

# Honours Algebra - Week 5 - Equivalence Relations, The First Isomorphism Theorem & Modules

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# 1 Equivalence Relations

## 1.1 Defining Equivalence Relations

- What is a relation?

- a **relation**  $R$  on a set  $X$  is a **subset**:

$$R \subset X \times X$$

- we describe an element  $(x, y) \in R$  via:

$$xRy$$

- What is an equivalence relation?

- a **relation**, typically denoted  $\sim$ , satisfying:

1. **Reflexivity**

$$x \sim x$$

2. **Symmetry**

$$x \sim y \iff y \sim x$$

3. **Transitivity**

$$x \sim y \wedge y \sim z \implies x \sim z$$

### 1.1.1 Examples

- simple equivalence relations include:

$$x \sim y \iff x = y \quad x \sim y \iff x^2 = y^2$$

The first one is more “restrictive”, since in the second one tuples like  $(x, -y)$  and  $(-x, y)$  are allowed.

- **congruence modulo**  $m$  also defines an equivalence relation:

$$x \sim y \iff x \equiv y \pmod{m}$$

- $x \equiv x \pmod{m}$  (reflexivity)
- $x \equiv y \pmod{m} \iff y \equiv x \pmod{m}$  (symmetry)
- $x \equiv y \pmod{m} \wedge y \equiv z \pmod{m} \implies x \equiv z \pmod{m}$  (transitivity)

- a more interesting example is that of matrix conjugacy:

$$A \sim B \iff \exists X : B = XAX^{-1}, \quad A, X, B \in \text{Mat}(n; F)$$

- $IAI^{-1} = A \implies A \sim A$
- $B = XAX^{-1} \implies A = YBY^{-1}, \quad Y = X^{-1}$
- $B = XAX^{-1}, C = YBY^{-1} \implies C = ZAZ^{-1}, \quad Z = YX$

This relates to the notion of **similar matrices**, discussed in W2, whereby basis matrices were similar. That is, if  $N = {}_B[f]_B$  and  $N = {}_A[f]_A$ , then  $N, M$  are similar in the sense that with  $T = {}_A[id_V]_B$ :

$$N = T^{-1}MT$$

### 1.1.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Show that the relation  $\sim$  on  $Mat(n \times m; F)$ , defined by:

$$A \sim B \iff \exists P \in GL(n; F), Q \in GL(m; F) : B = PAQ$$

is an equivalence relation.

2. Show that isomorphism is an equivalence relation on finite dimensional vector spaces over a field  $F$ .

## 1.2 Equivalence Classes

- What is an equivalence class?

- consider a set  $X$  with **equivalence relation**  $\sim$
- an **equivalence class** for  $x \in E$  is a subset  $E \subseteq X$  such that:

$$E(x) := \{z \mid x \sim z, x \in X\}$$

- What is a representative of an equivalence class?

- an element  $e \in E(x)$

- What is a system of representatives?

- a subset  $Z \subseteq X$
- it contains exactly **one** element from each **equivalence class**  $E(x), x \in X$

- What are some properties of equivalence classes?

- the following notions are **equivalent**:
  1.  $x \sim y$
  2.  $E(x) = E(y)$  (this follows from (1) + symmetry)
  3.  $E(x) \cap E(y) \neq \emptyset$  (this follows from (1) + reflexivity, which means that  $x \in E(x), x \in E(y)$ )

### 1.2.1 Examples

- if  $X$  is a set of students, with equivalence relation “same degree”, each equivalence class contains all students which pursue the same degree
- if  $X = \mathbb{R}$ , then the equivalence relation:

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$$

has equivalence classes like:

$$E(1.2) = \{\dots, -2.8, -1.8, -0.8, 0.2, 1.2, 2.2, \dots\}$$

More generally, if  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the equivalence relation tells us that:

$$y \in E(x) \implies y - x = z \implies y = x + z \implies E(x) = \{x + z \mid x \in X, z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

(here we have used symmetry)

- if we define:

$$x \sim y \iff x \equiv y \pmod{m}$$

then the equivalence classes are familiar:

$$E(x) = \bar{x} = \{x + mz \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

Furthermore, if  $m > 0$ , a **system of representatives** will contain an element of each **equivalence class**, which can be:

$$\{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$$

where  $0 \in E(0), 1 \in E(1)$ , and so on. However, in general, we can pick:

$$\{a, a+1, a+2, \dots, a+m-1\}$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$

### 1.2.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Show that the  $n \times m$  matrices over a field  $F$  in Smith-Normal Form form a system of representatives for the equivalence relation:

$$A \sim B \iff \exists P \in GL(n; F), Q \in GL(m; F) : B = PAQ$$

2. Show that the set:

$$\{F^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\}$$

is a system of representatives for the equivalence relation defined by an isomorphism on finite dimensional vector spaces over a field  $F$ . Show that another system of representatives for this equivalence relation is:

$$\{F[X]_{<n} \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\}$$

## 1.3 The Set of Equivalence Classes

- What is the set of equivalence classes?

- let  $X$  be a set, with equivalence relation  $\sim$
- the **set of equivalence classes** is a **subset** of the **power set**  $\mathcal{P}(X)$
- it is the set containing all equivalence classes of  $X$ :

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

- this is also known as the **quotient set**

- What canonical mapping arises from this definition?

*A **canonical map** is a map or morphism between objects that arises naturally from the **definition** or the **construction** of the objects. In general, it is the map which preserves the widest amount of structure, and it tends to be unique.*

- in this case, a **canonical map** is of the form:

$$can : X \rightarrow (X/\sim)$$

$$can(x) = E(x)$$

- this is a **surjection**, since each equivalence class  $E(x)$  contains at least one element in  $X$  (so “worst case”, each  $x \in X$  maps to a unique  $E(x)$ )

### 1.3.1 Examples: Canonical Mappings Preserving Structure (as Homomorphisms)

#### 1. Abelian Groups

- $A$  is an **abelian group**;  $B$  is a **subgroup** of  $A$
- define an equivalence relation.

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in B$$

- the equivalence classes are:

$$y - x = b \in B \implies E(x) = \{x + b \mid b \in B\}$$

(here we use the fact that the group is abelian, so  $x + b = b + x$ )

- the **quotient set** is  $A/B \equiv A/\sim$ , an **abelian group**, defined by:

$$E(x) + E(y) = E(x + y) = \{x + y + b \mid b \in B\}$$

- the canonical mapping  $can : A \rightarrow A/B$  is a **surjective homomorphism**, with kernel being  $B$  (since  $0 \in A/B = \{0 + b \mid b \in B\} = B$ , and any element  $b \in B$  will get mapped to this set)
- $A/B$  is the **quotient abelian group** of  $A$  by the subgroup  $B$

#### 2. Non-Abelian Group

- $G$  is a **group**, and  $H$  is a **normal subgroup**: that is, if  $h \in H$  and  $g \in G$ , then:

$$ghg^{-1} \in H$$

- define an equivalence relation:

$$x \sim y \iff xy^{-1} \in H$$

- the equivalence classes are given by the **left** and **right** cosets:

$$E(x) = xH = Hx \subseteq G$$

This is because if  $xy^{-1} \in H$ , by symmetry,  $yx^{-1} = h \in H$ , so  $y = hx$ , meaning that  $E(x) = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$ . the equivalence relation is defined by

$$xy^{-1} \in H$$

. Moreover, since  $G$  is a group, and  $H$  is a normal subgroup, we know that  $g^{-1}hg \in H$ . Thus, if  $xy^{-1} \in H$ , we must also have  $y^{-1}(xy^{-1})y = y^{-1}x \in H$ . Hence,  $y^{-1} \sim x^{-1}$ , and again by symmetry,  $x^{-1} \sim y^{-1} \implies x^{-1}y \in H \implies y = xh \implies E(x) = xH$ .

- the quotient set  $G/\sim \equiv G/H$  is the group with operations:

$$E(x)E(y) = E(xy)$$

- the canonical **surjective homomorphism**  $can : G \rightarrow G/H$  has kernel  $H$ , since  $hH = Hh = H$ , so  $\forall h \in H, can(h) = H$ , and  $H$  is the identity element in  $G/H$
- this relates to **Lagrange's Theorem**, which states that:

$$|G| = |G/H||H|$$

which is proved by noting that each coset  $E(x)$  has exactly  $|H|$  elements (since it is given by  $xH = Hx$ ), and that  $G$  is the disjoint union of  $|G/H|$  cosets (the union is disjoint because otherwise we'd have elements belonging to more than 1 equivalence classes; there are  $|G/H|$  cosets because  $G/H$  is the set of all cosets).

- 
- $G/H$  is the **quotient group** of  $G$  by the normal subgroup  $H$

### 3. F-Vector Spaces

- let  $V$  be a **F-Vector Space**, with subspace  $W$
- define an equivalence relation:

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in W$$

- as in the first case, the equivalence classes are:

$$y - x = w \implies E(x) = \{x + w \mid w \in W\} = x + W$$

- the **quotient set** is an **F-Vector Space** with:

$$\lambda E(x) = E(\lambda x)$$

- the canonical **surjective homomorphism**  $can : V \rightarrow V/W$  has kernel  $W$  (same reason as in case (1))
- by the exercise below, we can show that if  $V$  is finite-dimensional:

$$\dim(V/W) = \dim(V) - \dim(W)$$

- $V/W$  is the **quotient vector space** of  $V$  by the subspace  $W$

#### 1.3.2 Examples

- if  $\sim$  defines the congruence equivalence relation, modulo  $m$ , then:

$$(\mathbb{Z}/\sim) = \mathbb{Z}_m$$

This is easy to see, since as discussed above, the equivalence classes of  $\sim$  are the sets  $\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{m-1}$ , and the set of all these elements is precisely  $\mathbb{Z}_m$

#### 1.3.3 Exercises (TODO)

1. Let  $R = F$  be a field,  $V$  and  $F$ -vector space, and  $W \subseteq V$  a subspace of  $V$ . The quotient  $V/W$  is the **quotient vector space**, and  $can : V \rightarrow V/W$  is a linear mapping. Assume that  $\dim V = m < \infty$ . By the **Dimension Estimate for Vector Subspaces**,  $\dim W = n \leq m$ . Let:

$$\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$$

be a basis for  $W$ . Using the **Steinitz Exchange Theorem**, we can extend it to a basis of  $V$ :

$$\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n, \underline{v}_{n+1}, \dots, \underline{v}_m\}$$

Show that:

$$\{\underline{v}_{n+1} + W, \dots, \underline{v}_m + W\}$$

is a basis for the vector space  $V/W$ . Hence, deduce that:

$$\dim(V/W) = \dim V - \dim W$$

## 1.4 Remark: A Very Important Remark At That

Consider  $\sim$  as an equivalence relation on  $X$ , and let  $f : X \rightarrow Z$  be a mapping, such that:

$$x \sim y \implies f(x) = f(y)$$

In other words, whatever the equivalence relation is, it is such that all elements in the same **equivalence class** are mapped to the same value under  $f$

Then, there exists a **unique** mapping:

$$\bar{f} : (X / \sim) \rightarrow Z$$

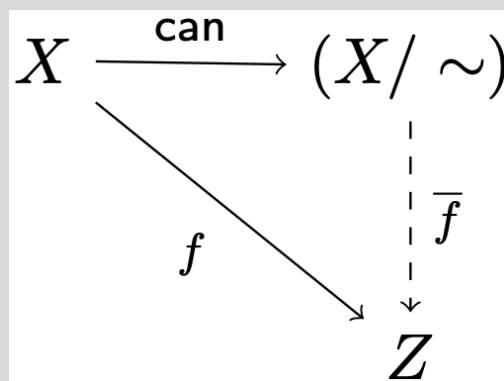
This mapping is simple to define:

$$\bar{f}(E(x)) = f(x)$$

such that:

$$f = \bar{f} \circ \text{can}$$

This can be summarised by the following diagram:



This is known as the **universal property of the set of equivalence classes**



A more interesting case occurs when

$$f : X \rightarrow Z$$

is **any** mapping, and we define:

$$x \sim y \iff f(x) = f(y)$$

Then, we will have that:

$$\bar{f} : (X / \sim) \rightarrow \text{im } f$$

is a **bijection**. This bijection is a prelude to the **First Isomorphism Theorem**.

## 1.5 A Well-Defined Mapping

- When is a mapping well-defined?

– consider a mapping:

$$g : (X / \sim) \rightarrow Z$$

–  $g$  is **well-defined** if there exists a mapping:

$$f : X \rightarrow Z$$

such that:

$$x \sim y \implies f(x) = f(y)$$

– here we recognise  $g = \bar{f}$

- Why are well-defined mappings important?

- they **solidify** the notion of **equivalence**
- they ensure that elements in the **same equivalence class** are mapped to the **same** value
- this means that equivalent elements in  $X$  are the same in  $Z$
- more on this in [Proof-Wiki](#)

### 1.5.1 Examples

- recall the equivalence relation:

$$a \sim b \iff a - b \in \mathbb{Z}$$

with equivalence classes:

$$E(a) = \{\dots, a - 2, a - 1, a, a + 1, a + 2, \dots\}$$

Further consider:

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad f(x) = \cos(x)$$

$$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad f(x) = \cos(2\pi x)$$

Then,  $f$  is **not** well-defined, since:

$$0 \sim 1 \quad f(0) = 1 \neq f(1)$$

However,  $g$  is well-defined. Indeed:

$$a \sim b \implies a = b + z, z \in \mathbb{Z}$$

So:

$$g(a) = \cos(2\pi a) = \cos(2\pi b + 2\pi z) = \cos(2\pi b) = g(b)$$

where we exploit the fact that  $\cos$  is  $2\pi$  periodic. Moreover, we can define:

$$\bar{g} : (\mathbb{R} / \sim) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

via:

$$\bar{g}(E(a)) = g(a) = \cos(2\pi a)$$

### 1.5.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Define a relation  $\sim$  on  $\mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{N}$  by:

$$(x, y) \sim (a, b) \iff x + b = y + a$$

- (a) Show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation
- (b) Let  $\bar{\mathbb{N}} = (\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} / \sim)$ . Show that addition on  $\mathbb{N}$  induces a *well-defined* addition on  $\bar{\mathbb{N}}$
- (c) Show that with this addition,  $\bar{\mathbb{N}}$  is an abelian group
- (d) Show that

$$nat : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \bar{\mathbb{N}}$$

is an additive mapping, where:

$$nat(a) = E((a + n, n)), \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

That is:

$$nat(a + b) = nat(a) + nat(b)$$

- (e) Show that  $\bar{\mathbb{N}}$  is *isomorphic* as a group to  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$

## 2 Factor Rings

### 2.1 Motivation 1: Equivalence Relations From Kernels

We just showed that **mappings between sets** generate **equivalence relations**. In particular, consider a **ring homomorphism**:

$$f : R \rightarrow S$$

We can define an **equivalence relation** on  $R$ :

$$x \sim y \iff f(x) = f(y)$$

By properties of homomorphism:

$$\begin{aligned} x \sim y &\iff f(x) = f(y) \\ &\iff f(x) - f(y) = 0_S \\ &\iff f(x - y) = 0_S \\ &\iff x - y \in \ker(f) \end{aligned}$$

This then defines the **equivalence classes** via:

$$y - x = k \in \ker(f) \implies y = x + k$$

so in particular:

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

## 2.2 Motivation 2: Equivalence Relations From Ideals

In fact, all the above generalises easily to **ideals**:

*If  $I$  is an ideal of a ring  $R$ , and  $f : R \rightarrow S$ , then the following is an equivalence relation:*

$$r_1 \sim r_2 \iff r_1 - r_2 \in I$$

1.  $r_1 - r_1 = 0_R \in I \iff r_1 \sim r_1$  (since 0 is always part of an ideal).  
Hence, **reflexivity** holds.

2. if  $r_1 \sim r_2$ , then:

$$r_1 - r_2 \in I$$

*Since ideals are closed under subtraction, it follows that:*

$$-(r_1 - r_2) = r_2 - r_1 \in I$$

*so we have  $r_2 \sim r_1$ . Thus, **symmetry** holds.*

3. if  $r_1 \sim r_2$  and  $r_2 \sim r_3$ , then:

$$r_1 - r_2 \in I$$

$$r_2 - r_3 \in I$$

*Ideals are closed under subtraction/addition, so:*

$$(r_1 - r_2) + (r_2 - r_3) = r_1 - r_3 \in I$$

*so we have  $r_1 \sim r_3$ . Thus, **transitivity** holds.*

*As above, the equivalence classes then become:*

$$E(r_1) = r_1 + I = \{r_1 + i \mid i \in I\}$$

*and the **quotient of  $R$  by  $I$**  (the set of **all equivalence classes**) is:*

$$R/I$$

We have constructed  $R/I$ . We now go back, and discover that it is a ring.

### 2.3 Motivation 3: Quotients From Ideals are Rings

$R/I$  is the set of all equivalence classes, constructed from the **equivalence relation**:

$$r_1 \sim r_2 \iff r_1 - r_2 \in I$$

But if we think about it, this equivalence relation was originally defined as:

$$r_1 \sim r_2 \iff f(r_1) = f(r_2)$$

But now recall, such an equivalence relation lead to the following bijection:

$$\bar{f} : (R/I) \rightarrow \text{im}(f)$$

$$\bar{f}(E(r)) = f(r)$$

The existence of this bijection tells us that, since  $\text{im}(f)$  is a **subring** of  $S$ , we should expect that  $R/I$  should also have a ring-like structure, since we have a one-to-one correspondance between elements in  $R/I$  and a subring (in fact, if  $\bar{f}$  is an **isomorphism**,  $R/I$  would indeed be **isomorphic** to the subring  $\text{im}(f)$ ).

So if we have  $R/I$  as a ring, we better endow it with **addition** and **multiplication**:

$$E(r_1) + E(r_2) = E(r_1 + r_2)$$

$$E(r_1 r_2) = E(r_1) E(r_2)$$

This section focuses on formalising the notion of  $R/I$  as a **factor ring**, defines the **Universal Property of Factor Rings** results, and has a grand finale in the **First Isomorphism Theorem**.

## 2.4 Cosets of Rings

- What is a coset of a ring?

- let  $R$  be a ring, and  $I$  an ideal of  $R$
- the **coset of  $x$  with respect to  $I$  in  $R$**  is the subset of  $R$ :

$$x + I = \{x + i \mid i \in I\}$$

- cosets in **rings** are special cases of cosets in **groups**

- Are cosets equivalence classes?

- as we saw above,

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in I$$

defines an equivalence class:

$$E(x) = x + I$$

- so **cosets** are **equivalence classes**

- Given 2 cosets, how can they be related?

- we saw that if  $x \sim y$ , then:

$$E(x) = E(y) \quad E(x) \cap E(y) \neq \emptyset$$

- hence, depending on whether  $x \sim y$ , 2 cosets  $x + I$  and  $y + I$  are related in one of 2 ways:

- \*  $x + I = y + I$
- \* or  $(x + I) \cap (y + I) = \emptyset$

## 2.5 Defining the Factor Ring

- What is a factor ring?

- let:

- \*  $R$  be a ring
- \*  $I$  be an ideal of  $R$
- \*  $\sim$  the equivalence relation on  $R$ :

$$x \sim y \iff x - y \in I$$

- the **factor ring of  $R$  by  $I$**  is nothing but the **quotient of  $R$  by  $I$**

- hence, the factor ring is  $R/I$ :

- the set of **equivalence classes** under  $\sim$
- the set of **cosets** of  $I$  in  $R$

## 2.6 Theorem: Operations on Factor Rings

For the **factor ring** to be a ring, we need to provide ring operations.

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, and  $I$  an **ideal**.

Then,  $R/I$  is a **ring**, with **addition** defined as:

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

and **multiplication** defined as:

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

[Theorem 3.6.4]

For the proof we need to be careful, and show that:

- $R/I$  is an **abelian** group under **addition**
- addition is **well-defined**
- $R/I$  is a **monoid** under **multiplication**
- multiplication is **well-defined**
- $R/I$  satisfies the **distributive axioms**

This proves that  $R/I$  is a ring. It is important to emphasise the need to show that the operations are **well-defined**:

Consider  $R = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $I = 15\mathbb{Z} = \{15z \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . The **equivalence classes**, as discussed, are of the form:

$$E(r) = \{r + 15z \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

The factor ring is our well known:

$$\mathbb{Z}/15\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_{15}$$

Now, consider the following products:

$$E(7) \cdot E(9) = E(63) \quad E(22) \cdot E(9) = E(198)$$

Now, we know that 22 and 7 are congruent modulo 15, so obviously  $E(7) = E(22)$  (they are the same equivalence class). The question now becomes: are  $E(63)$  and  $E(198)$  congruent modulo 15? How can we be sure? This is the importance of having **well-defined** operations: we are working over **equivalence classes**, so we need to ensure that any arithmetic we do doesn't depend of our choice of **representative** of the equivalence class.

In this example, any arithmetic we do shouldn't depend on the number we choose (i.e 7 and 22), but rather the **remainder** when dividing by 15.

*Proof.*    **1. Addition is Well-Defined**

To show that addition is well-defined, we need to show that if  $x, x', y, y' \in R$  and:

$$E(x) = E(x') \quad E(y) = E(y')$$

(we use  $E(x)$  instead of  $x + I$  for ease of reading and writing) then:

$$E(x) + E(y) = E(x') + E(y')$$

Notice, by how addition is defined, this is equivalent to showing that:

$$E(x + y) = E(x' + y')$$

which is equivalent to showing that the two are the **same equivalence class**. In other words, we need to show that:

$$(x + y) \sim (x' + y') \implies (x + y) - (x' + y') \in I$$

We consider:

$$(x + y) - (x' + y') = (x - x') + (y - y')$$

By assumption,  $E(x) = E(x')$ , so  $x \sim x'$ , so  $x - x' \in I$ . Similarly,  $y - y' \in I$ . Since ideals are closed under addition/subtraction, it is clear that:

$$(x - x') + (y - y') \in I$$

Hence, addition is well-defined.

## **2. $R/I$ is an Abelian Group Under Addition**

### **(a) Existence of Identity**

$$E(0) + E(x) = E(0 + x) = E(x) = E(x + 0) = E(x) + E(0)$$

### **(b) Existence of Inverse**

$$E(-x) + E(x) = E(-x + x) = E(0) = E(x - x) = E(x) + E(-x)$$

### **(c) Associativity**

$$(E(x) + E(y)) + E(z) = E(x + y) + E(z) = E(x + y + z) = E(x) + E(y + z) = E(x) + (E(y) + E(z))$$

### **(d) Closure** This follows directly from the definition of addition.

### **(e) Abelian**

$$E(x) + E(y) = E(x + y) = E(y + x) = E(y) + E(x)$$

(using commutativity of  $R$  under addition)

Hence,  $R/I$  is an abelian group under addition.

## **3. Multiplication is Well-Defined** Again, consider $x, x', y, y'$ with:

$$E(x) = E(x') \quad E(y) = E(y')$$

we need to show that:

$$E(x)E(y) = E(x')E(y')$$

Since  $E(x) = E(x')$ , we know that:

$$x \sim x' \implies x - x' \in I \implies x = x' + i, i \in I$$



Similarly:

$$y = y' + j, j \in I$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} E(x)E(y) &= E(xy) \\ &= E((x' + i)(y' + j)) \\ &= E(x'y' + x'j + iy' + ij) \\ &= E(x'y') + E(x'j) + E(iy') + E(ij) \end{aligned}$$

Now, notice that:

$$E(x'j) = E(iy') = E(ij) = E(0)$$

Since  $ij, iy', x'j \in I$  (since multiplying elements in  $R$  by elements in  $I$  produces elements in  $I$ ), then:

$$ij - 0 \in I \quad iy' - 0 \in I \quad x'j - 0 \in I$$

So  $ij \sim iy' \sim x'j \sim 0$ , from which  $E(x'j) = E(iy') = E(ij) = E(0)$  follows. Hence, we have shown that:

$$E(x)E(y) = E(x'y') = E(x')E(y')$$

so multiplication is well-defined.

#### 4. $R/I$ is a Monoid Under Multiplication

(a) **Closure** This follows directly from the definition of multiplication.

(b) **Associativity**

$$(E(x)E(y))E(z) = E(xy)E(z) = E(xyz) = E(x)E(yz) = E(x)(E(y)E(z))$$

(c) **Existence of Identity**

$$E(x)E(1) = E(x \cdot 1) = E(x) = E(1 \cdot x) = E(1)E(x)$$

Hence,  $R/I$  is a monoid under multiplication.

#### 5. $R/I$ Satisfies Distributivity

$$E(x)(E(y) + E(z)) = E(x)E(y+z) = E(x(y+z)) = E(xy+xz) = E(xy) + E(xz) = E(x)E(y) + E(x)E(z)$$

Hence, by all of the above,  $R/I$  is a ring, with **well-defined** operations. □

### 2.6.1 Examples

- this is another way of seeing that  $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_m$  is a **ring**
- consider the ring  $R = \mathbb{F}_2[X]$  (the ring of polynomials with coefficients 0 or 1), and the following 2 ideals:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= {}_R\langle X^2 \rangle = \{pX^2 \mid p \in R\} \\ J &= {}_R\langle X^2 + X + 1 \rangle = \{p(X^2 + X + 1) \mid p \in R\} \end{aligned}$$

How do we describe  $R/I$  and  $R/J$ ?

#### 1. Elements in the Factor Rings

(a) **Elements in  $R/I$**  For  $p \in R$ , We denote:

$$E_I(p) = p + I$$

Then, we can consider the equivalence classes, given by the relation:

$$p_1 \sim p_2 \iff p_1 - p_2 \in I$$

that is  $p_1 \sim p_2$  if  $p_1 - p_2$  has  $X^2$  as a factor. Consider the constant polynomials first (only 2 of them)

$$E_I(0) = \{i \mid i \in I\} \quad E_I(1) = \{1 + i \mid i \in I\}$$

Clearly,  $0 \not\sim 1$ , since  $0 - 1 = 1$  (we operate in  $\mathbb{F}_2$ ) which is not divisible by  $X^2$ . Hence,  $E_I(0)$  and  $E_I(1)$  are different equivalence classes. Now considering linear polynomials:

$$E_I(X) = \{X + i \mid i \in I\} \quad E_I(X + 1) = \{X + 1 + i \mid i \in I\}$$

Then:

- $X - 0 \notin I$
- $X - 1 \notin I$
- $(X + 1) - 0 \notin I$
- $(X + 1) - 1 \notin I$
- $(X + 1) - X \notin I$

Hence, we have 2 more equivalence classes:

$$E_I(X) \quad E_I(X + 1)$$

Now, consider a polynomial  $p \in R$  with  $\deg(p) \geq 2$ . We can factorise it as:

$$p(X) = q(X)(X^2) + r(X)$$

such that  $\deg(r) < \deg(X^2) = 2$ . Then notice that:

$$p - r = qX^2 \in I \implies p \sim r$$

Thus, any polynomial is in the equivalence class of its remainder. Since the remainder  $r$  has degree 0 or 1, it means that  $p$  is in one of  $E_I(0), E_I(1), E_I(X), E_I(X + 1)$ . Thus:

$$(R/I) = \{E_I(0), E_I(1), E_I(X), E_I(X + 1)\}$$

(b) **Elements in  $R/J$**  Working in a similar, we will see that:

$$(R/J) = \{E_J(0), E_J(1), E_J(X), E_J(X + 1)\}$$

**2. Behaviour of Elements** We have reduced the elements of  $R/I$  to a set of 4 elements. We now need to see how they interact with each other through a multiplication table:

	$E_I(0)$	$E_I(1)$	$E_I(X)$	$E_I(X + 1)$
$E_I(0)$	$E_I(0 \cdot 0) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(0 \cdot 1) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(0 \cdot X) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(0 \cdot (X + 1)) = E_I(0)$
$E_I(1)$	$E_I(1 \cdot 0) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(1 \cdot 1) = E_I(1)$	$E_I(1 \cdot X) = E_I(X)$	$E_I(1 \cdot (X + 1)) = E_I(X + 1)$
$E_I(X)$	$E_I(X \cdot 0) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(X \cdot 1) = E_I(X)$	$E_I(X^2) = E_I(0)$	$E_I(X^2 + X) = E_I(X)$
$E_I(X + 1)$	$E_I((X + 1) \cdot 0) = E_I(0)$	$E_I((X + 1) \cdot 1) = E_I(X + 1)$	$E_I(X^2 + X) = E_I(X)$	$E_I(X^2 + 2X + 1) = E_I(1)$

Table 1: Here we use facts like  $X^2 \sim 0$  and  $X^2 + X \sim X$  to simplify. Also, don't forget that  $2 = 0$  in  $\mathbb{F}_2$ .

	$E_J(0)$	$E_J(1)$	$E_J(X)$	$E_J(X+1)$
$E_J(0)$	$E_J(0 \cdot 0) = E_J(0)$	$E_J(0 \cdot 1) = E_J(0)$	$E_J(0 \cdot X) = E_J(0)$	$E_J(0 \cdot (X+1)) = E_J(0)$
$E_J(1)$	$E_J(1 \cdot 0) = E_J(0)$	$E_J(1 \cdot 1) = E_J(1)$	$E_J(1 \cdot X) = E_J(X)$	$E_J(1 \cdot (X+1)) = E_J(X+1)$
$E_J(X)$	$E_J(X \cdot 0) = E_J(0)$	$E_J(X \cdot 1) = E_J(X)$	$E_J(X^2) = E_J(X+1)$	$E_J(X^2 + X) = E_J(1)$
$E_J(X+1)$	$E_J((X+1) \cdot 0) = E_J(0)$	$E_J((X+1) \cdot 1) = E_J(X+1)$	$E_J(X^2 + X) = E_J(1)$	$E_J(X^2 + 2X + 1) = E_J(X)$

Table 2: Here we use facts like  $X^2 \sim X+1$  (since  $X^2 - (X+1) = X^2 - X - 1 = X^2 + X + 1 \in J$  and  $X^2 + X \sim 1$  (since  $X^2 + X - 1 = X^2 + X + 1 \in J$ ) to simplify. Also, don't forget that  $2 = 0$  in  $\mathbb{F}_2$ .

Now notice: in  $R/J$  every non-zero element has an inverse, so  $R/J$  is a **field** with 4 elements. On the other hand,  $R/I$  is **not**, since it has a **zero-divisor** (for example  $E_I(X)$ ).

### 2.6.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Let  $R$  be a ring, and  $I$  an ideal of  $R$ . Show that if  $R$  is commutative, then so is  $R/I$ .
2. Let  $R$  be a ring, and  $I$  an ideal of  $R$ . Show that  $R/I$  is a non-zero ring if and only if  $I \neq R$ .
3. Let  $R$  be a ring, and  $I$  a *proper* ideal of  $R$  (so  $I \neq R$ ). Show that if  $r \in R^\times$ , then  $E(r) \in (R/I)^\times$ , and  $(E(r))^{-1} = E(r^{-1})$ .

## 2.7 Theorem: The Universal Property of Factor Rings

In the **Very Important Remark** (1.4) (the **universal property of the set of equivalence classes**, we showed how there are 2 ways to go between sets  $X, Z$ : one that is direct ( $f : X \rightarrow Z$ ) and one that is indirect ( $g : X \rightarrow X/\sim \rightarrow Z$ , with  $g = \bar{g} \circ \text{can}$ , where  $\bar{g}$  is a unique mapping  $\bar{g}(E(r)) = f(r)$ ). This theorem considers the same case, but adapted to **rings**.

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, and  $I$  an **ideal** of  $R$ .

1. The **canonical mapping**:

$$\text{can} : R \rightarrow (R/I) \quad \text{can}(r) = E(r), \forall r \in R$$

is a **surjective ring homomorphism**, with **kernel**:

$$\ker(\text{can}) = I$$

2. If:

$$f : R \rightarrow S$$

is a **ring homomorphism** and:

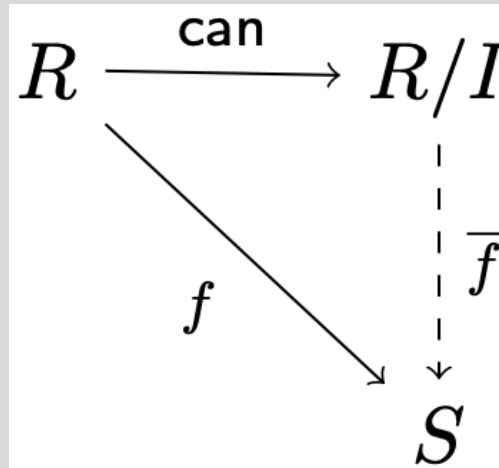
$$f(I) = \{0_S\}$$

so that  $I \subseteq \ker(f)$ , then there is a **unique ring homomorphism**:

$$\bar{f} : (R/I) \rightarrow S$$

such that:

$$f = \bar{f} \circ \text{can}$$



[Theorem 3.6.7]

*Proof.* 1. **The Canonical Mapping is a Surjective Ring Homomorphism With Kernel  $I$**

- (a) **Surjective Mapping** This easy to see. Any  $E(r)$  is produced by at least one element in  $R$ . By the pigeonhold principle, every possible  $E(r)$  must be mapped to by some element in  $R$ .
- (b) **The Kernel is  $I$**  If  $i \in I$ , then by properties of ideals:

$$i - 0_R \in I \implies i \sim 0 \implies E(i) = E(0) = 0_{R/I}$$

Any other  $i \notin I$  won't have an equivalence relation with  $0_R$ . Hence,  $\ker(\text{can}) = I$ .

- (c) **The Mapping is a Ring Homomorphism** This follows from how **addition** and **multiplication** are defined in the **factor ring**  $R/I$ :

$$can(x) + can(y) = E(x) + E(y) = E(x + y) = can(x + y)$$

$$can(x)can(y) = E(x)E(y) = E(xy) = can(xy)$$

## 2. Existence of Unique Ring Homomorphism $\bar{f}$

- (a) **Existence of Unique Mapping  $\bar{f}$**  Since  $f(I) = \{0_S\}$ , then:

$$f(E(x)) = \{f(x + i) \mid i \in I\} = \{f(x) + f(i) \mid i \in I\} = \{f(x)\}$$

Define:

$$\bar{f}(E(x)) = f(x)$$

such that:

$$f(E(x)) = \{\bar{f}(E(x))\}$$

Then,  $\bar{f}$  is the only mapping satisfying  $f = \bar{f} \circ can$ .

- (b)  **$\bar{f}$  is a Ring Homomorphism**

$$\bar{f}(E(x) + E(y)) = \bar{f}(E(x + y)) = f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y) = \bar{f}(E(x)) + \bar{f}(E(y))$$

$$\bar{f}(E(x)E(y)) = \bar{f}(E(xy)) = f(xy) = f(x)f(y) = \bar{f}(E(x))\bar{f}(E(y))$$

□

## 2.8 Theorem: First Isomorphism Theorem for Rings

Let  $R$  and  $S$  be **rings**.

Then, every **ring homomorphism**:

$$f : R \rightarrow S$$

induces a **ring isomorphism**:

$$\bar{f} : (R/\ker(f)) \rightarrow im(f)$$

This **isomorphism** is nothing but:

$$\bar{f}(r + \ker(f)) = f(r)$$

[Theorem 3.6.9]

*Proof.* Notice,  $\ker(f)$  is an ideal, so  $R/I$  is a ring; similarly,  $im(f)$  is a subring, so a **ring**. Moreover, by definition of the kernel, we must have that  $f(\ker(f)) = \{0_S\}$ . Hence, by the **universal property of factor rings**, we have that  $\bar{f}$  is a homomorphism.

Clearly, it is also **surjective** (each  $f(r) \in im(f)$  is produced by at least one element in each equivalence class  $r + \ker(f)$ ).

Moreover,  $\ker(\bar{f}) = 0 + \ker(f) = \ker(f)$  (recall  $0 + \ker(f)$  is nothing but  $E(0)$ ). If  $E(r) = \ker(f)$ , clearly  $\bar{f}(E(r)) = f(r) = 0_S$ , by definition of the kernel. No other equivalence class achieves this. Hence, since the kernel only contains the additive identity, the homomorphism must be **injective**.

Thus,  $\bar{f}$  is a bijective homomorphism - an isomorphism.

□

### 2.8.1 Examples

- if  $R = \mathbb{R}[X]$  and  $I = {}_R\langle X^2 + 1 \rangle$  (the **ideal** generated by  $X^2 + 1$ , or in other words, the set of all polynomials with  $X^2 + 1$  as a factor), then  $R/I$  is not only a **ring**, but it is **isomorphic** to the **complex numbers**

- we can **factorise** polynomials uniquely ( $P = AQ + B$ , with  $P, Q \in R$ ,  $\deg(B) < \deg(Q)$ )
- in particular, we can write  $P \in R$  as:

$$P = A(X^2 + 1) + B$$

- since  $Q = X^2 + 1$ , and  $\deg(B) < \deg(Q)$  we must have:

$$B = a + bX, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

- now consider the **evaluation homomorphism**:

$$f : \mathbb{R}[X] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

defined by evaluation  $P \in \mathbb{R}[X]$  at  $\sqrt{-1}$

- clearly,  $f(P) = f(B)$ , since  $\sqrt{-1}$  is a root of  $X^2 + 1$ , so:

$$f(P) = f(B) = a + b\sqrt{-1}$$

- clearly,  $f$  is surjective
- moreover,  $P \in \ker(f)$  **if and only if**  $a = b = 0$ , which in particular means that:

$$\ker(f) = {}_{\mathbb{R}}[X]\langle X^2 + 1 \rangle$$

- by the **first isomorphism theorem for rings**, we thus have an **isomorphism**:

$$\bar{f} : ({}_{\mathbb{R}}[X]/{}_{\mathbb{R}}[X]\langle X^2 + 1 \rangle) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

## 3 Modules

Just as **rings** are the generalisation of fields, we introduce **modules** as the generalisation of **vector spaces**.

### 3.1 Defining Modules

- What is a left module?
- a **left module** is defined over **rings**
- it consists of an **abelian group**:

$$M = (M, \dot{+})$$

armed with a mapping:

$$R \times M \rightarrow M$$

$$(r, a) \rightarrow r \cdot a$$

- **left modules** must satisfy:

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

$$(r + s)a = (ra) \dot{+} (sa)$$

$$r(sa) = (rs)a$$

$$1_R a = a$$

- **What is an R-Module?**

- a module defined over the **ring**  $R$

- **How do right modules differ from left modules?**

- a module in which multiplication by rings is defined via:

$$(r, a) \rightarrow a \cdot r$$

- **What is the trivial module?**

- the singleton  $\{0\}$  for any ring  $R$

- **What is a direct sum?**

- given  $R$ -modules:

$$M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n$$

their **cartesian product**:

$$M_1 \times M_2 \times \dots \times M_n$$

alongside:

$$(a_1, \dots, a_n) + (b_1, \dots, b_n) = (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

$$r(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (ra_1, \dots, ra_n)$$

is an  $R$ -module

- denoted:

$$M_1 \oplus M_2 \oplus \dots \oplus M_n$$

is the **direct sum**

- **How do R-Modules and F-Vector Spaces differ?**

- since modules are defined over **rings**, multiplication by  $R$  might **not** have inverses defined

- this means that if for example:

$$rm = 0$$

we can't assume that  $r = 0$  or  $m = 0$ . For example, if:

$$R = \mathbb{Z}, \quad (M, +) = (\mathbb{Z}_4, +)$$

then:

$$2 \cdot \bar{2} = \bar{4} = \bar{0}$$

- amongst other things, this means that the notion of **linear independence** no longer makes sense in **modules**, since **linear combinations** can be 0, with not all ring scalars being 0

### 3.1.1 Examples

- $F$ -vector spaces are just  $R$ -modules in which the **ring**  $R$  is a field  $F$

- $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules are **abelian groups**. Indeed, any abelian group  $M$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module.

- if  $I$  is an ideal of a ring  $R$ , then  $I$  is an  $R$ -module, under multiplication in the ring. In fact,  $R$  is an  $R$ -module.

- for example,  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_6$  are both modules

- ideals exploit the fact that if an element of  $r \in R$  multiplies  $i \in I$ , then  $ir, ri \in I$

### 3.1.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Let  $S$  be a ring, and let  $R = \text{Mat}(n; S)$ . Let  $M = S^n$ . Show that  $M$  is an  $R$ -module under the operations of componentwise addition and matrix multiplication.
2. Let  $V$  be an  $F$ -vector space for some field  $F$  and let  $\phi \in \text{End}(V)$  be an endomorphism of  $V$ . Show that  $V$  is an  $F[X]$ -module under the operation:

$$\left( \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i \right) \underline{v} = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i \phi^i(\underline{v})$$

For better understanding, we are multiplying a vector  $\underline{v}$  by a polynomial with coefficients in a field. This multiplication then needs to result in a vectors in the vector space. We denote the  $F[X]$ -module via  $V_\phi$ .

As an example for this, consider:

$$R = \mathbb{C}[X] \quad (M, +) = \mathbb{C}^n$$

We can define the endomorphism  $\phi$  as:

$$\phi(\underline{v}) = A\underline{v} \quad \underline{v} \in m, A \in \text{Mat}(n; \mathbb{C})$$

and then define ring multiplication as:

$$p(X)\underline{v} := p(A)\underline{v}, \quad p(X) \in R$$

As a concrete example, define:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$q(X) = X^2 + 2X + 3$$

Then:

$$q(A) = A^2 + 2A + 3I = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Such that:

$$q(X) \cdot (0 \ 1)^T = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

## 3.2 Lemma: Module Hygiene

*Let  $R$  be a ring, and  $M$  an  $R$ -module.*

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

## 3.3 Module Homomorphisms

- What is a module homomorphism?



- let  $R$  be a ring, and let  $M, N$  be  $R$ -modules
- a  **$R$ -homomorphism** is a mapping:

$$f : M \rightarrow N$$

satisfying:

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

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

- **What results from composing module homomorphisms?**

- you obtain another **homomorphism**

- **What is an  $R$ -Module Isomorphism?**

- a **bijective** homomorphism

- **What is the kernel of an  $R$ -homomorphism?**

- the set:

$$\ker(f) = \{a \in M \mid f(a) = 0_N\} \subseteq M$$

- **What is the image of an  $R$ -homomorphism?**

- the set:

$$\operatorname{im}(f) = \{f(a) \mid a \in M\} \subseteq N$$

### 3.3.1 Examples

- the mapping  $f(a) = 0_N$  is **always** an  $R$ -homomorphism
- if  $R$  is a field, module homomorphisms are the standard **linear mappings**
- any **group** homomorphism between abelian groups is also a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -homomorphism
- consider  $R = \mathbb{C}[X]$ , and consider 2 modules:

$$M = \mathbb{C}_A^2 \quad N = \mathbb{C}_B^2$$

where:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 4 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can then define a homomorphism:

$$f : \mathbb{C}_A^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}_B^2$$

defined by:

$$\underline{v} \rightarrow T\underline{v}, \quad \underline{v} \in M, T \in \operatorname{Mat}(2; \mathbb{C})$$

Recall, multiplication in the module is defined by replacing each  $X$  in the polynomial in  $\mathbb{C}[X]$  by the given matrix ( $A$  or  $B$ ). Hence, the homomorphism is defined by:

$$f(X\underline{v}) = f(A\underline{v}) = T(A\underline{v})$$

But notice, this must be an element in  $N$ . By properties of homomorphisms:

$$f(X\underline{v}) = Xf(\underline{v}) = B(T\underline{v})$$

Hence, if  $T$  exists, it must satisfy:

$$TA = BT$$

Let:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

Then:

$$AT = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$TB = \begin{pmatrix} 2a - c & 2b - d \\ 4a - 2c & 4b - 2d \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence, we have 4 variables, and 4 sets of linear equations:

$$2a - c = 0 \implies c = 2a$$

$$4a - 2c = 0 \implies c = 2a$$

$$4b - 2d = c$$

$$2b - d = a$$

Notice, the last 2 equations coincide with the fact that  $c = 2a$ . Overall, this system has infinitely many solutions, such that:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 2b - d & b \\ 4b - 2d & d \end{pmatrix}$$

### 3.3.2 Exercises (TODO)

1. Let  $F$  be a field, and let  $V = F^2$  and  $W = F^3$  be  $F$ -vector spaces. Define:

$$\phi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \psi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and consider the  $F[X]$ -modules  $V_\phi, W_\psi$ . Show that:

$$f : V_\phi \rightarrow W_\psi, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f : W_\psi \rightarrow V_\phi, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ x \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

are  $F[X]$ -homomorphisms

### 3.4 Submodules

- What are submodules?
  - non-empty **subsets** of an  $R$ -module, which are themselves  $R$ -modules, with respect to the operations in the  $R$ -module

### 3.4.1 Examples

- a **submodule** of an  $F$ -vector space is a subspace
- the **submodules** of a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module are the subgroups of its corresponding group
- the **submodules** of a ring are its ideals
- consider a field  $F$  and the  $F[X]$ -module  $W_\psi$  defined using the matrix:

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(recall  $W_\psi$  is an  $F[X]$ -module, where its elements are in  $F^3$ , and multiplication by a matrix  $F[X]$  is defined as multiplication of  $\underline{v} \in F^3$  by  $F[\psi]$ ). Then the subspaces:

- $\langle \underline{e}_1 \rangle = \{0\}$
- $\langle \underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2 \rangle = \{0\} \cup \{k\underline{e}_1 \mid k \in F\}$  (since  $\phi \underline{e}_2 = \underline{e}_1$ , and  $\phi \underline{e}_1 = 0$ )

are  $F[X]$ -submodules of  $W_\psi$ , but  $\langle \underline{e}_2 \rangle$  (since  $\phi \underline{e}_2 = \underline{e}_1$ , but  $\underline{e}_1$  is not part of the generating set).

- again, consider:

$$R = \mathbb{C}[X] \quad M = \mathbb{C}_A^2$$

where multiplication by polynomials in  $M$  is defined by multiplying  $\underline{v} \in M$  by:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The question to consider is: the 1-d subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^2$  given by:

$$L = \{\lambda(x, y) \mid \lambda \in \mathbb{C}\}$$

is definitely closed under addition and scalar multiplication; is it closed under multiplication by polynomials? That is, is it a submodule of  $M$ ? Consider  $p(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n p_i X^i \in \mathbb{C}[X]$ . Moreover, notice

that:

$$A^2 = \text{Mat}(0) \implies A^k = \text{Mat}(0), \quad \forall k \in [2, n]$$

Thus:

$$p(A) = p_0 I_2 + p_1 A = \begin{pmatrix} p_0 & p_1 \\ 0 & p_0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence, we ask whether:

$$p(A)(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} p_0 & p_1 \\ 0 & p_0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_0 x + p_1 y \\ p_0 y \end{pmatrix} \in L$$

We thus need to find suitable  $x, y$ , such that:

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_0 x + p_1 y \\ p_0 y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda x \\ \lambda y \end{pmatrix}$$

Since the second entry only depends on  $y$ , we focus on that first. There are 2 cases to consider:

1.  $y \neq 0$  In this case, and since  $\mathbb{C}$  is an integral domain, we must have that  $p_0 = \lambda$ . Thus, in the first entry:

$$p_0x + p_1y = \lambda x \implies \lambda x + p_1y = \lambda x \implies p_1y = 0$$

Now, since  $y \neq 0$ , this is only possible if  $p_1 = 0$ . But we need to consider every possible polynomial in  $\mathbb{C}[X]$ , so this is not possible. Hence, the only alternative is that  $y = 0$ .

2.  $y = 0$  In this case,  $p_0$  can be anything in  $\mathbb{C}$ . Then:

$$p_0x + p_1y = \lambda x \implies p_0x = \lambda x \implies p_0 = \lambda$$

Thus, for any  $x$ , and for  $y = 0$ ,  $L$  defines a submodule.

### 3.5 Proposition: Test for a Submodule

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, and  $M$  a module over  $R$ .  
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.  $r \in R, a \in M' \implies ra \in M'$

[Proposition 3.7.20]

*Proof.* If  $M'$  is a submodule, these properties hold (since they are properties of modules). Alternatively, assume that  $M'$  satisfies the conditions. Then, recall the test of a (finite) subgroup. If  $G$  is a group,  $H$  is a subgroup if and only if:

- $H \neq \emptyset$
- $h, k \in H \implies hk^{-1} \in H$

Condition (1) means that  $M$  is not empty, and condition (2) ensures that  $a - b \in M'$ . Hence,  $M'$  is a subgroup of  $M$ . By (3), we know that we have:

$$R \times M' \rightarrow M'$$

The remaining properties of a module are satisfied by the fact that  $M'$  is a subset of  $M$ . Hence,  $M'$  must be a submodule. □

### 3.6 Lemma: Kernel and Image as Submodules

Let:

$$f : M \rightarrow N$$

be a **module homomorphism**. Then:

- $\ker(f)$  is a **submodule** of  $M$
- $\text{im}(f)$  is a **submodule** of  $N$

[Lemma 3.7.21]

*Proof.* 1. **The Kernel is a Submodule**

- since  $f(0_M) = 0_N$ ,  $0_M \in \ker(f)$
- if  $a, b \in \ker(f)$  then:

$$f(a) - f(b) = 0_M \implies f(a - b) = 0 \implies a - b \in \ker(f)$$

- if  $r \in R, a \in \ker(f)$ :

$$rf(a) = r0_M = 0_M \implies f(ra) = 0_M \implies ra \in \ker(f)$$

Hence, by the test for a submodule, the kernel is a submodule.

2. **The Image is a Submodule**

- since  $f(0_M) = 0_N$ ,  $0_N \in \text{im}(f)$
- if  $a, b \in \text{im}(f)$ , then  $\exists a', b' \in M$  such that:

$$f(a') = a \quad f(b') = b$$

But then, by properties of the homomorphism:

$$f(a' - b') = a - b$$

Since  $a' - b' \in M$  (by definition of a module), it follows that  $a - b \in N$

- if  $r \in R, a \in \text{im}(f)$ , then  $\exists a' \in M$  such that:

$$f(a') = a$$

But then:

$$rf(a') = ra \implies f(ra') = ra$$

so  $ra \in \text{im}(f)$

Hence, by the test for a submodule, the image is a submodule. □

### 3.7 Lemma: Injectivity and Kernel

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, with  $M, N$  as  $R$ -**modules**.

Let:

$$f : M \rightarrow N$$

be a **module homomorphism**. Then,  $f$  is injective **if and only if**:

$$\ker(f) = \{0_M\}$$

[Lemma 3.7.22]

*Proof.* This follows directly from the fact that this property is true for group homomorphisms. □

### 3.8 Generating Submodules

- **What is a generated module?**

- consider a ring  $R$ , with  $R$ -module  $M$ , and a subset  $T \subseteq M$
- the **submodule of  $M$  generated by  $T$**  is the submodule:

$${}_R\langle T \rangle = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m r_i t_i \mid r_i \in R, t_i \in T \right\}$$

- if  $T = \emptyset$ , then  ${}_R\langle T \rangle$  contains  $0_M$

- **What is a finitely generated module?**

- a **module** generated by a **finite set**:

$$M = {}_R\langle T \rangle$$

- **What is a cyclic module?**

- a **module** generated by a **single element**:

$$M = {}_R\langle t \rangle, \quad t \in M$$

#### 3.8.1 Examples

- a **cyclic  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module** is equivalent to a **cyclic abelian group**
- the **ideal** generated by a subset  $T$  of a **commutative ring  $R$**  is equivalent to a **submodule of  $R$**  generated by  $T$
- a **principal ideal** of  $R$  is equivalent to a **cyclic submodule** of  $R$
- if  $F$  is a field, and  $W_\psi$  is defined as above, then  $w_\psi$  is a **cyclic  $F[X]$ -module** generated by  $\underline{e}_3$
- $0_M$  **generates a cyclic submodule  $\{0_M\}$  of any module**

### 3.9 Lemma: Smallest Submodule Containing a Subset

If  $T \subseteq M$ , then:

$${}_R\langle T \rangle$$

is the **smallest submodule** of  $M$  containing  $T$ . [Lemma 3.7.28]

### 3.10 Lemma: Intersection of Submodules

The **intersection** of any **collection of modules** is a **module**. [Lemma 3.7.29]

### 3.11 Lemma: Addition of Submodules

If  $M_1, M_2$  are **submodules** of  $M$ , then:

$$M_1 + M_2 := \{m_1 + m_2 \mid m_1 \in M_1, m_2 \in M_2\}$$

is also a **submodule** of  $M$ . [Lemma 3.7.30]

### 3.12 Theorem: Factor Modules

- What are cosets in modules?

– let:

- \*  $R$  be a **ring**
- \*  $M$  be a **module**
- \*  $N$  a **submodule** of  $M$

– similarly to before, we can define an **equivalence relation**:

$$a \sim b \iff a - b \in N, \quad a, b \in M$$

– for  $a \in M$ , the **equivalence class** of this relation is the **coset of  $a$  with respect to  $N$  in  $M$** :

$$E(a) = a + N = \{a + n \mid n \in N\}$$

- How are factor modules defined?

– the **factor of  $M$  by  $N$**  (or the **quotient of  $M$  by  $N$**  is the set:

$$M/N = M / \sim$$

of all cosets/equivalence classes of  $N$  in  $M$ .

#### 3.12.1 Examples

Let  $R = \mathbb{R}, M = \mathbb{R}^4$  and:

$$N = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \mid x_1 = 2x_3, x_2 = 4x_4\}$$

What is  $M/N$ ? We know its an  $R$  module over a field, so  $M/N$  is a vector space. First, lets consider what the bases of  $M, N$  are. For  $N$  its simple:

$$\{(2, 0, 1, 0), (0, 4, 0, 1)\}$$

For  $M$ , we can extend the basis for  $N$ :

$$\{(2, 0, 1, 0), (0, 4, 0, 1), (1, 0, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0, 0)\}$$

Indeed, this is a basis, since the vectors are linearly independent, and:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = x_3(2, 0, 1, 0) + x_4(0, 4, 0, 1) + (x_1 - 2x_3)(1, 0, 0, 0) + (x_2 - 4x_4)(0, 1, 0, 0)$$

Now, recall that:

$$a \sim b \iff a - b \in N$$

We claim that a basis for  $M/N$  is given by:

$$\{(1, 0, 0, 0) + N, (0, 1, 0, 0) + N\}$$

For this we need 2 things:

1. **Generation** Take any element in  $M/N$ :

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) + N$$

Then, it is clear that:

$$((x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) + N) - (((x_1 - 2x_3)(1, 0, 0, 0) + N) + ((x_2 - 4x_4)(0, 1, 0, 0) + N)) = (x_3(2, 0, 1, 0) + N) + (x_4(0, 4, 0, 1) + N)$$

But notice,  $\{(2, 0, 1, 0), (0, 4, 0, 1)\}$  is a basis for  $N$ , so:

$$((x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) + N) - (((x_1 - 2x_3)(1, 0, 0, 0) + N) + ((x_2 - 4x_4)(0, 1, 0, 0) + N)) \in N$$

or in other words,  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) + N$  and  $((x_1 - 2x_3)(1, 0, 0, 0) + N) + ((x_2 - 4x_4)(0, 1, 0, 0) + N)$  are equivalent in the cosets, so:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) + N = ((x_1 - 2x_3)(1, 0, 0, 0) + N) + ((x_2 - 4x_4)(0, 1, 0, 0) + N)$$

Hence, any element in  $M/N$  is generated by our claimed basis.

2. **Linear Independence** It is clear that if:

$$(\alpha(1, 0, 0, 0) + \beta(0, 1, 0, 0)) + N = (0, 0, 0, 0) + N$$

we can only have  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , so the generating set is linearly independent.

### 3.13 Theorem: Factor Module Operations

*Let  $R$  be a ring, and let  $M, N$  be  $R$ -modules. For  $a, b \in M$  and  $r \in R$ . For the **factor module**  $M/N$ , define **addition** via:*

$$(a + N) + (b + N) = (a + b) + N \quad E(a) + E(b) = E(a + b)$$

*and **multiplication** via:*

$$r(a + N) = (ra) + N$$

*[Theorem 3.7.31]*

*Proof.* As before, we need to show that not only  $M/N$  is a module, but also that **addition** and **multiplication** are **well-defined**.

Addition is well-defined, since additively, modules are abelian groups, so the proof for **factor rings** applies.

For multiplication, consider  $a, b \in M$ , such that:

$$E(a) = E(b)$$

We need to show that:

$$rE(a) = rE(b)$$

By properties of modules, this means that  $a \sim b \implies a - b \in N$ . Again by properties of modules,  $r(a - b) \in N \implies ra - rb \in N$ . Hence:

$$E(ra) = E(rb) \iff rE(a) = rE(b)$$

Thus, multiplication is **well-defined**.

Lastly, we check that addition defines a group:



- $E(0) + E(a) = E(0 + a) = E(a) = E(a + 0) = E(a) + E(0)$
- $E(a) + E(-a) = E(a - a) = E(0)$

Hence,  $M/N$  is indeed a module.

□

### 3.14 Theorem: The Universal Property of Factor Modules

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, with  $L$  and  $M$  as  $R$ -modules. Let  $N$  be a **submodule** of  $M$ .

Then:

1. The **canonical mapping**:

$$\text{can} : M \rightarrow M/N$$

$$\text{can}(a) = E(a) = a + N, \quad \forall a \in M$$

is a **surjective  $R$ -module homomorphism**, with:

$$\ker(\text{can}) = N$$

2. If:

$$f : M \rightarrow L$$

is an  **$R$ -homomorphism** with:

$$f(N) = \{0_L\}$$

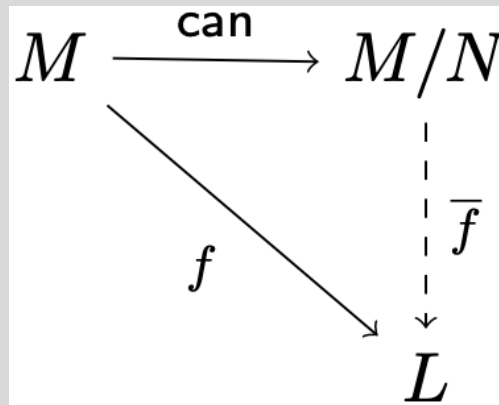
(so then  $N \subseteq \ker(f)$ ), then there is a **unique homomorphism**:

$$\bar{f} : M/N \rightarrow L$$

$$\bar{f}(E(a)) = f(a), \quad \forall a \in M$$

such that:

$$f = \bar{f} \circ \text{can}$$



[Theorem 3.7.32]

*Proof.* The proof is completely analogous to the proof of the **universal property of factor rings** (2.7)

□

### 3.15 Theorem: First Isomorphism Theorem for Modules

Let  $R$  be a **ring**, and let  $M, N$  be  $R$ -**modules**  
Then, every  $R$ -**homomorphism**:

$$f : M \rightarrow N$$

induces an  $R$ -**isomorphism**:

$$\bar{f} : (M/\ker(f)) \rightarrow \text{im}(f)$$

[Theorem 3.7.33]

*Proof.* Again, completely analogous to that of the **first isomorphism theorem for rings** (2.8) □

### 3.16 Remark: First Isomorphism Theorem for Vector Spaces

If we pick  $R = F$  to be a field, then the above gives us the **First Isomorphism Theorem for Vector Spaces**.

Similarly to before, we can show that:

$$\dim(M/\ker(f)) = \dim(M) - \dim(\ker(f))$$

Moreover, due to the isomorphism  $\bar{f} : (M/\ker(f)) \rightarrow \text{im}(f)$  we know that:

$$\dim(M/\ker(f)) = \dim(\text{im}(f))$$

which gives us another proof of the **rank-nullity theorem**. [Remark 3.7.34]

### 3.17 Remark: First Isomorphism Theorem for Abelian Groups

If we pick  $R = \mathbb{Z}$ , then the above gives us the **First Isomorphism Theorem for Abelian Groups**, a special case of the **First Isomorphism Theorem for Groups**. [Remark 3.7.35]

1. Let  $N, K$  be submodules of an  $R$ -module  $M$ . Show that  $K$  is a submodule of  $N + K = \{b + c \mid b \in N, c \in K\}$  and  $N \cap K$  is a submodule of  $N$ . Show further that:

$$\frac{N + K}{N} \cong \frac{N}{N \cap K}$$

This is the **Second Isomorphism Theorem for Modules**

2. Let  $N, K$  be submodules of an  $R$ -module  $M$ , where  $K \subseteq N$ . Show that  $N/K$  is a submodule of  $M/K$ , and that:

$$\frac{M/K}{N/K} \cong M/N$$

This is the *Third Isomorphism Theorem for Modules*

## 4 Workshop

1. True or false. Although  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not algebraically closed, the set:

$$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-1}] = \{a + b\sqrt{-1} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

(a subset of  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed.

This is false. Consider  $X^2 - 2$ . This only has roots  $X = \pm\sqrt{2}$ , but neither of these roots are in  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-1}]$ , so this field isn't algebraically closed.

2. Define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  by:

$$x \sim y \text{ if and only if } x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Let  $E(x)$  denote the equivalence class containing  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Which of the following operations are well-defined where  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ?

- (a)  $E(x) \rightarrow e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}x}$

Assume that  $x \sim y$  (that is,  $E(x) = E(y)$ ). When  $\exists z \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $y = x + z$ . Then, this mapping is well defined if:

$$e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}x} = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}y}$$

We compute:

$$e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}y} = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}(x+z)} = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}x} e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}z} = e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}x}$$

where we use the fact that  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and so  $e^{2\pi\sqrt{-1}z} = 1$

- (b)  $(E(x), E(y)) \rightarrow E(x + y)$

This mapping is well defined if we can show that:

$$(E(x), E(y)) = (E(x'), E(y')) \implies E(x + y) = E(x' + y')$$

Notice:

$$E(x) = E(x') \implies x - x' = z \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$E(y) = E(y') \implies y - y' = w \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Now, consider:

$$(x + y) - (x' + y') = (x - x') + (y - y') = z + w \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Thus:

$$(x + y) - (x' + y') \in \mathbb{Z} \implies E(x + y) = E(x' + y')$$

- (c)  $(E(x), E(y)) \rightarrow E(xy)$

Operating similarly as above, consider:

$$xy - x'y'$$

If this difference is an integer, then  $E(xy) = E(x'y')$ , where:

$$E(x) = E(x') \implies x - x' = z \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$E(y) = E(y') \implies y - y' = w \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Thus:

$$x'y' = (x + z)(y + w) = xy + zy + zw + xw$$

Hence:

$$xy - x'y' = -(zy + xw + zw)$$

This need not be an integer. For example, picking rational  $x, y$  can ensure this. Indeed, if  $x = \frac{3}{2}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{2}$ , then  $x - y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then:

$$\left(E\left(\frac{1}{2}\right), E\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow E\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)$$

but

$$\left(E\left(\frac{3}{2}\right), E\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) \rightarrow E\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)$$

and:

$$E\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) \neq E\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)$$

since:

$$\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}$$

3. **Let:**

$$I = \mathbb{C}[X] \langle X^2 + 1 \rangle$$

**the principal ideal of  $\mathbb{C}[X]$  generated by  $X^2 + 1$ . Is the factor ring  $\mathbb{C}[X]/I$  an integral domain?**

*This question relies on having a strong understanding of all the concepts involved.*

- *$I$  is the ideal containing all the polynomials which have  $X^2 + 1$  as a factor*
- *$\mathbb{C}[X]/I$  is a quotient ring, with 0 element  $E(0)$  given by  $I$ : that is,  $E(0)$  is the set of polynomials with  $X^2 + 1$  as a factor*
- *an **integral domain** is a non-zero commutative ring that has no zero-divisors; that is, multiplying non-zero elements together never produces the 0 element*

This claim is False. This is because we can find non-zero elements in  $\mathbb{C}[X]/I$  which when multiplied produce  $E(0)$ .

Notice, we can write:

$$X^2 + 1 = (X + \sqrt{-1})(X - \sqrt{-1})$$

This means that:

$$E(X + \sqrt{-1})E(X - \sqrt{-1}) = E(X^2 + 1) = E(0)$$

We just need to show that neither of the two are 0. This is clear, since these are both polynomials of degree 1. The ideal  $I$  contains only elements of degree at least 2 (since they are obtained by multiplying non-zero polynomials by  $X^2 + 1$ , and since  $\mathbb{C}$  is an integral domain, if  $P = Q(X)(X^2 + 1)$  then  $\deg(P) = \deg(Q) + 2 \geq 2$ ). Hence,  $E(X + \sqrt{-1}) \neq E(0), E(X - \sqrt{-1}) \neq E(0)$ .

4. **Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $n \geq 2$  and let  $I = \mathbb{Z}[X] \langle n, X \rangle$ , an ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ . Show that  $\mathbb{Z}[X]/I$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$**

We need to realise 2 things:

- $I$  is an ideal generated by using combinations of the constant polynomial  $n$  and the linear polynomial  $X$
- to show the isomorphic nature of the 2 rings, we first need to come up with a ring homomorphism  $(f : \mathbb{Z}[X] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n)$  which must be surjective, so that  $\text{im}(f) = \mathbb{Z}_n$ . Then, if we can show that  $I = \ker(f)$  then  $f$  leads to an isomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}[X]/I$  to  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

$\mathbb{Z}[X]$  is the ring of polynomials with integer coefficients. It makes intuitive sense to define a mapping:

$$f(a_n X^n + \dots + a_0) = \overline{a_0}$$

We verify that it is a ring homomorphism. Consider 2 polynomials:

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i \quad P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i X^i$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} f(P+Q) &= f\left(\sum_{i=0}^n (a_i + b_i) X^i\right) = \overline{a_i + b_i} = \overline{a_i} + \overline{b_i} = f(P) + f(Q) \\ f(PQ) &= \overline{a_i b_i} = \overline{a_i} \overline{b_i} = f(P)f(Q) \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,  $f$  is clearly surjective, since if  $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  then the constant polynomial  $P(X) = x$  is such that:

$$f(P) = \bar{x}$$

The final step is to show that  $I = \ker(f)$ . It is clear that  $I \subseteq \ker(f)$ , since:

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= \bar{n} = \bar{0} \\ f(X) &= f(X+0) = \bar{0} \end{aligned}$$

Now, suppose that:

$$P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i \quad P(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i X^i \in \ker(f)$$

This means that:

$$a_0 = nz, \quad z \in \mathbb{Z}$$

since then  $f(nz) = \bar{0}$ . But then:

$$P(X) = nz + X \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_{i+1} X^i \right)$$

so clearly:

$$P(X) \in I \implies \ker(f) \subseteq I$$

Hence,  $I = \ker(f)$ . Then, by the first isomorphism Theorem we have that:

$$\mathbb{Z}[X]/\ker(f) \cong \text{im}(f) \implies \mathbb{Z}[X]/I \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$$

5. Let  $V$  be the real vector space of polynomials  $\mathbb{R}[X]_{<4}$  of degree less than 4. Let:

$$U = \{P \in V \mid P(3) = 0\}$$

(a) **Show that  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$ .**

We check the 3 properties of a subspace:

① **Contains 0 Element**

If  $P(X) = 0$ , then clearly  $P(3) = 0$ , so  $0 \in U$ .

② **Closed Under Addition**

Let  $P(X), Q(X) \in U$ . Then:

$$(P + Q)(3) = P(3) + Q(3) = 0 \implies P + Q \in U$$

③ **Closed Under Scalar Multiplication**

Let  $P(X) \in U, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then:

$$(\lambda P)(3) = \lambda P(3) = 0 \implies \lambda P \in U$$

Hence, it follows that  $U$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

(b) **Find a basis for  $U$  and extend it to a basis for  $V$ . Express  $P \in V$  explicitly in terms of this basis.**

*When I did this, as a basis I picked:*

$$\{(X - 3), (X - 3)^2, (X - 3)^3\}$$

*which certainly worked, but it makes the calculations a bit harder. The solutions pick a simpler basis, so I will use their answers below.*

As a basis we can pick:

$$\{(X - 3), X(X - 3), X^2(X - 3)\} = \{X - 3, X^2 - 3X, X^3 - 3X^2\}$$

Clearly, each element is linearly independent (they differ by factors of  $X$ ). Intuitively, it will span, since any linear combination of these will have 3 as a root. In particular, consider  $P \in U$ , then, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X) &= (aX^2 + bX + c)(X - 3) \\ &= aX^3 - 3aX^2 + bX^2 - 3bX + cX - 3c \\ &= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + b(X^2 - 3X) + c(X - 3) \end{aligned}$$

so the set is spanning.

Again, it is intuitive that to produce a basis of  $P$ , we just need control over the constant term (since the current basis already “handles” all the powers of  $X$ , except for 0). Hence, for  $P$ , we consider the basis:

$$\{1, X - 3, X^2 - 3X, X^3 - 3X^2\}$$

Now, consider  $P \in V$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
P &= aX^3 + bX^2 + cX + d \\
&= aX^3 - 3aX^2 + 3aX^2 + bX^2 + cX + d \\
&= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)X^2 + cX + d \\
&= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)X^2 - 3(3a + b)X + 3(3a + b)X + cX + d \\
&= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)(X^2 - 3X) + (9a + 3b + c)X + d \\
&= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)(X^2 - 3X) + (9a + 3b + c)X - 3(9a + 3b + c) + 3(9a + 3b + c) + d \\
&= a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)(X^2 - 3X) + (9a + 3b + c)(X - 3) + (27a + 9b + 3c + d)
\end{aligned}$$

So we can see that this basis is LiD and spans  $V$ , as required.

*Using my basis, these calculations were a true pain, but I got very similar results (albeit not checked, so just stick to the above).*

(c) **Write down a basis for  $V/U$ .**

*This is very similar to an exercise for the notes, which tells us that the basis for  $V/U$  is obtained by applying the canonical mapping to the elements used to extend  $U$  to  $V$ .*

We claim that:

$$\{1 + U\}$$

is a basis for  $V/U$ .

To verify this, consider  $P + U \in V/U$ . In particular, by the exercise above, we know that we can find  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$  such that:

$$P = a(X^3 - 3X^2) + b(X^2 - 3X) + c(X - 3) + d = (X - 3)(aX^2 + bX + c) + d$$

Then, it is clear that:

$$P + U = d + U = d(1 + U)$$

Hence, the basis spans  $V/U$ . Moreover, it contains a single element, so it is linearly independent.

(d) **Write down the matrix that represents the canonical mapping:**

$$can : V \rightarrow V/U$$

**which sends  $P$  to  $P + U$ , in terms of the (ordered) basis  $\{X^3, X^2, X, 1\}$  of  $V$ , and the one you chose in (3) for  $V/U$ .**

We have that  $(1 + U)$  is the basis vector of  $V/U$ . Recall, the representing matrix of the mapping is defined by the coefficients used to write  $can(P)$  in terms of  $(1 + U)$ . Notice, in part b), we showed that:

$$P(X) = aX^3 + bX^2 + cX + d$$

can be written as:

$$P(X) = a(X^3 - 3X^2) + (3a + b)(X^2 - 3X) + (9a + 3b + c)(X - 3) + (27a + 9b + 3c + d)$$



This great, since then:

$$can(P) = P + U = (27a + 9b + 3c + d) + U$$

Hence, we compute:

$$can(1) = 1 + U = 1(1 + U)$$

If we set  $c = 1$ , and everything else to 0:

$$can(X) = X + U = 3 + U = 3(1 + U)$$

If we set  $b = 1$ , and everything else to 0:

$$can(X^2) = X^2 + U = 9 + U = 9(1 + U)$$

If we set  $a = 1$ , and everything else to 0:

$$can(X^3) = X^3 + U = 27 + U = 27(1 + U)$$

Hence, we get that the representing matrix is:

$$_{\{1+U\}}[can]_{\{X^3, X^2, X, 1\}} = \begin{pmatrix} 27 & 9 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$