

Lecture 23 Rings and Fields.

Definition A Ring is a nonempty set R with two binary operations $(a, b) \mapsto a + b$ called addition,
 $(a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$ called multiplication.

Both are maps $R \times R \rightarrow R$ (so R is closed under the operations). They must also satisfy:

- (1) $(R, +)$ is an abelian group:
- (2) multiplication is associative $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ ($\forall a, b, c \in R$)
- (3) multiplication distributes over addition: for all $a, b, c \in R$,
 $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$.

- ⊗ That $(R, +)$ be an abelian group means
- Addition is associative and commutative: for all $a, b, c \in R$,
 $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$, $a + b = b + a$.
 - There is an identity element for addition; we use 0 (zero) for this, or 0_R if it may be ambiguous.
 $(\forall a \in R) 0 + a = a = a + 0$
 - There are additive inverses. We use $-a$ for this
 $(\forall a \in R) -a$ exists and $a + (-a) = 0 = (-a) + a$

- ⊗ In our definition, a ring is **not required** to have a multiplicative identity. If there is one, we denote it by 1 or 1_R . It has the property that $(\forall a \in R) (1 \cdot a = a = a \cdot 1)$. We call R a ring with 1 or ring with multiplicative identity.

- ⊗ If R is a ring with 1 , we can ask if multiplicative inverses exist. We write a^{-1} for an element such that $a a^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1} a$, if it exists. If a^{-1} exists, we say a is invertible or a is a unit. We write $R^\times = \{a \in R \mid a^{-1} \text{ exists in } R\}$ for the set of units in R . R^\times is always a group under multiplication.

- ⊗ The multiplication is **not required** to be commutative. If it is ($\forall a, b \in R, a \cdot b = b \cdot a$) then we say R is a commutative ring.

- ⊗ A commutative ring with 1 in which every non zero element is invertible is called a field. If R is a field, then $R^\times = R \setminus \{0\}$. (We require $1 \neq 0$ for a field, so $\{0\}$ is not a field)

Def Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring. A subset $S \subseteq R$ is called a subring if it is closed under $+$ and \cdot and those operations make S into a ring itself.

Examples: $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are fields
 \mathbb{Z}_p is a field if p is prime. $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{[0]\}$

- \mathbb{Z} is a commutative ring with 1 . $\mathbb{Z}^\times = \{1, -1\}$
- \mathbb{Z}_n is a commutative ring with 1 , not a field if n is composite
 $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times = \{[k] \mid \gcd(k, n) = 1\}$
- $n\mathbb{Z} = \{ku \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a commutative ring, but does not have a multiplicative identity (unless $n = \pm 1$)
 $n\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is a subring.

A more exotic ring $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$

It's a subring of \mathbb{R}

$$(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (a' + b'\sqrt{2}) = (a + a') + (b + b')\sqrt{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (a + b\sqrt{2})(a' + b'\sqrt{2}) &= aa' + ab'\sqrt{2} + a'b\sqrt{2} + bb'\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2} \\ &= (aa' + 2bb') + (ab' + a'b)\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \end{aligned}$$

It contains 0 and additive inverses.

In fact $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is a field! It has multiplicative inverses.

$$(a + b\sqrt{2})^{-1} = \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b^2} \quad \text{if } a \text{ and } b \text{ are not both } 0.$$

$$\text{Indeed } \left(\frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b^2} \right) (a + b\sqrt{2}) = \frac{a^2 - (b\sqrt{2})^2}{a^2 - 2b^2} = \frac{a^2 - 2b^2}{a^2 - 2b^2} = 1$$

Note: the denominator $a^2 - 2b^2$ cannot be zero when $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, unless $a = b = 0$. For if $a^2 - 2b^2 = 0$, then $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^2 = 2$. But $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$, and $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

You check: $\mathbb{Q}(i) = \{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is a subfield.
(subring which is a field). $(i^2 = -1)$

General construction: Let R be a ring, S any set.

then $R^S = \{f: S \rightarrow R\}$, the set of all functions $S \rightarrow R$ is a ring, with operations, for $f, g \in R^S$

$$(f + g)(s) = f(s) + g(s) \quad (f \cdot g)(s) = f(s) \cdot g(s)$$

\uparrow addition in R
 \uparrow multiplication in R .

We can also consider functions with some property.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subset. Let $C(S, \mathbb{R}) = \{f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$
 then $C(S, \mathbb{R}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^S$ is a subring.

Instead of continuous functions, we may simply consider polynomials.
 This can actually be done completely abstractly, for any "coefficient ring"

Let R be a commutative ring. Polynomials over R in the variable x

is the ring

$$R[x] = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^N a_i x^i \mid N \geq 0, a_i \in R \text{ for } i=0, 1, \dots, N \right\}$$

Note that x is just a symbol (it need not have any interpretation)

The addition is defined to be

$$\sum_{i=0}^N a_i x^i + \sum_{j=0}^M b_j x^j = \sum_{i=0}^{\max(N, M)} (a_i + b_i) x^i \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{set } a_i = 0 \text{ if } i > N \\ b_i = 0 \text{ if } i > M \end{array} \right.$$

The multiplication is defined to be

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^N a_i x^i \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^M b_j x^j \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N+M} \left(\sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i} \right) x^k$$

If R has 1, so does $R[x]$.

Can also consider more variables $R[x, y]$ $R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$

Polynomials over a field

Let K be a field ($\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}_p, \dots$), and let $K[x]$ be the ring of polynomials in the variable x over K .

A general element $f \in K[x]$ is a polynomial

$$f = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n x^n = a_N x^N + a_{N-1} x^{N-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

where the coefficients a_n are elements of K .

Def: The degree of f , $\deg(f)$ is the greatest n such that $a_n \neq 0$. Then a_n is called the leading coefficient

Ex: $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ $f = e^2 x^4 + \pi x + 2$:
 $\deg(f) = 4$ leading coefficient = $e^2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Convention: when some terms aren't written, it means the corresponding coefficient is zero: $f = e^2 x^4 + \pi x + 2 = e^2 x^4 + 0 \cdot x^3 + 0 \cdot x^2 + \pi \cdot x + 2$
 $a_4 = e^2$ $a_3 = 0$ $a_2 = 0$ $a_1 = \pi$ $a_0 = 2$

At the other extreme, the term a_0 is called the constant term. We can regard the field K as a subring of $K[x]$ consisting of polynomials that have only a constant term. We write $K \subseteq K[x]$.

The zero polynomial $f = 0$ has no nonzero coefficients, so technically its degree is undefined. But it is useful to make the convention that $\deg(0) = -\infty$.

Proposition: If $f, g \in K[x]$, $f \neq 0, g \neq 0$, then

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \deg(f+g) \leq \max(\deg(f), \deg(g))$$

and equality holds if $\deg(f) \neq \deg(g)$.

Proof of ①: let $f = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n x^n$, $g = \sum_{m=0}^M b_m x^m$, with $N = \deg(f), M = \deg(g)$

So the leading coefficients are $a_N \neq 0$ and $b_M \neq 0$.

$$\text{Then } fg = \sum_{k=0}^{N+M} \left(\sum_{n=0}^k a_n b_{k-n} \right) x^k$$

$$\text{the } k=N+M \text{ coefficient } \sum_{n=0}^{N+M} a_n b_{(N-n)+M} = a_N b_M$$

since $a_n = 0$ for $n > N$ and $b_{(N-n)+M} = 0$ for $n < N$

in other words, the highest power of x that can appear in fg is x^{N+M} , and the coefficient is $a_N b_M$.

Since $a_N \neq 0$ and $b_M \neq 0$, and K is a field, $a_N b_M \neq 0$.

So $\deg(fg) = N+M = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$

[In any field K , $0 \cdot a = 0$ for all $a \in K$:

$$\text{Proof: } 1 \cdot a = (0+1) \cdot a = 0 \cdot a + 1 \cdot a \quad (\text{distributive law})$$

$$a = 0 \cdot a + a \quad (\text{multiplicative identity})$$

$$0 = 0 \cdot a \quad (\text{since } (K, +) \text{ is a group, we have cancellation law for addition})$$

In a field K , if $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$, then $a \cdot b \neq 0$.

Proof: If $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$, but $a \cdot b = 0$, then multiply

$$\text{by } b^{-1}: \quad a b b^{-1} = 0 \cdot b^{-1} = 0$$

$$a \cdot 1 = 0$$

$$a = 0 \quad \text{contradiction.}$$

Proof of ②: Exercise.