

**Exercise 1.** Consider the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , with  $n \geq 2$ .

- $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{[x] \in \mathbb{Z}_n : (x, n) = 1\}$ <sup>1</sup>. In fact  $(x, n) = 1 \iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} (ax + bn = 1) \iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} ([ax + bn] = [1]) \iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} ([ax] + [bn] = [1]) \iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} ([a][x] + [b][n] = [1]) \iff \exists [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n ([a][x] = 1)$ .
- $\text{Zdv}(\mathbb{Z}_n) = (\mathbb{Z}_n^*)^C$ . It is sufficient to show  $\supseteq$ . If  $(x, n) = d \neq 1$  then  $x \frac{n}{d} = \frac{x}{d}n = cn$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ , i.e.  $[x][\frac{n}{d}] = [0]$ , and since  $d \neq 1 \Rightarrow \frac{n}{d} < n \Rightarrow [\frac{n}{d}] \neq 0$  we are done.

**Exercise 2.** Let  $R$  be an euclidean domain and  $f : R \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  a norm on  $R$ . Let  $I \triangleleft R$  an ideal. It is sufficient to show  $I \subseteq gR$  for some  $g$ . Let  $g \in I \setminus \{0\}$  be such that  $f(g) = \min f[I]$ . Let  $a \in I$ . By hypothesis we have  $a = gq + r$  for some  $q, r \in R$  such that either  $r = 0$  or  $f(r) < f(g)$ . But then  $r = a - gq \in I$ , thus  $r = 0$  necessarily by minimality. Therefore  $a = gq$ , and we are done.

**Exercise 3.** Let  $I$  be an ideal of a ring  $R$ . Let  $\mathbb{L}_I$  be the set of all ideals of  $R$  which contain  $I$ . Let  $(\mathbb{L}(R/I), \subseteq)$  be the set of all ideals of  $R/I$ . Let the mapping  $\Phi_I : (\mathbb{L}_I, \subseteq) \rightarrow (\mathbb{L}(R/I), \subseteq)$  be defined as:

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{L}_I : \Phi_I(a) = \pi(a)$$

where  $q : a \rightarrow a/J$  is the canonical epimorphism from  $a$  to  $a/J$  from the definition of quotient ring. Then  $\Phi_I$  is an isomorphism.

*Dimostrazione.* Let  $b \in \mathbb{L}_I$ . Of course,  $I \subseteq b$ . Thus  $\pi^{-1}(\pi(b)) = b + J = b$ . Furthermore, let  $c$  be an ideal of  $R/I$ . Then  $\pi(\pi^{-1}(c)) = c$ . Thus  $\Phi_I$  is a bijection, and we have that  $\forall c \in \mathbb{L}(R/I) (\pi^{-1}(\Phi_I)c = \pi^{-1}(c))$ .

Now to show that  $\Phi_I$  is an isomorphism, let  $b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{L}_I$ . If  $b_1 \subseteq b_2$ , then  $\pi(b_1) \subseteq \pi(b_2)$ .

Conversely, suppose  $\pi(b_1) \subseteq \pi(b_2)$ . By what we have just proved,  $b_1 = \pi^{-1}(\pi(b_1)) \subseteq \pi^{-1}(\pi(b_2)) = b_2$ .

Thus  $\Phi_I$  is an isomorphism. □

**Exercise 4.** Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the set of ideals of  $R$  of the form  $xR$ , with  $x$  not a unit and such that  $x$  cannot be decomposed in the form:  $x = up_1 \cdots p_r$  with  $u$  a unit and  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  irreducible. We show towards a contradiction that  $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset$ . Since  $R$  is noetherian, we can choose a maximal element  $aR \in \mathcal{F}$ . By construction,  $a$  is not irreducible, so we can write  $a = bc$  with  $b, c$  non-units and not associates. Since  $a$  and  $b$  are not associate, we have  $bR \subsetneq aR$  and  $aR \subsetneq bR$  (????????). Since

---

<sup>1</sup>It is immediate to check that the set is well-defined.

$aR$  is assumed maximal, this means that  $bR$  and  $cR$  do not belong to  $\mathcal{F}$ . Therefore there exist units  $u, v$  and irreducible elements  $p_1, \dots, p_r, q_1, \dots, q_s$  such that:

$$b = up_1 \cdots p_r \text{ and } c = vq_1 \cdots q_s$$

But this implies that

$$a = bc = (uv) p_1 \cdots p_r \cdot q_1 \cdots q_s$$

which is a contradiction, since we assumed that  $a$  could not be written in this form.

**Exercise 5.** Let  $R$  be a PID. Suppose we have an ascending chain of principal ideals  $(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq \dots$  and let  $I$  be the union  $I = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} (a_i)$ . Obviously  $I$  is an ideal, and is a principal ideal because it is in a PID. Therefore, it is generated by a single element,  $I = (a)$ . Since  $a \in I$ ,  $a \in (a_N)$  for some  $N$ . Then if  $i \geq N$ , then we have  $(a) = (a_N)$ , so it satisfies the ascending chain condition of principal ideals.

Let an element  $a$  be irreducible. If  $1 \in (a)$ , then  $a$  would be a unit, so  $(a)$  must be a proper ideal. If there is no maximal proper ideal containing  $(a)$ , then the ascending chain condition would not be satisfied, so we can conclude that there is a maximal ideal proper ideal  $I$  containing  $(a)$  (Note: This does not require the Zorn's lemma or axiom of choice, since we did not use the theorem on maximal ideals). This ideal must be a principal ideal  $(b)$  by hypothesis, but since  $a \in (b)$ , we have  $b|a$ , and since  $a$  is irreducible,  $b$  must either be a unit or an associate of  $a$ . Since  $(b)$  is a proper ideal,  $b$  must not be a unit, so it must be an associate of  $a$ . Therefore,  $(a) = (b)$ , so  $(a)$  is maximal. However, all maximal ideals are clearly prime, so  $(a)$  is a prime ideal, which implies that  $a$  is prime.

### Exercise 6.

- Let  $R$  be a finite integral domain. Let  $a \in R$  such that  $a \neq 0$ . We wish to show that  $a$  has a product inverse in  $R$ . So consider the function  $f : R \rightarrow R$  defined by  $f : x \mapsto ax$ . We first show that the kernel of  $f$  is just  $\{0\}$ . We have  $\ker(f) = \{x \in R : f(x) = 0\} = \{x \in R : ax = 0\}$ . Since  $R$  is an integral domain, it has no zero divisors (except 0) and thus  $ax = 0$  means that  $a = 0$  or  $x = 0$ . Since  $a \neq 0$ , then necessarily  $x = 0$ . Therefore,  $\ker(f) = \{0\}$  and so  $f$  is injective. Next, by the Pigeonhole Principle,  $f$  is surjective as well. Finally, since  $f$  is surjective and  $1 \in R$ , we have:

$$\exists x \in R : f(x) = ax = 1$$

So  $x$  is the inverse of  $a$  and we are done.

**Exercise 7.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ ,  $\alpha = 6$  and  $\beta = 2(1 + \sqrt{-5})$ . Then  $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = \emptyset$ .

*Dimostrazione.* Define a function  $N : \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  by

$$N(a + b\sqrt{-5}) = (a + b\sqrt{-5})(a - b\sqrt{-5}) = a^2 + 5b^2.$$

Then:

- It's easy to check that  $N(\alpha\beta) = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ .
- Thus, if  $\alpha|\beta$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ , then  $N(\alpha)|N(\beta)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
- $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$  is a unit if and only if  $N(\alpha) = 1$ . In fact,  $\alpha\alpha' = 1 \Rightarrow N(\alpha)N(\alpha) = N(1) = 1 \Rightarrow N(\alpha) = N(\alpha') = 1$ , and viceversa  $N(\alpha) = a^2 + 5b^2 = 1 \Rightarrow b = 0 \wedge a^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \alpha = \pm 1$ .
- Of course  $a^2 + 5b^2 \neq 2, 3$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus there are no elements in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$  with  $N(\alpha) = 2$  or  $N(\alpha) = 3$ .
- It follows that 2, 3,  $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ , and  $1 - \sqrt{-5}$  are irreducible. In fact  $N(2) = 4$ ,  $N(3) = 9$  and  $N(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = N(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$ . Suppose  $2 = ab$ , which implies  $N(a)N(b) = 4$ . Since the last point, this means necessarily that  $N(a) = 1$  or  $N(b) = 1$ , and by the third point this means that  $a$  or  $b$  is a unit, i.e. 2 is irreducible.

For the other elements it's sufficient to adapt the same argument.

Now suppose that  $\gcd(\alpha, \beta) = \delta$  for some  $\delta \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ . Since  $\beta = 2(1 + \sqrt{-5})$  and  $\alpha = 2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$ , this means that  $2|\delta$  and  $(1 + \sqrt{-5})|\delta$ , thus  $2(1 + \sqrt{-5})|\delta$ , i.e.  $\beta|\delta$ . Therefore  $\beta|\alpha$ , i.e.  $2(1 + \sqrt{-5})|2 \cdot 3$ , thus  $(1 + \sqrt{-5})|3$ , which is not possible since 3 is irreducible and  $(1 + \sqrt{-5})$  is not associate to 3 (because the only units are  $\pm 1$ ).

□

**Exercise 9.** Let  $R$  be a ring and let  $aR$  be the ideal generated by  $a$ . Suppose that  $a = xy$  for some  $x, y \in R$ . Then, clearly  $xy \in (a)$ . So,  $x \in (a)$  or  $y \in (a)$ , since  $(a)$  is a prime ideal. Thus,  $x = am$ , or  $y = an$  for some  $m, n \in R$ . Since we can rewrite the last assertion as  $a|x$  or  $a|y$ , we conclude that  $a$  is prime.

Viceversa, suppose that  $a$  is prime. To show that  $a$  is a prime ideal, suppose that  $xy \in (a)$  for some  $x, y \in R$ . Since  $xy \in (a)$ , we have that  $xy = ac$  for some  $c \in R$ . We can rewrite this as  $a|(xy)$ . However, since  $a$  is prime, this implies that  $a|x$  or  $a|y$ . So,  $x = am$  or  $y = an$  for some  $m, n \in R$ . Hence,  $x \in (a)$  or  $y \in (a)$ , as required.

**An introduction to module theory.** Throughout, let  $R$  be a commutative ring. A. Submodules, factor module, and homomorphisms.

**Definizione 0.0.1.** Let  $M$  be an additive abelian group. An  $R$ -module structure on  $M$  is a map  $\sigma : R \times M \rightarrow M$ ,  $(\lambda, x) \mapsto \lambda \cdot x$  such that for all  $\lambda, \mu \in R$  and all  $x, y \in M$ :

- 
- 
- 

**Esempio 0.0.2.**

- If  $\lambda \in R$ , then  $\lambda 0 = \lambda(0 + 0) = \lambda 0 + \lambda 0$  and hence  $\lambda 0 = 0$ .
- If  $R$  is a field, then an  $R$ -module is an  $R$ -vector space.
- $R = \mathbb{Z}$  every abelian group is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module (with the usual multiplication as scalar multiplication).
- Ring multiplication:  $R \times R \rightarrow R$  is an  $R$ -module structure, i.e.  $R$  is an  $R$ -module.
- Let  $f : R \rightarrow S$  be a ring hom. Then  $S$  is an  $R$ -module defined by  $R \times S \rightarrow S$ ,  $(r, s) \mapsto f(r)s$ . In particular, if  $R \subseteq S$  is a subring, then  $S$  is an  $R$ -module by ring multiplication (e.g.,  $R \subseteq R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ ).

**Definizione 0.0.3.** Let  $M$  be an  $R$ -module. A subset  $N \subseteq M$  is called an  $(R-)$ submodule of  $M$  if

- $N \subseteq M$  is a subgroup
- For all  $\lambda \in R$  and all  $x \in N$ ,  $\lambda x \in N$

Then  $\sigma|_{R \times N} : R \times N \rightarrow N$  is an  $R$ -module structure on  $N$ , and  $N$  is an  $R$ -module.

**Remarks and examples**

- Let  $G$  be an abelian group and  $H \subseteq G$  a subset. Then  $H \subseteq GG$  is a subgroup iff  $H \subseteq G$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -submodule.
- Let  $I \subseteq R$  be a subset. Then  $I \subseteq R$  is an ideal iff  $I \subseteq R$  is an  $R$ -submodule.
- $0 = \{0_R\}$  and  $M$  are  $R$ -submodules of  $M$ .  $M$  is called simple if  $0 \neq M$ , and  $0$  and  $M$  are the only submodules of  $M$ .

- If  $(M_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  is a family of  $R$ -submodules, then  $\bigcap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_\lambda$  and  $\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_\lambda = \{\sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} m_\lambda \mid m_\lambda \in M_\lambda, m_\lambda > 0 \text{ for almost all } \lambda \in \Lambda\}$  are submodules of  $M$ . In particular, if  $M_1$  and  $M_2 \subseteq M$  are submodules, then  $M_1 + M_2 = \{m_1 + m_2 \mid m_1 \in M_1, m_2 \in M_2\} \subseteq M$  is a submodule.

**Definizione 0.0.4.** Let  $M$  be an  $R$ -module and  $R \subseteq M$  a subset. Then

$${}_R \langle E \rangle = \left\langle E \right\rangle = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in R, x_1, \dots, x_n \in E \right\}$$

is the submodule generated by  $E$ .

**Remarks 1.**

- Since  $\langle E \rangle = \bigcap_{E \subseteq N \subseteq M, NR\text{-submodule}} N = \sum_{x \in E} Rx$ ,  $\langle E \rangle$  is the smallest submodule of  $M$  containing  $E$ .
- If  $E = \{x\}$ , then  $\langle E \rangle = Rx$ .  
If  $E = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ , then  $\langle E \rangle = Rx_1 + \dots + Rx_n$ .  
If  $(M_\lambda)_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$  is a family of submodules of  $M$ , then  $\langle \bigcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_\lambda \rangle = \sum_{\lambda \in \Lambda} M_\lambda$ .
- A subset  $E \subseteq M$  is called an  $(R\text{-module})$  generating set of  $M$  if  ${}_R \langle E \rangle = M$ .  
 $M$  is called finitely generated if  $M$  has a finite generating set.
  - $R$  field:  $M$  is a f.g.  $R$ -module iff  $\dim_R(M) < \infty$ .
  - $R = \mathbb{Z}$ :  $M$  f.g.  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module iff  $M$  is a f.g. abelian group.
  - $R[X]$  is not a f.g.  $R$ -module (immediate).
- Let  $M$  be a f.g.  $R$ -module. Then every generating set contains a finite generating set.

*Dimostrazione.* Let  $E \subseteq M$  be a finite generating set, and let  $E' \subseteq M$  be an arbitrary generating set. Since  $E \subseteq M = \langle E' \rangle$ , there is a finite subset  $E'' \subseteq E'$  with  $E \subseteq \langle E'' \rangle$ . This implies that  $M = \langle E \rangle \subseteq \langle \langle E'' \rangle \rangle = \langle E'' \rangle$ , i.e.  $E'' \subseteq E'$  is a finite generating set.  $\square$

**Definizione 0.0.5.** Let  $M$  and  $N$  be  $R$ -modules. A map  $f : M \rightarrow N$  is said to be (an  $R$ -module homomorphism if

- $f$  is a group hom (i.e.  $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$ ).
  - $f$  is  $R$ -linear (i.e.  $f(\lambda x) = \lambda f(x)$ ).
- $\text{Hom}_R$