Algebra II: Introduction to Rings

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1 Basic Definitions

- $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring if:
 - 1. R is an abelian group with respect to +.
 - 2. $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.
 - 3. $a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.
 - 4. $(b+c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.
- R is a commutative ring if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all $a, b \in R$.
- R is said to have an identity if there exists $1 \in R$ such that $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in R$. In such a case R is also called a ring with unity.
- A ring R with identity 1, where $1 \neq 0$, is called a division ring or a skew field if for all $a \neq 0$, $a \in R$, there exists $b \in R$ such that $a \cdot b = b \cdot a = 1$.
- Trivial rings are those obtained by taking any abelian group and letting $a \cdot b = 0$ for all $a, b \in R$. The simplest example is the zero ring, $\{0\}$. Trivial rings are commutative.
- Let R be a ring. Then:
 - 1. $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$. Proof: $a \cdot 0 = a \cdot (0 + 0) = a \cdot +a \cdot 0$. So $a \cdot 0 = 0$.
 - 2. $(-a) \cdot b = a \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot b)$, for all $a, b \in R$. Proof: $a \cdot b + (-a) \cdot b = b \cdot (a + (-a)) = b \cdot 0 = 0$. So $(-a) \cdot b = -(a \cdot b)$.
 - 3. $(-a) \cdot (-b) = ab$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Proof: $(-a) \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot (-b)) = -(-(a \cdot b)) = a \cdot b$.
 - 4. If R has an identity 1, then that identity is unique and $-a = (-1) \cdot a$. Proof: Suppose there exists another identity $\psi \in R$. Then $\psi \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot \psi = \psi = 1$. $a + (-1) \cdot a = a \cdot (1 + (-1)) = a \cdot 0 = 0$. So $-a = (-1) \cdot a$.
- $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$ is called a zero divisor if there exists $b \in R$ such that ab = 0 or ba = 0.
- Let R have an identity $1 \neq 0$. $u \in R$ is called a unit in R if there exists $v \in R$ such that uv = vu = 1.
- The set of all units in a ring R is a group under multiplication. It is denoted R^{\times} .
- If u is a unit in R, then so is -u. Proof: There exists $v \in R$ such that uv = vu = 1. Then (-u)(-v) = uv = 1.
- Let R be a ring with identity and let S be a subring of R such that $1 \in S$. If u is a unit in S then u is a unit in R. The converse is not necessarily true. Proof: Let u be a unit in S. Then there exists $v \in S$ such that uv = 1. Since $u, v \in S$, $u, v \in R$ and thus u is a unit in R. Consider \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{Z} . \mathbb{Z} is a subring of \mathbb{R} . 2 is a unit in \mathbb{R} but not in \mathbb{Z} .
- A zero divisor cannot be a unit. Proof: Suppose a is a unit in R and that ab = 0 for some $b \in R$, $b \neq 0$. Then va = 1 for some $v \in R$, so b = 1b = vab = v(ab) = v0 = 0, which is a contradiction. Similarly, if ba = 0 then a cannot be a unit.
- If $\overline{a} \neq \overline{0}$ and $\gcd(a,n) \neq 1$, then \overline{a} is a zero divisor in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a,n)$ and let $b = \frac{n}{d}$. d > 1 so 0 < b < n and thus $\overline{b} \neq \overline{0}$. But since $\frac{ab}{bd} = \frac{a}{d}$, $n \mid ab$ and so $\overline{ab} = \overline{0}$. Thus \overline{a} is a zero divisor.

- A field is a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$ where every nonzero element is a unit.
- A commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$ is called an integral domain if it has no zero divisors.
- Suppose a, b, c belong to a ring R such that a is not a zero divisor and ab = ac. Then, either a = 0 or b = c. In particular, if R is an integral domain, then a = 0 or b = c. Proof: If ab = ac then a(b-c) = 0. Since a is not a zero divisor, a = 0 or b c = 0. The second part follows from the definition of an integral domain.
- Any finite integral domain is a field. Proof: Let R be a finite integral domain and let $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$. By the cancellation law, the map $f: R \to R$, f(x) = ax is an injective function. Since R is finite this map is also surjective. So there exists some $b \in R$ such that ab = 1, thus a is a unit. \blacksquare
- \bullet A subring of R is a subgroup of R that is closed under multiplication.
- To check that $S \subset R$ is a subring of R, it suffices to check that $S \neq \phi$ and that S is closed under subtraction and multiplication.
- Let $\{S_i\}$ be a nonempty collection of subrings of R. Then $\bigcap_i S_i$ is also a subring of R. Proof: Every subring of R must contain 0, so $\bigcap_i S_i$ is nonempty. Suppose $a, b \in \bigcap_i S_i$. Then $a, b \in S_i$ for all i, so a b, $ab \in S_i$ for all i.
- The center of a ring R is the set of all elements that commute with every element of R, i.e, $\{z \in R : zr = rz, \ \forall r \in R\}.$
- The center of a ring R is a subring of R. Proof: Let the center of R be denoted by C. 0r = r0 = 0 for all $r \in R$ so $0 \in C$. Suppose $a, b \in C$. Then (a b)r = ar br = ra + (-1)br = ra + (-1)rb = ra rb = r(a b) for all $r \in R$. So $a b \in C$. Also, abr = arb = rab for all $r \in R$. Thus $ab \in C$. ■
- The center of a division ring is a field. Proof: Let R be a division ring and let C be the center of R. Every nonzero element in R is a unit so the same is true for C. 1r = r1 = r for all $r \in R$ so $1 \in C$. C is commutative by definition. Therefore C is a field.
- Any subring of a field which contains 1 is an integral domain. *Proof:* Let F be a field and let $S \subset F$ be a subring of F such that $1 \in S$. Since F is commutative, so is S. Every nonzero element in F is a unit in F, and a unit cannot be a zero divisor, so S has no zero divisors. Thus S is an integral domain. \blacksquare
- An element $x \in R$ is called nilpotent if $x^m = 0$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- Let x be a nilpotent element of a commutative ring R. Then,
 - 1. x is either 0 or a zero divisor. Proof: Suppose $x \neq 0$ and $x^n = 0$, where n is the smallest such integer. Then $xx^{n-1} = 0$, where $x^{n-1} \neq 0$. So x is a zero divisor. Now suppose that x is not a zero divisor and $x^n = 0$ and n is the smallest such integer. Then $xx^{n-1} = 0$ where $x^{n-1} \neq 0$. If $x \neq 0$ then x would be a zero divisor, which is a contradiction. So x = 0.
 - 2. rx is nilpotent for all $r \in R$. Proof: Suppose $x^n = 0$. Then $(rx)^n = r^n x^n = r^n 0 = 0$. So rx is nilpotent.
 - 3. 1 + x is a unit in R. Proof: Suppose $x^k = 0$, where k is the smallest such integer. Then $(1 x)(1 x + x^2 x^3 + ... + (-1)^k x^{k+1}) = 1 + (-1)^k x^{k+1} = 1 + 0 = 1$.
 - 4. If u is a unit, then u + x is a unit. Proof: Suppose $x^k = 0$, where k is the smallest such integer and uv = vu = 1. Then (u + x)v = 1 + vx. Since vx is nilpotent, 1 + vx is a unit. So u + x = u(1 + vx). Since the set of all units is closed under multiplication, u + x is a unit.
- A ring R is called a Boolean ring if $a^2 = a$ for all $a \in R$.
- Every Boolean ring is commutative. *Proof:* Let $a, b \in R$, where R is a boolean ring. First we show that every element in a Boolean ring is its own additive inverse. $(a + a) = (a + a)^2 = a^2 + 2a^2 + a^2 = (a + a) + (a + a) \implies a + a = 0$. Now, $a + b = (a + b)^2 = a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 = (a + b) + (ab + ba) \implies ab = -ba = ba$.

2 Polynomial Rings, Matrix Rings, Group Rings

3 Ring Homomorphisms and Quotient Rings

- Let R and S be rings. A ring homomorphism is a map $\gamma: R \to S$ such that $\gamma(a+b) = \gamma(a) + \gamma(b)$ and $\gamma(ab) = \gamma(a)\gamma(b)$ for all $a, b \in R$.
- The kernel of the ring homomorphism γ , denoted $\text{Ker}(\gamma)$, is the set of all elements in R that map to 0 in S.
- A bijective ring homomorphism is called an isomorphism.

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- 4 Properties of Ideals
- 5 Rings of Fractions
- 6 Chinese Remainder Theorem