

# Ring & Field

*by*

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## Ring :

The structure  $(R, +, \times)$  consisting of non void set  $R$  with two binary composition denoted by  $+$  and  $\times$  is said to be a ring if the following axiom are satisfied

[R<sub>1</sub>]  $(R, +)$  is an abelian group.

[R<sub>2</sub>]  $(R, \times)$  is a semi group .

[R<sub>3</sub>]  $R$  hold distributavie law.

i.e  $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a(b + c) = a.b + a.c$  (left distributive law )

$(a + b) \times c = a \times c + b \times c$  (Right distributavie law )

## Examples :

(1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \times), (\mathbb{R}, +, \times), (\mathbb{C}, +, \times), (m\mathbb{Z}, +, \times), (\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$ .

(2) The set  $M$  of all  $n \times n$  matrices with real numbers as their element is ring.

(3) The algebraic structure  $(Z_n, +_n, \times_n)$  is a is ring .

Example :  $Q(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2}; a, b \in Q\}$ . Prove that it is a ring with operation addition

and multiplication.

## Solution :

Let  $x = a + b\sqrt{2}; y = c + d\sqrt{2}$  where  $a, b, c, d \in Q$

## Closure under addition :

$$\begin{aligned}x + y &= (a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + d\sqrt{2}) \\ &= (a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Since,  $a + c \in Q, b + d \in Q$

$\implies x + y \in Q(\sqrt{2})$

## Additive Identity :

$$O = 0 + 0\sqrt{2} \in Q(\sqrt{2}) \text{ and } A = a + b\sqrt{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\implies O + A &= (0 + 0\sqrt{2}) + (a + b\sqrt{2}) \\ &= a + b\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

## Additive Inverse:

For

$$\begin{aligned}x &= a + b\sqrt{2} \\ -x &= -a - b\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Since,

$$\begin{aligned}-a, -b\sqrt{2} &\in Q \\ \implies -x &\in Q\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

## Commutative Under Addition :

$$\begin{aligned}x + y &= y + x \\ a + b\sqrt{2} + c + d\sqrt{2} &= c + d\sqrt{2} + a + b\sqrt{2} \\ (a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2} &= (c + d) + (b + d)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Associativity of addition:

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

L.H.S

$$\begin{aligned}x &= a + b\sqrt{2} \\y &= c + d\sqrt{2} \\z &= e + f\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned}&= (a + b\sqrt{2} + c + d\sqrt{2}) + e + f\sqrt{2} \\&= ((a + c) + (b + d)\sqrt{2}) + e + f\sqrt{2} \\&= (a + c + e) + (b + d + f)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

R.H.S

$$\begin{aligned}&= a + b\sqrt{2} + ((c + d\sqrt{2}) + (e + f\sqrt{2})) \\&= (a + b\sqrt{2}) + (c + e) + (d + f)\sqrt{2} \\&= (a + c + e) + (b + d + f)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Closure under Multiplication:

$$x = a + b\sqrt{2}; y = c + d\sqrt{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x.y &= (a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2}) \\&= ac + ad\sqrt{2} + bc\sqrt{2} + bd(\sqrt{2})^2 \\&= (ac + 2bd) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

As  $ac + 2bd \in \mathbb{Q}, ad + bc \in \mathbb{Q}$

Hence,  $xy \in \mathbb{Q}$

Associativity of Multiplication :

$$\begin{aligned}(xy)z &= x(yz) \\L.H.S &= ((a + b\sqrt{2})(c + d\sqrt{2}))(e + f\sqrt{2}) \\&= (ac + ad\sqrt{2} + bc\sqrt{2} + bd(2))(e + f\sqrt{2}) \\&= ((ac + 2bd) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{2})(e + f\sqrt{2}) \\&= (ac + 2bd)(e + f\sqrt{2}) + (ad + bc)\sqrt{2}(e + f\sqrt{2}) \\&= ace + acf\sqrt{2} + 2bde + 2bdf\sqrt{2} + ade\sqrt{2} + 2adf + bce\sqrt{2} + 2bcf \\&= (ace + 2bde + 2adf + 2bcf) + (acf + 2bdf + ade + bce)\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
R.H.S &= (a + b\sqrt{2}) \left( (c + d\sqrt{2}) (e + f\sqrt{2}) \right) \\
&= (a + b\sqrt{2}) (ce + cf\sqrt{2} + de\sqrt{2} + 2df) \\
&= (a + b\sqrt{2}) \left( (ce + 2df) + (cf + de)\sqrt{2} \right) \\
&= (a + b\sqrt{2})(ce + 2df) + (a + b\sqrt{2})(cf + de)\sqrt{2} \\
&= (ace + 2bde + 2adf + 2bcf) + (acf + 2bdf + ade + bce)\sqrt{2}
\end{aligned}$$

**Distributive Laws :**

Multiplication distribution over addition over addition in  $R$  .Since,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a subset of  $R$  so ,it also holds in  $\mathbb{Q}$

$$\begin{aligned}
x(y + z) &= xy + xz \\
&= xz + yz
\end{aligned}$$

for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Q}\sqrt{2}$   
So, that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  is a ring .

**Commutative ring :**

If for all  $a, b \in R$  if  $ab = ba$  OR If commutative law w.r.t multiplication holds for all elements of  $R$  then  $R$  is called commutative ring .More ever,If multiplication identity exists in  $R$  is called Ring with unity .

**Unit element of Ring :**

For any  $a \in R$  if there is  $a^{-1} \in R$  s.t  $a.a^{-1} = a^{-1}.a = 1$  then  $a$  is called unit element of  $R$ .

**Division Ring (Skew field ) :**

A ring  $R$  is said to be division ring if all non zero elements of  $R$  have their multiplicative inverses in  $R$  . OR each non zero element of  $R$  is unit in  $R$  .

**Note :**

Every field is also a division ring but only commutative division ring is field

**Field :**

A commutative division ring is known as field OR A set  $F$  is said to be field if it satisfies

- (1)  $(F, +)$  is abelian group.
- (2)  $(F, \times)$  is abelian group.
- (3) Distributive law hold for all elements of  $F$ .

**Zero divisor :**

A non zero element  $a$  of a commutative ring  $R$  is called zero divisor if there is a non zero element  $b$  s.t  $ab = 0$

**Example# :**

$$\begin{aligned}
Z_6 &= \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \\
2.3 &= 0 = 3.2, 3 \text{ and } 2 \text{ are zero divisor .}
\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem :**

A ring  $R$  is without zerodivisor iff the cancellation law holds in  $R$ .

**Pr oof :** Let  $R$  is without zerodivisor

Suppose that  $a \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= ac \\ \implies ab - ac &= ac - ac \\ \implies ab - ac &= 0 \\ \implies a(b - c) &= 0 \quad \because a \neq 0 \\ \implies b - c &= 0 \\ \implies b &= c \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $a \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} ba &= ca \\ \implies ba - ca &= ca - ca \\ \implies ba - ca &= 0 \\ \implies a(b - c) &= 0 \quad \because a \neq 0 \\ \implies b - c &= 0 \\ \implies b &= c \end{aligned}$$

$\implies$  If  $R$  is without zero divisor then the cancellation law holds.

**Conversly,**

Suppose that the cancellation law holds in  $R$  if  $a \in R$  and  $a \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= 0 \\ \implies ab &= a0 \quad (\because a0 = 0) \\ \implies b &= 0 \quad \because a \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\implies R$  is a ring without zero divisors. ■

**Theorem : A skew field has no zero divisors.**

**Proof**

Let  $D$  be a skew field .Then  $D$  is a ring with unity and has multiplicative inverse of every non-zero elements .Let  $a, b \in D$  with  $a, b \neq 0$  Now, as  $a \neq 0$  so  $a^{-1}$  exists  
Now suppose

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ab) &= a^{-1}0 \\ \Rightarrow b &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Again if  $b \neq 0$  so,  $b^{-1}$  exists

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= 0 \\ (ab)b^{-1} &= 0b^{-1} \\ \Rightarrow a &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, a skew field has no zero divisor. ■

### Integral domain :

A commutative ring without zero divisor is called integral domain.

### Example#

$\mathbb{Z}$  = set of integers is integral domain

**Note :** For integral domain  $D$  if  $ab = 0$  either  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0 \forall a, b \in D$ .

### Lemma :

**A commutative ring  $R$  is called integral domain iff it holds cancellation law .**

**Proof :**

let  $R$  be an integral domain .Let  $ab = ac$  ( $a \neq 0$ )

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

Since,  $a \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow b - c &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow b &= c\end{aligned}$$

**Conversly,**

Let the given condition holds .Let  $a, b \in R$  be any elements with  $a \neq 0$  .Suppose

$$\begin{aligned}ab &= 0 \\ab &= a.0 \\ \Rightarrow b &= 0\end{aligned}$$

using the given condition

Hence,  $ab = 0$

$\Rightarrow b = 0$  whenever  $a \neq 0$  OR that  $R$  is an integral domain.■

### Characteristic of a ring :

If for any ring  $(R, +, \times)$  there exists a least +ve integer  $n$  s.t  $(a + a + a \cdots + a)_{n \text{ times}} = na = 0 \forall a \in R$  then  $n$  is called characteristics of  $R$ .

If possible there does not exists any +ve interger  $n$  such that  $na = 0 \forall a \in R$  then we say  $n = 0$  i.e the given  $R$  is of characteristic of 0.

### Example:

Set of integer, set of rational number, set of Real number Set of complex number ,Set of even integers has characteristics zero.

### **Remark:**

If  $n$  is the least positive integers such that  $na = 0 \forall a \in R$  then  $O(a) = n$  it means that order of any elements is equal to  $ch$  of  $R$  i.e  $O(a) = ch(R) \forall a \in R$

### Idempotent Element :

For any  $x \in R$  if  $x^2 = x$  then  $x$  is called idempotent element.

### Nilpotent Elements :

For any  $x \in R$  if  $x^n = 0$  for some integer  $n$  then  $x$  is called a nilpotent element .

### Bolean Ring :

If each element of ring is idempotent then ring is bolean ring

Lemma: If  $R$  is bolean ring then

$$(1) \quad 2a = 0$$

$$\forall a \in R$$

$$(2) \quad ab = ba \text{ i.e } R \text{ is commutative.}$$

Proof :

$$\begin{aligned} 2a &= a + a = (a + a)^2 \\ &= a^2 + a^2 + a^2 + a^2 = 4a^2 \\ 2a &= 4a^2 = 4a \\ \implies 4a - 2a &= 0 \\ 2a &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \quad ab = ba$$

Let  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a boolian ring  $\forall a \in R \Rightarrow a^2 = a$   
let  $a \in R \Rightarrow a + a \in R$

$$\begin{aligned} (a + a^2) &= a + a \\ \implies (a + a)(a + a) &= a + a \\ \implies a^2 + a^2 + a^2 + a^2 &= a + a \\ \implies a + a + a + a &= a + a \\ \implies a + a &= 0 \\ \implies a &= -a \dots \dots (i) \end{aligned}$$

Now ,Let  $a, b \in R$

$$\begin{aligned} (a + b)^2 &= (a + b)(a + b) \\ a + b &= a^2 + ab + ba + b^2 \\ a + b &= a + b + ab + ba \\ \implies ab + ba &= 0 \\ \implies ab &= -ba \\ \implies ab &= -b(-a) \quad \text{using } (i) \\ \implies ab &= ba \end{aligned}$$

hence, commutative hold. ■

### Subring :

A subset  $S$  of ring  $R$  is said to be subring .If it satisfies all the axiom of  $R$  .

**Theorem:**

A subset  $S$  of a ring  $R$  is subring of  $R$  iff  $S$  satisfies  $\forall a, b \in S$

(i)  $a - b \in S$

(ii)  $ab \in S$

**Proof :** First suppose  $S$  is a subring of  $R$ .

$\implies S$  satisfies all properties of  $R$  for  $a, b \in S$  so  $a, -b \in S$

and hence  $a - b \in S$  ( $\because S$  is abelian group under addition)

also for  $a, b \in S, ab \in S$  ( $\because S$  is semi group under multiplication).

Hence, (i) and (ii) holds

**Conversly,**

Let (i) and (ii) holds for all  $a, b \in S$   $\because S \subset R$  and  $R$  is abelian under addition so by subgroup test  $\because a - b \in S$  for all  $a, b \in S$ .

$\implies S$  is subgroup under addition. Moreover, commutative property under addition holds for all elements of  $R$  so it does holds for all elements of  $S$  (i.e  $S \subset R$ ).

$\implies S$  is abelian under addition. Next  $\because \forall a, b \in S$  that implies  $ab \in S$ .

$S$  is closed under multiplication. Also since associative property under multiplication holds for all elements of  $R$  so it does holds for all elements of  $S$ .

$\implies S$  is semi group under multiplication.

Further, Since distributivity holds for all elements of  $R$  so, it holds for all the element of  $S$  because  $S \subset R$ . Combining all three results, we obtain

(i)  $S$  is abelian group under addition.

(ii)  $S$  is semi group under multiplication

(iii) Distributive law holds for  $S$ .

Hence,  $S$  is ring. ( $\because S \subset R$  so  $S$  is subring of  $R$ ).

**Theorem :**

Intersection of any two subring is again a subring.

**Proof :**

let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be two subrings of a ring  $R$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\in S_1 \text{ and } 0 \in S_2 \implies 0 \in S_1 \cap S_2 \\ &\implies S_1 \cap S_2 \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now, Let

$$\begin{aligned} a, b &\in S_1 \cap S_2 \\ &\implies ab \in S_1 \text{ and } ab \in S_2 \\ &\implies a - b \in S_1, ab \in S_1 \text{ and } a - b \in S_2, ab \in S_2 \\ &\implies a - b \in S_1 \cap S_2 \text{ and } ab \in S_1 \cap S_2 \end{aligned}$$

$\implies S_1 \cap S_2$  is a subring of  $R$ .

**corollary :**

Arbitrary intersection of subring is again a subring.

**Center of Ring :**

Let  $R$  be a ring The set of elements of  $R$  is said to be center of ring  $C(R)$  if each element of this set commute with all the elements of  $R$ . OR  $C(R) = \{x|x \in R, xa = ax \forall x \in R\}$

**Theorem** :

**Center of a ring is subring of ring.**

**Proof :**

Let  $R$  be ring and  $C(R) = \{x | x \in R, xa = ax \forall x \in R\}$  for any  $x_1, x_2 \in C(R)$   
;  $x_1a = ax_1, x_2a = ax_2$

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1 - x_2)a &= x_1a - x_2a && \text{Associativity} \\ &= ax_1 - ax_2 && \text{(by def } C(R)) \\ &= a(x_1 - x_2) && \text{Distributivity} \\ \implies &x_1 - x_2 \in C(R)\end{aligned}$$

similarly ,

$$\begin{aligned}(x_1x_2) &\in a = x_1(x_2a) && \text{Associativity} \\ &= x_1(ax_2) && \text{(by def } C(R)) \\ &= (ax_1)x_2 && \text{Associativity} \\ &= a(x_1x_2) && \text{(by def } C(R)) \\ \implies &x_1x_2 \in C(R)\end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $C(R)$  is subring of  $R$ .

**Theorem** :

**Every finite integral domain is field .**

**Proof :**

Let  $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  be a finite integral domain .To prove  $D$  is field we have to show

(i)  $1 \in D$

(ii) For any nonzero element of  $D$  its multiplicative inverse also belongs to  $D$ .

For this consider  $a \neq 0, a \in D$  and form the set  $\{x_1a, x_2a \dots x_na\}$  .Since  $D$  being integral domain is closed under multiplication so,  $\{x_1a, x_2a \dots x_na\} \subseteq D$ . Let

$$\begin{aligned}x_ia &= x_ja \quad i \neq j \\ \implies &x_ia - x_ja = 0 \\ \implies &(x_i - x_j)a = 0\end{aligned}$$

Since , $a \neq 0$  and  $D$  is integral domain so,

$$\begin{aligned}x_i - x_j &= 0 \\ \implies &x_i = x_j\end{aligned}$$

$\implies$  each element of set  $\{x_1a, x_2a \dots x_na\}$  is distinct OR  $\{x_1a, x_2a \dots x_na\} = D$  .Next let

$$y \in D \quad y \neq 0$$

$\implies$

$$\begin{aligned}y &= x_i a \quad \text{But } a \neq 0, a \in D \\ \implies a &= x_j \text{ for some } j \\ \implies y &= x_i (x_j a) \\ &= x_i (a x_j) \quad \because D \text{ is commutative} \\ &= (x_i a) x_j \\ y &= y x_j = 1 \in D\end{aligned}$$

Also for  $a \neq 0 \in D$  and  $1 \in D$  there must exist  $a, b \neq 0, b \in D$  s.t  $a, b = 1$ .

$\implies$  Each non zero element of  $D$  has its multiplicative inverse in  $D$ .

Hence,  $D$  is field.

**Theorem** :

$Z_p$  is field where  $p$  is prime.

**Proof** :

$Z_p = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots, \overline{p-1}\}$ . we have to show that  $Z_p$  is integral domain .For this let  $a, b \in Z_p$  s.t  $a.b = 0$  Since,  $p$  is prime .Now in  $Z_p$   $a.b = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\implies ab &\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \quad \text{OR } p|ab \\ \implies &\text{ either } p|a \text{ or } p|b\end{aligned}$$

if  $p|a$  that implies  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  OR if  $p|b$  that implies  $b \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

$\implies$  either  $a = 0$  or  $b = 0$ .

$\implies Z_p$  is integral domian also it is finite .So,  $Z_p$  is field.

**Ring Homomorphism** :

A ring homomorphism  $\Phi$  from a ring  $\langle R, +, \times \rangle$  to a ring  $\langle R', +, \times \rangle$  is a mapping from  $R$  to  $R'$  that preserve the the two ring operation i.e  $\forall a, b \in R$

$$(i) \Phi(a + b) = \Phi(a) + \Phi(b)$$

$$(ii) \Phi(a.b) = \Phi(a) . \Phi(b)$$

**Ring Isomorphism:**

A ring homomorphism that is both one-one and onto is called ring homomorphism .

**Example:**  $\langle \mathbb{C}, +, . \rangle$  be a ring .

Define a mapping  $\Phi : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  s.t  $\Phi(a + ib) = a - ib \quad \forall a, b \in \mathbb{C} \quad \Phi(Z) = \bar{Z}$  where  $Z = a + ib \in \mathbb{C}$

Let  $Z_1, Z_2 \in \mathbb{C}$  Where  $Z_1 = a + ib$  and  $Z_2 = c + id$

$$(i) \Phi(Z_1 + Z_2) = \Phi(Z_1) + \Phi(Z_2)$$

L.H.S

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(Z_1 + Z_2) &= \Phi(a + ib + c + id) \\ &= \Phi((a + c) + i(b + d)) \\ &= (a + c) - i(b + d) \\ &= a - ib + c - id \\ &= \Phi(Z_1) + \Phi(Z_2) = R.H.S\end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \Phi(Z_1 Z_2) = \Phi(Z_1) \cdot \Phi(Z_2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} L.H.S = \Phi(Z_1 Z_2) &= \Phi((a + ib)(c + id)) \\ &= \Phi(ac - bd + iad + ibc) \\ &= \Phi(ac - bd + i(ad + bc)) \\ &= ac - bd - i(ad + bc) \\ &= ac - bd - iad - ibc \\ &= ac - iad - bd - ibc \\ &= a(c - id) - ib(c - id) \\ &= (c - id)(a - ib) \\ &= \Phi(Z_1) \Phi(Z_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \Phi$  is a ring homomorphism.

**Example**  $\langle Z, +, \cdot \rangle$  and  $\langle Z_n, +_n, \times_n \rangle$  are two rings

$$\Phi : Z \rightarrow Z_n \text{ s.t } \Phi(x) = x \text{ mod } n \quad \forall x \in Z$$

Let  $xy \in Z$  to show

$$(i) \Phi(x + y) = \Phi(x) +_n \Phi(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(x + y) &= (x + y) \text{ mod } n \\ &= (x \text{ mod } n + y \text{ mod } n) \text{ mod } n \\ &= x \text{ mod } n +_n y \text{ mod } n \\ &= \Phi(x) +_n \Phi(y) \end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \Phi(xy) = \Phi(x) \times_n \Phi(y)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(xy) &= (xy) \text{ mod } n \\ &= [(x \text{ mod } n) \cdot (y \text{ mod } n)] \text{ mod } n \\ &= x \text{ mod } n \times_n y \text{ mod } n \\ &= \Phi(x) \times_n \Phi(y) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \Phi$  is a ring homomorphism

**Theorem :**

If  $\Phi : R \rightarrow R'$  is a ring homomorphism .The image of  $\Phi$  is a subring of  $R'$  also  $\ker \Phi$  is subring of  $R$ .

**Proof:**

Let  $\Phi : R \rightarrow R'$  be a ring homomorphism ,Clearly  $\Phi(R) \subseteq R'$  .For any two

$$\begin{aligned} r_1, r_2 &\in R, \Phi(r_1), \Phi(r_2) \in R' \text{ where } \Phi(r_1) = r'_1, \Phi(r_2) = r'_2 \\ \implies \Phi(r_1) - \Phi(r_2) &= \Phi(r_1) + \Phi(-r_2) \quad \because \Phi \text{ is homomorphism} \end{aligned}$$

And

$$\begin{aligned} r'_1, r'_2 &= \Phi(r_1) \cdot \Phi(r_2) \\ &= \Phi(r_1 r_2) \quad \because \Phi \text{ is homomorphism} \\ &= \Phi(r_1 r_2) \in \Phi(R) \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\Phi(R)$  is subring of  $R$ .

Now, we prove  $\ker \Phi$  is subring of  $R$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ker \Phi &= \{r \in R \mid \Phi(r) = 0\} \text{ is subset of } R \text{ for any} \\
 \text{two elements } r_1, r_2 &\in \ker \Phi \\
 \Phi(r_1) &= 0, \Phi(r_2) = 0 \\
 (i) \quad \Phi(r_1 - r_2) &= \Phi(r_1) - \Phi(r_2) \quad \because \Phi \text{ is homomorphism} \\
 &= 0 - 0 \\
 &\implies (r_1 - r_2) \in \ker \Phi \\
 (ii) \quad \Phi(r_1 r_2) &= \Phi(r_1) \Phi(r_2) \quad \because \Phi \text{ is homomorphism} \\
 &= 0 \cdot 0 \\
 &= 0 \\
 &\implies r_1 r_2 \in \ker \Phi
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\ker \Phi$  is subring of  $R$ .

### Ideal of a Ring :

#### Left Ideal :

A subset  $I$  of a ring  $R$  is said to be an left ideal if it satisfies two axioms:

(1) For  $a, b \in I$   
 $a - b \in I$

(2) For  $a \in I, r \in R; ar \in I$

and subset  $I$  of  $R$  is said to be right ideal i

#### Right ideal :

A subset  $I$  of  $R$  is said to be right ideal if

(i)  $\forall a, b \in I, r \in R, a - b \in I$

(ii)  $\forall a \in I, r \in R \implies ar \in I$

A subset  $I$  of  $R$  is said to be ideal of  $R$  if it is both left and right ideal i.e

(i)  $\forall a, b \in I \implies a - b \in I$

(ii)  $\forall r \in R, a \in I \implies ar \in I$  and  $ra \in I$

#### Example :

For Ring  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$  the subset  $2\mathbb{Z}$  of  $\mathbb{Z}$  is ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}$

#### Solution :

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$$

$$2\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 2, \pm 4, \dots\}$$

For any  $a, b \in 2\mathbb{Z}$

(i)  $a = 2x, b = 2y$  where  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a - b &= 2x - 2y \\
 &= 2(x - y) \in 2\mathbb{Z}
 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) For any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}, a \in 2\mathbb{Z}, a = 2x$

$$\begin{aligned}
 n.a &= n(2x) \\
 &= 2(nx) \in 2\mathbb{Z}
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $2\mathbb{Z}$  is an ideal .

Example :

For any Ring of all  $2 \times 2$  matrices.

$M_{2 \times 2} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$  where  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The following subset  $I = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prove that it is left ideal but not right ideal.

**Solution :**

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $B = \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & 0 \\ b_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$   $R = \begin{bmatrix} a' & b' \\ c' & d' \end{bmatrix}$ . To prove it is left ideal we prove two Properties

(i)  $A, B \in I \implies A - B \in I$

(ii) For any  $R \in M, A \in I \implies RA \in I$

(i)

$$\begin{aligned} A - B &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & 0 \\ b_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 - a_2 & 0 \\ b_1 - b_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\implies A - B \in I \end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} RA &= \begin{bmatrix} a' & c' \\ b' & d' \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a'a_1 + c'b_1 & 0 + 0 \\ b'a_1 + d'b_1 & 0 + 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a'a_1 + c'b_1 & 0 \\ b'a_1 + d'b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\implies RA \in I \end{aligned}$$

Hence, it is left ideal. Now, we check it is right ideal or not?

(i)

$$\begin{aligned} A - B &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} a_2 & 0 \\ b_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 - a_2 & 0 \\ b_1 - b_2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\implies A - B \in I \end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} AR &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ b_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} a' & c' \\ b' & d' \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1a' + 0 & a_1c' + 0 \\ b_1a' + 0 & b_1c' + 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ AR &= \begin{bmatrix} a_1a' & a_1c' \\ b_1a' & b_1c' \end{bmatrix} \\ &\implies AR \notin I \end{aligned}$$

Hence, it is not an right ideal.

**Note :**

(i) For a commutative ring any ideal of ring is both left and right.

(ii) Every ideal of  $R$  is subring of  $R$  but every subring of  $R$  need not to be ideal of  $R$

(iii) The trivial subring  $\{0\}$  and  $R$  (itself ) are also trivial ideal.

**Theorem :**

Let  $\Phi : R \rightarrow R'$  be a ring homomorphism then  $\ker \Phi$  is ideal of  $R$ .

**Proof**

Let  $a, b \in \ker \Phi \implies \Phi(a) = 0, \Phi(b) = 0$

(i)

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(a - b) &= \Phi(a) - \Phi(b) \\ &= 0 - 0 \\ &= 0 \\ \implies a - b &\in \ker \Phi\end{aligned}$$

(ii) For any  $r \in R, a \in \ker \Phi, \Phi(a) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(ar) &= \Phi(a)\Phi(r) \\ &= 0 \cdot \Phi(r) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(ra) &= \Phi(r)\Phi(a) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$\implies ar, ra \in \ker \Phi$  and hence,  $\ker \Phi$  is ideal of  $R$ .

**Theorem :**

Let  $R$  be ring and  $I, J$  be two ideals of  $R$  then

(i)  $I \cap J$  is ideal

(ii)  $I + J$  is ideal

(iii)  $IJ$  is ideal

**Proof :**

(i) Let

$$\begin{aligned}a, b &\in I \cap J \\ \implies a, b &\in I \text{ and } a, b \in J \\ \implies a - b &\in I \text{ and } a - b \in J \because I \text{ and } J \text{ both are ideal} \\ \implies a - b &\in I \cap J\end{aligned}$$

Further, For any

$$a \in I \cap J \text{ and } r \in R, a \in I, b \in J$$

Since,  $I, J$  are ideals So, there is  $r \in R$  s.t  $ar, ra \in I$  and  $ra, ar \in J$  So, that  $ar, ra \in I \cap J$ .  
Hence,  $I \cap J$  is an ideal

(ii)  $I + J = \{a + b; a \in I, b \in J\}$ . Let  $x, y \in I + J$  where  $x = a_1 + b_1; y = a_2 + b_2$

$$\begin{aligned} x - y &= (a_1 + b_1) - (a_2 + b_2) \\ &= (a_1 - a_2) + (b_1 - b_2) \end{aligned}$$

Here,

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 - a_2 &\in I \text{ and } b_1 - b_2 \in J \\ \implies x - y &\in I + J \quad \text{because } I \text{ and } J \text{ are ideal} \end{aligned}$$

For any  $r \in R$  and  $x \in I + J$  where  $x = a_1 + b_1$

$$\begin{aligned} rx &= r(a_1 + b_1) \\ &= ra_1 + rb_1 \quad \because ra_1 \in I \text{ and } rb_1 \in J \\ \implies ra_1 + rb_1 &\in I + J \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $(a_1 + b_1)r \in I + J$ .

Hence,  $I + J$  is an ideal

(iii)  $IJ = \{a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots + a_nb_n; a_i \in I, b_i \in J\}$

Let  $xy \in IJ$  where  $x = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots$  and  $y = a'_1b'_1 + a'_2b'_2 + \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} x - y &= (a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots + a_nb_n) - (a'_1b'_1 + a'_2b'_2 + \dots + a'_nb'_n) \\ &= a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots + a_nb_n + (-a'_1)b'_1 + (-a'_2)b'_2 + \dots + (-a'_n)b'_n \in IJ \end{aligned}$$

$\because I$  is an ideal and for any  $r \in R, x \in IJ$  for  $a'_1 \in I, (-a'_1) \in I$

$$\begin{aligned} rx &= r(a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + \dots + a_nb_n) \\ &= (ra_1)b_1 + (ra_2)b_2 + \dots + (ra_n)b_n \in IJ \end{aligned}$$

because  $I$  is an ideal so  $ra \in IJ$

Similarly,  $xr \in IJ$ . Hence,  $IJ$  is an ideal.

### Principia ideal :

Let  $R$  be ring and  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$   $I$  is called principal ideal if

$$I = aR; \forall a \in R$$

### Principal ideal Ring :

If each ideal of ring is principal then the ring is known as principal ideal ring

### Example :

$Z$  is an principal ideal ring.

**Theorem :**

**The set of integers is a principal Ideal ring**

**Proof**

Consider an ideal  $I$  of  $Z$  and let  $n \in I$  be least positive integer for any other  $g \in I$  By division algorithm we can write as

$$\begin{aligned}g &= nq + r & 0 \leq r < n \\ \Rightarrow r &= g - nq\end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $q$  and  $r$  both are integers for  $q \in Z, n \in I$

$$\Rightarrow nq \in I$$

and  $nq \in I, g \in I$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow g - nq &\in I \quad \because I \text{ is ideal} \\ \Rightarrow r &\in I\end{aligned}$$

$\because (r < n)$  and  $n$  is least positive in  $I$  So,  $r = 0$  OR  $g = nq$  Since,  $g$  was arbitrary so every element of  $I$  can be written in product of  $n$  OR  $I = nR$  OR

Since,  $I$  was arbitrary so each ideal of  $Z$  can be shown as principal ideal and Hence,  $Z$  is principal ideal ring.

**Quotient Ring :**

If  $I$  be ideal of  $R$  then  $\left(\frac{R}{I}\right)$

$$\frac{R}{I} = \{r + I, r \in R\}$$

is set of cosets of  $I$  in  $R$  and is known as quotient ring

**Addition of Quotient ring ;**

$$(r_1 + I) + (r_2 + I) = (r_1 + r_2) + I$$

**Multiplication of Quotient ring;**

$$(r_1 + I)(r_2 + I) = (r_1 r_2) + I$$

**Note :**

$\Rightarrow$  Multiplication identity of  $\frac{R}{I}$  is  $1 + I$  and additive identity of  $\frac{R}{I}$  is  $0 + I$

$\Rightarrow$  If  $R$  is commutative ring with unity then  $\frac{R}{I}$  is also commutative ring with unity

**Question#**

Show that a quotient ring is a ring.

**Solution :**

we prove that if  $R$  is a ring and  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$  then the set  $\frac{R}{I}$  with defined operations

satisfy the ring axioms

**Closure :**

for any  $a + I, b + I \in \frac{R}{I}$

$$\begin{aligned}(a + I) + (b + I) &= (a + b) + I \\ (a + I) \cdot (b + I) &= (ab) + I\end{aligned}$$

So, that  $\frac{R}{I}$  is closed under both operations

Associative :

$$\begin{aligned}((a + I)(b + I)) + (c + I) &= (a + b + c) + I \\ ((a + I)(b + I)(c + I)) &= (abc) + I\end{aligned}$$

So, associativity holds in  $\frac{R}{I}$

Additive identity :

The element  $0 + I = I$  act as additive identity because

$$(a + I) + (0 + I) = (a + 0) + I = a + I$$

Additive Inverse :

For  $a + I$

$$-(a + I) = (-a) + I$$

Since

$$(a + I) + ((-a) + I) = (a - a) + I = 0 + I$$

Distributive Laws:

$$\begin{aligned}(a + I)((b + I) + (c + I)) &= (a + I)(b + c + I) \\ &= (a(b + c)) + I \\ &= (ab + ac) + I \\ &= (ab + I) + (ac + I)\end{aligned}$$

Distributive law hold .

All axiom hold so that  $\frac{R}{I}$  is a ring.

Theorem :

**Let  $I$  be an ideal of ring  $R$  then the mapping**

$\Phi : R \rightarrow \frac{R}{I}$  forms epimorphism with  $\ker \Phi = I$

**Proof**

Consider mapping  $\Phi : R \rightarrow \frac{R}{I}$  s.t  $\Phi(r) = r + I$

**For Homomorphism:**

for  $r_1, r_2 \in R$

(i)

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(r_1 + r_2) &= (r_1 + r_2) + I \\ &= (r_1 + I) + (r_2 + I) \\ &= \Phi(r_1) + \Phi(r_2)\end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(r_1 r_2) &= r_1 r_2 + I \\ &= (r_1 + I)(r_2 + I) \\ &= \Phi(r_1) \Phi(r_2)\end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\Phi$  is homomorphism .

**For onto;**

Since  $\Phi(r) = r + I$  for each  $r + I \in \frac{R}{I}$  there is an  $r \in R$  such that  $\Phi(r) = r + I$

Hence,  $\Phi$  is onto

Since,  $\Phi$  is both homomorphism and onto So, it is epimorphism

Next to show  $\ker \Phi = I$

Let  $r \in \ker \Phi$  then

$$\Phi(r) = 0 + I$$

but generally

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(r) &= r + I \\ \Rightarrow r + I &= 0 + I = I \\ \Rightarrow r &\in I \\ \Rightarrow \ker \Phi &\subseteq I \dots (i)\end{aligned}$$

For any  $r \in I$

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi(r) &= r + I = 0 + I \\ \Rightarrow r &\in \ker \Phi \\ \Rightarrow I &\subseteq \ker \Phi \dots (2)\end{aligned}$$

combing(1) and (2)

$$\Rightarrow I = \ker \Phi$$

■

### First Fundamental Theorem of Homomorphism:

$\Psi : R \rightarrow R'$  is an epimorphism with  $\ker \Psi = I$  then  $R' \cong \frac{R}{I}$

**Proof**

Define a mapping  $\Phi : \frac{R}{I} \rightarrow R'$  s.t  $\Phi(r + I) = r'$

Well -defined :

For  $r_1 + I, r_2 + I \in \frac{R}{I}$  Let

$$\begin{aligned}r_1 + I &= r_2 + I \\ (r_1 - r_2) + I &= (r_2 - r_2) + I \\ &= 0 + I = I \\ \Rightarrow (r_1 - r_2) &\in I \\ \Rightarrow (r_1 - r_2) &\in \ker \Psi \\ \Rightarrow \Psi(r_1 - r_2) &= 0 \in R' \\ \Psi(r_1) &= \Psi(r_2) \\ r'_1 &= r'_2 \\ \Phi(r_1 + I) &= \Phi(r_2 + I)\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \Phi$  is well define

$\Phi$  is Homomorphism :

For  $r_1 + I, r_2 + I \in \frac{R}{I}$

(i)

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi((r_1 + r_2) + I) &= (r_1 + r_2)' \\ &= \Psi(r_1 + r_2) \\ &= \Psi(r_1) + \Psi(r_2) \\ &= r'_1 + r'_2 \\ \Phi((r_1 + r_2) + I) &= \Phi(r_1 + I) + \Phi(r_2 + I)\end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi((r_1 r_2) + I) &= (r_1 r_2)' \\ &= \Psi(r_1 r_2) \\ &= \Psi(r_1) \Psi(r_2) \\ &= r'_1 r'_2 \\ &= \Phi(r_1 + I) \Phi(r_2 + I)\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \Phi$  is Homomorphism

**One-to-One** :

Assume that

$$\Phi(r_1 + I) = \Phi(r_2 + I)$$

using definition of  $\Psi$

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi(r_1) &= \Psi(r_2) \\ \Psi(r_1) - \Psi(r_2) &= 0 \\ \Psi(r_1 - r_2) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow r_1 - r_2 &\in \ker \Psi && \because \ker \Psi = I \\ \Rightarrow r_1 - r_2 &\in I \\ \Rightarrow r_1 + I &= r_2 + I \\ \Rightarrow \Psi &\text{ is one-to-one}\end{aligned}$$

**Onto**:

Every  $r' \in R'$  there exists some  $r \in R$  such that  $\Psi(r) = r'$  But  $\Phi(r + I) = \Psi(r) = r'$  Therefore every elements of  $R'$  has a preimage in  $\frac{R}{I}$ . Hence, it is onto.

**Norm on a ring** :

Let  $R$  be a ring a mapping  $R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$  is called Norm of a ring  $R$  .if  $N(a) > 0 \forall a \in R$  then  $N$  is called positive Norm.  $N(0) = 0$

**Euclidean Domain** :

Let  $R$  be an integral domain and a norm  $R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$  is defined on it  $R$  is called Euclidean domain if for  $a, b \in R$  there exist  $q, r \in R$  s.t  $a = bq + r$  with  $r = 0$  OR  $N(r) < N(b)$

**Example#** Every field is trivially Euclidean domain .

\*  $\mathbb{Z}$  (set of integers) is Euclidean domain with Norm  $N(x) = |x|$

**Principal Ideal Domain** :

An integral domain in which every ideal is principal ideal is called PID .

**Note :**

Every PID is Euclidean Domain .

**Example#** Every Field is trivially PID.

\*  $\mathbb{Z}$  is PID because every ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}$  is Principal.

**Irreducible Element** :

A non zero element  $r$  of  $R$  which is non-unit is irreducible if we can write  $r = ab$  for some  $a, b \in R$ , either  $a$  is unit or  $b$  is unit

**Prime Element** :

An element  $p \in R$  is prime if  $(p)$  ideal generated by  $p$  is prime ideal of  $R$

**Associative Element** :

For  $a, b \in R$  if there exist a unit element  $u \in R$  s.t  $a = ub$  then  $a$  and  $b$  are associates of each other

**Unique Factorization Domain (UFD)** :

For an integral domain  $R$  if  $r \in R$  is a non-unit element with these two properties

(i)  $r$  can be written as finite product of irreducible  $p_i \in R$  i.e  $r = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n$

(ii) This product is unique upto associates

**Example#** Every field is UFD because there is no non-unit element in field so we do not need to satisfy any of the condition

\*  $\mathbb{Z}$  is UFD (being PID  $\mathbb{Z}$  is UFD)

**Note: In a PID** an element is prime iff it is irreducible

**Theorem** : Every PID is UFD .In particular Every Euclidean domain is UFD.

**Proof**

Let  $R$  be PID which is not a field and consider  $r \in R$  be a non-zero unit element of  $R$  .To show  $R$  is UFD we have to prove

(i)  $r$  can be represented as product of irreducible elements.

(ii) Representation of  $r$  is unique upto associates

(i)  $\therefore$  for any non-unit element of PID ,there must exist irreducible element in PID which divides that element .So, for  $r \in R$  assume  $p_i \in R$  is irreducible in  $R$  s.t  $\frac{p_i}{r}$  OR  $r = p_1 r_1$  ( $r_1 \in R$ )

$\Rightarrow (r) \subseteq (r_1)$  ( Ideal generated by  $r$  is contained in ideal generated by  $r_1$ )

We claim  $(r) = (r_1)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow r_1 &\in (r)OR \\ &= r_1 = rp = p_1 r_1 p \\ \Rightarrow 1 &= p_1 p \\ \Rightarrow p_1 &\text{ is unit} \end{aligned}$$

Which is contradiction as  $p_1$  is irreducible

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow (r) &\neq (r_1) \\ (r) &\subset (r_1) \end{aligned}$$

Now, for  $r = p_1 r_1$  If  $r_1$  is unit then by definition  $r$  is irreducible element and we are done .  
Now, if  $r_1$  is not unit .

Then there must exist an irreducible element  $p_2 \in R$  s.t

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{p_2}{r_1} \in R \\ r_1 &= p_2 r_2 \quad (r_2 \in R) \\ \Rightarrow & (r_1) \subseteq (r_2) \\ \Rightarrow & (r) \subset (r_1) \subset (r_2) \end{aligned}$$

if  $r_2$  is unit then  $r_1$  becomes irreducible element and from (i)

$$r = p_1 r_1 \text{ (both } p_1 \text{ and } r_1 \text{ are irreducible elements, so we are done)}$$

If  $r_2$  is not unit element then the process repeats for some irreducible element  $p_3$  and so on. We obtain an ascending chain of ideals in  $R$  which must end (finite) because being PID  $R$  satisfies Ascending chain of ideal i.e.  $(r_1) \subset (r_2) \subset (r_3) \dots (r_n) \in R$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . So, that  $r = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n$   $r$  is product of finite number of irreducible elements.

Hence, proved

(ii) Let  $r = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n = q_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_m$  where  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  and all  $p_i$ s and  $q_i$ s are irreducible elements ( $\because$  In PID an element is prime iff it is irreducible)

$\Rightarrow$  All  $p_i$ s and  $q_i$ s are prime

Case-1 Let  $m > n$   $\because p_1 | r = q_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_m$

$P_1$  divides one of the  $q_i$  Let  $p_1 | q_1$  that is  $q_1 = p_1 x_1$  Associate

$$r = P_1 P_2 P_3 \dots P_n = P_1 x_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_m$$

$$P_2 \dots P_n = x_1 q_2 \dots q_m$$

Repeating the process's for  $\frac{p_2}{q_2} \Rightarrow q_2 = p_2 x_2$

$$p_2 \dots p_n x_1 p_2 x_2 q_3 \dots q_m$$

$$p_3 \dots p_n = x_1 x_2 q_3 \dots q_m$$

Repeating the process  $n$ -times we obtain

$$1 = (x_1 x_2 \dots x_n q_{n+1} \dots q_{m-1} q_m)$$

$$1 = (x_1 \dots q_{m-1}) q_m$$

$\Rightarrow q_m$  is unit which is contradiction because all  $q_i$ s are irreducible.

Hence,  $m \not> n$

**Theorem:**

**Every Euclidean domain is PID.**

**Proof**

Let  $R$  be a euclidean domain

To show  $R$  is PID we have to show every ideal of  $R$  is principal ideal for thus let  $A \in R$  be any ideal of  $R$  if  $A = \{0\}$  then  $A$  can be write as  $A = 0$  OR (zero \* Ring) = (0) (ideal generated by 0) And Hence  $A$  is principal

If  $A$  is contain non-zero element too then for any  $a \neq 0, a \in A$   $N(a) > 0$  Here  $N$  is norm defined on Euclidean domain  $R$ ) i.e  $N : R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$

$$N(0) = 0$$

Consider the set

$$S = \{N(a); a \in A, a \neq 0\}$$

this set is all positive because  $N(a) \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \forall a \in A$ .

By well ordering property  $S$  must contain a least element that is for some  $c \in A, N(c)$  is least element in  $S$ .

Now, for  $a, c \in A$  there must exist  $q, r \in R$  s.t

$$a = qc + r \quad \text{where } r = 0 \text{ OR } N(r) < N(c) \text{ (because } R \text{ is Euclidean domain)}$$

If  $r = 0$  then  $a = qc$

if  $r \neq 0 \Rightarrow N(r) < N(c)$  But

$$\begin{aligned} a &= qc + r \\ a - qc &= r && \because a \in A, c \in A, q \in R \\ &\Rightarrow qc \in A && \because A \text{ is ideal} \\ &\Rightarrow (a - qc) = r \in A \\ &\Rightarrow N(r) \subset S \text{ and } N(r) * N(c) \end{aligned}$$

because  $N(c)$  was the least element of  $S$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned} r &= 0 \\ &\Rightarrow a = qc \\ &\Rightarrow A \subset A \text{ was arbitrary so, every element of } A \text{ can be written as} \\ a &= rc \text{ for some } r \in R \text{ so, that} \\ A &= (c) \text{ ideal generated by } c \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $A$  is principal ideal using the same argument we can show each ideal of  $ED$  is principal ideal and hence  $R$  is  $PID$ .

**Note :**

Since, every  $PID$  is  $UFD$  and every  $ED$  is  $PID$  so, we can say every  $ED$  is also  $UFD$ .

**Modules :**

Let  $R$  be ring and  $M$  be a non-empty set  $M$  is said to be  $R$ -Modules over  $R$  if

- (i)  $M$  is abelian group under addition
- (ii) An action form  $R \times M \rightarrow M$  is defined that is  $r \in R, m \in M \Rightarrow rm \in M$  with following properties
  - (i)  $(s + r)m = sm + rm \quad s, r, m \in R,$
  - (ii)  $r(m + n) = rm + rn \quad m \in M; r, s \in R$
  - (iii)  $r(sm) = (rs)m \quad m \in M; r, s \in R$
  - (iv) If  $1 \in R$  then  $1.m = m$  where  $m \in M$  for  $r \in R, m \in M, rm \in M$  then  $M$  is called left modules and for  $r \in R, m \in M, mr \in M$  then  $M$  is called right modules

For a field  $F$  if  $M$  is module over  $F$  then  $M$  is a vector space .

$\Rightarrow$  Every Ring  $R$  is module over itself

**Example : Any abelian group under addition  $M$  is  $\mathbb{Z}$  - module.**

**Solution:** Given that  $(M, +)$  is abelian group .

For any  $m \in M, r \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$rm = (m + m + m + \dots + m)_{r\text{-times}} \in M$$

(i)

$$\begin{aligned} (s + r)m &= (m + m + m + m + \dots + m)_{(r+s)\text{times}} \text{ where } r, s \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &= (m + m + m + \dots + m)_{r\text{-times}} + (m + m + m + \dots + m)_{s\text{-times}} \\ &= rm + sm \end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned}
r(m+n) &= [(m+n) + (m+n) + \cdots + (m+n)]_{r\text{-times}} \\
&= (m+m+m+\cdots+m)_{r\text{-times}} + (n+n+n+\cdots+n)_{r\text{-times}} \\
&= rm + rn
\end{aligned}$$

(iii)

$$\begin{aligned}
r(sm) &= r(m+m+m+\cdots+m)_{s\text{-times}} \\
&= r(1+1+1+\cdots+1)m \\
&= (rs)m
\end{aligned}$$

(4) As  $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$  So, for any  $m \in M \Rightarrow m.1 = m$

Hence,  $M$  is  $R$ -Module over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**R – Submodule :**

A subset  $N$  of  $M$  is called  $R$  – Submodule if

(i) for  $a, b \in N \Rightarrow a - b \in N$

(ii) for  $a \in N, r \in R \Rightarrow ar \in N$

Every submodule of  $M$  is also a module over  $R$ .

**Note :**

If  $N$  is a  $R$ -module over a field then  $N$  is vector subspace

**Example :**

Let  $M$  be left -module over  $R$  and  $N$  be any left ideal of  $R$  s.t  $N \subset M$  then  $N$  is  $R$ -Submodule of  $M$  .

**Solution :**

(i) For  $a, b \in N, a - b \in N$  Since,  $N$  is ideal .

(ii) For  $a \in N, r \in R, ra \in N$  Since,  $N$  is ideal .

Hence,  $N$  is  $R$ -Submodule.

**Module Homomorphism :**

Let  $M$  and  $N$  are  $R$ -module over ring  $R$  .The mapping

$\Phi : M \rightarrow N$  is called Module -Homomorphism if

(i)  $\Phi(x+y) = \Phi(x) + \Phi(y)$   $x, y \in M$

(ii)  $\Phi(rx) = r\Phi(x)$   $r \in R$

**Note:**

A Module -Homomorphism need not to be Ring -Homomorphism

**Example** Let  $F : R \rightarrow R$   $f(x) = 2x$

$f$  is module -Homomorphism as

(i)  $f(x+y) = 2(x+y) = 2x + 2y = f(x) + f(y)$

(ii)  $f(rx) = 2(rx) = r(2x) = rf(x)$

But  $f$  is not Ring-Homomorphism because

(ii)  $f(xy) = 2xy = (2x)(y) \neq f(x)f(y)$

If  $M$  is  $R$ -module where  $R$  is field then its module-Homomorphism is linear transformation .

**Theorem :**

**Both  $\text{Ker}\Phi$  and  $\text{img}\Phi$  of a module-Homomorphism are Submodule.**

**Proof**

Let  $\Phi : M \rightarrow N$  be module-Homomorphism

(1)  $\text{ker } \Phi = \{x | \Phi(x) = 0\}$  where  $x \in \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{0} \in \mathbf{N}$  .Let  $x, y \in \text{ker } \Phi$

$\Phi(x) = 0, \Phi(y) = 0$

(i)  $0 = \Phi(x) - \Phi(y) = \Phi(x - y)$  Since,  $\Phi$  is homomorphism,  
 $\Rightarrow x - y \in \ker \Phi$

(ii)  $\Phi(rx) = r\Phi(x) = r(0) = 0$

$\Rightarrow rx \in \ker \Phi$  Since,  $\Phi$  is homomorphism

Hence,  $\ker \Phi$  is  $R$ -Submodule

(2)  $\text{Im} \Phi = \{\Phi(x) | x \in M\}$

Let  $\Phi(x), \Phi(y) \in \text{img} \Phi$  for some  $x, y \in M$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(x) - \Phi(y) &= \Phi(x - y) \quad \text{Since, } \Phi \text{ is homomorphism} \\ &\Rightarrow \Phi(x - y) \in \text{img} \Phi \end{aligned}$$

$\Phi(rx) = r\Phi(x)$  Since,  $\Phi$  is homomorphism

$\Rightarrow r\Phi(x) \in \text{Im} \Phi$  because  $\text{img} \Phi = N$  and  $N$  is  $R$ -module for any  $r \in R, \Phi(x) \in N, r\Phi(x) \in N$   
 $\text{img} \Phi$  is  $R$ -submodule .

### Quotient Module :

Let  $M$  be  $R$ - module and  $N$  be  $R$ - submodule then quotient group  $\frac{M}{N}$  can be made  $R$ -module known as quotient module ,Moreover, the mapping  $\Phi : M \rightarrow \frac{M}{N}$  i.e  $\Phi(x) = x + N$   $x \in M$  is module Homomorphism .

### Field :

A Ring  $F$  is called a field if it is

[ $F_1$ ] Commutative

[ $F_2$ ] With unity

[ $F_3$ ] Its every non-Zero element is invertible i.e has multiplicative inverse.

### Remark:

It may be observed that in a field  $(F, +, \times)$  each equation of the form  $a + x = b; x + a = b; ax = b; xa = b;$  has unique solution in  $F \forall a, b \in F \quad a \neq 0$

### Example#1

The following rings of numbers  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$   $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$   $(\mathbb{C}, +, \times)$  because each is a commutative ring with unity and multiplicative inverse  $\frac{1}{a}$  of every non-zero element of ring exists

### Example#2

Module ring  $(Z_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}, +_3, \times_3)$  is a field from composition table of  $Z_3$  it is clear that  $Z_3$  is a commutative ring with unity 1 and 2 is its own inverse.

### Remark

In a field every element is unit element except the zero element .

### Example#

In the ring  $(\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}, +_5, \times_5)$  is unit because  $1 \times_5 1 = 1; 2 \times_5 3 = 1; 4 \times_5 4 = 1$

### Example#

Show that the set of real number of the forms  $m + n\sqrt{2}$   $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with ordinary addition and multiplication of numbers forms a ring is it a field.

### Solution:

Let  $\{m + n\sqrt{2}; m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  Clearly,  $G$  is subset of  $\mathbb{R}$   
 Let  $x, y \in G$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= m_1 + n_1\sqrt{2}; y = m_2 + n_2\sqrt{2} \quad \text{where } m_1, m_2, n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{Z} \\ x + y &= (m_1 + n_1\sqrt{2}) + (m_2 + n_2\sqrt{2}) \\ &= (m_1 + m_2) + (n_1 + n_2)\sqrt{2} \quad \because m_1, m_2, n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\Rightarrow x + y \in G \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}x \times y &= (m_1 + n_1\sqrt{2}) + (m_2 + n_2\sqrt{2}) \\&= (m_1m_2 + 2n_1n_2) + (m_1n_2 + n_1m_2)\sqrt{2} \\&\Rightarrow x \times y \in \mathbb{Z}\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow G$  is closed under addition and multiplication

$$\begin{aligned}x - y &= (m_1 + n_1\sqrt{2}) - (m_2 + n_2\sqrt{2}) \\&= (m_1 - m_2) + (n_1 - n_2)\sqrt{2} \in G \\&\Rightarrow x - y \in G\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow (G, +, \times)$  is a subgroup of abelian group  $(R, +)$

$\Rightarrow (G, +)$  is it self is a abelian group .Also multiplication of real number is associative commutative and distributive over addition .Hence, $(G, +, \times)$  is a commutative ring.

Now,we see that the multiplicative inverse of any non-zero number  $m + n\sqrt{2} \in G$  in  $R$

$$\begin{aligned}&\frac{1}{m + n\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{m - n\sqrt{2}}{m - n\sqrt{2}} \\&= \frac{m - n\sqrt{2}}{(m^2 - 2n^2)} \\&= \frac{m}{m^2 - 2n^2} - \frac{n}{m^2 - 2n^2}\sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

which is need not to be in  $G$  because  $\frac{m}{m^2-2n^2}$ &  $-\frac{n}{m^2-2n^2}$  will not always integer  
So, is is not a field .

### Remark

It can be easily seen that  $(G, +, \times)$  is an integral domain because  $1 = 1 + 0\sqrt{2}$  and  $G$  has no zero divisor.

### Subfield :

A non void subset  $F'$  of a field  $F$  is called a subfield if  $F'$  is closed for the composition in  $F$  and  $F'$  itself is a field for the induced composition .

### Example#

The field  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$  of rational numbers is a subfield  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$  of real numbers which itself is a subfield of the field  $(\mathbb{C}, +, \times)$  of complex number.

### Theorem :

The necessary and sufficient conditions for a non void subset  $S$  of a field  $F$  to be a subfield of  $F$  are

(i)  $a \in S, b \in S \Rightarrow a - b \in S$

(ii)  $a \in S, b \in S \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in S$

### Proof

#### **Necessary condition:**

Suppose that  $S$  is a subfield of  $F$  and let  $a \in S, b \in S$ .Now,  $S$  is a subfield

$\Rightarrow S$  is subring of  $F$

$$a \in S, b \in S \Rightarrow a - b \in S$$

Again  $S$  is subfield

$\Rightarrow S - \{0\}$  is a multiplicative abelian group

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\neq b \in S \Rightarrow b^{-1} \in S \\ &\Rightarrow a \in S \quad 0 \neq b \in S \\ &\Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in S \end{aligned}$$

The condition is necessary

**Sufficient Condition:**

Suppose that  $S$  is non empty subset of field  $F$  then (i) and (ii)

holds

Then by (i)  $(S, +)$  is an abelian group by (ii)  $[S - \{0\}]$  is commutative group lastly distributive over addition holds in  $F$  therefore also holds in  $S$ .

$\Rightarrow (S, +, \times)$  is a field and So, the given condition is sufficient.

**Example#**

Prove that the set  $S = \{a + b\sqrt{2} | a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$  is a subfield  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$  of real numbers.

**Solution:**

For every  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \quad (a + b\sqrt{2}) \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow S$  is non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} xy &\in S \quad x = a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2} \quad y = a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2} \\ x - y &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) - (a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}) \\ &= (a_1 - a_2) + (b_1 - b_2)\sqrt{2} \in S \end{aligned}$$

Again if  $y \neq 0$  (i.e  $a_2 \neq 0, b_2 \neq 0$ )

$$\begin{aligned} xy^{-1} &= (a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2}) \left( \frac{1}{a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{(a_1 + b_1\sqrt{2})(a_2 - b_2\sqrt{2})}{(a_2 + b_2\sqrt{2})(a_2 - b_2\sqrt{2})} \\ &= \frac{(a_1a_2 - 2b_1b_2) + (a_2b_1 - a_1b_2)\sqrt{2}}{a_2^2 - 2b_2^2} \\ &= \frac{(a_1a_2 - 2b_1b_2)}{a_2^2 - 2b_2^2} + \frac{(a_2b_1 - a_1b_2)\sqrt{2}}{a_2^2 - 2b_2^2} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow xy^{-1} \in S$

$\Rightarrow S$  is the subfield of the field  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$ .

**Prime Field :**

A field  $F$  which has no proper subfield i.e A field  $F$  is a prime field if the only subfield of  $F$  is  $F$  itself.

**Example :**

The field  $(Z_p, +_p, \times_p)$  where  $p$  is a prime number is a prime field.

**Solution:**

To show that  $(Z_p, +_p, \times_p)$  is a prime field i.e to show that it does not have a proper subfield .Let  $k$  be a subfield of  $Z_p$ .Then  $1 \in k, 0 \in k$  and  $k \subset Z$ .Now,  $1 \in k \Rightarrow 1 + 1 \in k \Rightarrow 2 \in k \Rightarrow 3 \in k \cdots (p - 2) + 1 = p - 1 \in k$

Hence,  $Z \subset k$

$\Rightarrow k = Z_p$   
 $\Rightarrow Z_p$  is prime field .

**Example#**

The field  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$  is a prime field .

**Solution:**

To show  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$  is a prime field i.e to show that there is no proper subfield of  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $k$  be a subfield of  $\mathbb{Q}$ . We will show that  $k = \mathbb{Q}$

Now,  $k \subset \mathbb{Q}$  and  $1 \in k \Rightarrow 1 + 1 = 2 \in k$

$1 + 1 + 1 + \dots \cdot m\text{-times} = m \in k$

$m \in k \Rightarrow -m \in k \quad m \in Z$  (Since,  $k$  is field)  $Z \subset k$

Now,  $m \in Z \quad 0 \neq n \in Z$

$\Rightarrow m \in k \quad n^{-1} \in k$

$\Rightarrow mn^{-1} \in k$

$\Rightarrow \left\{ \frac{m}{n} \mid n \neq 0 \quad m, n \in Z \right\} \subset k$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Q} \subset k$

$\Rightarrow \mathbb{Q} = k$

Hence,  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a prime field.

**Extension of field :**

Let  $F$  be any field then the field extension of  $F$  is a pair  $(k, F)$  where  $k$  is another field and  $F$  is monomorphism of  $F$  into  $k$  Then  $k$  is said to be a field extension of  $F$  if

(i)  $F$  is subfield of  $k$

(ii)  $k$  forms a vector space over  $F$

(iii)  $k$  must have a basis and dimension over  $F$

**Degree of field extension :**

The dimension of  $k$  as a vector space over  $F$  is called the degree of  $k$  and is denoted by  $[k; F]$

**Finite Extension :**

If  $[k; F]$  is finite then  $k$  is called finite extension

**Infinite Extension :**

If  $[k; F]$  is infinite then  $k$  is said to be infinite extension .

**Example#**

$Q(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2}; a, b \in Q\}$  is finite field extension . The subset  $\{1, \sqrt{2}\}$  forms a basis for  $Q(\sqrt{2})$  over  $Q$  i.e  $[Q(\sqrt{2}), Q] = 2$

**Theorem (Transitive of finite Extension) :**

If  $k$  is a finite field extension of  $F$  and  $L$  is a finite field extension of  $k$  then  $L$  is a finite field extension of  $F$  and  $[L; F] = [L : k] [k : F]$

**Proof**

Let  $[L : K] = m, [K : F] = n$  . Let  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  be basis of  $L$  over  $K$  and  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$  be basis of  $K$  over  $F$  We show that  $\{a_i b_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$  is a basis of  $L$  over  $F$  s.t  $a_i \in L, b_i \in K \Rightarrow b_j \in L$

$\Rightarrow a_i b_j \in L$  for all  $i, j$

Let

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} a_i b_j = 0 \text{ where } \alpha_{ij} \in F$$

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_{ij} b_j) a_i = 0, \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} b_j \in K$$

Since  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  are linearly independent over  $K$ ,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_{ij} b_j = 0 \text{ for all } i = 1 \dots m$$

Also  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$  are linearly independent over  $F$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{ij} &= 0 \text{ for all } i = 1 \dots m, j = 1 \dots n \\ \Rightarrow \{a_i b_j | 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\} \end{aligned}$$

is linearly independent subset of  $L$  over  $F$ . Let  $a \in L$ . Since  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  is a basis of  $L$  over  $K$   $a = \alpha_1 a_1 + \alpha_2 a_2 + \dots + \alpha_m a_m \in K$  and  $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  is basis of  $K$  over  $F$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \alpha_i &= \beta_{i1} b_1 + \dots + \beta_{in} b_n, \beta_{ij} \in F \\ \Rightarrow a &= \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i a_i = \sum_{i=1}^m (\beta_{i1} b_1 + \dots + \beta_{in} b_n) a_i \end{aligned}$$

Also  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$  are linearly independent over  $F$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{ij} &= 0 \text{ for all } i = 1 \dots m, j = 1 \dots n \\ \Rightarrow \{a_i b_j | 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\} \end{aligned}$$

is linearly independent subset of  $L$  over  $F$ . Let  $a \in L$ . Since  $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  is a basis of  $L$  over  $K$   $a = \alpha_1 a_1 + \alpha_2 a_2 + \dots + \alpha_m a_m \in K$  and  $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$  is basis of  $K$  over  $F$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \alpha_i &= \beta_{i1} b_1 + \dots + \beta_{in} b_n, \beta_{ij} \in F \\ \Rightarrow a &= \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i a_i = \sum_{i=1}^m (\beta_{i1} b_1 + \dots + \beta_{in} b_n) a_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_{ij} a_i b_j, \beta_{ij} \in F \end{aligned}$$

$\{a_i b_j | 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$  spans  $L$  over  $F$  and so forms a basis of  $L$  over  $F$ .

$$\Rightarrow [L : F] = mn = [L : K][K : F]$$

**Corrolary** : If  $L$  is finite extension of  $F$  and  $K$  is subfield of  $L$  which contains  $F$  Then

$$[K : F] \text{ divides } [L : F]$$

**Corrolary** : If  $K$  is an extension of  $F$ , Then  $K = F$  iff  $[K : F] = 1$

**Corrolary** : If  $L$  is an extension of  $F$  and  $[L : F]$  is a prime number  $p$ , then there is no field  $K$  s.t  $F \subset K \subset L$

**Simple Extension** :

Let  $K$  be an extension of a field  $F$ . If  $K$  is generated by  $\alpha$  single element over  $F$  then  $K$  is called simple extension of  $F$  i.e  $K = F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha \in K$

**Example:**

- (1)  $Q\sqrt{2}$  is simple extension of  $Q$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{C}$  is simple extension of  $\mathbb{R}$  as  $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}(i)$

**Algebraic Element :**

Let  $K$  be an extension of field  $F$  then an element  $\alpha$  of  $K$  is said to be algebraic element over  $F$  if  $\alpha$  is root of non-zero polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$

**Algebraic Extension :**

An extension  $K$  of a field  $F$  is said to be algebraic extension of  $F$  if every element of  $K$  is algebraic over  $F$ .

**Example :**

$\mathbb{C}$  is an algebraic extension of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Solution:

Let  $z = a + ib$  be any complex number Then for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , Let  $f(x) = x^2 - 2ax + (a^2 + b^2)$  Then  $f(x) \in R[x]$  and  $f(x) = (a + ib)^2 - 2a(a + ib) + (a^2 + b^2)$

$$f(x) = a^2 - b^2 + 2abi - 2a^2 - 2abi + ah2 + b^2$$

$$f(x) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow Z$  is algebraic over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since  $Z$  is arbitrary ,so every member of  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraic over  $\mathbb{R}$ .  
 $\Rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is algebraic extension of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Transcendental Extension :**

Let  $K$  be extension of field  $F$  .If there exists an at least one element "a"  $\in K$  such that "a" is not is not algebraic over  $F$  then it is called Trancedental Extension.

**Example :**

The field  $\mathbb{R}$  of set of real numbers is not algebraic extension over  $\mathbb{Q}$   
So,  $\mathbb{R}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is Transcendental Extension.

**Theorem :**

**Every finite extension of field is an algebraic extension**

**Proof:**

Let  $K$  be finite extension of field  $F$  .Let  $[K : F] = n$  .Let  $a \in K$  ,Since  $K$  is a field and  $a \in K$  So,  $1, a, a^2, \dots, a^n$  are all in  $K$ . Now, dimension of vector space  $K$  over  $F$  is  $n$ , So, these  $(n + 1)$  element of  $K$  are linearly independent over  $F$  .Thus,  $\exists \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in F$  not all zero such that

$$\alpha_0 1 + \alpha_1 a + \alpha_2 a^2 + \dots + \alpha_n a^n = 0$$

Consider  $f(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 + \dots + \alpha_n x^n$  Then  $f(x) \in F[x]$  such that  $f(a) = 0$  So, "a" is algebraic over  $F$ . Thus, every element of  $K$  is algebraic over  $F$  and so  $K$  is an algebraic extension of  $F$ .

So, every finite extension of field is an algebraic extension.

**Chinese Remainder theorem :**

Let  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r$  be positive integers that are relatively prime in pairs i.e  $(m_i, m_j) = 1$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Then for any integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r$  the  $r$ -congruences  $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$  where  $i = 1, 2, 3 \dots r$

Hence, a common solution moreover any two solutions are congruent modulo  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r$ .

Proof:

Here,

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \\ x &\equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2} \\ x &\equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2} \\ &\vdots \\ x &\equiv a_r \pmod{m_r} \end{aligned}$$

where  $(m_i, m_j) = 1$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Let  $M = m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots, m_r$

Consider  $M = \frac{M}{m_i}$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$ ),  $M_i = m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots, m_{i-1}, m_{i+1}, m_{i+2}, \dots, m_r$

Now,  $(m_i, m_j) = 1$  for all  $i \neq j$

$$\Rightarrow (m_i, m_1) = 1 (m_i, m_2) = 1 \dots (m_i, m_{i-1}) = 1 (m_i, m_{i+1}) = 1 \dots (m_i, m_r) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots, m_{i-1}, m_{i+1}, \dots, m_r) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (m_i, M_i) = 1 \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, r$$

$\Rightarrow$  Each linear congruence  $M_i x \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$  (say  $b_i$ ) for all  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, r$  i.e  $M_i b_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$   $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, r$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} x^* &= M_1 a_1 b_1 + M_2 a_2 b_2 + \dots + M_r a_r b_r \\ \Rightarrow x^* &= \sum_{i=1}^r M_i a_i b_i \end{aligned}$$

**Claim :**

$x^*$  is a common solution of  $r$ -congruent equations  $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$ . Let

$j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$  be a particular number then  $\frac{m_j}{M_i}$  whenever  $i \neq j$

Now,  $x^* = M_1 a_1 b_1 + M_2 a_2 b_2 + \dots + M_r a_r b_r$

$$\begin{aligned} x^* &= M_1 a_1 b_1 + M_2 a_2 b_2 + \dots + M_i a_{i-1} b_{i+1} + M_i a_i b_i + M_{i+1} a_{i+1} b_{i+1} + \dots \\ &\dots + M_r a_r b_r \end{aligned}$$

$$x^* \equiv M_i a_i b_i \pmod{m_i}$$

$$x^* \equiv (M_i b_i) a_i \pmod{m_i}$$

$$x^* \equiv 1 a_i \pmod{m_i} \quad \because M_i b_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i} \text{ for all } 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$$

Now, let  $x^* y^*$  be any two common solution

$$x^* \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i} \text{ and } y^* \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow x^* \equiv y^* \pmod{m_i} \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m_i}{x^* - y^*} \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow & \frac{[m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r]}{x^* - y^*} \\ \Rightarrow & \frac{M}{x^* - y^*} \\ \Rightarrow & x^* - y^* \equiv 0 \pmod{M} \\ x^* &= y^* \pmod{M} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$M = m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r \quad \blacksquare$$