MATH 593 - Ring

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1 Ring homomorphism, Quotient Ring

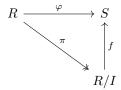
Definition 1.1 (Ring Homomorphism). Let X, Y be rings. A **Ring Homomorphism** is a map $f: X \to Y$ satisfying the following properties:

- f(1) = 1.
- $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, f(x_1) + f(x_2) = f(x_1 + x_2).$
- $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X, f(x_1x_2) = f(x_1)f(x_2)$

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

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



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 φ 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 φ 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 φ 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 $\forall s_1, s_2 \in S$, 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. $t(s_1r_2 - s_2r_1) = 0$. $(s, r) \in S^{-1}R$ 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 $r\hookrightarrow \frac{r}{1}$.

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 φ 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.

$$\begin{cases} t_1(s_1r_2 - s_2r_1) = 0 \\ t_2(s_2r_3 - s_3r_2) = 0 \end{cases} \implies t_1t_2(s_1r_2s_3 - s_2r_1s_3) = t_1t_2(s_1s_2r_3 - s_2r_1s_3) = t_1t_2s_2(s_1r_3 - s_3r_1) = 0$$

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 is 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:

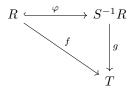
$$\forall \frac{r_1}{s_1}, \frac{r_2}{s_2} \in S^{-1}R, \qquad \frac{r_1}{s_1} + \frac{r_2}{s_2} = \frac{r_1s_2 + s_1r_2}{s_1s_2}$$

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 φ the inclusion of R into $S^{-1}R$. Then for $f: R \to T$ 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.



- 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.

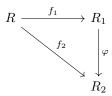
2.1 Localization of a Ring

3 Polynomial Rings

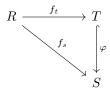
Definition 3.1 (R-algebra). Let R be a ring. Then a ring S is an R-algebra for the specific R mentioned if there exists a ring homomorphism $\varphi: R \to S$ s.t. $\forall r \in R, s \in S, \varphi(r)s = s\varphi(r)$. When the homomorphism needs to be specified, the algebra is often denoted as a pair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

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 $\varphi : R_1 \to R_2$ s.t. the following diagram commute; i.e. $f_2 = \varphi \circ f_1$:



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 φ from T to S, i.e. φ makes the following diagram commute:



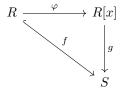
Definition 3.4 (Polynomial Ring). Let R be a commutative ring. The **polynomial ring of** R, denoted R[x], is defined as

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

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 φ be the inclusion map from R to R[x]. For all $s \in S$, there exists a unique morphism of R-algebra $g: R[x] \to S$ s.t. g(x) = a, and the following diagram commutes, i.e. $f = g \circ \varphi$:



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

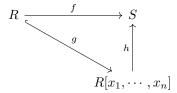
• Uniqueness. Since it is required that g is a morphism of R-algebras, we have

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

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 $h: R[x_1, \dots, x_n] \to S$ s.t. $h(x_i) = a_i$ for all $i \in [1, n]$, and the following diagram commutes, i.e. $f = h \circ g$:



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 $\varphi : R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ s.t. $\varphi(x_i) = a_i$. Then the subalgebra im φ is said to be **generated** by $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$.

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

Proof. It is clear that im φ 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_{α}) be a family of ideals for $\alpha \in \Lambda$ the index set, then the **ideal generated by (sum of)** (I_{α}) is defined as

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

• 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

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

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

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

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 $(a) = \{ra|r \in R\}$.

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 $a, b \in R$, $ab \in I \implies (a \in I) \lor (b \in I)$.

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 $a, b \in R$, $ab = 0 \implies a = 0 \lor b = 0$. 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. $ab \in R, a \notin R, b \notin R$. 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