

## Lecture 24: Historical view towards algebra

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Historically algebra was developed to study zeros of polynomials. Having symbolic algebra in our disposal, it is easy for us to find zeros of deg. 1 and deg. 2 polynomials; but at a time a whole book by Kharazmi was devoted to giving an algorithm for finding zeros of a deg. 2 polynomial. In 11 century Khayyam more or less found zeros of deg. 3 polynomials. In 16 century Ferrari gave an algor. of finding zeros of deg. 4 polynomials. In 1824, Abel proved that there is no solution in radicals to the general poly. eq. of deg.  $\geq 5$ . In 1832, Galois gave an elegant treatment of understanding zeros of a single variable poly.; and he essentially said the group of symmetries of zeros is the key tool to study them.

Then algebra grew in two (related) directions: understanding zeros of multi-variable polynomials (using geometric intuitions); And trying to prove Fermat's last conjecture (finding zeros of

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$x^n + y^n - z^n = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  or equivalently zeros of  $X^n + Y^n - 1$  in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .)

These were motivations to study (mostly) commutative, unital  
rings.

As we mentioned earlier, even to study the commutative rings one is forced to understand their group of symmetries that are often non-commutative. To study groups, a basic tool is to investigate their linear actions, which is called a representation. In representation theory, certain non-commutative rings naturally arise: for instance group rings and certain Banach algebras.

Another place that non-commutative rings naturally arise is in Lie theory. Again we'd like to understand the group of symmetries of certain geometry; e.g. hyperbolic geometry, Euclidean geom., ... but it is easier to study linear objects. So we pass to the Lie algebra. Then Lie algebra is not associative, so we pass

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to the so-called universal enveloping algebra. (that is typically non-commutative.)

As it was pointed out earlier, geometric intuitions have been extremely instrumental in asking "the right questions" about commutative rings. The subject of non-commutative geometry is trying to develop certain geometric objects in order to help us to ask "the right questions" for non-commutative rings; and it often has connections with physics. (Professor Rogalski is an expert on this subject).

- Zeros of polynomials  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \text{geometric} \\ \rightarrow \text{arithmetic} \end{array} \right\}$  mostly commutative rings.
- Representation theory: group ring, Banach algebra, ...  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mostly} \\ \text{non-commutative} \end{array} \right\}$
- Lie theory: universal enveloping algebra
- Non-commutative geometry and physics.

In the 200-series, we mostly study unital commutative rings.

Some of the definitions should be changed in order to be suitable

# Lecture 24: Def'n; Examples of non-commutative rings

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for non-commutative rings; eg. prime ideals.

Let's recall some of the definitions:

Def.  $(\mathcal{R}, +, \cdot)$  is called a ring if

1.  $(\mathcal{R}, +)$  is an abelian group.
2. (Associativity)  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$
3. (Distribution)  $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$  and  $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$

• A ring  $(\mathcal{R}, +, \cdot)$  is called unital if  $\exists 1_{\mathcal{R}} \in \mathcal{R}$  s.t.

$$1_{\mathcal{R}} \neq 0_{\mathcal{R}} \text{ and } \forall a \in \mathcal{R}, a \cdot 1_{\mathcal{R}} = 1_{\mathcal{R}} \cdot a = a.$$

$1_{\mathcal{R}}$  is called the unity of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

$$\left( \rightarrow 1'_{\mathcal{R}} = 1'_{\mathcal{R}} \cdot 1_{\mathcal{R}} = 1_{\mathcal{R}} \right)$$

• A ring  $(\mathcal{R}, +, \cdot)$  is called commutative if  $\forall a, b \in \mathcal{R}, a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ .

Matrix Ring. Suppose  $\mathcal{R}$  is a ring. Then the set  $M_n(\mathcal{R})$  of  $n \times n$  matrices with entries in  $\mathcal{R}$  forms a ring with the

following operations:  $[a_{ij}] + [b_{ij}] := [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]$ ,  
 $[a_{ij}][b_{ij}] := \left[ \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj} \right]$ .



# Lecture 24: Matrix ring; Monoid ring

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Notice that  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ; so for

any unital ring  $R$ ,  $M_2(R)$  is non-commutative.

Group ring. Suppose  $(M, \cdot)$  is a monoid and  $R$  is a ring.

Then  $RM := \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{m \in M} r_m m}_{\text{formal sums}} \mid r_m = 0 \text{ except for finitely many } m \right\}$ .

Alternatively  $RM := \left\{ f: M \rightarrow R \mid f(m) = 0 \text{ except for finitely many } m \right\}$ .

$$\left( \sum_{m \in M} r_m m \right) + \left( \sum_{m \in M} r'_m m \right) := \sum_{m \in M} (r_m + r'_m) m ; \quad (f_1 + f_2)(m) := f_1(m) + f_2(m)$$

$$\left( \sum_{m \in M} r_m m \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{m \in M} r'_m m \right) := \sum_{m \in M} \left( \sum_{m_1 m_2 = m} r_{m_1} r'_{m_2} \right) m$$

we get this def. using distrib. and regrouping the terms.

Since  $\{m \in M \mid r_m \neq 0 \text{ or } r'_m \neq 0\}$  is finite, this is a finite sum; and only for  $m \in \{m_1 \in M \mid r_{m_1} \neq 0\} \{m_2 \in M \mid r'_{m_2} \neq 0\}$  it can be non-zero.

In the language of functions, it is denoted by  $*$  and

is called the convolution of the given functions:

$$(f_1 * f_2)(m) := \sum_{m_1 m_2 = m} f_1(m_1) f_2(m_2).$$

# Lecture 24: Banach algebra

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When  $M$  is a group,  $RM$  is called a group ring.

Here we did not involve analysis; we can consider

$$L^1(G) := \{ f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \sum_{g \in G} |f(g)| < \infty \}.$$

If  $f_1, f_2 \in L^1(G)$ , we again define

$$(f_1 * f_2)(g) := \sum_{g_1 g_2 = g} f_1(g_1) f_2(g_2).$$

$$\text{Then } \sum_{g \in G} |(f_1 * f_2)(g)| \leq \sum_{g \in G} \left( \sum_{g_1 g_2 = g} |f_1(g_1)| |f_2(g_2)| \right).$$

By Fubini's theorem, we have

$$\sum_{(g_1, g_2) \in G \times G} |f_1(g_1)| |f_2(g_2)| = \underbrace{\left( \sum_{g \in G} |f_1(g)| \right)}_{\|f_1\|_1} \underbrace{\left( \sum_{g \in G} |f_2(g)| \right)}_{\|f_2\|_2} < \infty$$

$$\sum_{(g, g_1) \in G \times G} |f_1(g_1)| |f_2(g_1^{-1}g)| = \sum_{g \in G} \left( \sum_{g_1 g_2 = g} |f_1(g_1)| |f_2(g_2)| \right).$$

So  $\|f_1 * f_2\|_1 \leq \|f_1\|_1 \cdot \|f_2\|_1 < \infty$ . Hence  $(L^1(G), +, *)$  is a ring and  $\mathbb{C}G$  is a subring of  $L^1(G)$ .

$L^1(G)$  is an example of Banach algebras.

(If you want to work with Professor Ioana, you would start with the embedding  $\mathbb{C}G \hookrightarrow L^1(G)$ !)

This part was skipped during the lecture

## Lecture 24: Polynomial ring

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From this point on we will assume our rings are unital commutative.

Polynomial ring. Suppose  $R$  is a ring. Then the ring of polynomials over  $R$  with indeterminate  $x$  is denoted by  $R[x]$ . And

it is the monoid ring of  $M = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$  (notice that

$\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \rightarrow \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$ ,  $i \mapsto x^i$  is an isomorphism of monoids.)

So  $R[x] = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i x^i \mid r_i = 0 \text{ except for finitely many } i\text{'s} \right\}$ .

$$\left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i x^i \right) + \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r'_i x^i \right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (r_i + r'_i) x^i.$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r_i x^i \right) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r'_i x^i \right) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^i r_k r'_{i-k} \right) x^i.$$

Inductively we can define  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ ; and this is the same

as the monoid ring  $RM$  where  $M \simeq \underbrace{\mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}}_{n \text{ times}}$ ,

$$M = \left\{ x_1^{i_1} \cdot x_2^{i_2} \cdot \dots \cdot x_n^{i_n} \mid i_1, \dots, i_n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \right\}.$$

Remark. Any polynomial  $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i x^i \in R[x]$  can be viewed

as a function (that is denoted by  $p$  again)  $p: R \rightarrow R$ ,

$$p(r) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} c_i r^i \quad (\text{this is a finite sum.}) \text{ But distinct}$$

polynomials might give rise to the same function.



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Ex.  $x, x^2, \dots \in (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})[x]$  are distinct polynomials, but they all

give us the following function  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $0 \mapsto 0$ ,  $1 \mapsto 1$ .

Despite this subtlety our best tool of understanding ring of polynomials is by viewing them as functions; in algebraic geometry we often try to say that we do not lose information by thinking about poly. as functions.

Def. Suppose  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are two unital rings.  $\phi: R_1 \rightarrow R_2$

is called a ring homomorphism if

$$\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b), \quad \phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b), \quad \phi(1_{R_1}) = 1_{R_2}.$$

Lemma (Evaluation map) Suppose  $R$  is a unital commutative

ring. Then, for any  $r \in R$ ,  $\phi_r: R[x] \rightarrow R$ ,  $\phi_r(p(x)) = p(r)$

is a ring homomorphism. (Pf is easy)

Remark. The above lemma is not true for non-commutative rings.

If  $R$  is non-commutative,  $\phi_r$  is a ring hom. if and only if  $r \in Z(R)$

where  $Z(R) := \{a \in R \mid \forall b \in R, ab = ba\}$ .