# 2. Modules (continued)

# More on modules

#### Sums of modules

Suppose that R is a ring and M is an R-module. Let  $N_1, \ldots, N_k$  be submodules of M. Then the sum  $N_1 + \ldots + N_k$  is the collection

$$N_1 + \ldots + N_k = \{n_1 + \cdots + n_k : n_i \in N_i\}$$

It is a submodule of M and the smallest submodule containing all the  $N_i$ .

One can also consider infinite collections of submodules:

$$\sum_{i\in I} N_i = \{\sum_{j\in J} n_j : n_j \in N_j, \ J\subset I \text{ finite } \}$$

# Generating submodules (compare vector spaces)

Suppose  $A \subset M$ . Then the submodule RA of M generated by A is the smallest submodule of M containing A. In practice it is the collection

$$RA = \{r_1a_1 + \dots + r_ka_k : r_1, \dots, r_k \in R, a_1, \dots, a_k \in A, k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \ge 0\}$$

In linear algebra, we would say that RA is the *submodule of* M *that is spanned* by A and this terminology can be used here as well.

We can also say that RA is the set of (finite) R-linear combinations of elements of A.

# Generating sets - an example

Suppose that V is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector space of dimension n and  $w_1, \ldots, w_k$  are a set of vectors in V.

Since V is also a  $\mathbb{Z}$  module (by "restriction of scalars") we can consider the sub- $\mathbb{Z}$ -module of V generated by the  $w_i$ . This is all  $\mathbb{Z}$ -linear combinations of the  $w_i$ .

For example if  $V = \mathbb{Q}^2$  and  $A = \{w_1, w_2\}$  are the standard basis elements then  $\mathbb{Z}A$  is the subset of V of vectors with integer coefficients in the standard basis.

# Finite generation

**Definition:** An R-module M is finitely generated if there is a finite subset  $A \subset M$  such that RA = M.

Note that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is finitely generated as a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -module (in fact it's generated by one element) but not as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

For vector spaces, finitely generated means finite dimensional. A generating set is the same as a spanning set.

#### Comparison with vector spaces

A set  $m_1, \ldots, m_k$  in an R-module M is linearly independent if, whenever  $\sum r_i m_i = 0$ , all  $r_i = 0$ .

For vector spaces, a maximal linearly independent set (meaning a linearly independent set which becomes dependent when any nonzero element is added to it) automatically spans the vector space, and we call this a basis.

For modules, this fails. Consider  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  and let  $e_1=[2,0]$  and  $e_2=[0,2]$ . If e=[a,b] then

$$2e - ae_1 - be_2 = 0$$

so  $e_1, e_2$  is a maximal linearly independent set. But they don't generate all of  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ .

# Cyclic modules

**Definition:** An R module M is cyclic if it is generated by one element: M = Ra for some  $a \in M$ .

- Cyclic groups are cyclic Z-modules.
- If R is a ring with unity and I is a left ideal, then R/I is a cyclic R-module generated by 1 + I.
- If R is a ring with unity, an ideal I is a cyclic module if and only if it is a principal ideal.
- If  $R = M_n(F)$  for a field F and  $M = F^n$  is the space of column vectors viewed as an R-module, then M is cyclic.

If  $R = \mathbb{Z}[i]$ , then (1+i)R is a cyclic module for R generated by (1+i). But if we view (1+i)R as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module inside the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module  $R = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$  then (1+i)R is generated over  $\mathbb{Z}$  by 1+i and (1+i)i=i-1; it is not cyclic as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

# Characterization of cyclic modules

**Proposition:** Let M be a cyclic R-module. Then M is isomorphic to R/I where I is a left ideal of R.

**Proof:** Let  $m \in M$  generate M. Consider the map  $f: R \to M$  defined by f(r) = rm. This is a module homomorphism since

$$f(r_1r_2) = r_1r_2m = r_1(r_2m) = r_1f(r_2c).$$

(Remember that we are thinking of R here as an R-module, not a ring.)

# Characterization of cyclic modules cont'd

The kernel of the map f(r) = rm is the set  $I = \{r \in R : rm = 0\}$ .

This is a left ideal since if rm = 0 then srm = 0 for all  $s \in R$ .

Since M is cyclic, the map f is surjective.

Therefore by the isomorphism theorem M is isomorphic to R/I.

# More on cyclic modules

Recall that a module M for F[x] is the same as an F-vector space V together with a linear map  $T:V\to V$ .

If M is cyclic then there is an  $m \in M$  so that every  $m' \in M$  is given by p(x)m for some  $p(x) \in F[x]$ .

This means that that there is a vector  $v \in V$  so that every vector  $v' \in V$  is of the form p(T)v. In other words, the set  $v, Tv, T^2v, \ldots, T^nv, \ldots$  spans V.

If  $V = F^2$  and T satisfies  $Te_1 = 0$  and  $Te_2 = e_2$  then V is not cyclic.

If  $Te_1 = 0$  and  $Te_2 = e_1$  then V is cyclic and generated by  $e_2$ . Also  $T^2e_2 = 0$  and so as an R-module V is isomorphic to  $F[x]/(x^2)$ .

# **Direct Sums and Direct Products**

#### Direct Products (definition)

Suppose that  $M_1, \ldots, M_k$  are R modules. The direct product  $M_1 \times \cdots \times M_k$  of the  $M_i$  is the set of "vectors"  $(m_1, \ldots, m_k)$  with  $m_i \in M_i$ . Addition and multiplication by R are done componentwise.

#### Internal direct sums

Suppose that M is an R-module and  $N_1, \ldots, N_k$  are submodules of M. There is a module homomorphism

$$N_1 \times \cdots \times N_k \to N_1 + \cdots N_k \subset M$$

defined by sending  $(n_1, \ldots, n_k) \to n_1 + \cdots n_k$ .

# Internal direct sums (continued)

**Definition:** The sum map above is an isomorphism if and only if either of the following two conditions are satisfied:

- $N_j\cap (N_1+\cdots N_{j-1}+N_{j+1}+\cdots N_k)=0$  for all  $j=1,2,\ldots,k$  Any  $x\in N_1+N_2+\ldots+N_k$  can be written uniquely as a sum x=1 $n_1 + n_2 + \ldots + n_k$  with  $n_i \in N_i$ .

If M is isomorphic to  $N_1 \times \cdots \times N_k$  via the sum map, we say that

$$M = N_1 \oplus N_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus N_k$$

and say that M is the internal direct sum of the  $N_i$ .

#### Direct Sums vs Direct Products

#### **Definitions**

Suppose that I is a set and  $M_i$  is an R-module for each  $i \in I$ .

The direct product  $\prod_I M_i$  is the collection of all functions  $f: I \to \bigcup_{i \in I} M_i$  such that  $f(i) \in M_i$ . It is an R-module: (f+g)(i) = f(i) + g(i) and (rf)(i) = r(f(i)).

The direct sum  $\bigoplus_I M_i$  is the submodule of  $\prod_I M_i$  consisting of functions f with the additional property that there is a finite subset  $J \subset I$  such that f(i) = 0unless  $i \in J$ .

Notice that if I is finite then these two things are the same.

#### Countable sums and products

Suppose that  $I = \mathbb{N}$ , the natural numbers, and  $M_i$  is a family of R-modules indexed by I. Then:

- $\prod_{i \in I} M_i$  consists of sequences  $(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, \dots)$  where  $m_i \in M_i$ .  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$  consists of sequences  $(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, \dots)$  where  $m_i \in M_i$  and there is an N such that  $m_i = 0$  for all  $i \geq N$ .

Notice that, if each  $M_i$  is countable, then so is  $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ , but  $\prod_{i \in I} M_i$  is not.

# Free Modules

#### Definition

**Definition:** A module M is *free* on a set A of generators if, for every nonzero element m of M, there are *unique* nonzero  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$  in R and elements  $a_1, \ldots, a_k$  in A such that

$$m = r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_k a_k.$$

Such a set A is called a *basis* of M, so a module M is free if it has a basis.

### Examples and non-examples

If  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$  is finite, then M is free on A if the map

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^n R \to M$$

defined by  $(r_1, \ldots, r_n) \mapsto r_1 a_1 + \cdots + r_n a_n$  is an isomorphism. So basically M is free on a set A with n elements if and only if it is isomorphic to  $R^n$ .

If  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $M = \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  is not free on (1,0) and (0,1). Every  $m \in M$  is a linear combination  $r_1(1,0) + r_2(0,1)$  for  $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ , but  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are not uniquely determined. In fact M is not free on any set of generators.

Any vector space over F is a free F-module.

# Rings with nonprincipal ideals.

A principal ideal in a (commutative) ring is a free module, but a non-principal ideal is not. Consider  $I=(2,1+\sqrt{-5})\subset R=\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ . Choose any two elements of this ideal, say x and y. Then  $-y\cdot x+x\cdot y=0$  which shows that the map  $R\oplus R\to I$  is not injective. On the other hand we know that the ideal is not principal.

# Mapping property

Let A be a set. There exists a module F(A), called the *free module on A*, which contains A as a subset.

It satisfies the following property.

Let M be any module and let  $f:A\to M$  be any map of sets. Then there is a unique module homomorphism  $\Phi:F(A)\to M$  such that the following diagram commutes:



# Examples of mapping property

- If V is a vector space and B is a basis, then V is free on B. A linear map from V → W is determined by where you send B. In this situation, f: B → W is the map of sets sending the basis of V to a subset of W, and Φ is the resulting linear map.
- If A is any set, then F(A) is the R-module of "formal linear combinations of elements of A": the set of sums  $\sum r_i a_i$  over finite collections  $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$  of elements of A.
- Alternatively it is the set of functions  $f: A \to R$  that are zero for all but a finite subset of A with pointwise addition and scalar multiplication.

#### Uniqueness

Any two free modules on the same set are isomorphic via the module map induced by the identity map on A.

# Rank

Let R be an integral domain.

**Definition:** The rank of an R-module is the maximum number of R-linear independent elements of M.

**Proposition:** Let M be a free R module of rank n. Then any n+1 elements of M are linearly dependent. Thus any submodule of M has rank at most n.

**Proof:** Let  $m_1, \ldots, m_{n+1}$  be elements of M and let  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  be a basis of M. Each  $m_i$  is an R-linear combination of the  $e_i$ . We can view the  $m_i$  as vectors in  $F^n$  where F is the fraction field of R. They are linearly dependent in  $F^n$ , meaning there is a relation

$$\sum f_i m_i = 0$$

where the  $f_i$  are in F. Clearing denominators gives a relation over R. ## Torsion

# **Torsion Definition**

Suppose that R is a ring with unity.

**Definition:** Let M be an R-module. An element  $m \in M$  is a torsion element if rm = 0 for some nonzero  $r \in R$ . The set of torsion elements in M is called Tor(M).

- Any finite abelian group is a torsion  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.
- Any cyclic *R*-module is torsion.
- Any finite dimensional vector space V over a field F with a linear map  $T:V\to V$  is a torsion F[x]-module.

**Lemma:** If R is an integral domain and M is an R-module, then the set of torsion elements is a submodule.

**Proof:** If  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are torsion,  $r_1m_1 = 0$  and  $r_2m_2 = 0$ , with both  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  nonzero, then  $r_1r_2(m_1 + m_2) = 0$  and  $r_1r_2(m_1m_2) = 0$ , and  $r_1r_2$  is nonzero since R is an integral domain.

#### Torsion-free modules

If R is an integral domain, an R-module M is called torsion-free if Tor(M) = 0.

Any free module is torsion-free, but the converse is false. For example, non-principal ideals in integral domains are not free. This follows from the following lemma.

**Lemma:** An ideal of R is free if and only if it is principal.

**Proof:** R is a free module of rank 1, so a submodule has rank at most 1; if it has rank 1, it is a principal ideal.

View as slides