COURSE 1

Rings and fields

internal operation

Definition 1. By a binary operation on a set A we understand a map

$$\varphi : A \times A \rightarrow \underline{A}$$
, $(x,y) \in A \times A \mapsto \varphi(x,y)$

Since all the operations considered in this section are binary operations, we briefly call them **operations**. Usually, we denote operations by symbols like $*, \cdot, +$, and the image of an arbitrary pair $(x,y) \in A \times A$ is denoted by x*y, $x \mapsto y$ (multiplicative notation), $x \mapsto y$ (additive notation), respectively.

Examples 2. a) The usual addition and multiplication are operations on \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , but not on the set of irrational numbers. $(\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q})$

- b) The usual subtraction is an operation on $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ and \mathbb{C} , but not on \mathbb{N} .
- c) The usual division is an operation on \mathbb{Q}^* , \mathbb{R}^* , \mathbb{C}^* , but not on \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} , \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{N}^* or \mathbb{Z}^* .

Definitions 3. Let * be an operation on A. We say that:

i) * is associative if

$$(a_1 * a_2) * a_3 = a_1 * (a_2 * a_3), \forall a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A;$$

ii) * is commutative if

$$a_1 * a_2 = a_2 * a_1, \ \forall a_1, a_2 \in A.$$

iii) $e \in A$ is an identity element for * if

$$a * e = e * a = a, \forall a \in A.$$

When using the <u>multiplicative</u> or <u>additive</u> notation, an identity element e is usually denoted by 1 or 0, respectively.

Definition 4. Let A be set and let \cdot be an operation with an identity element 1. An element $a \in A$ has an inverse if there exists an element $a' \in A$ such that

$$a \cdot a' = a' \cdot a = 4$$

We say that a' is an **inverse** for a.

When using the multiplicative notation, the inverse of a is denoted by a^{-1} . When using the or additive notation the inverse of a is denoted by -a, and it is called **the opposite of** a.

Definitions 5. A pair (A, *) is called **monoid** if * is associative and it has an **identity element**. A monoid with a commutative operation is called **commutative monoid**.

Definition 6. A pair (A, \cdot) is called **group** if it is a monoid in which every element has an inverse. If the operation is commutative as well, the structure is called **commutative** or **Abelian group**.

Examples 7. a) $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ and (\mathbb{Z}, \cdot) are commutative monoids, but they are not groups.

- b) (\mathbb{Q},\cdot) , (\mathbb{R},\cdot) , (\mathbb{C},\cdot) are commutative monoids, but they are not groups since 0 has no inverse.
- c) $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +)$, (\mathbb{Q}^*, \cdot) , (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot) , (\mathbb{C}^*, \cdot) are Abelian groups.

Remark 8. The group definition can be rewritten: (A, \cdot) is a **group** if and only if it follows the following conditions:

- (i) $(a_1 \cdot a_2) \cdot a_3 = a_1 \cdot (a_2 \cdot a_3), \ \forall a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A \ (\cdot \text{ is associative});$
- (ii) $\exists 1 \in A$, $\forall a \in A$: $a \cdot \underline{1} = \underline{1} \cdot a = a$ (there exists an identity element for \cdot); (iii) $\forall a \in A$, $\exists a^{-1} \in A$: $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$ (all the elements of A have inverses).

Definitions 9. Let φ be an operation on the set A and $B \subseteq A$. We say that B is closed under

$$b_1, b_2 \in B \Rightarrow \varphi(b_1, b_2) \in B$$
.

$$\varphi \text{ if } b_1, b_2 \in B \Rightarrow \varphi(b_1, b_2) \in B.$$
If B is closed under φ , one can define an operation on B as follows:
$$\varphi': B \times B \to B, \ \varphi'(b_1, b_2) = \varphi(b_1, b_2).$$

$$\varphi'(x, y) = \varphi(x, y)$$

We call φ' the operation induced by φ on B or, briefly, the induced operation. Most of the time, we denote it also by φ .

Remarks 10. a) Let φ be an operation on the set $A, B \subseteq A$ closed under φ and let $\underline{\varphi}'$ be the induced operation on B. If φ is associative or commutative, then φ' is associative or commutative, respectively.

b) Let φ_1 and φ_2 be operations on A, let $B \subseteq A$ be closed under φ_1 and φ_2 , and let φ_1' and φ_2' be the operations induced by φ_1 and φ_2 on B, respectively. If φ_1 is distributive with respect to φ_2 , i.e.

$$\varphi_1(a_1, \varphi_2(a_2, a_3)) = \varphi_2(\varphi_1(a_1, a_2), \varphi_1(a_1, a_3)), \forall a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A,$$

then φ'_1 is distributive with respect to φ'_2 .

c) The existence of an identity element is not always preserved by induced operations. For instance, \mathbb{N}^* is closed in $(\mathbb{N}, +)$, but $(\mathbb{N}^*, +)$ has no identity element.

Definition 11. Let (G,\cdot) be a group. A subset $H\subseteq G$ is called a subgroup of G if:

i) H is closed under the operation of (G, \cdot) , that is,

$$\forall x,y\in H\,,\quad x\cdot y\in H\,; \qquad \qquad \text{ind. op.}$$
 ii) H is a group with respect to the induced operation.

Examples 12. a) \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} are subgroups of $(\mathbb{C},+)$, \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} are subgroups of $(\mathbb{R},+)$ and \mathbb{Z} is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$.

- b) \mathbb{Q}^* , \mathbb{R}^* are subgroups of (\mathbb{C}^*,\cdot) and \mathbb{Q}^* is a subgroup of (\mathbb{R}^*,\cdot) .
- c) \mathbb{N} is closed in $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$, but it is not a subgroup.
- d) Every non-trivial group (G,\cdot) has two subgroups, namely $\{1\}$ and G. Any other subgroup of (G,\cdot) is called **proper subgroup**.

Definition 13. Let $(G,*), (G',\bot)$ be two groups. A map $f:G\to G'$ is called **homomorphism** (or **morphism**) if $f(x_1*x_2)=f(x_1)\perp f(x_2), \ \forall \ x_1,x_2\in G.$

A bijective homomorphism is called **isomorphism**. A homomorphism of (G, *) into itself is called endomorphism of (G,*). An isomorphism al lui (G,*) into itself is called automorphism of $\overline{(G,*)}$. If there exists an isomorphism $f:G\to G$, we say that the groups (G,*) and (G',\bot) are isomorphic and we denote this by $G \simeq G'$ or $(G,*) \simeq (G', \perp)$.

Let us come back to the multiplicative notation.

Theorem 14. Let (G, \cdot) and (G', \cdot) be groups, and let 1 and 1', respectively, be the identity element of (G, \cdot) and (G', \cdot) , respectively. If $f: G \to G'$ is a group homomorphism, then:

- (i) f(1) = 1';
- (ii) $[f(x)]^{-1} = f(x^{-1}), \forall x \in G.$

Proof. (i) $\forall x \in G$

Remark: In a group, each element has a unique inverse. $\frac{proof}{}$: Let (G,\cdot) be a group, $x \in G$ and x, x'' inverses of x in (G,\cdot) $x' = x' \cdot 1 = x' \cdot (x \cdot x'') = (x' \cdot x) \cdot x'' = 1 \cdot x'' = x''$

Definition 15. Let R be a set. A structure $(R, +, \cdot)$ with two operations is called:

(1) ring if (R, +) is an Abelian group, \cdot is associative and the distributive laws hold (that is, \cdot is distributive with respect to +).

(2) unitary ring if $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and there exists a multiplicative identity element.

Definition 16. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be e unital ring. An element $x \in R$ which has an inverse $x^{-1} \in R$ is called **unit**. The ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called **division ring** if it is a unitary ring, $|R| \ge 2$ and any $x \in R^*$ is a unit. A commutative division ring is called **field**.

Definition 17. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring. An element $x \in R^*$ is called **zero divisor** if there exists $y \in R^*$ such that

$$x \cdot y = 0$$
 or $y \cdot x = 0$.

We say that R is an **integral domain** if $R \neq \{0\}$, R is unitary, commutative and has no zero divisors.

Remarks 18. (1) Notice that $x \in R^*$ is not a zero divisor iff

$$y \in R$$
, $x \cdot y = 0$ or $y \cdot x = 0 \implies y = 0$.

(2) A ring R has no zero divisors if and only if

$$x, y \in R, \ x \cdot y = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0 \text{ or } y = 0.$$
 (2 $\neq 0$ and $\neq 0$ \Rightarrow $\neq 0$)

- (3) $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a division ring if and only if it satisfies the following conditions:
 - i) (R, +) is an Abelian group;
 - ii) R^* is closed in (R,\cdot) and (R^*,\cdot) is a group;
 - iii) \cdot is distributive with respect to +.
- (4) The fields have no zero divisors. Moreover, every field is an integral domain.

Examples 19. (a) $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is an integral domain, but it is not a field. Its units are -1 and 1.

- (b) $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$, $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$ are fields.
- (c) Let $\{0\}$ be a single element set and let both + and \cdot be the only operation on $\{0\}$, defined by 0+0=0 and $0\cdot 0=0$. Then $(\{0\},+,\cdot)$ is a commutative unitary ring, called the **trivial ring** (or **zero ring**). The multiplicative identity element is, of course, 0, hence we can write 1=0. As matter of fact, this equality characterize the trivial ring.



(d) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \geq 2$. Let us remind **the Division Algorithm in** \mathbb{Z} : For any integers a and b, with $b \neq 0$, there exists only one pair $(q, r) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = b \cdot q + r$$
 and $0 \le r < |b|$.

The Division Algorithm gives us a partition of \mathbb{Z} in classes determined by the remainders one can find when dividing by n:

$$\{n\mathbb{Z}, 1+n\mathbb{Z}, \ldots, (n-1)+n\mathbb{Z}\},\$$

where $r + n\mathbb{Z} = \{r + nk \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}\ (r \in \mathbb{Z})$. We use the following notations

$$\widehat{r} = r + n\mathbb{Z} \ (r \in \mathbb{Z}) \text{ si } \mathbb{Z}_n = \{n\mathbb{Z}, 1 + n\mathbb{Z}, \dots, (n-1) + n\mathbb{Z}\} = \{\widehat{0}, \widehat{1}, \dots, \widehat{n-1}\}.$$

Let us notice that for $a, r \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\widehat{a} = \widehat{r} \Leftrightarrow a + n\mathbb{Z} = r + n\mathbb{Z} \Leftrightarrow a - r \in n\mathbb{Z} \Leftrightarrow n|a - r.$$

The operations

$$\widehat{a} + \widehat{b} = \widehat{a + b}, \quad \widehat{a} \, \widehat{b} = \widehat{ab}$$

are well defined, i.e. if one considers another representatives a' and b' for the classes \widehat{a} and \widehat{b} , respectively, the operations provide us with the same results. Indeed, from $a' \in \widehat{a}$ şi $b' \in \widehat{b}$ it follows that

$$n|a'-a, n|b'-b \Rightarrow n|a'-a+b'-b \Rightarrow n|(a'+b')-(a+b) \Rightarrow \widehat{a'+b'} = \widehat{a+b}$$

and

$$a' = a + nk, \ b' = b + nl \ (k, l \in \mathbb{Z}) \Rightarrow a'b' = ab + n(al + bk + nkl) \in ab + n\mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \widehat{a'b'} = \widehat{ab}.$$

One can easily check that the operations + and \cdot are associative and commutative, + has $\widehat{0}$ as identity element, each class \widehat{a} has an opposite in $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, $-\widehat{a} = \widehat{-a} = \widehat{n-a}$, \cdot has $\widehat{1}$ as identity

element and \cdot is distributive with respect to +. Thus, $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$ is a unitary ring, called $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$ is a commutative ring, called the **residue-class ring modulo** n.

Since $\widehat{2} \cdot \widehat{3} = \widehat{0}$, both $\widehat{2}$ and $\widehat{3}$ are zero divisors in the ring $(\mathbb{Z}_6, +, \cdot)$. Thus $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$ is not a field in the general case. Actually, $\widehat{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ is a unit if and only if (a, n) = 1. Thus $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, \cdot)$ is a field if and only if n is a prime number.

Remark 20. If $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring, then (R, +) is a group and \cdot is associative, so that we may talk about multiples and positive powers of elements of R.

Definition 21. Let $(R,+,\cdot)$ be a ring, let $x\in R$ and let $n\in\mathbb{N}^*$. Then we define

$$n \cdot x = \underbrace{x + x + \dots + x}_{n \text{ terms}}, \ 0 \cdot x = 0, \ (-n) \cdot x = -n \cdot x,$$

$$x^n = \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{n \text{ factors}}.$$

If R is a unitary ring, then we may also consider $x^0 = 1$. If R is a division ring, then we may also define negative powers of nonzero elements x by

$$x^{-n} = (x^{-1})^n$$
.

Remark 22. Notice that in the definition $0 \cdot x = 0$, the first 0 is the integer zero and the second 0 is the zero element of the ring R, i.e., the identity element of the additive group (R, +).

Theorem 23. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring and let $x, y, z \in R$. Then:

- (i) $x \cdot (y-z) = x \cdot y x \cdot z$, $(y-z) \cdot x = y \cdot x z \cdot x$;
- (ii) $x \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot x = 0$;
- (iii) $x \cdot (-y) = (-x) \cdot y = -x \cdot y$.

Proof.

Definition 24. Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring and $A \subseteq R$. Then A is a subring of R if:

(1) A is closed under the operations of $(R, +, \cdot)$, that is,

$$\forall x, y \in A, \ x + y, \ x \cdot y \in A;$$

(2) $(A, +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

Remarks 25. (a) If $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring and $A \subseteq R$, then A is a subring of R if and only if A is a subgroup of (R, +) and A is closed in (R, \cdot) .

This follows directly from subring definition and Remark 10 b).

(b) A ring R may have subrings with or without (multiplicative) identity, as we will see in a forthcoming example.

Definition 26. Let $(K, +, \cdot)$ be a field and let $A \subseteq K$. Then A is called a **subfield of** K if:

(1) A is closed under the operations of $(K, +, \cdot)$, that is,

$$\forall x, y \in K, \ x + y, \ x \cdot y \in K;$$

(2) $(A, +, \cdot)$ is a field.

Remarks 27. (a) From (2) it follows that for a subfield A, we have $|A| \geq 2$.

- (b) If $(K, +, \cdot)$ is a field and $A \subseteq K$, then A is a subfield if and only if A is a subgroup of (K, +) and A^* is a subgroup of (K^*, \cdot) .
- (c) f $(K, +, \cdot)$ is a field and $A \subseteq K$, then A is a subfield if and only if A is a subring of $(K, +, \cdot)$, $|A| \ge 2$ and for any $a \in A^*$, $a^{-1} \in A$.

Examples 28. (a) Every non-trivial ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ has two subrings, namely $\{0\}$ and R, called the **trivial subrings**.

- (b) \mathbb{Z} is a subfield of $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$, \mathbb{Q} is a subfield of $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ and $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$, \mathbb{R} is a subfield of $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot)$.
- (c) If K is a field, then $\{0\}$ is a subring of K which is not a subfield.