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MODULE THEORY

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Dedicated to my parents and my sweet brother

Ankit R. Chaudhary

Introduction

Warning:

This is my first document created using latex so it may be possible that there are several errors. if you notice any error then you can report it here.

https://github.com/sirkapil/module-theory/issues/new1

1 (may require a github account)

About:

This sample book discusses the course "Module Theory" being taught to Post-Graduate (M.Sc. Mathematics) students in Department of Mathematics under University of Delhi, Delhi.

All my LATEX documents are free and open-source. Each document is hosted in a github repository and can be found pinned here.

https://github.com/sirkapil

Contribution:

If you find my work useful and want to contribute then you are welcome by heart.

Any suitable changes to document repository through pull requests are highly appreciated. You can create a new pull request here. Be sure to read *contribution file* in root/.github folder of repository before creating any pull-request.

https://github.com/sirkapil/module-theory/compare

If you don't have a github account or facing difficulty in creating a pull-request, then feel free to drop down a message here about that you are interested in contribution of this project.

https://cont.netlify.com
https://twitter.com/kapil_rc

Notations

- **N** Set of natural numbers.
- **Z** Set of integers.
- **Q** Set of rational numbers.
- \mathbb{R} Set of real numbers.
- J_n Set of first n natural numbers.
- Ω Indexing Set.

Introduction to Modules

Definition of Module

Definition 1.1 (Left Module). Let R be a ring with identity and M be an abelian group with addition. We say M is a left R-module if there exists a mapping²

² often called as scaler multiplication.

$$R \times M \rightarrow M$$

defined by

$$(a, x) \rightarrow ax$$
 $\forall a \in R \text{ and } x \in M$

satisfying following properties:

$$(a+b)x = ax + bx \tag{1.1}$$

$$a(x+y) = ax + ay$$
 (1.2) $\forall a, b \in R$ $x, y \in M$

$$(ab)x = a(bx) \tag{1.3}$$

$$1x = x \tag{1.4}$$

and denoted by _RM

Definition 1.2 (Right Module). *Let* R *be a ring with identity and* M *be an abelian group with addition. We say* M *is a right* R—*module if there exists a mapping*

$$M \times R \rightarrow M$$

defined by

$$(x, a) \rightarrow xa$$

 $\forall a \in R \text{ and } x \in M$

satisfying following properties:

$$x(a+b) = xa + xb \tag{1.5}$$

$$(x+y)a = xa + ya (1.6) \forall a, b \in R$$

$$x(ab) = (xa)b (1.7) x, y \in M$$

$$x1 = x \tag{1.8}$$

and denoted by M_R .

Examples:

- 1. Let *V* be a vector space over a field *F* then *V* is a left as well as right *F*—Module.
- 2. Let G be any abelian group under addition , then G is a \mathbb{Z} -Module where \mathbb{Z} is set of integers.
- 3. Let R be ring and M = R[x] where R[x] is a group of all polynomials with coefficients in R then M is a left as well as a right R-Module with scaler multiplication being usual multiplication.

Suppose ring R is a field then R-Module R[x] is a vector space over field R.

4. Let M be collection of all $m \times n$ matrices over ring R, then M is left R-Module where scaler multiplication being usual multiplication of a scaler to a matrix.

In particular, if M is a set of $1 \times n$ matrices over R or $M = R^n$ (set of n—tuples) then R^n is a left R—module.

Remark: 1. Let R be a commutative ring then every left R—module can be transformed to right R—module and vice-versa.

Proof. Let M be left R—module and R be a commutative ring. so, \exists a mapping

$$R \times M \rightarrow M$$

defined by

$$(a, x) \rightarrow ax$$

for each $a \in R$ and $x \in M$ satisfying following properties :

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

$$a(x+y) = ax + ay$$

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

$$1x = x$$

∴ *R* is a commutative ring. Now, Define an another mapping

$$M \times R \to M$$

defined by

$$(x, a) \rightarrow x * a = ax$$

To check M is a right R—Module , we need to verify properties number (1.5)-(1.8)

 $\forall a, b \in R \text{ and } x, y \in M$

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

(ii) Distributive Law

$$(x + y) * a = a(x + y)$$
$$= ax + ay$$
$$= (x * a) + (y * a)$$

(iii)

$$x * (ab) = (ab)x$$
$$= (ba)x$$
$$= b(ax)$$
$$= (ax) * b$$

(iv)

$$x * 1 = 1x$$
$$= x$$

Thus, $_RM$ is transformed to M_R .

Similarly, Converse statement can be verified.

Remark: 2. Let S be a subring of ring R then $_SM$ exists only if $_RM$ exists.

Remark: 3. Same Abelian group can have the structure of a Module for a number of different rings.

Remark: 4. Let I be left ideal of R then quotient ring R / I is a left R-module.

verification: Left to reader

Hint: you need to verify those four properties: (1.1)-(1.4)

by existance means *M* is a valid left module over mentioned ring or subring. i.e. satisfying those four properties.

For Instance, The field $\mathbb R$ is $\mathbb R-\text{module}, \mathbb Q-\text{module}$ and $\mathbb Z-\text{module}.$

Here scaler multiplication is

$$R \times R / I \rightarrow R / I$$

defined as

$$(a, x+I) \rightarrow ax+I$$

$$\forall a \in R \text{ and } \forall x + I \in R / I$$

Theorem 1.1. (Elementry Properties:)

Let M be a left R-module . Suppose 0_m and 0_r denotes additive identities of M and R respectively. Then, for each $x \in M$ and $r \in R$

(*i*)

$$0_m = 0_r \ x = r \ 0_m$$

(ii)

$$r(-x) = (-r)x = -rx$$

Proof. (i) As 0_m is the additive identity of M. so, $0_m = 0_m + 0_m$

Consider
$$r(0_m + 0_m) = r \ 0_m = r \ 0_m + 0_m$$

but,
$$r(0_m + 0_m) = (r \ 0_m) + (r \ 0_m)$$

so, we have

$$r 0_m + r 0_m = r 0_m + 0_m$$

as (M, +) is an abelian group so left and right cancellation law holds.

$$r O_m + r O_m = r O_m + O_m$$

$$r O_m = O_m$$

a similar argument can be used to prove $0_m = 0_r x$.

(ii) as M is a left R-module so $(r, x) \rightarrow rx \in M$

Now, Consider (-r)x + rx

using distribuitive law

$$(-r)x + rx = (-r+r)x$$
$$= 0_r x$$
$$= 0_m$$

i.e. (-r)x is additive inverse of (rx) but additive inverse of (rx) is -rx and it is unique for an abelian group(M here)

$$\therefore (-r)x = -rx$$

a similar argument can be used to prove that r(-x) = -rx.

Definition 1.3 (Ring Homomorphism). *Let* R *and* S *be two rings with identities* 1_r , 1_s *respectively then a map(say* f)

$$f: R \to S$$

is said to be a ring homomorphism or ring linear map if for every a , $b \in R$ following properties holds

∴ $(r, 0_m) \rightarrow r 0_m \in M$ so, $r 0_m = r 0_m + 0_m$ ∴ M is a left R-module. (using distribuitive property)

often called as ring homo

if R = S then we call ring homo as ring endomorphism. For instance , let f be ring homo from R to R . we say f is endomorphism of R and denoted by $End\ R$

(i) Preserves Addition

$$(a+b)f = (a)f + (b)f$$

(ii) Preservers Multiplication

$$(ab) f = (a) f.(b) f$$

(iii) Maps identity to identity

$$(1_r)f = 1_s$$

Remark: 5. Such a mapping need not to be bijective. if it is bijective then we say it is a ring isomorphism or rings are isomorphic.

Theorem 1.2. Let R be a ring and M be any abelian group with addition. then M is a right R-module if and only if there exists a map which is ring homomorphism from R to End M

M is a right R-module $\exists f: R \xrightarrow{\text{Ring}} End M$

Proof. (Forward Part) Let us suppose that M is a right R-module.

Claim: there exists a map which is ring homomorphism from *R* to End M

 \therefore M is a left R-module, so there exist a map

$$f: M \times R \to M$$

defined by

$$(x,a) \rightarrow ax$$

satisfying following properties:

$$(x+y)a = (x)a + (y)a$$
$$x(a+b) = xa + xb$$
$$x(ab) = (xa)b$$
$$x1 = x$$

 $\forall x,y \in M \& a,b \in R$

for each $a \in R$, define a map(say ϕ_a)

$$\phi_a:M\to M$$

such that for each $x \in M$

$$(x)\phi_a = xa \in M$$

Now, we'll show that $\phi_a \in End M$

Let $x, y \in M$

Consider $(x + y)\phi_a$

$$= (x + y)a$$

$$= xa + ya$$

$$= (x)\phi_a + (y)\phi_a$$

so, ϕ_a preserves addition and is a group homo from M to M.

i.e. $\phi_a \in End\ M$

Now, we can define a map (say f)

$$f: R \rightarrow End\ M$$
 defined as

 $(a)f \rightarrow \phi_a$

 $\forall a \in R \text{ and } \phi_a \in End M$

using defination of ϕ_a

using (1.9)

Now, We'll show that f is a ring homomorphism.

(*A*)

$$(a+b)f = \phi_{a+b}$$

$$= \phi_a + \phi_b$$

$$= (a)f + (b)f$$

(B)

$$(ab)f = \phi_{ab}$$
$$= \phi_a \circ \phi_b$$
$$= (a)f(b)f$$

(C)

$$(1)f = \phi_1$$

Thus, Forward Part is proved.

for each $x \in M$ we have,

$$(x)\phi_{a+b} = x(a+b) = xa + xb$$
$$= (x)\phi_a + (y)\phi_b$$
$$\therefore \phi_{a+b} = \phi_a + \phi_b$$

for each $x \in M$ we have,

$$(x)\phi_{ab} = x(ab) = (xa)b$$
$$= (xa)\phi_b = (x)\phi_a \circ \phi_b$$
$$\therefore \phi_{ab} = \phi_a \circ \phi_b$$

for each $x \in M$ we have,

$$(x)\phi_1 = x(1)$$
$$= x$$

 \therefore ϕ_1 is identity of *End M*

(*Converse Part*) Assume that \exists a ring homo.(say f)

$$f: R \xrightarrow{\text{Ring}} End M$$

for any $a \in R$, we denote the (a)f by $f_a \in End\ M$

Claim: *M* is a right *R*-module.

so let's define a map

$$R \times M \longrightarrow M$$

defined by

$$(a, x) \rightarrow x * a = (x) f_a$$

to prove M is a right R-module, we need to verify four properties (1.5)- (1.9) of right R-module.

(*i*)

$$(x + y) * a = (x + y)f_a$$
$$= (x)f_a + (y)f_a$$
$$= x * a + y * a$$

 $\therefore f_a \in End M$

(ii)

$$x*(a+b) = (x)f_{a+b}$$
$$= (x)(f_a + f_b)$$
$$= (x)f_a + (x)f_b$$
$$= (x*a) + (x*b)$$

 $\therefore f_a$, $f_b \in End M$

(iii)

$$x * (ab) = (x)f_{ab}$$

$$= (x)f_a \circ f_b$$

$$= (xf_a)f_b$$

$$= (x*a)*b$$

(iv)
$$x * 1 = (x) f_1 = x$$

Thus, *M* is a right *R*-module.

 \therefore f_1 is identity in $End\ M$

Definition 1.4 (Anti-Ring Homomorphism). Let R and S be two rings with identities 1_r and 1_s respectively. Define a map f

$$f: R \to S$$

satisfying following properties, for each $a, b \in R$

(*i*)

$$(a+b)f = (a)f + (b)f$$

(ii)

$$(ab)f = (b)f(a)f$$

(iii)

$$(1_r)f = 1_s$$

Then, f is called anti-ring homomorphism.

Theorem 1.3. Let R be a ring and M be any abelian group with addition. then M is a left R-module if and only if there exists a map which is anti-ring homomorphism from R to End M.

M is a left R-module \updownarrow $\exists \ f: R \xrightarrow[\text{Homo}]{\text{Anti-Ring}} \textit{End} \ M$

Proof. Left to reader.

Definition 1.5 (SubModule). Let M be a left (right) R-module then a subset N of M is called a submodule of M if N is a left (right) R-module under the operation induced from M.

In other words, A subset N of M is called submodule of M if

- (i) N is subgroup of M.
- (ii) N is closed under induced scaler multiplication from M.

Theorem 1.4 (Criterion for Checking Modules). *Let* M *be a left (right)* R-module and N be a subset of M then N is a submodule of M if and only if

$$(i) \\ x-y \in N \\ \forall \, x,y \in N$$

(ii)
$$ax \in N \qquad \forall a \in R \& x \in N$$

Proof. Left to reader.

Examples:

- 1. As every Vector Space *V* over a Field *F* is a *F*-module. So, submodules of *V* are subspaces of *V*.
- 2. As every abelian group G is a \mathbb{Z} -module. So, all subgroups of G are submodules.
- 3. Let *R* be a ring then *R* is a left as well as right *R*-module then left (right) ideals of *R* are left (right) submodules of *R*.
- 4. $\{0\}$ and M are trivial submodules of any left (right) R-module M.

Remark: 6.

1. Union of two submodules need not to be a submodule.

Think an example!

2. Intersection of any number of submodules is again a submodule.

Hint: Verify using criterion for checking modules.

Remark: 7. (Smallest Submodule containing a set)

Let M be any left (right) R-module and S be any subset of M. Suppose \mathcal{F} be the family of all submodules of M containing S.

Let
$$P = \bigcap_{N \in \mathcal{F}} N$$

then P is a submodule of M containing S as being intersection of an indexed family of submodules containing S.

Moreover, P is the smallest submodule of M containing S. i.e. for any arbitrary submodule $K \in \mathcal{F}$, we have $P \subseteq K$. Such submodule P of M is said to be generated by set S and is denoted by

$$P = \langle S \rangle = (S)$$

Remark: 8.

Let S be any subset of left R-module M and $\langle S \rangle$ is the smallest submodule of M containing S.

1. if S is non-empty and finite, $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$

$$\langle S \rangle = \langle \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_n\} \rangle = \langle x_1, x_2, x_3, \cdots, x_n \rangle$$

is said to be a finitely generated by S and is smallest submodule of M containing S.

2. if $S = \phi$ i.e. S is an empty set

$$\langle S \rangle = \langle \phi \rangle = \{0\}$$

3. if $S = \{a\}$ i.e. S is singleton then $\langle S \rangle = \langle a \rangle$ is said to be a cyclic submodule.

Definition 1.6 (Cyclic module). ³ A module M is said to be a cyclic module if it can be generated by a single element.

³ P. M. Cohn. Basic Algebra. Springer, 2 edition, 2005. ISBN 978-1-4471-1060-6

For Example: A ring R over itself is a module and can be generated by identity element {1} so is a cyclic module.

Theorem 1.5. Let M be left R module and S being any subset of M.

$$\langle S \rangle = \begin{cases} \{0\} & \text{if } S = \phi \\ \left\{ \sum_{i \in J_n} a_i x_i \mid a_i \in R, x_i \in S \right\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof. Case-I Let us suppose that $S = \phi$,as $\langle S \rangle$ is the intersection of all the submodules of M containing S.

i.e. Every submodule of M will contain S

In particular, $\{0\}$ also contains S i.e.

$$\{0\} \in \mathcal{F}$$

so,

$$\langle S \rangle = \bigcap_{N \in \mathcal{F}} N$$
$$= \{0\}$$

Case-II Suppose S is non-empty and let

$$P = \left\{ \sum_{i \in I_n} a_i x_i \mid a_i \in R, x_i \in S \right\}$$

First , we'll show that $S \subseteq P$

Let $x \in S$ then it can be expressed in following form:

$$x = 1.x = \sum_{i \in J_1} a_i x_i$$

$$\therefore x \in P \Rightarrow S \subseteq P$$

Now ,we'll show that P is a submodule of M using submodule criterion.

Let u, $v \in P$. so, we need to show $u + \alpha v \in P$

$$u = \sum_{i \in J_n} a_i x_i$$

$$v = \sum_{j \in J_m} b_j y_j$$

define, for any $\alpha \in R$

$$z_k = x_k$$
 , $c_k = a_k$ $z_{k+j} = y_j$, $c_{k+j} = \alpha b_j$

Thus, we have

$$u + \alpha v = \sum_{i \in J_n} a_i x_i + \alpha \sum_{j \in J_m} b_j y_j$$
$$= \sum_{i \in J_n} a_i x_i + \sum_{j \in J_m} \alpha b_j y_j$$
$$= \sum_{k \in J_n} c_k z_k + \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+m} c_k z_k$$
$$= \sum_{k \in J_{n+m}} c_k z_k$$

: \mathcal{F} is a collection of all submodules of M containing S

with
$$a_1 = 1$$
 and $x_1 = x$

 \therefore x was chosen arbitirary.

for any $\alpha \in R$

$$\forall x_i \in S \& a_i \in R$$

$$\forall y_j \in S \& b_j \in R$$

$$k \in J_n$$

$$j \in J_m$$

so, *P* is a submmodule of *M* containing *S*.

Now, we'll show that *P* is smallest submmodule of *M* containing S.

Let *K* be any arbitirary submodule of *M* containing *S*

i.e.
$$K \in \mathcal{F}$$

- $:: K \text{ is a submodule and } S \subseteq K$
- : *K* is closed under scaler multiplication and addition.

i.e
$$\sum_{i \in J_n} a_i x_i \in K$$

 $\forall a_i \in R \& x_i \in S$

so,

$$P = \langle S \rangle \subseteq K$$

Hence, *P* is smallest submmodule of *M* containing *S*.

Definition 1.7 (Generating Set / Set of Generators). A set of generators for a left (right) R-module M is a subet S of M such that

$$M = \langle S \rangle$$

if no proper submodule of M contains S then S generates M (verify?)

Examples

- 1. A ring R considered as left (right) R-module is generated by identity element {1}
- 2. $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ over \mathbb{Z} can be generated by

$$S = \{(0,1), (1,0)\}$$

- 3. All finite dimensional vector space can be generated by it's basis (finite), so is finitely generated submodule.
- 4. Let *R* be a ring, *I* be left(right) ideal of *R* then it is a left(right) R-module. So, every finitely generated left(right) ideals of R are finitely generated submodule.
- 5. A submodule of left R-module is cyclic iff it is prinicipal ideal of $_RR$.

Definition 1.8. Let M be a left R-module and $\{N_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Omega}$ be family of submodules of M then sum $\sum_{{\alpha}\in\Omega}N_{\alpha}$ is defined to be a submodule of M generated by $\|\cdot\|_{N_{\alpha}}$

where $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$ is indexing set.

by
$$\bigcup_{\alpha \in \Omega} N_{\alpha}$$

$$\left\langle \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Omega} N_{\alpha} \right\rangle = \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} N_{\alpha}$$

Moreover, $\sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} N_{\alpha}$ is smallest submodule of M containing N_{α}

for each $\alpha \in \Omega$

where Ω is indexing set.

Proposition 1.6. Let M be a left R-module and $\{N_{\alpha}\}_{{\alpha}\in\Omega}$ be family of submodules of M then sum

$$\sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} N_{\alpha} = \left\{ \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega} x_{\alpha} \middle| x_{\alpha} \in N_{\alpha} \quad \text{, } x_{\alpha} = 0 \text{ for almost all } \alpha \right\}$$

for each $\alpha \in \Omega$

Proof. Let

$$P = \left\{ \sum_{lpha \in \Omega} x_lpha \,\middle|\, x_lpha \in N_lpha \quad \text{, } x_lpha = 0 ext{ for almost all } lpha
ight\}$$

We need to show that P is smallest submodule of M containing each N_{α}

Claim 1: *P* is submodule of *M* Clearly, *P* is non-emptyy. Taking $x_{\alpha} = 0$ for each $\alpha \in \Omega$, we have

$$\Rightarrow 0 \in P$$

Also, for a fixed but arbitirary $\alpha \in \Omega$

Let $x \in N_{\alpha}$ and choose

$$x_i = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } i = \alpha \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

so $x = \sum x_i \in P$ we have $N_\alpha \subseteq P$ $\forall \alpha \in \Omega$

.: α was arbitrary chosen

Now , we'll show that P is submodule of M using submodule criterion.

P is closed under addition and scaler multiplication Let u , v be two elements of P

$$u = \sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha}$$

where $x_{\alpha} \in N_{\alpha}$ and $x_{\alpha} = 0$ for almost all α

$$v = \sum_{\beta} y_{\beta}$$

where $y_{\beta} \in N_{\beta}$ and $y_{\beta} = 0$ for almost all β

Let Ω_1 , Ω_2 be finite subsets of Ω for which x_α and y_β are non-zero respectively.

$$x_{\alpha} = \begin{cases} ext{non-zero,} & ext{if } \alpha \in \Omega_1 \\ 0, & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 , $y_{\beta} = \begin{cases} ext{non-zero,} & ext{if } \beta \in \Omega_2 \\ 0, & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Also for any arbitirary scaler $c \in R$, define

$$z_r = \begin{cases} x_r, & \text{if } r \in \Omega_1 \\ cy_r, & \text{if } r \in \Omega_2. \end{cases} \Rightarrow z_r = x_r + cy_r \qquad \forall r \in \Omega_1 \cap \Omega_2$$

Now,

$$u + cv = \sum_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} + c \sum_{\beta} y_{\beta}$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega_{1}} x_{\alpha} + c \sum_{\beta \in \Omega_{2}} y_{\beta}$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha \in \Omega_{1}} x_{\alpha} + \sum_{\beta \in \Omega_{2}} cy_{\beta}$$

$$= \sum_{r \in \Omega_{1}} x_{r} + \sum_{r \in \Omega_{2}} cy_{r} + \sum_{r \in \Omega_{1} \cap \Omega_{2}} (x_{r} + cy_{r})$$

Thus, We have

$$u + cv = \sum_{r \in \Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2} z_r \in P$$

 $z_r = 0$ for almost all r $\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2$ is also finite.

Claim 2:. *P* is smalleat submodule of *M* containing each N_{α} .

Let N be any submodule of M containing each N_{α}

 \therefore N is closed under addition so N contains all finite sum of the form $\sum x_{\alpha}$ where $x_{\alpha} \in N_{\alpha}$ & $x_{\alpha} = 0$, for almost all α

It follows that $P \subseteq N$

: N was chosen arbitirary

Thus, *P* is smallest submodule of *M* containing each N_{α}

Definition 1.9 (Maximal Submodule). Let N be a submodule of left R-module M then N is said to be a maximal submodule of M if there does not exist any proper submodule of M.

In other words , for any sumodule K of M satisfing $N \subseteq K \subseteq M$ we must have

either
$$N = K$$
 or $K = M$

for N to be a maximal submodule of M.

Theorem 1.7. Let M be a finitely generated left R-module then every proper submodule of M is contained in maximal submodule of M.

In particular, if M is non-trivial then M contains a maximal submodule.

Proof. Left to Reader.

Remark: 9. Q is not finitely generated Z-module.

Verification: Let Q is finitely generated over Z by

$$\left\{ \frac{p_i}{q_i} \mid p_i, q_i \in \mathbb{Z} , q_i \neq 0 \quad \forall i \in J_n \right\}$$

Without loss of generality, Assume that

$$q_1, q_2, q_3, \cdots, q_n > 0$$

then we can always choose an integer (say k) such that

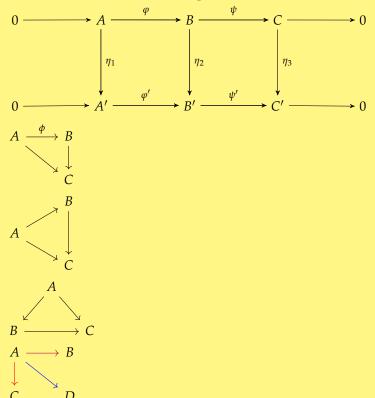
$$k = q_1 q_2 q_3 \cdots q_n > 0$$

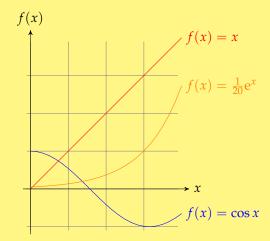
<incomlete>

Stay Tuned for next chapters!

i'll keep posting next chapters whenever i've spare time.

Tikz Pictures to be used in next chapters.





Bibliography

P. M. Cohn. *Basic Algebra*. Springer, 2 edition, 2005. ISBN 978-1-4471-1060-6.