## Section 18: Ring Homomorphisms

Let's make it official:
Def: A function $\varphi$ from one ring $R$ to another $S$ is a ring homomorphism iff it respects the ring operations: For all $a, b \in R$,

$$
\varphi(a+b)=\varphi(a)+\varphi(b) \quad \text { and } \quad \varphi(a b)=\varphi(a) \varphi(b)
$$

Because a ring homomorphism is first an additive group homomorphism, we have $\varphi\left(0_{R}\right)=0_{S}$ and for $n$ in $\mathbb{Z}$ and $a$ in $R, \varphi(n a)=n \varphi(a)$. And it is also true that $\varphi\left(a^{n}\right)=\varphi(a)^{n}$ for any positive integer $n$. But weird things can happen with unities, if they exist at all. Note first that, if $R$ is a ring with unity and $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism for which $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=0_{S}$, then for all $r$ in $R$, $\varphi(r)=\varphi\left(r 1_{R}\right)=\varphi(r) \varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=\varphi(r) 0_{S}=0_{S}$, so $\varphi$ is the constant function 0.

Ex: Consider the function $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R}): r \mapsto\left(\begin{array}{cc}r & 0 \\ 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$. This is a ring homomorphism, and both rings have unities, 1 and $\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ respectively, but the homomorphism doesn't take the unity of $\mathbb{R}$ to the unity of $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$.

Exs: • For any positive integer $n$, the function $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}: x \mapsto x \bmod n$ is not just a homomorphism of additive groups; it is also a ring homomorphism.

- "Complex conjugation", sending each complex number $z=x+y i$ (where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ) to its complex conjugate $\bar{z}=x-y i$, turns out to be a ring automorphism of $\mathbb{C}$. Similarly, in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]=\{a+b \sqrt{2}: a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, the function $a+b \sqrt{2} \mapsto a-b \sqrt{2}$ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$.
- If $R, S$ are rings and $R \times S$ is the direct product of rings, with coordinatewise operations, the projection onto the first coordinate $R \times S \rightarrow R:(r, s) \mapsto r$ is a ring epimorphism - as is the projecton onto the second coordinate $S$. The inclusion as the first coordinate $R \rightarrow R \times S: r \mapsto(r, 0)$ is a ring monomorphism, as the inclusion as the second coordinate. If $R, S$ have unities, then $R \times S$ has unity $\left(1_{R}, 1_{S}\right)$ and the projections take unity to unity; but the inclusions don't do that.
- If $a$ is a fixed element of the set $X$ and $\mathcal{F}(X)$ is the family of all functions $X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with pointwise operations, then the evaluation function $\varepsilon_{a}: \mathcal{F}(X) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: f \mapsto f(a)$ is a ring epimorphism. Similarly, on the set $\mathbb{R}[x]$ of polynomials in the variable $x$ with real coefficients, if $a$ is a fixed real number, the evaluation function (which I will again denote $\left.\varepsilon_{a}\right) \mathbb{R}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: p(x) \mapsto p(a)$ is a ring homomorphism - the definitions of addition and multiplication of polynomials, which look weird in the abstract [ask a struggling high school algebra student], were chosen to make that work.
- On the set $\mathbb{R}[x]$ of polynomials in the variable $x$ with real coefficients, differentiation is a homomorphism of additive groups, but it is not a ring homomorphism, because the product rule is not $D(f g)=D(f) D(g)$.
- On the set $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ of $2 \times 2$ matrices with real entries, the determinant function (onto $\mathbb{R}$ ) respects multiplication but not addition, so it is not a ring homomorphism. And the trace function $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (which we don't usually mention in our Math 214 - it's just the sum of the main diagonal entries) respects addition but not multiplication, so it is not a ring homomorphism, either.
- Consider the functions $\mathbb{Z}_{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ given by $x \mapsto a x$, where $a$ is a fixed element of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and the last multiplication is $\bmod n$. They are all additive group homomorphisms; they are epimorphisms, and hence automorphisms, exactly when $a$ is a generator of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, i.e., relatively prime to $n$. Usually, though, they are not ring homomorphisms, because they don't respect the multiplication. They
only do that, i.e., they are only ring homomorphisms, if $a$ is an idempotent $\left(a^{2}=a\right)$. We always have the idempotents 0 and 1 , of course, giving the zero function and the identity function on $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$; others are 3 or 4 in $\mathbb{Z}_{6}, 4$ or 9 in $\mathbb{Z}_{12}$, etc. To get an idempotent other than 0 or 1 in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, we need $n$ to divide $a(a-1)$ for some $a$ between 2 and $n-1$.

Theorem 18.2 says that, if $R, S$ are rings with unity and $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism for which $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \neq 0_{S}$, then $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S}$ provided $S$ is either a division ring or an integral domain. The two cases fall into a single one: $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S}$ provided $S$ has no nonzero zero-divisors. Part (i) of the same theorem, 18.2, can be stated a bit more strongly: If $R$ has a unity and $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ is an epimorphism, then $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)$ is a unity for $S$.

Let's collect the basic facts about ring homomorphisms:
Prop: Let $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism.

- If $A$ is a subring of $R$, then $\varphi(A)$ is a subring of $S$. If $A$ is an ideal in $R$ and $\varphi$ is onto $S$, then $\varphi(A)$ is an ideal in $S$.
- If $B$ is a subring of $S$, then $\varphi^{-1}(B)$ is a subring of $R$. If $B$ is an ideal in $S$, then $\varphi^{-1}(B)$ is an ideal in $R$.
- If $\psi: S \rightarrow T$ is another ring homomorphism, then $\psi \circ \varphi: R \rightarrow T$ is a ring homomorphism.
- If $\varphi$ is a ring isomorphism, then so is $\varphi^{-1}$.
- The kernel $A=\left\{r \in R: \varphi(r)=0_{S}\right\}$ of $\varphi$ is an ideal in $R$, and the canonical group homomorphism $R \rightarrow R / A$ is a ring epimorphism.
- (Fundamental Theorem of Ring Homomorphisms) Again, let $A=\operatorname{ker}(\varphi)$. The group isomorphism $\bar{\varphi}: R / A \rightarrow \varphi(R): A r \mapsto \varphi(r)$ is also a ring isomorphism.

All of this is easy to check. Let's just give a quick example to show why we need "onto" for the image of an ideal to be an ideal: The set $2 \mathbb{Z}$ of even integers is an ideal in $\mathbb{Z}$, and the inclusion function $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}: x \mapsto x$ is a ring homomorphism, but in $\mathbb{Q}, 2 \mathbb{Z}$ no longer captures multiplication: $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2=1 \notin 2 \mathbb{Z}$.

Cor: Let $R, S$ be rings with unity and $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism for which $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \neq 0_{S}$. Then:
(a) For every unit $u$ in $R, \varphi(u) \neq 0_{S}$. In particular, any ring homomorphism from a division ring (or field) to some other ring either takes every element to $0_{S}$ or is a monomorphism.
(b) If $r, s$ in $R$ satisfy $r s=0_{R}$ and $\varphi(r)$ is a unit in $S$, then $\varphi(s)=0_{S}$.

Pf: (a) $\varphi(u) \varphi\left(u^{-1}\right)=\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \neq 0_{S}$, so $\varphi(u) \neq 0_{S}$.
(b) $\varphi(s)=\varphi(r)^{-1} \varphi(r) \varphi(s)=\varphi^{-1} \varphi(r s)=\varphi(r)^{-1} 0_{S}=0_{S} . / /$

Prop and Def: Let $R$ be a ring with unity.
(a) The function $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R: n \mapsto n 1_{R}$ is a ring homomorphism; the image $\varphi(\mathbb{Z})$ is in the center of $R$ (the set of elements that commute with every element of $R$ ) and is called the prime subring of $R$; the nonnegative generator of the kernel of $\varphi$ is the characteristic of $R$.
(b) If $R$ has no nonzero zerodivisors, then the additive order of $1_{R}$ (which is the characteristic if the characteristic is nonzero and infinite if the characteristic is 0 ) is also the additive order of every nonzero element of $R$, and if it is finite, then it is a prime number $p$, so that $\varphi(\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, a field.
(c) Suppose $R$ is a division ring; if it has finite characteristic, we have just seen that it contains a copy of some $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. If it has characteristic 0 , then $\varphi$ is a monomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}$ into $R$, and $\left\{\left(m 1_{R}\right)\left(n 1_{R}\right)^{-1}: m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\right\} \cong \mathbb{Q}$ is a subfield in the center of $R$. The subfield congruent $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ or $\mathbb{Q}$ (depending on the characteristic) is called the prime subfield of $R$.

Pf: (a) The elements $n 1_{R}$, as integer multiples of $1_{R}$, must commute with every element of $R$, so they are in $Z(R)$. It is easy to check that $\varphi$ is a ring homomorphism. The rest of part (a) is definitions.
(b) Let $r$ be a nonzero element of $R$, and suppose $n r=0_{R}$ for some positive integer. Then $r\left(n 1_{R}\right)=0_{R}$, and because $R$ has no nonzero zerodivisors, $n 1_{R}=0_{R}$. Conversely if $n 1_{R}=0_{R}$, then it is easy to see that $n r=0_{R}$ for all $r$ in $R$. So the additive orders of all the nonzero elements of $R$ are equal. Now suppose that order is finite but not prime, say it is $m n$ where $m, n$ are integers greater than 1 . Then $0=(m n) 1_{R}=\left(m 1_{R}\right)\left(n 1_{R}\right)$, and because $R$ has no nonzero zerodivisors, one of $m 1_{R}, n 1_{R}$ must be 0 ; but that means the additive order of $1_{R}$ is less than $m n$, the desired contradiction. So $\varphi(\mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ for some prime $p$.
(c) In characteristic 0 : Because $\varphi(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq Z(R)$, the reciprocals of its nonzero elements are also in $Z(R)$. So $\left\{\left(m 1_{R}\right)\left(n 1_{R}\right)^{-1}: m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\right\}$ is in $Z(R)$ and is a field isomorphic in the obvious way to $\mathbb{Q}$. The rest of part (c) is definitions. //

The text proves in some detail the following fact:
Prop and Def: Let $R$ be an integral domain. Then there is a field $F$, called the field of fractions of $R$, which contains (an isomorphic copy of) $R$ and such that every element of $F$ can be written in the form $a b^{-1}$ where $a, b \in R$ and $b \neq 0$.

It is only a bit messier, and actually clearer, to prove a more general result:
Prop and Def: Let $R$ be a commutative ring and $S$ be a subset of $R$ that is closed under multiplication; for simplicity, assume $R$ has unity and $1_{R} \in S$. Then there is a ring $S^{-1} R$ with unity, called the ring of fractions of $R$ with respect to $S$, such that
(i) there is a ring homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow S^{-1} R$ (that takes $1_{R}$ to the unity of $S^{-1} R$ ),
(ii) for all $s$ in $S, \varphi(s)$ is a unit in $S^{-1} R$, and
(iii) every element of $S^{-1} R$ has the form $\varphi(r) \varphi(s)^{-1}$.

The kernel of $\varphi$ consists of the elements $r$ of $R$ for which $s r=0$ for some $s$ in $S$.
$P f:$ On the set $R \times S$, define the relation $\mathcal{R}$ by $(a, s) \mathcal{R}(b, t)$ iff there is an element $u$ of $S$ for which $a t u=b s u$. (If $S$ contains no zerodivisors, then we don't have to bother with the extra $u$, and the $\varphi$ we get will be a monomorphism.)
(R) $a s 1_{R}=a s 1_{R}$, so $(a, s) \mathcal{R}(a, s)$ for all $(a, s)$ in $R \times S$.
(S) If $(a, s) \mathcal{R}(b, t)$, then $a t u=b s u$, so $b s u=a t u$, so $(b, t) \mathcal{R}(a, s)$.
(T) If $(a, s) \mathcal{R}(b, t)$ and $(b, t) \mathcal{R}(c, v)$, then $a t u=b s u$ and $b v w=c t w$ for some $u, w$ in $S$, so

$$
(a v)(t u w)=(a t u) v w=(b s u) v w=(b v w) s u=(c t w) s u=(c s)(t u w),
$$

and tuw $\in S$ because $S$ is closed under multiplication, so $(a, s) \mathcal{R}(c, v)$
So $\mathcal{R}$ is an equivalence relation on $R \times S$; denote the equivalence class of $(a, s)$ by $[a, s]$, and the set of all such equivalence classes by $S^{-1} R$. (Think of $[a, s]$ as $a / s$, and the following definitions will make sense.)

Define the operations of addition and multiplication on these equivalence classes:

$$
[a, s]+[b, t]=[a t+b s, s t] \quad \text { and } \quad[a, s][b, t]=[a b, s t] .
$$

Of course, we need to check that these operations are well-defined: If $[a, s]=\left[a^{\prime}, s^{\prime}\right]$ and $[b, t]=$ [ $\left.b^{\prime}, t^{\prime}\right]$, say $a s^{\prime} u=a^{\prime} s u$ and $b t^{\prime} v=b^{\prime} t v$, then

$$
(a t+b s)\left(s^{\prime} t^{\prime}\right) u v=\left(a s^{\prime} u\right) t t^{\prime} v+\left(b t^{\prime} v\right) s s^{\prime} u=\left(a^{\prime} s u\right) t t^{\prime} v+\left(b^{\prime} t v\right) s s^{\prime} u=\left(a^{\prime} t^{\prime}+b^{\prime} s^{\prime}\right)(s t) u v
$$

and

$$
(a b)\left(s^{\prime} t^{\prime}\right) u v=\left(a t^{\prime} u\right)\left(b s^{\prime} v\right)=\left(a^{\prime} t u\right)\left(b^{\prime} s v\right)=\left(a^{\prime} b^{\prime}\right)(s t) u v
$$

where $u v \in S$, so $[a t+b s, s t]=\left[a^{\prime} t^{\prime}+b^{\prime} s^{\prime}, s^{\prime} t^{\prime}\right]$ and $[a b, s t]=\left[a^{\prime} b^{\prime}, s^{\prime} t^{\prime}\right]$. Therefore, the operations are well-defined.

We can check that this addition is commutative, associative and distributive over the multiplication, that multiplication is associative and commutative, that $\left[0_{R}, 1_{R}\right]$ is a zero and $[-a, s]$ is a negative for $[a, s]$, and that $\left[1_{R}, 1_{R}\right]$ is a unity and $\left[1_{r}, s\right]$ is a multiplicative inverse for $\left[s, 1_{R}\right]$.

Finally, we need to define the homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow S^{-1} R$. Set $\varphi(r)=\left[r, 1_{R}\right]$. Then we can check that $\varphi$ is a ring homomorphism. We have seen that, for each $s$ in $S, \varphi(s)=\left[s, 1_{R}\right]$ is a unit in $S^{-1} R$. An element $r$ of $R$ is in the kernel of $\varphi$ iff $\left[r, 1_{R}\right]=\left[0_{R}, 1_{R}\right]$, i.e., iff there is an element $s$ of $S$ for which $r\left(1_{R}\right) s=0_{R}\left(1_{R}\right) s$, i.e., iff $r s=0_{R}$ for some $s$ in $S$. //

The text makes the point that the field of fractions of an integral domain $R$ is the unique smallest field that contains $R$. In the same way, if $R$ is a commutative ring and $S$ is a subset of $R$ closed under multiplication, and if $T$ is a commutative ring with unity for which there is a ring homomorphism $\psi: R \rightarrow T$ with the property that $\psi(s)$ is a unit in $T$ for every $s$ in $S$, then there is a ring homomorphism $\bar{\psi}: S^{-1} R \rightarrow T$, defined by $\bar{\psi}[a, s]=\psi(a) \psi(s)^{-1}$, for which the $\bar{\psi} \circ \varphi=\psi$, i.e., the following diagram is commutative:


This $S^{-1} R$ may seem very artificial, but it is used a great deal in commutative algebra. For example, if $P$ is a prime ideal in a commutative ring $R$ with unity, then $R-P$ is closed under multiplication, so we can form the ring $(R-P)^{-1} R$, which is usually denoted $R_{P}$ and called the
"localization of $R$ at $P$. " The set $P R_{P}=\{[a, s]: a \in P, s \in R-P\}$ is the only maximal ideal in $R_{P}$, and every element outside it is a unit. In the case $R=\mathbb{Z}$ and $P=p \mathbb{Z}$ where $p$ is a prime integer, this ring would be the set of rational numbers where the denominator is not divisible by $p$. In the case $R=\mathbb{R}[x, y]$ and $P$ is the set of polynomials that take the value 0 at a point $(a, b)$ in the plane, $R_{P}$ is the set of rational functions (quotients of two polynomials) that are defined in a neighborhood of $(a, b)$ (the neighborhood varies with the function). Etc. On the other hand, if we have an element $s$ of a commutative ring $R$ with unity, and we want to see what happens if we give $s$ a reciprocal, then of course we are also making units of all the powers of $s$, so we form the ring $\left\{s^{n}: n \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}\right\}^{-1} R$.

