# Honours Algebra Notes

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## 1 Vector Spaces

## 1.1 Solutions of simultaneous linear equations

• Theorem 1.1.4: Solution sets of inhomogeneous systems of linear equations
If the solution set of a linear system of equations is non-empty, then we obtain all solutions by adding component-wise an arbitrary solution of the associated homogenised system to a fixed solution of the system.

## 1.2 Fields and vector spaces

• Definition 1.2.1.1: Fields

A field F is a set with functions

addition = 
$$+: F \times F \to F$$
;  $(\lambda, \mu) \mapsto \lambda + \mu$   
multiplication =  $.: F \times F \to F$ ;  $(\lambda, \mu) \mapsto \lambda \mu$ 

such that (F, +) and  $(F \setminus \{0\}, .)$  are abelian groups, with

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

The neutral elements are called  $0_F, 1_F$ . In particular

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

For every  $\lambda \in F$  there exists  $-\lambda \in F$  such that

$$\lambda + (-) = 0_F \in F$$

For every  $\lambda \neq 0 \in F$  there exists  $\lambda^{-1} \neq 0 \in F$  such that

$$\lambda(\lambda^{-1}) = 1_F \in F$$

• Definition 1.2.1.2: Vector space

A vector space V over a field F is a pair consisting of an abelian group V = (V, +) and a mapping

$$F \times V \to V : (\lambda, \mathbf{v}) \mapsto \lambda \mathbf{v}$$

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

$$\lambda(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\lambda \mathbf{v}) + (\lambda \mathbf{w})$$
 (distributivity)  

$$(\lambda + \mu)\mathbf{v} = (\lambda \mathbf{v}) + (\mu \mathbf{v})$$
 (distributivity)  

$$\lambda(\mu \mathbf{v}) = (\lambda \mu)\mathbf{v}$$
 (associativity)  

$$1_F \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$$

A vector space V over a field F is called an F-vector space.

- Lemma 1.2.2: Product with the scalar zero If V is a vector space and  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , then  $0\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
- Lemma 1.2.3: Product with the scalar (-1) If V is a vector space and  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , then  $(-1)\mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v}$ .
- Lemma 1.2.4: Product with the zero vector If V is a vector space over a field F, then  $\lambda \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$  for all  $\lambda \in F$ . Furthermore, if  $\lambda \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ , then either  $\lambda = 0$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

## 1.3 Products of sets and of vector spaces

## 1.4 Vector subspaces

• Definition 1.4.1: Vector subspaces

A subset U of a vector space V is called a vector subspace or subspace if U contains  $\mathbf{0}$  and

$$\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in U$$
 and  $\lambda \in F \implies \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in U$  and  $\lambda \mathbf{u} \in U$ 

• Proposition 1.4.5: Generating a vector subspace from a subset

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

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

It can be described as the set of all vectors  $\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \alpha_r \mathbf{v}_r$  with  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in F$  and  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_r \in T$ , together with  $\mathbf{0}$  in the case  $T = \emptyset$ .

• Definition 1.4.7: Generating set

A subset of a vector space is called a *generating set* of our vector space if its span is all of the vector space. A vector space that has a finite generating set is said to be *finitely generated*.

• Definition 1.4.9:

The set of all subsets  $\mathcal{P}(X) = \{U : U \subseteq X\}$  of X is the power set of X.

A subset of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  is a system of subsets of X.

Given such a system  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$  we can create two new subsets of X, the *union* and the *intersection* of the sets of our system  $\mathcal{U}$ :

$$\bigcup_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U = \{x \in X : \exists U \in \mathcal{U}. x \in U\}$$
$$\bigcap_{U \in \mathcal{U}} U = \{x \in X : x \in U \ \forall \ U \in \mathcal{U}\}$$

In particular the intersection of the empty system of subsets of X is X, and the union of the empty system of subsets X is the empty set.

## 1.5 Linear independence and bases

• **Definition 1.5.1:** Linear independence

A subset L of a vector space V is *linearly independent* if for all pairwise different vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_r \in L$  and arbitrary vectors  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_r \in F$ ,

$$\alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_r \mathbf{v}_r = \mathbf{0} \implies \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_r = 0$$

• Definition 1.5.2: Linear dependence

A subset L of a vector space V is called *linearly dependent* if it is not linearly independent.

• Definition 1.5.8: Basis

A basis of a vector space V is a linearly independent generating set in V.

• Theorem 1.5.11: Linear combinations of basis elements

Let F be a field, V be a vector space over F, and  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r \in V$  vectors. The family  $(\mathbf{v}_i)_{1 \leq i \leq r}$  is a basis of V if and only if the following "evaluation" mapping

$$\Phi: F^r \to V$$
$$(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r) \mapsto \alpha \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_r \mathbf{v}_r$$

is a bijection.

#### • **Theorem 1.5.12:** Characterisation of bases

The following are equivalent for a subset E of a vector space V:

- 1. E is a basis, i.e. a linearly independent generating set;
- 2. E is minimal among all generating sets, meaning that  $E \setminus \{\mathbf{v}\}\$  does not generate  $V, \forall \mathbf{v} \in E;$
- 3. E is maximal among all linearly independent subsets, meaning that  $E \cup \{\mathbf{v}\}$  is not linearly independent  $\forall \mathbf{v} \in V$ .

## • Corollary 1.5.13: The existence of a basis

Let V be a finitely generated vector space over a field F. The V has a basis.

- **Theorem 1.5.14:** (Useful variant on the Characterisation of bases) Let *V* be a vector space.
  - 1. If  $L \subset V$  is a linearly independent subset and E is minimal amongst all generating sets of our vector space with the property that  $L \subseteq E$ , then E is a basis.
  - 2. If  $E \subseteq V$  is a generating set and if L is maximal amongst all linearly independent subsets of our vector space with the property  $L \subseteq E$ , then L is basis.

#### • Definition 1.5.15:

Let X be a set and F a field. The set Maps(X, F) of all mappings  $f: X \to F$  becomes an F-vector space with the operations of point-wise addition and multiplication by a scalar. The subset of all mappings which send almost all elements of X to zero is a vector subspace

$$F\langle X \rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Maps}(X, F)$$

This vector subspace is called the free vector space on the set X.

• Theorem 1.5.16: (Useful variant on Linear combinations of basis elements) Let F be a field, V an F-vector space, and  $(\mathbf{v}_i)_{i\in I}$  a family of vectors from the vector space V. The following are equivalent:

- 1. The family  $(\mathbf{v}_i)i \in I$  is a basis for V;
- 2. For each vector  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  there is precisely one family  $(a_i)_{i \in I}$  of elements of our field F, almost all of which are zero and such that

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i \in I} a_i \mathbf{v}_i$$

#### 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 than 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:

• Theorem 1.6.2: Steinitz exchange theorem

Let V be a vector space,  $L \subset V$  and finite linearly independent subset, and  $E \subseteq V$  and generating set. Then there is an injection  $\Phi: L \to E$  such that  $(E \setminus \Phi(L)) \cup L$  is also a generating set for V.

• Lemma 1.6.3: Exchange lemma

Let V be a vector space,  $M \subseteq V$  a linearly independent subset, and  $E \subseteq V$  a generating subset, such that  $M \subseteq E$ . If  $\mathbf{w} \in V \setminus M$  is a vector set not belonging to M such that  $M \cup \{\mathbf{w}\}$  is linearly independent, then there exists  $\mathbf{e} \in E \setminus M$  such that  $\{E \setminus \{\mathbf{e}\}\} \cup \{\mathbf{w}\}$  is a generating set for V.

## • Corollary 1.6.4: Cardinality of bases

Let V be a finitely generated vector space.

- 1. V has a finite basis;
- 2. V cannot have an infinite basis;
- 3. Any two bases of V have the same number of elements.

#### • **Definition 1.6.5:** Dimension

The cardinality of one (and each) basis of a finitely generated vector space V is called the dimension of V and is denoted dimV. If the vector space is not finitely generated, then dim $V = \infty$  and V is infinite dimensional.

## • Corollary 1.6.8: Cardinality criterion for bases

Let V be a finitely generated vector space.

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

## • Corollary 1.6.9: Dimension estimate for vector subspaces

A proper vector subspace of a finite dimensional vector space has itself a strictly smaller dimension.

• **Theorem 1.6.11:** The dimension theorem

Let V be a 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:** Linear mappings

Let V, W be vector spaces over a field F. A mapping  $f: V \to W$  is called *linear* if for all  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V$  and  $\lambda \in F$  we have

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

A bijective linear mapping is called an *isomorphism* of vector spaces. If there is an isomorphism of vector spaces, we call them *isomorphic*. A homomorphism from one vector space to itself is called an *endomorphism*. An isomorphism of a vector space to itself is called an *automorphism*.

## • Definition 1.7.5: Fixed point

A point that is sent to itself by 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 1.7.6:** Complementary

Two vector subspace  $V_1, V_2$  of a vector space V are complementary if addition defines a bijection

$$V_1 \times V_2 \to V$$

• Theorem 1.7.7: Classification of vector spaces by their dimension Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then a vector space over a field F is isomorphic to  $F^n$  if and only if it has dimension n. • Lemma 1.7.8: 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

$$\operatorname{Hom}_F(V, W) = \operatorname{Hom}(V, W) \subseteq \operatorname{Maps}(V, W)$$
  
 $f \mapsto f|_B$ 

In other words, each linear mapping determines and is completely determined by the values it takes on a basis.

## • Proposition 1.7.9

- 1. Every injective linear mapping  $f:V\to W$  has a left inverse, in other words a linear mapping  $g:W\to V$  such that  $g\circ f=\mathrm{id}_V$
- 2. Every surjective linear mapping  $f:V\to W$  has a right inverse, in other words a linear mapping  $g:W\to V$  such that  $f\circ g=\mathrm{id}_W$

## 1.8 Rank-Nullity theorem

#### • Definition 1.8.1:

The *image* of a linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is the subset  $\operatorname{im}(f) = f(V) \subseteq W$ . It is a vector subspace of W. The pre-image of the zero vector of a linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is denoted by

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

and is called the kernel of the linear mapping f. The kernel is a vector subspace of V.

#### • Lemma 1.8.2:

A linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  is injective if and only if  $\ker_f = 0$ .

• Theorem 1.8.4: Rank-Nullity theorem

Let  $f: V \to W$  be a linear mapping between vector spaces. Then

$$dimV = dim(ker f) + dim(im f)$$
  
= nullity + rank

• Corollary 1.8.5: (Dimension theorem, again)

Let V be a vector space, and  $U, W \subseteq V$  vector subspaces. Then

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

## 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  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . There is a bijection between the space of linear mappings  $F^m \to F^n$  and the set of matrices with n rows and m columns and entries in F

$$M : Hom_F(F^m, F^n) \to Mat(n \times m; F)$$
  
 $f \mapsto \lceil f \rceil$ 

This attaches to each linear mapping f its representing matrix  $M(f) \equiv [f]$ . The columns of this matrix are the images under f of the standard basis elements of  $F^m$ 

$$[f] \equiv (f(\mathbf{e}_1)|f(\mathbf{e}_2)|\cdots|f(\mathbf{e}_m))$$

#### • Definition 2.1.6: Product

Let  $n, m, l \in \mathbb{N}$ , F and 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

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

Matrix multiplication produces a mapping

$$\operatorname{Mat}(n \times m; F) \times \operatorname{Mat}(m \times l; F) \to \operatorname{Mat}(m \times l; F)$$

$$(A, B) \mapsto AB$$

• Theorem 2.1.8: Composition of linear mappings and products of matrices Let  $g: F^l \to F^m$  and  $f: F^m \to F^n$  be linear mappings. The representing matrix of their composition is the product of their representing matrices

$$[f \circ g] = [f] \circ [g]$$

• Proposition 2.1.9: Calculating with matrices

Let  $k, l, m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $A, A' \in \operatorname{Mat}(n \times m; F)$ ,  $B, B' \in \operatorname{Mat}(m \times l; F)$ ,  $C \in \operatorname{Mat}(l \times k; F)$  and  $I = I_m$ . Then the following hold for matrix multiplication

$$(A + A')B = AB + A'B$$

$$A(B + B') = AB + AB'$$

$$IB = B$$

$$AI = A$$

$$(AB)C = A(BC)$$

## 2.2 Basic properties of matrices

• Definition 2.2.1: Invertible

A matrix A is called *invertible* if there exist matrices B and C such that BA = I and AC = I.

• **Definition 2.2.2:** Elementary matrix

An *elementary matrix* is any square matrix that differs from the identity matrix in at most one entry.

• Theorem 2.2.3:

Every square matrix can be written as a product of elementary matrices.

• Definition 2.2.4: Smith Normal Form

Any matrix whose only non-zero entries lie on the diagonal, and which has first 1s on along the diagonal followed by 0s is in *Smith Normal Form*.

• Theorem 2.2.5: Transformation of a matrix into Smith-Normal form

For each matrix  $A \in \operatorname{Mat}(n \times m; F)$  there exist invertible matrices P and Q such that PAQ is a matrix in Smith Normal Form and Q such that PAQ is a matrix in Smith Normal Form.

• Definition 2.2.6: Rank

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

• Theorem 2.2.7:

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

• Definition 2.2.8: Full rank

Whenever the rank of a matrix is equal to the number of rows (or columns — whichever is smaller), it 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 and W vector spaces over F with ordered bases  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m)$  and  $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n)$ . Then to each linear mapping  $f: V \to W$  we associated a representing matrix  $\mathcal{B}[f]_A$  whose entries  $a_{ij}$  are defined by the identity

$$f(\mathbf{v}_i) = a_{1i}\mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + a_{ni}\mathbf{w}_n \in W$$

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

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\mathcal{A}}: \mathrm{Hom}_{F}(V, W) \to \mathrm{Mat}(n \times m; F)$$

$$f \mapsto_{\mathcal{B}} [f]_{\mathcal{A}}$$

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 A, B, C If f: U → V and g: V → W are linear mappings, then the representing matrix of the composition g ∘ f: U → W is the matrix product of the representing matrices of f and g

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

• Definition 2.3.3:

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector spaces with an ordered basis  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m)$  We denote the inverse to the bijection  $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}} : F^m \to V, (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)^T \mapsto \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha_m \mathbf{v}_m$  by

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

The column vector  $_{\mathcal{A}}[\mathbf{v}]$  is called the representation of the vector  $\mathbf{v}$  with respect to the basis  $\mathcal{A}$ .

• Theorem 2.3.4: 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  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ :

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

## 2.4 Change of a matrix by change of basis

• **Definition 2.4.1:** Change of basis matrix Let  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n)$  and  $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n)$  be ordered bases of the same F-vector space V. Then the matrix representing the identity mapping with respect to these bases

$$\mathcal{B}[\mathrm{id}_V]_A$$

is called a *change of basis matrix*. By definition, its entries are given by the equalities  $\mathbf{v}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} \mathbf{w}_i$ .

• Theorem 2.4.3: Change of basis

Let V and W be finite-dimensional vector-spaces over F and let  $f: V \to W$  be a linear mapping. Suppose that A, A' are ordered bases of V and B, B' are ordered bases of W. Then

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

• Corollary 2.4.4: 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 2.4.5: Smith Normal Form

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

#### • Definition 2.4.6: Trace

The trace of a square matrix is defined to be the sum of its diagonal entries. We denote this by

tr(A)

## 3 Rings and Modules

## 3.1 Rings

## • Group Axioms

- 1. Closure
- 2. Associativity
- 3. Existence of identity
- 4. Existence of inverses

#### • Definition 3.3.1: Ring

A ring is a set with two operations (R, +, .) that satisfy

- 1. (R, +) is an abelian group;
- 2.  $(R, \cdot)$  is a *monoid*; this means that the second operation  $\cdot : R \cdot R \to R$  is associative and that there is an *identity element*  $1 = 1_R \in R$ .
- 3. The distributive laws hold.

The two operations are called addition and multiplication in our ring.

A ring in which multiplication is commutative is a *commutative ring*.

## • **Proposition 3.1.7:** Divisibility by sum

A natural number is divisible by 3 (respectively 9) precisely when the sum of its digits is divisible by 3 (respectively 9).

## • Definition 3.1.8: Field

A field F is a non-zero commutative ring in which every non-zero element  $a \in F$  has an inverse  $a^{-1} \in F$ .

## • Proposition 3.1.11:

Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . The commutative ring  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  is a field if and only if m is prime.

## 3.2 Properties of rings

## • Lemme 3.2.1: Additive inverses

Let R be a ring and let  $a, b \in R$ . Then

1. 
$$0a = 0 = a0$$

2. 
$$(-a)b = -(ab) = a(-b)$$

3. 
$$(-a)(-b) = ab$$

#### • Definition 3.2.3:

Let  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The m-th multiple ma of an element a in abelian group R is

$$ma = \underbrace{a + a + \dots + a}_{m \text{ terms}}$$
 if  $m > 0$ 

0a = 0, and negative multiples are defined by (-m)a = -(ma).

## • Lemma 3.2.4: Rules for multiples

Let R be a ring, let  $a, b \in R$  and let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . 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 3.2.6: Unit

Let R be a ring. An element  $a \in R$  is called a *unit* if it is invertible in R or (in other words) has a multiplicative inverse in R.

## • **Proposition 3.2.10:**

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

## • Definition 3.2.13 Integral domains

An integral domain is a non-zero commutative ring that has no zero-divisors.

## • Proposition 3.2.16: Cancellation law for integral domains

Let R be an integral domain and let  $a, b, c \in R$ .

$$ab = ac$$
 and  $a \neq 0 \implies b = c$ 

#### • **Proposition 3.2.17:**

Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$  is an integral domain if and only if m is prime.

#### • Theorem 3.2.18:

Every *finite* integral domain is a field.

## 3.3 Polynomials

#### • Definition 3.1.1:

Let R be a ring. A polynomial 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  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and elements  $a_i \in R$  for  $i \in [0, m]$ .

The set of all polynomials over R is denoted by R[X].

In case  $a_m$  is non-zero, the polynomial P has degree m, written  $\deg(P)$ , and  $a_m$  is its leading coefficient.

When the leading coefficient is 1, the polynomial is a monic polynomial.

A polynomial of degree one is called *linear*, a polynomial of degree two is called *quadratic*, and a polynomial of degree three is called *cubic*.

## • **Definition 3.3.2:** Ring of polynomials

The set R[X] is a ring called the *ring of polynomials over* R. The zero and the identity of R[X] are the zero and identity of R, respectively.

#### • Lemma 3.3.3:

- 1. If R is ring with no zero-divisors, then R[X] has no zero-divisors and deg(PQ) = deg(P) + deg(Q) for non-zero  $P, Q \in R[X]$ .
- 2. If R is an integral domain, then so is R[X]
- Theorem 3.3.4: Division and remainder

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

#### • Definition 3.3.6:

Let R be a commutative ring and  $P \in R[X]$  a polynomial. Then the polynomial P can be evaluated at  $\lambda \in R$  to produce  $P(\lambda)$  by replacing the powers of X in the polynomial P by the corresponding powers of  $\lambda$ . This gives a mapping

$$R[X] \to \operatorname{Maps}(R, R)$$

An element  $\lambda \in R$  is a root of P if  $P(\lambda) = 0$ .

## • Proposition 3.3.9:

Let R be a commutative ring, let  $\lambda \in R$  and  $P(X) \in R[X]$ . Then  $\lambda$  is a root of P(X) if and only if  $(X - \lambda)$  divides P(X).

## • Theorem 3.3.10:

Let R a ring, or more generally, an integral domain. Then an non-zero polynomial  $P \in R[X] \setminus \{0\}$  has at most  $\deg(P)$  roots in R.

## • Definition 3.3.11: Algebraically closed

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

## • Theorem 3.3.13: Fundamental theorem of algebra

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

$$P = c(X - \lambda_1) \cdots (X - \lambda_n)$$

with  $n \geq 0, c \in F^{\times}$  and  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in F$ . This decomposition is unique up to reordering of the factors.

## 3.4 Homomorphisms, Ideals, and Subrings

## • **Definition 3.4.1:** Ring homomorphism

Let R and S be rings. A mapping  $f:R\to S$  is a ring homomorphism if the following hold  $\forall x,y\in R$ 

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

## • Prelude to ideals

Let  $f: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism with ker  $f = \{r \in R : f(r) = 0_S\}$ . Then ker f is:

- a subgroup of R under addition
- $-0_R \in \ker f$
- closed under multiplication
- closed under left and right multiplication by arbitrary elements of R i.e.  $x \in \ker f \implies rx, xr \in \ker f \ \forall r \in R$

## • Lemma 3.4.5:

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

- 1.  $f(0_R) = 0_S$
- 2. f(-x) = -f(x)
- 3. f(x-y) = f(x) f(y)
- 4.  $f(m \cdot x) = m \cdot f(x)$

Where mx denotes the m-th multiple of x.

#### • Definition 3.4.7: Ideal

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

- 1.  $I \neq \emptyset$
- 2. I is closed under subtraction (it's a subgroup)
- 3.  $\forall i \in I \text{ and } \forall r \in R \text{ we have } ri, ir \in I \text{ (}I \text{ is closed under multiplication by elements of }R\text{)}$

Ideals satisfy the properties of rings, except possibly the existence of a multiplicative identity.

Ideals are subrings which are closed under multiplication with elements from the ring — not just elements from within the ideal!

## • Definition 3.4.11: Generated ideal

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

$$_{R}\langle T \rangle = \{r_{1}t_{1} + \dots + r_{m}t_{m} : t_{1}, \dots, t_{m} \in T, r_{1}, \dots, r_{m} \in R\}$$

together with the zero element in the case  $T = \emptyset$ .

## • Proposition 3.4.14:

Let R be a commutative ring and let  $T \subseteq R$ . Then  $R\langle T \rangle$  is the smallest ideal of R that contains T.

## • Definition 3.4.15: Principle ideal

Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal  $I \subseteq R$  is called a *principle ideal* if  $I = \langle t \rangle$  for some  $t \in R$ .

#### • Definition 3.4.17: Kernel

Let R and S be rings, and let  $f: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Since F is in particular a group homomorphism from (R, +) to (S, +), the kernel of f already has a meaning:

$$\ker f = \{ r \in R : f(r) = 0_S \}$$

#### • Proposition 3.4.18:

Let R and S be rings and  $f: R \to S$  a ring homomorphism. Then ker f is an ideal of R.

- Lemma 3.4.20: f is injective if and only if  $\ker f = \{0\}$
- Lemma 3.4.21: The intersection of any collection of ideals of a ring R is an ideal of R.
- Lemma 3.4.22: Let I and J be ideals of a ring R. Then

$$I+J=\{a+b:a\in I,b\in J\}$$

is an ideal of R.

## • Definition 3.4.23: Subring

Let R be a ring. A subset  $R' \subseteq R$  is a *subring* of R if R' is itself a ring under the operations of addition and multiplication defined in R.

## • Proposition 3.4.26: Test for a subring

Let R be a ring, and  $R' \subseteq R$ . Then R' is a subring if and only if

- 1. R' has a multiplicative identity, and
- 2. R' is closed under subtraction, and
- 3. R' is closed under multiplication.
- Proposition 3.4.29: Let R and S be rings and  $f: R \to S$  a ring homomorphism.
  - 1. If R' is a subring of R then f(R') is a subring of S. In particular, 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 is 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 Equivalence Relations

## • Definition 3.5.1: Relation

A relation R on a set X is a subset  $R \subseteq X \times X$ . R is an equivalence relation on X when  $\forall x, y, z \in X$  the following hold:

- 1. Reflexivity: xRx
- 2. Symmetry:  $xRy \iff yRx$
- 3. Transitivity: xRy and  $yRz \implies xRz$

## • Definition 3.5.3:

Suppose that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on a set X. For  $x \in X$  the set  $E(x) \equiv \{z \in X : z \sim x\}$  is called the *equivalence class* of x.

A subset  $E \subseteq X$  is called an equivalence class for  $\sim$  if  $\exists x \in X \ni E = E(x)$ .

An element of an equivalence class is called a representative of the class.

A subset  $Z \subseteq X$  containing precisely one element from each equivalence class is called a *system* of representatives for the equivalence relation.

## • Definition 3.5.5: Set of equivalence classes

Given an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on the set X, the set of equivalence classes, which is a subset of  $\mathcal{P}(X)$ , is

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

There is a canonical mapping can :  $X \to (X/\sim)$ ,  $x \mapsto E(x)$ . It is obviously a surjection.

## • Remark

Suppose that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on X. If  $f: X \to Z$  is a mapping with the property that  $x \sim y \implies f(x) = f(y)$ , then there is a unique mapping  $\overline{f}: (X \setminus \sim) \to Z$  with  $f = \overline{f} \circ \operatorname{can}$ . Its definition is easy: f(E(x)) = f(x). This property is called the *universal property of the set of equivalence classes*.

#### • Definition 3.5.7: Well-defined

 $g:(X/\sim)\to Z$  is well-defined if there is a mapping  $f:X\to Z$  such that f has the property  $x\sim y\implies f(x)=f(y)$  and  $g=\overline{f}$ .

## 3.6 Factor Rings and the First Isomorphic Theorem

#### • Prelude

Let  $f: R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism.

$$x \sim y \iff f(x) = f(y) \iff f(x - y) = 0 \iff x - y \in \ker f$$

Then:

$$E(x) = x + \ker f \equiv \{x + k : k \in \ker f\}$$

So we have that:

- the rule  $x \sim y \iff x y \in \ker f$  is an equivalence relation;
- the equivalence classes are the sets  $x + \ker f$  for  $x \in R$ ;
- the set of equivalence classes  $(R / \sim)$  is a ring, isomorphic to a subring of S.

## • Definition 3.6.1: Cosets

Let  $I \subseteq R$  be an ideal in a ring R. The set

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

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

## • Definition 3.6.3: Factor ring

Let R be a ring,  $I \subseteq R$  be an ideal, and  $\sim$  the equivalence relation defined by  $x \sim y \iff x - y \in I$ . 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.

$$R/I = \{r + I : r \in R\}$$

#### • Theorem 3.6.4:

Let R be a ring, and  $I \subseteq R$  an ideal. Then R/I is a ring, where the operation of addition is defined by

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

and multiplication is defined by

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

- Theorem 3.6.7 Universal Property of Factor Rings Let R be a ring, and  $I \leq R$ .
  - 1. The mapping can :  $R \to R/I$  with can(r) = r + I is a surjective ring homomorphism with kernel I.
  - 2. If  $f: R \to S$  is a ring homomorphism with  $f(I) = \{0_S\}$ , so that  $I \subseteq \ker f$ , then there is a unique ring homomorphism  $\overline{f}: R/I \to S$  such that  $f = \overline{f} \circ \operatorname{can}$ .
- Theorem 3.6.9: First Isomorphic Theorem for Rings Let R and S be rings. Then every ring homomorphism  $f: R \to S$  induces a ring isomorphism

$$\overline{f}: R/\ker f \tilde{\to} \mathrm{im} f$$

## 3.7 Modules

• **Definition 3.7.1:** A (left) module M over a ring R is a pair consisting of an abelian group  $M = (M, \dot{+})$  and a mapping

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

such that  $\forall r, s \in R$  and  $a, b \in M$  the following identities hold:

$$r(a \dot{+} b) = (ra) \dot{+} (rb)$$
 (distributivity)  
 $(r+s)a = (ra) \dot{+} (sa)$  (distributivity)  
 $r(sa) = (rs)a$  (associativity)  
 $1_R a = a$ 

i.e. a vector space, but with a ring instead of a field.

- Lemma 3.7.8: Let R be a ring, and M an R-module.
  - 1.  $0_R a = 0_M \ \forall a \in M$
  - 2.  $r0_M = 0_M \ \forall r \in R$
  - 3. (-r)a = r(-a) = -(ra),  $\forall r \in R, a \in M$ . (Here, the first negative is in R, and the last two negatives are in M.)

## • Definition 3.7.11:

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

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

The kernel of f is ker  $f = \{a \in M : f(a) = 0_N\} \subseteq M$  and the image of f is im $f = \{f(a) : a \in M\} \subseteq N$ .

If f is a bijection then it is an *isomorphism*.

#### • Definition 3.7.15:

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 3.7.20: Test for a submodule

Let R be a ring and let M be an R-module. A subset  $M' \subseteq M$  is a submodule if and only if

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

## • Lemma 3.7.21:

Let  $f: M \to N$  be an R-homomorphism. Then  $\ker f$  is a submodule of M and  $\operatorname{im} f$  is a submodule of N.

#### • Lemma 3.7.22:

Let R be a ring, let M and N be R-modules and let  $f: M \to N$  be an R-homomorphism. Then f is injective if and only if ker  $f = \{0_M\}$ .

## • Definition 3.7.23:

Let R be a ring, M an R-module, and let  $T \subseteq M$ . Then the submodule of M generated by T is the set

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

together with the zero element in case  $T = \emptyset$ .

The module M is finitely generated if it is generated by a finite set:  $M =_r \langle \{t_1, \ldots, t_n\} \rangle$ . It is *cyclic* f it is generated by a singleton:  $M =_R \langle t \rangle$ .

- Lemma 3.7.28: Let  $T \subseteq M$ . Then  $r\langle T \rangle$  is the smallest submodule of M that contains T.
- Lemma 3.7.29: The intersection of any collection of submodules of M is a submodule of M.
- Lemma 3.7.30: Let  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  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 3.7.31.1:** Coset

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

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

It is a coset of N in the abelian group M and is is an equivalence class for the equivalence relation  $a \sim b \iff a - b \in N$ .

## • Definition 3.7.31.2: Factor

M/N, the factor of M by N or the quotient of M by N, is the set  $(M/\sim)$  of all cosets of N in M.

$$M/N = \{a + N : a \in M\}$$

This becomes an R-module by introducing the operations of addition and multiplication as follows:

$$(a+N)\dot{+}(b+N) = (a+b) + N$$
$$r(a+N) = ra + N$$

for all  $a, b \in M, r \in R$ .

#### • Theorem 3.7.31.3: Factor module

- The zero of M/N is the coset  $0_{M/N} = 0_M + N$ .
- The negative of  $a + N \in M/N$  is the coset -(a + N) = (-a) + N.
- The R-module M/N is the factor module of M by the submodule N.

## • Theorem 3.7.32: The Universal Property of Factor Modules

Let R be a ring, and let L and M be R-modules, and N a submodule of M.

- 1. The mapping can :  $M \to M/N$  sending a to a+N,  $\forall a \in M$  is a surjective 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  $\overline{f}: M/N \to L$  such that  $f = \overline{f} \circ \operatorname{can}$ .

## • Theorem 3.7.33: First Isomorphism Theorem for Modules

Let R be a ring and let M and N be R-modules. Then every R-homomorphism  $f: M \to N$  induces a R-isomorphism

$$\overline{f}: M/\ker f \to \operatorname{im} f$$

## 4 Determinants and Eigenvalues Redux

## 5 Reference

## 5.1 Terminology of Algebraic Structures

|           | Associativity | Identity | Inverses |
|-----------|---------------|----------|----------|
| Group     | Yes           | Yes      | Yes      |
| Monoid    | Yes           | Yes      | No       |
| Semigroup | Yes           | No       | No       |
| Magma     | No            | No       | No       |

Ring = (Group, Monoid)

Field = (Group, Group)