

# MATH 593 - Ring

A Ressegetes Stery

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# 1 Ring homomorphism, Quotient Ring

**Definition 1.1** (Ring Homomorphism). Let  $X, Y$  be rings. A **Ring Homomorphism** is a map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  satisfying the following properties:

- $f(1) = 1$ .
- $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, f(x_1) + f(x_2) = f(x_1 + x_2)$ .
- $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, f(x_1 x_2) = f(x_1) f(x_2)$

**Definition 1.2** (Quotient Ring). Let  $R$  be a ring and  $I \subseteq R$  a two-sided ideal. The **Quotient Ring**  $(R/I)$  is defined as  $(R/\sim)$  with an equivalence relation  $\sim$  where  $a \sim b$  if and only if  $a - b \in I$ . Elements in  $(R/I)$  are denoted as  $\bar{a}$ , where  $\bar{a} = \bar{b}$  if and only if  $a \sim b$ .

The natural homomorphism  $\pi_I : R \rightarrow (R/I)$  is defined as  $\pi(a) = \bar{a}$ , which satisfies the *universal property of quotient rings*:

**Theorem 1.1** (Fundamental Theorem of Ring Homomorphisms). Let  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  be a ring homomorphism,  $I$  a two-sided ideal s.t.  $I \subseteq \ker \varphi$ , and  $\pi$  be the natural ring homomorphism from  $R$  to  $(R/I)$ . Then there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $f : R/I \rightarrow S$  s.t. the following diagram commutes, i.e.  $\varphi = f \circ \pi$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & S \\ & \searrow \pi & \uparrow f \\ & & R/I \end{array}$$

*Proof.* It suffices to prove that  $f$  exists and is unique, and verify that  $f$  is indeed a ring homomorphism.

- **Uniqueness.** By the requirement that  $f$  should make the diagram commute,  $f(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a)$ ,  $\forall a \in R$ . Uniqueness of  $f$  follows from the fact that  $\varphi$  maps every element in  $R$  to a unique element in  $S$ .
- **Existence.** It suffices to verify that  $f$  is well-defined, i.e. does not vary w.r.t. change of representative in  $(R/I)$ . For all  $a, b \in R$  s.t.  $\bar{a} = \bar{b}$ ,  $(a - b) \in I \implies \varphi(a - b) = 0 \implies \varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$  since  $\varphi$  is a ring homomorphism. By the uniqueness of  $f$  it is specified that  $f(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a)$ , which implies that for all  $\bar{a} = \bar{b} \in (R/I)$ ,  $f(\bar{a}) = \varphi(a) = \varphi(b) = f(\bar{b})$ .
- **$f$  is indeed a homomorphism.** This follows from the fact that  $\varphi$  is a ring homomorphism.

□

## 2 Ring of Fractions

**Definition 2.1** (Multiplicative System). A subset  $S \subseteq R$  for a ring  $R$  is a **multiplicative system** if  $1 \in S$ , and  $\forall s_1, s_2 \in S, s_1 \cdot s_2 \in S$ , where  $\cdot$  is the multiplication in  $R$ .

**Definition 2.2** (Ring of Fractions). Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, with  $S \subseteq R$  a multiplicative subset, the **ring of fraction**  $S^{-1}R$  is defined as  $R \times S / \sim$ , where  $(s_1, r_1) \sim (s_2, r_2)$  if and only if there exists  $t \in R$  s.t.  $t(s_1 r_2 - s_2 r_1) = 0$ .  $(s, r) \in S^{-1}R$  is denoted as  $\frac{s}{r}$ . The definition of operations follows directly from analogy of that in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

The natural homomorphism (inclusion map) from  $R$  to  $S^{-1}R$  is defined as  $r \mapsto \frac{r}{1}$ .

**Remark 2.1.** If  $R$  is an integral domain, then  $(s_1, r_1) \sim (s_2, r_2)$  iff  $s_1 r_2 = s_2 r_1$ , as for  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Remark 2.2.** If  $R$  is not an integral domain, and  $S$  contains zero divisors, then the inclusion map ceases to be injective, as choosing  $t$  s.t. it satisfies  $ts_1 = ts_2 = 0$  for some  $s_1, s_2$  that are zero divisors gives  $\varphi(s_1) = \varphi(s_2)$ . Changing  $R$  to an integral domain guarantees that the inclusion map  $\varphi$  is injective.

**Proposition 2.1.**  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* It is clear that  $\sim$  is reflexive and symmetric. For transitivity, consider  $(s_1, r_1) \sim (s_2, r_2) \wedge (s_2, r_2) \sim (s_3, r_3)$ . That is, there exists some  $t_1, t_2 \in R$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} t_1(s_1 r_2 - s_2 r_1) = 0 \\ t_2(s_2 r_3 - s_3 r_2) = 0 \end{cases} \implies t_1 t_2 (s_1 r_2 s_3 - s_2 r_1 s_3) = t_1 t_2 (s_1 s_2 r_3 - s_2 r_1 s_3) = t_1 t_2 s_2 (s_1 r_3 - s_3 r_1) = 0$$

□

**Remark 2.3.** Notice that if  $s \in S$ , then  $\frac{s}{a}$  for  $a \in R$  is invertible. This tends more to a field, with more elements being “reachable” via multiplying an element from one side. A direct consequence is that less ideals exist in  $S^{-1}R$ , with ideals in  $R$  whose generators differ by a factor that divides  $s$  being identified in  $S^{-1}R$ .

**Remark 2.4.** It is required that  $R$  is commutative to preserve the most structures from  $R$ , i.e. ensure that  $S^{-1}I$  is an ideal for all ideals in  $R$ . This is due to the addition in action:

$$\forall \frac{r_1}{s_1}, \frac{r_2}{s_2} \in S^{-1}R, \quad \frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1 s_2 + s_1 r_2}{s_1 s_2}$$

which indicates that  $S^{-1}I$  is a two-sided ideal if and only if  $I \subseteq R$  is a two-sided ideal. For one-sided (left/right) ideal the property is not fully inherited.

**Theorem 2.1** (Universal Property of Ring of Fractions). Suppose  $R$  and  $T$  are commutative rings, with  $\varphi$  the inclusion of  $R$  into  $S^{-1}R$ . Then for  $f : R \rightarrow T$  s.t.  $\forall s \in S, f(s)$  is invertible in  $T$ , there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $g$  s.t.  $f = g \circ \varphi$ , i.e. make the following diagram commute:

*Proof.* Adopt the same strategy as in the previous section:

- **Existence.** For all  $\frac{a}{s} \in S^{-1}R$ ,  $g(\frac{a}{s}) := f(a)(f(s))^{-1}$  which is well-defined since  $f$  is required to map all elements in  $S$  to invertible elements.  $g$  being a ring homomorphism follows from the fact that  $f$  is a ring homomorphism.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 R & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & S^{-1}R \\
 & \searrow f & \downarrow g \\
 & & T
 \end{array}$$

- **Uniqueness.** Follows from specifying  $g(\frac{a}{s}) := f(a)(f(s))^{-1}$ .

□

**Remark 2.5.** If  $S := R \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $S^{-1}R$  is the whole field, with localization equivalent to completion of inverse of  $R$ .

## 2.1 Localization of a Ring

**Definition 2.3.** A commutative ring  $R \neq \{0\}$  is **local** if it admits a unique maximal ideal  $M$ . Local rings are denoted by a pair  $(R, M)$ .

**Example 2.1.** Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, with  $\mathfrak{p} \subseteq R$  a prime ideal. Let  $S = R \setminus \mathfrak{p}$  be a multiplicative system. Then the ring  $S^{-1}R$  is local, with the maximal ideal of it being  $S^{-1}\mathfrak{p}$ . This results from the fact that  $S^{-1}I$  is an ideal if and only if  $I$  is an ideal in  $R$ . Further since  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a PID (see next section), all prime ideals are maximal,  $S^{-1}\mathfrak{p}$  is indeed maximal. The fact that there is only one such maximal ideal results from that all other primes are in  $S$ , i.e.  $S^{-1}\mathfrak{p}' = S^{-1}R$  for all  $\mathfrak{p}' \neq \mathfrak{p}$ .

**Proposition 2.2.** Let  $R \neq \{0\}$  be a commutative ring. Then  $R$  being local if and only if for all  $a \in R$ , either  $a$  is invertible or  $(1 - a)$  is invertible. In this case, the maximal ideal  $M$  is the set of all non-invertible elements.

*Proof.* Proceed by showing implication in both directions:

$\Rightarrow$ : Suppose that  $(R, M)$  is the local ring of interest. Proceed by showing a contradiction: suppose that both  $a$  and  $(1 - a)$  are non-invertible. Then since  $R$  is local  $(a) \subseteq M$ ,  $(1 - a) \subseteq M$  indicating that  $1 \in M$  which is a contradiction. In this case for all  $a$  non-invertible,  $(a) \subseteq M$ , which implies that  $M$  is the set of all non-invertible elements.

$\Leftarrow$ : Define set  $M := \{a \in R \mid \forall x \in R, ax \neq 1\}$ . By construction if  $M$  is an ideal then it must be maximal, as including an invertible element expands the ideal to the whole ring. Verify that  $M$  is indeed an ideal:

- *Closed with addition.* Proceed via showing that the contraposition. Suppose that there exists  $a, b \in R$  s.t. both  $a$  and  $b$  are non-invertible, but there exists some  $c \in R$  s.t.  $c(a + b) = 1$ . Then  $ca = 1 - (cb)$  is non-invertible, which implies that  $1 - ca$  is invertible. But notice  $1 - ca = cb$  is also non-invertible, which is a contradiction.
- *Absorption with multiplication.* This simply results from the fact that a non-invertible element multiplied by a unit is still non-invertible.

□

### 3 Polynomial Rings

**Definition 3.1** (R-algebra). Let  $R$  be a ring. Then a ring  $S$  is an  **$R$ -algebra** for the specific  $R$  mentioned if there exists a ring homomorphism  $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$  s.t.  $\forall r \in R, s \in S, \varphi(r)s = s\varphi(r)$ . When the homomorphism needs to be specified, the algebra is often denoted as a pair  $\langle S, \varphi \rangle$

**Remark 3.1.** An  $R$ -algebra is a two-sided  $R$ -module, which can be regarded as a generalization of the structure in  $R$ .  $R$  itself is not necessarily commutative, which implies that the associated homomorphism maps  $R$  to the center of  $S$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Morphism of  $R$ -algebras). Let  $\langle R_1, f_1 \rangle, \langle R_2, f_2 \rangle$  be  $R$ -algebras. A **Morphism of  $R$ -algebras** is a ring homomorphism  $\varphi : R_1 \rightarrow R_2$  s.t. the following diagram commute; i.e.  $f_2 = \varphi \circ f_1$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{f_1} & R_1 \\ & \searrow f_2 & \downarrow \varphi \\ & & R_2 \end{array}$$

**Definition 3.3** ( $R$ -subalgebra). Let  $\langle S, f_s \rangle$  be a  $R$ -algebra for  $R$  a ring.  $\langle T, f_t \rangle$  is a  **$R$ -subalgebra** of  $S$  if  $T$  is a  $R$ -algebra, with  $f_t(R) \subseteq S$ ; and there exists a morphism  $\varphi$  from  $T$  to  $S$ , i.e.  $\varphi$  makes the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{f_t} & T \\ & \searrow f_s & \downarrow \varphi \\ & & S \end{array}$$

**Definition 3.4** (Polynomial Ring). Let  $R$  be a commutative ring. The **polynomial ring of  $R$** , denoted  $R[x]$ , is defined as

$$R[x] := \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, c_i \in R \right\}$$

with the addition and multiplication the same as in polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . The natural inclusion from  $R$  to  $R[x]$  is defined as  $r \mapsto r$  which is a polynomial of degree 0.

**Remark 3.2.** If  $R$  is a domain, then  $R[x]$  is also a domain (consider the product of terms with highest degree); where  $\deg(fg) \leq \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .

**Theorem 3.1** (Universal Property of Polynomial Ring). Let  $R$  be a ring and  $\langle S, f \rangle$  an  $R$ -algebra, and  $\varphi$  be the inclusion map from  $R$  to  $R[x]$ . For all  $s \in S$ , there exists a unique morphism of  $R$ -algebra  $g : R[x] \rightarrow S$  s.t.  $g(x) = a$ , and the following diagram commutes, i.e.  $f = g \circ \varphi$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & R[x] \\ & \searrow f & \downarrow g \\ & & S \end{array}$$

*Proof.* Proceed similarly by first determining the form that  $g$  takes, and then showing the uniqueness and existence.

- **Uniqueness.** Since it is required that  $g$  is a morphism of  $R$ -algebras, we have

$$g\left(\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^n g(a_i)g(x^i) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(a_i)g(x^i) = \sum_{i=0}^n f(a_i)a^i$$

by the requirement that  $g(x) = a$ . This is the only form that  $g$  could take, and thus proves its uniqueness.

- **Existence.** For existence it suffices to check that  $g$  is indeed a ring homomorphism. By the uniqueness  $g$  is fixed by sending  $x \in R[x]$  to  $a \in R$ . Notice that  $R$  is commutative, which indicates that both left and right composition is satisfied; with the addition condition verified in the uniqueness part.

□

**Theorem 3.2** (Universal Property of Polynomial Ring of Several Variables). *Let  $A$  be a commutative  $R$ -algebra and  $g$  be the inclusion map from  $R$  to  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  with a fixed  $n$ . For every  $R$ -algebra  $S$  and  $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in S$ , there exists a unique homomorphism of  $R$ -algebra  $h : R[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow S$  s.t.  $h(x_i) = a_i$  for all  $i \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$ , and the following diagram commutes, i.e.  $f = h \circ g$ :*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \xrightarrow{f} & S \\ & \searrow g & \uparrow h \\ & & R[x_1, \dots, x_n] \end{array}$$

*Sketch of Proof.* The idea is similarly consider substitution  $x_i \mapsto a_i$ , and proceed to verify that this is indeed a ring homomorphism. One step that requires caution is that polynomials of several variables are defined in an inductive manner; therefore here proof should also be done inductively, on the number of variables involved.

□

Using polynomial of several variables, it is clearer to formalize the “generating set” of a ring via specifying which element each variable maps to:

**Definition 3.5** (Finitely Generated  $R$ -algebra). *Let  $R$  be a commutative ring, with  $A$  a commutative  $R$ -algebra. Fix  $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A$ . By the universal property of polynomial of several variables, there exists a unique homomorphism  $\varphi : R[x_1, \dots, x_n] \rightarrow A$  s.t.  $\varphi(x_i) = a_i$ . Then the subalgebra  $\text{im } \varphi$  is said to be **generated** by  $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ .*

**Remark 3.3.** *Using the same formalization as in the definition above,  $\text{im } \varphi$  is smallest  $R$ -subalgebra of  $A$  that contains  $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ .*

*Proof.* It is clear that  $\text{im } \varphi$  contains  $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ . To see that it is smallest, suppose there is a smaller one  $A'$ , then there must be some  $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \notin A'$ , which contradicts with the fact that a ring should be closed.

□

Notice that in the definition of polynomial ring it is only required that  $x$  could be multiplied with powers of itself. This enables making polynomial a representation of groups:

**Definition 3.6** (Group Ring). Let  $R$  a commutative ring, and  $G$  a group. A **group ring of  $R$  on  $G$**  is defined as

$$R[G] := \left\{ \sum_{g \in G} a_g g \mid a_g \in R \right\}$$

with the addition and multiplication the same as that in the polynomial ring.

**Remark 3.4.** The operation between the ring and the group is not required to be defined and is simply a notation. The polynomial cannot admit any structure that is more complicated (e.g. changing the group to be a ring) as otherwise the addition will not be well-defined.

## 4 Ideals

**Definition 4.1** (Finitely-Generated Ideals). Let  $R$  be a ring. Then

- Let  $(I_\alpha)$  be a family of ideals for  $\alpha \in \Lambda$  the index set, then the **ideal generated by (sum of)  $(I_\alpha)$**  is defined as

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda' \subseteq \Lambda} I_\alpha := \left\{ \sum_{\alpha \in \Lambda'} a_\alpha \mid a_\alpha \in I_\alpha, |\Lambda'| \text{ finite} \right\}$$

- Alternatively one could consider the **ideal generated by (product of) two ideals** (which can be easily extended to several ideal cases)  $I$  and  $J$  to be

$$I \cdot J := \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, a_i \in I, b_i \in J \forall i \right\}$$

- Suppose further that  $R$  is commutative. Let  $\Lambda := \{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$  be a subset of  $R$ . Then the **ideal generated by  $\Lambda$**  is defined as

$$(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) := \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n r_k \lambda_k \mid r_k \in R \right\}$$

**Remark 4.1.** Ideals generated by only one element is principal. For finitely generated ideals, the ideal generated by a set of elements is the same as the ideal generated by the corresponding principal ideals of the elements. This simply results from the fact that  $(a) = \{ra \mid r \in R\}$ .

Specify  $R$  to be a commutative ring, with  $I \subseteq R$  an ideal of  $R$ . Consider the following special cases of ideals:

**Definition 4.2** (Radical Ideal).  $I \subseteq R$  is a **radical ideal** if for all  $a \in R$ ,  $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} a^n \in I \implies a \in I$ .

**Definition 4.3** (Prime Ideal).  $I \subseteq R$  is a **prime ideal** if  $I \neq R$ , and for all  $a, b \in R$ ,  $ab \in I \implies (a \in I) \vee (b \in I)$ .

**Definition 4.4** (Maximal Ideal).  $I \subseteq R$  is a **maximal ideal** if  $I \neq R$ ; and there is no ideal  $J$  in  $R$  s.t.  $I \subsetneq J \subsetneq R$ .

**Remark 4.2.** Recall that  $R$  is a domain if and only if for all  $a, b \in R$ ,  $ab = 0 \implies a = 0 \vee b = 0$ . This implies that for any ring  $R$  with  $\mathfrak{p}$  a prime ideal in it,  $R/\mathfrak{p}$  is a domain.

**Definition 4.5** (Reduced Ring). A  $R$  is a **reduced ring** if and only if it does not have any nilpotent elements, i.e. for all  $u \in R$ ,  $u^n = 0 \implies u = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ .

**Remark 4.3.** For a commutative ring  $R$ ,  $I$  is a radical ideal if and only if  $R/I$  is a reduced ring.

**Proposition 4.1.**  $I$  is a maximal ideal if and only if  $R/I$  is a field.

*Proof.* This fact follows directly from the following simple lemma. □

**Lemma 4.1.**  $R = K$  is a field if and only if it only has two ideals  $(0)$  and  $(1)$ .

*Proof.* Consider in both directions:

$\Rightarrow$ : If  $K$  is a field, then either there are no invertible elements, which in this case the ideal  $I$  can only contain 0 as this is the only non-invertible element in a field; or 1 and therefore every element is in the ideal, as  $\forall g \in I, \exists g^{-1} \in K, gg^{-1} = 1 \in I$ .

$\Leftarrow$ : If a ring  $R$  has only two ideals  $(0)$  and  $(1)$ , then for all  $0 \neq u \in R$  consider  $(u)$ . By hypothesis  $(u) = (1)$ , i.e. there exists some  $u^{-1} \in R$ , which implies that  $R$  is actually a field. □

**Proposition 4.2.** An ideal being maximal implies that it is prime; and an ideal being prime implies that it is radical.

*Proof.* Maximal ideals are prime. Suppose that  $I \subseteq R$  is maximal but is not prime, i.e. there exists some  $a, b \in R$  s.t.  $ab \in I, a \notin I, b \notin I$ . By hypothesis  $I \cup \{a\} = R$ , i.e. there exists some  $r \in R, t \in I$  s.t.  $a + rt = 1$ . But then  $b = ba + (br)t \in I$  which is a contradiction.

Prime ideals are radical. Consider inductively on  $a$  and  $a^{n-1}$ ; apply the definition of prime ideals. □

**Example 4.1.** Consider counterexamples of the converse of the proposition above:

- $\mathbb{Z}_N$  for  $N$  not a power of prime is radical, but not prime.
- A trivial case for an ideal being prime but not maximal is  $(0)$ , where as long as the ring is not a field, it is maximal.
- A more interesting case for an ideal being prime but not maximal is for finitely generated non-PIDs, adding a generator to a prime ideal suffices to create a “larger” ideal. Take the example  $(x) \subseteq R[x]$  where  $R$  is a domain, which is prime as  $R[x]/\langle x \rangle \cong R$  is also a field. But  $(x) \subseteq (2, x)$  which is not the whole ring.

## 5 Noetherian Ring

## 6 Euclidean Domain, PIDs and UFDs