Chapter 11: Rings

11.1: Definition of a Ring

• Ring: A ring R is a set with two laws of composition + and \times , called addition and multiplication, that satisfy these axioms:

- (a) With the law of composition +, R is an abelian group that we denote by R^+ ; its identity is denoted by 0.
- (b) Multiplication is commutative and associative, and has an identity denoted by 1.
- (c) Distributive law: For all a, b and c in R, (a + b)c = ac + bc.
- Subring: Subset which is closed under addition, subtraction, multiplication and which contains 1.
- Non-commutative Ring: Satisfies all of the above axioms, except for the commutative law for multiplication.
- Gauss integers: The complex numbers of the form a + bi where a and b are integers form a subring of \mathbb{C} that we denote by $\mathbb{Z}[i] = \{a + bi \mid b, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Its elements are points of a square lattice in the complex plane.
 - $-\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ subring: Contains every complex number $\beta = a_n \alpha^n + \cdots + a_1 \alpha + a_0$ where a_i are in \mathbb{Z} and α is a complex number.
 - * Analogous to the ring of Gauss integers.
 - * Subring generated by α
 - * Usually not represented as a lattice in the complex plane
- A complex number α is **algebraic** if it is a root of a (nonzero) polynomial with integer coefficients (i.e. if some expression of the form $a_n\alpha^n + \cdots + a_1\alpha + a_0$ evaluates to 0)
 - When α is algebraic there will be many polynomial expressions that represent the same complex number.
- If there is no polynomial with integer coefficients having α as a root, α is **transcendental**
 - When α is transcendental, two distinct polynomial expressions represent distinct complex numbers, and the elements of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ correspond bijectively to polynomials p(x) with integer coefficients.
- A polynomial in x with coefficients in a ring R is an expression of the form

$$a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

with a_i in R.

- **Zero Ring**: A ring containing only the element 0.
 - A ring R in which the elements 1 and 0 are equal is the zero ring.
- Unit: A *unit* of a ring is an element that has a multiplicative inverse (if it exists, it is unique)
 - Units in the ring of integers are 1 and -1
 - Units in the ring of Gauss integers are ± 1 and $\pm i$
 - Units in the ring $\mathbb{R}[x]$ of real polynomials are the nonzero constant polynomials
 - The identity element 1 of a ring is always a unit

11.2: Polynomial Rings

- Formal Polynomial: A polynomial with coefficients in a ring R is a (finite) linear combination of powers of the variable: $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ where the coefficients a_i are elements of R.
 - The set of polynomials with coefficients in a ring R will be denoted R[x]
 - Thus $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is the set of integer polynomials
- The monomials x^i are considered independent, so if \exists another polynomial with coefficients in R, then f(x) = g(x) only if $a_i = b_i$ for all i = 0, 1, 2, ...
- **Degree**: The *degree* of a nonzero polynomial (denoted deg f) is the largest integer n such that the coefficient a_n of x_n is not zero
 - A polynomial of degree zero is called a *constant* polynomial
 - The zero polynomial is also a constant polynomial, but its degree will not be defined
- Leading Coefficient: The nonzero coefficient of highest degree of a polynomial
 - Monic Polynomial: Polynomial with a leading coefficient of 1
- A polynomial is determined by its vector of coefficients a_i : $a = (a_0, a_1, ...)$ where a_i are elements of R, all but a finite number zero.
- When R is a field, these infinite vectors form the vector space Z with the infinite basis e_i . The vector e_i corresponds to the monomial x_i , and the monomials form a basis of the space of all polynomials.

• Addition of polynomials: $f(x) + g(x) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + ...$ where $(a_i + b_i)$ is addition in R

- Multiplication of polynomials: $f(x)g(x) = (a_0 + a_1x + ...)(b_0 + b_1x + ...)$ where a_ib_j are to be evaluated in the ring R.
- There is a unique commutative ring structure on the set of polynomials R[x] having these properties:
 - Additions of polynomials as defined above
 - Multiplication of polynomials as defined above
 - The ring R becomes a subring of R[x] when the elements of R are identifies with the constant polynomials
- Division with Remainder: Let R be a ring, f is a monic polynomial, and g is any polynomial, both with coefficients in R. There are uniquely determined polynomials q and r in R[x] s.t. g(x) = f(x)g(x) + r(x) where r has degree ≥ 0 and $\leq f$
 - Division with remainder can be done whenever the leading coefficient of f is a unit
 - If g(x) is a polynomial in R[x] and α is an element of R, the remainder of division of g(x) by $x \alpha$ is $g(\alpha)$. Thus $x \alpha$ divides g in R[x] iff $g(\alpha) = 0$
- Monomial: a formal product of some variables $x_1, ..., x_n$ of the form

$$x_1^{i_1}x_2^{i_2}...x_n^{i_n}$$

where i_v are non-negative integers.

- **Degree**: the sum $i_1 + \cdots + i_n$, sometimes called *total degree*
- **Multi-index**: an *n*-tuple that can be represented with vector notation e.g. $i = (i_1, \dots i_n)$.
- A monomial can be written as $x^i = (x_1^{i_1} x_2^{i_2} \cdots x_n^{i_n})$ using multi-index form
- The monomial x^0 is denoted by 1
- With multi-index notation, a polynomial $f(x) = f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ can be written in exactly one way in the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{i} a_i x^i$$

where i runs through all multi-indices $(i_1, ..., i_n)$, the coefficients a_i are in R and only finitely many of these coefficients are not 0.

 \bullet Homogeneous Polynomial: A polynomial in which all monomials with nonzero coefficients have degree d

11.3: Homomorphisms and Ideals

• Ring Homomorphism: A ring homomorphism $\phi: R \to R'$ is a map from one ring to another which is compatible with the laws of composition and which carries the unit element 1 of R to the unit element 1 of R' - a map such that for all a and b in R,

$$\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b), \quad \phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b), \quad and \quad \phi(1) = 1$$

- The map $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{F}_p$ that send an integer to its congruence class modulo p is a ring homomorphism.
- Isomorphism: An isomorphism of rings is a bijective homomorphism, denoted $R \approx R'$
- Evaluation of real polynomials at a real number a defines a homomorphism

$$\mathbb{R}[x] \to \mathbb{R}$$
, that sends $p(x) \leadsto p(a)$

- Substitution Principle: Let $\phi: R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism, and let R[x] be the ring of polynomials with coefficients in R.
 - (a) Let α be an element of R'. There is a unique homomorphism $\Phi: R[x] \to R'$ that agrees with the map ϕ on constant polynomials, and that send $x \rightsquigarrow a$
 - (b) Given elements $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ of R', there is a unique homomorphism $\Phi : R[x_1, ..., x_n] \to R'$, from the polynomial ring in n variables to R', that agrees with ϕ on constant polynomials and that send $x_v \leadsto \alpha_v$, for v = 1, ..., n.
- Let R be any ring, and let P be the polynomial ring R[x]. One can use the substitution principle to construct an isomorphism

$$R[x,y] \to P[y] = (R[x])[y]$$

This statement is a formalization of the procedure of collecting terms of like degree in y in a polynomial f(x, y). For example:

$$x^{4}y + x^{3} - 3x^{2}y + y^{2} + 2 = y^{2} + (x^{4} - 3x^{2})y + (x^{3} + 2)$$

- Let $x = (x_1, ..., x_m)$ and $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$ denote sets of variables. There is a unique isomorphism $R[x, y] \to R[x][y]$, which is the identity on R and sends the variables to themselves.
- Let f(x,y) and g(x,y) be polynomials in two variables, elements of R[x,y]. Suppose that f is a monic polynomial of degree m (grouped by y). There are uniquely determined polynomials q(x,y) and r(x,y) such that g = fq + r and $0 \le r(x,y) < m$

- There is exactly one homomorphism $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$, defined for $n \ge 0$ where $\phi(n) = 1 + \cdots + 1$ (for n terms) and $\phi(-n) = -\phi(n)$
- **Kernel**: The *kernel* of ϕ is the set of elements R that map to zero:

$$\ker \phi = \{ s \in R \mid \phi(s) = 0 \}$$

- If s is in $ker\phi$, then for every element r of R, rs is in $ker\phi$
- Ideal: An ideal I of a ring R is a nonempty subset of R with these properties:
 - (a) I is closed under addition, and
 - (b) If s is in I and r is in R, then rs is in I
 - **Principal Ideal**: The ideal formed by multiples of a particular element a, also defined as:

$$(a) - aR = Ra = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$$

- Unit Ideal: The ring R is the principal ideal (1), and is called the unit ideal
- **Zero Ideal**: The principal ideal (0)
- Proper Ideal: An ideal that is neither the unit or zero ideal
- The kernel of a ring homomorphism is an ideal
- An ideal is not a subring unless the ideal I is equal to the whole ring R
- The ideal generated by a set of elements $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ of a ring R is the smallest ideal that contains those elements. This ideal is often denoted as $(a_1, ..., a_n)$:

$$(a_1, ..., a_n) = \{r_1 a_1 + \cdots + r_n a_n \mid r_i \in R\}$$

- The only ideals of a field are the zero ideal and the unit ideal
- A ring that has exactly two ideals is a field
- Every homomorphism $\phi: F \to R$ from a field F to a nonzero ring R is injective
- The ideals in the ring of integers are the subgroups of \mathbb{Z}^+ , and they are principal ideals
- Every ideal in the ring F[x] of polynomials in one variable x over a field F is a principal ideal. A nonzero ideal I in F[x] is generated by the unique monic polynomial of lower degree that it contains.
- Let f be a monic integer polynomial, and let g be another integer polynomial. If $f \mid g$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $f \mid g$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$

• Greatest Common Divisor: Let R denote the polynomial ring F[x] in one variable over a field F, and let f and g be elements of R, not both zero. Their greatest common divisor d(x) is the unique monic polynomials that generates the ideal (f,g). It has these properties:

- (a) Rd = Rf + Rg
- (b) d divides f and g
- (c) If a polynomial e = e(x) divides both f and g, it also divides d
- (d) There are polynomials p and q such that d = pf + qg
- Characteristic: The non-negative integer n that generates the kernel of the homomorphism $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \to R$
 - 1. If n = 0, this means that no positive multiple of 1 in R is equal to zero. Otherwise n is the smallest positive integer s.t. "n times 1" is zero in R

11.4: Quotient Rings

- Let I be an ideal of a ring R. There is a unique ring structure on the set \bar{R} (R/I) of additive cosets of I such that the map $\pi: R \to \bar{R}$ that send $a \leadsto \bar{a} = [a+I]$ (the coset generated with the subgroup I) is a ring homomorphism. The kernel of π is I.
 - Canonical Map: π
 - Quotient Ring: \bar{R}
 - **Residue**: The image \bar{a} of a
- Mapping Property of Quotient Rings: Let $f: R \to R'$ be a ring homomorphism with kernel K and let I be another ideal. Let $\pi: R \to \bar{R}$ be the canonical map from R to $\bar{R} = R/I$
 - (a) If $I \subset K$, there is a unique homomorphism $\bar{f}: \bar{R} \to R'$ such that $\bar{f}\pi = f: R \to R/I \to R'$.
 - (b) First Isomorphism Theorem: If f is onto and I = K, is an isomorphism.
- Correspondence Theorem: Let $\phi: R \to \mathcal{R}$ be an onto ring homomorphism with kernel K. There is a bijective correspondence between the set of all ideals of \mathcal{R} and the set of ideals of R that contain K. It is defined as follows:
 - If I is an ideal of R and of $K \subset I$, the corresponding ideal of \mathcal{R} is $\phi(I)$
 - If \mathcal{I} is am ideal of \mathcal{R} , the corresponding ideal of R is $\phi^{-1}(\mathcal{I})$
- Of the ideal I of R corresponds to the ideal \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{R} , the quotient rings R/I and \mathcal{R}/\mathcal{I} are naturally isomorphic.

- The image of a subgroup is a subgroup
- We reinterpret the quotient ring construction when the ideal is principal (I = (a)). In this situation, $\bar{R} = R/I$ as the "killing" of a by imposing the relation a = 0 on R
 - Imposing the relation a = 0 on R forces us to set b = b + ra for all b, r in R
 - Two elements b and b' of R have the same image in \bar{R} iff b' had the form $b+r_1a_1+\cdots+r_na_n$ for some $r_i\in R$

11.5: Adjoining Elements

- Ring Extension: A ring that contains another ring as a subring
- Adjoining an Element to a Ring: We want to adjoin an element α to a ring R and we want α to satisfy the polynomial relation f(x) = 0, where

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_i x + a_0$$
 with $a_i \in R$

The solution is R' = R[x]/(f) where (f) is the principal ideal of R[x] generated by f.

• We let α denote the residue \bar{x} of x in R'. Then because the map $\pi: R[x] \to R[x]/(f)$ is a homomorphism,

$$\pi(f(x)) = \overline{f(x)} = \overline{a_n}\alpha^n + \dots + \overline{a_0} = 0$$

Where \bar{a}_i is the image in R' of the constant polynomial a_i . So α satisfies the relation $f(\alpha) = 0$

- Let R be a ring, and let f(x) be a monic polynomial of positive degree n with coefficients in R. Let $R[\alpha]$ denote the ring R[x]/(f) obtained by adjoining an element satisfying the relation $f(\alpha) = 0$:
 - (a) The set $(1, \alpha, ..., \alpha^{n-1})$ is a *basis* of $R[\alpha]$ over R: every element of $R[\alpha]$ can be written uniquely as a linear combination of this basis, with coefficients in R.
 - (b) Addition of two linear combination is vector addition
 - (c) Multiplication of linear combinations is as follows: Let β_1 and β_2 be elements of $R[\alpha]$, and let $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$ be polynomials s.t. $\beta_1 = g_1(\alpha)$ and $\beta_2 = g_2(\alpha)$. One divides the product polynomial g_1g_2 by f, say $g_1g_2 = fq + r$, where the remainder $0 \le r(x) < n$. Then $\beta_1\beta_2 = r(\alpha)$.
- Let f be a *monic* polynomial of degree n in a polynomial ring R[x]. Every nonzero element of (f) has degree of at least n.

• The kernel of ψ (homomorphism that takes $R \to R'$ by restricting the canonical map π to just the constant polynomials in R[x]) is the set of constant polynomials in the ideal:

$$\ker \psi = R \cap (f)$$

ker ψ will likely be zero because f will have positive degree, and we would need to make a polynomial multiple of f have degree zero.

11.6: Product Rings

- Product Ring: Let R and R' be rings.
 - (a) The product set $R \times R'$ is a ring called the *product ring*, with component-wise addition and multiplication.
 - (b) The additive and multiplicative identities are (0,0) and (1,1).
 - (c) The projections $\pi: R \times R' \to R$ and $\pi': R \times R' \to R'$ defined by $\pi(x, x') = x$ and $\pi'(x, x') = x'$ are ring homomorphisms. The kernels are the ideals $\{0\} \times R'$ and $R \times \{0\}$ of $R \times R'$.
 - (d) The kernel of π' is a ring with multiplicative identity e = (1,0). It is not a subring of of $R \times R'$ unless R' is the zero ring. The same holds for the kernel of π , but the identity is (0,1).
- To see if a ring is isomorphic to a product ring, you must find the elements that would be (0,1) and (1,0). These elements are idempotent.
- **Idempotent**: An element e is *idempotent* if $e^2 = e$
- Let e be an idempotent element of the ring S.
 - (a) The element e' = 1 e is also idempotent, e + e' = 1 and ee' = 0
 - (b) The principal ideal eS is a ring with identity element e and multiplication by e defines a ring homomorphism $S \to eS$
 - (c) The ideal eS is not a subring of S unless e is the unit element 1 of S and e' = 0
 - (d) The ring S is isomorphic to the product ring $eS \times e'S$

11.7: Fractions

- Integral Domain: A ring R that is not the zero ring, and if a and b are elements of R whose product ab is zero, then a = 0 or b = 0
 - Any subring of a field is a domain, and if R is a domain, the polynomial ring R[x] is also a domain.

• **Zero Divisor**: An element a of a ring that is nonzero and there is another nonzero element b such that ab = 0

- Cancellation Law: If ab = ac and $a \neq 0$ then b = c
 - Integral domains satisfy this law
- Let F be the set of equivalence classes of fractions of elements of an integral domain R
 - (a) F is a field, called the fraction field of R
 - (b) R embeds as a subring of F by the rule $a \rightsquigarrow a/1$
 - (c) If R is embedded as a subring of another field \mathcal{F} , the rule $a/b = ab^{-1}$ embeds F into \mathcal{F} too (mapping property)
- Mapping Property: Say the embedding of R into \mathcal{F} is given by the injective ring homomorphism $\phi: R \to \mathcal{F}$. The mapping property states that the rule $\Phi(a/b) = \phi(a)\phi(b)^{-1}$ extends ϕ to an injective homomorphism $\Phi: F \to \mathcal{F}$
- Rational Function: A fraction of polynomials
- Field of Rational Function in x: Fractional field of the polynomial ring K[x] where K is a field and coefficients are in K. This field is usually denoted K(x):

$$K(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{equivalence classes of fractions } f/g, \text{ where } f \text{ and } g \\ \text{are polynomials, and } g \text{ is not the zero polynomial} \end{array} \right\}$$

11.8: Maximal Ideals

- Let $\phi: R \to F$ where R is a ring and F is a field. F has two ideals, the zero ideal (0) and the unit ideal (1). The inverse image of the zero ideal is the kernel I of ϕ and the inverse image of the unit ideal is the unit ideal of R. Based on the Correspondence Theorem, we know that the only ideals of R that contain I are I and R. This means that I is called the $maximal\ ideal$.
- Maximal Ideal: A maximal ideal M of a ring R is an ideal that isn't equal to R and isn't contained in any ideal other than M and R. If an ideal I contains M, then $I = M \lor I = R$.
- Let $\phi: R \to R'$ be a surjective ring homomorphism with kernel I
 - (a) The image R' is a field iff I is a maximal ideal
 - (b) An ideal I of a ring R is maximal iff $\bar{R} = R/I$ is a field
 - (c) The zero ideal of a ring R is a maximal iff R is a field

• The maximal ideals of the ring \mathbb{Z} of integers are the principal ideals generated by prime numbers

- Irreducible polynomial: A polynomial with coefficients in a field that is not constant and not the product of two polynomials (both of which are not constant)
- \bullet Let F be a field
 - (a) The maximal ideals of F[x] are the principal ideals generated by the monic irreducible polynomials
 - (b) Let $\phi: F[x] \to R'$ be a homomorphism to an integral domain R', and let P be the kernel of ϕ . Either P is a maximal ideal, or P = (0).
- **Hilbert's Nullstellensatz**: The maximal ideals of the polynomial ring $\mathbb{C}[x_1,...,x_n]$ are in bijective correspondence with points of complex *n*-dimensional space. A point $a = (a_1,...,a_n)$ of \mathbb{C}^n corresponds to the kernel M_a of the substitution map $s_a : \mathbb{C}[x] \to \mathbb{C}$ that sends $x \leadsto a$. It is the principal ideal generated by the linear polynomial x a.
- Let R be a ring that contains the complex number \mathbb{C} as a subring.
 - (a) The laws of composition on R can be used to make R into a complex vector space.
 - (b) As a vector space, the field $\mathcal{F} = \mathbb{C}[x_1, ..., x_n]/M$ is spanned by a countable set of elements.
 - (c) Let V be a vector space over a field, and suppose that V is spanned by a countable set of vectors.
 - (d) When $\mathbb{C}(x)$ is made into a vector space over \mathbb{C} , the uncountable set of rational functions $(x \alpha)^{-1}$ with α in \mathbb{C} is independent.

Chapter 11 Exercises

Problem 11.1.1: Prove that $7 + \sqrt[3]{2}$ and $\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{-5}$ are algebraic numbers

Proof. We need to show that they are roots of a nonzero polynomial with integer coefficients. We can show that $(7+\sqrt[3]{2})^3-21(7+\sqrt[3]{2})^2+147(7+\sqrt[3]{2})-345=0$. This means it can be represented as the root of a polynomial, namely, $x^3-21x^2+147x-345$. For $\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{-5}$, let $x=\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{-5}$.

$$x^{2} = (\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{-5})(\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{-5})$$

$$x^{2} = 3 + 2\sqrt{-15} - 5$$

$$x^{2} = 2\sqrt{-15} - 2$$

$$x^{2} + 2 = 2\sqrt{-15}$$

$$(x^{2} + 2)^{2} = -60$$

$$(x^{2} + 2)^{2} + 60 = 0$$

This means that $\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{-5}$ can be represented as the root of a polynomial.

Problem 11.1.3: Let $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$ denote the smallest subring of \mathbb{C} containing the rational numbers \mathbb{Q} and the elements $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$ and $\beta = \sqrt{2}$. Let $\gamma = \alpha + \beta$. Is $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$? Is $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Z}[\gamma]$?

Proof. $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$. To show this, we need to show that $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$. By definition of a subring, we know that $(\alpha + \beta) \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$, so we know that $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$. Now we need to show that α and β are in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$. Since $\gamma = \alpha + \beta$, we know that $\gamma^3 = 11\alpha + 9\beta$ is also in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$.

$$\gamma^3 - 9\gamma = 2\alpha$$
$$\frac{1}{2} [\gamma^3 - 9\gamma] = \alpha$$

Since $\frac{1}{2}$ is in \mathbb{Q} , we know that α is in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$. A similar argument can be made to show that β is in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$. Since we have shown that α and β are in $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$, we know that $\mathbb{Q}[\gamma] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta]$, $\therefore \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \beta] = \mathbb{Q}[\gamma]$.

 $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta] \neq \mathbb{Z}[\gamma]$, but I don't know how to prove it. My intuition is that the difference between the two coefficients in a $x\alpha + y\beta$ term will never be 1, and we aren't able to use fractions, so we'll never be able to get α or β on its own.

Problem 11.1.6: Decide whether or not S is a subring of R, when

(a) S is the set of all rational numbers a/b, where b is not divisible by 2, and $R=\mathbb{Q}$

	<i>Proof.</i> S is closed under multiplication because if we multiply $\frac{a}{b}\frac{c}{d}$, we get $\frac{ac}{bd}$, we know there is no 3 to factor out of the denominator by definition. S is clumder addition because $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+cb}{bd}$, where again, a 3 cannot be factored out of denominator. A similar argument can be made for subtraction (since the denominator is the same). S obviously contains 1 ($\frac{1}{1}$), so S is a subring of \mathbb{Q} .	osed f the		
(b)	S is the set of functions which are linear combinations with integer coefficients of functions 1, $\cos nt$, $\sin nt$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and R is the set of all real valued functions of t			
	<i>Proof.</i> S is not a subring of R because it is not closed under multiplication. $sin(x)ca$ $\frac{1}{2}sin(2x)$. Since you can't write this as a linear combination of the other funct you know that it is not in R and S is not closed under multiplication.			
Prob	olem 11.1.7			
(a)	Proof.			
(b)	Proof.			
Prob	olem 11.1.8			
Proof	f.			
Problem 11.2.2				
Proof	f.			
Problem 11.3.1				
Proof	f.			
Problem 11.3.2				
Proof	f.			
Prob	blem 11.3.3			
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	blem 11.3.5			
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	blem 11.3.6			
Proof				
Prob	blem 11.3.7			

Algebra	Notes
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Problem 11.3.8	
Proof.	
Problem 11.3.9	
Proof.	
Problem 11.4.1	
Proof.	
Problem 11.4.2	
Proof.	
Problem 11.5.1	
Proof.	
Problem 11.5.2	
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Problem 11.5.3	
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Problem 11.5.6	
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Problem 11.5.7	
Proof.	
Problem 11.6.2	
Proof.	
Problem 11.6.2	
Proof.	
Problem 11.6.8	
Proof.	
Problem 11.7.1	
Proof.	

Algebra	Notes
Problem 11.7.2	
Proof.	
Problem 11.7.5	
Proof.	
Problem 11.8.1	
Proof.	
Problem 11.8.2	
Proof.	
Problem 11.8.4	
Proof.	
Problem 11.9.1	
Proof.	
Problem 11.9.2	
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Problem 11.9.3	
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Problem 11.9.4	
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Problem 11.9.5	
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Problem 11.9.6	
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Problem 11.9.9	
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Algebra	Notes
Proof.	
Problem 11.9.12	
Proof.	
Problem 11.9.12	
Proof.	
Problem 11.M.1	
Proof.	
Problem 11.M.2	
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Problem 11.M.3	
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Problem 11.M.5	
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Problem 11.M.6	
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