## 4 Module Theory

## 4.1 Definitions and Examples

This section of notes roughly follows Section 10.1 in Dummit and Foote.

Let's start with the definition of a module.

**Definition 4.1.** Let *R* be a ring (not necessarily commutative nor with 1). A **left** *R***-module** (or **left module over** *R*) is a set *M* together with

- (1) a binary operation + on M under which M is an abelian group, and
- (2) an action of R on M (that is,  $R \times M \to M$ ) denoted by rm, for all  $r \in R$  and for all  $m \in M$  that satisfies.
  - (a) (r+s)m = rm + sm for all  $r, s \in R$  and  $m \in M$ ,
  - (b) (rs)m = r(sm) for all  $r, s \in R$  and  $m \in M$ , and
  - (c) r(m+n) = rm + rn all  $r \in R$  and  $m, n \in M$ .

(d) If *R* has a 1, then we also require: 1m = m for all  $m \in M$ .

We analogously define **right** R-**modules**. If R is commutative and M is a left R-module, then we can make it a right R-module by defining mr = rm for all  $r \in R$  and  $m \in M$ . Notice that we cannot do this in general if R is not commutative since Axiom (2b) may fail. Unless we explicitly say otherwise, all modules will be left modules. Modules satisfying Axiom (2d) are call **unital modules**. We will assume that all our modules are unital.

The axioms for a module should look familiar. If R is a field, the axioms are precisely those for a vector space over R.

We emphasize that an abelian group M may have many different R-module structures for a fixed ring R (in the same way a group G could act in many ways as a permutation group of some fixed set S).

**Definition 4.2.** Let R be a ring and let M be an R-module. An R-submodule of M is a subgroup N of M that is closed under the action of ring elements, i.e.,  $rn \in N$  for all  $r \in R$  and  $n \in N$ .

As expected, submodules of M are just subsets of M that are themselves modules under the same action. In particular, if R is a field, submodules are just vector subspaces. Every R-module has at least two submodules: M and  $\{0\}$ . The latter is often written as just 0 and called the **trivial submodule**.

**Example 4.3.** Let's see some examples.

- (1) Let R be any ring. Then M = R is a left R-module, where the action of a ring element on a module element is just usual ring multiplication. In this case, the submodules of M = R are the left ideals of R.
- (2) A special case of the first example is what *R* is a field. Then *R* is 1-dimensional vector space over itself.
- (3) More generally, if R = F is a field, every vector space over F is an F-module and vice versa. Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and let

$$F^n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in F \text{ for all } i\}.$$

We can make  $F^n$  into an n-dimensional vector space by defining addition and scalar multiplication in the standard way.

(4) Let *R* be a ring with 1 and let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . As above, define

$$R^n = \{(a_1, ..., a_n) \mid a_i \in R \text{ for all } i\}.$$

We can make  $R^n$  an R-module by defining addition and multiplication by elements of R in the same manner as when R was a field. The module  $R^n$  is called the **free module of rank** n **over** R.

(5) The same abelian group M may have the structure of a module for several different rings R. In particular, if M is an R-module and S is a subring of R with  $1_R = 1_S$ , then M is

automatically an S-module. For example, the field  $\mathbb{R}$  is an  $\mathbb{R}$ -module, a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -module, and a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

(6) If M is an R-module and for some 2-sided ideal I of R, am = 0 for all  $a \in I$  and  $m \in M$ , we say M is **annihilated by** I. In this case, we can make M into an (R/I)-module by defining an action of the quotient ring R/I on M. For each  $m \in M$  and coset  $r + I \in R/I$ , define

$$(r+I)m = rm$$
.

Since am = 0 for all  $a \in I$  and  $m \in M$ , this is well-defined. In the special case that I is a maximal ideal in a commutative ring R and IM = 0, M is a vector space over the field R/I.

- (7)  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules...
- (8) F[x]-modules...

**Theorem 4.4** (Submodule Criterion). Let *R* be a ring and let *M* be an *R*-module. A subset *N* of *M* is a submodule of *M* iff

- (1)  $N \neq \emptyset$ , and
- (2)  $x + ry \in N$  for all  $r \in R$  and  $x, y \in N$ .

**Definition 4.5.** Let R be a commutative ring with 1. An R-algebra is a ring A with identity together with a ring homomorphism  $f: R \to A$  mapping  $1_R to 1_A$  such that the subring f(R) of A is contained in the center of A (i.e., the set of all elements of A that commute with every element of A).

If A is an R-algebra, then it is easy to verify that A has a natural left and right unital R-module structure defined by  $r \cdot a = a \cdot r = f(r)a$ , where f(r)a is just the multiplication in the ring A (which is the same as af(r) since f(r) lies in center). In general, it is possible for an R-algebra A to have other left (or right) R-module structures. Unless stated otherwise, we assume the natural module structure on algebra will be assumed.

Here is an alternate definition.

**Definition 4.6.** Let R be a commutative ring with 1. An R-algebra is a ring A that is also an R-module such that the multiplication map  $A \times A \rightarrow A$  is R-bilinear, that is,

$$r * (ab) = (r * a) \cdot b = a \cdot (rb)$$

for all  $a, b \in A$  and  $r \in R$ , where denotes the R-action on A.

Loosely speaking, the definition above says that an *R*-algebra is an *R*-module, where we are also allowed to multiply the module elements.

**Theorem 4.7.** Definitions 4.5 and 4.6 are equivalent.

**Example 4.8.** Here are a few quick examples. Throughout assume that R is a commutative ring with 1.

- (1) Any ring with 1 is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -algebra.
- (2) Let A be any ring with  $1_A$ . If R is a subring of the center of A containing  $1_A$ , then A is an R-algebra under  $f(r) = r1_A$  for  $r \in R$ . For example, the polynomial ring  $R[x_1, ..., x_n]$  is an R-algebra.
- (3) The group ring R[G] for a finite group G is an R-algebra.
- (4) If A is an R-algebra, then the R-module structure of A depends only on the subring f(R) contained in center of A. If we replace R by its image f(R), we see that up to ring homomorphism, every algebra A arises from a subring of the center of A that contains  $1_A$ .
- (5) In the special case that R = F is a field, F is isomorphic to its image under f, so we can identify F itself as a subring of A. So, saying that A is an algebra over a field F is the same as saying that the ring A contains the field F in its center and the identity of A and of F are the same.

**Definition 4.9.** If A and B are two R-algebra, an R-algebra homomorphism (respectively, **isomorphism**) is a ring homomorphism (respectively, isomorphism)  $\phi : A \to B$  such that

- (1)  $\phi(1_A) = 1_B$
- (2)  $\phi(r \cdot a) = r \cdot \phi(a)$  for all  $r \in R$  and  $a \in A$ .