11. INTEGRAL DOMAINS

Consider the polynomial equation

$$x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$$

The usual way to solve this equation is to factor

$$x^{2} - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3).$$

Now our equation reduces to

$$(x-2)(x-3) = 0.$$

If we are trying to find the complex solutions to this equation we argue that either x = 2 since x = 3, since the only way that a product can be zero is if one of the factors is zero.

But now suppose that we work in a different ring, say the ring \mathbb{Z}_{12} . In this case we can still factor the polynomial equation and it is still true that x = 2 and x = 3 are both solutions to this equation. The problem is that there might be more, since

$$2 \cdot 6 = 3 \cdot 4 = 8 \cdot 3 = 4 \cdot 6 = 6 \cdot 6 = 6 \cdot 8 = 6 \cdot 10 = 8 \cdot 9 = 0.$$

In fact if x - 2 = 4 then x - 3 = 3 and so x = 2 + 4 = 6 is also a solution to the polynomial equation

$$x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0.$$

Similarly if x - 2 = 9 then x - 3 = 8 and so x = 11 is a solution.

We encode this property in a:

Definition 11.1. Let R be a ring. We say that two non-zero elements $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$ and $b \in R$, $b \neq 0$ are **zero-divisors** if

$$ab = 0.$$

Proposition 11.2. The zero-divisors of \mathbb{Z}_n are precisely the non-zero elements which are not coprime to n.

Proof. Pick a non-zero $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. Suppose that m is not coprime to n and let d > 1 be the gcd. Then

$$n\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) = \left(\frac{m}{d}\right)n$$

which is zero modulo n. Thus m(n/d) = 0 in \mathbb{Z}_n whilst neither m nor n/d is zero. Thus m is a zero-divisor.

Now suppose that m is coprime to n. If ms = 0 in \mathbb{Z}_n then n divides the product of ms in \mathbb{Z} . As n is coprime to m, n must divide s. But then s = 0 in \mathbb{Z}_n . It follows that m is not a zero-divisor.

Corollary 11.3. If p is a prime then \mathbb{Z}_p has no zero divisors.

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Proof. Immediate from (11.2).

Definition-Theorem 11.4. Let R be a ring. Then R contains no zero-divisors if and only if the **cancellation laws** holds in R, that is,

if
$$ab = ac$$
 and $a \neq 0$ then $b = c$,

and

if
$$ba = ca$$
 and $a \neq 0$ then $b = c$.

Proof. Suppose that a and b are zero divisors. Let c = 0. By assumption $b \neq c$ but

$$ab = 0 = a0 = ac$$

so that the cancellation law does not hold.

Now suppose that $a \neq 0$ is not a zero-divisor and

$$ab = ac.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} a(b-c) &= ab - ac \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

As a is not a zero-divisor b - c = 0. But then b = c.

By symmetry if ba = ba then b = c as well.

Definition 11.5. We say that a ring R is an **integral domain** if R is commutative, with unity $1 \neq 0$, has no zero-divisors.

Many of the examples we have seen so far are in fact not integral domains.

Example 11.6. Both \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}_p are integral domains, where p is a prime. \mathbb{Z}_n is not an integral domain if n is composite.

If R and S are integral domains then surprisingly the product $R \times S$ is never an integral domain:

$$(1,0) \cdot (0,1) = (0,0),$$

but neither (1,0) nor (0,1) are zero.

Example 11.7. $M_2(\mathbb{Z}_2)$ contains zero-divisors.

For example,

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

Lemma 11.8. If a is a unit then a is not a zero-divisor.

Proof. Suppose that ba = 0 and that c is the multiplicative inverse of a. We compute bac, in two different ways.

$$bac = (ba)c$$
$$= 0c$$
$$= 0.$$

On the other hand

$$bac = b(ac)$$
$$= b1$$
$$= b.$$

Thus b = bac = 0. Thus a is not a zero-divisor.

Proposition 11.9. Every field is an integral domain.

Proof. A field is a commutative ring, with unity $1 \neq 0$ and by (11.8) there are no zero divisors. Thus every field is an integral domain. \Box

Unfortunately the converse is not true.

Example 11.10. \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain but not a field.

However we do have:

Theorem 11.11. Every finite integral domain D is a field.

Proof. Pick a non-zero element $a \in D$. Define a function

 $f: D \longrightarrow D$ by the rule $b \longrightarrow ab$.

Suppose that $f(b_1) = f(b_2)$. Then $ab_1 = ab_2$. As D is an integral domain we can cancel, so that $b_1 = b_2$. But then f is one to one.

As D is finite and f is one to one, it follows that f is onto. As $1 \in D$ we may find $b \in D$ such that f(b) = 1. But then ab = 1. If follows that a is a unit, so that D is a field.

Corollary 11.12. If p is a prime then \mathbb{Z}_p is a field.

Proof. \mathbb{Z}_p is a domain and it is finite, so (11.11) implies that it is a field.

Note that we can do linear algebra over any field, not just the reals. So we can do linear algebra over a finite field.

Definition 11.13. The characteristic of a ring R is the smallest non-zero integer n such that $n \cdot a = 0$ for every $a \in R$, if there is any such n; otherwise the characteristic is zero.

Example 11.14. \mathbb{Z}_n has characteristic n; \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} all have characteristic zero.

Theorem 11.15. If R is a ring with unity then the characteristic is the smallest n such that $n \cdot 1 = 0$ if there is any such n; otherwise the characteristic is zero.

Proof. If $n \cdot 1$ is never zero then surely the characteristic is zero.

On the other hand if $n \cdot 1 = 0$ and there is no smaller *n* then surely the characteristic is at least *n*. If $a \in R$ then

$$n \cdot a = a + a + \dots + a$$
$$= a1 + a1 + \dots + a1$$
$$= a(1 + 1 + \dots + 1)$$
$$= a(n \cdot 1)$$
$$= a0$$
$$= 0.$$

Thus the characteristic is indeed n.