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د. حاتم + د. نسيه

الفصل السابع

Chapter Seven

حلقة الحدوديات

Chapter Seven

"Polynomial Ring"

7

Def: Let R be any ring

Let $S = \{ f(x) : f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in R \}$

or $\{ f(x) : f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i, a_i \in R, \forall i \leq n \}$

Any $f(x) \in S$ is called polynomial over R . Define $+$ as by:-

Let $f(x), g(x) \in S$; $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i, a_i \in R, a_i = 0 \forall i > n$

$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i, b_i \in R, b_i = 0 \forall i > m$

1) $f(x) + g(x) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^t c_i x^i \right) \in S$ where $c_i = a_i + b_i$

$\forall i = 0, 1, \dots, t, c_i = 0 \forall i > \max\{n, m\}$

2) $f(x) \cdot g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^t c_k x^k, c_k = 0 \forall k > n+m$ where

$$c_0 = a_0 b_0$$

$$c_1 = a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0$$

$$c_2 = a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0$$

$$c_3 = a_0 b_3 + a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 + a_3 b_0$$

$$c_t = a_0 b_t + a_1 b_{t-1} + a_2 b_{t-2} + \dots + a_t b_0$$

or $c_s = \sum_{i+j=s} a_i b_j \quad i, j \geq 0$

(47)

Notice that $+$, $\cdot$ are closed on S .

Ex:- Let $f(x), g(x)$ be two polynomials over Z_4 where $f(x) = 3 + x$, $g(x) = 1 - x + x^2$

$$f(x) = 3 + x, \quad a_0 = 3, \quad a_1 = 1, \quad a_2 = a_3 = \dots = a_n = 0$$

$$g(x) = 1 - x + x^2, \quad b_0 = 1, \quad b_1 = -1 = 3 \pmod{4}, \quad b_2 = 1$$

$$b_3 = b_4 = \dots = b_n = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) + g(x) &= (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)x + (a_2 + b_2)x^2 \\ &= (1 + 3) + (1 + 3)x + (0 + 1)x^2 \\ &= x^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$f(x) \cdot g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k x^k, \quad \text{where } c_0 = a_0 b_0 = 3 \cdot 1 = 3$$

$$c_1 = a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0 = 3 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 1 = 2 \Rightarrow c_1 x = 2x$$

$$c_2 = a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0 = 3 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 1 = 2$$

$$c_3 = a_0 b_3 + a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1 + a_3 b_0 = 3 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 0 = 1$$

$$c_4 = a_0 b_4 + a_1 b_3 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_0 = 0$$

Similarly

$$\text{Since, } c_5 = c_6 = 0$$

$$\therefore f(x) \cdot g(x) = 3 + 2x + 2x^2 + x^3 \text{ which is poly. over } Z_4$$

Note:-

If R is a ring, then $S = \{f(x) : f(x) \text{ is a poly over } R\}$ is denoted by $R[x]$.

Show that $(R[x], +, \cdot)$ is a ring.

① $+$ and $\cdot$ are closed on $R[x]$.

② If $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x^i$, $g(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i x^i$

$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^t (a_i + b_i) x^i, \quad t \leq \max(n, m)$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^t (b_i + a_i) x^i = \sum_{i=0}^m b_i x^i + \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i = g(x) + f(x)$$

$+$ is comm.

③ $+$ is asso. on $R[x]$.

④ let $h(x) = 0$; $h(x) \in R[x]$

and $h(x) + f(x) = f(x)$, then $h(x)$ = additive identity of $R[x]$.

⑤ If $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$, let $(-f)(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-a_i) x^i$

⑥ $f(x) + [(-f)(x)] = 0 = h(x)$

$\therefore -f(x)$ is the additive inverse of $f(x)$

• asso. on $R[x]$.

• dist. over $+$ on $R[x]$.

$\therefore R[x]$ is a ring.

Remark

- ① If R is comm. ring, then $R[x]$ is comm. ring.
- ② If R has unity 1, then $R[x]$ has unity ($0(x)=1$)

Definition:

Let $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i \in R[x]$, $f(x) \neq \text{Zero poly}$

a_n is called the leading coefficient

- If $a_n \neq 0$, then $f(x)$ has degree n

- If $f(x) = a$ ($a \in R$), $f(x)$ is called constant poly. of degree zero where $a \neq 0$

- If $f(x) = 0$, we shall assign no degree for $f(x)$.

Theorem "1.1.1"

Let R be an integral domain, $f(x), g(x)$ non zero polys in $R[x]$ then:

- ① $\deg(f(x)g(x)) = \deg f(x) + \deg g(x) = n + m$
- ② either $f(x) + g(x) = 0$ or $\deg(f(x) + g(x)) \leq \max(\deg f(x), \deg g(x))$

proof

① let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n$ is non-zero poly.

$a_n \neq 0$, i.e. deg $f(x) = n$ is finite

Let $g(x) = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_mx^m$ is a non-zero poly.

$b_m \neq 0$, i.e. deg $g(x) = m$ is finite

Notice $a_i = 0 \quad \forall i > n$

$b_i = 0 \quad \forall i > m$

$$f(x) \cdot g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C_k x^k, \text{ where } C_0 = a_0 b_0, C_1 = a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0$$

$$C_{m+n} = \underbrace{a_0 b_{m+n}}_{=0} + \underbrace{a_1 b_{m+n-1}}_{=0} + \dots + \underbrace{a_n b_m}_{=0''} + \underbrace{a_{n+1} b_{m-1}}_{=0''} + \dots + \underbrace{a_{n+m} b_0}_{=0''}$$

$$C_{m+n} = a_n b_m \neq 0 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Since } a_n, b_m \in R, a_n \neq 0, b_m \neq 0 \text{ and } R \\ \text{has no zero divisor} \end{array} \right)$$

$$C_{n+m+1} = \underbrace{a_0 b_{n+m+1}}_{=0} + \underbrace{a_1 b_{n+m}}_{=0} + \dots + \underbrace{a_n b_{m+1}}_{=0} + \underbrace{a_{n+1} b_m}_{=0} + \dots + \underbrace{a_{n+m+1} b_0}_{=0}$$

$$\text{Since } C_{n+m+s} = 0 \quad \forall s \geq 1$$

$$\therefore \deg(f(x) \cdot g(x)) = n+m = \deg f(x) + \deg g(x)$$

Corollary 2.11

If R is an integral domain, then $R[x]$ is an integral domain

Proof

R is an integral domain $\Rightarrow R$ is comm. ring with unity and R has no zero divisor.

Since R is comm. ring with unity $\Rightarrow R[X]$ is comm. ring with unity.

Let $f(x), g(x) \in R[X]$, $f(x) \neq 0$, $g(x) \neq 0$

① Let $f(x) = a_0 \neq 0$, $g(x) = b_0 \neq 0$

Then $f(x)g(x) = a_0b_0 \neq 0$ since R has no zero divisor.

② Let $f(x), g(x)$ are non-zero poly. of degrees n, m respectively then $f(x)g(x)$ is poly of degree $(n+m)$

and $f(x)g(x) \neq 0$. Thus $R[X]$ has no zero divisor.

$\therefore R[X]$ is an integral domain.

Theorem

The Division Algorithm

~~is a well defined algorithm~~

Let R be a comm. ring with unity and $f(x), g(x)$ are non-zero poly's in $R[X]$ such that the leading coefficient of $g(x)$ is an invertible element in R . Then there exists a unique poly's $q(x), r(x)$ in $R[X]$ such that

$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$ where $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$

ooo ————— ooo

Example

let $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ and $g(x) = 4x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x]$

Divide $f(x)$ by $g(x)$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4x + 1 \overline{) x^3 + 2x + 1} \\
 \underline{-(x^3 + 4x^2)} \\
 3x^2 + 2x + 1 \\
 \underline{-(3x^2 + 3x + 3)} \\
 -x + 4 \\
 \underline{-(x + 4)} \\
 -1
 \end{array}$$

$\therefore f(x) = g(x)(4x^2 - x + 2) + (-1)$
 $\quad \quad \quad \text{divisor} \quad \quad \text{quotient} \quad \quad \text{remainder}$

Corollary (Remainder theorem)

let R be a comm ring with unity. $f, g \in R[x]$
 $a \in R$. Then $\exists! q(x) \in R[x]$ s.t. $f(x) = (x-a)q(x) + f(a)$

proof:

$f(x), (x-a) \in R[x]$, then by Div. Alg, $\exists! q(x), r(x)$

$\in R[x]$ s.t. $f(x) = (x-a)q(x) + r(x)$ where $r(x) = 0$ or

$\deg(r(x)) < \deg(x-a) = 1$

$\therefore r(x) = 0$ or $\deg r(x) < 1$, then $r(x)$ is Constant poly.

$\therefore r(x) = c$ for some $c \in R$

$$f(x) = (x-a)q(x) + c$$

دفعه x الى a

$$f(a) = (a-a)q(a) + c = c \Rightarrow f(a) = c$$

Thus $f(x) = (x-a)q(x) + f(a)$

Example

$$f(x) = 2x^4 + 5x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_6[x]$$

$a = 4 \in \mathbb{Z}_6$ is

$$\therefore 2x^4 + 5x^2 + 1 = (x-4)q(x) + f(4)$$

$$f(4) = 2 \cdot 4^4 + 5 \cdot 4^2 + 1 = 5$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 4 \\ x-4 \overline{) 2x^4 + 5x^2 + 1} \\ \underline{+ 2x^4} \quad \underline{+ 2x^3} \\ 2x^3 + 5x^2 + 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x^3 + 5x^2 + 1 \\ \underline{+ 2x^3} \quad \underline{+ 2x^2} \\ 3x^2 + 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 + 1 \\ \underline{+ x^2} \quad \underline{+ 4x} \\ 4x + 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 4x + 1 \\ \underline{+ 4x} \quad \underline{+ 4} \\ 5 \end{array}$$

اذن الباقي هو 5

5 وهو يعقل في $\mathbb{Z}_6$

Definition

If $f(x) \in R[x]$, then

① $a \in R \wedge f(a) = 0$, then a is called a root of $f(x)$.

② $\forall f, g(x) \in R[x]$

$f(x)$ divide $g(x)$ ($f(x) | g(x)$) means $\exists k(x) \in R[x]$ st.
 $g(x) = k(x)f(x)$.

Theorem Factorization theorem

The poly $f(x) \in R[x]$ is division by $(x-a)$ (where $a \in R$)
 $\iff a$ is a root of $f(x)$.

Proof $(x-a) | f(x) \iff f(x) = (x-a)k(x)$ for some $k(x) \in R[x]$
 $\iff f(a) = 0 \implies a$ is a root of $f(x)$.

Example let $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_3[x]$

1 is a root of $f(x)$, since $f(1) = 1^3 + 1^2 + 1 = 0$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 + 2x + 2 \\ x-1 \overline{) x^3 + x^2 + 1} \\ \underline{-x^3 + x^2} \\ 2x + 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x^2 + 1 \\ 2x-1 \overline{) 2x^2 + 2x} \\ \underline{-2x^2 + 2x} \\ 2 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore f(x) = (x-1)(x^2 + 2x + 2)$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x + 1 \\ 2x-1 \overline{) 2x + 2} \\ \underline{-2x + 2} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Examples

- ① $f(x) = x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ has no root.
- ② $f(x) = x^2 - 4 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has two distinct roots
أشياء مختلفة
- ③ $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 + x - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has only one root which is 1
- ④ $f(x) = x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ has two roots which are 1, 4
يقعون عن 1 و 4 فكلت الناتج ليعرف

Theorem :- let $(R, +, \cdot)$ be an integral domain and $f(x) \in R[x]$ be a non-zero of deg n . Then $f(x)$ at most n distinct roots
أشياء

proof البرهان بالأساسية الحثية The proof is by induction

if $f(x) = ax + b$, a is an invertible element, then ba^{-1} is a root of $f(x)$, since $a(-ba^{-1}) + b = 0$

inv. x يكون a^{-1} من الدرجة الأولى يكون
Suppose any poly. of deg $(n-1)$

if a is a root of $f(x)$, then $f(x) = (x-a)g(x)$

Hence $\deg(g(x)) = n-1$

$$n = \deg f(x) = \deg(x-a) + \deg g(x)$$

" 1 "

$\therefore \deg g(x) = n-1$. But $g(x)$ has at most $(n-1)$ distinct roots say $a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$. Thus $f(x) = (x-a)(x-a_1)\dots(x-a_{n-1})$
 $= f(x)$ has at most n distinct roots. $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{g(x)}$

Example : let $f(x) = x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x]$

0 is not root of $f(x)$, since $f(0) = 1 \neq 0$

1 is root of $f(x)$, since $f(1) = 0$

2 is not root of $f(x)$

لدينا في السطر الثالثه فوجدنا
يوجد لها ثلاثة جذور

3 = = = = =

4 is root of $f(x)$

$\therefore 1, 4$ are two root of $f(x)$
أي أن 1 و 4 هما جذور $f(x)$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 + 4 \\ x-1 \overline{) x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x + 1} \\ \underline{x^3 + x^2} \\ 3x^2 + 4x + 1 \\ \underline{3x^2 + 3x} \\ x + 1 \\ \underline{x + 4} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore f(x) = (x-1)(x-4)(\quad)$$

$$\therefore f(x) = (x-1)(x^2 + 4)$$

$K(x)$

1 is root of $K(x)$

4 = = = = =

$$x^2 + 4 = K(x) = (x-1)(x-4) \Rightarrow f(x) = (x-1)(x-1)(x-4)$$

$K(x)$

Theorem :

If F is a field then $F[x]$ is a P.I.D.

proof

F is field $\rightarrow F$ is an integral domain

$$\Rightarrow F[x] = = =$$

let I be any ideal in $F[x]$. To prove I is P.I.
 If $I = \{0\} \Rightarrow I$ is P.I.

$I \neq \{0\}$, we choose a poly. $p(x)$ in I , $p(x) \neq 0$ with lowest deg. we claim that $I = \text{id}(p(x))$. To prove that $\text{id}(p(x)) \subseteq I$. For any $f(x) \in \text{id}(p(x))$

$$\therefore f(x) = k(x) \underbrace{p(x)}_{\in I} \in I \Rightarrow \text{id}(p(x)) \subseteq I$$

for any $g(x) \in I$. To prove $I \subseteq \text{id}(p(x))$

then by division Alg. $\exists s(x), r(x) \in F[x] \ni g(x) = s(x)p(x) + r(x)$

where $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg r(x) < \deg p(x)$

$$\therefore r(x) = \underbrace{g(x)}_{\in I} - \underbrace{s(x)p(x)}_{\in I} \Rightarrow r(x) \in I$$

So, if $\deg r(x) < \deg p(x)$, we get $r(x) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow g(x) = s(x)p(x) \in \text{id}(p(x))$$

$$\therefore I \subseteq \text{id}(p(x)). \text{ Therefore } I = \text{id}(p(x))$$

Corollary: $R[x], Q[x], Z[x], C[x]$ are PID.

Corollary: let F be any field. Then any non-trivial ideal in $F[x]$ is prime $\iff$ it is max.

proof F is field $\Rightarrow F[x]$ is PID, so a non-trivial ideal in PID is prime $\iff$ it is max

Example show that $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not PID.

let $I = \{a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n, a_i \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

I is not max (problem)

$\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is not PID.

Definition

let $f(x)$ be a non-zero and non-constant poly $R[x]$, $f(x)$ is called reducible, if $\exists g(x), h(x)$ (non-constant poly's) s.t. $f(x) = h(x)g(x)$.

$f(x)$ is called irreducible if it is not reducible.

Example

① let $f(x) = x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$
It is irreducible $\checkmark$

② let $f(x) = x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}_5[x] = (x+1)(x+4)$

$f(x)$ is reducible $\checkmark$

Remark: let F be any field, $f(x) \in F[x]$, $\deg f(x) = 1$
If $f(x) = ax + b$, then $f(x)$ has root $(-ba^{-1})$

Remark: let $f(x) \in F[x]$, $\deg f(x) \geq 1$. If

$f(x)$ has a root $\Rightarrow f(x)$ is reducible

Proof: If a is a root of $f(x)$

Ex: $f(x) = x^2 + 4$ has root $\pm 2i$
 $\mathbb{Z}[x]$

(53)

$$(x-a) \mid f(x) \Rightarrow \exists g(x) \in F[x] \text{ s.t. } f(x) = g(x)(x-a)$$

and $\deg g(x) \geq 1 \Rightarrow f(x)$ is reducible

Remark

$f(x)$ has a root, then $f(x)$ is reducible

$f(x)$ is irreducible $\Rightarrow f(x)$ has no root

Example : $f(x) = x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$
 $f(x)$ is irreducible $\Rightarrow f(x)$ has no roots

Remark : If $f(x)$ is reducible poly., then it is not

necessary that $f(x)$ has root.
 (ممكن ان يكون له جذور في حقل آخر غير حقلنا)

Example : let $f(x) = x^4 + 5x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$
 (نلاحظ اننا لا نتحقق من الجذور الحقيقية فقط)

$f(x)$ is reducible, since $f(x) = (x^2+1)(x^2+4)$.

But $f(x)$ has no root in $\mathbb{R}$ because $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, f(x) \geq 4$

i.e. $\nexists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f(x) = 0$

Remark : let F be any field, $f(x) \in F[x]$, $\deg f(x) = 2$

or 3. Then $f(x)$ has root $\Leftrightarrow f(x)$ is reducible.

Proof

$\Rightarrow$ (ممكن ان يكون له جذور في حقل آخر غير حقلنا)

$\Leftarrow$) If $\deg f(x) = 3$, $f(x)$ is reducible

$\Rightarrow \exists g(x), h(x)$ of poly's s.t. $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$

$$3 = \deg f(x) = \deg g(x) + \deg h(x)$$

$\Rightarrow \deg g(x) = 1, \deg h(x) = 2$ or $\deg g(x) = 2, \deg h(x) = 1$

Case ① $\deg g(x) = 1$ and $\deg h(x) = 2$

$$g(x) = ax + b, a \neq 0$$

$\Rightarrow g(x)$ has a root, $c = -b/a$ that is $g(c) = 0$

$$\text{Hence } f(c) = g(c)h(c) = 0 \cdot h(c) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow c$ is a root of $f(x)$

شبهاً في

Similarly Case ② $\deg f(x) = 2 \Rightarrow \deg g(x) = 1,$

$$\deg h(x) = 1$$

أو

Theorem: Let F be a field. Then the following are equivalent:

① $f(x)$ is irreducible poly. in $F[x]$

② $\text{id}(f(x))$ is max. (prime) ideal in $F[x]$

③ $F[x]/\text{id}(f(x))$ is a field.

proof ① $\Rightarrow$ ②

F is a field $\Rightarrow F[x]$ is a PID

Then any non trivial ideal in $F[x]$ is max $\iff$ it is Prime.
To prove that $I = \text{id}(f(x))$ is max.

Suppose $\exists$ ideal J in $F[x]$ s.t. $I \subsetneq J \subsetneq F[x]$.

Since $F[x]$ is PID, $\therefore \exists g(x) \in F[x]$ s.t.

$$\text{id}(g(x)) = J$$

$\therefore \text{id}(f(x)) \subsetneq \text{id}(g(x)) \subsetneq F[x]$, since $f(x) \in \text{id}(f(x))$

$$\therefore f(x) \in \text{id}(g(x)) \implies f(x) = h(x)g(x) \quad \begin{matrix} \xrightarrow{\text{if } x \in \text{id}(f(x))} \\ x = f(x) \end{matrix}$$

q.p. $h(x) = c \neq 0$ (Constant)

$$\therefore f(x) = cg(x) \implies g(x) = c^{-1}f(x) \in \text{id}(f(x))$$

$$\implies J = \text{id}(g(x)) \subseteq \text{id}(f(x)) \quad \text{C!}$$

Thus $h(x)$ is a poly of deg > 1

$$\therefore f(x) = h(x)g(x) \quad \text{C! وهذا يناقض الفرض عليه وإلا!}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \implies \textcircled{3} \quad \text{id}(f(x)) \text{ is max ideal} \implies F[x]/\text{id}(f(x)) \text{ is field}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \implies \textcircled{1} \quad \text{C! Multiples}$$

$F[x]/\text{id}(f(x))$ field $\implies f(x)$ is irreducible in $F[x]$

Suppose $f(x)$ is reducible

$$\exists g(x), h(x) \in F[x] \text{ of positive degree s.t. } f(x) = g(x)h(x) \quad \text{C!}$$

$$\text{id}(f(x)) \subsetneq \text{id}(g(x)) \subsetneq F[x] \implies \text{id}(f(x)) \text{ is not max}$$

$$\therefore F[x]/\text{id}(f(x)) \text{ is not field C!}$$

الفصل الثامن

والتاسع

Chapter Eight and Nine

Chapter eight

- 55 -

"8"

مقدمة النظرية

Introduction to Galois theory

گالواس

في البداية سوف نذكر تعريف الحقل

Definition :

let $F \neq \emptyset$. Then $(F, +, \cdot)$ is called field if every element $a \in F$, a is an invertible element.

Examples : $(\mathbb{I}, +, \cdot)$, $(\mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$ و $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \cdot)$

$(\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}], +, \cdot)$, where $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$

Definition :

let $(F, +, \cdot)$, $(K, +, \cdot)$ be two fields s.t. $F \subseteq K$.
Then F is called a subfield of K .

Remark :

let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field and let $\emptyset \neq S \subseteq F$. Then
 $(S, +, \cdot)$ is a subfield of $F \iff$

- (1) $a - b \in S$
 - (2) $a \cdot b^{-1} \in S$
- } $\forall a, b \in S$

Example :

$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a subfield of $\mathbb{R}$

let $a + b\sqrt{2}$, $c + d\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$

$(a + b\sqrt{2}) - (c + d\sqrt{2}) = (a - c) + (b - d)\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$

$(a + b\sqrt{2}) \cdot (c + d\sqrt{2})^{-1} \in \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$

Definition: let F be a subfield of (the field) K . Then

K is called an extension of F .
توسيع

Definition:

let $f(x) \in F[x]$. Define

$$S(F, f) = \{K : K \text{ is an extension of } F \text{ and contains all roots of } f(x)\}.$$

And

$$R_L(F, f) = \bigcap \{K : K \in S(F, f)\}$$

Examples:

(1) let $f(x) = x^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$

$\pm\sqrt{2}$ are roots of $f(x)$

$$\therefore R_L(\mathbb{Q}, f) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{2} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

(2) let $f(x) = x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$

$\pm i$ are roots of $f(x)$

$$\therefore R_L(\mathbb{Q}, f) = \mathbb{Q}[i] = \{a + ib : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

Definition: let K be an extension of a field F . K is called a normal extension of F , if $\exists$

$$f(x) \in F[x] \text{ s.t. } R_L(F, f) = K.$$

Ex 8-

$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a normal extension of $\mathbb{Q}$

since $\exists f(x) = x^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \ni R_L(\mathbb{Q}, f) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$

Definition : poly. القابلة للحل بواسطة الجذور
تعريف : كثير الحدود الذي يمكن حله بواسطة الجذور

let $f(x) \in F[x]$, $K = R_L(F, f)$

$f(x)$ is called solvable by radical if $\exists$ a finite sequence
قابلة للحل بواسطة الجذور

$$F = L_0 \subseteq L_1 \subseteq L_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq L_n = K$$

اصغر
مقل جزئي
على الشكل

where $L_i = R_L(L_{i-1}, f_i)$, $f_i(x) = x^{n_i} - a_i$

Example : let $f(x) = ax + b \in F[x]$, $a \neq 0$

$$x = -\frac{b}{a} \text{ جذر الدالة}$$

$$L_0 = R_L(F, f) = \mathbb{Q}$$

$$F = L_0 = R_L(F, f) = \mathbb{Q}$$

$f(x)$ is solvable by radical

Example : - let $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$\mathbb{Q} = L_0 \subseteq L_1 = R_L(\mathbb{Q}, f_1) \text{ where } f_1 = x^2 - a_1 = x^2 - b$$

Definition : let $f(x) \in F[x]$, $K = R_t(F, P)$. Then
 $\text{gp}(G(K/F), 0)$ is called Galois gp.
 زمرة غالوا

Theorem Fundamental theorem of Galois

المبرهن الأساسي لـ زمرة غالوا

let F be any field, K be the normal Extension of F .

let $S = \{E : E \text{ is subfield of } K, F \subseteq E\}$,

$\bar{S} = \{H : H \text{ subgp of } G(K/F) \text{ and } H \supseteq G(K/E)\}$

let $\gamma : S \rightarrow \bar{S}$ define by $\gamma(E) = G(K/E)$. Then

- (1) γ is (1-1) and onto
- (2) $E \subseteq E' \Rightarrow \gamma(E') \subseteq \gamma(E)$
- (3) E is normal Extension of $F \iff \gamma(E)$ is normal subgp of $G(K/F)$

(4) if E, E' are normal extension of F , then $E \subseteq E'$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma(E') \setminus \gamma(E) = G(E/E')$$

لا يوجد أي عنصر في $\gamma(E')$ غير $\gamma(E)$

Modules: - (الموديول) Chapter nine

Def: - Let R be a ring with identity. An abelian group $(M, +)$ is called a Left R -module (or Left R -module over R) if there exists a mapping $\alpha: R \times M \rightarrow M$ such that $\alpha(r, m) = rm \ \forall r \in R$ and $\forall m \in M$ satisfying the following conditions:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \alpha(r, m_1 + m_2) = \alpha(r, m_1) + \alpha(r, m_2) \text{ OR } r(m_1 + m_2) = rm_1 + rm_2 \quad \forall r \in R \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M.$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \alpha(r_1 + r_2, m) = \alpha(r_1, m) + \alpha(r_2, m) \text{ OR } (r_1 + r_2)m = r_1m + r_2m \quad \forall r_1, r_2 \in R, \quad \forall m \in M.$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \alpha(r_1 r_2, m) = \alpha(r_1, \alpha(r_2, m)) \text{ OR } (r_1 r_2)m = r_1(r_2 m) \quad \forall r_1, r_2 \in R, \quad \forall m \in M.$$

$\textcircled{4}$ if in addition $1 \cdot m = m \ \forall m \in M$, then M is called a unital R -module.

Examples: $\textcircled{1}$ Every abelian group with $+$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module

$\textcircled{2}$ $\mathbb{Z}_n$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$\textcircled{3}$ $\mathbb{Q}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module

$\textcircled{4}$ Let R be a ring then every left ideal I of R is a left R -module.

$\textcircled{5}$ $n\mathbb{Z}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$\textcircled{6}$ Every ring R can be considered as an R -module (a module over itself)

Submodules :-

Def :- A non-empty subset N of an R -module M is called a submodule of M if and only if :-

- ① $(N, +)$ is a subgroup of $(M, +)$ and
- ② $rN \subseteq N \quad \forall r \in R$.

Remark :- Let M be an R -module and $\emptyset \neq N \subseteq M$. Then N is a submodule of M if and only if :-

- ① $x + y \in N \quad \forall x, y \in N$
- ② $rx \in N \quad \forall r \in R, \forall x \in N$

Example :-

(1) If M is an R -module, then $\{0\}$ and M are submodules of M .

If there is any submodule N of M which is different from $\{0\}$ and M , then N is called a proper submodule.

Def :- An R -module M is called simple if M has no proper submodules.

For any prime number p , $\mathbb{Z}_p$ is a simple $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

(2) If R is any ring, then R is an R -module and the submodules of R are just the ideals of R .

For example :- $n\mathbb{Z}$ is a submodule of $\mathbb{Z} \quad \forall n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

(3) $\mathbb{Z}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module of $\mathbb{Q}$ over $\mathbb{Z}$.

Remark :- (1) If N and K are two submodules of an R -module M , then $N \cap K$ is also a submodule.

(b) If $\{N_i\}_{i \in I}$ is any collection of submodules of an R -module M , then $\bigcap_{i \in I} N_i$ is also a submodule of M .

المركب (الجبرتي) المتولد

Def:

Let M be an R -module and let $x \in M$, then the submodule of M generated by x denoted by (x) , it is defined to be the intersection of all submodules of M which contains x , that is

$$(x) = \bigcap \{N; N \text{ is a submodule of } M \text{ and } x \in N\}$$

The set $X = (x)$ is called a generating set of (x) .

Equivalently: (x) is the smallest submodule of M containing x .

If $X = \{x\}$, then the submodule of M generated by x denoted by (x) , it is defined to be the set $\{rx \mid r \in R\} = Rx$. M is called a cyclic R -module if $M = Rx = (x)$ for some $x \in M$.

Examples:

① $\mathbb{Z}$ as $\mathbb{Z}$ -module is cyclic since $\mathbb{Z} = (1)$

② E is a cyclic submodule of $\mathbb{Z}$ since $E = (2)$

In general $n\mathbb{Z} = (n)$ is cyclic submodule of $\mathbb{Z}$ $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

③ $\mathbb{Z}_n$ is a cyclic $\mathbb{Z}$ -module since $\mathbb{Z}_n = (1) \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Note: - An R -module M is called finitely generated (f.g) if there exists a finite subset X of M such that $M = (x)$ that is, $M = \sum_{i=1}^n Rx_i = Rx_1 + Rx_2 + \dots + Rx_n$ where $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq M$.

Homomorphisms on Modules :-

Def :- Let M and N be two R -modules a mapping $f: M \rightarrow N$ is called an R homomorphism if :-

- (1) $f(m_1 + m_2) = f(m_1) + f(m_2) \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M$
 (2) $f(rm) = r f(m) \quad \forall r \in R, \forall m \in M.$

Example :- (1) Let M and N be any R -modules. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be such that $f(m) = 0_N \quad \forall m \in M$, then f is an R -module, f is called the trivial homo. from M into N .

Sol :- (1) $\forall m_1, m_2 \in M$ s.t. $f(m) = 0_N \quad \forall m \in M$
 $f(m_1 + m_2) = 0_N$ (Def. of f)
 $= 0_N + 0_N$
 $= f(m_1) + f(m_2).$

(2) $\forall m \in M, r \in R, f(rm) = 0_N = r 0_N$ (since M is module)
 $= r f(m).$

(2) Let M be any R -module, the identity map.
 $I_M: M \rightarrow M$ is an R -homomorphism. I_M is called the identity homomorphism on M .

Sol (How)

(3) f $f(m) = c \quad \forall m \in M$, then f is not homo.

since $f(m_1 + m_2) \neq f(m_1) + f(m_2)$

$c + c \neq c + c$

(4) If N a submodule of an R -module M , the inclusion map $i_N: N \rightarrow N$ is an R -homo.

i_N is called the inclusion homo. on N .

Sol ① $i_N(m_1 + m_2) = m_1 + m_2 = i_N(m_1) + i_N(m_2) \quad \forall m_1, m_2 \in M$

② $i_N(rm) = rm = r i_N(m) \quad \forall r \in R, \forall m \in M$

Def:- Let N be a submodule of an R -module M and
 Let $M/N = \{x+N, x \in M\}$ where $x+N = \{x+a : a \in N\}$
 is the coset of N determined by x .

M/N is an R -module w.r.t $(+)$ & $(\cdot)$ defined by:-

(1) $(x+N) + (y+N) = (x+y) + N \quad \forall x, y \in M$

(2) $r(x+N) = rx + N \quad \forall r \in R, \forall x \in M$

Show that M/N is an R -module M/N is called the quotient module of M determined by N .

Example:- If N is a submodule of an R -module M , the
 natural map $\pi: M \rightarrow M/N$ such that
 $\pi(m) = m + N \quad \forall m \in M$, π is an R -homo. It is called
 the natural homo.

Sol:- (1) $\pi(m_1 + m_2) = (m_1 + m_2) + N = (m_1 + N) + (m_2 + N) = \pi(m_1) + \pi(m_2)$
 $\forall m_1, m_2 \in M$

(2) $\pi(rm) = rm + N = r(m + N) = r\pi(m)$
 $\forall r \in R, \forall m \in M$

Def:- Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an R -homo.

(1) Kernel of f denoted by $\text{Ker } f$, it is the set
 $\text{Ker } f = \{x \in M : f(x) = 0\} \subseteq M$

(2) The image of f denoted by $\text{Im } f$, it is the set
 $\text{Im } f = \{f(x) : x \in M\} \subseteq N$

Remark:- (1) $\text{Ker } f$ is a submodule of M .

Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an R -homo. then

- ① $f(0) = 0$, ② $f(x) = f(x)$ ③ $f(x-y) = f(x) - f(y)$
 $\forall x, y \in M$.

Def:- Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be an R -homo.

- (1) f is called a monomorphism if and only if f is 1-1.
 (2) f is called an epimorphism if and only if f is onto.
 (3) f is called an isomorphism if and only if f is 1-1 and onto.

("The Fundamental theorems of Homomorphism")

Theorem (1):- If $f: M \rightarrow N$ is an R -homo, then

$$M/\text{Ker } f \cong \text{Im } f$$

proof:- Define $g: M/\text{Ker } f \rightarrow \text{Im } f$ such that
 $g(x + \text{Ker } f) = f(x) \quad \forall x \in M$.

T.P. g is well-defined?

Let $x_1 + \text{Ker } f = x_2 + \text{Ker } f$ in $M/\text{Ker } f$.

$$\Rightarrow x_1 - x_2 \in \text{Ker } f$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_1 - x_2) = 0 \quad (\text{define of Ker } f).$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_1) - f(x_2) = 0 \quad (\text{define of homo}).$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow g \text{ is well-defined.}$$

T.P. g is homo?

Let $m_1 + \text{Ker } f, m_2 + \text{Ker } f \in M/\text{Ker } f$

$$\textcircled{1} g[(m_1 + \text{Ker } f) \oplus (m_2 + \text{Ker } f)] = g[(m_1 + m_2) + \text{Ker } f] = f(m_1 + m_2)$$

$$= f(m_1) \oplus f(m_2)$$

$$= g(m_1 + \text{Ker } f) \oplus g(m_2 + \text{Ker } f)$$

$\textcircled{2} \forall r \in R, m + \text{Ker } f \in M/\text{Ker } f$

$$g[r(m + \text{Ker } f)] = g(rm + \text{Ker } f) = f(rm) = r f(m) \quad (\text{fishaw})$$

$$g(m + \ker f)$$

Thus g is homo.

T.P g is 1-1?

Let $m_1 + \ker f, m_2 + \ker f \in M/\ker f$ such that:

$$g(m_1 + \ker f) = g(m_2 + \ker f)$$

$$f(m_1) = f(m_2)$$

$$f(m_1) - f(m_2) = 0$$

$$f(m_1 - m_2) = 0 \quad \text{since } f \text{ is homo.}$$

$$m_1 - m_2 \in \ker f \Rightarrow m_1 + \ker f = m_2 + \ker f.$$

$\therefore g$ is 1-1

T.P g is on to?

Let y be any element of $\text{Im } f$

$$\because f \text{ is on to} \Rightarrow \exists x \in M \text{ s.t. } f(x) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x + \ker f) = y$$

$\therefore g$ is on to.

Corollary: - If $f: M \rightarrow N$ is an epimorphism, then $M/\ker f \cong N$

Theorem (2): - If K and L are two submodules of an R -module M . Then $K/L \cap K \cong K+L/L$

proof: - Define $f: K \rightarrow (K+L)/L$ s.t. $f(x) = x+L \quad \forall x \in K$

$$\forall x \in K \Rightarrow x+0 \in K+L \Rightarrow x+L \in (K+L)/L$$

$$\text{If } x_1 = x_2 \Rightarrow x_1+L = x_2+L \Rightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

$\therefore f$ is well-defined.

T.P f is homo?

(i) Let $x_1, x_2 \in K$

$$f(x_1 + x_2) = (x_1 + x_2) + L = (x_1 + L) + (x_2 + L) = f(x_1) + f(x_2)$$

(2) Let $x \in R \wedge z \in K$, $f(rx) = rx + L = r(x + L) = rfx$
 $\therefore f$ is homo.

T.P f is onto?

Let $(x+L) + L \in (K+L)/L$ where $x \in K \wedge y \in L$
 $(x+y)+L = (x+L) + (y+L) = (x+L) + L = x+L = f(x)$

$\therefore f$ is onto.

By Theorem (1) $\Rightarrow K/\text{Ker}f \simeq (K+L)/L$

T.P $\text{Ker}f = L \cap K$?

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Ker}f &= \{x \in K : f(x) = 0\} \\ &= \{x \in K : x+L = L\} \\ &= \{x \in K \wedge x \in L\} = K \cap L\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $K/L \cap K \simeq K+L/L$.

Theorem (3) :- If K and L are two submodules of an R -module M and $K \subseteq L$, then :-

(1) L/K is a submodule of M/K .

(2) $M/K / L/K \simeq M/L$

Proof :- ① T.P $L/K \subseteq M/K$?

$$\text{Let } L/K = \{a+K, a \in L\}$$

$$M/K = \{m+K, m \in M\}$$

$$0+K \in L/K, 0 \in L \Rightarrow L/K \neq \emptyset$$

$$\forall a+K \in L/K \Rightarrow a+K \in M/K \text{ (since } L \subseteq M)$$

$$\therefore L/K \subseteq M/K$$

$$\forall a_1+K, a_2+K \in L/K$$

$$(a_1+K) + (a_2+K) = (a_1+a_2)+K \in L/K \text{ (since } a_1+a_2 \in L)$$

$$\forall r \in R, \forall a+K \in L/K \text{ T.P } r(a+K) \in L/K?$$

$$r(a+K) = ra+K \in L/K \text{ (since } L \subseteq M)$$

$$\therefore r(m+K) \in L/K$$

$\therefore L/K$ is a submodule of M/K .

(2) Define $f: M/K \rightarrow M/L$ s.t. $f(m+K) = m+L$
 $\forall m \in M$.

T.P. f is well defined?

$$\forall m+K \in M/K \Rightarrow m+L \in M/L \Rightarrow f(m+K) \in M/L$$

$$\forall m_1+K = m_2+K \Rightarrow m_1 - m_2 \in K \Rightarrow m_1 - m_2 \in L$$

$$\Rightarrow m_1+L = m_2+L$$

$$\Rightarrow f(m_1+K) = f(m_2+K)$$

T.P. f is homo?

$$\textcircled{1} \forall m_1+K, m_2+K \in M/K \Rightarrow f[(m_1+K) \oplus (m_2+K)] = f[(m_1+m_2)+K]$$

$$= (m_1+m_2)+L = (m_1+L) + (m_2+L)$$

$$= f(m_1+K) + f(m_2+K)$$

$$\textcircled{2} f[r(m+K)] = f[rm+K] \text{ (since } M \text{ is an } R\text{-module)}$$

$$= rm+L = r(m+L) = rf(m+K)$$

$\therefore f$ is homo.

T.P. f is onto?

$$\text{Im } f = \{ f(m+K) : m \in M \}$$

$$= \{ m+L : m \in M \} = M/L$$

$\therefore f$ is onto.

$$\text{By Theorem 4} \Rightarrow M/\text{Ker } f \simeq M/L$$

$$\text{T.P. } \text{Ker } f = L/K$$

$$\text{Ker } f = \{ (m+K) \in M/K : f(m+K) = L \}$$

$$= \{ (m+K) \in M/K : m+L = L \}$$

$$= \{ m+K \in M/K : m \in L \} = L/K$$

$$\therefore M/K / L/K \simeq M/L$$

الحسن فضل

الكرديبولات

- Study on Group, Ring, Module, Vector Space
- Study on Commutative Rings (Prof. Dr. V. S. Varadarajan, 1994)
- Foundations of Module and Ring Theory by N. Jacobson (1996)
- Homological Theory of Ideals (Prof. Dr. V. S. Varadarajan)
- Algebraic Modules (Prof. Dr. V. S. Varadarajan)

Theory of Modules

Def: Let R be a ring with identity. An abelian group $(M, +)$ is called a left R -module (or left R -module over R) if there exists a mapping

$$R \times M \rightarrow M \text{ s.t. } (r, m) \mapsto rm \text{ } \forall r \in R \text{ and } m \in M,$$

satisfying the following conditions:

- ① $R(r_1 + r_2, m) = R(r_1, m) + R(r_2, m)$ $\Leftrightarrow$
 $(r_1 + r_2)m = r_1m + r_2m \quad \forall r_1, r_2 \in R \text{ and } m \in M$
- ② $R(r_1, r_2, m) = R(r_1, m) + R(r_2, m)$ $\Leftrightarrow$
 $(r_1 + r_2)m = r_1m + r_2m \quad \forall r_1, r_2 \in R \text{ and } m \in M$

(2)

$$(3) \quad \alpha(r_1 r_2, m) = r_1 \alpha(r_2, m) \text{ or } (r_1 r_2)m = r_1(r_2 m) \quad \forall r_1, r_2 \in R, \forall m \in M.$$

(4) If in addition $1 \cdot m = m \quad \forall m \in M$. Then M is called a unital R -module.

Note:-

One can be define right R -module similarly. That is An additive abelian group M is called a right R -module, if there exists a mapping $M \times R \rightarrow M$ with $(m, r) \rightarrow mr \quad \forall m \in M, \forall r \in R$ satisfying :-

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1) \quad m(r_1 + r_2) = mr_1 + mr_2 \\ (2) \quad (m_1 + m_2)r = m_1 r + m_2 r \\ (3) \quad m(r_1 r_2) = (mr_1)r_2 \\ (4) \quad m \cdot 1 = m \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \forall r_1, r_2 \in R \wedge \\ \forall m, m_1, m_2 \in M. \end{array}$$

Remark :- If R is a comm. ring, then every left R -module can be made into a right R -module.

Def:- Let R be a ring with identity and let M be a left R -module. M is called a unital (or, a unitary) left R -module, if $1 \cdot m = m \quad \forall m \in M$.
(i.e. $(1, m) \rightarrow m \quad \forall m \in M$)

Examples:-

(1) Every additive abelian group is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

Solution:- Let $(M, +)$ be an abelian gp.

Define a mapping $\phi: \mathbb{Z} \times M \rightarrow M$ s.t

$\phi(n, a) = na$ where

$$na = \begin{cases} a + a + \dots + a & (n\text{-times}) \text{ if } n > 0 \\ (-a) + (-a) + \dots + (-a) & (n\text{-times}) \text{ if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

(3)

Now, we satisfying the conditions: .

$$(i) \phi(n, a_1 + a_2) = n(a_1 + a_2)$$

$$= \begin{cases} (a_1 + a_2) + \dots + (a_1 + a_2) & (n\text{-times}) \\ & \text{if } n > 0 \\ -(a_1 + a_2) + \dots + -(a_1 + a_2) & (n\text{-times}) \\ & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \underbrace{a_1 + a_1 + \dots + a_1}_{n\text{-times}} + \underbrace{a_2 + a_2 + \dots + a_2}_{n\text{-times}} \\ \underbrace{(-a_1) + (-a_1) + \dots + (-a_1)}_{n\text{-times}} + \underbrace{(-a_2) + \dots + (-a_2)}_{n\text{-times}} \end{cases}$$

$$= na_1 + na_2$$

$$= \phi(n, a_1) + \phi(n, a_2)$$

وہذا ثابت ہے کہ یہ شرطیں پوری ہوتی ہیں۔

(2) Every ring R is an R -module.

(since every ring is an abelian gp $(R, +)$ is abelian gp and itself ring. Thus is an R -module).

(3) Every ^{left} ideal of R is an R -module.

Sol: Since $(I, +)$ is abelian gp and

$$ra \in I, \forall r \in R, \forall a \in I$$

یہ ہر ایلیمینٹ کے لیے درست ہے اور اس لیے I ایک لیفٹ آئیڈیل ہے۔

$$(i) (r, a_1 + a_2) = r(a_1 + a_2) = \underbrace{ra_1}_{\in I} + \underbrace{ra_2}_{\in I} = \alpha(r, a_1) + \alpha(r, a_2)$$

$$\forall r \in R, \forall a_1, a_2 \in I$$

$$(ii) (r_1 + r_2, a) = (r_1 + r_2)a = r_1a + r_2a = \alpha(r_1, a) + \alpha(r_2, a)$$

$$\frac{EI}{EI} \quad (4)$$

(5)

For example: - Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $I = n\mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow R/I = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

(6) Let R be a ring. Then $M_{m \times n}(R)$ is an abelian gp with respect to addition of matrices.

Define: $\alpha: M_{m \times n}(R) \times M_{m \times n}(R) \rightarrow M_{m \times n}(R)$ s.t

$\alpha(A, B) = AB$ (multiplication of matrices). $\forall A, B \in M_{m \times n}(R)$

Then $M_{m \times n}(R)$ is a left $M_{m \times n}(R)$ -module.

Similarly, $M_{m \times n}(R)$ is a right $M_{m \times n}(R)$ -module.

$\therefore$ $\rho, m=1$ $\Rightarrow$ α is a map $\alpha: M_{m \times n}(R) \times M_{m \times n}(R) \rightarrow M_{m \times n}(R)$

$M_{1 \times n}(R)$ = The set of all $1 \times n$ matrices (or set of all n -tuples) of a ring R , namely,

$R^n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n); a_i \in R, i=1, \dots, n\}$ and

$R \times R^n \rightarrow R^n$ such that $r(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (ra_1, \dots, ra_n)$
 $\forall r \in R, \forall (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in R^n$.

R^n is an R -module.

(7) Let R and S be two rings and let $f: R \rightarrow S$ be any ring homo.

Let M be an S -module. Then M is also an R -module.

Pf Since M is an S -module, then $(M, +)$ is an abelian gp. and $\exists$ a map $\alpha: S \times M \rightarrow M$ s.t $\alpha(s, m) \rightarrow sm \quad \forall s \in S \quad \forall m \in M$ satisfying 1, 2, 3, 4 in the def.

Define $\beta: R \times M \rightarrow M$ s.t $\beta(r, m) = r \cdot m$

$\vee \beta(r, m) = f(r)m, \forall m \in M$

⑥

Sol:

(i) Let $r \in R, m_1, m_2 \in M$.

$$(r, m_1 + m_2) = f(r) \cdot (m_1 + m_2) = f(r)m_1 + f(r)m_2 \\ = (r, m_1) + (r, m_2)$$

$f(r) \in S, r \in R, m_1, m_2 \in M$.

(ii) Let $r_1, r_2 \in R, m \in M$

$$(r_1 + r_2, m) = f(r_1 + r_2) \cdot m = [f(r_1) + f(r_2)] m \quad (\text{homo property}) \\ = f(r_1)m + f(r_2)m \\ = (r_1, m) + (r_2, m)$$

(iii) check

④ Since R is a ring with unity $\Rightarrow \exists 1$ is an identity element

But f is homo $\Rightarrow f(1) = \hat{1}$ the identity element of S .

$$\text{Now, } \forall m \in M \Rightarrow (1, m) = f(1) \cdot m = \hat{1} \cdot m = m$$

Thus M is an R -module.

⑧ Let M be an additive abelian group and Let $\text{End}(M)$ = The set of all group homomorphisms on M .

$$\text{i.e. } \text{End}(M) = \{f \mid f: M \rightarrow M, f \text{ is a group homo.}\}$$

Define: $+$ and $\circ$ on $\text{End}(M)$ as follows:-

$$(f+g)(m) = f(m) + g(m) \quad \forall f, g \in \text{End}(M), \forall m \in M$$

$$(f \circ g)(m) = f(g(m)) \quad \forall f, g \in \text{End}(M), \forall m \in M$$

Then:- (1) $(\text{End}(M), +, \circ)$ is a ring with identity

(2) M is an $\text{End}(M)$ -module?

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Pf: (1) T.P. $(\text{End}(M), +)$ is an abelian gp?

(i) Let $f, g \in \text{End}(M)$

$$= f(m) + g(m) = f + g(m) \quad \forall f, g \in \text{End}(M) \\ \forall m \in M.$$

Thus $+$ is closed.

(ii) Let $f, g, h \in \text{End}(M)$:

$$\begin{aligned} ((f+g)+h)(m) &= (f+g)^{(m)} + h(m) \\ &= (f(m) + g(m)) + h(m) \\ &= f(m) + (g(m) + h(m)) \\ &= (f + (g+h))(m) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $+$ is ass.

كذلك لا فرق واجب

$\therefore (\text{End}(M), +)$ is an abelian gp.

(2) Define: $\phi: \text{End}(M) \times M \rightarrow M$ s.t

$$\phi(f, m) = f(m) \quad \forall f \in \text{End}(M), \forall m \in M.$$

Pf: (i) Let $f \in \text{End}(M), \wedge m_1, m_2 \in M$

$$\begin{aligned} (f, m_1 + m_2) &= f(m_1 + m_2) = f(m_1) + f(m_2) \\ &= (f, m_1) + (f, m_2) \quad (\text{since } f \text{ is homo.}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii)} \quad (f+g, m) &= (f+g)(m), \quad \forall f, g \in \text{End}(M), \forall m \in M \\ &= f(m) + g(m) \\ &= (f, m) + (g, m) \end{aligned}$$

(iii) Let $f, g \in \text{End}(M), m \in M$.

$$\begin{aligned} (f \circ g, m) &= (f \circ g)(m) = f(g(m)) = (f, g(m)) \\ &= (f, g, m) \end{aligned}$$

(8)

(VI)

Since $(I, m) = I(m) = m$ where I is the identity map.

Thus

M is $\text{End}(M)$ -module.

Def:- Let R and S be two rings and let M be an additive abelian gp. M is called an R - S -bimodule if M is a left R -module and a right S -module, and $r(ms) = (rm)s$ for all $r \in R, s \in S, m \in M$.

Ex:- $M(R)$ is an $M_{m \times n}(R) - M_{n \times m}(R)$ -bimodule.

row = column اگر صفیں برابر ہوں

Def:-

Let M be an R -module. The left annihilator of M over R denoted by $\text{ann}_R(M)$ (or $\text{ann } M$), and, it is defined by:

$$\text{ann}_R(M) = \{r \in R : rm = 0, \forall m \in M\}$$

Note:- If $\text{ann}_R(M) = 0$, then M is called a faithful R -module.

Remark:- Let M be an R -module. Then:-

- 1- $r \cdot 0_M = 0_M \quad \forall r \in R$
- 2- $0_R \cdot m = 0_M \quad \forall m \in M$
- 3- $(-r)m = -(rm) = r(-m) \quad \forall r \in R, \forall m \in M$

(9)

Pf:- (1) $0_R \cdot m = (0 + 0)_R \cdot m = 0 \cdot m + 0 \cdot m$ (المعنى)
 بالتعريف، $0 \cdot m + (- (0 \cdot m)) = 0 \cdot m + 0 \cdot m + (- (0 \cdot m))$
 $0 = 0 \cdot m$

(2) $r \cdot 0_M = r \cdot (0 + 0)_M = r \cdot 0 + r \cdot 0$

$r \cdot 0 + (- (r \cdot 0)) = r \cdot 0 + (r \cdot 0 + (- (r \cdot 0)))$

(3) $(-r)m + rm = (-r + r)m$

$= 0 \cdot m$

$= 0$ by (1)

Thus $-(rm)$ is the inverse of $(r)m$

i.e. $-(rm) = -(r)m$

Remark:- If M is a R -module, then

(1) $\text{ann } M$ is a left ideal of R .

(2) M_R is a faithful $R/\text{ann } M$ -module.

Pf Exercise.

Remark:- Let M be an R -module and I be an ideal of R . If $I \subseteq \text{ann } M$, then M is an R/I -module.

Pf:- Define $\phi: R/I \times M \rightarrow M$ s.t.:

$\phi(r+I, m) = rm \quad \forall r+I \in R/I, \forall m \in M$

ϕ is an mapping?

Let $(r+I, m_1) = (b+I, m_2)$ in $R/I \times M$.

$\Rightarrow r+I = b+I \wedge m_1 = m_2$ هذا من تعريف المساواة

$r+b \in I$

(10)

$$\Rightarrow b-a \in \text{ann } M \Rightarrow (a-b)m = 0 \quad \forall m \in M$$

$$\Rightarrow am - bm = 0$$

$$am = bm$$

$$\phi(a+I, m) = \phi(b+I, m)$$

$\therefore \phi$ is well-defined.

برهان شرط لا غریبی واجب

Ex: $\mathbb{Z}_6$ is a $\mathbb{Z}_3$ -module. since

$$\text{ann } \mathbb{Z}_6 = 6\mathbb{Z} \subseteq 3\mathbb{Z} = I$$

$\therefore \mathbb{Z}_6$ is a $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$ -module.

Submodules

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Def: Let  $M$  be an  $R$ -module. A non-empty subset  $N$  of  $M$  is called a submodule of  $M$  (or an  $R$ -submodule of  $M$ ) if and only if:

$$(1) \quad a-b \in N \quad \forall a, b \in N$$

$$(2) \quad \forall a \in N \quad \forall \alpha \in N, \forall r \in R.$$

شرط من خوار لیفتی است:

(شرط اول: یعنی  $(N, +)$  زیره جزئی من زیره  $(M, +)$ )

(شرط ثانی: یعنی  $\alpha$  اکتال  $R \times M \rightarrow M$  تم اقتضا می کند  $R \times N$

فاضا  $(f: R \times N \rightarrow N)$ .

ایان پودول الجزئی من پودول  $M$  هوقه پودول علی نفسی کلمه.

Remark: Let  $M$  be an  $R$ -module and  $\phi \neq \emptyset \subseteq M$ .

Then  $N$  is a submodule of  $M$  if and only if

$$ra + sb \in N \quad \forall a, b \in N, \forall r, s \in R$$