

Abstract Algebra II

Mark

Chapter 7, recall

Ring is an **abelian** additive group with multiplication that's **associative** and **closed**, linked by **distribution**.

Division Ring: a ring with mult inverses

Zero Divisor: if there is another element so product is zero

Integral Domain: commutative ring with unit and no zero divisors.

Ideal: subring I such that ir and $ri \in I$ for all r in ring.

For I, J ideals,

$$IJ = \text{set of finite sums of } ij$$

principle ideal: ideal generated by one element using $+$ and $*$

maximal ideal: ideal not contained in any other proper ideal.

prime ideal: ab in ideal, then a or b is.

$$P \text{ is prime} \iff R/P \text{ is an integral domain}$$

see notes for proof.

$$M \text{ is maximal} \iff R/M \text{ is a field}$$

R/M is field means no ideals; by lattice iso, no ideals between R and M .

maximal ideal \rightarrow prime ideal

max ideal $\rightarrow R/P$ is a field.

field is an integral domain.

Quadratic Fields and integer rings

Define a **quadratic field** as

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D}) = \{a + b\sqrt{D} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

for $D \in \mathbb{Q}$ and not divisible by a perfect square ('square-free').

can show this is a field using usual checks.

Inverses * involves a trick :

key: $(a + b\sqrt{D})(a - b\sqrt{D}) = a^2 - Db^2$

If a and b are not both zero, then, $a^2 - Db^2$ can't be zero.

(this would imply $D = \frac{a^2}{b^2}$, a contradiction) Thus,

$$(a + b\sqrt{D}) \frac{a - b\sqrt{D}}{a^2 - Db^2} = 1$$

For $D = -1$, $\mathbb{Z}[D]$ is $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, the set $a + bi$ with integer coefficients, called the **Gaussian Integers**.

Define the **quadratic ring of integers**, Θ_D , in the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ as

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}], & \text{if } D \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \\ \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}], & \text{if } D \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

*note both $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}]$ are subrings of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$.

The **field norm** N is a function from $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D}) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ defined

$$N(a + b\sqrt{D}) = (a + b\sqrt{D})(a - b\sqrt{D}) = a^2 - Db^2$$

(as noted above norm is never zero if both a and b are not zero)

For the ring of integers ("quadratic integer rings"), the norm is more generally defined as

$$N(a + b\omega) = (a + b\omega)(a + b\bar{\omega})$$

where $\bar{\omega}$ is the Galois conjugate $(-)$ is attached to \sqrt{D} .

Norm is **multiplicative**: $N(\alpha\beta) = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$.

a number in $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{D}]$ is an **algebraic integer** if it's the root of a monic polynomial with integer coefficients.

α is a unit implies there exists β such that $\alpha\beta = 1$.

An element α in the ring of integers is a **unit** if and only if $N(\alpha) = \pm 1$.

proof: \rightarrow) Suppose α is a unit. Then,

$$\alpha\beta = 1, \text{ for some } \beta \in \Theta_D$$

So, $N(\alpha\beta) = N(1) = 1$.

\leftarrow) $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = \pm 1$, so either $\alpha\bar{\alpha} = 1$ or $\alpha(-\bar{\alpha}) = 1$.

e.g., for $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ (aka $D = -1$), the units are $\{\pm 1, \pm i\}$ as they are the only option satisfying $a^2 + b^2 = 1$.

For rings, $A, B, AB = \{a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_2 + \dots\}$ "finite sums of elements"

Ideal generated by a subset of R , A is denoted (A) .

it's the "smallest ideal containing A "

Kernel of a ring homomorphism is set of elements mapping to 0 (additive id).

Kernel of ring hom is an ideal

For $s \in \text{Kernel}$, any $r \in R$, consider $\varphi(sr)$ still maps to kernel.
hence \ker is ideal

Exercises

1. What are the units of $\Theta_{-3} = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}]$?

$\alpha = a + b\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}$ is a unit \iff

$$N(\alpha) = a^2 + ab + b^2 = 1$$

TRICK: complete the square!

$$(2a + b)^2 + 3b^2 = 4$$

only options for b are 0, 1, or -1.

units are $\{\pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm \frac{\sqrt{-3}}{2}\}$.

2. Prove $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ with $N(a + bi) = a^2 + b^2$ is a Euclidean Domain.

We need to show Division Algo works.

For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, ($\beta \neq 0$)

$$\frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \frac{a + bi}{c + di} = \frac{a}{c^2 + d^2} + \frac{bi}{c^2 + d^2} = r + si \quad (r, s \in \mathbb{Q})$$

Let p, q be the closest integers to r, s in turn. Then,

$$N((r + si) - (p + qi)) = (r - p)^2 + (s - q)^2 \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

Then, we define Algo as

$$\alpha = (p + qi)\beta + R$$

Remains to show $N(R) < N(\beta)$.

Define some other variable $\theta = (r - p) + (s - q)i$, with $N(\theta) < \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$.

Then,

$$N(R) = N(\theta)N(\beta) \leq \frac{1}{2}N(\beta)$$

3. Find the ideal generated by $(3 - i, 2 + 11i)$.

idea is to find the gcd using Euclidean Algo.

First,

$$\frac{2 + 11i}{3 - i} = \frac{-1}{2} + \frac{7}{2}i.$$

Select closest integers $p = -1, q = 3$. Then remainder R is

$$= 2 + 11i - (-1 + 3i)(3 - i) = 2 + i.$$

We have

$$2 + 11i = (-1 + 3i)(3 - i) + (2 + i).$$

Next,

$$\frac{3 - i}{2 + i} = (1 - i)$$

Thus,

$$3 - i = (1 - i)(2 + i) + 0.$$

Meaning, the gcd = $2 + i$ (last nonzero remainder).

Thus, ideal is $((2 + i))$.

4. Show $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a Euclidean Domain.

idea is to show it's not a PID (hence not a Euclidean Domain).

Consider $I = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$.

Suppose I is a principal ideal with generator α .

Then $2 = k_1 * \alpha$ and $1 + \sqrt{-5} = k_2 \alpha$.

Then, $N(\alpha)$ divides 4 and divides 6 $\rightarrow N(\alpha) = 1$ or 2.

Case 1: $N(\alpha) = 2$

Then, $2 = a^2 + 5b^2$, which is impossible for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Case 2: $N(\alpha) = 1$

...somehow contradiction

5. What are zero divisors of \mathbb{Z}/Z ? What are units?

no zero divisors; units are ± 1 . So $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{\pm 1\}$

Chapter 8: Euclidean Domains

Norm

For R an integral domain, a **norm** is a function N such that

$$N : R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \text{ and } N(0) = 0$$

A norm is a measure of size in R .

e.g., $R = F[x]$, norm is generally the degree of the polynomial.

*possible for same integral domain to have more than one norm. Often, statements are with respect to a particular norm.

Euclidean Domain

A **Euclidean Domain** is an integral domain, R , with a division algorithm such that for any two elements $a, b \in R (b \neq 0)$, there exists $q, r \in R$ where

$$a = qb + r \text{ and } r = 0 \text{ or } N(r) < N(b)$$

q is the **quotient** and r is the **remainder**.

e.g., fields (with any norm), \mathbb{Z} with $N(a) = |a|$, $F[x]$ with norm = degree of polynomial.

Every ideal in a Euclidean Domain is **principal**

proof: consider d in an ideal I , such that d has minimum norm in I . (exists by Well ordering principle)

(1): $(d) \subset I$, by closure.

(2): $I \subset (d)$, since for $a \in I$,

$$a = qd + r$$

with $N(r) < N(a)$ (impossible) or $r = 0$. Thus, $a \in (d)$.

*useful to show NOT Euclidean Domain, if some ideal is not principal.

A Euclidean Domain allows for the use of the **Euclidean Algorithm**.

If (a, b) (ideal generated by a, b) = (d) , then $d = \gcd(a, b)$
because $d = ax + by$ by Euclidean Algo.

Principal Ideal Domains, PIDs

A **Principal Ideal Domain** is an integral domain where every ideal is principal.

Euclidean Domain \rightarrow PID

since every ideal in Euclidean Domain is principal

In a PID, irreducible \rightarrow prime.

For r irreducible, $\text{wwts}(r)$ is a prime ideal.
 Suppose $(r) \subset (m)$.
 Then $r = am$ for some a , then a is a unit or m is a unit since r is irreducible. a unit
 $\rightarrow (r) = (m)$
 m unit $\rightarrow (m) = \text{entire ring}$.

Unique Factorization Domains, UFDs

For R an integral domain,

- $r \in R$ is **irreducible** if whenever, $r = ab$ ($a, b \in R$), a or b is a unit. (otherwise, r is **reducible**)
- $p \in R$ ($\neq 0$), is **prime** if (p) is a prime ideal.
 i.e., normal notion of prime $p|ab$, $p|a$ or $p|b$ (aka a or b in ideal).
- $a, b \in R$ are **associate** if $a = ub$ for some unit $u \in R$.

prime element \rightarrow irreducible

p , prime. If $ab = p \in (p)$, then $a \in (p)$ or $b \in (p)$.

Next, show a or b is a unit.

Note without loss of generality, $p = ab = prb \rightarrow rb = 1$, meaning b is a unit.

irreducible \nrightarrow prime: e.g., $2|(1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$, but 2 does not divide $1 + \sqrt{5}$.

In PID, prime element \iff irreducible

above proves \rightarrow).

\leftarrow) see previous page.

A **Unique Factorization Domain** is an integral domain in which for every $r \neq 0$ and not a unit:

(1) r can be written as a **finite product** of irreducible elements.

*not necessarily distinct.

(2) above is **unique** up to associates.

*any factorization has same number of products and elements are associates with elements of composition in (1).

easiest example is any field, since every element in a field is a unit (hence nothing to verify in order to be a UFD).

examples of UFDs: \mathbb{Z} , $\mathbb{F}[x]$, $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

$\mathbb{Z}[i]$ showed it's a Euclidean Domain \rightarrow PID \rightarrow UFD. Similar proof for $\mathbb{F}[x]$.

$\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is a UFD, but not a PID.

$\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD

$6 = 2 * 3$, but also $6 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$. Each product is made of irreducible terms.

Ascending Chain Condition (ACC), Noetherian

A commutative ring with unit R is **Noetherian** if it satisfies ACC:

every increasing sequence of ideals:

$$I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \dots$$

terminates, eventually.

Equivalent to say:

1. ACC
2. every nonempty collection of ideals has a maximal element
3. every ideal is finitely generated

proof

(1 \rightarrow 2) Suppose A is any nonempty collection of ideals.

If no maximal ideal I_n existed in the collection, we can construct an infinite chain, hence not ACC, a contradiction.

(2 \rightarrow 3) Let A be a nonempty collection of ideals with a maximal element, say I_0 .

Thus, for I_i in chain:

(a) $I_0 \subset I_i$, since I_0 is maximal.

(b) $I_i \subset I_0$, since **unclear** (3 \rightarrow 1) Suppose $I_1 \subset I_2 \subset I_3 \subset \dots$ is a chain of ideals

Then, $\bigcup_i I_i$ is an ideal, say I .

Since, every ideal is finitely generated, so is I , meaning the chain terminates.

e.g., $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots]$ is Noetherian.

$(x_1) \subset (x_1, x_2) \subset \dots$ infinite.

PID is Noetherian

since every ideal is generated by 1 element, by (3) above, PID is Noetherian.

PID \rightarrow UFD

proof:

IDEA: factor such as integers.

Suppose $r \neq 0$ in R , a PID.

Then we can factor r as $r_1 * r_2 \dots$.

Suppose a branch of the factorization continued, then we'd have a chain:

$(r_1) \subset (r_2) \subset (r_3)$

along the branch, which contradicts ACC (since PID has ACC).

Is this product unique?

Suppose $r = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n = q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$.

Then, $p_1 | q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$, hence, $p_1 | q_i$ for some i .

Thus, $q_i = p_1 k$, but q_i is irreducible, hence p_1, q_i are associates.

Next repeat for p_2 , to show $n = m$ and all are associates.

In UFD, irreducible \iff prime.

proof: \rightarrow) P is irreducible. If $P|ab$ with $a = p_1 \dots p_n, b = p'_1 \dots p'_m$, then P is associate to some p_i , hence divides a or b .

\leftarrow) true in general.

Field is a ED, is a PID, is a UFD, is an Integral Domain.
(nicest to less)

GCD

An **ideal** is a **gcd** d of a, b if

(1) If $(a) \subset (d)$ and $(b) \subset (d)$ implies $(a, b) \subset (d)$.

(2) If $(a, b) \subset (c)$, then $(d) \subset (c)$.

"gcd(a, b) is a generator for smallest principal ideal containing (a, b)"

*(2) is a bit counterintuitive, careful.

gcds exist in UFD

gcd(a, b) = min power of primes in a, b

In PID, $(a, b) = (d)$. (exists since PID is UFD).
(but no Euclidean Algo!)

*gcd is not always a linear combo if not in PID.

e.g., $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ (UFD not PID)

$a = 2, b = x$: gcd($2, x$) = 1

but $1 \neq 2s + xt$ for any s, t .

Euclidean domain for gcd, is even better: linear combo and algo (euclidean) to find it!

Davenport-Hasse Norm

R has a **Davenport-Hasse** norm N if:

For $a, b \neq 0, a \in (b)$ or $N(as + bt) < N(b)$ for some s, t .

e.g., Euclidean Domain has a Davenport-Hasse norm, since $N(R) = N(a - qb) < N(b)$.

Arithmetic, applying gcd

Recall, for integer rings θ_D : PID \iff UFD

$D < 0$: almost never a PID

$D > 0$: unknown when they're PID.

θ_D has **no unique factorization** for elements; it does have unique factorization for ideals. (every ideal can be written as a product of prime ideals)

$$I = (a_1, \dots, a_n) = r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_n a_n \text{ (r in ring)}$$

"linear combos of generator elements"

For $J = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$.

$$IJ = r a_1 b_1 + \dots + r a_1 b_m \\ + r a_2 b_1 + \dots + r a_2 b_m$$

e.g., $R = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, recall not PID.

$P = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$ we showed was not principal, BUT

$$P^2 = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$$

$= (4, 2 + 2\sqrt{-5}, -4 + 2\sqrt{-5})$ by def of $P * P$ as linear combos

$$= (4, 2, 2\sqrt{-5}) = (2).$$

Irreducibles in Integer Rings

For π in integer ring, θ_D ,

$$\text{If } N(\pi) = p \text{ (for } p \text{ prime in } \mathbb{Z}), \pi \text{ is } \mathbf{irreducible}$$

Suppose $N(\pi) = p$.

Then for $\pi = ab$, $p = N(a)N(b)$

$\rightarrow N(a) = 1$ or $N(b) = 1$, meaning a or b is a unit.

What are the irreducible elements in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$?

look at $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and see how they factor in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. **read and take notes on end of section 8.3**

$$p \text{ factors in } \mathbb{Z}[i] \text{ into two irreducibles} \iff p = a^2 + b^2 \text{ for } a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$$

idea is to think about norm of elements factoring p

Use tool from Number Theory:

$$\text{prime } p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ divides } n^2 + 1 \iff p \cong 1 \text{ mod } 4 \text{ or } p = 2$$

look at elements of order 4 in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ **look at again**

Fermat's Sum of Squares

$$p = a^2 + b^2 \iff p \cong 1 \text{ mod } 4 \text{ or } p = 2$$

Furthermore, the sum of squares representation is **unique** up to sign changes.

What are irreducibles in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$?

$1 + i$, $p \cong 3 \pmod{4}$ for prime in \mathbb{Z} , and

$a \pm bi$ which form $p = a^2 + b^2$ for $p \cong 1 \pmod{4}$ (p prime) **reread 8.3 end to understand proof**

For $n = 2^k p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_r^{a_r} q_1^{b_1} \dots q_s^{b_s}$,

if p, q are distinct primes with
 $p_i \cong 1 \pmod{4}$ and $q_i \cong 3 \pmod{4}$, then n can be written as the sum of squares

*the number of representations of n as a sum of squares is

$4(a_1 + 1)(a_2 + 1) \dots (a_r + 1)$. proof at end of 8.3

Exercises

1. Show $\mathbb{Z}[2i]$ is not a UFD

find an element written as product of different irreducibles.

$4 = 2 * 2 = 2i(-2i)$, all irreducible.

2. Is $\mathfrak{p} = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$ a prime ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$?

consider quotient $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]/(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$.

Is it an integral domain?

note in quotient, $1 + \sqrt{-5} = \bar{0} \rightarrow \sqrt{-5} = \bar{-1}$.

Thus, $a + b\sqrt{-5} = \bar{a} - \bar{b}$.

So, $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]/(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/(2)$ (by previous work). Thus, it is an integral domain.

Chapter 9: Polynomial Rings

Constructing \mathbb{Q} from \mathbb{Z}

set: (a, b) with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

equivalence: $(a, b) \equiv (c, d) \iff ad - bc = 0$ can confirm operations are well-defined as expected (based on representatives from equivalence class)

R UFD

Gauss's Lemma

$p(x)$ reducible in $F[x] \implies p(x)$ reducible in $R[x]$

proof idea: use unique factorization in UFD

$p(x)$ is irreducible in $R[x] \iff$ it is irreducible in $F[x]$

Part by Gauss's other by looking at gcd of coefficients of $p(x)$.

R is UFD $\iff R[x]$ is UFD

proof from notes and in section 8.2

Rational Roots Test

If polynomial with integer coefficients has a **rational root** r/s , r divides constant term and s divides leading coefficient.

think about factoring

Smaller Fields

For I ideal,

If the image of $p(x)$ is irreducible in $R/I[x]$, then it's irreducible in $R[x]$

*careful: reducible in modulo doesn't imply reducible in ring.

Take away:

$p(x)$ is irreducible in say $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \implies p(x)$ irred in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$
--

content of $p(x) \in R[x]$, UFD = gcd of coefficients, "ideal generated by coef"

Roots of Polynomials

degree n polynomial has **n roots** in F , a field.

*not true in rings: $x^2 - 1$ in $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}[x]$ has only 4 roots.

Eisentein's Irreducibility Criterion

$p(x)$ is **irreducible** in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ if

there is p , **prime dividing** all coefficients, but p^2 **doesn't divide** constant

More generally true for **integral domain** R : $p(x)$ irreducible in $R[x]$ if coefficients are elements of prime ideal P , but constant is not element of P^2 .

Tip: $f(x)$ is irreducible $\iff f(x+1)$ is

Exercises

1. Show $x^3 - 3x - 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Since any rational root has to divide 1, the only candidates for roots are ± 1 .

Neither is a root.

So, polynomial is irreducible.

2. Is $x^3 + 5x - 17$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$?
check mod 2: $x^3 + x + 1$, which has no roots so irreducible!

Chapter 10: Modules

Linear Algebra Revisted

Linear Transformation is a homomorphism $\varphi : V \rightarrow W$ both vector spaces:

- 1) $\varphi(V + W) = \varphi(V) + \varphi(W)$
- 2) $\varphi(\alpha V) = \alpha\varphi(V)$

$T : V \rightarrow W$ a linear transformation can be **written as a matrix**:
 M_b^ϵ where b is a basis of V and ϵ is a basis of W .

*note T depends on the basis chosen for V and W .

Big Theorem: every vector space has a basis.
(same number of elements as dimensionality of vector space)

$\text{Ker}(T) = \text{null space}$

Module

An R -module M is an **abelian group** with R , a ring, acting on M by:

- 1) $r(m + n) = rm + rn$
- 2) $(r + s)m = rm + sm$
- 3) $(rs)m = r(sm)$

*if R has unit, then additional requirement: $1m = m$.

Examples

- F -module is a vector space over F
- \mathbb{Z} -module is an abelian group
- $F[x]$ -module is a vectorspace V over field F with a linear transformation

Quotient Modules

For any N, M R -modules with $N \subseteq M$,

M/N is a quotient

”all quotients are submodules”

why? 1. $N \leq M$ since N is abelian. so ”+” makes sense

2. $r(m + N) = rm + N$ just need to check it’s well-defined.

Generators

Idea in general ”blah” **generated by** m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n means the **smallest ”blah” structure** containing all m_i .

Sub-module generated by $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n \in M$ is

$$Rm_1 + \dots + Rm_n$$

since closure is over addition and scalar mult, both captured above by linear combo
cyclic R -module if generated by a single element.

submodule

N is a sub-module of a module M if for $n_1, n_2 \in N$,

1. $n_1 + n_2 \in N$ ”closure +”
2. $rm_1 \in N$ ”scalar closure”

Homomorphisms

$\varphi: M \rightarrow N$

R-module homomorphism φ is what you’d expect:

$\varphi(x + y) = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y)$ and $\varphi(rx) = r\varphi(x)$.

$\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ and $\text{Image}(\varphi)$ are both submodules (in M, N in turn)

Isomorphism Theorems

- $M / \text{Ker}\varphi \cong \text{Image}(\varphi)$
- $A + B / B \cong A / A \cap B$
- $(M/N) / (M'/N) \cong M/M'$ for $N \subseteq M' \subseteq M$
and lattice bien sur.

Cyclic Modules

a **module** M is **cyclic** means there exists $m \in M$ such that $R * m = M$.

an element a of M is **torsion-free** if $ra \neq 0$ for any $r \in R$.

(a is **torsion** element if there is some r such that $ra = 0$)

*torsion module implies every element is a torsion element.

Natural Map for Cyclic Modules (over PIDs)

$\varphi : R \rightarrow M$ by $r \rightarrow rm$ where m is generator.

$\text{Ker}(\varphi) =$ left ideal in R , call it I . Then,

$$R/I \cong M$$

by first iso theorem. idea: $M = R * m$, so it's isomorphic to left cosets of R : $R/(r)$.

*idea: nicer ring, yields nicer r -module M .

"**annihilator**" of M in $R = \{r \in R : rm = 0 \text{ for all } m\}$

Properties of Determinants

- $\det(I_n) = 1$
- $\det(A^T) = \det(A)$
- $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$ (i.e., $1/\det(A)$)
- $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$ ($= \det(BA)$) "commutative"
- $\det(cA) = c^n \det(A)$ for c a constant
- for A triangular (upper or lower right triangles all zero),

$$\det(A) = \text{product of diagonal entries}$$

Find determinant using cofactors

What's $\det(A)$?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & -3 \\ 4 & 0 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Easiest to go down the third column (b/c of the zeros):

$$\det(A) = 1^{1+3} * 1 \det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -3 \\ 4 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 + 0 + (-1)^{4+3} * 3 \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 5 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = -50 + 99 = 49.$$

Chapter 12: Modules over PID

A \mathbb{Z} -module is an **abelian group**.

Thus,

$$\mathbb{Z}\text{-module} = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \dots$$

by FTFGAG

Any $n\mathbb{Z}$ is an **ideal** of \mathbb{Z} (the ideals are precisely $n\mathbb{Z}$).

The idea is to **generalize** the above by replacing \mathbb{Z} with any PID, R .

in context of linear algebra

for vectors space V with a linear transformation A , we find a **different basis**.

This means we find B such that $B = P^{-1}AP$ for some matrix P .

This allows us to write transformation in **unique forms**:

- **Jordan Canonical Form**: as close to a diagonal matrix as possible
 - requires eigenvalues to be in field F .
- **Rational Canonical Form**: similar but doesn't require eigenvalues to be in F .

1 Fundamental Theorem of Finitely Generated Modules

(FTFGM) over PIDs

recall, PID = integral domain (commutative ring with unit and no zero divisors) where every ideal is principal.

For,

$R = \text{PID}$

$M = \text{finitely generated } R\text{-module}.$

There are two ways of **uniquely** decomposing a finitely generated module M :

1. Invariant Factor way:

$$M = \underbrace{R \oplus \cdots \oplus R}_{\text{rank } r} \oplus \underbrace{R/(r_1) \oplus \cdots \oplus R/(r_n)}_{\text{invariant factors}}$$

where $r_1 | r_2 | \cdots | r_n$.

2. Elementary Divisor way:

$$M = \underbrace{R \oplus \cdots \oplus R}_{\text{rank } r} \oplus \underbrace{R/(p_1^s) \oplus \cdots \oplus R/(p_n^s)}_{\text{elementary divisors}}$$

where $p_1, p_2 \dots$ are prime elements (not necessarily distinct).

*recall: $p \in R$ is **prime** if (p) is a **prime ideal** ($ab \in (p) \implies a \text{ or } b \in (p)$);
implies traditional def: $p|ab \implies p|a \text{ or } p|b$.

*recall: $A \oplus B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}$.

proof after Chinese Remainder and Noetherian R-modules

Note: Fundamental TFG Modules \implies FTFGAG.

Chinese Remainder Theorem for R -modules

Let R be commutative with 1.

For A, B **comaximal** ideals in R ,

$$A \cap B = AB \text{ and } R/AB \cong R/A \oplus R/B$$

comaximal means $A + B = R$ "sum gives entire ring." proof in notes

Noetherian R-Modules

M is a Noetherian R-Module is equivalent to any of the following:

- M satisfies ACC on R-submodules
- Every R-submodule is finitely generated

- Every collection of submodules has a maximal element

(eerily similar to Noetherian ring)

M is Noetherian $\iff M''$ and $M' = M/M''$ are Noetherian
 "submodules and quotients of Noetherian are Noetherian"

proof

Torsion

For R integral domain and M an R -module,

$$\text{Tor}(M) = \{x \in M : rx = 0 \text{ for some } r \in R\}$$

* M is torsion free if $\text{Tor}(M) = 0$

Annihilator of M is the ideal of R such that

$$\text{Ann}(M) = \{r \in R : rn = 0 \text{ for all } n \in M\}$$

2 Rational Canonical Form

Eigenvalue

The **eigenspace** of a linear transformation T is

$$\{v \in V : T(v) = Av = \lambda v\}$$

The **characteristic polynomial** of T , denoted $Ch_A(x)$ is $\det(xI - A)$.
 often written $A - xI$, but above produces a nice monic polynomial.

degree n of $Ch_A(x)$ is the **dimension of V** .

The set of eigenvalues is precisely the set of **roots of the characteristic polynomial**. (at most n eigenvalues)

Minimal Polynomial

The unique monic polynomial, $m_A(x)$, of **smallest degree** such that $m_A(A) = 0$.

–can also think of $m_A(x)$ as **generator of $\text{Ann}(V)$** in $F[x]$

The minimal polynomial is the **largest invariant factor** (all invariant factors divide $m_A(x)$).

Characteristic Polynomial

- characteristic polyn is the **product** of all invariant factors
- **Cayley Hamilton**: min poly **divides** char poly

- char divides some power of the min polyn (meaning char and min have same roots)

SAME Characteristic polynomial is a **necessary** but **not sufficient** condition to conclude two matrices are similar (they need to have the same RCF or JCF)

Companion Matrix of a polynomial

For any $a(x) \in F[x] = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + b_{k-2}x^{k-2} + \dots + b_0$, the **companion matrix** of $a(x)$ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & -b_0 \\ 1 & 0 & \dots & -b_1 \\ \dots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & -b_{k-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rational biz

A matrix is in **rational canonical form** if the companion matrices of some polynomials $a_1(x)|a_2(x)|\dots|a_m(x)$ form the matrix.

" $a_i(x)$ are the **invariant factors**"

RCF of any matrix is **unique**

Two matrices are similar if and only if they have the **same RCF**.

To find all similar matrices, consider different possible minimal polynomials and invariant factors.

3 Jordan Canonical Form

Jordan form is as **close** as possible to a **diagonal matrix** (often simpler matrix than rational form).

To obtain the JCF, we use the **elementary divisor form** of the fundamental theorem.

Suppose for an $F[x]$ -module of V with invariant factors $a_1(x)|a_2(x)|\dots|a_m(x)$, all monic polynomials. Then, the **elementary divisors** are powers of $(x - \lambda)^k$ (under the assumption the field F contains all eigenvalues of A).

The $k \times k$ **elementary Jordan matrix** with eigenvalue λ is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

Jordan Canonical Form is a block diagonal matrix (square matrices along diagonal, zero elsewhere) with Jordan Blocks (above) along the diagonal.

unique up to permuting the Jordan Blocks.

Theorem if A contains all eigenvalues, then A is **similar** to a matrix in Jordan Canonical Form (JCF = $P^{-1}AP$ for some P).

A similar to JCF $\iff m_A(x)$ has no repeated roots

dim of eigenspace = # invariant factors = # Jordan Blocks

A can be **diagonalized** \iff Jordan blocks are of size 1

equivalent to $m_A(x)$ having distinct roots

For matrices of size 2 or 3, knowing $m_A(x)$ and $ch_A(x)$ determines JCF.

For larger matrices (say 4x4), we can use **rank** to compute Jordan Blocks:

Jordan Blocks of size $k = r_{k-1} - 2r_k + r_{k+1}$

where $r =$ rank of matrix computed as rank $(A - I)^k$ (which is the number of linearly independent rows/columns).

e.g., number of Jordan blocks of size 2 = $r_1 - 2r_2 + r_3$ (compute $(A - I)^0 = I$ has rank 4 (for A 4x4), $(A - I)^1$ see # of independent rows ..)

computing JCF

1. Put characteristic polynomial into form: $(x - \lambda)^k$
(if can't, we won't be able to put into JCF)
2. size of JB for $=$ dim null space $(A - \lambda I)$?

Linear fact

dim null space + dim column space (rank, = row space) = n

Exercises

1. What are the submodules of $\mathbb{R}[x]$ for $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ and T : rotation (counterclockwise) by $\pi/4$?
possibilities are dimension 0: point at center
dimension 1: lines through the center
dimension 2: entire plane

dimension 1 is not closed when rotating a point by $\pi/4$.
So, 0 and whole thing are only submodules.
2. How about for S : rotation by π ?
0, lines through the origin, and whole plane
3. Is $M =$ set \mathbb{R}^2 with T : rotation by π inside $\mathbb{R}[t]$ -module cyclic? No, think polynomial $a + bt + ct^2$ acts by multiplication where $tv = T(v)$.
Span of v, tv, t^2v, t^3v doesn't yield all of \mathbb{R}^2 .

4. How about with T : rotation by $\pi/4$? yes!, $v = (1, 0)$, then $T^2(v) = (0, 1)$ which spans all of \mathbb{R}^2 .
5. Show A, B similar matrices have the same characteristic polynomial.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ch}(B) &= \det(xI - B) = \det(xI - P^{-1}AP) = \det(P^{-1}xP - P^{-1}AP) \\ &= \det(P^{-1})\det(x - A)\det(P) = \det(x - A). \end{aligned}$$
6. Show the constant term in the characteristic polynomial of A ($n \times n$) is $(-1)^n \det A$. char poly = $\det(xI - A)$. The constant term is where $x = 0$, so we have constant term = $\det(-A) = (-1)^n \det(A)$ (depending on n even or odd)
7. Show the coefficient of A is the negative of $\text{trace}(A)$. Note product of the diagonal: $(x - a_1)(x - a_2) \dots (x - a_n)$; **unclear**

Chapter 13: Field Extensions

Goal: if $a(x)$ has no roots in F , how do we enlarge F so $a(x)$ has a root?

an element c is **algebraic** over F if it is the root of some nonzero polynomial in $F[x]$. (else it's **transcendental**)

a field K is **algebraically closed** if every polynomial $f(x) \in K[x]$ has at least one root in K .

recall: $F[x]$ is a ring, a particularly nice ring: Euclidean Domain.
 Thus, every ideal in $F[x]$ is principal since $F[x]$ is a Euclidean Domain, hence a PID

Extensions as a Map over Polynomials

Consider

$$\varphi_c : F[x] \rightarrow F \text{ by } a(x) \rightarrow a(c)$$

φ_c is a homomorphism!

- $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$ is an **ideal**, so it must be principal
 - it's generated by the minimum* polynomial of c
- $\text{Image}(\varphi)$: turns out to be a field!
 - it's the **smallest field** containing F and c ; call it $F(c)$.

$$- \text{Image}(\varphi) \cong \frac{F[x]}{\langle m(x) \rangle}$$

*the **minimum polynomial** $p(x)$ of c over F is the polynomial of lowest degree in $F[x]$ such that $p(c) = 0$ (note by making $p(x)$ monic, we can ensure it's unique).

Any homomorphism $\varphi : F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ between fields is an **isomorphism** (or 0 map).

Extensions as Vector Spaces

For $F \subseteq K$, K can be thought of as a vector space over F .

The degree of K is denoted $[K : F]$.

It turns out $F(c) = \text{span}\{1, c, \dots, c^{n-1}\}$ where n is the degree of the **minimal polynomial**.

proof: take any $a(c) \in F(c)$, then $a(x) = q(x)m(x) + r(x)$.

Evaluate at c , then $a(c) = 0 + r(c)$ where $r(c)$ has degree $< n$.

Furthermore,

$$[E : F] = [E : K][K : F]$$

*when $[E : F] = n, [K : F] = m$ with $\gcd(n, m) = 1$, $[EK : F] = nm$.

Any polynomial of degree n in $F[x]$ has **n roots** in an extension of F .

proof idea: the extension is $\frac{F[x]}{(p(x))}$, where $p(x)$ is the irreducible polynomial in F . This extension is a field by the work above, where a root c of $p(x)$ exists

If both a, b are roots of some irreducible $p(x) \in F[x]$, then

$$F(a) = \frac{F[x]}{(p(x))} = F(b)$$

implying a, b are **algebraically indistinguishable!**

α **algebraic** over $F \iff F(\alpha)/F$ is finite degree extension.

α, β algebraic: carries over sums, products, division: $\alpha + \beta$ algebraic etc.

algebraic closure of a field, say \mathbb{Q} , denoted $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, is \mathbb{Q} plus all algebraic elements in \mathbb{Q} .

Every element of a **finite** field is algebraic

Take $F \subseteq K$ and $c \in K$ ($\deg c = n$), then $1, c, \dots, c^n$ is a linearly dependent set.

Thus, $a_0 + a_1c + a_2c^2 + \dots + a_nc^n = 0$ for some $a_i \in F$.

Every Finite extension is a **simple** extension (adjoins one element)

Characteristic of a field

The smallest number n such that $\underbrace{1 + \dots + 1}_n = 0$

(else $\text{ch}(F) = 0$, if no finite n exists, e.g. \mathbb{Q})

Note $\text{ch}(F)$ must be **zero** or **prime** (if not prime, then $ab = 0$, implying $a=0$ or $b=0$, a contradiction of requirement for ch to be smallest!)

so finite fields must have **prime order!**

In characteristic p ,

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

"against every inclination"

Splitting Fields

For $f(x) \in F[x]$, K is called a **splitting field** for $f(x)$ if

- $f(x)$ has all its roots in K ($f(x)$ splits into linear factors in K)
- it's the smallest such extensions (no subextension of K contains all roots of $f(x)$)

a polynomial is called **separable** if it has distinct roots in some splitting field. (if polynomial a repeated root, it's **inseparable**)

$$\boxed{f(x) \text{ has distinct roots} \iff (f(x), d/dx f(x)) = 1}$$

α is a root of $f'(x) \iff$ is a multiple root of $f(x)$, thus minimal polynomial divides both f and f' , meaning $\gcd \neq 1 \square$

$$\boxed{\text{ch}(F) = 0 \implies \text{any irred } p(x) \text{ has } \mathbf{\text{distinct roots}}$$

why? if α is a multiple root of $p(x)$, then $p'(x)$ would have the same root and be of lower degree!

$$\boxed{\text{Splitting fields are unique}}$$

proof: division algo and induction by looking at map between two splitting fields to show they're iso

What's the degree of K over F ($[K : F]$)?

Suppose $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are the roots of $f(x)$. Then, $F(\alpha_1)/F \leq n$, $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)/F \leq n - 1$, etc.

Since, degree of extensions are multiplicative, $[K : F] \leq n!$.

For K_1, K_2 extensions of F of degrees n and m ,

$$[K_1 K_2 : F] = nm \quad (\text{if } (n, m) = 1)$$

If $p(x)$ irred in $F[x]$ has one root in a splitting field K , it must have **all its roots** in K .

Roots of Unity

The n th **roots of unity** in a field are elements a_i such that $a_i^n = 1$. the roots of unity divide a unit circle into arcs of equal length.

a is a **primitive n th root** of unity if n is the **smallest** integer such that $a^n = 1$.

Cyclotomic Polynomials

The n th **cyclotomic polynomial** is

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod_{1 \leq k \leq n, (n,k)=1} (x - e^{\frac{2i\pi k}{n}})$$

For n prime,

$$\Phi_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^{n-1}$$

For $n = 2p$,

$$\Phi_{2p}(x) = 1 - x + x^2 - \cdots + x^{p-1}$$

The first few cyclotomic polynomials are

$$\begin{array}{ll} \Phi_1(x) = x - 1 & \Phi_2(x) = x + 1 \\ \Phi_3(x) = x^2 + x + 1 & \Phi_4(x) = x^2 - 1 \\ \Phi_5(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 & \Phi_6(x) = x^2 - x + 1. \end{array}$$

The degree of $\Phi_n(x) = \varphi(n)$

The cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi(n)$ is the **minimal** polynomial of any n th root of unity ζ_n .

Cyclotomic Fields

Field obtained by joining any primitive n th roots of unity.

For any field F , $F(\zeta_n)$ is called a **cyclotomic field** for ζ_n the n th root of unity. The field is **cyclic** !

Exercises

1. What is $(1 + \sqrt[3]{2})^{-1}$ in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$?
 1. min poly is $p(x) = x^3 - 2$, since $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is a root and $p(x)$ is irreducible by Eisenstein.
 2. Thus, $\mathbb{Q}[x]/p(x) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$.
 3. Inside field, $p(x)$ is zero.idea: use euclidean algo to find $a(x)(1+x) + b(x)(x^3-2) = 1$.
evaluate $a(x)$ at α to find inverse of $(1+\alpha)$, since right term goes to zero!

2. What is $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[n]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}]$?
min poly: $x^n - 2$, so degree of extension is n .
3. What's the degree of the splitting field for $(x^2 - 2)(x^2 - 3)$?
It's the degree of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ over \mathbb{Q} , which by previous work is 4.
4. What's the degree of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, \sqrt{2})$?
it equal to the degree of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$
5. For $p(x) = x^3 + 9x + 6$ and θ a root, find $\frac{1}{1+\theta} \in \mathbb{Q}(\theta)$.
since $p(x)$ is irreducible, we know

$$a(x)(1+x) + b(x)(x^3 + 9x + 6) = 0$$

by gcd. At $x = \theta$, $a(\theta)(1 + \theta) + 0 = 0$, meaning $a(\theta)$ is the inverse we seek.
To find $a(x)$ use Euclidean algo.

6. In general to find θ^{-1} , consider factoring θ as in page 516 of Dummit.

Strategies:

- To find minimal polynomial, try multiplying out complex conjugates of root given $(x - \text{root})(x - \text{complex conj of root})$. Hopefully polynomial is irreducible, done.
- Another way to determine degree is to take something like $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3 + 2\sqrt{2}})$ show it equals a simpler field ($\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ in this case) by squaring the element.

Field Automorphisms and Galois

$$\text{Aut}(K/F) = \{\sigma \in \text{Aut}(K) \mid \sigma \text{ fixes } F\}$$

Automorphisms of K/F only take **roots to roots** of same poly.

$$\boxed{|\text{Aut}(K/F)| \leq [K : F]}$$

(equality if the polynomial of the splitting field is **separable**)

A field extension K is **Galois** only if $|\text{Aut}(K/F)| = [K : F]$.

Since automorphisms of a splitting field K of $p(x)$ permute roots of $p(x)$,

$$|\text{Aut}(K/F)| = [K : F] = \text{degree of } K \text{ over } F$$

e.g., $2 = |\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q})|$ since automorphisms can take $\sqrt{2}$ to itself or $-\sqrt{2}$.

e.g., $4 = |\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q})|$ similar argument with options for both $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{3}$.

Automorphisms as a Group: Galois Groups

$\text{Gal}(K/F) = \text{permutations of roots of } a(x) = \text{Aut}(K/F)$
 (not every permutation; just ones uniquely identifying an automorphism)

These automorphisms are a group, called the **Galois Group**, under composition.

Fixed Fields

For K a splitting field of $p(x)$ over F , one-to-one between

$$\boxed{\text{subgroups of } \text{Gal}(K/F) \iff \text{subfields of } K}$$

e.g., what's the splitting field of $x^p - 2$ over \mathbb{Q} ?

roots are $\sqrt[p]{2}, \zeta_p \sqrt[p]{2}, \dots, \zeta_p^{p-1} \sqrt[p]{2}$ which are contained in $\mathbb{Q} \sqrt[p]{2}, \zeta_p$.

Review Galois Theory

- For $p(x) \in F[x]$ **irreducible**, then $p(x)$ has a root in some extension of F .
- For α a **root** of $p(x)$, $F(\alpha) \cong \frac{F[x]}{(p(x))}$.
 - if α, β roots of $p(x)$ $F(\beta) \cong F(\alpha)$ "algebraically indistinguishable"
- $[F(\alpha) : F] = \text{degree of minimal polynomial}$
- a homomorphism between fields is an isomorphism or 0.
- **quadratic extensions** equivalent to adjoining \sqrt{D} (square-free)
- $K_1 K_2$, **composite extension**, is the smallest field containing K_1, K_2 .
 - $[K_1 : F] = n, [K_2 : F] = m$, then $[K_1 K_2 : F] \leq nm$ (= if $(n, m)=1$).
- a field K is **algebraically closed** if every poly in $K[x]$ has a root in K . (this in fact means every root of any poly is in K by factoring argument)
- the **splitting field** K of a polynomial is the smallest field containing all its roots.
 - for K splitting field, $[K : F] \leq n!$
- $f(x) \in F[x]$ is **separable** $\iff (f(x), f'(x)) = 1$.
- In $\text{ch}(F) = 0$ or for F finite field,
 - $p(x)$ irreducible $\implies p(x)$ is separable.
 - $p(x)$ is separable $\iff p(x)$ is the product of distinct irreducibles.

Questions:

- Does $\zeta_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$?