# Solutions to Sheet 1

#### Exercise 1

Determine the nilradical, the Jacobson radical and the units for each ring A below:

- 1. k a field and A = k[T],
- 2. k a field and  $A = k[\epsilon, T]/(\epsilon^2)$ ,
- 3.  $n \ge 1$ , k a field and  $A = k[T_1, \dots, T_n]$ .

#### Solution.

1. Nilradical. If B is any commutative ring without zero divisors, then B[T] doesn't have zero divisors. Indeed, if  $f, g \in B[T]$  with fg = 0, we can look at the leading terms of f and g, obtaining f = 0 or g = 0. We now obtain Nil(A) = (0) as every element in the nilradical is a zero divisor.

Units. Obviously,  $k^{\times} \subset k[T]^{\times}$ . We have the additive degree map deg :  $k[T]^{\times} \to \mathbb{N}_0$ . If we have elements  $f, g \in k[T]$  with fg = 1, then  $0 = \deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ , thereby  $\deg(f) = \deg(g) = 0$  and  $f, g \in k^{\times}$ . This shows that  $k^{\times} \supset k[T]^{\times}$ , and we have equality.

Jacobson radical. Note that if B is any commutative ring and  $f \in \operatorname{Jac}(B)$ , then  $1+f \in B^{\times}$ . Indeed, if we had  $1+f \notin B^{\times}$ , we'd find some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  containing 1+f (by Zorn's lemma). But now  $f \in \mathfrak{m}$  (as  $f \in \operatorname{Jac}(B)$ ) and  $1+f \in \mathfrak{m}$ , hence  $1 \in \mathfrak{m}$ . This is a contradiction. Thereby we obtain that every  $f \in \operatorname{Jac}(A)$  has degree 0, i.e., lies in k. As  $A^{\times} \cap \operatorname{Jac}(A) = \emptyset$ , we find  $\operatorname{Jac}(A) = 0$ . (As  $\operatorname{Jac}(A) \supset \operatorname{Nil}(A)$ , this is stronger than  $\operatorname{Nil}(A) = 0$ .)

2. Nilradical and Jacobson radical. We claim that if  $I \subset Nil(A)$ , there is an equality Nil(A)/I = Nil(A/I). Indeed, this can be seen directly by writing the nilradical as the intersection of prime ideals. The same statement is true for the Jacobson radical.

We apply this statement with  $I = (\varepsilon)$ . As  $\varepsilon^2 = 0$ , we have  $I \subset \mathfrak{p}$  for every prime ideal, hence  $(\varepsilon) \subset \operatorname{Jac}(A)$ . As  $A/(\varepsilon) \cong k[T]$ , we have  $(0) = \operatorname{Nil}(A/(\varepsilon)) = \operatorname{Nil}(A)/(\varepsilon)$ . This shows  $\operatorname{Nil}(A) = (\varepsilon)$ .

The same proof, but with Jac in place of Nil (and maximal ideals instead of prime ideals) shows that  $Jac(A) = (\varepsilon)$ .

Units. There are probably smarter ways to do this, but let's try brute force. Suppose we have  $f = f_1 + \varepsilon f_2$  and  $g = g_1 + \varepsilon g_2$ , where  $f_i, g_i \in k[T]$ , such that fg = 1. Now  $1 = f_1 g_1 + \varepsilon (f_1 g_2 + f_2 g_1)$ . It follows that  $f_1 \in k^{\times}$ , and we clam that this is also sufficient for  $f \in A^{\times}$ . Indeed, up to multiplication with a constant in  $k^{\times}$ , f is of the form  $1 + \varepsilon f_2$ , and now f admits an inverse  $f^{-1} = 1 - \varepsilon f_2$ .

3. Units. We first claim that every  $f \in A$  with non-zero constant term is invertible. Indeed, after multiplying with a unit  $c \in k^{\times}$  we may assume that f = 1 + R with  $R \in (T_1, \dots, T_n)$ . Now, f admits the inverse  $f^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - f)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - f)^n \in k[T_1, \dots, T_n]$ .

Jacobson radical. We first claim that A is a local ring, i.e., a ring with a unique maximal ideal. Indeed, we have seen that every element not lying in the ideal  $\mathfrak{m} = (T_1, \ldots, T_n)$  is invertible, hence  $\mathfrak{m}$  is an ideal that contains all other ideals.

Nil radical. We want to show that A is reduced. More generally, we prove the following statement, from where the claim follows by induction.

If B is reduced, 
$$B[T]$$
 is reduced.

for the sake of contradiction, assume that  $f \in B[T]$  is a non-zero power series with  $f^n = 0$ . Write  $f = a_d T^d + a_{d+1} T^{d+1} + \ldots$  with  $a_d \neq 0$ . Now  $f^n = 0$  implies  $a_d^n = 0$ , so  $a_d = 0$  by reducedness of B. Hence f = 0.

### Exercise 2

Prove the *Chinese remainder theorem*: Let A be a ring and  $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \subset A$  two ideals such that  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = A$ . Then the map

$$A/\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} \to A/\mathfrak{a} \times A/\mathfrak{b}, \quad r + \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} \mapsto (r + \mathfrak{a}, r + \mathfrak{b})$$

is an isomorphism. Moreover, show that  $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$ , where  $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$  is the smalles ideal in A containing all products ab wth  $a \in A$ ,  $b \in B$ . Show  $a \cap b = ab$ . Show that map has kernel  $a \cap b$  and that homomorphism is surjective.

**Solution.** We first show that this map is well-defined, and indeed a homomorphism of rings. This is evident for the reduction-mod- $\mathfrak{a}$  and reduction-mod- $\mathfrak{b}$  maps  $A \to A/\mathfrak{a}$  and  $A/\mathfrak{b}$ . By the universal property of the product of rings we obtain the map  $A \to A/\mathfrak{a} \times A/\mathfrak{b}$ . The kernel of this homomorphism is given by the elements in A which lie simultaneously in  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$ , hence we obtain an injective map

$$A/(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) \to A/\mathfrak{a} \times A/\mathfrak{b}.$$

To show surjectivity, it suffices to construct elements  $a, b \in A$  such that  $a \mapsto (0, 1)$  and  $b \mapsto (1, 0)$ . As  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = A$ , there are elements  $a \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $b \in \mathfrak{b}$  such that a + b = 1. These are the elements we are looking for! Indeed, as a = 1 - b we find that a reduces to 1 mod  $\mathfrak{b}$ , and as  $a \in \mathfrak{a}$  we find  $(a + \mathfrak{a}, a + \mathfrak{b}) = (\mathfrak{a}, 1 + \mathfrak{b})$ .

**Remark.** There is a more general version of the chinese remainder theorem which we will need in exercise 4. Namely, if  $\mathfrak{a}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{a}_n$  is a finite set of pairwise coprime ideals (meaning that for any choice  $1 \le i < j \le n$  we have  $\mathfrak{a}_i + \mathfrak{a}_j = A$ ), there is an isomorphism

$$A/(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{a}_n) \cong A/\mathfrak{a}_1 \times \cdots \times A/\mathfrak{a}_n$$
.

To see this, one can either generalize the proof given above, or use induction after showing that the coprimality assumption implies that the ideals  $(\mathfrak{a}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{a}_{n-1})$  and  $\mathfrak{a}_n$  are coprime.

We now show that  $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$ . The inclusion  $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} \supset \mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$  is obvious, as all products ab lie in both  $\mathfrak{a}$  and  $\mathfrak{b}$ . To show the reverse inclusion, let  $f \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ . Again, let a + b = 1 with  $a \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $b \in \mathfrak{b}$ . Then fa + fb = f, and the left hand side lies in  $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathfrak{b}$  by definition.

**Remark.** Note that this statement is wrong if we drop the assumption that  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = 1$ . Indeed, take for example  $\mathfrak{a} = (4)$ ,  $\mathfrak{b} = (6)$  as ideals of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} = (24)$ , while  $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} = (12)$ . However, the assumption that  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = A$  is not necessary. In the case A = k[X, Y],  $\mathfrak{a} = (X)$  and  $\mathfrak{b} = (Y)$  we still have  $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} = (XY) = \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$  even though  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = (X, Y) \neq A$ .

#### Exercise 3

Recall that an element  $e \in A$  in a ring A is called idempotent if  $e^2 = e$ .

- 1. Let A be a ring. Show that the map  $e \mapsto (A_1 := eA, A_2 := (1 e)A)$  induces a bijection between the set Idem(A) of idempotents of A and the set of decompositions  $A = A_1 \times A_2$  of rings.
- 2. Let  $A = \mathbb{Z}/133\mathbb{Z}$ . Determine Idem(A).

#### Solution.

1. The exercise does not make clear what it means by a decomposition. In the scope of this exercise, a decomposition of A is an isomorphism  $\delta: A \to A_1 \times A_2$ , where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are any two rings. We say that two decompositions  $\delta_1: A \to A_1 \times A_2$  and  $\delta_2: A \to B_1 \times B_2$  are isomorphic iff there are isomorphisms  $\varphi_i: A_i \to B_i, i = 1, 2$  such that  $(\varphi_1, \varphi_2) \circ \delta_1 = \delta_2$ . We define the set  $D_A$  as the set of isomorphism classes of the set  $P_A$  of decompositions, and we'll show that the map specified in the exercise gives a bijection  $P_A$ .

First, note that  $(1-e)^2 = (1-e)$  for any idempotent e.

We have show that the map really is a map! That is, we show that for any idempotent element  $e \in A$ , there is an isomorphism  $\delta_e : A \cong eA \times (1-e)A$ , where eA and (1-e)A carry the ring structure of A, but with identity given by e and (1-e), respectively. Surjectivity is comes from the fact that (ea, (1-e)b) has preimage (ea + (1-e)b), and injectivity boils down to the calculation  $\text{Ker}(\delta_e) = (e) \cap (1-e) = (e) \cdot (1-e) = (0)$ .

Next, note that we also have a map  $D_A \to \operatorname{Idem}(A)$  given by sending  $\delta: A \to A_1 \times A_2$  to  $e_\delta := \delta^{-1}(1,0)$ . This map does not depend on the isomorphism class of  $\delta$  as ring homomorphisms preserve the multiplicative unit. One quickly verifies that  $\operatorname{Idem}(A) \to D_A \to \operatorname{Idem}(A)$  is the identity. The last thing to see is that  $D_A \to \operatorname{Idem}(A) \to D_A$  is the identity as well, which is the same as showing that for a given decomposition  $\delta: A \to A_1 \times A_2$ , there is an isomorphism  $\delta \cong \delta_{e_\delta}$ . Such an isomorphism is the same as isomorphisms  $\varphi_1: e_\delta A \to A_1, \ \varphi_2: (1-e_\delta)A \to A_2$ . As  $\delta$  sends the ideal  $(e) \subset A$  to the ideal generated by (1,0) in  $A_1 \times A_2$ ,  $\delta$  restricts to an isomorphism (of modules)  $e_\delta A \to A_1 \times \{0\}$ . This yields an isomorphism (of rings)  $\varphi_1: e_\delta A \to A_1$ . Similarly for the second coordinate. Now  $(\varphi_1, \varphi_2)$  constitute an isomorphism  $\delta \cong \delta_{e_\delta}$ .

2. Note that  $133 = 19 \times 7$ , hence by the chinese remainder theorem  $\mathbb{Z}/133 \cong \mathbb{Z}/19 \times \mathbb{Z}/7$ . The right hand side is a product of fields, and it is clear that the only idempotents there are given by (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (1,1). As  $1 = 19 \cdot 3 - 7 \cdot 8$ , the isomorphism from the chinese remainder theorem is given by  $(a,b) \mapsto 57b + 77a$ , and we find that the non-trivial idempotents are given by 57 and 77.

## Exercise 4

Let k be a field and let  $k \to A$  be a ring homomorphism such that A is finite dimensional over k (i.e., regarded as a k-vector space, A has finite dimension).

- 1. Show that A is a field if A is an integral domain.
- 2. Deduce that each prime ideal in A is maximal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Actually I'm not sure if this really is a set, but whatever. The decompositions will certainly form a category (a groupoid), with morphisms the isomorphisms we described. The isomorphism classes do form a set as they all are represented by quotients of A.

3. Deduce that if A is reduced, then A is isomorphic to a finite product of finite field extensions l/k.

#### Solution.

- 1. Let  $x \in A$  be nonzero. Let  $\varphi : A \to A$  be the map obtained by multiplication with x, i.e.,  $\varphi(a) = xa$ . Now  $\varphi$  is a morphism of k-vector spaces (as  $\varphi(\lambda a + b) = \lambda \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)$  for  $\lambda \in k$ ,  $a, b \in A$ .), and it is injective by the fact that A is an integral domain. Indeed, if xa = 0, we find a = 0 as there are no zero divisors and  $x \neq 0$ . But now  $\varphi$  is an injective morphism between k-vector spaces of the same dimension, hence an isomorphism. In particular, we find some element  $x^{-1} \in A$  such that  $1 = \varphi(x^{-1}) = xx^{-1}$ . Hence every non-zero element of A has an inverse, and A is a field.
- 2. Let  $\mathfrak{p} \in A$  be a prime ideal. We apply what we showed in part 1) to  $A/\mathfrak{p}$ . As  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime,  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is an integral domain. But also, the composition  $k \to A \to A/\mathfrak{p}$  turns  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  into a k-vector space with  $\dim_k(A/\mathfrak{p}) \le \dim_k(A)$  (surjective maps between vector spaces reduce dimension). In particular,  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is finite-dimensional over k. Now part 1) gives that  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is a field, and as an ideal is maximal if and only it's quotient ring is a field, we find that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal.
- 3. Let M be the set of maximal (or prime, they are the same by the above) ideals of A. We want to apply the chinese remainder theorem, but a priori we can't, because M might be infinite. We claim however that in our situation, M is finite. To show this, suppose that  $(\mathfrak{m}_1, \mathfrak{m}_2, \dots)$  be an infinite sequence of elements in I. By the chinese remainder theorem, there is for any  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  an isomorphism

$$A/(\mathfrak{m}_1 \cap \cdots \cap \mathfrak{m}_N) \cong A/\mathfrak{m}_1 \times \cdots \times A/\mathfrak{m}_N.$$

The left-hand side has dimension  $\leq \dim_k(A)$ , as it is a quotient of A. Meanwhile, the right-hand side has dimension  $\geq N$ , as every quotient  $A/\mathfrak{m}_i$  is a non-trivial k-vector space and thereby has dimension at least 1. If we choose  $N > \dim_k(A)$ , we arrive at a contradiction. Now  $M = \{\mathfrak{m}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{m}_n\}$  is finite, and applying the chinese remainder theorem again yields the desired decomposition. All factors are field extensions of k of degree  $\leq \dim_k(A)$ , in particular finite.