

## Basic Properties of Rings

THEOREM 15.1. *For any element  $a$  in a ring  $R$ , the equation  $a + x = 0_R$  has a unique solution.*

*Proof.*

We know that  $a + x = 0_R$  has at least one solution  $u \in R$  by Axiom (5) in the definition of a ring. If  $v$  is also a solution then,  $a + u = 0_R$  and  $a + v = 0_R$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} u &= u + 0_R \\ &= u + (a + v) \\ &= (u + a) + v \\ &= 0_R + v \\ &= v \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $a + x = 0_R$  has only one solution. □

We can now define negatives and subtraction in any ring  $R$ . Let  $a \in R$ . By Theorem 3.2,  $a + x = 0_R$  has a unique solution in  $R$ . We shall denote this unique solution by  $-a$ .

DEFINITION 15.2. *If  $R$  is a ring and  $a \in R$ , then  $-a$  is the unique solution of  $a + x = 0_R$ .*

DEFINITION 15.3. *If  $a, b \in R$ , then*

$$a - b \equiv a + (-b) \quad .$$

The following example shows how these familiar concepts can take an unusual form.

**Example:** In  $\mathbb{Z}_6$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} -0 &= 0 \\ -1 &= 5 \\ -2 &= 4 \\ -3 &= 3 \\ -4 &= 2 \\ -5 &= 1 \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Note that not only is  $0 = -0$ , but  $3 = -3$ .

While we're at it, let us also define for any ring  $R$  and any  $a \in R$  and any positive integer  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned} a^n &\equiv \underbrace{aaa \cdots a}_{(n \text{ factors})} \\ na &\equiv \underbrace{a + a + a + \cdots + a}_{(n \text{ summands})} . \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 15.4. *If  $a + b = a + c$  in a ring  $R$ , then  $b = c$ .*

*Proof.* Adding  $-a$  to both sides of  $a + b = a + c$  produces

$$\begin{aligned} -a + (a + b) &= -a + (a + c) \\ (-a + a) + b &= (-a + a) + c \\ 0_R + b &= 0_R + c \\ b &= c \quad . \end{aligned}$$

□

**THEOREM 15.5.** *For any elements  $a, b$  of a ring  $R$ :*

- (a)  $a \cdot 0_R = 0_R = 0_R \cdot a$
- (b)  $a(-b) = -(ab) = (-a)b$
- (c)  $-(-a) = a$
- (d)  $-(a + b) = -a + (-b)$
- (e)  $-(a - b) = -a + b$
- (f)  $(-a)(-b) = ab$
- (g) *If  $R$  has an identity  $1_R$ , then  $(-1_R)a = -a$*

*Proof.*

(a) We have

$$\begin{aligned} 0_R + 0_R &= 0_R \\ \Rightarrow a \cdot (0_R + 0_R) &= a \cdot 0_R \\ &= (a + 0_R) + 0_R \\ \Rightarrow (a \cdot 0_R) + (a \cdot 0_R) &= (a + 0_R) + 0_R \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3.3 then implies  $a \cdot 0_R = 0_R$ . The proof that  $0_R \cdot a = 0_R$  is similar.

(b) By definition  $-(ab)$  is the unique solution of  $ab + x = 0_R$ , so any other solution of this equation must be equal to  $-(ab)$ . But  $x = a(-b)$  is also a solution, since by the distributive law and (a)

$$ab + a(-b) = a(b + (-b)) = a \cdot 0_R = 0_R \quad .$$

Therefore  $-(ab) = a(-b)$ . The other parts are proven similarly.

(c) By definition,  $-(-a)$  is the unique solution of  $(-a) + x = 0_R$ . But  $x = a$  is also a solution, so  $a = -(-a)$ .

(d) By definition,  $-(a + b)$  is the unique solution of  $(a + b) + x = 0_R$ . But  $(-a) + (-b)$  is also a solution, since

$$(a + b) + ((-a) + (-b)) = (a + (-a)) + (b + (-b)) = 0_R + 0_R = 0_R \quad .$$

So, by uniqueness,  $a + b = (-a) + (-b)$ .

(e) By the definition of subtraction and (c) and (d),

$$-(a + b) = -(a - (-b)) = (-a) + (-(-b)) = -a + b \quad .$$

(f) By (c) and the repeated use of (b)

$$(-a)(-b) = -(a(-b)) = -(-(ab)) = ab \quad .$$

(g) By (b)

$$(-1_R)a = -(1_R a) = -(a) = -a \quad .$$

□

**THEOREM 15.6.** *Let  $R$  be a ring and let  $a, b \in R$ . Then the equation  $a + x = b$  has the unique solution  $x = b - a$ .*

*Proof.*  $x = b - a$  is a solution because

$$a + (b - a) = a + (b + (-a)) = a + (-a) + b = 0_R + b = b \quad .$$

It is unique since, if  $w$  is any other solution then

$$a + w = b = a + (b - a)$$

hence  $w = b - a$  by Theorem 3.3. Hence  $x = b - a$  is the only solution.

*Remark:* Remember that, in general, a multiplicative equation

$$ax = b$$

need not have a solution in  $R$ . For example,

$$3x = 2$$

has no solution in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Yet there is one special case when solutions of equations of the form  $ax = b$  always exist. This is when  $R$  is a division ring. For in this case, by definition, for any  $a \neq 0_R$  in  $R$  we have a solution of  $ax' = 1_R$ . Multiplying this equation (from the right by  $b$  yields

$$(ax')b = 1_R b$$

or

$$a(x'b) = b \quad .$$

Hence, if  $R$  is a division ring, a solution of  $ax = b$  always exists (namely,  $x = ax'$ , where  $x'$  is the solution of  $ax' = 1_R$ ).

**DEFINITION 15.7.** *A element  $a$  in a ring  $R$  with identity  $1_R$  is called a **unit** if there exists an element  $b \in R$  such that  $ab = 1_R = ba$ . In this case, the element  $b$  is called the multiplicative inverse of  $a$  and is denoted by  $a^{-1}$ .*

Note that in a division ring every non-zero element  $a$  is a unit (since if  $R$  is a division ring, the equation  $ax = 1_R = xa$  always has a solution if  $a \neq 0_R$ ). Indeed, in a division ring  $R$  we are by definition guaranteed solutions of  $ax = 1_R$  and  $ya = 1_R$ . So suppose  $au = 1_R$  and  $va = 1_R$ . Then

$$u = 1_R u = (va)u = v(au) = v1_R = v \quad .$$

**Example:** The only units in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are 1 and -1.

**Example:** Recall that  $M_2(\mathbb{R})$  is the non-commutative ring with identity defined

$$M_2(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} a + a' & b + b' \\ c + c' & d + d' \end{pmatrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} aa' + bc' & ab' + bd' \\ ca' + dc' & cb' + fd' \end{pmatrix} \\ O_R &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ 1_R &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Every element  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$  such that  $ad - bc \neq 0$  is a unit in  $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ ; for

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \frac{d}{ad-bc} & \frac{-b}{ad-bc} \\ \frac{-c}{ad-bc} & \frac{a}{ad-bc} \end{pmatrix}$$

satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} .$$

DEFINITION 15.8. A nonzero element  $a$  in a commutative ring  $R$  is called a **zero divisor** if there exists a nonzero element  $b \in R$  such that  $ab = 0_R$ .

THEOREM 15.9. Let  $R$  be a ring with identity and  $a, b \in R$ . If  $a$  is a unit, then each of the equations

$$\begin{aligned} ax &= b \\ ya &= b \end{aligned}$$

has a unique solution in  $R$ .

*Proof.* Since  $a$  is a unit, it has an inverse  $a^{-1} \in R$ . But then  $x = a^{-1}b$  and  $y = ba^{-1}$  are solutions of the equations above since

$$\begin{aligned} a(a^{-1}b) &= (aa^{-1})b = 1_R b = b \quad , \\ (ba^{-1})a &= b(a^{-1}a) = b1_R = b \quad . \end{aligned}$$

If  $c$  is another solution of  $ax = b$ , then  $ac = b$  and

$$c = 1_R c = (a^{-1}a)c = a^{-1}(ac) = a^{-1}b \quad .$$

Similarly, if  $d$  is another solution of  $ya = b$ , then  $dc = b$  and

$$d = d1_R = d(aa^{-1}) = (da)a^{-1} = ba^{-1} \quad .$$

Therefore,  $x = a^{-1}b$  and  $y = ba^{-1}$  are the only solutions.  $\square$

THEOREM 15.10. Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity. Then  $R$  is an integral domain if and only if  $R$  has this cancellation property:

$$ab = ac \implies b = c \quad \text{whenever } a \neq 0_R$$

*Proof.*

$\Rightarrow$  Assume  $R$  is an integral domain. If  $ab = ac$  then  $ab - ac = 0_R$ , so  $a(b - c) = 0_R$ . Since  $R$  is an integral domain, if  $a \neq 0_R$ , then we must necessarily have  $b - c = 0_R$ , or  $b = c$ .

$\Leftarrow$  Assume that the cancellation property holds in  $R$  and that  $R$  is not an integral domain. Then there exists  $a, b \in R$  such that  $ab = 0_R$  and  $a, b \neq 0_R$ . But then

$$a \cdot 0_R = 0_R = ab$$

and so the cancellation property implies  $b = 0_R$ ; but this is a contradiction.  $\square$

COROLLARY 15.11. Every field  $R$  is an integral domain.

*Proof.* We first note that by definition(s) every non-zero element  $a$  of a field  $R$  is a unit. Also, every field is a commutative ring with identity. Now suppose  $ab = ac$  and  $a \neq 0_R$ . Multiplying both sides of  $ab = ac$  by  $a^{-1}$  yields  $b = c$ . Therefore,  $R$  is an integral domain by Theorem 3.7.  $\square$

THEOREM 15.12. Every finite integral domain  $R$  is a field.

*Proof.* Since  $R$  is a commutative ring with identity, we need only show that for each  $a \neq 0_R$ , the equation  $ax = 1_R$  has a solution. Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  be the distinct elements of  $R$ , and suppose  $a_t \neq 0_R$ . To show that  $a_t x = 1_R$  has a solution, consider the products  $a_t a_1, a_t a_2, \dots, a_t a_n$ . If  $a_i \neq a_j$  we must have  $a_t a_i \neq a_t a_j$  since otherwise the cancellation property coming from Theorem 3.7 would imply  $a_i = a_j$ , i.e., we would have a contradiction. Therefore, the  $a_t a_1, a_t a_2, \dots, a_t a_n$  are all distinct elements of  $R$ . However,  $R$  has exactly  $n$  elements, one of which is  $1_R$ . Therefore, there must be some  $a_j$  such that  $a_t a_j = 1_R$ . Therefore, every equation  $ax = 1_R$ , with  $a \neq 0_R$  has a solution in  $R$ . Hence,  $R$  is a field.  $\square$

COROLLARY 15.13. *Every  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  with  $p$  prime is a (finite) field.*