

G-groups

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any finite abelian group is a direct product of cyclic groups whose orders are powers of primes, and these powers of primes are uniquely determined by the group.

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The proof was not complete.

Krull-Schmidt-Remak Theorem

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$G = G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_t = H_1 \times H_2 \times \cdots \times H_s$, then $t = s$ and there is a *central* automorphism φ of G such that $\varphi(G_i) = H_{\sigma(i)}$ for all i 's for some permutation σ of $1, 2, \dots, n$.

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central automorphism of $G =$ automorphism of G that induces the identity $G/\zeta(G) \rightarrow G/\zeta(G)$. Here $\zeta(G)$ denotes the center of G .

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“Sur les produits directs”, Bull. Soc. Math. France 41 (1913), 161–164: a simplified proof of Remak’s main results.

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Abelian operator groups with ascending and descending chain conditions (operator groups = Ω -groups. Here Ω is a set and an Ω -group is a pair (H, φ) , where H is a group and $\varphi: \Omega \rightarrow \text{End}(H)$ is a mapping).

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Let R be a ring, M_i ($i \in I$) be a right R -module, $\text{End}_R(M_i)$ a local ring, $M = \bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$. Then any two direct sum decompositions of M into indecomposable direct summands are isomorphic.

An example that follows a different pattern

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M_R is *uniserial* if its lattice of submodules is linearly ordered, that is, if for any submodules A, B of M_R either $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$.

The endomorphism ring of a uniserial module has at most two maximal right (left) ideals:

Non-zero uniserial modules and their endomorphism rings

Theorem

[F., T.A.M.S. 1996] *Let U_R be a non-zero uniserial module over a ring R ,*

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- (a) *either E is a local ring with maximal ideal $I \cup K$, or*
- (b) *E/I and E/K are division rings, and $E/J(E) \cong E/I \times E/K$.*

Monogeny class, epigeny class

Two modules U and V are said to have

1. *the same monogeny class*, denoted $[U]_m = [V]_m$, if there exist a monomorphism $U \rightarrow V$ and a monomorphism $V \rightarrow U$;

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2. *the same epigeny class*, denoted $[U]_e = [V]_e$, if there exist an epimorphism $U \rightarrow V$ and an epimorphism $V \rightarrow U$.

Weak Krull-Schmidt Theorem

Theorem

[F., T.A.M.S. 1996] *Let $U_1, \dots, U_n, V_1, \dots, V_t$ be $n + t$ non-zero uniserial right modules over a ring R . Then the direct sums $U_1 \oplus \dots \oplus U_n$ and $V_1 \oplus \dots \oplus V_t$ are isomorphic R -modules if and only if $n = t$ and there exist two permutations σ and τ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $[U_i]_m = [V_{\sigma(i)}]_m$ and $[U_i]_e = [V_{\tau(i)}]_e$ for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.*

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A right module over a ring R is *cyclically presented* if it is isomorphic to R/aR for some element $a \in R$. For any ring R , we will denote with $U(R)$ the group of all invertible elements of R .

Cyclically presented modules over local rings

If R/aR and R/bR are cyclically presented modules over a local ring R , we say that R/aR and R/bR *have the same lower part*, and write $[R/aR]_l = [R/bR]_l$, if there exist $u, v \in U(R)$ and $r, s \in R$ with $au = rb$ and $bv = sa$.

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(Two cyclically presented modules over a local ring have the same lower part if and only if their Auslander-Bridger transposes have the same epigeny class.)

Cyclically presented modules and idealizer

The endomorphism ring $\text{End}_R(R/aR)$ of a non-zero cyclically presented module R/aR is isomorphic to E/aR , where $E := \{ r \in R \mid ra \in aR \}$ is the *idealizer* of aR .

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Let a be a non-zero non-invertible element of an arbitrary local ring R , let E be the idealizer of aR , and let E/aR be the endomorphism ring of the cyclically presented right R -module R/aR .

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- (a) Either I and K are comparable (that is, $I \subseteq K$ or $K \subseteq I$), in which case E/aR is a local ring, or
- (b) I and K are not comparable, and in this case E/I and E/K are division rings, $J(E/aR) = (I \cap K)/aR$, and $(E/aR)/J(E/aR)$ is canonically isomorphic to the direct product $E/I \times E/K$.

Weak Krull-Schmidt Theorem for cyclically presented modules over local rings

Theorem

(Weak Krull-Schmidt Theorem) *Let $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_t$ be $n + t$ non-invertible elements of a local ring R . Then the direct sums $R/a_1R \oplus \dots \oplus R/a_nR$ and $R/b_1R \oplus \dots \oplus R/b_tR$ are isomorphic right R -modules if and only if $n = t$ and there exist two permutations σ, τ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $[R/a_iR]_I = [R/b_{\sigma(i)}R]_I$ and $[R/a_iR]_e = [R/b_{\tau(i)}R]_e$ for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.*

Equivalence of matrices

The Weak Krull-Schmidt Theorem for cyclically presented modules has an immediate consequence as far as equivalence of matrices is concerned. Recall that two $m \times n$ matrices A and B with entries in a ring R are said to be *equivalent* matrices, denoted $A \sim B$, if there exist an $m \times m$ invertible matrix P and an $n \times n$ invertible matrix Q with entries in R (that is, matrices invertible in the rings $M_m(R)$ and $M_n(R)$, respectively) such that $B = PAQ$.

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Equivalence of matrices

If R is a *commutative* local ring and $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n$ are elements of R , then $\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n) \sim \text{diag}(b_1, \dots, b_n)$ if and only if there exists a permutation σ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with a_i and $b_{\sigma(i)}$ associates for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Here $a, b \in R$ are *associates* if they generate the same principal ideal of R .

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If the ring R is local, but non-necessarily commutative, we have the following result:

Proposition

Let $a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_n$ be elements of a local ring R . Then $\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n) \sim \text{diag}(b_1, \dots, b_n)$ if and only if there exist two permutations σ, τ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ with

$$[R/a_i R]_l = [R/b_{\sigma(i)} R]_l \quad \text{and} \quad [R/a_i R]_e = [R/b_{\tau(i)} R]_e$$

for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

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Also for direct products (Alahmadi, F., J. Algebra 2015).

Other algebraic structures?

Other algebraic structures, not only modules, could have the same behavior.

Groups, Lie algebras, G -groups, . . .

Algebras

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If M is a K -algebra and we endow M with the multiplication $M \times M \rightarrow M$, $(x, y) \mapsto yx$, we get another algebra, called its *opposite algebra*, denoted by M^{op} .

Rings

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(b) More generally, for any ring R and any $a \in R$, left multiplication by a is an abelian group endomorphism $\lambda_a: R \rightarrow R$.

(c) There is a canonical ring morphism $\lambda: R \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Ab}}(R)$,
 $\lambda: a \mapsto \lambda_a$.

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R -modules

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- (e) *Right R -modules* = abelian groups G with a ring antihomomorphism $\rho: R \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Ab}}(G)$,
or equivalently
= abelian groups G with a ring homomorphism $\rho: R^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \text{End}_{\text{Ab}}(G)$.

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A *derivation* of a K -algebra M is a mapping $D: M \rightarrow M$ that is K -linear and is such that $D(xy) = (Dx)y + x(Dy)$ for every $x, y \in M$.

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(c) There is a canonical group morphism $G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G)$, $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ (the Cayley representation) and a canonical group morphism $\alpha: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$, $g \mapsto \alpha_g$.

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Now the opposite of any group G is a group G^{op} and the mapping $G \rightarrow G^{\text{op}}$, defined by $g \in G \mapsto g^{-1}$, is an isomorphism of G onto G^{op} . So there is no need to distinguish left G -sets from right G -sets, they form isomorphic categories. Similarly, there is no need to distinguish left G -groups from right G -groups, they form isomorphic categories.

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Now the opposite of any group G is a group G^{op} and the mapping $G \rightarrow G^{\text{op}}$, defined by $g \in G \mapsto g^{-1}$, is an isomorphism of G onto G^{op} . So there is no need to distinguish left G -sets from right G -sets, they form isomorphic categories. Similarly, there is no need to distinguish left G -groups from right G -groups, they form isomorphic categories.

The notion of G -group is classical, and sometimes G is called an *operator group* on H [Suzuki, Group Theory I, 1982, Definition 8.1].

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Let G be a group. A *(left) G -group* is a pair (H, φ) , where H is a group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(H)$ is a group homomorphism.

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Equivalently, a G -group is a group H endowed with a mapping $\cdot: G \times H \rightarrow H$, $(g, h) \mapsto gh$, called *left scalar multiplication*, such that

$$(a) \quad g(hh') = (gh)(gh')$$

$$(b) \quad (gg')h = g(g'h)$$

$$(c) \quad 1_G h = h$$

for every $g, g' \in G$ and every $h, h' \in H$.

The category $G\text{-Grp}$

Objects of $G\text{-Grp}$: all pairs (H, φ) , where H is any group and $\varphi: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(H)$ is a group homomorphism.

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Strict analogy with left modules over a ring R :

Objects of $R\text{-Mod}$: all pairs (H, φ) , where H is any abelian group and $\varphi: R \rightarrow \text{End}(H)$ is a ring homomorphism.

The category $G\text{-Grp}$

A special object of $G\text{-Grp}$ is the *regular G -group* (G, α) . Here $\alpha: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$, $g \mapsto \alpha_g$, where $\alpha_g(x) = gxg^{-1}$ for every $g, x \in G$.

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The regular G -group (G, α) plays, in the category $G\text{-Grp}$, a role pretty similar to the role of the regular module ${}_R R$ in the category $R\text{-Mod}$.

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The morphisms in the category $G\text{-Grp}$ are the group morphisms $f: H \rightarrow H'$ such that $f(gh) = gf(h)$ for every $g \in G, h \in H$.

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The injective objects in the category $G\text{-Grp}$ are only the trivial groups, like in the case of the category \mathbf{Grp} of groups. This is very different from the behaviour of injective modules in the category $R\text{-Mod}$.

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The category $G\text{-Set}$ of G -sets is a Boolean topos (which does not satisfy the Axiom of Choice), and the category of G -groups is the category of groups of that topos (Janelidze).

Modules vs groups

module M_R , $E := \text{End}(M_R)$

group G

idempotents in E



$$\{(A, B) \mid A, B \leq M_R, \\ M_R = A \oplus B\}$$

idempotents in $\text{End}_{\text{Grp}}(G)$



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Modules vs groups

$E\text{-Mod}$ ${}_E E$ regular module

$E\text{-Mod}$ is the category
in which it is natural to study
direct-sum decompositions
of ${}_E E$
= direct-sum decompositions
of M_R

Ω -groups G -sets

\backslash $/$
 G -groups

${}_G G$ regular G -group

$G\text{-Grp}$ is the category
in which it is natural to study
direct-product decompositions
of G

$\text{Aut}_{G\text{-Grp}}(G) =$
 $= \{ \text{central automorphisms of } G \}$

Factorisation of polynomials

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Uniqueness of factorisation: UFD. The standard definition is:

A *unique factorisation domain* R (UFD) is a commutative integral domain R in which:

- (i) every element $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$ and a non-invertible, is a product of finitely many irreducible elements of R ;
- (ii) if $p_1, \dots, p_n, q_1, \dots, q_m$ are irreducible elements of R and $p_1 \dots p_n = q_1 \dots q_m$, then $n = m$ and there exists a permutation σ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that p_i and $q_{\sigma(i)}$ are associates for every $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Primes and irreducible elements

In an integral domain R , every prime element is irreducible.

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In an integral domain R , every prime element is irreducible. If R is a UFD, the converse holds. More precisely:

An integral domain R is a UFD if and only if every irreducible is prime and R satisfies ascending chain condition on principal ideals, if and only if every irreducible is prime and R is atomic (every element $a \in R$, $a \neq 0$ and a non-invertible, is a product of finitely many irreducible elements of R .)

Associated elements

Proposition

The following conditions are equivalent for two prime elements a, b of a commutative integral domain R :

- (i) $a = bu$ for some invertible element $u \in R$.
- (ii) $aR = bR$.
- (iii) $R/aR \cong R/bR$.
- (iv) $[R/aR]_m = [R/bR]_m$.
- (v) $[R/aR]_e = [R/bR]_e$.
- (vi) $[R/aR]_I = [R/bR]_I$.

Commutative polynomials, non-commutative polynomials

The ring $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$.

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$\mathbb{Z}\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ is atomic: polynomials do factorise as product of irreducible polynomials. The invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ are only 1 and -1 .

Non-commutative polynomials

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Non-commutative polynomials

Does a polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ factorise as a product of irreducible polynomials in a unique way up to the sign of the irreducible factors?

No: $x(yx - 2) = (xy - 2)x$ in the ring $\mathbb{Z}\langle x, y \rangle$.

The Brungs Theorem

Theorem

Every polynomial in $R := \mathbb{Z}\langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle$ factorises as a product of irreducible polynomials. Moreover, if $p_1, \dots, p_n, q_1, \dots, q_m$ are irreducible polynomials in R and $p_1 \dots p_n = q_1 \dots q_m$, then $n = m$ and there exists a permutation σ of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $[R/p_i R]_m = [R/q_{\sigma(i)} R]_m$. \square

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For $x(yx - 2) = (xy - 2)x$ in the ring $R = \mathbb{Z}\langle x, y \rangle$,
 $[R/(xy - 2)R]_m = [R/(yx - 2)R]_m$,
because $\lambda_y: R/(xy - 2)R \rightarrow R/(yx - 2)R$ and
 $\lambda_x: R/(yx - 2)R \rightarrow R/(xy - 2)R$ are monomorphisms.

Polynomials with non-negative coefficients

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No. Example:

From the theory of cyclotomic polynomials we know that the factorization of $x^n - 1$ in the UFD $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ is $x^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(x)$, where $\Phi_d(x)$ is the d -th cyclotomic polynomial. Here

$$\Phi_1(x) = x - 1, \quad \Phi_2(x) = x + 1, \quad \Phi_3(x) = x^2 + x + 1,$$

$$\Phi_4(x) = x^2 + 1, \quad \Phi_5(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1, \quad \Phi_6(x) = x^2 - x + 1.$$

Polynomials with non-negative coefficients

$$\text{Thus } x^6 - 1 = \Phi_1(x)\Phi_2(x)\Phi_3(x)\Phi_6(x) =$$

Polynomials with non-negative coefficients

Thus $x^6 - 1 = \Phi_1(x)\Phi_2(x)\Phi_3(x)\Phi_6(x) = (x - 1)(x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 - x + 1)$, so we have a factorization $x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 = (x + 1)(x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 - x + 1)$ into irreducibles in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Multiplying the first factor and the last one, we get that $(x + 1)(x^2 - x + 1) = x^3 + 1 \in \mathbb{N}_0[x]$, and multiplying the last two factors we get that $(x^2 + x + 1)(x^2 - x + 1) = x^4 + x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{N}_0[x]$. Thus we get two essentially different factorizations $(x^3 + 1)(x^2 + x + 1) = (x + 1)(x^4 + x^2 + 1)$ of $x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ into irreducibles of $\mathbb{N}_0[x]$. Thus factorizations into irreducibles in $\mathbb{N}_0[x]$ are not unique (but every polynomial in $\mathbb{N}_0[x]$ has only finitely many distinct factorizations into irreducibles).

An application to direct-product decompositions of partially ordered set.

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(2) This is a distributive category:

$$X \times (Y \dot{\cup} Z) \cong (X \times Y) \dot{\cup} (X \times Z).$$

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$$X \times (Y \dot{\cup} Z) \cong (X \times Y) \dot{\cup} (X \times Z).$$

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(5) Two essentially different direct-product decompositions of the partially ordered set $1 \dot{\cup} L \dot{\cup} L^2 \dot{\cup} L^3 \dot{\cup} L^4 \dot{\cup} L^5$ into indecomposable partially ordered sets are given by

$$(L^3 \dot{\cup} 1) \times (L^2 \dot{\cup} L \dot{\cup} 1) \cong (L \dot{\cup} 1) \times (L^4 \dot{\cup} L^2 \dot{\cup} 1)$$