# NOTES FOR ABSTRACT ALGEBRA

# Based on lectures provided by Dima Arinkin on MATH 742 2025 SPRING

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# Contents

# 1 Rings and Ideals

## 1.1 Rings

#### **Definiton 1.1.1.** (Ring)

A ring R is an abelian group with an associative multiplication distributive over the addition. (We always assume a ring has a multiplicative identity and commutative if not marked)

A unit is an element u with a reciprocal 1/u such that  $u \cdot 1/u = 1$ , which is also denoted  $u^{-1}$  and called a numtiplicative inverse and the units form a multiplicative group, denoted  $R^{\times}$ .

#### **Definition 1.1.2.** (Homomorphism)

A ring homomorphism is a ring map  $\phi: R \to R'$  which preserving sums, products and 1. If R' = R we call  $\phi$  an endomorphism and if it is also bijective we call it an automorphism.

# **Definiton 1.1.3.** (Subring)

A subset  $R'' \subset R$  is a buting if R'' is a ring and the inclusion  $R'' \leftarrow R$  is a ring map. We call R a extension of R'' and the inclusion an extension.

#### **Definition 1.1.4.** (Algebra)

An R-algebra is a ring R' that comes equipped with a ring homomorphism  $\phi: R \to R'$  called the structure map. An R-algebra homomorphism  $R' \to R''$  is a ring homomorphism between R-algebras compatible with structure maps.

#### **Definition 1.1.5.** (Group action)

A group G is said to act on R if there is a homomorphism given from G into the group of automorphisms of R. The ring of invariants  $R^G$  is the subring defined by

$$R^G := \{x \in R | qx = q \text{ for all } q \in G\}$$

#### **Definition 1.1.6.** (Boolean)

A ring B is called Boolean if  $f^2 = f$  for all  $f \in B$ , then 2f = 0 since

$$2f = (f+f)^2 = 4f$$

#### **Definition 1.1.7.** (Polynomial rings)

Let R be a ring,  $P := R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  the polynomial ring in n variables. P has the Universal Mapping Property (UMP), i.e. given a ring homomorphism  $\phi: R \to R'$  and given an element  $x_i$  of R' for each i, there is a unique ring map  $\pi: P \to R'$  with  $\pi|_R = \phi$  and  $\pi(X_i) = x_i$ .

Similarly, let  $X := \{X_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda} \in {\Lambda}}$  be any set of variables. Set P' := R[X] the elements of P' are the polynomials in any finitely many of X.

#### **Definition 1.1.8.** (Ideals)

Let R be a ring. An ideal I is a subset containing 0 of R such that  $xa \in I$  for any  $x \in R, a \in I$  and closed under addition.

For a subset  $S \subset R$ ,  $\langle S \rangle$  means the smallest ideal containing S.

Given a single element a, we say that the ideal  $\langle a \rangle$  is principal. For a number of ideals  $I_{\lambda}$ , the sum  $\sum I_{\lambda}$  mean the set of all finite linear combinations  $\sum x_{\lambda}a_{\lambda}$  for  $x_{\lambda} \in R$ ,  $a_{\lambda} \in I_{\lambda}$ . If

 $\Lambda$  is finite, then the product  $\prod I_{\lambda}$  means the ideal generated by all products  $\prod a_{\lambda}, a_{\lambda} \in I_{\lambda}$ . For two ideals I and J, the transporter of J into I mean the set

$$(I:J) := \{x \in R | xJ \subset I\}$$

If  $I \subset J$  a subsring such that  $I \neq J$ , then we call I proper.

For a ring homomorphism  $\phi: R \to R'$ ,  $I \subset R$  a subring, denote by IR' or  $I^e$  the ideal of R' generated by  $\phi(I)$  can we call it the extension of I.

Given an ideal J of R' and its preimage  $\phi^{-1}(J)$  is an ideal of R and we call ti the contraction of J denoted with  $J^c$ .

#### **Definiton 1.1.9.** (Residue Rings)

Let I be an ideal of R and the cosets of I

$$R/I := \{x + I | x \in R\}$$

have a ring structure and it will be called the residue ring or quotient ring or factor ring of R modulo I and the quotient map:

$$\kappa: R \to R/I, \quad \kappa(x) = x + I$$

and  $\kappa x$  is called the residue of x.

#### Proposition 1.1.1.

For  $I \subset R$  a subring and a ring homomorphism from R to R', then  $\ker(\phi) \supset I$  implies that is a ring homomorphism  $\psi : R/I \to R'$  with  $\psi \kappa = \phi$ .

 $\psi$  is surjective iff  $\phi$  is surjective.  $\psi$  is injective iff  $I = \ker(\phi)$ .

Corollary 1.1.2.  $R/\ker(\phi) \cong Im(\phi)$ 

#### Proposition 1.1.3.

R/I is universal among R-algebras R' such that IR' = 0, i.e. for  $\phi : R \to R'$  such that  $\phi(I) = 0$ , there is a unique ring homomorphism  $\psi : R/I \to R'$  such that  $\psi \kappa = \phi$ .

**Definition 1.1.10.** The UMP serves to determine R/I up to unique isomorphism, i.e. if R' equipped with  $\phi: R \to R'$  has the UMP too, then R' is isomorphic to R/I.

Proof.

If R' has the UMP among the R-algebras R'' such that IR''=0, then  $\phi(I)=0$  and hence there is a unique  $\psi:R/I\to R'$  such that  $\psi\kappa=\phi$  and since  $\kappa I=0$ , we know there exists unique  $\psi'$  such that  $\psi'\phi=\kappa$  and then  $(\psi'\psi)\kappa=\kappa$  and hence  $\psi'\psi=1$  and we are done by the uniqueness.

**Proposition 1.1.4.** Let R be a ring, P := R[X] the polynomial ring in one variable,  $a \in R$  and  $\pi : P \to R$  the R-algebra map define by  $\pi(X) := a$ , then

- $\ker \pi = \{F(X) \in P | F(a) = 0\} = \langle X a \rangle$
- $P/\langle X a \rangle \cong R$

#### **Definition 1.1.11.** (Order of a polynomial)

Let R be a ring, P the polynomial ring in variables  $X_{\lambda}$  for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  and  $(x_{\lambda}) \in R^{\Lambda}$  a vector. Let  $\phi_{(x_{\lambda})}P \to P$  denote the R-algebra homomorphism defined by  $\phi_{(x_{\lambda})}X_{\mu} := X_{\mu} + x_{\mu}$ . The order of F at the vector  $(x_{\lambda})$  is defined as the smallest degree of monomials M in  $(\phi_{(x_{\lambda})}F)$ .

We know  $\operatorname{ord}_{(x_{\lambda})} F = 0$  iff  $F(x_{\lambda}) \neq 0$ .

**Definition 1.1.12.** Let R be a ring, I an ideal and  $\kappa$  the quotient map. Given an ideal  $J \supset I$  then the cosets

$$J/I := \{b + I | b \in J\} = \kappa(J)$$

and then J/I is an ideal of R/I and also J/I = J(R/I).

**Proposition 1.1.5.** Given  $J \supset I$  and we know

$$\phi: R \to R/I \to (R/I)/(J/I)$$

then we have the commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \longrightarrow & R/J \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \cong \\ R/I & \longrightarrow & (R/I)/(J/I) \end{array}$$

Proof.

Since  $\phi(J) = 0$ , so there exists unique  $\psi : R/J \to (R/I)/(J/I)$  such that  $\psi \kappa_J = \phi$  and since  $\kappa_J(I) = 0$  and there exists p such that  $p\kappa_I = \kappa_J$  and consider p(J/I) = 0 and there exists p such that  $p \kappa_I = \kappa_J$  and consider p(J/I) = 0 and there exists p such that  $p \kappa_I = \kappa_J$  and consider p(J/I) = 0 and there exists p such that  $p \kappa_I = 0$  and it is easy to check  $p \kappa_I = 0$  by uniqueness and we are done.

**Definition 1.1.13.** Let R be a ring. Let  $e \in R$  be an idempotent, i.e.  $e^2 = e$  then Re is a ring with e as multiplication unit, but Re is not a subring unless e = 1.

Let e' := 1 - e, then e' is idempotent and ee' = 0 and we call them complementary idempotents.

Denote Idem(R) the set of all idempotents, which is close under a ring homomorphism.

**Proposition 1.1.6.** If  $e_1, e_2 \in R$  such that  $e_1 + e_2 = 1$  and  $e_1e_2 = 0$ , then they are complementary idempotents.

**Definition 1.1.14.** Let  $R: R' \times R''$  be a product of two rings with componentwise operations.

**Proposition 1.1.7.** Let R be a ring and e', e'' complementary idempotents. Set R' := Re' and R'' = Re''. Define  $\phi : R \to R' \times R''$  by  $\phi(x) = (xe', xe'')$  and then  $\phi$  is a ring isomorphism. R' = R/Re'' and R'' = R/Re'.

Proof.

Check  $\phi$  is surjective and injective.

There is a natrual isomorphism between  $I = \{(0, xe'')\} \subset R' \times R''$  and R'', and consider the diagram

$$\begin{matrix} R \longleftrightarrow R' \times R'' \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ R/R'' & R' \times R''/I \end{matrix}$$

and use the UMP.

#### 1.2 Prime Ideals

#### **Definition 1.2.1.** (Zerodivisors)

Let R be a ring. An element x is called a zerodivisor if there is a nonzero y such that xy = 0; otherwise, x is called a nonzerodivisor. Denote the set of zerodivisors by z.div(R)and the nonzerodivisors by  $S_0$ .

#### **Definition 1.2.2.** (Multiplicative subsets, prime ideals)

Let R be a ring. A subset S is called multiplicative if  $1 \in S$  and  $x, y \in S$  implies  $xy \in S$ . An ideal P is called prime if its complement R - p is multiplicative, or equivalentely, if  $1 \neq P$  and  $xy \in P$  implies  $x \in P$  or  $y \in P$ .

#### **Definition 1.2.3.** (Fields, domains)

A ring is called a field if  $1 \neq 0$  and if every nonzero element is a unit.

A ring is called an integral domain, or a domain if  $\langle 0 \rangle$  or equivalently, if R is nonzero and has no nonzero zerodivisors.

Every domain R is a subring of its fraction field  $Frac(R) := \{x/y, x, y \in R \text{ and } y \neq 0\}.$ 

**Proposition 1.2.1.** Any subring R of a field K is a domain, and for a domain R, Frac(R) has the UMP: the inclusion of R into any field L extends uniquely to an inclusion of Frac(R) into L.

Proof.

For any subring R of a field,  $a, b \in R$ , if ab = 0, and a nonzero, then b = 0 and we are done

If  $\phi: R \hookrightarrow L$ , then  $\phi(x/y) = \phi(x)\phi(y)^{-1}$  is well-defined and obviously a ring homomorphism and we are done.

## Definiton 1.2.4. (Polynomials over a domain)

Let R be a domain, X a set of variable. P := R[X] and then P is a domain, and Frac(P) is called the rational functions.

#### **Definition 1.2.5.** (Unique factorization)

Let R be a domain, p a nonzero nonunit. We call p prime if p|xy implies p|x or p|y, which is equivalent with  $\langle p \rangle$  is prime.

For  $x, y \in R$ , we call  $d \in R$  their gcd if d|x and d|y and if c|x, c|y then c|d.

p is irreducible if p = yz implies y or z is a unit. We call R is a UFG if every nonzero nonunit factors into a product of irreducibles and the factorization is unique to order and units.

**Proposition 1.2.2.** If every nonzero nonunit factors have a factorization of a product of irreducible elements, then the factorization is unique up to order and units iff every irreducible element is prime.

Proof.

**Lemma 1.2.3.** Let  $\phi: R \to R'$  be a ring homomorphism, and  $T \subset R'$  a subset. If T is multiplicative, then  $\phi^{-1}T$  is multiplicative; the converse holds if  $\phi$  is surjective.

Proof.

**Proposition 1.2.4.** Let  $\phi: R \to R'$  be a ring map, and  $J \subset R'$  an ideal. Set  $I := \phi^{-1}J$ . If J is prime, then I is prime; the converse holds if  $\phi$  is surjective.

Corollary 1.2.5. Let R be a ring, I an ideal. Then I is prime iff R/I is a domain.

Proof.

Consider

$$\kappa: R \to R/I$$

the quotient map and I prime implies  $\langle 0 \rangle$  is prime in R/I and hence R/I is a domain.

#### **Definition 1.2.6.** (Maximal ideal)

Let R be a ring. An ideal I is sai to be maximal if I is proper and there is no proper ideal J such that  $I \subset J, I \neq J$ .

**Proposition 1.2.6.** A ring R is a field iff  $\langle 0 \rangle$  is a maximal ideal.

Corollary 1.2.7. Let R be a ring, I an ideal. Then I is maximal iff R/I is a field.

Proof.

Only need to check  $\langle 0 \rangle$  is maximal in R/I.

Corollary 1.2.8. In a ring, every maximal ideal is prime.

**Definition 1.2.7.** (Coprime)

Let R be a ring, and  $x, y \in R$ . We say x and y are coprime if their ideals  $\langle x \rangle$  and  $\langle y \rangle$  are comaximal.

x and y are coprime if and only if there are  $a, b \in R$  such that ax + by = 1.

**Definition 1.2.8.** A domain R is called a Principal Ideal Domain if every ideal is principal. A PID is a UFD.

**Theorem 1.2.9.** Let R be a PID. Let P := R[X] be the polynomial ring in one variable X, and I a nonzero prime ideal of P. Then  $P = \langle F \rangle$  with F prime, or P is maximal. Assume P is maximal. Then either  $P = \langle F \rangle$  with F prime, or  $P = \langle p, G \rangle$  with  $p \in R$  prime,  $pR = P \cap R$  and  $G \in P$  prime with iamge  $G' \in (R/pR)[X]$  prime.

**Theorem 1.2.10.** Every proper ideal I is contained in some maximal ideal.

Corollary 1.2.11. Let R be a ring,  $x \in R$ . Then x is a unit iff x belongs to non maximal ideal.

#### 1.3 Radicals

#### **Definiton 1.3.1.** (Radical)

Let R be a ring. Its radical rad(R) is defined to be the intersection of all its maximal ideals.

**Proposition 1.3.1.** Let R be a ring, I an ideal,  $x \in R$  and  $u \in R^{\times}$ . Then  $x \in \operatorname{rad}(R)$  iff  $u - xy \in R^{\times}$  for all  $y \in R$ . In particular, the sum of an element of  $\operatorname{rad}(R)$  and a unit is a unit, and  $I \subset \operatorname{rad}(R)$  if  $1 - I \subset R^{\times}$ .

Proof.

For a maximal ideal J, if  $u - xy \in J$ , then  $u \in J$  which is a contradiction and hence u - xy is a unit. Conversely, if there exists J maximal such that  $x \in J$ , then  $\langle x \rangle + J = R$  and hence there exists  $m \in J$  such that u - xy = m for some unit u, which is a contradiction.

**Corollary 1.3.2.** Let R be a ring, I an ideal,  $\kappa: R \to R/I$  the quotient map. Assume  $I \subset \operatorname{rad}(R)$ , then  $\kappa$  is injective on  $\operatorname{Idem}(R)$ .

Proof.

For  $e, e' \in \text{Idem}(R)$  and x = e - e', if  $\kappa(x) = 0$ , then  $x^3 = x$  and hence  $x(1 - x^2) = 0$ , so  $1 - x^2$  is a unit and hence x is 0 and we are done.

#### **Definition 1.3.2.** (Local ring)

A ring is called local if it has exactly one maximal ideal, and semilocal if it has at least one and at most finitely many.

By the residue field of a local ring A, we mean the field A/M where M is the maximal ideal of A.

**Lemma 1.3.3.** Let A be a ring, N the set of nonunits. Then A is local iff N is an ideal, if so, then N is the maximal idal.

Proof.

Only need to check the sufficiency, if A is local, then we know M is contained in N, and if there is  $y \in M - N$ , then  $\langle y \rangle$  is a proper ideal and hence  $y \in N$ , which is a contradiction and hence M = N and we are done.

**Proposition 1.3.4.** Let R be a ring, S a multiplicative subset, and I an ideal with  $I \cap S = \emptyset$ . Set  $S := \{J, J \supset I, J \cap S = \emptyset\}$ , then S has a maximal element P and every such P is prime.

Proof.

By Zorn's lemma, their is a maximal element P in S, for  $x, y \in R - P$ , there exists  $p, q \in P, a, b \in R$  such that  $p + ax \in S, q + by \in S$  and hence  $pq + pby + qax + abxy \in S$ , and hence  $xy \notin P$  and we are done.

#### **Definition 1.3.3.** (Saturated multiplicative subsets)

Let R be a ring, and S a multiplicative subset. We say S is saturated if for  $x, y \in R, xy \in S$ , then  $x, y \in S$ .

**Lemma 1.3.5.** Let R be a ring, I a subset of R that is stable under addition and multiplication, and  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  ideals such that  $P_3, \dots, P_n$  are prime. If I is not contained in  $P_j$  for all j, then there is an  $x \in I$  such that  $x \in P_j$  for j or equivalently, if  $I \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i$ , then  $I \subset I_i$  for some i.

Proof.

If n=1 then we are done. We may use the induction, assume that  $n \geq 2$ , then by induction, for each i, there is  $x_i \in I$  such that  $x_i$  is not in  $P_j, i \neq j$  and  $x_i \in P_i$ , so then  $x_1 + x_2 \notin P_2$  if n=2. For other n, we will know  $(x_1 \cdots , x_{n-1}) \notin P_j$  for all j.

**Definition 1.3.4.** Let R be a ring, S a subset, its radical  $\sqrt{S}$  is the set

$$\sqrt{S} := \{ x \in R | x^n \in S \text{ for some } n \}$$

If I is an ideal and  $I = \sqrt{I}$ , then call I to be radical.

We call  $\sqrt{0}$  is the nilradical and denoted as  $\operatorname{nil}(R)$ . We call  $x \in R$  nilpotent if  $x \in \operatorname{nil}(0)$ , we call an ideal I nilpotent if  $a^n = 0$  for some  $n \ge 1$ .

**Theorem 1.3.6.** Let R be a ring, I an ideal, then

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{P \supset I, P \text{ prime}} P$$

Proof.

For  $x \notin \sqrt{I}$ , let S contains all the expotents of x and S is multiplicative, then  $I \cap S = \emptyset$  and then there is an P prime containing I with not containing x and hence  $\sqrt{a}$  contains the union.

Converse direction is easy.

**Proposition 1.3.7.** Let R be a ring, I an ideal. Then  $\sqrt{I}$  is an ideal.

**Definiton 1.3.5.** (Minimal primes)

Let R be a ring, I an ideal and P prime. We call P a minimal prime of I if P is minimal in the set of primes containing I, we all P a minimal prime of R if P is a minimal prime of  $\langle 0 \rangle$ .

**Proposition 1.3.8.** A ring R is reduced, i.e. 0 is the only nilpotent, and has only one minial prime iff R is a domain.

Proof.

Converse direction is obvious. If 0 is the only nilpotent elements, Q is a minimal prime ideal, then Q = 0 since 0 is the intersection of all the minimal primes, and we are done.

#### 1.4 Modules

**Definition 1.4.1.** (Modules)

Let R be a ring. An R-module M is an abelian group with a scalar multiplication  $R \times M \to M$  which is

- x(m+n) = xm + xn and (x+y)m = xm + ym
- x(ym) = (xy)m
- 1m = m

A submodule N of M closed under scalar multiplication.

Given  $m \in M$ , its annihilator

$$Ann(m) := \{x \in R | xm = 0\}$$

and the annilhilator of M is

$$Ann(M) := \{x \in R | xm = 0 \text{ for all } m \in M\}$$

We call the intersection of all maximal ideals containing Ann(M) the radical of M, denoted as rad(M).

**Proposition 1.4.1.** There is a bijection between the maximal ideals containing Ann(M) and the maximal ideals of R/Ann(M), and hence

$$rad(R/Ann(M)) = rad(M)/Ann(M)$$

**Proposition 1.4.2.** Given a submodule N of M, and then  $Ann(M) \subset Ann(N)$  and we also have  $Ann(M) \subset Ann(M/N)$ .

#### **Definition 1.4.2.** (Semilocal)

We call M semilocal if there are only finitely many maximal ideals containing Ann(M). If R is semilocal, so is M and we will know M is semilocal iff R/Ann(M) is a semilocal ring.

#### **Definition 1.4.3.** (Polynomials)

The sets of polynomials

$$M[X] := \{ \sum_{i=0}^{n} m_i M_i, M_i \text{ monomials} \}$$

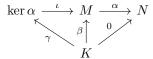
and then M[X] is an R[X] - module.

#### **Definiton 1.4.4.** (Homomorphisms)

Let R be aring, M and N modules. A R-linear map is a map  $\alpha: M \to N$  such that

$$\alpha(xm + yn) = x\alpha m + y\alpha n$$

Let  $\iota : \ker \alpha \to M$  be the inclusion and then  $\ker \alpha$  has the UMP:  $\alpha \iota = 0$  and for a homomorphism  $\beta : K \to M$  with  $\alpha \beta = 0$ , there is a unique homomorphism  $\gamma : K \to \ker \alpha$  with  $\iota \gamma = \gamma$  as shown below



#### **Definition 1.4.5.** (Endomorphism)

An endomorphism of M a self-homomorphism denoted as  $\operatorname{End}_R(M) \subset \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)$ . For  $x \in R$ , let  $\mu_x$  the self map of multiplication by x and then  $x \mapsto \mu_x$  denoted as

$$\mu_R: R \to \operatorname{End}_R(M)$$

and note that  $\ker \mu_R = \operatorname{Ann}(M)$ . We call M faithful if  $\mu_R$  is injective.

**Definition 1.4.6.** For two rings R and R', suppose R' is an R-algebra and M' an R'-module, then M' is also an R-module by  $xm := \phi(x)m$ .

A subalgebra R'' of R' is a subring such that the structure map owning image in R''. The subalgebra generated by  $x_{\lambda} \in R'$  for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$  is the smallest R-subalgebra containing  $x_{\lambda}$  and we denote it by  $R[\{x_{\lambda}\}]$  and we call  $x_{\lambda}$  the generators.

We say R' is a finitely generated R-algebra if there exists  $x_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$  such that  $R' = R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ .

#### **Definition 1.4.7.** (Residue modules)

Let R be a ring, Ma module and  $M' \subset M$  a submodule. Then

$$M/M' := \{m + M' | m \in M\}$$

which is the residue module or M modulo M', form the quotien map

$$\kappa: M \to M/M', \quad m \mapsto m + M'$$

#### **Definiton 1.4.8.** (Cyclic Modules)

Let R be a ring. A module M is said to be cyclic if there exists  $m \in M$  such that m = Rm, then  $\alpha : x \mapsto xm$  induces an isomorphism  $R/\mathrm{Ann}(m) \cong M$ .

#### **Definition 1.4.9.** (Noether Isomorphisms)

Let R be a ring, N a module, and L and M submodules.

Assume  $L \subset M$ , and

$$\alpha: N \to N/L \to (N/L)/(M/L)$$

and we may know  $\ker \alpha = M$ . then  $\alpha$  factors through the isomorphism  $\beta$  in  $N \to N/M \to (N/L)/(M/L)$  since  $\alpha$  is surjective and  $\ker \alpha = M$ , so

$$\begin{matrix} N & \longrightarrow & N/M \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow^{\beta} \\ N/L & \longrightarrow & (N/L)/(M/L) \end{matrix}$$

Assume L not in M and

$$L + M := \{l + m, l \in L, m \in M\}$$

and it will be a submodule, then similarly

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L & \longrightarrow & L/(L \cap M) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow^{\beta} \\ L+M & \longrightarrow & (L+M)/M \end{array}$$

#### **Definition 1.4.10.** (Cokernels, coimages)

Let R be a ring,  $\alpha:M\to N$  linear. Associated to  $\alpha$  there are its cokernel and its coimage

$$\operatorname{Coker}(\alpha) := N/\operatorname{Im}(\alpha) \quad \operatorname{Coim}(\alpha) := M/\ker \alpha$$

#### **Definition 1.4.11.** (Generators, free modules)

Let R be a ring, M a module. Given some submodules  $N_{\lambda}$ , by the sum  $\sum N_{\lambda}$ , we mean the set of all finite linear combinations  $\sum x_{\lambda}m_{\lambda}, m_{\lambda} \in N_{\lambda}$ .

Elements  $m_{\lambda}$  are said to be free of linearly independent if the linear combination equals to zero implies zero coefficients. If  $m_{\lambda}$  are said to be form a (free) basis of M, then they are free and generate M and we say M is free on  $m_{\lambda}$ .

We say M is finitely generated if it has a finite set of generators and M is free if it has a free basis.

**Theorem 1.4.3.** Let R be a PID, E a free module with  $e_{\lambda}$  a basis, and F a submodule, then F is free and has a basis indexed by a subset of  $\lambda$ .

**Definition 1.4.12.** Let R be a ring,  $\Lambda$  a set,  $M_{\lambda}$  a module for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ . The direct product of  $M_{\lambda}$  is the set of any vectors

$$\prod M_{\lambda} := \{ (m_{m_{\lambda}}) \}$$

which is a module under componentwise addition and scalar multiplication.

The direct sum of  $M_{\lambda}$  is the subset of restricted vectors:

$$\bigoplus M_{\lambda} := \{(m_{\lambda}), m_{\lambda} \text{ nonzero for only finite elements}\}$$

**Proposition 1.4.4.**  $\prod M_{\lambda}$  has the UMP, for *R*-homomorphism  $\alpha_{\kappa}: L \to M_{\kappa}$ , there is a unique *R*-homomorphism  $L \to \prod M_{\lambda}$  such that  $\pi_{\kappa}\alpha = \alpha_{\kappa}$ , in other words,  $\pi_{\lambda}$  induce a bijection of

$$\operatorname{Hom}(L, \prod M_{\lambda}) \cong \prod \operatorname{Hom}(L, M_{\lambda})$$

Similarly, the direct sum comes equipped with injections

$$\iota_{\kappa} \to \bigoplus M_{\lambda}$$

and it has the UMP: given  $\beta_{\kappa}: M_{\kappa} \to N$ , there is a unique R-homomorphism  $\beta: \bigoplus M_{\lambda} \to N$  such that  $\beta \iota_{\kappa} = \beta_{\kappa}$  and  $\iota_{\kappa}$  induce the bijection:

$$\operatorname{Hom}(\bigoplus, N) \to \bigoplus \operatorname{Hom}(M_{\lambda,N})$$

## 1.5 Exact Sequences

**Definition 1.5.1.** (Exact)

A sequence of module homomorphisms

$$\cdots \to M_{k-1} \stackrel{\alpha_{k-1}}{\to} M_k \stackrel{\alpha_k}{\to} M_{k+1} \to \cdots$$

is said to be exact at  $M_k$  if ker  $\alpha_k = \text{Im}(\alpha_k)$ . The sequence is said to be exact if it is exact at every  $M_k$ , except an initial source of final target.

**Definition 1.5.2.** (Short exact sequences)

A sequence  $0 \to L \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} N \to 0$  is exact if and only if  $\alpha$  is injective and  $N \cong \operatorname{Coker} \alpha$  or dually if and only if  $\beta$  is surjective and  $L = \ker \beta$ . Then the sequence is called short exact and we often regard L as a submodule of M and N the quotient M/L.

Proof

**Proposition 1.5.1.** For  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ , let  $M'_{\lambda} \to M_{\lambda} \to M''_{\lambda}$  be sequence of module homomorphisms. If every sequence is exact, then so are the two induced sequences

$$\bigoplus M_{\lambda}' \to \bigoplus M_{\lambda} \to \bigoplus M_{\lambda}'', \quad \prod M_{\lambda}' \to \prod M_{\lambda} \to \prod M_{\lambda}'$$

Conversely, if either induced sequence is exact then so is every original one.

Proof.

**Proposition 1.5.2.** Let  $0 \to M' \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} M \stackrel{\beta}{\to} M'' \to 0$  be a short exact sequence, and  $N \subset M$  a submodule. Set  $N' := \alpha^{-1}(N)$  and  $N'' := \beta(N)$ . Then the induced sequence  $0 \to N' \to N \to N'' \to 0$  is short exact.

**Definition 1.5.3.** (Retraction, section, splits)

A linear map  $\rho: M \to M'$  is a retraction of another  $\alpha: M' \to M$  if  $\rho \alpha = 1_{M'}$ , then  $\alpha$  is injective and  $\rho$  is surjective.

Dually, we call  $\sigma: M'' \to M$  a section of another  $\beta: M \to M''$  if  $\beta \sigma = 1_{M''}$ , then  $\beta$  is surjective and  $\sigma$  is injective.

We call a 3-term exact sequence  $M' \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} M \stackrel{\beta}{\to} M''$  splits if there is an isomorphism  $\phi: M \cong M' \oplus M''$  with  $\phi \alpha = \iota_{M'}$  and  $\beta = \pi_{M''} \phi$ .

**Proposition 1.5.3.** Let  $M' \stackrel{\alpha}{\to} M \stackrel{\beta}{\to} M''$  be a 3-term exact sequence. Then the following conditions are equivalent

- The sequence splits
- There exists a retraction  $\rho: M \to M'$  of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is surjective.
- There exists a section  $\sigma: M'' \to M$  of  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  is injective

#### Proof.

Assume the sequence is splits, then we have the commuting diagram

$$M' \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} M''$$

$$\downarrow^{\iota_{M'}} \downarrow^{\phi(\cong)^{M''}} M''$$

$$M' \oplus M''$$

then let  $\rho = \pi_{M'}\phi$ , then  $\rho\alpha = \pi_{M'}\phi\phi^{-1}\iota_{M'} = 1_{M'}$ . Let  $\sigma = \phi^{-1}\iota_{M''}$  and then  $\beta\sigma = \pi_{M''}\phi\phi^{-1}\iota_{M''} = 1_{M''}$  and then  $\beta$  is surjective and  $\alpha$  is injective.

Now assume there is such a retraction  $\rho$  and  $\beta$  is surjective, then define  $\sigma = 1_M - \alpha \rho$  and  $\phi: M \to M' \oplus M''$  by  $m \mapsto (\rho(m), \beta \sigma(m))$ ., if  $\phi(m) = 0$ , then  $\rho(m) = 0$  and  $\sigma(m) = m$ , which means  $\beta(m) = 0$ . There exists  $a \in M'$  such that  $m = \alpha(a)$  and hence a = 0 which means m = 0, so  $\ker \phi = 0$ . For  $(a,b) \in M' \oplus M''$ , assume  $\beta(m) = b$ , then  $\phi(\alpha(a) + \sigma(m)) = (a + \rho(m - \alpha \rho(m)), \beta(\alpha(a)) + \beta(\sigma(m))) = (a,b)$  and hence  $\phi$  is surjective. And  $\phi\alpha(a) = (a, \beta\sigma\alpha(a)) = (a,0)$  and  $\pi_{M''}\phi(m) = \beta(\sigma(m)) = \beta(m)$  and we are done.

**Lemma 1.5.4.** Consider this commutative diagram with exact rows:

It yields the following exact sequence:

$$\ker \gamma' \overset{\varphi}{\to} \ker \gamma \overset{\psi}{\to} \ker \gamma'' \overset{\partial}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \gamma' \overset{\varphi'}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \gamma \overset{\psi'}{\to} \operatorname{coker} \gamma''$$

Moreover, if  $\alpha$  is injective, then so is  $\varphi$ ; dually, if  $\beta'$  is surjective, then so is  $\psi'$ .

Proof.

Notice  $\alpha'\gamma' = \gamma\alpha, \beta'\gamma = \gamma''\beta$  and let  $\varphi = \alpha|_{\ker\gamma'}, \psi = \beta|_{\ker\gamma}$  and we know  $\varphi(\ker\gamma') \subset \ker\gamma, \psi(\ker\gamma) \subset \ker\gamma''$ . Obviously,  $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi) \subset \ker\psi$  and for any  $b \in \ker\psi$ , it is in  $\ker\gamma \cap \operatorname{Im}\alpha$ , since  $\alpha'$  is injective and hence its preimage has to be contained in  $\ker\gamma'$  and hence it is in  $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi)$ .

 $\alpha', \beta'$  will induce natural  $\varphi', \psi'$  on  $\operatorname{coker} \gamma', \operatorname{coker} \gamma$  by defining  $n' + \operatorname{Im} \gamma' \mapsto \alpha'(n') + \operatorname{Im} \gamma, n + \operatorname{Im} \gamma \mapsto \beta'(n) + \operatorname{Im} \gamma''$ , which is well-defined since  $\alpha'(\operatorname{Im} \gamma') \subset \operatorname{Im} \gamma, \beta'(\operatorname{Im} \gamma) \subset \operatorname{Im} \gamma''$  and the exactness is similarly checked.

Define  $\partial$  by the following, if  $\gamma''m''=0$ , consider m is one of preimage of m'' and let a to be the preimage of  $\gamma(m)$ , then let  $\partial m''=a+\operatorname{Im}\gamma'$ . It is well-defined since if  $\beta m=\beta n=m''$ , then  $m-n\in\ker\beta$ , which means the preimages of  $\gamma m,\gamma n$  are in the same coset. For  $m\in\ker\gamma$ ,  $\partial(\psi(m))=\alpha'^{-1}\gamma(m)+\operatorname{Im}\gamma'=0$  and if  $\partial(m'')=0$ , then assume  $\beta m=m''$  and we know  $\alpha^{-1}\gamma(m)\in\operatorname{Im}\gamma'$  and hence there exists  $x\in M'$  such that  $\gamma\alpha x=\gamma m$  and we know  $\beta(m-\alpha(x))=m''$  and  $\gamma(m-\alpha x)=0$ , which means  $\ker\partial=\operatorname{Im}\psi$ . If  $a=\alpha'^{-1}(\gamma(m))$  with  $m''=\beta m\in\ker\gamma''$ , then  $\varphi'(a+\operatorname{Im}(\gamma'))=\alpha' a+\operatorname{Im}\gamma=0$  and if  $\varphi'(a+\operatorname{Im}(\gamma'))=0$ , then there exists m such that  $\alpha'(a)=\gamma m$  and then  $\partial(\beta(m))=a+\operatorname{Im}\gamma'$  and we are done.

#### **Theorem 1.5.5.** (Left exactness of Hom)

• Let  $M' \to M \to M'' \to 0$  be a sequence of linear maps. Then it is exact iff for all modules N, the following induced sequence is exact

$$0 \to \text{hom}(M'', N) \to \text{hom}(M, N) \to \text{hom}(M', N)$$

• Let  $0 \to N' \to N \to N''$  be as sequence of linear maps. Then it is exact iff for all modules M, the following induced sequence is exact.

$$0 \to \text{hom}(M, N') \to \text{hom}(M, N) \to \text{hom}(M, N'')$$

Proof.

Assume  $M' \stackrel{\phi}{\to} M \stackrel{\psi}{\to} M''$  and then the induced map will be  $\tilde{\psi}: f \mapsto f \circ \psi$  and  $\tilde{\phi}: g \mapsto g \circ \phi$ . If  $\psi$  is surjective, then  $\tilde{\psi}$  will be an injective since  $f \circ \psi = 0$  implies f = 0, and if  $g \circ \phi = 0$ , then  $\ker \psi = \operatorname{Im} \phi \subset \ker g$  and hence there will be  $g': M'' \cong M/\ker \psi \to N$  such that  $g'\psi = g$  by the UMP and we are done. We know for  $g: M \to N, g \circ \phi = 0$ , equivalently  $\operatorname{Im} \phi \subset \ker g$  iff there exists unique  $g': M'' \to N$  such that  $g' \circ \psi = g$ , which means  $M'' \cong \operatorname{coker} \phi$  and the diagram

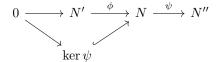
$$M' \xrightarrow{\phi} M \xrightarrow{\psi} M'' \xrightarrow{} 0$$

$$coker \phi$$

commutes and we are done.

Similarly assume that  $N' \xrightarrow{\phi} N \xrightarrow{\psi} N''$ , then  $\tilde{\phi} : f \mapsto \phi \circ f$  and  $\tilde{\psi} : g \mapsto \psi \circ g$ , which means  $\ker \psi = N' \hookrightarrow N$ . It is easy to check  $\ker \tilde{\phi} = 0$  and  $\operatorname{Im} \tilde{\phi} \subset \ker \tilde{\psi}$ . For  $g \in \ker \tilde{\psi}$ , since  $\operatorname{Im} g \subset \ker \psi = \operatorname{Im} \phi$ , then let  $g' = g|_N$  will satisfy that  $\phi \circ g' = g$ . For the converse direction, we know for any  $g : M \to N$ ,  $\operatorname{Im} g \subset \ker \psi$  iff there exists a unique  $g' : M \to N'$  such that

 $\phi \circ g' = g$ , then we may, which is



#### **Definition 1.5.4.** (Presentation)

A (free) presentation of a module M is an exact sequence

$$G \to F \to M \to 0$$

with G and F free. If G and F are free of finite rank, then the presentation is called finite. If M has a finite presentation, then call M finitely presented.

**Proposition 1.5.6.** Let R be a ring, M a module,  $m_{\lambda}$  generators. Then there is an exact sequence  $0 \to K \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$  with  $\alpha e_{\lambda} = m_{\lambda}$  where  $e_{\lambda}$  the standard basis and there is a presentation.

Remark.

Choose  $K = \ker \alpha$  and  $k_{\sigma}, \sigma \in \Sigma$  to be generators of K, then

$$R^{\oplus \Sigma} \to R^{\oplus \Lambda} \to M \to 0$$

is a presentation.

#### **Definition 1.5.5.** (Projective Module)

A module P is called projective if given any surjective linear map  $\beta: M \to N$ , every linear map  $\alpha: P \to N$  lifts to one  $\gamma: P \to M$ , i.e.  $\alpha = \beta \gamma$ .

**Theorem 1.5.7.** The following conditions on an R-module P are equivalent

- The module P is projective
- Every short exact sequence  $0 \to K \to M \to P \to 0$  splits
- There is a module K such that  $K \oplus P$  is free
- Every exact sequence  $N' \to N \to N''$  induces an exact sequence

$$hom(P, N) \to hom(P, N) \to hom(P, N'')$$

• Every surjective homomorphism  $\beta: M \to N$  induces a surjection

$$hom(P, \beta) : hom(P, M) \to hom(P, N)$$

Proof.

By considering the  $P \cong M/\ker \phi$  it will induce a section of  $\psi: M \to P$  and obviously  $\phi: K \to M$  is injective and we are done for (1) implies (2). Use proposition 1.5.6. and we will know there exists K such that  $K \oplus P \cong R^{\oplus \Lambda}$  which is free, which is for (2) implies (3).

Assume (3), then there exists  $\Lambda$  such that  $K \oplus P \cong R^{\oplus \Lambda}$ . Also notice that we will have

$$\prod N_{\lambda}' \to \prod N_{\lambda} \to \prod N_{\lambda}''$$

is exact, which implies that

$$\hom(R^{\oplus \Lambda}, N') \to \hom(R^{\oplus \Lambda}, N) \to \hom(R^{\oplus \Lambda}, N'')$$

is exact since  $hom(R^{\oplus \Lambda}, N) \cong \prod N_{\lambda}$  and hence

$$hom(K \oplus P, N') \to hom(K \oplus P, N) \to hom(K \oplus P, N'')$$

which implies

$$hom(K, N') \oplus hom(P, N') \to hom(K, N) \oplus hom(P, N) \to hom(K, N'') \oplus hom(P, N'')$$

by isomorphism and hence the conclusion goes.

Assume (4), we know  $M \to N \to 0$  is exact and we are done.

Assume (5), which is exactly the definition of projective module.

#### Lemma 1.5.8. (Schanuel)

Any two short exact sequences

$$0 \to L \xrightarrow{i} P \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \to 0$$
,  $0 \to L' \xrightarrow{i'} P' \xrightarrow{\alpha'} M \to 0$ 

with P and P' projective are essentially isomorphic; i.e. there is the following commutative diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow L \oplus P' \xrightarrow{i \oplus 1_{P'}} P \oplus P' \xrightarrow{\alpha \oplus 0} M \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow \cong \beta \qquad \qquad \downarrow \cong \gamma \qquad \qquad \downarrow =$$

$$0 \longrightarrow P \oplus L' \xrightarrow{1_P \oplus i'} P \oplus P' \xrightarrow{0 \oplus \alpha'} M \longrightarrow 0$$

Proof.

Firstly, it is easy to check the two exact sequences are exact. Then consider

$$0 \to K := \ker(\alpha \oplus \alpha') \to P \oplus P' \to M \to 0$$

Notice L is  $\ker \alpha$ , and for  $(p, p') \in L \oplus P'$ , denoted  $\psi : L \oplus P' \to K$  the induced map by  $\phi^{-1}$  and then  $\psi(p, p') = (p - \pi p', p')$  which is in  $\ker(\alpha \oplus \alpha')$  and it has inverse obviously, and hence  $L \oplus P' \cong K$ , and use the similar construction to  $P \oplus L'$  and we are done.

**Proposition 1.5.9.** Let R be a ring, and  $0 \to M \to N \to M' \to 0$  an exact sequence. Prove M, M' are finitely generated implies N is finitely generated.

**Proposition 1.5.10.** Let R be a ring, and  $0 \to L \to R^n \to M \to 0$  an exact sequence. Prove M is finitely generated iff L is finitely presented.

**Proposition 1.5.11.** Let  $0 \to L \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} N \to 0$  be a short exact sequence with L finitely generated and M finitely presented. Then N is finitely presented.

Proof.

There exists  $G \to F \to M \to 0$  exact with G, F free of finite rank. Let  $\mu : \mathbb{R}^m \to M$  any surjection and  $\nu := \beta \mu$ , let  $K = \ker \nu$  and  $\lambda = \mu|_{K}$ , then the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow K \longrightarrow R^m \stackrel{\nu}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\lambda} \qquad \downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \downarrow^{1_N}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes and the snake lemma ensure that  $\ker \lambda \cong \ker \mu$ , however  $\ker \mu$  is finitely generated and hence  $\ker \lambda$  is finitely generated, and snake lemma ensured that  $\operatorname{coker} \lambda = 0$  and hence  $0 \to \ker \lambda \to K \to L \to 0$  is exact and hence K is finitely generated and hence N is finitely presented.

**Proposition 1.5.12.** Let  $0 \to L \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} N \to 0$  be a short exact sequence with L, N finitely presented. Then M is finitely presented.

Proof.

Let  $\lambda: R^l \to L, \nu: R^n \to N$  any two surjections and define  $\gamma:=\alpha\lambda$  and since  $R^n$  is projective, then define  $\delta: R^n \to M$  by lifting  $\nu$  and  $\mu: R^l \oplus R^n \to M$  by  $\gamma + \delta$  and the diagram

$$0 \longrightarrow R^{l} \longrightarrow R^{l} \oplus R^{n} \stackrel{\nu}{\longrightarrow} R^{n} \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\downarrow^{\lambda} \qquad \downarrow^{\mu} \qquad \downarrow^{\nu}$$

$$0 \longrightarrow L \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$$

commutes, and the snake lemma yields that

$$0 \to \ker \lambda \to \ker \mu \to \ker \nu \to 0$$

exact and  $\operatorname{coker} \mu = 0$  and  $\ker \lambda$ ,  $\ker \mu$  are finitely generated and hence  $\ker \mu$  is ginitely generated and hence M is finitely presented.