

Lecture 3. Rings, ideals & modules III.

1) Prime ideals, continued

2) Modules & homomorphisms.

References: [AM], Chapter 1, Section 4; Chapter 2, Sections 1, 4.

BONUS: Non-commutative counterparts, 3.

1) Prime ideals, continued

Here's a motivation to care about prime ideals from Number theory.
Let A be a domain.

Def: • an element $a \in A$ is called **irreducible** if it's not invertible and $a = a_1 a_2 \Rightarrow$ one of a_i is invertible.

• $p \in A$ is called **prime** if (p) is prime, i.e. $ab \in (p) \Rightarrow a \in (p)$ or $b \in (p)$.

Exercise: $(a) = (b) \Leftrightarrow \exists$ invertible $\varepsilon \in A$ s.t. $b = \varepsilon a$.

• $\text{prime} \Rightarrow \text{irreducible}$

• TFAE: (i) $\forall$ irreducible element is prime

(ii) A is a UFD (unique factorization domain), i.e. $\forall a \in A \exists$ irreducible elements $a_1, \dots, a_k$ w. $a = a_1 \dots a_k$ unique up to permutation & multiplication by invertible elts.

Examples (of UFD): $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$, $\mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ ($\mathbb{F}$ is field), $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}]$.

Non-example: $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$: $2, 3, 1 \pm \sqrt{-5}$ are irreducible with
 $2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$.

An especially important case for Number theory is when A is a "ring of algebraic integers" (to be defined later in the course). Examples of such include $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ ($d \equiv 2$ or $3 \pmod{4}$) where d is square free (case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ requires a modification to be explained later)

A very important observation, due to Dedekind, is that while the unique factorization in a ring of algebraic integers (and somewhat more general rings now called Dedekind domains) may fail on the level of elements, it always holds on the level of ideals: every nonzero ideal uniquely decomposes as the product of nonzero prime ($\Leftrightarrow$, for these rings, maximal) ideals. So the failure of being UFD is the failure of ideals to be principal.

2) Modules & homomorphisms.

2.1) Definitions (of modules & homomorphisms).

A is a commutative ring.

Definitions:

1) By an A -module we mean abelian group M together w. map $A \times M \rightarrow M$ (multiplication or action map) s.t. the

2

following axioms hold:

- Associativity: $(ab)m = a(bm) \in M$
 - Distributivity: $(a+b)m = am + bm$,
 $a(m+m') = am + am' \in M$
 - Unit: $1m = m \in M$
- $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{• Associativity: } (ab)m = a(bm) \in M \\ \text{• Distributivity: } (a+b)m = am + bm, \\ \text{ } a(m+m') = am + am' \in M \end{array} \right\} \forall a, b \in A, m, m' \in M.$

2) Let M, N be A -modules. A **homomorphism** (a.k.a. **A -linear map**) is (abelian) group homomorphism $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ s.t.
 $\forall a \in A, m \in M \Rightarrow \psi(am) = a\psi(m).$

2.2) Examples.

0) $A = \mathbb{Z}$. Then $A \times M \rightarrow M$ can be recovered from $+$ in M , thx to unit & distributivity. So $\mathbb{Z}$ -module = abelian group. And a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module homomorphism is the same thing as group homomorphism.

1) If A is a field, then A -module = vector space over A , and homomorphism = linear map.

For the next examples & also below, we will need:

Observation: Let $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ be a ring homomorphism.

I) If M is a B -module, then we can view M as A -

module w. $A \times M \rightarrow M$ given by $(a, m) \mapsto \varphi(a)m$. Every B -linear map $M \rightarrow N$ is also A -linear.

II) If $B = A/I$ & φ is proj'n $\pi: A \twoheadrightarrow A/I$ then a B -module = A -module, where I acts by 0 ($am = 0 \ \forall m \in M, a \in I$).
 Let M, N be B -modules; $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ is A -linear ($\Leftrightarrow \psi(\pi(a)m) = \pi(a)\psi(m) \ \forall a \in A, m \in M \Leftrightarrow \psi(bm) = b\psi(m) \ \forall b \in B, m \in M \Leftrightarrow B$ -linear).

2) Modules vs linear algebra

i) $A = \mathbb{F}[x]$ ($\mathbb{F}$ is field)

By Observation I applied to $\mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}[x]$, every $\mathbb{F}[x]$ -module is $\mathbb{F}$ -module = vector space; $xm = X_m$ for an $\mathbb{F}$ -linear operator $X: M \rightarrow M$; from X we can recover $\mathbb{F}[x]$ -module str'ure

$$f(x)m = [f(X): M \rightarrow M] = f(X)m.$$

So $\mathbb{F}[x]$ -module = $\mathbb{F}$ -vector space w. a linear operator.

An $\mathbb{F}[x]$ -module homomorphism $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ is the same thing as a linear map $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ s.t. $X_N \circ \psi = \psi \circ X_M$, where $X_M: M \rightarrow M$, $X_N: N \rightarrow N$ are operators coming from x .

ii) $A = \mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. An A -module = vector space w. n operators $X_1, \dots, X_n$ (coming from $x_1, \dots, x_n$) s.t. $X_i X_j = X_j X_i \ \forall i, j$.

iii) $A = \mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n] / (G_1, \dots, G_k)$, $G_i \in \mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Use of Observation II w. $\mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \twoheadrightarrow A$ shows that A -module

= $\mathbb{F}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ -module s.t. $(G_1, \dots, G_k)$ acts by 0 = $\mathbb{F}$ -vector space w. n commuting operators $X_1, \dots, X_n$ s.t. $G_i(X_1, \dots, X_n) = 0$ as operators $M \rightarrow M \ \forall i = 1, \dots, k$.

3) Any ring B is a module over itself (via multiplication $B \times B \rightarrow B$). This is often called the **regular module**.

2.3) A -algebras.

Definition: • Let L, M, N be A -modules. A map $\beta: L \times M \rightarrow N$ is called **A -bilinear** if it's A -linear in both arguments:

$\beta(l+l', m) = \beta(l, m) + \beta(l', m)$, $\beta(al, m) = a\beta(l, m) \ \forall l, l' \in L, a \in A, m \in M$.
& similarly in the m -argument

• Let A be a commutative ring. By an **A -algebra** we mean an A -module B w. A -bilinear map $B \times B \rightarrow B$ that is a ring multiplication (in particular, B is a ring).

Note that we have $1_B \in B$ & $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$, $\varphi(a) := a1_B$ is ring homomorphism. Conversely, if B is commutative & $\varphi: A \rightarrow B$ is a ring homomorphism, then (by Ex 3 & Observation I), B is A -module & mult'n $B \times B \rightarrow B$ is A -bilinear. So B is an A -algebra. Details are an **exercise**.

Usually, when B is obtained from A using some construction,

it becomes an A -algebra. E.g. A/I & $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are A -algebras.

2.4) Constructions with modules: Direct sums & products.

M_1, M_2 A -modules $\leadsto$

$M_1 \oplus M_2$ (direct sum) = $M_1 \times M_2$ (direct product) = product

$M_1 \times M_2$ as abelian groups w. $a(m_1, m_2) := (am_1, am_2)$.

More generally, for a set I (possibly infinite) & modules $M_i, i \in I$, define direct product $\prod_{i \in I} M_i = \{(m_i)_{i \in I} \mid m_i \in M_i\}$ w. componentwise operations.

Direct sum: $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i = \{(m_i)_{i \in I} \mid \text{only fin. many } m_i \neq 0\}$

Have A -module inclusion:

$$\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i \hookrightarrow \prod_{i \in I} M_i$$

which is an isomorphism $\Leftrightarrow M_i \neq \{0\}$ only for finitely many i .

BONUS: Noncommutative counterparts, part 3.

B1) Prime & completely prime ideals: For a comm'v ring A & an ideal $\mathfrak{p} \subset A$ we have two equivalent conditions:

- For $a, b \in \mathfrak{p}$: $ab \in \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow a \in \mathfrak{p}$ or $b \in \mathfrak{p}$
- For ideals $I, J \subset A$: $IJ \subset \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow I \subset \mathfrak{p}$ or $J \subset \mathfrak{p}$.

For noncommutative A and a two-sided ideal $\mathfrak{p}$, these conditions are no longer equivalent.

Definition: Let A be a ring and $\mathfrak{p} \subset A$ be a two-sided ideal.

- We say $\mathfrak{p}$ is **prime** if for two-sided ideals $I, J \subset \mathfrak{p}$, have $IJ \subset \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow I \subset \mathfrak{p}$ or $J \subset \mathfrak{p}$.

- We say $\mathfrak{p}$ is **completely prime** if for $a, b \in A$, have $ab \in \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow a \in \mathfrak{p}, b \in \mathfrak{p}$.

completely prime $\Rightarrow$ prime but not vice versa.

Exercise: 1) $\{0\} \subset \text{Mat}_n(\mathbb{F})$ is prime but not completely prime (if $n > 1$).

2) $\{0\} \subset \text{Weyl}_1 (= \mathbb{F}\langle x, y \rangle / (yx - xy - 1))$ is completely prime.

B2) Modules over noncommutative rings. Here we have left & right modules & also bimodules. Let A be a ring.

Definition: • A **left A -module** M is an abelian group w. multiplication map $A \times M \rightarrow M$ subject to the same axioms as in the commutative case.

- A **right A -module** is a similar thing but with multiplication map $M \times A \rightarrow M$ subject to associativity $((ma)b = m(ab))$, distributivity & unit axioms.

- An **A -bimodule** is an abelian group M equipped w. left & right A -module structures s.t. we have another associativity axiom: $(am)b = a(mb) \forall a, b \in A$.

When A is commutative, there's no difference between left & right modules and any such module is also a bimodule. Note also that for two a priori different rings A, B we can talk about A - B -bimodules.

Example: 1) A is an A -bimodule.

2) $\mathbb{F}^n$ (the space of columns) is a left $\text{Mat}_n(\mathbb{F})$ -module, while its dual $(\mathbb{F}^n)^*$ (the space of rows) is a right $\text{Mat}_n(\mathbb{F})$ -module. None of these has a bimodule structure.

Exercise: Construct a left Weyl_1 -module structure on $\mathbb{F}[x]$ (hint: y acts as $\frac{d}{dx}$).