Ring Homomorphisms

Definition. Let R and S be rings. A ring homomorphism (or a ring map for short) is a function $f: R \to S$ such that:

(a) For all $x, y \in R$, f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y).

(b) For all $x, y \in R$, f(xy) = f(x)f(y).

Usually, we require that if R and S are rings with 1, then

(c) $f(1_R) = 1_S$.

This is automatic in some cases; if there is any question, you should read carefully to find out what convention is being used.

The first two properties stipulate that f should "preserve" the ring structure — addition and multiplication.

Example. (A ring map on the integers mod 2) Show that the following function $f : \mathbb{Z}_2 \to \mathbb{Z}_2$ is a ring map:

$$f(x) = x^2$$

First,

$$f(x+y) = (x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = x^2 + y^2 = f(x) + f(y)$$

2xy = 0 because 2 times anything is 0 in \mathbb{Z}_2 . Next,

$$f(xy) = (xy)^2 = x^2y^2 = f(x)f(y)$$

The second equality follows from the fact that \mathbb{Z}_2 is commutative. Note also that $f(1) = 1^2 = 1$. Thus, f is a ring homomorphism. \Box

Example. (An additive function which is not a ring map) Show that the following function $g : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is not a ring map:

$$g(x) = 2x.$$

Note that

$$g(x+y) = 2(x+y) = 2x + 2y = g(x) + g(y)$$

Therefore, g is additive — that is, g is a homomorphism of abelian groups. But

$$g(1 \cdot 3) = g(3) = 2 \cdot 3 = 6$$
, while $g(1)g(3) = (2 \cdot 1)(2 \cdot 3) = 12$.

Thus, $g(1 \cdot 3) \neq g(1)g(3)$, so g is not a ring map. \Box

Lemma. Let R and S be rings and let $f : R \to S$ be a ring map.

- (a) f(0) = 0.
- (b) f(-r) = -f(r) for all $r \in R$.

Proof. (a)

$$f(0) = f(0+0) = f(0) + f(0)$$
, so $f(0) = 0$.

(b) By (a),

$$0 = f(0) = f(r + (-r)) = f(r) + f(-r).$$

But this says that f(-r) is the additive inverse of f(r), i.e. f(-r) = -f(r). \Box

These properties are useful, and they also lend support to the idea that ring maps "preserve" the ring structure. Now I know that a ring map not only preserves addition and multiplication, but 0 and additive inverses as well.

Warning! A ring map f must satisfy f(0) = 0 and f(-r) = -f(r), but these are not part of the definition of a ring map. To check that something is a ring map, you check that it preserves sums and products.

On the other hand, if a function does not satisfy f(0) = 0 and f(-r) = -f(r), then it isn't a ring map.

Example. (Showing that a function is not a ring map) (a) Show that the following function $f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is not a ring map:

$$f(x) = 2x + 5.$$

(b) Show that the following $g : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ is not a ring map:

$$g(x) = 3x$$

(a) $f(0) = 5 \neq 0$. \Box

(b) g(0) = 0 and g(-n) = -g(n) for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Nevertheless, g is not a ring map:

 $g(3 \cdot 2) = g(6) = 3 \cdot 6 = 18$, but $g(3) \cdot g(2) = (3 \cdot 3) \cdot (3 \cdot 2) = 54$.

Thus, $g(3 \cdot 2) \neq g(3) \cdot g(2)$, so g does not preserve products. \Box

Lemma. Let R, S, and T be rings, and let $f : R \to S$ and $g : S \to T$ be ring maps. Then the composite $g \cdot f : R \to T$ is a ring map.

Proof. Let $x, y \in R$. Then

$$(g \cdot f)(x + y) = g(f(x + y)) = g(f(x) + f(y)) = g(f(x)) + g(f(y)) = (g \cdot f)(x) + (g \cdot f)(y).$$
$$(g \cdot f)(x \cdot y) = g(f(x \cdot y)) = g(f(x) \cdot f(y)) = g(f(x)) \cdot g(f(y)) = (g \cdot f)(x) \cdot (g \cdot f)(y).$$

If, in addition, R, S, and T are rings with identity, then

$$(g \cdot f)(1) = g(f(1)) = g(1) = 1.$$

Therefore, $q \cdot f$ is a ring map. \Box

There is an important relationship between ring maps and ideals. I'll consider half of the relationship now.

Definition. The kernel of a ring map $\phi : R \to S$ is

$$\ker \phi = \{ r \in R \mid \phi(r) = 0 \}.$$

The **image** of a ring map $\phi : R \to S$ is

$$\operatorname{im} \phi = \{ \phi(r) \mid r \in R \}.$$

The kernel of a ring map is like the null space of a linear transformation of vector spaces. The image of a ring map is like the column space of a linear transformation.

Proposition. The kernel of a ring map is a two-sided ideal.

In fact, I'll show later that every two-sided ideal arises as the kernel of a ring map.

Proof. Let $\phi: R \to S$ be a ring map. Let $x, y \in \ker \phi$, so $\phi(x) = 0$ and $\phi(y) = 0$. Then

$$\phi(x+y) = \phi(x) + \phi(y) = 0 + 0 = 0$$

Hence, $x + y \in \ker \phi$. Since $\phi(0) = 0, 0 \in \ker \phi$. Next, if $x \in \ker \phi$, then $\phi(x) = 0$. Hence, $-\phi(x) = 0$, so $\phi(-x) = 0$ (why?), so $-x \in \ker \phi$. Finally, let $x \in \ker \phi$ and let $r \in R$.

$$\phi(rx) = \phi(r)\phi(x) = \phi(r) \cdot 0 = 0,$$

$$\phi(xr) = \phi(x)\phi(r) = 0 \cdot \phi(r) = 0.$$

It follows that $rx, xr \in \ker \phi$. Hence, $\ker \phi$ is a two-sided ideal. \Box

I'll omit the proof of the following result. Note that it says the image of a ring map is a *subring*, not an *ideal*.

Proposition. Let $\phi : R \to S$ be a ring map. Then im ϕ is a subring of S. \Box

Definition. Let R and S be rings. A ring isomorphism from R to S is a bijective ring homomorphism $f: R \to S$.

If there is a ring isomorphism $f: R \to S$, R and S are **isomorphic**. In this case, we write $R \approx S$.

Heuristically, two rings are isomorphic if they are "the same" as rings. An obvious example: If R is a ring, the identity map id : $R \to R$ is an isomorphism of R with itself.

Since a ring isomorphism is a bijection, isomorphic rings must have the same cardinality. So, for example, $\mathbb{Z}_6 \not\approx \mathbb{Z}_{42}$, because the two rings have different numbers of elements.

However, \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Q} have the "same number" of elements — the same **cardinality** — but they are not isomorphic as rings. (Quick reason: \mathbb{Q} is a field, while \mathbb{Z} is only an integral domain.)

I've been using this construction informally in some examples. Here's the precise definition.

Definition. Let *R* and *S* be rings. The **product ring** $R \times S$ of *R* and *S* is the set consisting of all ordered pairs (r, s), where $r \in R$ and $s \in S$. Addition and multiplication are defined component-wise: For $a, b \in R$ and $x, y \in S$,

$$(a, x) + (b, y) = (a + b, x + y).$$

 $(a, x) \cdot (b, y) = (a \cdot b, x \cdot y).$

I won't go through the verification of all the axioms; basically, everything works because everything works in each component separately. For example, here's the verification of the associative law for addition. Let $a, b, c \in R, x, y, z \in S$. Then

$$[(a, x) + (b, y)] + (c, z) = (a + b, x + y) + (c, z) = ((a + b) + c, (x + y) + z) = (a + (b + c), x + (y + z)) = (a + (b + c), x + (b + c)) = (a + (b + c), x + (b + c))$$

$$(a, x) + (b + c, y + z) = (a, x) + [(b, y) + (c, z)].$$

The third equality used associativity of addition in R and in S.

The additive identity is (0,0); the additive inverse -(r,s) of (r,s) is (-r,-s). And so on. Try out one or two of the other axioms for yourself just to get a feel for how things work.

Example. (A ring isomorphic to a product of rings) Show that $\mathbb{Z}_6 \approx \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$.

 $\mathbb{Z}_6\approx\{0,1,2,3,4,5\}$ with addition and multiplication mod 6. On the other hand,

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 = \{(0,0), (0,1), (0,2), (1,0), (1,1), (1,2)\}\$$

One ring consists of single elements, while the other consists of pairs. Nevertheless, these rings are isomorphic — they are the same as rings.

Here are the addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_6 :

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

•	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

Here are the addition and multiplication tables for $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$.

+	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)
(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)
(0,1)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	(1, 0)
(0,2)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(1, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)
(1,0)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)
(1,1)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)	(1, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)
(1,2)	(1, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)

•	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)
(0,0)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(0,0)	(0, 0)
(0,1)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)
(0,2)	(0, 0)	(0, 2)	(0, 1)	(0, 0)	(0, 2)	(0, 1)
(1,0)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(0, 0)	(1, 0)	(1, 0)	(1, 0)
(1,1)	(0, 0)	(0, 1)	(0, 2)	(1, 0)	(1, 1)	(1, 2)
(1,2)	(0, 0)	(0, 2)	(0, 1)	(1, 0)	(1, 2)	(1, 1)

The two rings each have 6 elements, so it's easy to define a *bijection* from one to the other — for example,

$$f(0) = (0,0), f(1) = (0,1), f(2) = (0,2), f(3) = (1,0), f(4) = (1,1), f(5) = (1,2).$$

However, this is not a ring isomorphism:

$$f(1+2) = f(3) = (1,0)$$
, while $f(1) + f(2) = (0,1) + (0,2) = (0,0)$

Thus, $f(1+2) \neq f(1) + f(2)$.

It turns out, however, that the following map gives a ring isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_6 \to \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$:

$$f(0) = (0,0), f(1) = (1,1), f(2) = (0,2), f(3) = (1,0), f(4) = (0,1), f(5) = (1,2).$$

It's obvious that the map is a bijection. To prove that this is a ring isomorphism, you'd have to check 36 cases for f(r+s) = f(r) + f(s) and another 36 cases for $f(r \cdot s) = f(r) \cdot f(s)$. \Box

Example. (Showing that a product of rings which is not isomorphic to another ring) Show that the rings \mathbb{Z}_4 and $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ are not isomorphic.

 \mathbb{Z}_4 and $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ aren't isomorphic as groups under addition. Since a ring isomorphism must give an isomorphism of the two rings considered as groups under addition, \mathbb{Z}_4 and $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ can't be isomorphic as rings.

To see this directly, suppose $f : \mathbb{Z}_4 \to \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ is an isomorphism. Then f(1) + f(1) = (0,0), because everything in $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ gives 0 when added to itself. But since f is a ring map,

$$f(1) + f(1) = f(1+1) = f(2).$$

Therefore, f(2) = (0, 0).

But I know that f(0) = (0, 0), because any ring map takes the additive identity to the additive identity. Now I have two elements 2 and 0 which both map to (0, 0), and this contradicts the fact that f is injective. Therefore, there is no such f, and the rings aren't isomorphic. \Box