_1, \dots, \tilde{Q}_n, c \in F^\times, \tilde{Q}_i \in F[T]$ irreducible. By lemma 3, write $\tilde{Q}_i = c_i \cdot Q_i$ with $c_i \in F^\times, Q_i \in R[T]$ primitive. Thus $P = c \cdot c_1 \dots c_n \cdot Q_1 \dots Q_n$. By Gauss lemma, $Q_1 \dots Q_n$ is primitive, so by lemma 1, $a \in R$. Factor $a = \epsilon n_1 \dots n_k$ in R .

Remark: This shows in particular, that (1)+(2) are all the irreducible elements in $R[T]$. Uniqueness of factorization Let $\epsilon n_1, \dots, n_k P_1, \dots, P_n = \mu v_1 \dots v_l Q_1 \dots Q_m$ with u_i, v_j as in (1) and P_i, Q_j as in (2). Uniqueness in $F[T]$ tells us $n > m$, and after reordering, $P_i = c_i Q_i$ with $c_i \in F^\times$. Applying lemma 1 to $P_i = c P_i Q_i$ and $c_i^{-1} P_i = Q_i$ to see $c_i \in R^\times$. Thus $P_i \sim Q_i$ is $R[T]$. Then $\epsilon n_1, \dots, n_k = \mu \frac{Q_1 \dots Q_n}{P_1 \dots P_n} \cdot v_1 \dots v_l$ and uniqueness in R gives us $k = l$ and $n_i \sim v_i$ after reordering. \square

Lemma 8.3. *Let $0 \neq P \in F[T]$. There exists $c \in F^\times$ such that $cP \in R[T]$ primitive.*

Proof. There is $a \in R$ such that $aP \in R[T]$. Let d be a gcd of all coefficients of aP . Then $d|ap$ and $ad^{-1}P \in R[T]$ primitive. \square

Lemma 8.4. *Let $P, Q \in R[T], P$ primitive. Then P/Q in $R[T] \iff P/Q \in F[T]$.*

Proof. \implies : trivial. \impliedby : Let $Q = P\tilde{S}$ with $\tilde{S} \in F[T]$. By lemma 3, $\tilde{S} = aS, a \in F^\times, S \in R[T]$ primitive. So $Q = aPS$. By Gauss lemma, PS is primitive. By lemma 1, $a \in R$, then $\tilde{S} = aS \in R[T]$. \square

9. JANUARY 27, 2017

Definition 9.1.

- (i) A *morphism of fields* is a morphism of rings whose source and target are fields
- (ii) A *subfield* is a subring of a field that is a field
- (iii) An *extension* of a field k is a field L containing k , denoted L/k .

Remark. If L/k is an extension, then L is a k -algebra, and in particular a k -vector space. An extension L/k is called *finite* if $\dim_k(L) < \infty$. In this case define the *degree* of L/k , denoted $[L : k] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \dim_k(L)$.[§]

Fact 9.2. *If k_1, k_2 are subfields of L , $k_1 \cap k_2$ is a subfield.*

Definition 9.3.

- (i) Every field has a smallest field, called the *prime subfield*, equal to $\bigcap_{k \subset L} k^{\text{field}}$, the intersection of all subfields of L .
Example: The prime subfield of \mathbb{R} is \mathbb{Q} . To see this, observe: any subfield of \mathbb{R} must contain 1 and 0, thus sums of the form $1 + \dots + 1$, so it must contain \mathbb{N} . Throwing in additive and then multiplicative inverses gives \mathbb{Q} .
- (ii) Given an extension L/k and any subset $S \subset L$, let $k(S)$ be the smallest subfield of L containing k and S .

Proposition 9.4. *Let L be a ring and $k \subset L$ a subfield. If L is a domain and $\dim_k(L) < \infty$ then L is a field.*

Proof. Let $0 \neq a \in L$. The map $a \cdot : L \rightarrow L$ that sends x to ax is k -linear, and since L is a domain, injective: if $ax = 0$ then since $a \neq 0, x = 0$. By rank-nullity, the dimension of the image of $a \cdot$ must be equal to that of the target, i.e. $a \cdot$ is surjective. Thus there exists $G \in L$ so that $aG = 1$, implying that, as desired, L is a field. \square

[§]Debacker noted that the use of this notation, identical to the index of a subgroup, is because field extensions are in fact group-theoretic. When Galois groups are added to the notes, this will be discussed below.

Definition 9.5. Let L/k be an extension, $L \supset E, F \supset k$ intermediate fields, each finite over k . The composite of E and F is

$$E \cdot F = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n e_i \cdot f_i : n \in \mathbb{N}, e_i \in E, f_i \in F \right\}.$$

Proposition 9.6. EF is a field extension of k . It is finite and $[EF : k] \leq [E : k] \cdot [F : k]$.

Proof. It is clear that EF is a subring of L containing k . Let $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ and $\{f_1, \dots, f_m\}$ be, respectively, bases for E/k and F/k . Then the set $\{e_i \cdot f_j : i \in \{1, \dots, n\}, j \in \{1, \dots, m\}\}$ spans the k -vector space EF . Thus by elementary results, $\dim_k(EF) \leq \#\{e_i \cdot f_j\} = [E : k] \cdot [F : k]$. In particular, $[EF : k] < \infty$. Applying **Proposition 1.4** above, we have that EF is a field. \square

Proposition 9.7. Let L/k be a finite extension, V a finite dimensional L -vector space. Then V is finite dimensional as a k -vector space, with $\dim_k(V) = \dim_L(V) \cdot [L : k]$.

Proof. Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for V over L , $\{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_m\}$ be a basis for L over k . We will show $\{\ell_i \cdot v_j : i \in \{1, \dots, m\}, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$ is a basis for V over k :

- (i) Spanning: given $x \in V$ we may write $x \in \lambda_1 v_1 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n$ for $\lambda_i \in L$, with each $\lambda_i = \mu_{i,1} \ell_1 + \dots + \mu_{i,m} \ell_m$. Then $x = \sum_i \sum_j \mu_{i,j} \ell_j v_i$ with the $\mu_{i,j} \in k$.
- (ii) Linear independence: Write $\sum_i \mu_{i,j} \ell_j v_i = 0$. Then $0 = \sum_i \left(\sum_j \mu_{i,j} \ell_j \right) v_i$. By linear independence of the v_i we have $\sum_j \mu_{i,j} \ell_j = 0$, by linear independence of the ℓ_j we have $\mu_{i,j} = 0$ for all i, j . \square

Corollary 3. If $M/L/k$ is a tower of finite extensions, then $[M : k] = [M : L] \cdot [L : k]$.

Definition 9.8. Let L/k be an extension, and $a \in L$. If there is $0 \neq p \in k[T]$ such that $p(a) = 0$, then a is algebraic over k . Otherwise, a is transcendental over k .

As per the above definitions, we would like to study the following construction: let $\text{ev} : k[T] \rightarrow L, p \mapsto p(a)$ be the evaluation morphism. If a is transcendental, ev is injective. Further, since L is a field, we have that ev factors uniquely through the fraction field $k(T)$ [¶] and induces an isomorphism $k(T) \xrightarrow{\sim} k(a)$. If a is algebraic, let $0 \neq I \subset k[T]$ be the kernel of ev . Since $k[T]$ is a Euclidean domain, hence a PID (see a proposition from Jan. 20), so there exists a unique monic polynomial $p \in k[T]$ such that $(p) = I$.

Definition 9.9. p is called the *minimal polynomial* of a over k , a/k , written $M_{a/k}$. $\deg(a/k) := \deg(M_{a/k})$ is its *degree*.

Remark. $M_{a/k}$ is also the minimal polynomial of the endomorphism (linear operator that is not necessarily an isomorphism) $a \cdot : L \rightarrow L$.

[¶]This notation was established on homework: $k(T)$ is the set of rational functions with coefficients in k .