

Recap: rings, ideals, homom., hom. theorem

### Some additions

Lemma: A group (ring) hom.  $\varphi$  is injective if and only if  $\ker \varphi$  is trivial, i.e.,  $\ker \varphi = \{e\}$  ( $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$ ).

proof:  $\Rightarrow$

$\varphi$  injective and let  $x \in \ker \varphi \Rightarrow \varphi(x) = \varphi(0) \Rightarrow x = 0$

$\Leftarrow$   $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$ . Let  $x \neq y \Rightarrow x-y \neq 0 \Rightarrow x-y \notin \ker \varphi$   
 $\Rightarrow \varphi(x-y) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \varphi(x) \neq \varphi(y)$

### Visualization of Factor Structures

$(G, \cdot)$  group,  $H \leq G$ , equ. rel.  $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow xy^{-1} \in H \Leftrightarrow y \in xH$   
equ. classes:  $xH$   
partition:  $G = x_1H \cup \dots \cup x_nH$ ,  $|G/H| = n$

$G:$	$\begin{array}{c cc cc c} x_1 & a & b & x_1x_2 & & \\ \hline x_2 & & - & - & \dots & \\ a & ab & & & & \\ \hline x_1H & x_2H & \dots & x_iH & \dots & x_nH \end{array}$
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- all the same size  $|H|$
- partitions  $G$
- arranges elements into an  $|H| \times |G/H|$  array

well-defined:  $x_1x_2 \in x_iH \Rightarrow ab \in x_iH$  for all  $a \in x_1H$ ,  $b \in x_2H$

### Operations on Sets (shorthands)

$$A \circ B = \{a \circ b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}, \quad \circ = +, \cdot, \dots$$

$$x \circ A = \{x \circ a \mid a \in A\}, \quad \circ = +, \cdot, \dots$$

Example:  $(G, \cdot) = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,  $H = 3\mathbb{Z}$ , equ. classes:  $x + 3\mathbb{Z}, x \in \{0, 1, 2\}$

$\mathbb{Z}:$	$\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array}$
	$\underbrace{\{0\}}_{0+3\mathbb{Z}}, \underbrace{\{1\}}_{1+3\mathbb{Z}}, \underbrace{\{2\}}_{2+3\mathbb{Z}}$

$$\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}\} = \{0, 1, 2\} \text{ with op. mod } 3$$

# Types of Rings

$(R, +, \cdot)$  a ring with 1

## About division

- if  $c = ab$  we say  $a | c$
- $a^{-1}$  exists  $\Leftrightarrow a | 1$
- the set  $R^x = \{a \in R \mid a \neq 0\}$  is a multiplicative group (group of units)
- we say  $g = \gcd(a, b)$  if a.)  $g | a, g | b$ ; b.)  $u | a, u | b$   
 $\Rightarrow g = u g'$ ,  $u \in R^x$   
 (and vice versa)
- $a, b \neq 0$  with  $ab = 0$  are called "zero divisors"  
 A zero divisor cannot have an inverse (i.e.,  $\notin R^x$ )

$\mathbb{Z}$	$\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$
$2 4$	$2 4, 3 1$
$1 1, -1 1$	$1, 3, 5, 7   1$
$\mathbb{Z}^x = \{1, -1\}$	$(\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^x = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$
$\gcd(6, 9) = 3$	
$\gcd(6, 9) = -3$	

not  
possible

$$2 \cdot 4 = 8 = 0 \pmod{8}$$

## Euclidean algorithm in $\mathbb{Z}$

$\gcd$  of 7 and 5

$$7 = 1 \cdot 5 + 2$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \quad \leftarrow \gcd$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

$\uparrow$   
 get smaller  $\uparrow$  eventually 0

back substitution:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 \cdot 2 \\ &= 5 - 2(7 - 1 \cdot 5) \\ &= 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7 \end{aligned}$$

Theorem  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g = \gcd(a, b)$ . Then exist  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  

$$g = xa + yb$$

Algebraically The converse is true for  $g = 1$ , i.e.,

$$1 = \gcd(a, b) \Leftrightarrow \text{there are } x, y \in \mathbb{Z}: 1 = ax + by$$

proof: " $\Rightarrow$ "  $g = xa + yb$  follows from Euclidean algorithm

$$\Leftrightarrow 1 = xa + yb. \text{ Let } g | a, g | b \Rightarrow g | xa + yb = 1$$

applications:

a.)  $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z})^\times \Leftrightarrow \text{exists } x \in \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z} : ax \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$

$$\Leftrightarrow ax = 1 + 8k$$
$$\Leftrightarrow 1 = ax - 8k$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \gcd(a, 8) = 1$$

More general:  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{i \mid \gcd(i, n) = 1, 0 \leq i < n\}$

implies  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \Leftrightarrow n = p \text{ prime}$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  is a field

5.) Consider  $\langle a, b \rangle_{\text{ideal}} = \mathbb{Z}a + \mathbb{Z}b \trianglelefteq \mathbb{Z}$

Let  $g = \gcd(a, b)$ . Claim:  $\mathbb{Z}a + \mathbb{Z}b = \mathbb{Z}g$

proof: "  $\supseteq$ " write  $g = xa + yb \Rightarrow g \in \mathbb{Z}a + \mathbb{Z}b$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}g \subseteq \mathbb{Z}a + \mathbb{Z}b$$

"  $\subseteq$ " let  $xg + yg \in \mathbb{Z}a + \mathbb{Z}b$ .  $g | (xa + yb) \Rightarrow xa + yb = 2 \cdot g$

$$\in \mathbb{Z}g$$

So: - every ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a principal ideal  
- a consequence of having the Euclidean algorithm

Definitions: Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with 1.

a.)  $R$  is called an "integral domain" if it has no zero divisors.

b.) An integral domain is called "principal ideal domain" if every ideal is a principal ideal.

c.) An integral domain is called "Euclidean ring" if it has a proper division with rest (so the Euclidean algorithm can be used)

formally: there is a function  $\delta: R \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$  s.t.

a.)  $a, b \neq 0 \Rightarrow \delta(ab) \geq \delta(a)$

b.) for  $a, b \in R$ ,  $b \neq 0$  there exists  $x, r \in R$  s.t.

$$a = xb + r \quad \text{and} \quad \delta(r) < \delta(b)$$

examples:  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\delta = |\cdot|$

$$R = \mathbb{R}[x], \delta = \deg \quad (\deg(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i) = n)$$

[often one defines  $\delta(0) = -\infty$ ]

## Summary

