

UNIT-3.

Rings:

* A nonempty set R together with two binary operations denoted by '+' and '·' and called addition, multiplication which satisfy the following axioms is called a ring.

* $(R, +)$ is an abelian group.

Eg: * $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is a ring

* $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$; $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$ are all rings

4.2 Elementary Properties of rings:

Theorem: 4.1 Let R be a ring and $a, b \in R$. Then (i) $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = 0$
(ii) $a(-b) = (-a)b = -ab$. (iii) $(-a)(-b) = ab$ (iv) $a(b-c) = ab - ac$.

Proof: (i) $a \cdot 0 = a(0+0) = a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0$.

$\therefore a \cdot 0 = 0$ (by cancellation law w.r. $(R, +)$) \therefore Similarly $0 \cdot a = 0$.

(ii) $a(-b) + ab = a(-b+b) = a \cdot 0 = 0$.

$\therefore a(-b) = -ab$

Similarly $(-a)b = -ab$.

(iii) By (ii) $(-a)(-b) = -[a(-b)] = -(-ab) = ab$.

(iv) $a(b-c) = a[b+(-c)] = ab + a(-c)$
 $= ab - ac$

(2 Solved problems) w.r. page number 4.4.

4.3 Isomorphism:

Let $(R, +, \cdot)$ and $(R', +, \cdot)$ be two rings. A bijection $f: R \rightarrow R'$ is called an isomorphism if

(i) $f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b)$ and

(ii) $f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$ for all $a, b \in R$.

If $f: R \rightarrow R'$ is an isomorphism, we say that R is isomorphic to R' and we write $R \cong R'$.

Note: Let R and R' be two rings and $f: R \rightarrow R'$ be an isomorphism. Then clearly f is an isomorphism of the group $(R, +)$ to the group $(R', +)$

Hence $f(0) = 0'$ and $f(-a) = -f(a)$.

4.4 Types of rings:

A ring R is said to be commutative $ab=ba$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Definition: Let R be a ring. We say that R is a ring with identity if there exists an element $1 \in R$ such that $a1=1a=a$ for $a \in R$.

eg: $M_2(R)$ is a ring with identity.

Theorem 4.2: In a ring with identity the identity element is unique.

Let $1, 1'$ be multiplicative identities. Then $1 \cdot 1' = 1$ (considering $1'$ as identity) and $1 \cdot 1' = 1'$ (considering 1 as identity)

$\therefore 1 = 1'$ Hence the identity element is unique.

Definition: Let R be a ring with identity. An element $u \in R$ is called a unit in R if it has a multiplicative inverse u^{-1} denoted by u^{-1} .

For example in $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ 1 and -1 are units.

In $M_2(R)$ all the non-singular matrices are units.

In \mathbb{Q}, R and \mathbb{C} every non-zero element is a unit.

Theorem 4.3: Let R be a ring with identity. The set of all units in R is a group under multiplication.

Let U denote the set of all units in R .

Clearly $1 \in U$. Let $a, b \in U$. Hence a^{-1}, b^{-1} exist in R .

Now $(ab) \cdot (b^{-1}a^{-1}) = a(bb^{-1})a^{-1} = a \cdot 1 \cdot a^{-1} = aa^{-1} = 1$

Similarly $(b^{-1}a^{-1})(ab) = 1$.

Hence $ab \in U$. Also $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$ and hence $a \in U \Rightarrow a^{-1} \in U$.

Hence U is a group under multiplication.

Definition: Let R be a ring with identity element. R is called a skew field or a division ring if every non-zero element in R is a unit.

For every non element $a \in R$, there exists a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} \in R$ such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$.

Thus in a skew field the non-zero elements form a group under multiplication.

Definition: * A commutative skew field is called a field.

* In other words a field is a system $(F, +, \cdot)$ satisfying the following conditions.

(i) $(F, +)$ is an abelian group.

(ii) $(F - \{0\}, \cdot)$ is an abelian group.

$$a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c \text{ for all } a, b, c \in F$$

Theorem: 4.4 In a skew field R ,

(i) $ax = ay, a \neq 0 \Rightarrow x = y$ } cancellation law (on the right)

(ii) $xa = ya, a \neq 0 \Rightarrow x = y$ }

(iii) $ax = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$ or $x = 0$.

Proof: (i) Let $ax = ay$ and $a \neq 0$.

Since R is a skew field there exists $a^{-1} \in R$.

Such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$

$$\text{Hence } ax = ay \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ax) = a^{-1}(ay) \Rightarrow x = y$$

(ii) can be proved similarly.

(iii) If $a = 0$ or $x = 0$, then clearly $ax = 0$. Conversely let $ax = 0$

$$\text{and } a \neq 0 \therefore ax = a \cdot 0 \\ x = 0 \text{ by (i)}$$

Definition: Let R be a ring. A non-zero element $a \in R$ is said to be a zero-divisor if there exists a non-zero element $b \in R$ such that $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$.

Theorem: 4.5. A ring R has no zero-divisors iff cancellation law is valid in R .

Let R be a ring without zero-divisors.

Let $ax = ay$ and $a \neq 0$

$$\therefore ax - ay = 0. \text{ Hence } a(x-y) = 0 \text{ and } a \neq 0$$

$$\therefore x-y = 0 \text{ (since } R \text{ has no zero-divisors).}$$

$\therefore a=y$ Thus cancellation law be valid in R .

Let $ab=0$ and $a \neq 0$. Then $ab=0=a0$.

Hence by cancellation law $b=0$.

Hence R has no zero-divisors.

Theorem: 4.6 Any unit in R cannot be a zero-divisor.

Proof: Let $a \in R$ be a unit. Then $ab=0 \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ab)=0 \Rightarrow b=0$

Similarly $ba=0 \Rightarrow b=0$

Hence a cannot be a zero-divisor.

Definition: A commutative ring with identity having no zero-divisors is called an integral domain.

Thus in an integral domain $ab=0 \Rightarrow$ either $a=0$ or $b=0$
or equivalently $ab=0$ and $a \neq 0 \Rightarrow b=0$; or $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0 \Rightarrow ab \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.7 \mathbb{Z}_n is an integral domain iff n is prime.

Let \mathbb{Z}_n be an integral domain.

We claim that n is prime. Suppose n is not prime.

Then $n=pq$ where $1 < p < n$ and $1 < q < n$.

Clearly $p0q=0$.

Hence p and q are zero-divisors.

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_n$ is not an integral domain which is a contradiction.

Hence n is prime.

Conversely, suppose n is prime. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Then $a0b = 0 \Rightarrow ab=0$ where $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

$\Rightarrow n \mid ab$

$\Rightarrow n/a$ or n/b (since n is prime)

$\Rightarrow a=0$ or $b=0$

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_n$ has no zero divisors. Also \mathbb{Z}_n is a commutative ring with identity. Hence \mathbb{Z}_n is an integral domain.

Theorem: 4.8 Any field F is an integral domain.

It is enough if we prove that F has no zero divisors.

Let $a, b \in F$, $ab = 0$ and $a \neq 0$.

Since F is a field a^{-1} exists. Now, $ab = 0 \Rightarrow a^{-1}(ab) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow b = 0$

$\therefore F$ has no zero-divisors.

Hence F is an integral domain.

Theorem 4.9 Let R be a commutative ring with identity 1. Then R is an integral domain iff the set of non-zero elements in R is closed under multiplication.

Let R be an integral domain. Let $a, b \in R - \{0\}$. Since R has no zero-divisors $ab \neq 0$ so that $R - \{0\}$ is closed under multiplication. Conversely, suppose $R - \{0\}$ is product of any two non-zero elements is a non-zero element. Hence R has no zero-divisors so that R is an integral domain.

Theorem 4.10 Let R be a commutative ring with identity. Then R is an integral domain iff cancellation law is valid in R . The result is an immediate consequence of Theorem 4.5.

Theorem 4.11 Any finite integral domain is a field.

Let R be a finite integral domain. We need to only to prove that every non-zero element in R has a multiplicative inverse. Let $a \in R$ and $a \neq 0$.

Let $R = \{0, 1, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$

Consider $\{aa_1, aa_2, \dots, aa_n\}$.

By theorem 4.9 all these elements are non-zero and all these elements are distinct by theorem 4.10.

Hence $aa_i = 1$ for some $a_i \in R$. Since R is commutative

$aa_i = a_i a = 1$ so that $a_i = a^{-1}$.

Hence R is a field.

Theorem 4.12 \mathbb{Z}_n is a field iff n is prime.

By theorem 4.7 \mathbb{Z}_n is an integral domain iff n is prime.

Further \mathbb{Z}_n is finite. Hence the result follows from theorem 4.11.

Theorem 4.13 A finite commutative ring R without zero divisors is a field

If we prove that R has an identity element then R becomes an integral domain and hence by the theorem 4.11 it is a field. So we prove the existence of identity

Let $R = \{0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$

Let $a \in R$ and $a \neq 0$. Then the elements aa_1, aa_2, \dots, aa_n are distinct and non zero.

$\therefore aa_i = a$ for some i . Since R is commutative we have $aa_i = a_i a = a$. We now p.t. a_i is identity element of R . Let $b \in R$. Then $b = aa_j$ for some j .

$$\therefore a_i b = a_i (aa_j) = (a_i a) a_j = aa_j = b$$

Thus $a_i b = ba_i = b$.

Since $b \in R$ is arbitrary a_i is identity of R .

Hence the theorem.

Solved Problems (9 sums) in Q.11.

4.5 characteristic of a ring:

Let R be a ring. If there exists a positive integer n such that $na = 0$ for all $a \in R$ then the least such positive integer is called the characteristic of the ring R . If no such positive integer exists then the ring is said to be characteristic zero.

4.14: Let R be a ring with identity 1 . If 1 is an element of finite order n in the group $(R, +)$ then the order of 1 is the characteristic of R . If 1 is of infinite order, the characteristic of the ring is 0 .

Suppose the order of 1 is n . Then n is the least positive integer such that $n \cdot 1 = 0$.

(i.e) $1+1+\dots+1$ (n times) $= 0$ Now, let $a \in R$

$$\text{Then } na = a + a + \dots + a \text{ (n times)}$$

$$= 1 \cdot a + 1 \cdot a + \dots + 1 \cdot a$$

$$= (1+1+\dots+1)a$$

$$= 0 \cdot a$$

$$= 0$$

Thus $na=0$ for all $a \in R$.

Hence the characteristic of the ring is n .

If a is of infinite order then, there is no positive integer n such that $na=0$. Hence the characteristic of the ring is 0.

Theorem 4.15 The characteristic of an integral domain D is either 0 or a prime number.

If the characteristic of D is 0 then there is nothing to prove. If not be the characteristic of D be n .

If n is not prime, let $n=pq$, where $1 < p < n$ and $1 < q < n$. Since characteristic of D is n we have $n \cdot 1 = 0$.

Hence $n \cdot 1 = pq \cdot 1 = (p \cdot 1)(q \cdot 1) = 0$. Since D is an integral domain either $p \cdot 1 = 0$ or $q \cdot 1 = 0$.

Since p, q are both less than n , this contradicts the definition of the characteristic of D .

Hence n is a prime number.

Corollary: The characteristic of any field is either 0 or a prime number.

Proof: Since every field is an integral domain the result follows.

Note: The characteristic of an arbitrary ring need not be prime. For example \mathbb{Z}_6 is of characteristic 6.

The converse of the above theorem is not true. If the characteristic of a ring R is prime then R need not be an integral domain. eg: ring $(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ is of characteristic 2 but it is not an integral domain. If A and B are two disjoint nonempty subsets of $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ we have $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ and hence A and B are zero divisors in $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 4.16 In an integral domain D of characteristic p , the order of every element in the additive group is p .

Let $a \in D$ be any non-zero element.

Let the order of a be n . Then n is the least positive integer such that $na=0$. Now, by the definition of the characteristic of D we have $pa=0$.

Hence n/p Now since p is prime $n=1$ or $n=p$
 If $n=1, na=a=0$ which is contradiction.
 Hence $n=p$. Thus the order of a is p

Note: The above result is not true for identity arbitrary ring. eg: the characteristic of the ring \mathbb{Z}_6 is 6 whereas the order of $2 \in \mathbb{Z}_6$ is 3.

4.6 Subrings:

A non empty subset S of a ring $(R, +, \cdot)$ is called a subring if S itself is a ring under the same operation as in R

eg: $2\mathbb{Z}$ is a subring of \mathbb{Z}
 \mathbb{Z} is a subring of \mathbb{Q} .

4.17 A non-empty subset S of a ring R is a subring iff $a-b \in S \Rightarrow a-b \in S$ and $ab \in S$.

Let S be a subring of R . Then $(S, +)$ is a subgroup of $(R, +)$. Hence $a-b \in S \Rightarrow a-b \in S$. Also since S itself is a ring $ab \in S$. Conversely, let S be a non-empty subset of R such that $a-b \in S \Rightarrow a-b \in S$ and $ab \in S$.

Then $(S, +)$ is a subgroup of $(R, +)$

Also S is closed under multiplication. The associative and distributive laws are consequence of the corresponding laws in R .

Hence S is a subring.

Solved problems (3 sums) in pg. 4.17.

Theorem 4.18 The intersection of two subrings of a ring R is a subring of R .

Let A, B be two subrings of R .

Let $a, b \in A \cap B$. Then $a, b \in A$ and B . Since A and B are subrings $a-b$ and $ab \in A$ and B

$\therefore a-b$ and $ab \in A \cap B$

$\therefore A \cap B$ is subring of R (by 4.17)

Note: * The union of two subring of a ring need not be a subring.

* The union of two subrings of a ring is again a subring iff one is contained in the other (Proof 8.20)

Definition: A non-empty subset S of a field $(F, +, \cdot)$ is called a subfield if S itself is a field under the same operations as in F .

eg: \mathbb{Q} is a subfield \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R} is subfield of \mathbb{C} .

Theorem 4.19 A non empty subset S of a field F is a subfield iff

(i) $a, b \in S \Rightarrow a-b \in S$ and

(ii) $a, b \in S$ and $b \neq 0 \Rightarrow ab^{-1} \in S$.

The proof follows by applying Theorem 3.17 to group $(F, +)$ and $(F \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$

4.7 Ideals:

Let R be a ring. A non empty subset of R is called a left ideal of R if

(i) $a, b \in I \Rightarrow a-b \in I$.

(ii) $a \in I$ and $\lambda \in R \Rightarrow \lambda a \in I$.

I is called a right ideal of R if

(i) $a, b \in I \Rightarrow a-b \in I$

(ii) $a \in I$ and $\lambda \in R \Rightarrow a\lambda \in I$.

I is called an ideal of R if I is both a left ideal and a right ideal. Thus in an ideal the product of an element in the ideal and an element in the ring is an element of the ideal. In a commutative ring the concepts of the left ideal and right ideal coincide.

Definition: If R is a commutative ring then $aR = Ra$ is an ideal. This is called the principal ideal generated by a and is denoted by (a) .

Remark: * Every left ideal of a ring R is subring of R . Let I be a left ideal of R . Let $a, b \in I$. Then by definition $a-b$ and $ab \in I$. Hence I is a subring of R .

* Similarly every right ideal of R is also a subring of R

* Any ideal of R is a subring of R . by (i) and

(ii). * However a subring of R need not be an ideal of R .

Theorem 4.20 Let R be a ring with identity 1 . If I is an ideal of R and $1 \in I$, then $I = R$

Obviously $I \subseteq R$. Now let $x \in R$. Since $1 \in I, x \cdot 1 = x \in I$. Thus $R \subseteq I$. Hence $R = I$.

Theorem 4.21 Let F be any field. Then the only ideals of F are $\{0\}$ and F . (i.e) A field has no proper ideals.

* Let I be an ideal of F . Suppose $I \neq \{0\}$. We shall prove that $I = F$. Since $I \neq \{0\}$, there exists an element $a \in I$ such that $a \neq 0$.

* Since F is a field a has a multiplicative inverse $a^{-1} \in F$. Now, $a \in I$ and $a^{-1} \in F \Rightarrow aa^{-1} = 1 \in I$. (ii)

* Hence by theorem 4.20 $I = F$

Theorem 4.22 Let R be a commutative ring with identity. Then R is a field iff R has no proper ideals.

If R is a field, by theorem 4.21, R has no proper ideals. Conversely suppose R has no proper ideals.

To prove that R is a field we need to show that every non zero element in R has an inverse. Let $a \in R$ and $a \neq 0$.

Consider the principal ideal aR .

Since R is a ring with identity $a = a \cdot 1 \in aR$.

$\therefore aR \neq \{0\}$. Since R has no proper ideals $aR = R$.

Hence there exists $x \in R$ such that $ax = 1$

Thus x is the inverse of a .

Hence R is a field.

Definition: An integral domain R is said to be a principal ideal domain (PID) if every ideal of R is a principal ideal.

Eg: \mathbb{Z} is a principal ideal domain since any ideal of \mathbb{Z} is of the form $n\mathbb{Z}$.

* Any field F is a principal ideal domain since the only ideals of F are $\{0\}$ and $\{1\} = F$ (by 4.81)

4.8 Quotient Rings:

Theorem 4.23 Let R be a ring and I be a subgroup of $(R, +)$. The

Multiplication in R/I given by

$$(I+a)(I+b) = I+ab \text{ is well defined iff } I \text{ is an ideal of } R.$$

Let I be an ideal of R .

To p. Multiplication is well defined.

Let $I+a_1 = I+a$ and $I+b_1 = I+b$. Then $a_1 \in I+a$ and $b_1 \in I+b$.

$$a_1 = i_1 + a \text{ and } b_1 = i_2 + b \text{ where } i_1, i_2 \in I.$$

$$\text{Hence } a_1 b_1 = (i_1 + a)(i_2 + b) = i_1 i_2 + i_1 b + a i_2 + ab$$

Now since I is an ideal we have $i_1 i_2, i_1 b, a i_2 \in I$.

$$\text{Hence } a_1 b_1 = i_3 + ab \text{ where } i_3 = i_1 i_2 + i_1 b + a i_2 \in I$$

$$a_1 b_1 \in I + ab.$$

$$\text{Hence } I + ab = I + a_1 b_1$$

Conversely suppose that the multiplication in R/I given by $(I+a)(I+b) = I+ab$ is well defined.

T.P I is an ideal of R

Let $i \in I$ and $r \in R$. we have to prove that $ri, ir \in I$.

$$\text{Now, } I+ri = (I+i)(I+r) = (I+0)(I+r) = I+0r = I$$

$$\therefore ri \in I. \text{ Similarly } ir \in I.$$

Hence I is an ideal.

Definition: Let R be any ring and I be an ideal of R . we have two well defined binary operations in R/I given by $(I+a) + (I+b) = I+(a+b)$ and $(I+a)(I+b) = I+ab$. It is easy to verify that R/I is a ring under these operations.

The ring R/I is called the quotient ring of R

modulo I .

4.9 Maximal and prime ideals:

Definition: Let R be a ring. An ideal $M \neq R$ is said to be a maximal ideal of R if whenever U is an ideal of R such that $M \subseteq U \subseteq R$ then either $U=M$ or $U=R$. That is, there is no proper ideal of R properly containing M .

Theorem 4.84: Let R be commutative ring with identity. An ideal M of R is maximal iff R/M is a field.

Let M be a maximal ideal in R .

Since R is a commutative ring with identity $M \neq R$, R/M is also a commutative ring with identity. Now,

let $M+a$ be a non zero element in R/M so that $a \notin M$. We shall now prove that $M+a$ has a multiplicative inverse in R/M .

Let $U = \{ a_1 a + m_1 / a \in R \text{ and } m_1 \in M \}$

We claim that U is an ideal of R .

$$(a_1 a + m_1) - (a_2 a + m_2) = (a_1 - a_2) a + (m_1 - m_2) \in U$$

$$\text{Also, } r(a_1 a + m_1) = (ra_1) a + r m_1 \in U \quad [\text{since } r m_1 \in M]$$

$\therefore U$ is an ideal of R .

Now, let $m \in M$. Then $m = 0a + m \in U$.

$\therefore M \subseteq U$. Also $a = 1a + 0 \in U$ and $a \notin M$

$\therefore M \neq U$. $\therefore U$ is an ideal of R properly containing M . But M is a maximal ideal of R .

$\therefore U = R$. Hence $1 \in U$.

$\therefore 1 = ba + m$ for some $b \in R$ Now,

$$\begin{aligned} M+1 &= M+ba+m = M+ba \quad (\text{since } m \in M) \\ &= (M+b)(M+a) \end{aligned}$$

Hence $M+b$ is the inverse of $M+a$.

Thus every non-zero element of R/M has an inverse. Hence R/M is a field.

Conversely, suppose R/M is a field.

\therefore Let U be any ideal of R properly containing M .

\therefore There exists an element $a \in U$ such that $a \neq 1$.
 $\therefore M+a$ is a non zero element of R/M .
 Since R/M is a field $M+a$ has an inverse, say $M+b$.
 $\therefore (M+a)(M+b) = M+1$.
 $\therefore M+ab = M+1 \quad \therefore 1-ab \in M$.

But $M \subseteq U$. Hence $1-ab \in U$. Also $a \in U$ $ab \in U$

$\therefore 1 = (1-ab) + ab \in U$. Thus $1 \in U$.

$\therefore U = R$. Thus there is no proper ideal of R properly containing M . Hence M is a maximal ideal in R .

Definition: Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal $P \neq R$ is called a prime ideal if $ab \in P \Rightarrow$ either $a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

Theorem 4.25 Let R be any commutative ring with identity. Let P be an ideal of R . Then P is a prime ideal $\Leftrightarrow R/P$ is an integral domain.

Let P be prime ideal. Since R is a commutative ring with identity R/P is also commutative ring with identity.

Now, $(P+a)(P+b) = P+0$.

$$\Rightarrow P+ab = P$$

$$\Rightarrow ab \in P$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in P \text{ or } b \in P \text{ (since } P \text{ is prime ideal)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P+a = P \text{ or } P+b = P.$$

Thus R/P has no zero divisors.

$\therefore R/P$ is an integral domain. Conversely, suppose R/P is an integral domain. We claim that P is a prime ideal of R . Let $ab \in P$. Then $P+ab = P$. $\therefore (P+a)(P+b) = P$.

$\therefore P+a = P$ or $P+b = P$ (since R/P has no zero divisors)

$\therefore a \in P$ or $b \in P$.

$\therefore P$ is a prime ideal of R .

Corollary: Let R be a commutative ring with identity. Then every maximal ideal of R is a prime ideal of R .

Proof: Let M be maximal ideal of R .

$\therefore R/M$ is a field (by theorem 4.24)

$\therefore M$ is a prime ideal (4.25)

R/M is an integral domain. (by theorem 4.2)

Note: The converse of the above statement is not true for example, (0) is prime ideal of \mathbb{Z} but not a maximal ideal of \mathbb{Z} .

4.10 Homomorphism of rings:

Let R and R' be rings. A function $f: R \rightarrow R'$ is called homomorphism if

$$(i) f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b) \text{ and}$$

$$(ii) f(ab) = f(a)f(b) \text{ all } a, b \in R$$

f is 1-1 f is called monomorphism, f is onto f is epimorphism. A homomorphism of a ring onto itself is called endomorphism.

Theorem 4.26 Let R and R' be rings and $f: R \rightarrow R'$ be a homomorphism. Then, (see an in book 4.25)

Proof: Since f is homomorphism of the group $(R, +)$ to $(R', +)$ the results (i) and (ii) follow from theorem 3.55

(iii) Since S is subgroup of $(R, +)$ is a subgroup of $(R, +)$ and here $f(S)$ is a subgroup of $(R', +)$

Now let $a', b' \in f(S)$. Then $a' = f(a)$ and $b' = f(b)$ for some $a, b \in S$. $\therefore a'b' = f(a)f(b) = f(ab) \in f(S)$

Hence $f(S)$ is a subgroup of R' .

Let S be an ideal of R .

To prove that $f(S)$ is an ideal of $f(R)$ it is enough

if we prove that $a' \in f(R)$ and $a' \in f(S) \Rightarrow a'a'$ and $a'a' \in f(S)$. Let $a' = f(a)$ and $a' = f(a)$ where $a \in R$ and $a \in S$.

Now since S is an ideal of R , $aa' \in S$.

Hence $f(2a) = f(a)f(a) = a|a| \in f(S)$

Similarly $a|a| \in f(S)$. Hence $f(S)$ is an ideal of $f(R)$.

(v) Let S' be a subring of R' . Since $(S', +)$ is a subgroup of $(R', +)$, $f^{-1}(S')$ is a subgroup of $(R, +)$

Now let $a, b \in f^{-1}(S')$. Then $f(a), f(b) \in S'$.

$\therefore f(ab) = f(a)f(b) \in S'$ (since S' is a subring of R')

$\therefore ab \in f^{-1}(S')$. Hence $f^{-1}(S')$ is a subring of R .

(vi) Proof is similar to that of (v)

(vii) Let R be a ring with identity 1 . Let $a' \in f(R)$. Then $a' = f(a)$ for some $a \in R$. Now $a|f(1) = f(a)f(1) = f(a|1) = f(a) = a'$

Similarly $f(1)a' = a'$. Also $f(1) \neq 0$.

Hence $f(1)$ is the identity of $f(R)$.

(viii) Proof is left to the reader.

Definition: The kernel K of a homomorphism f of a ring R to ring R' is defined by $\{a \mid a \in R \text{ and } f(a) = 0\}$

Theorem 4.27: Let $f: R \rightarrow R'$ be a homomorphism. Let K be the kernel of f . Then K is an ideal of R .

Proof: By definition $K = f^{-1}(\{0\})$
Since $\{0\}$ is an ideal of $f(R)$, by (vi) of theorem 4.26 K is an ideal of R .
(number)