

Lecture 01: Introduction

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Historically algebra was developed to study zeros of polynomials. The word algebra comes from the name of a book written by a persian mathematician Kharazmi (خوارزمي). In this book, he essentially told us how to find zeros of deg. 1 and deg. 2 polynomials. Finding zeros of deg. 3 polynomials has a fascinating history. Khayaam had a geometric method to solve certain such polynomials, but the general case had been solved by Tartaglia. Zeros of deg. 4 poly. were found by Ferrari. In 1824, Abel showed that one cannot express zeros of a general deg. 5 polynomial using $+$, $-$, \times , $/$, and radicals. In 1832, Galois taught us how to study zeros of polynomials.

Another problem that had a lot of influence in development of algebra was Fermat's Last Conjecture: $x^n + y^n = z^n$ has no non-trivial integral solutions. As you can see, it is again about zeros of a polynomial; but this time there are more than 1

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variable and we asking for zeros in \mathbb{Z} .

In both of these problems, we add a zero to \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{Z} , create a new "system of numbers", and study it. And this is how we get to ring theory.

Def. A ring A is a set with two operations $+$, \cdot with the following properties:

(1) $(A, +)$ is an abelian group.

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

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

We say A is commutative if $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for any $a, b \in A$.

We say A is unital if it has a unity or identity; that means $\exists e \in A$ s.t. $\forall a \in A, a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$.

Basic Properties. (1) If A is unital, its unity is unique.

Pf. Suppose e_1 and e_2 are two unities; then

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$$e_1 = e_1 \cdot e_2 = e_2$$

e_2 is a unity e_1 is a unity

(2) $0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 0$

Pf. $(\underbrace{0+0}_0) \cdot a = 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a$ (distribution)

$\Rightarrow 0 \cdot a = 0 \cdot a + 0 \cdot a \Rightarrow 0 \cdot a = 0$

(adding $-0 \cdot a$ to both sides)

(3) $a \cdot (-b) = (-a) \cdot b = -a \cdot b$

Pf. $a \cdot (-b) + a \cdot b = a \cdot ((-b) + b)$ (distribution)

$= a \cdot 0$

$= 0$

(as we proved above)

$\Rightarrow a \cdot (-b) = -a \cdot b$

Similarly $(-a) \cdot b + ab = ((-a) + a) \cdot b = 0 \cdot b = 0$

(4) $(-a) \cdot (-b) = ab$

Pf. $(-a) \cdot (-b) = -(a \cdot (-b)) = -(-a \cdot b) = a \cdot b$

part (3)

group theory

(5) If 1 is the unity of A , then $(-1) \cdot a = a \cdot (-1) = -a$.

Pf. $(-1) \cdot a = -(1 \cdot a) = -a$ and $a \cdot (-1) = -(a \cdot 1) = -a$.

Lecture 01: Examples of rings

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Ex. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} are unital commutative rings.

Ex. \mathbb{Z}^0 is NOT a ring as $(\mathbb{Z}^0, +)$ is not a group.

Remark. In a unital ring non-zero element might not have a multi.

inverse. For instance $U(\mathbb{Z}) := \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \text{ has multipl. inverse}\}$

$= \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \cdot m = m \cdot n = 1\} = \{1, -1\}$.

Ex. The set $2\mathbb{Z}$ of integer multiples of 2 is a ring.

It is commutative, but it is not unital.

Since $2\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$, to check whether it is a ring or not

it is enough to check (1) $(2\mathbb{Z}, +)$ is a group (2) $(2\mathbb{Z}, \cdot)$ is

closed under multiplication.

Recall. H is a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ if and only if $H = n\mathbb{Z}$

for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark. Suppose $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring. Then $S \subseteq R$ is a subring

if and only if (1) $(S, +)$ is a subgroup (2) S is closed under

multiplication.