HOMEWORK 7

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93. We can use the isomorphism theorem by showing that there is a homomorphism $f : R[x]/ \to R$, demonstrating the kernel of f to be (x), and showing that the image of f is R itself. So first, choose f such that $r(x) = r_0 + \ldots + r_n x^n \mapsto r_0$; in other words, f is the evaluation function that sends polynomials $r(x)$ to $r(0)$.

This map is well defined since equality of polynomials is defined by equality of coefficients. The map is a homomorphism since

$$f(r(x) + s(x)) = r_0 + s_0 = f(r(x)) + f(s(x))$$

and

$$f(r(x)s(x)) = r_0 s_0 = f(r_0)f(s_0),$$

and furthermore, the zero polynomial obviously maps to zero in R. Thus f is a homomorphism.

The kernel of f is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\ker f &= \{r(x) \in R[x] : f(r(x)) = 0\} \\ &= \{r_1 x + \ldots + r_n x^n\} \\ &= (x)\end{aligned}$$

since polynomials without constant terms are divisible by x without remainder. Finally, the image of f is clearly the entirety of R since one can choose any constant polynomial $r(x) = r_0$ with $r_0 \in R$. Thus by the first isomorphism theorem, there exists an isomorphism between $R[x]/(x)$ and R.

97.

Lemma. In a finite field of prime order n, $(a+b)^n = a^n + b^n$. By binomial coefficients,

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

where

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

but for $n > k$, n divides $n!$ but not $k!$. Then the coefficients of all terms but the first and the last are divisible by the characteristic. All that is left is $a^n + b^n$.

i) F obeys the additive homomorphism rule since

$$F(a+b) = a^p + b^p = (a+b)^p = F(a) + F(b)$$

by the lemma. It obeys the multiplicative rule

$$F(a)F(b) = a^p b^p = (ab)^p = F(ab)$$

and it sends 0 to 0 by $F(0) = 0^p = 0$. It is injective since if we have $a \neq b$,

$$F(a) = a^p \neq b^p = F(b)$$

and thus it is also surjective and therefore an isomorphism.

ii) Since the Frobenius map is invertible, for every a we can apply $F^{-1}(a)$ which gives the pth root of a.

iii) If we consider $F_n(a) = F_n(b)$, we have $(a^p)^n = (b^p)^n$. Taking the nth root, we obtain $a^p = b^p$ and by (ii) we can take a pth root. Thus, $a = b$.

100. i) By the lemma in 97, we can write $x^4 + 1 = (x^2)^2 + (1^2)^2 = (x^2 + 1)^2$.

ii) We can write

$$\begin{aligned}(x^2 + ax + b)(x^2 + cx + d) &= x^4 + cx^3 + dx^2 + ax^3 + acx^2 + adx + bx^2 + bcx + bd \\ &= x^4 + (c + a)x^3 + (d + ac + b)x^2 + (ad + bc)x + (bd) \\ &= x^4 + 1\end{aligned}$$

and by equating coefficients, clearly $bd = 1$, $c + a = 0$ or $c = -a$, $d + ac + b = 0$, and $ad + bc = 0$. The latter two can be written as $d + b - a^2 = 0$ and $ad - ab = 0$ or $a(d - b) = 0$.

iii) Suppose $b^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$. If $a = 0$, we write

$$x^4 + (d + b)x^2 + (bd) = (x^2 + d)(x^2 + b)$$

If $a \neq 0$, then

$$x^4 + (d + b - a^2)x^2 + (a(d - b))x + (bd)$$

so it must be that $d = b$ by the cancellation property on the coefficient of x. Then

$$x^4 + (2b - a^2)x^2 + b^2$$

and $2b = a^2$ since $d = b$ so

$$x^4 - 1 = (x^2 + 1)(x^2 - 1).$$

If on the other hand we suppose $a^2 \equiv \pm 2 \mod p$, then we write

$$x^4 + (d + b - a^2)x^2 + (ad - bc)x + (bd)$$

If a^2 is -2,

$$x^4 + (d + b + 2)x^2 + bd$$

and because $d + b = a^2$, it must be that $d + b = -2$ so

$$x^4 + (2 - 2)x^2 + bd = x^4 + 2x^2 - 2x^2 + 1$$

which can be written as

$$x^4 + 2x^2 - b^2x^2 + 1$$

and we can write

$$x^4 - bx^3 + x^2 + bx^3 - b^2x^2 + bx + x^2 - bx + 1 = (x^2 + bx + 1)(x^2 - bx + 1).$$

If we say a^2 is 2, then similarly $d + b = 2$ and we have

$$x^4 + (-2 + 2)x^2 + bd = x^4 - 2x^2 + 2x^2 + 1$$

where we can proceed as before to obtain $(x^2 + bx + 1)(x^2 - bx + 1)$.

103. In E, we have the following eight elements:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & x & x^2 \\ x + 1 & x^2 + 1 & x^2 + x & x^2 + x + 1 \end{array}$$

2. Since $\mathcal{F}(k)$ is already a commutative ring, we know that it is an abelian group under addition. According to the given definition of scalar multiplication, we have

$$\alpha(f(a) + g(a)) = \alpha f(a) + \alpha g(a)$$
$$(\alpha + \beta)f(a) = \alpha f(a) + \beta f(a)$$

$$(\alpha\beta)f(a) = \alpha(\beta f(a))$$
$$1f(a) = f(a)$$

thus we have a vector space.

If we take the subset of polynomial functions, we can show this is a subspace by

$$0f(a) = 0 \in \mathcal{PF}(k),$$
$$f(a) + g(a) = (f_0 + g_0) + (f_1 + g_1)x + (f_2 + g_2)x^2 + \cdots \in \mathcal{PF}(k),$$
$$\alpha f(a) = (\alpha f_0) + (\alpha f_1)x + (\alpha f_2)x^2 + \cdots \in \mathcal{PF}(k).$$

7. Suppose $Ax = 0$ with $x \neq 0$. Then it must be that for every column i of A, $\sum a_i x_i = 0$ with at least one x_i nonzero. This is a linear combination, and we know that a linear combination has a nontrivial solution if and only if the vectors are linearly dependent. Thus, the null space has a nontrivial solution if and only if the matrix column vectors are linearly dependent.

8. If the given list is linearly dependent, then we can write

$$0 = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \ldots + a_{100} x^{100} = f(x)$$

with at least one a_i nonzero. This would mean that this degree 100 polynomial $f(x)$ evaluates to zero for all $x \in k$. However, a degree 100 polynomial has at most 100 roots by the fundamental theorem of algebra. Thus, it must be that $f(x)$ is in fact the zero polynomial with $a_i = 0$. Thus, the list is linearly independent.

With a similar argument, V_n must be linearly independent, simply by replacing 100 above with n. Then $1, x, \ldots, x^n$ is a basis of V_n because it clearly spans V_n and is linearly independent. Furthermore, the basis contains all x^i for $0 \leq i \leq n$, so it is obvious that there are $n+1$ elements in the basis and so $\dim V_n = n + 1$.

11. Let E_{ij} designate the $m \times n$ matrix with 1 at position ij and zero elsewhere. Clearly, for an $m \times n$ matrix, there are mn such E. These matrices are also linearly independent, for if we rearrange the entries as a vector of length mn, we have the standard basis of k^{mn}, which is a linearly independent set. Thus, the set of all E_{ij} is a basis for the $m \times n$ matrices of size mn. So, the dimension of that vector space is mn.

If we consider the subspace of symmetric matrices, we can similarly think about rearranging the basis matrices as vectors. For a symmetric matrix, everything below the diagonal is already given by what is above the diagonal, so we need only consider the diagonal of length n, the $n-1$ superdiagonal elements, etc. giving $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ elements total. Then we need vectors of this length to uniquely define the elements of the basis, and so the dimension of this subspace of symmetric $n \times n$ matrices is $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

15. We know that the space of $n \times n$ matrices has dimension n^2. Consider $m > n^2$. Then the set $I, A, A^2, \ldots, A^m$ must be linearly dependent. If that were the case, there exists a linear combination $c_0 I + c_1 A + \ldots + c_m A^m = 0$. Take $f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + \ldots c_m x^m \neq 0$ and $f(A) = 0$ gives the result.

18. We know $As = b$ and $Au = 0$, so for some solution $x' = s + u$ write

$$\begin{aligned} Ax' &= b \\ A(s+u) &= b \\ As + Au &= b \\ b + 0 &= b \end{aligned}$$

Thus, all solutions x' are of the form $s+u$ with $u \in U$, which is precisely the definition of a coset of U with respect to s.

24. If the list is linearly independent, they span some vector space of m dimensions. Furthermore, it must be that $m \leq \dim V$, otherwise the vectors would not be independent. Thus, since the vectors are from V and span a space with dimension at most V, the span must be a subspace of V.

If we begin with the assumption that the list spans a subspace of V, we note that the number of vectors is equal to the dimension of the subspace. By corollary 4.24, the list is linearly independent.

27. Consider A as a list of its column vectors, i.e.

$$A = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)$$

If β is in the column space, we can write it in terms of the column vectors

$$\beta = \alpha_1 a_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n a_n$$

where α_i are scalars. If we take $x = (\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n)$ then $Ax = \beta$, and we have a solution, so the system is consistent.

On the other hand, if we begin with a solution $(\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n)$ to $Ax = \beta$, then we can rewrite the system as

$$\alpha_1 a_1 + \ldots + \alpha_n a_n = \beta$$

with a_i representing the ith column in A. Then β is a linear combination of the column vectors, and thus belongs to its column space.

28. Since A is invertible, A^{-1} exists and we can derive

$$Ax = b \implies A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}b \implies x = A^{-1}b$$

and we know this is unique since if there were some other x' such that $Ax' = b$, we have

$$Ax' = b \implies A^{-1}Ax' = A^{-1}b \implies x' = A^{-1}b$$

so $x' = x$.