

Algebra II

(1)

Bibliography

- Rotman, "Advanced Modern Algebra"
- Shkarevich
- Long, "Algebra"

Grading

- MW (every 1-2 weeks) : 20%
- Two exams : 40%
- Final exam : 40%

We will study modules an important ingredient of representation theory.

It has applications to

- Number Theory { Galois theory, modular forms
- Algebraic geometry { vector bundles, \mathcal{O} -modules = algebraic differential equations.
- Analysis { Fourier analysis
- Physics

Def: An associative ring is an Abelian group $(R, +, 0)$ together with multiplication and a unit, satisfying:

- $a(bc) = (ab)c$
- $a(b+c) = ab+ac$
- $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$

Note: 1) Can study non-associative rings (e.g. Lie Algebras).
2) Can study rings without 1 (fairly useless).

Examples:

- 1) Commutative rings: $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \kappa$ -fields, polynomials, power series, rational functions.
- 2) Non-commutative rings: $R = \text{Mat}_n(\kappa)$, κ a field, or a commutative ring.
- 3) More generally, let V be a vector-space over κ . (same as (2) in finite-dim)

$$R = \text{End}(V) = \{ f: V \rightarrow V \text{ linear maps} \}$$

(same as (2) in finite-dim)

Def R, S rings, $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism if

- $\phi(r_1 + r_2) = \phi(r_1) + \phi(r_2)$
- $\phi(r_1 r_2) = \phi(r_1) \phi(r_2)$
- $\phi(1_R) = 1_S$

If ϕ is bijective, then ϕ is an isomorphism, $R \cong S$

So we can say $\begin{cases} R = \text{End}(V), \dim_K(V) = n \\ S = \text{Mat}_n(K) \end{cases}$

There is an isomorphism $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ (exercise: write down what ϕ is).

Recall: The units of a ring, $R^\times = \{r \in R : ar = ra = 1 \text{ for some } a \in R\}$.

Fact: R^\times is a group under multiplication.

Example: 1) if $R = \text{Mat}_n(K)$, $R^\times = \text{GL}_n(K) = n \times n$ matrices with $\det \neq 0$.

2) $R = \text{End}(V)$, $R^\times = \text{Aut}(V) = \text{GL}(V) =$ invertible linear transformation.

• Example of a non-commutative ring:

Let K be a field, X a variable. $W = K[X, \frac{d}{dx}]$ (Weil algebra) (\equiv polynomial differential operators)

$P = \sum P_i(x) \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^i$, $P_i(x) \in K[X]$. P acts on diff. function $f(x)$ by differentiation.

Note: W is not commutative.

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} \circ x\right) f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(x f(x)) = f(x) + x f'(x) = \left(1 + x \frac{d}{dx}\right) f(x) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \circ x = 1 + x \circ \frac{d}{dx}$$

• Modules:

Def: Let R be a ring. A left-module over R is an abelian group $M \cong \mathbb{Z}M$ with multiplication by R :

$$R \times_R M \rightarrow M$$

$$(r, m) \mapsto rm$$

such that:

$$\rightarrow (r_1 + r_2)m = r_1 m + r_2 m$$

$$\rightarrow (r_1 r_2)m = r_1(r_2 m)$$

$$\rightarrow r(m_1 + m_2) = r m_1 + r m_2$$

$$\rightarrow 1_R m = m$$

Similarly, we can define a right module $M_R \times R \rightarrow M$

$$(m, r) \mapsto mr$$

Note: We can, of course, for a right module M_R introduce notation $r * m := mr$. Then, the axioms go the same way, except that

$$r_1 * (r_2 * m) = (r_2 * r_1) * m$$

If R happens to be commutative, right and left modules are the same.

Examples

1) $R = k$ a field, then a R -module is a R -vector space.

2) $R = \text{Mat}_n(k)$, ${}_R M = k^n =$ column vectors of size n .
 $M_R = (k^n)^T =$ row vectors of size n .

3) Let V be a k -vector space and X be a fixed linear map $\in \text{End}(V)$.

$R = k[t]$. Can make $V = {}_R M$ a module over $k[t]$:

$$f(t) \cdot v = f(X) \cdot v = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i v \quad \text{if } f(t) = \sum a_i t^i$$

By analysing this $k[t]$ module structure on V , we can find the theory of normal forms of linear transformations X .

Modules from group actions

$\text{End}(V)^X$
" "
 $\text{Aut}(V)$

Let G be a group. V be a k -vector space.

A representation of G on V is a group homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(V)$

Choosing a basis for V (suppose finite dimension), this gives, for every $g \in G$, an invertible matrix $\rho(g)$ satisfying:

- 1) $(\rho(g_1) + \rho(g_2))v = \rho(g_1)v + \rho(g_2)v$
- 2) $(\rho(g_1)\rho(g_2))v = \rho(g_1 g_2)v$ (since ρ is a group homomorphism).
- 3) $\rho(g)(v_1 + v_2) = \rho(g)v_1 + \rho(g)v_2$
- 4) $\rho(e_G)v = v$

This looks like a module structure over V . But what is R ?

Def: Let G be a group, k a field, Then the ring of G over k is the vector space $kG := \bigoplus_{g \in G} k\alpha_g$ with multiplication $\alpha_{g_1}\alpha_{g_2} = \alpha_{g_1 g_2}$

Lemma: A representation of G on a vector space V/k is the same as a kG -module structure V .

Remark: if M is an abelian group, it can happen that $M = {}_R M_S$, i.e. M is a left R -module and right S -module.

Then M is a R - S bimodule.

If $R = S$, then M is a R -bimodule.

Example: R is a bimodule over itself.

Examples: \rightarrow Vectorspaces over K .

\rightarrow V is a K -vectorspace, $X \in \text{End}(V)$, then V gets a $K[t]$ -module via $f(t) \cdot v = f(X) \cdot v$

We call V^X this $K[t]$ -module.

\rightarrow If A is an abelian group, then A is a \mathbb{Z} -module:

$$n \cdot a := \underbrace{a + a + \dots + a}_n$$

Conversely, every \mathbb{Z} -module is an abelian group.

The classification of Abelian groups is a special case of classification of modules over a PID (\mathbb{Z} is a PID!).

Def: M a (left) R -module. An abelian subgroup $M_1 \subseteq M$ is a submodule if it is stable under R :

$$r m_1 \in M_1, \quad \forall r \in R, m_1 \in M_1.$$

Examples:

a) Subspaces in a vectorspace.

b) If $M = R$ as left module, then a submodule is a left ideal.

Similarly, if $M = R_R$ then submodules are right ideals.

And in the case $M = {}_R R_R$, then subbimodules are the two-sided ideals of R .

Def: M, N R -modules, then $f: M \rightarrow N$ is a R -module morphism if:

- 1) f is Hom of abelian groups ($f(m_1+m_2) = f(m_1) + f(m_2)$).
- 2) $f(rm) = rf(m)$.

If f is bijective, f is called an isomorphism.

Note: The inverse map $f^{-1}: N \rightarrow M$ is automatically an R -morphism.

Def: $f: M \rightarrow N$, R -morphism. Then $\text{ker}(f) = \{m \in M : f(m) = 0\}$
 $\text{Im}(f) = \{m \in N : f(m) \text{ for some } m \in M\}$
 ker and Im are submodules.

Def-Lemma: If $M_1 \subset M$ submodule, then the quotient group M/M_1 is an R -module called the quotient module, via $r(m+M_1) = rm+M_1$. Then we have a canonical projection, which is surjective:

$$\pi: M \rightarrow M/M_1$$

$$m \mapsto m+M_1$$
 with kernel $\text{ker}(\pi) = M_1$.

• Isomorphism theorems for modules.

1) $f: M \rightarrow N$ R -morphism, then the R -morphism.
 $\phi: M/\text{ker } f \rightarrow \text{Im } f$ is an isomorphism of R -modules.

2) $M_1, M_2 \subseteq M$ R -submodules.
 $M_1 \cap M_2$ and $M_1 + M_2$ are submodules, and

$$\frac{M_1}{M_1 \cap M_2} \cong \frac{M_1 + M_2}{M_2}$$

3) $M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq M$. Then
$$\frac{M}{M_2} \cong \frac{M/M_1}{M_2/M_1}$$

Example: Let V be a vector space / K ; $X, Y \in \text{End}(V)$.

We get two $K[t]$ -modules, V^X and V^Y .

Lemma: $V^X \cong V^Y$ (as $K[t]$ -mod) $\Leftrightarrow \exists \phi: V \rightarrow V$ invertible linear map
s.t. $\phi \circ X \circ \phi^{-1} = Y$ (i.e. X and Y are conjug.)

Pl \Leftarrow) We need to find a R -module isomorphism

$$F: V^X \rightarrow V^Y, \text{ i.e. } F(f(t) \cdot v) = f(t) \cdot F(v)$$

Note: if $\phi \circ X \circ \phi^{-1} = Y$, then $\phi \circ X^n \circ \phi^{-1} = Y^n$, and so $\phi \circ f(X) \circ \phi^{-1} = f(Y)$.

\therefore we can take $F = \phi$ and F will be an R -module hom.

\Rightarrow) similar

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"Moral": classification of matrices up to conjugacy \Leftrightarrow classification of $K[t]$ -module structures on K^n .

Note: $K[t]$ is a PID. We will give a general theory of modules over PID's.

Def-lemma: M an R -module, $S \subset M$ a subset.

$$\langle S \rangle := \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n r_i s_i \mid s_i \in S, r_i \in R \right\}.$$

Then $\langle S \rangle$ is a submodule called the generated by S .

If S is a finite set m_1, \dots, m_n we write it $\langle m_1, \dots, m_n \rangle$.

In particular, if $S = \{m\}$ and $M = \langle m \rangle$, we call M a cyclic module with generator m .

If S is finite and $M = \langle S \rangle$, we say that M is a finitely generated module.

Examples:

- 1) Any ring R is cyclic over itself: $R = \langle 1_R \rangle$.
- 2) If $R = K$ then $M = V$ is finitely generated of $\dim V = n < \infty$.
It is cyclic if $\dim V = 0, 1$.
- 3) For R a PID, any submodule of R is cyclic.

Lemma: M is a cyclic R -module $\Leftrightarrow M \cong R/I$ for some (left) ideal of R .

\Rightarrow) $M = Rm$. Define $f: R \rightarrow M$
 $r \mapsto r.m$ (it is surjective).

Then $M \cong R/\ker f$. But $\ker f$ is in this case a left ideal.

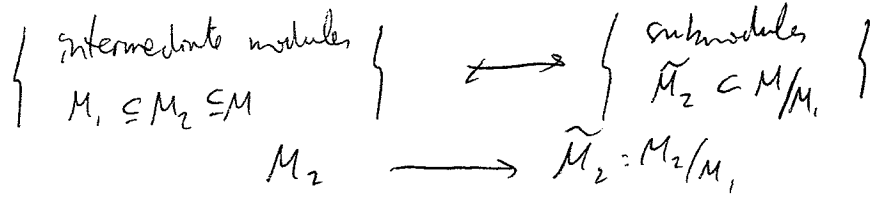
\Leftarrow) exercise (R itself is cyclic, so R/I is).

Def: M an R -module is simple if $M \neq \{0\}$ and the only submodules are $\{0\}$ and M itself. They're called also irreducible.

Example

- 1) $R = K, M = V$ is simple $\Leftrightarrow \dim_K V = 1$.
- 2) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Let A be a finite abelian group. Then,
 A is simple $\Leftrightarrow |A| = p$, prime.
(it is also true if we start with A infinite).
- 3) About cyclic simple modules:
 M cyclic $\Leftrightarrow R/I \cong M, I$ ideal.

Theorem: $M_1 \subset M$ is a submodule. Then there is a correspondence:



Lemma: A cyclic module $M = R/I$ is simple $\Leftrightarrow I$ is a maximal ideal.

Categories

Def: A category C consists of:

• A class of objects, $ob(C)$.

• For each two objects $A, B \in ob(C)$, a set of morphisms $Mor(A \rightarrow B)$ or $Mor(A, B)$.

(if we write $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ this means that $f \in Mor(A, B)$).

• Composition of morphisms: $Mor(A, B) \times Mor(B, C) \rightarrow Mor(A, C)$.

(given $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: B \rightarrow C$, $\exists g \circ f: A \rightarrow C$).

Satisfying:

• $Mor(A, B) \cap Mor(A', B') = \emptyset$ unless $A=A'$ & $B=B'$.

(any f belongs to a unique $M(A_f, B_f)$. A_f is called the source of f , and B_f the target).

• For all $A \in ob(C)$, there is $1_A \in Mor(A, A)$ s.t. $f \circ 1_A = f$ $\forall f: A \rightarrow B$.

• Associativity of morphisms: $(f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h) \quad \forall f, g, h$.

$$\begin{cases} f \circ 1_A = f \\ 1_B \circ g = g \end{cases}$$

Examples:

• $C = \underline{Set}$, $C = \underline{FinSet}$, $C = \underline{Grp}$, $C = \underline{Rings}$, \underline{Fields} , ...

• Fix an object in Rings, R . Then look at $C = {}_R \underline{Mod}$, R -modules.

• Fix some group G . Define the category $C(G)$:

$\rightarrow ob(C(G)) = \{*\}$ (set of 1 element)

$\rightarrow Mor(*, *) = \{g \in G\}$. As a composition, use group multiplication.

Def Let \mathcal{C} be a category. An $f \in \text{Mor}(A, B)$ is called invertible if there exists $g \in \text{Mor}(B, A)$ s.t. $g \circ f = 1_A$ or $f \circ g = 1_B$.

If there is such an invertible morphism, then A and B are called isomorphic.

Ex

→ Functors.

Suppose \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D} are categories. A ^{covariant} functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is a rule that associates to every morphism in \mathcal{C} $f: A \rightarrow B$, a morphism in \mathcal{D} , $F(A) \xrightarrow{F(f)} F(B)$. Such that:

• $F(f \circ g) = F(f) \circ F(g)$.

A contravariant functor satisfies instead $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f)$.

Example:

1) $\mathcal{C} = \text{Grps}$, $\mathcal{D} = \text{Sets}$. $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ by "Forgetting the structure". It is called the Forgetful functor.

2) $\mathcal{C} = \text{Rings}$, $\mathcal{D} = \text{Groups}$. $F: \text{Rings} \rightarrow \text{Groups}$
 $R_1 \mapsto R_1^* = F(R_1)$
 $\downarrow f$ $\downarrow f$
 R_2^* $R_2^* = F(R_2)$
↖ covariant

3) A contravariant functor: $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{D} = \text{Vectorspaces over } K, K \text{ field}$.

$F(V) = V^* = \text{Hom}(V, K)$

Then if $V_1 \xrightarrow{f} V_2$, then $V_2^* \xrightarrow{f^*} V_1^*$ where $\langle f^*(\alpha_2), v_1 \rangle = \langle \alpha_2, f(v_1) \rangle$

More terminology

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ h \downarrow & & \downarrow g \\ C & \xrightarrow{k} & D \end{array}$$

We say the diagram commutes if:
 $g \circ f = k \circ h$

Products and coproducts.

Def \mathcal{C} a category. $A, B \in \text{ob}(\mathcal{C})$.

Then a product of A and B in \mathcal{C} is an object P , together with two morphisms $P \rightarrow A$, $P \rightarrow B$, such that for every object C with morphisms to A and B , $C \xrightarrow{\varphi} A$, $C \xrightarrow{\psi} B$, there is a unique $h: C \rightarrow P$ making the diagram commute.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & C & \\ \varphi \swarrow & \downarrow h & \searrow \psi \\ & P & \\ \downarrow & \downarrow p & \downarrow q \\ A & & B \end{array} \quad (\varphi = \varphi \circ h, \psi = \psi \circ h)$$

Example: $\mathcal{C} = \text{Set}$. A, B sets. A product for A and B is $D := A \times B$.

$$P = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B\}, \text{ with } \begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{f} & A \\ (a, b) & \mapsto & a \end{array}, \begin{array}{ccc} P & \xrightarrow{g} & B \\ (a, b) & \mapsto & b \end{array}$$

Let C be any set, with $\varphi: C \rightarrow A$, $\psi: C \rightarrow B$.

$$\text{Define } h: C \rightarrow P \text{ and it works.} \\ x \mapsto (\varphi(x), \psi(x))$$

Def: A coproduct for A, B in \mathcal{C} is an object S , with:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & C & \\ & \uparrow & \\ & \cdots & \\ & S & \\ \swarrow & & \searrow \\ A & & B \end{array}$$

Fact: in Set, the disjoint union is a coproduct.

In a given category, products and coproducts may (or not) exist.
If they do exist, then it is "essentially" unique (clarify on that later on).

Generalization: consider an arbitrary family $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$, $A_i \in \text{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$.

Then the product of such a family is a family of morphisms $\{\pi_i: P \rightarrow A_i\}_{i \in I}$ s.t. for every family of morphisms $\{\gamma_i: C \rightarrow A_i\}$, there is a unique $h: C \rightarrow P$ such that all the diagrams commutes.

Similarly, can define coproducts of $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$. $\{\sigma_i: A_i \rightarrow S\}, \dots$

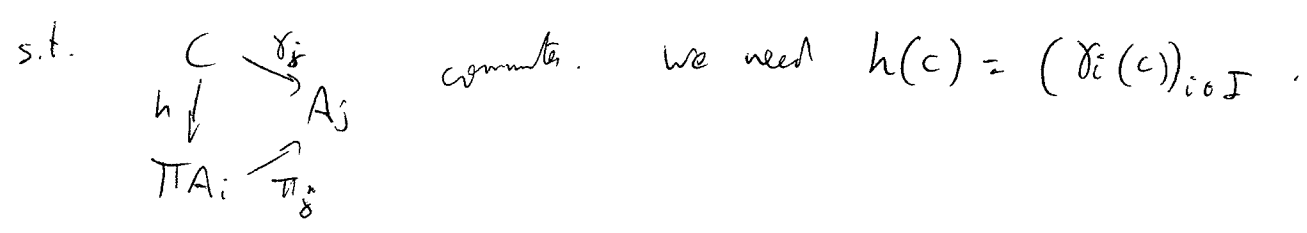
Examples

$\mathcal{C} = \text{sets}$, $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$

Define the set of I-tuples $\prod_{i \in I} A_i = \{(a_i)_{i \in I} \mid a_i \in A_i\}$ with

the "projections" $\pi_i: \prod_{i \in I} A_i \rightarrow A_j$
 $(a_i)_{i \in I} \mapsto a_j$

Let $\{\gamma_i: C \rightarrow A_i\}_{i \in I}$ a family of morphisms. Need to define $h: C \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} A_i$



Note: in Set, products exist for any arbitrary family.

However, in FinSet only finite products will exist.

We look now at the coproduct: $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$.

The disjoint union can be defined as $\sqcup A_i := \bigcup_{i \in I} (A_i \times \{i\})$.

$\alpha_j: A_j \rightarrow \sqcup A_i$ and check the properties are satisfied.
 $a_j \mapsto (a_j, j)$

Note: in FinSet, coproducts exist for finite families.

Also in Finset, we have a map $|A| := \# \text{elements}$ on the set A .

$$|A \setminus B| = |A| - |B|, \quad |A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$$

Example: AbGps., abelian groups.

$\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ = family of abelian groups.

$\prod_{i \in I} A_i$ set categorical product. Need to put structure on it.

$$(a_i)_{i \in I} + (b_i)_{i \in I} = (a_i + b_i)_{i \in I} \quad \text{@Ab}$$

Note that $\pi_i : \prod_{i \in I} A_i \rightarrow A_i$ is an ab. grp. homomorphism.

Can check that the universal property also holds.

Let's look at coproducts.

Try to use the disjoint union as coproduct. But how to add $(a_i, i) + (a_j, j) = ?$

Can embed the disjoint union in the cartesian product:

$$E : \coprod A_i \rightarrow \prod A_i \\ (a_i, i) \mapsto (a_j)_{j \in I} \text{ where } a_j = \begin{cases} a_i & j=i \\ 0 & j \neq i \end{cases}$$

Then define the coproduct of $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ as the subgroup of the product generated by the image of E .

The notation we use for this coproduct is the direct sum:

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} A_i = \langle E(\coprod A_i) \rangle.$$

In particular, for I a finite set the product and coproduct have the same abelian group as underlying object.

For infinite families, $\bigoplus A_i \subset \prod A_i$ is the proper subset of I -tuples $(a_i)_{i \in I}$ where all but a finite number of a_i are 0.

Def Let \mathcal{C} be a category. An object I is called universally repelling, or initial, if $|\text{Mor}(I, A)| = 1 \quad \forall A \in \text{ob}(\mathcal{C})$.

Similarly, an object T is called universally attracting, or terminal, if $|\text{Mor}(A, T)| = 1 \quad \forall A \in \text{ob}(\mathcal{C})$.

Example: let $\mathcal{C} = \text{Vect}_k$. $I := \{0\} = 0$, $T := \{0\}$.

2) In $\mathcal{C} = \text{Sets}$ $I = \emptyset$, $T = \{*\}$.

Def In a category \mathcal{C} , $U \in \text{ob}(\mathcal{C})$ is called a universal object if either it is initial or terminal.

Lemma: Universal objects are unique up to unique isomorphism.

pf Suppose I, I' are two initial objects $\Rightarrow |\text{Mor}(I, I')| = |\text{Mor}(I', I)| = 1 \Rightarrow$
 \Rightarrow there are unique morphisms $f: I \rightarrow I'$, $g: I' \rightarrow I$.

$f \circ g: I' \rightarrow I'$. Also $|\text{Mor}(I, I)| = |\text{Mor}(I', I')| = 1$, so
 $g \circ f: I \rightarrow I$

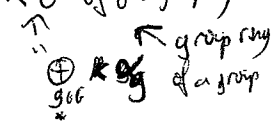
$f \circ g = 1_{I'}$ and $g \circ f = 1_I$ so f and g are isomorphisms, and I and I' are isomorphic objects.

Examples:

Let k be a field, $k\text{-Alg}$ be the category of k -Algebras.

(a k -Algebra is a ring with k -module structure s.t. $k(a_1, a_2) = (ka_1)a_2 = a_1(ka_2)$
and $k(a_1 + a_2) = ka_1 + ka_2$; $1 \cdot a = a$.) (e.g. $k[X]$, $M_{n \times n}(k)$, kG of G -group)

1) we have a functor $U: k\text{-Alg} \rightarrow \text{Grp}$
 $A \mapsto A^\times$



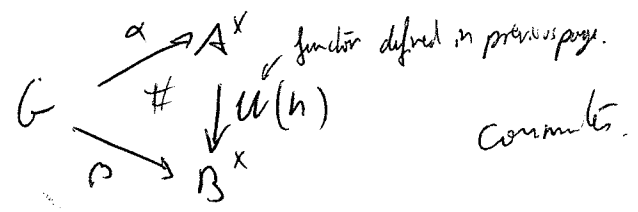
we want a functor in the opposite direction.



we define a "funny" category $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}(G, k)$ for G a group and k a field.

$ob(\mathcal{C})$: are the {group homomorphisms $G \rightarrow A^\times$, $A \in ob(k\text{-Alg})$ }

$Mor(\mathcal{C})$: a morphism from $G \xrightarrow{\alpha} A^\times$ to $G \xrightarrow{\beta} B^\times$ is a k -algebra homomorphism $h: A \rightarrow B$ s.t.



Def: A group algebra for G over k is a universal object in $\mathcal{C}(G, k)$ (initial).

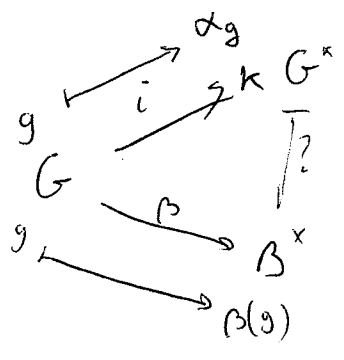
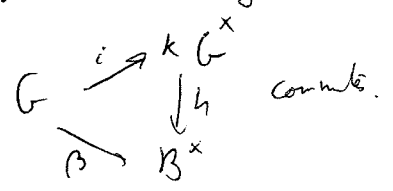
this is already proven!

Lemma: for all G, k , group algebras exist (and are unique up to unique iso).

pl Consider in $\mathcal{C}(G, k)$ the object $i: G \rightarrow kG^\times$
 $g \mapsto \alpha_g$

We check that i is universal:

Take any other object $\beta: G \rightarrow B^\times$. We need to find a unique k -algebra hom $h: kG \rightarrow B$ s.t.



so $h(\alpha_g) := \beta(g)$ is the unique k -alg of k -alg that works. (defined over its basis).

Note:

1) We get for every field k , a functor $\underline{k}: \text{Grp} \rightarrow k\text{-Alg}$
 $G \mapsto kG$

2) The group algebra satisfies:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Mor}_{\text{Grp}}(G, B^X) & \simeq & \text{Mor}_{k\text{-Alg}}(kG, B) \\ \parallel & & \parallel \\ \text{Mor}_{\text{Grp}}(G, U(B)) & & \text{Mor}_{k\text{-Alg}}(\underline{k}(G), B) \end{array}$$

This is a special case of adjoint functors: we say that \underline{k} and U are adjoint.

Def Let \mathcal{C} be a category, and $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a ~~category~~ family of objects in \mathcal{C} . We define a funny category:

ob(\mathcal{D}): $\{ \gamma_i : C \rightarrow A_i \}_{i \in I}$ ("family of morphisms").

Morphisms: a morph $\{ \gamma_i : C \rightarrow A_i \}_{i \in I} \rightarrow \{ \delta_i : D \rightarrow A_i \}_{i \in I}$ is some

$$h: C \rightarrow D \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{array}{ccc} C & \xrightarrow{\gamma_i} & A_i \\ \downarrow h & & \uparrow \delta_i \\ D & \xrightarrow{\delta_i} & A_i \end{array} \text{ commute } \forall i.$$

A product for $\{A_i\}$ is a universal initial object in $\mathcal{D}(\{A_i\}) = \mathcal{D}$

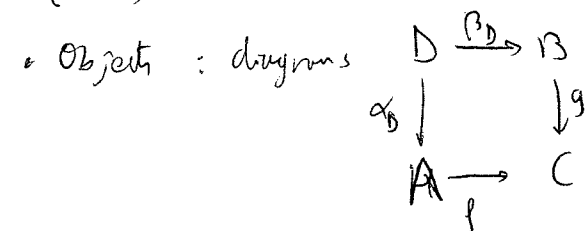
In other words, $\{ \pi_i : \Pi \rightarrow A_i \}_{i \in I}$ is a product iff there is a unique morphism

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Pi & \xrightarrow{\pi_i} & A_i \\ \exists! \downarrow & & \uparrow \\ C & \xrightarrow{\gamma_i} & A_i \end{array}$$

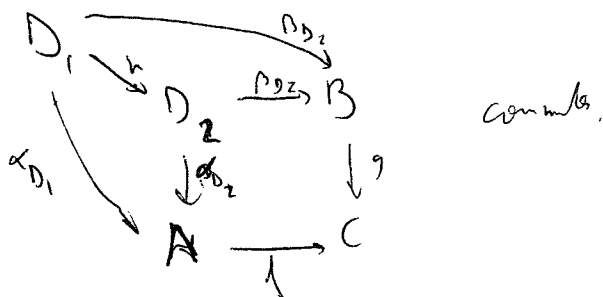
This is a way of avoiding to prove the uniqueness of product.

Pullbacks:

Let \mathcal{C} be a category, $f: A \rightarrow C$. Define a funny category $\mathcal{E}(f, g)$ where



• Morphisms: $h: D_1 \rightarrow D_2$ s.t.:



Def A pullback of f and g is a universally attracting (terminal) object in $\mathcal{E}(f, g)$.

Examples: If \mathcal{C} is sets, then pullbacks exist. HW.
If \mathcal{C} is Abgrp, then pullbacks exist.

Pushouts: Start with $A \xrightarrow{f} B$ and reverse the arrows in the definitions

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{f} & B \\ & & \downarrow g \\ & & C \end{array}$$

of pullback, and define pushouts of f and g as universally repelling objects in $\mathcal{E}(f, g)$.

(Return to Modules).

R a ring, $\mathcal{C} = {}_R\text{Mod}$ of left R -modules.

$$f: M \rightarrow N \text{ is morphism in } {}_R\text{Mod} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Ker } f = \{m \in M : f(m) = 0\} \\ \text{Im } f = \{n \in N : n = f(m) \text{ for some } m \in M\} \subseteq N \\ \text{Coker } f = N / \text{Im } f \end{array} \right.$$

Def Consider $\dots \rightarrow M_{i-1} \xrightarrow{f_{i-1}} M_i \xrightarrow{f_i} M_{i+1} \xrightarrow{f_{i+1}} \dots$ a sequence of morphisms.

- It is called a complex if $f_i \circ f_{i-1} = 0 \quad \forall i$. ($\Leftrightarrow \text{Im } f_{i-1} \subseteq \text{Ker } f_i$).
- It is called an exact sequence if $\text{Im } f_{i-1} = \text{Ker } f_i$

Non-exact complexes are very important in topology, homological algebra, ...

We concentrate, however, on exact sequences.

Example:

Suppose $N \subset M$ is a submodule. Then also M/N is an R -module, and

$M \xrightarrow{p} M/N$ the canonical projection. Then:

$$0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M/N \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{is exact.}$$

Definition: A short exact sequence is an exact sequence of R modules of the form $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$.

Then we can identify A with a submodule of B .

Also, C can be identified with B/A (in fact $B/i(A)$).

Recall: in ${}_R\text{Mod}$, the coproduct of two modules M_1, M_2 is the direct

$$\text{sum } M_1 \oplus M_2 = \{m_1 + m_2 \mid m_i \in M_i\}.$$

Let $M = M_1 \oplus M_2$. Then we get an ^{short} exact sequence:

$$0 \rightarrow M_1 \xrightarrow{i} M \xrightarrow{p} M_2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} m_1 & \longmapsto & m_1 + 0 & \longmapsto & m_1 & & \\ & & m_1 + m_2 & \longmapsto & m_2 & & \end{array}$$

Question: given an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$,
 is it true that $B \cong A \oplus C$ and $(*)$ is equivalent
 to $(**)$ $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \oplus C \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$?

Definition: $(*)$ is called a split short exact sequence iff it is equivalent
 to $(**)$.

Answer: it depends on R .

→ if $R = k$ a field, then every short exact sequence is split.

→ if $R = \mathbb{Z}$, then $\mathbb{Z}\text{Mod} = \text{Abgrp}$ and

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \not\cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}!$$

cyclic
↓

$$1 \hookrightarrow 2 \quad k \hookrightarrow k \text{ mod } 2$$

Problem: $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} = \langle 1 \rangle$, but the generator 1 is not linearly independent, as
 $r \cdot 1 = 0$ for some $r \neq 0$. (4.1.20).

Free modules

Def Let R be a ring, $V \in \text{ob}(R\text{Mod})$ is called free iff $V \cong \sum_{i \in I} V_i$ and
 each of the $V_i \cong R$.

This means that $v \in V$ can be written (uniquely) as $v = \sum_{i \in I} v_i$ finite sum.
 and, furthermore, $v_i = r_i \cdot 1_i$, where if $\phi_i: V_i \rightarrow R$, $1_i \in V_i$ is $1_i = \phi_i^{-1}(1_R)$.

And this r_i are unique:

$$\text{If } v = \sum_{i \in I} r_i 1_i = \sum_{i \in I} p_i 1_i \Rightarrow \sum_{i \in I} (r_i - p_i) 1_i = 0 \Rightarrow (r_i - p_i) 1_i = 0 \quad \forall i$$

$$\text{Apply } \phi_i: \phi_i((r_i - p_i) 1_i) = (r_i - p_i) \phi_i(1_i) = (r_i - p_i) 1_R = 0_R \Rightarrow r_i = p_i.$$

then $\{1_i\}_{i \in I}$ are called a basis for the free module V .

Example: 1) if $R=k$, all R -modules are free (by existence of basis for vector spaces)
 2) if $R=\mathbb{Z}$, not all modules are free. (ex: $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$).

(10)

Two functors: R fixed.

For: ${}_R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{Sets}$ (Forgetful functor).
 $(M, +, \cdot) \mapsto M$

Free: $\text{Sets} \rightarrow {}_R\text{Mod}$
 $B \mapsto F_B = \langle B \rangle = \bigoplus_{b \in B} Rb$ (the free module with basis B).

$i: B \rightarrow \text{For}(F_B)$
 $b \mapsto b$

Lemma: for every map (of sets) $\gamma: B \rightarrow \text{For}(M)$, there is a unique R -module homomorphism $g: F_B \rightarrow M$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F_B & & \\ \uparrow i & \searrow g & \\ B & \xrightarrow{\gamma} & M \end{array}$$

pf $g\left(\sum_{b \in B} r_b b\right) := \sum_{b \in B} r_b \gamma(b)$

Note 1: $\begin{matrix} F_B \\ \uparrow i \\ B \end{matrix}$ is an initial object in some category.

Note 2: the lemma can be rephrased as:

$$\text{Hom}_{\text{Set}}(B, \text{For}(M)) \cong \text{Hom}_{{}_R\text{Mod}}(\text{Free}(B), M).$$

(another example of adjoint functors).

Def: If F is a free module, a family $\{f_i\}_{i \in I}$ is a basis for F if:

$$\rightarrow \sum_{i \in I} r_i f_i = 0 \rightarrow r_i = 0 \quad \forall i \in I.$$

$$\rightarrow \text{spans } F: \beta = \sum r_i f_i \quad \forall \beta \in F.$$

Lemma: Any R -module M is a quotient of a free module. In other words,

$$0 \rightarrow \ker \pi \rightarrow F \xrightarrow{\pi} M \rightarrow 0 \quad M \cong F / \ker \pi$$

pf: Take a set B , isomorphic to M (in sets).

$$\text{So get a bijection } B \rightarrow M$$

$$b_m \leftrightarrow m$$

Let $F = F_B = \langle B \rangle = \bigoplus_{m \in M} R b_m$, the free R -module with basis B .

Define a linear map $\pi: F \rightarrow M$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{R-module homomorphism} & \sum_{m \in M} r_m b_m & \mapsto \sum_{m \in M} r_m m \\ \downarrow & & \\ \pi & & \end{array}$$

π is R -linear and surjective, since $m \in M$ can be written $\pi(b_m)$.

$$\text{so } M = F / \ker(\pi)$$

Lemma: Let F be a free R -module, and suppose $M \xrightarrow{p} N \rightarrow 0$ exact.

Then any R -morphism $h: F \rightarrow N$ "lifts" to a morphism $g: F \rightarrow M$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & F & \\ & \swarrow g \quad \searrow h & \\ M & \xrightarrow{p} & N \rightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

pf: F free $\Rightarrow \{f_i\}_{i \in I}$ a basis. Let $n_i = h(f_i)$.

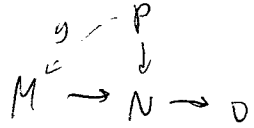
As p is surjective, $\exists m_i \in M$ s.t. $p(m_i) = n_i$.

Define $g: F \rightarrow M$ as $g(\sum r_i f_i) = \sum r_i m_i$.

Check: $(p \circ g)(\sum r_i f_i) = \sum r_i (p \circ g)(f_i) = \sum r_i n_i = h(\sum r_i f_i) \Rightarrow$ commutes.

Note: g is not unique, in general.

Definition: An R -module P is projective if, for all $M \hookrightarrow N \rightarrow 0$ exact, and $h: P \rightarrow N$, there is a lift $g: P \rightarrow M$.



(So all free modules are projective).

Also, if $R=k$ then all modules are projective.

Recall: a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is called split if the sequence is isomorphic to $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \oplus C \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$.

Lemma: A short exact sequence splits iff $\exists \gamma: C \rightarrow B$ s.t. $g \circ \gamma = \text{id}_C$.

pf \Rightarrow if $B \cong A \oplus C$, $\gamma: C \xrightarrow{\text{id}} A \oplus C \cong B \Rightarrow \gamma: C \rightarrow B$ and it satisfies that $g \circ \gamma = \text{id}_C$.

\Leftarrow HW for next week.

Theorem (characterization of Projectives):

The following are equivalent: (P an R -module).

- (1) P is projective. (it has the lifting property).
- (2) Every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$ splits.
- (3) P is a direct summand of a free module: $\exists F, Q$ s.t. F free and $F = P \oplus Q$.

pf (1) \Rightarrow (2): Suppose P projective. Let $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow 0$ be exact. Since P is projective, $\exists g: P \rightarrow B$ s.t. $g \circ g = \text{id}_P$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3): Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow P \rightarrow 0$ splits \forall seq.

Write P as a quotient of a free module F : $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow F \xrightarrow{g} P \rightarrow 0$
As it splits, $F \cong A \oplus P$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1)

$F = A \oplus P \xrightarrow{\pi} P \rightarrow 0$

Let $M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0$ exact

Now F is free, so projective, so $\text{hom}(F, N) \rightarrow \text{hom}(P, N)$ lifts to a map $h: N \rightarrow F$. Now $g \circ h$ will do //.

Example: Let $R = \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$$

$$1 \mapsto 2 \quad k \mapsto \text{mod } 2$$

We can write $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

This shows that $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ are direct summands of a free $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ module.

So $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ are projective modules.

But $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ are not free over $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ ($\mathbb{Z}_2 = \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6 \Rightarrow 2$ is multiple of 6!!!)

Facts:

1) Projective, finitely-generated modules over a PID are free.

(so projectives over \mathbb{Z} or $k[t]$ are free)

2) Projectives over $k[t_1, \dots, t_n]$ are free. (Serre conjecture, Quillen/Kustin Theorem).

3) Projective modules over commutative ring \Leftrightarrow vector bundles in Diff. (or Alg.) geometry

Projective modules over non-commutative rings \Leftrightarrow Non-comm. geometry (Connes)

~~Theorem~~

Def Suppose we have a functor $T: R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{AbGrp}$ in $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(T(A), T(B))$.

Then T is called additive iff $T(f+g) = T(f) + T(g)$.

(i.e. if $f, g \in \text{Hom}_R(A, B) = \text{Mor}_{R\text{Mod}}(A, B)$, $f+g \in \text{Hom}_R(A, B)$ s.t. $(f+g)(a) = f(a) + g(a)$).

Examples

Fix a module N , and define $T_N: R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{AbGrp}$
 $M \mapsto \text{Hom}(M, N)$

Given a morphism $f: A \rightarrow B$
 $\begin{array}{ccc} f & & \\ \downarrow h & & \downarrow h \\ N & & N \end{array} \quad \circ \quad T_N(f): T_N(B) \rightarrow T_N(A) \quad (\text{it is contravariant}).$
 $h \mapsto h \circ f$

Clearly, it is additive (exercise).

Example

Similarly to previous example, fix $M \in \text{ob}({}_R\text{Mod})$, define:

$$T^M = \text{Hom}(M, -) : {}_R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{Abgp}$$

$$N \mapsto \text{Hom}(M, N)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & M & M \\ & \downarrow h & \downarrow f \circ h \\ f : A & \rightarrow & B \end{array}$$

So $T^M(f) : \text{Hom}(M, A) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, B)$ is a covariant function. and it is additive!

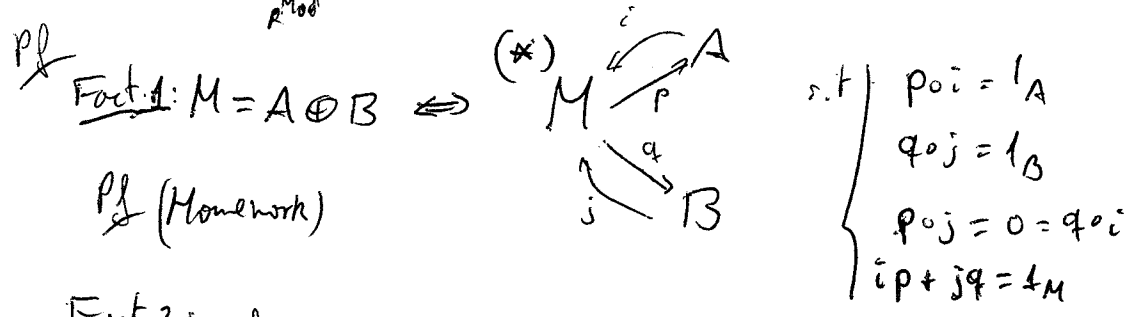
We call $T_N =: f^*$, and $T^M =: f_*$

Lemma: if $T : {}_R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{Abgp}$ is an additive functor, then finite direct

sums are preserved:

$$(T(A \oplus B) = T(A) \oplus T(B))$$

\uparrow Abgp
 \uparrow ${}_R\text{Mod}$



Fact 2: if $T : {}_R\text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{Abgp}$ is an additive functor (co or contra varial)

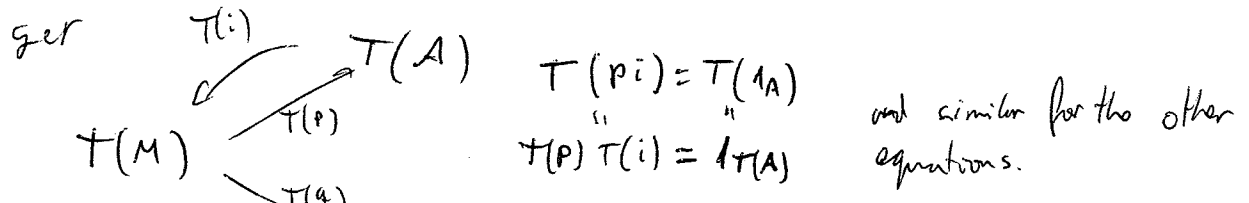
then $T(0) = 0$. (here 0 is the 0-object in ${}_R\text{Mod}$ and 0-obj in Abgp).

(or $0 \in \text{Hom}(A, B)$ is the 0-morphism.)

Pf (Homework).

Let now $A \oplus B = M$, want to show that $T(M) = T(A) \oplus T(B)$.

Apply T to the diagram (*). If T is covariant, we



So the obtained diagram satisfies the conditions for $T(A) \oplus T(B) = T(M)$. If T is contravariant do the same.

Application: Let $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$ be a split exact sequence, and T be an additive functor, say covariant.

Then we get a $\rightarrow 0 \rightarrow T(A) \xrightarrow{T(i)} T(B) \xrightarrow{T(p)} T(C) \rightarrow 0$ (*)

Since $B = A \oplus C$ also $T(B) = T(A) \oplus T(C)$, so in fact the sequence (*) is also split.

So additive functors preserve split exact sequences.

Question: if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is exact but not split, will the sequence $0 \rightarrow T(A) \rightarrow T(B) \rightarrow T(C) \rightarrow 0$ be exact?

Answer: in general, no. But usually it will be "partially exact".

Example: Fix M , and take $T(-) = \text{Hom}(M, -)$. Then we have:

Theorem: if $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B \xrightarrow{p} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact, then

$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, A) \xrightarrow{i_*} \text{Hom}(M, B) \xrightarrow{p_*} \text{Hom}(M, C)$ is exact
(but in general $\text{Hom}(M, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, C)$ is not surjective).

Pf Need to show:

(1) i_* is injective

(2) $\text{Im } i_* \subseteq \ker p_*$

(3) $\ker p_* \subseteq \text{Im } i_*$

(1) Let $f: M \rightarrow A$, $i_* f = i \circ f$. if $i_* f = 0 \Rightarrow i \circ f(m) = 0 \forall m \Rightarrow f(m) = 0 \forall m \Rightarrow f = 0$.

(2) $p_*(i_*(f))(m) = p(i(f(m))) = (p \circ i)(f(m)) = 0$

(3) Let $g \in \ker p_*$ (i.e. $p \circ g = 0$, i.e. $p(g(m)) = 0 \Rightarrow g(m) = i(a)$ for a unique $a \in A$).
Define then $f: M \rightarrow A$ and check that $g = i_* f$.

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}$.

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{is exact}$$

Consider $M = \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}$ and then consider:

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$$

We'll find a nonzero element in $\text{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$: $f: \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$
 $1 \mapsto 1/2$
So P_* is not surjective.

Def: An additive functor $T: \mathcal{R}\text{Mod} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\text{bgrp}$ is exact if it preserves (short) exact sequences. (So $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}, -)$ is not exact).

Theorem: P is projective iff $\text{Hom}(P, -)$ is an exact functor.

(In particular, \mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z} is not projective as a \mathbb{Z} -module. Also, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is not proj.)

Pl It suffices to show P projective \Leftrightarrow for all $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact
then $P_*: \text{Hom}(P, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(P, C)$ is surjective.
Let $f: P \rightarrow C$ a morphism and $B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact.
 P projective $\Leftrightarrow \exists g: P \rightarrow B$ s.t. $\pi g = f \Leftrightarrow \exists g \in \text{Hom}_R(P, B)$ s.t. $P_*(g) = f$
 $\Leftrightarrow P_*: \text{Hom}_R(P, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_R(P, C)$ is surjective $\Leftrightarrow \text{Hom}(P, -)$ is exact functor.

In general, for M not projective, given $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact,
 $P_*: \text{Hom}(M, B) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, C)$ is not surjective. So we get:

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, A) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(M, B) \xrightarrow{P_*} \text{Hom}(M, C) \xrightarrow{\delta} \text{Hom}(M, C) / \text{Im } P_* \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{exact.}$$

To get an interpretation of $\text{Hom}(M, C) / \text{Im } P_*$, take for instance $M = C$.



$$0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$$

$\begin{array}{c} C \\ \downarrow \text{id}_C \end{array}$

We know that the sequence splits $\Leftrightarrow 1_C$ lifts to $B: g: B \rightarrow C$ s.t. $pg = 1_C$

$\Leftrightarrow 1_C$ is in the range of $p_* \Leftrightarrow \delta(1_C) = 0 \in \text{Hom}(C, C) / \text{Im } p_*$

Conversely, for any exact sequence we get $\delta(1_C) \in \text{Hom}(C, C) / \text{Im } p_*$
and if $\delta(1_C) \neq 0$ the sequence does not split.

So $\text{Hom}(C, C) / \text{Im } p_*$ is the obstruction space for splittness.

Terminology: if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ exact, then B is called an extension of C by A .

Homological algebra studies this (MS06).

We can now invert the arrows in the definitions of projective modules.

Theorem/Def: Let I be an R -module. TFAE:

1) For all injections $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B$ and $f: A \rightarrow I$, there is an extension map $g: B \rightarrow I$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & f & \\ & \downarrow & \\ & I & \end{array}$$

2) The contravariant functor $\text{Hom}(-, I)$ is exact.

3) Every short exact sequence with I on the first position is split.

Def: I is called, in this case, an injective module.

Pf exercise.

We know that every module M is a quotient of a free module.

The converse is:

Theorem: Every module M is a submodule of an injective module.

Pf exercise.

Def Let T be a \mathbb{Z} -module (i.e. an abelian group). T is called divisible if $\forall m \in \mathbb{Z}, m \neq 0$, the multiplication by m map

$$m_T: T \rightarrow T \quad t \mapsto mt$$

is surjective. (any $t' \in T$ can be written $mt = t'$)

Example:

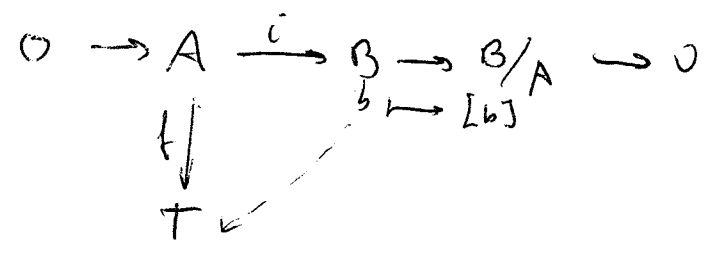
- 1) \mathbb{Z} as a module over itself is not divisible.
- 2) \mathbb{Q} is divisible.
- 3) \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is also divisible.

Theorem: Divisible abelian groups are injective \mathbb{Z} -modules.

PP
~~A~~ Let T be divisible. $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{i} B$ be exact, and consider $f: A \rightarrow T$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & \downarrow f \\ & & T \\ & \swarrow g? & \\ & & \end{array}$$

Pick a $b \in B, b \notin \text{Im}(i)$ (if $b \in \text{Im}(i)$, define $g(b) = f(i^{-1}(b))$)



There are two cases:

- 1) $\mathbb{Z}[b] \cong \mathbb{Z}$
- 2) $\mathbb{Z}[b] \cong \mathbb{Z}/d\mathbb{Z}$ (i.e. $db \in A$ for a minimal d).

we want to extend f to $g: A + \mathbb{Z}b \rightarrow T$

$$g(a + nb) = \begin{cases} f(a) + nt & \text{in case (1), for arbitrary } t. \\ \vdots \end{cases}$$

know $db \in A \Rightarrow g(db) = f(db) = "d \cdot g(b)" = t' \in T$; but $t' = dt$ for some $t \in T$,
 So define $g(a + nb) = f(a) + nt$ for this t s.t. $dt = t' = f(db)$.
 Need to check that all works.

After checking the well-definedness of g , we see that extended

$$f \text{ to } g: A + \langle b \rangle \rightarrow T.$$

By using Zorn's lemma or axiom of choice, keep repeating this to get an extension to $\tilde{g}: B \rightarrow T$.

↳, for instance, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} is an injective \mathbb{Z} -module.

• Semisimplicities.

Def Let M be an R -module. Then M is said to be simple or irreducible iff the only submodules of M are $\{0_M\}$ and M itself.

Examples.

1) If $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ are simple \mathbb{Z} -modules.

2) $R = k$ a field, a simple k -vector space is a 1-dimensional k -vector space.

Def A filtration of M is a sequence of submodules:

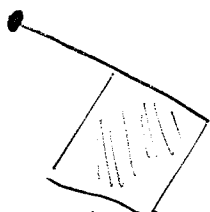
$$0 = M_0 \subsetneq M_1 \subsetneq M_2 \cdots \subsetneq M_n = M.$$

The length of a filtration is n .

A simple filtration is a finite-length filtration such that M_i/M_{i-1} are simple.

(also called a composition series).

Example: if $R = k$, $\dim_k V = l$, then a simple filtration is called a complete flag in V :



e.g. for $l = 2$, the set of all flags in k^2 is the set of lines in k^2 , which is the projective 1-space.

Size of a module:

Try to generalize the notion of a vector space V of $\dim V = n$.

1) $n = \#$ elements in a basis \rightsquigarrow generalizes only to free modules.

2) Maximal $\#$ of linear independent elements \rightsquigarrow generalizes to $M/\text{integral domain} = R$
 r is called the rank of M .

But if $R = \mathbb{Z}$, then M a finite abelian group has $\text{rank}(M) = 0$, not very interesting.

3) Maximal $\#$ of elements in a chain of subspaces:

$0 \subsetneq V_1 \subsetneq V_2 \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq V_n = V$ then

\rightsquigarrow generalizes correctly!

$n = \#$ maximal $\#$ of elements in a chain of subspaces

Facts

If $0 \subsetneq M_1 \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq M_\ell = M$ is a simple filtration, then it cannot be made longer by putting another module N in the middle:

if $M_{i-1} \subsetneq N \subsetneq M_i$, then $N/M_{i-1} \subsetneq \underbrace{M_i/M_{i-1}}_{\text{simple}}$

\Rightarrow either $N/M_{i-1} = 0$ ($\Leftrightarrow N = M_{i-1}$) or $N/M_{i-1} = M_i/M_{i-1}$ ($\Leftrightarrow N = M_i$).

Def: A module is said to have finite length if there is an upper bound for the length of filtrations for M .

Example: $M = \mathbb{Z}$ over \mathbb{Z} has not finite length: for any given n , take n different primes p_1, \dots, p_n and then:

$0 \subsetneq (p_1) \subsetneq (p_1 p_2) \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq (p_1 \dots p_n) \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}$

Theorem (Jordan-Hölder): Let M be an R -module. Then all simple filtrations have the same length (either all finite ^(equal) or all infinite).



Pf (of J-H-th):

Can do induction on

(*)_l: if $M \neq 0$ has a simple filtration of length l , then every filtration has length at most l .

For $l=1$, if M has a simple filtration of length 1 $\Rightarrow 0 \subset M \rightarrow M$ is simple \Rightarrow it is the only possible filtration \Rightarrow OK.

Assume (*)_k for $k < l$, and let M have a simple filtration of length l : $0 \subset M_1 \subset M_2 \subset \dots \subset M_{l-1} \subset M_l = M$ and M_i/M_{i-1} are simple.

Consider any other filtration $0 \subset N_1 \subset \dots \subset N_\lambda = M$. want to show $\lambda \leq l$.

Case A: $N_{\lambda-1} \subseteq M_{l-1}$

Then we have $0 \subset N_1 \subset N_2 \subset \dots \subset N_{\lambda-1} \subset M_{l-1}$ is a (length = λ or $\lambda-1$) filtration of M_{l-1} . But M_{l-1} has a simple filtration of length $l-1$.

By induction, $\lambda \leq l-1$ (or $\lambda-1 \leq l-1$). $\Rightarrow \lambda \leq l$.

Case B: $N_{\lambda-1} \not\subseteq M_{l-1}$

Fact 1: $N_{\lambda-1} \cap M_{l-1} \subsetneq M_{l-1}$ is a proper submodule.

(if not, ~~then~~ $M_{l-1} \subset N_{\lambda-1} \subset M_l$. But M_l/M_{l-1} is simple !!).

Fact 2: Any filtration of $N_{\lambda-1} \cap M_{l-1}$ has length at most $l-2$.

($0 \subset \tilde{N}_1 \subset \tilde{N}_2 \subset \dots \subset N_{\lambda-1} \cap M_{l-1}$ can be extended to a filtration of M_{l-1} , \Rightarrow the length $\leq l-1$)

Fact 3: $N_{\lambda-1} / N_{\lambda-1} \cap M_{l-1}$ is simple (M_l / M_{l-1} is simple. Also, $N_{\lambda-1} + M_{l-1} \subsetneq M_l$)

So by simplicity of M_l / M_{l-1} , must have $M_{l-1} + N_{\lambda-1} = M_l$. Now, by iso. thm,

$$\frac{M_l}{M_{l-1}} \cong \frac{N_{\lambda-1} + M_{l-1}}{M_{l-1}} \cong \frac{N_{\lambda-1}}{N_{\lambda-1} \cap M_{l-1}}$$

Fact 4: N_{d-1} has filtration of length at most $l-1$

$$0 \subset \tilde{N}_1 \subset \dots \subset (N_{d-1} \cap M_{e-1}) \subset N_{d-1}$$

at most length $l-2$

So $0 \subset N_1 \subset N_2 \subset \dots \subset N_{d-1} \subset N_d = M$ has length l (or less)
(By symmetry, all simple filtrations must have the same length).

Def: A module has length l if it has a simple filtration of length l .

Examples:

- 1) A module of length 1 is a simple module.
- 2) A module of length 2 is M s.t. all $N \in M$ are simple and M/N simple.

So $0 \rightarrow N \rightarrow M \rightarrow M/N \rightarrow 0$ exact, and then

M is an extension of simple modules M/N by the simple module N .
(So can start studying simple modules, and then construct the rest).

Theorem: Let M have two simple filtrations

$$0 \subset M_1 \subset \dots \subset M_e = M$$

$$0 \subset N_1 \subset \dots \subset N_e = M$$

Then, there is a permutation $\sigma \in S_e$ s.t. $\frac{M_i}{M_{i-1}} \cong \frac{N_{\sigma(i)}}{N_{\sigma(i)-1}}$

Example: $0 \subset \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/24\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z}$
 $0 \subset \mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/24\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}/24\mathbb{Z}$

Def: An R -module M is called semisimple if any submodule $N \subset M$ has a complement: $M = N \oplus \tilde{N}$.

Def/Thm: A module M is Noetherian if one of the following equivalent conditions hold:

- 1) Every submodule is finitely generated;
- 2) Every increasing sequence of submodules stabilizes;
- 3) Every non-empty family of submodules \mathcal{S} has a maximal element.

Lemma: If M is Noetherian, then every submodule and quotient of M is Noetherian, too.

Pf for submodules, just use characterization (1).

for quotients, $M \xrightarrow{p} Q \xrightarrow{=} M/N \rightarrow 0$

Let $Q_1 \subsetneq Q_2 \subsetneq Q_3 \subsetneq \dots$ be an increasing sequence of submodules in Q . $M_i = p^{-1}(Q_i) \subset M$. $M_1 \subsetneq M_2 \subsetneq \dots$ is finite so also the Q_i sequence must be.

Lemma: Suppose $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is an exact sequence of modules in $R\text{Mod}$. Then if A and C are Noetherian, then also B is Noetherian. (The converse is also true, by previous lemma).

Pf Exercise

Def A ring is Noetherian if it is a Noetherian R -module over itself. (i.e. if left-ideals are finitely-generated).

Example: PID's are Noetherian. So $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{K}[X]$ are Noetherian.

Lemma: Let R be Noetherian, M a finitely-generated R -module. Then, M is Noetherian, too.

Pf Let $M = \langle m_1, \dots, m_k \rangle$. Then

$$\begin{array}{c} R^{\oplus k} \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0 \\ (r_1, \dots, r_k) \longmapsto \sum r_i m_i \end{array}$$

But $R^{\oplus k}$ is Noetherian, and quotients of noetherian are Noetherian //

Def A module M is Artinian if it satisfies the d.c.c, i.e. $M \supset M_1 \supset M_2 \supset \dots$ stabilizes ($M_n = M_{n+1}$ for $n \geq N$).

Example: \mathbb{Z} is Noetherian but not Artinian. $\mathbb{Z} \supset (n) \supset (n^2) \supset (n^3) \supset \dots$

If $I = (d) \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is submodule, $d = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$.

$(d) \subset (\frac{d}{p_1}) \subset (\frac{d}{p_2}) \subset \dots$ stabilization (\Rightarrow Noetherian)

Lemma: if $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ is exact of R -Mod, then A, C Artinian $\Leftrightarrow B$ is Artinian.

Def A module M is cyclic if $\exists m \in M$ s.t. $M = Rm$

Lemma: if M is simple, then M is cyclic.

Pf M simple $\Rightarrow M \neq 0$, so choose $m \neq 0$. Then $Rm \subset M$ is a submodule, so $Rm = M$ (impossible because $1 \cdot m = m \neq 0$).

Question: if M is cyclic, is M simple?

Answer: take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, M a cyclic \mathbb{Z} -module. $M = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is cyclic but it is simple only if n is prime.

Lemma: M has finite length $\Leftrightarrow M$ is both Noetherian and Artinian.

Pf \Rightarrow If M has finite length l , it has a simple filtration of length l , and all other filtrations must have length $\leq l$.

Therefore, the d.c.c and a.c.c are satisfied.

\Leftarrow Suppose both c.c. hold for M .

Let F_1 be the family of all proper submodules of M .

By Noetherianness, F_1 has a maximal element M_1 . So $M \supset M_1$, and M/M_1 is simple by maximality of M_1 .

Define inductively F_k be the family of proper submodules of M_{k-1} , and construct a sequence $M \supset M_1 \supset \dots \supset M_n \Rightarrow M_i = 0$ for some i by d.c.c.

Def/Thm: M is called semisimple if one of the following equivalent conditions hold.

- 1) M is the sum of a family of simple submodules.
- 2) M is the direct sum of a family of simple submodules.
- 3) All submodules over M are direct summands, so $M = N \oplus N'$.

Pf
~~(1) \Rightarrow (2)~~ Let $M = \sum_{i \in I} M_i$, M_i simple.

As M_i are simple, $M_i \cap N = \begin{cases} 0 \\ M_i \end{cases}$ for all N submodules.

Let $J \subset I$ be a maximal subset s.t. $\tilde{M} = \sum_{j \in J} M_j$ is a direct sum.

Claim: $\tilde{M} = M$.

It suffices to show that each $M_i \subset \tilde{M}$.

$M_i \cap \tilde{M} = \begin{cases} 0 \\ M_i \end{cases}$. If $M_i \cap \tilde{M} = 0$ then J would not be maximal, as $J \cup \{i\}$. So $M_i \cap \tilde{M} = M_i \Rightarrow M_i \subset \tilde{M}$, and so $\tilde{M} = M$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) Suppose $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$, $N \subseteq M$ a submodule.

Let $J \subseteq I$ be a maximal subset s.t. $\tilde{M} = N \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{j \in J} M_j \right)$ is a direct sum. Want to show that $M = \tilde{M}$.

It suffices to show that all $M_i \subset \tilde{M}$ (and so, $M \subseteq \tilde{M}$).

$M_i \cap N$ is a submodule of $M_i \Rightarrow \begin{cases} = 0 \\ = M_i \end{cases}$.

If $M_i \cap N = M_i \Rightarrow M_i \subseteq N \Rightarrow M_i \subseteq \tilde{M}$ so we are done.

If $M_i \cap N = 0$ then either $M_i = M_j$ for some $j \in J$, or $M_i \cap M_j = 0 \forall j \in J$.

In the case $M_i \cap M_j = 0 \forall j \in J$, J would not be maximal. So $M_i = M_j \Rightarrow M_i \subseteq \tilde{M}$.

(continues pf of semisimple criteria)

(3) \Rightarrow (1):

Need a lemma.

all submodules of M are direct summands

Lemma: if M satisfies (3), then any submodule $N \neq 0$ of M contains a simple submodule.

pf: if $N \neq 0$, it contains some $m \neq 0$ and so a nonzero submodule $Rm \subset N$.

\therefore it suffices to show that Rm contains a simple submodule.

$$0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{r} R \xrightarrow{rm} Rm \rightarrow 0$$

where L is a left ideal in R . By Zorn's lemma, L is contained in a maximal left ideal, \hat{L} .

(i.e. $\hat{L} \subsetneq P \subseteq R \Rightarrow P=R$).

Now use property (3), $M = \hat{L}m \oplus Q$ for some Q submodule (note that $\hat{L}m$ is a submodule)

then also $Rm = \hat{L}m \oplus (Q \cap Rm)$:

(pf: write $rm \in Rm$, $rm = lm + q$ $lm \in \hat{L}m$, $q \in Q \Rightarrow q = (r-l)m \in Rm \Rightarrow q \in (Rm \cap Q)$.)

Now ~~also~~, as \hat{L} is maximal, implies $\hat{L}m$ is maximal in Rm and, therefore $Q \cap Rm$ must be simple. \square

Let now $M_0 \subseteq M$ be the sum of all simples: $M_0 = \bigoplus M_i$ (sum of simples)

By property (3), $M = M_0 \oplus M_0'$. Then by the lemma, M_0' contains a simple submodule M_j (if M_0' is nonzero). But $M_j \subseteq M_0'$ then also $M_j \subseteq M_0$ but then the sum cannot be direct. \Rightarrow contradiction, so $M_0' = 0$.

Lemma: Submodules and Quotients of semisimples are semisimples:

pf: Let M be semisimple, $N \subseteq M$.

Let $M_0 = \bigoplus M_i$, $M_i \subset N$ simple. Then $M = M_0 \oplus M_0'$. If $n \in N$,

$n = n_0 + n_0'$ with $n_0 \in M_0$, $n_0' \in M_0'$. Then $n - n_0 \in M_0'$, so $N = M_0 \oplus (M_0' \cap N)$.

By the lemma, $M_0' \cap N$ contains a simple submodule in $N \Rightarrow M_0' \cap N = 0 \Rightarrow N = M_0$.

(cont. proof).

Now, for a quotient of a semisimple, $M/N \cong N'$ where $M = N \oplus N'$

But N' is semisimple, and semisimplicity is preserved under isomorphism, so

$M/N \cong$ semisimple, too. //

Def A ring is semisimple if it is semisimple as a left module over itself.

Lemma: All modules over a semisimple ring R are semisimple.

Pf If R is semisimple, also any free R -module F is semisimple, as

F is a direct sum of copies of R (so if $R = \bigoplus_{i \in I} P_i$, $F = \bigoplus_{j \in J} jR = \bigoplus_{j \in J} \bigoplus_{i \in I} P_i$).

But any module is a quotient of a free module, so we're done. //

Question: How to find semisimple rings?

Answer: from groups.

If G is a group, K a field, then a representation of G over K is

a vector space M/K with a group homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow G_{K\text{-Vect}}(M) = \text{Aut}(M)$

Equivalently, a representation of G over M is a KG -module structure on M .

M is called then a G -module.

Examples: Suppose G is a group, and take $K = \mathbb{C}$. M a finite dim complex vesp. and a G -module.

Assume, furthermore, that M has a G -invariant Hermitian form.

(i.e. suppose $\langle x, y \rangle = x^H y = x_1^* y_1 + \dots + x_p^* y_p$, $*$ denotes complex conjugate).

G -invariant means that, $\forall g \in G$, $\langle gx, gy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$.

In this case, M is semisimple. And if $N \in M$, $M = N \oplus N^\perp$.

Pf Let N be a G -submodule in M . As vector spaces, we have $M = N \oplus N^\perp$ where $N^\perp = \{m \in M: \langle m, n \rangle = 0 \forall n \in N\}$. Need to check that $gn^\perp \in N^\perp$ for $n^\perp \in N^\perp$ (so then N^\perp is a submodule, which is not always true!): $\langle gn^\perp, n \rangle = \langle n^\perp, \underbrace{g^{-1}n}_N \rangle = 0$ //

Lemma: Let G be a finite group, and M a $\mathbb{C}G$ -module. Then, M has a G -invariant Hermitian form.

Pf Let $N \subset M$ be a submodule.

Pick any Hermitian form on M , $\langle x, y \rangle$, for $x, y \in M$.

(do this by fixing a \mathbb{C} -basis and declaring it to be orthonormal).

N^\perp will in general not be G -invariant. But, define a new Hermitian form by averaging over G :

$$(x, y) := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \langle gx, gy \rangle$$

Claim: (\cdot, \cdot) is G -invariant:

$$\text{Pf} \text{ Let } h \in G. \quad (hx, hy) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} \langle ghx, ghy \rangle = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{k \in G} \langle kx, ky \rangle = (x, y)$$

Corollary: All complex representations of a finite group are semisimple.

Theorem: (Maschke). Let k be a field, $\text{char } k = p$ ($p=0$ or prime).

Let G be a finite group st $p \nmid |G|$. Then any kG -module is semisimple.

Pf $N \subset M$ a submodule. Pick $M = N \oplus N'$ as k -vector spaces.

(but N' need not be a G -submodule).

We get a projection $\pi': M \rightarrow N$. It satisfies:

$$m + n' \mapsto n$$

$$\bullet \pi' n = n \quad n \in N.$$

$$\bullet \text{Im } \pi' = N$$

$$\bullet \ker \pi' = N'$$

$$\text{So } (\pi')^2 = \pi'.$$

Now average over the group G : $\pi := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} g^{-1} \pi' g$

need $\text{char } k \nmid |G|$!

Q

Claims:

1) $\pi M = N$ (easy)

2) $\pi u = n, n \in N, \pi^2 = \pi$ (easy)

3) $h\pi = \pi h, h \in G$. (easy)

4) $\ker \pi$ is a G -submodule of M . ($\alpha \in \ker \pi$ then $\pi(g\alpha) = g\pi\alpha = g \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow g\alpha \in \ker \pi$)

5) $M = N \oplus \ker \pi$: Write $1_M = \pi + (1 - \pi)$

$$\text{If } m \in M, \quad 1 \cdot m = \underbrace{\pi(m)}_N + \underbrace{(1-\pi)(m)}_{\ker \pi}. \quad \text{So } M = N + \ker \pi.$$

$$\text{And if } y \in N \cap \ker \pi, \quad \underbrace{\pi(y)}_N = y = \underbrace{0}_{\ker \pi} \Rightarrow M = N \oplus \ker \pi.$$

Corollary:

Recall: 1) A ring R is semisimple if R is semisimple as a left R -module.

2) All modules over semisimple rings are semisimple.

Corollary: If k is a field, G a finite group with $p \nmid |G|$ ($p = \text{char } k$), then kG is a semisimple ring.

Lemma (Schur): Let R be a ring, $\phi: M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ an R -module hom.

of simple modules M_1 and M_2 . Then,

$\phi = 0$ or ϕ is an isomorphism.

Pl $\ker \phi \subseteq M_1$ is a submodule. As M_1 is simple, either $\ker \phi = 0$ or $\ker \phi = M_1$.

If $\ker \phi = M_1 \Rightarrow \phi = 0$.

If $\ker \phi = 0, \Rightarrow \phi$ is injective, so nonzero (since $M_1 \neq 0$).

Im $\phi \subseteq M_2$ is M_2 so ϕ is an isomorphism. \checkmark

Corollary: If M is simple, then $\text{End}(M) = \text{Hom}_R(M, M)$ is a division ring (a noncommutative field).

Some definitions.

Def: $Q \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ is called unitary iff $Q^H Q = I_{n \times n}$ ($Q^H = (Q^*)^t$).
 (equivalently, Q is unitary iff Q is ~~invertible~~ $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$, where $\langle x, y \rangle$ is the standard hermitian form for \mathbb{C}^n).

Def: $U(N) := \{ Q \in GL_N(\mathbb{C}) : Q^H Q = I \}$, the unitary group of size N (or of \mathbb{C}^N).

Ex: $N=1, U(1) = \{ \alpha \in GL_1(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^\times : \alpha^H \alpha = 1 \} = S^1 \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ (the unit circle).

Fact: $U(1)$ and $U(N)$ are compact groups (compact in the topology of \mathbb{R}^{2n^2}).

For compact groups one can define $\text{Vol}(G)$, which generalizes $|G|$, and then generalize the semisimplicity results.

Generalization: If V is a complex vector space (maybe ∞ -dim), and $\langle x, y \rangle$ a Herm. form on V , then

$$U(V) := \{ g \in GL(V) \mid \langle gx, gy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle \} \text{ is the unitary group of } (V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$$

Def: Let G be a group, $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ as above. A representation $\rho: G \rightarrow GL(V)$ is called unitary iff $\text{Im } \rho \subseteq U(V) \subseteq GL(V)$.

Lemma 1: All unitary representations of a group G are semisimple.

Lemma 2: All representations of a finite group on a complex vector space are unitary, (and hence, semisimple).

Example: Let $G = U(1) = S^1$.

For any group G and field K , can define the regular representation of G/K as

$$\text{Fun}(G, K) := \{ f: G \rightarrow K \} \text{ without any conditions.}$$

It is a vector space, but also a G -module, by

$$(g \cdot f)(g_1) = f(g_1 g) \quad (\text{choose so that } g(\tilde{g} \cdot f) = (g\tilde{g})f \text{ (left-action)})$$

In particular, for $G = S^1$, consider the following functions on $S^1 = \{z: |z|=1\}$.

$$f_n(z) := z^n$$

Let $g_0 = z_0 \in S^1$.

$$(g_0 \cdot f_n)(z) = f_n(z z_0) = (z z_0)^n = z_0^n z^n = z_0^n f_n(z).$$

$$\Sigma (g_0 \cdot f_n) = z_0^n \cdot f_n$$

In other words, $V_n = \mathbb{C} \cdot f_n \subset \text{Fun}(S^1, \mathbb{C})$ is S^1 -invariant.

So if we define $V = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{C} f_n = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} V_n$, then the V_n are simple S^1 -submodules of V .

Let $F \in V$. Then F is a function on S^1 , and it has a

decomposition
$$F = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} F_n f_n, \quad F_n \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$F = \sum F_n e^{2\pi i n \theta},$$
 so the decomposition of F in the irreducible components is just the Fourier expansion of F .

Recall
Lemma (Schur). $\varphi: M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ a R -mod homomorphism. If M_1, M_2 are simple
then $\varphi=0$ or φ is an isomorphism.

Recall R is semisimple if it is a semisimple module over itself ($R = \bigoplus I_i$).

And we proved that if R is semisimple then all R -modules are semisimple.

Lemma: Let $I \subset R$ be a simple (left) ideal, and M be a simple R -module.

Then, $IM = 0$ or $I \cong M$.

Pf $IM \subseteq M$ is a submodule: $R(IM) \subseteq (RI)M \subseteq IM$.

M is simple, so $IM = 0$ or $IM = M$. First case is the first case of the lemma.

Assume $IM = M$. Then $\exists m \in M$ s.t. $Im \neq 0$. Fix such m ,

$$\text{and then let } \varphi: I \rightarrow IM = M \\ i \mapsto im$$

By assumption on m , φ is nonzero, so it is an isomorphism: $I \cong M$

Let R be a semisimple ring, $R = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in A} L_\alpha$, L_α are simple R -modules.

It is possible that $L_\alpha \cong L_\beta$ for $\alpha \neq \beta$. left-ideal.

Let $\{L_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a complete list of representatives of isomorphism classes of simple left-ideals that occur in the decomposition of R .

Define $R_i := \bigoplus_{L_\alpha \cong L_i} L_\alpha$ - then have $R = \bigoplus_{i \in I} R_i$

Lemma: R_i is a two-sided ideal:

Pf If $i \neq j$, then $R_i R_j = 0$. So $R_j \subseteq \underbrace{R_j \cdot R}_{\substack{i \in R \\ \downarrow}} = R_j \cdot \bigoplus_{i \in I} R_i \subseteq R_j R_j \subseteq R_j$
So it is a right ideal, by def. It's a sum of left-ideals, so it is a left-ideal!

Lemma: Each R_i is a ring with identity, and there are only finitely many components R_i .

pf We have a multiplication $R_i \times R_i \rightarrow R$ because R_i is two-sided ideal. Need an identity for R_i :

Write $1 = 1_R = e_{i_1} + e_{i_2} + \dots + e_{i_s}$ with $e_{i_j} \in R_{i_j}$. Then $e_{i_k} e_{i_j} = 0$ if $k \neq j$.

Then let $x \in R$. $x = \sum_{j \in I} x_j$.

Also, $x = 1 \cdot x = \underbrace{e_{i_1}}_{R_1} \cdot x + \dots + \underbrace{e_{i_s}}_{R_s} \cdot x \Rightarrow x \in \bigoplus_{j=1}^s R_{i_j}$

So in fact $R = \bigoplus_{j=1}^s R_{i_j}$. Rename them so that $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s R_i$.

Take $x = x_i$. Then $x_i = e_i x_i$, so e_i is a left identity.

Also, as $x = x \cdot 1$, yet $x_i = x_i \cdot e_i \Rightarrow$ right identity.

So $e_i \in R_i$ is the identity, and R_i is a ring. //

In particular, $e_i^2 = e_i$, so $e_i: R \rightarrow R_i$ is a projection on R_i , in the decomposition $R = R_1 \oplus \dots \oplus R_s$.

Remark: The R_i 's are not subrings of R , since $1_R \notin R_i$.

Theorem (structure of semisimple rings and modules):

If R is a semisimple ring, then $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s R_i$, $R_i = \bigoplus_{I_\alpha \cong I_i} I_\alpha$, I_α simple and each R_i is a ring with identity e_i .

If M is any R -module, then $M = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_i$ where $M_i = \bigoplus_{M_\alpha \cong I_i} M_\alpha$

Def: A ring R is called simple if R is semisimple and has only one isomorphism class of simple left-ideals.

(So the R_i 's in isotypical decomposition are all simple).

Note: if R is simple, then $R = \bigoplus_{\substack{\alpha \in I \\ I_\alpha \cong I_1}} I_\alpha$ for a single simple left ideal $I_1 \in R$.

Consider $1 \in R$. It has a finite decomposition. $1 = \sum e_\alpha$ ^{finite}

Claim: this implies that the direct sum is, in fact, finite.

So for R simple, $R = \bigoplus_{\alpha=1}^n I_\alpha$, I_α simple, $I_\alpha \cong I_1$.

Recall: If L is a simple R -module, then $\text{End}_R(L) = \text{Hom}_R(L, L)$ is a division ring (every nonzero element in $\text{End}_R(L)$ is invertible).

Call, given a simple R , get $D := \text{End}_R(I_1)$

Lemma: $E := \bigoplus_n L$ and suppose L simple. Then, $\text{End}_R(E) \cong \text{Mat}_n(D)$. ^{ring isomorphism}

pf If $e \in E$ then $e = \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_n \end{pmatrix}$ where e_i is the component in the i th summand.

If $\phi \in \text{End}(E)$, $\phi(e) = \phi(e_1 + \dots + e_n) =$ ~~$\phi(e_1) + \dots + \phi(e_n)$~~

Call $E_1 = L, E_2 = L, \dots$

Then $\phi(e_i) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_{1i}(e_i) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_{ni}(e_i) \end{pmatrix}$ - $\phi_{ji}: E_i \rightarrow E_j$ - So for $\phi \in \text{End}_R(E)$,

get a matrix $(\phi_{ji})_{i,j=1..n}$ and $\phi_{ji} \in \text{End}_R(L) = D$.

So get an element of $\text{Mat}(D)$.

Note: Let E be a 1-dim vectorspace over D , $E = D \cdot v$.

Then $\text{End}_D(E) \cong D^{\text{op}}$ (if K is a ~~commutative~~ field, $\text{End}_K(KV) \cong K$!).

Indeed, $\varphi: E \rightarrow E$ $\psi: E \rightarrow E$
 $v \mapsto a_\varphi v$ $v \mapsto a_\psi v$

$$(\varphi \circ \psi)(v) = \varphi(a_\psi v) = a_\varphi \cdot \psi(v) = a_\varphi \cdot a_\psi \cdot v \Rightarrow a_{\varphi \circ \psi} = a_\varphi \cdot a_\psi \quad //$$

Lemma: Let R be any ring. Then $\text{End}_R(R) \cong R^{\text{op}}$

~~Pf~~ (same as before)

Let now R be a simple ring, $R = \bigoplus_{\alpha=1}^n I_\alpha$, $I_\alpha \cong I_1 = I$.

$$\text{End}_R(R) = \text{End}_R(I^n) \cong \text{Mat}_n(D), \quad D = \text{End}(I).$$

On the other hand, $\text{End}_R(R) = R^{\text{op}}$, so $R^{\text{op}} \cong \text{Mat}_n(D)$.

$$\text{So } R \cong \text{Mat}_n^{\text{op}}(D^{\text{op}}).$$

Conversely,

Lemma: if D is a division ring then $\text{Mat}_n(D) =: R$ is simple.

~~Pf~~ Need to show that $R = L_1 \oplus \dots \oplus L_n$, $L_i \subseteq R$ simple left ideal.

Let $L_i = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ d_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ d_n & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$, and L_i matrices that have nonzero entries only in column i .

The L_i are left ideals, and $R = L_1 \oplus \dots \oplus L_n$. Need only to show that the L_i are simple:

if $v \in D^{(n)}$, $v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$, $w \in D^{(n)}$, $w = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{pmatrix} \neq 0$

There is a matrix M s.t. $Mv = w$. So the L_i are simple, (because there are no R -invariant spaces in L_i) and so R is a simple ring.

Remark: we defined the length of a module (and of a ring) as the length of a simple filtration by submodules (or left-ideals).

For a semi-simple ring R as above,

$$\text{length}(R) = \sum_{i=1}^s \text{length}(R_i), \text{ and } \text{length}(R_i) = \# \text{ distinct summands } I\alpha \text{ in } R_i.$$

Lemma: $\text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D)^{\text{op}} \cong \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D^{\text{op}})$

Notation: $A, B \in \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D)$ (seen as an abelian gp with +), then define two possible multiplications $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \cdot B \rightarrow \text{usual matrix multiplication} \\ A * B \rightarrow \text{opposite matrix multiplication} \\ A \circ B \rightarrow \text{matrix mult. using } D^{\text{op}} \end{array} \right.$

Consider then the homomorphism of Abgp:

$$\phi: \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D) \rightarrow \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D) \quad \text{It is an isomorphism.}$$
$$A \mapsto A^t$$

Consider:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(A * B) &= (A * B)^t = (BA)^t \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n B_{ik} A_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{kj} \circ_{D^{\text{op}}} B_{ik} = \sum_{k=1}^n (A^t)_{jk} \cdot (B^t)_{ki} = (A^t \circ B^t)_{ji} \end{aligned}$$

So $\phi(A * B) = \phi(A) \circ \phi(B)$.

Thus, ϕ is a ring isom from $\text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D)^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D^{\text{op}})$.

So it follows that:

Lemma: if R is a simple ring, then $R \cong \text{Mat}_{n \times n}(D)$ for some division ring D

Theorem: (Wedderburn-Artin): If R is a semisimple ring, then

$$R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(D_i^{\text{op}}) \quad \text{where } D_i^{\text{op}} \text{ are division algs, } D_i = \text{End}_R(I_i)$$

(proven!).

Remark: We defined a simple ring as semisimple with only one isomorphism class of simple left-ideals.

A simple group is G s.t. has no nontrivial quotients: $G/H = \{1, G\}$.

A simple module is that one with no nontrivial quotients.

To understand the definition of simple rings, see the following:

Lemma: If R is a simple ring, then R has no nontrivial two-sided ideals.
(so it has no interesting quotient rings).

$\forall R = \text{Mat}_n(D)$.

Define elementary matrices $E_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & 0 & \\ & & & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$.

$$(E_{ij}E_{kl} = E_{il} \delta_{jk})$$

Let $A \in \text{Mat}_n(D)$, $A \neq 0$. Then $A = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} E_{ij}$.

At least one $a_{jk} \neq 0$. Then

$$E_{ij} A E_{kl} = \sum (E_{ij} a_{mn} E_{mn}) E_{kl} = a_{jk} E_{il}$$

So $a_{jk} \neq 0$, so by multiplying by $1/a_{jk}$, see that $E_{il} \in \langle A \rangle$.

Therefore $\exists \alpha, \beta \in \langle A \rangle \Rightarrow \langle A \rangle = \text{Mat}_n(D)$. \blacksquare

Some books define a simple ring as a ring without nontrivial two-sided ideals. This definition is not equivalent to the one given in class.

Lemma: If R is a ring without nontrivial two-sided ideals, and R has finite length, then R is simple (in our sense).

Pf Rotman.

Corollary (of Wedderburn-Artin): If R is a commutative semisimple ring,

then $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s k_i$

Pf we know that $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(D_i)$.

If R is commutative, then certainly $n_i = 1$, so $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s D_i$.
but these division rings have to be commutative so they are fields

Def: Let D be a division ring. The center of D is

$$Z(D) = \{z \in D \mid zd = dz \ \forall d \in D\}.$$

$Z(D)$ is a sub-division-ring, and it is commutative. So it is a field.

So D is a $Z(D)$ -vector space, and in fact it is an $Z(D)$ -algebra.

Problem: given a field k , find all finite-dimensional division algebras over k .

Lemma: If k is algebraically closed, then the only fin-dim division algebra over k is k itself.

Pf Let D be a division algebra over k .

Fix $0 \neq d \in D$. Consider $k(d)$. It is a commutative subring and in fact it is finite-dimensional over k because D is.

So $k(d)/k$ is a finite ^{alg} field extension. Thus $k(d) = k$, and so $d \in k$.

Theorem: The only division algebras over \mathbb{R} are $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$.

(don't give proof).

Another interesting case is $k = \mathbb{Q}$ number theory ...

Result (Maschke's theorem): If G is a finite group and k a field s.t. $\text{char}(k) \nmid |G|$, then kG is semisimple.

So we know that $kG = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(D_i)$

Lemma: Let k be algebraically closed, and s.t. it satisfies Maschke's thm.

then $kG = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(k)$

pf $k \in \text{End}_k(I)$ for any ideal I in kG

In particular, $k \in D_i$. But as k is alg. closed, $k = D_i \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, s$

Corollary: $|G| = n_1^2 + n_2^2 + \dots + n_s^2$ where n_i is \dim_k of a simple rep'n of G over k .

pf $|G| = \dim_k(kG) = \sum \dim_k(\text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(k)) = \sum n_i^2$

Note: There's always a trivial representation $\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(k)$. So $|G| = 1 + n_2^2 + \dots + n_s^2$.

Lemma: if R is a commutative semisimple algebra over a field k , then R is a direct sum of (finite) (field) extensions of k .

pf $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(D_i)$. As R is commutative, $n_i = 1 \quad \forall i$, so $R = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n D_i$.

But as R is commutative, the D_i 's are fields.

Claim: D_i is a finite extension of k :

$D_i = \text{End}_R(I_i)$. If $\alpha: I_i \rightarrow I_i$ is an R -module homomorphism

We want to show that $k \in D_i$. Let $x \in k$. Multiplication by x

is $m_x: I_i \rightarrow I_i$ and it is a homomorphism of left-ideals:

If $j \in I_i, r \in R, x \in k, r(xj) = (rx)j = (xr)j = x(rj)$ so m_x is homomorphism of R -mod.

Example: $G = \mathbb{Z}/4$, G is a cyclic group.

a) $k = \mathbb{C}$. Then $\mathbb{C}G$ is a commutative semisimple \mathbb{C} -algebra.

$$\mathbb{C}G = \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C}$$

Each summand corresponds to a representation of G in a 1-dim vecspace.

$\rho: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}^\times$. Which are these reps? $G = \langle x \rangle$.

So have $x \mapsto \rho(x) \in \mathbb{C}^\times$ and $\rho(x)$ needs to be a 4th root of unity.

$$\text{Get } \rho(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \pm 1 \\ \pm i \end{pmatrix}$$

b) $k = \mathbb{Q}$.

$\mathbb{Q}G = \bigoplus_{i=1}^5 \text{Matrix}_i(D_i)$. $M_i = 1 \forall i$ because $\mathbb{Q}G$ is commutative.

So $\mathbb{Q}G = \bigoplus_{i=1}^5 \mathbb{F}_i$, \mathbb{F}_i a field extension of \mathbb{Q} .

$4 = \sum_{i=1}^5 \dim_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{F}_i$ and each \mathbb{F}_i is a representation of $\mathbb{Z}/4$.

$$\rho_i: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathbb{Q}^{d_i})$$

a) if $d_i = 1$, get $\rho_i(x) = \pm 1 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_1, \mathbb{F}_2$.

b) if $\mathbb{F}_3 = \mathbb{Q}(i) = \mathbb{Q} + i\mathbb{Q}$ and write $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ for $a+bi$.

$$\rho_3: G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathbb{Q}(i)) \cong \text{GL}(\mathbb{Q}^2) = \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{Q}) \leftarrow \text{it is simple (think about it)}$$

$$x \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{So we get } \mathbb{Q}G = \mathbb{Q} \oplus \mathbb{Q} \oplus \mathbb{Q}^2 \quad (\mathbb{Q}^2, \rho_3)$$

Claim: ρ_i and ρ_{-i} are isomorphic representations. (find $\phi: V_i \rightarrow V_{-i}$ s.t. $\phi(\rho_i(g) \cdot v) = \rho_{-i}(g) \phi(v)$.)

Example: $G = \mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$. $\mathbb{C}G = \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C}$.

So it can happen that $G_1 \neq G_2$ but $kG_1 \cong kG_2$!!

Let G be a finite group. We know that:

$\mathbb{C}G = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(\mathbb{C})$, and the n_i are the dimensions of a simple $\mathbb{C}G$ -rep.

We want an interpretation of s :

$$Z(\mathbb{C}G) = Z\left(\bigoplus \text{Mat}(\mathbb{C})\right) = \bigoplus Z(\text{Mat}_{n_i \times n_i}(\mathbb{C})) = \bigoplus k \cdot I_{n_i} \Rightarrow \dim_{\mathbb{C}} Z(\mathbb{C}G) = s.$$

Now, find a basis for $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$:

Recall that $G = \bigcup_{i=1}^s C_i$ where C_i are the conjugacy classes of G .

Define, for each C_j , an element of $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$: $Z_j := \sum_{g \in C_j} g \in \mathbb{C}G$

Lemma:

1) $Z_j \in Z(\mathbb{C}G) \forall j$

2) The Z_j are a basis for $Z(\mathbb{C}G)$.

3) $s = \#$ conjugacy classes in G .

Pf:

Let $h \in G$.

(1) $h Z_j h^{-1} = \sum_{g \in C_j} h g h^{-1} = \sum_{k \in C_j} k = Z_j$. $\Rightarrow h Z_j = Z_j h$.
the map $g \mapsto h g h^{-1}$ is a permutation on C_j

So if $r \in \mathbb{C}G$, $r Z_j = Z_j r$.

(2) If $Z_i = \sum_{g \in C_i} g$, $Z_j = \sum_{k \in C_j} k$.

If $i \neq j$, Z_i and Z_j are independent. More generally, Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_s are indep.

Let $Z \in Z(\mathbb{C}G)$. $Z = \sum_{g \in G} c_g g$, $c_g \in \mathbb{C}$.

Since $Z \in Z(\mathbb{C}G)$, $h Z = Z h \forall h \in G$. $\sum_{g \in G} c_g h g = \sum_{g \in G} c_g g h \Rightarrow$

$\Rightarrow \sum_{g \in G} c_{hg} = \sum_{g \in G} c_{gh} \Rightarrow$ the coefficients of g_1, g_2 belonging to a given

conjugacy class are the same \Rightarrow can group the coefficients \Rightarrow //.

(7) \checkmark .

Example:

$G = S_3, \#G = 6.$

$\rho(G) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^5 M_{n_i \times n_i}(\mathbb{C}). \quad G = n_1^2 + n_2^2 + \dots + n_s^2.$ As S is # conjugacy classes: $\begin{cases} (1) \\ (12), (23), (13) \\ (123), (132) \end{cases}$

So $G = n_1^2 + n_2^2 + n_3^2 = 1 + n_2^2 + n_3^2 \Rightarrow 5 = n_2^2 + n_3^2.$

So $n_2=1, n_3=2$ is the only possible solution: $\begin{cases} 1\text{-dim rep, trivial} \\ 1\text{-dim rep nontrivial} \\ 2\text{-dim representation} \end{cases} / \mathbb{C}.$

$\rho: S^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^x$
 $\sigma \mapsto \text{Sign}(\sigma)$ Sign representation.

Tensor products

In the commutative case, for A a commutative ring, the tensor product of two A -modules M, N is another A -module $M \otimes_A N$ satisfying an universal property.

In the non-commutative case (R any ring), we need a right module M_R , a left module ${}_R N$, and get just only an abelian group $M \otimes_R N$.

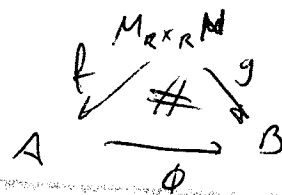
Given $M_R, {}_R N$, construct a funny category $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}(M_R, {}_R N)$

Ob(\mathcal{E}): maps $f: M_R \times_R N \rightarrow A$ (A an abelian group).

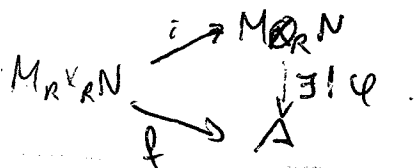
Such that f is bilinear $\begin{cases} f(m_1 + m_2, n) = f(m_1, n) + f(m_2, n) \\ f(m, n_1 + n_2) = f(m, n_1) + f(m, n_2) \end{cases}$
and balanced: $f(mr, n) = f(m, rn). \forall m, n, n_1, n_2, r, m_1, m_2, \in M, N, \dots$

Mor(\mathcal{E}): Given $f: M_R \times_R N \rightarrow A, g: M_R \times_R N \rightarrow B$, a morphism is

$\phi: A \rightarrow B$ (of AbGrp) s.t.



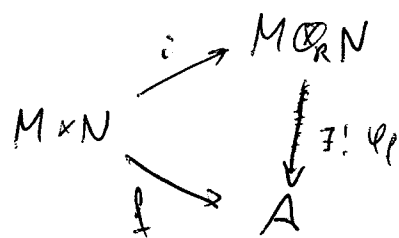
Def: A tensor product for M_R and ${}_R N$ is an initial object in the category \mathcal{E} .



As we have defined them, if tensor products exist they will be unique up to unique isomorphism.

Thm: For any ring R and M, N R -modules, a tensor product exists.

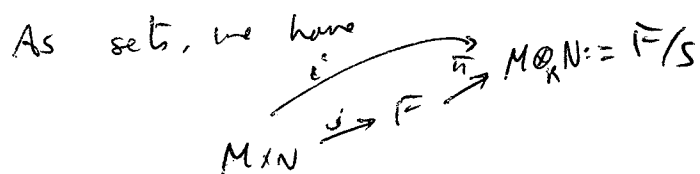
Pl Need



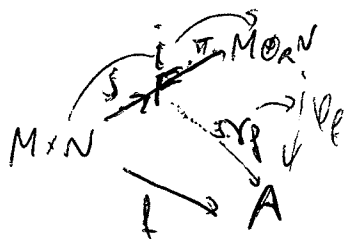
Let F be the free abelian group with basis $M \times N$.

Define $S \subseteq F$, subgroup generated by $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (m, n_1 + n_2) - (m, n_1) - (m, n_2) \\ (m_1 + m_2, n) - (m_1, n) - (m_2, n) \\ (mr, n) - (m, rn) \end{array} \right.$ $\forall m, n_1, n_2, m_1, m_2, n, r \in R$

We get a projection $\pi: F \rightarrow F/S$



Then $i: M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_R N$ is an object in the category ~~of Abgp~~ $\mathcal{E}(M, N)$



For each $f: M \times N \rightarrow A$, $\exists!$ homomorphism of Abgp from $F \rightarrow A$, γ_f .

Since $f: M \times N \rightarrow A$ is in $\mathcal{E}(M, N)$, then the map γ_f has the further property that $\gamma_f(s) = 0 \forall s \in S$. So γ_f can be

uniquely extended to $\varphi_f: M \otimes_R N \rightarrow A$

Need to show that $\overline{\varphi_f \circ i} = \overline{\varphi_f \circ \pi \circ j} = \overline{f \circ j} = \overline{f}$

Examples:

• $R = \mathbb{Z}$, modules are Abgps:

$M = \mathbb{Z}/5, N = \mathbb{Z}/3$.

Then $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} N = \mathbb{Z}/5 \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/3$ is an Abgp, with elements $\sum_i m_i \otimes n_i$

satisfying $(m_1 + m_2) \otimes n = m_1 \otimes n + m_2 \otimes n$.

Now take $m \otimes n \in \mathbb{Z}/5 \otimes \mathbb{Z}/3$, and note that in $\mathbb{Z}/3$ multiplication by 5 is invertible, so:

$0 \otimes \tilde{n} = (m_1 - m_2) \otimes \tilde{n} = m_1 \otimes \tilde{n} - m_2 \otimes \tilde{n} = 0$.

$m \otimes n = m \otimes 5\tilde{n} = 5m \otimes \tilde{n} = 0 \otimes \tilde{n} = 0$ So we see that $M \otimes N = 0$.

Lemma: Let $M \cong R$ (free rank-1 module), and ${}_R N$ any left module.

Then $M \otimes_R N \cong N$

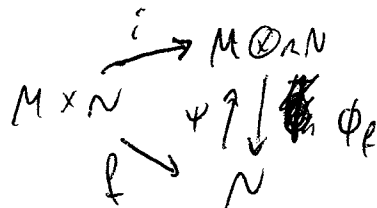
pf $M = mR$ for some basis element $m \in M$.

The elements of $M \otimes_R N$ are $\sum_i m r_i \otimes n_i = \sum_i m \otimes r_i n_i = m \otimes (\sum_i r_i n_i) = m \otimes n$ for different $n \in N$.

So any element of $M \otimes_R N$ can be ~~uniquely~~ written as $m \otimes n$ (m fixed!)

Consider the map $f: M \times N \rightarrow N$
 $(mr, n) \mapsto rn$

f is bilinear (ie $f \in \mathcal{B}(M, N)$) so get



Define $\psi: N \rightarrow M \otimes_R N$
 $n \mapsto m \otimes n$

Claim: ψ and ϕ_f are inverses of each other, and so $M \otimes N \cong N$ (as Abgps)

Lemma: Let $M = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_{i,R}$. Then $M \otimes N = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_i \otimes N$

Corollary: If M is a free module of rank s , then $M \otimes N = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s N$

Lemma: Let $f: M_R \rightarrow \tilde{M}_R$, $g: {}_R N \rightarrow {}_R \tilde{N}$ be R -module homomorphisms.

Then, there is a unique abelian group homomorphism

$$f \otimes g: M \otimes_R N \rightarrow \tilde{M} \otimes_R \tilde{N}$$

$$m \otimes n \mapsto f(m) \otimes g(n)$$

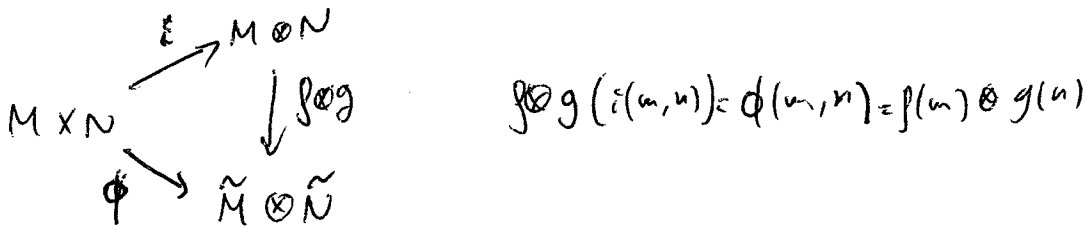
Pf Consider the multiplication $\varphi: M \times N \rightarrow \tilde{M} \otimes \tilde{N}$ ↙ bilinear map

$$(m, n) \mapsto f(m) \otimes g(n).$$

↖ section of \downarrow ab. grp.

$$\phi(m_1 + m_2, n) = f(m_1 + m_2) \otimes g(n) = (f(m_1) + f(m_2)) \otimes g(n) = f(m_1) \otimes g(n) + f(m_2) \otimes g(n) \quad \text{r.}$$

*for instance
out of
the properties.*



In particular, can take $f = \text{id}_M$ or $g = \text{id}_N$ and get maps

$$1 \otimes g: M \otimes N \rightarrow M \otimes \tilde{N}, \quad \text{or } f \otimes 1: M \otimes N \rightarrow \tilde{M} \otimes N$$

So $M \otimes$ -maps $\} \mathcal{R}\text{Mod} \in \text{Abop}$

$$g: N \rightarrow \tilde{N} \in \text{Hom}_{\text{Ab}}(- \otimes N, - \otimes \tilde{N})$$

$\leftarrow M \otimes$ - may be a functor!

(and so $- \otimes N$).

Lemma: If $M \xrightarrow{f} M' \xrightarrow{f'} M''$, $N \xrightarrow{g} N' \xrightarrow{g'} N''$ Then

$$(f' \otimes g') \circ (f \otimes g) = (f' f) \otimes (g' g).$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 M \otimes N & \xrightarrow{f \otimes g} & M' \otimes N' & \xrightarrow{f' \otimes g'} & M'' \otimes N'' \\
 & \searrow & \downarrow & \swarrow & \\
 & & (f' f) \otimes (g' g) & &
 \end{array}$$

Pf By uniqueness, check on arbitrary $m \otimes n$:

$$f' \otimes g' \cdot f \otimes g (m \otimes n) = f' \otimes g' (f(m) \otimes g(n)) = f' f(m) \otimes g' g(n) = (f' f \otimes g' g) (m \otimes n).$$

Theorem: Define ${}_M T(-) := M \otimes_R -$, $T_N(-) := - \otimes_R N$.

Then ${}_M T$ and T_N are additive covariant functors.

~~pf~~ we have seen how ${}_M T$ and T_N act on morphisms: ${}_M T(g: M \rightarrow \tilde{M}) = 1 \otimes g$.

By one of the lemmas, ${}_M T(\tilde{g} \circ g) = {}_M T(\tilde{g}) \circ {}_M T(g)$

Similarly, ${}_M T(1_N) = 1_M \otimes 1_N = 1_{M \otimes N} \Rightarrow$ covariant functor.

Need to check additivity:

If $N \xrightarrow{g_1} \tilde{N}$ $\xrightarrow{g_2}$ ${}_M T_{g_1+g_2} = 1 \otimes (g_1 + g_2)$ $1 \otimes g_1(m \otimes n) + 1 \otimes g_2(m \otimes n)$

$1 \otimes (g_1 + g_2)(m \otimes n) = m \otimes (g_1 + g_2)(n) = m \otimes (g_1(n) + g_2(n)) = m \otimes g_1(n) + m \otimes g_2(n)$

By the properties we had seen for additive functors,

if $M = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_i$ then $M \otimes N = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_i \otimes N$

(so if M is a free right R -module of rank s , then $M \otimes N \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^s N$)

Example:

When $R = k$ a field, and $M = k^m$, $N = k^n$. Then $M \otimes N \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m N \cong k^{nm}$.

(so $\dim_k(M \otimes N) = \dim_k(M) \times \dim_k(N)$).

(a basis being, if $\{v_i\}$ is a basis of k^m , $\{w_j\}$ of k^n , then $\{v_i \otimes w_j\}$ is a basis of k^{nm})

Def Let R, S be rings. An S - R -bimodule is an abelian group ${}_S M_R$ which is an (left) S -module and (right) R -module in a compatible way: $(s m) r = s(m r)$.

Example ${}_R R$ is an R - R -bimodule over itself.

- 1) $I \subset R$ is an R - R -bimodule when it is a two sided ideal.
- 2) If $M = {}_R M$ then M is an Abelian group, so it has an \mathbb{Z} -action on the right - so M is a R - \mathbb{Z} -bimodule.
- 3) For commutative rings, all modules are R - R -modules.

Lemma: Let ${}_S M_R$ be an S - R -bimodule, and ${}_R N$ a left R -module.

Then $M \otimes_R N$ is an S -module, given by $s(m \otimes n) = (sm) \otimes n$.

pf Let, for $s \in S$, $\mu_s: {}_S M_R \rightarrow {}_S M_R$. It is a homomorphism of right R -modules.
 $m \mapsto sm$

$$(\mu_s(m)r) = s(mr) = (sm)r = \mu_s(m) \cdot r$$

Apply then $T_N = - \otimes N$, and get $\mu_s \otimes 1: M \otimes N \rightarrow M \otimes N$

Need to check that $(\mu_{s_2} \otimes 1)(\mu_{s_1} \otimes 1) = \mu_{s_2 s_1} \otimes 1$! $(m \otimes n) \mapsto \mu_{s_2}(\mu_{s_1}(m)) \otimes n = (s_2 s_1 m) \otimes n$

Corollary: if R is a commutative ring and M, N are R -modules, then the abelian group $M \otimes N$ is another R -module.

Example: Suppose $V = K V_1 \oplus K V_2$. Then $V \otimes V$ has basis

$$\{v_1 \otimes v_1, v_1 \otimes v_2, v_2 \otimes v_1, v_2 \otimes v_2\}$$

claim: There are no $\alpha, \beta \in V$ s.t. $v_1 \otimes v_2 + v_2 \otimes v_1 = \alpha \otimes \beta$.

Write $\alpha = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2$, $\beta = \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2$. And then:

$$\alpha \otimes \beta = (\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2) \otimes (\beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2) = \alpha_1 \beta_1 v_1 \otimes v_1 + \alpha_1 \beta_2 v_1 \otimes v_2 + \dots$$

So we would need $\alpha_1 \beta_1 = 0$, $\alpha_1 \beta_2 = 1$, $\alpha_2 \beta_1 = 1$, $\alpha_2 \beta_2 = 0$.

But this is not possible !!

if M is an S -

Assume now R commutative, and M, N be R -modules (R -bimodules)

Then $M \otimes_R N$ and $N \otimes_R M$ are both R -modules

Lemma: $M \otimes_R N \cong N \otimes_R M$ in a unique way such that $\tau(m \otimes n) = n \otimes m$.

pf Define $f: M \times N \rightarrow N \otimes M$. Check that it is a "multiplication". (easy)
 $(m, n) \mapsto n \otimes m$

By universality, get

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & & M \otimes N \\
 M \times N & \xrightarrow{i} & \\
 & \searrow f & \downarrow \tau \\
 & & N \otimes M
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \tau(m \otimes n) = \tau(i(m, n)) = f(m, n) = n \otimes m.$$

↓

(cont of commutativity):

Need still to check that τ is an R -module hom, and a bijection.

$$\tau(r(m \otimes n)) = \tau((rm) \otimes n) = n \otimes (rm) = nr \otimes m = r(n \otimes m) = r \tau(m \otimes n).$$

Now suppose R comm., and M, N, Q are R -modules.

Lemma: $M \otimes (N \otimes Q) \cong (M \otimes N) \otimes Q$ (There is a unique R -mod iso. $\alpha: O \rightarrow O$ s.t. $m \otimes (n \otimes q) \mapsto (m \otimes n) \otimes q$)

~~Pl HW~~

Aside: Let R be a fld. Then $\text{Mod}(R) = \text{Vect}_k$ is a category with some extra structure.

$$\otimes : \text{Vect}_k \times \text{Vect}_k \rightarrow \text{Vect}_k$$

Satisfying:

- 1) there is an identity object: $k \otimes V \cong V$
 - 2) Commutativity: $\tau: V \otimes W \cong W \otimes V$ ($\tau^2 = 1$)
 - 3) Associativity: $M \otimes (N \otimes Q) \cong (M \otimes N) \otimes Q$.
- } + some axioms.

Such a category is called a symmetric tensor category.

Representations of finite groups are also symmetric tensor categories:

Let G be a finite group, k a field. Then

$\text{Rep}_k(G) = \text{Mod}(kG)$ is also a symmetric tensor ^{category} ~~product~~.

(even if G is non-abelian!).

If M, N are two G -modules (i.e. left kG -modules), then the "tensor product" is defined as follows:

$$M \otimes_k N, \text{ with action of } G \text{ by } g \cdot (m \otimes n) := (gm \otimes gn)$$

Then, $\text{Rep}_k(G)$ is also a symmetric tensor category with τ and α induced by those of the underlying vector-spaces.

Generalization: Quantum Groups.

They are "deformations" of kG .

Then the category of modules over a Quantum Group is a tensor category, but no longer symmetric: $R: V \otimes W \rightarrow W \otimes V$ (and $R^2 \neq \text{id}$).

$$(v \otimes w) \mapsto \sum w_i \otimes v_i$$

R is called a "braiding".



Fact: get invariants of knots and links from the tensor category representations of quantum groups.

• Application of tensor products:

1) Induction:

Let G be a group, $H \leq G$ a subgroup.

Let M be a kG -module (k a field).

So have an action $(g, m) \mapsto gm \in M$.

This restricts to an action of H , and so M is also a kH -module.

$$\text{Res}_H^G: \text{Mod}(kG) \rightarrow \text{Mod}(kH). \quad (\text{restriction functor}).$$

Want a functor from $\text{Mod}(kH) \rightarrow \text{Mod}(kG)$.

Note that kG is a kG -bimodule. So we can restrict the right kG -action to kH , and think of kG as a kG - kH -bimodule.

Def: The induced module ~~Ind~~ from N an H -module, the induced module is:

$$\text{Ind}_H^G(N) = kG \otimes_{kH} N.$$

This is a kG -module.

Application: Suppose R, S be commutative rings.

Suppose $\phi: R \rightarrow S$ a ring hom. Then any S -module becomes an R -mod.

$$\text{by } r \cdot e := \phi(r) \cdot e.$$

In particular, the S - S module S can be thought of as an S - R -module

$$s \cdot \sigma \cdot r = s \cdot \sigma \cdot \phi(r).$$

So if E is an R -module, define $E_S := S \otimes_R E$. Then we

have $s \otimes re = s\phi(r) \otimes e$, and E_S is an S -module:

$$s(s' \otimes e) = ss' \otimes e.$$

E_S is called the extension of E over S , and the process

$E \rightarrow E_S$ is called base extension (base change).

(R is called the base ring for E , S the base ring for E_S .)

Example: $R = \mathbb{R}$, the reals, $S = \mathbb{C}$. $\phi: \mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$.
1) $x \mapsto x + 0i$.

Let V be any real vector-space. Then $V_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} V$ is called the "complexification" of V . If $\{v_i\}$ is a \mathbb{R} -basis for V , then $\{1 \otimes v_i\}$ is a \mathbb{C} -basis for $V_{\mathbb{C}}$. (then $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} V_{\mathbb{C}} = \dim_{\mathbb{R}} V$).

2) $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $S = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, $\ker \phi = (p)$.

Then if E is any \mathbb{Z} -module (i.e. an abelian group), then

$E_S = E_{\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}} = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} E$ is called the reduction mod p of E .

Recall that if $M = M_R$ is an R -module, get an additive functor.

$${}_M T: {}_R \text{Mod} \rightarrow \text{Ab}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} N_1 & \xrightarrow{\quad} & M \otimes N_1 \\ \downarrow f & & \downarrow 1 \otimes f \\ N_2 & \xrightarrow{\quad} & M \otimes N_2 \end{array}$$

Question: What happens under ${}_M T$ to exact sequences?

Theorem: Let $0 \rightarrow N_1 \xrightarrow{i} N_2 \xrightarrow{p} N_3 \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence, then $M \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} M \otimes N_2 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes p} M \otimes N_3 \rightarrow 0$ is also exact (as 0 on the left!).

Terminology: The additive functor ${}_M T$ is right exact for all M .

pf (1) $1 \otimes p$ is surjective: if $m \otimes n_3 \in M \otimes N_3$, let n_2 s.t. $p(n_2) = n_3$. Then $m \otimes n_3 = m \otimes p(n_2) = (1 \otimes p)(m \otimes n_2)$.

(2) $\text{Im}(1 \otimes i) \subseteq \ker(1 \otimes p)$:

$$(1 \otimes p)((1 \otimes i)(m \otimes n_1)) = (1 \otimes p)(m \otimes i(n_1)) = m \otimes p(i(n_1)) = 0.$$

(3) Let $K_2 = \ker 1 \otimes p$, $I_2 = \text{Im}(1 \otimes i)$. Know that $I_2 \subseteq K_2 \subseteq M \otimes N_2$.

$$\text{By (1), } M \otimes N_3 = \frac{M \otimes N_2}{K_2}.$$

$$\text{We have, since } I_2 \subseteq K_2, \text{ a map } f: \frac{M \otimes N_2}{I_2} \rightarrow \frac{M \otimes N_2}{K_2} = M \otimes N_3$$

Need to find a map $g: M \otimes N_3 \rightarrow \frac{M \otimes N_2}{I_2}$ s.t. $g \circ f = \text{id}_{\frac{M \otimes N_2}{I_2}}$, then f will be an isomorphism and thus $I_2 = K_2$.

To construct g , use universality:

$$M \times N_3 \xrightarrow{\psi} \frac{M \otimes N_2}{I_2} \quad \text{s.t. } \psi(m, n_3) = m \otimes n_2 \text{ mod } I_2, \text{ where } p(n_2) = n_3. \text{ (well defined)}$$

Example: $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$
 $n \mapsto 2n$

$M = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. Get $0 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} \mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$
 $\uparrow \quad \quad \quad \uparrow$
 $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times 2 = 0} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$

\Rightarrow not injective
 (so not necessarily left exact)

Def: $M = M_R$ is called flat if M^T is exact.

(equivalently, if $M \otimes N_1 \xrightarrow{1 \otimes i} M \otimes N_2$ is injective for all injections $N_1 \xrightarrow{i} N_2$).

Examples:

1) \mathbb{R} (a.r.) is flat.

2) If $M = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s M_i$, then M is flat iff each M_i is flat.

Pf: $M \otimes N = (\bigoplus M_i) \otimes N = \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N)$. So $0 \rightarrow M \otimes N_1 \rightarrow M \otimes N_2$

$\Leftrightarrow 0 \rightarrow \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_1) \rightarrow \bigoplus (M_i \otimes N_2)$ is a collection of maps
 $0 \rightarrow M_i \otimes N_1 \rightarrow M_i \otimes N_2 \quad \{i=1, \dots, s\}$

3) If M is a free (finite rank) module, then M is flat. ((1) + (2)).

4) If P is projective, then it is flat:

Pf: P projective $\Rightarrow P \oplus M = F$. Then (3) + (2).

Lemma: If $N = \bigoplus_{i \in I} N_i$, I an arbitrary indexing set, then $M \otimes N \cong \bigoplus_{i \in I} (M \otimes N_i)$.

Pf: $M \otimes N \xrightleftharpoons[\psi]{\varphi} \bigoplus M \otimes N_i$. To define φ , construct φ by universality,

$(m, n) \mapsto m \otimes n_{i_1} + \dots + m \otimes n_{i_s}$
 $(m, n_{i_1} + \dots + n_{i_s})$

Define $\psi: \bigoplus M \otimes N_i \rightarrow M \otimes N$ (exercise) and done

Def If R is a (commutative) integral domain, and M is an R -module, we say that M has torsion if $\exists m \neq 0, m \in M, d \in R, d \neq 0, \text{ s.t. } dm = 0$.

Ex 1) Finite Abelian groups have torsion.

2) $R = k[\frac{a}{ax}], M = k[x]$. Then M has torsion.

Claim: if M has torsion, then M is not flat.

Pf Let $m \in M$ s.t. $dm = 0$.

$0 \rightarrow R \xrightarrow{d} R$ is injective, since R is an integral domain and $d \neq 0$.
Tensoring with M :

$$0 \rightarrow M \otimes R \xrightarrow{1 \otimes d} M \otimes R \quad \text{is not injective.}$$

$$(m \otimes 1) \mapsto m \otimes d = md \otimes 1 = 0$$

Localization.

Def: A multiplicative subset of R is $M \subseteq R$ s.t. $\begin{cases} 1 \in M \\ m_1, m_2 \in M \Rightarrow m_1 m_2 \in M \end{cases}$

In $R \times M$, define an equivalence relation $(r_1, m_1) \sim (r_2, m_2) \Leftrightarrow \exists s \in M \text{ s.t. } s(m_1 r_2 - r_1 m_2) = 0$.

Ex: check that it is an equivalence relation.

Def $M^{-1}R := R \times M / \sim$ is the localization of R at M .

$M^{-1}R$ is a ring, with the operations $\begin{cases} \frac{r_1}{m_1} + \frac{r_2}{m_2} = \frac{r_1 m_2 + r_2 m_1}{m_1 m_2} \\ \frac{r_1}{m_1} \cdot \frac{r_2}{m_2} = \frac{r_1 r_2}{m_1 m_2} \end{cases}$

Example: $R = k[x, y]$, fix $\{g \in k[x, y], g \neq 0\}$. $M = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots\}$.

$$\text{So } M^{-1}R = \left\{ \frac{g}{g^n} + g \in k[x, y], n \geq 0 \right\}.$$

Example: Let $\mathfrak{p} \in R$ a prime ideal. Let $M_{\mathfrak{p}} := R \setminus \mathfrak{p}$.

$$M_{\mathfrak{p}}^{-1}R = \left\{ \frac{r}{s} \mid s \notin \mathfrak{p} \right\}.$$

Have a canonical map $i: R \rightarrow M_{\mathfrak{p}}^{-1}R$
 $r \mapsto \frac{r}{1}$

warning: i is not injective, in general (in fact, $i(r) = 0 \Leftrightarrow m r = 0$).
(i.e. $i(r) = 0 \Leftrightarrow r$ is a zero divisor).

Let M be the set of non zero divisors in R . Then $M^{-1}R$ is the "biggest" localization where the canonical map is still injective.

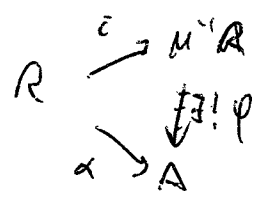
$M^{-1}R$ is called then the total quotient ring.

~~In this case~~ If R is an integral domain, $M = R \setminus \{0\}$ and $M^{-1}R$ is called the field of fractions.

Note that $i(m) = \frac{m}{1}$ is invertible in $M^{-1}R \quad \forall m \in M$.

More generally, if A is a commutative ring, can look at "M-inverting" maps
 $\alpha: R \rightarrow A$ s.t. $\alpha(m)$ is invertible.

Lemma: The canonical map $i: R \rightarrow M^{-1}R$ is universal for M-inverting maps:



By exercise.

What happens to modules under localization?

Let E be an R -module, $M \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set.

Consider $E \times M$, with the equivalence relation $(e_1, m_1) \sim (e_2, m_2) \Leftrightarrow m_1(e_2 m_2 - e_1 m_1) = 0$.

Define $M^{-1}E = E \times M / \sim = \{ \frac{e}{m} \}$.

Then $M^{-1}E$ is a module over $M^{-1}R$: $(\frac{r}{m_1} \cdot \frac{e}{m_2}) := \frac{re}{m_1 m_2}$.

want to see that M^{-1} is, indeed, a functor: define it for morphisms:

$$M^{-1}f: M^{-1}E \longrightarrow M^{-1}F$$

$$\frac{e}{m} \longmapsto \frac{f(e)}{m}$$

and check that it is well defined and

Lemma: if R is a commutative ring, $M \subseteq R$ a multiplicative set. Then

$M^{-1}: \text{Mod}(R) \rightarrow \text{Mod}(M^{-1}R)$ is an exact functor.

~~PO~~ Suppose $E \xrightarrow{f} F \xrightarrow{g} G$ is exact at F : $\text{Im}(f) = \ker g$.

$$\text{Let } M^{-1}E \xrightarrow{M^{-1}f} M^{-1}F \xrightarrow{M^{-1}g} M^{-1}G$$

$$(M^{-1}g) \circ (M^{-1}f) = M^{-1}(g \circ f) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Im}(M^{-1}f) \subseteq \ker M^{-1}g$$

Conversely, let $\frac{\alpha}{m} \in \ker(M^{-1}g)$: $M^{-1}g(\frac{\alpha}{m}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{g(\alpha)}{m} = 0$

So $\exists m_1 \in M$ s.t. $m_1 g(\alpha) = 0 \Leftrightarrow g(m_1 \alpha) = 0$

$\Rightarrow m_1 \alpha = f(e)$ for some $e \in E$. Now $(M^{-1}f)(\frac{e}{m m_1}) = \frac{m_1 \alpha}{m m_1} = \frac{\alpha}{m}$ //

Given R, M, E , we get two $M^{-1}R$ -modules:

- 1) $M^{-1}E$
- 2) $M^{-1}R \otimes_R E$, where $M^{-1}R$ is a $M^{-1}R$ - R b-module via $\iota: R \rightarrow M^{-1}R$

Lemma: R com-ry, M a mult. set, E an R -module. Then

$$M^{-1}E \cong M^{-1}R \otimes_R E \quad \frac{e}{m} \mapsto \frac{1}{m} \otimes e \quad \leftarrow !!$$

Corollary: The R -module $M^{-1}R$ is a flat R -module.

Theorem (Adjoint Isomorphism): Given modules $A_R, {}_R B_S, C_S$ (R, S rings) the

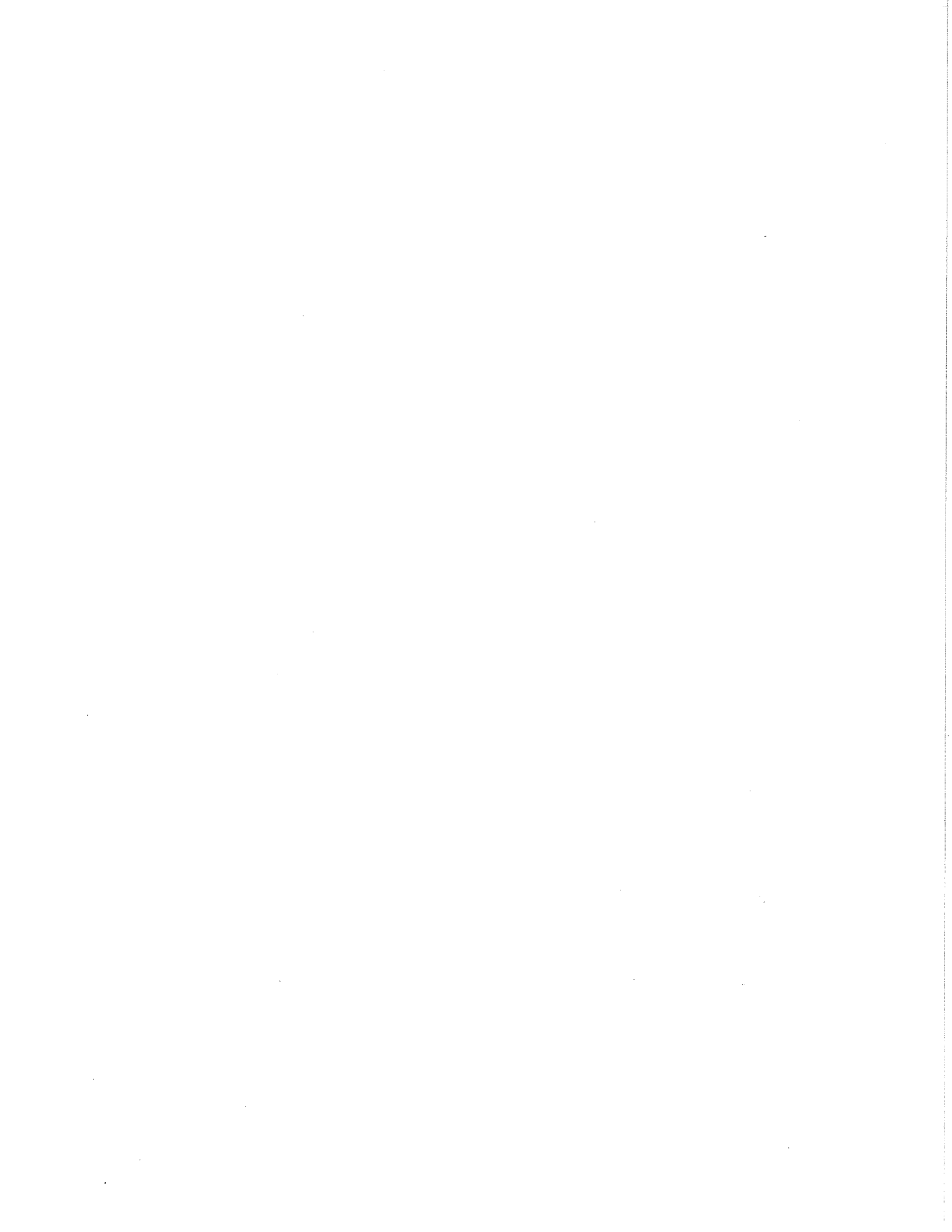
$$\tau_{A,B,C} : \text{Hom}_S(A \otimes_R B, C) \rightarrow \text{Hom}_R(A, \text{Hom}_S(B, C)) \quad \text{is an isomorphism}$$

$$f \mapsto f^*, \quad f_a^* : b \mapsto f(a \otimes b)$$

(indeed, fixing f of A, B, C , we get natural equivalences.

Pf Prove that τ is a \mathbb{Z} -hom ($\tau(f+g) = \tau(f) + \tau(g)$)

Then, prove that τ is injective and surjective.



Let R be a commutative ring, E an R -module.

Consider the "powers" of E : $T^0(E) = R$, $T^1(E) = E$, $T^2(E) = E \otimes E$, $T^n(E) = T^n(E \otimes R)$.

Remark:

- 1) $T^n(E)$ has no parenthesis (using the associativity isomorphism).
- 2) $T^n(E)$ is universal for n -fold multiplications.

Have a juxtaposition multiplication,

$$T^r(E) \times T^s(E) \longrightarrow T^{r+s}(E)$$

$$(\alpha^r, \alpha^s) \longmapsto \alpha^r \otimes \alpha^s$$

This is a multiplication, so get a linear map $T^r(E) \otimes T^s(E) \rightarrow T^{r+s}(E)$.

thus - define $T(E) := \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} T^n(E)$.

Define $m: T(E) \times T(E) \rightarrow T(E)$ by linearly extending the multiplication generator,

$$m(\alpha^r, \alpha^s) = \alpha^r \otimes \alpha^s$$

Then, by associativity of tensor product, m gives an associative multiplication, with $1_R \in R = T^0(E) \subset T(E)$ as identity, via $R \otimes_R M \cong M$.

So $T(E)$, in this way becomes an R -algebra, in general not commutative.

Example: Let $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R e_i$ (a free rank- n R -module).

Know that $E \otimes E$ has basis $\{e_i \otimes e_j\}$,

Similarly, $T^k(E)$ has bases $e_{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes e_{i_k}$, $i_j = 1, \dots, n$ (dimension n^k).

So we see that arbitrary monomials α in $\{e_i\}$ form a basis for $T(E)$.

Def: An R -algebra T is called a non-commutative polynomial algebra over R if $\exists t_1, \dots, t_n \in T$ s.t. T is a free R -module on the products of the t_i 's ($t = \sum_{\substack{k \geq 0 \\ i_1, \dots, i_k \neq 1, \dots, 1}} c_{i_1, \dots, i_k} t_{i_1} \cdots t_{i_k}$) . We write $T = R \langle t_1, \dots, t_n \rangle$ or $T = R \{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$

So in the case E free of rank n over R , then $T(E) = R \langle e_1, \dots, e_n \rangle$.

Special case: $E \cong R$, then $T(E) = R \langle e \rangle = R[e]$.

(so in this case, $T(E)$, is in fact, commutative).

So for each R -module E , get an R -algebra $T(E)$.

What about morphisms?

$$E \xrightarrow{f} F$$

We have $E^n \rightarrow T^n(E)$. Also, for given f , have a map:

$$E^n \rightarrow T^n(F) \quad \text{is an } n\text{-fold multiplication so get}$$

$$(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n) \mapsto f(e_1) \otimes \dots \otimes f(e_n)$$

$T^n(E) \xrightarrow{T(f)} T^n(F)$ which induces a map on the direct sums,

$$T(f): T(E) \rightarrow T(F)$$

Claim: $T(f): T(E) \rightarrow T(F)$ is in fact a morphism of R -algebras.

$$\checkmark T(f)(\alpha \cdot \beta) = T(f)(\alpha \otimes \beta) = (T(f)(\alpha)) \otimes (T(f)(\beta)) \quad //$$

Claim: 1) $E \xrightarrow{f} F \xrightarrow{g} G$ then $T(g \circ f) = T(g) \circ T(f)$.

2) $1_E: E \rightarrow E$ then $T(1_E): T(E) \rightarrow T(E)$ is $1_{T(E)}$.

Conclusion: T is a functor $R\text{-Mod} \rightarrow R\text{-Algebras}$.

Application: Let A be a finitely-generated R -algebra (R commutative).

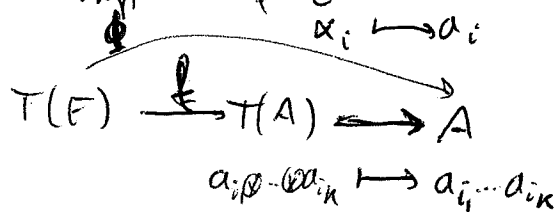
($\exists a_1, \dots, a_n \in A$ s.t. the monomials in the a_i 's form a spanning set for A).

$a = \sum c_i \cdot \text{in } a_{i_1} a_{i_2} \dots a_{i_n}$. (not unique, in general!)

To find the relations, consider

$E := \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R\alpha_i$, free of rank n R -module.

Get a map $f: E \rightarrow A$. Then, get:



Clearly, ϕ is a surjective algebra homomorphism, and so:

$$A \cong T(E) / \ker \phi \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{relations} \\ \text{defining the generators} \end{array}$$

Conclusion: any finitely-generated R -algebra is the quotient of a free algebra.

Note: if $R = \mathbb{Z}$, R -algebra = rings so can study arbitrary rings...

This is a non-commutative version of studying fin-gen commutative rings (if A is commutative and $A = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$,

we usually look at $\mathbb{C}[\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n] \xrightarrow{\pi} A \rightarrow 0$)

In fact, can study polynomial algebras by using tensor products (we will do it next).

• Graded rings and algebras.

Let G be an abelian group (additive notation).

A is called a G -graded algebra (over R) a ring. \square

$$1) A = \bigoplus_{g \in G} A_g$$

2) The multiplication $m: A \times A \rightarrow A$ (or $\tilde{m}: A \otimes A \rightarrow A$).

restricts to "multiplication" on the $A_g: A_r \times A_s \rightarrow A_{r+s}, r, s \in G$.

In particular, A_0 is a subring of A , and all A_r are A_0 -modules, (and also $R \subseteq A_0$).

Remark: Don't need inverses: G could be also a commutative monoid.

Examples

1) R a commutative ring, $A = R[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$.

By setting $\deg(x_i) = 1$, A becomes a \mathbb{Z} -graded (\mathbb{N} -graded) algebra,

$$A = \bigoplus_{d \geq 0} A_d, \quad A_0 = R, \quad A_d = \bigoplus_{\substack{d_i \geq 0 \\ \sum d_i = d}} R x_1^{d_1} x_2^{d_2} \dots x_n^{d_n}$$

2) Can put another grading on A : $G := \mathbb{Z}^n$.

And set $\deg(x_1) = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $\deg(x_2) = (0, 1, \dots, 0)$, \dots , $\deg(x_n) = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$.

3) $A = T(E) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} A_n$, $A_n = T^n(E) = E \otimes E \otimes \dots \otimes E$.

So $T(E)$ is a \mathbb{Z} -graded non-commutative algebra.

Terminology:

1) A graded algebra is a \mathbb{Z} -graded algebra.

2) If $G = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, then a G -graded algebra is called a super algebra.

$$A = A_0 \oplus A_1 \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{odd component} \\ \text{even comp.} \end{array}$$

Def: Let A, B be G -graded algebras. Then $\phi: A \rightarrow B$ is called G -graded (or homogeneous) $\iff \phi(A_g) \subseteq B_g \quad \forall g \in G$.

Def: If A is graded (\mathbb{Z} -graded), then $a \in A_g$ is called homogeneous of degree g .

Example: $A = R[X]$. $\phi: A \rightarrow A$ is a graded homomorphism.

$$f(x) \mapsto x \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$$

Def: an ideal I in a G -graded algebra A is called homogeneous if

$$I = \bigoplus_g I_g, \quad I_g = I \cap A_g.$$

Lemma: If $\phi: A \rightarrow B$ is a G -graded R -algebra homomorphism, then $\ker \phi$ is homogeneous.

b) If $I \subseteq A$ is an homogeneous ideal, then A/I is a G -graded algebra,

$$A/I = \bigoplus_{g \in G} (A/I)_g = \bigoplus_{g \in G} (A_g/I_g)$$

We get, for each G, R , the category of G -graded R -algebras, and also the category of G -graded R -algebras.

Example: R -commutative, $G = \mathbb{Z}$,

$T: \text{Mod}(R) \rightarrow \text{Graded } R\text{-algebras}$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{\quad} & T(E) & e_1 \otimes e_2 \otimes \dots \otimes e_n \in T^n(E) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow T(f) & \downarrow \\ F & & T(F) & f(e_1) \otimes f(e_2) \otimes \dots \otimes f(e_n) \in T^n(F) \end{array}$$

Remark: in Algebraic Geometry work with Proj(R) as graded commutative rings
 from ideals,
 (graded) localizations.

Symmetric Algebra

S_n : symmetric group, permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Let R be a commutative ring, E, F modules.

Def $f: E^n \rightarrow F$ is called a symmetric multiplication if f is a multiplication and $f(e_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, e_{\sigma(n)}) = f(e_{1, \dots, n}) \quad \forall \sigma \in S_n$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E^n & \xrightarrow{\text{in}} & T^n(E) \\ & \searrow f & \downarrow \delta_f \\ & & F \end{array}$$

Since f is symmetric, δ_f gets a kernel:

$$e_1 \otimes e_2 \otimes \dots \otimes e_n - e_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes e_{\sigma(n)}$$

$$\in \ker \delta_f$$

$$f(e_{1, \dots, n}) - f(e_{\sigma(1), \dots, \sigma(n)}) = 0$$

So let $b_n := \langle e_1 \otimes \dots \otimes e_n - e_{\sigma(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes e_{\sigma(n)} \quad \forall \sigma \in S_n \rangle \subseteq T^n(E)$.

Def: $S^n(E) := T^n(E) / b_n$

Then, get a diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E^n & \xrightarrow{s_n} & S^n(E) \\ & \searrow f & \downarrow \delta_f \\ & & F \end{array}$$

Claim: $s_n: E^n \rightarrow S^n(E)$ is universal for symmetric multiplications out of E^n .

Def The elements of $S^n(E)$ are called symmetric tensors of degree n (for E).

We have a projection $\pi_n: T^n(E) \rightarrow S^n(E)$

$$e_1 \otimes \dots \otimes e_n \mapsto e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$$

Note that $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n = e_{\sigma(1)}, e_{\sigma(2)}, \dots, e_{\sigma(n)} \quad \forall \sigma \in S_n.$

(In particular, $e_1, e_2 = e_2, e_1$ in $S^2(E)$)

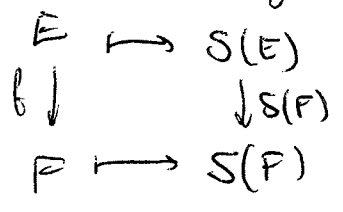
Define $S(E) := \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} S^n(E)$ and define multiplication:

$$S^r(E) \times S^s(E) \rightarrow S^{r+s}(E)$$

$$(e_1, \dots, e_r, \tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_s) \mapsto e_1, e_2, \dots, e_r, \tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_2, \dots, \tilde{e}_s$$

This is a (symmetric) multiplication, and so get $S^r(E) \otimes S^s(E) \rightarrow S^{r+s}(E).$

Lemma: $\mathcal{S}: \text{Mod}(R) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ -graded commutative R -algebras.



$\forall E$ is a free rank- n R -module, $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R e_i$, then

$$S(E) \cong R[e_1, \dots, e_n]$$

There are other multiplications:

Example: The determinant gives, if $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R v_i$ (free rank- n). Then

$$\det: E^n \rightarrow R$$

such that $\det(e_1, \dots, \overset{\text{repeated}}{e_i}, \dots, e_n) = 0$

Def: A multiplication $f: E^n \rightarrow F$ is called alternating if ^{whenever} two adjacent entries are equal, then $f = 0$.

Lemma: if f is alternating, then:

1) $f(e_1, \dots, e_i, \dots, e_j, \dots, e_i, \dots, e_n) = -f(e_1, \dots, e_j, \dots, e_i, \dots, e_n)$

2) In particular, if any two entries are equal, then $f = 0$. (if $\text{char } R \neq 2$!)

Prove it for $i=1, j=2$:

$$f(x+y, x+y, \dots) = 0$$

$$f(x, y, \dots) + f(x, y, \dots) + f(y, x, \dots) + f(y, x, \dots) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x, y, \dots) = -f(y, x, \dots)$$

Similar for any adjacent entries $i, i+1$.

Then observe that it is also true for $e_i, e_{i+1}, \dots, e_{j-1}, e_j, \dots$

Can interchange $e_i \leftrightarrow e_j$ by an odd number of adjacent interchanges \Rightarrow get opposite sign.

Define it as universal object: if f is an alternating multiplication,

$$E^n \xrightarrow{f} T^n(E) \xrightarrow{\text{alt}} T^n(E)/a_n$$

Then define $a_n :=$ submodule of $T^n(E)$ generated by tensors $e_1 \otimes e_2 \otimes \dots \otimes e_i \otimes \dots \otimes e_i \otimes \dots \otimes e_n$.

Σ get

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 E^n & \xrightarrow{f} & T^n(E) \\
 & \searrow f & \downarrow \text{alt} \\
 & & T^n(E)/a_n \\
 & \downarrow f & \swarrow \text{alt} \\
 & & E
 \end{array}$$

Define $\Lambda^n(E) := T^n(E)/a_n$, and $\text{in}: E^n \xrightarrow{j} T^n(E) \xrightarrow{\pi} \Lambda^n(E)$
 $(e_1, \dots, e_n) \mapsto (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n) \mapsto e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$

And $\Lambda^n(E)$ is universal for alternating multiplications.

Def: $\Lambda(E) := \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} \Lambda^n(E) = \bigoplus_{n \geq 0} T^n(E)/a_n$ is called the Grassmann Algebra of E, Exterior Algebra of E, Alternating Algebra of E.

Recall that $T(E)$ is a graded algebra with multiplication

$$T^r(E) \times T^s(E) \rightarrow T^{r+s}(E)$$

Define $\underline{a} = \bigoplus a_n \subseteq T(E)$ is a graded ideal, and $T(E)/\underline{a} = \bigoplus T^n(E)/a_n = \Lambda(E)$ inherits a multiplication. $\Lambda^r(E) \times \Lambda^s(E) \hookrightarrow \Lambda^{r+s}(E)$.

Theorem: Let $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Rv_i$ (free rank- n).

Then $\Lambda^r(E) = 0$ if $r > n$

if $1 \leq r \leq n$, $\Lambda^r(E)$ is free over R , with basis

$\{v_{i_1} \wedge v_{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r} \mid i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_r\}$. There are $\binom{n}{r}$ such basis vectors.

and so $\text{rk}_R(\Lambda^r(E)) = \binom{n}{r}$.

Pf If $\{v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_r}\} \in E^{(r)}$, then

$j_r(v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_r}) = v_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r}$ and j_r is an alternating multiplication.

→ So if $i_r = i_s$ then the wedge is zero.

→ we can always arrange the subscripts to be increasing (up to a sign).

Let now e_1, e_2, \dots, e_r be r elements of E ($r \leq n$).

To see that $e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_r = 0$, write $e_i = \sum c_{ij} v_j$

$$e = \sum c_{1j_1} c_{2j_2} \dots c_{rj_r} \overbrace{v_{j_1} \wedge v_{j_2} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{j_r}}^{=0 \text{ because there are repetitions.}}$$

Consider now the case $r = n$:

Take $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n \in E$, and expand them in the basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$.

Then $e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n = \epsilon v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_n$.

In other words, $v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_n$ generates $\Lambda^n E$

It could be that $v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_n = 0$. To show that it is not the case,

1) $\Lambda^n E = T^n(E) / \mathfrak{a}_n$. It suffices to show that $T^n(E) \cong \mathfrak{a}_n \oplus M$

where $M \cong R^m$ is a free rank- d R -module.

or

2) Assume that one knows that determinants exist.

$\exists f: E^n \rightarrow R$ s.t. $f(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) = 1$ (det. w.r.t. the basis $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^n$)

Using universality, $E^n \xrightarrow{\Lambda^n E} \Lambda^n E \rightarrow R$. If $\Lambda^n E = 0$, the diagram would not commute. //

Consider now $1 \leq r < n$, and by the same expansion,

$$\{v_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r} : i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_r\} \text{ generate } \Lambda^r E.$$

Again, it could be that $\{v_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r} : i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_r\}$ were \mathbb{R} -dependent:

$$\text{Assume that } c = \sum c_{i_1 \dots i_r} v_{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{i_r} = 0$$

Take the complement in $\{1, \dots, n\}$ of i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r , say j_1, j_2, \dots, j_{n-r} .

Multiply c by $v_{j_1} \wedge v_{j_2} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{j_{n-r}}$

$$c \wedge v_{j_1} \wedge v_{j_2} \wedge \dots \wedge v_{j_{n-r}} \in \Lambda^n E$$

$$c_{i_1 \dots i_r} (-1)^{\epsilon} \cdot v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_n = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c_{i_1 \dots i_r} = 0$$

So $c_{i_1 \dots i_r} = 0 \quad \forall \quad i_1 \dots i_r$, so the relation was trivial.

$$\text{So } \Lambda(E) = \Lambda^0(E) \oplus \Lambda^1(E) \oplus \dots \oplus \Lambda^n(E) = R \oplus E \oplus \dots \oplus R(v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_n)$$

(still supposing that E is free of rank n).

Lemma: Let E be any R -module. If $\alpha \in \Lambda^r(E)$, $\beta \in \Lambda^s(E)$,

$$\text{then } \alpha \wedge \beta = (-1)^{rs} \beta \wedge \alpha$$

Proof: Induction, starting at $e_1 \wedge e_2 = -e_2 \wedge e_1$ ($r=s=1$)
(exercise).

In particular, if $\alpha \in \Lambda^{2r}(E)$, $\alpha \wedge \beta = \beta \wedge \alpha$ for any $\beta \in \Lambda^s(E)$.

Def: A $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ -graded algebra $A = A_0 \oplus A_1$ is called supercommutative if

$$a \cdot b = (-1)^{p(a)p(b)} b \cdot a, \quad \text{where } p: A_0 \cup A_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

$$\left(\text{And so } \Lambda(E) = \Lambda(E)_0 \oplus \Lambda(E)_1 = \left(\bigoplus_{r \geq 0} \Lambda^{2r}(E) \right) \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{s \geq 0} \Lambda^{2s+1}(E) \right) \right)$$

Lemma: Let M be free of rank 1 over R .

$$\phi: M \rightarrow M, \quad M = Rm_1$$

then $\phi(m) = am$ for some unique a :

Pf $\phi(rm_1) = r\phi(m_1) = r \cdot am_1 = a(rm_1)$

Now if $\phi(m_1) = a'm_1 = am_1$, then $(a' - a)m_1 = 0 \stackrel{m_1 \text{ is a basis}}{\implies} a' = a$.

Now if \tilde{m}_1 is another basis ($\tilde{m}_1 = r m_1$) then:

$$\phi(m) = \phi(\tilde{r}\tilde{m}_1) = \tilde{r}\phi(\tilde{m}_1) = \tilde{r}\phi(r m_1) = \tilde{r}r\phi(m_1) = \tilde{r}ra m_1 = a\tilde{r}\tilde{m}_1 = a m$$

edit!

the same a.

In particular, for $f: E \rightarrow E$, E free of rank n ,

$$\Lambda^n(f): \Lambda^n E \rightarrow \Lambda^n E, \quad \Lambda^n(f)(e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n) = \det(f) e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$$

(for $\det(f) \in R$)

Lemma: E free of rank n , $f: E \rightarrow E$ an endomorphism.

1) $\det(1_E) = 1_R$

2) $\det(f \circ g) = \det f \cdot \det g$.

(Λ^n is a functor, so $\Lambda^n(1_E) = 1_{\Lambda^n E}$) $\Lambda^n(1_E)e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n = 1 \cdot e_1 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$.

$$\Lambda^n(f \circ g) = (\Lambda^n f)(\Lambda^n(g)) \implies \det(f \circ g) = \det(f) \cdot \det(g)$$

Lemma: Let e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n be a basis for E (a free rank n module over R).

Let $\sigma \in S_n$.

$$e_{\sigma(1)} \wedge e_{\sigma(2)} \wedge \dots \wedge e_{\sigma(n)} = \text{sign}(\sigma) \cdot e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \dots \wedge e_n$$

Pf Tedious ("exercise").

Theorem: $f: E \rightarrow E$, $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{R}e_i$.

Define components of f : $f(e_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_{ij} e_i$.

So assign $f \rightsquigarrow A_f = (f_{ij})_{i,j}$.

Then $\det(f) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sign}(\sigma) f_{\sigma(1)1} f_{\sigma(2)2} \cdots f_{\sigma(n)n} \in \mathbb{R}$

~~pf~~

$$\det(f) e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n = \lambda^n(f) e_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n = f(e_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge f(e_n) =$$

$$= \sum_{j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n} f_{j_1 1} e_{j_1} \wedge f_{j_2 2} e_{j_2} \wedge \cdots \wedge f_{j_n n} e_{j_n} =$$

$$= \sum_{j_1, j_2, \dots, j_n} f_{j_1 1} f_{j_2 2} \cdots f_{j_n n} e_{j_1} \wedge e_{j_2} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{j_n} = \text{(because repeated entries give 0)}$$

$$= \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} f_{\sigma(1)1} f_{\sigma(2)2} \cdots f_{\sigma(n)n} e_{\sigma(1)} \wedge e_{\sigma(2)} \wedge \cdots \wedge e_{\sigma(n)} =$$

$$= \left(\sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \text{sign}(\sigma) f_{\sigma(1)1} f_{\sigma(2)2} \cdots f_{\sigma(n)n} \right) e_1 \wedge e_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge e_n$$

Modules over Principal Ideal Domains.

Def: Let R be a (commutative) integral domain.

If E is an R -module, and $e \in E$. Say e is a torsion (element),

$\iff re = 0$ for $r \neq 0$

Def $t(E) := \{ e \in E : e \text{ is torsion} \}$.

Lemma: $t(E) \subseteq E$ is a submodule. (easy).

Def: E is torsion-free if $t(E) = 0$

Example: If $R = K$ is a field, then all modules (vector spaces) are torsion-free.

?) If $R = \mathbb{Z}$, then finite abelian groups are torsion.

Lemma: If E is free then it is torsion-free.

Pf Let $e \in E$ be torsion, $re = 0$.

Let $e = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i e_i$ unique expansion w.r.t. a basis of E .

Then $re = 0 \implies \sum r r_i e_i = 0 \implies r r_i = 0 \forall i \implies r_i = 0 \forall i \implies e = 0$.

Lemma: $E/t(E)$ is torsion-free.

Pf Let $r e + t(E)$ be torsion in $E/t(E)$. $\hookrightarrow r e \in t(E)$

This means $r_1 \cdot r e = 0$ for some $r_1 \in R$. $\implies e \in t(E)$. //

Lemma: Let F be a free R -module.

$M \subseteq F$ a submodule. Then M is free. (need R be a PID).

Corollary: over a PID, projective modules \iff free modules.

Pf of Lemma for finite rank: (the general case uses Zorn's Lemma).

Suppose F has basis f_1, \dots, f_n .

Define $M_r := M \cap \bigoplus_{i=1}^r Rf_i$.

By induction, will prove that M_r is free $\forall r$ (and, as $M = M_n$, will be done).

$$M_1 = M \cap Rf_1 = \{af_1 \in M \text{ for some } a \in R\}.$$

Let $I_1 := \{a \in R : af_1 \in M\} \subseteq R$ is an ideal.

As R is a PID, $I_1 = (a_1)$, some $a_1 \in R$.

So $M_1 = Ra_1f_1$. Either $\begin{cases} a_1 = 0 \Rightarrow M_1 = 0 \text{ is free} \\ a_1 \neq 0 \Rightarrow a_1f_1 \text{ is linearly independent,} \\ \text{if } ra_1f_1 = 0 \Rightarrow ra_1 = 0 \Rightarrow r = 0. \\ \uparrow \text{lin. indep.} \quad \uparrow \text{a.c.t.u.} \end{cases}$

So M_1 is free with basis a_1f_1 .

Assume M_1, \dots, M_r are free.

$$M_{r+1} = M \cap \bigoplus_{i=1}^{r+1} Rf_i = \{a f_{r+1} + \sum_{i=1}^r c_i f_i \in M \text{ for } \sum c_i f_i \in M, a \in R\}.$$

$$I_{r+1} := \{a \in R : a f_{r+1} + \sum_{i=1}^r c_i f_i \in M \text{ for some } \sum c_i f_i \in M\} \text{ is an ideal.}$$

$$\text{So } I_{r+1} = (a_{r+1}).$$

• If $a_{r+1} = 0$, then $M_{r+1} = M_r$ so it is free.

• If $a_{r+1} \neq 0$, then $\exists f = a_{r+1} f_{r+1} + \sum_{i=1}^r c_i f_i \in M_{r+1}$.

$$\text{Let } x \in M_{r+1} \text{ arbitrary. } x = r a_{r+1} f_{r+1} + \sum_{i=1}^r x_i f_i$$

$$x - r f = \sum_{i=1}^r (x_i - c_i r) f_i \in M_r \text{ (since } x \in M, f \in M).$$

$$\text{So } x = r f + m_r, \quad m_r \in M_r. \quad \text{So } M_{r+1} = Rf + M_r.$$

Clearly, $Rf \cap M_r = 0$ $\Rightarrow M_{r+1} = Rf \oplus M_r$, and thus is free.

(because if $\exists l \cdot i: r f = 0 \Rightarrow r a_{r+1} f_{r+1} + \sum c_i f_i = 0 \Rightarrow r a_{r+1} = 0 \Rightarrow r = 0$)

Lemma: If M is a finitely-generated torsion-free module over PID, then M is free.

Example (cannot drop the f.g. condition):

$$R = \mathbb{Z}, \quad M = \mathbb{Q}.$$

Then \mathbb{Q} is not free over \mathbb{Z} (not even projective).

(If \mathbb{Q} is projective, $\mathbb{Q} \oplus N = F$ with F free abelian group).

Let $\{f_i\}_{i \in I}$ be a basis for F .

$$\frac{1}{3} = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i f_i. \quad \text{Also, } \frac{1}{p} = \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j^p f_j$$

$$0 = \frac{3}{3} - \frac{p}{p} = \sum (3\gamma_i - p\alpha_i^p) f_i \Rightarrow 3\gamma_i - p\alpha_i^p = 0 \quad \forall i, \forall p \text{ prime in } \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow p \mid 3\gamma_i \Rightarrow p \mid \gamma_i \quad \forall p \neq 3 \Rightarrow \text{contradiction.} //$$

Pf of Lemma:

Fix some set of generators for M : $M = Ry_1 + Ry_2 + \dots + Ry_m$. (assume $y_i \neq 0 \forall i$)

Let $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ be a maximal l.i. set of generators ($n \leq m$).

Chosen among the $\{y_i\}$.

By maximality, $ay + b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_nv_n = 0$

for $a \neq 0$ and at least one of the $b_j \neq 0$.

$$\Rightarrow ay \in \langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \rangle.$$

This is true for all the y_i .

So get $a_i \in R$ s.t. $a_i y_i \in \langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \rangle$. Let $\alpha := a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$

$$\text{Then } \alpha y \in \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Rv_i$$

Get a map $\phi_\alpha: m \rightarrow \alpha m, M \rightarrow \alpha M \subseteq \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Rv_i$.

By previous lemma, αM is free. Also, ϕ_α is injective (since M is torsion-free).

$\Rightarrow M$ is free. //

Theorem: Let R be a PID. Let E be a f.g. over R .

Then, $E = t(E) \oplus F$ for F free and finitely-generated.

Pf Know that $E/t(E)$ is torsion-free

E is f.g. $\Rightarrow E/t(E)$ is f.g.

As $E/t(E)$ is torsion free, $E/t(E)$ is free $\Rightarrow E/t(E)$ projective.

Thus $0 \rightarrow t(E) \rightarrow E \rightarrow E/t(E) \rightarrow 0$ splits. $\Rightarrow E = t(E) \oplus \frac{F}{t(E)}$

The interesting part of E will come from studying the torsion.

So assume that E is torsion ($E = t(E)$).

For $e \in E$,

Def The $\text{Ann}(e) := \{r \in R : re = 0\}$, the annihilator of e . (it is an ideal).

So $\text{Ann}(e) = (m)$, $m \in R$ ($m \neq 0$, for $m = 0 \Rightarrow e \Rightarrow$ not torsion)

If E is finitely generated, consider the annihilator of its generators.

$E = e_1 R + \dots + e_n R$, and $(e_i) \Rightarrow a_i$

Then $a = a_1 \dots a_n$ kills any generator, thus $aE = 0$.

R PID $\Rightarrow R$ UFD, so $a = p_1^{n_1} \dots p_k^{n_k}$ for p_i primes.

For each of the p_i 's, define:

$\boxed{E(p_i)} := \{e \in E : \text{Ann}(e) = (p_i^s), \text{ for some } s \geq 1\}$.

Our goal is now to prove that, $E(P)$ are submodules,
and if E is f.g. then $E = \bigoplus_{\substack{P \in R \\ \text{prime}}} E(P)$.

Lemma: Let $aE = 0$, $a = bc$ s.t. $\gcd(b, c) = 1$.

Then $E = E_a = E_b \oplus E_c$ (where $E_x = \{e \in E : xe = 0\}$).

pf $xb + yc = 1$ for some $x, y \in R$.

Then $1 \cdot e = xbe + yce$.

$$\begin{cases} c(xbe) = x(bc)e = xae = 0. \\ b(yce) = y(bc)e = yae = 0. \end{cases} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{So } E = E_b + E_c. \end{array} \right.$$

Let $e \in E_b \cap E_c$. Then $be = 0 = ce$. But $1 \cdot e = xbe + yce = 0 \Rightarrow e = 0$.

So now we have, using the lemma, that $E = E_{p_1^{n_1}} \oplus \dots \oplus E_{p_k^{n_k}}$.

For each prime $p \in R$, let $E(P) = \{e \in E \mid \text{Ann}(e) = (P^i), i > 0\}$.

$$\text{So } E = \bigoplus_{\substack{P \in R \\ \text{prime}}} E(P).$$

Note that if $x \in E$, and $\text{Ann}(x) = (P^n)$, then $Rx \cong R/(P^n)$.

Goal: $E(P) \cong R/(P^{n_1}) \oplus \dots \oplus R/(P^{n_k})$ (k, n_k different from the used previously).

Def: Let E be an R -module. $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} \subset E$ are independent if

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i e_i = 0 \Rightarrow a_i e_i = 0 \quad \forall i.$$

(So linear independence \Rightarrow independence, but not the other way (e.g. in a torsion module)).

Lemma: If E has independent generators $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\} \Rightarrow E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n Re_i$.

pf $E = Re_1 + \dots + Re_n$. If they are independent, $a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n = 0 \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow a_i e_i = 0$, so $e = \sum a_i e_i = \sum b_i e_i \Rightarrow \sum (a_i - b_i) e_i = 0 \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow a_i e_i = b_i e_i \forall i$ but then the components are unique (not the coefficients).

Lemma:

1) $e \in E(p)$, suppose $p^i e = 0$.
 then $\text{Ann}(e) = (p^j)$ for some j , $1 \leq j \leq i$.

2) If $\text{Ann}(e) = (p^i)$, then $p^j e \neq 0$ if $j < i$.

pf 1) $p^i e = 0 \Rightarrow p^i \in \text{Ann}(e) = (p^j) \Rightarrow p^j | p^i \Rightarrow j \leq i$.

2) Suppose $\text{Ann}(e) = (p^i)$, and $p^j e = 0 \Rightarrow p^j \in (p^i) \Rightarrow i \leq j$.

Now if $E \cong \bigoplus_i R$, $E \in E(p)$, say $E = x_1 R + \dots + x_t R$.

Know that $p^N E = 0$ for N big enough.

By part (1) of the lemma, $\text{Ann}(x_i) = (p^{n_i})$ for some $n_i \leq N$.

Let $r := \max\{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_t\}$. Then $p^r E = 0$. (So can take $N = r$).

Lemma: Let $E = E(p)$, $x \in E(p)$ s.t. $\text{Ann}(x) = (p^r)$ and $r = \max\{n_1, \dots, n_t\}$.

Define $\bar{E} := E/Rx$ $\pi: \bar{E} \rightarrow \bar{E}$
 $e \mapsto e \text{ mod } Rx$

Suppose $\bar{y} \in \bar{E}$, $\text{Ann}(\bar{y}) = (p^n)$. There is $y \in E$ s.t.:

a) $\pi(y) = \bar{y}$.

b) $\text{Ann}(y) = (p^n)$

pf Let $\text{Ann}(\bar{y}) = (p^n)$. So $p^n \bar{y} = 0$. $\forall y \in \pi^{-1}(\bar{y})$, $p^n y \in Rx$.

So $p^n y = p^s c/x$ (since $c \in R, p \nmid c$).

↓

have $p^n y = (p^s c) x$.

Also $s \leq r$.

Two cases:

$s=r$: $p^n y = p^r c x = 0$, but $p^{n-1} y \neq 0$ (since $p^{n-1} \bar{y} \neq 0!$).

This means that $\text{Ann}(y) = (p^n)$ so done.

$s < r$: $(p^{r-s}) = \text{Ann}(p^s c x)$. So $\text{Ann}(y) = (p^{n+r-s})$

Now $n+r-s \leq r$, so $n \leq s$, and then $\text{Ann}(y - p^{s-n} c x) = (p^n)$

Defining $\tilde{y} := y - p^{s-n} c x$, $\text{Ann}(\tilde{y}) = (p^n)$, and $\pi(\tilde{y}) = \pi(y - p^{s-n} c x) = \pi(y) - \underbrace{\pi(p^{s-n} c x)}_{\substack{0 \\ \text{in } \mathbb{R}x}} = \pi(y) = \bar{y}$.

Lemma: $x \in E$, $\text{Ann}(x) = (p^r)$, $p^r E = 0$, $\bar{E} = \bar{E}/(x)$.

Let $\bar{y}_1, \bar{y}_2, \dots, \bar{y}_k$ in \bar{E} be independent, and $\text{Ann}(\bar{y}_j) = (p^{n_j})$.

Then there are y_2, y_3, \dots, y_k in E s.t. $\{x, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_k\}$ are independent, and $\text{Ann}(y_j) = \text{Ann}(\bar{y}_j)$, $\pi(y_j) = \bar{y}_j$.

Pl Only need to check independence:

$$ax + \sum_{i=2}^k a_i y_i = 0. \text{ Reducing mod } x, \text{ get } \sum_{i=2}^k a_i \bar{y}_i = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow a_i \bar{y}_i = 0 \quad \forall i.$$

$$\text{Ann}(\bar{y}_i) = (p^{n_i}) \Rightarrow p^{n_i} | a_i, \text{ so } a_i y_i = 0 \quad \forall i.$$

$$\text{Ann}(y_i)$$

And then $ax = 0$ also, so done.

Theorem: Let $E = E(P)$ f-gen., then $E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k R/P_i^{n_i}R$ for some

unique n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k .

Pl Induction on the number of generators of E .

• if $E \cong Rx$, $E \cong R/\text{Ann}(x) = R/P^nR$. done.

• Assume that the theorem is true for all modules generated by less than s generators. Assume $E = E(P) = x_1R + \dots + x_sR$.

Let x_1 have $\text{Ann}(x_1) = (P^r)$ where $r = \max$ of the exponents (powers the x_i 's).


$\bar{E} := E/(x_1)$ is generated by $s-1$ elements, so

by induction $\bar{E} \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^{s-1} R/P_i^{n_i}R$

So in \bar{E} there are $\bar{y}_2, \bar{y}_3, \dots, \bar{y}_t$ with $\text{ann}(\bar{y}_j) = (P^{n_j})$ $1 \leq j \leq t$.

Can apply last lemma: $\exists y_2, \dots, y_t$ in E with $\text{ann}(y_j) = (P^{n_j})$, and such that $\{x_1, y_2, \dots, y_t\}$ are independent.

Now $\bar{x}_2 = \sum a_i^2 \bar{y}_i \Rightarrow x_2 = ax + \sum a_i^2 y_i \Rightarrow x_2 \in xR + y_2R + \dots + y_tR$

Similarly for all x_j . So done. 

So we get the:

Classification Theorem: E f-gen over PID. Then:

$$E = F \oplus E(E)$$

$$E(E) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k E(P_i) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \bigoplus_{j=1}^{s_i} R/P_i^{n_{ij}}R$$

Def: The $\{p_i^{n_{ij}}\}$ are called "elementary divisors" of E .

Def: The order of a f.g. torsion module $E \Rightarrow O_E := \prod p_i^{n_{ij}}$
So the elementary divisors of E are divisors of the order of E .

Corollary: Let E be f.g. torsion module over R .

Then there are nonzero elements q_1, \dots, q_s of R s.t. $s \geq 1$.

$$E \cong R/q_1R \oplus R/q_2R \oplus \dots \oplus R/q_sR$$

and $q_1 | q_2 | \dots | q_s$ and q_1R, q_2R, \dots, q_sR are uniquely determined (i.e. q_i unique up to units).

Pr Let $s = \max \{s_i\}$ ($E = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \bigoplus_{j=1}^{s_i} R/p_i^{n_{ij}}$)

- $P_1 \quad r_{11} \leq r_{12} \leq \dots \leq r_{1s}$
- $P_2 \quad r_{21} \leq r_{22} \leq \dots \leq r_{2s}$ (Kill n from the right)
- \vdots
- $P_k \quad r_{k1} \leq r_{k2} \leq \dots \leq r_{ks}$

(Example: suppose $E = R/P_1 \oplus R/P_1^2 \oplus R/P_2^3 \oplus R/P_3$)

P_1	$0 \leq 1$
P_2	$2 \leq 3$
P_3	$0 \leq 1$

Then use the columns to define the q_i :

$$q_i = \prod_{j=1}^k p_j^{n_{ji}} \quad (i = 1..s)$$

(example: $q_1 = P_1^0 P_2^2 P_3^0 = P_2^2, \quad q_2 = P_2^1 P_2^3 P_3^1$)

Clearly, $q_1 | q_2 | \dots | q_s$.

Recall the lemma, $E = E_b \oplus E_c$ if $\gcd(b,c)=1, a=bc$ and $E_a = E$

~~So $E = R/p_i$~~

Shows existence. Uniqueness \Rightarrow postponed.

Def: the q_i 's for E as above are called the invariants (or invariant factors) for E .

Notes: if q_1, \dots, q_s are invariants, then $q_s \overset{\text{the last one!}}{\downarrow} E = 0$.

Application: Let K be a field, V an n -dimensional vector space, $A \in \text{End}_K(V)$
(A is an $n \times n$ matrix after choosing a basis),

Recall that V is a $K[X]$ -module via $f(X) \cdot v = f(A) \cdot v$.

($K[X]$ is a PID) and V is f gen over K .

Σ V is f gen over $K[X]$ ($K \in K[X]$).

Also, $\phi_A: K[X] \rightarrow \text{End}_K V$ is a linear map (in fact, an algebra homomorphism).
 $X \mapsto A$

$K[X]$ is int-dim over K , $\dim_K(\text{End}_K V) = n^2$.

Σ ϕ_A has nontrivial kernel

$\text{Ker } \phi_A = (q_A(X))$ for some $q_A(X) \in K[X]$, assumed to be monic. It is called the minimal polynomial of A (or of V).

As $q_A(X) \cdot V = 0$, V is f gen.

By the corollary of the classification thm, $V = K[X]_{q_1(X)} \oplus K[X]_{q_2(X)} \oplus \dots \oplus K[X]_{q_s(X)}$
with $q_1(X) | q_2(X) | \dots | q_s(X)$ (and assumed to be monic).

Note that $q_s(X) \equiv q_A(X)$. (since $q_s(X) \in \text{Ker } \phi_A$, we have $q_A | q_s$
(But a polynomial of degree less than $\deg q_s$ cannot kill all of V).

Def E a module over a ring R is cyclic if $E = Re$, for some $e \in E$.

If R is a PID, can write $E \cong R/\langle m \rangle$ where $\langle m \rangle = \text{Ann}(e) = \{r \in R : re = 0\}$.

So V is the direct sum of cyclic modules over $k[x]$.

Lemma: Let $q(x) = q_0 + q_1x + \dots + q_{n-1}x^{n-1} + x^n$ be some non-zero polynomial

Then $E \cong k[x]/(q(x))$ is a cyclic module with a k -basis

$\{e_0, e_1, \dots, e_{n-1}\}$ s.t. the matrix of multiplication by x is

$$\text{Given by } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -q_0 \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & -q_1 \\ & 1 & \dots & 0 & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & 1 & -q_{n-1} \\ 0 & & & & \end{pmatrix} = A_q$$

Pf Let $e_0 := e$ be $1 \pmod{q(x)}$.

Define $e_1 := xe$
 $e_2 := x^2e = xe_1$
 \vdots
 $e_{n-1} := x^{n-1}e = xe_{n-2}$

Gives the desired matrix ($xe_i = e_{i+1}$, $i < n-1$)

and $xe_{n-1} = x^n e$

As $q(x)e = 0$, $x^n e = -q_0e - q_1xe - q_2x^2e - \dots - q_{n-1}x^{n-1}e$

So $\exists A \in \text{End}_k(V)$ as above, then

$$V \cong k[x]/(q_1) \oplus \dots \oplus k[x]/(q_s)$$

So there is a k -basis for V s.t. $A = \begin{pmatrix} \boxed{A_{q_1}} & & \\ & \boxed{A_{q_2}} & \\ & & \boxed{A_{q_s}} \end{pmatrix}$

where $A_{q_i} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & -q_{n-1} \\ 1 & & -q_{n-2} \\ & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & 1 & -q_0 \end{pmatrix}$

- RK: 1) If V is a fgen torsion over a PID, then the invariant (q^i) are uniquely det.
- 2) If $A, B \in \text{End}_k(V)$ then the $k[x]$ -module structures V_A, V_B are isomorphic $\Leftrightarrow A \sim B \Leftrightarrow A = PBP^{-1}$, $P \in GL_k(V)$.
- 3) (1) & (2) \Rightarrow each matrix A has a Rational Canonical form, and $A \sim B \Leftrightarrow$ they have the same RCF.

Example: if $R = \mathbb{Z}$, E finite abelian group, then

$$E \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k E(P_i) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}/(P_i^{n_{ij}})$$

$\#E = \prod P_i^{n_{ij}}$ which was defined as the order of the module E !

Example: $R = k[x]$, order $(x-1)^3(x+1)^2$.

Question: how many R -modules wrt. this order exist?

Why we call these matrices Rational Canonical Forms?

Let $K \subseteq K$ be a field extension. Given $V = V_K$, a K -vector space,

$$\text{have } V_K := K \otimes_K V \quad (K\text{-ification}).$$

Then, if $\{v_i\}$ is basis for V_K , $\{\lambda \otimes v_i\}$ is basis for V_K .

$$\text{If } A = A_K \in \text{End}_K(V), \text{ get } A|_{V_K} : V_K \rightarrow V_K \\ \lambda \otimes v \mapsto \lambda \otimes Av$$

$$\hookrightarrow A|_K \in \text{End}_K(V).$$

Then, note if $B = \{v_i\}$ is a K -basis for V_K , then $A|_B$ is a matrix for an endomorphism, then the matrix of $A|_K$ is the same matrix.

So we conclude (??) that the REF does not depend on the field extension one works in. Also, the invariants do not depend on the field extension.

Corollary: if $A, B \in \text{End}_K(V)$, and $A|_K \sim B|_K$, then it is already true that $A \sim B$.

Examples: if U is a unitary matrix ($n \times n$) in \mathbb{C} , ($U^H U = I$), then $U \sim \begin{pmatrix} s_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & s_n \end{pmatrix}$, $|s_i| = 1$.

Suppose now that Q is a real unitary matrix (i.e. $Q^T Q = I$). By the finite algebra, then $Q \sim \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_n \end{pmatrix}$. Easy to check that $d_i \in \mathbb{R}$ vs. Then $Q = P^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_n \end{pmatrix} P$ for $P \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{R})$.

• The Jordan Canonical Form.

To find the RCF, we used the invariant factors, by decomposing

$$V = k[X]_{(q_1)} \oplus \dots \oplus k[X]_{(q_s)}$$

There is also the elementary divisor decomposition:

$$V = \bigoplus \frac{k[X]}{(p_i^{n_{ij}})}$$

Suppose k algebraically closed.

Then the prime ideals of $k[X]$ are (p) where $\begin{cases} p=0 \\ p=x-\alpha, \alpha \in k \end{cases}$

In our case, $p \neq 0$ because otherwise would get a free part for V .

So let $E = \frac{k[X]}{(p^r)}$. Then there is a k -basis for E s.t.

multiplication by x has matrix $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ for α some element in k .

Pf Let $p = x - \alpha$, and let $e = 1 \pmod{(p^r)} \in \frac{k[X]}{(p^r)}$.

$$\text{Then } e_k := (x - \alpha)^k e \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, r-1$$

Claim: $\{e_0, \dots, e_{r-1}\}$ is a k -basis for E .

$(x - \alpha)^k = x^k + \text{lower terms}$, so $\{1, (x - \alpha), \dots, (x - \alpha)^{r-1}\}$ are independent in $k[X]$.

They are also independent in $\frac{k[X]}{(x - \alpha)^r}$.

It is clear that they generate. ///

$$\text{Now note that } x \cdot e_k = x \cdot (x - \alpha)^k e = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha)^k e + \alpha(x - \alpha)^k e = e_{k+1} + \alpha e_k.$$

$$\text{Also, } x \cdot e_{r-1} = x(x - \alpha)^{r-1} e = \alpha e_k + (x - \alpha)^{r-1} e$$



Lemma (Corollary): Let A be a matrix over an alg. closed set K , then

$$A \sim \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & \\ & A_2 & \\ & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where } A_i = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_i & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \alpha_i \end{pmatrix}$$

which is unique up to permutation of the blocks A_i .

Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix}$ $\alpha_i \in K, \alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2$.

Find the minimal polynomial $q_A(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)$

(it is the minimal polynomial because $q_A(A) = 0$, and any lower factor wouldn't do that).

$$q_A(x) = x^2 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)x + \alpha_1\alpha_2$$

The other invariant factors: $q_1 | q_2 | \dots | q_s$.

$$V = K^2 = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s \frac{K[X]}{(q_i)} = \dots + \frac{K[X]}{(q_A(x))} \leftarrow \text{dimension 2}$$

So $V = \frac{K[X]}{(q_A(x))}$ and thus $q_A(x) = q_1(x)$ is the only invariant factor.

The RCF is then $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\alpha_1\alpha_2 \\ 1 & \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix}$

Also $V \cong \frac{K[X]}{(x - \alpha_1)} \oplus \frac{K[X]}{(x - \alpha_2)}$ (decomp. into primes).

So the JNF is $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha_2 \end{pmatrix}$ (A is ~~still~~).

Now assume $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$.

Then $q_A(x) = x - \alpha$. So $q_1 = (x - \alpha), q_2 = q_A = (x - \alpha)$

So RCF = $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \alpha \end{pmatrix} = A = \text{JNF}$.

Questions:

- How to find the minimal polynomial?
- How to find the invariant factors?
- How to find the Jordan Canonical Form?

Def Given A an $n \times n$ matrix over \mathbb{C} a field.

The characteristic polynomial of A is $P_A(x) = \det(xI_n - A) = x^n + \dots$ (monic)

Lemma: $P_{SAS^{-1}}(x) = P_A(x)$.

Lemma: Let $V = K[X]/(q(x))$ and let $A: V \rightarrow V$ be induced by multiplication by x . We have a basis for V s.t.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \dots & -q_0 \\ 1 & \dots & -q_1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 - q_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \text{ if } q(x) = q_0 + \dots + q_{n-1}x^{n-1} + x^n$$

Then $q(x) = P_A(x)$.

Pr $P_A(x) = \det(x - A) = \det \begin{pmatrix} x & 0 & \dots & q_0 \\ -1 & x & & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & -1 & q_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = x \cdot \det(B) + (-1)^{n+1} q_0 \det(C)$

where $B = \begin{pmatrix} x & \dots & q_1 \\ -1 & x & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & -1 & q_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$ $C = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det C = (-1)^{n-1}$

$\therefore P_A(x) = q_0 + x \cdot \det(B)$. By induction,

$$P_A(x) = q_0 + x \cdot \frac{q(x) - q_0}{x} = q(x)$$

Check that it works for a 1 by 2 matrix.

Corollary: If V has decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^s K[X]/(q_i)$, then

$$P_A(x) = q_1(x) q_2(x) \dots q_s(x)$$

Pr A has a block decomposition $A = \begin{pmatrix} A_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & A_s \end{pmatrix}$

Then $\det(xI - A) = \prod \det(xI_{d_i} - A_i) = \prod q_i(x)$

(in particular, $q_s(x) = P_A(x) \mid P_A(x)$).

\therefore we get Cayley-Hamilton Thm: $P_A(A) = 0$.

Def: $\alpha \in K$ is an eigenvalue for A if there is $v \in V, v \neq 0$ s.t. $Av = \alpha v$. (v is called eigenvector)

Lemma: α is an eigenvalue for $A \Leftrightarrow \alpha$ is a root of $P_A(x)$.

Pf: $Av = \alpha v \Leftrightarrow (A - \alpha I)v = 0, v \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(A - \alpha I) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \alpha$ is a root of $\det(xI - A) = P_A(x)$

Lemma: α is an eigenvalue for $A \Leftrightarrow \alpha$ is a root of $q_A(x)$ (the minimal polynomial).
Pf trivial.

Corollary: if there are n distinct eigenvalues, then $P_A(x) = q_A(x)$.
(and so there is only one invariant factor).

So in this case,

$$RCF_A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -q_0 & & \\ & -q_1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & -q_{n-1} \\ 1 & & & \end{pmatrix} \quad JNF_A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \alpha_i & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & \alpha_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall: A module V over R is semisimple if $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^t V_i$ with V_i simple
 \Leftrightarrow every submodule $M \subseteq V$ is a direct summand, $V = M \oplus M'$.

In the case of n distinct eigenvalues, $V \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n K[X] / (x - \alpha_i) = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n V_i$

Claim: V_i is simple $\forall i$ (and hence V is semisimple).

because $(x - \alpha_i)$ is a maximal ideal in $K[X]$.

So in this case,

Terminology: A matrix of the form $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \alpha & \\ & & & \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ is called a Jordan block of size t .

corresponding to the $K[X]$ -module $V = K[X] / (x - \alpha)^t$

Lemma: The $K[X]$ -module corresponding to a Jordan block of size $t > 1$ is not semisimple.

Pf: $V = K[X] / (x - \alpha)^t$ has basis $e_i = (x - \alpha)^i e$ where $e \equiv 1 \pmod{(x - \alpha)^t}$.

In particular, $x e_{t-1} = \alpha e_{t-1}$, so $M = (e_{t-1})$ is a $K[X]$ -submodule of V .
If V were semisimple, would have $V = M \oplus M'$, but this is not true, as M' is not stable.

(Reverse claim: for any $v \in V$, can find $f(x)$ s.t. $f(x)v \in M$.)

Proof of claim: $v = \sum_{i=t_0}^{t-1} v_i e_i$ for t_0 s.t. $v_{t_0} \neq 0$ (assuming $v \neq 0$!).

$$(x-\alpha)^{t-t_0-1} e_{t_0} = e_{t-1} \Rightarrow (x-\alpha)^{t-t_0-1} v = v_{t_0} e_{t-1} \in M //$$

Conclusion: If A is an $n \times n$ -matrix and $V = V_A$,

then V is semisimple \Leftrightarrow JNF of A has Jordan blocks only of size 1.
(i.e. JNF is diagonal)

Application: (Finite groups of Lie Type):

If \mathbb{F} is a finite field, then $GL_n(\mathbb{F})$ is a group, and is finite
(of order $\leq n^2 \cdot \#\mathbb{F}$).

So $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \in GL_3(\mathbb{F}_7)$ is a finite group.

And hence $A^k = I_3$ for some k .

Find the minimal k ?

Note that A is in RCF corresponding to $\phi_A(x) = -1 - 4x - 3x^2 + x^3$
 $= x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1$
 $= (x-1)^3$

So the minimal polynomial of $A \equiv$ characteristic polynomial, and $V_A \cong \mathbb{F}[x] / (x-1)^3$

So JNF_A is a Jordan block of size 3, with $\alpha=1$.

$$A \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = B, \quad B^m = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ m & 1 & 0 \\ \binom{m}{2} & m & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{but } \begin{pmatrix} m \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \equiv 0 \pmod{7}, \quad \text{and so } A^7 = I.$$

Still, we need to find ways of computing in general the minimal polynomial.

Consider the $k[X]$ -module V_A .

This is a quotient of a free module (in many ways).

Let $V[X] = k[X] \otimes_k V$.

(Here $k[X]$ is a $k[X]$ - k bimodule and V a k -module).

Then $V[X]$ is a $k[X]$ -module, which is free: if $V = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n k v_i$,

$1 \otimes v_i$ is a basis for $V[X]$.

Claim: V_A is a quotient of $V[X]$:

Define $V[X] \xrightarrow{\pi_A} V_A \rightarrow 0$
 $\underbrace{x^i \otimes v}_{x^i v} \mapsto A^i v$

Lemma: There exists a short exact sequence of $k[X]$ -modules:

$$0 \rightarrow V[X] \xrightarrow{d_A} V[X] \xrightarrow{\pi_A} V_A \rightarrow 0$$

$x^i v \mapsto x^{i+1} v - x^i A v$

pp

1) $\text{Im } d_A \subseteq \text{Ker } \pi_A$: $\pi_A(d_A(x^i v)) = \pi_A(x^{i+1} v - x^i A v) = A^{i+1}(v-v) = 0$.

2) $\text{Im } d_A \supseteq \text{Ker } \pi_A$:

Let $u = \sum x^i u_i \in \text{Ker } \pi_A$: $\pi_A(u) = 0 = \sum A^i u_i$

Then $u = u - \sum_{i=0}^n A^i u_i = \sum_{i=0}^n x^i u_i - \sum_{i=0}^n A^i u_i$. For $i=0$, get $x^0 u_0 - A^0 u_0 = 0$

So actually we have $u = \sum_{i=1}^n x^i u_i - A^i u_i$.

$$x^1 u_1 - A^1 u_1 = d(u_1)$$

$$x^2 u_2 - A^2 u_2 = (x^2 u_2 - x A u_2) + (x A u_2 - A^2 u_2) = d(x u_2) + d(A u_2)$$

⋮

So $u = d(\tilde{u})$ for some \tilde{u} .

3) d_A is injective: exercise.

Note: $V[X]$ has a basis $1 \in V_0$ (\therefore $1 \in V_0$ was a basis for V).

To get a matrix (over $k[X]$) for the linear transformation

$$d_A : V[X] \rightarrow V[X].$$

$$x^i v \mapsto x^{i+1} v - x^i A v$$

The matrix for d_A is then $xI_n - A$ (a $n \times n$ matrix over $k[X]$).

More generally, let $\mu \in M_{n \times n}(k[X])$. We get a module over $k[X]$.

$$0 \rightarrow k[X] \xrightarrow{\mu} V[X] \rightarrow M_\mu \rightarrow 0$$

Lemma: $V_A \cong M_\mu$ as $k[X]$ -modules iff $xI_n - A = P\mu Q$
where P, Q are $n \times n$ matrices (invertible) over $k[X]$.

Goal: Find a canonical form for $xI - A$ over $k[X]$, from which to read off the invariant factors.

Note: $k[X]$ is an Euclidean domain \Rightarrow division algorithm
($f, g \in k[X] \Rightarrow f = qg + r$ - $\deg r < \deg g$).

This means that we can use Gaussian elimination.

Row operations: R an Euclidean domain.

- I: multiply row i by a unit of R .
- II: add to row i : multiples of row j ($j \neq i$).
- III: interchange row i with row j .

(can define column operations in a similar way).

Def: B, C matrices over R are Gaussian equivalent iff there is a sequence of row operations that transform B to C .

Note: row operations are implemented by left multiplication by elementary matrices:
(and column operations by right multiplication).

Fact: Any invertible matrix over $K[X]$ is a product of elementary matrices.

Lemma: B, C are Gaussian equivalent $\Leftrightarrow B = P \cdot C \cdot Q$, P, Q invertible.

Theorem: Any $n \times m$ matrix is Gaussian equivalent to

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sigma_k & & 0 \\ & & & & & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_1 | \sigma_2 | \dots | \sigma_k$$

Δ is called the Smith Normal form of $A(x)$.

In the case $A(x) = x - A$, then $k = n$ and the σ_i are the invariant factors for V_A .

// Row & column operations //

Given a matrix B , $n \times m$, have

$$B: \mathbb{R}^m \xrightarrow{B} \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{an homomorphism of } \mathbb{R}\text{-modules,}$$

$$y \mapsto B \cdot y$$

$$\text{Coker } B = \frac{\mathbb{R}^n}{\text{Im } B} = M \text{ is an } \mathbb{R}\text{-module.}$$

It is clear that if we change B to PBQ we get $\tilde{B}: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

and $\tilde{M} = \text{Coker}(\tilde{B})$ is isomorphic to M .

So if $S = PBQ$ is the Smith Normal form for B ,

$$\tilde{M} = \frac{\mathbb{R}^n}{S \cdot \mathbb{R}^m} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sigma_k & & 0 \\ & & & & & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_k \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + \sigma_1 y_1 \\ x_2 + \sigma_2 y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_k + \sigma_k y_k \\ x_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \frac{\mathbb{R}}{(\sigma_1)} \oplus \frac{\mathbb{R}}{(\sigma_2)} \oplus \dots \oplus \frac{\mathbb{R}}{(\sigma_k)} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{n-k}$$

Example: $R = \mathbb{Z}$, G ab. gp. with generators a, b, c and relations $\begin{cases} 7a + 5b + 2c = 0 \\ 3a + 3b = 0 \\ 13a + 11b + 2c = 0 \end{cases}$

Have $\mathbb{Z}^3 \xrightarrow{B} \mathbb{Z}^3 \rightarrow G \rightarrow 0$
 $\begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto n_1 a + n_2 b + n_3 c$

where B will encode the relations: $B = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 3 & 13 \\ 5 & 3 & 11 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Then $B \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{pmatrix} = y_1 \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + y_2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y_3 \begin{pmatrix} 13 \\ 11 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = y_1 (7a + 5b + 2c) + y_2 (3a + 3b) + y_3 (13a + 11b + 2c) = 0$

$\therefore \text{coker } B = G.$

Claim: Smith $(B) = S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. $B \sim \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 3 & 13 \\ 5 & 3 & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 5 & 3 & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\therefore G \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/0\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$

Back to invariant factors:

$V[X] \xrightarrow{S} V[X] \rightarrow \tilde{V} \rightarrow 0 \quad (V \cong \tilde{V}).$

where S is the Smith Normal form of $X - A$, $S = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \sigma_k & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

Claim: there are no zeros in the diagonal of S :

If so, as $\tilde{V} \cong \bigoplus_{(0, i)} K[X] \oplus \dots \oplus \bigoplus_{(0, n)} K[X]$ if one of the $\sigma_i = 0$ wouldn't be torsion!

Theorem: Let B a matrix over an euclidean domain R , and let

$S = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \sigma_k & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ be its Smith Normal form.

Then if $d_i(B) := \gcd(\text{all } i \times i \text{ minors of } B) \in R, \sigma_i = \frac{d_i(B)}{d_{i-1}(B)}$ ($d_0 = 1$)

Proof: Claim: $d_i(B) = d_i(PBQ)$. (if so, it suffices to check it for S).

Then if $S = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \sigma_k & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $d_1 = \sigma_1, d_2 = \sigma_1 \sigma_2, \dots, d_k = \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \dots \sigma_k$.

Prove the claim as exercise.

Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 \\ 13 & 11 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $G := M(A)$ the \mathbb{Z} -mod associated to A .

$$A \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 0 \\ 13 & 11 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 6 & -6 \\ 0 & 24 & -24 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 6 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \dots$$

But the other method is:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} g_1 = \gcd(\text{enters}) = 1 \\ g_2 = \gcd(2 \times 2) = 6 \\ g_3 = \det A = 0 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \sigma_1 = g_1 = 1, \sigma_2 = g_2/g_1 = 6, \sigma_3 = g_3/g_2 = 0$$

Note: Suppose α is $n \times n$ \mathbb{Z} -matrix, and $G = M(A)$ its corresponding ab-group.

Suppose $\det(A) = 0$. Then $g_n = 0 \Rightarrow \sigma_n = 0 \Rightarrow$ it has a free part, and so G is infinite.

Let K be a field, and let A be a $n \times n$ matrix over K . Then $V = K^n$ gets a $K[X]$ -module structure, V_A . ($R = K[X]$).

$$K[X]^n \xrightarrow{x-A} K[X]^n \rightarrow V_A \rightarrow 0$$

\downarrow
 $M(x-A)$

To find the invariant factors of V_A (and hence the rat-canonical form^{of A}) we compute SNF $(x-A)$

Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$ $x-A = \begin{pmatrix} x-2 & -3 & -1 \\ -1 & x-2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & x+4 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2-x & 1 \\ 0 & x^2-4x+1 & 1-x \\ 0 & 0 & x+4 \end{pmatrix}$

With this, $g_1 = 1$; $g_2 = \gcd(x^2-4x+1, 1-x, x+4) = 1$.

$g_3 = \det(x-A) = p_A(x)$. \therefore SNF $(x-A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p_A(x) \end{pmatrix}$

So the invariant factor is $q_A(x) = p_A(x)$. $\therefore V_A = K[X] / (p_A(x))$

\uparrow minimal \uparrow characteristic.

$(p_A(x) = x^3 - 15x + 4)$ \Rightarrow RCF = $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -4 \\ 1 & 0 & 15 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$