

Remark: Using induction on the number of factors you can prove the more general statement, if $f(x) \in F[x]$ is irreducible and $f(x) \mid g_1(x) \dots g_s(x)$, then $f(x)$ divides $g_i(x)$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, s\}$.

Theorem: Let F be a field and $f(x) \in F[x]$ of degree ≥ 1 .

Then $f(x) = g_1(x) \dots g_s(x)$ for some irreducible $g_i(x) \in F[x]$.

(Existence of decomposition into irreducibles)

Moreover if $f(x) = h_1(x) \dots h_t(x)$ for irreducible $h_j(x)$ then $s = t$ and after renumbering the $h_j(x)$ if necessary we have

$$g_i(x) = c_i h_i(x) \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, s\}, \text{ for some } c_i \in F^*$$

(Uniqueness of decomposition into irreducibles)

Example: 1) Let $F = \mathbb{Q}$, let $f(x) = 5x^3 + x^2 + 15x + 3$

$$f(x) = \left(x + \frac{1}{5}\right)(5x^2 + 15)$$

Both factors on the right are irreducible:

$x + \frac{1}{5}$ has degree 1
 $5x^2 + 15$ is of degree 2 and has no root in \mathbb{Q}

Another decomposition of $f(x) = (5x+1)(x^2+3)$

$$= \underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{5}(5x+1)\right]}_{x + \frac{1}{5}} \underbrace{[5(x^2+3)]}_{5x^2 + 15}$$

2) $f(x) = x^4 + x^3 + 2x^2 + 4x + 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Candidates for roots are $\pm 1, \pm 2$. Checking: -1 is a root $\Rightarrow (x - (-1))$ is a factor

$$f(x) = \underbrace{(x+1)}_{\text{irreducible}} \underbrace{(x^3 + 2x + 2)}_{\text{no roots in } \mathbb{Q}, \text{ irreducible}}$$

3) $x^4 - 4$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ has candidate roots $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4$.

None of them actually is a root.

Cannot conclude irreducibility of $x^4 - 4$ yet

Find $x^4 - 4 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 + 2)$ as a factorization into quadratics (irreducible quadratics) over $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

4) $x^3 - \bar{1}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$.

One root is obvious, $\bar{1}$, can factor off $(x - \bar{1})$

$$(x^3 - \bar{1}) = (x - \bar{1})(x^2 + x + \bar{1})$$

\uparrow
irreducible as
it is linear

\nwarrow
irreducible as it is quadratic
and has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_5 .

Remark: Slightly less ambiguous way to decompose $f(x) \in F[x]$

$f(x) = g_1(x) \cdots g_s(x)$ with $g_i(x)$ irreducible
could also be written as

$$f(x) = c \tilde{g}_1(x) \cdots \tilde{g}_s(x)$$

where $\tilde{g}_i(x)$ is irreducible and monic, and $c \in F^*$

Then the decomposition is unique upto permutation of the $\tilde{g}_i(x)$

Example: $2x^2 + 11x + 5 = (2x + 1)(x + 5)$
 $= (x + \frac{1}{2})(2x + 10)$
 $= 2(x + \frac{1}{2})(x + 5)$

Lemma: For $n \geq 2$, the reduction of coefficients:

$$\mathbb{Z}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n[x]$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m a_j x^j \mapsto \bar{f}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m \bar{a}_j x^j$$

constitutes a ring homomorphism.

Very useful criterion for checking irreducibility in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is

Gauss Lemma: let $f(x)$ be a non-constant polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$,
 if $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ then we can find
 $\tilde{g}(x), \tilde{h}(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that

$$f(x) = \tilde{g}(x)\tilde{h}(x)$$

More precisely we can find $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $a \cdot b = 1$
 such that:

$$\tilde{g}(x) = ag(x), \quad \tilde{h}(x) = bh(x).$$

Example: $f(x) = 6x^4 + x^3 + 17x^2 + 3x - 3$

$$(\text{in } \mathbb{Q}[x]) = (x + \frac{1}{2})(x - \frac{1}{3})(6x^2 + 18)$$

$\downarrow \cdot 2 \quad \downarrow \cdot 3 \quad \downarrow \div 6$

$$(\text{in } \mathbb{Z}[x]) = (2x+1)(3x-1)(x^2+3)$$

Proof: (of lemma)

Suppose $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree ≥ 1 factors into $g(x)h(x)$
 in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Take $a \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\tilde{g}(x) = ag(x)$ is in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$
 and $b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\tilde{h}(x) = bh(x)$ is in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Put $N = ab$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}(x) &:= Nf(x) \\ &= \underbrace{ag(x)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}[x]} \underbrace{bh(x)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}[x]} \\ &= \tilde{g}(x)\tilde{h}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x] \quad (*) \end{aligned}$$

Now stepwise 'improve' N (i.e. make it smaller), until $N=1$

Crucial step: let p be a prime st $p|N$, the reduction
 mod p gives for $(*)$

$$\bar{0} = \overline{Nf(x)} = \overline{\tilde{g}(x)} \overline{\tilde{h}(x)} \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$$

\uparrow

use reduction mod p is a
 ring homomorphism.

Since $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is an integral domain (\mathbb{Z}_p is a field as p is prime) we must have:

$$\bar{0} = \overline{\tilde{g}(x)} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{0} = \overline{\tilde{h}(x)}$$

(without loss of generality) we assume the former.

Now $\bar{0} = \overline{\tilde{g}(x)}$ means that every coefficient a_i in

$$\tilde{g}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i x^i$$

must be divisible by p .

Hence $\frac{1}{p} \tilde{g}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ still, and hence

$$\frac{a}{p} g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

$$\text{Moreover } \frac{N}{p} f(x) = \underbrace{\frac{a}{p} g(x)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}[x]} \cdot \underbrace{bh(x)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}[x]} \in \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Now put $\tilde{f}(x) = \frac{N}{p} f(x)$, $\tilde{g}(x) = \frac{a}{p} g(x)$, $\tilde{h}(x) = bh(x)$ and get another decomposition of the smaller polynomial $\tilde{f}(x)$ as

$$\tilde{f}(x) = \tilde{g}(x) \tilde{h}(x) \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

Repeat the crucial step now for any prime q dividing $\frac{N}{p}$; this allows us to cancel another factor

Eventually this $\frac{N}{p}$ is reduced to 1 and we're done.

Example: Factorize $x^4 + 4$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Candidate roots are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4$, which none are.

So is either irreducible or a product of two quadratic irreducibles.

If it does factorize we get:

$$x^4 + 4 = (Ax^2 + Bx + C)(Dx^2 + Ex + F)$$

with $A, \dots, F \in \mathbb{Q}$. This seems hard, infinitely many choices possible, to decide. But the Gauss lemma helps: we can choose $A, \dots, F \in \mathbb{Z}$, leaving very few

possibilities.

Conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} AD &= 1 \implies A = D = \pm 1 \\ BD + AE &= 0 \\ AF + BE + CD &= 0 \\ BE + CE &= 0 \\ CF &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Can choose $A = D = 1$, can restrict to 6 cases:

$$(C, F) = \begin{cases} (1, 4), & (-1, -4) \\ (2, 2), & (-2, -2) \\ (4, 1), & (-4, -1) \end{cases}$$

One case leads to the factorisation:

$$x^4 + 4 = (x^2 + 2x + 2)(x^2 - 2x + 2)$$

Two further irreducibility criteria:

Proposition: If $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is non-constant and p a prime and $\bar{f}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is irreducible and $\deg(\bar{f}(x)) = \deg(f(x))$ then $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is irreducible.

Proof: Prove the logical negation of statement (i.e. $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ reducible $\implies \bar{f}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is reducible if $\deg(\bar{f}(x)) = \deg(f(x))$).

Suppose $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ with $g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $\deg(g(x)) \geq 1$ and $\deg(h(x)) \geq 1$. By Gauss lemma we can assume that $g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Hence for a given prime p , using the ring homomorphism "reduction mod p ";

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}[x] &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p[x] \\ f(x) &\longmapsto \bar{f}(x) \end{aligned}$$

we find $\bar{f}(x) = \bar{g}(x)\bar{h}(x)$, and

$\left. \begin{aligned} \deg(\bar{g}(x)) &\leq \deg(g(x)) \\ \deg(\bar{h}(x)) &\leq \deg(h(x)) \end{aligned} \right\}$ degree can only become smaller if p divides top coefficient in a polynomial

Now since $\deg(\bar{f}(x)) = \deg(f(x))$, we get in fact $\deg(\bar{g}(x)) = \deg(g(x))$, and similarly for $h(x)$.

Hence $\bar{f}(x)$ is reducible in $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$.

Example: 1) $f(x) = 3x^2 + 7x + 13$, $p = 2$

$$\bar{f}(x) = x^2 + x + 1, \text{ irreducible in } \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$$

Hence since $\deg(\bar{f}(x)) = \deg(f(x))$, $f(x)$ is irreducible.

In fact more generally we can say

$$f(x) = (1+2k)x^2 + (1+2l)x + (1+2m)$$

is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, where $k, l, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly for:

$$f(x) = (1+2k)x^3 + (1+2l)x + (1+2m)$$

2) $f(x) = 3x^2 + 2x$ is reducible (it equals $x(3x+2)$) but reduction mod 3 gives

$$\bar{f}(x) = 2x$$

which is irreducible; proposition does not apply here since $\deg(\bar{f}(x)) < \deg(f(x))$.

Often the most powerful criterion is given by Eisenstein; e.g. $f(x) = x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ for p a prime.

Proposition: (Eisenstein's irreducibility criterion)

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$, $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, and let p be a prime such that $p \mid a_0, p \mid a_1, \dots$, but $p \nmid a_n$ and $p^2 \nmid a_0$, then $f(x)$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Example: $x^4 - 2$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$

Use Eisenstein criterion for $p = 2$.

$$2 \mid a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \text{ and } 2 \nmid a_4 \text{ and } 2^2 \nmid a_0$$

ANT: RFI

Note: $x^4 \pm 4$ is not irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$: Eisenstein for $p=2$ fails, $p^2 \mid a_0$.

2) $x^n - 2$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ for any $n \geq 1$, using Eisenstein for $p=2$.

Also $x^n - p$ for any prime p and $n \geq 1$ is irreducible using Eisenstein for p .

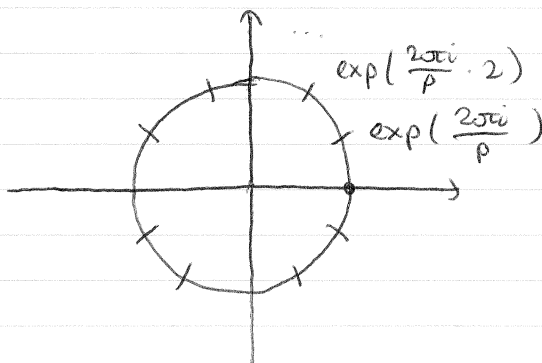
3) let p be a prime, then:

$$x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + 1 \quad (*)$$

The "cyclotomic polynomial" is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$

$$x^p - 1 = (x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + 1)(x - 1)$$

with roots:



Apply the following:

Exercise: $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x] \iff f(x+1)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Now rewrite (*) as $\frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$, irreducible $\iff \frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{(x+1) - 1}$ irreducible.

$$\frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{(x+1) - 1} \stackrel{\text{binomial theorem}}{=} \frac{\sum_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} x^i - 1}{x}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^p \binom{p}{i} x^{i-1}$$

$$= x^{p-1} + \binom{p}{1} x^{p-2} + \binom{p}{2} x^{p-3} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1}$$

all these coefficients divisible by p

last coefficient is p , not divisible by p^2 , hence Eisenstein criterion for prime p applies.

Proof: (Eisenstein criterion)

Suppose $f(x)$ is reducible, go for a contradiction.

i.e. $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$, with $g(x) = b_r x^r + \dots + b_0$
 $h(x) = c_s x^s + \dots + c_0$, $b_i, c_j \in \mathbb{Z}$, $r, s \geq 1$.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$$

where $r+s = n$, $r, s < n$.

Then comparing coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= b_0 c_0 \\ a_1 &= b_1 c_0 + b_0 c_1 \\ &\vdots \\ a_k &= \sum_{i=0}^k b_i c_{k-i}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n. \end{aligned}$$

Since $p \mid a_0$, we must have $p \mid b_0$ or $p \mid c_0$, assume wlog $p \mid b_0$.

"Crucial idea": take the smallest index k such that b_k is not divisible by p (not all can be divisible by p , otherwise all the a_i would be).

Then $a_k = b_k c_0 + (b_{k-1} c_1 + \dots + b_0 c_k)$, clearly $0 \leq k \leq r < n$.

Check divisibility by p :

LHS = a_k is divisible by p . RHS, $b_{k-1} c_0 + \dots + b_0 c_k$ is also divisible by p , due to assumption of minimality of k .

Hence the difference $b_k c_0$ is divisible by p , so $p \mid c_0$.

But since $p \mid b_0$, $p^2 \mid b_0 c_0 = a_0$, contradiction.

3 Ideals and Quotient Rings

(cf: Q58)

$$(1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 2 \times 3 = 6$$

irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ and
'really different'.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} (\pi_1, \pi_1') & (\pi_2, \pi_2') & = & (\pi_1, \pi_2) & (\pi_1', \pi_2') \\ \uparrow & \uparrow & & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ 1 + \sqrt{-5} & 1 - \sqrt{-5} & & 2 & 3 \end{array}$$

Definition: Let R be a ring, then an ideal I in R is a subset such that i) - iii) hold

i) $0_R \in I$

ii) for $i_1, i_2 \in I$, then also $i_1 - i_2 \in I$

iii) for any $i \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $i \cdot r \in I$, and $r \cdot i \in I$

} I forms a subgroup of R with respect to addition.

Note: In particular I is a subring of R , but, a rather distinguished one: " $I \cdot R \subseteq I$ ", I behaves like a 'black hole', sucking in everything that comes near it, and " $R \cdot I \subseteq I$ ".

Remark: 1) If R is commutative, then iii) can be replaced by checking only $i \cdot r \in I$

2) If R has an identity, and $1_R \in I$, then $I = R$.

iii) implies $r = \underbrace{1_R}_{\in I} \cdot \underbrace{r}_{\in R} \in I \quad \forall r \in R$

Similarly if any unit $u \in R$ lies in I , then $I = R$

Examples: 0) $\{0_R\} \subset R$ is an ideal, R is an ideal in R , "trivial" ideals in R .

1) Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, then $n\mathbb{Z} = \{nk \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ forms an ideal, for $n \geq 0$.

2) If F is a field, then the only ideals in F are

the trivial ones:

let I be an ideal, $I \neq \{0_F\}$, then $\exists a \in I, a \neq 0$
hence is invertible (in F), i.e. is a unit. By above
remark we must have $I = F$.

Notation: let R be a commutative ring with identity. If $A \subset R$
is a subset, then we denote:

$(A) := (A)_R$
:= "smallest ideal in R which contains A ",
also "ideal generated by A ".

$$= \begin{cases} \{0_R\} & \text{if } A = \emptyset \\ \left\{ \sum_{\text{finite}} n_a a \mid a \in A, n_a \in R \right\} & \text{if } A \neq \emptyset \end{cases}$$

If $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_r\}$ then we write:

$$(\{a_1, \dots, a_r\})_R = (a_1, \dots, a_r)_R$$

Example: If $A \subset R$ contains only one element, a , say, then:

$$\begin{aligned} (A) &= (A)_R \\ &= (\{a\})_R \\ &= (a)_R \\ &= \{ar \mid r \in R\} \end{aligned}$$

all multiples of a in R .

Definition: In this case (i.e. A has a single generator), the ideal
 $(a)_R$ is called a principal ideal.

Example: If $A = \{a_1, a_2\} \subset R$, then

$$(A)_R = \{a_1 r_1 + a_2 r_2 \mid r_1, r_2 \in R\}$$

Easy fact: (Q63) let R be a commutative ring with identity,
let $I \subset R$ be an ideal, and $A \subset R$ be a subset.

$$\text{Then: } (A) \subset I \iff A \subset I$$

i.e. any $a \in A$, is also in I .

We have seen the ideals $n\mathbb{Z}$ as the kernels of reduction homomorphisms:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z} &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n \\ a &\longmapsto \overline{a}\end{aligned}$$

This is an instance of a more general fact.

Proposition: Let $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism, then $\ker \varphi$ is an ideal in R .

Example: Seen:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi: \mathbb{Z}[i] &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2 \\ a+bi &\longmapsto \overline{a+b}\end{aligned}$$

is a ring homomorphism, with kernel

$$\begin{aligned}\ker \varphi &= \{ \gamma(-1+i) \mid \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}[i] \} \\ &= (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i].\end{aligned}$$

Example: Take $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{37}$, sending $a+bi \mapsto \overline{a+6b}$
needs to satisfy $\square^2 = -1$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then: } \ker \varphi &= (37, 6-i)\mathbb{Z}[i] \\ &= \{ 37\alpha + (6-i)\beta \mid \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i] \}\end{aligned}$$

"J":

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(37) &= \overline{0} \\ \varphi(6-i) &= \overline{6+6(-1)} = \overline{0}\end{aligned}$$

So:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(37\alpha + (6-i)\beta) &= \underbrace{\varphi(37)}_{\overline{0}}\varphi(\alpha) + \underbrace{\varphi(6-i)}_{\overline{0}}\varphi(\beta) \\ &= \overline{0}\end{aligned}$$

"C": Let $\gamma = a+bi$ be in $\ker \varphi$, i.e. $\varphi(a+bi) = \overline{a+6b} = \overline{0}$

Then: $a+6b = 37k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned}a+bi &= a+6b - (6-i)b \\ &= 37k - (6-i)b \\ &\in \{ 37\alpha + (6-i)\beta \mid \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i] \}\end{aligned}$$

Proof : (Proposition)

i) know $\varphi(0_R) = 0_S$, hence $0_R \in \ker \varphi$

ii) Suppose $a, b \in \ker \varphi$,

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \varphi(a-b) &= \varphi(a) - \varphi(b) \\ &= 0_S - 0_S \\ &= 0_S\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow a-b \in \ker \varphi$$

iii) Suppose $a \in \ker \varphi$, $r \in R$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \varphi(ar) &= \varphi(a)\varphi(r) \\ &= 0_S\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow ar \in \ker \varphi$$

Example : (continued)

$\ker \varphi$ above is equal to $(6-i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$

i.e. $(37, 6-i) = (6-i)$

Show $37 \in (6-i)$, clear $37 = (6-i)(6+i)$,
clear $6-i \in (6-i)$

Also $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is commutative with identity, can use "easy fact":

$$(37, 6-i) \subset \ker \varphi$$

Overall find $\ker \varphi = (6-i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

How does an ideal arise naturally? Eg. the kernel of a ring homomorphism is an ideal. Will soon see a converse, i.e. any ideal is the kernel of a ring homomorphism.

Proposition: Let F be a field. Then the ideals in $F[x]$ are all principal ideals. More precisely, any non-trivial ideal in $F[x]$ has the form

$$(f(x))_{F[x]}, \text{ with } \deg(f(x)) \geq 1.$$

Furthermore $(f(x)) \subset (g(x))$ if and only if $g(x) \mid f(x)$

in $F[x]$, and $(f(x)) = (g(x))$ iff $f(x) = cg(x)$
for $c \in F[x]^* = F^*$.

Proof: let I be a non-zero ideal in $F[x]$. ($I = \{0_F\}$ is clearly principal).

So suppose $f(x) \in I \setminus \{0_F\}$ with minimal degree

Now express any $g(x) \in I$ in terms of $f(x)$ using division with remainder

$$g(x) = q(x)f(x) + r(x)$$

where $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$, and $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(f(x))$.

Claim: $r(x) = 0$

$$r(x) = \underbrace{g(x)}_{\in I} - \underbrace{q(x)f(x)}_{\in I} \in I$$

but of smaller degree than $f(x)$, hence must be 0.

Therefore $g(x) = q(x)f(x)$ and $f(x) \mid g(x)$, so
 $I = (f(x))$

Furthermore $(f(x)) = (g(x)) \iff f(x) \in \{h(x)g(x) \mid h(x) \in F[x]\}$
 $\iff g(x) \mid f(x)$ in $F[x]$.

"to divide is to contain" (think Caesar)

Finally if $(f(x)) = (g(x))$
 $\iff (f(x)) \subset (g(x))$ and $(g(x)) \subset (f(x))$
 $\iff g(x) \mid f(x)$ and $f(x) \mid g(x)$
(earlier) $\iff g(x) = cf(x)$ for some $c \in F[x]^* = F^*$

'Companion notion' of ideal is a 'quotient ring'

Recall how to work in \mathbb{Z}_n :

let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, (x, y are subsets of \mathbb{Z}), they can be written
as $x = \bar{a}$, $y = \bar{b}$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$x = \{a + kn \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}, \text{ etc}$$

We add $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ by setting

$$x + y = \bar{a} +_{\mathbb{Z}_n} \bar{b} = \overline{a +_{\mathbb{Z}} b}$$

Similarly

$$x \cdot y = \bar{a} \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}_n} \bar{b} = \overline{a \cdot_{\mathbb{Z}} b}$$

[Check: This addition and multiplication is independent of the choices of a and b].

Seen $n\mathbb{Z}$ ($n \geq 0$) are ideals in \mathbb{Z} , and $n\mathbb{Z}$ is the kernel of $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$, $a \mapsto \bar{a}$.

More general situation:

Let R be a ring and $I \subset R$ an ideal in R ; R is an abelian group wrt addition, I is a subgroup wrt addition we can form the quotient group R/I .

Elements of R/I : $\bar{a} := a + I := \{a + i \mid i \in I\}$

Addition in R/I : $(a + I) +_{R/I} (b + I) = (a +_R b) + I$

Zero element in R/I : $0 + I = I$

Define multiplication in R/I : $(a + I) \cdot_{R/I} (b + I) = (a \cdot_R b) + I$

Check that this constitutes a good definition, well-definedness

Suppose $a' \in a + I$, $b' \in b + I$ then need

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{a' + b'} &:= (a' + b') + I \\ &= (a + b) + I \end{aligned}$$

Write $a' = a + i$, $b' = b + j$, $i, j \in I$, then

$$a' + b' = (a + b) + (i + j)$$

$$\begin{aligned} a' + b' + I &= ((a + b) + (i + j)) + I \\ &= (a + b) + I \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for multiplication.

Definition: For any ideal I in a ring R , the map

$$\begin{aligned}\pi: R &\longrightarrow R/I \\ r &\longmapsto \bar{r} = r + I\end{aligned}$$

is called the canonical projection (of R along I).

Example: $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_n$

Proposition: With the above notation, R/I is a ring, with addition and multiplication induced from R :

$$\begin{aligned}\text{addition: } \bar{a} + \bar{b} &= \overline{a+b} \\ \text{multiplication: } \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} &= \overline{ab}\end{aligned}$$

The canonical projection $\pi: R \rightarrow R/I$ is a surjective ring homomorphism.

Moreover $\ker(\pi) = I$.

Definition: With the above notation R/I is called the quotient ring of R by I .

Proof: 1) R/I is a ring

Ring operations and properties are simply inherited from R .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{E.g. } \bar{a}(\bar{b} + \bar{c}) &= \overline{\bar{a}(b+c)} \\ &= \overline{a(b+c)} \\ &= \overline{ab + ac}, \text{ distributivity in } R \\ &= \overline{ab} + \overline{ac} \\ &= \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} + \bar{a} \cdot \bar{c}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}0_{R/I} &= \overline{0_R} \\ &= \overline{0 + I} \\ &= \{0 + i \mid i \in I\} \\ &= I\end{aligned}$$

2) π is a ring homomorphism, for $a, b \in R$

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(a + b) &= \overline{a + b} \\ &= \overline{a} + \overline{b} \\ &= \pi(a) + \pi(b)\end{aligned}$$

3) π is surjective. Let $\alpha \in R/I$, then choose $a \in R$ such that $\alpha = a + I$.

$$\text{Then } \pi(a) = a + I$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4) \text{ Ker}(\pi) &= \{ a \in R \mid \pi(a) = 0_{R/I} \} \\ &= \{ a \in R \mid \bar{a} = \bar{0}_R \} \\ &= I \end{aligned}$$

Example: Work in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[i] / (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

(i.e. $(-1+i)$ is the principal ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ generated by $-1+i$).

Claim: $\overline{-6+i} = \overline{-i}$ in the quotient ring

To show:

$$(-6+i) - (-i) \in (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$$

To lie in this ideal means to be a multiple of the single generator

Try to divide

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{-6+2i}{-1+i} &= \frac{(-6+2i)(-1-i)}{(-1+i)(-1-i)} \\ &= \frac{2(-3+i)(-1-i)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\in \mathbb{Z}[i]$$

So the claim holds.

Example: Working in the quotient ring $\mathbb{Q}[x] / (x^2+x+1)\mathbb{Q}[x]$

$$\text{Is } \overline{2x^3} = \overline{x+2}?$$

In other words, is:

$$2x^3 - (x+2) \in (x^2+x+1)\mathbb{Q}[x]?$$

Long division gives:

$$\begin{aligned} 2x^3 - x - 2 &= 2x(x^2 + x + 1) - 2(x^2 + x + 1) - x \\ &= (2x - 2)(x^2 + x + 1) - x \end{aligned}$$

and x is not divisible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ by $x^2 + x + 1$, so

$$\overline{2x^3} \neq \overline{x+2}$$

Corollary: (of proposition) "First Isomorphism Theorem for Rings"

Suppose $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, and φ is surjective.

Then $R/\ker \varphi$ and S are isomorphic as rings.

i.e. \exists surjective and injective ring homomorphism, via:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\varphi}: R/\ker \varphi &\xrightarrow{\cong} S \\ a + \ker \varphi &\mapsto \varphi(a) \end{aligned}$$

Example: let $\varphi: \mathbb{R}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 $f(x) \mapsto f(i)$

We know that such specialisation maps are homomorphism

Surjectivity of φ : let $\alpha = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(a + bx) &= a + bi \\ &= \alpha \end{aligned}$$

$$\ker \varphi = (x^2 + 1)\mathbb{R}[x].$$

" \supset ": $f(x) \in (x^2 + 1)\mathbb{R}[x] \Rightarrow f(x) = g(x)(x^2 + 1)$
 for some $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \varphi(f(x)) &= \varphi(g(x))\varphi(\underbrace{x^2 + 1}_{i^2 + 1 = 0}) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

" \subset ": Assume $g(x) \in \ker \varphi$, i.e. $g(i) = \varphi(g(x)) = 0$.

$$\text{Write } g(x) = q(x)(x^2 + 1) + r(x), \text{ with } \deg(r(x)) < \deg(x^2 + 1) = 2.$$

Specialising to $x=i$ gives

$$0 = g(i) = \underbrace{q(i)(i^2+1)}_0 + r(i)$$

$r(i) = ai + b$ since $\deg(r(x)) \leq 1$, but in \mathbb{C} , $ai + b \neq 0$ means $a = b = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow g(x) = q(x)(x^2+1).$$

Conclusion: (FIT) $\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2+1) \cong \mathbb{C}$.

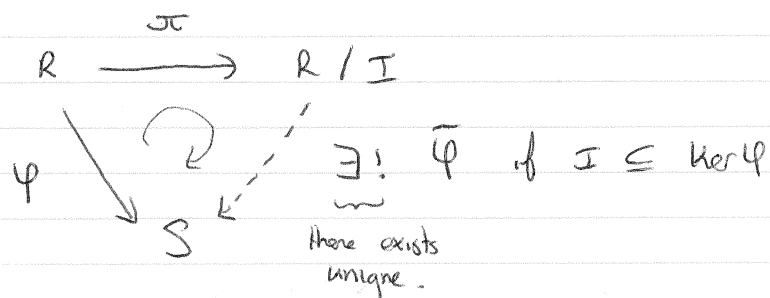
Proposition: (prepare for proof of FIT)

Let $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a homomorphism of rings,
let $I \subset R$ be an ideal and $\pi: R \rightarrow R/I$
the canonical projection.

Now if $\ker \varphi \supseteq I$ then there is a unique
map $\bar{\varphi}: R/I \rightarrow S$ such that $\bar{\varphi} \cdot \pi = \varphi$

Moreover $\bar{\varphi}$ is a ring homomorphism.

Diagrammatical way to visualise the statement:



Proof: 1) Uniqueness first

If $\bar{\varphi}$ exists, then it necessarily maps a class
 $\bar{a} = a + I$ for an $a \in R$ to $\varphi(a)$

$$\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \bar{\varphi}(\pi(a)) = \varphi(a)$$

2) Existence (take a clue from part 1)

Define $\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) := \varphi(a)$, well definedness?

ANT: RFI

Example: 1) $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $I = (n)\mathbb{Z}$

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m$$

$$a \mapsto \bar{a} = a \pmod{m}$$

defines a homomorphism of rings

$$\ker \varphi = m\mathbb{Z} = (m)\mathbb{Z}.$$

Suppose now $I \subset \ker \varphi$, then $m \mid n$

Hence assume $n = km$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition gives:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z} & \xrightarrow{\pi - \text{reduction mod } n} & \mathbb{Z}_n \\ & \searrow \varphi & \downarrow \exists! \bar{\varphi} - \text{further reduction mod } m \\ & & \mathbb{Z}_m \end{array}$$

$$\bar{\varphi}: \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m$$

$$a + n\mathbb{Z} \mapsto a + m\mathbb{Z}$$

Specifically, $n = 6$, $m = 3$, then

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{Z}_6 \\ & \searrow & \downarrow \exists! \bar{\varphi} \\ & & \mathbb{Z}_3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a & \mapsto & a \pmod{6} \\ & \searrow & \downarrow \\ & & a \pmod{3} \end{array}$$

2) Recall:

$$\varphi: \mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$$

$$a + bi \mapsto \overline{a+b}$$

is a surjective ring homomorphism, with kernel $(-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$

Since $I = (4)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]} \subset (-1+i)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]}$ as
 $(-1+i) \mid 4 = (-1+i)^2(-1-i)^2$.

The proposition applies and we get a ring homomorphism

$$\bar{\varphi} : \mathbb{Z}[i] / (4) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$$

$$a + bi \text{ mod } 4\mathbb{Z}[i] \mapsto a + b \text{ mod } 2.$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}[i] & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \mathbb{Z}[i] / (4)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]} \\ & \searrow \varphi & \downarrow \exists! \bar{\varphi} \\ & & \mathbb{Z}_2 \end{array}$$

Now for FIT for Rings.

Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ a surjective ring homomorphism, then we have

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \longrightarrow & R / \ker \varphi \\ & \searrow \varphi & \downarrow \exists! \bar{\varphi} \\ & & S \end{array}$$

where $\bar{\varphi} : R / \ker \varphi \xrightarrow{\cong} S$
 $a + \ker \varphi \longmapsto \varphi(a)$.

Proof: We have

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & R / I \\ & \searrow & \downarrow \\ & & S \end{array}$$

from proposition, here take $I = \ker \varphi$.

By proposition above, we get a unique ring homomorphism

$$\bar{\varphi} : R / \ker \varphi \rightarrow S$$

why is it an isomorphism?

1) $\bar{\varphi}$ is surjective:

Let $s \in S$, take $a \in R$ st $\varphi(a) = s$, possible as φ is surjective, also know

$$\bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a) = s$$

So s is in the image of $\bar{\varphi}$.

2) $\bar{\varphi}$ is injective:

To show $\ker(\bar{\varphi}) = \bar{0}_{R/\ker\varphi}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } \ker(\bar{\varphi}) &= \{ \bar{a} \in R/\ker\varphi \mid \bar{\varphi}(\bar{a}) = 0_S \} \\ &= \{ \bar{a} \in R/\ker\varphi \mid \varphi(a) = 0_S \} \\ &= \{ \bar{a} \in R/\ker\varphi \mid a \in \ker\varphi \} \\ &= \{ \bar{0} \} \end{aligned}$$

$\bar{a} = \bar{0}$ in $R/\ker\varphi$.

Example: 1)

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi: \mathbb{Z}[i] &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2 \\ a+bi &\longmapsto \frac{\mathbb{Z}_2}{a+b} \end{aligned}$$

is a ring homomorphism. It is also surjective

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(0) &= \bar{0} \\ \varphi(1) &= \bar{1} \end{aligned}$$

We know $\ker\varphi = (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$

Hence FIT gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{Z}[i] / (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i] &\xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z}_2 \\ (a+bi) + (-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i] &\longrightarrow \frac{\mathbb{Z}_2}{a+b} \end{aligned}$$

2)

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi: \mathbb{Z}[i] &\longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{37} \\ a+bi &\longmapsto \frac{\mathbb{Z}_{37}}{a+6b} \end{aligned}$$

is a ring homomorphism, with kernel $(-6+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

φ is also surjective, any class $s \in \mathbb{Z}_{37}$ can be represented as $s = \bar{a}$ for some $0 \leq a < 37$, then $\varphi(a) = s$

$$\text{FIT} \Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[i] / (-6+i) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{37}$$

Binary operations on ideals.

Let I, J be ideals in a ring R . Then the following constructions also give ideals in R .

$$I \cap J = \{ r \in R \mid r \in I \text{ and } r \in J \}$$

$$I + J = \{ i + j \in R \mid i \in I, j \in J \}$$

$$I \cdot J = \left\{ \sum_{k, \text{ finite}} i_k j_k \in R \mid i_k \in I, j_k \in J, \forall k \right\}$$

With the chain of inclusions:

$$I \cdot J \subset I \cap J \subset I \subset I + J$$

$$\subset J \subset$$

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $I = (6)_{\mathbb{Z}}$, $J = (10)_{\mathbb{Z}}$

$$I \cdot J = (60)$$

$$I \cap J = (30)$$

$$I + J = \{ k \cdot 6 + l \cdot 10 \mid k, l \in \mathbb{Z} \} = (2),$$

$2 \in I + J$, with $k=2, l=-1$.

$I + J$ is 'gcd'-like

$I \cap J$ is 'lcm'-like

$$I \cdot J = (60) \subset I \cap J = (30) \subset I = (6) \subset I + J = (2)$$

$$\subset J = (10) \subset$$

In terms of generators

Fact: Let R be a commutative ring with identity, then:

$$(a_1, \dots, a_n)_R + (b_1, \dots, b_m)_R = (a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m)_R$$

$$(a_1, \dots, a_m)_R \cdot (b_1, \dots, b_n)_R = (\text{all products } a_i b_j)_R$$

$$= (a_1 b_1, \dots, a_1 b_n, \dots, a_m b_1, \dots, a_m b_n)$$

Seen: Can sometimes reduce the number of generators in the (presentation of) an ideal.

$$(37, 6-i)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]} = (6-i)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]}$$

ANT: RFI

Useful when applying $+$, \circ to ideals.

Example: In $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, $I = (2, 3 + \sqrt{-5})$, $J = (3, 1 - \sqrt{-5})$

Add:

$$I + J = (2, 3, 3 + \sqrt{-5}, 1 - \sqrt{-5})$$

See a unit $\in I + J$,

$$1 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot (3 + \sqrt{-5}) + 0 \cdot (1 - \sqrt{-5}) = -1$$

Hence $I + J = R$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mult: } I \cdot J &= (2 \cdot 3, 2 \cdot (1 - \sqrt{-5}), (3 + \sqrt{-5}) \cdot 3, (3 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})) \\ &= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 9 + 3\sqrt{-5}, 3 - 2\sqrt{-5} - (-5)) \\ &= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 9 + 3\sqrt{-5}, 8 - 2\sqrt{-5}) \end{aligned}$$

Can drop last as it is $8 - 2\sqrt{-5} = 6 + (2 - 2\sqrt{-5})$

$$= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 9 + 3\sqrt{-5})$$

$$= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 9 + 3\sqrt{-5} - 6 - 6\sqrt{-5})$$

first generator multiple of first generator
 $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{3 - 3\sqrt{-5}}$

$$= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 3 - 3\sqrt{-5})$$

$$= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 3 - 3\sqrt{-5} - (2 - 2\sqrt{-5}))$$

subtract second generator

$$= (6, 2 - 2\sqrt{-5}, 1 - \sqrt{-5})$$

$$= (6, 1 - \sqrt{-5})$$

Since second generator was a multiple of third one.

$$= (1 - \sqrt{-5})$$

Since $6 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$ is a multiple of $1 - \sqrt{-5}$

Upshot: $(2, 3 + \sqrt{-5}) \cdot (3, 1 - \sqrt{-5}) = (1 - \sqrt{-5})$

Remark: 1) Suppose R has an identity 1 , then

$$\begin{aligned} I + J = R = (1) &\iff 1 \in I + J \\ &\iff 1 = i + j, \text{ for some } i \in I \\ &\quad\quad\quad j \in J. \end{aligned}$$

Then I and J are coprime, 'gcd' of I and $J = 1$.

2) Suppose furthermore that R is commutative, then if $I + J = R$, then $I \cdot J = I \cap J$.

To show " \subset ":

Take any $a \in I \cdot J$, by 1) we can write $1 = i + j$, so

$$\begin{aligned} a &= a \cdot i + a \cdot j \\ &\stackrel{R \text{ commutative}}{=} i \cdot a + a \cdot j \end{aligned}$$

But $i \cdot a \in I$, $a \cdot j \in (I \cdot J) \cdot j \subset I$, so $i \cdot a + a \cdot j \in I$.

Also $a \cdot j \in J$, $i \cdot a \in i \cdot (I \cdot J) \subset J$, so $i \cdot a + a \cdot j \in J$.

Conclusion $a = i \cdot a + a \cdot j \in I \cap J$, as both summands are, and clearly $I \cap J$ is itself an ideal.

" \supset ":

Take $a \in I \cap J$, need to show $a \in I \cdot J$, since

$$1 = i + j, \text{ multiply by } a \text{ to get}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a &= ia + ja \\ &= ia + aj \\ &\quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ &\quad \in I \cdot J \quad \in I \cdot J \\ &\in I \cdot J \end{aligned}$$

Recall Chinese remainder Theorem in \mathbb{Z} :

If $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$
then we can find $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ st:

$$\begin{aligned} c &\equiv a \pmod{m} \\ c &\equiv b \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

In formulas: $\mathbb{Z}_{mn} \cong \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$

More generally: get analogue:

Theorem: (Chinese remainder Theorem for Rings)

Let I, J be ideals in a ring R , with $I+J=R$,
(I, J coprime), then:

$$R/I \cap J \cong R/I \times R/J.$$

via: $a + (I \cap J) \mapsto (a + I, a + J)$, think
 $\bar{a} \mapsto (\bar{a}, \bar{a})$

If, moreover, R is commutative with identity, then

$$R/I \cdot J \cong R/I \times R/J.$$

Proof: Put $S := R/I \times R/J$

Try to define $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ a surjective ring homomorphism,
for FIT.

Indeed put $\varphi(a) = (a+I, a+J)$

1) φ is a homomorphism of rings:

$$\varphi(a+b) = ((a+b)+I, (a+b)+J)$$

$$\varphi(a) + \varphi(b) = (a+I, a+J) + (b+I, b+J)$$

$$= (\underbrace{(a+I) + (b+I)}, \underbrace{(a+J) + (b+J)})$$

$$= ((a+b)+I, (a+b)+J)$$

Similarly for multiplication:

$$\varphi(ab) = (ab + I, ab + J)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(a)\varphi(b) &= (a+I, a+J) \cdot (b+I, b+J) \\ &= ((a+I) \cdot (b+I), (a+J) \cdot (b+J)) \\ &= (ab + \underbrace{aI + Ib + I \cdot I}_I, ab + \underbrace{aJ + Jb + J \cdot J}_J) \\ &= (ab + I, ab + J)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}2) \text{ Ker } \varphi &= \{a \in R \mid (a+I, a+J) = (0_{R/I}, 0_{R/J})\} \\ &= \{a \in R \mid a \in I, a \in J\} \\ &= I \cap J\end{aligned}$$

3) φ surjective:

Let $x \in R/I$, $y \in R/J$, take $b \in R$, $c \in R$, st $b+I = x$, $c+J = y$. Find $a \in R$ st

$$\varphi(a) = (b+I, c+J).$$

Idea:

$$1 = i + j, \quad i \in I, j \in J.$$

Multiply on both sides:

$$\begin{aligned}b &= ib + jb \\ c &= ic + jc\end{aligned}$$

Claim: $a := ic + jb$ does it.

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(a) &= \varphi(ic + jb) \\ &= (\underbrace{ic + jb + I}_I, \underbrace{ic + jb + J}_J) \\ &= (jb + I, ic + J) \\ &= (jb + ib + I, ic + jc + J) \\ &= (b + I, c + J)\end{aligned}$$

Conclusion: FIT now gives:

ANT: RFI

$$R / \ker \varphi = R / I \cap J \xrightarrow{\cong} R / I \times R / J$$

$$a + I \cap J \mapsto (a + I, a + J)$$

Moreover, for R commutative with identity, and $I + J = R$, we have

$$R / I \cap J = R / I \cdot J.$$

Important remark: If $I + J = R$, commutative with identity, then write

$$1 = i + j, \text{ multiply and take 'cross sum'}$$

$$b = ib + jb$$

$$c = ic + jc$$

$$ic + jb + I \cdot J \mapsto (b + I, c + J)$$

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $I = (m)$, $J = (n)$.

If $I + J = R$, then $I + J = (\gcd(m, n))$ contains 1

$$\mathbb{Z}/(mn) \cong \mathbb{Z}/(m) \times \mathbb{Z}/(n)$$

$$\text{via } a \bmod mn \mapsto (a \bmod m, a \bmod n)$$

Preimage of $(b \bmod m, c \bmod n)$ as before, cross sum.

$$1 = xm + yn, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$b = bxm + byn$$

$$c = cxm + cym$$

$$\text{Preimage is } a = byn + cxm.$$

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}[i]$, $I = (2+i)_R$, $J = (3+i)_R$, $i^2 = -1$

$$\text{Write } 1 = -(2+i) + (3+i) \quad (*)$$

R is commutative with identity, hence $I \cap J = I \cdot J$, have

$$I \cdot J = ((2+i)(3+i))_R$$

$$= (5+5i)_R$$

CRT now implies:

$$\mathbb{Z}[i]/(5+5i)_{\mathbb{Z}[i]} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z}[i]/(2+i) \times \mathbb{Z}[i]/(3+i)$$

Exercise: $\mathbb{Z}[i]/(2+i) \times \mathbb{Z}[i]/(3+i) \cong \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_{10}$

Given the element $(3+I, 2+J)$, what is its preimage?

$$(*) \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} 3 &= -(2+i)3 + (3+i)3 \\ 2 &= -(2+i)2 + (3+i)2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Claim: } \underbrace{-(2+i) \cdot 2 + (3+i)3}_{s+i} + \underbrace{I \cdot J}_{(s+5i)} = -4i + (s+5i)$$

maps to $(3+I, 2+J)$.

Check:

$$\begin{aligned} -4i + I &= 3 + I \\ -4i + J &= 2 + J \end{aligned}$$

To show:

$$\begin{aligned} 3 - (-4i) &\in I \\ 2 - (-4i) &\in J \end{aligned}$$

But:

$$\begin{aligned} 3 + 4i &= (2+i)(2+i) \quad \checkmark \\ 2 + 4i &= (1+i)(3+i) \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Remark: A similar technique works for $R = F[x]$, where F is a field.

Take $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$, non-zero polynomials and $I = (f(x))$, $J = (g(x))$ such that $I+J = F[x]$.

i.e.

$$1 = A(x)f(x) + B(x)g(x),$$

for some $A(x), B(x) \in F[x]$.

CRT gives then

$$F[x]/(f(x)g(x)) \xrightarrow{\cong} F[x]/(f(x)) \times F[x]/(g(x))$$

[Note: $F[x]$ is commutative with identity]

The preimage of $(a(x)+I, b(x)+J)$ is again given by forming:

$$\begin{aligned} a(x) &= a(x)A(x)f(x) + a(x)B(x)g(x) \\ b(x) &= b(x)A(x)f(x) + b(x)B(x)g(x) \end{aligned}$$

as $b(x)A(x) + a(x)B(x)g(x) + I \cdot J$

Example: $R = \mathbb{R}[x]$, $I = (x^2+2)$, $J = (x+1)$,
then use division with remainder

$$x^2 + 2 = (x-1)(x+1) + 3$$

so

$$1 = \frac{1}{3}(x^2+2) + \frac{(1-x)}{3}(x+1)$$

CRT gives:

$$\mathbb{R}[x] / ((x^2+2)(x+1)) \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}[x] / (x^2+2) \times \mathbb{R}[x] / (x+1)$$

Prime ideals and maximal ideals. 'Building blocks' of ideals, prime ideals.

Definition: let R be a ring commutative with identity, $1 \neq 0$,
and let I be an ideal, then

1) I is a prime ideal if $I \neq R$, and $a \cdot b \in I$
 $\Rightarrow a \in I$ or $b \in I$.

2) I is a maximal ideal if $I \neq R$, and if $J \subseteq R$ is
an ideal such that

$$I \subseteq J \subseteq R$$

then either $J = I$ or $J = R$. ("we cannot squeeze
in an ideal between I and R ").

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}$, all ideals are of the type (n) , where $n \geq 0$.

1) $n = 0$: (0) is prime.

$$a \cdot b = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0 \text{ or } b = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow ab \in (0) \Rightarrow a \in (0) \text{ or } b \in (0)$$

2) $n = 1$: $(1) = R$ is neither prime nor maximal.

3) $n \geq 2$: if $n = p$ prime, then (n) is a prime ideal
and also a maximal ideal.

(n) is prime: Suppose $a \cdot b \in (n)$, i.e. $ab = nk$ for

Some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then $n \mid ab$ and since n is prime, get $n \mid a$
or $n \mid b$.

Hence $(n) \supset (a)$ or $(n) \supset (b)$, i.e.
 $(n) \ni a$ or $(n) \ni b$.

(n) is maximal: (as well)

Assume $(n) \subset J \subset \mathbb{Z}$, for some ideal J .

Then $J = (m)$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

But $(n) \subset (m) \Leftrightarrow m \mid n$
 $\Leftrightarrow m = 1$ or $m = n$, n prime

Case $m = 1$: $(m) = (1) = R = \mathbb{Z}$.

Case $m = n$: $(m) = (n)$, i.e. $I = J$.

4) $n \geq 2$: If n is not prime, write $n = a \cdot b$ with
 $1 < a < n$, $1 < b < n$.

Then $n \nmid a$, $n \nmid b$, but $n \mid ab$.

$\Rightarrow (n)$ cannot be prime.

Moreover (n) cannot be maximal, e.g.

$$(n) \subset (a) \subset \mathbb{Z}$$

and $(n) \neq (a)$, and $(a) \neq \mathbb{Z}$.

Conclusion: $\{ \text{prime ideals in } \mathbb{Z} \} = \{ (0) \} \cup \{ (p) \mid p \text{ prime number in } \mathbb{Z} \}$
 $\{ \text{maximal ideals in } \mathbb{Z} \} = \{ (p) \mid p \text{ prime number in } \mathbb{Z} \}$

Exercise: For a field F , the maximal ideals in $F[x]$ are
 $(f(x))$, where $f(x)$ is irreducible in $F[x]$, while
the prime ideals are the same together with $(0)_{F[x]}$.

Theorem: Let R be a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$,
and $I \subset R$ an ideal, then

- 1) I is a prime ideal in $R \Leftrightarrow R/I$ is an integral domain
- 2) I is a maximal ideal in $R \Leftrightarrow R/I$ is a field.

ANT: RFI

Corollary: A maximal ideal in a ring R is in particular a prime ideal.

Proof: Recall that a field is in particular an integral domain, now use 1) and 2).

Proof: (Theorem)

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 1) & a \cdot b \in I & \xRightarrow{I \text{ prime}} a \in I \text{ or } b \in I \\
 & \Downarrow & \\
 & ab + I = I & \\
 & \text{in } R/I & \\
 & \Downarrow & \\
 & \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{0} & \xRightarrow{R/I \text{ integral domain}} \bar{a} = \bar{0} \text{ or } \bar{b} = \bar{0} \text{ in } R/I
 \end{array}$$

$$2) \quad I \text{ maximal ideal} \Rightarrow R/I \text{ a field.}$$

Show inverses exist for non-zero elements.

Let $a \in R - I$, then $\bar{a} = a + I \neq \bar{0}$ in R/I .

Then $(a) + I = R$ [$I \subset (a) + I \subset R$, and $I \neq (a) + I$, maximality of I implies $(a) + I = R$]

Hence $1 = r \cdot a + i$, for some $r \in R, i \in I$

But then $\bar{r} \cdot \bar{a} = \bar{1}$ in R/I , so any \bar{a} has an inverse. \checkmark

$$R/I \text{ a field} \Rightarrow I \text{ maximal ideal}$$

To show: $J \supset I$ and $J \neq I$ implies $J = R$.

Assume $J \supset I$, and $J \neq I$, then $\exists a \in J - I$, hence $a + I \neq I$, so $a + I$ has inverse $r + I$ in R/I , so $(a + I)(r + I) = 1 + I \Rightarrow ar - 1 \in I$

$$\text{But then } 1 = \underbrace{ar}_{\in J} - \underbrace{(ar - 1)}_{\in I \subset J} \in J$$

Example: 1) $\mathbb{Z}[i] / (-1+i)$ is a field.

Proof: Seen: $\mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2$
 $a+bi \mapsto \frac{a+b}{2}$

gives via FIT, checking surjectivity

$$\mathbb{Z}[i] / (-1+i) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

and \mathbb{Z}_2 is a field (any \mathbb{Z}_p with p prime is)

By theorem above, get $(-1+i)\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a maximal ideal.

2) In $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $x^3 + 7x - 14$ is irreducible,
(Eisenstein's criterion for prime 7)

So $(x^3 + 7x - 14)$ is a maximal ideal in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$,

$\mathbb{Q}[x] / (x^3 + 7x - 14)$ is a field.

A "number field".

Note: in this quotient, $f(x) = x^3 + 7x - 14$ has a root.