

# Notes on Serge Lang's Algebra

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# Chapter 1

## Groups

**Theorem 1** (Sylow Theorems). *Let  $G$  be a finite group with  $p$  divides  $|G|$ , where  $p$  is a prime. Then*

1. *There exists a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ .*
2. *The number of Sylow  $p$ -subgroups of  $G$  is congruent to 1 modulo  $p$  and divides  $|G|$ .*
3. *All Sylow  $p$ -subgroups of  $G$  are conjugate.*

*Proof.* If  $H \leq G$  with  $[G : H]$  coprime with  $p$ , then by induction  $H$  and therefore  $G$  contains a Sylow  $p$ -group. Otherwise, by the class equation,

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum_x [G : N_x(G)],$$

it follows  $Z(G)$  is divisible by  $p$  and thus  $\langle g \rangle \leq Z(G)$  for some  $g \in Z(G)$  with exponent  $= p$ . Inducting on the order of  $G$ ,  $G/\langle g \rangle$  contains a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup, say  $S/\langle g \rangle$  that is the image of  $S \leq G$  that is a Sylow  $p$ -subgroup of  $G$ .

Let  $P, Q \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$ .  $P$  does not normalize  $Q$  because otherwise  $PQ \leq G$  and  $p^m = |PQ| > |P|$ , a contradiction. Let  $S = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$  be the conjugates of  $P$  and let  $\mathcal{O}_i$  be the orbit of  $P_i$  by the action  $P$  on the set  $S$  by conjugation. Then  $|\mathcal{O}_i| = [P : N_P(P_i)] = [P : N_G(P_i) \cap P] = [P : P_i \cap P] \implies k = 1 \pmod p$ .

If  $P, Q \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$  are not conjugates, then  $Q$  is not conjugate with conjugates of  $P$ . Consider the action of the elements of  $Q$  on the set  $\{gPg^{-1} : g \in G\} = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\}$ . Then

$$|\mathcal{O}_{P_i}| = [Q : N_Q(P_i)] = [Q : P_i \cap Q],$$

where the latter equality follows because  $P_i(N_G(P_i) \cap Q)$  is a  $p$ -group that contains  $P_i$  with order  $\leq |P_i|$  (a Sylow  $p$ -group) and thus  $N_G(P_i) \cap Q \leq P_i$ . Since  $Q$  is not a conjugate of  $P$ ,  $[Q : Q \cap P_i] = p^k, k > 0$  and  $\mathcal{O}_{P_i}$  is divisible by  $p$  and the number of conjugates of  $P$  which is  $\sum_i |\mathcal{O}_{P_i}| = 0 \pmod p$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** *If  $|G| = pq$  for primes  $p < q$ , then  $G = \mathbb{Z}/pq\mathbb{Z}$  if  $p \nmid q-1$  else  $G = \mathbb{Z}/pq\mathbb{Z}$  of  $G = \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  for some non-trivial semi-direct product.*

*Proof.* If  $q > p$ ,  $n_q = 1$  and thus  $Q \in \text{Syl}_q(G)$  is normal.  $|\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})| = q - 1$ , therefore, there is a nontrivial map  $\phi : \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})$  if  $p \mid q - 1$   $\square$

**Theorem 3** (Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups). *Let  $A$  be a finite abelian group and let  $A(p)$  be the subgroup of all elements with order that is a power of  $p$ . Then*

$$\prod_{A(p) \neq \{1\}} A(p) = A.$$

*Proof.* Clearly the map  $\phi : \prod_p A(p) \rightarrow A$  defined by  $\phi((x_p)) = \prod_p x_p$  is an endomorphism. We show that  $\phi$  is injective and surjective. Let  $\phi((x_p)) = 1$  for some  $x = (x_p) \in \prod_p A(p)$ . Let  $q$  be a prime with  $A(q) \neq \{1\}$ . Then

$$x_q = \prod_{p \neq q} x_p^{-1}.$$

Let  $m$  be the least common multiple of the primes powers on the right hand side, i.e. powers of  $p \neq q$ . Then  $x_q^m = 1$ . But,  $x_q^{q^r} = 1$  too. Consequently,  $x_q^{(m, q^r)} = x_q^1 = x_q = 1$ . Thus  $\prod_p x_p = 1$  iff all  $x_p = 1$  and  $\ker \phi = \{1\}$ .

To prove surjectivity, let  $x \in A$  with  $x^m = 1$  such that  $m = \prod p_i^{r_i}$ . By Euclidean algorithm,  $1 = \sum_i u_i \prod_{j \neq i} p_j^{r_j}$  and thus  $x = \prod_i x^{u_i \prod_{j \neq i} p_j^{r_j}}$  with  $x^{u_i \prod_{j \neq i} p_j^{r_j}} \in A(p_i)$ .  $\square$

**Why nilpotence and the existence of normal Sylow sub-groups are equivalent?** If  $P, Q \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$  then  $N_P(Q) = P \cap Q < P, Q$  and thus  $Z(G)$  is always  $< G$ . Thus  $P = Q \iff G$  nilpotent.

**The number of ways  $G$  acts on  $H$ :**  $= \#$  of homomorphisms from  $G$  to  $\text{Aut}(H) = \#$  subgroups of order  $|G|/|H^*|$ .

**Theorem 4.** *If  $n \geq 5$  then  $S_n$  is not solvable.*

*Proof.* Let  $S_n$  decompose as  $S_n = H_m \supset \dots \supset H_0 = \{1\}$ . Clearly,  $S_n$  contains all 3-cycles. We also know since  $H_n/H_{n-1}$  is abelian  $(abc)(ade)(acb)(aed) = (adebc)(aedcb) = (abd) \in H_{m-1}$ . By induction all 3 cycles are in  $\{1\}$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

**Theorem 5.**  *$A_n$  is simple for all  $n \geq 5$ .*

*A priori:*  $A_n$  can be generated by 3-cycles and 3-cycles are conjugates.

*Proof.* Let  $N \trianglelefteq A_n$ . Let  $\sigma \in N$ . We show that  $\sigma$  is a 3-cycle or  $\sigma = \text{id}$ . The former implies  $N = A_n$  and the latter implies  $N$  is the trivial subgroup. Let  $\sigma$  have the maximal number of fixed points in  $N$ .

Let  $\sigma$ 's orbits have size 2 and it does not fix elements  $i, j$ . If  $\sigma$  is  $(ijk)$  for some  $k$ , we are done. Otherwise,  $\langle \sigma \rangle > \langle (ij)(rs) \rangle$  for some  $r, s$  because  $\sigma$  is an even permutation and not a 3-cycle. Let  $\tau = (rsk)$  for some  $k$ . Then  $\tau' = \tau \sigma \tau^{-1} \sigma^{-1} \in N$ . But  $\tau' = (i, j)\sigma$  contradicting  $\sigma$  fixes the maximal number of points. Thus at least one  $\sigma$ 's orbit has more than 2 elements.

Therefore,  $\sigma = (ijk)(rs)\theta$  where  $\theta$  is possible identity permutation. By similar argument as above picking  $\tau' = (rsk)$ ,  $\sigma$  can not be the element of  $N$  with maximal fixed points unless it contains all of  $A_n$ .  $\square$

## Properties of Common Non-Abelian Groups

- *Dihedral Group*:  $D_{2n}$ 
  - $\cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  acting by inversion
  - $= \{a, b | a^n, b^2, baba\}$
- *Binary Dihedral Group/ Dicyclic Group*:  $\text{DiC}(4n)$ 
  - $\cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  acting by inversion
  - $= \{a, b | a^n, b^4, baba\}$
- *Generalized Quaternions*:  $Q_{2^{n+2}}$ 
  - $\cong \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$  acting by inversion
  - $= \{a, b | a^{2^n}, b^4, baba\}$
- *Holomorph Group*:  $\text{Hol}(G)$ 
  - $\cong G \rtimes \text{Aut}(G)$
  - if  $G$  is  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p$  prime,  $\text{Hol}(G)$  is isomorphic to the *generalized affine group*

## Notes on Category Theory

- A category  $\mathcal{C}$  is a collection of **objects**  $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ , along with a set of maps, called **morphisms** between any two objects  $A, B \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$  denoted by  $\text{Mor}(A, B)$ .
- Morphisms follow the law of composition.
- Three axioms
  1. **CAT 1**  $\text{Mor}(A, B)$  and  $\text{Mor}(A', B')$  are disjoint unless  $(A, B) = (A', B')$ , in which case they are equal.
  2. **CAT 2** For every  $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ , there exists a morphism,  $\text{id}_A$  in  $\text{Mor}(A, A)$  that acts as a left and right identity for the elements of  $\text{Mor}(A, B)$  and  $\text{Mor}(B, A)$  resp. for all  $B$ .
  3. **CAT 3** The law of composition of morphisms is associative.
- The **operation** of a group  $G$  on an object  $A \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$  is a homomorphism from  $G$  to  $\text{Aut}(A)$ . It is also called a **representation**.

- Given a category  $\mathcal{C}$ , we can construct a new category  $\mathcal{D}$  where the objects are the morphisms of  $\mathcal{C}$  and the morphisms between two objects  $f, f'$  are defined by a pair of morphisms  $(\phi, \psi)$  that make the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ \phi \downarrow & & \downarrow \psi \\ A' & \xrightarrow{f'} & B' \end{array}$$

- An object  $P$  of a category  $\mathcal{C}$  is called **universally attracting** (resp. **universally repelling**) if there exists a *unique* morphism from (resp. to) every object to (resp. from)  $P$ . If it is both, it is called **universal object**.



## Chapter 2

# Rings

**Proposition 6.** For two ideals  $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$  of a ring  $A$ , if  $\mathfrak{a} + \mathfrak{b} = A$ , then  $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$ .

*Proof.* Clearly,  $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ . Thus, it suffices to prove the contra-positive relation. Since  $1 = a + b$  for some  $a \in \mathfrak{a}, b \in \mathfrak{b}, c = c \cdot a + c \cdot b$  for all  $c \in A$ . Of course, if  $c \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}$ ,  $c \cdot a + c \cdot b \in \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$ .  $\square$

Let  $A$  be a ring and let  $\lambda : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A$  given by

$$\lambda(n) = \underbrace{1_A + \cdots + 1_A}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

Then  $\ker \lambda = \langle n \rangle$  for some  $n \geq 0$ . If  $\langle n \rangle$  is a prime ideal, then we say  $A$  has characteristic  $n$ .

**Proposition 7.** If  $S$  is a set with more than two elements and  $A$  is a ring with  $1_A \neq 0_A$ , then  $\text{Map}(S, A)$  is not an integral domain.

*Proof.* Let  $\{\} \neq T \subset S$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1_A & \text{if } x \in T \\ 0_A & \text{if } x \in S - T \end{cases} \quad \text{and } g(x) = 1_A - f(x).$$

$$fg = 0_{\text{Map}(S, A)}.$$

$\square$

If  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal in a ring  $A$ , then it means

1.  $A/\mathfrak{p}$  is an integral domain.
2.  $xy \in \mathfrak{p} \implies x \in \mathfrak{p} \text{ or } y \in \mathfrak{p}$ .

The ideal  $\{0_A\}$  is a prime ideal of  $A$  iff  $A$  is an integral domain.

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ )  $A/\{0_A\} \cong A$ , thus  $A$  should be an integral domain.

( $\impliedby$ ). If  $A$  is an integral domain, then  $xy \in \{0_A\} \implies x = \{0_A\}$  or  $y \in \{0_A\}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 8** (Chinese Remainder Theorem). *Let  $\mathfrak{a}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{a}_n$  be ideals of a ring  $A$  such that  $\mathfrak{a}_i + \mathfrak{a}_j = A$  for any  $i \neq j$ . Let  $x_i$  be elements of  $A$ . Then there is an element  $x \in A$  such that  $x \equiv x_i \pmod{\mathfrak{a}_i}$ .*

*Proof.* If  $n = 2$ ,  $A = \mathfrak{a}_1 + \mathfrak{a}_2$ , and thus  $1_A = a_1 + a_2$  for some  $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}_i$ . Then  $x = x_1 a_1 + x_2 a_2$  satisfies the statement.

If  $n > 2$ , then  $a_i + b_i = 1_A$  for some  $a_i \in \mathfrak{a}_i$  and  $b_i \in \mathfrak{a}_{j>1}$ . Thus the product  $\prod_i (a_i + b_i) = 1_A$ . In other words,

$$A = \mathfrak{a}_1 + \prod_{i=2}^n \mathfrak{a}_i.$$

By the case for  $n = 2$ , there is an element  $y_1$  such that,

$$y_1 \equiv 1_A \pmod{\mathfrak{a}_1} \text{ and } y_1 \equiv 0_A \pmod{\left(\prod_{i=2}^n \mathfrak{a}_i\right)}$$

Since  $\prod_{i=2}^n \mathfrak{a}_i \subseteq \bigcap_{i=2}^n \mathfrak{a}_i$ , it follows that  $y_1 \in \mathfrak{a}_i$  for all  $i > 1$  and therefore,  $y \equiv 0_A \pmod{\mathfrak{a}_i}$  for  $i > 1$ . Carrying out the same procedure in similar fashion to obtain  $y_2, \dots, y_n$  such that

$$y_i \equiv 1_A \pmod{\mathfrak{a}_i} \text{ and } y_i \equiv 0_A \pmod{\mathfrak{a}_j, j \neq i},$$

we see that  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$  satisfies the statement of the theorem.  $\square$

A non-zero polynomial  $f$  of degree  $d$  over a commutative ring  $A$  is homogenous iff for every set of  $n + 1$  algebraically independent elements  $u, t_1, \dots, t_n$  over  $A$ ,

$$f(ut_1, \dots, ut_n) = u^d f(t_1, \dots, t_n).$$

*Proof.* Let  $f(X) = \sum_{(v)} a_{(v)} X_1^{v_1} \cdots X_n^{v_n}$ . If  $f$  is homogenous of degree  $d$ ,  $v_1 + \cdots + v_n = d$  for all  $a_{(v)} \neq 0$ .  $f(ut_1, \dots, ut_n) = \sum_{(v)} a_{(v)} (ut_1)^{v_1} \cdots (ut_n)^{v_n}$ . Since  $A$  is commutative, this is equal to  $\sum_{(v)} a_{(v)} u^{v_1 + \cdots + v_n} t_1^{v_1} \cdots t_n^{v_n}$ .

On the other hand, if  $f(ut_1, \dots, ut_n) = u^d f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ , then  $\sum_{(v)} a_{(v)} u^{v_1 + \cdots + v_n} = u^d \sum_{(v)} a_{(v)}$ . This is a polynomial in  $u$  over  $A$  and equality is assured iff  $u^d = u^{v_1 + \cdots + v_n}$ .  $\square$

Let  $G$  be a monoid and let  $A[G]$  be the set of all mappings  $\alpha : G \rightarrow A$  such that  $\alpha(x) = 0$  for almost all  $x \in G$ . Addition is defined ordinarily and multiplication is defined as

$$\alpha\beta(z) = \sum_{xy=z} \alpha(x)\beta(y).$$

Then  $A[G]$  is a ring. A more convenient notation can be achieved if we define  $a \cdot x$  as

$$a \cdot x(z) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } z = x \\ 0 & \text{if otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This way we can define,  $\alpha = \sum_{x \in G} \alpha(x) \cdot x$ , and

$$\left( \sum_{x \in G} a_x \cdot x \right) \left( \sum_{y \in G} b_y \cdot y \right) = \left( \sum_{x,y} a_x b_y \cdot xy \right)$$

$$\left( \sum_{x \in G} a_x \cdot x \right) + \left( \sum_{x \in G} b_x \cdot x \right) = \left( \sum_{x \in G} (a_x + b_x) \cdot x \right),$$

where  $\{a_z\}_{z \in G}, \{b_z\}_{z \in G}$  are the elements of  $A$ , most of them equal to 0.

The injective homomorphisms  $x \mapsto 1_A \cdot x$  and  $a \mapsto a \cdot e$  show that  $G$  and  $A$  are embedded in  $A[G]$ .

Let  $A$  be a commutative ring and  $S$  be a multiplicative subset<sup>1</sup>. For  $a, a' \in A$  and  $s, s' \in S$ , we say

$$(a, s) \sim (a', s')$$

if there is  $s_1 \in S$  such that

$$s_1(as' - sa') = 0.$$

$\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Symmetry and Reflexivity are trivial. Transitivity can be verified as follows. Let  $(a, b) \sim (c, d)$  and  $(c, d) \sim (e, f)$ . Then for some  $s_1, s_2 \in S$ , we have

$$s_1 ad = s_1 bc$$

$$s_2 de = s_2 cf$$

Multiplying both sides of first and the second equation by  $s_2 f$  and  $s_1 b$ , it follows that  $(s_1 s_2 d)(af - be) = 0$ .  $\square$

This construction of ring is called **ring of fraction of  $A$  by  $S$** ,  $S^{-1}A$ . The homomorphism  $A \mapsto S^{-1}A$  defined by  $a \mapsto a/1_A$  is a universal object (See 1). If  $A$  is an integral domain, then  $S^{-1}A$  is the field of fractions.

If  $A$  has a unique maximal ideal, it is called a **local ring**. An interesting example is  $A_{\mathfrak{p}} = S^{-1}A$ , where  $S$  is the multiplicative subset  $A - \mathfrak{p}$ .

## Principal Ideal Domains and Unique Factorization

Let  $A$  be a principal integral domain. We say  $a$  divides  $b$  if  $b = ac$  for some  $c \in A$

**Definition 9.**  $d$  is called the greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  if and only if  $c|a$  and  $c|b \implies c|d$ .

**Proposition 10.** If  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ , then  $ar + bs = d$  for some  $r, s \in A$ .

<sup>1</sup>A subset containing  $1_A$  and closed under multiplication

*Proof.* Let  $a = dx$  and  $b = dy$ . Because  $d$  is a gcd of  $a$  and  $b$ , for  $c \notin A^* c \mid x \implies c \nmid y$  and vice versa, thus  $\gcd(x, y)$  is a unit in  $A$ .

Now,  $A \subseteq \langle x, y \rangle$ . To show that, let  $\langle z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ . Since  $x, y \in \langle x, y \rangle$ ,  $x = w_1 z$  and  $y = w_2 z$ . But then  $z$  should be a unit in  $A$  and thus  $1_A \in \langle x, y \rangle$ . The proposition follows directly.  $\square$

The proof also shows if  $\langle a, b \rangle = \langle c \rangle$ , then  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

**Definition 11.** We call  $p \in A$  **irreducible** if  $p = ab$  for some  $a, b \in A$ , then  $\{a, b\} \cap A^* \neq \emptyset$ . If  $c \in A$  can be written as a product of a unit in  $A$  and a product of some irreducibles in  $A$ , we call the product **a factorization** of  $c$ . If every non-zero element of  $A$  has a unique factorization (upto commutativity) we call  $A$  a **unique factorization domain (UFD)** or **factorial ring**.

**Theorem 12.** If  $A$  is a principal ideal domain, then  $A$  is a UFD.

*Proof.* Existence: Let  $S$  be the set of ideals of  $A$  generated by elements  $a_i$  that don't have factorization. Let  $S \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $\langle a_1 \rangle \in S$ . Consider the chain,

$$\langle a_1 \rangle \subsetneq \langle a_2 \rangle \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq \langle a_n \rangle \subsetneq \cdots$$

Because,  $A$  is a principal ideal domain  $\cup_i \langle a_i \rangle = \langle a \rangle$  for some  $a \in A$ . However,  $\langle a_i \rangle \subsetneq \langle a_{i+1} \rangle$ ,  $a \in \langle a_n \rangle$  for some  $n$  and the chain is finite. Thus if  $\langle a \rangle \subsetneq \langle b \rangle$ , then  $b$  admits factorization.

*Remark 13.* The fact that  $A$  is a principal ideal domain is important in constructing the chain. Consider the following chain if  $A = \mathbb{Q}$ , for example

$$\langle 1/2 \rangle \subsetneq \langle 1/4 \rangle \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq \langle 1/2^n \rangle \subsetneq \cdots$$

The union of these ideals  $= \mathbb{Q}$  which is not a principal ideal.

Now, consider  $a$ . Clearly,  $a$  is not an irreducible. Thus Assume  $a = bc$ . But  $\langle a \rangle \subsetneq \langle b \rangle$ . Thus  $b$  (and also  $c$ ) admits factorization and by induction  $a$  does making  $S$  empty.

Uniqueness First, we prove that irreducibility implies primality. Let  $p$  be irreducible and let  $p \mid ab$ . If  $p \nmid a$  then  $\gcd(a, p) = 1_A$  and  $1_A = ax + py \implies b = abx + pby = p(c'x + by)$  for some  $c$ .

If

$$a = up_1 \cdots p_r = vq_1 \cdots q_s,$$

$p_1 \mid q_1 \cdots q_s$  and WLOG,  $q_1 = u_1 p_1$ . Thus  $up_2 \cdots p_r = vu_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$ . The argument completes by induction.  $\square$

## Chapter 3

# Modules

The concept of rings is motivated by the properties of a set of *endomorphisms* on an (additive) abelian group. Left  $R$ -modules are the abelian groups  $M$  such that there is a ring homomorphism  $R \rightarrow \text{End}(M)$ .

*Example:* If  $J$  is an ideal of a ring  $A$ , then we can define an operation of an element  $a, b \in A$  on  $A/J$  as  $a \cdot (x + J) \mapsto ax + J$ . This mapping is an endomorphism of  $A/J$  because  $a \cdot (x + y + J) = a \cdot (x + J) + a \cdot (y + J)$ . We can define the a ring homomorphism from  $A \rightarrow \text{End}(A/J)$  trivially. Therefore,  $A$  defines a module structure over  $A/J$ .

To show a group  $M$  is  $A$ -module, it suffices to show that for  $a, b \in A, x, y \in M$

$$a(x + y) = ax + ay \text{ and } (a + b)x = ax + bx,$$

These conditions are equivalent to showing there is a ring homomorphism from the actions of elements of  $A$  on  $M$  to  $\text{End}(M)$ .

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Some basic constructions from the companion. Let  $M$  be an  $A$ -module.

1. For  $N \subseteq M$ ,  $\{r \in A : rN = 0\}$  forms an left ideal in  $A$ .
2. For  $N \subseteq M$ ,  $\{r \in A : rM \subseteq N\}$  forms a right ideal of  $A$ .
3. For  $N \subseteq M$ ,  $\{r \in A : rN \subseteq N\}$  forms a subring.
4. If  $N$  is a submodule, then the ideals in 1 and 2 are 2-sided. Here, it is important to point out that when  $N$  is a submodule, then closure of the actions of  $A$  on  $N$  is maintained.

If  $x \in M$ , then  $Rx \cong R/I$ , where  $I$  is the annihilator ideal of  $\{x\}$  as in 1.

*Every ideal (left, right and 2-sided) and subring of  $A$  can be constructed in the above way*

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**Definition 14.** A **module-homomorphism** is an additive group homomorphism  $f : M \rightarrow M'$  from modules  $M$  to module  $M'$  and such that  $f(ax) = af(x)$ .

If  $f$  is module-homomorphism from  $M$  to  $M'$  then the kernel and the image of  $f$  are submodules of  $M$  and  $M'$  respectively.

*Proof.* Clearly,  $\ker f \leq M$  because  $f$  is a group homomorphism. Let  $a \in A$  and  $x \in \ker f$ .  $f(ax) = af(x) = 0$ . Hence, the kernel of  $f$  is a submodule of  $M$ .

Again,  $\text{Im } f \leq M'$ .  $af(x) = f(ax) \in \text{Im } f$ .

□

$M'/f(M)$  is a universal(initial) among the modules  $N$  with homomorphism  $g : M' \rightarrow N$  such that  $g \circ f = 0$ . That is the following diagram commutes and  $\hat{g}$  is unique:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} M & \xrightarrow{\quad f \quad} & M' & \xrightarrow{\quad g \quad} & N \\ & & \downarrow c & \nearrow \hat{g} & \\ & & M'/f(M) & & \end{array}$$

This is dual with the kernel of  $f$  which is a terminal object among modules  $N$  with homomorphism  $g : N \rightarrow M$  such that  $f \circ g = 0$ . Thus, it is called the **cokernel** of  $f$ .

**Definition 15.** A **monomorphism** is a module-homomorphism  $u : N \rightarrow M$  characterized by the exact sequence  $0 \rightarrow N \xrightarrow{u} M$ . Similarly, an **epimorphism** is characterized by dual exact sequence  $N \xrightarrow{u} M \rightarrow 0$ .

These definitions coincide with the definitions of one-to-one homomorphisms and surjective homomorphism in the category of modules over a ring  $R$ .

**Definition 16.** For a commutative<sup>1</sup> ring  $A$ , we say  $K$  is an  $A$ -algebra, if  $K$  is a module with  $E$  a  **$A$ -bilinear map**  $g : E \times E \rightarrow E$ .

In the companion, the following remark is left.

*Let  $A$  be a commutative ring. Then*

*associative, unital  $A$ -algebra  $R \equiv \text{Ring } R$  with a homomorphism  $f : A \rightarrow Z(R)$ .*

<sup>1</sup> the concept of algebras does not make much sense with non-commutative rings

$f$  is a way of encoding the bilinear operator, and why it's into the center of  $R$  is mainly because we require  $a \cdot xy = (a \cdot x)y = x(a \cdot y) := f(a)xy = (f(a)x)y = xf(a)y$

Another interesting remark is that algebras are abstractions of the natural structure of  $A$ -module-endomorphisms of a module  $M$ ,  $\text{End}_A(M)$ , just like rings abstract the endomorphisms of an abelian group.

---

A sequence  $\cdots \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow \cdots$  is called exact if  $\text{Im } f = \ker g$ . We denote the group of  $A$ -homomorphisms from  $A$ -module  $X$  to  $Y$  by  $\text{Hom}_A(X, Y)$ .

**Proposition 17.** *Let  $X, X', X''$  and  $Y$  be  $A$ -modules. Then the short sequence*

$$X' \xrightarrow{\lambda} X \xrightarrow{\mu} X'' \rightarrow 0$$

*is exact if and only if*

$$\text{Hom}_A(X', Y) \xleftarrow{\lambda'} \text{Hom}_A(X, Y) \xleftarrow{\mu'} \text{Hom}_A(X'', Y) \leftarrow 0$$

*is exact for all  $Y$ .*

*Remark 18.* This proposition is analogous to the duality of linear maps in vector spaces.

*Proof.* Suppose the first sequence is exact. Then the following statements hold:

- (i)  $\text{Im } \lambda = \ker \mu$
- (ii)  $\text{Im } \mu = X''$ .

Let  $g \mapsto g \circ \lambda = 0$ . Since  $\text{Im } \lambda \subseteq \ker g$ ,  $g$  factors through  $X/\text{Im } \lambda$ . By [i](#) and [ii](#),  $X/\text{Im } \lambda \cong \text{Im } \mu = X''$  which implies  $g = f \circ \mu$  for some  $f \in \text{Hom}(X'', Y)$ . This shows  $\ker \lambda' \subseteq \text{Im } \mu'$ . Similarly, let  $h \circ \mu \in \text{Im } \mu'$ . By [i](#), the composition of this with  $\lambda$ ,  $h \circ \mu \circ \lambda = 0$ , implying  $\text{Im } \mu' \subseteq \ker \lambda'$  (thus  $\text{Im } \mu' = \ker \lambda'$ ). The first implication of the proposition follows from the fact that if  $f \mapsto f \circ \mu = 0$  for some  $f : X'' \rightarrow Y$ , then  $f = 0$  by [ii](#).

The proof of the converse is an easy application of the following common technique:  
**To study the consequences of a condition holding for all morphisms of a given sort, consider a universal example.**

Suppose the second sequence is exact, i.e.,

- (i)  $\ker \lambda' = \text{Im } \mu'$
- (ii)  $\ker \mu' = 0$ .

By [i](#),  $\ker \lambda' \supseteq \text{Im } \mu'$ . That is, for every  $Y$  and  $f : X'' \rightarrow Y$   $f \circ \mu \circ \lambda = 0$ . Now, consider the universal example for all  $f$ s, i.e., the category of morphisms from  $X''$  which is  $\text{id}$ , the identity morphisms.  $\text{id} \circ \mu \circ \lambda = \mu \circ \lambda = 0$  implies  $\ker \mu \supseteq \text{Im } \lambda$ .

Similarly, the condition  $\ker \lambda' \subseteq \text{Im } \mu'$  implies for every  $Y$ , a map  $g : X \rightarrow Y$  such that  $g \circ \lambda = 0$  can be factored through  $X''$ . The universal object of all morphisms from

$X \rightarrow Y$  which are 0 at  $\text{Im } \lambda$  is the canonical homomorphism  $q : X \rightarrow X/\text{Im } \lambda$ . Hence  $q = f \circ \mu$  which is obviously 0 on  $\text{Im } \lambda$  and thus  $\ker q = \text{Im } \lambda \supseteq \ker \mu$ .

Finally, the universal object of morphisms from  $X'' \rightarrow Y$  annihilated by  $\text{Im } \mu$  is the canonical morphism  $p : X'' \rightarrow X''/\text{Im } \mu$ . However, ii implies  $p = 0$  and  $X'' \cong \text{Im } \mu$  which completes the proof.  $\square$

Let  $\{M_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of submodules of  $M$ . Then we have the induced homomorphism

$$\lambda_* : \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i \rightarrow M$$

defined by  $\lambda_*((x_i)) = \sum x_i$ . If  $\lambda_*$  is isomorphism, then we call the family  $\{M_i\}_{i \in I}$ , **direct sum decomposition** of  $M$  as we have

$$\bigoplus M_i = M.$$

Otherwise, if  $\lambda_*$  is only surjective, we can write

$$M = \sum M_i$$

*Remark 19.* This notion is analogous to linear independence and direct sums in linear algebra.

Let  $M_1, M_2, N$  be modules. Then we have the following isomorphism of abelian groups

$$\text{Hom}(M_1 \oplus M_2, N) \cong \text{Hom}(M_1, N) \times \text{Hom}(M_2, N)$$

$$\text{Hom}(N, M_1 \times M_2) \cong \text{Hom}(N, M_1) \times \text{Hom}(N, M_2)$$

The first isomorphism follows from the association  $f \mapsto (f_1, f_2)$  where  $f$  is an element of the LHS group and  $f_i : M_i \rightarrow N$  are the homomorphisms defined by  $f_i = f \circ I_i$ . The second one follows with similar associations.

**Proposition 20.** *Let the following sequence of modules be exact:*

$$0 \rightarrow M' \xrightarrow{f} M \xrightarrow{g} M'' \rightarrow 0$$

*The following conditions are equivalent*

1. *There is a homomorphism  $\varphi : M'' \rightarrow M$  such that  $\text{id} = g \circ \varphi$ .*
2. *There is a homomorphism  $\psi : M \rightarrow M'$  such that  $\text{id} = \psi \circ f$ .*

*If these conditions are satisfied, then we have the following isomorphisms:*

$$M = \ker g \oplus \text{Im } \varphi = \ker \psi \oplus \text{Im } f \cong M' \oplus M''.$$

The general idea is the exactness of the sequence makes  $M$  factorize into  $M' \times M/M'$  in group theory terms.



*Proof.* Let  $x \in M$ . Then  $x - \varphi(g(x)) \in \ker g$  by definition. Thus  $x = (x - \varphi(g(x))) + \varphi(g(x)) \in \ker g + \operatorname{Im} \varphi$ . This sum is direct because  $\ker g \cap \operatorname{Im} \varphi = 0$ . The others isomorphisms follow immediately.  $\square$

**Definition 21.** A **free module** is an  $A$ -module that admits a basis.

**Proposition 22.** Let  $M$  be a free module with basis  $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$  and let  $\mathfrak{a}$  be a two-sided ideal of  $A$ . Then

1.  $\mathfrak{a}M$  is also a submodule of  $M$  that is also  $\mathfrak{a}$ -module.
2. Each  $\mathfrak{a}x_i$  is a submodule of  $Ax_i$ .
3. We have the module isomorphism

$$M/\mathfrak{a}M \cong \bigoplus_{i \in I} Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i.$$

4.  $Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i$  is isomorphic to  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  as  $A$ -module
5. Suppose  $A$  is commutative. Then  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  is a ring. Furthermore  $M/\mathfrak{a}M$  is a free over  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  and  $Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i$  is a free over  $A/\mathfrak{a}$ . If  $\bar{x}_i$  is the image of  $x_i$  under the canonical homomorphism  $Ax_i \rightarrow Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i$ , then  $\bar{x}_i$  is the basis of  $Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i$ .

*Proof.* We go through the statements one by one:

1. Let  $x \in M$ . Then  $x = \sum_{i \in I} a_i x_i$  uniquely for  $\{a_i\}_{i \in I} \subseteq A$ . By definition,  $\mathfrak{a}M = \{\sum yx : y \in \mathfrak{a}, x \in M\}$ . But  $yx = \sum_i y a_i x_i = \sum_i y_i x_i \in M$  where  $y_i \in \mathfrak{a}$  because  $\mathfrak{a}$  is two-sided ideal.
2. Clearly,  $\mathfrak{a}x_i \subseteq Ax_i$ . Let  $a', b' \in \mathfrak{a}$  and  $a, b, c \in A$ .  $Ax_i$  is a  $A$ -module because  $(a+b)cx_i = (ac+bc)x_i = acx_i + bcx_i$  and  $c(a'x_i + b'x_i) = c(a+b)x_i = (ca+cb)x_i = cax_i + cbx_i$ . The statement follows from  $Aax_i \subseteq \mathfrak{a}x_i$ .
3. By definition,  $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} Ax_i$ . Consider the isomorphism

$$\sum_{i \in I} a_i x_i \mapsto (a_i x_i)_{i \in I}$$

which induces the isomorphism

$$\sum_{i \in I} a_i x_i + \mathfrak{a}M \mapsto (a_i x_i + \mathfrak{a}M)_{i \in I}.$$

Since  $\mathfrak{a}M$  is a  $\mathfrak{a}$ -module and  $a_i x_i + \mathfrak{a}M = a_i x_i + \mathfrak{a}x_i$ , and  $Ax_i/\mathfrak{a}x_i$  is an  $A/\mathfrak{a}$ -module, the statement is true.

4. Consider the isomorphism  $1_A \mapsto x_i$ .
5.  $A/\mathfrak{a}$  is a ring of cosets of  $\mathfrak{a}$ .  $M/\mathfrak{a}M$  is free as the basis  $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$ , serves as a basis for  $M/\mathfrak{a}M$  over  $A/\mathfrak{a}$ .

□

We say an exact sequence of abelian groups

$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

splits if  $B \cong A \oplus C$ .

*For Example:* The sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{x \mapsto x} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{-1} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

splits but

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{x \mapsto 2x} \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\text{mod } 2} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

does not split.

**Proposition 23.** *Every surjective module-homomorphism from a  $A$ -module,  $M$  to a **free**  $A$ -module  $F$  splits.*

*Proof.* Let  $\phi : M \rightarrow F$  be a surjective homomorphism. By the first isomorphism theorem,  $F \cong M / \ker \phi$ . Let  $\{x_i + \ker \phi\}_{i \in I}$  form the basis of  $M / \ker \phi$ . Define  $\psi : M / \ker \phi \rightarrow M$  as

$$\psi \left( \sum_{i \in I} a_i x_i + \ker \phi \right) = \sum_{i \in I} a_i x_i.$$

Clearly  $\phi \circ \psi = \text{id}$

□

$F$  need not be a free module for  $A \rightarrow F$  to split. Modules that admit splitting like the above are called **projective**. Here are four equivalent conditions that are satisfied by a projective module  $P$ :

1. Given a homomorphism  $f : P \rightarrow M$  and a surjective homomorphism  $g : M' \rightarrow M$ , there exists a homomorphism  $h : P \rightarrow M'$  that makes the following diagram commute:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & P & & \\ & \swarrow h & \downarrow f & & \\ M' & \xrightarrow{g} & M & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

2. The exact sequence  $0 \rightarrow M' \rightarrow M \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$  splits
3. There exists a module  $M$  such that  $P \oplus M$  is free.
4. The functor  $M \mapsto \text{Hom}_A(P, M)$  is exact.

*Proof.* We only leave the proof of (4)  $\implies$  (1) as the rest is found in the book. Consider (4) is true, i.e, if  $0 \rightarrow M'' \rightarrow M' \xrightarrow{g} M \rightarrow 0$  is exact,  $0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}_A(P, M'') \rightarrow \text{Hom}_A(P, M') \xrightarrow{\lambda} \text{Hom}_A(P, M) \rightarrow 0$  is also exact. Since  $\lambda$  is surjective, for any  $f \in \text{Hom}_A(P, M)$ , we can find  $h \in \text{Hom}_A(P, M')$  such that  $\lambda(h) = g \circ h = f$ . □

**Proposition 24.** *Let  $V$  be a vector space. Let  $\Gamma$  be the set of generators of  $V$  and  $S$  be a set of any linearly independent elements. Then, there is a basis  $\mathfrak{B}$  such that  $S \subseteq \mathfrak{B} \subseteq \Gamma$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathfrak{I}$  be the sets  $T \supseteq S$  that are linearly independent. Assuming  $V \neq \{0\}$ ,  $\mathfrak{I}$  is non-empty. Clearly  $\mathfrak{I}$  is a poset by ascending inclusion. Since if  $T_i \subseteq T_{i+1} \in \mathfrak{I}$  then  $T_i \cup T_{i+1}$  is linearly independent making  $\mathfrak{I}$  an inductively ordered set. By zorns lemma, there is a maximal element of  $\mathfrak{I}$ . Let's call that  $\mathfrak{B}$  and let  $\langle \mathfrak{B} \rangle = W$ . If  $W \neq V$ , then there is  $x \in V$  such that  $x \neq \sum_{y \in \mathfrak{B}} a_y y$  making  $\mathfrak{B} \cup x$  linearly independent and contradicting maximality of  $\mathfrak{B}$ . Thus  $V = W$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 25.** *Let  $V, U$  be vector spaces over field  $K$  and let  $V \xrightarrow{f} U$  be homomorphism. Then we have*

$$\dim_K V = \dim_K \ker f + \dim_K \operatorname{Im} f.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\{w_i\}_{i \in I}$  and  $\{u_i\}_{i \in I}$  be the basis of  $\ker f$  and  $\operatorname{Im} f$  resp. Let  $\{v_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of elements such that  $f(v_i) = u_i$ . Let  $x \in V$ . Then we have,

$$f(x) = \sum_{i \in I} a_i u_i,$$

where  $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$  is a family in  $K$  such that all except finit of them are 0. This implies,

$$y = x - \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i \in \ker f.$$

However,  $\ker f$  is a vector field and  $y = \sum_i b_i w_i$ . This implies

$$x = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i + \sum_{j \in I} b_j w_j.$$

Proving  $\{v_i, w_i\}_{i \in I}$  generates  $V$ . It remains to show that this generator is linearly independent.

Let  $0 = \sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i + \sum_{j \in I} b_j w_j$ . Then  $f(\sum_{i \in I} a_i v_i + \sum_{j \in I} b_j w_j) = 0 + \sum_{i \in I} a_i f(v_i) + 0 = \sum_{i \in I} a_i u_i = 0 \implies a_i = 0 \implies b_j = 0$ .  $\square$

An important insight from the companion: A free left  $R$ -module with rank  $n$  is isomorphic to a standard<sup>2</sup> module  $R^n$ . This helps us derive the following facts about modules over non-field ring:

- If  $R \xrightarrow{f} S$  is a homomorphism and  $m, n$  are positive integers such that  $R^m \cong R^n$ , then  $S^m \cong S^n$ .  
If  $\mathcal{M}$  is a (isomorphic) transformation from  $R^m \rightarrow R^n$ , then is  $f(\mathcal{M})$  is too from  $S^m \rightarrow S^n$ .
- If there is a homomorphism onto a field (division ring), then all left  $R$ -modules have a fixed number of elements in their basis.

This follows by taking  $f = R \mapsto R/I$  where  $I$  is a maximal ideal.

**Warning:** Modules over non-commutative rings do not necessarily have unique ranks.

<sup>2</sup>By standard, we mean where the action of  $R$  is trivial as in linear algebra

### Dual Space and Dual Module

Let  $E$  be a free module over a commutative ring  $A$ . We denote the **dual module**,  $\text{Hom}_A(E, A)$ , of  $E$  by  $E^\vee$  and we call the elements of  $E^\vee$  as **functionals**.

If  $x \in E$ , then  $x$  induces a map  $\langle x, - \rangle$  from  $E^\vee$  to itself defined by  $\langle x, f \rangle = f(x)$ .

---

The map  $\theta : E \rightarrow E^{\vee\vee}$  is not surjective for the following reason. In infinite-dimensional modules over a field  $A$ ,  $E^{\vee\vee}$  is also infinite dimensional. However,  $x$  can be expressed as a linear combination of the basis of  $E$  and so is  $\theta(x)$ .

---

**Proposition 26.** *If  $E$  is free, so is  $E^\vee$ . Moreover,  $\text{rank} E = \text{rank} E^\vee$*

**Theorem 27.** *Let  $E$  be finite dimensional. The map  $x \xrightarrow{\phi} (f \mapsto \langle x, f \rangle)$  is an isomorphism from  $E$  to  $E^{\vee\vee}$ .*

**Theorem 28.** *Let  $U, V, W$  be finite-dimensional free modules over commutative ring  $A$ . If the sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow W \rightarrow V \rightarrow U \rightarrow 0$$

*is exact, then so is*

$$0 \rightarrow U^\vee \rightarrow V^\vee \rightarrow W^\vee.$$

---

*Why it is called a sequence splits? A short sequence*

$$0 \rightarrow C \rightarrow C \oplus B \xrightarrow{g} B \rightarrow A$$

*is splits into*

$$0 \rightarrow C \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 0$$

$$0 \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow B \rightarrow 0$$

We require a right inverse map  $g'$ , i.e., that satisfies  $\text{id} = g \circ g' : B \rightarrow C \oplus B$ , to say so, the action of this map on  $C$  would be 0 and the action on  $B$  would be  $g^{-1}$

---

### Modules over Principal Ideal Domains

**Theorem 29.** *Let  $R$  be a principal ideal domain and let  $F$  be a free  $R$ -module. If  $M$  is a submodule of  $F$ , then  $M$  is free with rank less than or equal to  $\text{rank} F$ .*

*sketch.* Let  $M_i$  be the submodule of  $M$  generated by the basis subset  $\{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$ . Let  $\mathfrak{a}_{i+1}$  denote the set of coefficients of  $x_{i+1}$  in  $M - M_i$ . If  $\mathfrak{a}_{i+1} = 0$ , we are done. If not, observe that  $RM_i \subseteq M_i$  and  $\mathfrak{a}_{i+1} = \langle a_{i+1} \rangle$  for some  $a_{i+1} \in R$ . Let  $w := \sum_{j \leq i} b_j x_j + a_{i+1} x_{i+1}$ . Then  $M_{i+1} = M_i + Rw$ .  $\square$

*Remark 30.* The PID nature of  $R$  permits the constructions of generators  $w_i$  of  $M$  corresponding to the generators  $x_i$

**NB:** Finitely generated modules are factor modules of a free module.

**Definition 31.** An  $R$ -module  $M$  is called a **torsion** module if for some  $x \in M$ , there is an element  $a \in R$  such that  $ax = 0$ . We denote the module that contain all torsion elements by  $M_{\text{tor}}$ .

**Theorem 32.** Let  $E$  be finitely generated. The factor module  $E/E_{\text{tor}}$  is free and there is a free submodule  $F$  of  $E$  such that

$$E = E_{\text{tor}} \oplus F.$$

Modules over PID exhibit similar characteristics as abelian groups. For example, the cyclic  $p$ -groups are analogous to a module generated by an element  $x$  modulo a prime ideal, i.e.  $R_x/(p)x$ . We call a module of type  $(r_1, \dots, r_k)$  if it is a product of modules isomorphic to  $R/(p^{r_i})$ . The following two theorems support the similarity even more by stating the equivalent statements to the fundamental theorem of abelian groups.

**Theorem 33.** Let  $R$  be a principal ideal domain and let  $E$  be a finitely generated torsion module over  $R$ . Let  $E(p)$  denote all elements of  $E$  with exponent<sup>3</sup> that is a power of a prime element  $p \in R$ . Then  $E$  has the decomposition

$$E = \bigoplus_p E(p),$$

where the direct sum is over  $p$  such that  $E(p) \neq 0$ . Moreover, for each  $p$ , we have

$$E(p) = R/(p^{v_1}) \oplus \dots \oplus R/(p^{v_r})$$

with  $1 \leq v_1 \leq \dots \leq v_r$  that are determined uniquely.

$E_m :=$  the kernel of the map  $x \mapsto mx$  in  $E$ .

*Proof.* Let  $a$  be an exponent of  $E$ . Consider the map  $x \mapsto ax$ . Let  $a = bc$  with  $(b, c) = (1)$ . Let  $xb + yc = 1$ . Then  $v = vxb + vyc$  where  $vxb \in E_c$  and  $vyc \in E_b$ . Moreover,  $E_b \cap E_c = 0$ . Thus  $E_a = E_b \oplus E_c$ . By induction, the stated decomposition of  $E$  follows.

Next, we show that  $E(p)$  is a direct sum as stated.

---

The intuition for such decomposition of  $E(p)$  comes from boxing all elements of  $E(p)$  with the same period<sup>4</sup> into a direct summand.

---

We will use induction. Consider the canonical map from  $E(p) \rightarrow E(p)/(x)$  where  $x$  is an element of  $E(p)$  with maximal period,  $p^r$ . Suppose  $\{\bar{y}_1, \dots, \bar{y}_m\}$  are independent<sup>5</sup> elements of  $E(p)/(x)$  with representatives  $\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$  in  $E(p)$ . If  $p^{n_i}$  is the period of  $\bar{y}_i$ , then  $p^{n_i}y_i = p^s c x$  for some  $c \in R$ ,  $p \nmid c$ . By assumption,  $r \geq s$ , thus  $p^{n_i-s+r} =$

---

<sup>3</sup>An exponent of a module  $M$  (an element of a module  $x$  resp.) is an element  $m$  of  $R$  such that  $mE$  (resp.  $mx$ ) is 0.

<sup>4</sup>A period  $T$  of an element  $x$  is an element of  $R$  such that the kernel of the map  $a \mapsto ax$  equals  $\langle T \rangle$

<sup>5</sup>We call a family of elements  $\{y_i\}$  of a module  $M$  independent if  $\sum_i a_i y_i = 0 \iff a_i y_i = 0 \forall i$

$0 \implies n_i - s + r \leq r \implies n_i \leq s$ . Therefore the element  $y_i - p^{s-n}cx$  is well-defined and has period equal to that of  $\overline{y_i}$ .

Moreover the set  $\{x, y_1, \dots, y_m\}$  is independent because if  $bx + \sum_i a_i y_i = 0$ , then  $\sum_i a_i \overline{y_i} = 0$  which can not happen unless  $a_i \overline{y_i} = 0$  for all  $i$ . But by previous part of the proof, this implies all period  $c_i \mid a_i \implies a_i y_i = 0$  and  $bx = 0$ .

Thus,  $E(p)$  has  $m + 1$  independent elements  $x, y_1, \dots, y_m$ . It is clear that  $(x, y_1, \dots, y_m) = (x) \oplus (y_1) \oplus \dots \oplus (y_m)$  by independence. Note that if  $w \in E$  has period  $t$ , then  $(w) \cong R/\langle t \rangle$ . This proves the existence of such decomposition.

Uniqueness of the decomposition follows as following. Let  $(s_1, \dots, s_m)$  and  $(r_1, \dots, r_n)$  be two types of  $E(p)$  with  $s_i \leq s_{i+1}$  and  $r_i \leq r_{i+1}$ . WLOG, let  $s_i < r_i$  be the first different entries. Clearly, there is an element  $x \in E(p)$  with period  $p^{s_i}$ . However, no such element exist in  $R/(p^{r_i}) \oplus \dots \oplus R/(p^{r_n})$ . Thus  $s_i = r_i$ .  $\square$

*Remark 34.* The proof of theorem 7.8 on the book utilizes a trick to select a basis set with particular property. The trick relies (generally speaking) on the fact that functionals capture the properties of basis.

*For example:* The dimension of a free module  $M$  is equal to  $\max_{\lambda \in M^\vee} \dim \lambda(M)$ .

## Direct and Inverse Limits

Let  $I$  be a [directed set](#). Let  $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$  be a family of  $A$ -modules and let  $\{f_{i,j} : A_i \rightarrow A_j\}$  be a family of  $A$ -homomorphism satisfying

$$f_{i,i} = \text{id}$$

$$f_{i,k} = f_{j,k} \circ f_{i,j} \text{ if } i < j.$$

We call this family of morphisms, a **directed family of morphisms**. When we have a family like  $\{A_i\}$ , we want to study their properties together. The **direct limit** has the required algebraic properties to do so and it's defined as follows.

Construct a category  $\mathcal{C}$  by defining  $\text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$  as the pair  $(A, f_i)$  with  $A$  in the family of modules and  $f_i : A_i \rightarrow A$  that makes the following diagram commute

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A_i & \xrightarrow{f_i} & A \\ & \searrow f_{i,j} & \nearrow f_j \\ & A_j & \end{array}$$

where the morphisms are  $f_i$  themselves. The direct limit  $(B = \varinjlim A_i, h_i)$  is the universal object of this category, i.e., for every  $(C, g_i)$  in this category there is a unique homomorphism  $t$  that makes the following diagram commute

## Chapter 4

# Polynomials

**Proposition 35.** *If  $k$  is a field and  $k[X_1, \dots, X_m]$  is the ring of polynomials over the variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . Let  $f \in k[X_1, \dots, X_m]$  and  $S_1, \dots, S_m$  be infinites subsets of the field  $k$  such that  $f(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  for all  $a_i \in S_i$ . Then  $f = 0$ .*

*Proof.* For  $m = 1$ , the propostion is trivial. For  $m > 1$ , note that

$$k[X_1, \dots, X_m] = k[X_1, \dots, X_{m-1}][X_m].$$

For fixed  $a_1, \dots, a_{m-1}$ ,  $f(a_1, \dots, a_{m-1}, X_n)$  is then  $\in k[X_n]$  and thus  $f(a_1, \dots, a_{m-1}, X_n) = 0$  obtaining the result by symmetry and induction.  $\square$

**Theorem 36.** *Let  $k$  be a field and let  $U$  be a finite multiplicative subgroup  $k$ . Then  $U$  is cyclic.*

*Proof.* Let  $U = \prod_p U(p)$  where  $U(p)$  is a  $p$ -group for each prime  $p$ . Let  $a \in U(p)$  be an element with maximal power say  $p^r$ . Then for all  $b \in U(p)$ ,  $b^{p^r} - 1 = 0$  making  $|U(p)| \leq p^r$ . Hence each  $U(p)$  is cyclic.  $\square$

**Remark 37.** Generally, certain polynomials over fields like  $X^{p^r} - 1$  in the above proof, help us enumerate elements of the field with certain characterstics by means of their roots.

**Definition 38** (Algebraic Closure). A field  $k$  is called algebraically closed if all polynomials in  $k[X]$  of degree  $\geq 1$  have all their roots in  $k$ .

**Definition 39** (Frobenius Map). If  $k$  is a field with characteristic  $p$ , we call the map

$$x \mapsto x^{p^r}$$

the frobenius map or frobenius endomorphism

### Polynomials over a Factorial Ring

Let  $A$  be a factorial ring and  $K$  be its field of fraction.

**Definition 40** (Order). If  $a \in K$  and  $p \in A$  be a prime element.

$$\text{ord}_p : K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z},$$

$$\text{ord}_p(a) := r : a = p^r x/y, p \nmid x, p \nmid y.$$

If  $f \in K[X]$ ,  $f(X) = \sum a_i x^i$ , we extend the above definition as

$$\text{ord}_p f = \min_p \text{ord}_p(a_i),$$

where the minimum is taken over all primes  $p$  of  $A$ .

**Definition 41** ( $p$ -content, content). We say the element  $up^{\text{ord}_p f}$ , a  $p$ -content for  $f$  for any unit  $u$ . Then the content of  $f$ , denoted by  $\text{cont}(f)$  is defined as

$$\prod_p p^{\text{ord}_p f},$$

over all primes  $p$ , upto multiplication by a unit.

*Remark 42.* Content is a generalization of the concept of gcd for fractions. For instance,  $\text{cont}(p) = p$ ,  $\text{cont}(px + q) = 1$ ,  $\text{cont}(px + p) = p$  for prime  $p, q$ .

**Theorem 43** (Gauss Lemma). For any two  $f, g \in K[X]$ , we have

$$\text{cont}(fg) = \text{cont}(f)\text{cont}(g).$$

*Sketch 1.*: If both  $f$  and  $g$  are primitive, then  $fg$  is primitive. This can be shown by noting that for any prime  $p$ , if we can not extract  $p$  from both  $f$  and  $g$ , then there is a coefficient in  $fg$  namely  $c = \sum_{i+j=r+s} a_i b_j$  where  $r$  and  $s$  are the largest integers (resp) such that  $a_r$  and  $b_s$  are indivisible by  $p$  and  $c$  is thus indivisible by  $p$ .

*Sketch 2.* Considering the reduction modulo a prime  $p$  of two polynomials  $f, g$ , say  $\bar{f}$  and  $\bar{g}$ , we have

$$\overline{fg} = \bar{f}\bar{g}.$$

Since  $A/(p)$  is an integral domain,  $\overline{fg} = 0 \iff \bar{f} = \bar{g} = 0$ .

**Theorem 44.**  $A[X]$  is factorial and the primes are primes of  $A$  or irreducible polynomials of  $K[X]$  with content of 1.

*Proof.* Let  $f$  factorize as follows in  $K[X]$

$$f(X) = c \prod_i p_i(X),$$

such that  $\text{cont}(p_i) = 1$ . Since  $\text{cont}(f) = c$ ,  $c \in A$  and there exists a factorization of  $f$  in  $A[X]$ . Uniqueness follows from uniqueness of factorization in  $K[X]$  upto multiplication by units and unitary content of irreducibles in  $A$ .  $\square$



## Criteria of Irreducibility

**Theorem 45** (Eisenstein's Criterion of Irreducibility). *Let  $A$  be a factorial ring and let  $f \in A[X]$  such that*

$$f(X) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n.$$

*Let  $p$  be a prime in  $A$ . If we have*

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &\not\equiv 0 \pmod{p} & a_i &\equiv 0 \pmod{p} & i < n \\ a_0 &\not\equiv 0 \pmod{p^2} \end{aligned}$$

*then  $f$  is irreducible in  $A[X]$  (thus  $K[X]$ ).*

*Sketch:* If  $f$  were reducible to  $g, h$  such that  $[X^n]g = b_n, [X^n]h = c_n$  and  $\deg g = m, \deg h = n$  then neither of  $b_m$  and  $c_n$  are divisible by  $p$ . Moreover, WLOG, there is greatest index  $r$  such that all of  $c_i, i > r$  are divisible by  $p$ , then

$$[X^r]f = b_0c_r + \cdots$$

is not divisible by  $p$ .

**Theorem 46** (Reduction Criterion). *Let  $A, B$  be entire rings and let  $\phi : A \rightarrow B$  be a homomorphism. Let  $K, L$  be the quotient fields of  $A, B$  resp. Assume for  $f \in A[X], \phi f \neq 0$  and  $\deg \phi f = \deg f$ . If  $\phi f$  is irreducible in  $L[X]$ , then  $f$  does not factorize to  $g, h \in A[X]$  such that both  $\deg g, \deg h \geq 1$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $\phi f = (\phi g)(\phi h)$ , by irreducibility of  $\phi f$ , one of the two factors on the right should have degree 0. But  $\deg \phi f = \deg \phi g + \deg \phi h$  by assumption, thus  $f = c \cdot h$  for some  $c \in A$ .  $\square$

*Remark 47.* This theorem is powerful test to check irreducibility. Eg.  $X^p - X - 1$  is irreducible over the field  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  thus irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

## Hilbert's Theorem

**Theorem 48** (Hilbert's Theorem). *If  $A$  is commutative and Noetherian, so is  $A[X]$ .*

*Sketch* Take an ideal of  $A[X]$ ,  $\mathfrak{U} = \oplus \mathfrak{a}_i X^i$ . By ACC, there is  $r$  such that  $\mathfrak{a}_r = \mathfrak{a}_{r+s}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{a}_i$  is finitely generated, say by  $a_j^i$ , for  $0 \leq i \leq r$ , there are polynomials  $f_{ij}(X) = a_j^i X^i + g(X), g \in \mathfrak{U}, \deg g < i$ , that generate  $A[X]$  and the number of  $f_{ij}$  is finite.

## Partial Fractions

**Theorem 49.** *Let  $A$  be a principal entire ring and let  $K = \text{frac}(A)$ . Let  $\alpha \in K$  and  $P$  be the set of representatives of the irreducibles of  $A$ , i.e, unique upto multiplication by units of  $A$ . For each  $p \in P$ , there exists an element  $\alpha_p$  and non-negative integer  $j(p)$  with  $\gcd(p^{j(p)}, \alpha_p) = 1$  that satisfies*

$$\alpha = \sum_{p \in P} \frac{\alpha_p}{p^{j(p)}}$$

with  $j(p) = 0$  for all but finite elements of  $P$ . Moreover, this expression is unique upto the condition  $\alpha_p \equiv \alpha'_p \pmod{p^{j(p)}}$ .

**Theorem 50.** Let  $k$  be a field and  $k[X]$  be the ring of polynomials over  $k$ . Let  $f, g \in k[X]$  such that  $\deg g \geq 1$ . There exists a unique sequence of polynomials  $f_0, \dots, f_d$  with  $\deg f_i < \deg g$  such that

$$f = f_0 + f_1g + \dots + f_dg^d.$$

The expression of  $f$  as such is called the  **$g$ -adic expansion** of  $f$

### Symmetric Polynomials

Define the monomials  $s_i$  as follows:

$$\prod_{i=1}^n (X + t_i) = \sum_{i=0}^n s_i X^{n-i}$$

**Theorem 51.** Let  $f(t) \in A[t_1, \dots, t_n]$  be a symmetric polynomial with degree  $d$ . Then There is polynomial  $g$  of weight  $\leq d$  such that  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n) = g(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ .

### Mason-Stothers Theorem and The $abc$ Conjecture

Let  $n_0(f)$  be the number of distinct roots of the polynomial  $f \in K[X]$ .

**Theorem 52** (Mason-Stothers). If  $a, b \in K[t]$  are relatively prime polynomials in an algebraically closed field  $K$ , then

$$\max(\deg(a, b)) \leq n_0(ab(a+b)) - 1.$$

**Conjecture 53** ( $abc$  conjecture). For a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , relatively prime integers  $a, b$  and their sum  $c$ , and a constant factor  $C(\epsilon)$  depending only on  $\epsilon$ ,

$$\max(|a|, |b|, |c|) \leq C(\epsilon) N_0(abc)^{1+\epsilon},$$

where  $N_0(x)$  is the product of distinct prime divisors of  $x$ , called radical of  $x$ .

### The Resultant

Let  $v = (v_0, \dots, v_n)$  and  $w = (w_0, \dots, w_m)$  be algebraically independent over a commutative ring  $A$ . Let

$$f_v(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n v_i X^i, \quad g_w = \sum_{i=0}^m w_i X^i$$

$$\text{Res}(f_v, g_w) = \det \begin{bmatrix} v_0 & v_1 & \cdots & v_n & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & v_0 & v_1 & \cdots & v_n & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & v_0 & v_1 & \cdots & v_n \\ w_0 & w_1 & \cdots & w_m & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & w_0 & w_1 & \cdots & w_m & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & w_0 & w_1 & \cdots & w_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Denote  $R(v, w) = \text{Res}(f_v, g_w)$ . Then for any  $z$ , we have  $R(zv, w) = z^n R(v, w)$ ,  $R(v, zw) = z^m R(v, w)$ . Hence,  $R$  is homogenous in  $v$  and  $w$ . We also have,

$$[v_0^m w_m^n] R(v, w) = 1.$$

One can also show there exists  $\phi_{v,w}, \psi_{v,w} \in Z[v, w][X]$  such that

$$R(v, w) = \phi_{v,w} f_v + \psi_{v,w} g_w.$$

This relation serves as an 'invariant' (i.e. not depending on  $X$ ). For example:

**Proposition 54.** *For a subfield  $K$  of  $L$  and  $f_a, g_b \in K[X]$  having a common root  $\eta$ , then  $R(a, b) = 0$ .*

**Proposition 55.** *Let*

$$f_v(X) = v_0 \prod_{i=1}^n (X - t_i) = \sum_{i=0}^n v_i X^i,$$

$$g_w(X) = w_0 \prod_{i=1}^m (X - u_i) = \sum_{i=0}^m w_i X^i.$$

Then

$$\text{Res}(f_v, g_w) = v_0^m w_0^n \prod_{i=1}^m \prod_{j=1}^n (t_i - u_j).$$

## Power Series

The formal power series  $A[[X]]$  in one variable is formally defined as the ring of morphisms from  $G$  to  $A$  where  $G$  is the multiplicative monoid of mappings from  $\{X\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . We denote an element  $f$  as

$$f(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n X^n$$

where  $f$  maps  $(X^n : X \mapsto n)$  to  $a_n \in A$ .

We define power series in  $n$  variables  $A[[X_1, \dots, X_n]]$  inductively. If  $k$  is a field then  $k[[X_1, \dots, X_n]]$  is a complete local ring where a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is considered Cauchy if there exist  $N$  such that for all  $n, m \geq N$ ,  $a_n - a_m \in I^v$  for a given power  $v$  and ideal  $I$ .

---

Here it's worth to consider what complete local ring means in other terms. A convergence point  $a$  by the above notion is an element  $a$  such that  $a - a_k \in I^v$  for all  $k \geq N(v)$  for any power  $v$ . This translates to an element  $x = (x_0, \dots)$  in the projective limit  $\varprojlim_n R/I^n$  such that  $x_j = a_i \pmod{I^j}$  for all  $i \geq N(v)$  and  $j \leq v$ . Therefore, an element  $x$  in the projective limit defines a convergence points for some Cauchy sequence and thus a ring is complete if  $R$  is equal to the projective limit.

Locality, on the otherhand, implies  $R$  has only one maximal ideal and anything outside the a given maximal ideal is invertible.

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**Theorem 56.** *Let  $\mathfrak{o}$  be a complete local ring with maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Let  $f(X) \in \mathfrak{o}[[X]]$  be given by*

$$f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i X^i$$

*such that not all  $a_i$  lie in  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Suppose  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in \mathfrak{m}$  and  $a_n \in \mathfrak{o}^*$  is a unit. Then given  $g \in \mathfrak{o}[[X]]$  one can solve the equation*

$$g = qf + r$$

*uniquely where  $q \in \mathfrak{o}[[X]]$  and  $r \in \mathfrak{o}[X]$ ,  $\deg r \leq n - 1$ .*

*Remark 57.* If  $a_0$  is a unit and all the other  $a_i$  are non-units,  $f$  is invertible and one can always solve  $g = qf$  by mutliplying inverse of  $f$  to both sides. The theorem states a general case where  $a_i \leq n - 1$  are non-units, in which case one will have to make for the first  $n - 1$  terms of  $g$  by adding polynomial  $r$ .

*Example:* Let  $\mathfrak{o} = \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $f(X) = 2 + X + 2X^2 + 4X^3 + \dots$ . Let  $g(X) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n X^n$ .  
 $f(X) = 1 + Xg(X) \implies (1 - 2X)f(X) = 1 - X \implies (1 + X + X^2 + \dots)f(X) = g(X)$ .

The integrer  $n$  is called **Weierstrass Degree** of  $f$  and denoted  $\deg_W(f)$ .

**Theorem 58** (Weierstrass Preparation). *Let  $f$  be a polynomial in a complete local ring  $\mathfrak{o}$  with  $\deg_W(f) = n$ . Then we can solve the following equation uniquely*

$$(X^n + b_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + b_0)u = f(X),$$

*where  $u$  is a unit in  $\mathfrak{o}[[X]]$  and  $b_i \in \mathfrak{m}$ .*

**Theorem 59.** *If  $k$  is a field, then  $k[[X_1, \dots, X_n]]$  is a UFD.*