## 16. Ring Homomorphisms and Ideals

**Definition 16.1.** Let  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  be a function between two rings. We say that  $\phi$  is a ring homomorphism if for every a and  $b \in R$ ,

$$\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b)$$
  
$$\phi(a \cdot b) = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(b),$$

and in addition  $\phi(1) = 1$ .

Note that this gives us a category, the category of rings. The objects are rings and the morphisms are ring homomorphisms. Just as in the case of groups, one can define automorphisms.

**Example 16.2.** Let  $\phi : \mathbb{C} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be the map that sends a complex number to its complex conjugate. Then  $\phi$  is an automorphism of  $\mathbb{C}$ . In fact  $\phi$  is its own inverse.

Let  $\phi: R[x] \longrightarrow R[x]$  be the map that sends f(x) to f(x+1). Then  $\phi$  is an automorphism. Indeed the inverse map sends f(x) to f(x-1).

By analogy with groups, we have

**Definition 16.3.** Let  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  be a ring homomorphism. The **kernel** of  $\phi$ , denoted Ker  $\phi$ , is the inverse image of zero.

As in the case of groups, a very natural question arises. What can we say about the kernel of a ring homomorphism? Since a ring homomorphism is automatically a group homomorphism, it follows that the kernel is a normal subgroup. However since a ring is an abelian group under addition, in fact all subgroups are automatically normal.

**Definition-Lemma 16.4.** Let R be a ring and let I be a subset of R. We say that I is an **ideal** of R and write  $I \triangleleft R$  if I is a an additive subgroup of R and for every  $a \in I$  and  $r \in R$ , we have

$$ra \in I$$
 and  $ar \in I$ .

Let  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  be a ring homorphism and let I be the kernel of  $\phi$ . Then I is an ideal of R.

*Proof.* We have already seen that I is an additive subgroup of R. Suppose that  $a \in I$  and  $r \in R$ . Then

$$\phi(ra) = \phi(r)\phi(a)$$
$$= \phi(r)0$$
$$= 0$$

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Thus ra is in the kernel of  $\phi$ . Similarly for ar.

As before, given an additive subgroup H of R, we let R/H denote the group of left cosets of H in R.

**Proposition 16.5.** Let R be a ring and let I be an ideal of R, such that  $I \neq R$ .

Then R/I is a ring. Furthermore there is a natural ring homomorphism

$$u\colon R\longrightarrow R/I$$

which sends r to r + I.

*Proof.* As I is an ideal, and addition in R is commutative, it follows that R/I is a group, with the natural definition of addition inherited from R. Further we have seen that  $\phi$  is a group homomorphism. It remains to define a multiplication in R/I.

Given two left cosets r+I and s+I in R/I, we define a multiplication in the obvious way,

$$(r+I)(s+I) = rs+I.$$

In fact this is forced by requiring that u is a ring homorphism.

As before the problem is to check that this is well-defined. Suppose that r' + I = r + I and s' + I = s + I. Then we may find *i* and *j* in *I* such that r' = r + i and s' = s + j. We have

$$r's' = (r+i)(s+j)$$
$$= rs + is + rj + ij$$

As I is an ideal,  $is + rj + ij \in I$ . It follows that r's' + I = rs + I and multiplication is well-defined. The rest is easy to check.

As before the quotient of a ring by an ideal is a categorical quotient.

**Theorem 16.6.** Let R be a ring and I an ideal not equal to all of R. Let  $u: R \longrightarrow R/I$  be the obvious map. Then u is universal amongst all ring homomorphisms whose kernel contains I.

That is, suppose  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  is any ring homomorphism, whose kernel contains I. Then there is a unique ring homomorphism  $\psi: R/I \longrightarrow S$ , which makes the following diagram commute,

$$\begin{array}{c|c} R & \stackrel{\phi}{\longrightarrow} S \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ u & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ R/I. \end{array}$$

**Theorem 16.7.** (Isomorphism Theorem) Let  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  be a homomorphism of rings. Suppose that  $\phi$  is onto and let I be the kernel of  $\phi$ . Then S is isomorphic to R/I.

**Example 16.8.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ . Fix a non-zero integer n and let I consist of all multiples of n. It is easy to see that I is an ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}$ . The quotient,  $\mathbb{Z}/I$  is  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  the ring of integers modulo n.

**Definition-Lemma 16.9.** Let R be a commutative ring and let  $a \in R$  be an element of R.

The set

$$I = \langle a \rangle = \{ ra \mid r \in R \},\$$

is an ideal and any ideal of this form is called principal.

*Proof.* We first show that I is an additive subgroup.

Suppose that x and y are in I. Then x = ra and y = sa, where r and s are two elements of R. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= ra + sa \\ &= (r + s)a \end{aligned}$$

Thus I is closed under addition. Further -x = -ra = (-r)a, so that I is closed under inverses. It follows that I is an additive subgroup.

Now suppose that  $x \in I$  and that  $s \in R$ . Then

$$sx = s(ra) = (sr)a \in I.$$

It follows that I is an ideal.

**Definition-Lemma 16.10.** Let R be a ring. We say that  $u \in R$  is a unit, if u has a multiplicative inverse.

Let I be an ideal of a ring R. If I contains a unit, then I = R.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $u \in I$  is a unit of R. Then vu = 1, for some  $v \in R$ . It follows that

 $1 = vu \in I.$ 

Pick 
$$a \in R$$
. Then

$$a = a \cdot 1 \in I.$$

**Proposition 16.11.** Let R be a division ring. Then the only ideals of R are the zero ideal and the whole of R. In particular if  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  is any ring homomorphism then  $\phi$  is injective.

*Proof.* Let I be an ideal, not equal to  $\{0\}$ . Pick  $u \in I$ ,  $u \neq 0$ . As R is a division ring, it follows that u is a unit. But then I = R.

Now let  $\phi: R \longrightarrow S$  be a ring homomorphism and let I be the kernel. Then I cannot be the whole of R, so that  $I = \{0\}$ . But then  $\phi$  is injective.

**Example 16.12.** Let X be a set and let R be a ring. Let F denote the set of functions from X to R. We have already seen that F forms a ring, under pointwise addition and multiplication.

Let Y be a subset of X and let I be the set of those functions from X to R whose restriction to Y is zero.

Then I is an ideal of F. Indeed I is clearly non-empty as the zero function is an element of I. Given two functions f and g in F, whose restriction to Y is zero, then clearly the restriction of f + g to Y is zero. Finally, suppose that  $f \in I$ , so that f is zero on Y and suppose that g is any function from X to R. Then gf is zero on Y. Thus I is an ideal.

Now consider F/I. I claim that this is isomorphic to the space of functions G from Y to R. Indeed there is a natural map from F to G which sends a function to its restriction to Y,

$$f \longrightarrow f|_Y.$$

It is clear that the kernel is I. Thus the result follows by the Isomorphism Theorem. As a special case, one can take X = [0, 1] and  $R = \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $Y = \{1/2\}$ . Then the space of maps from Y to  $\mathbb{R}$  is just a copy of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 16.13.** Let R be the ring of Gaussian integers, that is, those complex numbers of the form a + bi.

Let I be the subset of R consisting of those numbers such 2|a and 2|b. I claim that I is an ideal of R. In fact suppose that  $a + bi \in I$  and  $c + di \in I$ . Then

$$(a+bi) + (c+di) = (a+c) + (b+d)i.$$

As a and c are even, then so is a + c and similarly as b and d are even, then so is b + d. Thus I is closed under addition. Similarly I is closed under inverses.

Now suppose that  $a + bi \in I$  and r = c + di is a Gaussian integer. Then

$$(c+di)(a+bi) = (ac-bd) + (ad+bc)i$$

As a and b are even, so are ac - bd and ad + bc and so I is an ideal.