

Ring Theory

- A field is a comm. ring F w/ identity $1 \neq 0$ in which every nonzero elt is a unit, i.e., $F^\times = F - \{0\}$.
- To check if subring, check ~~identity~~ ^{nonempty}, closed under subtraction, and mult.
- Any finite integral domain is a field.
- The element $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$ is a unit in \mathcal{O} iff $N(\alpha) = \pm 1$.

Proposition Let R be an int. dom. and let $p(x), q(x)$ be nonzero elts of $R[x]$. Then

- (1) degree $p(x)q(x) = \text{degree } p(x) + \text{degree } q(x)$.
 - (2) the units of $R[x]$ are just the units of R
 - (3) $R[x]$ is an integral domain.
- If S is a subring of R , then $S[x]$ is a subring of $R[x]$.

Definition: Let R and S be rings.

- (1) A ring homomorphism is a map $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ satisfying
 - (i) $\varphi(a+b) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b) \quad \forall a, b \in R$
 - (ii) $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b) \quad \forall a, b \in R$
- (2) The kernel of the ring hom. φ , denoted $\ker(\varphi)$, is the set of elements of R that map to 0 in S .
- (3) A bijective ring hom. is an isom.

Proposition: Let R and S be rings and let $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a homomorphism.

- (1) The image of φ is a subring of S
 - (2) The kernel of φ is a subring of R . Furthermore, if $r \in \ker(\varphi)$, then ra and $ar \in \ker(\varphi) \quad \forall r \in R$, i.e., $\ker(\varphi)$ is closed under mult. by elts. from R .
- The elt $b \in R$ belongs to the ideal (a) iff $b = ra$ for some $r \in R$, i.e., iff b is a multiple of a ($a|b$ in R).
 - $b \in (a)$ iff $(b) \subseteq (a)$.
 - Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. $n \mathbb{Z} \subseteq m \mathbb{Z}$ iff $m|n$ in \mathbb{Z}

Example: we show that the ideal $(2, x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not principal.

observe that $(2, x) = \{2p(x) + xq(x) : p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}$ and so this ideal consists precisely of the polys. w/ \mathbb{Z} -coeffs whose constant term is even. In particular, this is a proper ideal. Assume by way of contradiction that $(2, x) = (a(x))$ for some $a(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Since $2 \in (a(x))$ there must be some $p(x)$ s.t. $2 = p(x)a(x) \Rightarrow p, a$ must be constant polys. Since 2 is prime, $p, a \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$. If $a(x) = \pm 1$, then every poly. would be a mult. of $a(x)$, contrary to $a(x)$ being a proper ideal. So $a(x) = \pm 2$. But now $x \in (a(x)) = (2) = (-2)$ and so $x = 2q(x)$ for some $q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. ∇ Therefore, $(2, x)$ is not principal.

- For any field F , all ideals of $F[x]$ are principal.

Continued...

Proposition: Let I be an ideal of R .

(1) $I=R$ iff I contains a unit

(2) Assume R is comm. Then R is a field iff its only ideals are 0 and R .

Proof: (1) If $I=R$, then I contains the unit 1 .

Conversely, if u is a unit in I with inverse v , then for any $r \in R$

$$r = r \cdot 1 = r(uv) = r(vu) = (rv)u \in I, \text{ hence } R=I.$$

(2) The ring R is a field iff every nonzero elt. is a unit. If R is a field every nonzero ideal contains a unit, so by the first part R is the only nonzero ideal.

Conversely, if 0 and R are the only ideals of R , let u be any nonzero elt. of R . By hypothesis, $(u)=R$ and so $1 \in (u)$. Thus, there is some $v \in R$ s.t. $1 = vu$, i.e., u is a unit.

Every nonzero elt of R is therefore a unit and so R is a field.

Corollary: If R is a field, then any nonzero ring homomorphism from R into another ring is injective.

Definition: An ideal M in an arbitrary ring S is called a ^{maximal} maximal ideal if $M \neq S$ and the only ideals containing M are M and S .

Proposition: In a ring w/ identity every proper ideal is contained in a maximal ideal.

Proof: Let R be a ring w/ id. and let I be a proper ideal (so R cannot be the zero ring).
Let \mathcal{S} be the set of all proper ideals of R that contain I . Then \mathcal{S} is not empty ($I \in \mathcal{S}$) and is partially ordered by inclusion.

If \mathcal{C} is a chain in \mathcal{S} , define J to be the union of all ideals in \mathcal{C} .

$J = \bigcup_{A \in \mathcal{C}} A$. We first show that J is an ideal.

Certainly, J is nonempty b/c $\mathcal{C} \neq \emptyset$. ($0 \in J$ since 0 is in every ideal).

If $a, b \in J$, then there are ideals $A, B \in \mathcal{C}$ s.t. $a \in A, b \in B$. By definition of a chain either $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$. In either case, $a-b \in J$, so J is closed under subtraction. Since each $A \in \mathcal{C}$ is closed under mult. by elts of R , so is J .

This proves J is an ideal.

If J is not a proper ideal, then $1 \in J$. In this case, by def. of J we must have $1 \in A$ for some $A \in \mathcal{C}$. \forall b/c $A \in \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$.

This proves that each chain has an upper bound in \mathcal{S} .

By Zorn's lemma, \mathcal{S} has a maximal elt. which is therefore a maximal (proper) ideal containing I .

continued...

Proposition: Assume R is commutative. The ideal M is a maximal ideal iff the quotient ring R/M is a field.

Definition: Assume R is comm. An ideal P is called a prime ideal if $P \neq R$ and whenever the product ab of two elts $a, b \in R$ is an elt. of P , then at least one of a and b is an elt. of P .

- The prime ideals of \mathbb{Z} are just the ideals $p\mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{Z} generated by prime numbers p together w/ the ideal 0 .

Proposition: Assume R is comm. Then the ideal P is prime ideal in R iff the quotient ring R/P is an integral domain.

Proof: The ideal P is prime $\Leftrightarrow P \neq R$ and whenever $ab \in P$, then either $a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

Use the bar notation for elts. of R/P : $\bar{r} = r + P$

Note that $r \in P$ iff the elt \bar{r} is zero in R/P .

Thus, P is a prime ideal $\Leftrightarrow \bar{R} \neq \bar{0}$ and whenever $\overline{ab} = \bar{a}\bar{b} = \bar{0}$, then either $\bar{a} = \bar{0}$ or $\bar{b} \in \bar{0}$, i.e., R/P is an int. dom.

It follows ~~that~~ in particular that a comm. ring w/ identity is an int. dom. iff 0 is a prime ideal. \square

Corollary: Assume R is comm. Every max ideal of R is a prime ideal.

Proof: If M is max. ideal, then $R/M = \text{field}$. A field is an int. dom. \square
 $\Rightarrow M$ is prime ideal.

Proposition: Assume R is comm. The ideal M is a maximal ideal iff R/M is a field.

Proof: (\Rightarrow) Assume M is maximal. Then R/M is a comm. ring w/ identity.

We have $R/M \neq 0$ since $R \neq M$. Therefore $1 \neq 0$ in R/M .

Finally we check for inverses. Let $a+M$ be a nonzero elt of R/M .

Then $a \notin M$ and we build a bigger ideal $I = \{rat + m : r \in R, m \in M\}$. (check that I is ideal). Since $a \in I$ and M is maximal, we must have $I = R$. But then $1 \in I$, so $1 = rat + m$ for some $r \in R, m \in M$. This means $1 + M = (r + M)(a + M)$. Since R/M is comm., this gives an inverse for $a + M$ and so R/M is a field.

(\Leftarrow) Now assume R/M is field. Since $1 \neq 0$ in R/M , we have $M \neq R$.

Assume there is an ideal I s.t. $M \subset I \subset R$. If $I \neq M$, let $a \in I$,

$a \notin M$. Then $a + M$ has an inverse $u + M$ in R/M , so $au + M = 1 + M$.

In particular, $au = 1 + m$ for some $m \in M$. Since $m \in M \subset I$, we have $1 = au - m \in I$ and so $I = R$. Therefore, M is maximal. \square

continued...

Definition: The ideals A and B of the ring R are said to be comaximal if $A+B=R$.

Chinese Remainder Theorem: Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k be ideals in R . The map $R \rightarrow R/A_1 \times R/A_2 \times \dots \times R/A_k$ defined by $r \mapsto (r+A_1, r+A_2, \dots, r+A_k)$ is a ring hom. w/ kernel $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_k$. If for each $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ w/ $i \neq j$ the ideals A_i and A_j are comaximal, then this map is surjective and $A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_k = A_1 A_2 \dots A_k$, so $R/(A_1 A_2 \dots A_k) = R/(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_k) \cong R/A_1 \times R/A_2 \times \dots \times R/A_k$.

Proof: We first prove this for $k=2$, the general case will follow by induction.

Let $A=A_1$ and $B=A_2$. Consider the map $\varphi: R \rightarrow R/A \times R/B$, defined by $\varphi(r) = (\varphi(r \bmod A), r \bmod B)$, where $\bmod A$ means the class in R/A containing r (that is, $r+A$).

This map is a ~~ring~~ ring hom. b/c φ is just the natural proj map of R into R/A and R/B for the two components.

The kernel of φ consists of all the elts $r \in R$ that are in A and in B , i.e., $A \cap B$. To complete the proof in this case, it remains to show that when A and B are comaximal, φ is surj. and $A \cap B = AB$.

Since $A+B=R$, there are elts $x \in A, y \in B$ s.t. $x+y=1$.

This equation shows that $\varphi(x) = (0, 1)$ and $\varphi(y) = (1, 0)$ since for ex. $x \in A$ and $x=1-y \in 1+B$.

If now $(r_1 \bmod A, r_2 \bmod B)$ is an arbitrary elt in $R/A \times R/B$, then the elt. $r_2 x + r_1 y$ maps to this elt. since

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(r_2 x + r_1 y) &= \varphi(r_2 x) + \varphi(r_1 y) = \varphi(r_2) \varphi(x) + \varphi(r_1) \varphi(y) \\ &= (r_2 \bmod A, r_2 \bmod B)(0, 1) + (r_1 \bmod A, r_1 \bmod B)(1, 0) \\ &= (0, r_2 \bmod B) + (r_1 \bmod A, 0) = (r_1 \bmod A, r_2 \bmod B).\end{aligned}$$

This shows that φ is surj.

Finally, the ideal AB is always contained in $A \cap B$.

If A and B are comaximal and x, y are as above, then for any $c \in A \cap B$,

$c = c1 = cx + cy \in AB$. This establishes $A \cap B \subseteq AB$, and completes the proof when $k=2$.

$\mathbb{Z}/mn \cong \mathbb{Z}/m \times \mathbb{Z}/n$ as rings when $(m, n) = 1$.

We also get $(\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z})^x \cong (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^x \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^x$. ^{powers of}

Corollary: Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k} = n$ into ^{distinct} primes. Then

$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p_1^{\alpha_1}\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_2^{\alpha_2}\mathbb{Z}) \times \dots \times (\mathbb{Z}/p_k^{\alpha_k}\mathbb{Z})$, as rings (same for $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^x$ w/ unit gps.)

continued...

Proposition: Every ideal in a Euclidean domain is principal. More precisely, if I is any nonzero ideal in the Euclidean domain R , then $I = (d)$, where d is any nonzero elt of I of min. norm.

Proof: If $I = (0)$, there is nothing to prove.

Otherwise, let d be any nonzero elt of I of min. norm. (such a d exists since the set $\{N(a) : a \in I\}$ has a minimum elt. by well-ordering of \mathbb{Z}).

Clearly $(d) \subseteq I$ since d is an elt. of I

To show $I \subseteq (d)$, let $a \in I$ and use the div. alg. to write $a = dq + r$ w/ $r = 0$ or $N(r) < N(d)$. Then $r = a - dq$ and both $a, dq \in I \Rightarrow r \in I$.

By the minimality of the norm of d , we see that r must be 0.

Thus $a = dq \in (d) \Rightarrow I \subseteq (d)$.

Therefore, $I = (d)$. \square

- Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Since $(2, x)$ is not principal, $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not a Euclidean domain. (even though $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is a Euclidean domain).

Example: Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, and consider $I = (3, 2 + \sqrt{-5})$.

Suppose $I = (a + b\sqrt{-5})$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, were principal, i.e., $3 = \alpha(a + b\sqrt{-5})$ and $2 + \sqrt{-5} = \beta(a + b\sqrt{-5})$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in R$.

Taking norms we get $N(3) = 9 = N(\alpha)N(a + b\sqrt{-5}) = N(\alpha)(a^2 + 5b^2)$

Since $a^2 + 5b^2 > 0$, we get that it must be $= 1, 3, \text{ or } 9$.

If $a^2 + 5b^2 = 9$, then $N(\alpha) = 1$ and $\alpha = \pm 1$, so $a + b\sqrt{-5} = \pm 3$, which is impossible by the second equation since the coeffs. of $2 + \sqrt{-5}$ are not divisible by 3.

The value cannot be 3 b/c there are no \mathbb{Z} -solns to $a^2 + 5b^2 = 3$.

If $a^2 + 5b^2 = 1$, then $a + b\sqrt{-5} = \pm 1$ and $I = R$. But then $1 \in I$, so $3\gamma + (2 + \sqrt{-5})\delta = 1$ for some $\gamma, \delta \in R$. Mult. both sides by $(2 - \sqrt{-5})$ would imply that $2 - \sqrt{-5}$ is a mult. of 3 in R , \downarrow

Therefore, I is not principal $\Rightarrow R$ is not a Euclidean domain. \square

- Note that $b|a$ in a ring R iff $a \in (b)$ iff $(a) \subseteq (b)$.

- $\mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1 + \sqrt{19}}{2}\right]$ is a PID that is not a Euclidean domain.

Proposition: Every nonzero prime ideal in a PID is ^{also} maximal ideal.

Proof: Let (p) be a nonzero prime ideal in the PID R , and let $I = (m)$ be any ideal containing (p) , so $(p) \subseteq (m) \subseteq R$. We WTS $I = (p)$ or $I = R$. Now $p \in (m)$, so $p = mr$ for some $r \in R$. Since (p) is a prime ideal and $mr \in (p)$, either $r \in (p)$ or $m \in (p)$. If $m \in (p)$, then $(m) = (p) = I$. If $r \in (p)$, then write $r = ps$.

In this case $r = ps = r = (mr)s \Rightarrow sm = 1$ (recall that R is an int. dom.) and m is a unit, so $(m) = R = I$. \square

continued.

Corollary: If R is any comm. ring such that the poly. ring $R[x]$ is a PID (or a Euclidean domain), then R is necessarily a field.

Proof: Assume $R[x]$ is a PID. Since $R \subset R[x]$, then R must be int. domain (Recall that $R[x]$ has an id. iff R does).

The ideal (x) is a nonzero prime ideal in $R[x]$ because $R[x]/(x) \cong R$ which is an int. domain. Every nonzero prime ideal in a PID is a maximal ideal, so (x) is maximal. Hence $R[x]/(x) \cong R$ is a field. \square

Proposition: In an integral domain a prime elt. is always irreducible.

Proof: Suppose (p) is a nonzero prime ideal and $p=ab$. Then $ab=p \in (p)$, so either $a \in (p)$ or $b \in (p)$. Say $a \in (p)$, then $a=pr$ for some r .

This implies $p=ab=prb \Rightarrow rb=1$ and b is a unit. $\Rightarrow p$ is irred. \square

- It is not true in general that an irred. elt. is necessarily prime.

Consider $3 \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$. 3 is irred. in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, but 3 is not prime since $(2+\sqrt{-5})(2-\sqrt{-5})=3^2$ is div. by 3 , but neither $2+\sqrt{-5}$ or $2-\sqrt{-5}$ is div. by 3 .

Proposition: In a PID a nonzero elt. is a prime \Leftrightarrow it is irreducible.

Proof: Above we showed prime \Rightarrow irred.

We must show conversely that if p is irred., then (p) is prime, i.e., the ideal (p) is prime.

If M is any ideal containing (p) , then by hypothesis $M=(m)$ is a principal ideal.

Since $p \in (m)$, $p=mr$ for some $r \in R$. But p is irred. so either r or m is a unit. This means either $(p)=(m)$ or $(m)=(1)$.

Thus the only ideals containing (p) are (p) or (1) , i.e., (p) is a maximal ideal. \Rightarrow since we are in PID max ideal \Rightarrow prime ideal. \square

Definition: A UFD is an int. dom. R s.t. every nonzero elt $r \in R$, $r \neq$ unit has the following two properties:

(i) r can be written as a fin. prod. of irred. $p_i \in R$ (not nec. distinct)
 $r=p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$ and

(ii) the decomp. in (i) is unique up to associates: namely, if $r=q_1 q_2 \cdots q_m$ is another factorization of r into irred., then $m=n$ and there is some renumbering of the factors q_i so that p_i is associate to q_i for $i=1, 2, \dots, n$.

Example: $R[x]$ is a UFD whenever R is a UFD (in contrast to the properties of being a PID or Euclidean domain, which do not carry over from a ring R to the poly. ring $R[x]$.)

Example: $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not UFD b/c $6=2 \cdot 3=(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5}) \leftarrow 2$ irred. factorizations.

continued...

Proposition: In a UFD a nonzero elt is a prime iff it is irreducible.

Proof: Let R be a UFD. Since a UFD is an int. domain and in an int. domain prime elts are always irred, it remains to show that each irred. elt is prime. Let p be an irred. elt. in R , and assume $plab$ for some $a, b \in R$. We WTS $pl a$ or $pl b$.

To say that $plab$ is to say $ab=pc$ for some $c \in R$. Writing a and b as a product of irreducibles, we see from $ab=pc$ and from the uniqueness of the decomp. into irred. of ab , that the elt. p must be associate to one of the irred. occurring in either the factⁿ of a or the factⁿ of b .

WLOG assume p is associate to one of the irred. in the factⁿ of a , i.e., a can be written as $a=(up)p_2 \cdots p_n$ for u a unit and some (possibly empty set of) irreducibles p_2, \dots, p_n . But then p divides a , since $a=pd$ w/ $d=up_2 \cdots p_n$. \square

Theorem: Every PID is a UFD. In particular, every Euclidean dom. is a UFD.

- In $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$, if $N(\alpha) = \pm a$ prime (in \mathbb{Z}), then α is irred. in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$.
- ~~Any~~ p factors in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ into precisely two irred. iff $p=a^2+b^2$ is the sum of two integer squares (otherwise p remains irred. in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$).
- If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then p is irred. in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

Proposition: The irred. elts of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ are as follows:

- (a) $1+i$ (norm = 2)
- (b) the primes $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ (which have norm p^2)
- (c) $a+bi, a-bi$, the distinct irred. factors of $p=a^2+b^2=(a+bi)(a-bi)$, for the primes $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ w/ $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ (both of which have norm p).

Summary:

Fields \subset Euclidean domains \subset PIDs \subset UFDs \subset integral domains (with all containments being proper.)

- \mathbb{Z} is a Euclidean domain that is not a field
- $\mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1+\sqrt{-19}}{2}\right]$ is a PID that is not a Euclidean domain
- $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is a UFD that is not a PID
- $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is an integral domain that is not a UFD.

Continued...

Proposition: Let I be an ideal of the ring R and let $(I) = I[x]$ denote the ideal of $R[x]$ generated by I (the set of polys w/ coeffs in I). Then $R[x]/(I) \cong (R/I)[x]$. In particular, if I is a prime ideal of R , then (I) is a prime ideal of $R[x]$.

Proof: There is a natural map $\varphi: R[x] \rightarrow (R/I)[x]$ given by reducing each of the coefficients of a poly. mod. I .

The definition of add. and mult. in these two rings shows that φ is a ring hom.

The kernel is precisely the set of polynomials each of whose coeffs $\in I$, which $\ker(\varphi) = I[x] = (I)$, proving the first part of the prop.

The last statement follows from R int. dom., then $R[x]$ int. dom.

Since if I is a prime ideal in R , then R/I is an integral domain, hence also $(R/I)[x]$ is an int. domain. This shows if I is prime in R , then (I) is prime in $R[x]$. \square

- Note that it's not true that if I is max. in R , then (I) is max. in $R[x]$.

However, if I is maximal in R , then the ideal of $R[x]$ generated by I and x is maximal in $R[x]$.

Theorem: Let F be a field. The poly. ring $F[x]$ is a Euclidean domain. Specifically, if $a(x), b(x) \in F[x]$ with $b(x)$ nonzero, then there are unique $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ such that $a(x) = q(x)b(x) + r(x)$ with $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(b(x))$.

Proof: If $a(x)$ is the zero polynomial, then take $q(x) = r(x) = 0$. We may therefore assume $a(x) \neq 0$, and prove the existence of $q(x), r(x)$ by induction on $n = \deg(a(x))$.

Let $b(x)$ have degree m . If $n < m$, take $q(x) = 0$ and $r(x) = a(x)$.

Otherwise $n \geq m$. Write $a(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, and

$$b(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0.$$

Then the poly. $a'(x) = a(x) - \frac{a_n}{b_m} x^{n-m} b(x)$ is of degree less than n (we have arranged to subtract the leading term from $a(x)$).

Note that this poly. is well defined b/c the coeffs are taken from a field and $b_m \neq 0$. By induction then, there exist polys $q'(x), r(x)$ with

$$a'(x) = q'(x)b(x) + r(x) \text{ with } r(x) = 0 \text{ or } \deg(r(x)) < \deg(b(x)).$$

Then, letting $q(x) = q'(x) + \frac{a_n}{b_m} x^{n-m}$ we have

$$a(x) = q(x)b(x) + r(x) \text{ with } r(x) = 0 \text{ or } \deg(r(x)) < \deg(b(x)), \text{ completing the induction step.}$$

As for uniqueness, suppose $q_1(x), r_1(x)$ also satisfied the conditions of the thm. Then both $a(x) - q(x)b(x)$ and $a(x) - q_1(x)b(x)$ are of degree less than m ($m = \deg(b(x))$). The diff. of these two polys., i.e., $b(x)(q(x) - q_1(x))$ is also of degree $< m$. But the deg. of the product of two nonzero polys. is the sum of their degrees (since F is an int. dom.), hence $q(x) - q_1(x)$ must be 0, that is $q(x) = q_1(x)$. This implies $r(x) = r_1(x)$. \square

Corollary: If F is a field, then $F[x]$ is a PID and a UFD.

- If R is any comm. ring s.t. $R[x]$ is a PID (or Euclidean), then R must be a field.

Irreducibility Criteria

Proposition: Let F be a field and let $p(x) \in F[x]$. Then $p(x)$ has a factor of degree 1 iff $p(x)$ has a root in F , i.e., there is an $\alpha \in F$ w/ $p(\alpha) = 0$.

Proof: If $p(x)$ has a factor of degree one, then since F is a field, we may assume the factor is monic, i.e., is of the form $(x - \alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in F$.

But then $p(\alpha) = 0$.

Conversely, suppose $p(\alpha) = 0$. By the div. alg. in $F[x]$ we may write

$$p(x) = q(x)(x - \alpha) + r \text{ where } r \text{ is a constant.}$$

Since $p(\alpha) = 0$, r must be 0, hence $p(x)$ has $(x - \alpha)$ as a factor. \square

Proposition: A poly. of deg. 2 or 3 over a field F is red. \Leftrightarrow it has a root in F .

Example: For p prime, the polys. $x^2 - p$ and $x^3 - p$ are irred. in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Proposition: The maximal ideals in $F[x]$ are the ideals $(f(x))$ generated by irred. polys. $f(x)$. In particular, $F[x]/(f(x))$ is a field $\Leftrightarrow f(x)$ is irred.

Proposition: A finite subgp. of the mult. gp of a field is cyclic. In particular, if F is a finite field, then the mult. gp F^\times of nonzero elts of F is a cyclic gp.

Proof: By the fund. thm. of fin. gen. abelian gps, the finite subgp can be written as a direct prod. of cyclic gps $\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}$, where $n_k | n_{k-1} | \dots | n_2 | n_1$. In general, if G is a cyclic gp and $d | |G|$, then G contains precisely d elts of order dividing d .

Since n_k divides the order of each cyclic gp in the direct prod., it follows that each direct factor contains n_k elts of order dividing n_k .

If k were greater than 1, there would therefore be a total of more than n_k ^{such} elts. But then there would be more than n_k roots of the poly. $x^{n_k} - 1$ in the field F . \downarrow (a poly. of deg. n has at most n roots in F)

Hence $k = 1$ and the gp is cyclic. \square

- $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic, p prime.

- $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.