## HOMEWORK-1

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4. Funny Ring Structure. Given a ring $R$, show that we get a new ring structure on the same set $R$ as follows: define a new addition $\oplus$ by $a \oplus b=a+b-1$ and a new multiplication $\odot$ by $a \odot b=a+b-a b$. You can prove this by going through the axioms, but that is not the point of this exercise at all. Instead prove the claim by simultaneously showing that the new ring structure is actually isomorphic to the original ring. (The basic observation is that if there is any bijection from a group/vector space/ring/whatever structure to some set $S$, then one can make $S$ into the same structure by using $f$ as a dictionary.)

Solution. As in the statement given in the parenthesis, it is enough to exhibit a bijection $f$ from $R$ to $R$ which will act as a recipe for the funny ring structure. Consider the set map $f: R \rightarrow R$ given by

$$
f(a)=1-a
$$

It is clear that $f$ is injective, because

$$
1-a=1-b \Longrightarrow a=b
$$

for any $a, b \in R$. Moreover, $f$ is surjective, because given any $a \in R$ we have

$$
f(1-a)=1-(1-a)=a
$$

and so we conclude that $f$ is a bijection. Now, we will use the bijection $f$ as a recipe to give another ring structure to $R$. For any $a, b \in R$ we define operations $+_{\text {funny }}$ and ${ }^{\text {funny }}$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
a+_{\text {funny }} b & :=f\left(f^{-1}(a)+f^{-1}(b)\right)=a+b-1=a \oplus b \\
a \cdot_{\text {funny }} b & :=f\left(f^{-1}(a) \cdot f^{-1}(b)\right)=a+b-a b=a \odot b
\end{aligned}
$$

and let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0_{\text {funny }}=f(0)=1 \\
& 1_{\text {funny }}=f(1)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

So, it follows that the operations $+_{\text {funny }}$ and $\oplus$ coincide, and $\cdot{ }_{\text {funny }}$ and $\odot$ coincide. Moreover, $R$ is a ring under the operations $+_{\text {funny }}$ and funny because the ring axioms hold for + and $\cdot$, so they automatically hold for these new operations as well. Finally, by the above definition we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(a+b) & =f(a) \oplus f(b) \\
f(a \cdot b) & =f(a) \odot f(b)
\end{aligned}
$$

for any $a, b \in R$, implying that $f$ is actually a ring isomorphism between $R$ and the funny version of $R$ (note that we didn't check $f(1)=1_{\text {funny }}$, because that is
a part of our definition). This shows that the funny ring is isomorphic to the original one, completing the proof.

Before doing problem 5., I will try to prove a general fact which was mentioned in Lecture 3. As a note, wherever I use the term the gcd, I mean the gcd upto units.

Proposition 0.1. Let $p(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be any two polynomials such that the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x)$ is 1 , and the gcd of the coefficients of $g(x)$ is 1 . Then, the god of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ is also 1 .

Proof. For the sake of contradiction, suppose the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ is not 1 (i.e not a unit). Also, suppose

$$
\begin{aligned}
& p(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\ldots+a_{n} x^{n} \\
& g(x)=b_{0}+b_{1} x+\ldots+b_{m} x^{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ is $d$, where $d$ is not a unit (and clearly $d \neq 0$ as $p(x), g(x)$ are non-zero). So by prime factorisation in $\mathbb{Z}$, there is some prime factor $P$ of $d$. So, $P$ divides each coefficient of $p(x) g(x)$. But by our assumption, there are coefficients $a_{r}$ and $b_{s}$ such that $P$ does not divide $a_{r}$ and $b_{s}$. Pick the largest such $r$ and $s$ (i.e $P$ divides $a_{i}$ for each $i>r$, and $P$ divides $b_{i}$ for each $i>s$ ). We can choose the largest such $r$ and $s$ since we are dealing with polynomials, which have finitely many non-zero coefficients. Now the coefficient of the term $x^{r+s}$ in $p(x) g(x)$ (which by assumption is divisible by $P$ ) is

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{r+s} a_{i} b_{r+s-i}=a_{r} b_{s}+\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} a_{i} b_{r+s-i}+\sum_{i=r+1}^{r+s} a_{i} b_{r+s-i}
$$

Now, if $0 \leq i \leq r-1$, then $r+s-i \geq s+1$, and hence $P \mid b_{r+s-i}$ for each such $i$. Similarly, if $i \geq r+1$, then $P \mid a_{i}$ for each such $i$. So, the above equation combined with these facts implies that $P \mid a_{r} b_{s}$. Since $P$ is a prime, this implies that $P$ divides one of $a_{r}$ or $b_{s}$, but this is clearly a contradiction. Hence, this shows that the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ must be a unit, i.e it must be 1 .

Remark 0.1.1. I think the above proof can be modified to rings where factorization into irreducibles holds, but for now that is not important.

Corollary 0.1.1. Let $p(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be any two polynomials. Suppose $d_{1}$ is the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x)$ and $d_{2}$ is the gcd of the coefficients of $g(x)$. Then the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ is $d_{1} d_{2}$.

Proof. Clearly, we can write $p(x)=d_{1} p^{\prime}(x)$ and $g(x)=d_{2} g^{\prime}(x)$, where $p^{\prime}(x), g^{\prime}(x) \in$ $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that the gcd of the coefficients of $p^{\prime}(x)$ is 1 , and the gcd of the coefficients of $g^{\prime}(x)$ is also 1 . Also, we see that

$$
p(x) g(x)=d_{1} d_{2} p^{\prime}(x) g^{\prime}(x)
$$

By Proposition 0.1, we know that the gcd of the coefficients of $p^{\prime}(x) g^{\prime}(x)$ is 1 . Hence, it follows that the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x) g(x)$ is $d_{1} d_{2}$, completing the proof.

Proposition 0.2. Let $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{C}$ be a ring homomorphism such that $\varphi(x)=a$ for some $a \in \mathbb{C}$. Then, Ker $\varphi$ is a principal ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Proof. Throughout I will assume the standard inclusions $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ (and hence the standard inclusions of the corresponding polynomial rings as well). First, if $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$ is trivial, then it is clear that $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=(0)$, i.e it is a principal ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. So, assume that the kernel is not trivial. So, there is some non-zero polynomial $d(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $d(a)=0$. Among all such polynomials, let $d(x)$ be the one with least degree such that the gcd of the coefficients of $d(x)$ is 1 (it is easy to see that choosing such a $d(x)$ is possible by factoring out the gcd if necessary). We claim that

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=(d(x))
$$

To prove this, suppose $p(x) \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$. We know that $p(x)$ and $d(x)$ are both polynomials in the ring $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ (by the standard inclusion). Since $\mathbb{Q}$ is a field, Euclidean Division holds, and there are polynomials $q(x), r(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that

$$
p(x)=q(x) d(x)+r(x)
$$

where either $\operatorname{deg} r<\operatorname{deg} d$ or $r(x)=0$. Let $l_{1}$ be the LCM of the denominators of the coefficients of $q(x)$, and similarly let $l_{2}$ be the LCM of the denominators of the coefficients of $r(x)$ (so that $l_{1}, l_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}-\{0\}$ ). Then, we can write

$$
q(x)=\frac{q^{\prime}(x)}{l_{1}} \text { and } r(x)=\frac{r^{\prime}(x)}{l_{2}}
$$

where $q^{\prime}(x), r^{\prime}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. So we get

$$
l_{1} l_{2} p(x)=l_{2} q^{\prime}(x) d(x)+l_{1} r^{\prime}(x)
$$

and this is an equation in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Clearly, we see that

$$
l_{1} r^{\prime}(a)=0
$$

and hence $r^{\prime}(a)=0$ as $l_{1} \neq 0$. Since $\operatorname{deg} r^{\prime}(x)=\operatorname{deg} r(x)<\operatorname{deg} d(x)$, by the definition of $d(x)$ it must be true that $r^{\prime}(x)=0$. Hence, we get

$$
l_{1} l_{2} p(x)=l_{2} q^{\prime}(x) d(x) \Longrightarrow l_{1} p(x)=q^{\prime}(x) d(x)
$$

Suppose $s$ is the gcd of the coefficients of $p(x)$. Then, the gcd of the coefficients of $l_{1} p(x)$ is $l_{1} s$, and hence the gcd of the coefficients of $q^{\prime}(x) d(x)$ is $l_{1} s$. By our assumption, the gcd of the coefficients of $d(x)$ was 1 , and hence it must be true that the gcd of the coefficients of $q^{\prime}(x)$ is $l_{1} s$ (this is where we apply Corollary 0.1.1). All this fuss was to show that

$$
\frac{q^{\prime}(x)}{l_{1}} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]
$$

so that $p(x)$ is a $\mathbb{Z}[x]$-multiple of $d(x)$. This shows that

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \varphi \subseteq(d(x))
$$

Conversely, any $\mathbb{Z}[x]$-multiple of $d(x)$ is clearly a member of $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$. This completes the proof.
5. Artin Chapter 11: 3.3 c and e on kernel of maps from polynomial rings. Find as few (and as simple) generators as you can.

Solution. For $3.3 \mathbf{c}$, the map is $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) \mapsto f(1+\sqrt{2})$, which is equivalent to saying $\varphi(x)=1+\sqrt{2}$. Via the standard inclusion $\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$, we can
interpret this as a homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{C}$. Now we can just apply Proposition 0.2. Observe that if $d(x)=(x-1)^{2}-2$, then

$$
d(1+\sqrt{2})=0
$$

and hence $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$ is non-trivial. Now, no linear polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ has $1+\sqrt{2}$ as one of its roots, because $1+\sqrt{2}$ is an irrational number. So, $d(x)$ is infact a nonzero polynomial of least degree in $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$. Moreover, it is easily seen that the gcd of the coefficients of $d(x)$ is 1 , and hence by Proposition 0.2 , we see that

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=(d(x))=\left((x-1)^{2}-2\right)
$$

For $3.3 \mathbf{e}$, the map is $\mathbb{C}[x, y, z] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{C}[t]$ that is identity on $\mathbb{C}$ and maps $x \mapsto t, y \mapsto t^{2}$ and $z \mapsto t^{3}$. Observe that the polynomials $f_{1}(x, y, z)=y-x^{2}$ and $f_{2}(x, y, z)=z-x^{3}$ are in the kernel of this homomorphism. I claim that

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)=\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right)
$$

First, suppose $g(x, y, z) \in\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right)$, so that

$$
g(x, y, z)=r_{1}(x, y, z)\left(y-x^{2}\right)+r_{2}(x, y, z)\left(z-x^{3}\right)
$$

for some $r_{1}, r_{2} \in \mathbb{C}[x, y, z]$. In this case, it is clear that $g(x, y, z) \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, and hence $\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$. We now show the reverse inclusion. Suppose $g(x, y, z) \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, which means that

$$
g\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right)=0
$$

We know that $\mathbb{C}[x, y, z] \cong \mathbb{C}[x, y][z]$. Moreover, $z-x^{3}$ is a monic polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x, y][z]$. So, applying Euclidean Division in $\mathbb{C}[x, y][z]$, we see that

$$
g(x, y, z)=q(x, y, z)\left(z-x^{3}\right)+r(x, y, z)
$$

for some $q, r \in \mathbb{C}[x, y, z]$ such that either $r=0$, or the degree of $z$ in $R$ is less than 1, i.e $r(x, y, z)$ does not contain any monomial involving $z$, so that $r(x, y, z) \in$ $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$. So for ease of notation, let us write $r(x, y, z)=r(x, y)$, and hence

$$
g(x, y, z)=q(x, y, z)\left(z-x^{3}\right)+r(x, y)
$$

Now, since $g(x, y, z)$ and $z-x^{3}$ are in $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, it follows that $r(x, y) \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, i.e

$$
r\left(t, t^{2}\right)=0
$$

Now, we will apply a very similar reasoning again. We know that $\mathbb{C}[x, y] \cong \mathbb{C}[x][y]$, and $y-x^{2}$ is a monic polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x][y]$. So by Euclidean Division in $\mathbb{C}[x][y]$, we have

$$
r(x, y)=q^{\prime}(x, y)\left(y-x^{2}\right)+r^{\prime}(x, y)
$$

for some $q^{\prime}, r^{\prime} \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ such that either $r^{\prime}(x, y)=0$, or the degree of $y$ in $r^{\prime}(x, y)$ is less than 1 , i.e $r^{\prime}(x, y)$ does not contain any monomial involving $y$. So again, for easy of notation, we write $r^{\prime}(x, y)=r^{\prime}(x)$. Again, because $r(x, y), y-x^{2} \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, it follows that $r^{\prime}(x) \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, which implies that

$$
r^{\prime}(t)=0
$$

But because $r^{\prime}(x)$ is a polynomial in $x$, it must be true that $r^{\prime}(x)=0$. So, we have

$$
r(x, y)=q^{\prime}(x, y)\left(y-x^{2}\right)
$$

Putting it all together, we obtain

$$
g(x, y, z)=q(x, y, z)\left(z-x^{3}\right)+q^{\prime}(x, y)\left(y-x^{2}\right)
$$

which shows that $g \in\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right)$, and hence showing $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi \subseteq\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right)$. So this shows that

$$
\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=\left(y-x^{2}, z-x^{3}\right)
$$

Remark 0.2.1. Above, I used the fact that $\mathbb{C}[x, y, z] \cong \mathbb{C}[x, y][z] \cong \mathbb{C}[x][y][z]$. These kind of isomorphisms of polynomials rings are not difficult to prove, but I couldn't include a proof because the document is already too long.
6. Artin Chapter 11: 3.6 and 3.7 on ring automorphisms of $R[x, y]$ and of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Do these exercises cleanly by using substitution principle as much as you can. While it is true that an isomorphism is a bijective ring homomorphism, it may be better to think of it equivalently as a (ring) map $f$ such that there is an inverse (ring) map $g$ in the opposite direction, i.e such that $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are the respective identity maps.

Solution. First, we do 3.6. Let $R$ be any ring, and let $f(y)$ be a fixed polynomial in $R[y]$. We show that the map $R[x, y] \rightarrow R[x, y]$ defined by $x \mapsto x+f(y)$ and $y \mapsto y$ is an automorphism of $R[x, y]$, and we will use the substitution principle to do this. Let $R \xrightarrow{\iota} R[x, y]$ be the standard inclusion map (which is clearly a homomorphism). By the substitution principle, there is a unique homomorphism $R[x, y] \xrightarrow{\varphi} R[x, y]$ such that $\varphi(x)=x+f(y), \varphi(y)=y$ and the following diagram commutes.


Again, by the substitution principle, there is a unique homomorphism $R[x, y] \xrightarrow{\Phi}$ $R[x, y]$ such that $\Phi(x)=x-f(y), \Phi(y)=y$ and the following diagram commutes.


We will now show that $R[x, y] \xrightarrow{\Phi \circ \varphi} R[x, y]$ is the identity homomorphism, and a similar proof will show that $R[x, y] \xrightarrow{\varphi \circ \Phi} R[x, y]$ is the identity homomorphism, and that will show that $\varphi$ is an automorphism, which will complete our proof. So, let $p \in R[x, y]$ be any element given by the multi-index notation

$$
p(x, y)=\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)} x^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}
$$

(where the above sum is finite). We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(p) & =\varphi\left(\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)} x^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} \varphi\left(a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)} x^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} \varphi\left(a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)}\right)[\varphi(x)]^{i_{1}}[\varphi(y)]^{i_{2}} \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)}[x+f(y)]^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

where in the last step we used the fact that $\varphi$ restricts to the inclusion on $R$. So, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi(\varphi(p)) & =\Phi\left(\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)}[x+f(y)]^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} \Phi\left(a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)}[x+f(y)]^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}}\right) \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} \Phi\left(a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)}\right)[\Phi(x+f(y))]^{i_{1}}[\Phi(y)]^{i_{2}} \\
& =\sum_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{2}} a_{\left(i_{1}, i_{2}\right)} x^{i_{1}} y^{i_{2}} \\
& =p(x, y)
\end{aligned}
$$

where in the second last step, we used the fact that $\Phi$ restricts to the inclusion on $R$ and that

$$
\Phi(x+f(y))=\Phi(x)+\Phi(f(y))=x-f(y)+f(y)=x
$$

So, this shows that $\Phi \circ \varphi=\mathrm{id}_{R[x, y]}$, and hence by the discussion above this shows that $\varphi$ is an automorphism.

Next, we find all automorphisms of the polynomial ring $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Suppose $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\varphi}$ $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is an automorphism. Consider the restriction $\left.\varphi\right|_{\mathbb{Z}}$, which is a homomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}$ to $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. We know that there is only one homomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}$ to any ring, i.e the characteristic homomorphism. In this case, $\left.\varphi\right|_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is simply the standard inclusion $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Now suppose $x \xrightarrow{\varphi} f(x)$, where $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is some polynomial of degree $n$, where $n \geq 1$ ( $n=0$ is not possible since $\varphi$ is surjective). So, for any polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $m \geq 1$, we see that

$$
\left.p(x) \xrightarrow{\varphi} p(f(x)) \quad \text { (this uses the fact that }\left.\varphi\right|_{\mathbb{Z}}\right) \text { is the inclusion }
$$

and since $\mathbb{Z}$ is an integral domain, we see that $p(f(x))$ has degree $m n$. From this, it follows that $n=1$ is the only valid possibility, because otherwise the image of $\varphi$ will not contain any polynomial of degree 1 . So, suppose $x \xrightarrow{\varphi} a x+b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, a \neq 0$. We know that the polynomial $x$ is in the range of $\varphi$. By the above discussion, its pre-image must be a linear polynomial, i.e suppose

$$
c x+d \xrightarrow{\varphi} x
$$

for some $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $c \neq 0$. But, we know that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi(c x+d) & =\varphi(c x)+\varphi(d) \\
& =\varphi(c) \varphi(x)+\varphi(d) \\
& =c(a x+b)+d \\
& =c a x+c b+d
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have again used the fact that $\left.\varphi\right|_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is the inclusion map. So, we see that $c a x+c b+d=x$, and this means that $c, a$ are units in $\mathbb{Z}$, and hence $a= \pm 1$. So, it follows that $x \xrightarrow{\varphi} \pm x+b$, where $b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Conversely, let us show that the unique homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\varphi} \mathbb{Z}[x]$ given by

$$
x \xrightarrow{\varphi} x+b
$$

for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ (and a similar proof will work for $x \xrightarrow{\varphi}-x+b$ ). To do this, we just need to exhibit an inverse for $\varphi$. Consider the unique homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[x] \xrightarrow{\Phi} \mathbb{Z}[x]$ given by

$$
x \xrightarrow{\Phi} x-b
$$

Let us show that $\Phi \circ \varphi$ is the identity mapping, and a similar proof will show that $\varphi \circ \Phi$ is the identity mapping, and that will show that $\varphi$ is an automorphism. But this is easy to see, because for any $p(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, we have

$$
\Phi(\varphi(p(x)))=\Phi(p(x+b))=p(x-b+b)=p(x)
$$

and this shows that $\Phi \circ \varphi=\mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{Z}[x]}$. So, $\varphi$ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Hence, all automorphisms $\varphi$ of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ restrict to the inclusion map on $\mathbb{Z}$ and are of the form $x \xrightarrow{\varphi} \pm x+b$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Proposition 0.3 (Frobenius Map). Let $R$ be a ring of prime characteristic $p$. Then the map $R \rightarrow R$ defined by $x \mapsto x^{p}$ is a ring homomorphism.
Proof. We will prove this using the binomial theorem for commutative rings (which was proven in Lecture 1). Suppose $x, y \in R$. Then, we know that

$$
(x+y)^{p}=\sum_{k=0}^{p}\binom{p}{k} x^{k} y^{p-k}
$$

where for any $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$,

$$
c x:=x+x+x+\ldots+x \quad(c \text { times })
$$

Now suppose $1 \leq k<p$. We have

$$
\binom{p}{k}=\frac{p(p-1)!}{k!(p-k)!}
$$

Because $p$ is a prime, for such a $k$ we see that

$$
\frac{(p-1)!}{k!(p-k)!}
$$

is an integer. So, we have shown that $p\binom{p}{k}$ for each $1 \leq k<p$. Consequently, because $R$ has characteristic $p$, we see that for $1 \leq k<p$

$$
\binom{p}{k} x^{k} y^{n-k}=0
$$

So, we have

$$
(x+y)^{p}=x^{p}+y^{p}
$$

so that the map $x \mapsto x^{p}$ preserves addition. Moreover, for any $x, y \in R$ we have

$$
(x y)^{p}=x^{p} y^{p}
$$

and hence the map preserves multiplication as well. Finally,

$$
1^{p}=1
$$

and so this shows that the map is a ring homomorphism, completing the proof.
7. Artin Chapter 11: 3.9 on nilpotent/unipotent elements. You may appeal to the very standard Frobenius map in exercise 3.8, but prove it for yourself! (The definition used here is non-standard. Usual ring theory definition is unipotent $=1+$ nilpotent, but here use the given definition.)

Solution. (a) Suppose $x \in R$ is a nilpotent element, i.e

$$
x^{n}=0
$$

for some $n>0$. Let us show that $(1+x)$ is a unit in $R$. Consider the usual algebraic identity

$$
x^{k}-1=(x-1)\left(1+x+\ldots+x^{k-1}\right)
$$

(the proof is by expanding the RHS) for any $x \in R$ and $k>0$. Here 1 is the multiplicative identity of the ring $R$. Replacing $x$ by $-x$ in the above equation, we see that

$$
(-x)^{k}-1=(-x-1)\left(1-x+x^{2}-\ldots+(-1)^{k-1} x^{k-1}\right)
$$

and multiplying by -1 on both sides, we get

$$
-(-x)^{k}+1=(x+1)\left(1-x+x^{2}-\ldots+(-1)^{k-1} x^{k-1}\right)
$$

Now, put $k=n$ above. Since $x^{n}=0$, we see that $-(-x)^{n}=-(-1)^{n} x^{n}=0$, and hence

$$
1=(x+1)\left(1-x+x^{2}-\ldots+(-1)^{n-1} x^{n-1}\right)
$$

which shows that $(1+x)$ is a unit in $R$.
(b) Suppose $R$ has prime characteristic $p \neq 0$. Suppose $a$ is a nilpotent element, then we show that $(1+a)$ is unipotent, i.e some power of $(1+a)$ is 1 . Suppose $n>0$ is such that $a^{n}=0$. We know that the map $R \xrightarrow{\varphi} R$ given by $x \xrightarrow{\varphi} x^{p}$ (the Frobenius Map 0.3) is a ring homomorphism. Let $k$ be a positive integer such that $p^{k}>n$. Then, applying the Frobenius map to $(1+a) k$ times, we see that
$(1+a)^{p^{k}}=\varphi^{k}(1+a)=\varphi^{k-1}\left(1^{p}+a^{p}\right)=\varphi^{k-2}\left(1^{p^{2}}+a^{p^{2}}\right)=\ldots=\varphi\left(1^{p^{k-1}}+a^{p^{k-1}}\right)=1^{p^{k}}+a^{p^{k}}=1$
and hence this shows that $(1+a)$ is a unipotent element, completing the proof.
8. Artin Chapter 11: 2.2 on units in $F[[t]]+3.10$ on ideals in $F[[t]]$. Which of the ideals you found are maximal? Which are prime?

Solution. To make things easier, I will denote the formal power series ( $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ ) as

$$
a_{0}+a_{1} t+a_{2} t^{2}+\ldots=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n}
$$

We claim that the only units in the ring $F[[t]]$ are those power series which have a non-zero constant term. To prove this, suppose

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n} \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} t^{n}=1
$$

i.e $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots\right)$ and $\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots\right)$ are units in $F[[t]]$. This implies that $a_{0} b_{0}=1$, i.e $a_{0}, b_{0} \neq$ 0 . Conversely, suppose ( $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ ) is an element of $F[[t]]$ such that $a_{0} \neq 0$. Then, define

$$
b_{0}=a_{0}^{-1}
$$

and inductively define

$$
b_{n}:=-a_{0}^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} b_{n-k}
$$

for $n \geq 1$. In that case, it is easily seen that $a_{0} b_{0}=1$ and for any $n \geq 1$,

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k} b_{n-k}=0
$$

implying that

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} t^{n} \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_{n} t^{n}=1
$$

and hence $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right)$ is a unit in $F[[t]]$. This completes the proof and characterises all units of $F[[t]]$.

Next, we compute all ideals of $F[[t]]$. I claim that all the ideals of $F[[t]]$ are the trivial ideals 0 and $F[[t]]$, and $\left(t^{n}\right)$ for $n \geq 1$. It is clear that for any $n \geq 1$, $\left(t^{n}\right)$ is an ideal of $F[[t]]$. Conversely, let $I$ be any non-trivial ideal of $F[[t]]$. Since $I$ is non-trivial, it is non-empty. Now, among all elements of $I$, let $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right) \in I$ be a non-zero element such that the number

$$
n:=\min \left\{i \geq 0 \mid a_{i} \neq 0\right\}
$$

is minimal. Observe that $n=0$ is not possible, because otherwise the element $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right)$ will be a unit in $F[[t]]$, which will imply that $I=F[[t]]$, and that contradicts our assumption that $I$ is a proper ideal. So, $n \geq 1$. We will show that $I=\left(t^{n}\right)$. Observe that by our notation
$\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right)=\left(a_{n} t^{n}+a_{n+1} t^{n+1}+\ldots\right)=t^{n} \cdot\left(a_{n}+a_{n+1} t+\ldots\right)=t^{n} \cdot\left(a_{n}, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \ldots\right)$
Now, because $a_{n} \neq 0$, we see that the element $\left(a_{n}, a_{n+1}, a_{n+2}, \ldots\right)$ is a unit in $F[[t]]$, and hence it follows that $t^{n} \in I$, implying that $\left(t^{n}\right) \subseteq I$. To prove the reverse inclusion, suppose $\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right) \in I$, and we see that the number

$$
r:=\min \left\{i \geq 0 \mid b_{i} \neq 0\right\}
$$

satisfies $r \geq n$. So, we see that

$$
\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots\right)=\left(b_{r} t^{r}+b_{r+1} t^{r+1}+\ldots\right)=t^{n} \cdot\left(b_{r} t^{r-n}+b_{r+1} t^{r+1-n}+\ldots\right) \in\left(t^{n}\right)
$$

and this implies that $I \subseteq\left(t^{n}\right)$, and hence it follows that $I=\left(t^{n}\right)$. So, we have characterised all the ideals of $F[[t]]$.

Finally, we determine which of these ideals are maximal and which are prime. It is very clear that $(t)$ is the only maximal ideal $F[[t]]$, since the only ideals containing $(t)$ are itself and $F[[t]]$. For any $n>1$, the ideal $\left(t^{n}\right)$ is contained in $(t)$, and hence it is not maximal. Now, since $(t)$ is a maximal ideal, it is a prime ideal as well. Now, we will see that the only prime ideals of $F[[t]]$ are 0 and $(t)$. To show this, suppose $n>1$. Now, observe that

$$
t^{n}=t^{n-1} \cdot t
$$

which implies that $t^{n}$ divides $t^{n-1} \cdot t$. However, it is easy to see that $t^{n}$ cannot divide either of $t^{n-1}$ or $t$, and hence it follows that $\left(t^{n}\right)$ is not a prime ideal. So, it follows that the only maximal ideal is $(t)$, and the only prime ideals are 0 and $(t)$.

Notation. Let $D$ be any ring, and let $f(x) \in D[x]$ be any non-zero polynomial. Let $c \in D$ be a root of $f(x)$. I will use the notation $m_{f(x)}(c)$ to denote the multiplicity of $c$ as a root of $f(x)$, where multiplicity is as defined in problem 9.
Lemma 0.4. Let $D$ be an integral domain, and let $c_{0} \in D$ be fixed. Suppose

$$
f(x)=\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m} q(x)
$$

for some non-zero polynomial $q(x) \in D[x]$ and $m \geq 0$. Suppose $c \neq c_{0}$ is a root of $f(x)$. Then, $c$ is a root of $q(x)$, and

$$
m_{q(x)}(c)=m_{f(x)}(c)
$$

Proof. First, because $D$ is an integral domain and $c \neq c_{0}$, it follows that $c$ must be a root of $q(x)$, and hence this means that $m_{q(x)}(c) \geq 1$. Also, since $q(x)$ is a factor of $f(x)$, the definition of multiplicity implies

$$
m_{q(x)}(c) \leq m_{f(x)}(c)
$$

Now, we prove the reverse inequality. We know that $(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}$ is a factor of $f(x)$, and hence it is a factor of $\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m} q(x)$. Since $D$ is an integral domain and $c \neq c_{0}$, we see that $c$ is a root of $q(x)$, so that $q(x)=(x-c) q^{\prime}(x)$ for some non-zero $q^{\prime}(x) \in D[x]$. So, we see that

$$
(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)} \mid\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m}(x-c) q^{\prime}(x)
$$

and the cancellation law in the integral domain $D[x]$ implies that

$$
(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)-1} \mid\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m} q^{\prime}(x)
$$

Repeating the same argument $m_{f(x)}(c)-1$ times, it will imply that

$$
(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)} \mid q(x)
$$

which implies that

$$
m_{f(x)}(c) \leq m_{q(x)}(c)
$$

and hence we conclude that

$$
m_{q(x)}(c)=m_{f(x)}(c)
$$

and this completes the proof.
9. For $c$ in a ring $D$ and non-zero $f(x)$ in $D[x]$, define the multiplicity of $c$ as a root of $f(x)$ to be the largest non-negative integer $n$ such that $f(x)=(x-c)^{n} q(x)$ in $D[x]$. Observe that this is well defined.
(i) In a domain $D$, show that

$$
\prod_{\text {root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{\text {multiplicity of } c \text { as a root of } f(x)}
$$

is a factor of $f(x)$. This generalizes an exercise done in the lecture.
(ii) Find a counterexample to (i) where $D$ is not a domain and $f$ is a monic polynomial with a root whose multiplicity equals your roll number.
(iii) For a finite field $F$ of cardinality $q$, show that

$$
x^{q}-x=\prod_{c \in F}(x-c)
$$

You do NOT need to use the fact that $F[x]$ has the unique factorization property. (Hint: the set of nonzero elements in $F$ form a group under multiplication. The order of each element of a finite group is a factor of the order of the group.)

Solution. (i) Suppose $D$ is an integral domain. Suppose $f(x) \in D[x]$ is a nonzero polynomial. For a root $c$ of $f(x)$, we will use the notation $m_{f(x)}(c)$ to denote the multiplicity of $c$ as a root of $f(x)$. We will show that

$$
\prod_{c \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}
$$

is a factor of $f(x)$. Observe that the above product is finite, since non-zero polynomials in integral domains have finitely many roots. We will prove the claim by induction on the degree of $f(x)$. For the base case, we have $\operatorname{deg} f(x)=0$, i.e $f(x)$ is a constant (non-zero) polynomial. In that case, the claim is trivially true, because the product will be empty. So the base case is true. Now suppose the statement is true for all non-zero polynomials of degree atmost $n$, and let $f(x) \in D[x]$ be a non-zero polynomial of degree $n+1$. If $f(x)$ has no roots in $D$, then the product

$$
\prod_{c \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}
$$

is empty, and in that case the statement still holds. So, suppose $f(x)$ has a root $c_{0}$ in $D$. By the Factor Theorem, it follows that $\left(x-c_{0}\right)$ is a factor of $f(x)$, and this means that $m_{f(x)}\left(c_{0}\right) \geq 1$. By the definition of multiplicity, we see that

$$
f(x)=\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m_{f(x)}\left(c_{0}\right)} q(x)
$$

for some non-zero polynomial $q(x) \in D[x]$, and clearly $\operatorname{deg}(q(x))<\operatorname{deg}(f(x))$. Now, if $c_{0}$ is the only root of $f(x)$, then

$$
\prod_{c \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}=\left(x-c_{0}\right)^{m_{f(x)}\left(c_{0}\right)}
$$

and this is clearly a factor of $f(x)$. Now suppose $c$ is any other root of $f(x)$, i.e $c \neq c_{0}$. Lemma 0.4 then implies that $c$ is a root of $q(x)$ and

$$
m_{q(x)}(c)=m_{f(x)}(c)
$$

Now, applying the induction hypothesis on $q(x)$, we see that

$$
\prod_{c \neq c_{0} \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}
$$

is a factor of $q(x)$. Then, equation $(\dagger)$ implies that

$$
\prod_{c \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}
$$

is a factor of $f(x)$. So by induction, the statement follows for all non-zero polynomials in $D[x]$, completing the proof.
(ii) Let $D=\mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$, and evidently $D$ is not an integral domain. Consider the polynomial

$$
f(x)=x^{201953}
$$

(my roll number is BMC201953). Clearly, the root $x=0$ has multiplicity 201953 for this polynomial. Moreover, observe that

$$
f(2)=2^{201953}=2^{2} \cdot 2^{201951}=0
$$

and hence this means that 2 is also a root of $f(x)$, implying that $x-2$ is a factor of $f(x)$ by the Factor Theorem. This means that $m_{f(x)}(2) \geq 1$. Moreover, since 1 and 3 are units modulo 4 , it follows that the only roots of $f$ are 0 and 2 . Now, note that

$$
\prod_{c \text { root of } f(x)}(x-c)^{m_{f(x)}(c)}=x^{201953}(x-2)^{m_{f(x)}(2)}
$$

and hence the above polynomial has degree greater than 201953, since $m_{f(x)}(2) \geq$ 1. This means that the above polynomial cannot be a factor of $f(x)$, since in any ring a polynomial cannot have a monic factor of degree greater than itself. Since $f(x)$ is itself monic, this gives us the required counterexample.
(iii) Let $F$ be a finite field of cardinality $q$. We show that

$$
x^{q}-x=\prod_{c \in F}(x-c)
$$

First, we show that if $y \in F$, then $y^{q}-y=0$. This is clear if $y=0$, so suppose $y \neq 0$. So, $y$ must be a unit in $F$. Now we know that the set of units of $F$ form a group under multiplication, and this group has $q-1$ elements since $F$ has $q-1$ units. So, the order of $y$ must be a factor of $q-1$ (the order of the group), and hence we see that

$$
y^{q-1}=1
$$

which implies that

$$
y^{q}-y=0
$$

Now, this means that every $y \in F$ is a root of the polynomial $x^{q}-x$. So by Factor Theorem, it follows that $x-c$ divides $x^{q}-x$ for every $c \in F$. Using the fact that $F$ is an integral domain and applying the Factor Theorem $q$ times, we see that

$$
x^{q}-x=g(x) \prod_{c \in F}(x-c)
$$

for some polynomial $g(x) \in F[x]$. Clearly, $g(x) \neq 0$. Also, the degree of the polynomial

$$
\prod_{c \in F}(x-c)
$$

is $q$, and hence it follows that the degree of $g(x)$ must be 0 , i.e $g(x)=y$ for some unit $y \in F$. Moreover, since $x^{q}-x$ and $\prod_{c \in F}(x-c)$ are monic, it follows that $y=1$. So, it follows that

$$
x^{q}-x=\prod_{c \in F}(x-c)
$$

and this completes the proof.

