# Homework 1 Solutions 

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Most problems below are from Judson.

1. Find all of the ideals in each of the following rings. Which of these ideals are maximal and which are prime?
(a) $\mathbb{Z}_{18}$
(b) $\mathbb{Z}_{25}$
(c) $\mathbb{Q}$

## Solution 1.

(a) The maximal ideals are $\{0,2,4, \ldots, 16\},\{0,3,6, \ldots, 15\}$, and $\mathbb{Z}_{18}$. They are both also prime ideals. The rest of the ideals are $\{0\},\{0,6,12\},\{0,9\}$.
(b) The maximal (and prime) ideals are $\mathbb{Z}_{25}$ and $\{0,5,10,15,20\}$. The other ideal is $\{0\}$.
(c) We'll prove the only ideals are $\{0\},, \mathbb{Q} . \mathbb{Q}$ is maximal and prime, while $\{0\}$ is neither. Suppose there was an ideal $I \neq\{0\}$. Then $I$ has an element $q \neq 0$. Since $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $\frac{1}{q} \in \mathbb{Q}$, but since $I$ is an ideal and $q \in I$, then any multiplication of $q$ times a rational is in $I$. Therefore $q\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) \in I$. So $1 \in I$, so $I=\mathbb{Q}$. Therefore there are only two ideals, $\{0\}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$.
2. Find all ring homomorphisms $\phi: \mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} / 15 \mathbb{Z}$.

Solution 2. Let $\phi: \mathbb{Z} / 6 \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} / 15 \mathbb{Z}$ be a ring homomorphism. Then $\phi(0)=0$. Let $\phi(1)=k$. Then

$$
0=\phi(0)=\phi(1+5)=\phi(1)+\phi(5)=k+5 k=6 k
$$

Therefore $6 k \equiv 0 \bmod 15$. This means $k \equiv 0 \bmod 5$, therefore $k=0,5,10$.
Now using multiplicativity

$$
k=\phi(1)=\phi(1 \cdot 1)=\phi(1) \phi(1)=k^{2} .
$$

Therefore $k^{2} \equiv k \bmod 15$. When $k=0,10$ we have $k^{2} \equiv k \bmod 15$. When $k=5$ we haave $k^{2} \not \equiv$ $k \bmod 15$. Therefore $k=0$ or $k=10$.
The two possible ring homomorphisms are

- $\phi(a)=0$ for all $a$, and
- $\phi(n)=0,10,5,0,10,5$ for $n=0,1,2,3,4,5$, respectively.

3. Let $m, n$ be positive integers. How many ring homomorphisms are there from $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$ to $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ ? Hint: Consider $d=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$.
Solution 3. As done in the previous exercise, let $\phi(1)=k$. Then $\phi(a)=a k$. To satisfy additivity we need

$$
0=\phi(0)=\phi(1+(m-1))=\phi(1)+\phi(m-1)=k+(m-1) k=m k .
$$

Therefore $m k \equiv 0 \bmod n$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$. Then

$$
\left(\frac{m}{d}\right) k \equiv 0 \bmod \left(\frac{n}{d}\right)
$$

but $m / d$ and $n / d$ don't share any factors (other than 1 ) so $k \equiv 0 \bmod n / d$. So we can write $k=r \frac{n}{d}$ for some $r \in\{0,1, \ldots, d-1\}$.
To satisfy multiplicativity we need

$$
r \frac{n}{d}=k=\phi(1)=\phi(1) \phi(1)=k^{2}=r^{2}\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^{2}
$$

Therefore

$$
r \frac{n}{d} \equiv r^{2}\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)^{2} \bmod n
$$

After dividing by $n / d$ we get

$$
r \equiv r^{2}\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) \bmod d
$$

Then

$$
r\left(\frac{n}{d} r-1\right) \equiv 0 \bmod d
$$

Now, $r$ and $\frac{n}{d} r-1$ are relatively prime, so they share no factors in common. If we do the prime factorization of $d$ as

$$
d=p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} p_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \cdots p_{t}^{\alpha_{t}} q_{1}^{\beta_{1}} q_{2}^{\beta_{2}} \cdots q_{s}^{\beta_{s}}
$$

where the primes $q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{s}$ are all the primes that divide $d$ and $n / d$. Then there are $2^{t}$ possible ring homomorphisms. Namely solve the system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & \equiv 0 \bmod q_{1}^{\beta_{1}} \cdots q_{s}^{\beta_{s}} p_{i_{1}}^{\alpha_{i_{1}}} p_{i_{2}}^{\alpha_{i_{2}}} \cdots p_{i_{h}}^{\alpha_{i_{h}}} \\
\frac{n}{d} r & \equiv 1 \bmod p_{j_{1}}^{\alpha_{j_{1}}} p_{j_{2}}^{\alpha_{j_{2}}} \cdots p_{j_{t-h}}^{\alpha_{t-h}},
\end{aligned}
$$

for each possible partition of the $p_{i}$ 's in two sets. There are $2^{t}$ ways of doing that, and there's a unique solution $r$ modulo $d$ for each choice, which in turn creates a unique $k$ modulo $n$.
Finally we need to prove that each one of these is in fact a ring homomorphism. Suppose a $k$ is picked using the above conditions, i.e., $m k \equiv 0 \bmod n$ and $k^{2} \equiv k \bmod n$. Let's show this creates a ring homomorphism.
Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{\gtrdot}$. Then $a+b=(a+b) \bmod m+m \ell$ for some integer $\ell$ and $a b=(a b) \bmod m+m g$ for some integer $g$. We have $\phi(a+b)=(a+b \bmod m) k \bmod n$ and $\phi(a b)=\left((a b) \bmod m k^{2} \bmod n\right.$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(a)+\phi(b) & =a k+b k \bmod n=(a+b) k \bmod n \\
& =((a+b) \bmod m) k+m k \ell \bmod n \equiv((a+b) \bmod m) k \bmod n=\phi(a+b) \\
\phi(a) \phi(b) & =(a b) k^{2} \bmod n=(a b \bmod m) k^{2}+m g k^{2} \bmod n \equiv \phi(a b)+m k g \bmod n=\phi(a b) .
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Prove or disprove: The ring $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})=\{a+b \sqrt{2}: a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is isomorphic to the $\operatorname{ring} \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})=\{a+b \sqrt{3}$ : $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$.

Solution 4. Suppose $\phi: \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ is a ring isomorphism. Since $\phi(0)=\phi(0+0)=\phi(0)+\phi(0)$, then $\phi(0)=0$. Let $x=\phi(1)$. We have $x=\phi(1)=\phi(1 \cdot 1)=\phi(1) \phi(1)=x^{2}$. But $x \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \subset \mathbb{R}$. Therefore we can solve $x^{2}=x$ in the reals. The solutions are $x=0$ and $x=1$. If $x=0$, then $\phi(a)=0$ for all $a$, which is not a bijection. Therefore $\phi(1)=1$. Then $\phi(2)=\phi(1+1)=\phi(1)+\phi(1)=2$. Let $y=\phi(\sqrt{2})$. Then

$$
2=\phi(2)=\phi(\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2})=\phi(\sqrt{2}) \phi(\sqrt{2})=y^{2} .
$$

Therefore $y^{2}=2$. This means $y=\sqrt{2}$ or $y=-\sqrt{2}$. However, $\pm \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$, which is a contradiction. This means $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is not isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$.

For those wondering how do we know $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$. Suppose $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$, then there exist integers $a, b, c, d$ with $b \neq 0, d \neq 0$ such that

$$
\sqrt{2}=\frac{a}{b}+\frac{c}{d} \sqrt{3}
$$

Since $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational, then $c \neq 0$. Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
b d \sqrt{2} & =a d+b c \sqrt{3} \\
b(d \sqrt{2}-c \sqrt{3}) & =a d \\
b^{2}\left(2 d^{2}+3 c^{2}-2 c d \sqrt{6}\right) & =a^{2} d^{2} \\
\sqrt{6} & =\frac{a^{2} d^{2}-2 b^{2} d^{2}-3 b^{2} c^{2}}{-2 b^{2} c d} \in \mathbb{Q} .
\end{aligned}
$$

But $\sqrt{6}$ is irrational, so we have a contrradiction.
5. Prove that the Gaussian integers, $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, are an integral domain.

Solution 5. Let's assume we already know that the Gaussian integers are a ring and let's prove that they are an integral domain. Suppose $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $x y=0$. Let $x=a+b i$ and $y=x+d i$. Then

$$
0=x y=(a+b i)(c+d i)=(a c-b d)+(a d+b c) i
$$

Therefore

$$
a c-b d=0
$$

and

$$
a d+b c=0
$$

If $c=0$, then $b d=0$ and $a d=0$. If $d=0$, then $c+d i=0+0 i=0$, so $y=0$ (and hence one of $x$ and $y$ is 0 ). If $d \neq 0$, then since $b d=0, b=0$; and because $a d=0, a=0$. Therefore $a+b i=0+0 i=0$, so $x=0$. Therefore if $c=0$, one of $x$ and $y$ is zero.
Now let's take care of the case $c \neq 0$. Then $a=\frac{b d}{c}$ and so $\frac{b d^{2}}{c}=-b c$, implying $b d^{2}=-b c^{2}$. If $b \neq 0$, then $d^{2}=-c^{2}$. But $d^{2} \geq 0$ and $c^{2} \geq 0$. The only way $d^{2}=-c^{2}$ is if $d=c=0$, in which case $y=0$. Since $c \neq 0$, then $b=0$. But then

$$
a=\frac{b d}{c}=\frac{0}{c}=0
$$

so $x=a+b i=0+0 i=0$.
In all cases, we have that either $x=0$ or $y=0$ and hence $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is an integral domain.
Alternative Solution. Suppose $(a+b i)(c+d i)=0$ with $a+b i \neq 0$. Since $a+b i \in \mathbb{C}$ and $a+b i \neq 0$, then it has an inverse in $\mathbb{C}$ (namely $\left.\frac{a}{a^{2}+b^{2}}-\frac{b}{a^{2}+b^{2}} i\right)$. By multiplying by the inverse we get $c+d i=0$. Therefore $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is an integral domain.

Remark 1. The alternative solutions suggests that if $R$ is a subring of a field $\mathbb{F}$, then $R$ is an integral domain.
6. Let $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism. Prove each of the following statements.
(a) If $R$ is a commutative ring, then $\phi(R)$ is a commutative ring.
(b) $\phi(0)=0$.
(c) Let $1_{R}$ and $1_{S}$ be the identities for $R$ and $S$, respectively. If $\phi$ is onto, then $\phi\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S}$.
(d) If $R$ is a field and $\phi(R) \neq 0$, then $\phi(R)$ is a field.

## Solution 6.

(a) Let $\phi(r), \phi(s) \in \phi(R)$. We have $\phi(r) \phi(s)=\phi(r s)=\phi(s r)=\phi(s) \phi(r)$. Therefore $\phi(R)$ is commutative.
(b) $\phi(0)=\phi(0+0)=\phi(0)+\phi(0)$. Since $S$ is a ring, then $\phi(0)$ has an additive inverse, therefore $\phi(0)=0$.
(c) Let $s=\phi\left(1_{R}\right)$. Let $r$ be such that $\phi(r)=1_{S}$ (such an $r$ exists because $\phi$ is onto). Then

$$
1_{S}=\phi(r)=\phi\left(r \cdot 1_{R}\right)=\phi(r) \phi\left(1_{R}\right)=\phi(r) s=1_{S} s=s
$$

Therefore $s=1_{S}$, which is what we want to prove.
(d) Since $R$ is a field, $R$ is commutative, so $\phi(R)$ is commutative (by (a)). Suppose $\phi(1)=0$, then $\phi(r)=\phi(r) \phi(1)=0$ for all $r \in R$. This would contradict that $\phi$ is not the 0 function. Therefore $\phi(1) \neq 0$. Now let $\phi(r) \in \phi(R)$ such that $\phi(r) \neq 0$. Since $\phi(r) \neq 0, r \neq 0$. But then $r$ has an inverse $r^{-1}$, so

$$
\phi(1)=\phi\left(r r^{-1}\right)=\phi(r) \phi\left(r^{-1}\right)
$$

Therefore $\phi(r)$ has an inverse in $\phi(R)$. Therefore $\phi(R)$ is a field.
7. Prove the Third Isomorphism Theorem for rings: Let $R$ be a ring and $I$ and $J$ be ideals of $R$, where $J \subset I$. Then

$$
R / I \cong \frac{R / J}{I / J}
$$

Solution 7. Let $\phi: R / J \rightarrow R / I$ be defined by $p h i(r+J)=\phi(r+I)$. Let's show the map is welldefined. Suppose $r+J=s+J$. Then $r-s \in J \subseteq I$. Therefore $\phi(r+J)=r+I=s+I=\phi(s+J)$. The function is also a ring homomorphism because

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\phi\left(r_{1}+J\right)+\phi\left(r_{2}+J\right)=\left(r_{1}+I\right)+\left(r_{2}+I\right)=\left(r_{1}+r_{2}\right)+I=\phi\left(r_{1}+r_{2}\right) \\
\phi\left(r_{1}+J\right) \cdot \phi\left(r_{2}+J\right)=\left(r_{1}+I\right) \cdot\left(r_{2}+I\right)=\left(r_{1} \cdot r_{2}\right)+I=\phi\left(r_{1} \cdot r_{2}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

Let $K=\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$, then $(R / J) / K \cong \phi(R / J)$. Suppose $r+I \in R / I$, then $\phi(r+J)=r+I$, therefore $\phi$ is onto, so $\phi(R / J)=R / I$.
Suppose $\phi(r+J)=0+I$, then $r \in I$. Therefore the elements in the kernel have the form $r+J$ where $r \in I$, i.e., the kernel is $I / J$.
The First Isomorphism Theorem now implies that $\frac{R / J}{I / J} \cong R / I$.
8. Let $R$ be an integral domain. Show that if the only ideals in $R$ are $\{0\}$ and $R$ itself, $R$ must be a field.

Solution 8. Let $a \neq 0$ be an element of $R$. Let $I=\langle a\rangle$. Since $a \neq 0$, then $I \neq\{0\}$. By assumption $I=R$. But that means $1 \in I$, so $1 \in\langle a\rangle$. That means there is an element $r \in R$ such that $1=a r$, but that means $a$ has an inverse. Therefore $R$ is a field.
9. Let $R$ be a commutative ring. An element $a$ in $R$ is nilpotent if $a^{n}=0$ for some positive integer $n$. Show that the set of all nilpotent elements forms an ideal in $R$.
Solution 9. Let $\mathfrak{N}$ be the set of nilpotent elements of $R$. Let $a \in \mathfrak{N}$, and $b \in R$. There exists a nonnegative integer $n$ such that $a^{n}=0$. Since $R$ is commutative, then $(a b)^{n}=a^{n} b^{n}=0$. Therefore $a b \in \mathfrak{N}$. This shows that it has the ideal property and that multiplication is closed. Also $(-a)^{n}=(-1)^{n} a^{n}=0$, therefore $-a \in \mathfrak{N}$, which implies that every element has an additive inverse. $0^{1}=0$, so $0 \in \mathfrak{N}$. Finally, we need to show that for any $a, c \in \mathfrak{N}$, that $(a+c)^{k}=0$ for some non-negative integer $k$. Since $a, c \in \mathfrak{N}$, then there exist nonnegative integer $n, m$ such that $a^{n}=0$ and $c^{m}=0$.
Then

$$
(a+c)^{m+n-1}=\sum_{j=0}^{m+n-1}\binom{m+n-1}{j} a^{j} c^{m+n-1-j}
$$

Note that when $j \geq n, a^{j}=0$. When $j \leq n-1$, then $m+n-1-j \geq m$, so $c^{m+n-1-j}=0$. Therefore $(a+c)^{m+n-1}=0$.
Since $\mathfrak{N}$ is a subring and it satisfies the ideal property, then it is an ideal.
10. Let $p$ be prime. Prove that

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}=\{a / b: a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \text { and } \operatorname{gcd}(b, p)=1\}
$$

is a ring. The ring $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ is called the ring of integers localized at $p$.
Solution 10. Let $a / b, c / d, e / f \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$. We want to show the following:
(a) $a / b+c / d \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$
(b) $(a / b)(c / d) \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$
(c) $(a / b)+(c / d+e / f)=(a / b+c / d)+e / f$
(d) $(a / b)(c / d+e / f)=(a / b)(c / d)+(a / b)(e / f)$
(e) $\left.0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{( } p\right)$
(f) $-(a / b) \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$
(g) $(a / b)+(c / d)=(c / d)+(a / b)$

The operations are the ones from $\mathbb{R}$, so they are commutative, associative and distributive. These gives us (c),(d),(g). $0=0 / 1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(1, p)=1$, so $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$. $-(a / b)=-a / b \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$. We need only do (a) and (b).

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{a}{b}+\frac{c}{d}=\frac{a d+b c}{b d} \\
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)\left(\frac{c}{d}\right)=\frac{a c}{b d} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Since $\operatorname{gcd}(b, p)=1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(d, p)=1$, then $\operatorname{gcd}(b d, p)=1$. Therefore $a / b+c / d$ and $(a / b)(c / d) \in \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$

