Exercice 1. 1. We first do this division in $\mathbb{C}$. There, we obtain that

$$
\frac{(5+5 i)}{(4+2 i)}=\frac{(5+5 i)(-4+2 i)}{(4+2 i)(-4+2 i)}=\frac{3}{2}+\frac{1}{2} i
$$

By either rounding up or down both the real and imaginary part, we find the closest elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ to be the quotients $1,2,1+i, 2+i$. The division by these with rest are

- $(5+5 i)=1 \cdot(4+2 i)+(1+3 i)$
- $(5+5 i)=2 \cdot(4+2 i)+(-3+i)$
- $(5+5 i)=(1+i) \cdot(4+2 i)+(3-i)$
- $(5+5 i)=(2+i) \cdot(4+2 i)+(-1-3 i)$

Remark that we need to take the closest elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ to $\frac{3}{2}+\frac{1}{2} i \in \mathbb{C}$ as otherwise the norm of the rest would exceed the norm of $4+2 i$, which is a contradiction. In all of the above cases, this is satisfied. This also shows that the quotent and rest of the euclidean division are not unique.
2. We have

- $2=(1+i)(1-i)$ and since $1+i, 1-i \notin(\mathbb{Z}[i])^{\times}$it follows that 2 is not irreducible
- Assume that $3=x \cdot y$, with $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$. Then by Proposition 3.4.8, it follows that both $N(x)$ and $N(y)$ divide $N(3)=9$. This is possible if $N(x), N(y) \in\{1,3,9\}$. If $N(x)=1$, then $x$ is a unit. If $N(x)=9$, then $N(y)=1$ and $y$ is a unit. If $N(x)=3$, with $x=a+i b$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $N(x)=a^{2}+b^{2}$, but for natural numbers $a$ and $b$ this is impossible. So $N(x) \neq 3$, and the only way to write 3 as a product of two elements $x, y$ in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is if either of them is a unit, which means that 3 is irreducible.
- $5=(2+i)(2-i)$ is not irreducible, as both factors are not units.
- $2 i=(1+i)^{2}$ is not irreducible, as $1+i$ is not a unit.
- Since $N(2-3 i)=13$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}$, it follows by Proposition 3.4.8 that $2-3 i$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

3. We note that $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is Euclidean by Example 3.2.7, from which it follows by Proposition 3.3.3 that $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is principal. The Proposition 3.4.13 then states that since 3 is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, the ideal (3) is maximal in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. It follows that $\mathbb{Z}[i] /(3)$ is a field.
To study its cardinality, we see that the classes modulo 3 are represented by the rest of the division by 3 in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. The norm of the rest, which we denote by $r_{1}+i r_{2}$ is $N\left(r_{1}+i r_{2}\right)=r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}$ and is strictly smaller than the norm of 3 , which is $N(3)=9$. This is satisfied for pairs of $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ of the form $(0,0),(1,0),(0,1),(1,1),(2,0),(0,2),(2,1),(1,2),(2,2)$. There are 9 such pairs. (Rmk: for example, the pair $(1,-1)$ satisfies the restrictions as well, but it coincides with the pair $(1,2)$ modulo 3 , as $1+2 i=3 i+(1-i)$. Hence the pairs above are all.)
An alternative way to count the elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i] /(3)$ is via the isomorphism in Serie 4, Exercies 4.1. We saw that $\mathbb{Z}[i] /(3) \cong \mathbb{F}_{3}[t] /\left(t^{2}+[1]_{3}\right)$. The elements in $\mathbb{F}_{3}[t] /\left(t^{2}+[1]_{3}\right)$ are the following: $0,1,2, t, 1+t, 2+t, 2 t, 1+2 t, 2+2 t$, which correspond to the following elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i] /(3): 0,1,2, i, 1+i, 2+i, 2 i, 1+2 i, 2+2 i$.

Exercice 2. 1. On one hand, we have $|a+b \omega|^{2}=(a+b \omega)(a+b \bar{\omega})=a^{2}+a b(\omega+\bar{\omega})+b^{2} \omega \bar{\omega}$. On the other hand, we see that both $\omega=e^{\frac{2 \pi i}{3}}$ and its complex conjugate $\bar{\omega}=e^{-\frac{2 \pi i}{3}}$ are roots of the polynomial $z^{3}-1=0$. Since $z^{3}-1=(z-1)\left(z^{2}+z+1\right)$, both $\omega$ and $\bar{\omega}$ are roots of the polynomial $\left(z^{2}+z+1\right)$ and therefore $\left(z^{2}+z+1\right)=(z-\omega)(z-\bar{\omega})=z^{2}-(\omega+\bar{\omega}) z+\omega \bar{\omega}$, from which it follows by comparing coefficients that $\omega+\bar{\omega}=-1$ and $\omega \bar{\omega}=1$. Therefore, $|a+b \omega|^{2}=a^{2}-a b+b^{2}=N(a+b \omega)$.
2. La norme au carré étant toujours positive, la formule définissant $N$ montre que cette norme prend des valeurs entières. Pour montrer qu'il s'agit d'une fonction euclidienne on procède comme pour les entiers de Gauss. Soit $a+b \omega$ un entier d'Eisenstein et ( $a+b \omega$ ) l'idéal principal correspondant. Cet idéal est un réseau dans $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. Voici une illustration tirée d Wikipedia de $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ :


La maille fondamentale de ce réseau est un losange de côté 1 dont les sommets sont par exemples 0,1 , $\omega$ et $1+\omega$, ce dernier étant aussi de norme $1-1+1=1$. Ainsi la petite diagonale est de longueur 1 et la grande est de longueur $\sqrt{3}=\sqrt{N(1-\omega)}$.
L'idéal $(a+b \omega)$ est donc obtenu à partir du réseau ci-dessus par une dilatation d'un facteur $\sqrt{N(a+b \omega)}$ et rotation d'angle l'argument de $a+b \omega$. Pour nos considérations il suffira de considérer la taille d'un losange de ce réseau homothétique, choisissons le losange de sommets $0, a+b \omega, \omega(a+b \omega)$ et $(1+\omega)(a+b \omega)$ (que l'on pourra dessiner sur l'illustration précédente pour $3+2 \omega$ par exemple.) La petite diagonale est de longueur $|a+b \omega|$ et la grande de longueur $\sqrt{3} \cdot|a+b \omega|$. Par conséquent le cercle dont le centre est le milieu du losange (point d'intersection des diagonales) et dont le rayon vaut $\sqrt{3} / 2 \cdot|a+b \omega|$ contient toute la maille. Ceci démontre que tout point de $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ se trouve à une distance d'au plus $\sqrt{3} / 2 \cdot|a+b \omega|$ d'un point de ce réseau $(a+b \omega)$.

Autrement dit, pour tout entier d'Eisenstein $c+d \omega$, il existe un entier $q=q_{0}+q_{1} \omega$ tel que $r=c+d \omega-q(a+b \omega)$ est de norme plus petite ou égale à $3 / 4 \cdot N(a+b \omega)<N(a+b \omega)$. On choisira alors $q$ pour quotient et $r$ comme reste de la division.
3. Let $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ be invertible, with inverse element denoted by $z^{-1}$. Then by the multiplicative properties of the norm, we have that $1=N(1)=N(z) \cdot N\left(z^{-1}\right)$, and therefore, $N(z) \in \mathbb{N}$ needs to be equal to 1 . This is obtained for the elements $z= \pm 1, \pm \omega, \pm(1+\omega)$. One checks that these are indeed units: $\pm 1$ is clearly a unit, and by the first point, we have that $\omega+\bar{\omega}=-1$. From this, it follows with $\omega^{2}=\bar{\omega}$ that $\omega(1+\omega)=\omega+\omega^{2}=\omega+\bar{\omega}=-1$. Hence the inverse of $\pm \omega$ is $\mp(1+\omega)$.

Exercice 3. 1. We define $\overline{a+b \sqrt{5}}=a-b \sqrt{5}$ and note that for all $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$, the norm $N(z)=$ $z \bar{z}$. The fact that $N$ is a multiplicative function then follows from the fact that $\forall y, z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$, it holds that $\overline{y z}=\bar{y} \bar{z}$. With this, we get that $N(y z)=y z \overline{y z}=y z \bar{y} \bar{z}=y \bar{y} z \bar{z}=N(y) N(z)$.

Furthermore, if $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$ is invertible, then $N(z)= \pm 1$ is necessary. If we denote its inverse by $z^{-1}$, then $N(z) N\left(z^{-1}\right)=N(1)=1$, and therefore, $N(z)= \pm 1$. On the other hand, if $N(z)= \pm 1$ for some $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$, then $\pm 1=N(z)=z \bar{z}$ and hence $\pm \bar{z}$ is the inverse of $z$.
2. We note that $N(9+4 \sqrt{5})=9^{2}-5 \cdot 4^{2}=1$, and so by the first point, $9+4 \sqrt{5}$ is invertible. Furthermore, by the multiplicative property of the norm, the norm of $(9+4 \sqrt{5})^{n}$ is 1 as well, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This means that we have created infinitely many invertible elements, and $(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}])^{\times}$ is infinite.
3. We first show that no elements of norm 2 exist. For this, we note that $N(a+\sqrt{5} b)=a^{2}-5 b^{2}$, which is equal to $a^{2}$ modulo 5 , a square. But all squares in $\mathbb{Z} / 5 \mathbb{Z}$ are either 0,1 or 4 , as one checks by taking the square of all elements in $\mathbb{Z} / 5 \mathbb{Z}$.
Now let $z \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$ be of norm 4, and we assume that $z=v \cdot w$ for $v, w \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$. Then $4=N(z)=N(v) N(w)$. But as there are no elements of norm 2, we have that either $N(v)=$ $\pm 1, N(w)= \pm 4$ or $N(v)= \pm 4, N(w)= \pm 1$. In either cases one of the two elements is of norm $\pm 1$, which means that that element is invertible. Hence $z$ is irreducible.
4. We have

- $4=2 \cdot 2$ and $N(2)=4$, hence by the previous part, 2 is irreducible
- $4=(1+\sqrt{5})(-1+\sqrt{5})$ and $N(1+\sqrt{5})=-4, N(-1+\sqrt{5})=-4$, hence both $1+$ $\sqrt{5},-1+\sqrt{5}$ are irreducible.
- $4=(3+\sqrt{5})(3-\sqrt{5})$ and $N(3+\sqrt{5})=4, N(3-\sqrt{5})=4$, hence both $3+\sqrt{5}, 3-\sqrt{5}$ are irreducible.

5. As we see from the previous point, $2 \cdot 2=4=(3+\sqrt{5})(3-\sqrt{5})$, from which it follows that $2 \cdot 2 \in(3+\sqrt{5})$. But as $2 \notin(3+\sqrt{5})$, the ideal $(3+\sqrt{5})$ is not prime.
We remark that irreducible does not imply prime in a ring that is not factorial or principal.

Exercice 4. 1. We calculate the complex roots of the polynomial $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$. They are $\frac{-2 \pm i \sqrt{20}}{4}=$ $\frac{-1 \pm i \sqrt{5}}{2}$. The roots are elements in $\mathbb{Q}[i \sqrt{5}]$ and we have that $3+2 t+2 t^{2}=2\left(t+\frac{1+i \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)(t+$ $\left.\frac{1-i \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)$. This means that $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ is not irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[i \sqrt{5}]$, as we can express it as the product of $2\left(t+\frac{1+i \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)$ and $\left(t+\frac{1-i \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)$, both of which are not units.
On the other hand, if we try to decompose $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ into a product of two non-invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$, then we have two option: we assume that $3+2 t+2 t^{2}=f(t) g(t)$ with $f, g$ polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}][t]$. Now the sum of the degree of $f$ plus the degree of $g$ is equal to 2 , which means that either $f$ is of degree 2 , and $g$ of degree 0 (or vice versa), or the degree of both is 1 .
If $g$ is of degree 0 , then $g$ is in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$, and it holds that $g$ times the leading coefficient of $f$ is equal to 2 . But since 2 is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}$, (this can be seen by checking that $N(2)=4$, and verifying that not element in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ exists with norm 2) it follows that either $g= \pm 1$ or $g= \pm 2$. If $g= \pm 1$, then the decomposition of $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ is the decomposition into a unit multiplied by a non-unit. The other decomposition with $g= \pm 2$ does not exist, since not all coefficients of $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ are divisible by 2 .
Therefore, our only possibility for a decomposition into a product of two non-invertible elements is if both $f$ and $g$ are of degree 1. Let $f(t)=(\alpha t+\beta), g(t)=(\gamma t+\delta)$ with $\alpha, \ldots, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$. Since the leading coefficient of $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ is 2 , which is irreducible
in $\mathbb{Z}$, it follows that $\alpha= \pm 2, \gamma= \pm 1$ (or vice versa). We now note that the ring $\mathbb{C}[t]$ is integral by Proposition 3.2.3. Since furthermore, it is principal by Corollary 3.3.5, it holds that every irreducible element is prime by Proposition 3.4.13. Then by Proposition 3.5.4, if an element $c(t) \in \mathbb{C}[t]$ admits a decomposition into irreducible factors, then that decomposition is unique (up to multiplication by units). This means that if a decomposition of $3+2 t+2 t^{2}$ in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ exists, then it must agree with the decomposition in $\mathbb{C}[t]$ we have found above. So if $3+2 t+2 t^{2}=(2 t+\beta)(t+\delta)$ is a decomposition in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}][t]$, then it needs to agree with the decomposition in $\mathbb{C}[t]$, which would force the decomposition to be of the form $3+2 t+2 t^{2}=(2 t+1+\sqrt{5} i)\left(t+\frac{1-i \sqrt{5} 5}{2}\right)$ or $3+2 t+2 t^{2}=\left(t+\frac{1+\sqrt{5} i}{2}\right)(2 t+1-i \sqrt{5})$. But clearly one of the roots is not a root in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$, which is a contradiction. We conclude that in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$, the polynomial can not be written as a product of non-invertible elements, making it irreducible.
2. Généralisation. We calculate

$$
(a+c t)(b+c t)=a b+(c b+a c) t+c^{2} t=c d+(c b+a c) t+c^{2} t=c\left(d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}\right)
$$

which shows that the roots of $d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}$ are $-a / c$ and $-b / c$ in $K$. This shows that in $K$, we can write the polynomial $d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}$ as the product $c\left(t+\frac{a}{c}\right)\left(t+\frac{b}{c}\right)$, with both terms $c\left(t+\frac{a}{c}\right)$ and $\left(t+\frac{b}{c}\right)$, not units. Hence the polynomial is not irreducible in $K$.
On the other hand, over $A$, the polynomial is irreducible. This we prove as in the exercise above. We assume that the polynomial decoposes into a product of two non-invertible polynomials $f$ and $g$. There are two options. Firstly, we suppose that $g$ is of degree 0 , and $f$ is of degree 2. Then, $g$ multiplied with the leading coefficient of $f$ is equal to $c$. But since $c$ is irreducible in $A$, it follows that $g=u, u \in A^{\times}$or $g=u c, u \in A^{\times}$If $g=u$, then the decomposition is the decomposition into a unit and non-unit. The other decomposition, with $g=u c$ does not exist, since $c$ does not divide at least one coefficient of our polynomial. In fact, $c$ does not divive $d$ because they are irreducible and not associated.
So we now assume that the degree of $f$ and $g$ is 1 . Then, $f(t)=\alpha t+\beta, g(t)=\gamma t+\delta$, with $\alpha, \ldots, \delta \in A$. Since the leading coefficient is $c$, which is irreducible in $A$, it follows that $\alpha=u c, u \in A^{\times}$. The argument above only uses the fact that $\mathbb{C}$ is a field to show that if an element over $\mathbb{C}[t]$ admits a decomposition into irreducible factors, then it is unique. Hence we apply the same propositions to the field $K$ and see that the decomposition of $d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}$ as the product $c\left(t+\frac{a}{c}\right)\left(t+\frac{b}{c}\right)$ is unique. From this, it follows that if there exists a decomposition of the polynomial in $A$, then it must agree with the decomposition in $K$, which is of the form $d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}=(c t+a)\left(t+\frac{b}{c}\right)$, or $d+(a+b) t+c t^{2}=\left(t+\frac{a}{c}\right)(c t+b)$. But clearly in both cases, one of the roots is not a root in $A$, which is a contradiction. Hence the polynomial is irreducible in $A$.
3. By divide $-2+i \sqrt{5}$ by $1+i \sqrt{5}$ with rest, and then calculate the norm of the rest. If $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ with the norm $N(a+i \sqrt{5} b)=a^{2}+5 b^{2}$ was Euclidean, then the norm of the rest would need to be smaller than the norm of $1+i \sqrt{5}$, which is 6 . We perform the division over $\mathbb{C}$, and obtain $\frac{-2+i \sqrt{5}}{1+i \sqrt{5}}=\frac{1}{2}+i \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{5}$. The closest elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ are $0, i \sqrt{5}, 1,1+i \sqrt{5}$. It holds that

- $-2+i \sqrt{5}=(1+i \sqrt{5}) \cdot 0+(-2+i \sqrt{5})=0+(-2+i \sqrt{5})$ with $N(-2+i \sqrt{5})=9$
- $-2+i \sqrt{5}=(1+i \sqrt{5}) \cdot i \sqrt{5}+3=(-5+i \sqrt{5})+3$ with $N(3)=9$
- $-2+i \sqrt{5}=(1+i \sqrt{5}) \cdot 1+(-3)=(1+i \sqrt{5})+(-3)$ with $N(-3)=9$
- $-2+i \sqrt{5}=(1+i \sqrt{5}) \cdot(1+i \sqrt{5})+(2-\sqrt{5})=(-4+i 2 \sqrt{5})+(2-\sqrt{5})$ with $N(2-\sqrt{5})=9$

As the norm of every rest is bigger than 6 , we can not find $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ such that $-2+i \sqrt{5}=$ $q(1+i \sqrt{5})+r$ with $N(r)<N(1+i \sqrt{5})$, which means that $\mathbb{Z}[i \sqrt{5}]$ equipped with $N$ is not Euclidean.

Note that we can also look at the calculations above in a geometric way. The four elements $0,1+i \sqrt{5},-5+i \sqrt{5}$ et $-4+2 i \sqrt{5}$ are the edges of the rectangle of the lattice spanned by $(1+i \sqrt{5})$ that contains $-2+i \sqrt{5}$.

## Exercice 5.

For any field $K$, we know that by Corollary 3.3.5, $K[t]$ is a principal ideal domain. By Proposition 3.4.13, in a PID, the following are equivalent, for $q$ in the PID:

- $q$ prime
- $q$ irreducible
- (q) prime
- (q) maximal.

1. For $\mathbb{C}[t]$, we know by Example 2.3.7(c) that

$$
f(t) \in \mathbb{C}[t] \text { irreducible } \Leftrightarrow f(t)=c t+d, c \in \mathbb{C} \backslash\{0\}, d \in \mathbb{C} \text {. }
$$

Hence the prime=maximal ideals in $\mathbb{C}[t]$ are of the form $(c t+d)$.
For $\mathbb{R}[t]$, we know by Example 3.4.7 that the ideal $(t-d)$ is prime=maximal for all $d \in \mathbb{R}$. Furtermore, by Example 3.4.7, we know that if $f \in \mathbb{R}[t], \operatorname{deg}(f) \leq 3$, then

$$
f(t) \in \mathbb{R}[t] \text { irreducible } \Leftrightarrow \forall c \in \mathbb{R}: f(c) \neq 0
$$

Let $f(t)=a t^{2}+b t+c=a\left(t^{2}+\frac{b}{a} t+\frac{c}{a}\right)$, with $a \in \mathbb{R}$ invertible. It suffices therefore to study $f(t)=x^{2}+b x+c$. The complex roots of $f$ are $\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^{2}-4 c}}{2}$. Both roots are not in $\mathbb{R}$ if $b^{2}-4 c<0$. Hence $f$ is irreducible if $b^{2}-4 c<0$. The ideals $\left(x^{2}+b x+c\right)$ are prime $=$ maximal for $b^{2}-4 c<0$.
There are no irreducible polynomials of higher degree, since a polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[t]$ of degree 3 or higher has at least one root that is contained in $\mathbb{R}$.
2. We consider the evaluation of $K[s, t]$ at $t=a$, defined as

$$
e v_{a}: K[s, t] \rightarrow K[s], s \mapsto s, t \mapsto a .
$$

Similar to Example 1.4.10, we show that $\operatorname{ker}\left(e v_{a}\right)=(t-a)$. With the first isomorphism theorem (and $e v_{a}$ being surjective), it follows that $K[s, t] /(t-a) \cong K[s]$. With Proposition 3.2.3, it follows from $K$ being a field, and hence in particular being integral, that $K[s]$ is integral as well. From Proposition 2.5.2 it follows that $(t-a)$ is a prime ideal. On the other hand, it holds that $K[s]$ is not a field, and therefore, with Proposition 2.5.5 it follows that $(t-a)$ is not a maximal ideal.
3. Consider the evaluation of $\mathbb{C}[s, t]$ at $s=t^{2}$ defined as

$$
e v_{s=t^{2}}: \mathbb{C}[s, t] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}[t], s \mapsto t^{2}, t \mapsto t .
$$

Again, by the usual argument, $\operatorname{ker}\left(e v_{s=t^{2}}\right)=\left(s-t^{2}\right)$. It follows with surjectivity by the first isomorphism theorem that $\mathbb{C}[s, t] /\left(s-t^{2}\right) \cong \mathbb{C}[t]$. By Corollary 3.3.5, using that $\mathbb{C}$ is a field, it follows that $\mathbb{C}[t]$ is a principal ideal domain.
4. We want to apply the Chinese remainder theorem to the ideals $\left(t-a_{i}\right)$ in $K[t]$. We may do so, since from $a_{i} \neq a_{j}$ for all $i, j$ it follows that $\left(t-a_{i}\right)$ is prime to $\left(t-a_{j}\right)$. With the remainder theorem, we get that

$$
K[t] /\left(\left(t-a_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap\left(t-a_{n}\right)\right) \cong K[t] /\left(t-a_{1}\right) \times \ldots \times K[t] /\left(t-a_{n}\right) .
$$

First, we remark that $\left(t-a_{1}\right) \cap \ldots \cap\left(t-a_{n}\right)=\left(\left(t-a_{1}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot\left(t-a_{n}\right)\right)$, and we denote $f(t):=\left(t-a_{1}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot\left(t-a_{n}\right)$. Seondly, the $K[t] /\left(t-a_{i}\right)$ are isomorphic to $K$, using the evaluation at $a_{i}$. It follows that

$$
K[t] /(f(t)) \cong K \times \ldots \times K \cong K^{n} .
$$

We now take $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) \in K^{n}$. Via the isomorphism above, there exists $g(t) \in K[t]$ modulo $f(t)$ that corresponds to $\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right) \in K^{n}$. Since the isomorphism above is constructed using the evaluations as $a_{i}$, it follows that $g\left(a_{i}\right)=b_{i}$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n$. Lastly, since $f(t)$ is of degree $n$, we may represent a class (modulo $f$ ) by a polynomial of degree strictly smaller than $n$. Hence $g(t)$ is of degree at most $n-1$.

## Exercice 6.

By Example 3.2.7, we have that $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is euclidean. From Proposition 3.3.3 it follows that $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is principal. This means that every ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is generated by a single element. So let $a \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $(5) \subsetneq(a) \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}[i]$. From Remark 3.4.5 it follows that $a \mid 5$ and then with Proposition 3.4.8 it follows that $N(a) \mid N(5)=25$. The only options for $N(a)$ are 1,5 , or 25 . But since $(a)$ is not equal to both (5) and $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, it follows that $N(a) \neq 25$ and $N(a) \neq 1$. Hence $N(a)=5$, and we let $a=c+i d$ with $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$. In order for $N(c+i d)=5$ to hold, we have that either $c= \pm 1, d= \pm 2$ or vice versa. The possibilities for $a$ are $a=1+2 i, 1-2 i,-1+2 i,-1-2 i$ and $a=2+i, 2-i,-2+i,-2-i$. But the elements $-1-2 i, 1+2 i$ and $-2+i$ are all associated to $2-i$ and the elements $-1+2 i, 1-2 i$ and $-2-i$ are all associated to $2+i$. We obtain two ideals $(a)=(2-i)$ and $(a)=(2+i)$. Since the elements $2-i$ and $2+i$ are not associated, these ideals are distinct.

We now let $b \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $(2) \subsetneq(b) \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}[i]$. As above, $b \mid 2$, from which it follows that $N(b) \mid N(2)=4$. The options for $N(b)$ are 1,2 and 4 , but since $(b)$ is not equal to (2) or $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, it follows that $N(b)=2$. This is satisfied for $b$ of the form $1+i, 1-i,-1+i,-1-i$. As all of these elements are associated, the only ideal we obtain is $(b)=(1+i)$.

Exercice 7. 1. It holds that

- $\left(S^{-1} A,+\right)$ is a subgroup of $(\operatorname{Frac}(A),+)$, since $\frac{0}{1} \in S^{-1} A$, as $0 \in A, 1 \in S$. Furthermore, $\forall \frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d} \in S^{-1} A$, we have that $\frac{a}{b}+\frac{c}{d}=\frac{a d+c b}{b d} \in S^{-1} A$, since $a d+c b \in A$, and $b c \in S$ for $b \in S, c \in S$. Lastly, the additive inverse of $\frac{a}{b} \in S^{-1} A$ is $\frac{-a}{b}$, which is contained in $S^{-1} A$ as well.
- Since $1_{A} \in S$, it holds that $\frac{1}{1} \in S^{-1} A$.
- $\forall \frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d} \in S^{-1} A$ we have that $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d}=\frac{a c}{b d} \in S^{-1} A$ since $a c \in A$, and $b d \in S$ for $b \in S, d \in S$.

This means that $S^{-1} A$ is a ring.
2. We show that $S:=A \backslash \mathfrak{p}=\{a \in A \mid a \notin \mathfrak{p}\}$ is closed under multiplication.

- It holds that $1 \in S$, since if 1 were contained in $\mathfrak{p}$, then $\mathfrak{p}$ would be the whole ring $A$.
- For $a, b \in S$, it holds that $a \cdot b \in S$, which means that $a \cdot b \notin \mathfrak{p}$. This holds because if $a \cdot b$ were contained in $\mathfrak{p}$, then since $\mathfrak{p}$ is prime, it would follow that either $a \in \mathfrak{p}$ or $b \in \mathfrak{p}$, which is not possible due to the assumption that both $a$ and $b$ are contained in $S$.

For the $\operatorname{ring} A=\mathbb{Z}$, you have seen the localization at a prime ideal in Example 2.1.7.
3. We note that the elements in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ are of the form

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Z}) \right\rvert\, b \in \mathbb{Z} \backslash(2)\right\}=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \right\rvert\, 2 \nmid b\right\} .
$$

We remark that the elements $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ with $2 \nmid a$ are the units of $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$, since the inverse of $\frac{a}{b}$ is $\frac{b}{a}$, which is contained in $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ due to the fact that $2 \nmid a$.
We define $m \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ to be $m:=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{(2)} \right\rvert\, a \in(2)\right\}$. This is an ideal, since for $\frac{a}{b} \in m, \frac{c}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$, it holds that $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d}=\frac{a c}{b d} \in m$, since $a \in(2), c \in \mathbb{Z}$, and hence $a c \in(2)$. Furthermore, it is clearly an additive group. We show that this ideal is maximal. For this, we assume that there exists an ideal $I$ such that $m \subset I$ and $m \neq I$. So there must exist an element $\frac{a}{b} \in I$ which is not contained in $m$. This means that $a \notin(2)$, and hence $2 \nmid a$. But as we remarked above, then $\frac{a}{b}$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$, and so $I$ is equal to $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$.
Other proper ideals in $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ are of the following form $I=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{(2)} \right\rvert\, a \in(n)\right\}$ where $(n)$ is an ideal such that $(n) \subseteq(2) \Leftrightarrow 2 \mid n$. These are clearly ideals. They are all ideals, since if there was an ideal that contained an element $\frac{a}{b}$ such that $a$ is not a multiple of 2 , then $\frac{a}{b}$ is a unit and hence the ideal is the whole ring.
Lastly, we remark that the only prime ideal is the maximal ideal. The other ideals of the form $I=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{(2)} \right\rvert\, a \in(n)\right\}$ with $(n) \subseteq(2)$ but $n \neq 2$ are not prime, since we have that $\frac{n}{1} \in I$, and we may write $n=2 m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}, m<n$. But then $\frac{n}{1}=\frac{2}{1} \cdot \frac{m}{1}$ and both $\frac{2}{1} \notin I$ and $\frac{m}{1} \notin I$.
4. It holds that $\mathbb{Z}_{2}=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q} \right\rvert\, b \in\left\{1,2,2^{2}, 2^{3}, \ldots\right\}\right\}=\left\{\left.\frac{a}{2^{i}} \in \mathbb{Q} \right\rvert\, i \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$. Hence for $i=0$, we obtain elements $\frac{a}{2^{0}}=a \in \mathbb{Z}$, and for $i>0$, we obtain elements of the form $\frac{a}{2^{i}}$ with $2 \nmid a$. The units are elements that have an inverse in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. These are the elements of the form $2^{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$, since their inverse is of the form $\frac{1}{2^{i}}$, which is contained in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, and elements of the form $\frac{1}{2^{i}}$, since their inverse is of the form $\frac{2^{i}}{1}$, which is contained in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. The other elements are not units, since seen as elements in $\mathbb{Q}$ they have an inverse, which is unique, but their inverse in not contained in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ (i.e. the inverse of $\frac{a}{2^{i}}$ with $2 \nmid a$ in $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\frac{2^{i}}{a}$, but since $2 \nmid a$, this is not an element of $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$.)
The irreducible elements are the elements of the form $\frac{p}{2^{i}}$ and $2^{i} \cdot p$ with $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ prime. To prove this, we let $\frac{a}{2^{i}} \in \mathbb{Z}_{2}$. Then $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ has a prime decomposition of the following form, $a=p_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{k^{r}}$ for some prime numbers $p_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $r \geq 1, k_{i} \geq 1$. There are two cases.

- If all the prime numbers $p_{i}$ are odd, then we can write

$$
\frac{a}{2^{i}}=\frac{1}{2^{i}} \cdot p_{1}^{k_{1}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{k^{r}}
$$

with $\frac{1}{2^{i}}$ a unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. It follows that $\frac{a}{2^{i}}$ is irreducible if and only if $r=1$ and $k_{1}=1$. This means that $\frac{a}{2^{i}}$ is of the form $\frac{p}{2^{i}}$ with $p$ prime $\operatorname{im} \mathbb{Z}$.

- If the prime number 2 appears in the decomposition of $a$, then we have the following: We may assume that $p_{1}=2$, and that $i=0$ (since we assume that the fractions in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$ are shortened). We can write

$$
\frac{a}{2^{0}}=a=2^{k_{1}} \cdot p_{2}^{k_{2}} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{r}^{k^{r}}
$$

with $2^{k_{1}}$ a unit in $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$. It follows that $a$ is irreducible if and only if $r=2$ and $k_{2}=1$. This means that $\frac{a}{2^{i}}$ is of the form $2^{j} \cdot p$ with $p$ prime in $\mathbb{Z}$.

