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## 1 Vector Spaces

## 1.1 Solution of Simultianeous Linear Equations

Assume  $F = \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $a_{ij}, b_i \in F$ , then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{ij} x_j = b_i \quad \forall i \in [1, n] : i \in \mathbb{Z}$$

is a system of linear Equations

- if all b's are 0 then the system is **homogenous**
- $L = \{x_1, ..., x_m\}$  is the **solution set** of Equations

#### 1.2 Fields and Vector Spaces

#### **DEFINITION 1.2.1.**

- 1. A **field** F is a set with functions:
  - addition =  $+: F \times F \to F; (\lambda, \mu) \mapsto \lambda + \mu$
  - multiplication =  $\cdot : F \times F \to F; (\lambda, \mu) \mapsto \lambda \mu$

such that (F, +) ans  $(F \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$  are abelian groups, with:

$$\lambda(\mu+\nu)=\lambda\mu+\lambda\nu\in F\quad\forall\lambda,\mu,\nu\in F$$

The neutral elements are called  $0_F, 1_F$ , in particular for all  $\lambda, \mu \in F$ 

- $\lambda + \mu = \mu + \lambda \in F$
- $\lambda \cdot \mu = \mu \cdot \lambda \in F$
- $\lambda + 0_F = \lambda \in F$
- $\lambda \cdot 1_F = \lambda \in F$

For all  $\lambda \in F$  there exists  $-\lambda \in F$  such that  $\lambda + (-\lambda) = 0_F \in F$ For all  $\lambda \neq 0 \in F$  tehre exists  $\lambda^{-1} \neq 0 \in F$  such that  $\lambda(\lambda^{-1}) = 1_F \in F$ 

2. A vector space V over a field F is a pair consisting of an abelian group  $V = (V, \dot{+})$  and a mapping

$$F \times V \to V; (\lambda, \overrightarrow{v})$$

such that for all  $\lambda, \mu \in F$  and  $\overrightarrow{v}, \overrightarrow{w} \in V$  the following identities hold:

- $\lambda(\overrightarrow{v} + \overrightarrow{w}) = \lambda \overrightarrow{v} + \lambda \overrightarrow{w}$  Distributive Law
- $(\lambda + \mu)\overrightarrow{v} = \lambda \overrightarrow{v} + \mu \overrightarrow{v}$  Distributive Law
- $\lambda(\mu \overrightarrow{v}) = (\lambda \mu) \overrightarrow{v}$  Associativity Law
- $1_F \overrightarrow{v} = \overrightarrow{v}$

**LEMMA 1.2.1.** If V is a vector space and  $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$  then  $0\overrightarrow{v} = \overrightarrow{0}$ 

**LEMMA 1.2.2.** If V is a vector space and  $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$  then  $(-1)\overrightarrow{v} = -\overrightarrow{v}$ 

**LEMMA 1.2.3.** If V is a vector space over a field F then  $\lambda \overrightarrow{0} = \overrightarrow{0} \quad \forall \lambda \in F$ 

#### 1.3 Product of Sets and of Vector Spaces

• Cartesian product of sets:  $X_1 \times ... \times X_n := \{(x_1, ..., x_n) : x_i \in X_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ , an element of this product is known as a product n-tuples.

There are special mappings called **projections** for a cartesian product

$$\operatorname{pr}_i: X_i \times ... \times X_n \to X_i$$
$$(x_i, ..., x_n) \mapsto x_i$$

The cartesian product of n copies of a set X is written in short as  $X^n$ 

$$\forall n, m \geq 0, \ X^n \times X^m \xrightarrow{\sim} X^{n+m}; ((x_1, ..., x_n), (x_{n+1}, ..., x_{n+m})) \mapsto (x_1, ..., x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+m})$$

## 1.4 Vector Subspaces

**DEFINITION 1.4.1.** A subset U of a vector space V is called a **vector subspace** or **subspace** if U contains the zero vector  $(\overrightarrow{0})$  and whenever  $\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}$  and  $\lambda \in F$  we have  $\overrightarrow{u} + \overrightarrow{v} \in U$  and  $\lambda \overrightarrow{u} \in U$ 

**PROPOSITION 1.4.1.** Let T be a subset of vector space V over a field F. Then amongst all vector subspaces of V that include T there is a smallest vector subspace

$$\langle T \rangle = \langle T \rangle_F \subseteq V$$

**DEFINITION 1.4.2.** A subset S of a vector space V is called a **generating set** of a V if its span is all of the vector space. A vector space that has a finite generating set is **finitely generated** 

**DEFINITION 1.4.3.** Check Definition 1.4.9 on Iain's (Not me I am Ian) note I dun think it's English

#### 1.5 Linear Independence and Bases

**DEFINITION 1.5.1.** A subset  $L = \{\overrightarrow{v_1}, ..., \overrightarrow{v_n}\}$  of a vector subspace V is **linearly independent** if for all arbitrary scalars  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in F$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \overrightarrow{v_i} = 0 \to \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$$

**DEFINITION 1.5.2.** A subset  $L = \{\overrightarrow{v_1}, ..., \overrightarrow{v_n}\}$  of a vector subspace V is **linearly dependent** if it's not **linearly independent**, which mean there exist some  $\alpha_j \in \{a_1, ..., a_n\}, \alpha_j \neq 0$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \overrightarrow{v_i} = 0$$

**DEFINITION 1.5.3.** A basis of a vector space B of a vector space V is a linearly independent generating set in V

**DEFINITION 1.5.4.** Let F be a field, V a vector space over F and  $\overrightarrow{v_1}, ..., \overrightarrow{v_r} \in V$  vectors. The family  $(\overrightarrow{v_i})_{1 \le i \le r}$  is a basis of V if and only if the following "evaluation"

$$\begin{split} \Phi: F^r \to V \\ (\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_r) \mapsto \alpha_1 \overrightarrow{v}_1 + ... + \alpha_r \overrightarrow{v}_r \end{split}$$

is a bijection

**DEFINITION 1.5.5.** The following for a subset E of a vector space V are equivalent: An isomorphism of a vector space to itself is called **anautomorphism** of our vector space.

- Our subset E is a basis, ie. a linearly independent generating set;
- Our subset E is a minimal among all generating sets, meaning that  $E \setminus \{\overrightarrow{v}\}$  does not generate V
- Our subset E is maximal among all linearly independent subsets, meaning that  $E \cup \{\overrightarrow{v}\}\$  is not linearly independent for any  $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$

**COROLLARY 1.5.1.** Let V be a finitely generated vector space over a vield F, then V is a basis

**THEOREM 1.5.1.** Let V be a vector space.

- If  $L \subset V$  is a linearly independent subset and E is a minimal amongst all generating sets of our vector with  $L \subseteq E$ , then E is a basis.
- If  $L \subseteq V$  is a generating set and if L is maximal amongstall linearly independent subsets of vector space with  $L \subseteq E$ , then L is a basis.

**THEOREM 1.5.2.** Let field F, F-vector space V and family of vectors  $(\overrightarrow{v_i})_{i \in I}$  from V, The following are equivalent:

- The family  $(\overrightarrow{v_i})_{i \in I}$  is a basis of V;
- For each vector  $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$  there is percisely one family  $(a_i)_{i \in I}$  od elements of field F, almost all of which are zero and such that:

$$\overrightarrow{v} = \sum_{i \in I} a_i \overrightarrow{v_i}$$

#### 1.6 Dimension of a vector space

**THEOREM 1.6.1** (Fundamental Estimate of Linear Algebra). No linearly independent subset of a given vector space has more elements then a generating set. Thus if V is a vector space,  $L \subset V$  a linearly independent subset and  $E \subseteq V$  a generating set, then  $|L| \leq |E|$ 

**THEOREM 1.6.2** (Steinitz Exchange Theorem). Let V be a vector space,  $L \subset V$  a finite linearly independent subset and  $E \subseteq V$  a generating set. Then there is an injection  $\phi: L \hookrightarrow E$  such that  $(E \setminus \phi(L)) \cup L$  is also a generating set for V

**LEMMA 1.6.1** (Exchange Lemma). Let V be a vector space,  $M \subseteq V$  a linearly independent subset, adn  $E \subseteq V$  a generating subset, such that  $M \subseteq E$ . if  $\overrightarrow{w} \in V \setminus M$  is a vector not belonging to M such that  $M \cup \{\overrightarrow{w}\}$  is linearly independent, then there exists  $\overrightarrow{e} \in E \setminus M$  such that  $\{E \setminus \{\overrightarrow{e}\}\} \cup \{\overrightarrow{w}\}$  is a generating set for V

**COROLLARY 1.6.1** (Cardinality of Bases). Let V be a finitely generated vector space.

- V has a finite basis
- V cannot have an infinite basis
- Any two bases of V have the same number of elements

**DEFINITION 1.6.1.** The cardinality of one (and by Cardinality of Bases each) basis of a finitely generated vector space V is called the **dimension** of V and will be denoted by  $\dim(V)$ . If the vector space is not finitely generated, then we write  $\dim(V) = \infty$  and call V infinite dimensional. As usual, we will ignore the difference between infinities.

**COROLLARY 1.6.2** (Cardinality Criterion for Bases). Let V be a finitely generated vector space.

- Each linearly independent subset  $L \subset V$  has at most  $\dim(V)$  elements, and if  $|L| = \dim(V)$  then L is actually a basis
- Each generating set  $E \subseteq V$  has at least  $\dim(V)$  elements, and if  $|E| = \dim(V)$  the E is actually a basis.

**COROLLARY 1.6.3** (Dimension Estimate for Vector Subspaces). A proper vector subspace of a finite dimensional vector space has itself a strictly smaller dimension.

**THEOREM 1.6.3** (The Dimension Theorem). Let V be vector space containing vector subspaces  $U, W \subseteq V$ . Then

$$\dim(U+W) + \dim(U\cap W) = \dim(U) + \dim(W)$$

### 1.7 Linear Mappings

**DEFINITION 1.7.1.** Let V, W be a vector spaces over a field F. A mapping  $f: V \to W$  is called **linear** or more percisely **F-linearly** or even a **homomorphism of** F**-vector spaces** if for all  $\overrightarrow{v}_1, \overrightarrow{v}_2 \in V$  and  $\lambda \in F$  we have

$$f(\overrightarrow{v}_1 + \overrightarrow{v}_2) = f(\overrightarrow{v}_1) + f(\overrightarrow{v}_2)$$
$$f(\lambda \overrightarrow{v}_1) = \lambda f(\overrightarrow{v}_1)$$

- A bijective linear mapping is called as **isomorphism** of vector spaces. If there is an isomorphism bwetween two vector spaces we say them **isomorphic**.
- A **homomorphism** from one vector space to itself is called anendomorphism of our vector space.
- An isomorphism of a vector space to itself is called **anautomorphism** of our vector space.

**DEFINITION 1.7.2.** A point that is sent to itself br a mapping is called a **fixed point** of the mapping. Given a mapping  $f: X \to X$ , we denote the set of fixed points by

$$X^f = \{ x \in X : f(x) = x \}$$

**DEFINITION 1.7.3.** Two vector subspaces  $V_1, V_2$  of a vector space V are called **complementary** of addition defines a bijection  $V_1 \times V_2 \xrightarrow{\sim} V$ 

**THEOREM 1.7.1** (The Classification of Vector Spaces by their Dimension). Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then a vector space over a field F is isomorphic to  $F^n$  i.f.f it has dimension n

**LEMMA 1.7.1** (Linear Mappings and Bases). Let V, W be vector spaces over F and let  $B \subset V$  be a basis. Then restriction of a mapping gives a bijection

$$\operatorname{Hom}_F(V,W) \stackrel{\sim}{\to} \operatorname{Maps}(B,W)$$
  
 $f \mapsto f|_B$ 

**PROPOSITION 1.7.1.** • Every injective linar mapping  $f: V \hookrightarrow W$  has a **left inverse**, in other words a linear mapping  $g: W \to V$  such that  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_V$ 

• Every surjective linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  has a **right inverse**, in other words a linear mapping  $g: W \to V$  such that  $g \circ f = \mathrm{id}_W$ 

## 1.8 Rank-Nullity Throrem

**DEFINITION 1.8.1.** The **image** of a linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is the subset  $\operatorname{im}(f) = f(V) \subseteq W$ . The **preimage** of the zero vector (**kernel**) of a linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is denoted by

$$\ker(f) := f^{-1}(0) = \{ v \in V : f(v) = 0 \}$$

The kernel is a vector subspace if V

**LEMMA 1.8.1.** A linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is injective if an only if it's kernel is zero.

**THEOREM 1.8.1** (Rank-Nullity Theorem). Let  $f: V \to W$  be a linear mapping between vector spaces, then  $\dim(V) = \dim(\ker f) + \dim(\operatorname{im}(f))$ 

## 2 Linear Mappings and Matrices

## 2.1 Linear Mappings $F^m \to F^n$ and Matrices

**THEOREM 2.1.1** (Linear mappings  $F^m \to F^n$  and Matrices). Let F be a field and let  $m, nin\mathbb{N}$  be neutral numbers. There is a nijection between the space of linear mappings  $F^m \to F^n$  and the set of matrices woth n rows and m columns and entries in F:

$$\mathbf{M}: \operatorname{Hom}_F(F^m, F^n) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Mat}(n \times m; F)$$
  
$$f \mapsto [f]$$

This attaches to each linear mapping f its **representing matrix**  $\mathbf{M}(f) := [f]$ . The column of this matrix are the images under f of the standard basis elements if  $F^m$ :

$$[f] = (f(\overrightarrow{e}_1)|f(\overrightarrow{e}_2)|\dots|f(\overrightarrow{e}_m))$$

**DEFINITION 2.1.1.** Let  $n, m, l \in \mathbb{N}$ , F a field and let  $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n \times m; F)$  and  $B \in \operatorname{Mat}(m \times l; F)$  be matrices. The **product**  $A \circ B = AB \in \operatorname{Mat}(n \times l; F)$  is the matrix defined by

$$(AB)_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} A_{ij} B_{jk}$$

**THEOREM 2.1.2** (Composition of Linear Mapping and Products of Matrices). Let  $g: F^l \to F^m$  and  $f: F^m \to F^n$ belinearmappings. Then  $[f \circ g] = [f] \circ [g]$ 

## 2.2 Basic Properties of Matrices

**DEFINITION 2.2.1.** A matrix A is called **invertable** if there exist matrices such tht BA = I and AC = I

**DEFINITION 2.2.2.** will define an **elementary matrix** to be any square matrix that differs from the identity matrix in at most one entry.

**THEOREM 2.2.1.** Every square matrix with entries in a field can be written as a product if elementary matrices.

**DEFINITION 2.2.3.** Any matrix whose only non-zero entries lies on the diagonal, and which has first 1's along the diagonal and then 0's, is said to be in **Smith Normal Form**:

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } i \neq j \\ 1 \text{ if } A_{(i+1)(j+1)} = 1 \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**THEOREM 2.2.2** ((Transformation of a Matrix into Smith Normal Form). For each matrix  $A \in \text{Mat}(n \times m; F)$  there exist invertable matrices P, Q such that PAQ is a matrix in Smith Normal Form.

**DEFINITION 2.2.4.** The **column rank** of a matrix  $A \in \text{Mat}(n \times m; F)$  is the dimension of the subsequence of  $F^n$  generated by the columns of A. Simmilarly, the **row rank** of A is the dimension of the subspace of  $F^m$  generated by the rows of A.

**THEOREM 2.2.3.** The column rank and the row rank of any matrix are equal.

Let's now refer the column and row rank as **rank** for the sake of not losing any generality.

**DEFINITION 2.2.5.** When the rank is as big as possible, meaning that it's equal to either the number of rows or number of columns (whichever is smaller), then the matrix has **full rank** 

#### 2.3 Abstract Linear Mappings and Matrices

**THEOREM 2.3.1** (Abstract Linear Mappings and Matrices). Let F be a field, V, W vector spaces over F with ordered bases  $\mathcal{A} = (\overrightarrow{v}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{v}_m)$  and  $\mathcal{B} = (\overrightarrow{w}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{w}_n)$ . Then to each linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  we assosiate bases a **representing matrix**  $\mathcal{B}[f]_{\mathcal{A}}$  whose entried  $a_i j$  are defined by the identity

$$f(\overrightarrow{v}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \overrightarrow{w}_i \in W$$

This produces a bijection, which is event an isomorphism of vector spaces:

$$\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}}: \mathrm{Hom}_{F}(V, W) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathrm{Mat}(n \times m; F)$$
  
$$f \mapsto_{\mathcal{B}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}}$$

We call  $\mathbf{M}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}}(f) =_{\mathcal{B}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}}$  the epresenting matrix of the mapping with respect to the bases  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ 

**THEOREM 2.3.2** (The Representing Matrix of a Composition of Linear Mappings). Let F be a field and U, V, W finite dimensional vector spaces over F with ordered bases  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C}$ . If  $f: U \to V$  and  $g: V \to W$  are linear mappings, then the representing matrix of the composition  $g \circ f: U \to W$  is the matrix product of the representing matrix of f and g:

$$_{\mathcal{C}}[g\circ f]_{\mathcal{A}}=_{\mathcal{C}}[g]_{\mathcal{B}}\circ_{\mathcal{B}}[f]_{\mathcal{A}}$$

**DEFINITION 2.3.1.** Let V be a finite dimensional vector space with an ordered basis  $\mathcal{A} = (\overrightarrow{v}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{v}_m)$ . We will denote the invese to the bijection of  $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}} \xrightarrow{\sim} V, (\alpha_a, ..., \alpha_m)^T \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \overrightarrow{v}_i$  by

$$\overrightarrow{v} \mapsto_{\mathcal{A}} [\overrightarrow{v}]$$

**THEOREM 2.3.3** (Representation of the Image of a Vector). Let V, W be finite dimensional vector spaces over F with ordered bases  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$  and let  $f: V \to W$  be a linear mapping. The following holds for  $\overrightarrow{v} \in V$ :

$$_{\mathcal{B}}[f(\overrightarrow{v})] =_{\mathcal{B}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}} \circ_{\mathcal{A}} [\overrightarrow{v}]$$

#### 2.4 Change of Matrix by Change of Basis

**DEFINITION 2.4.1.** Let  $\mathcal{A} = (\overrightarrow{v}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{v}_n), \mathcal{B} = (\overrightarrow{w}_1, ..., \overrightarrow{w}_n)$  be ordered bses of the same F-vector space V. Then the matrix representing the identity mapping with respect to the bases  $\mathfrak{B}[\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{A}}$  is called a **change of basis matrix**. By definition, its entries are given by the equalities  $\overrightarrow{v}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \overrightarrow{w}_i$ 

**THEOREM 2.4.1** (Change of Basis). Let V, W be finite dimensional vector spaces over F and let  $f: V \to W$  br a linear mapping. Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}'$  are order bases of V and  $\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{B}'$  are ordered bases of W. Then:

$$_{\mathcal{B}'}[f]_{\mathcal{A}'} =_{\mathcal{B}'} [\mathrm{id}_W]_{\mathcal{B}} \circ_{\mathcal{B}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}} \circ_{\mathcal{B}} [\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{A}'}$$

**COROLLARY 2.4.1.** Let V be a finite dimensional vector space and let  $f: V \to V$  be an endomorphism of V. Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}'$  are ordered bases of V. Then

$$_{\mathcal{A}'}[f]_{\mathcal{A}'} =_{\mathcal{A}} [\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{A}'}^{-1} \circ_{\mathcal{A}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}} \circ_{\mathcal{A}} [\mathrm{id}_V]_{\mathcal{A}'}$$

**THEOREM 2.4.2** (Smith Normal Form). Let  $f: V \to W$  be a linear mapping between finite dimensional F-vector spaces. There exist an order basis  $\mathcal{A}$  of V and an ordered basis  $\mathcal{B}$  of W, such that the representing matrix  $_{\mathcal{B}}[f]_{\mathcal{A}}$  has zero entries everywhere except possibly on one diagonal, and along the diagonaltherer are 1's first, followed by 0's

**DEFINITION 2.4.2** (Trace). The trace of a square matrix is defined to be the sum of its diagonal entries:

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$$

## 3 Rings and Modules

## 3.1 Rings

**DEFINITION 3.1.1.** A ring is a set with two operations  $(R, +, \cdot)$  that satisfy:

- 1. (R, +) is an abelian group
- 2.  $(R, \cdot)$  is a **monoid**, meaning that the second operation  $: R \times R \to R$  is assosiative and that there is an **identity element**  $1 = 1_R \in R$ , often called just the **identity**, with the peoperty that  $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a \quad \forall a \in R$
- 3. The Distributive laws hold, meaning that for all  $a, b, c \in R$

$$a \cdot (b+c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$$
 addition  
 $(a+b) \cdot c = (a \cdot c) + (b \cdot c)$  multiplication

A ring which element is commutative, that means  $a \cdot b = b \cdot a \quad \forall a, b \in R$ , is a **commutative ring** 

**PROPOSITION 3.1.1** (Divisbility by Sum). A natural number is divisible by 3(respectively by 9) percisely when the sum of its digits is divisible by 3 (or 9)

**DEFINITION 3.1.2.** A field is a non-zero commutative ring F in which every non-zero element  $a \in F$  has an inverse  $a^{-1} \in F$ , that is an element  $a^{-1}$  with the property that  $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = 1$ 

**PROPOSITION 3.1.2.** Let m be a positive integer. The commutative ring  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  is a field i.f.f. m is prime.

### 3.2 Peoperties of Rings

**LEMMA 3.2.1** (Mutiplying by zero and negatives). Let R be a ring and let  $a, b \in R$ . Then:

- 1. 0a = 0 = a0
- 2. (-a)b = -(ab) = a(-b)
- 3. (-a)(-b) = ab

**LEMMA 3.2.2** (Rules of multiples). Let R be a ring, let  $a, b \in R$  and  $m.n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then:

- 1. m(a+b) = ma + mb
- 2. (m+n)a = ma + na
- 3. m(na) = (mn)a
- 4. m(ab) = (ma)b = a(mb)
- 5. (ma)(nb) = (mn)(ab)

**DEFINITION 3.2.1.** Let R be a ring. An element  $a \in R$  is called a **unit** if it is **invertable** in R or in other words **has a multiplicative inverse in** R, meaning that  $\exists a^{-1} \in R$  such that

$$aa^{-1} = 1 = a^{-1}a$$

**PROPOSITION 3.2.1.** The set  $R^{\times}$  of units in a ring R forms a group under multiplication.

**DEFINITION 3.2.2** (Zero-divisor). In a ring R a non-zero element a is called a **zero-divisor** or **divisor of zero** if there exists a non-zero element b such that either ab = 0 or ba = 0

$$a \neq 0 \in R, \exists b \neq 0 \in R \text{ s.t. } ab = 0 \cup ba = 0 \Rightarrow a \text{ is a zero divisor}$$

**DEFINITION 3.2.3** (Integral domain). An **integral domain** is a non-zero commutative ring that has no zero-divisors, therefore the if D is an integral domain then:

- 1.  $ab = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0$  or b = 0, and
- $2. \ a, b \neq 0 \Rightarrow ab \neq 0$

**PROPOSITION 3.2.2.** Let m be a natural number. The  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain i.f.f. m is prime

**THEOREM 3.2.1.** Every **fnite** integral domain is a field

#### 3.3 Polynomials

**DEFINITION 3.3.1.** Let R be a ring. A **polnomial** over R is an expression of the form

$$P = a_0 + a_1 X + a_2 X^2 + \dots + a_m X^m$$

for some  $m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus 0$  and elements  $a_i \in R$  for  $0 \le i \le m$ . The set of all Polynomials over R is denoted by R[X]. Incase  $a_m$  is not zero, the polynomial P has a degree of m, written  $\deg(P) = m$ , where  $a_m$  is the leading coefficient.

When the leading coefficient is 1 the polynomial is a **monic** polynomial, linear for  $a_1$ , quardratic for  $a_2$ , then cubic for  $a_3$ .

**DEFINITION 3.3.2.** Whith the definition in the set R[X] becomes a ring called the **ring** of polynomials with coefficients in R, or over R. The zero and the indentity of R[X] are the zero and identity of R resp.

#### LEMMA 3.3.1.

- 1. If a ring R with no zero-divisors, then R[X] has no zero-divisors and  $\deg(PQ) = \deg(P) + \deg(Q)$  for all non-zero  $P, Q \in R[X]$
- 2. If R is an integral domain then so is R[X]

**THEOREM 3.3.1** (Division and Remainder). Let R be an integral domain and let  $P, Q \in R[X]$  with Q. Then there exists unique  $A, B \in R[X]$  such that P = AQ + B and  $\deg(B) < \deg(Q)$  or B = 0

**DEFINITION 3.3.3.** Let R be a commutative ring and  $P \in R[X]$  a polynomial. Then the polynomial P can be evaluated at the element  $\lambda \in R$  to produce  $P(\lambda)$  by replacing the powers of X in the polynomial P by the corresponding powers of X in the polynomial P by the corresponding powers of X. In this way we have a mapping  $R[X] \to \operatorname{Maps}(R,R)$  This is the percise mathematical description of thinking of a polynomial as a function. An element  $X \in R$  is a root of P is P(X) = 0

**DEFINITION 3.3.4.** A field F is algebraically closed of each non-constant polynomial  $P \in F[X] \setminus F$  with coefficients in our field has a root in our field F

**THEOREM 3.3.2** (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). The field of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ , is algebraically closed.

**THEOREM 3.3.3.** If F is an algebraically closed field, then every non-zero polynomial  $P \in F[X] \setminus \{0\}$  decomposes into linear factors

$$P = c \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - \lambda_i)$$

with  $n \geq 0, c \in F^{\times}$  and  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n \in F$ 

#### 3.4 Homomorpgism, Ideals and Subrings

**DEFINITION 3.4.1.** Let R, S be rings. A mapping  $f : R \to S$  is a **ring homomorphism** if the following hold for all  $x, y \in R$ :

$$f(x+y) = f(x)f(y)$$
$$f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$$

**LEMMA 3.4.1.** Let R,S be rings and  $f:R\to S$  a ring homomorphism. Then for all  $x,y\in R,m\in\mathbb{Z}$ :

- 1.  $f(0_r) = )_s$  Where  $O_R, 0_S$  are the zeros of the resptive ring
- 2. f(-x) = -f(x)
- 3. f(x y) = f(x) f(y)
- 4. f(mx) = mf(x)

**DEFINITION 3.4.2.** A subset I of a ring R is an **ideal**,written  $I \subseteq R$ , if the following hold:

- 1.  $I \neq 0$
- 2. I is closed under subtraction
- 3.  $\forall i \in I, r \in R : ir, ri \in I$

**DEFINITION 3.4.3.** Let R be a commutative ring and let  $T \subset R$ . The the **ideal of** R **generated by** T is the set

$$_{R}\langle T\rangle = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} r_{i}t_{i} : t_{1}, ...t_{m} \in T, r_{1}, ..., r_{m} \in R \right\}$$

**PROPOSITION 3.4.1.** Let R be a commutative ring and let  $T \subseteq R$ . The  $_R\langle T \rangle$  is the smallest ideal of R that contains T

**DEFINITION 3.4.4.** Let R be a commutative ring. AN ideal I of R is called a **principal** ideal if  $I = \langle t \rangle$  for some  $t \in R$ 

**DEFINITION 3.4.5.** Let R, S be rings with zero elements  $0_R, 0_S$  resp and let  $f: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Since f is in particular a group homomorphism. Then  $\ker(f)$  is an ideal of R

**LEMMA 3.4.2.** f us injective i.f.f.  $ker(f) = \{0\}$ 

**LEMMA 3.4.3.** The intersection of any collection of ideals of a ring R is an ideal of R

**LEMMA 3.4.4.** Let I, J be ideals of ring R. Then  $I + J = \{a + b : a \in I, b \in J\}$  is an ideal of R

**DEFINITION 3.4.6** (subring). Let R be a ring. A subset R' of R is a **subring** of R if R' itself is a ring under the operations of addition and multiplication defined in R

**PROPOSITION 3.4.2** (Test of a subring). Let R' be a subset of a ring R. Then R' is a subring i.f.f.

- 1. R' has a multiplicative identity, and
- 2. R' is closed under subtraction:  $a, b \in R' \rightarrow a b \in R'$ , and
- 3. R' is closed under multiplication

**PROPOSITION 3.4.3.** Let R and S be subrings and  $f: R \to Saringhomomorphism$ 

- 1. If R' is a subring of R then f(R') is a subring of S. In particular,  $\operatorname{im}(f)$  is a subring of S
- 2. Assume that  $f(1_R) = 1_S$ . Then if x is a unit in R, f(x) is a unit in S and  $(f(x))^{-1} = f(x^{-1})$ . In this case f restricts to a group homomorphism  $f|_{R^\times} : R^\times \to S^\times$

#### 3.5 Equivalece Relations

**DEFINITION 3.5.1.** A **relation** R on a set X is a subset  $R \subseteq X \times X$ . In this context, adn only in their context, we write xRy instead of  $(x,y) \in R$ . R is an **equivalence relation** on X when for all  $x, y, z \in X$  the following holds:

1. Reflexivity: xRx

2. Symmetry:  $xRy \Leftrightarrow yRx$ 

3. Transitivity:  $(xRy \cap yRx) \rightarrow xRz$ 

**DEFINITION 3.5.2.** Suppose that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on a set X. For  $x \in X$  the set  $E(x) := \{z \in X : z \sim x\}$  is called the **equivalence class of** x. A subset  $E \subseteq X$  is called an **equivalence class** for our equivalence relation if there is an  $x \in X$  for which E = E(x). An element of an equivalence relation is called a **representative** of the class. A subset  $Z \subseteq X$  contains percisely one element from each equivalence class is called a **system of representatives** for the equivalence relation.

**DEFINITION 3.5.3.** Given an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on the set X we will denote the set of equivalence classes, which is a subset of the power set  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , by

$$(X/\sim):=\{E(x):x\in X\}$$

**DEFINITION 3.5.4.**  $g:(X/\sim)\to Z$  is **well-defined** if  $\exists$  a mapping  $f:X\to Z$  such that f has the peoperty  $x\sim y\to f(x)=f(y)\cap g=\bar{f}$ 

## 3.6 Factor Rings and the First Isomorphism Theorem

**DEFINITION 3.6.1.** Let R be a ring,  $I \subseteq R$  be an ideal in ring R. The set

$$x+I=\{x+i:i\in I\}\subseteq R$$

is a coset of I in R or the coset of x with respect to I in R

**DEFINITION 3.6.2.** Let R be a ring,  $I \subseteq R$  an ideal, and  $\sim$  the equivalence relation defined by  $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow x - y \in I$ . Then R/I, the factor ring of R by I or the quotient of R by I, is the set  $(R/\sim)$  of cosets of I in R.

**THEOREM 3.6.1.** Let R be a ring and  $I \subseteq R$  and ideal. Then R/I is a ring, where the operation of additionis defined by

$$(x+I) + (y+I) = (x+y) + I \quad \forall x, y \in R$$

and multiplication is defined by

$$(x+I)\dot{(}y+I) = xy+I \quad \forall x,y \in R$$

**THEOREM 3.6.2** (First Isomorphism Theorem for Rings). Let R and S be rings. Then every ring homomorphism  $f: R \longrightarrow S$  induces a ring isomorphism

$$\bar{f}: R/\ker f \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im} f$$

#### 3.7 Modules and All That

**DEFINITION 3.7.1.** A (left) module M over a ring  $\mathbf{R}$  is a pair consisting if an abelian group M = (M, +) and a mapping

$$R \times M \to M$$
  
 $(r, a) \mapsto ra$ 

such that for all  $r, s \in R$  and  $a, b \in M$  the following indentities hold:

$$r(a + b) = ra + rb$$
$$(r + s)a = ra + sa$$
$$r(sa) = (rs)a$$
$$1_{R}a = a$$

**LEMMA 3.7.1.** Let R be a ring and M an R-module:

- 1.  $0_R a = 0_M \quad \forall a \in M$
- 2.  $r0_M = 0_M \quad \forall r \in R$
- 3.  $(-r)a = r(-a) = -(ra) \quad \forall r \in R, a \in M$

**DEFINITION 3.7.2.** Let R be a ring and let M, N be R-modules. A mapping  $f: M \to N$  is an R-homomorphism or homomorphism if the following hold for all  $a, b \in M$  and  $r \in R$ 

$$f(a+b) = f(a+b)$$
$$f(ra) = rf(a)$$

The kernel of f is  $\ker f = \{a \in M : f(a) = \}_N\} \subseteq M$  and the image of f is  $\operatorname{im} f = \{f(a) : a \in M\} \subseteq N$ . If f is a bijection then it is an R-module isomorphism or isomorphism  $(M \simeq N)$ 

**DEFINITION 3.7.3.** A non-empty subset M' of an R-module M is a submodule if M' is an R-module with respect to the operations of the R-module M restricted to M'

**PROPOSITION 3.7.1** (Test for a submodule). Let R be a ring and M an R-module. A subset M' of M is a submodule i.f.f.

- 1.  $0_M \in M'$
- $2. \ a,b \in M' \Rightarrow a-b \in M'$
- 3.  $r \in R, ai \in M' \Rightarrow ra \in M'$

**LEMMA 3.7.2.** Let  $f: M \to N$  be an R-homomorphism. The ker f is a submodule of M and im f is a submodule of N.

**LEMMA 3.7.3.** Let R be a ring, M, N be R-modules and let  $f: M \to N$  be an R-homomorphism. Then f is injective i.f.f. ker  $f = 0_M$ 

**DEFINITION 3.7.4.** Let R be a ring, M and R-module and let  $T \subseteq M$ . The the submodule of M generated by T is the set

$$_R\langle T\rangle = \{r_1t_1 + ... + r_mt_m : t_1, ..., t_m \in T, r_1, ..., r_m \in R\}$$

**LEMMA 3.7.4.** Let  $T \subseteq M$ . The  ${}_R\langle T \rangle$  is the smallest submodule of M that contains T

**LEMMA 3.7.5.** The intersection of any collection of submodules of M is a submodule of M.

**LEMMA 3.7.6.** Let  $M_1, M_2$  be submodules of M, Then  $M_1 + M_2 = \{a+b : a \in M_1, b \in M_2\}$  is a submodule of M

**DEFINITION 3.7.5.** Let R be a ring, M ad R-module and N a submodule of M. For each  $a \in M$  the coset of a with respect to N in M is

$$a + N = \{a + b : b \in N\}$$

**THEOREM 3.7.1** (The Universal Property of Factor Modules). Let R be a ring, let L and M be R-modules, and N a submodule of M.

- 1. The mapping  $g: M \to M/N$  sending a to a+N for all  $a \in M$  is serjective R-homomorphism with kernel N
- 2. If  $f: M \to L$  is an R-homomorphism with  $f(N) = \{0_L\}$ , so that  $N \subseteq \ker f$ , then there is a unique homomorphism  $\bar{f}: M/N \to L$  such that  $f = \bar{f} \circ g$

**THEOREM 3.7.2** (First Isomorphism Theorem for Modules). Let R be a ring and let M, N be R-modules. Then every R-homomorphism  $f: M/\ker f \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im} f$ 

## 4 Determinants and Eigenvalues Redux

## 4.1 The sign of a permutation

**DEFINITION 4.1.1.** The group of all permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , also known as bijections from  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  to itself, is denoted by  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  and called the n-th symmetric group. It is a group under composition and it has n! elements.

A transposition is a permutation that swaps two elements of the set and leaves all the others unchanged.

**DEFINITION 4.1.2.** An inversion of a permutation  $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n$  is apair (i, j) such that  $1 \le i < j \le n$  and  $\sigma(i) > \sigma(j)$ . The number of inversions of the permutation  $\sigma$  is called the length of  $\sigma$  ans written  $l(\sigma)$ . In formulas:

$$l(\sigma) = |\{(i, j) : i < j \text{ but } \sigma(i) > \sigma(j)\}|$$

The sign of  $\sigma$  is defined to be the parity of the permutations of  $\sigma$ . In formulas:

$$\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) = (-1)^{l(\sigma)}$$

LEMMA 4.1.1 (Multiplicity of the sign).