

Rings and Things

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In higher mathematics we study systems that consist of a set on which one or more binary operations are defined. The above description gives us a set, namely $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 23\}$ and an operation '+'. The operation is analogous to addition, but is not the usual operation of addition of integers. Let us call it $\hat{+}$ (temporarily). Its formal definition is

For any x and y in $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 23\}$, let $x \hat{+} y = (x + y) \bmod 24$.

To make sense of this we need to know what \bmod means.

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For example, Since $28 = 1 \cdot 24 + 4$, then for $k = 28$ and $n = 24$ we have $28 \bmod 24 = 4$. Similarly. $71 = 2 \cdot 24 + 23$ so $71 \bmod 24 = 23$ and $72 \bmod 24 = 0$.

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By definition, we always have $0 \leq k \bmod n \leq n - 1$. We can obtain $k \bmod m$ by second grade division: To find, for example $68 \bmod 9 = 5$ we say "9 goes into 68 seven times (for 63) with a remainder of 5." Here's an example computing $721 \bmod 101 = 14$:

$$\begin{array}{r} 7 \text{ R } 14 \\ \underline{101} \overline{)721} \\ \underline{707} \\ 14 \end{array}$$

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$20 \bmod 6$: $20 - 6 = 14$ (too big), $14 - 6 = 8$ (too big), $8 - 6 = 2$ (okay).

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This means that $a - b$ is evenly divisible by n . The notation we will be using: $a = (b \bmod n)$ or $a = (b \% n)$ means two things

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq a < n.$$

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The sets \mathbb{Z}_n with the operations of 'addition modulo n ' and 'multiplication modulo n ' are all examples of rings. Notice that in \mathbb{Z}_{24} we saw that $17 \hat{+} 7 = 0$. By part A4, that means that $-17 = 7$ and $-7 = 17$.

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- A6 applies to any length of the sum:

$$x \cdot (y_1 + y_2 + \cdots + y_n) = x \cdot y_1 + x \cdot y_2 + \cdots + x \cdot y_n$$

and the same for multiplying on the right.

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The ring of integers has a special element, the number 1, that satisfies $1 \cdot x = x$ for every element x . This not always true: the set of even integers with the usual operations of addition and multiplication is a ring, but has no such element.

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- If there exists an element $u \neq 0$ of R that satisfies $u \cdot x = x = x \cdot u$ for every x in R , then u is called a *unity* or a *multiplicative identity* (or just 'the identity') and we say R is a *ring with unity*.

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Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be a ring with unity u . If x is in R and there is an element y in R such that $x \cdot y = u = y \cdot x$ we call y the *multiplicative inverse* of x . In that case we say that x is a *unit* (or *is invertible*) and we call its multiplicative inverse x^{-1} .

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In \mathbb{Z}_6 we have 1 for the unity. The elements 1 and 5 are units: since $1 \cdot 1 = 1$ and $5 \cdot 5 = 1$ it follows that each is its own multiplicative inverse.

In \mathbb{Z}_{15} we have units 2 and 8 (inverses of each other), 7 and 13 (inverses of each other) and also 1, 4, 11 and 14 (each is its own inverse).

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$+$	0	1	\cdot	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	1

Addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_2

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Proof: If u is the unity then $u \cdot u = u$.

If we multiply $(-x) \cdot (-x^{-1})$ we get $x \cdot x^{-1} = u$ (law of signs). The other order is similar.

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Similar steps show that $(y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}) \cdot (x \cdot y) = u$. QED

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Similar steps show that $(y^{-1} \cdot x^{-1}) \cdot (x \cdot y) = u$. QED

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We can do repeated multiplications as well: the inverse of $8 \cdot 13 \cdot 13 = 2$ is $7 \cdot 7 \cdot 2 = 8$.