
NOTES FOR ABSTRACT ALGEBRA

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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 .

Definiton 1.1.2. (Homomorphism)

A ring homomorphism is a ring map $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ which preserving sums, products and 1. If $R' = R$ we call ϕ 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 $R'' \hookrightarrow R$ is a ring map. We call R a extension of R'' and the inclusion an extension.

Definiton 1.1.4. (Algebra)

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

Definiton 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

$$R^G := \{x \in R \mid gx = x \text{ for all } g \in G\}$$

Definiton 1.1.6. (Boolean)

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

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

Definiton 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 $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ and given an element x_i of R' for each i , there is a unique ring map $\pi : P \rightarrow R'$ 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 .

Definiton 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_λ , 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

Λ 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 subring such that $I \neq J$, then we call I proper.

For a ring homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$, $I \subset R$ 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 it 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:

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

and κx 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 $\psi : R/I \rightarrow R'$ with $\psi\kappa = \phi$.

ψ is surjective iff ϕ is surjective. ψ 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 $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ such that $\phi(I) = 0$, there is a unique ring homomorphism $\psi : R/I \rightarrow R'$ such that $\psi\kappa = \phi$.

Definiton 1.1.10. The UMP serves to determine R/I up to unique isomorphism, i.e. if R' equipped with $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ 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 $\psi : R/I \rightarrow R'$ such that $\psi\kappa = \phi$ and since $\kappa I = 0$, we know there exists unique ψ' 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 $\pi : P \rightarrow R$ the R -algebra map define by $\pi(X) := a$, then

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

Definiton 1.1.11. (Order of a polynomial)

Let R be a ring, P the polynomial ring in variables X_λ for $\lambda \in \Lambda$ and $(x_\lambda) \in R^\Lambda$ a vector. Let $\phi_{(x_\lambda)} : P \rightarrow P$ denote the R -algebra homomorphism defined by $\phi_{(x_\lambda)} X_\mu := X_\mu + x_\mu$.

The order of F at the vector (x_λ) is defined as the smallest degree of monomials M in $(\phi_{(x_\lambda)} F)$.

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

Definiton 1.1.12. Let R be a ring, I an ideal and κ 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

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

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 $\psi : R/J \rightarrow (R/I)/(J/I)$ 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 h such that $h\kappa_{(J/I)} = p$ and it is easy to check $h\psi = 1$ by uniqueness and we are done.

Definiton 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 $\text{Idem}(R)$ 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 $e_1 e_2 = 0$, then they are complementary idempotents.

Definiton 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 $\phi : R \rightarrow R' \times R''$ by $\phi(x) = (xe', xe'')$ and then ϕ is a ring isomorphism. $R' = R/Re''$ and $R'' = R/Re'$.

Proof.

Check ϕ is surjective and injective.

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

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \longleftarrow & R' \times R'' \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ R/R'' & & R' \times R''/I \end{array}$$

and use the UMP.

1.2 Prime Ideals

Definiton 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 $\text{z.div}(R)$ and the nonzerodivisors by S_0 .

Definiton 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 equivalently, if $1 \notin P$ and $xy \in P$ implies $x \in P$ or $y \in P$.

Definiton 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 $\text{Frac}(R) := \{x/y, x, y \in R \text{ and } y \neq 0\}$.

Proposition 1.2.1. Any subring R of a field K is a domain, and for a domain R , $\text{Frac}(R)$ has the UMP: the inclusion of R into any field L extends uniquely to an inclusion of $\text{Frac}(R)$ 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 $\text{Frac}(P)$ is called the rational functions.

Definiton 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 $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ be a ring homomorphism, and $T \subset R'$ a subset. If T is multiplicative, then $\phi^{-1}T$ is multiplicative; the converse holds if ϕ is surjective.

Proof.

Proposition 1.2.4. Let $\phi : R \rightarrow R'$ 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 ϕ 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

$$\kappa : R \rightarrow R/I$$

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

Definiton 1.2.6. (Maximal ideal)

Let R be a ring. An ideal I is said 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.

Definiton 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 $ax + by = 1$.

Definiton 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 image $G' \in (R/pR)[X]$ 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 no maximal ideal.

1.3 Radicals

Definiton 1.3.1. (Radical)

Let R be a ring. Its radical $\text{rad}(R)$ 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 $x \in \text{rad}(R)$ iff $u - xy \in R^\times$ for all $y \in R$. In particular, the sum of an element of $\text{rad}(R)$ and a unit is a unit, and $I \subset \text{rad}(R)$ 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, $\kappa : R \rightarrow R/I$ the quotient map. Assume $I \subset \text{rad}(R)$, then κ is injective on $\text{Idem}(R)$.

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.

Definiton 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 ideal.

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 $\mathcal{S} := \{J, J \supset I, J \cap S = \emptyset\}$, then \mathcal{S} has a maximal element P and every such P is prime.

Proof.

By Zorn's lemma, there is a maximal element P in \mathcal{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.

Definiton 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 $I \subset P_i$ 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 .

Definiton 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 $\text{nil}(R)$. We call $x \in R$ nilpotent if $x \in \text{nil}(0)$, we call an ideal I nilpotent if $a^n = 0$ for some $n \geq 1$.

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

Definiton 1.4.1. (Modules)

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

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

A submodule N of M closed under scalar multiplication.

Given $m \in M$, its annihilator

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

and the annilhilator of M is

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

We call the intersection of all maximal ideals containing $\text{Ann}(M)$ the radical of M , denoted as $\text{rad}(M)$.

Proposition 1.4.1. There is a bijection between the maximal ideals containing $\text{Ann}(M)$ and the maximal ideals of $R/\text{Ann}(M)$, and hence

$$\text{rad}(R/\text{Ann}(M)) = \text{rad}(M)/\text{Ann}(M)$$

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

Definiton 1.4.2. (Semilocal)

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

Definiton 1.4.3. (Polynomials)

The sets of polynomials

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

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 $\alpha : M \rightarrow N$ such that

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

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \ker \alpha & \xrightarrow{\iota} & M & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & N \\ & \swarrow \gamma & \uparrow \beta & \searrow 0 & \\ & & K & & \end{array}$$

Definiton 1.4.5. (Endomorphism)

An endomorphism of M a self-homomorphism denoted as $\text{End}_R(M) \subset \text{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)$.

For $x \in R$, let μ_x the self map of multiplication by x and then $x \mapsto \mu_x$ denoted as

$$\mu_R : R \rightarrow \text{End}_R(M)$$

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

Definiton 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_λ and we denote it by $R[\{x_\lambda\}]$ and we call x_λ the generators.

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

Definiton 1.4.7. (Residue modules)

Let R be a ring, M a 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 quotient map

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

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 $R/\text{Ann}(m) \cong M$.

Definiton 1.4.9. (Noether Isomorphisms)

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

Assume $L \subset M$, and

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

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

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

Assume L not in M and

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

and it will be a submodule, then similarly

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

Definiton 1.4.10. (Cokernels, coimages)

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

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

Definiton 1.4.11. (Generators, free modules)

Let R be a ring, M a module. Given some submodules N_λ , 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_λ are said to be free of linearly independent if the linear combination equals to zero implies zero coefficients. If m_λ 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_λ .

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_λ a basis, and F a submodule, then F is free and has a basis indexed by a subset of λ .

Definiton 1.4.12. Let R be a ring, Λ a set, M_λ a module for $\lambda \in \Lambda$. The direct product of M_λ 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_λ is the subset of restricted vectors:

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

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

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

Similarly, the direct sum comes equipped with injections

$$\iota_\kappa \rightarrow \bigoplus M_\lambda$$

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

$$\text{Hom}(\bigoplus, N) \rightarrow \prod \text{Hom}(M_{\lambda,N})$$

1.5 Exact Sequences

Definiton 1.5.1. (Exact)

A sequence of module homomorphisms

$$\cdots \rightarrow M_{k-1} \xrightarrow{\alpha_{k-1}} M_k \xrightarrow{\alpha_k} M_{k+1} \rightarrow \cdots$$

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 or final target.

Definiton 1.5.2. (Short exact sequences)

A sequence $0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} N \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if α is injective and $N \cong \text{Coker} \alpha$ or dually if and only if β 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 $M'_\lambda \rightarrow M_\lambda \rightarrow M''_\lambda$ be sequence of module homomorphisms. If every sequence is exact, then so are the two induced sequences

$$\bigoplus M'_\lambda \rightarrow \bigoplus M_\lambda \rightarrow \bigoplus M''_\lambda, \quad \prod M'_\lambda \rightarrow \prod M_\lambda \rightarrow \prod M''_\lambda$$

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

Proof.

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

Definiton 1.5.3. (Retraction, section, splits)

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

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

We call a 3-term exact sequence $M' \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} M''$ 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 $M' \xrightarrow{\alpha} M \xrightarrow{\beta} M''$ be a 3-term exact sequence. Then the following conditions are equivalent

- The sequence splits
- There exists a retraction $\rho : M \rightarrow M'$ of α and β is surjective.
- There exists a section $\sigma : M'' \rightarrow M$ of β and α is injective

Proof.

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} M' & \xrightarrow{\alpha} & M & \xrightarrow{\beta} & M'' \\ & \searrow \iota_{M'} & \downarrow \phi(\cong) & \nearrow \pi_{M''} & \\ & & M' \oplus M'' & & \end{array}$$

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 β is surjective and α is injective.

Now assume there is such a retraction ρ and β is surjective, then define $\sigma = 1_M - \alpha\rho$ and $\phi : M \rightarrow M' \oplus M''$ 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 ϕ 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.