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Let R be a commutative ring. When is a subgroup of $(R, +)$ an ideal of R ? We investigate this problem for the rings \mathbb{Z}^d and $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$. In the cases of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$, our results give, for any given subgroup of these rings, a computable criterion for the problem under consideration. We also compute the probability that a randomly chosen subgroup from $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is an ideal.

1. Introduction

Let R be a commutative ring. The object of this paper is to determine necessary and sufficient conditions for a given subgroup of $(R, +)$ to be an ideal of R . Our motivation for asking this question arose from some problems on Mathieu subspaces (more is explained in the next paragraph). To begin, consider the ring \mathbb{Z} of integers. Every subgroup of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $k\mathbb{Z}$ for some integer k , and each of these subgroups is clearly also an ideal. In fact, the same is true also for the ring \mathbb{Z}_n (the ring of integers modulo n). It turns out that these are the only rings R in which every subgroup of $(R, +)$ is also an ideal of R ; see [Proposition 2.1](#). In particular, when we consider product rings, we get some subgroups that are not ideals. For instance, the diagonal $\{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ is clearly a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}, +)$ but not an ideal in the ring $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. In this paper, we consider the product rings \mathbb{Z}^d (in [Section 3](#)) and $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ (in [Section 4](#)), and for various subgroups of these rings, we give necessary and sufficient conditions for a given subgroup to be an ideal. In the cases of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$, our necessary and sufficient conditions are also computable for any given subgroup of these rings. As one would expect, our results show that in general an arbitrary subgroup of a ring is seldom an ideal. In fact, we make this statement precise in [Theorem 5.4](#), where we compute explicitly the probability that a randomly chosen subgroup from $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is an ideal. For instance, when p is a prime and the ring is $\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$, this probability is only $4/(p+3)$. We will use several basic facts and tools from abstract algebra, which can be found in

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[Dummit and Foote 2004]. We also use a theorem in group theory due to Goursat; a good exposition of this theorem can be found in [Petrillo 2011], and we review it in Theorem 4.4. Although we focus mainly on the rings $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$, where possible we offer some generalizations. By a subgroup of a ring R , we always mean a subgroup of the additive group $(R, +)$.

This problem came up naturally when Chebolu and his collaborators (Yamskulna and Zhao) were recently working on some problems involving Mathieu subspaces in some rings. A Mathieu subspace is a generalization of an ideal: for a commutative ring R , a \mathbb{Z} -submodule M of R is said to be a Mathieu subspace of R if whenever a^n belongs to M (for all $n \geq 1$), then ra^n belongs to M for all n sufficiently large. Every ideal is a Mathieu subspace, but the converse is not necessarily true. The notion of a Mathieu subspace was introduced by Wenhua Zhao [2010], and it proved to be a central idea in the research on several landmark conjectures in algebra and geometry, including the Jacobian conjecture. As a result, Mathieu subspaces received serious attention and extensive writing; see [Zhao 2012] and the references therein. Chebolu and his collaborators were led to the problem of determining when a subgroup of a ring is a Mathieu subspace. Since ideals are important and relatively well-understood classes of Mathieu subspaces, it was natural to investigate the same question for ideals. Thus the problem we study in this paper is an interesting offshoot of our Mathieu subspaces project.

2. Generators

In the introduction, we noted that the rings \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}_n have the property that every subgroup in them is also an ideal. It is not hard to show that these are the only rings with this property.

Proposition 2.1. *Let R be a unital commutative ring, i.e., a commutative ring with a multiplicative identity. If every subgroup of $(R, +)$ is also an ideal, then R is isomorphic to either \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Z}_n for some positive integer n .*

Proof. Since R is a unital ring, there is a natural map $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$ that sends 1 to 1_R , the multiplicative identity of R . The image of this homomorphism is exactly the subgroup of $(R, +)$ that is generated by 1_R . If every subgroup of $(R, +)$ is an ideal, then, in particular, the subgroup generated by 1_R is also an ideal. However, the only ideal that contains 1_R is the entire ring R . This means ϕ is surjective. From the first isomorphism theorem, we have $\mathbb{Z}/\ker \phi \cong R$. It follows that R is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Z}_n for some integer n . (In the former case, R has characteristic 0, and in the latter, R has characteristic n .) \square

We will now show that every subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^d or $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ is generated by at most d elements. We will recall some standard results from abstract algebra, which can be found in [Dummit and Foote 2004].

Theorem 2.2. *Let R be a PID and let M be a free R -module of rank r . Then every submodule of M is also free and has rank at most r .*

This theorem takes care of \mathbb{Z}^d . For $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$, we need the following corollary, which can be derived easily from the above theorem.

Corollary 2.3. *Let R be a PID and let M be a finitely generated R -module. If M is generated by r elements, then every submodule of M is generated by at most r elements.*

Corollary 2.4. *Every subgroup of $(\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}, +)$ or of $(\mathbb{Z}^d, +)$ is generated by at most d elements.*

Proof. The ring $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module that is clearly generated by d elements; the standard basis forms a generating set. Therefore by the above corollary, every subgroup of $\prod_{i=1}^d \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ is generated by at most d elements. The corresponding statement for \mathbb{Z}^d is a special case of the above theorem. \square

This corollary gives a natural stratification of the class of all nonsubgroups of these rings, which is based on the minimal number of generators of a given subgroup. This stratification will be helpful in our analysis.

3. The ring $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$

In this section, we determine when a given additive subgroup of the ring \mathbb{Z}^d is an ideal. The trivial subgroup, which consists of the single element $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$, is also trivially an ideal, so we will consider nonzero subgroups. As explained in the previous section, a nonzero subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^d is free of rank at most d . We will begin with rank-1 subgroups, where the problem is straightforward.

Proposition 3.1. *Let L be a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^d generated by (a_1, \dots, a_d) . Then L is an ideal if and only if all but one of the a_i are zero.*

Proof. If all but one of the a_i are zero, then L is clearly an ideal in one of the factors of \mathbb{Z}^d . On the other hand, if we have more than one nonzero a_i , say a_i and a_j , then consider $e_i = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$, which has 1 at the i -th spot. If L is an ideal, then $e_i(a_1, \dots, a_d) = (0, \dots, 0, a_i, 0, \dots, 0)$ should belong to L . This is a contradiction, so we are done. \square

More generally, the following is true.

Lemma 3.2. *Let R be an integral domain. A subgroup of $(R, +)$ generated by a nonzero element a is an ideal of R if and only if R is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Z}_p for some prime p .*

Proof. Let $\langle a \rangle$ be the additive subgroup of $(R, +)$ generated by a ($\neq 0$). Let r be an arbitrary element of R . If $\langle a \rangle$ is an ideal, then we should have $ra = na$ for some integer n . This equation implies that $(r - n1_R)a = 0$. Since we are working in an integral

domain and a is nonzero, we get $r - n1_R = 0$, or $r = n1_R$. Since r is arbitrary, this implies that $(R, +)$ is a cyclic group generated by 1_R . This means R is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{Z}_n for some n . But since R is an integral domain, n has to be a prime. \square

Now we move on to subgroups of rank at least 2 in \mathbb{Z}^d , where the problem is more interesting. We begin with an example to show the subtlety in the problem.

Example 3.3. Consider the ring $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and let S and T denote the following rank-2 subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}, +)$:

$$S = \langle (2, 0), (3, 1) \rangle,$$

$$T = \langle (2, 0), (2, 1) \rangle.$$

We claim that S is not an ideal but T is. If S is an ideal, then the element $(0, 1)$ ($= (0, 1)(3, 1)$) should belong to it. That means the pair of equations $2x + 3y = 0$ and $y = 1$ have to be consistent over \mathbb{Z} . However, it is easy to see that this is not the case. On the other hand, T is an ideal in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. In fact, $T = 2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. See [Theorem 3.8](#) for the general result.

We begin by classifying ideals of \mathbb{Z}^d whose additive groups are free of rank k .

Proposition 3.4. *Let I be an ideal in \mathbb{Z}^d . Then I is free of rank k ($1 \leq k \leq n$) if and only if I is of the form $\prod_{i=1}^d d_i \mathbb{Z}$, where exactly k of the numbers d_i are nonzero.*

Proof. Recall that every ideal in \mathbb{Z}^d is of the form $\prod_{i=1}^d d_i \mathbb{Z}$, where the d_i are integers. The rank of $\prod_{i=1}^d d_i \mathbb{Z}$ is exactly the number of d_i that are nonzero. \square

In view of this proposition, to determine when a subgroup of rank k in \mathbb{Z}^d is an ideal, it is enough (after deleting the zero coordinates) to consider the problem when $d = k$. The latter is addressed in the next two theorems. We begin with a lemma that we will need in these theorems. Recall that an integer matrix A is said to be unimodular if it is invertible over the ring of integers. This statement is equivalent (as can be seen by Cramer's formula for the inverse) to saying that the determinant of A is either 1 or -1 . In the following lemma, a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^n of rank n will be called a lattice of \mathbb{Z}^n .

Lemma 3.5. *Let A and B be two $n \times n$ matrices over the integers that are invertible over the rationals. The columns of A and those of B form two bases for a lattice L if and only if there exists a unimodular matrix X such that $AX = B$.*

Proof. Since the columns of A and B form a basis for L , there exist integer square matrices X and Y such that $AX = B$ and $BY = A$. Multiplying the first equation on the right-hand side by Y , we get $AXY = BY$. But $BY = A$, so we get $AXY = A$. Since A is invertible over the rationals, we multiply the inverse (over the rationals) of A on both sides to conclude that $XY = I$. This means X is invertible over \mathbb{Z} (i.e., it is unimodular) and $AX = B$. For the other direction, let Y be the inverse

of X over \mathbb{Z} , so we have $AX = B$ and $BY = A$. The first equation tells us that the column space of B is contained in that of A , and the second equation says that the column space of A is contained in that of B . \square

Theorem 3.6. *Let H be a subgroup of rank k in \mathbb{Z}^k . Let the columns of a $k \times k$ matrix A be a \mathbb{Z} -basis for H . Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) H is an ideal in \mathbb{Z}^k .
- (2) There exists a unimodular matrix U such that AU is a diagonal matrix.
- (3) There is a sequence of elementary row operations (over \mathbb{Z}) that can convert A into a diagonal matrix.

Proof. Let H (as in the statement of the theorem) be an ideal in \mathbb{Z}^k . Then by [Proposition 3.4](#), H is of the form $\prod_{i=1}^k d_i \mathbb{Z}$ for some integers d_i . Since H has rank k , all these integers have to be nonzero. H can be written in this form if and only if the columns of A and those of the diagonal matrix $D = \text{Diagonal}(d_1, \dots, d_k)$ form a basis for H . By the above lemma, this happens if and only if there is a unimodular matrix U such that $AU = D$. Hence we have the equivalence of statements (1) and (2). The equivalence of (2) and (3) for the field of real numbers is well-known (the famous reduced row echelon form of an invertible matrix). The reader can verify that the proof works over \mathbb{Z} when properly interpreted. For instance, the role played by nonzero real numbers in the world of \mathbb{Z} are the units ± 1 . This gives the equivalence of statements (2) and (3). \square

Since \mathbb{Z} is a Euclidean domain where we can talk about gcds, we can take the above theorem one step further. Let A^* denote the adjoint matrix of A . Recall that the formula for the inverse of A (an invertible matrix) is given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} A^* = \frac{1}{\det(A)} ((a_{ij}^*)).$$

Theorem 3.7. *Let H be a subgroup of rank k in \mathbb{Z}^k . Let the columns of a $k \times k$ matrix A be a \mathbb{Z} -basis for H . Then the following are equivalent:*

- (1) H is an ideal in \mathbb{Z}^k .
- (2) There exists a unimodular matrix U such that AU is a diagonal matrix.
- (3) There is a sequence of k nonzero integers d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k such that
 - (a) $\det(A) = \pm d_1 d_2 \cdots d_k$,
 - (b) $\det(A)/d_i$ divides $\gcd(a_{1i}^*, \dots, a_{ki}^*)$ for all i .

Proof. We already saw the equivalence of (1) and (2) in [Theorem 3.6](#). Now we will show that (2) and (3) are equivalent. Let H and A be as in the statement of the theorem. There exists a unimodular matrix U such that AU is a diagonal matrix if

and only if for some diagonal matrix $D = \text{Diagonal}(d_1, \dots, d_k)$, the matrix $A^{-1}D$ is unimodular. Using Cramer's formula for the inverse, we can equivalently say that

$$X = \frac{1}{\det(A)} A^* D$$

is unimodular. Since X is unimodular, its determinant is ± 1 . Taking determinants of both sides of the above matrix equation will give (a). Moreover, the entries of X should be all integers. For that to happen, $\det(A)$ should divide all the entries in each of the columns $d_i(a_{1i}^*, \dots, a_{ki}^*)^T$, or equivalently $\det(A)/d_i$ should divide all the entries in each of the columns $(a_{1i}^*, \dots, a_{ki}^*)^T$. Since \mathbb{Z} is a Euclidean domain, the last statement is equivalent to (b). \square

We can tell exactly when condition (2) of [Theorem 3.7](#) holds in the case of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. That gives the following result, which along with the rank-1 result proved earlier, gives a full answer to our problem for the ring $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 3.8. *Let L be a rank-2 subgroup of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ that is generated by vectors (a, b) and (c, d) . Then L is an ideal in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $ad - bc$ divides $\gcd(a, c) \gcd(b, d)$.*

Proof. Let L be a rank-2 subgroup of $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ that is generated by vectors (a, b) and (c, d) , and let A be the 2×2 matrix with these two columns. From the above theorems, and using the formula for the inverse of a 2×2 matrix, we conclude that L is an ideal if and only if there exist nonzero integers d_1 and d_2 such that

- (1) $ad - bc = \pm d_1 d_2$,
- (2) $(ad - bc)/d_1$ divides $\gcd(b, d)$ and $(ad - bc)/d_2$ divides $\gcd(a, c)$.

We claim that nonzero integers d_1 and d_2 exist with these properties if and only if $ad - bc$ divides $\gcd(a, c) \gcd(b, d)$. If d_1 and d_2 exist such that (1) and (2) hold, then from (2) we get $(ad - bc)^2 / (d_1 d_2)$ divides $\gcd(a, c) \gcd(b, d)$, but $(ad - bc)^2 / (d_1 d_2) = ad - bc$. This proves one direction. For the other, direction, suppose $ad - bc$ divides $\gcd(a, c) \gcd(b, d)$. Then an elementary number theory fact tells us we can write $ad - bc$ as $d_1 d_2$, where d_1 divides $\gcd(a, c)$ and d_2 divides $\gcd(b, d)$. \square

We now explain how one can arrive at [Theorem 3.8](#) more directly by solving linear equations over \mathbb{Z} . Recall that our problem boils down to the following question. *Given an integer matrix A with nonzero determinant, when does there exist a unimodular matrix X such that AX is a diagonal matrix?* To address this, we let $X = (x_{ij})$ and consider the matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u & 0 \\ 0 & v \end{bmatrix}.$$

This gives us the set of equations

$$ax_{12} + cx_{22} = 0, \quad (3-1)$$

$$bx_{11} + dx_{21} = 0, \quad (3-2)$$

$$x_{11}x_{22} - x_{12}x_{21} = 1. \quad (3-3)$$

(X is unimodular, so its determinant is either 1 or -1 . However, by swapping the columns of A if necessary, we may assume that the determinant of X is 1, which gives us the third equation.) L is an ideal if and only if the above system of equations has a solution in integers x_{ij} . Let us begin with (3-1): $ax_{12} + cx_{22} = 0$ if and only if $ax_{12} = -cx_{22}$. Then

$$x_{12} = \frac{-c}{\gcd(a, c)}\alpha, \quad x_{22} = \frac{a}{\gcd(a, c)}\alpha \quad \text{for some integer } \alpha.$$

Similarly, using (3-2), we get

$$x_{11} = \frac{-d}{\gcd(b, d)}\beta, \quad x_{21} = \frac{b}{\gcd(b, d)}\beta \quad \text{for some integer } \beta.$$

Substituting these values in the determinant condition (3-3), we get

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= x_{11}x_{22} - x_{12}x_{21} \\ &= \frac{-d}{\gcd(b, d)}\beta \frac{a}{\gcd(a, c)}\alpha - \frac{-c}{\gcd(a, c)}\alpha \frac{b}{\gcd(b, d)}\beta \\ &= \alpha\beta \left(\frac{-ad}{\gcd(a, c)\gcd(b, d)} - \frac{-bc}{\gcd(a, c)\gcd(b, d)} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\gcd(a, c)\gcd(b, d) = -\alpha\beta(ad - bc). \quad (3-4)$$

Thus we see from (3-4) that the set of equations (3-1)–(3-3) is consistent over \mathbb{Z} if and only if $\det(A) = ad - bc$ divides $\gcd(a, c)\gcd(b, d)$ in \mathbb{Z} . In that case, we can take $\alpha = -1$ and

$$\beta = \frac{\gcd(a, c)\gcd(b, d)}{ad - bc}.$$

This completes the alternative proof of [Theorem 3.8](#).

The following corollary follows immediately from [Theorem 3.8](#).

Corollary 3.9. *Let (a, b) and (c, d) be two vectors in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and L be the lattice generated by these two vectors.*

- (1) *If $ad - bc = \pm 1$, then L is an ideal in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.*
- (2) *If $ad - bc$ is a prime, then L is an ideal if and only if $ad - bc$ divides either $\gcd(a, c)$ or $\gcd(b, d)$.*

4. The ring $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$

Let n and m be positive integers and consider the ring $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. Our problem is to determine when a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m, +)$ is an ideal. We have seen that a nonzero subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is generated by either one or two elements, so we have two cases to consider. First, consider a subgroup L in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ that is generated by (a, b) . If either $a = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_n or $b = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_m , the problem is trivial because L is simply an ideal in one of the components of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. So let us assume that both a and b are nonzero in their respective component rings. Then we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4.1. *Let $1 \leq a < n$ and $1 \leq b < m$. The subgroup generated by (a, b) in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is a ideal if and only if*

$$\gcd\left(\frac{n}{\gcd(a, n)}, \frac{m}{\gcd(b, m)}\right) = 1.$$

Proof. Since our rings are principal ideal rings, every ideal in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is of the form $d_1\mathbb{Z}_n \times d_2\mathbb{Z}_m$, where d_1 and d_2 are some integers. For brevity, we will denote this ideal by $\langle d_1 \rangle \times \langle d_2 \rangle$.

Returning to our problem, let us assume that the line L generated by (a, b) is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. From above, we have

$$L = \langle d_1 \rangle \times \langle d_2 \rangle.$$

Consider the restrictions to L of the natural projection maps: $\pi_1: \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ and $\pi_2: \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m$. We will compute $\pi_1(L)$ in two different ways. On the one hand, since $L = \langle d_1 \rangle \times \langle d_2 \rangle$, we have $\pi_1(L) = \langle d_1 \rangle$. On the other hand, L is generated by (a, b) , so the first components of the elements of L pick up all multiples of a . Therefore $\pi_1(L) = \langle a \rangle$. This shows that $\langle a \rangle = \langle d_1 \rangle$. Similarly, working with the second projection map, we conclude that $\langle b \rangle = \langle d_2 \rangle$.

To summarize, L spanned by (a, b) is an ideal if and only if

$$\langle (a, b) \rangle = \langle a \rangle \times \langle b \rangle.$$

The inclusion $\langle (a, b) \rangle \subseteq \langle a \rangle \times \langle b \rangle$ is obvious. Therefore, equality holds if and only if both sides have the same cardinality. These cardinalities are given by the following formulas ($\text{ord } x$ denotes the additive order of x):

$$|\langle (a, b) \rangle| = \text{lcm}(\text{ord } a, \text{ord } b) = \frac{\text{ord } a \text{ ord } b}{\gcd(\text{ord } a, \text{ord } b)},$$

$$|\langle a \rangle \times \langle b \rangle| = \text{ord } a \text{ ord } b.$$

Equating these two expressions, clearly L spanned by (a, b) in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is an ideal if and only $\gcd(\text{ord } a, \text{ord } b) = 1$. The theorem now follows from the fact that the order of an element c in $(\mathbb{Z}_s, +)$ is given by $s/\gcd(c, s)$. \square

Remark 4.2. When m and n are relatively prime, [Theorem 4.1](#) implies that every line in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is an ideal. This is indeed the case because for relatively prime integers m and n , we have $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \cong \mathbb{Z}_{nm}$.

More generally, the following theorem is true:

Theorem 4.3. *The subgroup generated by the element (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ is an ideal if and only if*

$$\prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \gcd\left(\frac{n_i}{\gcd(a_i, n_i)}, \frac{n_j}{\gcd(a_j, n_j)}\right) = 1.$$

Proof. From the proof of [Theorem 4.1](#), it follows that the subgroup generated by the element (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) in $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ is an ideal if and only if

$$\prod_i \text{ord } a_i = \text{lcm}_i \text{ ord } a_i.$$

Showing that this last equation holds if and only if

$$\prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \gcd(\text{ord } a_i, \text{ord } a_j) = 1$$

can be done as an exercise. Then using the formula mentioned above for the order of an element in \mathbb{Z}_s , we now get the condition given in the statement of the theorem. \square

We now investigate when a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ generated by two elements is an ideal. To this end, the following theorem from group theory, due to Goursat, will be useful. We will also use this theorem in the next section, where we compute some probabilities.

Theorem 4.4 (Goursat [[Petrillo 2011](#)]). *Let G_1 and G_2 be any two groups. There exists a bijection between the set S of all subgroups of $G_1 \times G_2$ and the set T of all 5-tuples $(A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2, \phi)$, where A_i is a subgroup of G_i , B_i is a normal subgroup of A_i , and ϕ is a group isomorphism from A_1/B_1 to A_2/B_2 .*

Let $\pi_i: G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_i$ denote the projection homomorphisms. The desired bijection in this theorem is given as follows. For a subgroup U of $G_1 \times G_2$, we define a 5-tuple $(A_{U_1}, B_{U_1}, A_{U_2}, B_{U_2}, \phi_U)$, where

$$A_{U_1} = \text{Im}(\pi_1|_U),$$

$$B_{U_1} = \pi_1(\ker(\pi_2|_U)),$$

$$A_{U_2} = \text{Im}(\pi_2|_U),$$

$$B_{U_2} = \pi_2(\ker(\pi_1|_U)),$$

$$\phi_U(a_1 B_{U_1}) = a_2 B_{U_2}, \quad \text{when } (a_1, a_2) \in U.$$

Conversely, given a 5-tuple $(A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2, \phi)$, the corresponding subgroup U of $G_1 \times G_2$ is given by

$$U_\phi = \{(a_1, a_2) \in A_1 \times A_2 \mid \phi(a_1 B_1) = a_2 B_2\}.$$

Corollary 4.5. *Let $G_1 \times G_2$ be a finite group and let $(A_{U_1}, B_{U_1}, A_{U_2}, B_{U_2}, \phi_U)$ correspond to the subgroup U of $G_1 \times G_2$. Then we have*

$$|U| = |A_{U_1}| |B_{U_2}|.$$

Proof. It is clear from the correspondence in Goursat's theorem that

$$|U| = |A_{U_1}/B_{U_1}| |B_{U_1}| |B_{U_2}| = |A_{U_1}| |B_{U_2}|. \quad \square$$

Given elements α and β in \mathbb{Z}_n , consider the linear map $\phi_{\alpha,\beta}: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ defined by $\phi_{\alpha,\beta}(x, y) = \alpha x + \beta y$. Then we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4.6. *The subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ generated by (a, b) and (c, d) is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ if and only if*

$$(\ker \phi_{a,c})(\ker \phi_{b,d}) = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}.$$

Proof. Let H denote the subgroup generated by (a, b) and (c, d) in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. Suppose H is an ideal in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. Then there exists α in \mathbb{Z}_n and β in \mathbb{Z}_m such that $H = \langle \alpha \rangle \times \langle \beta \rangle$. Taking projection maps, we can see that $\alpha = \gcd(a, c) \bmod n$ and $\beta = \gcd(b, d) \bmod m$. Thus H is an ideal if and only if

$$\langle (a, b), (c, d) \rangle = \langle \gcd(a, c) \rangle \times \langle \gcd(b, d) \rangle.$$

As in [Theorem 4.1](#), the left-hand side is easily seen to be contained in the right-hand side, and we have equality if and only if both sides have the same cardinality. The cardinality of the right-hand side is $\text{ord}(\gcd(a, c)) \text{ord}(\gcd(b, d))$. The cardinality of the left-hand side can be computed using [Corollary 4.5](#): it is given by $\text{ord}(\gcd(a, c)) |\pi_2(\ker \pi_1|_H)|$. Equating these two expressions, we conclude that H is an ideal if and only if $\text{ord}(\gcd(b, d)) = |\pi_2(\ker \pi_1|_H)|$. The left-hand side of this equation is the cardinality of the set

$$S = \{bx + dy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_m,$$

and the right-hand side is the cardinality of the set

$$T = \{bx + dy \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } ax + cy = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_m.$$

S and T have the same cardinality precisely when the image of $\phi_{b,d}: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m$ is the same as the image of $\phi_{b,d}$ restricted to the kernel of $\phi_{a,c}: \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$. That happens exactly when $\ker(\phi_{a,c})$ intersects every coset in $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} / \ker(\phi_{b,d})$, which is true if and only if $(\ker \phi_{a,c})(\ker \phi_{b,d}) = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$. \square

We can get a finite-type condition that is equivalent to the one in [Theorem 4.6](#). To get this, set $l = \text{lcm}(m, n)$. Then given elements α and β in \mathbb{Z}_n , define the linear map $\psi_{\alpha,\beta}: \mathbb{Z}_l \times \mathbb{Z}_l \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ as $\psi_{\alpha,\beta}(x, y) = \alpha x + \beta y$. We now have the following corollary.

Corollary 4.7. *The subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ generated by (a, b) and (c, d) is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ if and only if*

$$|(\ker \psi_{a,c})(\ker \psi_{b,d})| = nm.$$

Proof. This follows from the proof of the previous theorem. Note that the maps $\phi_{a,c}$ and $\phi_{b,d}$ factor through $\psi_{a,c}$ and $\psi_{b,d}$ respectively. \square

Goursat's theorem for more than two components [[Bauer et al. 2011](#)] has a very complicated structure, and in particular, it is not helpful to solve our problem.

5. Probability that a subgroup is an ideal

As one would expect, the above results suggest that a subgroup of a ring is rarely an ideal. Now we will make this precise by computing explicitly the probability that a randomly chosen subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is an ideal using the approach and results from [[Petrillo 2011](#)]. Let P_R denote the probability that a randomly chosen subgroup of a finite ring R is an ideal. This probability is given by

$$P_R = \frac{\text{total number of ideals in } R}{\text{total number of subgroups in } (R, +)}.$$

Our interest is in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$. If either n or m is 1, then clearly $P_R = 1$. So we will assume that $n > 1$ and $m > 1$. Let $S = \{p_1, \dots, p_k\}$ denote the set of all distinct primes which divide mn . Then the prime factorizations of m and n are

$$m = p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_k^{r_k} \quad \text{and} \quad n = p_1^{s_1} \cdots p_k^{s_k},$$

where the exponents are nonnegative integers, and the Chinese remainder theorem gives the decomposition

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m = (\mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{r_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{s_1}}) \times \cdots \times (\mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{r_k}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{s_k}}).$$

Lemma 5.1.
$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m} = \prod_{i=1}^k P_{\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}}.$$

Proof. This follows from two facts. First, note that every ideal I in $\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m$ is of the form $I = \prod_{i=1}^k I_i$, where I_i is an ideal of the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}$. Next we use a theorem of Suzuki [[1951](#)] that says if G_1 and G_2 are two finite groups with relatively prime orders, then every subgroup of $G_1 \times G_2$ is of the form $H_1 \times H_2$,

where H_i is a subgroup of G_i . In particular, every subgroup H of $(\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m, +)$ is of the form $\prod_{i=1}^k H_i$, where H_i is a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m} &= \frac{\text{total number of ideals in } \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m}{\text{total number of subgroups in } (\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m, +)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{\text{total number of ideals in } \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}}{\text{total number of subgroups in } (\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}, +)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^k P_{\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}}. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

In view of [Lemma 5.1](#), it is enough to compute

$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{r_i}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{s_i}}}.$$

We do this in the next two lemmas, beginning by computing the number of ideals.

Lemma 5.2. *The number of ideals in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^s}$ is equal to $(r + 1)(s + 1)$.*

Proof. Every ideal in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^s}$ is of the form $a\mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times b\mathbb{Z}_{p^s}$, where a is a divisor of p^r and b is a divisor of p^s . This gives $(r + 1)(s + 1)$ for the total number of ideals. □

Next we have to compute the number of subgroups in $\mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^s}$. This number can be obtained using the above-mentioned Goursat’s theorem.

Lemma 5.3 [\[Petrillo 2011\]](#). *The total number of subgroups of $\mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^s}$ ($r \leq s$) is*

$$\frac{p^{r+1}((s - r + 1)(p - 1) + 2) - ((s + r + 3)(p - 1) + 2)}{(p - 1)^2}.$$

Proof sketch. Goursat’s theorem can be greatly simplified in the case under consideration. There is a unique subgroup of order p^k in \mathbb{Z}_{p^r} for any $0 \leq k \leq r$ and these subgroups form a linear chain. Moreover, the group of automorphisms of \mathbb{Z}_{p^k} corresponds to the units in this ring, and we have $p^k - p^{k-1}$ of them. We now have to count the 5-tuples $(A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2, \phi)$ that correspond to subgroups in Goursat’s theorem. If $|A_i/B_i| = 1$, the number of subgroups is $(r + 1)(s + 1)$ because we have $r + 1$ choices for A_1/B_1 and $s + 1$ choices for A_2/B_2 (clearly ϕ is trivial). If $|A_i/B_i| = p^k$ for $1 \leq k \leq r$, we have $r - k + 1$ choices for A_1/B_1 and $s - k + 1$ choices for A_2/B_2 , and finally $p^k - p^{k-1}$ choices for ϕ , so in this case we have $(r - k + 1)(s - k + 1)(p^k - p^{k-1})$ subgroups. In total we have

$$(r + 1)(s + 1) + \sum_{k=1}^r (r - k + 1)(s - k + 1)(p^k - p^{k-1})$$

subgroups. The rest is straightforward algebra; see [\[Petrillo 2011\]](#). □

Combining the above lemmas, we get our formulas for $P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r \times \mathbb{Z}_p^s}$ and $P_{\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m}$.

Theorem 5.4. *Let p be a prime and r, s, n, m be positive integers, with $r \leq s$. Then*

$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r \times \mathbb{Z}_p^s} = \frac{(r+1)(s+1)(p-1)^2}{p^{r+1}((s-r+1)(p-1)+2) - ((s+r+3)(p-1)+2)},$$

$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m} = \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{(r_i+1)(s_i+1)(p_i-1)^2}{p_i^{r_i+1}((|s_i-r_i|+1)(p_i-1)+2) - ((s_i+r_i+3)(p_i-1)+2)}.$$

We now record two special cases, which can be derived from [Theorem 5.4](#) using routine algebra.

Corollary 5.5. *Let p be a prime and let r be a positive integer. Then*

$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r \times \mathbb{Z}_p^r} = \frac{(r+1)^2(p-1)^2}{p^{r+1}(p+1) - 2r(p-1) - 3p+1} \quad \text{and} \quad P_{\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p} = \frac{4}{p+3}.$$

It is clear from the above expressions that these probabilities are small, as expected. For instance, by choosing a large prime, the value of $P_{\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p}$ can be made arbitrarily small. Similarly for a fixed prime p , the numerator of $P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r \times \mathbb{Z}_p^r}$ is a polynomial function in r , whereas the denominator is an exponential function in r . Thus $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r \times \mathbb{Z}_p^r} = 0$.

The main obstruction in generalizing these formulas to the rings $R = \prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}_{n_i}$ is the lack of a closed formula for the number of subgroups in $(\prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}_{p^i}, +)$ when $k \geq 3$. However, when the integers n_i are all square-free, one can compute P_R easily. This is because [Lemma 5.1](#) helps us to reduce the problem of computing P_R to the problem of computing P_S , where $S = \prod_{i=1}^r \mathbb{Z}_p$ for some prime p and positive integer r ($\leq k$). The latter is a vector space over \mathbb{F}_p , where subgroups are same as vector subspaces. The number of subspaces in $(S, +)$ is given by the well-known formula

$$\sum_{i=1}^r \binom{r}{i}_p,$$

where $\binom{r}{i}_p$ is the Gaussian binomial coefficient, which counts the number of i -dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{F}_p^r . Explicitly its value is given by

$$\binom{r}{i}_p = \frac{(p^r-1)(p^r-p)\cdots(p^r-p^{r-1})}{(p^i-1)(p^i-p)\cdots(p^i-p^{i-1})}.$$

Since the number of ideals in S is 2^r , we get this formula:

Proposition 5.6.
$$P_{\mathbb{Z}_p^r} = \frac{2^r}{\sum_{i=1}^r \binom{r}{i}_p}.$$

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