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WHEN DIVISIBILITY BY AN ELEMENT IMPLIES INVERTIBILITY

JOHN A. LEWALLEN

ABSTRACT. Let R be a commutative ring with unity and M_R a unital right R-module. Let $x \in R$ and $\rho_x : M_R \to M_R$ be given by $\rho_x(m) = mx$ for all $m \in M_R$. Rings in which every nonzero module M has the property that if ρ_x is surjective then x is invertible in R are fully characterized.

1. Introduction. Throughout, R will denote a commutative ring with unity and M_R will denote a unitary right R-module. We will use M for M_R when the coefficient ring is obvious. We will also denote the right-multiplication map by an element $x \in R$ with $\rho_x : M_R \to M_R$ with $\rho_x(m) = mx$ for all $m \in M$. When ρ_x is surjective then Mx = M and we say that M is divisible by x.

Maxson presented the following situation. If R is nonlocal, then there exist noninvertible elements r and s such that r + s = 1. Suppose that $f: M_R \to M_R$ is a homogeneous function (preserving scalar multiplication) and f is linear on submodules Mr and Ms. Calculations show that f will also be linear on M. A collection of proper submodules is said to *force linearity* if every homogeneous map which is linear on the collection of submodules is also linear on M. The forcing linearity number of M, is the minimum integer n, if one exists, such that a collection of n proper submodules forces linearity on M. Thus, assuming that Mr and Ms are both proper submodules, then in this case, M will have forcing linearity number of at most two. Maxson asked if one can describe when right multiplication by a ring element onto a module implies that the element is invertible. Hence, in this case, if R satisfied such a property then Mr and Ms would have to be proper submodules. To study this situation, the following terms are defined.

Definition 1. Let $0 \neq M_R$ have the property that for all $x \in R$, if ρ_x is surjective, then x is invertible in R. Then M is an OI R-module.

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J.A. LEWALLEN

Definition 2. If every nonzero module of R is OI, then we say that R is an *OI ring*.

The first observation that needs to be made is that if x is invertible in R, then ρ_x is an isomorphism for any R-module. Thus, one could consider OI modules a generalization of Hopfian modules, that is, the class of modules in which every epimorphism is an isomorphism. In fact, the term OI comes from "onto implies invertible." Also, if R is an OI ring and $x \in R$ such that there exists a nonzero module for which ρ_x is surjective, then ρ_x is an isomorphism, and hence, surjective, on every R-module.

1. Examples. Clearly, the class of rings satisfying Definition 2 is not trivial because the class of fields falls into this category. Since the zero map is never a surjective map for nonzero modules, fields satisfy the property by default. The next example shows a nonfield, in fact a nondomain, which satisfies the property.

Example 1.1. Let $0 \neq M$ be a \mathbb{Z}_4 -module. Then for any $m \in M$, $4m = 4(m\overline{1}) = m\overline{4} = 0$. So the order of m divides 4. Since M is a nonzero module, there must be at least one element of even order, not 1, so let y be an element of maximal even order. Thus, if $y = m \cdot \overline{2} \in M \cdot \overline{2}$, then m would have an even order greater than the order of y (since the order of y is half the order of m). Since this contradicts y having maximal even order, $y \notin M \cdot \overline{2}$. Thus $\rho_{\overline{2}}$ is not surjective. Clearly the zero map is not surjective. Thus only $\rho_{\overline{1}}$ and $\rho_{\overline{3}}$ could be surjective right multiplication maps. Since $\overline{1}$ and $\overline{3}$ are both invertible in \mathbb{Z}_4 , then \mathbb{Z}_4 is OI. A similar argument can be used to show that \mathbb{Z}_{p^n} is OI for any prime p.

Example 1.2. Consider \mathbf{Q} as a \mathbf{Z} -module. Since for all $q \in \mathbf{Q}$, $q/2 \cdot 2 = q$, we have that ρ_2 is surjective. However, 2 is not invertible in \mathbf{Z} , so \mathbf{Q} is not OI over \mathbf{Z} and therefore \mathbf{Z} is not OI.

Clearly, R is always an OI module over itself. The following example also illustrates an OI module over a ring which is not necessarily an OI ring.

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Example 1.3. Let $M_{\mathbf{Z}} = \sum \bigoplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ where p runs over all primes. Then, ρ_x is not surjective on M as long as x is divisible by some prime. Hence, the only surjective multiplication maps are ρ_1 and ρ_{-1} . Since 1 and -1 are both invertible in \mathbf{Z} , M is OI over \mathbf{Z} .

2. OI rings. The following section fully characterizes OI rings. Inherent in the theory is the class of *quasilocal* rings, the class of rings which have a unique maximal ideal. Thus, one may think of these as local but not Noetherian. In a quasilocal ring, every element is either in the maximal ideal or is invertible.

In the following proposition, we make the observation that a nilpotent element can never produce a surjective multiplication map.

Proposition 2.1. Let R be a quasilocal ring such that the maximal ideal is nil. Then R is an OI ring.

Proof. Let $x \in R$, and let M_R be a nonzero R-module. Since R is quasilocal, either x is invertible or x is nilpotent. If x is nilpotent such that $x^n = 0$, then ρ_x being surjective implies $M = Mx = Mx^n = 0$. Thus, ρ_x is never surjective for a nilpotent x. Thus, if ρ_x is surjective on M, then x must be invertible and R is OI.

Proposition 2.2. Let R be an OI ring. Then $N = \{x \in R \mid x \text{ is not invertible} \}$ is an ideal of R.

Proof. Let $x, y \in N$ and $r \in R$. Then if $xr \notin N$, then xrz = 1 for some $z \in R$. Hence, x is invertible which contradicts $x \in N$. Thus $xr \in N$. Suppose $x - y \notin N$. Since $x \in N$, $\rho_x : Rx_R \to Rx_R$ is not surjective, that is, $Rx^2 \subset Rx$, provided that $Rx \neq 0$. Suppose $0 \neq M =$ Rx/Rx^2 . Let $\overline{rx} \in M$. Then $(-rx(x-y)^{-1})y = -rxy(x-y)^{-1} =$ $\overline{rx^2(x-y)^{-1}} - \overline{rxy(x-y)^{-1}} = \overline{rx(x-y)(x-y)^{-1}} = \overline{rx}$. Thus $\rho_y :$ $M \to M$, is surjective and hence $y \notin N$. To avoid contradiction, we have that either $x - y \in N$ or Rx = 0. If the latter, then we can repeat the same argument with $M = Ry/Ry^2$ provided that $Ry \neq 0$. Thus, either $x - y \in N$ or Rx = Ry = 0. In the latter case we have that R(x-y) = 0 and hence x - y is clearly not invertible. Thus $x - y \in N$ and $N \triangleleft R$.

Proposition 2.3. Let R be an OI ring. Then R is quasilocal.

Proof. Let $I \triangleleft R$ with $I \nsubseteq N$. Then for any $x \in I - N$, x is invertible. Hence, $1 \in I$ and I = R. So either I = R or I = N. Thus, N is a maximal ideal of R. If we let I be another maximal ideal, then the previous argument shows that I = N and N is the unique maximal ideal. \Box

Theorem 2.4. A ring R is OI if and only if R is quasilocal with a nil maximal ideal.

Proof. Let *R* be OI, and let $u \in R$. Let *I* be the ideal of R[x] generated by 1 - ux, and define M = R[x]/I as a quotient of rings. For any $\overline{p(x)} \in M$ with $p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_0$, we have that $p(x) = a_n x^{n+1}u + a_n x^n(1-ux) + a_{n-1}x^n u + a_{n-1}x^{n-1}(1-ux) + \dots + a_0xu + a_0(1-ux)$. Thus, $\overline{p(x)} = \overline{a_n x^{n+1}u + a_{n-1}x^n u + \dots + a_0xu} \in Mu$. Hence, $\rho_u : M \to M$ is a surjective map. Since *R* is OI, either *u* is invertible, or M = 0. So suppose that $\langle 1 - ux \rangle_R = R[x]$. Since for all $p(x) \in R[x]$, p(x) = q(x)(1-ux), we have that q(x)(1-ux) = 1 for some $q(x) \in R[x]$. So $(a_0 + \dots + a_n x^n)(1-ux) = a_0 + (a_1 - a_0u)x + \dots + (a_n - a_{n-1}u)x^n - (a_nu)x^{n+1} = 1$. So $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = u$, $a_2 = u^2$, and so forth, so that $a_n = u^n$ and $u^{n+1} = 0$. Thus *u* is nilpotent. Hence, we have that *R* is quasilocal, and if *u* is not invertible, then it is nilpotent, making the maximal ideal, *N* a nil ideal. The converse is given by Proposition 2.1. □

This completes the characterization of OI rings. A classification in terms of R can still be made of OI modules.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, SOUTHEASTERN LOUISIANA UNIVERSITY, HAMMOND, LA 70402 *E-mail address:* jlewallen@selu.edu