L1: Definitions and Examples of Rings

Definition 1.1: Rings and Fields

A ring R is a set with two binary operations +, \bullet (addition and multiplication), i.e

$$+: R \times R \rightarrow R$$

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such that:

- (i) (R, +) is an **abelian group**, i.e
 - (Additive Identity) There exists a unique $0_R \in R$, such that $\forall a \in R$

$$a + 0_R = 0_R + a = a$$

• (Additive Inverse) $\forall a \in R$ there exists a unique $(-a) \in R$ such that

$$a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0_R$$

- (Associativity) For all $a, b, c \in R$, (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)
- (Commutativity) For all $a, b \in R$, a + b = b + a
- (ii) is associative, i.e $\forall a, b, c \in R$

$$(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

(iii) • is **distributive** over +, i.e $\forall a, b, c \in R$

$$a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$$

Now we see variations and the extension of a ring, the field:

• We say R has an **identity element**, 1_R , if there exists a $1_R \in R$ such that $\forall a \in R$

$$a \cdot 1_R = 1_R \cdot a = a$$

• We say R is **commutative** if $\forall a, b \in R$

$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$

• If R is a commutative ring with $1_R \neq 0_R$, then we say R is a **field** if every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse, i.e $\forall a \neq 0 \in R, \exists a^{-1} \in R$ such that

$$a \cdot (a^{-1}) = (a^{-1}) \cdot a = 1_R$$

For the rest of the notes, I will omit the R subscript from the additive and multiplicative identity, unless necessary. Anyways, now we can look at some examples of rings:

Example 1.1. $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \bullet)$, The integers with the usual addition and multiplication is a ring.

Example 1.2. $(\mathbb{R},+,\bullet),$ $(\mathbb{C},+,\bullet),$ $(\mathbb{Q},+,\bullet)$ are fields.

Example 1.3. $(\mathbb{N}, +, \cdot)$ is **not** a ring, since there are no additive inverses.

Example 1.4. $(\mathbb{R}^3, +, \bullet)$ is **not** a ring. It has addition $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \Rightarrow \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, but no proper multiplication operator. You can check that the cross product, \times , not distributive.

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Definition 1.2: Unit

We say $a \in R$ is a **unit** if there exists a $b \in R$ such that $a \cdot b = b \cdot a = 1$. Basically, a unit is an element whose multiplicative inverse is also in the ring.

Example 1.5. In \mathbb{R} , every element except 0 is a unit.

Example 1.6. In \mathbb{Z} , the only units are $\{1, -1\}$.

Now let us look at examples of rings other than the standard number types $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$:

Example 1.7. The integers modulo n are also a ring. This set is written as $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. To understand this, first define the set of multiples of an integer n as

$$n\mathbb{Z} := \{n \cdot a | a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Then,

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} := \mathbb{Z}/\!\!\sim$$

where \sim is the equivalence relation for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in n\mathbb{Z}$$

which basically means two integers are equivalent if their difference is a multiple of n. Think about it like this, if x and y are multiples of n plus the same remainder, i.e

$$x = nk + r$$
 $y = nl + r$

for some $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ then their difference is exactly a multiple of n,

$$x - y = nk + r - (nl + r) = n(k - l) = nm$$

for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. They are equivalent in the sense of producing the same remainder when n is divided by them. This can be written in modulo arithmetic as

$$x \equiv y \pmod{n}$$

So, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ will contain equivalence classes of remainders when dividing any integer by n, and each of these classes contain all integers that produce such remainder

$$\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} := \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$$

The numbers with bars indicate the equivalence classes generated when taking the integers modulo n. For example $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ are the integers modulo 3

$$\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}\}$$

where

$$\overline{0} = \{0, 3, 6, 9, \dots\}$$

$$\overline{1} = \{1, 4, 7, 10, \dots\}$$

$$\overline{2} = \{2, 5, 8, 11, \dots\}$$

Now, if $\overline{a}, \overline{b} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and $a \in \overline{a}, b \in \overline{b}$ then we define

$$\overline{a} + \overline{b} = \overline{a+b}, \quad \overline{a} \cdot \overline{b} = \overline{a \cdot b}$$

This set with the two operations is a ring. (Exercise to show these operations are well defined).

Example 1.8. We can also have a rings of functions. Let R be a ring and X a set, define the set \mathfrak{F}

$$\mathcal{F} := \{ f : X \to R \}$$

which is the set of functions which take elements of the set X to elements of the ring R. Then

$$(f+g): X \to R$$
 $(f \cdot g): X \to R$ $x \mapsto f(x) + g(x)$ $x \mapsto f(x) \cdot g(x)$

are operations which with \mathfrak{F} , form a ring.

Example 1.9. Define the set of continuous functions on the closed interval [0, 1]

$$C[0,1] := \{ f : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R} | f \text{ continuous} \}$$

We know from calculus that if $f, g \in C[0, 1]$, then f + g and $f \cdot g$ are also in C[0, 1]. Hence, C[0, 1] is a ring.

Example 1.10. Sets of matrices can also be rings. Define

$$M_n(\mathbb{R}) := \{n \times n \text{ matrices with real coefficients}\}$$

Then for matrices A, B:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & b_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

we have

$$A + B := \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} + b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} + b_{n1} & a_{n2} + b_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} + b_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot B := (a_{ik} \cdot b_{ki})$$

In the product, the notation indicates that each element is the dot product of a row vector in A and a column vector in B (the variable i indicates the ith row and ith column, while the k varies to multiply the kth element of each vector). This is the usual matrix multiplication we are all aware of.

Also, the additive and multiplicative identity are

$$0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}, 1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$