

## Lecture 2: Euclidean Domains

①

All rings are commutative and have a 1.

Integral Domain: A ring without zero divisors,  
i.e.  $a \cdot b = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

Ex:  $\mathbb{Z}$ , any field (or subset thereof)

Non Ex:  $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  [with componentwise mult]  
 $2 \cdot 3 = 0$ ,  $(1, 0) \cdot (0, 1) = (0, 0)$

[Initial focus is factoring, etc, in integral domains.  
One kind that has all the props we're familiar with  
from  $\mathbb{Z}$  is.]

Euclidean Domain: An integral domain  $R$  with  
a norm  $N: R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  where

①  $N(0) = 0$ .

② For  $a, b \in R$  with  $b \neq 0$ , then  $a = qb + r$   
where  $r = 0$  or  $N(r) < N(b)$ .

↙ quotient  
↖ remainder

Ex.  $\mathbb{Z}$  with  $N(a) = |a|$

$F[x]$  for  $F$  a field with  $N(p(x)) = \deg p$

$F$  a field with  $N = 0$ .

Ex:  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  with  $N(a+bi) = |a+bi|^2 = a^2+b^2$  (2)  
[Will show at end of hour]

Non Ex:  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$  [since this doesn't have unique fac.]

[Origin of name: These are the rings where the Euclidean Algorithm for finding gcd's works.]

For  $a, b \in R$ , write  $a|b$  if  $b = qa$  for some  $q \in R$ .

Def: A  $g \in R$  is a gcd for  $a, b \in R$  if  $g|a$  and  $g|b$  and whenever  $d|a$  and  $d|b$  then  $d|g$ . [Unique up to units.]

Non Ex [HW]: 6 and  $2+2\sqrt{-5}$  have no gcd in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ .

Thm: In a Euclidean domain, any  $a, b \in R$  with  $b \neq 0$  have a gcd.

Pf: If  $a = qb + r$ , then the common divisors of  $(a, b)$  are the same as those of  $(b, r)$ . [Hence one pair has a gcd iff the other does.] Similarly, if  $b = q'r + r'$ , then  $(b, r)$  has the same common divisors as  $(r, r')$ . Since  $R$  is Euclidean

can arrange that  $N(b) > N(r_0) > N(r_1) > \dots \geq 0$  ③

as we repeat with  $r_n = q_{n+1} r_{n+1} + r_{n+2}$ . So eventually

get  $r_n = q_{n+1} r_{n+1} + 0$ . As the gcd of  $(r_{n+1}, 0)$  is  $r_{n+1}$ ,

we have  $r_{n+1}$  is the gcd of  $(a, b)$ . ▣

————— • —————

An ideal  $I \subseteq R$  is an additive subgroup where  $r \cdot i \in I$  for all  $r \in R$  and  $i \in I$ . [For needed background, see Ch 7.]

Ex: For  $a \in R$ , have the principle ideal  $(a) = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$

Principle:  $3\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$       Not:  $(2, x) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[x]$

[Motivation: kernels of ring hom; ideal numbers.]

Thm: If  $R$  is Euclidean, then every ideal is principle.

Pf: Choose  $a \neq 0$  in  $I$  of minimal norm. If  $b \in I$ , then  $b = qa + r$  with  $r = 0$  or  $N(r) < N(a)$ . Since

$r = b - qa \in I$  must have  $r = 0$  and  $b = qa$ . So

$I = (a)$ . ▣

Note: For  $R$  Euclidean, if  $I = (a, b) = \{r_1 a + r_2 b \mid r_i \in R\}$  <sup>(4)</sup>  
 then  $I = (g)$  where  $g = \gcd(a, b)$ .

Reason: Clearly  $I \subseteq (g)$  since  $g \mid a$  and  $g \mid b$ .

As for  $\mathbb{Z}$ , the Euclidean algorithm gives that  
 $g = ra + sb$  for some  $r, s \in R$  and hence  $(g) \subseteq I$ .

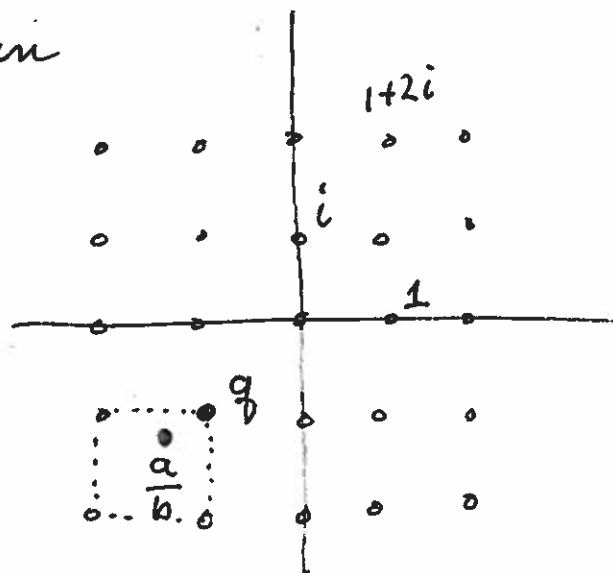
[Can have gcd's without this prop, e.g.  $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$  where  
 $x$  and  $y$  have  $\gcd = 1$ .]

[Next time: If every ideal is principle, then  $R$   
 has unique factorization.]

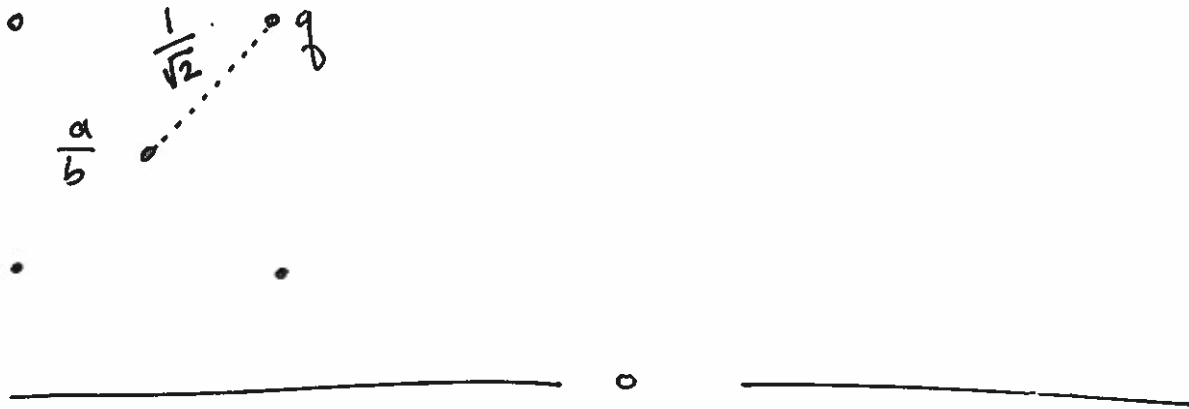
Proof that  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  with  $N = | |^2$  is Euclidean:

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}[i] \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . Let  $g$  be an  
 elt of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  closest to  $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{C}$

Then  $a = gb + r$  where  
 $r = a - gb$ . Now



$$\mathcal{N}(r) = |r|^2 = \left| \frac{a}{b} - q \right|^2 |b|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} |b|^2 < \mathcal{N}(b). \quad (5)$$



The problem with  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$  is that the grid is too big...