# 1. Definition of ring

## 1.3

Let R be a ring, and let S be any set. Explain how to endow the set  $R^S$  of set-functions  $S \to R$  of two operations +, so as to make  $R^S$  into a ring, such that  $R^S$  is just a copy of R if S is a sigleton.

**Proof.** The construction is straight forward, for any  $f, g \in \mathbb{R}^S$ , let:

$$f + g : S \to R, s \mapsto f(s) + g(s)$$
  
 $fg : S \to R, s \mapsto f(s)g(s)$ 

# 1.12

Just as complex numbers may be viewed as combinations a+bi, where  $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ , and i satisfies the relation  $i^2=1$  (and commutes with  $\mathbb{R}$ ), we may construct a ring  $\mathbb{H}$  by considering linear combinations a+bi+cj+dk where  $a,b,c,d \in \mathbb{R}$ , and i,j,k commute with  $\mathbb{R}$  and satisfy the following relations:

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = -ji = k, jk = -kj = i, ki = -ik = j.$$

Addition in  $\mathbb{H}$  is defined componentwise, while multiplication is defined by imposing distributivity and applying the relations. For example,

$$(1+i+j)(2+k) = 12+i2+j2+1k+ik+jk = 2+2i+2j+kj+i = 2+3i+j+k$$

- (i) Verify that this prescription does indeed define a ring.
- (ii) Compute (a + bi + cj + dk)(a bi cj dk), where  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (iii) Prove that  $\mathbb{H}$  is a division ring Elements of  $\mathbb{H}$  are called quaternions. Note that  $\mathbb{Q}_8 := \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$  forms a subgroup of the group of units of  $\mathbb{H}$ ; it is a noncommutative group of order 8, called the quaternionic group.
- (iv) List all subgroups of  $\mathbb{Q}_8$ , and prove that they are all normal.
- (v) Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}_8$ ,  $D_8$  are not isomorphic.

**Proof.** The proof is as follows:

(i) It's obviously the set  $\mathbb{H}$  forms an abelian group where  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is the identity and each element a+bi+cj+dk has addition inverse -a-bi-cj-dk. For multiplication, the operation is close and has identity 1, and distribution law is nativaly true because multiplication is defined in this way.

(ii)

$$(a + bi + cj + dk)(a - bi - cj - dk)$$

$$= a^{2} - (bi + cj + dk)^{2}$$

$$= a^{2} - (-b^{2} - c^{2} - d^{2} + bcij + bdik + cdjk + bcji + bdki + cdkj)$$

$$= a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2} + d^{2}$$

(iii) To prove that  $\mathbb{H}$  is a division ring, it suffices to show that each element is an unit. According to (i), we have

$$(a + bi + cj + dk)(a - bi - cj - dk) = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2$$

and:

$$(a - bi - cj - dk)(a + bi + cj + dk) = a^{2} + (-b)^{2} + (-c)^{2} + (-d)^{2}$$

Thus, the multiplication inverse of a + bi + cj + dk is  $(a - bi - cj - dk)/(a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2)$ 

(iv) Since the order of  $\mathbb{Q}_8$  is 8, the only possible size of the subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}_8$  could only be 2 and 4. For the first case, it's impossible since no element of  $\mathbb{Q}_8$  has order of 2. For the second case, recall that there are only two possible structure of group with order 4:

The first one is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , with means there are four elements of order 2, which is impossible as explained before.

The second one is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ , generated by an element of order 4. Thus, subgroups of 4 are exactly  $\{i, -1, -i, 1\}$  or  $\{j, -1, -j, 1\}$ ,  $\{k, -1, -k, 1\}$ . For any element g of  $\mathbb{Q}_8$ , we have  $gig^{-1}$  is still an element of this subgroup. Thus this subgroup is normal.

(v) TODO

# 1.13

Verify that the multiplication defined in R[x] is associative.

**Proof.** We have to prove for any  $f(x), g(x), h(x) \in R[x], (f(x)g(x))h(x) = f(x)(g(x)h(x))$ . Suppose that:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i, g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} b_i x^i, h(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{l} c_i x^i$$

Then for (f(x)g(x))h(x) the coefficient of  $x^p$  is:

$$\sum_{i+j=p} (fg)_i h_j = \sum_{i+j=p} (fg)_i c_j = \sum_{i+j=p} (\sum_{k+l=i} a_k b_l) c_j \stackrel{!}{=} \sum_{k+l+j=p} a_k b_l c_j$$

Similarly, for f(x)(g(x)h(x)), the coefficient of  $x^p$  is:

$$\sum_{i+j=p} f_i(gh)_j = \sum_{i+j=p} f_i(\sum_{k+l=j} b_k c_l) \stackrel{!}{=} \sum_{i+k+l=p} a_i b_k c_l$$

Note that the equation labeled with ! is induced by the associativity and distributive law of R itself.  $\Box$ 

#### 1.14

Let R be a ring, and let  $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$  be nonzero polynomials. Prove that

$$\deg(f(x) + g(x)) \le \max(\deg(f(x)), \deg(g(x))).$$

Assuming that R is an integral domain, prove that

$$\deg(f(x)q(x)) = \deg(f(x)) + \deg(q(x)).$$

**Proof.** Let  $n = \deg(f(x) + g(x))$ , then  $\exists f_i \neq 0, i \geq n$  or  $\exists g_i \neq 0, i \geq n$ . Thus  $\max(\deg(f(x)), \deg(g(x))) \geq \deg(f(x) + g(x))$ 

For the second part, let  $n = \deg f(x), m = \deg g(x)$ , then  $(fg)_{n+m} = f_n g_m \neq 0$ . And for any i > n+m, we must have  $(fg)_i = 0$  as  $f_i = 0, i > n$  and  $g_i = 0, i > m$ .  $\square$ 

#### 1.15

Prove that R[x] is an integral domain if and only if R is an integral domain

**Proof.** If R[x] is an integral domain, then R is an integral domain as R can be viewed as element of R[x]. If R is integral domain, then

$$deg(fg) = deg f + deg g >= max(deg f, deg g) \ge 0$$

when deg f, deg  $g \ge 0$ . Thus R[x] is an integral domain.  $\square$ 

Let R be a ring, and consider the ring of power series R[[x]]

- (i) Prove that a power series  $a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$  is a unit in R[[x]] if and only if  $a_0$  is a unit in R. What is the inverse of 1x in R[[x]]?
- (ii) Prove that R[[x]] is an integral domain if and only if R is.

**Proof.** The proof is as follows:

(i) If  $a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + ...$  has inverse, let the inverse be  $b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + ...$ , then we have

$$1 = (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots)(b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + \dots)$$
  
=  $a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)x + (a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0)x^2 + \dots$ 

We must have  $a_0b_0 = 1$ , similarly we have  $b_0a_0 = 1$ . Thus indicates  $a_0$  is an unit.

On the other hand, if  $a_0$  has inverse, we formally write the inverse of f as:  $f^{-1} = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \dots$  Thus  $f f^{-1} = 1$  implies the following equations:

$$a_0b_0 = 1$$

$$a_0b_1 + a_1b_0 = 0$$

$$a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0 = 0$$

$$a_0b_3 + a_1b_2 + a_2b_1 + a_3b_0 = 0$$

g is constructed by solve these equations:

$$b_0 = a_0^{-1}$$

$$b_1 = -a_0^{-1} a_1 b_0$$

$$b_2 = -a_0^{-1} (a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)$$
...

$$b_k = -a_0^{-1} (\sum_{i=1}^k a_i b_{k-i})$$

This indicates f is an unit.

(ii) If  $f, g \in R[[x]]$  and  $f, g \neq 0$ . Then write them in the following form:

$$f = x^{p}(a_{p} + a_{p+1}x + \ldots), g = x^{q}(b_{q} + b_{q+1}x + \ldots)$$

Then  $fg = x^{p+q}(a_pb_q + ...) \neq 0$ . In addition, R is Commutative indicates R[[x]] is also commutative, thus R[[x]] is an integral domain.

# 2. Category Ring

# 2.3

Let S be a set, and consider the power set ring  $\mathscr{P}(S)$  (Exercise 1.2), and the ring  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^S$  you constructed in Exercise 1.3. Prove that these two rings are isomorphic. (Cf. Exercise I.2.11.)

**Proof.** First note that  $\mathscr{P}(S)$  and  $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^S$  are isomorphic in **Set**. For each  $f \in (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})$ , maps f to  $\varphi(f)$  by the following subset of S:

$$\varphi(f) = \{ s \in S \mid f(s) = [1]_2 \}$$

Then it's easy to show that  $\varphi$  is both bijective and a ring homomorphim, therefore a ring isomorphism.  $\square$ 

# 2.6

Let  $\alpha: R \to S$  be a fixed ring homomorphism, and let  $s \in S$  be an element commuting with  $\alpha(r)$  for all  $r \in R$ . Then there is a unique ring homomorphism  $\overline{\alpha}: R[x] \to S$  extending  $\alpha$ , and sending x to s

**Proof.** Define  $\overline{\alpha}$  as follows:

$$\overline{\alpha}(\sum_{i>0} a_i x^i) = \sum_{i>0} \alpha(a_i) s^i$$

To prove this is a ring homomorphism, we need to show that  $\overline{\alpha}$  maintains both addition and multiplication (and send identity to identity, which is obvious). Addition is easy to verify, for multiplication, it is worthy noted s commutes with  $\alpha(r), r \in R$  makes it maintains multiplication:

$$\overline{\alpha}((\sum_{i\geq 0} a_i x^i)(\sum_{i\geq 0} b_i x^i)) = \overline{\alpha}(\sum_{i\geq 0} (\sum_{k+l=i} a_k b_l) x^i) = \sum_{i\geq 0} \alpha(\sum_{k+l=i} a_k b_l) s^i$$

$$\overline{\alpha}(\sum_{i\geq 0} a_i x^i) \overline{\alpha}(\sum_{i\geq 0} b_i x^i) = (\sum_{i\geq 0} \alpha(a_i) s^i)(\sum_{i\geq 0} \alpha(b_i) s^i)$$

$$= \sum_{i\geq 0} (\sum_{k+l=i} \alpha(a_k) s^k \alpha(b_l) s^l)$$

$$= \sum_{i\geq 0} (\sum_{k+l=i} \alpha(a_k) \alpha(b_l) s^i)$$

$$= \sum_{i\geq 0} (\alpha(\sum_{k+l=i} a_k b_l) s^i)$$

$$= \overline{\alpha}((\sum_{i>0} a_i x^i)(\sum_{i>0} b_i x^i))$$

Note that ! is true because s commutates with all  $\alpha(a_k)$  and  $\alpha(b_l)$ . The uniqueness of  $\overline{\alpha}$  comes from the fact that  $\overline{\alpha}$  is homomorphism, and  $\overline{\alpha}(r) = \alpha(r), \overline{\alpha}(x) = s$ .  $\square$ 

**NOTE** Example 2.2 asks for particular situation, where a ring homomorphism  $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}[x] \to S$  extends the unique homomorphism  $f: \mathbb{Z} \to S, n \mapsto n1_S$  and sends x to any element of S doesn't necessarily consider the commutativity of S. The answer is clean here, any element  $s \in S$  must commutes with the image of f since  $s(n1_S) = ns = (n1_S)s$ 

#### 2.9

The center of a ring R consists of the elements a such that ar = ra for all  $r \in R$ . Prove that the center is a subring of R. Prove that the center of a division ring is a field.

**Proof.** Denote the center of R as Z(R), then for any  $s, t \in Z(R), r \in R$ , we have r(s-t) = rs - rt = sr - tr = (s-t)r, which indicates that  $s-t \in Z(R)$ . Thus, Z(R) is an addition subgroup of R.

Moreover,  $\forall s, t \in Z(R), r \in R$ , we have (st)r = s(tr) = s(rt) = (sr)t = (rs)t = r(st). Thus  $rs \in Z(R)$ , indicating Z(R) is closed under multiplication. The associativity and distributive law natively holds in Z(R). And  $1_R \in Z(R)$  obviousl. In conclusion, Z(R) is a subring of R.

If R is a division ring, for any  $s \in Z(R)$ , we must prove that  $s^{-1} \in Z(R)$ . Actually, for any  $s \in Z(R)$ ,  $r \in R$ ,  $sr = rs \Rightarrow rs^{-1} = s^{-1}r$ . Thus  $s^{-1} \in Z(R)$ . And Z(R) is obviously commutative, and therefore a field.  $\square$ 

#### 2.10

The *centralizer* of an element a of a ring R consists of the elements  $r \in R$  such that ar = ra. Prove that the centralizer of a is a subring of R, for every  $a \in R$ . Prove that the center of R is the intersection of all its centralizers. Prove that every centralizer in a division ring is a division ring.

**Proof.** To prove the centralizer of  $a \in R$  is a subring of R basically follows the same way as exercise 2.9 does.

For the second part, if  $s \in Z(R)$ , then r commutes with any element  $r \in R$ , thus  $s \in \operatorname{Cen}_R(r), r \in R$ . and  $s \in \bigcap_{r \in R} \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$ , indicating  $Z(R) \subseteq \bigcap_{r \in R} \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$ . On the other hand, any element of  $\bigcap_{r \in R} \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$  must commute with any element of R, thus belongs to Z(R). In conclusion,

$$Z(R) = \bigcap_{r \in R} \operatorname{Cen}_R(r).$$

For the third part, it suffices to show that if r commutes with a then so does  $r^{-1}$ . It is done in exercise 2.9 already.  $\square$ 

#### 2.11

Let R be a division ring consisting of  $p^2$  elements, where p is a prime. Prove that R is commutative.

**Proof.** Assume that R is not commutative, consider the center of R, denoted as Z(R). Then  $Z(R) \neq R$ . Note that Z(R) is an addition subgroup of R, Then it must have |Z(R)| = p since |Z(R)| divides |R|, which is  $p^2$ .

Consider one element  $r \in R, r \notin Z(R)$ , and its centralizer, denoted as  $\operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$ , then since  $r \notin Z(R)$ , it means  $\operatorname{Cen}_R(r) \neq R$ . And exercise 2.10 indicates  $\operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$  is a subring of R, thus  $|\operatorname{Cen}_R(r)| = p$ .

Exercise 2.10 also shows that  $Z(R) \subseteq \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$ , their cardinality equals to each other means  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$ . However, it's obvious that  $r \in \operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$  but  $r \notin Z(R)$ , a contradiction.

In conclusion, we must have Z(R)=R and R is therefore commutative, further more, it's a field.  $\square$ 

**NOTE** In fact, any finite division ring is commutative, thus a field. But the proof used here seems hard to extend to more complex condition, i.e. the case of arbitary integer. Actually, it's even hard to extend this method to  $p^n, n \geq 3$  case: |Z(R)| might be  $p^3$  and  $\operatorname{Cen}_R(r)$  might be  $p^2$  and no contradictions so far.

# 2.12

Consider the inclusion map  $\iota: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$ . Describe the cokernel of  $\iota$  in  $\mathbf{Ab}$ , and its cokernel in  $\mathbf{Ring}$  (as defined by the appropriate universal property in the style of the one given in § II.8.6)

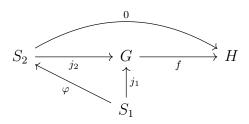
**Proof.** Before we describe the cokernel requested above, we will review what these concepts(and kernel) means in category conception:

**Kernel** Let G, H be group and  $f: G \to H$  is a group homomorphism.

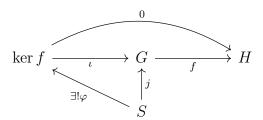
Then Consider the following category:  $\mathscr{K}_{\varphi}$ : The object of  $\mathscr{K}_{\varphi}$  is one group S associated one morphism j, such that the following diagram holds:

$$S \xrightarrow{j} G \xrightarrow{f} H$$

And the morphism between  $(j_1, S_1)$  and  $(j_2, S_2)$  is the following diagram:

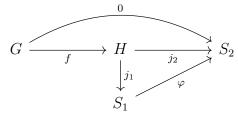


And ker  $\varphi$  is defined to be the final object of  $\mathscr{K}_{\varphi}$ . That is, the following diagram holds:



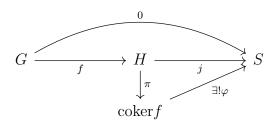
And ker f exists as ker  $f = \{g \in G \mid f(g) = 0\}$ . It's easy to verify such set is a subgroup of G and this subgroup associated with the injection homomorphism satisfies the universal property of ker.

**Cokernel** Conceptually, cokernel just reverse all arrows in the above diagram. Let G, H be groups and  $f: G \to H$  is a group homomorphism, consider the category  $\mathscr{C}_f$  of which objects and morphisms are following diagrams:



And coker f is an initial object in this category, that is, the following diagram

holds:



As we have proved before, in  $\mathbf{Grp}$ ,  $\operatorname{coker} f$  is H/N, where N is the smallest normal subgroup that contains  $\operatorname{Im} f$ . In particular,  $\operatorname{coker} f = H/\operatorname{Im} f$  in  $\mathbf{Ab}$ .

If we replace groups with rings and group homomorphisms with ring homomorphisms, we can naturally get the definition of kernel and cokernel in **Ring**.

Now back to the problem itslef,coker $\iota$  in  $\mathbf{Ab}$ , as stated, is  $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ . The associated  $\pi$  is  $\pi(q) = q + \mathbb{Z}$ . And coker $\iota$  in  $\mathbf{Ring}$  is  $(0, \{0\})$ . Actually if (j, S) where S is a ring and j is a ring homomorphism from  $\mathbb{Q}$  to S, if it satisfies  $j \circ \iota = 0$ . Then we have:

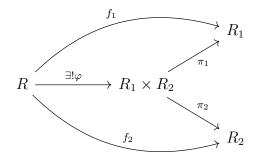
$$j(\frac{p}{q}) = j(pq^{-1}) = j(p)j(q)^{-1} = j(\iota(p))j(\iota(q)) = 0(p)0(q)^{-1} = 0$$

Thus j maps each element to be 0 in S, thus S could only be  $\{0\}$  since  $1_S = f(1_{\mathbb{Q}}) = 0$ . This indicates there is only one object in this category, and coker  $\iota$  is this object.  $\square$ 

#### 2.13

Verify that the 'componentwise' product  $R_1 \times R_2$  of two rings satisfies the universal property for products in a category, given in § I.5.4

**Proof.**  $(R_1 \times R_2, \pi_1, \pi_2)$  is the product of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , where  $\pi_1(r_1, r_2) = r_1$  and  $\pi_2(r_1, r_2) = r_2$ . It's easy to show that  $\pi_1, \pi_2$  are ring homomorphisms, we must show that the following diagrams holds:



For  $(R, f_1, f_2)$ , defines  $\varphi: R \to R_1 \times R_2, r \mapsto (f_1(r), f_2(r))$ . Then the diagram is commutative. To prove the uniqueness, consider another ring homomorphism  $\varphi': R \to R_1 \times R_2$  makes this diagram commutes, then  $\varphi'(r) = (r_1, r_2)$ . Further we have  $f_1(r) = \pi_1(\varphi(r)) = \pi_1(r_1, r_2) = r_1, f_2(r) = \pi_2(\varphi(r)) = \pi_2(r_1, r_2) = r_2$ . Thus  $\varphi(r) = (f_1(r), f_2(r))$ , the uniqueness is proved.

In conclusion,  $(R_1 \times R_2, \pi_1, \pi_2)$  is the product of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ .  $\square$ 

#### 2.16

Prove that there is (up to isomorphism) only one structure of ring with identity on the abelian group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ .

# 3.Ideals and quotient rings

#### 3.2

Let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism, and let J be an ideal of S. Prove that  $I = \varphi^{-1}(J)$  is an ideal of R. Thus, the inverse image of an image is also an ideal, is the image of an ideal also an ideal? Prove it or given a counterexample.

**Proof.** For any  $s \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$ ,  $r \in R$ , we have  $\varphi(rs) = \varphi(r)\varphi(s) \in J$ ,  $\varphi(sr) = \varphi(s)\varphi(r) \in J$  since  $\varphi(s) \in J$ ,  $\varphi(r) \in R$ , which indicates that  $rs \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$ ,  $sr \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$ . Thus  $\varphi^{-1}(J)$  is an ideal.

Then second proposition is false in general, the ring homomorphism image of an ideal is not necessarily an ideal. Consider injection:  $\iota: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . However, the image of an ideal, say  $2\mathbb{Z}$  is still  $2\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[x]$  and is not an ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

However, if  $\varphi$  is surjective, then  $\varphi(I)$  is also an ideal of the target ring.  $\square$ 

#### 3.3

Let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism, and let J be an ideal of R.

- 1. Show that  $\varphi(J)$  need not be an ideal of S.
- 2. Assume that  $\varphi$  is surjective; then prove that  $\varphi(J)$  is an ideal of S.
- 3. Assume that  $\varphi$  is surjective, and let  $I = \ker \varphi$ ; thus we may identify S with R/I. Let  $\overline{J} = \varphi(J)$ , an ideal of R/I by the previous point. Prove

that

$$\frac{R/I}{\overline{J}} \cong \frac{R}{I+J}$$

**Proof.** The first proposition are proved in exercise 3.2, and the second one is easy to be proved following the definition.

For the third proposition, note that actually we have  $\overline{J} \cong (I+J)/J$ , then according to proposition 3.14, we have:

$$\frac{R/I}{\overline{J}} \cong \frac{R/J}{(I+J)/J} \cong R/(I+J)$$

The proof is done.  $\square$ 

#### 3.4

Let R be a ring such that every subgroup of (R, +) is in fact an ideal of R. Prove that  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , where n is the characteristic of R

**Proof.** Consider the subset:

$$S = \{ n1_R \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

It is a subgroup of (R, +) because:

$$(\forall a 1_R, b 1_R \in S, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}) : a 1_R - b 1_R = (a - b) 1_R \in S$$

According to the assumption, we have S to be an ideal, in particular, we have:

$$(\forall r \in R): \quad r = r1_R \in S$$

this indicates that  $\forall r \in R, r = m1_R$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . And therefore R = S. This indicates  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}$  or  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  for n to be the characteristic of R.  $\square$ 

# 3.8

Prove that a ring R is a division ring if and only if its only left-ideals and right-ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R. In particular, a commutative ring R is a field if and only if the only ideals of R are  $\{0\}$  and R.

**Proof.** Let R be a ring, and I be an ideal of R. Then if I contains element other than  $0_R$ , we will have I = R since  $1_R \in I$ . Thus the ideal of R can only be R and  $\{0\}$  if R is a division ring.

On the other hand, if R has only  $\{0\}$  and R as ideals, then any element of R must be an unit, otherwise aR where a is a non-unit, could be a right-ideal, a contradiction.

The second part of this problem is nothing more than a special case of field.  $\Box$ 

#### 3.9

Counterpoint to Exercise 3.8: it is not true that a ring R is a division ring if and only if its only two-sided ideals are  $\{0\}$  and R. A nonzero ring with this property is said to be simple; by Exercise 3.8, fields are the only simple commutative rings.

**Proof.** If R is a division ring, then the ideals of R could only be R or  $\{0\}$ . However, the ideals of R are only  $\{0\}$  and R doesn't mean both left-ideals and right-ideals of R are only  $\{0\}$  and R.  $\square$ 

#### 3.11

Let R be a ring containing  $\mathbb C$  as a subring. Prove that there are no ring homomorphisms  $R \to \mathbb R$ 

**Proof.** If there exists some ring homomorphism  $R \to \mathbb{R}$ , then it induce a ring homomorphism from  $\mathbb{C}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . However, this can not be true because:

$$-1 = f(-1) = f(\mathbf{i} * \mathbf{i}) = f(\mathbf{i})^2$$

There is no such  $f(\mathbf{i}) \in \mathbb{R}$  satisfies  $f(\mathbf{i})^2 = -1 \square$ 

#### 3.12

Let R be a commutative ring. Prove that the set of nilpotent elements of R is an ideal of R. (Cf. Exercise 1.6. This ideal is called the *nilradical* of R.) Find a non-commutative ring in which the set of nilpotent elements is not an ideal.

**Proof.** Let N denotes the set of all nilpotent elements of R, first to prove that N is a subgroup of (R, +). For any  $a, b \in N$ , there exists some  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  that  $a^m = 0, b^n = 0$ , then we shall have  $(a - b)^{m+n+1} = 0$  (using binomial theorem). This indicates  $a - b \in N$ , and thus N is a subgroup of (R, +).

The second part is to prove that for any  $r \in R$ ,  $a \in N$ ,  $ra \in N$ . Note that  $(ra)^m = r^m a^m = r^m 0 = 0$ . Thus  $ra \in N$ . In conclusion, we have N is an ideal of R.

One counterexample for non-commutative case would be matrix ring  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . Note that  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is a nilpotent element but  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is not, which fails to make  $N(M_n(\mathbb{R}))$  to be an ideal.

**NOTE** There might be some properties of this ideal, one most notable is that the quotient ring R/N has no non-naive nilpotent element:

$$(a+N)^m = 0_{R/N} \Rightarrow a^m + N = 0_{R/N} \Rightarrow a^m \in N \Rightarrow a \in N$$

#### 3.13

Let R be a commutative ring, and let N be its nilradical (cf. Exercise 3.12). Prove that R/N contains no nonzero nilpotent elements. (Such a ring is said to be reduced.)

**Proof.** The proof is done in the "NOTE" section of exercise 3.12

# 3.14

Prove that the characteristic of an integral domain is either 0 or a prime integer. Do you know any ring of characteristic 1?

**Proof.** If the characteristic of R is non-prime, say  $\operatorname{char} R = mn, m > 1, n > 1$ . Then the definion of characteristic shows that  $mn1_R = 0$ , which is  $(m1_R)(n1_R) = 0$ . Note that m > 1, n > 1 indicates  $m < \operatorname{char} R, n < \operatorname{char} R$ , thus  $m1_R \neq 0, n1_R \neq 0$ . The equation  $(m1_R)(n1_R) = 0$  implies the multiplication of two non-zero elements is zero, which contradicts the definition of integral domain.

Ring of characteristic 1 could only be zero ring.  $\square$ 

A ring R is boolean if  $a^2 = a$  for all  $a \in R$ . Prove that  $\mathscr{P}(S)$  is boolean, for every set S (cf. Exercise 1.2). Prove that every boolean ring is commutative, and has characteristic 2. Prove that if an integral domain R is boolean, then  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ 

**Proof.**  $\mathscr{P}(S)$  is boolean as for any element  $S \in \mathscr{P}(S)$  we have  $S^2 = S \cap S = S$ . First we prove that if R is *boolean*, then for each element  $r \in R$ , we have 2r = 0, thus the characteristic of R is 2. Consider the following two equations:

$$(1+r) = (1+r)^2 = 1 + 2r + r^2 = 1 + 2r + r$$

This indicates  $\forall r \in R, 2r = 0$ . Further,  $\forall a, b \in R$ , we have:

$$(a + b) = (a + b)^2 = a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 = a + ab + ba + b$$

This means ab + ba = 0, note that 2ab = 0, these two equations imply  $ab = ba, \forall a, b \in R$ . Thus R is commutative. The characteristic part is proved already.

If R is itself an integral domain, then for any element  $r \in R$ , we have:

$$r^2 = r \Rightarrow r(r - 1_R) = 0 \Rightarrow r = 1_R$$

This implies there are only two elements of R if it is boolean and domain, thus is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .  $\square$ 

#### 3.17

Let I, J be ideals of a ring R. State and prove a precise result relating the ideals (I + J)/I of R/I and  $J/(I \cap J)$  of  $R/(I \cap J)$ 

**Proof.** (I+J)/I is an ideal of quotient ring R/I. It's obvious that I+J is an ideal that contains I. And there is, actually a one-to-one corespondence between the ideal of R/I and the ideal of R that contains I.

Considering the canonical project:  $\pi: R \to R/I, r \mapsto r+I$ . The for each ideal of R/I, say S,  $\pi^{-1}(S)$  is an ideal of R and it contains I. This map:  $S \mapsto \pi^{-1}(S)$  has one inverse function:  $J \mapsto J/I$ . Thus the bijection exists.  $\square$ 

# 4. Ideals and quotients: remarks and examples

#### 4.2

Prove that the homomorphic image of a Noetherian ring is Noetherian. That is, prove that if  $\varphi: R \to S$  is a surjective ring homomorphism, and R is Noetherian, then S is Noetherian.

**Proof.** Recall that Noetherian ring is a ring where all ideals are finitely generated. Let J be an ideal of S, then  $I = \varphi^{-1}(J)$  is an ideal of R. Then R is finitely generated, say  $I = (r_1, r_2, \ldots r_n)$ . Then for any element  $p \in J$ , we have  $p = \varphi(q), q \in I$ , thus  $q = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i r_i$  and  $p = \varphi(q) = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(a_i)\varphi(r_i)$ . Thus,  $J \subseteq (\varphi(r_1), \varphi(r_2), \ldots, \varphi(r_n))$  And is finitely generated.  $\square$ 

# 4.5

Let I, J be ideals in a ring R, such that I + J = (1). Prove that  $IJ = I \cap J$ 

**Proof.** Recall that IJ denotes the ideal generated by all production  $ij, i \in I, j \in J$ . And  $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$  in general. We have to show  $I \cap J \subset IJ$ . For any element  $r \in I \cap J$ , we have  $r = r1_R = r(i+j) = ri + rj, i \in I, j \in J$ . Note that  $ri = ir \in IJ, rj \in IJ$ , thus  $r = ri + rj \in IJ$ , and we have  $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$  as a result.  $\square$ 

#### 4.6

Let I, J be ideals in a ring R. Assume that R/(IJ) is reduced (that is, it has no nonzero nilpotent elements; cf. Exercise 3.13). Prove that  $IJ = I \cap J$ .

**Proof.** If  $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$ , then there is some element  $r \in I \cap J$ ,  $r \notin IJ$ . Then consider  $r + IJ \in R/(IJ)$ . We are gonna to have

$$(r+IJ)^2 = r^2 + IJ = IJ$$

as  $r^2 \in IJ(r \in I, r \in J)$ , which contradicts the assumption that R/(IJ) is reduced. In conclusion,  $IJ = I \cap J$ .  $\square$ 

#### 4.9

Generalize the result of Exercise 4.8, as follows. Let R be a ring, and let f(x) be a left-zero-divisor in R[x]. Prove that  $\exists b \in R, b \neq 0$ , such that f(x)b = 0.

**Proof.** We prove by induction on the degree of f(x). If  $\deg f(x) = 0$ , then f(x) is simply an element of R, written as r. Say f(x)g(x) = 0,  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Then it's easy to see the first coefficient of g(x), say t, satisfies rt = 0. Thus the proposition is true of  $\deg f(x) = 0$ .

Assume that for deg f(x) = k the proposition is true. Then for k+1 case,  $\square$ 

Let d be an integer that is not the square of an integer, and consider the subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  defined by:

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) := \{ a + b\sqrt{d} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \}.$$

- 1. Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  is a subring of  $\mathbb{C}$ .
- 2. Define a function  $N: \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \to \mathbb{Z}$  by  $N(a+b\sqrt{d}) := a^2 b^2 d$ . Prove that N(zw) = N(z)N(w), and that  $N(z) \neq 0$  if  $z \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}), z \neq 0$ .
- 3. Prove that  $Q(\sqrt{d})$  is a field, and in fact the smallest subfield of  $\mathbb{C}$  containing both  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\sqrt{d}$  (Use N).
- 4. Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \cong \mathbb{Q}[t]/(t^2-d)$ . (Cf. Example 4.8.)

The function N is a 'norm'; it is very useful in the study of  $Q(\sqrt{d})$  and of its subrings. (Cf. also Exercise 2.5.)

**Proof.** The proof is as follows:

1.  $Q(\sqrt{d})$  is indeed a subring of  $\mathbb C$  because it's a subgroup of  $\mathbb C$  and closed under multiplication:

$$(\forall a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{d}, a_2 + b_2 \sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}))$$
:

$$(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{d}) - (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{d}) = (a_1 - a_2) + (b_1 - b_2)\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$$
$$(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{d})(a_2 + b_2\sqrt{d}) = (a_1a_2 + b_1b_2d) + (a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$$

Also,  $1_{\mathbb{C}} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  by setting a = 1, b = 0. In conclusion,  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  is a subring of  $\mathbb{C}$ .

2. For the second part, let  $z = a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{d}$ ,  $w = a_2 + b_2 \sqrt{d}$ . Then:

$$N(zw) = (a_1a_2 + b_1b_2d)^2 - d(a_1b_2 + a_2b_1)^2$$

$$= a_1^2a_2^2 + b_1^2b_2^2d^2 - da_1^2b_2^2 - da_2^2b_1^2$$

$$= (a_1^2 - b_1^2d)(a_2^2 - b_2^2d)$$

$$= N(z)N(w)$$

If N(z) = 0, then  $a^2 - b^2 d = 0 \Rightarrow a/b = \sqrt{d}$ , contrdicts the fact that  $\sqrt{d}$  is irrational.

- 3.  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$  is a field since each non-zero element  $a + b\sqrt{d}$  has inverse  $(a b\sqrt{d})/(a^2 b^2d)$ . Note that we have proved that in (2),  $N(z) = a^2 b^2d = 0$  if and only if z = 0, thus it's ok to write  $a^2 b^2d$  as denominator.
- 4. Note that  $\mathbb{Q}[t]/(t^2-d)\cong\mathbb{Q}^{\oplus 2}$ , there is a one to one corespondence:

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) \to \mathbb{Q}^{\oplus 2} : a + b\sqrt{d} \mapsto (a, b)$$

And the multiplication defined over  $\mathbb{Q}^{\oplus 2}$  is (a,b)(e,f)=(ae+dbf,af+be)

The proof is done.  $\square$ 

#### 4.11

Let R be a commutative ring,  $a \in R$ , and  $f_1(x), \ldots, f_r(x) \in R[x]$ .

1. Prove the equality of ideals

$$(f_1(x),\ldots,f_r(x),x-a)=(f_1(a),\ldots,f_r(a),x-a).$$

2. Prove the useful substitution trick

$$\frac{R[x]}{(f_1(x),\ldots,f_r(x),x-a)} \cong \frac{R}{(f_1(a),\ldots,f_r(a))}$$

**Proof.** (1) Since x - a is a mononic polynomial, then for each  $f_i(x)$ , there exists one  $g_i(x), t_i(x)$  such that  $\deg t_i(x) < \deg(x - a) = 1$ . And:

$$f_i(x) = g_i(x)(x - a) + t_i(x)$$

Let x = a, we fill have:  $t_i(a) = f_i(a)$ . Note that  $\deg t_i(x) < 1$ , then we must have  $t_i(x) = f_i(a) \in R$ , which means:

$$f_i(x) = (x - a)g_i(x) + f_i(a)$$

Indicating:  $(f_i(x)) \subseteq (x - a, f_i(a))$ . Thus we have:

$$(f_1(x),\ldots,f_r(x))\subseteq (f_1(a),\ldots,f_r(a),x-a)$$

Also,  $f_i(x) = (x - a)g_i(x) + f_i(a)$  indicates  $f_i(a) = f_i(x) - (x - a)g_i(x)$ , and  $(f_i(a)) \subseteq (f_i(x), x - a)$ . Similarly we have:

$$(f_1(a),\ldots,f_r(a),x-a)\subseteq (f_1(x),\ldots,f_r(x))$$

In conclusion, we have:

$$(f_1(a), \ldots, f_r(a), x - a) = (f_1(x), \ldots, f_r(x))$$

(2) Consider the following ring homomorphism:

$$R[x] \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow \frac{R}{(f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a))}$$

$$f(x) \mapsto f(a) \mapsto f(a) + (f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a))$$

Then it's easy to see that this homomorphism is surjective, since  $R[x] \longrightarrow R$ is surjective and  $R \longrightarrow \frac{R}{(f_1(a),\ldots,f_r(a))}$  is surjective. Denote this ring homomorphism as  $\varphi$ , consider  $\ker \varphi$ :

$$\ker \varphi = \{ f(x) \in R[x] \mid f(a) \in (f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a)) \}$$

Note that for each  $f(x) \in (f_1(x), \dots, f_r(x), x - a)$  we have:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} r_i(x) f_i(x) + r(x)(x-a)$$

and  $f(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} r_i(a) f_i(a) \in (f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a))$ , this implies that

$$(f_1(x),\ldots,f_r(x))\subseteq \ker \varphi$$

On the other hand, let  $f(x) \in \ker \varphi$ , using remainder divison, we have:

$$f(x) = g(x)(x - a) + f(a)$$

Note that  $f(a) \in (f_1(a), \ldots, f_r(a))$ , thus  $f(x) \in (f_1(a), \ldots, f_r(a), x - a)$ . Thus we have:

$$f(x) \subseteq (f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a), x - a) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_r(x), x - a)$$

and

$$\ker \varphi = (f_1(x), \dots, f_r(x), x - a)$$

According to the fundamental homomorphism theorem, we have:

$$\frac{R[x]}{(f_1(x), \dots f_r(x), x - a)} \cong \frac{R}{(f_1(a), \dots, f_r(a))}$$

The proof is done.  $\square$ 

Let R be a commutative ring, and  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$  elements of R. Prove that

$$\frac{R[x_1, \dots x_n]}{(x_1 - a_1, \dots x_n - a_n)} \cong R$$

**Proof.** Prove by induction, for n = 1, we have

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

Assume for k the proposition is true, then for k + 1:

$$\frac{R[x_1 \dots x_k, x_{k+1}]}{(x_1 - a_1, \dots x_k - a_k, x_{k+1} - a_{k+1})} = \frac{R[x_1, \dots x_k][x_{k+1}]}{(x_1 - a_1, \dots, x_{k+1} - a_{k+1})}$$

$$\cong \frac{R[x_1, \dots x_k]}{(x_1 - a_1, \dots x_k - a_k)}$$

$$\cong R$$

The most important step is to view  $x_1 - a_1, \dots x_k - a_k$  as constant elements of  $R[x_1, \dots, x_k]$  and using exercise 4.11  $\square$ 

#### 4.13

Let R be an integral domain. For all k = 1, ..., n prove that  $(x_1, ..., x_k)$  is prime in  $R[x_1, ..., x_n]$ .

**Proof.** For k = 1, ..., n, we have:

$$\frac{R[x_1, \dots x_n]}{(x_1, \dots x_k)} = \frac{R[x_{k+1}, \dots x_n][x_1, \dots x_k]}{(x_1, \dots, x_k)} \cong R[x_{k+1}, \dots x_n] \text{ (exercise 4.12)}$$

Note that  $R[x_{k+1},\ldots,x_n]$  is integral domain, thus  $(x_1,\ldots x_k)$  is prime.  $\square$ 

# 4.14

Prove 'by hand' that maximal ideals are prime, without using quotient rings.

**Proof.** Let M be one maximal ideal of R, and  $ab \in M$ . We assert that  $a \in M$  or  $b \in M$ , otherwise  $a \notin R, b \notin R$ , consider (a) and (b). We have  $M \subsetneq (a), M \subsetneq (b)$ . Thus we must have (a) = (b) = R, which implies a, b are units. Thus ab are units and M = R, a contradiction.  $\square$ 

Let  $\varphi: R \to S$  be a homomorphism of commutative rings, and let  $I \subseteq S$  be an ideal. Prove that if I is a prime ideal in S, then  $\varphi^{-1}(I)$  is a prime ideal in R. Show that  $\varphi^{-1}(I)$  is not necessarily maximal if I is maximal.

**Proof.** If  $ab \in \varphi^{-1}(I)$ , then  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) \in I$ . Note that I is prime, then  $\varphi(a) \in I$  or  $\varphi(b) \in I$ . Thus  $a \in \varphi^{-1}(I)$  or  $b \in \varphi^{-1}(I)$ . Indicating  $\varphi^{-1}(I)$  is prime. One counterexample is consider  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}[x], r \mapsto r$ . Then the ideal  $(x^2 + 1)$  is maximal in  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ , but the inverse image  $\varphi^{-1}((x^2 + 1))$  is  $\{0\}$ , which is not maximal in  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$ 

#### 4.16

Let R be a commutative ring, and let P be a prime ideal of R. Suppose 0 is the only zero-divisor of R contained in P. Prove that R is an integral domain.

**Proof.** If  $a, b \neq 0$  but ab = 0, then  $ab \in P$  and  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ , say  $a \in P$ , then a = 0 since 0 is the only zero-divisor contained in P, a contradiction. Thus there is no non-zero zero divisor, and R is an integral domain.  $\square$ 

#### 4.18

Let R be a commutative ring, and let N be its nilradical (Exercise 3.12). Prove that N is contained in every prime ideal of R.

**Proof.** Recall that the nilradical of R is the set consists of all nilponent elements of R (and is an ideal). Note that for each P, where P is a prime ideal, and any element  $r \in N$ ,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , s.t.  $r^n = 0$ . We have  $r^n = 0 \in N$ , thus  $r \in N$  or  $r^{n-1} \in N$ . If  $r \in N$ , we're done, otherwise  $r^{n-1} \in N$  indicates  $r \in N$  or  $r^{n-2} \in N$ . Repeate the process we will have  $r \in N$  at last. Thus,  $N \subseteq P$  for any prime ideal P.  $\square$ 

**NOTE** Actually  $N = \bigcap_{Pisprime} P$ 

#### 4.19

Let R be a commutative ring, let P be a prime ideal in R, and let  $I_j$  be ideals of R.

(i) Assume that  $I_1 \cdots I_r \subseteq P$ ; prove that  $I_j \subseteq P$  for some j.

(ii) By (i), if  $\cap_{j=1}^r I_j \subseteq P$ , then P contains one of the ideals  $I_j$ . Prove or disprove: if  $\cap_{j=1}^\infty I_j \subseteq P$ , then P contains one of the ideals  $I_j$ .

# **Proof.** Here are proofs:

- (i) If for any  $I_i, i = 1, ..., r$ , there is some element  $a_i$  such that  $a_i \in I_i$  but  $a_i \notin P$ , then  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_r \notin P$  (otherwise some  $a_i \in P$  since P is prime). Thus  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_r \in I_1 \cdots I_r$  but  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_r \notin P$ , a contradiction. Thus we must have some  $I_j$  such that  $I_j \subseteq P$ .
- (ii) The proposition is false, consider  $\mathbb{Z}$ , and P = (p) for some prime number p. Then it's easy to prove (p) is prime ideal:  $ab \in (p) \Rightarrow p \mid ab \Rightarrow p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b \Rightarrow a \in (p)$  or  $b \in (p)$ .

Consider  $I_j = (p_j)$  where  $p_j$  is the  $j^{th}$  prime number (except for p). Then  $\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} I_j = \{0\}$  satisfies the condition  $\bigcap_{j=1}^{\infty} I_j \subseteq P$  but none of  $I_j$  makes  $I_j \subseteq P$  true.