

Rings, Modules and Linear Algebra — Exam solutions

(1) (i) [similar examples seen]

(a) The characteristic polynomial of A is the determinant of the matrix on the left below. The matrix on the right is obtained by adding $t - 1$ times the second row to the first row and $t - 1$ times the fourth row to the third row, so it has the same determinant.

$$\begin{pmatrix} t-1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & t-1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & t-1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & t-1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & t^2-2t & -t & -t \\ -1 & t-1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & t^2-2t \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & t-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

We now expand the determinant repeatedly along the first column to get

$$\begin{vmatrix} t^2-2t & -t & -t \\ 0 & 0 & t^2-2t \\ 0 & -1 & t-1 \end{vmatrix} = (t^2-2t) \begin{vmatrix} 0 & t^2-2t \\ -1 & t-1 \end{vmatrix} = (t^2-2t)^2 = t^2(t-2)^2. [4]$$

(b) The reduced echelon form of A is clearly given by

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

so $\text{rank}(A) = 2$ [2]. Below we display the row-reduction of $A - 2I$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This makes it clear that $\text{rank}(A - 2I) = 3$ [2].

(c) By looking at the characteristic polynomial, we see that M_A is a direct sum of modules of the form $B(0, k)$ or $B(2, k)$, with $1 \leq k \leq 2$. Each $B(0, k)$ contributes t^k to the characteristic polynomial, and each $B(2, k)$ contributes $(t - 2)^k$. The number of blocks of eigenvalue 0 is $4 - \text{rank}(A) = 2$, and the number of blocks with eigenvalue 1 is $4 - \text{rank}(A - 2I) = 1$. The only possibility is to have $M_A = B(0, 1) \oplus B(0, 1) \oplus B(2, 2)$ [4].

(ii) [similar examples seen] We first observe that $1296 = 2^4 3^4$, so M must be a direct sum of groups of the form \mathbb{Z}_{2^j} or \mathbb{Z}_{3^k} , with $1 \leq j, k \leq 4$ [2]. As $18m = 2^1 3^2 m = 0$ for all $m \in M$, we must in fact have $j = 1$ and $1 \leq k \leq 2$, so the possible building blocks are \mathbb{Z}_2 , \mathbb{Z}_3 and \mathbb{Z}_9 [2]. Thus, the 2-primary part must be $(\mathbb{Z}_2)^4$, and the 3-primary part could be $(\mathbb{Z}_9)^2$ or $(\mathbb{Z}_3)^2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9$ or $(\mathbb{Z}_3)^4$. Thus, there are thus 3 possibilities for M :

- $(\mathbb{Z}_2)^4 \oplus (\mathbb{Z}_9)^2$ [1]
- $(\mathbb{Z}_2)^4 \oplus (\mathbb{Z}_3)^2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9$ [1]
- $(\mathbb{Z}_2)^4 \oplus (\mathbb{Z}_3)^4$ [1]

(iii) [The case $\lambda = 1$ was on a problem sheet]

I claim that

$$A^n = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^n & n\lambda^{n-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^n \end{pmatrix}$$

for all $n \geq 0$. Indeed, this is clear when $n = 0$, and if it holds for $n = k$ we have

$$A^{k+1} = AA^k = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^k & k\lambda^{k-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^k \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^{k+1} & (k+1)\lambda^k \\ 0 & \lambda^{k+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

so it also holds for $n = k + 1$. It therefore holds for all k by induction [3]. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} f(A) &= \sum_i a_i \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^i & i\lambda^{i-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^i \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \sum_i a_i \lambda^i & \sum_i i a_i \lambda^{i-1} \\ 0 & \sum_i a_i \lambda^i \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} f(\lambda) & f'(\lambda) \\ 0 & f(\lambda) \end{pmatrix} [3]. \end{aligned}$$

(2) (i) [similar examples seen]

We can simplify B by row and column operations as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 200 & 100 & 108 \\ 36 & 0 & 72 \\ 0 & 0 & 36 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 100 & 8 \\ 36 & 0 & 72 \\ 0 & 0 & 36 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 100 & 8 \\ 36 & -900 & 0 \\ 0 & -400 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{3} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 900 & 0 \\ 36 & -900 & 0 \\ 0 & -400 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{4} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 900 & 0 \\ 36 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{5} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 36 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 900 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(In step 1 we subtracted C_2 from C_3 , and $2C_2$ from C_1 . In step 2 we subtracted $9R_1$ from R_2 , and $4R_1$ from R_3 . In step 3 we subtracted $2R_3$ from R_1 , and in step 4 we added $25C_1 + 100C_3$ to C_2 . Finally, in step 5 we permuted the rows and columns in an obvious way.) [6] [3 marks will be awarded for a broadly correct method, with one mark deducted from this if the answer is not in normal form. The remaining 3 marks are for accuracy; one mark will be deducted for each error.]

This shows that $\mathbb{Z}^3/N \simeq \mathbb{Z}_4 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{36} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{900}$ [2].

(ii) [similar examples seen] We can apply column operations as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -ab & b & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ abc & -bc & c & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \\ \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -abcd & bcd & -cd & d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ bcd & -cd & d & -abcd \end{pmatrix} \quad [3]$$

We then apply row operations as follows

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ bcd & -cd & d & -abcd \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -abcd \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & abcd \end{pmatrix} \quad [2]$$

We conclude that $R^4/M \simeq R/1 \oplus R/1 \oplus R/1 \oplus R/abcd = R/abcd$, so R is cyclic and we can take $x = abcd$. [3]

(iii) [There is one similar example in the lecture notes] Put $w_1 = u_1 - u_2 = (1, 1, 0)$ and $w_2 = u_2 - u_3 = (0, 2, 2)$ and $w_3 = u_3 = (0, 0, 4)$ [3]. These give a new basis for L . If we put

$$\begin{aligned} d_1 &= 1 & v_1 &= (1, 1, 0) \\ d_2 &= 2 & v_2 &= (0, 1, 1) \\ d_3 &= 4 & v_3 &= (0, 0, 1) \end{aligned} \quad [3]$$

then clearly $w_i = d_i v_i$ and $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{Z}^3 over \mathbb{Z} [3].

(3) (i) **[bookwork]**

As M is finitely generated, there is a list m_1, \dots, m_d of elements of M such that an arbitrary element $m \in M$ can be written in the form $u_1 m_1 + \dots + u_d m_d$ [1]. Define $\phi: R^d \rightarrow M$ by $\phi(u_1, \dots, u_d) = u_1 m_1 + \dots + u_d m_d$; this is clearly a surjective homomorphism [1]. Put $L = \{u \in R^d \mid \phi(u) \in N\}$ [1]. I claim that this is a submodule of R^d . Indeed, if $u, v \in L$ then $\phi(u), \phi(v) \in N$ so $\phi(u+v) = \phi(u) + \phi(v) \in N$ so $u+v \in L$. Similarly, if $u \in L$ and $a \in R$ then $\phi(u) \in N$ so $\phi(au) = a\phi(u) \in N$ so $au \in L$, so L is a submodule as claimed [1]. Submodules of R^d are finite free modules, so we can choose a basis $\{p_1, \dots, p_r\}$ for L [1]. Put $n_i = \phi(p_i)$ [1]; as $p_i \in L$ we have $n_i \in N$ [1]. I claim that the elements n_1, \dots, n_r generate N . Indeed, suppose $n \in N$. Then $n \in M$ and the homomorphism $\phi: R^d \rightarrow M$ is surjective so we have $n = \phi(u)$ for some $u \in R^d$ [1]. As $\phi(u) = n \in N$ we see that $u \in L$ [1], so u can be written in the form $u = v_1 p_1 + \dots + v_r p_r$ for some $v_1, \dots, v_r \in R$ [1]. It follows that

$$n = \phi(u) = v_1 \phi(p_1) + \dots + v_r \phi(p_r) = v_1 n_1 + \dots + v_r n_r. \text{ [1]}$$

This shows that the elements n_1, \dots, n_r generate N as claimed, so N is finitely generated. [1]

(ii) **[unseen]**

(a) For $v \in M_B$ we have $(x^3 - 27)v = (B^3 - 27I)v$, but

$$B^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \\ 9 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 27 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 27 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 27 \end{pmatrix} = 27I,$$

so $(x^3 - 27)v = 0$ as claimed [2]. Similarly, we have

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3A,$$

so for $u \in M_A$ we have $x(x-3)u = (A^2 - 3A)u = 0$ [1]. We can now multiply by $(x+3)$ to deduce that $(x^3 - 9x)u = (x+3)x(x-3)u = 0$. [1]

(b) Now consider a homomorphism $\gamma: M_A \rightarrow M_B$, given by $\gamma(u) = Cu$ say. As $\gamma(u) \in M_B$ we have $(x^3 - 27)\gamma(u) = 0$ [1]. We can also apply γ to the relation $(x^3 - 9x)u = 0$ to see that $(x^3 - 9x)\gamma(u) = 0$ [2]. Subtracting these two equations gives $(9x - 27)\gamma(u) = 0$, and we can divide by 9 to deduce that $(x-3)\gamma(u) = 0$ [2].

(c) Suppose we have $v = (x, y, z) \in \text{im}(\gamma)$. The $v = \gamma(u)$ for some u , so $(x-3)v = (x-3)\gamma(u) = 0$ [2]. However, $v \in M_B$ so $xv = Bv$, so

$$(x-3)v = (B-3I)v = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3(z-x) \\ 3(x-y) \\ 3(y-z) \end{pmatrix} \text{ [1].}$$

As this is zero, we must have $x = y = z$ and so $v = (x, x, x) \in V$ [1].

- (4) (i) **[bookwork]** As a and b are coprime, there exist elements $x, y \in R$ such that $xa + yb = 1$ [1]. Consider a homomorphism $\alpha: M \rightarrow N$. For each $m \in M$ we have $am = 0$ and so $a\alpha(m) = \alpha(am) = 0$ [1]. On the other hand, we also have $\alpha(m) \in N$ and $bN = \{0\}$ so $b\alpha(m) = 0$ [2]. It follows that

$$\alpha(m) = 1 \cdot \alpha(m) = (xa + yb)\alpha(m) [1] = x(a\alpha(m)) + y(b\alpha(m)) = 0 + 0 = 0 [1],$$

so $\alpha = 0$ as required.

- (ii) **[unseen]**

(a) Put $a = |L|$ and $b = |M/N|$. By Lagrange's theorem, we have $ax = 0$ for all $x \in L$ and $by = 0$ for all $y \in M/N$. It follows from the above that any homomorphism from L to M/N is zero. [2]

(b) Now consider a homomorphism $\alpha: L \rightarrow M$. By the above, we must have $\pi\alpha = 0: L \rightarrow M/N$ [2]. This means that for all $x \in L$ we have $\pi(\alpha(x)) = \alpha(x) + N = 0 + N$, so $\alpha(x) \in N$. It follows that $\alpha(L) \subseteq N$ as claimed. [2]

- (iii) (a) **[similar examples seen]** The function $f(t) = t^3 - t$ gives an element of U , but $D \cdot (t^3 - t) = 3t^2 - 1$ takes the value -1 at $t = 0$, so it does not lie in U . Thus, U is not closed under multiplication by D , so it is not an $\mathbb{R}[D]$ -submodule. [3]

(b) **[This was on a problem sheet]** I claim that W_d is generated by the element t^d . Indeed, we have

$$D^k t^d = d(d-1) \dots (d-k+1) t^{d-k} = \frac{d!}{(d-k)!} t^{d-k} [2].$$

Thus, for any element $f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i t^i \in W_d$ we can put $p(D) = \sum_i (d!/i!) a_i D^{d-i}$ and we find that $p(D)t^d = f(t)$, so $f(t) \in \mathbb{R}[D] \cdot t^d$ as required [2].

- (c) **[similar examples seen]** For $g(t) = p \sin(t) + q \cos(t) \in V$, we have

$$g'(t) = p \cos(t) - q \sin(t)$$

$$g''(t) = -p \sin(t) - q \cos(t) = -g(t)$$

so $(D^2 + 1)g(t) = 0$ [2]. On the other hand, if $f(t) \in W_d$ then the $(d+1)$ 'st derivative of $f(t)$ is zero, so $D^{d+1} \cdot f(t) = 0$ [3]. As D^{d+1} and $D^2 + 1$ are coprime, we deduce that the only homomorphism from W_d to V is zero. [1]

(5) (i) **[bookwork]**

Suppose that a and b are coprime. We can then find $x, y \in R$ with $xa + yb = 1$ [1]. Given an element $(v + Ra, w + Rb) \in R/a \times R/b$, put $t = ybv + xaw \in R$ [2]. We find that

$$t = (1 - xa)v + xaw = v + (xw - xv)a = v \pmod{a} [1]$$

$$t = ybv + (1 - yb)w = w + (yv - yw)b = w \pmod{b} [1]$$

so

$$\phi(t + Rab) = (u + Ra, u + Rb) = (v + Ra, w + Rb).$$

This shows that ϕ is surjective. [1]

Now suppose we have an element $u + Rab \in R/ab$ with $\phi(u + Rab) = (u + Ra, u + Rb) = (0 + Ra, 0 + Rb)$. This means that $u \in Ra$ and $u \in Rb$, so $u = pa = qb$ for some $p, q \in R$ [1]. It follows that

$$u = (xa + yb)u = xau + ybu = xaqb + ybpa = (xq + yp)ab,$$

so $u \in Rab$ and $u + Rab = 0 + Rab$ [2]. This shows that ϕ is injective, and thus an isomorphism [1].

(ii) **[unseen]** Conversely, suppose that ϕ is surjective, so we can find an element $u \in R$ with $\phi(u + Rab) = (1 + Ra, 0 + Rb)$ [2]. This means that $u = 1 \pmod{a}$ and $u = 0 \pmod{b}$, so $u = 1 + xa$ and $u = yb$ for some $x, y \in R$ [2]. As $1 + xa = yb$ we have $(-x)a + yb = 1$, showing that a and b are coprime [2]

(iii) **[bookwork]** We can define a ring homomorphism $\alpha: \mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ by $\alpha(f) = f(\lambda)$ [1]. For any $z \in \mathbb{C}$, we can regard z as a constant polynomial and then we have $\alpha(z) = z$; this shows that α is surjective [1]. We have $\alpha(f) = 0$ iff $f(\lambda) = 0$ iff $f(x)$ is divisible by $x - \lambda$, so $\ker(\alpha) = \mathbb{C}[x](x - \lambda)$ [1]. The first isomorphism theorem for rings thus gives an isomorphism $\bar{\alpha}: \mathbb{C}[x]/(x - \lambda) = \mathbb{C}[x]/\ker(\alpha) \rightarrow \text{im}(\alpha) = \mathbb{C}$ [1].

(iv) **[The isomorphism $\mathbb{C}[x]/(x - \lambda)(x - \mu) \simeq \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C}$ will be discussed in lectures]** Note that if λ and μ are complex numbers with $\lambda \neq \mu$, then $(x - \lambda) - (x - \mu) = \lambda - \mu$ is invertible in $\mathbb{C}[x]$, so $x - \lambda$ and $x - \mu$ are coprime [1]. Thus, if we choose any four distinct [1] complex numbers $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_4$ and put $f(x) = \prod_i (x - \lambda_i)$ [1] then the Chinese Remainder Theorem gives

$$\mathbb{C}[x]/f(x) \simeq \prod_i \mathbb{C}[x]/(x - \lambda_i) \simeq \prod_i \mathbb{C}$$

as required [2].