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Modules Over Principal Ideal Domains

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A module, in short is a generalization of a vector space. One may ask, why do we care?

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- 2. The mathematics you will see here is typical of what might go on in an abstract algebra course.

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- 2. The mathematics you will see here is typical of what might go on in an abstract algebra course.
- 3. You can apply them to generate canonical forms of matrices.
- 4. They are cool.

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Defining a Module

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- A module is a generalization of a vector space. Instead of our scalers coming from a field, they come from a ring.
- A field is just a ring with additional structure added. So similarly, a vector space is a "very structured" module.
- Before we can define a module we need to introduce the concept of a ring and of a group.

Let us work backwards from a familiar object, a field!

Definition

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Definition

A field is a set F along with two operations multiplication (\cdot) and addition (+) such that the following hold...

• Closure: For all $a, b \in F$, a + b and $a \cdot b$ are in F.

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- Identities: There are identity elements 0 and 1 in f, such that for all $f \in F$, 0 + f = f and $1 \cdot f = f$.

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- Inverses: For all $f \in F$, there exist elements $-f \in F$ and $f^{-1} \in F$ such that f + -f = 0 and $f \cdot f^{-1} = 1$.

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- Inverses: For all $f \in F$, there exist elements $-f \in F$ and $f^{-1} \in F$ such that f + -f = 0 and $f \cdot f^{-1} = 1$.
- Distribution: For all $a, b, c \in F$, $a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$.

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What is a Ring?

A ring R, is very similar to a field. We still have two operations, but we abandon the following... Introduction Defining a Module Module Properties Modules Over Principle Ideal Domains Conclusion Refe

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A ring R, is very similar to a field. We still have two operations, but we abandon the following...

- (i) Multiplication does not need to commute.
- (ii) There does not need to be a multiplicative identity 1.
- (iii) Given an element $r \in R$, there does not need to be a multiplicative inverse.

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Examples

Example

 $\mathbbm{Z},$ with "regular" addition and multiplication.

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Example

 $M_2(\mathbb{R})$, the set of all 2×2 matrices with real coefficients under matrix addition and multiplication.

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A group G is one of the simplest algebraic structures to define. It only has one operator, and it does not need to be communative. All that remains is...

- (i) Closure
- (ii) Associativity
- (iii) Identity
- (iv) Inverses

Note, if a group has an operation that is commutative, we say that it is an **abelian** group.

Example

 $\mathbbm{Z},$ under "regular" addition.

Example

 $\mathbbm{Z},$ under "regular" addition.

Example

 \mathbb{Z}_n with modular addition.

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 $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ under matrix multiplication.

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 $M_2(\mathbb{R})$ under matrix multiplication.

Example

The set of vectors in \mathbb{C}^n under vector addition.

What is a Module?

Definition

If R is a commutative ring, then an R-module is an abelian group M equipped with a scalar multiplication $R \times M \to M$, denoted by $(r, m) \to rm$, such that the following axioms hold for all $m, m' \in M$ and all $r, r', 1 \in R$: (1) r(m + m') = rm + rm'

(2)
$$(r+r')m = rm + r'm$$

$$(3) (rr')m = r(r'm)$$

(4) 1m = m.

Simple Example

Example

If we let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and let our underlying group $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$, then we have a \mathbb{Z} -module, where scaler multiplication is defined as group exponentiation.
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Example (Calculation)

$$4(2+3) = 4(5) = 5^4 = 5 + 5 + 5 + 5 = 20 \equiv_6 2$$

Note: We could actually let G be any abelian group, and we could still define a \mathbb{Z} -module with scaler multiplication defined as exponentiation.

Here we give a more interesting example.

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First note that if k is a field, then k[x], the set of polynomials with coefficients in k is a commutative ring (this is a basic result from ring theory). We can now create a k[x]-module given a linear transformation T : V → V where V is a finite dimensional vector space over k.

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- First note that if k is a field, then k[x], the set of polynomials with coefficients in k is a commutative ring (this is a basic result from ring theory). We can now create a k[x]-module given a linear transformation T : V → V where V is a finite dimensional vector space over k.
- We now define scaler $k[x] \times V \to V$ multiplication as...

Given
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i x^i \in k[x]$$
, then

$$f(x)v = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i x^i\right)v = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_i T^i(v)$$

where T^0 is the identity map 1_v , and T^i is the composite of T with itself *i* times if $i \ge 1$. We denote V when viewed under a k[x] module by V^T .

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The module defined above is extremely important for deriving canonical forms.

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Many of the structural concepts from vector spaces have analogous concepts in modules. Namely...

• Instead of subspaces, we have submodules.

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- Instead of subspaces, we have submodules.
- Instead of linear transformations, we have *R*-maps.
- Both have a kernel.
- Both have a direct and internal direct sum.
- Instead of having a finite bases, a module is finitely generated (this might be a stretch).

A submodule is exactly how you think it would be.

Definition

N is a submodule of R-module M if whenever $n_1, n_2 \in N$, then $n_1 + n_2 \in N$ and $rn \in N$ for all $r \in R$ and $n \in N$.

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If M is an R-module and $m \in M$, then the **cyclic submodule** generated by m is

$$\langle m \rangle = \{ rm : r \in R \}.$$

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If M is an R-module and $m \in M$, then the **cyclic submodule** generated by m is

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A module is cyclic if $M = \langle m \rangle$ for some m. This is "like" having a basis with dimension 1.

We can have more than one element generating a submodule as well.



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Definition

A submodule generated by a set X is

$$\langle X \rangle = \left\{ \sum_{\text{finite}} r_i x_i : r_i \in R \text{ and } x_i \in X \right\}$$

If X is a finite set and $M = \langle X \rangle$, this is like a vector space having a finite basis. Note however, that a smaller set X could generate the same submodule, and so it is not completely analoguous.

Examples

Example

Our example before where $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$ is cyclic, since 1 added with itself multiple times can generate everything in the group. If $G = \mathbb{Z}$, then 1 and -1 would each be generators.

Examples

Example

Our example before where $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $G = \mathbb{Z}_6$ is cyclic, since 1 added with itself multiple times can generate everything in the group. If $G = \mathbb{Z}$, then 1 and -1 would each be generators.

Example

Remember that every vector space is actually a special type of module. In particular our good friend \mathbb{C}^n is a module. But when $n \geq 2$, \mathbb{C}^n is not cyclic, since its dimension is greater than 1.

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We now start to restrict our attention to modules over principle ideal domains. A PID is basically a ring where quotient structures are easily expressed which forces nice factorization properties. By restricting our attention we hope to... We now start to restrict our attention to modules over principle ideal domains. A PID is basically a ring where quotient structures are easily expressed which forces nice factorization properties. By restricting our attention we hope to...

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- Generalize more group structures.
- Develop decompositions for modules.

We now start to restrict our attention to modules over principle ideal domains. A PID is basically a ring where quotient structures are easily expressed which forces nice factorization properties. By restricting our attention we hope to...

- Generalize more group structures.
- Develop decompositions for modules.
- Set the groundwork for the development of canonical forms.

The Annihilator

An element in a group has an **order**. Here we extend this notion to modules

Definition

If M is R-module, and $m \in M$, then its **annihilator** is

 $ann(m) = \{r \in R : rm = 0\}.$

The Annihilator

An element in a group has an **order**. Here we extend this notion to modules

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$$\operatorname{ann}(m) = \{r \in R : rm = 0\}.$$

If $\operatorname{ann}(m) \neq \{0\}$ then we say m has a finite order, otherwise it has an infite order. Note that the annihilator forms an ideal, and using the first isomorphism theorem with the R-map $f: R \to \langle m \rangle$ where f(r) = rm we can derive $\langle m \rangle \cong R/\operatorname{ann}(m)$.

Torsion Submodules

Definition

If M is an R-module, and R is an integral domain, then its **torsion submodule** tM is defined by

 $tM = \{m \in M : m \text{ has finite order}\}\$

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Definition

If M is an R-module, and R is an integral domain, then its **torsion submodule** tM is defined by

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Definition

A module is **torsion** if tM = M and **torsion-free** if $tM = \{0\}$.

tM is a Torsion Submodule over an Integral Domain

Proposition

If R is an integral domain (a commutative ring where if ab = 0, a = 0 or b = 0) and M is an R-module, then tM is a submodule of M.

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Proposition

If R is an integral domain (a commutative ring where if ab = 0, a = 0 or b = 0) and M is an R-module, then tM is a submodule of M.

Proof.

All we must show is that tM is closed under both addition and scaler multiplication defined in M. Take $m, m' \in tM$, then there exists elements $r, r' \in R$ such that rm = 0 and rm' = 0. Now rr'(m + m') = 0. Since $rr' \neq 0$, (m + m') has a nonzero annihilator. Now take $s \in R$ and $m \in tM$, then again there is an R such that rm = 0. Now with some massaging

$$r(sm) = (rs)m = (sr)m = s(rm) = 0$$

so $sm \in tM$ as well.

V^T is Torsion

Recall our example V^T which formed a k[x]-module.

Proposition

Given a finite dimensional vector space V over a field k and a linear transformation $T: V \to V$, the k[x]-module V^T is torsion.

V^T is Torsion

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Proposition

Given a finite dimensional vector space V over a field k and a linear transformation $T: V \to V$, the k[x]-module V^T is torsion.

Proof.

We want to show that for any element in V^T , there is an element in its annihilator. Let the dimension of V = n and take $v \in V^T$, then the set $\{v, T(v), \ldots, T^n(v)\}$ must be linearly dependent. So there is a nontrivial solution using scalars a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n such that $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i T^i(v) = 0$. This implies the nonzero polynomial $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \in \operatorname{ann}(v)$

Splitting the Free and Torsion Parts

Definition

An R-module F is called a **free** R-module if F is isomorphic to a direct sum of multiple R's. More precisely, given an index set I

$$F = \sum_{i \in I} R_i$$

where $R_i = \langle b_i \rangle \cong R$ for all $i \in I$.

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Theorem (Separating Decomposition)

If R is a PID, the every finitely generated R-module M is a direct sum

 $M = tM \oplus F.$

Primary Decomposition of Modules

Definition

Let *R* be a PID and *M* be an *R*-module. If $P = \langle p \rangle$ is a non-zero prime ideal in *R*, then *M* is $\langle p \rangle$ -**primary** if for each $m \in M$, there is an $n \ge 1$ such that $p^n m = 0$. *M*'s $\langle p \rangle$ -primary **component** is

$$M_P = \{ m \in M : p^n m = 0 \text{ for some } n \ge 1 \}.$$
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$$M_P = \{ m \in M : p^n m = 0 \text{ for some } n \ge 1 \}.$$

Theorem (Primary Decomposition of Modules)

Every finitely generated torsion R module M, where R is a PID, is a direct sum of its P-primary components. Symbolically,

$$M = \sum_{P} M_{P}$$

Basis Theorem

Theorem

If R is a PID, then every finitely generated R-module M is a direct sum of cyclic modules in which each cyclic summand is isomorphic to R or is primary.

Basis Theorem

Theorem

If R is a PID, then every finitely generated R-module M is a direct sum of cyclic modules in which each cyclic summand is isomorphic to R or is primary.

Outline.

Given an R module, M...

- 1. First use our Separating Theorem to write $M = tM \oplus F$. All that matters now is tM.
- 2. Use our Primary Decomposition Theorem to write $tM = \sum_P M_P$.
- 3. Finish by showing each M_P is cyclic.

Isomorphic Modules have Isomorphic Components

Proposition

Two finitely generated torsion modules M and M' over a PID are isomorphic if and only if $M_P \cong M'_P$ for every nonzero prime ideal P.

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Proposition

Two finitely generated torsion modules M and M' over a PID are isomorphic if and only if $M_P \cong M'_P$ for every nonzero prime ideal P.

Proof.

(⇒) Let $f: M \to M'$ be an *R*-map. If we take $m \in M_P$ where $P = \langle p \rangle$, then $p^k m = 0$ for some $k \ge 1$. Now because *f* is an *R*-map,

$$p^k f(m) = f(p^k m) = f(0) = 0$$

which implies $p^k f(m) \in M'_P$ and $f(M_P) \subseteq M'_P$. Similarly $f^{-1}(M'_P) \subseteq M_P$ which shows that f restricted to M_P maps onto M'_P

Proof Continued

Proof.

(\Leftarrow) If we have $M_P = M'_P$ for all P, then we can define an isomorphism between M and M' using our Primary Decomposition Theorem. Let ϕ_P denote an isomorphism between M_P and $M_{P'}$, then $\phi: M \to M'$ defined as

$$\phi(m) = \phi\left(\sum_{P} M_{P}\right) = \sum_{P} \phi_{P}(M_{P})$$

is an isomorphism.

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The Fundemental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups

Theorem (Judson: Fundemental Theorem of Finitely Generated Abelian Groups)

Every Finitely generated abelian group G is isomorphic to a direct product of cyclic groups of the form

$$\mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{\alpha_1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{\alpha_2}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_n^{\alpha_n}} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}$$

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This theorem follows as a corollary from the Basis Theorem if we let our R be \mathbb{Z} and let our scaler multiplication be exponentiation. Introduction Defining a Module Module Properties Modules Over Principle Ideal Domains Conclusion Refe

The End

The End!

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- 2 Abstract Algebra theory and applications by Thomas Judson
- 3 Rational Canonical Form by Glenna Toomey