

Lecture 04: Characteristic

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In the previous lecture we proved that $\text{char } A = \text{l.c.m. } o(a)$.
 $a \in A$

Next we get a much better result for a unital ring:

Proposition. Suppose A is a unital ring. If $o(1_A) < \infty$, then

$\text{char } A = o(1_A)$; if $o(1_A) = \infty$, then $\text{char } A = 0$.

Pf. If $o(1_A) = \infty$, then $\nexists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $n 1_A = 0$; and so $C_A = \emptyset$.

Therefore $\text{char } A = 0$.

Let $n := o(1_A)$. We will show that $n = \text{l.c.m. } o(a)$.
 $a \in A$

$$n 1_A = 0 \Rightarrow \forall a \in A, (n 1_A) a = 0 \Rightarrow n a = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow o(a) \mid n.$$

Hence n is a common multiple of $o(a)$'s; thus

$$\text{l.c.m. } o(a) \leq n. \quad \text{(I)}$$
$$a \in A$$

On the other hand $\text{l.c.m. } o(a)$ is a (positive) multiple

of $o(1_A)$; and so $\text{l.c.m. } o(a) \geq o(1_A) = n$ (II)

(I) and (II) imply $o(1_A) = \text{l.c.m. } o(a)$. And by the

result proved in the previous lecture claim follows. ■

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Ex. Find $\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_k})$.

Solution. Since \mathbb{Z}_{n_i} 's are unital rings, so is their direct product (as you showed it in your HW assignment). Hence

$$\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}) = o(1)$$

$$= o(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}, \dots, 1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}}) \quad (\text{the same HW})$$

Let $m := o(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}, \dots, 1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}})$. So m is the smallest positive

integer s.t. $m(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}, \dots, 1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}}) = (0, \dots, 0)$. Notice

$$m(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}, \dots, 1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}}) = (0, \dots, 0) \iff (m1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}, \dots, m1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}}) = (0, \dots, 0)$$

$$\iff m1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}} = 0, \dots, m1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}} = 0$$

$$\iff o(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}}) \mid m, \dots, o(1_{\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}}) \mid m$$

$$\iff n_1 \mid m, \dots, n_k \mid m$$

$$\iff m \text{ is a common multiple of } n_1, \dots, n_k.$$

Hence smallest positive integer with this property is

$\text{l.c.m.}(n_1, \dots, n_k)$. So overall $\text{char}(\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}) = \text{l.c.m.}(n_1, \dots, n_k)$. \square

Lecture 04: Integral domain

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Def. A unital commutative ring D is called an integral domain if $0 \neq 1$ and D has no zero-divisor.

Ex. \mathbb{Z}_4 is not an integral domain as $2 \neq 0$ and $2 \times 2 = 0$.

. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} are integral domains.
more special;
these are fields.

Proposition In a unital ring A , $D(A) \cap A^\times = \emptyset$ where $D(A)$ is the set of all zero-divisors of A . In particular a field F is an integral domain.

Pf. Suppose to the contrary that $a \in D(A) \cap A^\times$. So

$$\underbrace{a \neq 0 \text{ and } \exists a' \in A \setminus \{0\}, aa' = 0}_{a \in D(A)} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{\exists a'' \in A, a''a = 1}_{a \in A^\times}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \begin{array}{l} a''(aa') = a'' \cdot 0 = 0 \\ (a''a)a' = 1 \cdot a' = a' \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a' = 0 \text{ which is a contradiction.}$$

. Since F is a field, it is a unital commutative ring and $0 \neq 1$. Therefore to show F is an integral domain, it is

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enough to show $D(F) = \emptyset$. By the first part of this proposition

$D(F) \cap F^\times = \emptyset$; and so $D(F) \subseteq \text{complement of } F^\times$.

As $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$, we deduce that $D(F) \subseteq \{0\}$. Since

0 is not a zero-divisor, $D(F) = \emptyset$; and claim follows. ■

Notice that \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain which is not a field; and

so the converse of the above statement is not true in

general. Next we see that when a ring is finite then

the converse holds as well.

Theorem. A finite integral domain D is a field.

Pf. Since D is an integral domain, it is a unital commutative ring and $0 \neq 1$. So to show it is a field, it is enough to

prove any non-zero element is a unit; that means we have

to show $\forall a \in D \setminus \{0\}, \exists a' \in D, aa' = 1$. (Similar to the proof of Cayley's theorem in group theory we make use

of $\ell_a: D \rightarrow D, \ell_a(x) := ax$.) Let $\ell_a: D \rightarrow D, \ell_a(x) = ax$.

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We have to show that $\exists a' \in D$ s.t. $aa' = 1$ which is equivalent to saying $1 \in \text{Image of } l_a$. So it is enough to show l_a is surjective. We will prove that l_a is injective, and then using pigeonhole and the assumption that D is finite, we deduce that l_a is surjective and claim would follow.

Injectivity of l_a . $l_a(x_1) = l_a(x_2) \Rightarrow ax_1 = ax_2$

now we have to show that we can **cancel out** a .

$$ax_1 = ax_2 \Rightarrow ax_1 - ax_2 = 0 \Rightarrow a(x_1 - x_2) = 0$$

\Rightarrow either $a=0$ or $x_1 - x_2 = 0$ as D has no zero-divisor

$$\Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_1 - x_2 = 0 \\ (\text{as } a \neq 0) \end{matrix} \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

(we showed the cancellation law.)

Since $|D| < \infty$ and $\rightarrow l_a: D \rightarrow D$ is injective, l_a is surjective.

Hence $1 \in \text{Image of } l_a$, which means $\exists a' \in D$, $l_a(a') = 1$,

and so $aa' = 1$; and claim follows. \blacksquare

Lecture 04: Recall an application of pigeonhole principle

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Recall. Suppose X and Y are two finite sets and $|X|=|Y|$.

Suppose $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a function. Then the following are

equivalent: (a) f is injective; (b) f is surjective;

(c) f is bijective;

(a) \Rightarrow (b) Suppose f is not surjective. Think about elements

of X as "pigeons", elements of Y as "pigeonholes", and

f as a way of assigning pigeonholes to pigeons. Since

f is not surjective, we have at least one less pigeonhole

to assign to pigeons. So by the pigeonhole principle at least

two pigeons should be assigned to the same pigeonholes;

but this means f is not injective which is a contradiction.

(b) \Rightarrow (c) We have to show f is injective. If not, let's say

the 1st and the 2nd pigeons are sharing a pigeonhole. So

only $n-2$ pigeons remain; and they cannot cover the

$n-1$ remaining pigeonholes. This contradicts surjectivity of f .

(c) \Rightarrow (a) is clear. ■

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Theorem. Suppose $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(a) \mathbb{Z}_n is a field, (b) \mathbb{Z}_n is an integral domain, (c) n is prime

PF. (a) \Rightarrow (b) A field is an integral domain.

(b) \Rightarrow (c) If not, n is either 1 or ab for some $0 < a, b < n$

In \mathbb{Z}_1 , $0 = 1$; and so it is not an integral domain which is a contradiction.

If $n = ab$ for some $0 < a, b < n$, then

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\}$ and $ab = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_n ; and so a and b are zero-divisors in \mathbb{Z}_n , which implies \mathbb{Z}_n is not an integral domain. This is a contradiction.

(c) \Rightarrow (a) We proved this in the previous lecture. \blacksquare

As we have seen, an integral domain is not necessarily a field, e.g. \mathbb{Z} . Any integral domain, however, can be embedded in a field and there is the smallest such field, e.g. $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$.

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For instance in the case of \mathbb{Z} , if a field F contains \mathbb{Z} as a subring, then $\forall m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, $\frac{1}{m}$ exists in F , and so for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, $\frac{n}{m}$ exists in F , which means there is a copy of \mathbb{Q} in F .

Our goal is to show for any integral domain D there is the smallest field $Q(D)$ that contains a copy of D ; $Q(D)$ is called the field of fractions of D .

We will use \mathbb{Q} as a guide for the construction of $Q(D)$. That

means we will make sense of fractions $\frac{a}{b}$ for $a \in D$ and

$b \in D \setminus \{0\}$. One might be tempted to consider $D \times (D \setminus \{0\})$

to be the set for $Q(D)$; viewing first component as the

numerator and the 2nd component as the denominator. The

problem with this naive approach is that $\frac{ar}{br} = \frac{a}{b}$ for

any $r \in D \setminus \{0\}$. So we need to treat (a, b) and (ar, br)

as equal. And in general we need to treat (a_1, b_1) and (a_2, b_2)

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as equal if $a_1 b_2 = a_2 b_1$ ($\frac{a_1}{b_1} = \frac{a_2}{b_2} \iff a_1 b_2 = a_2 b_1$).

That is why we collect all such pairs in a subset and consider the collection of these subsets. Intuitively each subset

consists of pairs that represent the same fraction; let

$$[(a, b)] := \{ (a', b') \in D \times (D \setminus \{0\}) \mid a b' = a' b \}.$$

Theorem. $\{ [(a, b)] \mid (a, b) \in D \times (D \setminus \{0\}) \}$ is a partition of $D \times (D \setminus \{0\})$.

We will prove this in a several steps:

Step 1. $(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \implies (a, b) \in [(c, d)]$

Pf. $(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \implies c b = a d \implies (a, b) \in [(c, d)]$.

Step 2. $\left. \begin{array}{l} (c, d) \in [(a, b)] \\ (e, f) \in [(c, d)] \end{array} \right\} \implies (e, f) \in [(a, b)]$.

Pf. $\left. \begin{array}{l} (c, d) \in [(a, b)] \implies c b = a d \implies e c b = e a d \\ (e, f) \in [(c, d)] \implies e d = f c \implies a e d = a f c \end{array} \right\} \implies$

$c e b - c a f = c (e b - a f) = 0 \implies$ either $c=0$ or $e b = a f$. In latter case $(e, f) \in [(a, b)]$. If $c=0$, then

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$$\begin{aligned} 0 = cb = ad &\Rightarrow a=0 \text{ or } d=0 \Big\} \Rightarrow a=0 \Big\} \Rightarrow af = be \\ &\quad d \neq 0 \\ 0 = cf = ed &\Rightarrow e=0 \text{ or } d=0 \Big\} \Rightarrow e=0 \Big\} \end{aligned}$$

And so again $(c, f) \in [(a, b)]$.

Step 3. $(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \Rightarrow [(a, b)] = [(c, d)]$.

Pf. $(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \Rightarrow [(c, d)] \subseteq [(a, b)]$ ^(I) by step 2.

$$(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \Rightarrow (a, b) \in [(c, d)] \quad \text{by step 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow [(a, b)] \subseteq [(c, d)] \quad \text{(II) by step 2.}$$

(I) and (II) imply $[(a, b)] = [(c, d)]$.

Step 4. $[(a, b)] \cap [(a', b')] \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow [(a, b)] = [(a', b')]$.

Pf. $(c, d) \in [(a, b)] \cap [(a', b')] \Rightarrow$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (c, d) \in [(a, b)] \xrightarrow{\text{Step 3}} [(c, d)] = [(a, b)] \\ (c, d) \in [(a', b')] \xrightarrow{\text{Step 3}} [(c, d)] = [(a', b')] \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow [(a, b)] = [(a', b')].$$

Step 5. $\bigcup_{(a, b) \in D \times (D \setminus \{0\})} [(a, b)] = D \times (D \setminus \{0\})$

Pf. $ab - ab = 0 \Rightarrow (a, b) \in [(a, b)]$. ■

Steps 1-5 imply the mentioned theorem. We will treat $[(a, b)]$ as a/b .