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k = l = m = 0. Therefore C has order 8, in which case C = R. Therefore the commutator subset of a ring of order 8 is an ideal. We conclude that 16 is the smallest order of a ring in which the commutator subset is not an ideal.

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## WHEN IS A FINITE RING A FIELD?

#### Des MacHale

When I was an undergraduate, there were two theorems in algebra that took my fancy. The first was

**Theorem 1.** A finite integral domain is a field.

The second was the beautiful theorem of Wedd burn (1905).

**Theorem 2.** A finite division ring is a field.

I often wondered why the standard proof of Theorem 1 was relatively easy and why all of the proofs of Theorem 2 are relatively difficult. I wondered too if it might be possible to prove a single theorem that would include both Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 as special cases. The following is an attempt in that direction.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  be a finite non-zero ring with the property that if a and b in R satisfy ab = 0, then either a = 0 or b = 0. Then  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is a field.

Recall that  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is an integral domain if  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is a commutative ring with unity  $1 \neq 0$  with the property that ab = 0 implies either a = 0 or b = 0. Clearly, a finite integral domain satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 3.

Recall too that a division ring  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is a ring in which the non-zero elements of R form a multiplicative group with unity 1. A finite division ring  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  also satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 3. To see this, suppose that for elements a and b of R, we have ab = 0. If a = 0, we are finished, so suppose that  $a \neq 0$ . Then  $a^{-1}$  exists in R. Hence  $b = 1b = (a^{-1}a)b = a^{-1}(ab) = a^{-1}0 = 0$ , as required. Note finally that in the hypothesis of Theorem 3,

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we are assuming neither commutativity of multiplication, nor the existence of inverses. These have all to be established.

Proof of Theorem 3: Since  $R \neq \{0\}$ , we can choose a fixed nonzero element a of R. Let

$$R = \{r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n\}.$$

Define a function  $\alpha: R \to R$  by

$$(r_i)\alpha = r_i a$$

for all *i*. Now if  $(r_i)\alpha = (r_j)\alpha$ , then  $r_i a = r_j a$  and hence  $(r_i - r_j)a = 0$ . Since  $a \neq 0$ , this forces  $r_i = r_j$ , so  $\alpha$  is one-to-one, and since *R* is finite,  $\alpha$  is onto. Thus there exist elements *t* and  $t^*$  in *R* such that

ta = a and  $t^*a = t$ .

Now define a function  $\beta: R \to R$  by

 $(r_i)\beta = ar_i$ 

for all *i*. Again, if  $(r_i)\beta = (r_j)\beta$ , then  $ar_i - ar_j = 0 = a(r_i - r_j)$ , so  $r_i = r_j$ . Thus  $\beta$  is one-to-one, hence onto, and there exist elements *s* and *s*<sup>\*</sup> in *R* such that

$$as = a$$
 and  $as^* = s$ .

Now let x be any element of R. Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are onto, there exist elements b and c in R such that

$$b = ba = ac.$$

We now have

$$tx = t(ac) = (ta)c = ac = x,$$

so t is a left unity for  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$ . Similarly,

$$xs = (ba)s = b(as) = ba = x,$$

so s is a right unity for  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$ . Thus t = ts = s = 1 is a unity for R.

Now as  $as^* = s = 1 = t = t^*a$ , it follows that a has a right inverse  $s^*$  and a left inverse  $t^*$ . Thus

$$s^* = 1s^* = (t^*a)s^* = t^*(as^*) = t^*1 = t^*,$$

so  $s^* = t^* = a^{-1}$  and we see that each non-zero element a in R is invertible in R. Thus R is a finite division ring and hence by Wedderburn's theorem, R is a field. This completes the proof.

Of course, the theory now proceeds to show that  $|R| = p^n$  for some prime p and positive integer n and if  $R_1 = |R_2| = p^n$ , then  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are both isomorphic to the unique Galois field  $GF(p^n)$ , a rather remarkable result given the innocent looking hypothesis of Theorem 3.

Finally, we mention three other directions in which Wedderburn's theorem can be strengthened.

**Theorem 4.** [1] Let  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  be a finite ring with unity  $1 \neq 0$  such that more than  $|R| - \sqrt{|R|}$  elements of R are invertible. Then  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is a field.

The example  $\{\mathbb{Z}_{p^2}, \oplus, \odot\}$  for a prime p shows that this result is best possible.

**Theorem 5.** [2] Let  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  be a finite ring with unity  $1 \neq 0$  in which every non-zero ring commutator xy - yx is invertible. Then  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is commutative.

Of course,  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  need not be a field, as  $\{\mathbb{Z}_4, \oplus, \odot\}$  shows.

**Theorem 6.** [3] Let  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  be a finite non-zero ring and suppose that for each  $a \neq 0$  there exists a unique b with aba = a. Then  $\{R, +, \cdot\}$  is a field.

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# A RE-ANALYSIS OF BESSEL'S ERROR DATA

A. Kinsella

Introduction The Gaussian (Normal) probability model

$$f(x;\mu,\sigma) = \frac{\exp(-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2)}{\sigma(2\pi)^{1/2}}$$

is, arguably, the most widely used probability model because of

1. the fact that it is found as a limiting form of other common probability models;

2. the operation of the Central Limit Theorem which gives rise to the Gaussian form;

3. the intuitive appeal of the model as a description of measurement errors in that it postulates that, in the long run, measurements will zone in on the "true but unknown" quantity of interest,  $\mu$ , and will be close to this value, lying between  $(\mu - \sigma)$  and  $(\mu + \sigma)$ some 68% of the time;

4. the mathematical tractability of linear and quadratic functions of Gaussian random variables which are used in Student's t and F ratio tests;

5. the ability of the model to readily change location and shape because of the independence of  $\mu$ , the location parameter, and  $\sigma$ , the shape parameter.

A simple transformation of the random variable, namely,

y = |x|

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