

Poset: A poset is a reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive relation.

A poset is a set equipped with a partial order.

or

Take a set S , and the partial order on S is a binary relation \leq

with the following properties

\Rightarrow reflexivity: $x \leq x$ always

\Rightarrow transitivity: if $x \leq y \leq z$, then $x \leq z$

\Rightarrow Antisymmetry: if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then $x = y$.

Theorem: - Every non-zero ring has a maximal ideal.

proof: let R be a non-zero ring and

put $\Sigma = \{ I \mid I \triangleleft R, I \neq R \}$

then Σ is a poset with respect to \subset .

Σ is non-empty since it contains the zero

ideal.

let $C \subseteq \Sigma$ be a chain. If C is

empty then we will set $K = \{0\}$

If C is non-empty then we will set

$$K = \bigcup_{I \in C} \{ x \in R \mid x \in I \text{ for some } I \in C \}$$

$$\Rightarrow K \triangleleft R$$

$\Rightarrow K \neq R$ because of we set

$K = R$ then one of the ideals of the chain would contain 1 and thus all of R

Now here we are getting contradiction

since $\Sigma = \{I \mid I \triangleleft R, I \neq R\}$

does not contain R .

This implies $K \in \Sigma$ and K is an upper bound for C .

By Zorn's lemma, Σ has a maximal element M which is precisely a maximal ideal of R .

Zorn Lemma: If (S, \leq) is a partially ordered

Set such that every chain C in S has an upper bound in S then for every element x in S there is a maximal element y in S with $x \leq y$.

Local Ring!

\Rightarrow A local ring is a ring with exactly one maximal ideal.

Suppose A is a ring with exactly one maximal ideal m , then $K = \frac{A}{m}$ is called the residue field of A .

Example

(1) All fields are local rings since $\{0\}$ is the only maximal ideal in these rings.

(2) Similarly in skew field (division rings)

skew fields are generally known as non-commutative rings in which every has a two sided inverse.

Example: Quaternion ring.

The ring $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{p^n \mathbb{Z}}$ is a local ring for $n \geq 1$.

Here (p) is the only maximal ideal of $\mathbb{Z}/p^n \mathbb{Z}$

Proof:- let $\mathfrak{I} = (p)$ a non-zero prime ideal

$$\Rightarrow \mathfrak{I}^n = \langle p^n \rangle$$

If $\mathfrak{I}^n \subseteq \mathfrak{J}$ with \mathfrak{J} a prime ideal,

there exist a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{J} \subseteq \mathfrak{K}$

$$\text{Hence } \mathfrak{I}^n \subseteq \mathfrak{K}$$

Since \mathfrak{K} is a ~~maximal~~ maximal ideal

$\Rightarrow \mathfrak{K}$ is also prime ideal ~~such that~~
with

$$p \in \mathfrak{K}$$

Therefore ~~ideal~~ $\mathfrak{K} = \mathfrak{I} = (p)$

So the ~~is~~ only maximal (and prime) ideal

$$\text{in } \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{p^n \mathbb{Z}} \text{ is } (p)$$

Let A be a ring and $m \neq (1)$ an ideal of A
 such that $x \in A - m$ is a unit in A .
 Then A is a local ring and m is
 maximal ideal.

Proof. Suppose A is a local ring with unique
 maximal ideal m . Let $x \notin m$.
 Consider the
 ideal (x) . If $x \in A - m$. Consider the
 ideal (x) . If (x) is proper
 then it lies in some maximal ideal.

Since A is a local ring and we know
 that in local ring there is exactly
 one maximal ideal

So (x) lies in m , which is
 contradiction.

~~Thus $(x) = A$ so~~

Thus $(x) = A$ so $1 = ax$ for some
 ~~x~~ where x is unit

Thus $(x) = A$, then $1 \in (x)$

$1 \in (x)$ so we can write

$$1 = ax \text{ for some } a \in A$$

this implies x is ~~unit~~ ^a unit.

Definition of unit! ~~A~~ a unit of ring R

is any element $u \in R$ that has
multiplicative inverse in R

i.e. there exist an element $v \in R$ such that

$$vu = uv = 1 \text{ where } 1 \text{ is the}$$

multiplicative identity.

So every ideal $\neq (1)$ consist of non-units,
hence is contained in m .

Hence m is the only maximal ideal of A .

Q. If R is local ring with maximal ideal M , then every element of $R-M$ is a unit

proof: Suppose $x \in R-M$. If x is not a unit, then $M \neq R$

Now by using Zorn lemma we can construct a maximal ideal M' containing

(*) $x \in M'$

Since R is a local ring \Rightarrow so R has only one maximal ideal

$\Rightarrow M = M'$

But this leads to a contradiction

because $x \in M$

~~Therefore~~

Therefore every element of $R-M$ is a unit.

Theorem :- let A be a ring and m a maximal ideal of A , such that every element of $1+m$ (i.e. every $1+x$, where $x \in m$) is a unit in A . Then A is a local ring.

proof :- Given ring A . Take any $x \in A - m$ then the ideal $(x) + m$ generated by x and m .

$$\text{i.e. } (x) + m = (1) = A$$

Also, we can say the ideal generated by x and m is $A = (1)$

$$\text{Here } (1) = (m, x)$$

$= \text{a.e.}$

Then there exist $y \in A$ and $t \in m$ such that $xy + t = 1 \in A$

~~Since~~ $xy = 1 - t$

$\Rightarrow xy = 1 - t$

Since $m \in M$ implies $-m \in M$

i.e. $t \in m$ implies $-t \in m$

Therefore $1 - t \in 1 + m$.

Since we have assumed $1 + m$ as a unit in A

So xy is a unit.

~~\Rightarrow~~ $xy = 1$ for some $y \in A$
 $\Rightarrow x$ is unit.

Since $x \in A - m$

i.e. $x \notin m$

unit $\notin m$

So m contains all the non-unit element of A

Now using the theorem a ring R with 1
is local if and only if the set of non-unit
elements of R is an ideal of R

⇒ A is a local Ring.

Semi-local ring :- A ring with only a finite number of maximal ideals is called semi-local.

Example: $Z_{(p)} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \mid \text{such that } p \nmid a, p \nmid b \right\}$

$Z_{(p)} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} ; a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, p \nmid b \right\}$

$Z_{(p)}$ is semi-local ring because

$Z_{(p)}$ has one unique maximal ideal

$m = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ s.t. } p \mid a, p \nmid b \right\}$

$\frac{Z_{(p)}}{\langle m \rangle} \cong \mathbb{Z}/p$

Irreducible element!

Let R be a commutative ring with unity.
A non-zero, non-unit element $p \in R$
is called an irreducible element.

If $p = ab$ implies that either a or b
is a unit $a, b \in R$.

Example $f(x) = x+1$ or $f(x) = x = 1 \cdot x$
 $= (1) \cdot (x+1)$ over $\mathbb{F}[x]$

prime element:- Let R be a commutative ring
with unity. A non-zero, non-unit element $p \in R$
is called a prime element, if

$p \mid ab$ ($a, b \in R$) implies that
either $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$

Example: 2 is prime element in \mathbb{Z}
but not in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$$2 = (1+i)(1-i)$$

but $(1+i) \nmid 2$ or $(1-i) \nmid 2$

$A = K[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ K is a field.
 let $f \in A$ be an irreducible polynomial.
 Then by unique factorization, the ideal
 ideal (f) is prime.

Proof: An ideal I is prime if $xy \in I$
 $\Rightarrow x \in I$ or $y \in I$.

Now take two polynomials g, h and
 say $gh \in (f) \Rightarrow f | h$ or $f | g$
 $gh \in (f) \Rightarrow gh = kf$ where
 k is some polynomial.

$\Rightarrow f | kg$
 \Rightarrow It is given that f is an irreducible
 polynomial so f is a irreducible element

Since irreducible polynomials are the
 example of irreducible element.

Now by using the theorem: If F be a field
 and x_1, \dots, x_n be indeterminates. Then the
 polynomial ring $F[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is U.F.D

From the theorem

$$A = \mathbb{K}[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \text{ is U.F.D}$$

We know ^{that} in U.F.D, every irreducible element $q \in R$ is prime.

Here f is irreducible element

so by: unique factorization (UFD), the ideal (f) is prime

~~we~~ we have $gh = kf$

$$\Rightarrow f \mid g \text{ or } f \mid h$$

$$\text{Take } f = 3, g = 3 \times 5, h = 3$$

$$h = 3, g = k = 5$$

$$3 \times 5 = 5 \times 3 = g \cdot h = kf$$

$$3 \mid 3 = f$$

The ideal m of all polynomials in $A = K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ with zero constant term is maximal.

Here $m = \{ f \in K[x] \mid f(0) = 0 \}$

$\phi: K[x] \longrightarrow K$ defined by

$$\phi(f) = f(0)$$

$$\phi(f(x)) = f(0)$$

$$\frac{K[x]}{\langle m \rangle} \cong K$$

~~Proof~~ $f(0) = 0$ means $f(x)$ contains x .

~~use~~ take $f = x$, then $x \in K$

$$f(x) \in K[x]$$

$$\phi(f(x)) \longrightarrow f(0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(f(x)) \longrightarrow x$$

Principal Ideal:

If R be

let 'a' be any element of a commutative ring R . The smallest ideal of R which contains 'a' is called the principal ideal generated by 'a'.

It is denoted by $\langle a \rangle$ or (a) .

Theorem: If R be a commutative ring and $a \in R$, then

$$(a) = \{ ar + na : r \in R, n \in \mathbb{Z} \}.$$

or

$$(a) = \{ ar : r \in R \} = aR$$

Since $ar + na = a(r+n)$
 $= ar$

Since $r+n = r \in R$.

Example: let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The principal ideal of \mathbb{Z} generated by n is $(n) = n\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1: Let R be a principal ideal domain. Let P be a non-zero prime ideal in R . Show that P is a maximal ideal in R .

Proof: A principal ideal domain is an integral domain in which every ideal

P is the form

$$(a) = \{ ar \mid r \in R \}$$

i.e. we can write $P = (a)$, an ideal generated by an element $a \in R$

Then $P = \langle a \rangle$ for some $a \neq 0$ in R

Suppose that P is not maximal. Then there is some proper ideal I such that P is properly contained in I .

i.e. $P \subsetneq I \subsetneq R$ for some ideal

We can write $I = (b)$ for some $b \in R$

$$P \subset I \subset \mathbb{R}$$

$$\langle a \rangle \subset \langle b \rangle \subset \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in \langle b \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow a = bd \text{ for some } d \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{So } bd \in P$$

Since P is a prime ideal of the
principal ideal domain \mathbb{R}

Therefore either $b \in P$ or $d \in P$

But $b \notin P$ because if $b \in P$

$$\text{then } I = \langle b \rangle \subset P$$

we have already assumed that $P \subset I$

$$\Rightarrow P = I \text{ which is } \text{not } \text{so}$$

Contradiction because P is properly

contained in I

So $b \in P$ is not possible

$a, e \notin P$.

And $d \in P$ is possible.

$$\Rightarrow d \in (a)$$

$$\Rightarrow d = a\gamma \text{ for some } \gamma \in R \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From (1) and (2) we have

$$a = bd = ba\gamma$$

$$a = ba\gamma$$

$$a - ba\gamma = 0$$

$$a(1 - b\gamma) = 0$$

$$1 - b\gamma = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{b\gamma = 1}$$

So b is a unit.

Now used the theorem: Let R be a ring. x is unit in R if and only if $(x) = R$

Theorem: Let R be a ring, x is a unit in R if and only if $(x) = R$

Proof: If x is a unit, then there is some $y \in R$ such that $xy = yx = 1$

Now for all $r \in R$, we can write

$$r = r \cdot 1 = r(yx) = (ry)x$$

Since $r \in R$ and $y \in R$

so $(ry) \in R$

$$r = (ry)x = \cancel{rx} \in (x)$$

$$= r \in (x)$$

Therefore $(x) = R$.

Conversely, assume $(x) = R$, then

~~1~~ $1 \in (x)$. In particular,

$$rx = 1 \text{ for some } r \in R$$

Therefore x is a unit

Thus by the given theorem we

Conclude that $(b) = \mathbb{R}$

$$i.e. \mathbb{I} = (b) = \mathbb{R}$$

Hence, $P = (a)$ is maximal.

Theorem : The set $N = \{ \text{nilpotent elements of } A \}$

is an ideal and $\frac{A}{N}$ has no non-zero

nilpotents.

Proof :- Since $0 \in N$ so $N \neq \emptyset$

Let $x, y \in N$ and $x^m = 0$ and $y^n = 0$

Then $(x-y)^{n+m} = 0$ by binomial theorem

If $x^m = 0$, then $(\gamma x)^m = 0$.

Thus N is an ideal.

Sup Suppose $\gamma + N \in \frac{A}{N}$ is nilpotent-

then $(\gamma + N)^n = \gamma^n + N = 0 + N$

for some positive integer n .

Hence $\gamma^n \in N$ implies that $(\gamma^n)^m = 0$

for some true integer m

Hence $\gamma^{nm} = 0$ i.e. $\gamma \in N$

thus $\sigma + N = 0 + N$

so $\frac{A}{N}$ has no non-zero nilpotent elements

The ideal N is called **nilradical**

nilradical of A is $N = \{ f \in R \mid f^m = 0 \text{ for some } m \}$

Theorem: The nilradical of A is the intersection of all the prime ideals of A .

proof: Suppose f is nilpotent and let P be a prime ideal

Also if $f \in N$ (nilradical of A), then $f^n = 0 \in P$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

$$\Rightarrow f^n = f \cdot f^{n-1} = 0 \in P$$

Since P is prime ideal so $f \in P$ or $f^{n-1} \in P$.

$$f^{n-1} \in P \Rightarrow f^m \in P \text{ for some } m \leq n-1$$

$$\text{then } f^m = f \cdot f^{m-1} \in P$$

$$\text{Thus } f \in P \text{ as } f^{m-1} \in P$$

Now mathematical induction on $m \geq 1$

We conclude that $f^m \in \mathfrak{p}$ for all $0 < m \leq n-1$.

in particular $f \in \mathfrak{p}$.

Therefore f is contained in any prime ideal

$$\Rightarrow N \subseteq \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in R} \mathfrak{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow \emptyset \quad (f \in N \Rightarrow f \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in R} \mathfrak{p})$$

Jacobson radical

The Jacobson radical $J(R)$ of a ring R is the intersection of the maximal ideals of R .

Since all maximal ideals are prime, the nilradical is contained in the Jacobson radical.

Theorem: Let $x \in R$. Then x lies in the Jacobson radical $J(R)$ of R if and only if $1 - xy$ is a unit for all $y \in R$.

Proof: Let x be in $J(R)$. Suppose $1 - xy$ is a non-unit for some $y \in R$. Then

$1 - xy \in M$ for some maximal ideal M .

Since I the ideal generated by $1 - xy$ and $I \neq R$, as R is commutative with identity, each proper ideal is

contained in a maximal ideal.

So let $I \subseteq M \Rightarrow 1 - xy \in M$.

Here M is the ideal of R and
 also we have $x \in R$ which
 is in the Jacobson radical
 $J(R)$ of R . $\Rightarrow x \in M$

Thus, for all $x \in M$ and $y \in R$,
 we have $xy \in M$.

Now $1 - xy \in M$ and $xy \in M$.

We know that ideal is closed under
 addition

$$(1 - xy) + xy \in M$$

$$1 \in M$$

$\Rightarrow 1 \in M$, a contradiction because
 $1 \notin M$

$$\text{If } 1 \in M \Rightarrow M = R$$

By using this theorem: Let R be a ring with
 identity, and I be an ideal of R

If $1 \in I$, then $I = R$.

proof Since I is an ideal containing 1 , if

$r \in R$ then

$$r = r \cdot 1 \in I$$

It follows that $R \subseteq I$

and $I \subseteq R$ is trivial ~~is~~ i.e. this
inclusion is trivial.

Therefore $I = R$

Universal property of LCM:-

$$\Rightarrow x_1 \mathbb{Z} \cap \dots \cap x_n \mathbb{Z} = \text{Lcm}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mathbb{Z}$$

proof: $a \in x_1 \mathbb{Z} \cap \dots \cap x_n \mathbb{Z}$
 $\Rightarrow x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \mid a$

$$\text{Lcm}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid a$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in K \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{where } K = \text{Lcm}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Bezout's identity: let a and b be integers or polynomials with greatest common divisor d .

Then there exist integer or polynomial x and y such that $ax + by = d$.

$$ax + by = \text{gcd}(a, b)$$

$a = (m) , b = (n)$

$\Rightarrow a \cap b$ is the ideal generated by $\text{Lcm}(a, b)$.

$(ab) = (mn)$

If $n\mathbb{Z} + m\mathbb{Z} = d\mathbb{Z}$, then d is a greatest common divisor of n and m .

Proof Let $n\mathbb{Z} \subseteq m\mathbb{Z} \iff m|n$.

$n\mathbb{Z}, m\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \text{gcd}(m, n)\mathbb{Z}$

$\iff \text{gcd}(m, n) | m, n$

$\text{gcd}(m, n)\mathbb{Z} \iff$

If $m\mathbb{Z}, n\mathbb{Z} \subseteq x\mathbb{Z}$, then

$\text{gcd}(m, n)\mathbb{Z} \iff x|m, n$
 $(n/m) | x$

By using Bezout's theorem

$$r | m, n \Rightarrow r | an + bm$$

$$r | \gcd(m, n) \text{ for some } a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$$

#

$$\cancel{(ab) \subseteq (anb)}$$

$$ab \neq anb$$

$$\text{Take } a = b = 2 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\cancel{ab \subseteq anb} \quad ab \subseteq anb$$

#

let R be a commutative ring with unity.

let a, b be ideals

$$ab \subseteq aR \subseteq a$$

$$ab \subseteq Rb \subseteq b$$

Therefore

$$ab \subseteq anb$$

Theorem! let A be a commutative ring with unity

let $a, b \subseteq A$ be co-prime ideals.

Then product equal to their intersection

$$ab = a \cap b$$

Proof

$$ab \subseteq aA \subseteq a$$

$$ab \subseteq bA \subseteq b$$

~~$ab \subseteq a \cap b$~~ $ab \subseteq a \cap b$

Now we have to show ~~that~~ that

$$\boxed{a \cap b \subseteq ab}$$

→ ①

let $c \in a \cap b$

$\gcd(a, b) = 1$, so by bezout theorem,

there exist $x \in a, y \in b$ with

$$x + y = 1.$$

$$c \in an b$$

$$\Rightarrow c \in a, b$$

$$\text{and } x \in a, y \in b.$$

Therefore

$$c = cx + cy.$$

we have

$$c \in \cancel{a}b, ab$$

$$c \in ab$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{anb \subseteq ab.} \quad - \textcircled{ii}$$

From $\textcircled{1}$ and $\textcircled{2}$, we have

$$\boxed{ab = anb}$$

let A be a ring and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ideals

of A . Define a homomorphism

$$\phi: A \longrightarrow \prod_{i=1}^n (A/a_i) \text{ by the}$$

rule $\phi(x) = (x + a_1, \dots, x + a_n)$

(1) If a_i, a_j are coprime whenever $i \neq j$

$$\text{then } \prod a_i = \bigcap a_i$$

Soln.

We will induct on n , the number of ideals.
When $n=2$, the argument is handled above.
easily verified. or when $n=2$ the
argument is handled above.

Suppose we have a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n and the
result is true for any set of $n-1$ ideals.

let us assume

$$b = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i \quad \text{and} \quad a_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i$$

Since a_i, a_j are coprime so

$$a_i + a_n = 1 \quad (\text{by } \underline{\text{Bezout lemma}})$$

for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$.

(By ~~Bezout Lemma~~), we have.

Theorem: Let (m) and (n) be ideal of the integer \mathbb{Z}

$$\text{let } d = (m) + (n)$$

$$\text{Then } d = \text{gcd}(m, n)$$

$$\text{We } (d) = (m) + (n) = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z} : \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} : x = am + bn \}$$

Now we have equation $x_i + y_i = 1$

where $x_i \in a_i, y_i \in a_n$

$$\Rightarrow x_i = 1 - y_i$$

Therefore

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (1 - y_i)$$

Some $y_i \in a_n$

$$\Rightarrow y_i \equiv 0 \pmod{a_n}$$

So $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (1 - y_i) \equiv 1 \pmod{a_n}$

Hence $a_n + b = 1$ so they are

Co-prime.

Therefore $\prod_{i=1}^n a_i = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i \cdot a_n.$

$$= b \cdot a_n$$

$$= b \cap a_n.$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^n a_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n a_i.$$

If a, b are two ideals in a ring A , their quotient is

$$(a : b) = \{ x \in A : xb \in a \}.$$

which is an ideal. Example: $A = \mathbb{Z}$
 $(6\mathbb{Z} : 8\mathbb{Z}) = 3\mathbb{Z}$

(*) $(0 : b)$ is called the annihilator of b
and is also denoted by $\text{Ann}(b)$

$\text{Ann}(b)$ is the set of all $x \in A$ such that $xb = 0$.

If b is a principal ideal (x) , we shall write $(a : x)$ in place of $(a : (x))$

Note: In a ring R , a non-zero element $a \in R$ is said to be a zero divisor if there exist a non-zero $b \in R$ such that $a \cdot b = 0$

we know that $\text{Ann}(b)$ is the set of
all $x \in A$ such that $x \cdot b = 0$

The set of all zero-divisors in A is denoted by

$$D = \bigcup_{x \neq 0} \text{Ann}(x)$$

let I be ideal of R

$$(0 : I) = \{ r \in R \mid rI = (0) \}$$

Called the Annihilator of I or $\text{Ann}(I)$

Example: $R = \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{48\mathbb{Z}}$

$$(0 : 4\mathbb{Z}) = 12\mathbb{Z}$$

$$(0 : I) = (12\mathbb{Z} : I) = \{ r \in R \mid rI = (0) \}$$

~~Theorem~~

Theorem: let $A = \mathbb{Z}$, $a = (m)$, $b = (n)$

where

$$m = 2^{x_2} 3^{x_3} 5^{x_5} \dots$$

$$m = 2^{x_2} 3^{x_3} 5^{x_5} \dots$$

$$n = 2^{y_2} 3^{y_3} 5^{y_5} \dots$$

$$(a:b) = \{ x \mid x \in a \}$$

\Rightarrow Then $(a:b)$ is the set of all numbers which when multiplied with n give a multiple of m .

$$(a:b) = (q) \text{ where}$$

$$q = 2^{z_2} 3^{z_3} 5^{z_5} \dots$$

$$\text{and } z_k = \max(x_k - y_k, 0)$$

or we can write

$$(a:b) = (q) \\ = \frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)}$$

Example \rightarrow Take $a = m\mathbb{Z}$
 $b = n\mathbb{Z}$

$$(m\mathbb{Z}, n\mathbb{Z}) = \frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)}\mathbb{Z}$$

$$(6\mathbb{Z} : 8\mathbb{Z}) = \frac{6}{\gcd(6,8)}\mathbb{Z}$$

$$= 3\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\# \textcircled{i} \quad a \subseteq (a:b)$$

$$\textcircled{ii} \quad (a:b) \subseteq a$$

$$\textcircled{iii} \quad ((a:b):c) = (a:bc) \\ = ((a:c):b)$$

$$\textcircled{iv} \quad (\bigcap_i a_i : b) = \bigcap_i (a_i : b)$$

$$\textcircled{v} \quad (a : \bigcup_i b_i) = \bigcap_i (a : b_i)$$

If a is any ideal of A , then the radical of a is

$$\sqrt{a} = \{x \in A : x^n \in a \text{ for some } n > 0\}$$

#

Natural projection ϕ

If H is a normal subgroup of a group G , then the mapping

$$\phi: G \longrightarrow \frac{G}{H} \quad \text{where } \phi(x) = xH \text{ for all } x \in G$$

$\phi: x \longmapsto xH$ is an onto homomorphism.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(xy) &= (xy)H = Hxy = Hx \cdot yH \\ &= \phi(x)\phi(y) \end{aligned}$$

The identity element of the factor group

$$\frac{G}{H} \text{ is the coset } eH = H$$

$$\ker(\varphi) = \{x \in G : \varphi(x) = H\}$$

$$= \{x \in G : xH = H\}$$

$$= H$$

The mapping φ is called natural projection.

~~let I be an ideal of R~~

let I be an ideal of a ring R .

$$\varphi: R \longrightarrow \frac{R}{I} \text{ is defined by}$$

$$r \longmapsto r + I$$

$$\text{Here } \ker(\varphi) = I$$

let R be a ring, and I be an ideal

$$\text{rad}(I) = \left\{ r \in R \mid r^k \in I \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

let P be a prime ideal containing I .

if $r \in R$ is such that $r^k \in I$, then $r^k \in P$, so $r \in P$ since P is prime.

therefore
$$\text{rad}(I) \subseteq \bigcap_{I \subseteq P} P$$

Note: The radical of an ideal I in a commutative ring R , denoted by $\text{rad}(I)$ or \sqrt{I} , is defined as

$$\sqrt{I} = \left\{ r \in R \mid r^n \in I \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$$

Theorem $\gamma(I)$ is an ideal of A for any ideal I in A .

proof: let I be any ideal in the ring A ,

and let $\phi: A \longrightarrow A/I$ be

natural map defined by

$$\phi(x) = x + I$$

let $\eta_{A/I}$ be the nilradical of A . Then

$\phi^{-1}(\eta_{A/I})$ is an ideal of A

where

$$\phi^{-1}(\eta_{A/I}) = \{x \in A \mid \phi(x) \in \eta_{A/I}\}$$

$$= \{x \in A \mid x + I \in \eta_{A/I}\}$$

$$= \{x \in A \mid (x + I)^n = I \text{ for some } n > 0\}$$

$$= \{x \in A \mid x^n + I = I \text{ for some } n > 0\}$$

$$= \{ x \in A \mid x^n \in I \text{ for some } n > 0 \}$$

$$= \gamma(I)$$

$$= \{ x \in A \mid x + I \text{ is nilpotent in } A/I \}$$

$$\phi^{-1}(n_{A/I}) = \gamma(I)$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi(\gamma(I)) = n_{A/I}$$

\Rightarrow Also, ϕ is natural map

$$\phi(\gamma(I)) = \gamma(I) + I \subseteq n_{A/I}$$

$$\text{or } \gamma(I) \subseteq n_{A/I}$$

Here $n_{A/I}$ is nilradical of A



Intersection of all the prime ideal of A .

Theorem :- $\gamma(x) = (\bar{x})$ where
 $x = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n}$ and $\bar{x} = p_1 \dots p_n$

proof, let $\alpha = \max(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$.

Then we have

$$\bar{x}^\alpha = (p_1 \dots p_n)^\alpha$$

$$= p_1^\alpha \dots p_n^\alpha$$

$$= p_1^{\alpha - \alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha - \alpha_n} p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n}$$

$$\text{let } y = p_1^{\alpha - \alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha - \alpha_n}$$

$$\text{Then } \bar{x}^\alpha = y \cdot p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n}$$

$$\bar{x}^\alpha = y \cdot x$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{x}^\alpha \in (x) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Assume that $y \in \mathcal{I}(\alpha)$

and $y \neq 0$.

$y \in \mathcal{I}(\alpha) \Rightarrow y^n \in (\alpha)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$\Rightarrow \alpha$ divides y^n i.e. $\alpha \mid y^n$

Also, $P_i \mid \alpha$ for any $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

$P_i \mid y^n$

$P_i \mid y$

Now for $i \neq j$ element P_i and P_j are

coprime, so $\bar{\alpha} \mid y$

$y \in (\bar{\alpha})$ — (2)

From (1) and (2), we conclude that

$$\mathcal{I}(\alpha) = (\bar{\alpha})$$

Example :- Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $\alpha = (12)$

$$\text{Then } \alpha((12)) = (2 \cdot 3) = (6)$$

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3 = 2^2 \cdot 3$$

$$\text{w.e. } \alpha(12) = (6) = \{0, \pm 6, \pm 12, \pm 18, \dots\}$$

Note :-

Let $(\alpha, +, \cdot)$ be an ideal of the ring $(R, +, \cdot)$. Then the radical of the ideal α denoted by $\sqrt{\alpha}$

$$\sqrt{\alpha} = \{x \in R : x^n \in \alpha, \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

Prove that

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{i=1}^r P_i \mathbb{Z}$$

proof: let $A = \mathbb{Z}$ and $I = m\mathbb{Z}$ where $m \geq 2$.

write $m = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ for

distinct ~~pair~~ primes p_1, \dots, p_r and

positive integers $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r$

~~observe that~~

Now, take $\beta = \max\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r\}$

$$(p_1 \cdots p_r)^\beta \in I$$

By the ~~definition of~~ definition of radical

$$p_1 \cdots p_r \in \sqrt{I}$$

$$P_1 \dots P_r \mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}(I) \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{1}$$

Now take $y \in \mathfrak{a}(I)$

By definition of radical

$$y^k \in I \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$y^k \Rightarrow m \mid y^k, \quad p$$

$$P_i \mid m \Rightarrow P_i \mid y^k \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, r$$

$$P_i \mid y$$

$$y \in I$$

$$y \in \mathfrak{a}(I) \Rightarrow y \in I$$

$$\mathfrak{a}(I) \subseteq I$$

$$\mathfrak{a}(I) \subseteq P_1 \dots P_r \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{2}$$

From ① and ②, we have

$$\gamma(I) = P_1 \dots P_r \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\gamma(I) = \bigcap_{i=1}^r P_i \mathbb{Z}$$

By the theorem if \mathbb{Z} ideal I, J are
co-prime, then $IJ = I \cap J$.

For co-prime $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$
we have $(x_1 \dots x_n) = (x_1) \cap \dots \cap (x_n)$

Note :- $\gamma(I) = \phi^{-1}(N_A/I)$

$$= \phi^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{\text{prime ideal } P \supseteq I} P/I\right)$$
$$= \bigcap_{\text{prime ideal } I \subseteq P} \phi^{-1}(P/I)$$

$$= \bigcap_{\text{prime ideal } \mathfrak{I} \subseteq \mathfrak{P}} \mathfrak{P}$$

$$\gamma(\mathfrak{I}) = \bigcap_{\text{prime ideal } \mathfrak{I} \subseteq \mathfrak{P}} \mathfrak{P}$$

Also, any prime ideal of A/\mathfrak{I} has the form $\mathfrak{P}/\mathfrak{I}$ where \mathfrak{P} is a prime ideal of A containing \mathfrak{I} .

Note: In the ring $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$, the residue class $\bar{2}$ is a zero divisor since $\bar{2} \times \bar{2} = \bar{4} = 0$

let R be a ring.

Theorem: The set of zero-divisors of R
is equal to its radical $\bigcup_{x \neq 0} \sqrt{\text{Ann } x}$.

Proof let D be the set of zero-divisors of R
 $\text{Ann}(x) = (0 : x)$

$$= \{ y \in A : yx = 0 \}$$

From the theorem if a is any ideal of R ,

$$\text{Then } \boxed{a \subseteq \delta(a)} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

from (1), we have
 $D \subseteq \delta(D)$. suppose $y \in \delta(D)$.

Then $y^k \in D$ for some $k \geq 1$, hence

$$y^k x = 0 \text{ for some non-zero } x \in R.$$

If $k = 1$, then $y \in D$ and if $k \neq 1$, then

$$y(y^{k-1}x) = 0 \text{ implies } y \in D$$

where $y^{k-1}x \neq 0$