Week 1

Rings Intro

1.1 Rings, Subrings, and Ring Homomorphisms

- 1/4: Intro to the course.
 - What will be covered: Most of Chapters 7-12 in Dummit and Foote (2004).
 - Mostly rings, a bit of modules.
 - Modules tend to get more complicated.
 - The topics covered in class will all be in the book, but not necessarily in the same order.
 - Some of Nori's definitions will be different from those used in the book.
 - Different enough, in fact, to get us the wrong answers in PSet and Exam questions.
 - We should use his, though.
 - He diverges from the book because his is the mathematical literature standard.
 - Three main differences: Definition of a ring, subring, and ring homomorphism.
 - Homework will be due every Wednesday.
 - The first will be due next week (on Wednesday, 1/11).
 - Rings, subrings, and ring homomorphisms, only, are needed for the first HW.
 - Grading breakdown.
 - HW (30%).
 - Midterm (30%) third or fourth week.
 - Final (40%).
 - Office hours for Nori in Eckhart 310.
 - M (3:00-4:30).
 - Tu (3:30-5:00).
 - Th (3:00-4:30).
 - Callum is our TA; Ray is for the other section. Their OH are TBA.
 - All important course info will be in Files on Canvas.
 - There will be course notes provided for the course.
 - If we think something Nori writes down looks suspicious, feel free to ask!

- We now start the course content.
- $\mathbf{Ring}^{[1]}$: A triple $(R, +, \times)$ comprising a set R equipped with binary operations + and \times that satisfies the following three properties.
 - (i) (R, +) is an abelian group.
 - (ii) (R, \times) is associative, i.e.,

$$a \times (b \times c) = (a \times b) \times c$$

for all $a, b, c \in R$.

(iii) The left and right distributive laws hold, i.e.,

$$a \times (b+c) = (a \times b) + (a \times c) \qquad (b+c) \times a = (b \times a) + (c \times a)$$

for all $a, b, c \in R$.

- Misc comments.
 - The parentheses on the RHSs in (iii) indicate the "standard" order of operations.
 - We still often drop the \times in favor of $a \cdot b$ or simply ab.
 - We haven't postulated multiplicative inverses. That makes things more tricky:)
- We define left- and right-multiplication functions for every element $a \in R$.
 - These are denoted $l_a: R \to R$ and $r_a: R \to R$. In particular,

$$l_a(b) = a \times b \qquad \qquad r_a(b) = b \times a$$

for all $b \in R$.

- The statement " l_a, r_a are group homomorphisms^[2] from (R, +) to itself, i.e.,

$$l_a(b+c) = l_a(b) + l_a(c)$$

for all $b, c \in R$ " is equivalent to (iii).

• Additive identity (of R): The unique element of R that satisfies the following constraint. Denoted by $\mathbf{0}_{R}$.

$$0_R + a = a + 0_R = a$$

for all $a \in R$.

- The existence and uniqueness of 0_R follows from property (i) of rings (groups must have an identity element, which in this case is the *additive* identity since it corresponds to the addition operation).
- Similarly, we know that unique additive inverses exist for all $a \in R$. We denote these by -a.
- Since l_a is a group homomorphism, this must mean that

$$l_a(0_R) = 0_R$$

$$l_a(-b) = -l_a(b)$$

$$a \times 0_R = 0_R$$

$$a \times (-b) = -(a \times b)$$

for all $a, b \in R$.

- The same holds for r_a /positions interchanged.
- These are consequences of the distributive law.

¹Definition from Dummit and Foote (2004).

²Since we will soon introduce other types of homomorphisms (e.g., ring homomorphisms) beyond the one type with which we are familiar, we now have to specify that a homomorphism of the type dealt with in MATH 25700 is a *group* homomorphism.

- In Part 1, Dummit and Foote (2004) defines rings as above.
 - In Part 2, Dummit and Foote (2004) takes R to be **commutative**.
 - In Part 3, Dummit and Foote (2004) takes R to be a ring with identity.
- Commutative ring: A ring R such that

$$a \times b = b \times a$$

for all $a, b \in R$.

• Ring with identity: A ring R containing a 2-sided identity, i.e., an element $e \in R$ such that

$$e \times a = a \times e = a$$

for all $a \in R$.

- We now justify that it's ok to denote the 2-sided identity with a single letter.
- Exercise: The identity is unique.

Proof. If e' is also a 2-sided identity, then

$$e = e \times e' = e'$$

• In this course, we will always take "ring" to mean "ring with identity." That is, we will always assume that our rings contain a 2-sided identity $e = 1_R$.

• Examples of rings.

- 1. $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$ all have two binary operations, but are they all rings?
 - $-\mathbb{N}$ is not a ring since $(\mathbb{N}, +)$ is not an abelian group (or even a group no additive inverses).
 - The rest are rings. In fact, they are commutative rings.
 - $-\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are also **fields**.
- 2. Let X be a set, and $f, g: X \to \mathbb{R}$. We can define $f + g: X \to \mathbb{R}$ by (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) and $f \times g: X \to \mathbb{R}$ by $(f \times g)(x) = f(x)g(x)$.
 - Thus, the set of all functions from $X \to \mathbb{R}$ denoted Fun $(X; \mathbb{R})$ or \mathbb{R}^X has two binary operations and is a ring.
 - This follows from the fact that the real numbers form a ring.
- 3. More generally, let X be a set and let R be a ring. Then $\operatorname{Fun}(X;R) = R^X$ is a ring.
 - The constant function taking the value $1_R \in R$ is the identity of R^X .
- 4. Let $X = \{1, 2\}$. Then $R^X \cong R \times R$.
 - Correct topology:

$$(a_1, a_2) + (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 + b_1, a_2 + b_2)$$
 $(a_1, a_2) \times (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 \times b_1, a_2 \times b_2)$

- Implication: The same "formula" shows that if R_1, R_2 are rings, then $R_1 \times R_2$ is a ring.
- 5. If R_i is a ring for all $i \in I$, where I could be any indexing set (e.g., \mathbb{N} , but need not be countable), then $\prod_{i \in I} R_i$ is also a ring.
 - The identity is (e_i, e_j, \dots) .
- Field: A commutative ring R with multiplicative inverses for every element except 0_R .

• In the context of groups, we've discussed subgroups, group homomorphisms, the fact that the inclusion of a subgroup into a bigger group is a group homomorphism, and the fact that the image of a group homomorphism is a subgroup.

- Today, let's define subrings and ring homomorphisms and make sure that the corresponding properties remain true.
- Intuitively, a **subring** should be a subset of a ring that is itself a ring under the restricted operations.
- **Subring**: A subset S of a ring R such that...
 - (i) For all $a, b \in S$, both $a + b, ab \in S$. For all $a \in S, -a \in S$.
 - (ii) $1_R \in S$.
- Check that these conditions are sufficient!
- Ring homomorphism: A function $f: A \to B$, where A, B are rings, such that

$$f(a_1 + a_2) = f(a_1) + f(a_2)$$

$$f(a_1 \times a_2) = f(a_1) \times f(a_2)$$

$$f(1_A) = f(1_B)$$

for all $a_1, a_2 \in A$.

- Note that we need the third constraint because we are not postulating the existence of multiplicative inverses.
- Examples:
 - 1. If S is a subring of a ring R and $i: S \to R$ is the inclusion map, then it is a ring homomorphism.
 - 2. R_1, R_2 are rings. Then $\pi: R_1 \times R_2 \to R_1$ defined by $\pi(a_1, a_2) = a_1$ for all $(a_1, a_2) \in R_1 \times R_2$ is a ring homomorphism.
 - 3. $i: R_1 \to R_1 \times R_2$ defined by i(a) = (a,0) is not a ring homomorphism unless R_2 is trivial since $i(1_{R_1}) = (1_{R_1}, 0) \neq (1_{R_1}, 1_{R_2}) = 1_{R_1 \times R_2}$.
 - 4. $f: M_2(\mathbb{R}) \to M_3(\mathbb{R})$ defined by inclusion in the upper lefthand corner is not a ring homomorphism for the same reason as the above. To be clear, the functional relation considered here is

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} a & b & 0 \\ c & d & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The integers have no subrings except for itself.
 - Consider $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$, for instance. Doesn't work because we postulate the existence of an identity, but $1 \notin \mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$.
- Subrings of Q:
 - $-\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$, the *p*-adic rationals $\{a/p^n \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}, n = 0, 1, \dots\}, \{a/(p_1p_2\cdots p_r)^n \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}, n = 0, 1, \dots\},$ arbitrary subsets of primes in the denominator.
 - Exercise: There's a bijective correspondence between the subrings of \mathbb{Q} and the power set of the prime numbers.

1.2 Office Hours (Nori)

- 1/5: Is \mathbb{Z} a commutative ring?
 - Yes it is.
 - Can you clarify the statement of Problem 1.4?
 - For any ring R, define a function $\Delta: R \to R \times R$ by

$$\Delta(a) = (a, a)$$

- Clearly Δ is a ring homomorphism.
- Then consider the image $\Delta(R) \subset R \times R$.
- We are asked to show that if $\Delta(\mathbb{Q}) \subset B \subset \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$ for B a subring of $\mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$, then either $B = \Delta(\mathbb{Q})$ or $B = \mathbb{Q} \times \mathbb{Q}$.

1.3 Polynomial Rings and Power Series Rings

- 1/6: End of last time: The subrings of \mathbb{Q} .
 - Today: The subrings an arbitrary ring R.
 - Question 1: Let R a ring, $x \in R$ arbitrary. What is the "smallest" subring $M \subset R$ such that $x \in M$?
 - We know that $1_R \in M$. Thus, $1_R + 1_R = 2_R \in M$. It follows by induction that

$$n_R \in M$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- Moving on, $x \in M$ implies that $n_R x, x n_R \in M$. Is it true that $n_R x = x n_R$? Yes it is. Here's why.
 - Let $C = \{c \in R \mid cx = xc\}$, where x is the element we've been talking about.
 - We can prove that C is a subring of R; this is Exercise 7.1.9 of Dummit and Foote (2004).
 - If C is a subring, then $1_R \in C$ implies $1_R + 1_R = 2_R \in C$, implies $n_R \in C$. Therefore,

$$n_R x = x n_R \in M$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- The above and additive closure:

$${a_R + b_R x \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}} \subset M$$

- Multiplicative closure: $x \cdot x = x^2 \in M$. Moreover, defining x^n in the usual way (i.e., inductively),

$$x^n \in M$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

- To be explicit, the inductive definition of x^n is $x^0 = 1_R$ and $x^{n+1} = x \cdot x^n$.
- Multiplicative closure and $n_R y = y n_R$ for $y \in R$ arbitrary (see above argument):

$$a_R x^n = x a_R x^{n-1} = \dots = x^n a_R \in M$$

for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

- Additive closure:

$$(a_0)_R + (a_1)_R x + \dots + (a_n)_R x^n \in M$$

for all $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

- Naturally, terms of this form are called **polynomials**.
- As the set of polynomials is at last closed under $+, \times, M$ must be a polynomial ring.

• Polynomial ring (over \mathbb{Z}): The ring defined as follows. Denoted by $\mathbb{Z}[X]$. Given by

$$\mathbb{Z}[X] = \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \{ a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_m X^m \mid a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{Z} \}$$

- Note that we *insist* on using uppercase for the indeterminate. The motivation for doing so is illustrated by the next example.
- $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ induces^[3] a collection of ring homomorphisms $\phi_x : \mathbb{Z}[X] \to R$, one for every R and $x \in R$. These are defined by

$$\phi_x(f) = f(x)$$

where
$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_m X^m$$
, $f(x) = (a_0)_R + (a_1)_R X + \cdots + (a_m)_R X^m$, and all $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- Implication.
 - For any R and any $x \in R$, $\phi_x(\mathbb{Z}[X]) \subset R$.
 - In layman's terms, the set of all polynomials of a single element of any ring is necessarily a subset of the ring overall.
- Question 2: Let $R \subset B$ be rings, and let $x \in B$. Find the smallest subring $M \subset B$ such that $R \subset M$ and $x \in M$.
 - Last time, we only knew that 1_R had to be in M. This time, we have a whole set of elements R to choose from!
 - Let $a \in R$ be arbitrary. We see that $a, x \in M$; this means that $ax, xa \in M$. But we may not have ax = xa as we did so nicely for the integers n_R , so we have to postulate commutativity if we want to avoid a messy answer.
 - Henceforth, we assume

$$ax = xa \in M$$

for all $a \in R$.

- As in Question 1, ax = xa implies

$$ax^m = x^m a \in M$$

for all $a \in R$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$.

- Thus,

$$a_0 + \dots + a_m x^m \in M$$

for
$$a_0, \ldots, a_m \in R, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$$
.

- This set of polynomials is already a subring. Thus, it is not only contained in M, but must also equal M.
- Difference between this set of polynomials and the ones from Question 1: These are the polynomials with coefficients in $R \supset \mathbb{Z}$.
 - Therefore, we need to define a broader type of polynomial ring.
- Polynomial ring (over R): The ring defined as follows. Denoted by R[X]. Given by

$$R[X] = \bigcup_{m=0}^{\infty} \{a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_m X^m \mid a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m \in R\}$$

- We do not require that R is commutative.
- Note that R[X] will be commutative, however, owing to the way it's defined.

³Recall that the terminology "induce" means that to every R'[X], we can assign a set of ring homomorphisms of the given form. In other words, the set of polynomial rings over rings R' is in bijective correspondence with the set of collections of functions ϕ_x .

- We now seek to generalize polynomial rings to power series rings.
- To do so, we'll need to get more precise than the infinite unions we've been using.
 - Consider the set of nonnegative integers $\mathbb{Z}_{>0} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.
 - This is a monoid under both addition and multiplication.
 - Let (R, +) be an abelian group.
 - Then $(R^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}, +)$ is also an abelian group.
 - As per last class, all elements $a \in (R^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}, +)$ are functions $a : \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \to R$.
 - We write that $a: n \mapsto a_n$, i.e., the value of a at n will be denoted a_n , not a(n).
 - Every element $a \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$ will be represented by $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$.
 - This is allowable because there is a natural bijective correspondence between each a and each power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$.
 - Essentially, what we are doing here is using the rigorously defined set of functions $R^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$ to theoretically stand in for the intuitive concept of a power series. This is acceptable since both objects have very similar properties, especially as pertains to adding and multiplying them.
 - This is like defining the real numbers (intuitive) in terms of Dedekind cuts (rigorous).
 - Note that alternatively, we could introduce the entire sequences/series analytical framework from Honors Calculus IBL to logically underpin power series, but this technique will be much less bulky and suit our purposes just fine.
 - We define addition and multiplication on $R^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$ as follows.

$$\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}a_nX^n\right) + \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}b_nX^n\right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(a_n + b_n)X^n$$

$$\left(\sum_{p=0}^{\infty}a_pX^p\right)\left(\sum_{q=0}^{\infty}b_qX^q\right) = \sum_{\substack{p\geq 0,\\q\geq 0}}a_pb_qX^{p+q} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{p=0}^{r}a_pb_{r-p}\right)X^r$$

- This is the **power series ring**.
- Monoid: A set equipped with an associative binary operation and an identity element.
- Power series ring (over R): The ring defined as follows, with $+, \times$ defined as above. Denoted by $(R[[X]], +, \times)$. Given by $R[[X]] = R^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$

• Note that the definitions of addition and multiplication for R[[X]] are precisely the ones needed for R[X], too, (just the finite version) even though we didn't state them earlier.

- Two observations about power series rings which will also hold for polynomial rings.
 - 1. R is a subring of R[[X]] with the inclusion ring homomorphism $a \mapsto a1 + 0X^1 + 0X^2 + \cdots$
 - 2. Additionally, we can map $X \in R$ to $0X^0 + 1X^1 + 0X^2 + \cdots \in R[[X]]$.
- aX = Xa for all $a \in R$.
 - Why?? Ask in OH.
- Alternate definition of R[X]: The subring of R[[X]] given by

$$R[X] = \left\{ \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} a_m X^m \in R[[X]] \middle| |\{m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \mid a_m \neq 0\}| < \infty \right\}$$

• Theorem (Universal Property of a Polynomial Ring): Let R be a ring, $\alpha: R \to B$ a ring homomorphism, and $x \in B$. Assume that $x \cdot \alpha(a) = \alpha(a) \cdot x$ for all $a \in R$. Then there is a unique ring homomorphism $\beta: R[X] \to B$ such that $\beta(a) = \alpha(a)$ for all $a \in R$ and $\beta(X) = x$.

Proof. We first prove that such a ring homomorphism exists. Then we address uniqueness.

Let $\beta(X) = x$. Then if β is to be a ring homomorphism, we must have

$$\beta(X^m) = x^m$$

for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. We also require that $\beta(a_m) = \alpha(a_m)$ for all $a_m \in R$ (at this point, a_m is just suggestive notation). Again, if β is to be a ring homomorphism, it must follow that

$$\beta(a_m X^m) = \beta(a_m)\beta(X^m) = \alpha(a_m)x^m$$

for all $a_m \in R$, $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Lastly, if β is to be a ring homomorphism, it must follow that

$$\beta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i X^i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \beta(a_i X^i) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \alpha(a_i) x^i$$

But then by its construction, β is defined on every element in R[X] and is a ring homomorphism satisfying the desired properties.

Suppose $\beta, \beta' : R[X] \to B$ are ring homomorphisms satisfing $\beta(a) = \beta'(a) = \alpha(a)$ for all $a \in R$ and $\beta(X) = \beta'(X) = x$. Let $\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i X^i \in R[X]$ be arbitrary. Then

$$\beta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i X^i\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \alpha(a_i) x^i = \beta'\left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} a_i X^i\right)$$

as desired. \Box

• The idea of the theorem.

- Evaluation of a function $(f \in R[X])$ at a point $(x \in B)$: If $R \subset B$ and $\alpha(a) = a$ for all $a \in R$, then $\beta(f) = f(x)$.
- $-\alpha$ is like a coordinate change function, allowing us to evaluate variants of each f.
- In fact, this idea is highly related to the linear algebra concept that specifying the action of a map on a basis specifies its action on all elements.
 - However, here we are dealing with a **module homomorphism**, not a linear transformation.