SLIDES WEEK 23 Algebraic Structures

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DEEP DIVE SLIDES

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DETAILED SLIDES

Deep Dive Slides

- These slides are similar to the lecture slides but include added motivations and explanations to enhance your learning experience.
- They are self-contained for independent study and do not provide additional material.
- Optional proofs are included (marked as optional).
- If you prefer a straightforward approach, you can study from the lecture slides without missing anything.

WEEK 21: GOALS

Last time:

- \blacksquare Ideals,
- Principal Ideals,
- Quotient Rings,
- Field of Fractions.

Today:

- Characteristic of a ring,
- Polynomial Rings.

CHARACTERISTIC OF A RING

MULTIPLICATION OF ELEMENTS OF RINGS BY INTEGERS

Definition.

Let R be a ring.

Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ (i.e. k is a positive integer) and $r \in R$, then

$$kr = \underbrace{r + r + \dots + r}_{k \text{ times}}.$$

If k is a negative integer, then

$$kr = \underbrace{-r - r - \cdots - r}_{|k| \text{ times}}.$$

Example.

If $R = \mathbb{R}$, we know that

$$kr = \underbrace{r + r + \dots + r}_{k \text{ times}},$$

$$(-k)r = \underbrace{-r - r - \dots - r}_{k \text{ times}},$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and all $r \in \mathbb{R}$.

Multiplication of elements of rings by integers

- The previous definition might seem a bit redundant at first.
- That is because we are used to $k \cdot r$ meaning r added k times.
- However, ring elements might not be numbers.
- \blacksquare E.g., imagine we have a ring R whose elements are fruits.
- In this case, what does $k \cdot F$ mean for a fruit F?
- We might not know "three times F", but we know that since R is a ring, it has a sum.
- In other words, when defining R, we must also define what $F_1 + F_2$ means for any two fruits F_1 , F_2 in R.
- Thus, $3 \cdot F = F + F + F$ is also given by this operation.
- That means that $3 \cdot F$ is F operated with itself three times using the ring additive operation.

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Example

Let $R = Mat(2, \mathbb{R})$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Question: What is $k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$?

By definition,

$$k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}}_{k \text{ times}} = \begin{pmatrix} ka & kb \\ kc & kd \end{pmatrix}.$$

CHARACTERISTIC OF A RING

- Knowing the **characteristic** of a ring can simplify calculations within the ring.
- For example, in a ring with characteristic n > 0, any element added to itself n times will result in zero.
- The characteristic also helps in classifying and understanding rings.
- For instance, fields of prime characteristic *p* have different properties compared to fields of characteristic 0, influencing the types of polynomials that can be solved, for instance.
- In the next slides, we will define the characteristic of a ring and provide examples of characteristics from rings we are already familiar with.

CHARACTERISTIC OF A RING

Definition.

Let R be a ring. Assume there is a **positive** integer k such that

 $kr = 0_R$, for all $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbf{R}$.

Then the **least** such k is called the **characteristic** of R. If no such k exists, we say R has **characteristic zero**.

Example: \mathbb{R}

If $k \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$, then

$$k \cdot 1 = k \neq 0.$$

Thus \mathbb{R} is a ring of characteristic zero.

Example: $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$

If $\overline{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, then

$$2 \cdot \overline{a} = \overline{a} + \overline{a} = \overline{2a} = \overline{0}.$$

Thus, $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ is a ring of characteristic 2.

Example: $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$

If $\overline{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, then

$$n \cdot \overline{a} = \underbrace{\overline{a} + \overline{a} + \dots + \overline{a}}_{n \text{ times}} = \overline{na} = \overline{0}.$$

Thus, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a ring of **characteristic n**.

Example: $Mat(2, \mathbb{R})$

For each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ka & kb \\ kc & kd \end{pmatrix}.$$

In particular,

$$k \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & k \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, $Mat(2, \mathbb{R})$ is a ring of **characteristic zero**.

- Calculating the characteristic of a ring using the definition can be tedious, especially for rings with many elements or difficult descriptions.
- Fortunately, there's a simpler method for rings with a **unity** element.
- Instead of verifying that $r \in R$ for all $r \in R$, and finding the smallest such k, we can focus on the unity element.
- That is, the next result shows that it is sufficient to check the case $r = 1_R$.

Lemma [Characteristic of a ring with unity]

Let R be a ring with unity e. Then the characteristic of R is the **least** $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

 $k \cdot e = 0_R.$

Proof.

Let R be a ring with unity e, and let $k\in\mathbb{N}$ be the least number in $\mathbb N$ such that

 $k \cdot e = 0_R.$

Let us show that the characteristic of R is k.

Characteristic of a ring with unity e-Part 2

Proof.

Goal. For all $r \in R$, we must show

 $k \cdot r = 0_R,$

and also k is the least number in \mathbb{N} with this property. In fact,

$$k \cdot r = k \cdot (e \cdot r) = (k \cdot e) \cdot r = 0_R \cdot r = 0_R \cdot \checkmark$$

Characteristic of a ring with unity e-Part 3

Proof.

Let us show k is the least such number.

Suppose $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ is such that $\ell < k$ but

 $\ell \cdot r = 0_R$, for all $r \in R$.

In particular

 $\ell \cdot e = 0_R,$

contradicting the minimality of k.

Thus, k is the least such positive number. \checkmark

COMPUTING THE CHARACTERISTIC OF A RING WITH UNITY

- By the previous lemma, to compute the characteristic of a ring *R* with unity, we need to identify:
 - The unity element 1_R ,
 - ▶ The zero element 0_R .

• Next, find the smallest **positive** integer k such that

$$\underbrace{1_R + 1_R + \dots + 1_R}_{k \text{ times}} = 0_R.$$

- If such a k exists, then $\operatorname{Char}(R) = k$.
- If no such k exists, then $\operatorname{Char}(R) = 0$.

Example

Let us find the characteristic of the field of complex numbers \mathbb{C} . Since \mathbb{C} has unity, we can use the previous lemma.

- **Zero:** The zero of \mathbb{C} is $0_{\mathbb{C}} = 0$.
- Unity: The unity of \mathbb{C} is $1_{\mathbb{C}} = 1$.

Thus, it suffices to find the smallest **positive** $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $k \cdot 1 = 0$.

Clearly, $k \cdot 1 = k > 0$ if k is positive.

Thus, $\operatorname{Char}(\mathbb{C}) = 0$.

Example

We can use the lemma to quickly show that $\operatorname{Char}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) = n$.

- **Zero:** The zero of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is $0_{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}} = \overline{0}$.
- Unity: The unity of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is $1_{\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}} = \overline{1}$.

We must find the smallest **positive** $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $k \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{0}$. Since $n \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{n} = \overline{0}$, we see that $\operatorname{Char}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) \ge n$. However, if $0 \le k < n$, then $k \cdot \overline{1} = \overline{k} \ne \overline{0}$. Thus, $\operatorname{Char}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}) = n$.

Characteristic of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7$

Example

Let us find $\operatorname{Char}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7)$.

- **Zero:** The zero of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7$ is $0_{\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7} = ([0]_2, [0_7])^1$.
- Unity: The unity of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7$ is $1_{\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7} = ([1]_2, [1]_7)$.

Now, we must find the smallest **positive** $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

 $k \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([0]_2, [0]_7).$

¹Here, $[a]_2$ means $a \mod 2$ and $[b]_7$ means $b \mod 7$.

Characteristic of $\mathbb{Z}_2\times\mathbb{Z}_7$ - Part 2

Example

We must find the smallest **positive** $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

 $k \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([0]_2, [0]_7).$

We have

$$2 \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([2]_2, [2]_7) = ([0]_2, [2]_7)$$

$$3 \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([\overline{3}]_2, [\overline{3}]_7) = ([1]_2, [\overline{3}]_7)$$

$$4 \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([\overline{4}]_2, [\overline{4}]_7) = ([0]_2, [\overline{4}]_7)$$

We see that $k \cdot ([1]_2, [1]_7) = ([0]_2, [0]_7)$ precisely when k is a multiple of 2 and 7.

We need the **smallest** such k, so it is the least common multiple: k = 14. Thus, $Char(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_7) = 14$.

- Let us explore the possible characteristics of an integral domain.
- For example, we will discover why there is no integral domain with characteristic 4, but there is one with characteristic 3.
- First, let us recall the definition of an integral domain.

Reminder: Integral domains



CHARACTERISTIC OF INTEGRAL DOMAINS

Proposition.

The characteristic of an integral domain D is either zero or a prime.

Proof.

Let D be an integral domain. Then, in particular, D has unity 1_D . If D has characteristic zero, we are done. Assume D has characteristic $k \in \mathbb{N}$. We must show that k is prime.

Recall that the characteristic k of D is the least positive integer satisfying

 $k \cdot d = 0_D$, for all $d \in D$.

Since $1 \cdot 1_D = 1_D \neq 0_D$, we have k > 1.

Characteristic of integral domains–Part 2 $\,$

Proof.

Assume by contradiction that k is not prime.

Then k = ab for some $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ with 1 < a < k and 1 < b < k. Because $k \cdot 1_D = 0_D$, we have

$$(a \cdot 1_D) \cdot (b \cdot 1_D) = (ab) \cdot 1_D = k \cdot 1_D = 0_D.$$

As D is an integral domain, it has no zero divisors. Thus, either

$$a \cdot 1_D = 0_D$$
 or $b \cdot 1_D = 0_D$.

Lemma [Char. of rings with 1]: If $a1_D = 0_D$, then the characteristic of R is at most a < k, a contradiction.

Similarly, $b1_D = 0_D$ yields a contradiction.

POLYNOMIAL RINGS

- In the next lecture, we will explore how to construct fields of a fixed cardinality.
- To achieve this, we will use **polynomial rings**.
- Let us prepare by revisiting the definition of polynomial rings and the degree of a polynomial, and by exploring some examples.
- Finally, we will prove that if R is commutative with unity, then so is R[x].

Definition

Let R be a commutative ring with unity 1_R . The set

$$R[x] = \{a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \mid a_i \in R, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}\$$

with operations

$$f(x) + g(x) = (f + g)(x)$$
$$f(x)g(x) = (fg)(x)$$

is a ring called a **polynomial ring**.

Examples: $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and $\mathbb{C}[x]$

- $\blacksquare \ \mathbb{Z}[x]$: polynomials with integer coefficients,
- $\mathbb{Q}[x]$: polynomials with rational coefficients,
- \blacksquare $\mathbb{R}[x]:$ polynomials with real coefficients,
- $\mathbb{C}[x]$: polynomials with complex coefficients.

The polynomial ring $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{n\mathbb{Z}}[x]$

 $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{n\mathbb{Z}}[x] \text{ is the ring of polynomials over } \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}.$ Examples of elements of $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{n\mathbb{Z}}[x]$:

$$f(x) = (\overline{n-1}) \cdot x^2 + \overline{2}$$
$$g(x) = x^2 = \overline{1} \cdot x^2.$$

Computations are as usual (but coefficients are taken mod n):

$$f(x) + g(x) = ((\overline{n-1}) \cdot x^2 + \overline{2}) + (x^2)$$

= $(\overline{n-1} + \overline{1}) \cdot x^2 + \overline{2}$
= $\overline{n} \cdot x^2 + \overline{2}$
= $\overline{0} \cdot x^2 + \overline{2}$
= $\overline{2}.$

Degree of a polynomial

Let $f(x) \in R[x]$. Then

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n,$$

with $a_i \in R$, $a_n \neq 0$, and $n \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$.

The **degree** of f is n. I.e., the highest power of x in f(x).

Notation: $\deg(f) = n$.

EXAMPLES

Examples in $\mathbb{R}[x]$

- 1. $\deg(x^2) = 2$,
- 2. $\deg(2x^3 3x + 1) = 3$,
- 3. $\deg(1) = 0$,
- 4. deg $(1 + 2x + 5x^2 x^3 + x^5 2x^8) = 8$.

Examples in $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{2\mathbb{Z}}[x]$

1. $\deg(x^2) = 2$, 2. $\deg(\overline{2}x^3 - \overline{3}x + \overline{1}) = 1$ because

$$\overline{2}x^3 - \overline{3}x + \overline{1} = \overline{0}x^3 - \overline{1}x + \overline{1} = x + \overline{1}.$$

Theorem.

If R is a commutative ring with unity, then so is R[x].

Moreover, R can be regarded a subring of R[x].

Proof.

To show that R[x] is commutative, we must show that

f(x)g(x) = g(x)f(x),

for all $f(x), g(x) \in R[x]$.

Proof of theorem–Part 2

Proof.

Write

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n, g(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_m x^m.$$

Then

$$f(x)g(x) = (a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n) \cdot (b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_mx^m)$$

= $a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0) \cdot x + \dots + (a_nb_m) \cdot x^{n+m}.$

R is commutative: ab = ba for all $a, b \in R$. Thus

$$f(x)g(x) = b_0a_0 + (b_1a_0 + b_0a_1) \cdot x + \dots + (b_ma_n) \cdot x^{m+n}$$

= $(b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_mx^m) \cdot (a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n)$
= $g(x)f(x)$.

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Proof that R[x] has unity.

If R has unity 1_R , then the constant polynomial

$$\mathbf{1}(x) = 1_R$$

is the unity of R[x]:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{1}(x) \cdot f(x) &= \mathbf{1}_R \cdot (a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n) \\ &= (\mathbf{1}_R \cdot a_0) + (\mathbf{1}_R \cdot a_1) x + \dots + (\mathbf{1}_R \cdot a_n) x^n \\ &= a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n \\ &= f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$f(x) \cdot \mathbf{1}(x) = f(x).$$

R is a subring of R[x]

If $r \in R$, we can define the constant polynomial

$$\mathbf{r}(x) = r.$$

We can then regard the elements of R as elements of R[x].

With this identification, we can consider R as a subring of R[x].

Next time..

■ Polynomial rings over fields.