# Contents

| 1   | Unique Factorization                | . 3 |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-----|
| 1.1 | Unique Factorization in $\mathbb Z$ | 5   |

### Chapter 1

## Unique Factorization

For us, ring means commutative ring with identity.

**Definition 1.0.1** A ring is a set with two binary operations  $(+,\cdot)$  satisfying

- 1. (R, +) is an abelian group, which means
  - $\bullet$  + is commutative and associative.
  - $\exists 0_R, a + 0_R = 0_R + a \text{ for all } a \in R.$
  - Given  $a \in R$ ,  $\exists a' \in R$  such that  $a + a' = 0_R$ .
- $2.\,\,\cdot$  is commutative and associative.

 $\exists \ 1_R \text{ such that } a \cdot 1_R = 1_R \cdot a = a \text{ for all } a \in R.$ 

- $3.\,\,\cdot$  is distributive over addition, which means
  - $a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$
  - $(a+b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$

#### Exercise 1.0.1

1. Show that  $a + b = a + c \Rightarrow b = c$ . (Cancellation)

Proof.

$$a+b=a+c \Leftrightarrow a'+(a+b)=a'+(a+c)$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow (a'+a)+b=(a'+a)+c$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow 0_R+b=0_R+c$$
  
$$\Leftrightarrow b=c$$

2. Show a' is unique. We denote this a' by -a.

*Proof.* if the statement doesn't hold, then there exist a', a'' such that  $a + a' = 0_R = a + a''$ . We then apply cancellation and get a' = a''.

3. Show  $0_R$  is unique.

*Proof.* Say there are two zero element  $0_R$  and  $0'_R$ , then we have

$$0_R = 0_R + 0_R' = 0_R'$$

4. Show  $1_R$  is unique.

*Proof.* Say there are two unit element  $1_R$  and  $1'_R$ , then we have

$$1_R = 1_R \cdot 1_R' = 1_R'$$

5. Show  $a \cdot 0_R = 0_R \cdot a = 0_R$ 

*Proof.* We know that  $a \cdot 0_R + a = a \cdot (0_R + 1_R) = a \cdot 1_R = a = 0_R + a$ , apply cancellation then we are done.

6. Show that  $(-1_R) \cdot a = -a$ .

*Proof.* Since 
$$a \cdot 0_R = 0_R$$
, we have  $a \cdot (1_R + (-1_R)) = 0_R$  or  $a + (-1_R) \cdot a = 0_R$ . Then  $-a = (-1_R) \cdot a$ , for  $a'$  is unique.

7. The zero ring is the ring with 1 element. Show R is zero ring  $\Leftrightarrow 1_R = 0_R$ .

Proof.

" $\Rightarrow$ ": Trivial.

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Since we have  $a \cdot 1_R = 1_R \cdot a = a$  for all  $a \in R$  and  $1_R = 0_R$ , we have  $0_R = a \cdot 0_R = a$  for all  $a \in R$ .

8. Does cancellation hold for  $\cdot$ ?

Sol. No. Consider  $a \cdot b = a \cdot c$  and  $a \neq 0_R$ , then  $a \cdot (b - c) = 0_R$ . So if R is an integral domain, then we can apply cancellation of non-zero element.

**Definition 1.0.2** R is said to be an *integral domain* if

$$a \cdot b = 0 \iff a = 0 \text{ or } b = 0.$$

**Definition 1.0.3** R is said to be a field if every non-zero element in R has a multiplication inverse.

#### Exercise 1.0.2

- 1. If R is an integral domain, then we can apply cancellation of non-zero element.
- 2. Show that every field is an integral domain.

*Proof.* If 
$$a \cdot b = 0$$
 and  $a \neq 0_R$ , let  $a'$  be the multiplication inverse of  $a$ , then  $b = 1_R \cdot b = a' \cdot a \cdot b = a' \cdot 0_R = 0$ .

3. Check that  $a^{-1}$  is unique.

*Proof.* If  $a^{-1}$  and a' are both multiplication inverse of a, then  $a \cdot a^{-1} = a \cdot a' = 1_R$ . Apply cancellation of non-zero element, we have  $a' = a^{-1}$ .

Remark 1.0.1 Though every field is an integral domain, not every integral domain is a field. For example,  $\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain but not a field.

#### Ways to make new rings:

Let R be an integral domain, how to construct a new ring?

Let  $K = \{(a,b), a,b \in R, b \neq 0\}$ . We also define an equivalent relation  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  if ad = bc.

- Check this is an equivalent class.
  - -(a,b) = (a,b)
  - if  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  and  $(c,d) \sim (e,f)$ , then  $(a,b) \sim (e,f)$
- We define

$$- (a,b) + (c,d) = (ad + bc.bd) - (a,b) \cdot (c,d) = (ac,bd)$$

Check these two operation pass to equivalent class.

•  $0_K = [(0, 1_R)], 1_K = [(1_R, 1_R)]$ 

**Definition 1.0.4** If R, S are two rings, a homomorphism  $\phi: R \to S$  is a map such that

- 1.  $\phi(1_R) = 1_S$ .
- 2.  $\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$ .
- 3.  $\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b)$ .

An isomorphism is a homomorphism that is both injective and surjective.

 $\phi: R \to S, a \mapsto [(a, 1_R)]$  is an injective homomorphism. For example, we have  $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ .

Remark 1.0.2 If R is a field, then the homomorphism is isomorphism, i.e.,  $\phi$  is also surjective. Because for any  $[(a,b)] \in K$ , we have  $\phi(ab^{-1}) = [(ab^{-1},1)] = [(a,b)]$ .

#### Ways to kill elements:

**Definition 1.0.5** An ideal I in R is a non-empty subset such that

- 1. I is closed under addition.
- 2. I is closed under multiplication by arbitrary elt in R.

Note that  $(I, +) \subset (R, +)$  is an abelian subgroup.

#### **■ Example 1**

- (0) is an ideal.
- R itself is an ideal.
- if  $a \in R$ , the  $R \cdot a$  is an ideal, denoted by  $(a)_R$ .
- $n\mathbb{Z}$  is an ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Quotient Ring:** Let  $I \subset R$  be an ideal.  $R/I = \text{coset of } I \text{ in } R = \{a+I, a \in R\}$ , we define

- 1.  $(a+I) \oplus (b+I) = (a+b) + I$ .
- 2.  $(a+I) \odot (b+I) = ab + I$ .

with zero elt (0 + I) and identity elt (1 + I).

### 1.1 Unique Factorization in $\mathbb{Z}$

It will be more convenient to work with  $\mathbb{Z}$  rather than restricting ourselves to the positive integers. The notion of divisibility carries over with no difficulty to  $\mathbb{Z}$ . If p is a positive prime, -p will also be a prime. We shall not consider 1 or -1 as primes even though they fit the definition. This is simply a useful convention. They are called the units of  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

There are a number of simple properties of division that we shall simply list.

- 1.  $a|a, a \neq 0$ .
- 2. If a|b and b|a, then  $a = \pm b$ .
- 3. If a|b and b|c, then a|c.
- 4. If a|b and a|c, then a|(b+c).

**Lemma 1** Every nonzero integer can be written as a product of primes.

**Theorem 1.1.1** For every nonzero integer n there is a prime factorization

$$n = (-1)^{\varepsilon(n)} \prod_{p} p^{a(p)},$$

with the exponents uniquely determined by n. In fact, we have  $a(p) = \operatorname{ord}_{n} n$ .

The proof if this theorem if is not as easy as it may seem. We shall postpone the proof until we

have established a few preliminary results.

**Lemma 2** If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \geq 0$ , there exist  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that a = qb + r with  $0 \leq r < b$ .

**Definition 1.1.1** If  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we define  $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$  to be the set of all integers of the form  $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n$  with  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Remark 1.1.1 Let  $A = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ . Notice that the sum and difference of two elements in A are again in A. Also, if  $a \in A$  and  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $ra \in A$ , i.e., A is an ideal in the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

**Lemma 3** If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then there is a  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that (a, b) = (d)

**Definition 1.1.2** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . An integer d is called a greatest common divisor of a and b if d is a divisor of both a and b and if every other common divisor of a and b divides d.

Remark 1.1.2 The gcd of two numbers, if it exists, is determined up to sign.

**Lemma 4** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If (a, b) = (d) then d is a greatest common divisor of a and b.

**Definition 1.1.3** We say that two integers a and b are relatively prime if the only common divisors are  $\pm 1$ , the units.

It's fairly standard to use the notation (a, b) for the greatest common divisor of a and b. With this convention we can say that a and b are relatively prime if (a, b) = 1.

**Proposition 1.1.2** Suppose that a|bc and that (a,b)=1. Then a|c.

Corollary 1.1.3 If p is a prime and p|bc, then either p|b or p|c.

Corollary 1.1.4 Suppose that p is a prime and that  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\operatorname{ord}_p ab = \operatorname{ord}_p a + \operatorname{ord}_p b$ .