

## MATH 3311, FALL 2025: LECTURE 39, DECEMBER 5

Video: <https://youtu.be/4SjN0MJaywA>

### Fields

We now move on to a new topic, which we will briefly touch on this semester. We will return to it in much greater detail starting next semester.

*Example 1.* Consider  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ : this is an additive abelian group, but it is also equipped with a multiplication operation such that  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}) \setminus \{0\}$  is a *group* under multiplication. This means that one can do linear algebra as one is used to: Row reduction works because we can always ‘divide’ by non-zero entries.

Let us abstract the properties used for doing linear algebra in the following definition:

**Definition 1.** A **field** is a 5-tuple  $(k, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  where:

- $(k, +, 0)$  is an additive abelian group;
- $\cdot : k \times k \xrightarrow{(x,y) \mapsto x \cdot y} k$  is a binary operation;
- $1 \in k \setminus \{0\}$  is a non-zero element.

This data is required to satisfy the following properties:

- (1) (Commutativity for  $\cdot$ ) For all  $x, y \in k$ , we have  $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$ ;
- (2) (Associativity for  $\cdot$ ) For all  $x, y, z \in k$ , we have  $x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z$ ;
- (3) (Identity for  $\cdot$ ) For all  $x \in k$ , we have  $1 \cdot x = x \cdot 1 = x$ ;
- (4) (Distributivity) For all  $x, y, z \in k$ , we have

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

- (5) (Inverses for  $\cdot$ ) If  $x \in k^\times = k \setminus \{0\}$ , then there exists  $x^{-1} \in k$  such that  $xx^{-1} = 1$ .

*Remark 1.* The conditions (1), (2), (3) and (5) together imply that  $(k^\times, \cdot, 1)$  is an *abelian* group.

*Remark 2.* If we drop condition (5), then what we have is called a **commutative ring**. An example of a tuple with this property is  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ : Only  $\pm 1 \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  are invertible for  $\cdot$ .

*Example 2.*  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  is a field. As are  $(\mathbb{R}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  and  $(\mathbb{C}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ .

*Example 3.* Example 1 shows that  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  is a field when  $p$  is prime. We will denote this field by  $\mathbb{F}_p$ : the finite field with  $p$  elements.

*Example 4 (Non-example).* If  $n$  is not a prime, then  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$  is *not* a field, because the non-zero elements that are not prime to  $n$  are not invertible. This is however an example of a commutative ring.

**Fact 1.** If  $k$  is a field and  $x \in k$ , then  $0 \cdot x = 0 = x \cdot 0$ .

*Proof.*  $0 \cdot x = (0 + 0) \cdot x = 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x$ .

Canceling  $0 \cdot x$  from both sides now gives us the result. □

**Fact 2.** For  $x \in k$ , we have  $(-1) \cdot x = -x$ .

*Proof.*  $x + (-1) \cdot x = 1 \cdot x + (-1) \cdot x = (1 + (-1)) \cdot x = 0 \cdot x = 0$ .

This shows that  $x$  and  $(-1) \cdot x$  are additive inverses. □

*Remark 3.* Remember that the element 1 is *not* literally the *number* 1. It is only the identity element for the  $\cdot$  operation. Similarly,  $-1$  is not literally negative one, but rather the additive inverse to the multiplicative identity. The above facts show that these abstract notions have familiar behaviors.

**Observation 1.** If  $x, y \in k^\times$  are non-zero elements then  $x \cdot y \neq 0$

*Proof.* This is because  $k^\times$  is closed under multiplication. □

*Example 5 (Non-example).* If  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are fields, then the direct product  $k_1 \times k_2$  can be equipped with coordinatewise addition and multiplication. However, we have  $(1, 0) \cdot (0, 1) = (1 \cdot 0, 0 \cdot 1) = (0, 0)$ . This shows that  $k_1 \times k_2$  cannot be a field.

So how can we construct new fields if we direct products won't do? Before we try to answer this, let us look at the following nice example.

*Example 6 (Fields of order 4).* Suppose that  $k$  is a field of order 4. Write  $1_k, 0_k$  for the multiplicative and additive identity elements. Then every element of the additive group  $k$  is killed by 4. In particular  $4 \cdot 1_k = 0^1$ . But we can write this as

$$0 = (1_k + 1_k + 1_k + 1_k) = (1_k + 1_k)(1_k + 1_k) = (2 \cdot 1_k)(2 \cdot 1_k)$$

By Observation 1, this means that  $2 \cdot 1_k = 0$ . Now, for any element  $x \in k$ , we have

$$2 \cdot x = x + x = 1_k \cdot x + 1_k \cdot x = (1_k + 1_k) \cdot x = 0 \cdot x = 0.$$

Therefore, every element of  $k$  is killed by 2. That is, we have  $x = -x$ .

Now, let us write the elements of  $k$  as  $\{0_k, 1_k, x, y\}$ . Let us consider the element  $x + 1_k$ : A little thought shows that this has to be equal to  $y$ . Similarly, the element  $x^2$  also has to be  $y$ . This shows that we have

$$x + 1 = x^2 \Leftrightarrow x^2 - x - 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x^2 + x + 1 = 0.$$

The last equivalence is because  $a = -a$  for all  $a \in k$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Here, 2 is not an element of the field, but is the actual integer. This is the usual scaling by integers in an additive abelian group.