# Math 800 Commutative Algebra Notes: September 11

### **Brad Jones**

#### December 9, 2013

# 1 Universal algebra (con't)

Last time we saw the three isomorphism theorems for universal algebra. Now we shall translate them into their ring theory counterparts:

The first isomorphism theorem is straightforward to translate:

**Theorem 1.1** (1<sup>st</sup> isomorphism theorem for rings). Let  $f: A \to B$  be a homomorphism of rings. Then there exists an injective map  $g: {}^{A}/Ker(f) \to B$  such that:

$$\begin{array}{c}
A \longrightarrow B \\
\nu \searrow f \\
g \\
A/Ker(f)
\end{array}$$

commutes and if f is onto then g is onto.

The second states:

**Theorem 1.2** (2<sup>nd</sup> isomorphism theorem for rings). Let A be a ring and I and J be ideals of A with  $J \subseteq I$  then

$$(A/J)/(I/J) \cong A/I$$
.

In particular there is a bijection between the set of ideals of A/I and the set of ideals of A containing I.

Now we shall show how this relates to the  $2^{nd}$  isomorphism theorem for universal algebra.

For a ring A and  $\theta$  a congruence over A we consider  $I = \{0\}/\theta$ . Take  $a, b \in I$  then  $a\theta 0$  and  $b\theta 0$  so  $(a + b)\theta 0$  and  $a + b \in I$ . Also if  $a \in I$  and  $r \in R$  then  $a\theta 0$  and  $r\theta r$  so  $ra\theta 0$  and  $ra \in I$ . Therefore I is an ideal.

Conversely if I is an ideal we can define  $\theta$  by  $a\theta b$  if and only if  $a - b \in \theta$ . It can then be shown that  $\theta$  is a congruence.

To translate the 3<sup>rd</sup> we need to translate  $\theta|_B$  and  $B^{\theta}$  for a subring, B, of A and congruence,  $\theta$ , of A.

Taking  $I = \{0\}/\theta$ , we can see that  $I \cap B = \{0\}/\theta|_B$ .

By definition  $B^{\theta}$  is the set of all equivalence classes of A which contain an element of B. This means we want all the elements in each b+I for  $b \in B$ . In other words  $B^{\theta}=B+I$ .

We also note that  $\{0\}/\theta|_{B^{\theta}} = \{0\}/\theta$  because we only took whole equivalence classes.

So we get:

**Theorem 1.3** (3<sup>rd</sup> isomorphism theorem for rings). Let A be a ring, I be an ideal of A and B be a subring of A then

$$B/I \cap B \cong B+I/I$$
.

### 2 Modules

**Definition 2.1.** Let R be a ring. A *left R-module* is an abelian group (M, +) and a product  $R \times M \to M$  satisfying

- 1a = a
- $(r_1r_2)a = r_1(r_2a)$
- $\bullet$   $(r_1+r_2)a=r_1a+r_2a$
- r(a+b) = ra + rb

Some examples:

**Example 2.2.** If R happens to be a field then a left R-module is a vector over R.

**Example 2.3.** If  $M \subseteq R$  then M is a left R-module if and only if M is a left ideal.

**Example 2.4.** Abelian groups are  $\mathbb{Z}$  modules by defining

$$ng = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g & \text{if } n > 0\\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-g) & \text{if } n < 0\\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0. \end{cases}$$

**Example 2.5.** If R is a subring of S then S is a left R-module by using multiplication in S.

We can see that R-modules are algebraic structures in the view of universal algebra. Take  $(M, +, -0, \{m_r\}_{r \in R})$  together with the axioms for Abelian groups and the four axioms in Definition 2.1. This gives us the definition for *submodule* and module *homomorphism*, *isomorphism*, *epimorphism* and *homomorphism*. We also know that the three isomorphism theorems hold.

Note: We shall write  $N \leq M$  to mean that an R-module, N, is a submodule of an R-module, M.

The three isomorphism theorems for modules are:

**Theorem 2.6** (1<sup>st</sup> isomorphism theorem for modules). Let  $f: M \to N$  be a homomorphism of R-modules then there exists an injective map  $g: M/Ker(f) \to N$  and if f is onto then g is onto.

**Theorem 2.7** (2<sup>nd</sup> isomorphism theorem for modules). Let A, B, C be R-modules with  $C \leq \leq B \leq A$  then

$$(A/C)/(B/C) \cong A/B$$
.

**Theorem 2.8** (3<sup>rd</sup> isomorphism theorem for modules). Let A, B, C be R-modules with  $B \leq A$  and  $C \leq A$  then

$$B/B \cap C \cong B + C/C$$
.

If  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are R-modules then so are  $M_1 + M_2$  and  $M_1 \cap M_2$ .

If  $\{M_i\}_{i\in I}$  is a chain of submodules of M then  $\cup_{i\in I}M_i$  is a submodule of M.

**Definition 2.9.** Let  $\{M_i\}_{i\in I}$  be a collection of submodules of M. Define  $\sum_{i\in I} M_i$  to be the set of all finite sums of elements of the  $M_i$ .

We can see that  $\sum_{i \in I} M_i$  is a submodule of M and also that  $\sum_{i \in I} M_i$  is the smallest submodule of M containing all every  $M_i$ .

**Definition 2.10.** Let R be a ring and M an R-module. For any  $a \in M$  there is an R-module homomorphism:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
f_a: & R & \to & M \\
& r & \to & ra
\end{array}$$

## 3 Exact sequences and commutative diagrams

**Definition 3.1.** A sequence of homomorphism of modules:

$$\cdots \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow \cdots$$

is exact at B if f(A) = Ker(g).

A sequence is exact if it is exact at each intermediate module.

Example 3.2.

$$O \to A \xrightarrow{f} B$$

is exact if and only if 0 = Ker(f), meaning f is a monomorphism.

Example 3.3.

$$A \xrightarrow{f} B \to 0$$

is exact if and only if f(A) = B, meaning f is an epimorphism.

Example 3.4.

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B \to 0$$

is exact if and only if it is exact at A and exact at B, meaning f is an isomorphism.

**Definition 3.5.** A exact sequence of the form:

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \to 0$$

is called a short exact sequence.

For a short exact sequence

$$0 \to A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \to 0$$

- $\bullet$  exactness at A means that f is a monomorphism,
- $\bullet$  exactness at C means that g is an epimorphism and
- exactness at B means that f(A) = Ker(g).

This means by the 1<sup>st</sup> isomorphism theorem that B/f(A) = B/Ker(g) = C.

**Example 3.6.** Let X, V, W be vector spaces and

$$0 \to V \xrightarrow{f} W \xrightarrow{g} X \to 0$$

be exact. Let A be the matrix of f(f(v) = Av) and Let B be the matrix of g(g(w) = Aw).

Then  $\operatorname{Col}(A) = \operatorname{Nul}(B)$ . Since  $\dim(\operatorname{Col}(A)) = \operatorname{rank}(A) = \dim(f(V)) = \dim(V)$  and  $\dim(\operatorname{Nul}(B)) = \operatorname{nullity}(B)$ , we have  $\operatorname{nullity}(B) = \dim(V)$ . By the rank-nullity theorem we have that  $\operatorname{nullity}(B) + \operatorname{rank}(B) = \dim(W)$ . Since  $\operatorname{frank}(B) = \dim(\operatorname{Col}(B)) = \dim(g(W)) = \dim(X)$  we have that

$$\dim(W) = \dim(V) + \dim(X).$$

Now we will look at commutative diagrams which are a kind of arrow picture.

A commutative diagram is a digraph with a module at each vertex, a homomorphism compatible with each of its endpoints' modules for each directed edge and for any two paths between from vertex M to vertex N, the composition of homomorphism along each path give the same homomorphism.

**Example 3.7.** Consider the diagram:

$$M \xrightarrow{f} N$$

$$h \downarrow \qquad \downarrow g$$

$$U \xrightarrow{j} V$$

If the diagram above commutes then  $g \circ f = j \circ h$ . **Example 3.8.** Another example of a commutative diagram is the diagram in the 1<sup>st</sup> isomorphism theorem.

$$\begin{array}{c}
A \xrightarrow{f} B \\
\nu \setminus g \\
A/\text{Ker}(f)
\end{array}$$