# **Problem Set 7**

# D. Zack Garza

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# 1 Problem 1

Note that if either p=1 or q=1, G is a p-group, which is a nontrivial center that is always normal. So assume  $p \neq 1$  and  $q \neq 1$ .

We want to show that G has a non-trivial normal subgroup. Noting that  $\#G = p^2q$ , we will proceed by showing that either  $n_p$  or  $n_q$  must be 1.

We immediately note that

$$n_p \equiv 1 \mod p$$
 
$$n_q \equiv 1 \mod q$$
 
$$n_p \mid q \qquad \qquad n_q \mid p^2,$$

which forces

$$n_p \in \{1, q\}, \quad n_1 \in \{1, p, p^2\}.$$

If either  $n_p = 1$  or  $n_q = 1$ , we are done, so suppose  $n_p \neq 1$  and  $n_1 \neq 1$ . This forces  $n_p = q$ , and we proceed by cases:

#### **1.1 Case 1:** p = q.

Then  $\#G = p^3$  and G is a p-group. But every p-group has a non-trivial center  $Z(G) \leq G$ , and the center is always a normal subgroup.

#### **1.2** Case 2: p > q.

Here, since  $n_p \mid q$ , we must have  $n_p < q$ . But if  $n_p < q < p$  and  $n_p = 1 \mod p$ , then  $n_p = 1$ .

### **1.3 Case 3:** q > p.

Since  $n_p \neq 1$  by assumption, we must have  $n_p = q$ . Now consider sub-cases for  $n_q$ :

- $n_q = p$ : If  $n_q = p = 1 \mod q$  and p < q, this forces p = 1.
- $n_q = p^2$ : We will reach a contradiction by showing that this forces

$$\left| P := \bigcup_{S_n \in \operatorname{Syl}(p,G)} S_p \setminus \{e\} \right| + \left| Q := \bigcup_{S_n \in \operatorname{Syl}(q,G)} S_q \setminus \{e\} \right| + \left| \{e\} \right| > |G|.$$

We have

$$\begin{split} |P| + |Q| + |\{e\}| &= n_p(q-1) + n_q(p^2-1) + 1 \\ &= p^2(q-1) + q(p^2-1) + 1 \\ &= p^2(q-1) + 1(p^2-1) + (q-1)(p^2-1) + 1 \\ &= (p^2q - p^2) + (p^2-1) + (q-1)(p^2-1) + 1 \\ &= p^2q + (q-1)(p^2-1) \\ &\geq p^2q + (2-1)(2^2-1) \qquad \text{(since } p,q \geq 2) \\ &= p^2q + 3 \\ &> p^2q = |G|, \end{split}$$

which is a contradiction.  $\Box$ 

## 2 Problem 2

We'll use the fact that  $H \subseteq N(H)$  for any subgroup H (following directly from the closure axioms for a subgroup), and thus

$$P \leq N(P)$$
 and  $N(P) \leq N^2(P)$ .

Since it is then clear that  $N(P) \subseteq N^2(P)$ , it remains to show that  $N^2(P) \subseteq N(P)$ .

So if we let  $x \in N^2(P)$ , so x normalizes N(P), we need to show that x normalizes P as well, i.e.  $xPx^{-1} = P$ .

However, supposing that  $|G| = p^k m$  where (p, m) = 1, we have

$$P \le N(P) \le G \implies p^k \mid |N(P)| \mid p^k m,$$

so in fact  $P \in \text{Syl}(p, N(P))$  since it is a maximal p-subgroup.

Then  $P' := xPx^{-1} \in \text{Syl}(p, N(P))$  as well, since all conjugates of Sylow p-subgroups are also Sylow p-subgroups.

But since  $P \leq N(P)$ , there is only one Sylow p- subgroup of N(P), namely P. This forces P = P', i.e.  $P = xPx^{-1}$ , which says that  $x \in N(P)$  as desired.  $\square$ 

# 3 Problem 3

By definition, G is simple iff it has no non-trivial subgroups, so we will show that if |G| = 148 then it must contain a normal subgroup.

Noting that  $248 = p^2q$  where p = 2, q = 37, we find that (for example)  $n_2 \mid 37$  but  $n \equiv 1 \mod 2$ ; but the only odd divisor of 7 is 1, forcing  $n_2 = 1$ . So G has a normal Sylow 2-subgroup and we are done.

#### 4 Problem 4

Let  $\tau := (t_1, t_2)$  denote the transposition and  $\sigma = (s_1, s_2 \cdots, s_p)$  denote the *p*-cycle, and let  $S = \langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$ . We would like to show that  $S = S_p$ , and since  $S \subseteq S_p$  is clear, we just need to show that  $S_p \subseteq S$ .

We first note that because p is prime,  $\sigma^k$  is a p-cycle for every  $1 \le k \le p$ , and  $\langle \sigma \rangle = \langle \sigma^k \rangle$  for any such k.

Then note that  $t_1 = s_i$  for some i and  $t_2 = s_j$  for some j, so we can take k = j - i to get a cycle  $\sigma^k$  that sends  $t_1$  to  $t_2$ . So without loss of generality, we can replace  $\sigma$  with

$$\sigma = (t_1, t_2, \cdots)$$

But now, we can relabel all of the elements of  $S_p$  simultaneously (i.e. replace  $\langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$  with another subgroup in the same conjugacy class) in such a way that  $t_1$  becomes 1 and  $t_2$  becomes 2. We can

then assume wlog that

$$\tau = (1, 2), \quad \sigma = (1, 2, \cdots, p)$$

We can then get all adjacent transpositions: noting that

$$\sigma^{-1}\tau\sigma = (2,3)$$

$$\sigma^{-2}\tau\sigma^2 = (3,4)$$

$$\cdots$$

$$\sigma^{-k}\tau\sigma^k = (k+1 \mod p, \ k+2 \mod p) \quad \forall 1 \le k \le p,$$

where we use the fact that for any  $\gamma \in S_p$ , we have  $\gamma \tau \gamma = (\gamma(1), \gamma(2))$ .

But this also gives us all transpositions of the form (1, j) for each  $2 \le j \le p$ :

$$(2,3)^{-1}(1,2)(2,3) = (1,3)$$

$$(3,4)^{-1}(1,3)(3,4) = (1,4)$$

$$\dots$$

$$(j-1,j)^{-1}(1,j-1)(j-1,j) = (1,j) \quad \forall 1 \le j \le p.$$

Thus we have  $J := \langle \{(1,j) \mid 2 \le j \le p\} \rangle \subseteq S$ .

But now if  $\gamma = (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k) \in S_p$  is an arbitrary cycle, we can write

$$\gamma = (g_1, g_2, \cdots, g_k) = (1, g_1)(1, g_2), \cdots (1, g_k),$$

so  $\gamma \in J$ . Then writing any arbitrary permutation as a product of disjoint cycles, we find that  $S_p \subseteq J \subseteq S$ , and so  $S_p \subseteq S$  as desired.  $\square$ 

#### 5 Problem 5

Since G is a p-group, it has a nontrivial center. Since p is prime and Z(G) is a subgroup, this forces  $\#Z(G) \in \{p, p^2\}$ , where  $p^3$  is ruled out because this would make G abelian.

Supposing that  $\#Z(G) = p^2$ , we would have [G:Z(G)] = p, and since  $Z(G) \subseteq G$ , we can take the quotient and #(G/Z(G)) = p. But this means G/Z(G) is cyclic, which implies that G is abelian, a contradiction.

So we must have #Z(G) = p, and  $\#(G/Z(G)) = p^2$ .

But any group of  $p^2$  is abelian, and we can characterize G' := [G, G] in the following way:

$$G' \leq G$$
 is the unique subgroup of G such that if  $N \leq G$  and  $G/N$  is abelian, then  $N \leq G'$ .

We can thus conclude that  $G' \leq Z(G)$ . It can not be the case that  $G' = \{e\}$ , since this would make G abelian. This forces G' = Z(G) as desired.  $\square$ 

# 6 Problem 6

Writing  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x - 3 = \sum a_i x_i \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , we can conclude that f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  by Eisenstein with the prime p = 3, since  $p \mid a_0 = -3, a_1 = 3, a_2 = 0$ , but  $p^2 \nmid a_3 = 1$ .

We can check that f(0) < 0 and f(10) > 0, so f has at least one real root. By the 1st derivative test, we can find that f is increasing on  $(-\infty, -1)$  and less than zero, decreasing on (-1, 1) and less than zero, and increasing on  $(1, \infty)$ , where it it attains its root. This root has multiplicity one, since  $\gcd(f, f') = 1$ , which means that f has exactly one real root  $r_0$ , and thus a complex conjugate pair of roots  $r_1, \overline{r_1}$  as well.

This means that complex conjugation is a nontrivial element  $\tau$  of the Galois group  $G \leq S_3$ , and thus G contains a 2-cycle.

The Galois group must be a transitive subgroup of  $S_3$ , which restricts the possibilities to  $S_3$ ,  $A_3$ .

Since  $A_3$  only contains 3-cycles, this possibility is ruled out. Thus the Galois group must be  $S_3$ .

### 7 Problem 7

Definition: A field F is perfect if every irreducible polynomial  $f(x) \in F[x]$  is separable in  $\overline{F}[x]$ . Note that since F is a finite field, p must be a prime.

#### **7.1** ⇒ :

Suppose all irreducible polynomials in F[x] are separable. Then let  $a \in K$  be arbitrary, we will show that there exists some  $\beta \in K$  such that  $\beta^p = a$ .

Given such an a, define the polynomial

$$f(x) = x^p - a \in F[x].$$

Note that f is not separable, since  $f'(x) = px^{p-1} = 0$  since char(F) = p, which means (by assumption) that f must be reducible.

Thus we can write f(x) = g(x)h(x) where  $g \in F[x]$  is some irreducible factor that divides f.

Noting that if  $\beta \in \overline{F}$  is a any root of f, then

$$f(\beta) = 0 \implies \beta^p = a \implies f(x) = x^p - a = x^p - \beta^p = (x - \beta)^p$$

and so  $\beta$  is necessarily a multiple root.

Moreover, since  $g \mid f$ , we must have  $g(x) = (x - \beta)^{\ell}$  for some  $1 \le \ell \le p$ .

But then we can expand g using the binomial formula:

$$g(x) = (x - \beta)^{\ell} = \sum_{k=1}^{\ell} {\ell \choose k} x^{\ell - k} (-\beta)^k = x^{\ell} + \dots + (-\beta)^{\ell} \in F[x].$$

But since every coefficient must be in F, we must have  $\beta^{\ell} \in F$ . We know that  $\beta^{p} = a \in F$  as well, but since p is prime,  $gcd(p, \ell) = 1$ .

We can thus find  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ps + t\ell = 1$ . But then

$$\beta = \beta^1 = \beta^{ps+t\ell} = \beta^{st}\beta^{t\ell} = (\beta^{\ell})^s(\beta^p)^t,$$

where since  $\beta^{\ell}$ ,  $\beta^{p} \in F$ , the entire RHS is in F, and thus the LHS  $\beta \in F$  as well.

But then  $\alpha = \beta^p$  where  $\beta \in F$ , which is exactly what we wanted to show.

### **7.2** ⇐= :

Suppose every element in F admits a pth root in F, and suppose  $f \in F[x]$  is an irreducible polynomial which is not separable, so it has a repeated root in  $\overline{F}$ .

Supposing that gcd(f, f') = g(x) for any polynomial g(x), this would imply that  $g \mid f$ . But f was assumed irreducible, so the only possibility is that in fact g = f.

But if gcd(f, f') = f, since deg f' < f, we can not have  $f \mid f'$  unless f' is identically zero.

If we thus write

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} c_k x^k,$$
  
$$f'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} k c_k x^{k-1}$$
  
$$\equiv 0,$$

then for each k we must have  $c_k = 0$  or k = 0 in F, i.e.  $c_k = 0$  or  $p \mid k$ .

Thus the only possible nonzero terms in f must come from coefficients of  $x^{kp}$  for each k such that  $1 \le kp \le n$ , i.e.

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_p x^p + c_{2p} x^{2p} + \cdots$$

But this says we can write  $f(x) := g(x^p)$ , where

$$g(x) = c_0 + c_p x + c_{2p} x^2 + \cdots$$

and furthermore, we can now use the assumption that F is perfect to write  $c_i = b_i^p$  for each i, yielding

$$g(x) = b_0^p + b_p^p x^2 + b_{2p}^p x^2 + \cdots$$

and thus

$$f(x) = g(x^p)$$

$$= b_0^p + b_p^p x^p + b_{2p}^p x^{2p} + \cdots$$

$$= (b_0 + b_p x + b_{2p} x^2)^p$$

$$\coloneqq (j(x))^p,$$

from which it follows that  $j \mid f$  in F[x]. But since f was irreducible, this is a contradiction, and so f could not have had a repeated root. Thus every irreducible polynomial is separable, which is what we wanted to show.  $\square$ 

### 8 Problem 8

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# 9 Problem 9

Let  $x = [\mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1}) : \mathbb{Q}].$ 

Noting that

$$\zeta(\zeta + \zeta^{-1}) = \zeta^2 + 1,$$

if we let

$$f(x) = x^2 - (\zeta + \zeta^{-1})x + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1})[x],$$

then  $f(\zeta) = 0$ .

Since  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1}) \subset \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$  is a proper extension over this field, so if  $d := [\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) : \mathbb{Q}(\zeta + \zeta^{-1})]$  then d > 1. The fact that  $\zeta$  is a root of f shows that  $d \leq 2$ , so d = 2. We also know that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) : \mathbb{Q}] = \phi(n)$ .

We thus have

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}(\zeta+\zeta^{-1})][\mathbb{Q}(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}):\mathbb{Q}] \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \phi(n) = 2x,$$

and so  $x = \frac{\phi(n)}{2}$  as desired.

# 10 Problem 10