

ON RING HOMOMORPHISMS AND SOME PROPERTIES AMONG INTEGER RINGS

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Abstract

The principle propose of this paper is to give some solutions of $Lcm(u,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$ and determine the number of ring homomorphisms from Z_n to Z_m as additive groups and as rings by using elementary results of number theory. We also introduce and investigate some properties of the class of ring homomorphisms from Z_n to Z_m .

Keywords: ring; homomorphism; ideal.

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1 Introduction

Algebraic number theory is a branch of number theory that uses the techniques of abstract algebra to study the integers, rational numbers, and their generalizations. Number-theoretic questions are expressed in terms of properties of algebraic objects such as algebraic number fields and their rings of integers, homomorphisms, finite fields, and function fields. These properties, such as whether a ring admits unique factorization, the behavior of ideals, and the Galois groups of fields, can resolve questions of primary importance in number theory, like the existence of solutions to Diophantine equations. Gallian and James in 1984, [5], studied and introduced the number of ring homomorphisms from Z_n to Z_m as additive groups and as rings by using elementary results of number theory. In order to determine the number of homomorphisms, we do not need to assume previous knowledge from group theory or ring theory, except for the definition of group and ring homomorphism. With respect to number theory, we use some elementary facts on congruences, which can be found on any introductory book such as [7]. Also, although our results are basically the same as those in [5, 1], our proofs are much more basic.



2 Prelimeries

Definition 2.1. According to Rotman and Joseph [8], a ring R is a triple $(R, +, \bullet)$ consisting of a non-empty set R together with two binary operations of addition and multiplication such that

- (1) (R, +) is an abelian group.
- (2) Multiplication is associative i.e $\forall a, b, c \in R$, a(b+c) = ab + ac and

a(b+c) = ab + ac. The left and right distributive laws respectively.

Definition 2.2. A commutative ring is a ring R in which $\forall a, b \in R$, ab = ba.

Definition 2.3. A division ring is a ring R with identity and every non zero element is a unit. A unit is an element $r \in R$ that is invertible.

Definition 2.4. An ideal of a ring R is a subring I such that $r \in R$ and $a \in I$, ar, $ra \in I$. It is a left (right) ideal if $ra \in I(ar \in I)$ for all $r \in R$ $a \in I$

Definition 2.5. Maximal ideal I of a ring R is an ideal that is not properly contained in any other ideal of R. If J is another ideal of R, then $J \subset I \subset R$, J = I or I = J.

Definition 2.6. A principal ideal is an ideal generated by a single element.

Definition 2.7. Let R and S be rings, a ring homomorphism is a mapping $\phi: R \to S$ such that $\forall r_1, r_2 \in R$, $\phi(r_1 + r_2) = \phi(r_1) + \phi(r_2)$ and $\phi(r_1r_2)\phi(r_1)\phi(r_2)$. A monomorphism is a homomorphism that is injective (one to one).

An epimorphism is a homomorphism that is surjective (onto). An isomorphism is a bijective homomorphism (both one to one and onto). An endomorphism is a homomorphism from a ring R into a ring itself $\phi: R \to R$ The kernel of a homomorphism $\phi: R \to S$, denoted ker ϕ is the set of elements of R mapped onto the identity element of S by ϕ , [9].

3 Some solutions of $lcm(u, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$

In the section we will to find the solutions of $lcm(u, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. Suppose $lcm(u, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. Since $m \ lcm(u, n)$, then

$$m \ un \Leftrightarrow m|lcm(\frac{m}{gcd(m,n)},n).$$

That means

$$m \ lcm(\frac{m}{gcd(m,n)} \cdot gcd(\frac{m}{gcd(m,n)},n),n).$$

Therefore, the solutions given by:

$$u = \frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)} \cdot \gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)},n) \cdot r$$

where

$$0 \leqslant r \leqslant \frac{\gcd(m,n)}{\gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)} \cdot \gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)},n),n)}$$

and n, m any number in N.

Lemma 3.1. The solution of $lcm(u, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$ is given by

$$u = \frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)} \cdot \gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)},n) \cdot r$$



where

$$0 \leqslant r \leqslant \frac{\gcd(m,n)}{\gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)} \cdot \gcd(\frac{m}{\gcd(m,n)},n),n)}$$

and n, m any number in N.

Example 3.2. The solution of $lcm(u, 12) \equiv 0 \mod 30$ is given by

$$u = r \cdot (\frac{30}{\gcd(30, 12)}) \cdot \gcd(12, \frac{30}{\gcd(30, 12)}) = r \cdot 5 \cdot 1 = 5r$$

where $0 \le r \le \frac{\gcd(12,30)}{\gcd(5,30)}$. Therefore, the solutions are $\{0,5,10,15,20,25,30\}$.

Example 3.3. To solve $lcm(u,30) \equiv 0 \mod 140$, note that $30u \equiv 0 \mod 140$. It clearly u = 14, then 14 is a solution. But is not solution of $lcm(u,30) \equiv 0 \mod 140$. This will make it easier for us in the next sections.

$$u = r \cdot (\frac{140}{\gcd(30,140)}) \cdot \gcd(30,\frac{140}{\gcd(30,140)}) = r \cdot 14 \cdot 2 = 28r$$

where $r \leqslant \frac{\gcd(140,30)}{\gcd(28,30)}$. Therefore, The solutions are $\{0,28,56,84,20,112,140\}$.

Example 3.4. The solution of $lcm(u, 12) \equiv 0 \mod 28$ is given by $k = \frac{28}{gcd(28, 12)} \cdot gcd(7, 12) = 7$. Hence, $0 \le r \le 4$ Therefore, The solutions $are\{0, 7, 14, 21, 28\}$.

Now let $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ be a ring homomorphism and it is clear that ϕ is a group homomorphism such that $\phi(x) = ux, u \in Z_m$. So we will show the following.

Theorem 3.5. The mapping is $\phi_u : Z_n \to Z_m$ such that $\phi_u(x) = ux : u \in Z_m$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if $Lcm(u,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. $u \equiv u^2 \mod m$.

Proof. Let ϕ_u is a ring homomorphism we need show:

$$Lcm(u, n) \equiv 0 \mod m.$$

 $u \equiv u^2 \mod m.$

Since ϕ_u is a ring homomorphism then $u=\phi_u(1)=\phi_u(1^2)=(\phi_u(1))^2=u^2$. Therefore, $u=u^2$. Suppose $m \nmid lcm(u,n)$ and since $u=u^2$ then $m \nmid lcm(u^2,n)$. Hence, $m \nmid un : u \in Z_m$. This is contradiction because ϕ is a ring homomorphism. Therefore, $Lcm(u,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$.

Conversely, let $a, b \in Z_n$ then $\phi_u(a+b) = (a+b)u = ua + ub = \phi_u(a) + \phi_u(b)$. Second let $a, b \in Z_n$ such that ab = nq + r, where, $0 \le r < n$ then $\phi_u(ab) = u(nq + r) = u^2(nq + r) = u^2nq + u^2r = u^2(ab - nq) = u^2(ab) = ua \cdot ub = \phi_u(a)\phi_u(b)$. Therefore, ϕ_u is a ring homomorphism.

Example 3.6. A function $\phi: Z_{12} \to Z_{30}$ with phi(x) = 10x is ring homomorphism. Note that Lcm(10, 12) = 60. and $100 \equiv 10 \mod 30$.

Lemma 3.7. The number of ring homomorphism $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ less than $\frac{gcd(n,m)}{gcd(n,k)}$ such that gcd(n,m) > 1

Proof. Since the solutions in $\langle k = t \rangle = \{kr : r \in \mathbb{Z}_m\}$ As you can see in the Figure(1). The number of ring homomorphism less than $|\langle t \rangle|$, that means

$$\frac{m}{k} = \frac{m}{\frac{m \cdot gcd(k,n)}{gcd(n,m)}} = \frac{gcd(n,m)}{gcd(n,k)}.$$

Therefore, $\frac{gcd(n,m)}{gcd(n,k)} \cdot t = m$. Then the number of ring homomorphism less than $\frac{gcd(n,m)}{gcd(n,k)}$.



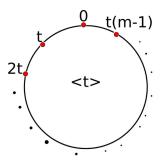


Figure 1: generated by t

Example 3.8. In example 3.6, we have $< k = 5 >= \{0, 5, 10, 20, 15, 25\}$, it's clearly that, then the number of ring homomorphism less than $\frac{30}{5} = \frac{gcd(12,30)}{gcd(12,5)} = 6$

Lemma 3.9. If gcd(n,m) = 1, then the number of ring homomorphism $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ is one ring homomorphism

Proof. By Theorem(3.5) $Lcm(a, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. Since gcd(n, m) = 1, then the solution is a = 0 that means there is one ring homomorphism (trivial ring homomorphism) ϕ_0 .

Theorem 3.10. Let $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$, such that ϕ_a and ϕ_b are ring homomorphism, then $\phi_a \circ \phi_b = \phi_c$ is a ring homomorphism.

Proof. Let $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ with $\phi(x) = ax$ and there are two ring homomorphism ϕ_a and ϕ_b such that $\phi_a(x) = ax$, $\phi_b(x) = bx$ then $(\phi_a \circ \phi_b)(x) = \phi_c(x) = abx$, By Theorem (3.5), since $Lcm(a,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$ and $Lcm(b,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$ then $Lcm(ab,n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. Since $a \equiv a^2 \mod m$ and $b \equiv b^2 \mod m$, then $ab \equiv a^2b^2 \equiv (ab)^2 \mod m$. Thus ϕ_c is a ring homomorphism.

As seen in Theorem 3.5 and you have provided examples. It can be difficult to say whether $u^2 = u \mod m$ is true, especially when dealing with large numbers. Therefore, we will focus on this part to find a solution to the problem.

Theorem 3.11. Let ϕ be a ring homomorphism from a ring R to a ring S. Then For any $r \in R$ and any positive integer n, $\phi(nr) = n\phi(r)$.

Proof. Let ϕ be a ring homomorphism from $R \to S$. Hence,

$$\phi(\underbrace{r \cdot r \cdot r \dots \cdot r}_{n-times}) = \phi(nr) = \underbrace{\phi(r)\phi(r)\phi(r)\dots \quad \phi(r)}_{n-times} = n\phi(r).$$

Thus $\phi(nr) = n\phi(r)$.

Corollary 3.12. Let ϕ be a ring homomorphism from $R \to S$. Hence, $\phi(-r) = -\phi(r) : \forall r \in R$.



Corollary 3.13. $\phi_a: Z_n \to Z_m$, $\phi(x) = ax$ is a ring homomorphism then $\overline{a(n-1)} = \overline{-a}$, where $\forall a \in Z_m$.

In Theorem 3.5, It is easy to find solutions of $Lcm(a, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$. But not easy to find solutions of $a^2 \equiv a \mod m$. We know that if t is a solution of $Lcm(a, n) \equiv 0 \mod m$ and $a^2 \equiv a \mod m$, then t = a is a solution of $Lcm(a, n) + a \equiv 0 + a^2 \mod m$. Thus t is a solution of $Lcm(a, n) + a \equiv a^2 \mod m$. Therefore,

$$\frac{a \cdot n + a \cdot gcd(a, n)}{gcd(a, n)} \equiv a^2 \bmod m$$

$$\frac{a \cdot n + a \cdot gcd(a, n) - a^2 \cdot gcd(a, n)}{gcd(a, n)} \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

$$k(n + gcd(a, n) - a \cdot gcd(a, n)) \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

$$k(n + gcd(a, n) + a(n - 1) \cdot gcd(a, n)) \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

$$k \cdot n + k \cdot gcd(a, n) + k \cdot a(n - 1) \cdot gcd(a, n) \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

$$gcd(a, n)(k + k \cdot a \cdot n - a \cdot k) \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

$$k \cdot gcd(a, n)(1 - a) \equiv 0 \bmod m$$

Therefore, a = t is a solution of $k \cdot gcd(a, n)(1 - a) \equiv 0 \mod m$, $\forall t = a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$.

Theorem 3.14. The mapping is $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ such that $\phi(x) = ax: a \in Z_m$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if

$$Lcm(a,n) \equiv 0 \bmod m.$$

$$k \cdot gcd(a,n)(1-a) \equiv 0 \bmod m : k = \frac{m}{gcd(n,m)} \cdot gcd(\frac{m}{gcd(n,m)}, n).$$

Example 3.15. Let $\phi: Z_{1976} \to Z_{2022}$ with $\phi(x) = ax$. Note that $lcm(u, 1976) \equiv 0 \mod 2022.k = \frac{2022}{gcd(2022,1976)} = 1011$, and gcd(1011, 1976) = 1. Hence, $< 1011 >= \{1011 \cdot r : 0 \le r < 2\}$ Therefore, the solutions of $lcm(u, 1976) \equiv 0 \mod 2022$ are $\{0, 1011\}$. Now must we check By $k \cdot gcd(a, n)(1 - a) \equiv 0 \mod m$. $(1011) \Rightarrow 1011 \cdot gcd(1011, 1976)(1 - 1011) \equiv 0 \mod 2022 = 2022 \cdot -505 \equiv 0 \mod 2022$. Thus,

 $(1011) \Rightarrow 1011 \cdot gcd(1011, 1976)(1 - 1011) \equiv 0 \mod 2022 = 2022 \cdot -505 \equiv 0 \mod 2022$. Thus ϕ_{1011} is ring homomorphism. Therefore, the ring homomorphism are $\{\phi_0, \phi_{1011}\}$.

Corollary 3.16. The mapping is $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$, such that $\phi(x) = ax: a \in Z_m$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if

$$k|a \text{ and } k \cdot gcd(a,n)(1-a) \equiv 0 \text{ mod } m : k = \frac{m}{gcd(n,m)} \cdot gcd(\frac{m}{gcd(n,m)},n).$$

Corollary 3.17. The mapping is $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ such that $\phi(x) = ax: a \in Z_m$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if

$$k|a \text{ and } gcd(a,n)(1-a) \equiv 0 \mod \frac{m}{k} : k = \frac{m}{gcd(n,m)} \cdot gcd(\frac{m}{gcd(n,m)}, n).$$



Example 3.18. Let $\phi: Z_{1998} \to Z_{45660}$ with $\phi(x) = ax$. Note that $lcm(u, 1998) \equiv 0 \mod 45660.k = \frac{45660}{gcd(1998, 45660)} \cdot gcd(\frac{45660}{gcd(1998, 45660)}, 1998) = 15220$. Hence, $< 15220 >= \{15220 \cdot r : 0 \leq r < 3\}$ Therefore, the solutions of $lcm(u, 1998) \equiv 0 \mod 45660$ are $\{0, 15220, 30440\}$. Now must, we check By $k \cdot gcd(a, n)(1 - a) \equiv 0 \mod m$.

 $(15220) \Rightarrow 15220 \cdot \gcd(15220, 1998)(1 - 15220) \equiv 0 \mod 45660 = 45660 \cdot 2 \cdot -5073 \equiv 0 \mod 45660$. Thus, ϕ_{15220} is ring homomorphism.

 $(30440) \Rightarrow 15220 \cdot gcd(30440, 1998)(1 - 30440) \equiv 0 \mod 45660 = 45660 \cdot 2 \cdot -30139 \not\equiv 0 \mod 45660$. Thus, ϕ_{15220} is not ring homomorphism. Therefore, the ring homomorphism are $\{\phi_0, \phi_{15220}\}$.

Example 3.19. Let $\phi: Z_6 \to Z_6$ with $\phi(x) = ax$. Note that

$$lcm(u, 6) \equiv 0 \mod 6.k = \frac{6}{gcd(6, 6)} \cdot gcd(\frac{6}{gcd(6, 6)}, 6) = 1.$$

Hence, $\langle 1 \rangle = \{1 \cdot r : 0 \leqslant r < 6\}$ Therefore, The solutions of $lcm(u, 6) \equiv 0 \mod 6$ $are\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. Now must, we check By $k \cdot gcd(a, n)(1 - a) \equiv 0 \mod m$.

- (1) $1 \cdot gcd(1,6)(1-1) \equiv 0 \mod 6 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 0 \equiv 0 \mod 6$. Thus, ϕ_1 is ring homomorphism.
- (2) $1 \cdot gcd(2,6)(1-2) \equiv 0 \mod 6 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot -1 \not\equiv 0 \mod 6$. Thus, ϕ_2 is not ring homomorphism.
- (3) $1 \cdot \gcd(3,6)(1-3) \equiv 0 \mod 6 = 1 \cdot 3 \cdot -2 \equiv 0 \mod 6$. Thus, ϕ_3 is ring homomorphism.
- (4) $1 \cdot \gcd(4,6)(1-4) \equiv 0 \mod 6 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot -3 \equiv 0 \mod 6$. Thus, ϕ_4 is ring homomorphism.
- (5) $1 \cdot \gcd(5,6)(1-5) \equiv 0 \mod 6 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot -4 \not\equiv 0 \mod 6$. Thus, ϕ_5 is not ring homomorphism.

Therefore, the ring homomorphism are $\{\phi_0, \phi_1, \phi_3, \phi_4\}$.

Corollary 3.20. The mapping is $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ such that $\phi(x) = ax: a \in Z_m$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if

$$k \cdot \alpha^2 \equiv \alpha \mod gcd(m,n)$$
, such that $a = k \cdot \alpha$. and $\alpha \in Z_{gcd(m,n)}$.

4 Determining a ring homomorphism by modified method

Now Let $\frac{m}{k} = p_1^{a_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2} \cdot p_3^{a_3} \dots \cdot p_n^{a_n}$ consider that from Corollary 3.17 Since multiplying two numbers. Hence the number of solutions is 2^{β} such that $\beta \leq n$. But from Lemma 3.7 the number of rings homomorphism less than $\frac{\gcd(n,m)}{\gcd(n,k)}$ and then we have $2^{\beta} < \frac{\gcd(n,m)}{\gcd(n,k)}$. Since there is trivial homomorphism ϕ_0 . Therefore, $0 < 2^{\beta} < \frac{\gcd(n,m)}{\gcd(n,k)} - 1$, such that $\beta \leq n$. We have proved the following theorem.

Theorem 4.1. The number of ring homomorphisms from $\phi: Z_n \to Z_m$ such that $\phi(x) = ax$ $\forall a \in Z_m \text{ is } 2^n \text{ where } \frac{m}{k} = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_n^{a_n}$.

Proof. By Corollary 3.16 and Theorem 4.1 that means the number of ring homomorphisms is 2^n where $\frac{m}{k} = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_n^{a_n}$.



Corollary 4.2. The number of ring homomorphisms from $\phi: Z_n \to Z_n$ such that $\phi(x) = ax$ $\forall a \in Z_m \text{ is } 2^n \text{ where } m = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_n^{a_n}.$

Proof. Clearly, it is a special case when k=1.Hence, By Corollary 3.16 and Theorem 4.1 that means the number of ring homomorphisms is 2^n where $m=p_1^{a_1}\dots p_n^{a_n}$.

According to Gallian and James [5], a ring homomorphis $f: Z_m \to Z_n$ is uniquely determined by the conditions:mf(1)=0 and f(m)=f(1). They stated that in order to find how many ring homomorphisms are there in Z_m into Z_n , one has to count the number of elements of the set $\{e \in Z_n : e^2 = e, me = 0\}$.

If $r \equiv k \pmod{m}$ where $0 \leq k \leq m$, then $r \equiv mt + k$ for some $t \in Z$. If f is a ring homomorphism f(r) = f(mt + k)

r = emt + ek. So emt = 0, em = me = 0 and er = ek.

Again $f(r_1r_2) = f(r_1)f(r_2)$, $er_1r_2 = (er_1)(er_2) = e^2r_1r_2$ and $e = e^2$, i.e. e is idempotent. For me = ne = 0 (mod n) and we only check for $e^2 = e$.

Example 4.3. To determine the number of homomorphisms in:

 $\{0,8\}$, thus there are 2 homomorphisms in $f: Z_{12} \to Z_{28}$.

- (1) $f: Z_{12} \to Z_{28}$. We have m = 12, n = 28, $e \in Z_{28}$, 0 = me = 12e in Z_{28} . Iff 28|12e iff 7|e. So, $f(1) \in \{0, 7, 14, 21\}$. Only 0 and 21 are idempotent in Z_{28} . Thus there are 2 homomorphisms from Z_{12} to Z_{12} . Alternatively, $e \in Z_{28}$ whose idempotent elements are $\{0, 1, 8, 21\}$. Thus $e \in \{0, 1, 8, 21\}$ me = 0.e = 0.e
- (2) $f: Z_{12} \to Z_{30}$. We have m = 12, n = 30, $e \in Z_{30}$ whose idempotent elements are $\{0, 1, 6, 10, 15, 16, 21, 25\}$ $me = 0.e = \{0, 10, 15, 25\}$ thus there are 4 homomorphisms in $f: Z_{12} \to Z_{30}$.
- (3) $f: Z_{16} \to Z_{20}$. We have m = 16, n = 20. Idempotent elements of Z_{20} are $\{0, 1, 5, 16\}$, $e \in \{0, 1, 5, 16\}$ me = 0, $e = \{0, 5\}$ thus there are 2 homomorphisms in $f: Z_{16} \to Z_{20}$.

Einstein [10] on the other hand dealt with finding the number of homomorphisms from a finite field into a ring Z_n . He stated that the only kernels of a ring homomorphism. $\phi: F \to R$ are 0 and F itself, hence there are 2 homomorphisms i.e. 0 map and the identity map. He goes on to explain that they may be less than 2 e.g. in the case where $F = F^2$ and R has an odd order. He further states that they may be more than 2 e.g. in the case where F alone already has a few automorphisms or R contains several copies of F.

Holt and Ischwieb [11] states that there can just be the trivial homomorphisms as is the case in $F^3 \to Z$, or there could be many ring homomorphisms as it is the case with $F^2 \to \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} F^2$. They then concluded that there is not a uniform answer for all pairs of fields and rings but it depends on what one wants to get from the homomorphism. Samuel [12] states that, if 1 is mapped onto 1, we can evoke the fact that Z[x] is the free commutative ring with unity



on the set [x] and x can be sent to anything. He cited $Z[x] \to Z_{12}$ as an example, where he stated that there are 12 possible homomorphisms with 1 mapped to 1. However, he says that there exists a homomorphism where 1 is not mapped to 1. The important thing is that f(2)f(x) = f(x). If f(1) = 0, then f(x) = 0. He concluded that if f(1) = 4, f(x) = 8, and if f(1) = 9, then f(x) = 0, 3, 6 or 9. Thus, there are 8 additional possible homomorphisms. To get this, he stated that one has to find the values of y such that f(1)y = y.

Theorem 4.4. Let $f_1(x), f_2(x), ..., f_k(x)$ be polynomials with integral coefficients, and for any positive integer m, let N(m) denote the number of solutions of the system of congruences

$$f_1(x) \equiv 0 \mod m,$$

 $f_2(x) \equiv 0 \mod m,$
 \vdots
 $f_k(x) \equiv 0 \mod m.$

If $m = m_1 m_2$ where $(m_1, m_2) = 1$, then $N(m) = N(m_1)V(m_2)$. If $m = \prod P^{\alpha}$ is the factorization of m, then $N(m) = \prod N(P^{\alpha})$.

Proof. Suppose that $x \in Z_m$. If $f_1(x) \equiv 0 \mod m$, $f_2(x) \equiv 0 \mod m$, \cdots , $f_k(x) \equiv 0 \mod m$, with $m = m_1 m_2$, then $f_1(x) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$, $f_2(x) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$, \cdots , $f_k(x) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$. Let a_1 be the only member of Z_{m_1} for which $x \equiv a_1 \mod m_1$. It follows that $f_1(a_1) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$, $f_2(a_1) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$, $f_2(a_1) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$, $f_2(a_1) \equiv 0 \mod m_1$. Similarly, there is only one $a_2 \in Z_{m_2}$ such that $x \equiv a_2 \mod m_2$, and $f_1(a_2) \equiv 0 \mod m_2$, $f_2(a_2) \equiv 0 \mod m_2$, \cdots , $f_k(a_2) \equiv 0 \mod m_2$. Thus, for each solution of the system of congruences modulo m we have a pair (a_1, a_2) , in which ai is a solution of the system of congruences modulo m_i , for i = 1; 2. Suppose now that $m = m_1 m_2$, where $(m_1, m_2) = 1$, and that for i = 1, 2, the numbers $a_i \in Z_{m_i}$ are such that $f_1(a_i) \equiv 0 \mod m_i$, $f_2(a_i) \equiv 0 \mod m_i$, $f_2(a_i) \equiv 0 \mod m_i$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there is only one $x \in Z_m$ such that $x \equiv a_i \mod m_i$, for i = 1, 2. Then we conclude that $f_i(x) \equiv 0 \mod m$, $i = 1; \cdots, k$. We have now established a one-to-one correspondence between the solutions x of the system of congruences modulo m and the pairs (a_1, a_2) of solutions of the system of congruences modulo m_1 and m_2 . Hence, $f_1(m_1) = f_1(m_1) = f_2(m_1) = f_1(m_1) = f_2(m_1) = f_1(m_1) = f_2(m_1) = f_1(m_1) = f_1($

Theorem 4.5. For any ring homomorphism $\phi: R \to S$, the ker ϕ is an ideal.

Proof. Let $r_1, r_2 \in ker\phi$, $r \in R$, $\phi(r_1) = \phi(r_2) = 0$, $\phi(r_1 - r_2) = \phi(r_1) - \phi(r_2) = 0 - 0 = 0$ and $\phi(r_1r_2) = \phi(r_1)\phi(r_2) = \phi(r) = 0 = 0$. Thus $r_1 - r_2$, rr_1 , $r_1r \in ker\phi$ and $ker\phi$ is an ideal.

Theorem 4.6. If I is an ideal of R , then the map $\pi: R \to R/I$ denoted by $\pi(r) = r+1$ is an epimorphism of rings with $ker \pi = 1$.

Proof. Let
$$r_1, r_2 \in R$$
, $\pi : R \to R/I$, $\pi(r_1) = r_1 + 1$, $\pi(r_2) = r_2 + 1$ and and $\pi(r_1 + r_2) = \pi(r_1) + \pi(r_2)$. $\pi(r_1 r_2) = \pi(r_1)\pi(r_2)$.



Theorem 4.7. If $n \in P^k$, the only homomorphism $\phi_m : Z_n \to Z_n$ are the trivial homomorphism ϕ_0 and ϕ_1 , P is a prime.

Proof. Let $m \in Z_n$ such that $m^2 = m \pmod{n}$. Then $m^2 - m = 0$, m(m-1) = 0, m = 0 m-1=0, m=1m and (m-1) are relatively prime. Hence either $P^k \mid m$ or $P^k \mid (m-1)$. Since $0 < m < P^k = n$, P^k does not divide m and P^k does not divide (m-1). $E(n) = \{0,1\}$, $\sigma(n) = 2$, meaning there are 2 homomorphisms from n to Z_n when $n = P^k$ i.e. ϕ_0 and ϕ_1 are the only homomorphism.

Theorem 4.8. If $n = P_1^{k_1} P_2^{k_2}$ where p_1 and p_2 are distinct primes, then there are $2^2 = 4$ homomorphisms $\phi_m : {}_n \to {}_n$ namely, $\phi_{(0,0)}, \phi_{(0,1)}, \phi_{(1,0)}, \phi_{(1,1)}$.

Proof. Let $n = P_1^{k_1} P_2^{k_2}$, for all P_1, P_2 prime and $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

$$E(n) = E(P_1^{k_1})E(P_2^{k_2}) = \{(0,0), (0,1), (1,0), (1,1) \pmod{P_1^{k_1}, \bmod{P_2^{k_2}}}\}$$

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma(P_1^{k_1})\sigma(2^{k_2}) = 2 \times 2 = 2^2 = 4.$$

Thus, there are 4 homomorphisms i.e.

$$\phi_{(0,0)}, \phi_{(0,1)}, \phi_{(1,0)}, \phi_{(1,1)}.$$

Theorem 4.9. If $n = P_1^{k_1} P_2^{k_2} P_3^{k_3}$, then there are 2^3 homomorphisms $\phi_m : Z_n \to Z_n$.

Proof. Let $n = P_1^{k_1} P_2^{k_2} P_3^{k_3}$, for all P_1, P_2, P_3 are distinct prime numbers and $k_1, k_2, k_3 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

$$\begin{split} E(n) &= E(P_1^{k_1}) E(P_2^{k_2}) E(P_3^{k_3}) = \{0,0\} \times \{0,1\} \times \{1,0\} \cong \\ &\{(0,0,0),(0,0,1),(0,1,0),(0,1,1) \times (1,0,0),(1,0,1),(1,1,0),(1,1,1) \\ &\qquad \qquad (mod \, P_1^{k_1}, mod \, P_2^{k_2}, mod \, P_3^{k_3})\} \\ &\qquad \qquad \sigma(n) &= \sigma(P_1^{k_1}) \sigma(P_2^{k_2}) \sigma(P_3^{k_3}) = 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 2^3 = 8. \end{split}$$

Thus, there are 8 homomorphisms.

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