

## A NOTE ON MODULE HOMOMORPHISMS

John Koker

University of Wisconsin - Oshkosh

During a recent course in ring theory, I asked a student of mine to find examples of a ring and modules to show that the two conditions for a function to be a module homomorphism are independent of each other. Let  $R$  be a (not necessarily commutative) ring and  $M$  and  $N$  be left  $R$ -modules. A function  $f: M \rightarrow N$  is said to be an  $R$ -module homomorphism if

- (1)  $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$  for all  $x, y \in M$  and
- (2)  $f(rx) = rf(x)$  for all  $x \in M, r \in R$ .

Let  $R$  be a noncommutative ring and fix  $r \in R$  with  $r$  not in the center of  $R$ . Then  $f: R \rightarrow R$  defined by  $f(s) = rs$  is a function from the left  $R$ -module  $R$  to itself which satisfies condition (1). However, due to the noncommutativity, there exists  $s, t \in R$  such that  $f(ts) = rts \neq trs = tf(s)$ . Thus (2) fails.

Likewise, we can find an example to satisfy (2) but not (1). Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_2$  and let  $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ . Define  $f: M \rightarrow M$  by  $f(0, 0) = (0, 0)$  and  $f(x, y) = (1, 1)$  if  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . It is straight forward to check that (2) is satisfied. But  $f[(1, 0) + (0, 1)] = f(1, 1) = (1, 1) \neq f(1, 0) + f(0, 1)$ . Hence, (1) fails.

One question this note addresses is when does (2) imply (1)? The converse is more interesting if (2) implies (1), what can be said about  $M$ ? Recall that  $M$  is a cyclic left  $R$ -module if there exists  $x \in M$  with  $Rx = M$ .

**Lemma 1.** Suppose that  $R$  is a ring and  $N$  is any left  $R$ -module. If  $M$  is a cyclic left  $R$ -module and  $f: M \rightarrow N$  is a function which satisfies (2), then  $f$  satisfies (1).

**Proof.** Choose  $x \in M$  with  $M = Rx$ . Let  $x_1, x_2 \in M$ . Then there exists  $r_1, r_2 \in R$  with  $x_1 = r_1x$  and  $x_2 = r_2x$ . Thus,  $f(x_1 + x_2) = f(r_1x + r_2x) = f[(r_1 + r_2)x] = (r_1 + r_2)f(x) = r_1f(x) + r_2f(x) = f(r_1x) + f(r_2x) = f(x_1) + f(x_2)$ .

Thus,  $M$  being cyclic is a sufficient condition for (2) to imply (1). We now exhibit necessary conditions on  $M$ . In other words, if  $f: M \rightarrow N$  is a function in which (2) implies (1), what can be said about  $M$ ?

Suppose that  $F$  is a field and  $V$  is a vector space over  $F$ . The definition of a linear transformation from  $V$  to  $V$  is the same as for module homomorphisms. Finding examples

to show the independence of (1) and (2) is a common exercise for linear algebra students. Working in this situation aids in answering the above question.

**Theorem 2.** Suppose that  $V$  is a vector space over  $F$ . The dimension of  $V$  is 1 if and only if any function  $f: V \rightarrow V$  which satisfies (2) also satisfies (1).

**Proof.** If  $V$  is of dimension 1, then Lemma 1 provides the result. To prove the converse, fix  $0 \neq \alpha \in V$ . Define a map  $f: V \rightarrow V$  by  $f(\beta) = \beta$  if  $\beta \in F\alpha$  and  $f(\beta) = 0$  if  $\beta \notin F\alpha$  for all  $\beta \in V$ . First it is shown that for all  $x \in F$  and  $\beta \in V$ ,  $f(x\beta) = xf(\beta)$ .

**Case 1.** Suppose that  $x\beta \in F\alpha$ . If  $x = 0$ , then  $f(x\beta) = 0 = xf(\beta)$ . If  $x \neq 0$ , then  $x^{-1} \in F$ . Thus,  $\beta = x^{-1}(x\beta) \in F\alpha$  and so  $f(x\beta) = x\beta = xf(\beta)$ .

**Case 2.** Suppose that  $x\beta \notin F\alpha$ . Then  $\beta \notin F\alpha$  since  $F\alpha$  is closed under scalar multiplication. Therefore  $f(x\beta) = 0 = xf(\beta)$ . By hypothesis,  $f$  is a linear transformation.

**Claim.**  $V = F\alpha$ . If  $\beta, \gamma \in V$  with  $0 \neq \beta + \gamma \in F\alpha$ , then  $0 \neq \beta + \gamma = f(\beta + \gamma) = f(\beta) + f(\gamma)$ . Therefore  $f(\beta) \neq 0$  or  $f(\gamma) \neq 0$ . Assume that  $f(\beta) \neq 0$ . Then  $\beta \in F\alpha$ . Thus, it follows that  $\gamma = (\beta + \gamma) - \beta \in F\alpha$ . Thus,  $0 \neq \beta + \gamma \in F\alpha$  implies that  $\beta \in F\alpha$  and  $\gamma \in F\alpha$ .

Now, for  $\delta \in V$ ,  $0 \neq \delta + (-\delta + \alpha) \in F\alpha$ . Thus,  $\delta \in F\alpha$ . Hence,  $V = F\alpha$  and  $\dim(V) = 1$ .

This proof relied upon the fact that each non-zero element of  $F$  had an inverse. Thus, the following generalization is obtained. Recall that a simple left  $R$ -module  $M \neq 0$  is a module with 0 and  $M$  being its only submodules.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $R$  be a division ring (not necessarily commutative), and let  $M$  be a left  $R$ -module. Then  $M$  is simple if and only if every function  $f: M \rightarrow M$  which satisfies (2) satisfies (1).

One may wonder if this result generalizes to rings for which some of the elements are not units? A natural place to start is to consider domains. Again, it is not required for these to be commutative. If  $R$  is a domain and  $M$  is a left  $R$ -module, we say that  $M$  is torsion-free if its torsion submodule  $\{m \in M \mid rm = 0 \text{ for some } 0 \neq r \in R\}$  is zero. Using these ideas, the following is obtained.

**Theorem 4.** Suppose that  $R$  is a domain and that  $M$  is a torsion-free left  $R$ -module which has a simple submodule. Then  $M$  is simple if and only if every function  $f: M \rightarrow M$  which satisfies (2) satisfies (1).

**Proof.** If  $M$  is simple, then  $M$  is cyclic and so Lemma 1 gives the result.

Conversely, assume that any function  $f: M \rightarrow M$  satisfying (2) satisfies (1). Since  $1 \in R$ ,  $M$  has a simple submodule of the form  $Rx$  for some  $x \in M$ . It needs to be shown that  $Rx = M$ . Define  $f: M \rightarrow M$  by  $f(a) = a$  if  $a \in Rx$  and  $f(a) = 0$  if  $a \notin Rx$  for all  $a \in M$ .

Let  $m \in M$  and  $r \in R$ . If  $rm \notin Rx$ , then  $m \notin Rx$ . Thus  $f(rm) = 0 = rf(m)$ . On the other hand, suppose  $rm \in Rx$ . If  $m \in Rx$ , then  $f(rm) = rm = rf(m)$ . Finally, suppose that  $m \notin Rx$ . Consider the set  $(m : Rx) = \{s \in R \mid sm \in Rx\}$ . This set is a left ideal of  $R$  and thus  $(m : Rx)x$  is a submodule of  $Rx$ . Since  $Rx$  is simple,  $(m : Rx)x = 0$  or  $(m : Rx)x = Rx$ . If  $(m : Rx)x = Rx$ , then there exists  $s \in (m : Rx)$  with  $sx = x$ . Thus,  $(s - 1)x = 0$ . However,  $M$  torsion-free implies that  $s = 1 \in (m : Rx)$ . This in turn implies that  $m \in Rx$  which is a contradiction. Therefore  $(m : Rx) = 0$ . The hypothesis  $rm \in Rx$  and  $m \notin Rx$  implies that  $r = 0$ . This says that  $f(rm) = 0 = rf(m)$ . Therefore  $f$  satisfies (2) and so it is a homomorphism.

The proof is completed by showing that  $M = Rx$ , which is similar to the proof of Theorem 2.

This is a natural generalization of Theorem 2 since every torsion-free  $R$ -module over a domain  $R$  can be embedded in a vector space over  $Q$  where  $Q$  is a quotient field of  $R$  [1, Lemma 4.31].

#### Reference

1. J. J. Rotman, *An Introduction to Homological Algebra*, Academic Press, New York, 1979.