

Abstract Algebra Definitions and Theorems

Definition A group is a set of elements G together with a binary operation $\#$ that have the properties:

1. Closure: If $a, b \in G$ then $a \# b \in G$
2. Associativity: If $a, b, c \in G$ then $a \# (b \# c) = (a \# b) \# c$
3. Identity under $\#$: There is an element $e \in G$ such that if $a \in G$ then $a \# e = e \# a = a$
4. Inverses under $\#$: For each $a \in G$ there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a \# a^{-1} = a^{-1} \# a = e$.

As a default, we will use multiplication as the group operation, in which case the above properties are written:

1. Closure: If $a, b \in G$ then $ab \in G$
2. Associativity: If $a, b, c \in G$ then $a(bc) = (ab)c$
3. Identity: There is an element $e \in G$ such that if $a \in G$ then $ae = ea = a$
4. Inverses: For each $a \in G$ there is an element $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$.

But don't use the commutative law unless it is an Abelian group!

Definition: a group G , with operation $\#$ is an **Abelian** (commutative) group if for every $a, b \in G$ then $a \# b = b \# a$. The default operation symbol for an Abelian group is $+$.

***Theorem 1:** Function composition is associative.

***Theorem 2:** If G is a group, then the identity element e is unique.

Unique means that e is the only element of G that has the identity property (group: property 3)

***Theorem 3:** If G is a group, then every element of G has a unique inverse.

***Theorem 4:** If G is a group and $a, b \in G$ then $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$

***Theorem 5:** If G is a group and $a \in G$ then $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$

Definition If G is a group, and $H \subseteq G$ is a subset of G , such that H is a group, then H is a **subgroup** of G .

Theorem 6: If G is a group, and $H \subseteq G$ is a non-empty subset of G such that

1. H is closed: if $a, b \in H$ then $ab \in H$
2. The inverse of every element in H is also in H : If $a \in H$ then there is an element $a^{-1} \in H$ such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e$

Then H is a subgroup of G .

prove theorem 6 by explaining why all 4 of the group properties must be true for H .

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Well Ordering Axiom Every non-empty subset of the non-negative integers contains a smallest element.

Theorem 7: Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ (b is a positive integer), then there exist unique integers q, r such that $a = bq + r$ and $0 \leq r < b$

Definition: Let a and b be integers where not both are zero, then $d = \gcd(a, b)$ is the greatest common divisor of a and b , which means:

- $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$
- If $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \leq d$

Note: our textbook writes $(a, b) = \gcd(a, b)$

Theorem 8 (1.2): Let a and b be integers where not both are zero, and $d = \gcd(a, b)$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = au + bv$

***Theorem 9 (1.3):** Let a and b be integers where not both are zero, and $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \mid d$

***Theorem 10 (1.4):** Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \mid bc$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ then $a \mid c$
hint: consider $c \cdot 1 = c(au + bv)$

***Theorem 11:** Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, and let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then $ax + by = c$ has integer solutions if and only if $d \mid c$ (pg. 16 # 24)

Definition: Let p be an integer such that $p \neq 0, \pm 1$, then p is **prime** means:

Given $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $p \mid bc$ then $p \mid b$ or $p \mid c$

Definition: Let p be an integer such that $p \neq 0, \pm 1$, then p is **irreducible** means the only divisors of p are ± 1 and $\pm p$

***Theorem 12:** An integer p be an integer such that $p \neq 0, \pm 1$ is prime if and only if it is irreducible.

***Theorem 13 (1.6):** Let p be a prime integer and let $p \mid a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ then p divides at least one of the factors a_i .

Theorem 14(1.7): Every integer n except $0, \pm 1$ is a product of primes.

Theorem 15 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, 1.8): If $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \neq 0, \pm 1$ then n is a product of primes, and the prime factorization is unique in the sense that if

$$n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r \quad \text{and} \quad n = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$$

such that all of the p_i and q_j are prime,

then $r = s$ and the q_j factors can be re-ordered such that $p_i = \pm q_i$

(We can use a permutation to write $f : \{1, 2, \dots, s\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, s\}$ is a permutation, and $p_i = \pm q_{f(i)}$)

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Definition: Let a, b, n be integers, with $n > 0$, then a is congruent to b modulo n if $n \mid (b - a)$. This is most often written $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$. If it is clear from the context of the problem, that all numbers are to be considered mod n , you will sometimes see $a \equiv b$ or $a = b$.

***Theorem 16:** Let a, b, n be integers, with $n > 0$, then

- a) $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$
- b) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ then $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
- c) If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$

Definition: Let a, b, n be integers, with $n > 0$, then the **congruence class of a modulo n** is the set of all integers congruent to a modulo n . Sometimes we write $[a]$ or $[a]_n$, and the equivalence class is defined to be $\{b \mid b \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } b \equiv a \pmod{n}\}$.

Theorem 17: $[a]_n = [c]_n$ if and only if $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$

***Theorem 18:** If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ then

- a) $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$
- b) $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$

Definition: The set of all congruence classes modulo n is denoted \mathbb{Z}_n , which is called “Z-n” or the “integers mod n ” or “mod n numbers”. Elements of \mathbb{Z}_n are sometimes written as $[a]_n$ or $[a]$ but usually they are just written a . Each congruence class has a simplest form, which is the element of the equivalence class in the range $0 \leq a < n$. In most cases, you should give answers to questions in \mathbb{Z}_n in simplest form.

Definition: Two integers are **relatively prime** if their greatest common divisor is 1.

***Theorem 19:** The element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ has a multiplicative inverse $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ if and only if a and n are relatively prime.

***Theorem 20:** $\mathbb{Z}_n, +$ is a group (under addition)

Definition: The set of elements of \mathbb{Z}_n that have multiplicative inverses is called U_n . In set notation: $U_n = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid ab = 1 \text{ for some } b \in \mathbb{Z}_n\}$

***Theorem 21:** U_n, \cdot is a group (under multiplication)

***Theorem 22:** $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_p \mid a \neq 0\}$, the set of non-zero elements of \mathbb{Z}_p , where p is prime, is a group under multiplication.

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Definition/Notation: If G is a group with operation written as multiplication, and $a \in G$ then $a^2 = aa$ and $a^n = \underbrace{aa \dots a}_n$ if n is a positive integer. $a^n = \underbrace{a^{-1}a^{-1} \dots a^{-1}}_{|n| \text{ factors}}$ if n is a negative integer and $a^0 = e$ where e is the identity.

Theorem 23: If G is a group and $a \in G$ then $a^n a^m = a^{n+m}$

prove the theorem for the cases:

- a) $n=0$ or $m=0$
- b) $n>0$ and $m>0$
- c) $n<0$ and $m<0$
- d) $n>0$ and $m<0$, and $n>m$
- e) $n>0$ and $m<0$, and $n<m$
- f) $n<0$ and $m>0$, and $n>m$
- g) $n<0$ and $m>0$, and $n<m$

Definition: The order of a group is the number of elements in the group.

Definition: In a group G with element $a \in G$, if $a^n = e$ for some integer $n>0$, then the element a has finite order. If k is the smallest positive integer such that $a^k = e$, then a has order k . If $a^n \neq e$ for every positive integer n , then a has infinite order.

* **Theorem 24:** If G is a group and $a \in G$ such that $a^i = a^j$ for two distinct integers $i \neq j$, then a has finite order.

* **Theorem 25:** If G is a group and $a \in G$ such that $a^n = e$, then the order of a is a divisor of n .

* **Theorem 26:** If G is a group and $a \in G$ such that a has order n , then $a^i = a^j$ if and only if $n | (j-i)$

Definition: In a group G with elements $a, b \in G$, the set $\langle a \rangle \subseteq G$ is the smallest subgroup of G that contains a , and $\langle a, b \rangle$ is the smallest subgroup of G that contains both a and b .

* **Lemma 27:** In a group G (with the default multiplicative notation for the binary operation), and $a \in G$ then $\{a^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subgroup of G .

Theorem 28: In a group G (with the default multiplicative notation for the binary operation), and $a \in G$ then $\{a^n | n \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \langle a \rangle$

Definition: A group G is **commutative** if for every pair of elements $a, b \in G$, $ab = ba$. A commutative group is also called an **abelian** group.

Theorem 29: In a group G , with element $a \in G$, then $\langle a \rangle$ is an abelian group.

Definition: In a group G , with element $a \in G$, the subgroup $\langle a \rangle$ is called a **cyclic** group.

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Theorem 30: If G is a group and $a \in G$ has infinite order, then all of the elements a^n where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are distinct.

Definition: Given a group G with operation $*$ and H is a group with operation $\#$, and $f : G \rightarrow H$ is a relation that pairs elements of G with elements of H . The relation f is a **function** if each element of G is paired with a unique element of H .

Definition: Given a group G with operation $*$ and H is a group with operation $\#$, and $f : G \rightarrow H$ is a function. The function f is called a **homomorphism** if it preserves the group operation, which means for any $a, b \in G$, $f(a * b) = f(a) \# f(b)$

Definition: Given sets S and T , a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **1-to-1** if for every $a, b \in S$, if $f(a) = f(b)$ then $a = b$. A 1-to-1 function is called an **injection**.

Theorem 31: Given sets S and T , a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is an injection if and only if, for every $t \in T$ the set $f^{-1}(t) = \{s \in S \mid f(s) = t\}$ contains at most one element.

Definition: Given sets S and T , a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **onto** if for every $t \in T$, there exists an element $s \in S$ such that $f(s) = t$. An onto function is called a **surjection**

Theorem 32: Given sets S and T , a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a surjection if and only if every $t \in T$ the set $f^{-1}(t) = \{s \in S \mid f(s) = t\}$ contains at least one element.

Definition: A function that is both an injection and a surjection is called a **bijection**.

Definition: Given groups G and H , and function $f : G \rightarrow H$, then f is an **isomorphism** if it is a bijective homomorphism.

Theorem 33: A cyclic group with finite order n is isomorphic to the group \mathbb{Z}_n with operation addition.

Theorem 34: A cyclic group with infinite order is isomorphic to the group \mathbb{Z} with order addition.

***Theorem 35:** Given groups G and H , and a homomorphism $f : G \rightarrow H$, then $f(G) = \{f(x) \mid x \in G\} \subseteq H$ is a subgroup of H .

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Definition: A **ring** is a set of elements R together with two binary operations that are denoted as addition (+) and multiplication (\times or \cdot) with the properties:

- 1) R is closed under addition: if $a, b \in R$ then $a + b \in R$
- 2) Addition is associative: if $a, b, c \in R$ then $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$
- 3) Addition is commutative: if $a, b \in R$ then $a + b = b + a$
- 4) R has an additive identity: there exists an element $0 \in R$ such that $0 + a = a$
- 5) Every element in R has an additive inverse: if $a \in R$ then $-a \in R$ such that $a + -a = 0$
- 6) R is closed under multiplication: if $a, b \in R$ then $ab \in R$
- 7) Multiplication is associative: if $a, b, c \in R$ then $(ab)c = a(bc)$
- 8) Multiplication is distributive over addition: if $a, b, c \in R$ then $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(b + c)a = ba + ca$

Definition: A ring R is a **commutative ring** if multiplication is commutative. That is: if $a, b \in R$ then $ab = ba$

Definition: A ring, R , is a ring with **identity** or a ring with **unity** if it has a multiplicative identity: i.e. If there exists an element $1 \in R$ such that $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in R$

Theorem 36: \mathbb{Z}_n is a commutative ring.

Theorem 37: If $R, +, \cdot$ is a ring, then $R, +$ is an abelian group

***Theorem 38:** If $R, +, \cdot$ is a ring, and $a \in R$ then $a \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot a = 0$ (hint: $0 + 0 = 0$)

Definition: Given a ring R with identity, then an element $a \in R$ is a **unit** if it has a multiplicative inverse in R : i.e. $a \in R$ is a **unit** if there exists an element $a^{-1} \in R$ such that $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$

Definition: Given a ring R , then an element $a \in R$ is **zero-divisor** if it is one of a non-zero pair of elements whose product is 0: i.e. $a \in R$ is a **zero-divisor** if there is an element $b \in R$ such that $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$ and $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$.

(* Theorem 39: The additive identity of a ring R is unique.

***Theorem 40:** The multiplicative identity of a ring with identity (R) is unique. (Hint: if there were two identities, what would their product be?)

(* Theorem 41: For any element a of a ring R , the additive inverse of a is unique.

***Theorem 42:** For any unit a of a ring R , the multiplicative inverse of a is unique.

***Theorem 43** Prove that any element a of a ring R can't be both a unit and a zero divisor.

Definition: A commutative ring with identity, R , is an **integral domain** if it has no zero-divisors

Definition: A **field** is a commutative ring with identity, where all of the non-zero elements are units.

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Definition: If R is a ring, then a subset $S \subseteq R$ is a subring of R if it is a ring (using the same operations that are defined for R).

Theorem 44: If R is a ring, then a subset $S \subseteq R$ is a subring of R if it satisfies the conditions:

- i. S is closed under addition (if $a, b \in S$ then $a + b \in S$)
- ii. S is closed under multiplication (if $a, b \in S$ then $ab \in S$)
- iii. every element of S has an additive inverse in S (if $a \in S$ then $-a \in S$ where $a + -a = 0$)

* **Theorem 45:** If $a, b \in R$ then $a(-b) = -(ab)$ and $(-a)b = -(ab)$

* **Theorem 46:** If $a \in R$ then $-(-a) = a$

* **Theorem 47:** If $a, b \in R$ then $-(a+b) = -a - b$

* **Theorem 48:** If $a, b \in R$ then $(-a)(-b) = ab$

Definition: Saying that ring R , has the **multiplicative cancellation property** means: for $a, b, c \in R$, if $ab = ac$ or $ba = ca$ then $b = c$

* **Theorem 49:** A ring R has the multiplicative cancellation property if and only if R has no zero divisors.

* **Theorem 50** If $S \subseteq R$ and $T \subseteq R$ are both subrings of R , then $S \cap T$ is a subring of R .

Definition: If R and S are rings and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a function and $a, b \in R$, then f is a ring **homomorphism** if $f(a+b) = f(a) + f(b)$ and $f(ab) = f(a)f(b)$.

Definition: If R and S are rings and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a function, then f is a ring **isomorphism** if it is a ring homomorphism, and it is one-to-one and onto.

Theorem 51: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, and if we name the additive identities of R and S to be 0_R and 0_S respectively, then $f(0_R) = 0_S$

Theorem 52: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, and $a \in R$, then $f(-a) = -f(a)$.

Theorem 53: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, then $f(R) = \{f(x) \mid x \in R\} \subseteq S$ is a subring of S .

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Theorem 54: If R is a ring and $a \in R$ then the set $aR = \{ax \mid x \in R\} \subseteq R$ is a subring of R and the set $Ra = \{xa \mid x \in R\} \subseteq R$ is a subring of R .

Theorem 55: Given a ring R , we can adjoin a formal element x to create a ring $R[x]$ of formal polynomials with coefficients in R with the following properties:

- R is a subring of $R[x]$
- If $a \in R$ then $ax = xa$ (note: elements of R commute with x , but they don't necessarily commute with each other)
- Every element has a unique representation as a polynomial.

Definition: The **degree** of a polynomial $p(x) \in R[x]$ is the highest exponent that has a non-zero coefficient.

Theorem 56: If F is a field and $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ such that $g(x) \neq 0$ then there exist unique $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$ and $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(g(x))$ or $r(x) = 0$.

Definition: If $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$, then $f(x) \mid g(x)$ means there exists $h(x) \in F[x]$ such that $g(x) = f(x)h(x)$.

Definition: If R is a ring with identity, then a **monic** polynomial in $R[x]$ is a polynomial whose leading coefficient is 1. (Note: the leading coefficient is the coefficient of the term with the highest power of x)

Definition: If F is a field, and $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$, then $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are **associates** if $f(x) = cg(x)$ where $c \in F$ and $c \neq 0$.

Theorem 57: If F is a field and $f(x) \in F[x]$, then $f(x)$ has a unique associate which is a monic polynomial.

Definition: If $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ such that not both of f and g are 0, then the **greatest common divisor** of f and g is the monic polynomial of highest degree that divides both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

Theorem 58: If F is a field, and $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$ or $g(x) \neq 0$, then there is a unique greatest common divisor $d(x) = \gcd(f(x), g(x))$, and there exist polynomials $u(x), v(x) \in F[x]$ (not necessarily unique) such that $d(x) = u(x)f(x) + v(x)g(x)$

Definition: Let F be a field and let $p(x) \in F[x]$ be a non-constant polynomial, then $p(x)$ is **irreducible** if its only divisors are non-zero constants and its associates.

***Theorem 59 (factor theorem):** If F is a field, $a \in F$ and $f(x) \in F[x]$ then $f(a) = 0$ if and only if $(x - a) \mid f(x)$

Theorem 60: Let F be a field and let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be a non-constant polynomial, then $f(x)$ is factorable into irreducible polynomials, and that factorization is unique up to associates.

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Theorem 61 (remainder theorem): If F is a field, $a \in F$ and $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$ such that $\deg(g(x)) = 1$ and $g(a) = 0$. Let $r(x) \in F[x]$ be the remainder polynomial that satisfies $f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$ and $\deg(r(x)) < \deg(g(x))$ or $r(x) = 0$. Then $r(x)$ is a constant and $f(a) = r(x)$.

Theorem 62 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra): Every polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has a complex root (that is, if $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $\deg(f(x)) > 0$ then there exists a number $a \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $f(a) = 0$).

Theorem 63 (Corollary to the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra): Every polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ is factorable into degree 1 polynomials.

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Definition: If $I \subseteq R$ is a subring of R , and if for any $i \in I$ and $r \in R$ then $ir \in I$ and $ri \in I$, then I is called an **ideal**

Theorem 64: If I is a non-empty subset of R , then I is an ideal if:

- i. I is closed under addition (if $a, b \in I$ then $a + b \in I$)
- ii. Every element of I has an additive inverse in I (if $a \in I$ then $-a \in I$ where $a + -a = 0$)
- iii. I absorbs elements of R under multiplication: if $a \in I$ and $r \in R$ then $ir \in I$ and $ri \in I$

***Theorem 65:** If R is a commutative ring and $c \in R$, then $cR = \{cx \mid x \in R\}$ is an ideal in R .

Definition: If R is a commutative ring that has a (multiplicative) identity, and $c \in R$, then $cR = \{cx \mid x \in R\}$ is a **principal ideal** of R . This ideal has two standard representations: in addition to cR the textbook uses the notation: (c) to represent the principal ideal generated by c . This notation is particularly common when talking about principal ideals in a polynomial ring.

Definition: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a \in R$ then the **coset** $a + I \subseteq R$ is the set:

$$a + I = \{a + x \mid x \in I\}$$

Theorem 66: If I is an ideal in a ring R , then every element $a \in R$ is in some coset of I , and in particular, $a \in a + I$

Theorem 67: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a + I$ shares an element with $b + I$ then $a + I = b + I$

Note: The contrapositive of theorem 67 says that if the cosets are not equal, then they are disjoint, which means they do not share any elements

Definition: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a, b \in R$ then a is **congruent to b modulo I** if $b + (-a) \in I$. We write $a \equiv b \pmod{I}$

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Theorem 68: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a \in R$ then $a \equiv a \pmod{I}$

Theorem 69: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a, b \in R$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{I}$ then $b \equiv a \pmod{I}$

Theorem 70: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a, b, c \in R$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{I}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{I}$ then $a \equiv c \pmod{I}$

Theorem 71: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a \in R$ then $a + I = \{x \mid x \in R \text{ and } a \equiv x\}$

Theorem 72: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a, b, c, d \in R$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{I}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{I}$ then $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{I}$.

Note: This is equivalent to: $(a + I) + (b + I) = \{a + i + b + j \mid i, j \in I\} \subseteq (a + b) + I$

Theorem 73: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and $a, b, c, d \in R$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{I}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{I}$ then $ac \equiv bd \pmod{I}$

Note: This is equivalent to: $(a + I)(b + I) = \{(a + i)(b + j) \mid i, j \in I\} \subseteq (ab) + I$

Definition: If I is an ideal in a ring R , and, then the set of cosets consists of all of the cosets of I

Theorem 74: If I is an ideal in a ring R , then the set of cosets of I is also a ring, where addition and multiplication are defined by $(a + I) + (b + I) = (a + b) + I$ and $(a + I)(b + I) = (ab) + I$. We call R / I the **quotient ring of R mod I** . We write $R / I = \{a + I \mid a \in R\}$

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Theorem 75: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, then $f(0_R) = 0_S$ where 0_R is the additive identity in R , and 0_S is the additive identity in S .

Theorem 76: If R is a ring that has a multiplicative identity 1_R , and S is a field whose multiplicative identity is 1_S , and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism and there is some $a \in R$ such that $f(a) \neq 0$, then $f(1_R) = 1_S$

Theorem 77: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism and $a \in R$, then $f(-a) = -f(a)$

Theorem 53/78: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, then $f(R) = \{f(x) \mid x \in R\} \subseteq S$ is a subring of S .

Definition: The **kernel** of a function on rings $f : R \rightarrow S$ is the set of all elements that map to 0:
 $\ker(f) = \{x \in R \mid f(x) = 0_S\}$

Theorem 79: If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism, then $\ker(f) \subseteq R$ is an ideal in R .

Theorem 80 (First Isomorphism Theorem): If R and S are rings, and $f : R \rightarrow S$ is a surjective (onto) ring homomorphism, then $R / \ker(f) \cong S$ with isomorphism $\phi(r + \ker(f)) = f(r)$ where $r + \ker(f) \in R / (\ker(f))$

Theorem 81: If $f(x) \in F[x]$ is an irreducible polynomial with coefficients in the field F , then $F[x] / (f(x))$ is a field.

Definition: If F is a field subfield of \mathbb{C} , and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, then $F(\alpha)$ is the smallest subfield of \mathbb{C} that contains both F and α

Theorem 82: If $f(x) \in F[x]$ is an irreducible polynomial with coefficients in a field F such that $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq F \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$ then $\phi : F[x] / (f(x)) \rightarrow F(\alpha)$ defined by $\phi(g(x) + (f(x))) = g(\alpha)$ for every $g(x) + (f(x)) \in F[x] / (f(x))$ is an isomorphism