

Math 2070 Week 8

Rings, Integral Domains, Fields

8.1 Integral Domains, Units

Definition 8.1. A ring R is said to be **commutative** if $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Example 8.2. For a fixed natural number $n > 1$, the ring of $n \times n$ matrices with integer coefficients, under the usual operations of addition and multiplication, is not commutative.

Example 8.3. Let m be a natural number greater than 1. Let $\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$. Recall that for any integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists a unique $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, such that $n \equiv \bar{n} \pmod{m}$. More precisely, \bar{n} is the remainder of the division of n by m : $n = mq + r$. We equip \mathbb{Z}_m with addition $+_m$ and multiplication \times_m defined as follows: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, let:

$$\begin{aligned}a +_m b &= \overline{a + b}, \\a \times_m b &= \overline{a \cdot b},\end{aligned}$$

where the addition and multiplication on the right are the usual addition and multiplication for integers.

Claim 8.4. With addition and multiplication thus defined, \mathbb{Z}_m is a commutative ring.

Proof. 1. For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, we have $a +_m b = \overline{a + b} = \overline{b + a} = b +_m a$, since addition for integers is commutative. So, $+_m$ is commutative.

2. For any $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, by Claim 6.17 and Theorem 6.19, we have

$$r_1 \equiv \bar{r}_1 \pmod{m}, \quad r_2 \equiv \bar{r}_2 \pmod{m},$$

and:

$$\overline{r_1 + r_2} \equiv r_1 + r_2 \equiv \overline{r_1} + \overline{r_2} \equiv \overline{\overline{r_1} + \overline{r_2}} \pmod{m}.$$

For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} a +_m (b +_m c) &= a +_m \overline{b + c} \\ &= \overline{a + b + c} \\ &= \overline{\overline{a} + \overline{b} + c} \\ &= \overline{a + (b + c)} \end{aligned}$$

But $a + (b + c)$ is equal to $(a + b) + c$, since addition for integers is associative. Hence, the above expression is equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{(a + b) + c} &= \overline{\overline{(a + b)} + \overline{c}} \\ &= \overline{a + \overline{b} + c} \\ &= \overline{(a +_m b) + c} \\ &= (a +_m b) +_m c. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that $+_m$ is associative.

3. **Exercise:** We can take 0 to be the additive identity element.
4. For each nonzero element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, we can take the additive inverse of a to be $m - a$. Indeed, $a +_m (-a) = a + (m - a) = \overline{m} = 0$.
5. By the same reasoning used in the case of addition, for $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$\overline{r_1 r_2} \equiv r_1 r_2 \equiv \overline{r_1} \cdot \overline{r_2} \equiv \overline{\overline{r_1} \cdot \overline{r_2}} \pmod{m}.$$

For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, we have:

$$a \times_m (b \times_m c) = a \times_m \overline{bc} = \overline{a \cdot bc} = \overline{a(bc)},$$

which by the associativity of multiplication for integers is equal to:

$$\overline{(ab)c} = \overline{ab \cdot c} = \overline{ab} \times_m c = (a \times_m b) \times_m c.$$

So, \times_m is associative.

6. **Exercise:** We can take 1 to be the multiplicative identity.

7. For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, $a \times_m b = \overline{a \cdot b} = \overline{b \cdot a} = b \times_m a$. So \times_m is commutative.

8. Lastly, we need to prove distributivity. For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} a \times_m (b +_m c) &= \overline{\overline{a} \cdot \overline{b + c}} \\ &= \overline{a \cdot (b + c)} \\ &= \overline{ab + ac} \\ &= \overline{ab} +_m \overline{ac} \\ &= a \times_m b +_m a \times_m c. \end{aligned}$$

It now follows from the distributivity from the left, proven above, and the commutativity of \times_m , that distributivity from the right also holds:

$$(a +_m b) \times_m c = a \times_m c + b \times_m c.$$

□

Definition 8.5. A nonzero commutative ring R is an **integral domain** if the product of two nonzero elements is always nonzero.

Definition 8.6. A nonzero element r in a ring R is called a **zero divisor** if there exists nonzero $s \in R$ such that $rs = 0$ or $sr = 0$.

Note. A nonzero commutative ring R is an integral domain if and only if it has no zero divisors.

Example 8.7. Since $2, 3 \neq 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_6 , but $2 \times_6 3 = \overline{6} = 0$, the ring \mathbb{Z}_6 is not an integral domain.

Claim 8.8. A commutative ring R is an integral domain if and only if the **cancellation law** holds for multiplication. That is: Whenever $ca = cb$ and $c \neq 0$, we have $a = b$.

Proof. Suppose R is an integral domain.

If $ca = cb$, then by distributivity $c(a - b) = c(a + -b) = 0$.

Since R is an integral domain, we have either $c = 0$ or $a - b = 0$.

So, if $c \neq 0$, we must have $a = b$.

Conversely, suppose cancellation law holds. It suffices to show that whenever we have $a, b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$ and $a \neq 0$, then we must have $b = 0$.

By a previous result we know that $0 = a0$. So, $ab = a0$, which by the cancellation law implies that $b = 0$. □

Note.

If every nonzero element of a commutative ring has a multiplicative inverse, then that ring is an integral domain:

$$ca = cb \implies c^{-1}ca = c^{-1}cb \implies a = b.$$

However, a nonzero element of an integral domain does not necessarily have a multiplicative inverse.

Example 8.9. *The ring \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain, for the product of two nonzero integers is nonzero. So, the cancellation law holds for \mathbb{Z} , but the only nonzero elements in \mathbb{Z} which have multiplicative inverses are ± 1 .*

Example 8.10. *The ring $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is an integral domain.*

Exercise 8.11. *Show that: For $m > 1$, \mathbb{Z}_m is an integral domain if and only if m is a prime.*

Example 8.12. *Consider $R = C[-1, 1]$, the ring of all continuous functions on $[-1, 1]$, equipped with the usual operations of addition and multiplication for functions.*

Let:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -x, & -1 \leq x \leq 0, \\ 0, & 0 < x \leq 1. \end{cases}, \quad g(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & -1 \leq x \leq 0, \\ x, & 0 < x \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

Then f and g are nonzero elements of R , but $fg = 0$.

So R is not an integral domain.

Definition 8.13. *We say that an element $r \in R$ is a **unit** if it has a multiplicative inverse; i.e. there is an element $r^{-1} \in R$ such that $rr^{-1} = r^{-1}r = 1$.*

Example 8.14. *Consider $4 \in \mathbb{Z}_{25}$. Since $4 \cdot 19 = 76 \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$, we have $4^{-1} = 19$ in \mathbb{Z}_{25} . So, 4 is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_{25} .*

On the other hand, consider $10 \in \mathbb{Z}_{25}$. Since $10 \cdot 5 = 50 \equiv 0 \pmod{25}$, we have $10 \cdot 5 = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_{25} . If 10^{-1} exists, then by the associativity of multiplication, we would have:

$$5 = (10^{-1} \cdot 10) \cdot 5 = 10^{-1} \cdot (10 \cdot 5) = 10^{-1} \cdot 0 = 0,$$

a contradiction. So, 10 is not a unit in \mathbb{Z}_{25} .

Claim 8.15. *Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be greater than one. Then, $r \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ is a unit if and only if r and m are relatively prime; i.e. $\gcd(r, m) = 1$.*

Proof. Suppose $r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$ is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_m , then there exists $r^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ such that $r \cdot r^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

In other words, there exists $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $r \cdot r^{-1} - 1 = mx$, or $r \cdot r^{-1} - mx = 1$. This implies that if there is an integer d such that $d|r$ and $d|m$, then d must also divide 1. Hence, the GCD of r and m is 1.

Conversely, if $\gcd(r, m) = 1$, then there exists $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $rx + my = 1$.

It follows that $r^{-1} = \bar{x}$ is a multiplicative inverse of r . Here, $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ is the remainder of the division of x by m . \square

Corollary 8.16. *For p prime, every nonzero element of \mathbb{Z}_p is a unit.*

Example 8.17. *The only units of \mathbb{Z} are ± 1 .*

Example 8.18. *Let R be the ring of all real-valued functions on \mathbb{R} . Then, any function $f \in R$ satisfying $f(x) \neq 0, \forall x$, is a unit.*

Example 8.19. *Let R be the ring of all continuous real-valued functions on \mathbb{R} , then $f \in R$ is a unit if and only if it is either strictly positive or strictly negative.*

Claim 8.20. *The only units of $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ are nonzero constants.*

Proof. Given any $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $\deg f > 0$, for all nonzero $g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ we have

$$\deg fg \geq \deg f > 0 = \deg 1;$$

hence, $fg \neq 1$. If $g = 0$, then $fg = 0 \neq 1$. So, f has no multiplicative inverse.

If f is a nonzero constant, then $f^{-1} = \frac{1}{f}$ is a constant polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, and $f \cdot \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{f} \cdot f = 1$. So, f is a unit.

Finally, if $f = 0$, then $fg = 0 \neq 1$ for all $g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, so the zero polynomial has no multiplicative inverse. \square

8.1.1 WeBWorK

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8.2 Fields

Definition 8.21. A **field** is a commutative ring, with $1 \neq 0$, in which every nonzero element is a unit.

In other words, a nonzero commutative ring F is a field if and only if every nonzero element $r \in F$ has a multiplicative inverse r^{-1} , i.e. $rr^{-1} = r^{-1}r = 1$.

Since every nonzero element of a field is a unit, a field is necessarily an integral domain, but an integral domain is not necessarily a field. For example \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain which is not a field.

Example 8.22. 1. \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R} are fields.

2. For $m \in \mathbb{N}$, it follows from a previous result that \mathbb{Z}_m is a field if and only if m is prime.

Notation For p prime, we often denote the field \mathbb{Z}_p by \mathbb{F}_p .

Claim 8.23. Equipped with the usual operations of addition and multiplications for real numbers, $F = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] := \{a + b\sqrt{2} | a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ is a field.

Proof. Observe that: $(a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2}) = (a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2}$ lies in F , and $(a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2}) = (ac + 2bd) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{2} \in F$. Hence, addition and multiplication for real numbers are well-defined operations on F . As operations on \mathbb{R} , they are commutative, associative, and satisfy distributivity; therefore, as F is a subset of \mathbb{R} , they also satisfy these properties as operations on F .

It is clear that 0 and 1 are the additive and multiplicative identities of F . Given $a + b\sqrt{2} \in F$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, it is clear that its additive inverse $-a - b\sqrt{2}$ also lies in F . Hence, F is a commutative ring.

To show that F is a field, for every nonzero $a + b\sqrt{2}$ in F , we need to find its multiplicative inverse. As an element of the field \mathbb{R} , the multiplicative inverse of $a + b\sqrt{2}$ is:

$$(a + b\sqrt{2})^{-1} = \frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}}.$$

It remains to show that this number lies in F . Observe that:

$$(a + b\sqrt{2})(a - b\sqrt{2}) = a^2 - 2b^2.$$

We claim that $a^2 - 2b^2 \neq 0$.

Suppose $a^2 - 2b^2 = 0$, then either (i) $a = b = 0$, or (ii) $b \neq 0$, $\sqrt{2} = |a/b|$.

Since we have assumed that $a + b\sqrt{2}$ is nonzero, case (i) cannot hold.

But case (ii) also cannot hold because $\sqrt{2}$ is known to be irrational. Hence $a^2 - 2b^2 \neq 0$, and:

$$\frac{1}{a + b\sqrt{2}} = \frac{a}{a^2 - 2b^2} - \frac{b}{a^2 - 2b^2}\sqrt{2},$$

which lies in F . □

Claim 8.24. *All finite integral domains are fields.*

Proof. Let R be an integral domain with n elements, where n is finite. Write $R = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$.

We want to show that for any nonzero element $a \neq 0$ in R , there exists i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, such that a_i is the multiplicative inverse of a .

Consider the set $S = \{aa_1, aa_2, \dots, aa_n\}$. Since R is an integral domain, the cancellation law holds. In particular, since $a \neq 0$, we have $aa_i = aa_j$ if and only if $i = j$.

The set S is therefore a subset of R with n distinct elements, which implies that $S = R$.

In particular, $1 = aa_i$ for some i . This a_i is the multiplicative inverse of a . □

8.2.1 Field of Fractions

An integral domain fails to be a field precisely when there is a nonzero element with no multiplicative inverse. The ring \mathbb{Z} is such an example, for $2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ has no multiplicative inverse.

But any nonzero $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ has a multiplicative inverse $\frac{1}{n}$ in \mathbb{Q} , which is a field.

So, a question one could ask is, can we "enlarge" a given integral domain to a field, by formally adding multiplicative inverses to the ring?

An Equivalence Relation

Given an integral domain R (commutative, with $1 \neq 0$). We consider the set: $R \times R_{\neq 0} := \{(a, b) : a, b \in R, b \neq 0\}$. We define a relation \equiv on $R \times R_{\neq 0}$ as follows:

$$(a, b) \equiv (c, d) \text{ if } ad = bc.$$

Lemma 8.25. *The relation \equiv is an equivalence relation.*

In other words, the relation \equiv is:

1. **Reflexive:** $(a, b) \equiv (a, b)$ for all $(a, b) \in R \times R_{\neq 0}$
2. **Symmetric:** If $(a, b) \equiv (c, d)$, then $(c, d) \equiv (a, b)$.
3. **Transitive:** If $(a, b) \equiv (c, d)$ and $(c, d) \equiv (e, f)$, then $(a, b) \equiv (e, f)$.

Proof. **Exercise.** □

Due to the properties (reflexive, symmetric, transitive), of an equivalence relation, the equivalent classes form a **partition** of S . Namely, equivalent classes of non-equivalent elements are disjoint:

$$[s] \cap [t] = \emptyset$$

if $s \not\sim t$; and the union of all equivalent classes is equal to S :

$$\bigcup_{s \in S} [s] = S.$$

Definition 8.26. Given an equivalence relation \sim on a set S , the **quotient set** S/\sim is the set of all equivalence classes of S , with respect to \sim .

We now return to our specific situation of $R \times R_{\neq 0}$, with \equiv defined as above. We define addition $+$ and multiplication \cdot on $R \times R_{\neq 0}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) + (c, d) &:= (ad + bc, bd) \\ (a, b) \cdot (c, d) &:= (ac, bd)\end{aligned}$$

Claim 8.27. Suppose $(a, b) \equiv (a', b')$ and $(c, d) \equiv (c', d')$, then:

1. $(a, b) + (c, d) \equiv (a', b') + (c', d')$.
2. $(a, b) \cdot (c, d) \equiv (a', b') \cdot (c', d')$.

Proof. By definition, $(a, b) + (c, d) = (ad + bc, bd)$, and $(a', b') + (c', d') = (a'd' + b'c', b'd')$. Since by assumption $ab' = a'b$ and $cd' = c'd$, we have:

$$(ad + bc)b'd' = adb'd' + bcb'd' = a'bdd' + c'dbb' = (a'd' + b'c')bd;$$

hence, $(a, b) + (c, d) \equiv (a', b') + (c', d')$.

For multiplication, by definition we have $(a, b) \cdot (c, d) = (ac, bd)$ and $(a', b') \cdot (c', d') = (a'c', b'd')$.

Since

$$acb'd' = ab'cd' = a'bc'd = a'c'bd,$$

we have $(a, b) \cdot (c, d) \equiv (a', b') \cdot (c', d')$. □

Let:

$$\text{Frac}(R) := (R \times R_{\neq 0}) / \equiv,$$

and define $+$ and \cdot on $\text{Frac}(R)$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}[(a, b)] + [(c, d)] &= [(ad + bc, bd)] \\ [(a, b)] \cdot [(c, d)] &= [(ac, bd)]\end{aligned}$$

Corollary 8.28. $+$ and \cdot thus defined are well-defined binary operations on $\text{Frac}(R)$.

In other words, we get the same output in $\text{Frac}(R)$ regardless of the choice of representatives of the equivalence classes.

Claim 8.29. *The set $\text{Frac}(R)$, equipped with $+$ and \cdot defined as above, forms a field, with additive identity $0 = [(0, 1)]$ and multiplicative identity $1 = [(1, 1)]$. The multiplicative inverse of a nonzero element $[(a, b)] \in \text{Frac}(R)$ is $[(b, a)]$.*

Proof. Exercise. □

Definition 8.30. $\text{Frac}(R)$ is called the **Fraction Field** of R .

Note.

$\text{Frac}(\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Q}$, if we identify $a/b \in \mathbb{Q}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $[(a, b)] \in \text{Frac}(\mathbb{Z})$.

8.2.2 WeBWorK

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