Math146 - Lecture notes

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2025-01-29 13:17:24 EST (george@calliope)

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2025-01-15 - Commutative rings 1

See [Stewart, chapter 16]¹ for general results about commutative rings.

1.1Definitions

Definition 1.1.1. A ring R is an additive abelian group together with an operation of multiplication $R \times R \to R$ given by $(a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ such that the following axioms hold:

- multiplication is *associative*
- multiplication *distributes* over addition: for every $a, b, c \in R$ we have ²

$$a(b+c) = ab + ac$$

and

$$(b+c)a = ba + ca$$

We say that the ring R is *commutative* if the operation of multiplication is commutative; i.e. if ab = ba for all $a, b \in R$.

And we say that R has identity if multiplication has an identity, i.e. if there is an element $1_R \in R$ such that $a \cdot 1_R = 1_R \cdot a = a$ for every $a \in R$.³

In the course, we will consider (almost?) exclusively rings which are commutative and have identity.

Here are some examples of commutative rings:

Example 1.1.2. (a) \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C}

(b) if X is a set and if R is a commutative ring, the set X^R of all R-valued functions on X can be viewed as a commutative ring in a natural way.

1.2Polynomial rings

If R is a commutative ring, the collection of all polynomials in the variable T having coefficients in R is denoted R[T].

Notice that the set of monomials $S = \{T^i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has the following properties:

(M1) every element of R[T] is an R-linear combination of elements of S. This just amounts to the statement that every polynomial $f(T) \in R[T]$ has the form

$$f(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i T^i$$

for a suitable $N \ge 0$ and suitable coefficients $a_i \in R$.

²We often just denote multiplication by juxtaposition: i.e. we may write ab instead of $a \cdot b$ for $a, b \in R$

¹As noted in the course syllabus, Tisch library has an entry for this item here; click to find online access to the text Galois Theory, Ian Stewart. (CRC Press, 4th edition 2022).

³Usually we write 1 for 1_R . The idea is that 1_R is the multiplicative identity of R. For example, the identity matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is the multiplicative identity 1_R of the matrix ring $R = \operatorname{Mat}_2(\mathbb{R})$.

(M2) the elements of S are linearly independent i.e. if

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i T^i = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad a_i \in R,$$

then $a_i = 0$ for every *i*.

Polynomials in R[T] can be added in a natural way. (This is just like adding vectors in a vector space).

And there is a product operation on polynomials, as follows: M

if
$$f(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} a_i T^i$$
 and $g(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{M} b_i T^i$ then
$$f(T) \cdot g(T) = \sum_{i=0}^{N+M} c_i T^i \quad \text{where} \quad c_i = \sum_{s+t=i} a_s b_t.$$

Proposition 1.2.1. R[T] is a commutative ring with identity.

2 2025-01-22 - Properties of rings

2.1 Ring Homomorphisms

Definition 2.1.1. If R and S are rings, a function $\phi: R \to S$ is called a ring homomorphism provided that

- (a) ϕ is a homomorphism of *additive groups*,
- (b) ϕ preserves multiplication; i.e. for all $x, y \in R$ we have $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$, and

(c) $\phi(1_R) = 1_S$.

Definition 2.1.2. The kernel of the ring homomorphism $\phi: R \to S$ is given by

$$\ker \phi = \phi^{-1}(0) = \{ x \in R \mid \phi(x) = 0 \};$$

thus ker ϕ is just the kernel of ϕ viewed as a homomorphism of additive groups.

Here are some properties of the kernel:

(K1) ker ϕ is an additive subgroup of R

(K2) for every $r \in R$ and every $x \in \ker \phi$ we have $rx \in \ker \phi$.

2.2 Ideals of a ring

For simplicity suppose that the ring R (and S) are *commutative* rings. Definition 2.2.1. A subset I of R is an *ideal* provided that

- (a) I is an additive subgroup of R, and
- (b) for every $r \in R$ and every $x \in I$ we have $rx \in I$.

We sometimes describe condition (b) by saying that "I is closed under multiplication by every element of R".

The proof of the following is immediate from definitions:

Proposition 2.2.2. If $\phi : R \to S$ is a ring homomorphism, then ker ϕ is an ideal of R.

2.3 Quotient rings

Let R be a commutative ring and let I be an ideal of R.

Since I is a subgroup of the (abelian) additive group R, we may consider the quotient group R/I. Its elements are (additive) cosets a + I for $a \in R$.

It follows from the definition of cosets that the a + I = b + I if and only if $b - a \in I$.

The additive group can be made into a commutative ring by defining the multiplication as follows:

For $a + I, b + I \in R/I$ (so that $a, b \in R$), the product is given by

$$(a+I)(b+I) = ab+I.$$

In order to make this definition, one must confirm that this rule is well-defined. Namely, if we have equalities a + I = a' + I and b + I = b' + I, we need to know that

$$(a+I)(b+I) = (a'+I)(b'+I).$$

Applying the definition, we see that we must confirm that

$$ab = I = a'b' + I.$$

For this, we need to argue that $a'b' - ab \in I$.

Since a + I = a' + I, we know that $a' - a = x \in I$ and since b + I = b' + I we know that $b' - b = y \in I$.

Thus a' = a + x and b' = b + y. Now we see that

$$a'b' = (a+x)(b+y) = ab + ay + xb + xy$$

Since I is an ideal, we see that $ay, xb, xy \in I$ henc $ay + xb + xy \in I$. Now conclude that a'b' + I = ab + I as required.

It is now straightforward to confirm that the ring axioms hold for the set R/I with these operations.

Proposition 2.3.1. If I is an ideal of the commutative ring R, then R/I is a commutative ring with the addition and multiplication just described.

2.4 Principal ideals

Definition 2.4.1. If R is a commutative ring and $a \in R$, the principal ideal generated by a – written Ra or $\langle a \rangle$ – is defined by

$$Ra = \langle a \rangle = \{ ra \mid r \in R \}.$$

Proposition 2.4.2. For $a \in R$, Ra is an ideal of R.

Example 2.4.3. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ and consider the principal ideal $n\mathbb{Z}$ of the ring \mathbb{Z} generated by $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

As an additive group, $n\mathbb{Z}$ is the infinite cyclic group generated by n.

The quotient ring $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is the finite commutative ring with *n* elements; these elements are precisely the *congruence classes* of integers modulo *n*.

2.5 Isomorphism Theorem

Theorem 2.5.1. Let R, S be commutative rings with identity and let $\phi : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Assume that ϕ is surjective (i.e. onto). Then ϕ determines an isomorphism $\overline{\phi} : R/I \to S$ where $I = \ker \phi$, where $\overline{\phi}$ is determined by the rule

$$\phi(a+I) = \phi(a) \quad for \ a \in R.$$

Proof. First, you must confirm that $\overline{\phi}$ is well-defined; i.e. that if a + I = a' + I then $\overline{\phi}(a + I) = \overline{\phi}(a' + I)$.

Next, you must confirm that $\overline{\phi}$ is a ring homomorphism (this is immediate from the definition of ring operations on R/I).

Finally, you must confirm that ker $\overline{\phi} = \{0\}$, where here 0 refers to the additive identity of the quotient ring R/I. This additive identity is of course the trivial coset $I = 0 + I \in R/I$. \Box

2.6 A Homorphism from the polynomial ring to the scalars

Let F is a field and let $a \in F$. consider the mapping

$$\Phi: F[T] \to F$$

given by $\Phi(f(T)) = f(a)$. Namely, applying Φ to a polynomial f(T) results in the value f(a) of f(T) at a.

The definition of multiplication in F[T] guarantees that Φ is a ring homomorphism.

3 2025-01-27 - Polynomials over a field and the division algorithm

3.1 Some general notions for commutative rings

Definition 3.1.1. If R is a commutative ring with 1 and if $u \in R$ we say that u is a unit - or that u is invertible - provided that there is $v \in R$ with uv = 1; then $v = u^{-1}$.

We write R^{\times} for the units in R.

A commutative ring R is a *field* provided that every non-zero element is invertible. Thus R is a field if $R^{\times} = R \setminus \{0\}$.

Proposition 3.1.2. If R is a commutative, then R^{\times} is an abelian group (with operation the multiplication in R).

For any commutative ring R and elements $a, b \in R$ we say that a **divides** b – written $a \mid b$ – if $\exists x \in R$ with ax = b.

Proposition 3.1.3. For $a, b \in R$ we have $a \mid b$ if and only if $b \in \langle a \rangle$.

Recall that we introduced the principal ideal $\langle a \rangle = aR$ for any commutative ring R and any $a \in R$. In fact, given $a_1, \dots, a_n \in R$ we can consider the ideal

$$\langle a_1, \cdots, a_n \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i R$$

defined as

$$\langle a_1, \cdots, a_n \rangle = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n r_i a_i | r_i \in R \right\}.$$

It is straightforward to check that $\langle a_1, \cdots, a_n \rangle$ is indeed an ideal of R.

Definition 3.1.4. A non-zero element $a \in R$ is said to be a *0*-divisor provided that there is $0 \neq b \in R$ with ab = 0.

Example 3.1.5. Let n be a composite positive integer, so that n = ij for integers i, j > 0. Consider the elements $[i] = i + n\mathbf{Z}, [j] = j + n\mathbf{Z}$ in the quotient ring $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$.

Then [i] and [j] are both non-zero since 0 < i, j < n so that $n \nmid i$ and $n \nmid j$. But $[i] \cdot [j] = [n] = 0$ so that [i] and [j] are 0-divisors of the ring $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$.

Definition 3.1.6. A commutative ring R is said to be an *integral domain* provided that it has no zero-divisors.

Example 3.1.7. (a) Any field is an integral domain.

- (b) The ring \mathbf{Z} of integers is an integral domain.
- (c) Any subring of an integral domain is an integral domain.

For example, the ring $\mathbf{Z}[i] = \{a+bi \mid a, b \in \mathbf{Z}\}$ of gaussian integers is an integral domain.

- (d) $\mathbf{Z}/n\mathbf{Z}$ is not an integral domain whenever *n* is composite.
- (e) If R and S are commutative rings, the direct product $R \times S$ is *never* an integral domain. Indeed, the elements (1,0) and (0,1) are 0-divisors.

Lemma 3.1.8. (Cancellation) Let R be an integral domain and let $a, b, c, \in R$ with $c \neq 0$. If ac = bc then a = b.

Proof. The equation ac = bc implies that ac - bc = 0 so that (a - b)c = 0 by the distributive property. Since R has no zero divisors and since $c \neq 0$ by assumption, conclude that a - b = 0 i.e. that a = b.

Proposition 3.1.9. Let R be an integral domain and let $d, d' \in R \setminus \{0\}$. If $\langle d \rangle = \langle d' \rangle$ then d and d are associate.

Proof. Since $d \in \langle d \rangle$ we may write d = xd' and since $d' \in \langle d \rangle$ we may write d' = yd. Now we see that d = xd' = xyd. Since $d \neq 0$ cancellation (Lemma 3.1.8) implies that xy = 1. Thus $x, y \in R^{\times}$ and indeed d, d' are associate.

3.2 The degree of a polynomial

Let F be a field and consider the ring of polynomials F[T].

Definition 3.2.1. The degree of a polynomial $f = f(T) \in F[T]$ is defined to be $\deg(f) = -\infty$ if f = 0, and otherwise $\deg(f) = n$ where

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i T^i$$
 with each $a_i \in F$ and $a_n \neq 0$.

We have some easy and familiar properties of the degree function:

Proposition 3.2.2. Let $f, g \in F[T]$.

(a)
$$\deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$$
.

- (b) $\deg(f+g) \le \max\{\deg(f), \deg(g)\}$ and equality holds if $\deg(f) \ne \deg(g)$.
- (c) $f \in F[T]^{\times}$ if and only if $\deg(f) = 0$. In particular, $F[T]^{\times} = F^{\times}$.

Corollary 3.2.3. For a field F, the polynomial ring F[T] is an integral domain.

Proof. Let $f, g \in F[T]$ and suppose that fg = 0. We must argue that either f = 0 or g = 0.

Proposition 3.2.4. Let $f, g \in F[T]$. If $g \neq 0$ and $\deg g < \deg f$ then $[g] = g + \langle f \rangle$ is a non-zero element of $F[T]/\langle f \rangle$.

3.3 The division algorithm

Theorem 3.3.1. Let F be a field, and let $f, g \in F[T]$ with $0 \neq g$. Then there are polynomials $q, r \in F[T]$ for which

f = qg + r

and $\deg r < \deg g$.

Proof. First note that we may suppose f to be non-zero. Indeed, if f = 0, we just take q = r = 0. Clearly f = qg + r, and $\deg(r) = -\infty < \deg(g)$ since g is non-zero.

We now proceed by induction on $\deg(f) \ge 0$.

For the base case in which $\deg(f) = 0$, we note that f = c is a constant polynomial; here $c \in F^{\times}$.

If deg(g) = 0 as well, then $g = d \in F^{\times}$ and then c = (c/d)d + 0 so we may take q = c/d and r = 0. Now deg $(r) = -\infty < \text{deg}(g)$ as required.

If $\deg(g) > 0$, we simply take q = 0 and r = f: we then have $f = 0 \cdot g + f$ and $\deg(f) = 0 < \deg(g)$ as required.

We have now confirmed the Theorem holds when $\deg(f) = 0$.

Proceeding with the induction, we now suppose n > 0 and that the Theorem holds whenever f has degree < n. We must prove the Theorem holds when f has degree n.

Since f has degree n, we may write $f = a_n T^n + f_0$ where $a_n \in F^{\times}$ and $f_0 \in F[T]$ has $\deg(f_0) < n$.

Let us write $g = \deg(g)$; we may write $g = b_m T^m + g_0$ where $b_m \in F^{\times}$ and $g_0 \in F[T]$ has $\deg(g_0) < m$.

If n < m we take q = 0 and r = f to find that f = qg + r and $\deg(r) < \deg(g)$. Finally, if $m \le n$ we set

$$f_1 = f - (a_n/b_m)T^{n-m}g = a_nT^n + f_0 - \left(\frac{a_n}{b_m}b_mT^n + \frac{a_n}{b_m}T^{n-m}g_0\right) = f_0 - \frac{a_n}{b_m}T^{n-m}g_0.$$

We have $\deg(f_0) < n$ by assumption, and $\deg\left(\frac{a_n}{b_m}T^{n-m}g_0\right) < n$ by the Proposition together with the fact that $\deg(g_0) < m$.

Thus $\deg(f_1) < n$. Now we apply the induction hypothesis to write

$$f_1 = q_1 g + r_1 \quad \text{with } \deg(r_1) < \deg(g).$$

Finally, we have

$$f = f_1 + (a_n/b_m)T^{n-m}g = q_1g + r_1 + (a_n/b_m)T^{n-m}g = (q_1 + (a_n/b_m)T^{n-m})g + r_1$$

so we have indeed written f = qg + r in the required form.

Corollary 3.3.2. Let F be a field and let $f \in F[T]$. For $a \in F$, there is a polynomial $q \in F[T]$ for which

$$f = q(T-a) + f(a).$$

Corollary 3.3.3. For $f \in F[T]$ an element $a \in F$ is a **root** of the polynomial f if and only if $T - a \mid f$ in F[T].

4 2025-01-29 - ideals of the polynomial ring

4.1 Ideals of the polynomial ring F[T]

Corollary 4.1.1. Let F be a field and let I be an ideal of the ring F[T]. Then I is a principal ideal; i.e. there is $g \in I$ for which

$$I = \langle g \rangle = g \cdot F[T].$$

Proof. If $I = \{0\}^4$ the results is immediate. Thus we may suppose $I \neq 0$.

Consider the set $\{\deg(g)|0 \neq g \in I\}$. This is a non-empty set of natural numbers, hence it contains a minimal element by the **well-ordering principle**.

Choose $g \in I$ such that $\deg(g)$ is this minimal degree; we claim that $I = \langle g \rangle$.

Clearly $\langle g \rangle \subseteq I$. To complete the proof, it remains to establish the inclusion $I \subseteq \langle g \rangle$. Let $f \in I$ and use the **Division Algorithm** to write f = qg + r for $q, r \in F[T]$ with deg $r < \deg g$. Observe that $f - qg \in I$ so that $r \in I$. Since deg $r < \deg g$ conclude that r = 0. This shows that $f = qg \in \langle g \rangle$ as required, completing the proof.

Let F be a field, F[T] be the ring of polynomials with coefficients in F, let $f, g \in F[T]$ be polynomials which are not both 0.

Definition 4.1.2. The greatest common divisor gcd(f,g) of the pair f,g is a monic polynomial d such that

- (a) $d \mid f$ and $d \mid g$,
- (b) if $e \in F[T]$ satisfies $e \mid f$ and $e \mid g$, then $e \mid d$.

Remark 4.1.3. If d, d' are two gcds of f, g then $d \mid d'$ and $d' \mid d$. In particular, $\deg(d) = \deg(d')$ and $d' = \alpha d$ for some $\alpha \in F^{\times}$. It is then clear that there is no more than one monic polynomial satisfying i. and ii.

Proposition 4.1.4. Let $f, g \in F[T]$ not both 0⁵.

(a) $\langle f, g \rangle$ is an ideal. According to the previous

corollary, there is a monic polynomial $d \in F[T]$ with

$$\langle d \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle.$$

Then $d = \gcd(f, g)$

(b) In particular, $d = \gcd(f, g)$ may be written in the form d = uf + vg for $u, v \in F[T]$.

Proof. For a., write $I = \langle f, g \rangle = \langle d \rangle$. Since $f, g \in I$, the definition of $\langle d \rangle$ shows that $d \mid f$ and $d \mid g$.

Now suppose that $e \in F[T]$ and that $e \mid f$ and $e \mid g$. Then $f, g \in \langle e \rangle$ which shows that $\langle f, g \rangle \subseteq \langle e \rangle$.

But this implies that $\langle d \rangle \subset \langle e \rangle$ so that $e \mid d$ as required. Thus we see that d is indeed equal to gcd(f,g).

Since $d \in \langle d \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle$, assertion b. follows from the definition of $\langle f, g \rangle$.

⁴We will write simply 0 for the ideal $\{0\}$.

⁵Note that f, g are not both 0 if and only if the ideal $\langle f, g \rangle$ is not 0.

4.2 Principal ideal domains (PIDs) and gcds

Definition 4.2.1. An integral domain R is said to be a **principal ideal domain** (abbreviated PID) provided that every ideal I of R has the form

$$I = \langle a \rangle$$
 for some $a \in R$;

i.e. provided that every ideal of R is principal.

Example 4.2.2. (a) The ring \mathbf{Z} of integers is a PID.

- (b) For any field F, the ring F[T] of polynomials is a PID this follows from the Corollary to the divison algorithm, above.
- (c) The rings $\mathbf{Z}[i]$ and $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ are PIDs to see this one can argue that these rings are Euclidean domains and then one proves that any Euclidean domain is a PID.

5 2025-02-03 - prime elements and unique factorization

5.1 Prime elements in a PID

Let R be a PID.

For $a_1, \dots, a_n \in R$ write $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle = Ra_1 + \dots + Ra_n$ for the ideal generated by the a_i , as before.

Our results about gcd in the polynomial ring actually hold in the generality of the PID R. We quickly give the statements:

Definition 5.1.1. Let $a, b \in R$ such that $\langle a, b \rangle \neq 0$. A gcd of a and b is an element $d \in R$ such that

(i) $d \mid a \text{ and } d \mid b$ (in words: "d is a common divisor of a and b")

(ii) if $e \mid a$ and $e \mid b$ then $e \mid d$. (in words: "any common divisor of a and b divides d")

Definition 5.1.2. Two elements $d, d' \in R$ are said to be associates provided that there is a unit $u \in R^{\times}$ for which d = ud'.

It is straightforward to check that the property "d and d' are associates" defines an equivalence relation on R.

Lemma 5.1.3. Let R be an integral domain and let $d, d' \in R$.

(a) If $\langle d \rangle = \langle d' \rangle$ then d and d' are associates.

(b) If R is a PID and if d and d' are gcds of a and b then d and d' are associates.

Proof. Using the definition of gcd we see that $d \mid d'$ and $d' \mid d$. Thus d' = dv and d = d'u for $u, v \in R$.

This shows that d' = dv = d'uv. Using cancellation, find that 1 = uv so that $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{\times}$. \Box

Remark 5.1.4. This definition of course covers the cases when $R = \mathbf{Z}$ and when R = F[T]. The main thing to point out is that when $R = \mathbf{Z}$, there is a unique **positive** gcd for any pair $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ and when R = F[T] there is a unique **monic** gcd for any pair $f, g \in F[T]$.

For a general PID there need not be a natural choice of gcd, so for $x, y \in R$ we can only speak of gcd(x, y) up to multiplication by a unit of R.

Proposition 5.1.5. Let R be a PID and let $x, y \in R$ with $\langle x, y \rangle \neq 0$.

(a) Since R is a PID, we may write find $d \in R$ with

$$\langle d \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle.$$

Then $d = \gcd(x, y)$.

(b) In particular, $d = \gcd(x, y)$ may be written in the form d = ux + vv for $u, v \in R$.

To prove Proposition 5.1.5 proceed as in the proof of Proposition 4.1.4. Let R be a PID.

Definition 5.1.6. A non-zero element $p \in R$ is said to be **irreducible** provided that $p \notin R^{\times}$ and whenever p = xy for $x, y \in R$ then either $x \in R^{\times}$ or $y \in R^{\times}$.

Remark 5.1.7. Assume that $p, a \in R$ with p irreducible. Then either gcd(p, a) = 1 or gcd(p, a) = p.

Proposition 5.1.8. $p \in R$ is irreducible if and only if (\clubsuit): whenever $a, b \in R$ and $p \mid ab$ then either $p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow): Assume that p is irreducible, suppose that $a, b \in R$ and that $p \mid ab$. We must show that $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.

For this, we may as well suppose that $p \nmid a$; we must then prove that $p \mid b$. Since $p \nmid a$, we see that gcd(a, p) = 1 by the Remark above. Then ua + vp = 1 for elements $u, v \in R$.

Now we see that

$$b = 1 \cdot b = (ua + vp) \cdot b = uab + vpb.$$

Since $p \mid ab$ we see that $p \mid uab + vpb$ which proves that $p \mid b$, as required.

(⇐): Assume that condition (♣) holds for p. We must show that p is irreducible. For this, assume p = xy for $x, y \in R$; we must show that either $x \in R^{\times}$ or $y \in R^{\times}$.

Since p = xy, in particular $p \mid xy$ and we may apply (\clubsuit) to conclude without loss of generality that $p \mid x$.

Write x = pa. We now see that p = xy = pay; by cancellation, find that 1 = ay so that $y \in \mathbb{R}^{\times}$. We conclude that p is irreducible, as required.

Example 5.1.9. If $f \in F[T]$ is reducible (i.e. not irreducible) then the quotient ring $F[T]/\langle f \rangle$ is not an integral domain.

Indeed, write f = gh for $g, h \in F[T]$ non-units. Thus $\deg f > \deg g, \deg h > 0$ by Proposition 3.2.2. According to Proposition 3.2.4, the classes $[g], [h] \in F[T]$ are non-zero, but $[g] \cdot [h] = [f] = 0$ Thus $F[T]/\langle f \rangle$ has zero divisors and is not an integral domain.

5.2 Unique factorization in a PID

Theorem 5.2.1. Let R be a PID, let $0 \neq a \in R$, and suppose that a is not a unit.

- (a) There are irreducible elements $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n \in R$ such that $a = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_n$.
- (b) if $q_1, \dots, q_m \in R$ are irreducibles such that $a = q_1 \dots q_m$ then n = m and after possibly reordering the q_i there are units $u_i \in R^{\times}$ for which $q_i = u_i p_i$ for each i.

Proof. We first prove (a).

For this, we first prove the following claim:

(*): if the conclusion of (a) fails, there is a sequence of elements $a_1, a_2, \dots \in R$ with the property that for each $i \geq 1$ we have:

- $a_{i+1} \mid a_i$ and
- a_i and a_{i+1} are not associate.

Note that if a is irreducible, we are done. Otherwise, we can write a = xy with $x, y \in R$ and $x, y \notin R^{\times}$.

6 Irreducible polynomials over a field

6.1 Fields as quotient rings

Proposition 6.1.1. Let F be a field and let f be an irreducible polynomial in F[T]. Then $F[T]/\langle f \rangle$ is a field.

6.2 Some criteria for irreducibility

Proposition 6.2.1. Let F be a field and let $f \in F[T]$ be a polynomial with $\deg(f) \leq 3$. If f has no root in F then f is irreducible.

7 The Field of fractions of an Integral Domain

Recall Example 3.1.7 that any subring of a field is an integral domain. We now want to argue that the *converse* to this statement is true, as well. Namely, an integral domain R is a subring of a field. In fact, we are essentially going to give a *construction* of such a field from R.

Let's fix an integral domain R. To confirm the suggested converse to the above Corollary, we must construct a field F and an inclusion $i : R \subset F$.

Of course, if we have such a mapping i, then for any $0 \neq b \in R$, the element i(b) is non-zero in F and hence $i(b)^{-1} = \frac{1}{i(b)}$ should be an element of F (even though $i(b)^{-1}$ is possibly not

an element of R). For any $a \in R$ we should be able to multiply i(a) and $\frac{1}{i(b)}$ in F to form the fraction $\frac{i(a)}{i(b)}$. If we choose to identify R with the image i(R), we might simply write $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{i(a)}{i(b)}$ for this *fraction*.

So if the field F exists, it must contain all fractions $\frac{a}{b}$ for $a, b \in R$ with $0 \neq b$. In fact, we are going to construct a field F by formally introducing such fractions.

Consider the set $W = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in R, b \neq 0\}$ and define a relation \sim in W by the condition

$$(a,b) \sim (s,t) \iff at = bs.$$

This relation is motivated by the observation that for *fractions* in a field F we have

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{s}{t} \iff at = bs.$$

One needs to check the following:

Proposition 7.0.1. ~ *defines an* equivalence relation on W.

Proof. We must confirm properties of \sim :

(reflexive) if $(a, b) \in W$, then $ab = ba \implies (a, b) \sim (a, b)$.

(symmetric) if $(a, b), (s, t) \in W$ then

$$(a,b) \sim (s,t) \implies at = bs \implies sb = ta \implies (s,t) \sim (a,b).$$

(transitive) Let $(a,b), (s,t), (u,v) \in W$ and suppose that $(a,b) \sim (s,t)$ and $(s,t) \sim (u,v)$. The assumptions mean that at = bs and sv = tu.

Multiplying the equation at = bs by v on each side, we see that

$$atv = bsv \implies atv = btu \implies (av)t = (bu)t;$$

since $t \neq 0$ and since the cancellation law holds in an integral domain, conclude av = bu. Hence $(a, b) \sim (u, v)$ which confirms the transitive law.

We are now going to show that the fractions - i.e. the equivalence classes in W – form a field. We define Q = Q(R) to be the set of equivalence classes of W under the equivalence relation \sim .

We write $\frac{a}{b} = [(a, b)]$ for the equivalence class of $(a, b) \in W$. Thus Q is the set of (formal) fractions of elements of R, and

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{s}{t} \iff (a,b) \sim (s,t) \iff at = bs$$

It remains to argue that Q has the structure of a field. To do this, we must define binary operations + and \cdot on the set Q and check that they satisfy the correct axioms.

Define addition of fractions: for $a, b, s, t \in R$ with $b, t \neq 0$,

$$(\clubsuit) \quad \frac{a}{b} + \frac{s}{t} = \frac{at + bs}{bt}$$

And define multiplication of fractions:

$$(\diamondsuit) \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{s}{t} = \frac{as}{bt}.$$

Theorem 7.0.2. For an integral domain R, the set Q(R) of fractions of R forms a field with the indicated addition and multiplication.

Sketch of proof. What must be checked??

• must first confirm that (\clubsuit) is *well-defined*! i.e. if $a', b', s', t' \in R$ with $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a'}{b'}$ and $\frac{s}{t} = \frac{s'}{t'}$, we must check that $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{s}{t} = \frac{a'}{b'} + \frac{s'}{t'}$; i.e. that $\frac{at+bs}{bt} = \frac{a't'+b's'}{b't'}$.

This is straightforward if a bit tedious.

- One readily checks that $0 = \frac{0}{1}$ is an identity for the binary operation + on Q.
- One readily checks that + is commutative for Q.
- One readily checks that $\frac{-a}{b}$ is an additive inverse for $\frac{a}{b}$.
- With some more effort, one confirms that + is associative on Q; i.e. for $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in Q$

$$(\alpha + \beta) + \gamma) = \alpha + (\beta + \gamma).$$

Thus (Q, +) is an abelian group. Now consider the operation \diamondsuit) of multiplication.

• must again confirm that (\diamondsuit) is *well-defined*! i.e. if $a', b', s', t' \in R$ with $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a'}{b'}$ and $\frac{s}{t} = \frac{s'}{t'}$, we must check that $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{s}{t} = \frac{a'}{b'} \cdot \frac{s'}{t'}$; i.e. that

$$\frac{as}{bt} = \frac{a's'}{b't'}$$

- One readily checks that $1 = \frac{1}{1}$ is an identity for the binary operation \cdot on Q.
- One readily checks that \cdot is commutative for Q.
- With some more effort, one confirms that \cdot is associative on Q; i.e. for $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in Q$

$$(\alpha \cdot \beta) \cdot \gamma = \alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \gamma)$$

• Next, one must confirm the *distributive law*: for $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in Q$,

$$\alpha(\beta + \gamma) = \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma$$

Phew!

Remark 7.0.3. Despite the details of the preceding proof, all that is happening is confirming properties of operations of fractions that you have used since grade-school...

Now, we want to emphasize a crucial property of the field of fractions of an integral domain.

Let Q(R) be the field constructed above, and note that there is a natural ring homomorphism $i: R \to Q(R)$ given by $r \mapsto i(r) = \frac{r}{1}$ for $r \in R$. This homomorphism is one-to-one: indeed, if $\frac{r}{1} = 0 = \frac{0}{1}$, then $r \cdot 1 = 0 \cdot 1 \implies r = 0$. Thus, we may identify R with a subring of Q(R).

Proposition 7.0.4. Let R be an integral domain, let $\phi : R \to S$ be any ring homomorphism, and suppose that for all $0 \neq d \in R$, $\phi(d) \in S^{\times}$ - i.e. $\phi(d)$ is a unit in S. Then there is a unique homomorphism $\tilde{\phi} : Q(R) \to S$ with the property that $\tilde{\phi}_{|R} = \phi$.

Proof. Let $x \in Q(R)$ be any element. Thus $x = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{a}{1} \cdot \frac{1}{b}$ for $a, b \in R$ with $b \neq 0$.

Let's first argue that uniqueness of ϕ . If ϕ is a ring homomorphism, then

$$1 = \widetilde{\phi}(1) = \widetilde{\phi}(b \cdot \frac{1}{b}) = \phi(b)\widetilde{\phi}(\frac{1}{b}) \implies \widetilde{\phi}(\frac{1}{b}) = \phi(b)^{-1}$$

Since $\tilde{\phi}$ is a ring homomorphism, we must have

$$(\clubsuit) \quad \widetilde{\phi}(x) = \widetilde{\phi}(\frac{a}{1})\widetilde{\phi}(\frac{1}{b}) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b)^{-1}$$

which confirms the uniqueness.

It now only remains to check that the rule (\clubsuit) determines a ring homomorphism, which is straightforward.

Example 7.0.5. The field of rational functions

Let F be a field, and consider R = F[T] the ring of polynomials. This is in integral domain, and its field of fractions Q(R) is usually written F(T) and is known as the field of rational functions over F.

Note that

$$F(T) = \left\{ \frac{f}{g} \mid f, g \in F[T] \right\};$$

thus elements of F(T) are fractions $\frac{f}{g}$ whose numerator and denominator are *polynomials*; we usually call such expressions *rational functions*.

Another field of fractions 7.1

Let p be a prime number and consider the field $F = \mathbf{Q}(\alpha)$ obtained by adjoining a cube root $\alpha = p^{1/3}$ of p to **Q**.

Since $T^3 - p \in \mathbf{Q}[T]$ is irreducible, results reviewed earlier show that F has a **Q**-basis consisting of $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2\}$ – i.e. every element can be expressed uniquely in the form

$$a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2$$
 for $a, b, c \in \mathbf{Q}$

Consider the subset

$$R = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subset F$$

Lemma 7.1.1. R is a subring of F. In particular, since F is a field, R is an integral domain.

Sketch of proof. One must check the following:

- R is an additive subgroup of F
- *R* is closed under the multiplication of *F*.

Since R is an integral domain, we can construct its field of fractions Q = Q(R). In fact, we have []{lem:field-isom}

Proposition 7.1.2. There is an isomorphism of fields $Q(R) \simeq F = \mathbf{Q}(\alpha)$.

Proof. Write $\phi: R \to F$ for the inclusion mapping given by $\phi(x) = x$ (this looks confusing; the point is that $x = a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2$ with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, and to view $x \in F$ we just view $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}$. Since ϕ is one-to-one, if $0 \neq x \in R$ then $0 \neq \phi(x)$; since F is a field $\phi(x) \in F^{\times}$. Thus the

Proposition above implies that there is a ring homomorphism $\phi: Q(R) \to F$. Of course, since Q(R) is a field, ϕ is one-to-one. So it only remains to check that ϕ is onto.

Let $x = s + t\alpha + u\alpha^2 \in F$ for $s, t, u \in \mathbf{Q}$.

Now find $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $s = \frac{a}{d}, t = \frac{b}{d}, u = \frac{c}{d}$. Then $x = s + t\alpha + u\alpha^2 = \frac{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2}{d} \in Q(R)$ is a fraction of elements in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = R$ – i.e. is in the image of ϕ .

7.2Eisenstein's criteria

Let A be a PID and let $p \in A$ be *irreducible*. Write F for the *field of fractions* of A.

Theorem 7.2.1. Let $f = T^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i T^i \in A[T]$, where $a_i \in A$. Suppose that $p \mid a_i$ for all i and that $p^2 \mid a_0$. Then f is irreducible in F[T].