



## CHAPTER II

### $\Gamma$ -SEMINEARRINGS

This chapter is split into three major parts. In the first section, we give a definition of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring along with examples of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings. Then some general properties of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings are investigated. Next, ideals of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings are introduced in the second section. Also, notion of zero-symmetric nearrings and distributively generated nearrings are adopted to zero-symmetric  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings and distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings in order to obtain more results. In the last section, we present  $\Gamma$ -homomorphisms and study related properties.

#### 2.1 Definitions and Examples

The begining of this section is assigned to introduce common concept of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings.

**Definition 2.1.1.** Let  $(R, +)$  be a semigroup and  $\Gamma$  a nonempty set. Then  $R$  is called a (*right*)  $\Gamma$ -seminearring if there exists a mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$  (sending  $(a, \alpha, b) \mapsto a\alpha b$ ) satisfying the following conditions:

- (i) the *right ditributivity*:  $(a + b)\alpha c = a\alpha c + b\alpha c$  for all  $a, b, c \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ ,
- (ii) the *associativity*:  $(a\alpha b)\beta c = a\alpha(b\beta c)$  for all  $a, b, c \in R$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ .

A *left*  $\Gamma$ -seminearring can be defined analogously.

Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. If the semigroup  $R$  contains an identity, then  $R$  is called a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring with identity. In this thesis, the identity of the

semigroup  $R$  is denoted by  $0_R$  or simply  $0$ .

We remark here that a right  $\Gamma$ -seminearring satisfies the right distributive law but not necessarily the left distributive law.

Recall that a nonempty set  $R$  with two binary operations  $+$  and  $\cdot$  is called a seminearring if and only if  $(R, +)$  and  $(R, \cdot)$  are semigroups and  $(a+b)c = ac+bc$  for all  $a, b, c \in R$ . It is obvious that for a seminearring  $(R, +, \cdot)$ , the semigroup  $R$  under  $+$  is an  $R$ -seminearring under the mapping from  $R \times R \times R$  into  $R$  defined by  $(a, \alpha, b) \mapsto a \cdot \alpha \cdot b$  for all  $a, b, \alpha \in R$ . This gives a trivial example of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings. In addition, any  $\Gamma$ -nearrings and  $\Gamma$ -semirings (see definitions in Chapter I page 4) are  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings from their definitions.

Next example shows that a seminearring can be constructed from a given  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

**Example 2.1.1.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $\alpha$  be a fixed element in  $\Gamma$ . Define  $a \cdot b = a\alpha b$  for all  $a, b \in R$ . Then  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a seminearring.

To see this fact, first, we show that  $(R, \cdot)$  is a semigroup. Let  $x, y, z \in R$ . Since  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring,  $x \cdot y = x\alpha y \in R$ , and  $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = (x\alpha y)\alpha z = x\alpha(y\alpha z) = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ . Thus  $(R, \cdot)$  is a semigroup. Next,  $(x + y) \cdot z = (x + y)\alpha z = x\alpha z + y\alpha z = x \cdot z + y \cdot z$ . Hence  $(R, +, \cdot)$  is a seminearring as claimed.

Other examples of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings are provided in the next.

**Example 2.1.2.** Let  $V$  and  $W$  be finite-dimension vector spaces over a same field  $F$  where  $\dim(V) = n$  and  $\dim(W) = m$ . Let

$$R = \mathcal{L}(V, W) := \{f : V \rightarrow W \mid f \text{ is a linear transformation}\} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\Gamma = \mathcal{L}(W, V) := \{\alpha : W \rightarrow V \mid \alpha \text{ is a linear transformation}\}.$$

Then  $(R, +)$  and  $(\Gamma, +)$  are abelian groups where  $+$  is the usual addition of functions. Define the mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$  by  $(f, \alpha, g) \mapsto f \circ \alpha \circ g$  for all  $f, g \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  where  $\circ$  is the usual composition of functions. Then  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

First of all, since  $(R, +)$  and  $(\Gamma, +)$  are abelian groups,  $(R, +)$  is a semigroup and  $\Gamma \neq \emptyset$ . For the convenience of this proof, we write  $f\alpha g$  instead of  $f \circ \alpha \circ g$  for any  $f, g \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Next, let  $f, g, h \in R$ ,  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$  and  $x \in V$ . It is obvious that  $f\alpha g \in R$  and  $(f\alpha g)\beta h = f\alpha(g\beta h)$ . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} ((f + g)\alpha h)(x) &= (f + g)(\alpha(h(x))) = f(\alpha(h(x))) + g(\alpha(h(x))) \\ &= (f\alpha h)(x) + (g\alpha h)(x) = (f\alpha h + g\alpha h)(x), \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,  $(f + g)\alpha h = f\alpha h + g\alpha h$ . Hence  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring as desired.

Now consider further in Example 2.1.2. Let  $R$  and  $\Gamma$  be defined as in Example 2.1.2. Then it can be shown that  $(f\alpha(g + h))(x) = (f\alpha)(g(x) + h(x)) = (f\alpha g)(x) + (f\alpha h)(x) = (f\alpha g + f\alpha h)(x)$  for all  $f, g, h \in R$ ,  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$  and  $x \in V$  because  $f\alpha$  is a linear transformation. Thus  $R$  is also a  $\Gamma$ -nearring, a  $\Gamma$ -semiring and a  $\Gamma$ -ring.

Let  $V, W, F, m, n$  be defined as in Example 2.1.2. Moreover, let  $M_{k,l}(F)$  be the set of all  $k \times l$  matrices over  $F$ . It is known that  $\mathcal{L}(V, W)$  is isomorphic to  $M_{m,n}(F)$  and  $\mathcal{L}(W, V)$  is isomorphic to  $M_{n,m}(F)$ . Consequently, we can conclude that  $M_{m,n}(F)$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring, a  $\Gamma$ -nearring, a  $\Gamma$ -semiring and a  $\Gamma$ -ring where  $\Gamma = M_{n,m}(F)$ .

So far,  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings do exist but they also are other known  $\Gamma$ -structures. It is worth to give an example of  $\Gamma$ -seminearring which is not  $\Gamma$ -nearring, a  $\Gamma$ -semiring or a  $\Gamma$ -ring. As a result, this will ensure us that a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring is actually a generalization of a  $\Gamma$ -nearring, a  $\Gamma$ -semiring and a  $\Gamma$ -ring.

**Example 2.1.3.** Let  $A$  be a nonempty set,  $(B, *)$  be a semigroup which is not a group,

$$R = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow B\} \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma = \{\alpha \mid \alpha : B \rightarrow A\}.$$

Then  $\Gamma \neq \emptyset$  and  $(R, +)$  is a semigroup where  $(f + g)(x) = f(x) * g(x)$  for all  $x \in A$ . Define a mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$  by

$$(f, \alpha, g) \mapsto f \circ \alpha \circ g \quad \text{for all } f, g \in R \text{ and } \alpha \in \Gamma$$

where  $\circ$  is the usual composition of functions. Then  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring which is not a  $\Gamma$ -nearring, a  $\Gamma$ -semiring or a  $\Gamma$ -ring.

To be certain that this is true, first, the nonemptiness of  $A$  and  $B$  implies that both  $R$  and  $\Gamma$  are not empty. For each  $f, g, h \in R$ , it can be shown that  $f + g \in R$  and  $(f + g) + h = f + (g + h)$  because  $B$  is a semigroup. Thus  $(R, +)$  forms a semigroup. Moreover, the fact that  $f\alpha g \in R$ ,  $(f + g)\alpha h = f\alpha h + g\alpha h$  and  $(f\alpha g)\beta h = f\alpha(g\beta h)$  for all  $f, g, h \in R$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$  can be obtained in the similar way of the proof of Example 2.1.2. Hence  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

Note that  $(R, +)$  is not a group which is a consequence of the fact that  $(B, *)$  is not a group. As a result,  $R$  is not a  $\Gamma$ -nearring. Furthermore, the property that  $f\alpha(g + h) = f\alpha g + f\alpha h$  for any  $f, g, h \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  may not hold which implies that  $R$  is not a  $\Gamma$ -semiring. Accordingly,  $R$  is not a  $\Gamma$ -ring.

The last example gives an example of a left  $\Gamma$ -seminearring whose semigroup part is noncommutative. Moreover, knowledge in set theory is required.

**Example 2.1.4.** Let  $R = \aleph_1$  and  $\Gamma = \aleph_0$ . Then clearly  $\aleph_0 \neq \emptyset$  and  $(R, \oplus)$  is a noncommutative semigroup where  $\oplus$  is the ordinal sum. Define a mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$  by

$$(a, \alpha, b) \mapsto a \otimes \alpha \otimes b \quad \text{for all } a, b \in R \text{ and } \alpha \in \Gamma$$

where  $\otimes$  is the ordinal product. Then  $R$  is a left  $\Gamma$ -seminearring which is not a  $\Gamma$ -semiring, a  $\Gamma$ -nearring and a  $\Gamma$ -ring. Details of the proof can be read in the appendix.

Next, we give the definition of sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings.

**Definition 2.1.2.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring under the mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$ , say  $f$ . A subsemigroup  $A$  of  $R$  is called a *sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring* of  $R$  if  $A$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring under the restriction of  $f$  to  $A \times \Gamma \times A$ .

Note that a nonempty subset  $A$  of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$  if and only if  $a + b$ ,  $a\alpha b \in A$  for all  $a, b \in A$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

**Remark 2.1.1.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Then  $R$  is also a semigroup. Thus, when we would like to emphasize that  $R$  is considered as a semigroup, it will be stated so. Besides, we say that  $A$  is a *subsemigroup of  $R$*  whenever  $A$  is considered as a subsemigroup of the semigroup  $R$ .

We give an example of a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

**Example 2.1.5.** As in Example 2.1.3, if  $(C, *)$  is a subsemigroup of  $(B, *)$ , then  $\{f \mid f : A \rightarrow C\}$  is obviously a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .

Throughout this thesis, let  $\mathbb{N}$  be the set of all positive integers. Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. If  $A$  and  $B$  are nonempty subsets of  $R$ , we denote by  $A\Gamma B$  the subset of  $R$  consisting of all finite sums of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i \alpha_i b_i$  where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a_i \in A$ ,  $b_i \in B$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i$ , i.e.,

$$A\Gamma B = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m a_i \alpha_i b_i \mid m \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \in A, b_i \in B, \alpha_i \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i \right\}.$$

Conveniently, we write  $\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i$  instead of such the finite sum  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i \alpha_i b_i$ .



Moreover,  $x\Gamma B$  and  $A\Gamma x$  are written instead of  $\{x\}\Gamma B$  and  $A\Gamma\{x\}$ , respectively, for all  $x \in R$ . Similarly,  $A\alpha B$  is used for  $A\{\alpha\}B$  for all  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

In particular, by the right distributivity,  $R\alpha x = \{r\alpha x \mid r \in R\}$  for all  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . However, it is not true in general that  $x\alpha R = \{x\alpha r \mid r \in R\}$  where  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

It is interesting to know whether the subset  $A\Gamma B$  of  $R$  forms any algebraic structures for any nonempty subsets  $A$  and  $B$  of  $R$ .

**Proposition 2.1.1.** *Let  $A$  and  $B$  be nonempty subsets of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$ . Then  $A\Gamma B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $A$ ,  $\Gamma$  and  $B$  are nonempty sets,  $A\Gamma B \neq \emptyset$ . For each  $x = \sum r_i \alpha_i s_i$ ,  $y = \sum u_j \beta_j v_j \in A\Gamma B$ , we see that  $x+y = \sum r_i \alpha_i s_i + \sum u_j \beta_j v_j \in A\Gamma B$ . Therefore,  $A\Gamma B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$ .  $\square$

However, if  $A$  and  $B$  are nonempty subsets of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$ , then  $A\Gamma B$  may not be a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$  because, for each  $\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i, \sum c_j \gamma_j d_j \in A\Gamma B$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ ,  $(\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i) \beta (\sum c_j \gamma_j d_j) = \sum \left( (a_i \alpha_i b_i) \beta (\sum c_j \gamma_j d_j) \right)$  where  $(a_i \alpha_i b_i) \beta (\sum c_j \gamma_j d_j)$  may be not contained in  $A\Gamma B$ . Although, if  $A$  and  $B$  are subsemigroups of  $R$ , it cannot be concluded either that  $A\Gamma B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ . Besides, we see later in Proposition 2.2.2 when  $A\Gamma B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .

**Proposition 2.1.2.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. If  $A, B$  and  $C$  are nonempty subsets of  $R$ , then  $(A\Gamma B) \Gamma C \subseteq A\Gamma (B\Gamma C)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $A, B$  and  $C$  be nonempty subsets of  $R$ . Let  $x \in (A\Gamma B) \Gamma C$ . Then  $x = \sum (\sum a_j \beta_j b_j) \alpha_i c_i$  where  $a_j \in A$ ,  $b_j \in B$ ,  $c_i \in C$  and  $\alpha_i, \beta_j \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j$ .

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
x &= \sum \left( \sum a_j \beta_j b_j \right) \alpha_i c_i \\
&= \sum \sum \left( (a_j \beta_j b_j) \alpha_i c_i \right) && \text{because of the right distributivity} \\
&= \sum \sum \left( a_j \beta_j (b_j \alpha_i c_i) \right) && \text{because of the associativity} \\
&\in A\Gamma(B\Gamma C) && \text{since } a_j \beta_j (b_j \alpha_i c_i) \in A\Gamma(B\Gamma C) \text{ for all } i, j.
\end{aligned}$$

□

In general, if  $A, B$  and  $C$  are nonempty subsets of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$ , then it is not necessary that  $A\Gamma(B\Gamma C)$  is contained in  $(A\Gamma B)\Gamma C$  because it is not reasonable to say that

$$\sum a_i \alpha_i \left( \sum b_j \beta_j c_j \right) = \sum \sum a_i \alpha_i (b_j \beta_j c_j)$$

for any element  $\sum a_i \alpha_i \left( \sum b_j \beta_j c_j \right) \in A\Gamma(B\Gamma C)$ .

As a result,  $(A\Gamma B)\Gamma C = A\Gamma(B\Gamma C)$  does not necessarily hold.

**Definition 2.1.3.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. An element  $x \in R$  is called a *left (right) zero* of  $R$  if  $x\alpha y = x$  ( $y\alpha x = x$ ) for all  $y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Furthermore, if  $x$  is both a left and a right zero of  $R$ , then  $x$  is called a *zero* of  $R$ .

In addition, if all elements of  $R$  are entirely left (right) zeros, then  $R$  is called a *left (right) zero  $\Gamma$ -seminearring*.

**Proposition 2.1.3.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

- (i) If  $R$  has a left zero and a right zero, then  $R$  has a zero.
- (ii) If  $R$  has a zero, then that zero is unique.

*Proof.* (i) Let  $x$  and  $y$  be a left zero and a right zero of  $R$ , respectively. Fix an element  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $x = x\alpha y = y$ . Thus  $R$  has a zero.

(ii) This is obvious from the proof of (i) that the zero of  $R$  is unique. □

If  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring with identity  $0$ , i.e.,  $0$  is the identity of the semigroup  $R$ , then  $0$  is not necessary a left zero or a right zero of  $R$  in general. However, if the semigroup  $R$  also satisfies either the left cancellation or the right cancellation, then  $0$  is a left zero of  $R$  since either  $0\alpha x + 0 = 0\alpha x = (0 + 0)\alpha x = 0\alpha x + 0\alpha x$  or  $0 + 0\alpha x = 0\alpha x + 0\alpha x$  for all  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  but  $0$  need not be a right zero of  $R$  since  $0 = x\alpha 0$  may not holds for some  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

**Definition 2.1.4.** A  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  with identity  $0$  is called *zero-symmetric* if  $0\alpha x = 0 = x\alpha 0$  for all  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

If  $R$  is a zero-symmetric  $\Gamma$ -seminearring, then it follows directly from the definition that the identity of the semigroup  $R$  and the zero of the  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  are identical.

**Definition 2.1.5.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. An element  $e \in R$  is called a *left (right)  $\Gamma$ -identity* of  $R$  if  $e\alpha x = x$  ( $x\alpha e = x$ ) for all  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Moreover, if  $e$  is both a left and a right  $\Gamma$ -identity of  $R$ , then  $e$  is called a  *$\Gamma$ -identity* of  $R$ .

However, we often simply call such an element  $e$  a *left (right) identity* or an *identity* of  $R$  if it is clear from the context that the  $\Gamma$ -identity is mentioned not the identity of the semigroup  $R$ .

**Proposition 2.1.4.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.*

(i) *If  $R$  has a left identity and a right identity, then  $R$  has an identity.*



(ii) If  $R$  has an identity, then that identity is unique.

*Proof.* (i) Let  $e$  and  $f$  be a left identity and a right identity of  $R$ , respectively.

Fix an element  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $f = e\alpha f = e$ . Thus  $R$  has an identity.

(ii) This is obvious from the proof of (i) that the identity of  $R$  is unique.

□

For a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring having an identity, we denote that unique identity by 1.

This section is ended with, providing that  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring, the relationship between the identity of the semigroup  $R$  and the  $\Gamma$ -identity of  $R$ .

**Proposition 2.1.5.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring with  $\Gamma$ -identity 1 and have more than one element. Moreover, let 0 be the identity of the semigroup  $R$ . If the semigroup  $R$  satisfies either the left or the right cancellation, then  $0 \neq 1$ .*

*Proof.* Without loss of generality, assume that the semigroup  $R$  satisfies the left cancellation. Suppose that  $0 = 1$ . Since  $R$  has more than one element,  $R \neq \{0\}$  so that there exists an element  $a \in R$  such that  $a \neq 0$ . Then  $a = 1\alpha a = 0\alpha a = 0$  which is a contradiction. As a result,  $0 \neq 1$ . □

## 2.2 Ideals of $\Gamma$ -seminearrings

The concept of ideals of algebraic structures plays quite important roles so that it makes sense to define and to study ideals of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings.

**Definition 2.2.1.** A subset  $I$  of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  is called a *left (right) ideal* of  $R$  if  $I$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$  and  $r\alpha x \in I$  ( $x\alpha r \in I$ ) for all  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in I$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . If  $I$  is both a left and a right ideal of  $R$ , then  $I$  is called an *ideal* of  $R$ .

**Example 2.2.1.** Let  $A$  be a nonempty set,  $(B, *)$  a semigroup which is not a group,  $C$  a subsemigroup of  $B$ ,  $R = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow B\}$  and  $\Gamma = \{\alpha \mid \alpha : B \rightarrow A\}$ . Then  $R$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring from Example 2.1.3. Moreover,  $\{f \mid f : A \rightarrow C\}$  is a right ideal of  $R$ .

Let  $I = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow C\}$ . Then  $I$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$  by Example 2.1.5. To show that  $I$  is a right ideal of  $R$ , let  $r \in R$ ,  $f \in I$ ,  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  and  $x \in A$ . Then  $(f\alpha r)(x) = f(\alpha(r(x))) \in f(\alpha(r(A))) \subseteq f(\alpha(B)) \subseteq f(A) \subseteq C$  so that  $f\alpha r \in I$ .

In Example 2.2.1, note that  $I$  may not be an ideal of  $R$  since  $r\alpha f$  need not be an element of  $I$  where  $r \in R$ ,  $f \in I$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

**Example 2.2.2.** Let  $(A, *)$  be a semigroup,  $B$  be a subsemigroup of  $A$  which is not a group,  $C$  be a subsemigroup of  $B$ ,

$$R = \{f : A \rightarrow B \mid f|_C : C \rightarrow C\} \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma = \{\alpha : B \rightarrow A \mid \alpha|_C : C \rightarrow C\}.$$

Then  $\Gamma \neq \emptyset$  and  $(R, +)$  is a semigroup where  $(f + g)(x) = f(x) * g(x)$  for all  $x \in A$ . Furthermore, it can be shown that  $R$  is also a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring under the mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$  by  $(f, \alpha, g) \mapsto f \circ \alpha \circ g$  for all  $f, g \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  where  $\circ$  is the usual composition of functions.

Moreover,  $I = \{f \mid f : A \rightarrow C\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ . It can see that  $I$  is a right ideal of  $R$  from the above example. To show that  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$ , let  $r \in R$ ,  $f \in I$ ,  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  and  $x \in A$ . Then  $(r\alpha f)(x) = r(\alpha(f(x))) \in r(\alpha(f(A))) \subseteq r(\alpha(C)) \subseteq r(C) \subseteq C$  so that  $r\alpha f \in I$ .

**Proposition 2.2.1.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. If  $I$  is a left ideal, a right ideal or an ideal of  $R$ , then  $I$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* This is obvious. □

**Proposition 2.2.2.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. If  $A$  and  $B$  are a right ideal and a left ideal of  $R$ , respectively, then  $A\Gamma B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* Assume that  $A$  and  $B$  are a right ideal and a left ideal of  $R$ , respectively. By Theorem 2.1.1,  $A\Gamma B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$ . Moreover, for each  $\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i, \sum c_j \gamma_j d_j \in A\Gamma B$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ ,  $(\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i) \beta (\sum c_j \gamma_j d_j) \in A\Gamma B$  since  $A$  and  $B$  are a right ideal and a left ideal of  $R$ , respectively. Therefore,  $A\Gamma B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ . □

**Proposition 2.2.3.** *Let  $I$  be a subsemigroup of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$ . Then  $I$  is a left (right) ideal of  $R$  if and only if  $R\Gamma I \subseteq I$  ( $I\Gamma R \subseteq I$ ).*

*Proof.* If  $I$  is a left (right) ideal of  $R$ , then  $R\Gamma I \subseteq I$  ( $I\Gamma R \subseteq I$ ) since each  $r_i \alpha_i x \in I$  so that  $\sum r_i \alpha_i x \in I$  ( $\sum x \alpha_i r_i \in I$ ) where  $r_i \in R$ ,  $x \in I$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$ .

Next, it is enough to assume that  $R\Gamma I \subseteq I$ . For each  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in I$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ , we see that  $r\alpha x \in R\Gamma I \subseteq I$ . Thus  $I$  is a left ideal of  $R$ . □

Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Then  $R$  must be a semigroup. If the semigroup  $R$  also contains the identity  $0$ , then it is interesting to know whether  $\{0\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ .

**Proposition 2.2.4.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring with identity  $0$ . Then  $R$  is zero-symmetric if and only if  $\{0\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ .*

The ideal  $\{0\}$  is called the *zero ideal* of  $R$ .

*Proof.* It is clear that if  $R$  is zero-symmetric, then  $\{0\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ .

Conversely, assume that  $\{0\}$  is an ideal of  $R$ . For each  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ , we see that  $0\alpha x, x\alpha 0 \in \{0\}$  so that  $0\alpha x = 0 = x\alpha 0$ . Therefore  $R$  is zero-symmetric.  $\square$

We investigate variety of left ideals, right ideals and ideals of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings.

**Theorem 2.2.5.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.*

- (i) *For each  $a \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ ,  $R\alpha a$  ( $a\alpha R$ ) is a left (right) ideal of  $R$ .*
- (ii) *If  $A$  is a nonempty subset of  $R$  and  $B$  is a right ideal of  $R$ , then  $A\Gamma B$  is a right ideal of  $R$ .*
- (iii) *If  $A$  and  $B$  are left (right) ideals of  $R$  such that  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ , then  $A \cap B$  is a left (right) ideal of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* (i) Let  $a \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $R\alpha a$  and  $a\alpha R$  are subsemigroups of  $R$ . Obviously, if  $x, r \in R$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ , then  $r\beta(x\alpha a) = (r\beta x)\alpha a \in R\alpha a$ . Therefore  $R\alpha a$  is a left ideal of  $R$ .

To show that  $a\alpha R$  is a right ideal of  $R$ , let  $r \in R$ ,  $y \in a\alpha R$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ . Then  $y = \sum a\alpha r_i$  where  $r_i \in R$  for all  $i$ . Thus  $y\beta r = (\sum a\alpha r_i)\beta r = \sum (a\alpha r_i)\beta r = \sum a\alpha(r_i\beta r) \in a\alpha R$ . Therefore  $a\alpha R$  is a right ideal of  $R$ .

(ii) Let  $A$  be a nonempty subset of  $R$  and  $B$  a right ideal of  $R$ . Then  $A\Gamma B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$  from Proposition 2.1.1. Next, let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in A\Gamma B$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ . Thus  $x = \sum a_i\alpha_i b_i$  where  $a_i \in A$ ,  $b_i \in B$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i$ . Moreover,  $x\beta r = (\sum a_i\alpha_i b_i)\beta r = \sum (a_i\alpha_i b_i)\beta r = \sum a_i\alpha_i (b_i\beta r) \in A\Gamma B$ . Thus  $A\Gamma B$  is a right ideal of  $R$ .

(iii) Assume that  $A$  and  $B$  are left ideals of  $R$  with  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$ . Clearly,  $A \cap B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$ . Let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in A \cap B$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $r\alpha x \in A$

and  $r\alpha x \in B$  since  $A$  and  $B$  are left ideals of  $R$  so that  $r\alpha x \in A \cap B$ .  
Hence  $A \cap B$  is a left ideal of  $R$ .

The proof for the case of right ideals is obtained similarly. □

We can see from Theorem 2.2.5(iii) that  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$  may not hold if  $A$  and  $B$  are both left ideals or both right ideals of  $R$ . However, if  $A$  and  $B$  is a left ideal and a right ideal of  $R$ , respectively (or  $A$  and  $B$  is a right ideal and a left ideal of  $R$ , respectively), then  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$  since  $b\alpha a \in A \cap B$  for all  $a \in A$ ,  $b \in B$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$  ( $a\alpha b \in A \cap B$  for all  $a \in A$ ,  $b \in B$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ ).

**Corollary 2.2.6.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Then  $a\Gamma R$ ,  $(a\Gamma R)\Gamma R$  and  $(R\Gamma a)\Gamma R$  are right ideals of  $R$  for any  $a \in R$ .*

*Proof.* This follows directly from Theorem 2.2.5 (ii) since  $R$  is a right ideal of  $R$ . □

Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring,  $a \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . We see that  $a\alpha R$  and  $a\Gamma R$  are right ideals of  $R$ . However,  $R\alpha a$  is a left ideal of  $R$  but  $R\Gamma a$  need not be a left ideal of  $R$  since it is not necessary that  $r\beta(\sum r_i\alpha_i a) = \sum r\beta(r_i\alpha_i a)$  for all  $r, r_i \in R$  and  $\beta, \alpha_i \in \Gamma$ . Nevertheless, if  $R$  satisfies the left distributivity, then  $R\Gamma a$  is; definitely, a left ideal of  $R$  because  $r\beta(\sum r_i\alpha_i a) = \sum r\beta(r_i\alpha_i a) = \sum (r\beta r_i)\alpha_i a \in R\Gamma a$  for all  $r, r_i \in R$  and  $\beta, \alpha_i \in \Gamma$ . However, we can weaken the condition that  $R$  satisfies the left distributivity and still obtain the same result. The idea of distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings is needed.

Conveniently, we write  $na$  instead of  $\overbrace{a + \cdots + a}^n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and for each element  $a$  of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.



**Definition 2.2.2.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring under the mapping from  $R \times \Gamma \times R$  into  $R$ , say  $f$ , and  $D$  be the set of all *distributive elements* of  $R$ , i.e.,  $D = \{d \in R \mid d\alpha(a + b) = d\alpha a + d\alpha b \text{ for all } a, b \in R \text{ and } \alpha \in \Gamma\}$ . Then  $R$  is called *distributively generated* (or *d.g.* for short) if  $D$  is a nonempty subset of  $R$  which  $f|_{D \times \Gamma \times D} : D \times \Gamma \times D \rightarrow D$  and  $(\langle D \rangle, +) = (R, +)$  where

$$\langle D \rangle = \left\{ \sum n_i d_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } d_i \in D \text{ for all } i \right\}$$

where  $\sum n_i d_i \in \langle D \rangle$  is a finite sum.

In fact,  $\langle D \rangle = \left\{ \sum d_i \mid d_i \in D \right\}$  where all  $d_i$ 's in  $\sum d_i$  may not be distinct. In addition,  $(\langle D \rangle, +) = (R, +)$  means that every element in  $R$  can be written as a finite sum of distributive elements.

The following proposition shows the importance of the distributively generated property on the associative property of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

**Proposition 2.2.7.** *Let  $R$  be a distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $B$  and  $C$  be both nonempty subsets of  $R$ . Then  $R\Gamma(B\Gamma C) = (R\Gamma B)\Gamma C$ .*

*Proof.* It suffices to show only that  $R\Gamma(B\Gamma C) \subseteq (R\Gamma B)\Gamma C$  as a result of Proposition 2.1.2. Let  $x \in R\Gamma(B\Gamma C)$ . Then  $x = \sum r_i \alpha_i (\sum b_j \beta_j c_j)$  for some  $r_i \in R$ ,  $b_j \in B$ ,  $c_j \in C$  and  $\alpha_i, \beta_j \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j$ . Since  $R$  is d.g., each  $r_i$  can be written as  $\sum d_{ki}$  where all  $d_{ki}$ 's are distributive elements of  $R$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sum \left( \sum d_{ki} \right) \alpha_i \left( \sum b_j \beta_j c_j \right) \\ &= \sum \sum \left( d_{ki} \alpha_i \left( \sum b_j \beta_j c_j \right) \right) \\ &= \sum \sum \sum \left( d_{ki} \alpha_i (b_j \beta_j c_j) \right) \quad \text{since each } d_{ki} \text{ is a distributive element of } R \\ &= \sum \sum \sum \left( (d_{ki} \alpha_i b_j) \beta_j c_j \right) \\ &\in (R\Gamma B)\Gamma C \quad \text{since } (d_{ki} \alpha_i b_j) \beta_j c_j \in (R\Gamma B)\Gamma C \text{ for all } i, j, k. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the claim is proved so  $R\Gamma(B\Gamma C) = (R\Gamma B)\Gamma C$ .  $\square$

As in Proposition 2.2.7, in fact,  $R\Gamma(b\Gamma C) = (R\Gamma b)\Gamma C$ ,  $R\Gamma(B\Gamma c) = (R\Gamma B)\Gamma c$  and  $R\Gamma(b\Gamma c) = (R\Gamma b)\Gamma c$  where  $b$  and  $c$  are any elements of  $R$ .

Furthermore, for each element  $a$  of  $R$ , we have  $(a\Gamma B)\Gamma C \subseteq a\Gamma(B\Gamma C)$  by Proposition 2.1.2; however,  $a\Gamma(B\Gamma C) \subseteq (a\Gamma B)\Gamma C$  holds when  $a$  is a distributive element of  $R$  which can be shown in the same manner as the proof of Proposition 2.2.7.

Now, we are ready to provide when  $R\Gamma a$  is a left ideal of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  containing  $a$ .

**Theorem 2.2.8.** *Let  $R$  be a distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.*

(i) *If  $A$  is a left ideal of  $R$  and  $B$  is a nonempty subset of  $R$ , then  $A\Gamma B$  is a left ideal of  $R$ .*

(ii) *If  $A$  is a left ideal and  $B$  is a right ideal of  $R$ , then  $A\Gamma B$  is an ideal of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* (i) Let  $A$  be a left ideal of  $R$  and  $B$  be a nonempty subset of  $R$ .

Then  $A\Gamma B$  is a subsemigroup of  $R$ . Moreover, let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in A\Gamma B$  and  $\beta \in \Gamma$ . Then  $x = \sum a_i \alpha_i b_i$  where  $a_i \in A$ ,  $b_i \in B$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i$ . Since  $R$  is d.g., we have  $r = \sum d_k$  where  $d_k$  is a distributive element for all  $k$ . Thus  $r\beta x = (\sum d_k)\beta(\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i) = \sum (d_k \beta(\sum a_i \alpha_i b_i)) = \sum \sum (d_k \beta(a_i \alpha_i b_i))$  because each  $d_k$  is a distributive element of  $R$ . Then  $r\beta x = \sum \sum (d_k \beta(a_i \alpha_i b_i)) = \sum \sum ((d_k \beta a_i) \alpha_i b_i) \in A\Gamma B$  since  $A$  is a left ideal of  $R$ . Thus  $A\Gamma B$  is a left ideal of  $R$ .

(ii) This is a result of (i) and Theorem 2.2.5 (ii).

$\square$

**Corollary 2.2.9.** *Let  $R$  be a distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $a \in R$ . Then  $R\Gamma a$  and  $R\Gamma(R\Gamma a)$  are left ideals of  $R$ . Furthermore,  $R\Gamma R$ ,  $(R\Gamma a)\Gamma R$  and  $R\Gamma(a\Gamma R)$  are ideals of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* This follows directly from Theorem 2.2.8 and Corollary 2.2.6. □

Besides, in Corollary 2.2.9, the ideals  $(R\Gamma a)\Gamma R$  and  $R\Gamma(a\Gamma R)$  are actually the same by Proposition 2.2.7.

For a given  $\Gamma$ -seminearring, the principal left ideals, principal right ideals and principal ideals are able to be studied.

**Definition 2.2.3.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $a \in R$ . Then the smallest left (right) ideal containing  $a$  is called *the principal left (right) ideal generated by  $a$*  and is denoted by  $\langle a |$  ( $|a \rangle$ ). Similarly, the smallest ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$  is called *the principal ideal generated by  $a$*  and is denoted by  $\langle a \rangle$ .

**Theorem 2.2.10.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Then for each element  $a$  of  $R$ ,*

$$\begin{aligned}
 |a \rangle = & \left\{ pa \mid p \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^l a\beta_j s_j \mid l \in \mathbb{N}, s_j \in R \text{ and } \beta_j \in \Gamma \text{ for all } j \right\} \\
 & \cup \left\{ na + \sum_{i=1}^m a\alpha_i r_i \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}, r_i \in R \text{ and } \alpha_i \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i \right\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* Let  $L = \{pa \mid p \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{\sum_{j=1}^l a\beta_j s_j \mid l \in \mathbb{N}, s_j \in R \text{ and } \beta_j \in \Gamma \text{ for all } j\} \cup \{na + \sum_{i=1}^m a\alpha_i r_i \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}, r_i \in R \text{ and } \alpha_i \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i\}$ . First, we show that  $L$  is a right ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$ . Notice that  $L \neq \emptyset$  since  $a = 1a \in L$ . Moreover, it is clear that  $x + y \in L$  for any  $x, y \in L$ . Next, let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in L$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $x = pa$  or  $x = \sum a\beta_j s_j$  or  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i$  where  $p, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $s_j, r_i \in R$  and  $\beta_j, \alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j$ . Without loss of generality, only the case

when  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i$  is considered here since the proofs of other cases are obtained similarly. We see that

$$\begin{aligned}
 x\alpha r &= \left( na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i \right) \alpha r \\
 &= (na)\alpha r + \sum ((a\alpha_i r_i)\alpha r) \\
 &= \left( \overbrace{a + \cdots + a}^n \right) \alpha r + \sum (a\alpha_i (r_i \alpha r)) \\
 &= \left( \overbrace{a\alpha r + \cdots + a\alpha r}^n \right) + \sum (a\alpha_i (r_i \alpha r)) \\
 &= n(a\alpha r) + \sum (a\alpha_i (r_i \alpha r)) \in L
 \end{aligned}$$

since both of  $n(a\alpha r)$  and  $\sum (a\alpha_i (r_i \alpha r))$  are of the form  $\sum a\beta_j s_j$  where  $s_j \in R$  and  $\beta_j \in \Gamma$  for all  $j$ . This shows that  $L$  is a right ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$  as desired. Hence  $|a\rangle \subseteq L$ .

Next, to show that  $L \subseteq |a\rangle$ , let  $x \in L$ . Then  $x = pa$  or  $x = \sum a\beta_j s_j$  or  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i$  for some  $p, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $s_j, r_i \in R$  and  $\beta_j, \alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j$ . We consider when  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i$  only. Since  $|a\rangle$  is a right ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$ , this implies that  $na, a\alpha_i r_i \in |a\rangle$  for all  $i$  so that  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i \in |a\rangle$ . Thus  $L \subseteq |a\rangle$ .

Consequently,  $L = |a\rangle$ . □

**Theorem 2.2.11.** *Let  $R$  be a distributively generated  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. For each element  $a$  of  $R$ ,*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle a \rangle &= \left\{ pa \mid p \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^l s_j \beta_j a \mid l \in \mathbb{N}, s_j \in R \text{ and } \beta_j \in \Gamma \text{ for all } j \right\} \\
 &\quad \cup \left\{ na + \sum_{i=1}^m r_i \alpha_i a \mid n, m \in \mathbb{N}, r_i \in R \text{ and } \alpha_i \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i \right\} \quad \text{and}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle a \rangle = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \quad \text{where} \quad A_1 = \{pa \mid p \in \mathbb{N}\},$$

$$A_2 = \left\{ \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j \beta_j a + \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \mid r_i, s_j, u_k, v_k \in R, \right. \\ \left. \alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k, \lambda_k \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i, j, k \right\}$$

$$A_3 = \left\{ na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j \beta_j a + \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, r_i, s_j, u_k, v_k \in R, \right. \\ \left. \alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k, \lambda_k \in \Gamma \text{ for all } i, j, k \right\}.$$

Here, those  $\sum a\alpha_i r_i$ ,  $\sum s_j \beta_j a$  and  $\sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k$  are finite sums whose lengths are not necessary the same.

*Proof.* We prove that  $\langle a \rangle = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$  only since the first result can be shown similarly. Let  $I = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ . We show that  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$  so that  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq I$ , then we show that  $I \subseteq \langle a \rangle$ .

Clearly,  $a \in A_1$  and  $x + y \in I$  for all  $x, y \in I$ . Let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in I$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . This implies that  $x \in A_1$  or  $x \in A_2$  or  $x \in A_3$ . Without loss of generality, we consider only the case that  $x \in A_3$ . Then  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j \beta_j a + \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $r_i, s_j, u_k, v_k \in R$  and  $\alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k, \lambda_k \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j, k$ . The fact that  $x\alpha r \in A_2 \subseteq I$  is obtained in the same manner of the proof showing that " $x\alpha r \in L$ " in Theorem 2.2.10. It remains to explain that  $r\alpha x \in I$ . Since  $R$  is d.g., we can write  $r$  as  $\sum d_l$  where each  $d_l$  is a distributive element of  $R$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} r\alpha x &= \left( \sum d_l \right) \alpha \left( na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j \beta_j a + \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \right) \\ &= \sum \left( d_l \alpha \left( na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j \beta_j a + \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \right) \right) \\ &= \sum \left( d_l \alpha (na) + d_l \alpha \left( \sum a\alpha_i r_i \right) + d_l \alpha \left( \sum s_j \beta_j a \right) + d_l \alpha \left( \sum u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \right) \right) \\ &= \sum \left( d_l \alpha \left( \overbrace{a + \cdots + a}^n \right) + \sum d_l \alpha (a\alpha_i r_i) + \sum d_l \alpha (s_j \beta_j a) + \sum d_l \alpha (u_k \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k) \right) \\ &= \sum \left( \left( \overbrace{d_l \alpha a + \cdots + d_l \alpha a}^n \right) + \sum d_l \alpha a \alpha_i r_i + \sum (d_l \alpha s_j) \beta_j a + \sum (d_l \alpha u_k) \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \right) \\ &= \sum \left( n(d_l \alpha a) + \sum d_l \alpha a \alpha_i r_i + \sum (d_l \alpha s_j) \beta_j a + \sum (d_l \alpha u_k) \gamma_k a \lambda_k v_k \right) \\ &\in I \end{aligned}$$



since each of  $n(d_i\alpha a)$ ,  $\sum d_i\alpha a\alpha_i r_i$ ,  $\sum (d_i\alpha s_j)\beta_j a$  and  $\sum (d_i\alpha u_k)\gamma_k a\lambda_k v_k$  is an element of  $A_2$ . We conclude that  $I$  is an ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$ . Thus  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq I$ .

Finally, in order to prove that  $I \subseteq \langle a \rangle$ , let  $x \in I$ . Without loss of generality,  $x = na + \sum a\alpha_i r_i + \sum s_j\beta_j a + \sum u_k\gamma_k a\lambda_k v_k$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $r_i, s_j, u_k, v_k \in R$  and  $\alpha_i, \beta_j, \gamma_k, \lambda_k \in \Gamma$  for all  $i, j, k$ . Since  $\langle a \rangle$  is an ideal of  $R$  containing  $a$ , this implies that  $na$ ,  $a\alpha_i r_i$ ,  $s_j\beta_j a$  and  $u_k\gamma_k a\lambda_k v_k$  are elements of  $\langle a \rangle$  for all  $i, j, k$ . Then  $x \in \langle a \rangle$  so that  $I \subseteq \langle a \rangle$ .

As a result,  $I = \langle a \rangle$ . □

The notion of prime ideals of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings and prime  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings is also reasonable to be investigated.

**Definition 2.2.4.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. An ideal  $P$  of  $R$  is called a *prime ideal* if  $A\Gamma B \subseteq P$  implies  $A \subseteq P$  or  $B \subseteq P$  for any ideals  $A$  and  $B$  of  $R$ .

Furthermore, if  $R$  is zero-symmetric, then  $R$  is called a *prime  $\Gamma$ -seminearring* if the zero ideal is prime.

**Theorem 2.2.12.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $P$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then  $P$  is prime if and only if  $\langle a \rangle \Gamma \langle b \rangle \subseteq P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for all  $a, b \in R$ .

*Proof.* Let  $P$  be prime and  $a, b \in R$ . Assume that  $\langle a \rangle \Gamma \langle b \rangle \subseteq P$ . Since  $P$  is prime, this implies that  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ .

On the other hand, assume that  $\langle a \rangle \Gamma \langle b \rangle \subseteq P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for all  $a, b \in R$ . To show that  $P$  is prime, let  $A$  and  $B$  be ideals of  $R$  such that  $A\Gamma B \subseteq P$ . Suppose that  $A \not\subseteq P$ . Then there exists  $a \in A$  but  $a \notin P$ . Let  $b \in B$ . Thus  $\langle a \rangle \Gamma \langle b \rangle \subseteq A\Gamma B \subseteq P$ . From the assumption,  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$ . Since  $a \notin P$ , this implies that  $b \in P$ . Thus  $B \subseteq P$ .

Consequently,  $P$  is prime. □

Let  $P$  be an ideal of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$ . The necessary condition for  $P$  to be prime can be regarded only from principal left ideals or principal right ideals of  $R$  rather than from principal ideals of  $R$ .

**Theorem 2.2.13.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $P$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then  $P$  is prime if  $|a\rangle\Gamma|b\rangle \subseteq P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for any  $a, b \in R$ .*

*Proof.* Assume that if  $|a\rangle\Gamma|b\rangle \subseteq P$ , then  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for any  $a, b \in R$ . To show that  $P$  is prime, let  $A$  and  $B$  be ideals of  $R$  such that  $A\Gamma B \subseteq P$  but  $A \not\subseteq P$ . Then there exists  $a \in A$  but  $a \notin P$ . Let  $b \in B$ . Thus  $|a\rangle\Gamma|b\rangle \subseteq A\Gamma B \subseteq P$ . This implies that  $b \in P$  so that  $B \subseteq P$ . Therefore  $P$  is prime.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.2.14.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $P$  an ideal of  $R$ . Then  $P$  is prime if  $\langle a|\Gamma|b\rangle \subseteq P$  implies  $a \in P$  or  $b \in P$  for all  $a, b \in R$ .*

*Proof.* The proof is analogous to the one of Theorem 2.2.13.  $\square$

Finally, in this section, we show that the nonempty intersection of ideals of a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring with at least one prime ideal is still a prime ideal.

**Theorem 2.2.15.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring,  $B$  an ideal of  $R$  and  $P$  a prime ideal of  $R$ . Then  $B \cap P$  is a prime ideal of  $B$ .*

*Proof.* We can see that  $B \cap P$  is a nonempty subset of  $R$ . It follows from Theorem 2.2.5(iii) that  $B \cap P$  is an ideal of  $R$  and then it is an ideal of  $B$ . To show that  $B \cap P$  is prime, let  $A$  and  $C$  be ideals of  $B$  such that  $A\Gamma C \subseteq B \cap P$ . This implies that  $A\Gamma C \subseteq B$  and  $A\Gamma C \subseteq P$ . Since  $P$  is prime,  $A \subseteq P$  or  $C \subseteq P$ . Thus  $A \subseteq B \cap P$  or  $C \subseteq B \cap P$ . Therefore  $B \cap P$  is a prime ideal of  $B$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.2.16.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring,  $B$  and  $P$  prime ideals of  $R$ . Then  $B \cap P$  is a prime ideal of  $R$ .*

*Proof.* Clearly,  $B \cap P$  is a nonempty subset of  $R$ . By Theorem 2.2.5(iii),  $B \cap P$  is an ideal of  $R$ . To show that  $B \cap P$  is prime, let  $A$  and  $C$  be ideals of  $R$  such that  $A\Gamma C \subseteq B \cap P$ . This implies that  $A\Gamma C \subseteq B$  and  $A\Gamma C \subseteq P$ . Since  $B$  and  $P$  are prime, this implies that  $A \subseteq B \cap P$  or  $C \subseteq B \cap P$ . Therefore  $B \cap P$  is a prime ideal of  $R$ .  $\square$

### 2.3 $\Gamma$ -Homomorphisms

The final section is assigned to explore  $\Gamma$ -homomorphisms of  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings. The quotient  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings are defined and the first isomorphism theorem for this new  $\Gamma$ -structure is obtained.

**Definition 2.3.1.** Let  $R$  and  $S$  be  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings and  $\theta$  a map from  $R$  into  $S$ . Then  $\theta$  is called a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism if  $\theta(x + y) = \theta(x) + \theta(y)$  and  $\theta(x\alpha y) = \theta(x)\alpha\theta(y)$  for all  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

Besides, the *image* of the  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism  $\theta$ , denoted by  $\text{im } \theta$ , is defined in the usual way as follows:  $\text{im } \theta = \{\theta(x) \mid x \in R\}$ .

Furthermore, the  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism  $\theta$  is called a  $\Gamma$ -isomorphism if  $\theta$  is also a bijection and in this case we say that  $R$  and  $S$  are  $\Gamma$ -isomorphic.

Throughout this thesis, “ $\theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ ” means that  $\theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $R$  into a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring  $S$ .

**Definition 2.3.2.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Then  $R$  is said to be *commutative* if  $x\alpha y = y\alpha x$  for all  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

We give elementary properties of  $\Gamma$ -homomorphisms.

**Proposition 2.3.1.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ .*

- (i) *If  $A$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ , then  $\theta(A)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$ .*
- (ii) *If  $B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$  and  $\theta^{-1}(B) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .*
- (iii)  *$\text{im } \theta$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$ .*
- (iv) *If  $R$  is commutative, then so is  $\text{im } \theta$ .*

*Proof.* (i) Assume that  $A$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ . Obviously,  $\theta(A)$  is a nonempty subset of  $S$ . Let  $a, b \in A$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(a) + \theta(b) = \theta(a+b) \in \theta(A)$  and  $\theta(a)\alpha\theta(b) = \theta(a\alpha b) \in \theta(A)$  since  $A$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Thus  $\theta(A)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$ .

(ii) Assume that  $B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$  and  $\theta^{-1}(B) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $x, y \in \theta^{-1}(B)$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(x), \theta(y) \in B$ . Since  $\theta(x+y) = \theta(x) + \theta(y) \in B$  and  $\theta(x\alpha y) = \theta(x)\alpha\theta(y) \in B$  because  $B$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. This implies that  $x+y, x\alpha y \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ . Thus  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ .

(iii) This follows from (i) and the fact that  $\text{im } \theta = \theta(R)$ .

(iv) If  $R$  is commutative, then  $\theta(a)\alpha\theta(b) = \theta(a\alpha b) = \theta(b\alpha a) = \theta(b)\alpha\theta(a)$  for any  $a, b \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Thus  $\text{im } \theta$  is commutative.

□

For  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings  $R$  and  $S$  having the identities  $0_R$  and  $0_S$ , respectively, and for a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism  $\theta$  from  $R$  into  $S$ , it can be proved that  $\theta(0_R)$  and  $0_S$  are identical providing a particular condition.

**Proposition 2.3.2.** *Let  $R$  and  $S$  be  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings having the identities  $0_R$  and  $0_S$ , respectively,  $\theta$  a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . If the semigroup  $S$  has the left cancellation or the right cancellation, then  $\theta(0_R) = 0_S$ .*

*Proof.* Without loss of generality, assume that the semigroup  $S$  has the left cancellation. Then  $\theta(0_R) + \theta(0_R) = \theta(0_R + 0_R) = \theta(0_R) = \theta(0_R) + 0_S$ . Therefore  $\theta(0_R) = 0_S$ .  $\square$

Unlike the previous fact, a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism sends a left (right) zero and a left (right) identity to a left (right) zero and a left (right) identity, respectively, without additional condition.

**Proposition 2.3.3.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ .*

- (i) *If  $x \in R$  is a left (right) zero of  $R$ , then  $\theta(x)$  is a left (right) zero of  $\theta(R)$ .*
- (ii) *If  $e \in R$  is a left (right) identity of  $R$ , then  $\theta(e)$  is a left (right) identity of  $\theta(R)$ .*

*Proof.* (i) Let  $x \in R$  be a left zero,  $y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(x)\alpha\theta(y) = \theta(x\alpha y) = \theta(x)$ , i.e.,  $\theta(x)$  is a left zero of  $\theta(R)$ .

(ii) Let  $e \in R$  be a left identity,  $x \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(e)\alpha\theta(x) = \theta(e\alpha x) = \theta(x)$  so that  $\theta(e)$  is a left identity of  $\theta(R)$ .

The proofs for the cases of right zeros and right identities are obtained analogously.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.3.4.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ .*

- (i) *If  $R$  has the zero, then  $\theta(R)$  has the zero.*
- (ii) *If  $R$  has the identity, then  $\theta(R)$  has the identity.*



*Proof.* This follows directly from Proposition 2.3.3, Proposition 2.1.3 and Proposition 2.1.4.  $\square$

More properties of  $\Gamma$ -homomorphisms are provided.

**Proposition 2.3.5.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . If  $A$  and  $B$  are nonempty subsets of  $R$ , then  $\theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B) = \theta(A\Gamma B)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $A$  and  $B$  be nonempty subsets of  $R$ . To show that  $\theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B) \subseteq \theta(A\Gamma B)$ , let  $x \in \theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B)$ . Then  $x = \sum (\theta(a_i)\alpha_i\theta(b_i))$  where  $a_i \in A$ ,  $b_i \in B$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i$ . Since  $\theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism,  $x = \sum (\theta(a_i)\alpha_i\theta(b_i)) = \sum \theta(a_i\alpha_i b_i) = \theta(\sum (a_i\alpha_i b_i)) \in \theta(A\Gamma B)$ . Thus  $\theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B) \subseteq \theta(A\Gamma B)$ .

On the other hand, let  $x \in \theta(A\Gamma B)$ . Then  $x = \theta(\sum a_i\alpha_i b_i)$  where  $a_i \in A$ ,  $b_i \in B$  and  $\alpha_i \in \Gamma$  for all  $i$ . Moreover,  $x = \theta(\sum a_i\alpha_i b_i) = \sum \theta(a_i\alpha_i b_i) = \sum (\theta(a_i)\alpha_i\theta(b_i)) \in \theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B)$ . This shows that  $\theta(A\Gamma B) \subseteq \theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B)$ .

As a result,  $\theta(A)\Gamma\theta(B) = \theta(A\Gamma B)$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 2.3.6.** *Let  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  be  $\Gamma$ -homomorphisms from  $R$  into  $S$  and from  $S$  into  $T$ , respectively. Then  $\phi \circ \theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $T$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\phi \circ \theta)(x + y) &= \phi(\theta(x) + \theta(y)) = \phi(\theta(x)) + \phi(\theta(y)) = (\phi \circ \theta)(x) + (\phi \circ \theta)(y) \text{ and} \\ (\phi \circ \theta)(x\alpha y) &= \phi(\theta(x)\alpha\theta(y)) = \phi(\theta(x))\alpha\phi(\theta(y)) = ((\phi \circ \theta)(x))\alpha((\phi \circ \theta)(y)). \end{aligned}$$

As a result,  $\phi \circ \theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $T$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.3.7.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ .*

(i) *If  $A$  is a left (right) ideal of  $R$ , then  $\theta(A)$  is a left (right) ideal of  $\theta(R)$ .*

(ii) If  $B$  is a left (right) ideal of  $S$  and  $\theta^{-1}(B) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is a left (right) ideal of  $R$ .

(iii) If  $A$  is an ideal of  $R$ , then  $\theta(A)$  is an ideal of  $\theta(R)$ .

(iv) If  $B$  is an ideal of  $S$  and  $\theta^{-1}(B) \neq \emptyset$ , then  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is an ideal of  $R$ .

*Proof.* (i) Assume that  $A$  is a left ideal of  $R$ . Then  $A$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ . By Proposition 2.3.1,  $\theta(A)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$ . Let  $r \in R$ ,  $a \in A$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(r)\alpha\theta(a) = \theta(r\alpha a) \in \theta(A)$  since  $\theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism and  $A$  is left ideal of  $R$ . Therefore  $\theta(A)$  is a left ideal of  $\theta(R)$ .

The proof for the case right ideals is obtained similarly.

(ii) Assume that  $B$  is a left ideal of  $S$  and  $\theta^{-1}(B) \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $B$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $S$ . Proposition 2.3.1 gives that  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is a sub  $\Gamma$ -seminearring of  $R$ . Let  $r \in R$ ,  $x \in \theta^{-1}(B)$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then  $\theta(r\alpha x) = \theta(r)\alpha\theta(x) \in B$  so that  $r\alpha x \in \theta^{-1}(B)$ . Therefore  $\theta^{-1}(B)$  is a left ideal of  $R$ .

The proof for the case right ideals follows analogously from the above proof.

(iii) and (iv) are immediate results of (i) and (ii), respectively.  $\square$

It is appropriate place to introduce quotient  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings and explore related properties.

**Theorem 2.3.8.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $I$  an ideal of the semigroup  $R$ . Then the Rees quotient semigroup  $R/I$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.*

*Proof.* Recall that  $R$  is also a semigroup so that  $R/I$  is a semigroup by Theorem 1.2.2. Next, define a mapping  $R/I \times \Gamma \times R/I \rightarrow R/I$  by  $(x + I, \alpha, y + I) \mapsto (x\alpha y) + I$  for all  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

Let  $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 \in R$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ . Assume that  $x_1 + I = x_2 + I$  and  $y_1 + I = y_2 + I$ . Then  $x_1 = x_2$  or  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  and  $y_1 = y_2$  or  $y_1, y_2 \in I$ , respectively. If  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  and  $y_1, y_2 \in I$ , then  $x_1\alpha y_1, x_2\alpha y_2 \in I$ , and then  $x_1\alpha y_1 + I = x_2\alpha y_2 + I$ . For the other cases, they are clear that  $x_1\alpha y_1 + I = x_2\alpha y_2 + I$ . Moreover,  $(x_1 + I)\alpha(y_1 + I) = (x_1\alpha y_1) + I \in R/I$ . Thus this mapping is well-defined. Next, the associativity and the right distributivity are concerned.

We see that

$$\begin{aligned} ((x_1 + I)\alpha(x_2 + I))\beta(y_1 + I) &= ((x_1\alpha x_2)\beta y_1) + I = (x_1\alpha(x_2\beta y_1)) + I \\ &= (x_1 + I)\alpha((x_2 + I)\beta(y_1 + I)) \quad \text{and} \\ ((x_1 + I) + (x_2 + I))\alpha(y_1 + I) &= ((x_1 + x_2)\alpha y_1) + I \\ &= (x_1\alpha y_1 + x_2\alpha y_1) + I \\ &= ((x_1\alpha y_1) + I) + ((x_2\alpha y_1) + I) \\ &= ((x_1 + I)\alpha(y_1 + I)) + ((x_2 + I)\alpha(y_1 + I)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $R/I$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. □

**Definition 2.3.3.** Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $I$  an ideal of the semigroup  $R$ . Then  $R/I$  in Theorem 2.3.8 is called the *quotient  $\Gamma$ -seminearring* of  $R$  by  $I$ .

**Theorem 2.3.9.** Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . Then the relation  $\kappa = \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid \theta(x) = \theta(y)\}$  is a congruence on  $R$ .

*Proof.* It is obvious that  $\kappa$  is an equivalence relation because of the property of the equal relation.

Next, let  $x, y, z \in R$  be such that  $(x, y) \in \kappa$ . Then  $\theta(x) = \theta(y)$ . Since  $\theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism,  $\theta(x + z) = \theta(x) + \theta(z) = \theta(y) + \theta(z) = \theta(y + z)$ . This shows that  $(x + z, y + z) \in \kappa$ . Similarly,  $(z + x, z + y) \in \kappa$ . Therefore,  $\kappa$  is a congruence on  $R$ . □

**Definition 2.3.4.** Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . The *kernel* of  $\theta$ , denoted by  $\ker \theta$ , is defined to be the congruence

$$\ker \theta = \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid \theta(x) = \theta(y)\}.$$

**Theorem 2.3.10.** Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . Then  $R/\ker \theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.

*Proof.* Since  $\ker \theta$  is a congruence on  $R$ , Theorem 1.2.1 gives that  $(R/\ker \theta, +)$  is a semigroup where  $(x + \ker \theta) + (y + \ker \theta) = (x + y) + \ker \theta$  for all  $x, y \in R$ . Define a mapping  $R/\ker \theta \times \Gamma \times R/\ker \theta \rightarrow R/\ker \theta$  by  $(x + \ker \theta, \alpha, y + \ker \theta) \mapsto (x\alpha y) + \ker \theta$  for all  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ .

Let  $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 \in R$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ . Assume that  $x_1 + \ker \theta = x_2 + \ker \theta$  and  $y_1 + \ker \theta = y_2 + \ker \theta$ . Then  $(x_1, x_2), (y_1, y_2) \in \ker \theta$  so that  $\theta(x_1) = \theta(x_2)$  and  $\theta(y_1) = \theta(y_2)$ . Thus  $\theta(x_1\alpha y_1) = \theta(x_1)\alpha\theta(y_1) = \theta(x_2)\alpha\theta(y_2) = \theta(x_2\alpha y_2)$ . Hence  $(x_1\alpha y_1, x_2\alpha y_2) \in \ker \theta$ , so  $(x_1\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta = (x_2\alpha y_2) + \ker \theta$ . We also obtain that  $(x_1 + \ker \theta)\alpha(y_1 + \ker \theta) = (x_1\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta \in R/\ker \theta$ . This shows that the mapping is well-defined.

Let  $x_1, x_2, y_1 \in R$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ . The associativity holds as

$$\begin{aligned} & ((x_1 + \ker \theta)\alpha(x_2 + \ker \theta))\beta(y_1 + \ker \theta) \\ &= ((x_1\alpha x_2)\beta y_1) + \ker \theta \\ &= (x_1\alpha(x_2\beta y_1)) + \ker \theta \\ &= (x_1 + \ker \theta)\alpha((x_2 + \ker \theta)\beta(y_1 + \ker \theta)) \end{aligned}$$

so does the right distributivity because

$$\begin{aligned}
& ((x_1 + \ker \theta) + (x_2 + \ker \theta))\alpha(y_1 + \ker \theta) \\
&= ((x_1 + x_2)\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta \\
&= (x_1\alpha y_1 + x_2\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta \\
&= ((x_1\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta) + ((x_2\alpha y_1) + \ker \theta) \\
&= ((x_1 + \ker \theta)\alpha(y_1 + \ker \theta)) + ((x_2 + \ker \theta)\alpha(y_1 + \ker \theta)).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $R/\ker \theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.3.11.** *Let  $R$  be a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring and  $I$  an ideal of the semigroup  $R$ . Then the map  $\varphi : R \rightarrow R/I$  defined by  $\varphi(r) = r + I$  for all  $r \in R$  is a surjective  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism whose kernel is  $\rho_I$ .*

This  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism is called the *natural (or canonical)  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  onto  $R/I$* .

*Proof.* We see that  $R/I$  forms a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring by Theorem 2.3.8 and the mapping  $\varphi$  is obviously surjective. For all  $x, y \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\varphi(x + y) &= (x + y) + I = (x + I) + (y + I) = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y) \quad \text{and} \\
\varphi(x\alpha y) &= (x\alpha y) + I = (x + I)\alpha(y + I) = \varphi(x)\alpha\varphi(y).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\varphi$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism.

Next, we show that  $\ker \varphi$  and  $\rho_I$  are exactly the same as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\ker \varphi &= \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid \varphi(x) = \varphi(y)\} \\
&= \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid x + I = y + I\} \\
&= \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid [x]_{\rho_I} = [y]_{\rho_I}\} \\
&= \{(x, y) \in R \times R \mid x = y \text{ or } x, y \in I\} = \rho_I.
\end{aligned}$$

$\square$



**Proposition 2.3.12.** *Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$  and  $I$  an ideal of the semigroup  $R$ .*

(i) *If  $R$  is commutative, then  $R/I$  is commutative.*

(ii) *If  $R$  has the identity, then  $R/I$  has the identity.*

(iii) *If  $R$  has the zero, then  $R/I$  has the zero.*

*Proof.* (i) This follows from Theorem 2.3.11 that  $R/I = \varphi(R)$  where  $\varphi$  is the natural  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism and from Proposition 2.3.1(iv).

(ii) and (iii) are benefits of Theorem 2.3.11 and Corollary 2.3.4. □

Finally, the first isomorphism theorem for  $\Gamma$ -seminearrings is given.

**Theorem 2.3.13. (*The First Isomorphism Theorem*)**

*Let  $\theta$  be a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism from  $R$  into  $S$ . Then  $R/\ker \theta$  is  $\Gamma$ -isomorphic to  $\text{im } \theta$ .*

*Proof.* We obtain from Theorem 2.3.10 that  $R/\ker \theta$  is a  $\Gamma$ -seminearring. Define  $\phi : R/\ker \theta \rightarrow \text{im } \theta$  by  $\phi(r + \ker \theta) = \theta(r)$  for all  $r \in R$ . Then  $\phi$  is well-defined since  $\theta(r_1) = \phi(r_1 + \ker \theta) = \phi(r_2 + \ker \theta) = \theta(r_2)$  for any elements  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  of  $R$  such that  $r_1 + \ker \theta = r_2 + \ker \theta$ . Let  $r, s \in R$  and  $\alpha \in \Gamma$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi((r + \ker \theta) + (s + \ker \theta)) &= \phi((r + s) + \ker \theta) = \theta(r + s) \\ &= \theta(r) + \theta(s) = \phi(r + \ker \theta) + \phi(s + \ker \theta) \quad \text{and} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \phi((r + \ker \theta)\alpha(s + \ker \theta)) &= \phi((r\alpha s) + \ker \theta) = \theta(r\alpha s) \\ &= \theta(r)\alpha\theta(s) = \phi(r + \ker \theta)\alpha\phi(s + \ker \theta). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\phi$  is a  $\Gamma$ -homomorphism.

Moreover, if  $\theta(r) = \theta(s)$ , then  $(r, s) \in \ker \theta$  so that  $r + \ker \theta = s + \ker \theta$ . Thus  $\phi$  is one-to-one.

In addition, if  $\theta(r) \in \text{im } \theta$ , then  $r + \ker \theta \in R/\ker \theta$  and  $\phi(r + \ker \theta) = \theta(r)$ . Thus  $\phi$  is onto. Consequently,  $R/\ker \theta$  is  $\Gamma$ -isomorphic to  $\text{im } \theta$ .  $\square$