## Chapter 1 Module

§ 1.1 Definition and Propeties of Module

Assume R to be a unital commutative ring with unit  $1_R$  (or simply 1). We also assume  $0_R \neq 1_R$  to avoid some bad property of the ring R.

<u>Def 1.1</u> Let  $(R,+,\cdot)$  be a ring, (M.+) be an Abelian group, if there is a map  $R \times M \to M$ ,  $(a.m.) \mapsto a \cdot m$  such that:

(1) 
$$\alpha(x+y) = \alpha x + \alpha y$$

(2) 
$$(a+b)x = ax + bx$$

$$(3) (ab) x = a(bx)$$

(4) 
$$1x = x$$

then M is called a left R module.

Remark. The right module can be defined similaly. When R is a commutative ring, a left R-module is also a right R-module. (Def. 1.2)

Example 1.1 Vector spaces are modules over fields.

Example 1.2 Any Abelian group M is a Z-module with action given by  $m \cdot x := \underbrace{x + \dots + x}_{m}$ ,  $O_{\mathbf{z}} \cdot x := O_{\mathbf{M}}$ ,  $(-1) \cdot x = -x$ .

Example 1.3 Let V be a vector space over field IF and T be a linear operator  $T: V \rightarrow V$ . Consider polynomial ring  $F[\lambda]$ , we have  $F[\lambda] \cong F[T]$ , via the action of T on V, we obtain a  $F[\lambda]$  module structure over V,

$$F[\lambda] \times V \longrightarrow V,$$

$$(P(\lambda), \alpha) \mapsto P(T) \cdot \alpha.$$

Example 14 Ring R is a module over itself. If S is a subring of R, then R is a s-module, but S is not necessarily a R-module. When S is a ideal of R (all ideals are subrings), S is an R-module. Notice R is a subring of  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ , thus  $R[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  is an R-module. Similarly, the ring of formal power series R[[x]] is an R-module.

Example 1.5 Let R.S be ring and  $\Psi: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism, M be a S-module, then M is an R-module with action  $\alpha \cdot x := \Psi(\alpha) \cdot x$ .

<u>Claim</u> Let M be an R-module, we have:

(1) 
$$a \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$(1')$$
  $0: Y = 0_M$ 

(2) 
$$\alpha \cdot (-x) = -(\alpha x)$$
 (2)  $(-\alpha) \cdot x = -(\alpha \cdot x)$ 

$$(3) \quad \alpha \cdot \Sigma_{i} \chi_{i} = \Sigma_{i} \alpha \cdot \chi_{i} \qquad (3') \quad (\Sigma_{i} \Omega_{i}) \cdot \chi = \Sigma_{i} (\alpha_{i} \cdot \chi)$$

Proof. (1) 
$$a \cdot x = a \cdot (x + 0) = a \cdot x + a \cdot 0 \Rightarrow a \cdot 0 = 0$$
.

(1) 
$$a \cdot x = (a + b) \cdot x = a \cdot x + o \cdot x \Rightarrow o \cdot x = 0$$

(2) 
$$\alpha \cdot (-x) + \alpha \cdot x = \alpha \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha \cdot (-x) = -\alpha \cdot x$$

$$(2') (-\alpha) \cdot \chi + \alpha \cdot \chi = [(-\alpha) + \alpha] \cdot \chi = 0 \Rightarrow (-\alpha) \chi = -\alpha \cdot \chi$$

(3) and (3') are obvious.

Mainly use the cancellation property of group.

Example 1.6 Zero module M = {0}.

Def. 1.3 Let M be an R-module and  $N \neq \emptyset$  a subset of M. N is called a submodule of M if

(1) N is a subgroup of M;

(2)  $\alpha x \in N$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in R$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in N$ .

<u>Prop</u> 1.1 The non-empty subset  $N \subseteq M$  is a submodule iff

(1) & y, y2 e N, y, +y2 e N

(2) Yaer, YxeN, axeN

Proof. " => " is obvious

"=": Choose  $\alpha = 0$  in (2), and  $y \in N$ , based on claim above, we obtain  $0 \cdot y = 0 \in N$ .

Similarly, choose  $\alpha = -1$  and  $y \in N$ ,  $\leftarrow 1) \cdot y = -y \in N$ . Thus N is a subgroup.

Example 1.7 Let M be a Z-module, N is a submodule iff N is an additive subgroup.

Example 1.8 Let V be a vector space over IF, W is a submodule iff W is a subspace.

Example 1.9 Let V be a vector space over field F, T be a linear map  $T: V \rightarrow V$ . Regard V as a FITI module, a submodule of V is an invariant subspace of T.

Proof. " $\Rightarrow$ " N is a submodule of V, show N is invariant subspace.

N is a subgroup, since  $F \subseteq F[III]$ , N is closed under the action of F, thus N is a subspace. Since  $T \in F[III]$ , N should be closed under the action of T.

" V is an invariant subspace of V, show that V is a submodule.

N is a subgroup of V. N is invariant under the action of T, thus it is also invariant under the action of  $T^m$  ( $m=1,2,3,\cdots$ ), this implies N is invariant under the action of  $P(T) \in F[T]$ .

<u>Example</u> 1.10 Regard ring R as R-module, N is a submodule iff N is an ideal. This is clear from definition.

Example 1.11 Let  $\{N_i \mid i \in I\}$  be a family of submodules, then  $\bigcap_{i \in I} N_i$  is a submodule. Example 1.12 Zero submodule  $\{0\}$ .

Example 1.13 For ring R and R module M, let  $x \in M$ , we define annihilator of x as  $Ann_{R}(x) := \{ \alpha \in R \mid \alpha \cdot x = 0 \}.$ 

(1)  $Ann_R(x)$  is an ideal of R

Proof. Step 1. Show Ann R(X) is a subgroup.

Suppose  $a,b \in Ann_R(x)$ ,  $a \cdot x = b \cdot x = 0$ , then  $(a-b) \cdot x = 0$ . This implies  $a-b \in Ann_R(x)$ ,  $Ann_R(x)$  is a subgroup.

Step 2. Show R. Annacx) & Annacx).

 $\forall r \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\alpha \in Ann_{\mathcal{R}}(x)$ ,  $(r \cdot \alpha) \cdot \alpha = r \cdot (\alpha \cdot x) = r \cdot \delta = 0$ ,  $\Rightarrow r \cdot \alpha \in Ann_{\mathcal{R}}(x)$ .

- (2) If  $Ann_R(x) \neq 0$ , x is called a torsion element.
- (3) If R is an integral domain (commutative ring such that,  $\gamma$  a,  $b \in R$ , a:b=0 implies a=o or b=0), the set of all torsion elements T(M) is a submodule, called torsion submodule. If M=T(M), M is called a torsion module. M is called torsion free if T(M)=o.

Proof. Step 1. Show TCM) is a subgroup.

If  $x \in T(M)$ ,  $\exists \alpha \in R$   $\alpha \neq 0$  s.t.  $\alpha \cdot x = 0$ , this implies that  $\alpha \cdot (-x) = -\alpha \cdot x = 0 \implies -x \in T(M)$ .  $o \in T(M)$  is obvious.

If  $x,y \in T(M)$ , there exist nonzero  $a,b \in R$  such that  $a \cdot x = b \cdot y = 0$ . Set  $r = a \cdot b$ , we have  $r \cdot x = r \cdot y = 0$ , where  $r \neq 0$  since  $a,b \neq 0$ . (Property of integral domain) Step 2. Show  $\forall a \in R$ ,  $\forall x \in T(M)$ ,  $a \cdot x \in T(M)$ .

Since  $\chi \in T(M)$ ,  $\exists b \in R$ ,  $b \neq 0$  S.t.  $b \cdot \chi = 0$ . This implies that  $b \cdot (a\chi) = a \cdot (b\chi) = a \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow a \cdot \chi \in T(M)$ .

(4) If G is finite Abelian group, when regarded as  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, we have T(G) = G.

Proof. Since all elements in finite group are of finite order.

(5) For vector space V, when regarded as F[K]-module for some linear map  $K:V\to V$ , we have T(V)=V.

Proof. Suppose  $\dim V = d$ , for  $v \in V$ , if  $v \in \ker K$ ,  $Tv = 0 \implies v \in T(V)$ .

If  $v \notin \text{Kerk}, v, Tv, \dots, T^d v, T^{d+1} v$  must be linear dependent, there exist nonzero  $(\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{d+1})$  such that  $\Sigma_i d_i T^i v = 0$ , meaning  $P(T) = \Sigma_i d_i T^i \neq 0$  and P(T) v = 0. Thus  $v \in T(V)$ .

Def. 14 If nonzero R module M only have submodules  $\{0\}$  and M, M is called a simple module, or irreducible module.

Let M be an R module,  $S \subseteq R$  be a subset of R,  $X \subseteq M$  a subset of M, then we define S-linear combinations of X as

 $SX = \{ \Sigma_{i=1}^{n} s_i x_i, s_i \in S, x_i \in M \}$ 

Prop 1.2 Let  $\neq \pm X \subseteq M$  be a subset of R module M, then RX is submodule of M, called submodule generated by X and denoted as (X).

Prop 1.3 For  $X \subseteq M$ ,  $RX = (X) = \bigcap_{X \subseteq N, N}$  submodule N

Proof. Step 1  $RX \subseteq \bigcap_{X \subseteq N, N}$  submodule N, since  $X \subseteq N$ ,  $RX \subseteq N$ .

Step 2  $\bigcap_{X\subseteq N, N}$  submodule  $N\subseteq RX$ , since RX is a submodule and  $X\subseteq RX$ .

Def 1.5 If M = RX, X is called the set of generators of M. If X is finite, and RX = M, M is called finitely generated. If M = CX, M is called a cyclic module.

Def 1.6 Let  $\{N_i \mid i \in I\}$  be a family of submodules of M, we define  $\Sigma_{i \in I} N_i := (U_{i \in I} N_i) = \{y_{i_1} + \dots + y_{i_K} \mid y_{i_K} \in N_{i_j}, i_j \in I\}.$ 

Def 1.7 Let K be a submodule of M, consider the coset  $M/K = \{x+K \mid x \in M\}.$ 

The addition is defined as (x+k) + (y+k) := x+y + k, the scalar product is defined as a(x+k) = ax+k. Then M/k is a module called quotient module.