COURSE 3

Some important examples of rings

We remind that $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a **ring** if (R, +) is an Abelian group, \cdot is associative and the distributive laws hold (that is, \cdot is distributive with respect to +). The ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a **unitary ring** if it has a multiplicative identity element.

The polynomial ring over a field

Let $(K, +, \cdot)$ be a field and let us denote by $K^{\mathbb{N}}$ the set

$$K^{\mathbb{N}} = \{ f \mid f : \mathbb{N} \to K \}.$$

If $f: \mathbb{N} \to K$ then, denoting $f(n) = a_n$, we can write

$$f = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots).$$

For $f = (a_0, a_1, a_2, ...), g = (b_0, b_1, b_2, ...) \in K^{\mathbb{N}}$ one defines:

$$f + g = (a_0 + b_0, a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2, \dots)$$
(1)

$$f \cdot g = (c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots) \tag{2}$$

where

$$c_0 = a_0 b_0,$$
 $c_1 = a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0,$

$$\vdots$$

$$c_n = a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + \dots + a_n b_0 = \sum_{i+j=n} a_i b_j,$$

$$\vdots$$

Theorem 1. $K^{\mathbb{N}}$ forms a commutative unitary ring with respect to the operations defined by (1) and (2) called **the ring of formal power series over** K.

Proof. HOMEWORK

Let $f = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \in K^{\mathbb{N}}$. The **support of** f is the subset of \mathbb{N} defined by

$$\operatorname{supp} f = \{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid a_k \neq 0\}.$$

We denote by $K^{(\mathbb{N})}$ the subset consisting of all the sequences from $K^{\mathbb{N}}$ with a finite support. Then

$$f \in K^{(\mathbb{N})} \Leftrightarrow \exists \ n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } a_i = 0 \text{ for } i \geq n \Leftrightarrow f = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}, 0, 0, \dots).$$

$$Tor instance , f = (0, 1, 2, 3, 0, \Gamma, 0, \Omega, \dots) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ then }$$

$$Mpp f = \{1, 2, 3, \Gamma\} \quad (a_i = 0, \forall i \geq 6)$$

$$\text{ supp } (0,1,0,0,\dots) = 113 \ (a_i = 0, \forall i \geq 2)$$

Remark: $\varphi: K \to K^{(K)}$ inj. morphism $\Rightarrow \varphi': K \to \varphi(K), \varphi'(k) = \varphi(k)$ q(t)=19(a)/ack] moning of k (N) x irow. => K ~ q (k) and this allows us to identify ack with (a,0,0,...) **Theorem 2.** i) $K^{(\mathbb{N})}$ is a subring of $K^{\mathbb{N}}$ which contains the multiplicative identity element. ii) The mapping $\overline{\varphi:K}\to K^{(\mathbb{N})},\ \varphi(a)=(a,0,0,\dots)$ is an injective unitary ring morphism. i) Let f = (a0, a1,..., a , 0, 0, ...) = (a0, a1,..., ak, 0, 0,...) (9=(60,6,,...,6 m,0,0,...)=(60,6,,...,6 0,0,...) k = max { u, u } f+g=(ao+bo, a,+b,..., ak+bk, o,o,...) => f+g ex (N) Let f = (a, a,,..., a, o, o,...), g = (60, 67,..., 6m, 0, 0,...) fg = (Co, G, ..., Ce, ...). Let k > w+ n+1. Then $C_{k} = \sum_{i \neq j = k}^{a_{i}} b_{j} = a_{0}b_{k} + a_{1}b_{k-1} + \dots + a_{n}b_{k-n} + \frac{a_{n+1}}{\geq m}b_{k-n-1} + \dots$ ⇒ fg = (co, cr, ..., cm+n, o, o, ...) ∈ K (W) (K (KI), + .) unitary ring which preserves the multipl. id. elem (R) ind.op. + above, comm. supp (0,0,... 0,...) = \$ finite = (0,0,...) ∈ K $\forall f = (a_0, a_1, ..., a_u, o_1, o_2, ...) \in k^{(N)}, -f = (-a_0, ..., -a_u, o_1, o_2, ...) \in k^{(N)}$ $\Rightarrow (K^{(NI)}, +)$ Abelian group. · assoc., comm., (1,0,0,...) = K(K) (supp (1,0,0,...)=103). · in distr. w.r.f.+ in K(N) Thus K(N) is, indeed, a historing of K(N) which preserves (1,0,...) ii) $\varphi: k \rightarrow k^{(N)}, \varphi(a) = (a,0,0,...)$ $\varphi(a+b) = (a+b,0,0,...) = (a,0,...) + (b,0,...) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)$ = φ ring $\varphi(ab) = (ab,0,0,...) = (a,0,...) (b,0,...) = \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(b)$ | $\varphi(ab) = (ab,0,0,0,...) = (a,0,...) (b,0,...) = \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(b)$ 9(1)=(1,0,0,...) a, bek $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b) \iff (a, 0, 0, ...) = (6, 0, ...) \Rightarrow a = b$. Thus $\varphi(inj) = 0$

The ring $(K^{(\mathbb{N})}, +, \cdot)$ is called **polynomial ring** over K. How can we make this ring look like the one we know from high school?

The injective morphism φ allows us to identify $a \in K$ with (a, 0, 0, ...). This way K can be seen as a subring of $K^{(\mathbb{N})}$. The polynomial

$$\rightarrow X = (0, 1, 0, 0, \dots)$$

is called **indeterminate** or **variable**. From (2) one deduces that:

$$X^{2} = (0,0,1,0,0,\dots)$$

$$X^{3} = (0,0,0,1,0,0,\dots)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$X^{m} = \underbrace{(0,0,\dots,0,1,0,0,\dots)}_{m \text{ qris Holoes}}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(0,a_{1},0,\dots) + \dots + (0,a_{1},0,\dots) + \dots + (0,a_{1},0,\dots) = (0,0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots) = (0,0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots) = (0,0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots) = (0,0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{n},0,\dots,0,a_{$$

This way we have

Theorem 3. Any $f \in K^{(\mathbb{N})}$ which is not zero can be uniquely written as

$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + a_2 X^2 + \dots + a_n X^n \tag{4}$$

where $a_i \in K$, $i \in \{0, 1, ..., n\}$ and $a_n \neq 0$

We can rewrite

$$K^{(\mathbb{N})} = \{ f = a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_n X^n \mid a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in K, \underline{\underline{n \in \mathbb{N}}} \stackrel{\text{not}}{=} K[\underline{X}].$$

The elements of K[X] are called **polynomials over** K, and if $f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n$ then $a_0, \ldots, a_n \in K$ are the coefficients of $f, a_0, a_1 X \ldots, a_n X^n$ are called monomials, and a_0 is the constant term of f. Now, we can rewrite the operations from $(K[X], +, \cdot)$ as we did in high school (during the seminar).

If $f \in K[X]$, $\underline{f \neq 0}$ and \underline{f} is given by (4), then n is called **the degree of** \underline{f} , and if $\underline{f = 0}$ we say that the degree of \underline{f} is $-\infty$. We will denote the degree of \underline{f} by $\deg \underline{f}$. Thus we have

$$\deg f = 0 \Leftrightarrow f \in K^*.$$

$$(f = a_0 \neq 0 f \in K \setminus \{0\})$$

By definition

 $-\infty + m = m + (-\infty) = -\infty, \ -\infty + (-\infty) = -\infty, \ -\infty < m, \ \forall \ m \in \mathbb{N}.$

Therefore:

- Therefore: i) $\deg(f+g) \leq \max\{\deg f, \operatorname{grad} g\}, \forall f, g \in K[X];$
- ii) $\deg(fg) = \deg f + \deg g, \forall f, g \in K[X];$
- iii) K[X] is an integral domain (during the seminar);
- \rightarrow iv) a polynomial $f \in K[X]$ este is a unit in K[X] if and only if $f \in K^*$ (during the seminar).

Here are some useful notions and results concerning polynomials:

If
$$f, g \in K[X]$$
 then

$$f \mid g \Leftrightarrow \exists \ h \in \mathcal{K}, \ g = fh.$$

The divisibility | is reflexive and transitive. The polynomial 0 satisfies the following relations

$$f \mid 0, \ \forall f \in K[X] \text{ and } \nexists f \in K[X] \setminus \{0\} : \ 0 \mid f.$$

Two polynomials $f,g \in K[X]$ are associates (we write $f \sim g$) if

The cuits four K[X]

$$\exists \ a \in K^*: \ f = ag.$$

The relation \sim is reflexive, transitive and symmetric

A polynomial $f \in K[X]^*$ is **irreducible** if deg $f \geq 1$ and

$$f = gh \ (g, h \in K[X]) \Rightarrow g \in K^* \text{ or } h \in K^*.$$

The gcd and lcm are defined as for integers, the product of a gcm and lcm at two polynomials f,g and the product fg are associates and the polynomials divisibility acts with respect to sum and product in the way we are familiar with from the integers case.

If
$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + a_2 X^2 + \cdots + a_n X^n \in K[X]$$
 and $\underline{c \in K}$, then

$$f(c) = a_0 + a_1 c + a_2 c x^2 + \dots + a_n c^n \in K$$

is called the evaluation of f at c. The element $c \in K$ is a root of f if f(c) = 0.

Theorem 4. (The Division Algorithm in K[X]) For any polynomials $f, g \in K[X], g \neq 0$, there exist $q, r \in K[X]$ uniquely determined such that

$$f = gq + r$$
 and $\deg r < \deg g$. (5)

Proof. (optional) Let $a_0, \ldots, a_n, b_0, \ldots, b_m \in K$, $b_m \neq 0$ and

$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_n X^n$$
 și $g = b_0 + b_1 X + \dots + b_m X^m$.

The existence of q and r: If f = 0 then q = r = 0 satisfy (5).

For $f \neq 0$ we prove by induction that that the property holds for any $n = \deg f$. If n < m(since $m \geq 0$, there exist polynomials f which satisfy this condition), then (5) holds for q = 0 and r = f.

Let us assume the statement proved for any polynomials with the degree $n \geq m$. Since $a_n X^n$ is the maximum degree monomial of the polynomial $a_n b_m^{-1} X^{n-m} g$, for $h = f - a_n b_m^{-1} X^{n-m} g$, we have deg h < n and, according to our assumption, there exist $q', r \in R[X]$ such that

$$h = gq' + r$$
 and $\deg r < \deg g$.

Thus, we have $f = h + a_n b_m^{-1} X^{n-m} g = (a_n b_m^{-1} X^{n-m} + q') g + r = gq + r$ where $q = a_n b_m^{-1} X^{n-m} + q'$. Now, the existence of q and r from (5) is proved.

The uniqueness of q and r: If we also have

$$f = gq_1 + r_1$$
 and $\deg r_1 < \deg g$,

then $gq + r = gq_1 + r_1$. It follows that $r - r_1 = g(q_1 - q)$ and $\deg(r - r_1) < \deg g$. Since $g \neq 0$ we have $q_1 - q = 0$ and, consequently, $r - r_1 = 0$, thus $q_1 = q$ and $r_1 = r$.

We call the polynomials q and r from (5) the quotient and the remainder of f when dividing by g, respectively.

Corollary 5. Let K be a field and $c \in K$. The remainder of a polynomial $f \in K[X]$ when dividing by X - c is f(c).

Indeed, from (5) one deduces that $r \in K$, and since $\underline{f} = (\underline{X} - \underline{c})q + \underline{r}$, one finds that r = f(c). For r = 0 we obtain:

Corollary 6. Let K be a field. The element $c \in K$ is a root of f if and only if $(X - c) \mid f$.

Corollary 7. If K is a field and $f \in K[X]$ has the degree $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then the number of the roots of f from K is at most k.

Indeed, the statement is true for zero-degree polynomials, since they have no roots. We consider k > 0 and we assume the property valid for any polynomial with the degree smaller than k. If $c_1 \in K$ is a root of f then $f = (X - c_1)q$ and $\deg q = k - 1$. According to our assumption, q has at most k - 1 roots in K. Since K is a field, K[X] is an integral domain and from $f = (X - c_1)q$ it follows that $c \in K$ is a root of f if and only if $c = c_1$ or c is a root of f. Thus f has at most f roots in f.

The ring of square matrices over a field

Let K be a set and $m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. A mapping

howeverk

$$\underline{A}: \{\underline{1,\ldots,m}\} \times \{\underline{1,\ldots,n}\} \to \underline{K}$$

is called $m \times n$ matrix over K. When m = n, we call A a square matrix of size n. For each i = 1, ..., m and j = 1, ..., n we denote $A(\underline{i,j})$ by $\underline{a_{ij}} (\in K)$ and we represent A as a rectangular array with m rows and n columns in which the image of each pair (i,j) is written in the i'th row and the j'th column

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We also denote this array by

$$A = (a_{ij}) \underset{1 \le i \le m}{\underset{1 \le j \le n}{1}}$$

or, simpler, $A = (a_{ij})$. We denote the set of all $m \times n$ matrices over K by $M_{m,n}(K)$ and, when m = n, by $M_n(K)$.

Let $(K, +, \cdot)$ be a field. Then + from K determines an operation + on $M_{m,n}(K)$ defined as follows: if $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ are two $m \times n$ matrices, then

$$A + B = (a_{ij} + b_{ij}).$$

One can easily check that this operation is associative, commutative, it has an identity element which is the matrix $O_{m,n}$ consisting only of 0 (called **the** $m \times n$ **zero matrix**) and each matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ from $M_{m,n}(K)$ has an opposite (the matrix $-A = (-a_{ij})$). Therefore,

Theorem 8. $(M_{m,n}(K), +)$ is an Abelian group.

The scalar multiplication of a matrix $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(K)$ and a scalar $\alpha \in K$ is defined by

$$\underline{\alpha A} = (\alpha a_{ij}).$$

One can easily check that:

- i) $\alpha(A+B) = \alpha A + \alpha B$, $\forall \alpha \in K$, $\forall A, B \in M_{m,n}(K)$;
- ii) $(\alpha + \beta)A = \alpha A + \beta A, \ \forall \alpha, \beta \in K, \ \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K);$
- iii) $(\alpha\beta)A = \alpha(\beta A), \ \forall \alpha, \beta \in K, \ \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K);$
- iv) $1 \cdot A = A, \ \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K).$

1 in the wellight id of K.

The matrix multiplication is defined as follows: if $A = (a_{ij}) \in M_{m,n}(K)$ and $B = (b_{ij}) \in M_{\underline{n},p}(K)$, then

$$AB = (c_{ij}) \in M_{m,p}, \text{ cu } c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}, (i,j) \in \{1, \dots, m\} \times \{1, \dots, p\}.$$

$$\in \mathbb{N}^* \text{ we consider the } n \times n \text{ square matrix}$$

$$C_{ij} = a_{ij} b_{j} + a_{i1} b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in} b_{n} \in \mathbb{K}$$

For $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we consider the $n \times n$ square matrix

$$I_n = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{array}\right).$$

If $m, n, p, q \in \mathbb{N}^*$, then:

- 1) (AB)C = A(BC), for any matrices $A \in M_{m,n}(K)$, $B \in M_{n,p}(K)$, $C \in M_{p,q}(K)$;
- 2) $I_m A = A = AI_n, \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K);$
- 3) A(B+C) = AB + AC for any matrices $A \in M_{m,n}(K), B, C \in M_{n,p}(K)$;
- 3') (B+C)D = BD + CD, for any matrices $B, C \in M_{n,p}(K), D \in M_{p,q}(K)$;
 - $\overline{4}) \ \alpha(AB) = (\alpha A)B = A(\alpha B), \ \forall \alpha \in K, \ \forall A_{m,n}(K), \ \forall B \in M_{n,p}(K).$

We prove 1). To prove the other properties is easier, so we consider this your HOMEWORK.

Indeed, if $A=(a_{ij})\in M_{m,n}(K)$, $B=(b_{ij})\in M_{n,p}(K)$, $C=(c_{ij})\in M_{p,q}(K)$, the element from the row $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ and the column $l \in \{1, ..., q\}$ of the product (AB)C is

from the row
$$i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$$
 and the column $l \in \{1, \dots, q\}$ of the product $(AB)C$ is
$$\sum_{j=1}^p \left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}\right)c_{jl} = \sum_{j=\overline{1,p},k=\overline{1,n}} \left(a_{ik}b_{kj}\right)c_{jl} = \sum_{j=\overline{1,p},k=\overline{1,n}} a_{ik}\left(b_{kj}c_{jl}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}\left(\sum_{j=1}^p b_{kj}c_{jl}\right).$$
 We notice that this is also the element from the row $i \in \{1,\dots,m\}$ and column $l \in \{1,\dots,q\}$

We notice that this is also the element from the row $i \in \{1, ..., m\}$ and column $l \in \{1, ..., q\}$ of the product A(BC).

If we work with $n \times n$ square matrices the matrix multiplication becomes a binary (internal) operation \cdot on $M_n(K)$, and the equalities 1)-3') show that \cdot is associative, I_n is a multiplicative identity element (called **the identity matrix** of size n) and \cdot is distributive with respect to +. Hence,

Theorem 9. $(M_n(K), +, \cdot)$ is a unitary ring called the ring of the square matrices of size nover K.

Remarks 10. a) If $n \geq 2$ then $M_n(K)$ is not commutative and it has zero divisors. If $a, b \in K^*$, the non-zero matrices

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
a & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \dots & 0
\end{array}\right), \left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & \dots & b \\
0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \dots & 0
\end{array}\right)$$

can be used to prove this.

b) Using the properties of the addition, multiplication and scalar multiplication, one can easily prove that

$$f: \underline{K} \to \underline{M_n(K)}, \ f(a) = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & a & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & a \end{pmatrix} = aI_n$$

is a unitary injective ring homomorphism.

The transpose of an
$$m \times n$$
 matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = (a_{ij})$ is the $n \times m$

matrix

$${}^{t}A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{m1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{m2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} = (a_{ji}).$$

The way the transpose acts with respect to the matrix addition, matrix multiplication and scalar multiplication is given bellow:

$${}^{t}(A+B) = {}^{t}A + {}^{t}B, \ \forall A, B \in M_{m,n}(K);$$

$${}^{t}(AB) = {}^{t}B \cdot {}^{t}A, \ \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K), \ \forall B \in M_{n,p}(K);$$

$${}^{t}(\alpha A) = \alpha \cdot {}^{t}A, \ \forall A \in M_{m,n}(K).$$

Let K be a field. The set of the units of $M_n(K)$ is

$$\underline{GL_n(K)} = \{A \in M_n(K) \mid \exists B \in M_n(K) : AB = BA = I_n\}. \quad = \quad (K)$$

The set $GL_n(K)$ is closed in $(M_n(K), \cdot)$ and $(GL_n(K), \cdot)$ is a group called **the general linear** group of degree n over K. We know from high school that if K is one of the number fields $(\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R} \text{ sau } \mathbb{C})$ then $A \in M_n(K)$ is invertible if and only if $\det A \neq 0$. Thus,

$$GL_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{ A \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid \det A \neq 0 \},$$

and analogously we can rewrite $GL_n(\mathbb{R})$ and $GL_n(\mathbb{Q})$. We will see next that this recipe works for any matrix ring $M_n(K)$ with K field. This is why our next course topic will be **the determinant** of a square matrix over a field K.

Determinants

Let $(K, +, \cdot)$ be a field, $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \in M_n(K).$$

Definition 11. The determinant of (the squre matrix) A is

$$\det A = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \varepsilon(\sigma) a_{1\sigma(1)} a_{2\sigma(2)} \cdots a_{n\sigma(n)} (\in K).$$

The map $M_n(K) \to K$, $A \mapsto \det A$ is also called **determinant**.

Remark 12. None of the products from the above definition contains 2 elements from the same row or the same column.

We also denote the determinant of A by $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{vmatrix}.$

Examples 13. a) $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}.$ b) $\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} =$

b)
$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} =$$

Lemma 14. The determinant of A and the determinant of the transpose matrix tA are equal.

Proof.