Dummit & Foote Exercises

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December 2023

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Introduction to Rings

7.1 Basic Definitions and Examples

Let R be a ring with identity 1

1. Show that $(-1)^2 = 1$

   Proof.

   $$\begin{aligned} -1+1=0 &\implies 0=(-1+1)^2=(-1)^2-1-1+1^2=(-1)^2-1 \\ &\implies (-1)^2-1+1=1 \\ &\implies (-1)^2=1 \end{aligned}$$

   □

2. Prove that if u is a unit in R, so is $-u$.

   Proof. Let $v \in R$ such that $vu = 1$. Then

   $$\begin{aligned} &0=u-u \\ \implies &0=v(u-u)=vu+v(-u)=1+v(-u) \\ \implies &-1=v(-u) \\ \implies &1=v(-u)v(-u) \end{aligned}$$

   and so the existence of $v(-u)v \in R$ shows that $-u$ is a unit. □

4. Prove that the intersection of any nonempty collection of subrings is a subring.

   Proof. Let $\mathcal{S}$ be a non empty collection of subrings $S_\alpha \subseteq R$ for $\alpha \in J$. We already have that $\bigcap \mathcal{S}$ is a subgroup of R, so we only need to show that $1 \in \bigcap \mathcal{S}$ and that $\bigcap \mathcal{S}$ is closed under multiplication. The first claim is trivial because $1 \in S_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in J$. The second claim is almost as trivial, for if $r, s \in \bigcap \mathcal{S}$, then $r, s \in S_\alpha$ and hence $rs, sr \in S_\alpha$ for all $\alpha \in J$. □

7. Prove that the center of R is a subring that contains 1. Prove that the center of a division ring is a field.

   Proof. Let Z_R denote the center of R. $1 \cdot r = r = r \cdot 1$, so $1 \in Z_R$ for all $r \in R$. Suppose $y, z \in Z_R$. Then for any $r \in R$, $(yz)r = y(rz) = r(zy) = r(yz)$ so $yz = zy \in Z_R$. Moreover, $(y+z)r = yr + zr = ry + rz = r(y+z)$, so $(y+z) \in Z_R$ and Z_R is a subring.

   If R is a division ring, then its center is clearly a field for a field is simply a commutative division ring and the center of a division ring must also be a division ring. □

8. Describe the center of the real Hamiltonian Quaternions $\mathbb{H}$. Prove that $\{a+bi|a,b\in\mathbb{R}\}$ is a subring of $\mathbb{H}$, which is a field, but is not contained in the center of $\mathbb{H}$.

   Proof. Suppose that $z = a+bi+cj+dk \in Z_{\mathbb{H}}$ for some $a,b,c,d,\in\mathbb{R}$. Then z commutes with all $h\in\mathbb{H}$, so in particular,

$$\begin{aligned}(a+bi+cj+dk)i &= i(a+bi+cj+dk)\\ -b+ai+dj-ck &= -b+ai-dj+ck\\ dj = -dj \qquad & \qquad ck=-ck\\ d=-d \qquad & \qquad c=-c\end{aligned}$$

   and so $c,d=0$. Similarly, $zj=jz$ shows that $b=0$. Because that coefficiants of i,j, and k always commute, a can be anything and so $Z_{\mathbb{H}} = \mathbb{R}+0i+0j+0k$. Observe that $\{a+bi|a,b\in\mathbb{R}\}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}$ and so it is a field, but it is not contained in $Z_{\mathbb{H}}$. □

9. For a fixed element $a\in R$, define the centralizers of a, $C(a)=\{r\in R|ra=ar\}$. Prove that $C(a)$ is a subring of R and that

$$Z_R = \bigcap_{r\in R} C(r)$$

   Proof. Suppose that $c,d\in C(a)$ for some $a\in R$. Then $(c+d)a = ca+da = ac+ad = a(c+d)$ so $(a+c)\in C(a)$. Moreover, $(cd)a = c(da) = c(ad) = (ca)d = (ac)d = a(cd)$, so $cd\in C(a)$ and $C(a)$ is closed under addition and multiplication and is thus a subring of R. As for the other claim:

$$z\in\bigcap_{r\in R} C(r) \iff z\in C(r) \ \ \forall r\in R \iff zr=rz \ \ \forall r\in R \iff z\in Z_R$$

   □

11. Prove that if R is an integral domain and $x^2=1$ for some $x\in R$ then $x=\pm1$.

   Proof. Observe that $(x-1)(x+1) = x^2-1 = 0$. $(x-1)$ or $(x+1)$ has to be 0 by hypothesis that R is an integral domain, which happens if and only if $x=\pm1$. □

12. Prove that any subring of a field which contains the identity is an integral domain.

   Proof. Suppose that F is a field and S is a subring of F containing 1. Suppose $r,s\in S$ and $rs=0$. Then $rs=0$ in F as well, so either $r=0$ or $s=0$ and so, because $1\in S$, S is an integral domain. □

7.2 Examples: Polynomial Rings, Matrix Rings, and Group Rings

Let R be a commutative ring with identity element 1.

6. Let S be a ring with $1\neq 0$. Let $n\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ and let $A\in M_n(S)$ whose i,j entry is a_{ij}. Let E_{pq} be the element of $M_n(S)$ such that $e_{ij}=1$ if $i=p$ and $j=q$ and $e_{ij}=0$ otherwise.

   (a) Prove that $E_{pq}A$ is the matrix whose p^{th} row equals the q^{th} row of A and all other rows are zero.

   Proof. Let $B=E_{pq}A$ with entries b_{ij}. Then

$$b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} e_{ik}a_{kj} = \begin{cases} a_{ji} & \text{if } i=q \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}\end{cases}$$

   □

(b) Prove that AE_{rs} is the matrix whose s^{th} column is the r^{th} column of A and all other columns are zero.

Proof. Let $B = AE_{rs}$ with entries b_{ij}. Then

$$b_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik}e_{kj} = \begin{cases} a_{ij} & \text{if } j = r \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

□

(c) Deduce that if $C = E_{pq}AE_{rs}$, then $c_{ij} = a_{qr}$ when $i = p$ and $j = s$ and $c_{ij} = 0$ otherwise.

Proof. Let $B = E_{pq}A$. Then $b_{ij} = a_{ij}$ when $i = q$ and 0 otherwise. $C = BE_{rs}$, so $c_{ij} = b_{ij}$ when $j = r$. Then $c_{ij} = a_{ij}$ when $i = q$ and $j = r$ and is 0 otherwise. □

7. Prove that the center of the ring $M_n(R)$ is the subring of scalar matrices.

Proof. Suppose that $C \in Z_{M_n(R)}$. Then C commutes with all elements of $M_n(R)$, so in particular, $CE_{ij} = E_{ij}C$ for all $i, j \leq n$. Therefore $c_{ij} = c_{ji}$, i.e. C is symmetric. Now let A be the matrix with $a_{ij} = 1$ when $i \leq j$ and 0 otherwise. Then $CA = AC$ implies that for all $i, j \leq n$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} c_{ik}a_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik}c_{kj}$$
$$\sum_{k=j}^{n} c_{ik} = \sum_{k=i}^{j} c_{kj}$$

which can only happen if $c_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$, so C is diagonal. Now for any $q, p \leq n$, $B = E_{pq}C = CE_{pq}$, so $c_{pp} = b_{pp} = c_{qq}$ and so C is a scalar matrix. □

10. Consider the following elements of the integral group ring $\mathbb{Z}S_3$:

$$\alpha = 3(1\ 2) - 5(2\ 3) + 14(1\ 2\ 3) \qquad \text{and} \qquad \beta = 6(1) + 2(2\ 3) - 7(1\ 3\ 2)$$

Compute the following elements:

(a) $\alpha + \beta = 6(1) + 3(1\ 2) - 3(2\ 3) + 14(1\ 2\ 3) - 7(1\ 3\ 2)$
(b) $2\alpha - 3\beta = -18(1) + 6(1\ 2) - 16(2\ 3) + 28(1\ 2\ 3) + 21(1\ 3\ 2)$
(c) $\alpha\beta = -108(1) + 81(1\ 2) - 30(2\ 3) - 21(1\ 3) + 90(1\ 2\ 3)$
(d) $\beta\alpha = -108(1) + 18(1\ 2) - 51(2\ 3) + 63(1\ 3) + 84(1\ 2\ 3)$
(e) $\alpha^2 = 34(1) - 70(1\ 2) + 42(2\ 3) - 28(1\ 3) - 15(1\ 2\ 3) + 181(1\ 3\ 2)$

11. Repeat the preceding exercise under the assumption that the coefficients of α and β are in $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

(a) $\alpha + \beta = 2(1\ 2\ 3) + 2(1\ 3\ 2)$
(b) $2\alpha - 3\beta = 2(2\ 3) + 1(1\ 2\ 3)$
(c) $\alpha\beta = 0$
(d) $\beta\alpha = 0$
(e) $\alpha^2 = (1) + 2(1\ 2) + 2(1\ 3) + 1(1\ 3\ 2)$

12. Let $G = \{g_1, ..., g_n\}$ be a finite group. Prove that $N = g_1 + ... + g_n$ is in the center of the group ring RG.

Proof. Any element in RG is given by $M = r_1g_1 + ... + r_ng_n$ for $r_1, ..., r_n \in R$. Then

$$MN = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_ig_ig_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} g_ig_jg_j^{-1}g_j = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_ig_jg_i = NM$$

as desired. □

7.3 Ring Homomorphisms and Quotient Rings

Let R be a ring with identity $1 \neq 0$

1. Prove that $2\mathbb{Z}$ and $3\mathbb{Z}$ are not isomorphic.

   Proof. For the sake of contradiction, suppose that $\varphi : 2\mathbb{Z} \to 3\mathbb{Z}$ is a ring isomorphism. If $x = \varphi(2)$, then $x = 3k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Moreover, $x + x = x^2$, so $6k = 9k^2$ and $3k = 2$, but no such k exists. □

2. Prove that the rings $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ are not isomorphic.

   Lemma 7.3.1. *Let R be a ring with identity 1_R and let S is a ring with identity 1_S. If $\varphi : R \to S$ is a ring isomorphism, then $\varphi(1_R) = 1_S$.*

   Proof. For any $r \in R$, $\varphi(r) = \varphi(1_R r) = \varphi(1_r)\varphi(r))$. □

   Lemma 7.3.2. *If $\varphi : R \to S$ is a ring isomorphism, than r is a unit in R if and only if $\varphi(r)$ is a unit in S.*

   Proof. Suppose r is a unit in R. Then there is an $s \in R$ such that $rs = 1_R$. Then $\varphi(rs) = 1_S = \varphi(r)\varphi(s)$ and so $\varphi(r)$ is a unit in S. Conversely, if $\varphi(r)$ is a unit in S, there is some $s' \in S$ such that $\varphi(r)s' = 1_S$. φ is surjective, so there is an $s \in R$ such that $\varphi(s) = s'$. Then $\varphi(r)\varphi(s) = \varphi(rs) = 1_S$, so $rs = 1_R$ and r is a unit in R. □

   Proof. The only units in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ are ± 1, but $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ has many more, e.g. $\frac{1}{2}$. Thus, lemma 7.3.2 shows that there can be no isomorphism between the two rings. □

6. Decide which of the following are ring homomorphisms from $M_2(\mathbb{Z})$ to $\mathbb{Z}$.

   (a)
   $$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto a$$

   Not a homomorphism:

   $$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto 2 \neq 1 = 1 \times 1$$

   (b)
   $$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto a + d$$

   Not a homomorphism:

   $$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto 2 \neq 1 = 1 \times 1$$

   (c)
   $$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto ad - bc$$

   Not a homomorphism:

   $$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \longmapsto 1 \neq 0 = 0 + 0$$

7. Let

$$R = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b, d \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

Prove that the map

$$\varphi : R \to \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}, \qquad \varphi \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \mapsto (a, d)$$

is a surjective homomorphism. Describe its kernel. For any $a, b, d, e, f, h \in \mathbb{Z}$:

$$\varphi \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} + \varphi \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ 0 & h \end{pmatrix} = (a, d) + (e, h) = (a + e, d + h) = \varphi \begin{pmatrix} a + e & b + f \\ 0 & d + h \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\varphi \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d \end{pmatrix} \times \varphi \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ 0 & h \end{pmatrix} = (a, d) \times (e, h) = (ae, dh) = \varphi \begin{pmatrix} ae & af + bh \\ 0 & dh \end{pmatrix}$$

and thus φ is a homomorphism. Surjectivity is clear. The kernel is givin by:

$$R = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \middle| b \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

8. Decide which of the following are ideals of the ring $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$:

   (a) $A = \{(a, a) | a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is not an ideal because $(1, 0) \cdot (a, a) = (a, 0) \notin A$

   (b) $B = \{(2a, 2b) | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is an ideal because for any $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(c, d) \cdot (2a, 2b) = (2ac, 2bd) \in B$

   (c) $C = \{(2a, 0) | a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is an ideal because for any $a, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(c, d) \cdot (2a, 0) = (2ac, 0) \in C$

   (d) $D = \{(a, -a) | a \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is not an ideal because $(1, 0) \cdot (a, -a) = (a, 0) \notin D$

10. Decide which of the following are ideals of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[x]$:

   (a) The set of all polynomials whose constant term is a multiple of 3 is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

   (b) The set of all polynomials whose second order coefficient is a multiple of 3 is not an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. E.g., $(3x^2 + x)(x) = 3x^3 + x^2$.

   (c) The set of all polynomials whose 0^{th}, 1^{st}, and 2^{nd} order coefficients are all 0 is an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

   (d) $\mathbb{Z}[x^2]$ is not an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

   (e) The set of all polynomials whose coefficients sum to 0 is an ideal $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. If $\sum(a_i)_{i \leq n} = 0$, then for any $(b_i)_{i \leq m} \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $C(x) = A(x)B(x)$, then

   $$\sum_{i=1}^{n+m} c_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_j = \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j \cdot 0 = 0$$

   (f) The set of all polynomials $p(x)$ where $p'(0) = 0$ is not an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x]$; e.g., if $p(x) = x^2 + 1$, $p'(x) = 2x$ and $p'(0) = 0$, but if $q(x) = xp(x) = x^3 + x$, then $q'(x) = 3x^2 + 1$ and $q'(0) = 1$.

11. Let R be the ring of all continuous real valued functions on the closed interval $[0, 1]$. Prove that the map $\varphi : R \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $\varphi(f) = \int_0^1 f(t)dt$ for all $f \in R$ is a homomorphism of additive groups, but is not a ring homomorphism.

   Proof. The additive identity is the zero map 0 and $\varpi(0) = 0$. For any $f, g \in R$:

   $$\varphi(f + g) = \int_0^1 [f(t) + g(t)]dt = \int_0^1 f(t)dt + \int_0^1 g(t)dt = \varphi(f) + \varphi(g)$$

   but

   $$\varphi(f \cdot g) = \int_0^1 [f(t) \cdot g(t)]dt \neq \int_0^1 f(t)dt \cdot \int_0^1 g(t)dt = \varphi(f) \cdot \varphi(g)$$

   in general. $\square$

19. Prove that if $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \ldots$ are ideals of R, then $\bigcup\{I_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ is an ideal of R.

Proof. Let $S = \bigcup\{I_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ and suppose that $s, t \in S$. Then there are N_s, N_t such that $s \in I_{N_s}$ and $t \in I_{N_t}$. Letting $N = \max\{N_s, N_t\}$, $s, t \in I_N$ and so $s + t \in I_N \subseteq S$ as well. Moreover, for any $r \in R$, $rs, sr \in I_N \subseteq S$ and so S is an ideal. □

7.4 Properties of Ideals

Let R be a ring with identity $1 \neq 0$

1. Let L_j be the left ideal of $M_n(R)$ consisting of arbitrary entries in the j^{th} column and zero in all other entries and let E_{ij} be the element of $M_n(R)$ whose i, j entry is 1 and whose other entries are all 0. Prove that $L_j = M_n(R)E_{ij}$ for any i.

   Proof. From exercise 7.2.6, $AE_{i,j}$ is the matrix whose j^th column is any column is the i^th column of A, so $AE_{i,j} \in L_j$. Of course, A can be arbitrarily constructed to have any entries in any column, so for any $\ell \in L_j$ and any $i \leq n$, putting the j^{th} column of ℓ_j in the i^{th} column of A gives $AE_{i,j} = \ell_j$ □

2. Assume that R is commutative. Prove that the augmentation ideal in the group ring RG is generated by $\{g - 1 | g \in G\}$ Prove that if $G = \langle\sigma\rangle$ is cyclic, then augmentation ideal is generated by $\sigma - 1$.

   Remark. *Recall that the augmentation ideal of the group ring RG is the kernel of the ring homomorphism $RG \to R$ given by $\sum r_i g_i \mapsto \sum r_i$; which is to say, it contains the elements $a \in RG$ whose coefficients sum to* 0.

   Proof. Let $S = \{g - 1 | g \in G\}$ and let A be the augmentation ideal of RG. Clearly, $(S) \subseteq A$ because $1 - 1 = 0$ and so $(g - 1) \in A$ for all $g \in G$. As for the other inclusion, suppose that $\alpha = \sum a_i g_i \in A$; that is $\sum a_i = 0$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i(g_i - 1) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n}(a_i g_i - a_i)\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i g_i - \sum_{i=1} a_i\\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i g_i\\ &= \alpha\end{aligned}$$

   and so $\alpha \in (S)$; that is $A \subseteq (S)$ and hence $A = (S)$.

   In particular, if $G = \langle\sigma\rangle$ is cyclic with $|G| = n$, then $S = \{\sigma^i - 1 | i \leq n\}$, but for any k,

$$(\sigma - 1)\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \sigma^i = \sigma^k - 1$$

   and so $\sigma^k \in (\sigma - 1)$ for all k. We conclude that $A = (\sigma - 1)$ □

4. Assume that R is commutative. Prove that R is a field if and only if 0 is a maximal ideal.

   Proof. Assume that 0 is a maximal ideal of the commutative ring R. For any $r \in R$, if r is nonzero, then because 0 is maximal, $(r) = R$, so r must be a unit. Because all nonzero elements of R are units and $1 \neq 0$ by hypothesis, R is a field. Conversely, assume that R is a field; i.e., that r is a unit for all nonzero $r \in R$. Then $(r) = R$ and 0 is a maximal ideal. □

5. Prove that if M is an ideal such that R/M is a field, then M is a maximal ideal. (Do not assume that R is commutative).

Proof. Suppose that N is an ideal of R and that $N \supseteq M$. Then by the Lattice Isomorphism Theorem for Rings, N/M is an ideal of R/M. But by hypothesis, R/M is a field and so its only ideals are 0 and R/M and so $N = 0$ or $N = R$, which is to say, that M is a maximal ideal of R. $\square$

7. Let R be a commutative ring with 1. Prove that the principal ideal generated by x in the polynomial ring $R[x]$ is a prime ideal if and only if R is an integral domain. Prove that (x) is maximal if and only if R is a field.

Proof. Consider the homomorphism $\varphi : R[x] \to R$ by $p(x) \mapsto a_0$, where a_0 is the constant coefficient of $p(x)$ for any $p(x) \in R[x]$. The kernel of φ is (x), so by the first isomorphism theorem, $R[x]/(x) \cong R$. Then by Proposition 13[1] (x) is a prime ideal if and only if $R \cong R[x]/(x)$ is an integral domain. By Proposition 12[2], (x) is maximal if and only if $R \cong R[x]/(x)$ is a field. $\square$

9. Let R be the ring of all continuous functions on $[0, 1]$ and let I be the collection of functions $f \in R$ with $f(1/2) = f(1/3) = 0$ prove that I is an ideal, but is not a prime ideal.

Proof. For any $f, g \in I$, $f(1/2) + g(1/2) = f(1/3) + g(1/3) = 0$ and $-f(1/2) = -f(1/3) = 0$, so I is an additive subgroup. Moreover, for any $h \in R$, $h(1/2)f(1/2) = h(1/3)f(1/3) = 0$, so $hf \in I$ and I is an ideal. However, I is not a prime ideal. For example, if $f(x) = x - 1/2$ and $g(x) = x - 1/3$, then $h(x) = f(x)g(x) = (x - 1/2)(x - 1/3)$ and so $h \in I$, but $f, g \notin I$. $\square$

11. Assume R is commutative. Let I and J be ideals of R and assume P is a prime ideal of R that contains IJ. Prove that I or J is contained in P.

Proof. Suppose that $I \not\subseteq P$; then there is some $a \in I$ such that $a \notin P$. Now $ab \in P$ for all $b \in J$ and P is a prime ideal, so $b \in P$. Thus $J \subseteq P$. Similarly, $J \not\subseteq P$ implies $I \subseteq P$. $\square$

7.5 Rings of Fractions

4. Every subring of $\mathbb{R}$

Proof. Any subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ contains 1 and so it must also contain $\mathbb{Z}$. $\mathbb{Q}$ is the quotient field of $\mathbb{Z}$ and thus the "smallest" field containing $\mathbb{Z}$. $\square$

7.6 The Chinese Remainder Theorem

3. Let R and S be rings with identities. Prove that every ideal of $R \times S$ is of the form $I \times J$ where I is an ideal of R and J is an ideal of S.

Lemma 7.6.1. *If $\varphi : R \to S$ is a surjective ring homomorphism and I is an ideal of R, then $\varphi(I)$ is an ideal of S.*

Proof. φ is a surjective homomorphism, so its kernel, K is an ideal of R and $R/K \cong S$. Then by the Lattice Isomorphism Theorem for Rings, I/K is an ideal of R/S and so $\varphi(I)$ is an ideal of S. $\square$

[1]Dummit & Foote pg. 255
[2]Dummit & Foote pg. 254

Proof. Let $\pi_R : R \times S \to R$ and $\pi_S : R \times S \to S$ be projection maps; recall that a projection map is a surjective homomorphism. If A is an ideal of $R \times S$, then by the Lemma above, $I = \pi_R(A)$ is an ideal of R and $J = \pi_S(A)$ is an ideal of S. Clearly, $A \subseteq I \times J$. Suppose $(i,j) \in I \times J$, then $(i,s),(r,j) \in A$ for some $r \in R$ and $s \in S$. Because A is an ideal, $(0,1)\cdot(r,j) = (0,j) \in A$ and $(1,0)\cdot(i,s) = (i,0) \in A$, but then $(i,0)+(0,j) = (i,j) \in A$, so $A = I \times J$. $\square$

6. Let $f_1(x), f_2(x), ..., f_k(x)$ be polynomials with integer coefficients of the same degree d. Let $n_1, n_2, ..., n_k$ be integers which are relatively prime in pairs (i.e., $(n_i, n_j) = 1$ for all $i \neq j$). Use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to prove there exists a polynomial $f(x)$ with integer coefficients anda a degree of d with

$$f(x) \equiv f_1(x) \mod n_1, \qquad f(x) \equiv f_2(x) \mod n_2, \quad ..., \quad f(x) \equiv f_k(x) \mod n_k$$

i.e., the coefficients of $f(x)$ agree with the coefficients of $f_i(x) \mod n_i$. Show that if all the $f_i(x)$ are monic, then $f(x)$ may also be chosen monic.

Proof. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem:

$$\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n_2\mathbb{Z} \times ... \times \mathbb{Z}/n_k\mathbb{Z}, \qquad r \mapsto (r + n_1\mathbb{Z}, r + n_2\mathbb{Z}, ..., r + n_k\mathbb{Z})$$

is a surjective homomorphism with kernel $n_1\mathbb{Z} \cap n_2\mathbb{Z} \cap ... \cap n_k\mathbb{Z} = \prod n_i\mathbb{Z}$ by the assumption that all n_i are pairwise coprime. Writing a_{ij} to denote the j^{th} coefficient of $f_i(x)$, we see that there is an a_j such that $\varphi(a_j) = (a_{1j} + n_1\mathbb{Z}, a_{2j} + n_2\mathbb{Z}, ..., a_{kj} + n_k\mathbb{Z})$, which is to say that $a_j \equiv a_{ij} \mod n_i$ for all i. Thus, the desired $f(x)$ exists. Moreover, if each $a_{id} = 1$, $a_d = 1$ works and so $f(x)$ can be chosen monic. $\square$

Chapter 8

Euclidean Domains, Principal Ideal Domains, and Unique Factorization Domains

8.1 Euclidean Domains

3. Let R be a Euclidean Domain. Let m be the minimum integer in the set of norms of nonzero elements of R. Prove that every nonzero element of R of norm m is a unit. Deduce that a nonzero element of norm zero (if such anelement exists) is a unit.

   Proof. Let N be a norm on R with $\min\{N(r)|r \in R, r \neq 0\} = m$ and suppose that $N(a) = m$ for some $a \in R$. Because R is a Euclidean domain, there exist $q, r \in R$ such that $1 = qa + r$ and $r = 0$ or $N(r) < N(a) = m$. But there are no nonzero $r \in R$ where $N(r) < m$, so $r = 0$. Thus, $aq = 1$, i.e. a is a unit. Moreover, if there is a nonzero element $x \in R$ with $N(x) = 0$, then $m = 0$ and x is a unit. □

10. Prove that the quotient ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]/I$ is finite for any nonzero ideal I of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

    Proof. All ideals of a euclidean domain are principal ideals, so there is some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $I = (\alpha)$. For any $\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$, there exist $\kappa, \rho \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $\beta = \kappa\alpha + \rho$ where $|\rho|^2 < |\alpha|^2$. Then $\beta + I = (\kappa\alpha + \rho) + I = \rho + I$ because $\kappa\alpha \in I$. Thus every coset of $\mathbb{Z}[i]/I$ can be represented by some element whose norm is less than the norm of α. Of course, finite such elements exist. □

8.2 Principal Ideal Domains

1. Prove that in a Principal Ideal Domain two ideals (a) and (b) are comaximal if and only if a greatest common divisor of a and b is 1.

   Proof. First, we assume that (a) and (b) are comaximal. Let $d = gcd(a, b)$. Then $a + b \subseteq (d) = R$ by assumption that (a) and (b) are comaximal. Thus we conclude that $d = 1$. Conversely, assume that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and suppose that I is an ideal of R with $I \supseteq (a), (b)$. R is a Principal Ideal Domain, so there is a $d \in R$ such that $I = (d)$. Therefore, $d|a$ and $d|b$, so $d = 1$. Then $I = R$ and (a) and (b) are comaximal. □

3. Prove that the quotient of a P.I.D. by a prime ideal is again a P.I.D.

Proof. Let R be a Principal Ideal Domain and P be a prime ideal of R. If $P = 0$, then $R/P \cong R$ and there is nothing left to show. Otherwise, P is maximal because every prime ideal in a Principal Ideal Domain is maximal[1]. It follows that R/P is a field[2] and is therefore a Principal Ideal Domain. $\square$

4. Let R be an integral domain. Prove that the following two conditions are sufficient to show that R is a Principal Ideal Domain:

   (i) Any two nonzero elements a and b in R have a greatest common divisor which can be written in the form $ra + sb$ for some $r, s \in R$.

   (ii) If $a_1, a_2, a_3, ...$ are nonzero elements of R such that $a_{i+1}|a_i$ for all i, then there is a positive integer N such that a_n is a unit times a_N for all $n \geq N$.

   Proof. Let R be an integral domain that satisfies conditions (i) and (ii) and suppose I is an ideal of R. Enumerating the elements of I as r_i, put $a_1 = \gcd(r_1, r_2)$, and then for all $i > 1$, put $a_i = \gcd(a_{i-1}, r_{i+1})$. Observe that $I = (r_1) + (r_2) + (r_3) + ...$ and $(r_i) \subseteq (a_i)$ for all i, so $I \subseteq (a_1) + (a_2) + (a_3) + ...$ Moreover, $a_{i+i}|a_i$ for all i, so $(a_1) \subseteq (a_2) \subseteq (a_3) \subseteq ....$ Now, there is an N such that a_n is a unit, u_n times a_N for all $n \geq N$, so we have $(a_n) = (a_N)$ whenever $n \geq N$. Thus, $I \subseteq (a_1) + (a_2) + (a_3)... = (a_1) + ... + (a_N) = (a_N)$ because $a_N|a_n$ for all $n \leq N$. As I is contained in a principal ideal, it must itself be a principal ideal. $\square$

7. An integral domain R in which every ideal generated by two elements is principal is called a *Bezout Domain.*

   (a) Prove that the integral domain R is a Bezout Domain if and only if every pair of elements a, b of R has a g.c.d. d in R that can be written as an R-linear combination of a and b, i.e., $d = ax + by$ for some $x, y \in R$.

   Proof. Suppose that R is a Bezout domain with $a, b \in R$. Then there is some $d \in R$ such that $(a, b) = (a) + (b) = (d)$. Therefore, there are $x, y \in R$ such that $ax + by = d$ and d is a common divisor of a and b, though not necessarily greatest. If $e \in R$ is a common divisor of a and b, then $a, b \in (e)$ and so $(a, b) = (d) \subseteq (e)$. Thus, we can conclude that $e|d$, i.e. $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

   Conversely, assume that all $a, b \in R$ have a gcd given as an R-linear combination of a and b. Let $a, b, d, x, y \in R$ such that $\gcd(a, b) = d = ax + by$. Then $d \in (a, b)$, so $(d) \subseteq (a, b)$. But also, $d|a, b$, so $(d) \supseteq (a, b)$. Thus we can conclude that $(d) = (a, b)$. $\square$

   (b) Prove that every finitely generated ideal of a Bezout Domain is principal.

   Proof. Let R be a Bezout Domain. We showed in (a) that an ideal generated by two elements of R is principal. Now, assume that all ideals generated by fewer than n elements is principal and let $I = (a_1, ..., a_n)$ be an ideal generated by n elements. By the induction hypothesis, $I' = (a_1, ..., a_{n-1})$ is ideal and thus can be written $I = (d)$ for some $d \in R$. Then $I = (d) + (a_n) = (d, a_n)$ is generated by two elements and is therefore principal, again by (a). By induction, we conclude that all finitely generated ideals of a Bezout Domain are principal. $\square$

   (c) Let F be the fraction field of the Bezout Domain R. Prove that every element of F can be written in the form a/b with $a, b \in R$ and a and b relatively prime.

   Proof. For any $a/b \in F$, let $\gcd(a, b) = d$. Then there are $x, y \in R$ such that $ax + by = d$. There are $a', b' \in R$ such that $a'd = a$ and $b'd = b$, so we can write $a'dx + b'dy = d$. Then $a'x + b'y = 1$, which is to say that a' and b' are relatively prime. Moreover, $ab = ab'd = a'db \implies ab' = a'b \implies a/b = a'/b'$. $\square$

[1]Dummit & Foote 280

[2]Dummit & Foot pg. 254; Proposition 12

8.3 Unique Factorization Domains (U.F.D.s)

2. Let a and b be nonzero elements of the Unique Factorization Domain R. Prove that a and b have a least common multiple and describe it in terms of the prime factorization of a and b in the same manor that Proposition 13 describes their greatest common divisior.

   Proof. Let $a = u\prod_{i\leq n} p_i^{e_i}$ and $b = v\prod_{i\leq n} p_i^{f_i}$ be the prime factorizations of a and b where u and v are units and each p_i is a distinct prime. We claim that $c = \prod_{i\leq n} p_i^{\max\{e_i,f_i\}}$ is the least common multiple of a and b. That c is a common multiple of a and b is clear; let $d = x\prod_{i\leq n} p_i^{g_i}$ where $x \in R$ and suppose that d is a multiple of a and b. Then for each i, $g_i \geq e_i$ and $g_i \geq f_i$ so $g_i \geq \max\{e_i, f_i\}$. Then it follows immediately that $c|d$ for all common multiples of a and b, d. Thus, c is the *least* such common multiple. □

11. *(Characterization of Principal Ideal Domains)* Prove that R is a P.I.D. if and only if $\mathbb{R}$ is a *U.F.D* that is also a Bezout Domain.

    Proof. Assume that R is a P.I.D.; then if r is a nonzero element of R which is not a unit. If r is irreducible, we are done. Otherwise we can write $r = r_1r_2$ where r_1 and r_2 are nonzero, non-units of $\mathbb{R}$. If r_1 and r_2 are both irreducible, we are done; otherwise, we can write $r_1 = r_{11}r_{12}$ etc. Continuing this way, we must verify that the process eventually terminates. Observe that $r_1, r_2|r$ and $r_{11}, r_{12}|r_1$, etc. Thus $(r) \subsetneq (r_1) \subsetneq (r_{11}) \subsetneq ... \subsetneq R$ where all containments are proper. We must show that this chain is finite.

    Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq ... \subseteq R$ be an infinite ascending chain of ideals of R whwere containment is not necessarily proper. Let $I = \cup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i$. Then for every $a \in I$, $a \in I_n$ for some n and so $ra \in I_n \subseteq I$ for all $r \in R$. Therefore, I is an ideal of R. In particular, I is a principal ideal and so there is some $\alpha \in R$ such that $I = (\alpha)$. Then $\alpha \in I_N$ for some N and so $I = (\alpha) \subseteq I_N$. But we already have that $I_N \subseteq I$, so $I_N = I$. Of course, it follows that $I_n = I_N = I$ for all $n \geq N$ and so the chain becomes *stationary* at some finite stage. We can thus conclude that any **properly** ascending chain of ideals must be finite, completing the proof that every Principal Ideal Domain is also a Unique Factorization Domain.

    Conversely, we assume that R is a Unique Factorization Domain and that it is also a Bezout Domain. Let I be any ideal of R and let a be a nonzero element of I with a minimal number of irreducible factors; we know that such an a exists because every element of I has a finite number of factors. We claim that $I = (b)$; to demonstrate this, suppose there is a $b \in I$ such that $b \notin (a)$. Then there is a $d \in I$ such that $(a, b) = (d)$. Then $a \in (d)$, so $d|a$, but a has a minimal numbder of factors, so $a = d$. But this leads to a contradiction, as b was chosen to not be in (a), but $b \in (d) = (a)$.

    Thus, we can conclude that every ideal in R is generated by an element with a minimal number of factors, which is to say that R is a Principal Ideal Domain. □

Chapter 9

Polynomial Rings

9.1 Definitions and Basic Properties

1. Let $p(x,y,z) = 2x^2y - 3xy^3z + 4y^2z^5$ and $q(x,y,z) = 7x^2 + 5x^2y^3z^4 - 3x^2z^3$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[x,y,z]$

   (a) Write each of p and q as a polynomial in x with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}[y,z]$.

   $$p(x) = (2y)x^2 - (3y^3z)x + (4y^2z^5) \qquad q(x) = (5y^3z^4 - 3z^3 + 7)x^2$$

   (b) Find the degree of each of p and q. $\deg p = 7$. $\deg q = 9$.

   (c) Find the degree of p and q in each of the three variables, x, y, and z.
   $\deg_x p = 2$, $\deg_y p = 3$, $\deg_z p = 5$, $\deg_x q = 2$, $\deg_y q = 3$, $\deg_z q = 4$.

   (d) Compute pq and find the degree of pq in each of the three variables x, y, and z.

   $$pq(x,y,z) = 14x^4y + 10x^4y^4z^4 - 6x^4yz^3 - 21x^3 - 15x^3y^6z^5 + 9x^3y^3z^4 + 28x^2y^2z^5 + 20x^2y^5z^9 - 12x^2z^8$$

   $\deg_x pq = 4$, $\deg_y pq = 6$, $\deg_z pq = 9$.

   (e) Write pq as a polynomial of the variable z with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}[x,y]$.

   $$pq(z) =$$

   $$(20x^2y^5)z^9 - (12x^2)z^8 + (28x^2y^2 - 15x^3y^6)z^5 + (10x^4y^4 + 9x^3y^3)z^4 - (6x^4y)z^3 + (14x^4y - 21x^3)$$

4. Prove that the ideals (x) and (x,y) are prime ideals in $\mathbb{Q}[x,y]$, but that only the latter is a maximal ideal.

   Proof. Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}[x,y]$. Suppose $pq \in (x)$ and, the sake of contradiction, assume $p, q \notin (x)$. Then we can write $p(x,y) = p'(x,y) + ay^m$ and $q(x,y) = q'(x,y) + by^n$ for some nonzero $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $mn, \in \mathbb{Z}$. Computing the product, we see that $pq(x,y) = p'q'(x,y) + by^np'(x,y) + ay^mq'(x,y) + aby^{m+n}$, and $ab \neq 0$, which contradicts the assumption that $pq \in (x)$. Thus, either p or q must be in (x), i.e., (x) is a prime ideal. However, $(x) \subseteq (x) + (y) = (x,y) \neq \mathbb{Q}[x,y]$, so (x) is not maximal.

   Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}[x,y]$. Suppose $pq \in (x,y)$ and, the sake of contradiction, assume $p, q \notin (x,y)$. Then we can write $p(x,y) = p'(x,y) + a$ and $q(x,y) = q'(x,y) + b$ for some nonzero $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$. Computing the product, we see that $pq(x,y) = p'q'(x,y) + bp'(x,y) + aq'(x,y) + ab$, and $ab \neq 0$, which contradicts the assumption that $pq \in (x,y)$. Thus, either p or q must be in (x,y), i.e., (x,y) is a prime ideal. Now, let I be an ideal of $\mathbb{Q}[x,y]$ such that $I \supsetneq (x,y)$. Then there is some $p(x,y) \in I$ that can be written $p'(x,y) + a$ where $p'(x,y) \in (x,y)$ and a is a nonzero rational. But then $p'(x,y) \in I$, so $a = p(x,y) - p'(x,y) \in I$ and a is a unit, so $I = \mathbb{Q}[x,y]$. Thus we conclude that (x,y) is maximal. $\square$

5. Prove that (x,y) and $(2,x,y)$ are prime ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[x,y]$, but only the latter is maximal.

Proof. Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. Suppose $pq \in (x, y)$ and, the sake of contradiction, assume $p, q \notin (x, y)$. Then we can write $p(x, y) = p'(x, y) + a$ and $q(x, y) = q'(x, y) + b$ for some nonzero $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Computing the product, we see that $pq(x, y) = p'q'(x, y) + bp'(x, y) + aq'(x, y) + ab$, and $ab \neq 0$, which contradicts the assumption that $pq \in (x, y)$. Thus, either p or q must be in (x, y), i.e., (x, y) is a prime ideal. However, $(x, y) \subseteq (x, y) + (2) = (2, x, y) \neq \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, so (x, y) is not maximal.

Let $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. Suppose $pq \in (2, x, y)$ and, the sake of contradiction, assume $p, q \notin (2, x, y)$. Then we can write $p(x, y) = p'(x, y) + 2a + 1$ and $q(x, y) = q'(x, y) + 2b + 1$ for some nonzero $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Computing the product, we see that $pq(x, y) = p'q'(x, y) + 2bp'(x, y) + 2aq'(x, y) + 4ab + 2a + 2b + 1$, which contradicts the assumption that $pq \in (2, x, y)$. Thus, either p or q must be in (x, y), i.e., $(2, x, y)$ is a prime ideal. Now, let I be an ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ such that $I \supsetneq (x, y)$. Then there is some $p(x, y) \in I$ that can be written $p'(x, y) + 2a + 1$ where $p'(x, y) \in (x, y)$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. But then $p'(x, y) \in I$, so $2a + 1 = p(x, y) - p'(x, y) \in I$. Because $2 \in I$, $(2, 2a + 1) \subseteq I$. Of course, $\gcd(2, 2a + 1) = 1$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, so $(2, 2a + 1) = (1) = \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$. Thus we conclude that $(2, x, y)$ is maximal.

□

6. Prove that (x, y) is not a principal ideal in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$.

   Proof. Suppose it were; then there is some nonzero, nonunit $d \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ such that $(d) = (x, y)$. $x, y \in (x, y) = (d)$, so there are $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ such that $x = dp$ and $y = dq$. In 9.1.4 above, we showed that x and y are prime in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$, and d is not a unit, so q and p are both units. But then we have that $(x) = (d) = (y)$, a contradiction. □

7. Let R be a commutative ring with 1 Prove that a polynomial ring over R in more than one variable is not a principal ideal domain.

   Proof. Consider the polynomial ring in more than two variables, $R[x, y, ...]$ and suppose the ideal (x, y) were principal, i.e., there is some nonzero, non-unit $d \in R[x, y, ...]$ such that $(d) = (x, y)$. $x, y \in (x, y) = (d)$, so there are $p, q \in R[x, y, ...]$ such that $x = pd$ and $y = qd$. Now, x and y are both prime in $R[x, y, ...]$, and d is not a unit, so we have that q and p are both units. Then it immediately follows that $(x) = (d) = (y)$, a contradiction. □

9.2 Polynomial Rings Over Fields

Let F be a field and let x be an indeterminate over F.

1. Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ and let bars denote passage to the quotient $F[x]/(f(x))$. Prove that for each $\overline{g(x)}$ there is a unique polynomial $g_0(x)$ of degree $\leq n - 1$ such that $\overline{g(x)} = \overline{g_0(x)}$.

   Proof. $F[x]$ is a Euclidean Domain because F is a field; its norm N is given by the order of the polynomial. Therefore, for every $g \in F[x]$, there are some $q, g_0 \in F[x]$ such that $g = qf + g_0$ and $N(g_0) < N(f)$ or $g_0 = 0$. It follows that $\overline{g} = \overline{qf} + \overline{g_0} = \overline{g_0}$, as desired. □

2. Let F be a finite field of order q and let $f(x)$ be a polynomial in $F[x]$ of degree $n \geq 1$. Prove that $F[x]/(f(x))$ has q^n elements.

   Proof. $F[x]$ is a Euclidean Domain because F is a field; its norm N is given by the order of the polynomial. By the previous exercise, 9.2.1, above, $F[x]/(f(x))$ is an n dimentional vector space over F, so it isomorphic to F^n. F has q elements, so F^n has q^n elements. □

3. Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial in $F[x]$. Prove that $F[x]/(f(x))$ is a field if and only if $f(x)$ is irreducible.

Proof. Assume that $F[x]/(f(x))$ is a field. Then its only ideals are $\{0\}$ and (1). By the Lattice Isomorphism Theorem for Rings, there are no ideals between $(f(x))$ and $F[x]$, so $f(x)$ is irreducible. Now assume that $f(x)$ is irreducuble, then because $F[x]$ is a Principal Ideal Domain, $(f(x))$ must be maximal. Therefore, the quotient $F[x]/(f(x))$ can only have two ideals, and so it is a field. □

4. Let F be a finite field. Prove that $F[x]$ contains infinitely many primes.

   Proof. For the sake of contradiction, assume that $F[x]$ has finitely many primes $p_1, ..., p_k$. Let $r = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot, ..., \cdot p_k$ and $q = r + 1$. Then q is not prime, so there is some prime s, such that $s|q$. There are only finitely many primes and s is one of them, so $s|r$, the product of all primes. But then $s|(q-r) = 1$, and so s is a unit, which is a contradiction, because primes cannot be units. □

6. Describe briefly the ring structure for the following rings:
   (a) $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(2) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}[x]$
   (b) $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x) \cong \mathbb{Z}$
   (c) $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x^2) \cong \mathbb{Z}^2$
   (d) $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]/(x^2, y^2, 2) \cong \{a + bx + cy + dxy | a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\}$ For any $\alpha = a + bx + cy + dxy \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]/(2, x^2, y^2)$,

$$\begin{aligned}(a + bx + cy + dxy)^2 &= a^2 + b^2x^2 + c^2y^2 + dx^2y^2 \\ &+ 2abx + 2acy + 2adxy + 2bcxy + 2bdx^2y + 2cdxy^2 \\ &= a^2\end{aligned}$$

   so $\alpha^2 = 0$ when $a = 0$ and $\alpha^2 = 1$ when $a = 1$.

9.3 Polynomial Rings that are Unique Factorization Domains

3. Let F be a field. Prove that the set R of polynomials in $F[x]$ whose coefficient of x is 0 is a subring of $R[x]$, but R is not a U.F.D.

   Proof. Let $r, s \in R$; then $r + s$ has no first degree term, nor does rs. Thus R is a subring of $F[x]$. Observe that x^2 and x^3 are both irreducible in R as each would need to have a first degree factor. But $x^6 = (x^2)^3 = (x^3)^2$, and so x^6 has two distinct factorizations. □

9.4 Irreducibility Criteria

1. Determine whether the following polynomials are irreducible in the rings indicated. For those that are reducible, determine their factorization into irreducibles. The notation $\mathbb{F}_p$ denotes the finite field $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.
   (a) $x^2 + x + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ is irreducible because it has no roots.
   (b) $x^3 + x + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_3$ is irreducible because it has no roots.
   (c) $x^4 + 1 = x^4 - 4 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 + 2)$ in $\mathbb{F}_5$.
   (d) $x^4 + 10x^2 + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

7. Prove that $\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$ is a field which is isomorphic to the complex numbers.

   Proof. First, we notice that $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ because it has no roots in $\mathbb{R}$, and so $C = \mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$ is a field. Observe that under the homomorphism to the quotient ring, $x^2 + 1 \mapsto 0 \implies x^2 \mapsto -1$. Moreover, every polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is represented by some polynomial of degree 0 or 1 in the quotient field. For any $a + bx, c + dx \in C$, we see that $(a + bx) + (c + dx) = (a + c) + (b + d)x$ and $(a + bx)(c + dx) = ac + (ad + bc)x + bdx^2 = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)x$ and so the laws of addition and multiplication for $\mathbb{C}$ hold in C. □

8. Prove that $K_1 = \mathbb{F}_{11}[x]/(x^2+1)$ and $K_2 = \mathbb{F}_{11}[y]/(y^2+2y+2)$ are both fields with 121 elements. Prove that the map which sends the element $p(\bar{x})$ of K_1 to the element $p(\bar{y}+1)$ of K_2 (where p is any polynomial with coefficients in $\mathbb{F}_{11}$) is well defined and gives a ring (hence field) isomorphism from K_1 to K_2.

   Proof. x^2+1 is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_{11}[x]$ and y^2+2y+2 is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_{11}[y]$ because they have no roots. Thus, K_1 and K_2 are both fields. K_1 and K_2 are given by the polynomials of order ≤ 1 over $\mathbb{F}_{11}$ and so they have 121 elements. We call the map described above $\varphi : K_1 \to K_2$ and let $p(\bar{x}), q(\bar{x}) \in K_1$. If $p(\bar{x}) = q(\bar{x})$ in K_1, then $p(\bar{x}) - q(\bar{x}) = k(\bar{x}^2+1)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\varphi(p(\bar{x}) - \varphi(q(\bar{x})) = \varphi(p(\bar{x}) - q(\bar{x})) = \varphi(k(\bar{x}^2 - 1)) = k(\bar{y}^2 + 2\bar{y} + 2) = 0$$

   and so $\varphi(p(\bar{x})) = \varphi(q(\bar{x}))$, i.e., φ is well defined. Moreover, following the above argument backwards shows that φ is injective, and clearly it is a homomorphism. Because K_1 and K_2 both have 121 elements, φ must be surjective as well and hence an isomorphism. $\square$

13. Prove that $p(x) = x^3 + nx + 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ whenever $n \neq 1, -3, -5$.

   Proof. If $p(x)$ is reducible, that it factors into monic polynomials of orders 1 and 2. Therefore, p(x) is reducible if:

$$\begin{aligned} x^3 + nx + 2 &= (x^2 + ax + b)(x + c) \\ &= x^3 + (a+c)x^2 + (b+ac)x + bc \end{aligned}$$

   This gives $bc = 2$, so $b \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$. We also have that $a = -c$ and $n = b + ac$.

$$b = 2 \implies c = 1 \implies a = -1 \implies n = 1$$

$$b = 1 \implies c = 2 \implies a = -2 \implies n = -3$$

$$b = -1 \implies c = -2 \implies a = 2 \implies n = -5$$

$$b = -2 \implies c = 1 \implies a = -1 \implies n = -3$$

   and so $p(x)$ is reducible when $n \in \{1, -3, -5\}$ and irreducible otherwise. $\square$

9.5 Polynomial Rings Over Fields II

7. Prove that the additive and multiplicative groups of a field are never isomorphic.

   Proof. Let F be a field; then, $0 = -1(1-1) = -1 + (-1)^2$, so $(-1)^2 = 1$. If there were an isomorphism between the multiplicative and additive groups of F, then -1 would have to map to an element whose additive inverse is itself, but the only F where such an element exists is $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, but in a finite field, the additive and multiplicative groups have different sizes. $\square$

Part III

Modules and Vector Spaces

Chapter 10

Introduction to Module Theory

10.1 Basic Definitions and Examples

Let R be a ring with 1 and M be a left R-module.

1. Prove that $0m = 0$ and $(-1)m = -m$ for all $m \in M$.

   Proof. For any $r \in r$, $rm = (0 + r)m = 0m + rm$, so $0m = 0$. $0 = 0m = (1 - 1)m = m + (-1)m$, so $(-1)m = -m$. □

3. Assume that $rm = 0$ for some $r \in R$ and some $m \in M$ with $m \neq 0$. Prove that r does not have a left inverse.

   Proof. Suppose that there is an $s \in R$ such that $sr = 1$. Then we would have that $m = srm = s(rm) = s(0) = 0$, which contradicts the hypothesis. □

4. Let M be the module R^m described in Example 3 and let $I_1, I_2, ..., I_n$ be left ideals of R. Prove that the following are submodules of M:

   (a) $S = \{(x_1, .x_2, ..., x_n | x_i \in I_i)\}$

   Proof. Clearly, $0 \in S$. For any $(x_1, ..., x_n), (y_1, ..., y_n) \in S$ and $r \in R$, $x_i + y_i \in I_i$ and $rx_i \in I_i$ for all $i \leq n$, so S is a submodule. □

   (b) $S = \{(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) | x_i \in R \text{ and } x_1 + x_2 + ... + x_n = 0\}$

   Proof. Clearly, $0 \in S$. For any $(x_1, ..., x_n), (y_1, ..., y_n) \in S$ and $r \in R$, $x_1 + ... + x_n + y_1 + ... + y_n = 0$ and $r(x_1 + ... + x_n)$, so S is a submodule. □

5. For any left ideal I of R define

$$IM = \left\{ \sum_{\text{finite}} a_i m_i | a_i \in I, m_i \in M \right\}$$

   to be the collection of all finite sums of elements of the form am where $a \in I$ and $m \in M$. Prove that IM is a submodule of M.

   Proof. Clearly? The empty sum is finite, so $0 \in IM$. The sum of two finite sums is finite, so IM is closed under sums, and for any $r \in R$ $r \sum a_i m_i = \sum r a_i m_i \in IM$ because $ra_i \in I$ for all I, so IM is also closed under action by R. □

6. Show that intesection of any nonempty collection of submodules of an R-module is a submodule.

   Proof. $\{M_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in J}$ be a nonempty collection of R-modules and let $M = \bigcap_{\alpha \in J} M_\alpha$. Then if $m_1, m_2 \in M$ and $r \in R$, $m_1 + m_2 \in M$ and $rm_1 \in M$ since $m_1 + m_2, rm_2 \in M_i$ for all $i \leq J$. □

8. An element of the R-module M is called a *torsion element* if $rm = 0$ for some nonzero element $r \in R$. The set of torsion elements is denoted

$$\mathrm{Tor}(M) = \{m \in M | rm = 0, r \in R \setminus \{0\}\}$$

(a) Prove that if R is an integral domain then $\mathrm{Tor}(M)$ is a submodule of M (called the *torsion submodule*).

Proof. Let $x, y \in \mathrm{Tor}(M)$ and $r, s \in R$ such that $rx = sy = 0$. Then for any arbitrary $t \in R$, if $t = 0$, then $x + ty = x \in \mathrm{Tor}(M)$, and otherwise, $rs \neq 0$, but $rs(x + ty) = s(rx) + rt(sy) = 0$, so $\mathrm{Tor}(M)$ is a submodule. □

(b) Give an example of a ring R and an R-module M such that $\mathrm{Tor}(M)$ is not a submodule of M.

Consider $R = \mathcal{M}^{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$, the ring of 2×2 matrices over $\mathbb{R}$ as a 1-dimensional module, M. If $x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then $xy = 0$, so $x, y \in \mathrm{Tor}(M)$. However, $x + y = I \notin \mathrm{Tor}(M)$.

(c) If R has zero divisors, show that every nonzero R-module has nonzero torsion elements.

Proof. Suppose that $a, b \in R$ are 0-divisors such that $ab = 0$. Then if M is a nonzero R-module and $m \in M$, then $bm \in M$, and $a(bm) = 0$, so $bm \in \mathrm{Tor}(M)$. □

9. If N is a submodule of M, the *annihilator of* N *in* R is defined to be

$$\mathrm{Ann}_R(N) = \{r \in R | rn = 0 \text{ for all } n \in N\}$$

Prove that the annihilator of N in R is a 2-sided ideal of R.

Proof. $\mathrm{Ann}_R(N)$ is closed under addition since if $r, s \in \mathrm{Ann}_R(N)$, then $(r + s)n = 0 + 0 = 0$. For any $t \in R$, $trn = t0 = 0$, so $\mathrm{Ann}_R(N)$ is a left ideal. Moreover, since N is a submodule and $t \in R$, $tn \in N$, and since r is an annihilator, $r(tn) = rt(n) = 0$, so $\mathrm{Ann}_R(N)$ is also a right ideal. □

15. If M is a finite abelian group then M is naturally a Z-module. Can this action be extended to make M into a $\mathbb{Q}$-module?

Observe that under the natural $\mathbb{Z}$-action, there is a $z \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $zm = 0$ for each $m \in M$. Then by exercise 3, z cannot have a left inverse, so the $\mathbb{Z}$-action cannot be extended to $\mathbb{Q}$.

18. Let $F = \mathbb{R}$, let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, and let T be the linear transformation from V to V which is rotation clockwise about the origin by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians. Show that V and 0 are the only $F[x]$-submodules for this T.

Proof. If U, a submodule of V, has any nontrivial vector v, it also has Tv, which is orthogonal to v. Hence, U has at least two linearly independent vectors and must be all of V. □

19. Let $F = \mathbb{R}$, let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, and let T be the linear transformation from V to V which is projection onto the y-axis. Show that V, 0, the x-axis, and the y-axis are the only $F[x]$-submodules for this T.

Proof. It is clear that each of these subspaces is indeed a submodule under the action by $F[T]$. If a submodule U contains a u that has nontrivial x and y components, then u along with Tu form a basis for V, so $U = V$. □

20. Let $F = \mathbb{R}$, let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, and let T be the linear transformation from V to V which is rotation clockwise about the origin by π radians. Show that every subspace of V is an $F[T]$-submodule.

Proof. Let U be a subspace of V. Then $TU = U$, so U is a $F[T]$-submodule. □

21. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, n > 1$ and let R be a ring of $n \times n$ matrices with entries from a field F. Let M be the set of $n \times n$ matrices with arbitrarty elements of F in the first column and zeros elsewhere. Show that M is a submodule of R when R is considered as a left module over itself, but M is not a submodule when R is considered as a right R-module.

   Proof. Clearly. For any $r \in R$ and $m \in M$, $rm \in M$, but $mr \notin M$. □

10.2 Quotient Modules and Module Homomorphisms

In these exercises R is a ring with 1 and M is a left R-module.

1. Use the submodule criterion to show that kernels and images of R-module homomorphisms are submodules.

   Proof. If $\varphi : M \to N$ is an R-module homomorphism and $x, y \in \ker \varphi$, then for any $r \in R$, $\varphi(x+ry) = \varphi(x) + r\varphi(y) = 0 + r0 = 0$, so $x + ry \in \ker \varphi$ as well. Moreover, if $x, y \in \varphi(M)$, then take any $\bar{x} \in \varphi^{-1}(x)$ and $\bar{y} \in \varphi^{-1}(y)$ and see that $\varphi(\bar{x} + r\bar{y}) = x + ry$. □

2. Show that the relation "is R-module isomorphic to" is an equivalence relation on any set of R-modules.

   Proof. Clearly. □

3. Give an explicit example of a map from one R-module to another which is a group homomorphism but not an R-module homomorphism.

   Let $R = \mathcal{M}_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$, $M = R$, and $N = \mathbb{R}^2$, with the module induced by applying A to x for any $A \in R$ and $x \in N$. Let $\varphi : M \to N$ by $\varphi(A) = (A_{1,1}, A_{2,2})$. φ is clearly a group homomorphism, but

$$\varphi\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) = \varphi\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) = (1, 0) \neq (0, 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}(0, 0)$$

4. Let A be any $\mathbb{Z}$-module, let a be any element of A and let n be a positive integer. Prove that the map $\varphi_a : \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \to A$ given by $\varphi(\bar{k}) = ka$ is a well defined $\mathbb{Z}$-module homomorphism iff $na = 0$. Prove that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A_n$, where $A_n = \{a \in A | na = 0\}$ (so A_n is the annihilator in A of the ideal (n) of $\mathbb{Z}$).

   Proof. Suppose that $k \equiv k' \mod n$, i.e., $k - k' = cn$ for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\varphi(k) = \varphi(k') \iff ka = k'a \iff ka - k'a = 0 \iff cna = 0(\text{ for all } c) \iff na = 0$$

   $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, A) \cong A_n$ because $\varphi_a(1) = a = b = \varphi_b(1)$ iff $a = b$. □

5. Exhibit all $\mathbb{Z}$-module homomorphisms from $\mathbb{Z}/30\mathbb{Z}$ to $\mathbb{Z}/21\mathbb{Z}$.

   By 10.2.4, $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathbb{Z}/30Z, \mathbb{Z}/21\mathbb{Z}) \cong \{a \in \mathbb{Z}/21\mathbb{Z} | 30a = 0\} = \{\varphi_0, \varphi_7, \varphi_{14}\}$.

6. Prove that $\mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/(n, m)\mathbb{Z}$.

   Proof. From 10.2.4 we have that $na \equiv_m 0$, so a must be a multiple of $\frac{m}{(n,m)}$. There are (n, m) such unique multiples, mod m. □

7. Let z be a fixed element in the center of R. Prove that the map $m \mapsto zm$ is an R-module homomorphism from M to itself. Show that for a commutative ring R, the map from R to $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$ given by $r \to rI$ is a ring homomorphism (where I is the identity homomorphism).

Proof. For any $x, y \in M$ and $r \in R$,

$$\varphi(x+y) = z(x+y) = zx + zy = \varphi(x) + \varphi(y) \text{ and } \varphi(rx) = zrx = rzx = r\varphi(x).$$

When R is commutative, all such maps are endomorphisms, so $r \to rI$ is clearly a ring homomorphism. ◻

9. Let R be commutative. Prove that $\mathrm{Hom}_R(R, M)$ and M are isomorphic as left R-modules.

   Proof. Let $\Psi : \mathrm{Hom}_R(R, M) \to M$ by $\Psi(\varphi) = \varphi(1)$. Then for any maps $\varphi, \psi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(R, M)$ and $r \in R$, $\Psi(\varphi + r\psi) = (\varphi + r\psi)(1) = \varphi(1) + r\psi(1) = \Psi(\varphi) + r\Psi(\psi)$, so Ψ is a module homomorphism.

   To see that Ψ is an isomorphism, consider the map $\Theta : M \to \mathrm{Hom}_R(R, M)$ defined by $\Theta(m) = r \mapsto rm$. For any $m, n \in M$ and $r \in R$, $\Theta(m + rn) = s \mapsto (m + rn)s = s \mapsto sm + rsn = \Theta(m) + r\Theta(n)$. Now for any $\varphi : R \to M$ and $m \in M$,

   $$(\Theta \circ \Psi(\varphi))(r) = \Theta(\varphi(1))(r) = (s \mapsto s\varphi(1))(r) = r\varphi(1) = \varphi(r)$$

   and

   $$(\Psi \circ \Theta)(m) = \Psi(s \mapsto sm) = 1m = m.$$

   Thus, Ψ and Θ are inverses and Ψ is an isomorphism. ◻

10. Let R be commutative. Prove that $\mathrm{Hom}_R(R, R)$ and R are isomorphic as rings.

    Proof. This is just an immediate corollary of 4.1.9. ◻

11. Let $A_1, ..., A_n$ be R-modules and let B_i be a submodule of A_i. Prove that

    $$(A_1 \times ... \times A_n)/(B_1 \times ... \times B_n) \cong (A_1/B_1) \times ... \times (A_n/B_n).$$

    Proof. We prove the claim for $n = 2$ and then the result follows for all n by induction. Let

    $$\begin{aligned} \varphi : (A_1 \times A_2) &\to (A_1/B_1) \times (A_2/B_2) \\ (x_1, x_2) &\mapsto (x_1 + B_1, x_2 + B_2) \end{aligned}$$

    For any $x_1, y_1 \in A_1$, $x_2, y_2 \in A_2$, and $r \in R$,

    $$\begin{aligned} \varphi((x_1 + ry_1, x_2 + ry_2)) &= (x_1 + ry_1 + B_1, x_2 + ry_2 + B_2) \\ &= (x_1 + B_1, x_2 + B_2) + r(y_1 + B_1, y_2 + B_2) = \varphi(x_1, x_2) + r\varphi(y_1, y_2) \end{aligned}$$

    so φ is a module homomorphism. $(x_1, x_2) \in \ker\varphi$ iff $(x_1 + B_1, x_2 + B_2) = (B_1, B_2)$ iff $(x_1, x_2) \in (B_1, B_2)$, so $\ker\varphi = (B_1, B_2)$. Surjectivity is clear, so the claim follows from the first isomorphism theorem. ◻

10.3 Generation of Modules, Direct Sums, and Free Modules

In these execises R is a ring with 1 and M is a left R-module.

1. Prove that if A and B are sets of the same cardinality, then the free modules $F(A)$ and $F(B)$ are isomorphic.

   Proof. Let $\alpha : A \to B$ be a bijection, $\iota_A : A \hookrightarrow F(A)$, and $\iota_B : B \hookrightarrow F(B)$, then $\iota_B \circ \alpha$ is a map $A \to F(B)$. Thus, by the universal property, there is a map $\varphi : F(A) \to F(B)$ such that $\varphi \circ \iota_A = \iota_B \circ \alpha$. Similarly, there is a map $\psi : F(B) \to F(A)$ such that $\psi \circ \iota_B = \iota_A \circ \alpha^{-1}$. For any $a \in A$, $\psi \circ \varphi(a) = \psi(\alpha(a)) = \alpha^{-1}(\alpha(a)) = b$. Similarly, $\varphi \circ \psi(b) = b$ for any $b \in B$. ◻

3. Show that the $F[x]$-modules in 10.1.18 and 10.1.19 are both cyclic.

Proof. In the case of 10.1.18, $T : V \to V$ is the linear transformation that is a clockwise rotation of $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians. Then $V = \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R}[T](0, 1)$ because $T(0, 1) = (1, 0)$.

In the case of 10.1.19, $T : V \to V$ is projection onto the y-axis. Then $V = \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{R}[T](1, 1)$ because $T(1, 1) = (0, 1)$. □

4. An R-module M is called a torsion module if for each $m \in M$ there is a nonzero element $r \in R$ such that $rm = 0$, where r may depend on m. Prove that every finite abelian group is a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module. Give an example of an infinite abelian group that is a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

Proof. For any finite abelia group A, $|A|a = 0$ for all $a \in A$, so A is a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module. $\mathbb{Q}$ is an example of an infinite abelian group is a torsion $\mathbb{Z}$-module. □

5. Let R be an integral domain. Prove that every finitely generated torsion R-module has a nonzero annihilator. Give an example of an R-module whose annihilator is the zero ideal.

Proof. Let M be a finitely generated torsion R-module with generators $\{x_1, ..., x_n\}$. Since M is torsion, there are nonzero $\{r_1, ..., r_m\}$ such that $r_i x_i = 0$ for all $i \leq n$. Let $r = \text{lcm}(\{r_1, ..., r_n\})$. $r \neq 0$ becausse R is an integral domain. To each r_i, there is a k_i such that $k_i r_i = r$, so $rx_i = k_i r_i x_i = 0$. For an arbitrary $m \in M$, we can write $m = a_1 x_1 + ... + a_n x_n$. Then $rm = ra_1 x_1 + ... + ra_n x_n = a_1 r x_1 + ... + a_n r x_n = 0$, so (r) annihilates M. □

$\text{Ann}(\mathbb{Q}) = (0)$.

6. Prove that if M is a finitely generated R-module that is generated by n elements then every quotient of M may be generated by n (or fewer) elements.

Proof. Let M be generated by $\{m_1, ..., m_n\}$ and let N be a submodule of M. For any $x \in M$, we can write $x = a_1 m_1 + ... + a_n m_n$. Thus, for any $x + N \in N/M$, we can write

$$x + N = a_1 m_1 + ... + a_n m_n + N = a_1 m_1 + N + ... + a_n m_n + N$$

so $\{m_1 + N, ..., m_n + N\}$ generates M/N. Some of these terms may be trivial. By this result, quotients of cyclic modules can have at most 1 generator and hence are also cyclic. □

7. Let N be a submodule of M. Prove that if both M/N and N are finitely generated, then so is M.

Proof. Let M N be generated by $\{a_1 + N, ..., a_m + N\}$ and let N be generated by $\{b_1, ..., b_n\}$. For any $x \in M$, $x + N = r_1 a_1 + ... + r_m a_m + N$ for some $r_1, ..., r_m \in R$. Let $\bar{x} = r_1 a_1 + ... + r_m a_m$ such that $x - \bar{x} = s_1 b_1 + ... + s_n b_n \in N$ for some $s_1, ..., s_n \in R$. Then $x = r_1 a_1 + ... + r_m a_m + s_1 b_1 + ... + s_n b_n$, so $\{a_1, ..., a_m, b_1, ..., b_n\}$ is a (not necessarily minimal) generating set. □

9. An R-module M is called *irreducible* if $M \neq 0$ and if 0 and M are its only submodules. Show that M is irreducible iff $M \neq 0$ and M is a cyclic module with any nonzero element as its generator.

Proof. If M is irreducible and x and y are nonzero generators of M, then $Rx = Ry = M$, so $x = y$. Thus, M is cyclic. The other way is clear. The irreducible $\mathbb{Z}$ modules must then be given by $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for any prime p. □

10. Assume R is commutative. Show that an R-module M is irreducible iff M is isomorphic to R/I where I is a maximal ideal of R.

Proof. Assume M is irreducible and define $\varphi : R \to M$ by $\varphi(r) = rm$ for some nonzero $m \in M$. $\ker \varphi$ must be maximal because M has no nontrivial quotients and φ is surjective by 10.3.9. Conversely, if $M \cong R/I$ for some maximal ideal I, then R/I is cyclic and so M is irreducible by 10.3.9. $\square$

11. Show that if M_1 and M_2 are irreducible R-modules, then any nonzero R-module homomorphism from M_1 to M_2 is an isomorphism. Deduce that if M is irreducible then $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$ is a division ring.

    Proof. Let m_1 be a nonzero element of M_1 and let $\varphi : M_1 \to M_2$ be a nontrivial homomorphism so that $\varphi(m_1) \neq 0$. Then $\varphi(m_1)$ must generate M_2 because M_2 was assumed to be irreducible. Any map that takes a generator of a cyclic module to a generator of another cyclic module is an isomorphsim. Thus, every morphism in $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$ is invertible or 0. Thus, $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$ is a division ring. $\square$

Chapter 11

Vector Spaces

11.1 Definitions and Basic Theory

4. Prove that the space of real-valued functions on the closed interval $[a, b]$ is an infinite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{R}$.

   Proof. For any two functions $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ and any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $f + \lambda g$ is also a function $[a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$. Observe that the set of monic monomials, $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x, x^2, ...\}$, is linearly independent, so $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R})$ cannot be finitely spanned. $\square$

5. Prove that the space of continuous real-valued functions on the closed interval $[a, b]$ is an infinited dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{R}$.

   Proof. See 11.1.4. $\square$

6. Let V be a vector space of finite dimension. If φ is any linear transformation from V to V prove there is an integer m such that $\varphi^m(V) \cap \ker \varphi = 0$.

   Proof. Let $U_n = \varphi^n(V)$. For any n, $\dim U_{n-1} = \dim U_n + \dim(\ker \varphi \cap U_{n-1})$. If $\dim(\ker \varphi \cap U_{n-1}) = 0$, there is nothing to show. Otherwise, $\dim U_n < \dim U_{n-1}$, and this process must eventually terminate. $\square$

11.2 The Matrix of a Linear Transformation

9. If W is a subspace of the vector space V stable under the linear transformation φ, show that φ induces linear transformations $\varphi|_W$ on W and $\tilde{\varphi}$ on V/W. If $\varphi|_W$ and $\tilde{\varphi}$ are nonsingular, prove that φ is nonsingular. Prove that the converse holds if V has finite dimension and give a counterexample when V is infinite dimensional.

   Proof. That $\varphi|_W$ is a linear transformation on W it is immediate that $\varphi|_W : W \to W$ is linear from the fact that φ stabilizes W. Let $\tilde{\varphi} : V/W \to V/W$ by $\tilde{\varphi}(x+W) = \varphi(x) + W$. $\tilde{\varphi}$ is clearly well defined since $x + W = y + W$ iff $x - y \in W$ iff $\varphi(x - y) \in W$ iff $\varphi(x) + W = \varphi(y) + W$.

   If $\varphi|_W$ and $\tilde{\varphi}$ are nonsingular, then they have inverses $\varphi|_W^{-1}$ and $\tilde{\varphi}^{-1}$. Let $\bar{\varphi} : V \to V$ be defined by $\bar{\varphi}(x + w) = \tilde{\varphi}^{-1}(x) + \varphi|_W^{-1}(w)$ for any $w \in W$ and $x \in V/W$. Then for any $x \in V$, and $w \in W$,

   $$\bar{\varphi} \circ \varphi(x + w) = \bar{\varphi}(\tilde{\varphi}(x) + \varphi|_W(x)) = x + w$$

   so $\bar{\varphi}$ is an inverse for φ. When V is finite-dimensional, nonsingularity is equivalent to invertibility, so φ^{-1} can be split as described above, giving rise to inverses for $\tilde{\varphi}$ and $\varphi|_W$. However, if V is infinite dimensional, φ may not be invertible. For example, consider the infinite dimensional vector space $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and the map $\varphi : p(x) \mapsto xp(x)$. Observe that φ is nonsingular and stabilizes $x\mathbb{R}[x]$. However, in this case $\tilde{\varphi} : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is the 0 map. $\square$

11. Let φ be a linear transformation from the finite dimensional vector space V to itself such that $\varphi^2 = \varphi$.

    (a) Prove that $\operatorname{im}\varphi \cap \ker\varphi = 0$.

    Proof. If $v \in \operatorname{im}\varphi$, then $\varphi(v) = v$, so if $v \in \ker\varphi$ as well, then $v = 0$. $\square$

    (b) Prove that $V = \operatorname{im}\varphi \oplus \ker\varphi$.

    Proof. For any $v \in V$, let $x = v - \varphi(v)$. Then $\varphi(x) = \varphi(v) - \varphi^2(v) = 0$, so $x \in \ker\varphi$ and $v \in \operatorname{im}\varphi \oplus \ker\varphi$. The claim follows since we showed that $\ker\varphi$ and $\operatorname{im}\varphi$ intersect trivially in (a). $\square$

    (c) Prove that there is a basis of V such that the matrix of φ with respect to this basis is a diagonal matrix whose entries are all 0 or 1.

    Proof. Any basis for $\operatorname{im}\varphi$ and $\ker\varphi$, put together should do the trick. $\square$

12. Let $V = \mathbb{R}^2$, $v_1 = (1,0), v_2 = (0,1)$, so that v_1, v_2 are a basis for V. Let $\varphi : V \to V$ be defined by the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Prove that if W is the subspace generated by v_1 then W is stable under action of φ. Prove that there is no subspace W' invariant under φ so that $V = W \oplus W'$.

Proof. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varphi(\lambda v_1) = \lambda\varphi(v_1) = 2\lambda v_1$ so $\varphi(W) = W$. If $V = W \oplus W'$, then $\dim W' = 1$, so $W' = \{\lambda w | \lambda \in \mathbb{R}\}$ for some $w \in V$. We right $w = \alpha v_1 + \beta v_2$, since v_1, v_2 form a basis for V. Since $\varphi(v_2) = (1,2) = v_1 + 2v_2$, $\varphi(w) = \alpha\varphi(v_1) + \beta\varphi(v_2) = (2\alpha+\beta)v_1 + 2\beta v_2$. Therefore, W' is only invariant under action by φ if $\beta = 1$, but then $V \neq W \oplus W'$. $\square$

38. Let $A \in M^{m\times m}$ and $B \in M^{n\times n}$ be square matrices. Prove that the trace of their Kronecker product is the product of their traces: $\operatorname{tr}(A \otimes B) = \operatorname{tr}(A)\operatorname{tr}(B)$.

Proof. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{kl})$. Then

$$\operatorname{tr}(A \otimes B) = \sum_{i \leq m} a_{ii} \operatorname{tr}(B) = \operatorname{tr}(A)\operatorname{tr}(B)$$

$\square$

11.3 Dual Vector Spaces

2. Let V be the collection of polynomials with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$ in the variable x of degree at most 5 with $1, x, x^2, ..., x^5$ as a basis. Prove that the following are elements of the dual space of V and express them as linear combinations of the dual basis: Let $v_i : V \to \mathbb{Q}$ by $v_i(x^j) = 1$ if $i = j$ and zero otherwise.

    (a) $E : V \to \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $E(p(x)) = p(3)$.

    $$E = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq 5} 3^i v_i$$

    (b) $\varphi : V \to \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $\varphi(p(x)) = \int_0^1 p(t)dt$.

    $$\varphi = \sum_{0 \leq i \leq 5} \frac{v_i}{i+1}$$

(c) $\varphi : V \to \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $\varphi(p(x)) = \int_0^1 t^2 p(t)dt$.

$$\varphi = \sum_{0 \le i \le 5} \frac{v_i}{i+3}$$

(d) $\varphi : V \to \mathbb{Q}$ defined by $\varphi(p(x)) = p'(5)$.

$$\varphi = \sum_{1 \le i \le 5} i v_{i-1}$$

3. Let S be any subset of V^* for some finite dimensional space V. Define $\mathrm{Ann}(S) = \{v \in V | f(v) = 0 \text{ for all } f \in S\}$ called the *annihilator of* S in V.

   (a) Prove that $\mathrm{Ann}(S)$ is a subspace of V.

   Proof. For any $v, w \in \mathrm{Ann}(S)$, $f \in S$, and any $\lambda \in K$ (the ground field of V),

   $$f(v + \lambda w) = f(v) + \lambda f(w) = 0$$

   so $\mathrm{Ann}(S)$ is indeed a subspace of V. □

   (b) Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^*. Prove that $\mathrm{Ann}(W_1 + W_2) = \mathrm{Ann}(W_1) \cap \mathrm{Ann}(W_2)$ and $\mathrm{Ann}(W_1 \cap W_2) = \mathrm{Ann}(W_1) + \mathrm{Ann}(W_2)$.

   Proof. Clearly. □

   (c) Let W_1 and W_2 be subspaces of V^*. Prove that $W_1 = W_2$ iff $\mathrm{Ann}(W_1) = \mathrm{Ann}(W_2)$.

   Proof. Immediate from (d). □

   (d) Prove that the annihilator of S is the same as the annihilator of the subspace of V^* spanned by S.

   Proof. Let $W = \operatorname{span} S$. That $\mathrm{Ann}(W) \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}(S)$ is trivial. Conversely, let $w \sum \lambda_i s_i \in W$ where each $s_i \in S$ and $\lambda_i \in K$. Then for any $v \in \mathrm{Ann}(S)$,

   $$w(v) = \sum \lambda s_i(v) = 0$$

   so $v \in \mathrm{Ann}(W)$ as well. □

   (e) Assume V is finite dimensional with basis $v_1, ..., v_n$. Prove that if $S = \{v_1^*, ..., v_k^*\}$ for some $k \le n$, then $\mathrm{Ann}(S) = \operatorname{span}\{v_{k+1}, ..., v_n\}$.

   Proof.
   $$v \in \mathrm{Ann}(S) \iff v_i^*(v) = 0 \text{ for all } i \le k \iff v \in \operatorname{span}\{v_{k+1}^*, ..., v_n^*\}.$$

   □

   (f) Assume V is finite dimensional. Prove that if W^* is any subspace of V^* then $\dim \mathrm{Ann}(W^*) = \dim V - \dim W^*$.

   Proof. Pick a basis $v_1^*, ..., v_k^*$ for W^* and extend it to a basis $v_1^*, ..., v_n^*$ for V^*. Then the claim follows immediately from (e). □

4. If V is infinite dimensional with basis $\mathcal{A}$, prove that $\mathcal{A}^* = \{v^* | v \in \mathcal{A}\}$ does *not* span V^*.

Proof. Define $f : V \to K$ by

$$f\left(\sum_{v_n \in \mathcal{A}} \alpha_n v_n\right) = \sum_{v_n \in \mathcal{A}} \alpha_n$$

Note that f is well defined since $v \in V$ will always be a finite sum of components of $\mathcal{A}$. However, f can clearly not be written as a finite sum of components of $\mathcal{A}^*$. □

11.4 Determinants

3. Let R be any commutative ring with 1, let V be an R-module and let $x = (x_i)_{i \leq n} \in V$. Assume that for some $A \in M_{n \times n}(R)$, $Ax = 0$. Prove that $(\det A)x_i = 0$ for all $i \leq n$.

   Proof. If $\det A = 0$, the claim is trivial. Otherwise, note that $B = \sum x_i A_i = Ax = 0$ where A_i are the columns of A. Then by Cramer's Rule, $x_i \det A = \det(A_1, ..., A_{i-1}, 0, A_{i+1}, ..., A_n) = 0$. $\square$

Chapter 12

Modules over Pricipal Ideal Domains

12.1 The Basic Theory

1. Let M be a module over the integral domain R.

   (a) Suppose x is a nonzero torsion element in M. Show that x and 0 are "linearly dependent." Conclude that the rank of $\operatorname{Tor}(M)$ is 0, so that in particular any torsion R-module has free rank 0.

   Proof. If $x \in \operatorname{Tor}(M)$, there is a nonzero $r \in R$ such that $rx = rx + 0 = 0$, so it is immediate that x and 0 are linearly dependent. Moreover, if $y \in \operatorname{Tor}(M)$ as well with annihilator s, then $rx + sy = 0$, so there are no linearly independent torsion elements of $\operatorname{Tor}(M)$. □

   (b) Show that the rank of M is the same as the rank of the (torsion free) quotient $M/\operatorname{Tor}(M)$.

   Proof. $\operatorname{rank} M/\operatorname{Tor}(M) = \operatorname{rank} M - \operatorname{rank} \operatorname{Tor}(M) = \operatorname{rank} M$. □

2. Let M be a module over the integral domain R.

   (a) Suppose that M has a rank n and that $x_1, ..., x_n$ is any maximal set of linearly independent elements of M. Let $N = Rx_1 + ... + Rx_n$ be the submodule generated by $x_1, ..., x_n$. Prove that N is isomorphic to R^n and that the quotient M/N is a torsion R-module (equivalently, the elements $x_1, ..., x_n$ are linearly independent and for any $y \in M$ there is a nonzero $r \in R$ such that ry can be written as a linear combination $r_1x_1 + ... + r_nx_n$ of the x_i).

   Proof. Note that N has n linearly independent elements, so it has rank n, as it is a submodule of M, a rank n R-module. Moreover, N must be torsion free, as it is generated entrirely by non-torsion elements. Hence $N \cong R^n$. It follows that $\operatorname{rank} M/N = \operatorname{rank} M - \operatorname{rank} N = 0$, so M/N is torsion. □

   (b) Prove conversely that if M contains a submodule N that is free of rank n such that the quotient M/N is torsion, then M has rank n.

   Proof. Let $y_1, ..., y_{n+1}$ be any $n+1$ elements of M and let $x_1, ..., x_n$ be a basis for N. Since M/N is torsion, there is an $r_i \in R$ to each y_i such that $r_iy_i = a_1x_1 + ... + a_nx_n$ for some $a_i \in R$. Thus, it is clear that the r_iy_i are linearly independent, and so too are the y_i. □

5. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and let $M = (2, x)$ be the ideal generated by 2 and x, considered as a submodule of R. Show that $\{2, x\}$ is not a basis for M. Show that the rank of M is 1, but its free rank is not 1.

   Proof. Observe that $2 \in M$ and $-x \in M$, so 2 and x are linearly dependent since $-x(2) + 2(x) = 0$.

   Let $x_1 = \alpha_1(2)+\beta_1(x)$ and $x_2 = \alpha_2(2)+\beta_2(x)$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly, for any $a, b \in M\backslash\{0\}$, $b(a) - a(b) = 0$, so no two nontrivial elements are linearly independent. However, for any $m, n \in M$,

$ma + n0 = 0$ iff $m = 0$, so nontrivial vectors are linearly independent form 0, hence rank $M = 1$. If M had a free rank of 1, it would be isomorphic to R, i.e., $M = aR$ for some $a \in R$. If so, then we have $ar = 2$ for some $r \in R$. Thus, $a \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$, but clearly, $a \neq \pm 1$, since $M \neq R$. However if $a = 2$, then $x = 2r$ for some $r \in R$, but no such r exists. Thus, M does not have free rank 1. $\square$

6. Show that if R is an integral domain and M is any nonprincipal ideal of R then M is torsion free of rank 1 but is not a free R-module.

Proof. This is just a generalization of exercise 5. $\square$

7. Let R be any ring, let $A_1, ..., A_m$ be R-modules and let B_i be a submodule of A_i, $1 \leq i \leq m$. Prove that
$$(A_1 \oplus ... \oplus A_m)/(B_1 \oplus ... \oplus B_m) \cong (A_1/B_1) \oplus ... \oplus (A_m/B_m).$$

Proof. For convenience, let $\mathcal{A} = A_1 \oplus ... \oplus A_m$, $\mathcal{B} = B_1 \oplus ... \oplus B_m$, and $\mathcal{Q} = (A_1/B_1) \oplus ... \oplus (A_m/B_m)$. We define
$$\varphi : \mathcal{A}/\mathcal{B} \to \mathcal{Q} \text{ by } \varphi : (a_1, ..., a_m) + \mathcal{B} \mapsto (a_1 + B_1, ..., a_m + B_m)$$
$\square$

Suppose that $\alpha + \mathcal{B} = (a_1, ..., a_m) + \mathcal{B} = \alpha' + B = (a'_1, ..., a'_m) + B$. Then there is a $\beta = (b_1, ..., b_m) \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $\alpha - \alpha' = \beta$. Then for each i $a_i - a'_i = b_i \in B_i$, so $\varphi(\alpha + \mathcal{B}) = \varphi(\alpha' + \mathcal{B})$, i.e., φ is well defined. Reversing this argument shows that φ is injective, and clearly φ is surjective.

9. Give an example of an integral domain R and a nonzero torsion R-module M such that $\text{Ann}(M) = 0$. Prove that if N is any finitely generated torsion R-module, then $\text{Ann}(N) \neq 0$.

Proof. Consider $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module. $\text{Ann}(\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ since for any $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, simply pick s, corime to r, and see that $rs \neq 0$.

When N is a finitely generated torsion R-module, simply let $r = r_1 ... r_m$ where $r_i a_i = 0$ for each generator a_i. Then $ra_i = 0$ for all a_i, and hence $r \in \text{Ann}(N)$. $\square$

13. If M is a finitely generated module over the P.I.D. R, describe the structure of $M/\operatorname{Tor}(M)$.

$M/\operatorname{Tor}(M)$ will be a free R-module with the same rank as the free rank of M.

15. Prove that if R is a Noetherian ring then R^n is a Noetherian R-module.

Proof. We proceed by induction on n. In the base case, when $n = 1$, the claim is trivial. Assume that R^n is a Noetherian module for some $n \geq 1$. Consider the set $N = \{(x_1, ..., x_n) | (x_1, ..., x_n, a) \in M \text{ for some } a \in R\}$. It is easy to see that $N \subseteq R^n$ is a submodule since $r(x_1, ..., x_n, a) = (rx_1, ..., rx_n, ra) \in M$. Since R^n is Noetherian, N is finitely generated by $m_1, ..., m_k$. We abuse notation and append a 0 as the last coordinate of each m_i, so we can think of m_i as an element of R^{n+1}.

Let $A = \{(0, ..., 0, a) | (x_1, ..., x_n, a) \in M \text{ for some } x_1, ..., x_n \in R\}$ and note that A can be thought of as a submodule of R if we ignore the leading zeros. Hence, A is also finitely generated by some $a_1, ..., a_l$. Now note that $M \subseteq N + A$, so every $m \in M$ can be written as an R-linear combination of m_i's and a_j's. Thus, M is finitely generated, and so R^{n+1} is a Noetherian module. Hence, by induction, R^n is a Noetherian module for any n. $\square$

12.2 The Rational Canonical Form

1. Prove that similar linear transformations of V (or $n \times n$ matrices) have the same characteristic and the same minimal polynomial.

   Proof. If $\sigma, \tau : V \to V$ are similar, they have the same eigenvalues and multiplicities. Since the characteristic polynomial of a linear transformation is that which has the eigenvalues with their respective multiplicities at roots, σ and τ must have the same characteristic polynomial. If the similarity between σ and τ is witnessed by $\varphi : V \to V$, so that $\varphi\sigma\varphi^{-1} = \tau$, then for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\alpha \in F$, $\alpha(\varphi\sigma\varphi^{-1})^k = \varphi(\alpha\sigma^k)\varphi^{-1}$. Therefore, if $m_\sigma(x)$ is the minimal polynomial for σ, then by linearity,

   $$m_\sigma(\tau) = m_\sigma(\varphi\sigma\varphi^{-1}) = \varphi m_\sigma(\sigma)\varphi^{-1} = 0$$

   and since $m_\sigma(x)$ is irreducible, it must be the minimal polynomial for τ as well. $\square$

3. Prove that two 2×2 matrices over F which are not scalar matrices are similar if and only if they have the same characteristic polynomial.

   Proof. We have already showed that if A and B are similar, their minimal and characteristic polynomials are equal. Conversely, if $c_A(x) = c_B(x)$ and A and B are not scalar, then $c_A(x)$ and $c_B(x)$ must have two invariant factors. That is, $m_A(x) = m_B(x) = c_A(x) = c_B(x)$, and so A and B share a rational canonical form (and are both similar to it). $\square$

4. Prove that two 3×3 matrices are similar if and only if they have the same characteristic and same minimal polynomials.

   Proof. We have already showed that if A and B are similar, their minimal and characteristic polynomials are equal. Conversely, if $c_A(x) = c_B(x)$ and A and B are not scalar, then $c_A(x)$ and $c_B(x)$ must have two or three invariant factors. Either way, the rational canonical form is fully determined, and A and B are both similar to it.

   If A and B are 4×4, this does not necessarily hold. For example, if

   $$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & & \\ & \lambda & & \\ & & 0 & -\lambda^2 \\ & & 1 & 2\lambda \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\lambda^2 & & \\ 1 & 2\lambda & & \\ & & 0 & -\lambda^2 \\ & & 1 & 2\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

   then $m_A(x) = m_B(x) = (x - \lambda)^2$ and $c_A(x) = c_B(x) = (1 - \lambda)^4$, but these matrices are already in rational canonical form, and so it is easy to see they are not similar. $\square$

5. Prove directly from the fact that the collection of *all* linear transformartions of an n dimensional vector space V over F to itself form a vector space over F of dimension n^2 that the minimal polynomial of a linear transformation T has degree at most n^2.

   Proof. Notice that the collection $\{T^0, T^1, ..., T^{n^2}\} \subseteq \mathrm{End}(V)$ has $n^2 + 1$ elements and so they must be F-linearly *dependent*. Thus, there are $a_0, ..., a_{n^2} \in F$ such that $a_{n^2}T^{n^2} + ... + a_0 = 0$. Now we can easily see that the polynomial $f(x) = a_{n^2}x^{n^2} + ... + a_0$ annihilates T, so that it is an upper bound for $m_T(x)$ (in terms of degree). $\square$

6. Prove that the constant term in the characteristic polynomial of the $n \times n$ matrix A is $(-1)^n \det A$ and that the coefficient of x^{n-1} is the negative of the sum of the diagonal entries of A (called the *trace*). Prove that $\det A$ is the product of the eigenvalues of A and that the trace of A is the sum of the eigenvalues of A.

Proof. The constant term of any polynomial is given by its evaluation at 0. Hence

$$a_0 = c_A(0) = \det(0I - A) = (-1)^n \det A.$$

Since $c_A(x) = c'_A(x)$ if A and A' are similar, we need only consider the case in which A is in rational canonical form. In that case, if $\alpha_i(x) = a_{i,n}a^n + a_{i,n-1}a^{n-1} + ... + a_{i,0}$ for $i \in \{1, ..., k\}$ are the invariant factors, the only non-zero terms on the diagonal of A will be the $a_{i,n-1}$ for each i. Moreover, since $c_A(x) = \prod_{i\leq k} \alpha_i(x)$, we have that the $n-1^{th}$ coefficient of $c_A(x)$ is given by $\sum_{i\leq k} a_{i,n-1} = \operatorname{tr} A$. Eigenvalues are the roots of the characteristic polynomial c_A, so it is clear that their sum is the $n-1^{th}$ coefficient and their product the 0^{th}. □

11. Find all similarity classes of 6×6 matrices over $\mathbb{C}$ with the characteristic polynomial $(x^4 - 1)(x^2 - 1)$.

Proof. Note that $(x^4 - 1)(x^2 - 1) = (x - 1)^2(x + 1)^2(x + i)(x - i)$. The highest multiplicity is 2, so each class can have at most 2 invariant factors. The following options are possible:

(i) $a_1(x) = (x - 1)(x + 1)$, $a_2(x) = x^4 - 1$ in which case the similarity class is represented by:

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

(ii) $a_1(x) = (x - 1)$, $a_2(x) = (x + 1)(x^4 - 1) = x^5 + x^4 - x - 1$ in which case the similarity class is represented by:

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

(iii) $a_1(x) = (x + 1)$, $a_2(x) = (x - 1)(x^4 - 1) = x^5 - x^4 - x + 1$ in which case the similarity class is represented by:

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

(iv) $a_1(x) = (x^2 - 1)(x^4 - 1) = x^6 - x^4 - x^2 + 1$ in which case the similarity class is represented by:

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

□

17. Determine the representatives for the conjugacy classes for $\mathrm{GL}_3(\mathbb{F}_2)$.

Matrices will be determined by the characteristic and minimal polynomial. There are four degree 3 polynomials over $\mathbb{F}_2$ which do not vanish at 0. $(x+1)^3$ can have itself as a minimal polynomial or $x+1$ or x^2+1. The others, x^3+1, x^3+x^2+1, and x^3+x+1 must each also be the minimal polynomial when they are the characteristic polynomial.

18. Let V be a finite dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{Q}$ and suppose T is a nonsingular linear transformation of V such that $T^{-1} = T^2 + T$. Prove that the dimension of V is divisible by 3. If the dimension is precisely 3, prove that all such tranformations T are similar.

Proof. Multiplying both sides by T, we get that $T^3+T^2-1=0$. x^3+x^2-1 is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$, so it is the minimal polynomial $m_T(x)$. $m_T(x)$ must divide the characterisitic polynomial $c_T(x)$ and $c_T(x)$ can have no factors that do not divide $m_T(x)$, so its only factor is $m_T(x)$. If the dimension of V is exactly 3, then $m_T(x) = c_T(x)$ and linear transformations in three-dimensional spaces are determined by their minimal and characteristic polynomials. □

12.3 The Jordan Canonical Form

2. Prove that if $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of the $n \times n$ matric A then $\lambda_1^k, ..., \lambda_n^k$ are eigenvalues of the matrix A^k for any $k \geq 0$.

Proof. A and A' have the same eigenvalues if they are similar, so we only need to consider when A is in Jordan Canonical form. In that case, the diagonal of A^k will clearly be given by the diagonal of A raised to the k pointwise, and since the eigenvalues are on the diagonal in the Jordan Canonical form, the claim follows. □

17. Prove that any matrix A is similar to its transpose A^T.

Proof. Let

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \iddots & \\ 1 & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

then $TAT^{-1} = A^T$ □

18. Determine all possible Jordan canonical forms for a linear transformation with characteristic polynomial $c_A(x) = (x-2)^3(x-3)^2$.

Proof.

$$J_A \in \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 & & & & \\ & 2 & & & \\ & & 2 & & \\ & & & 3 & \\ & & & & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & & & \\ & 2 & & & \\ & & 2 & & \\ & & & 3 & \\ & & & & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & & & \\ & 2 & 1 & & \\ & & 2 & & \\ & & & 3 & \\ & & & & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \ldots, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & & & \\ & 2 & 1 & & \\ & & 2 & & \\ & & & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

□

20. Show that the following matrices are similar in $M_p(\mathbb{F}_p)$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof. The matrix on the left is in rational canonical form and has characteristic polynomial $x^p - 1 = (x-1)^p$, and so its only eigenvalue is 1 with multiplicity p. The matrix on the right is in Jordan canonical form, and so it is easy to see that its only elementary divisor is $(x-1)^p$. □

21. Show that if $A^2 = A$ then A is similar to a diagonal matrix which has only 0's and 1's along the diagonal.

    Proof. Without loss of generality, assume that A is in Jordan canonical form. First, we notice that if λ is an eigenvalue for A, then λ^2 is an eigenvalue for A^2 since $A^2 v = AAv = A\lambda v = \lambda A v = \lambda^2$. The only numbers for which $\lambda^2 = \lambda$ are 0 and 1, so the diagonal entries can only be those. It is easy to see that A cannot have any non-diagonal blocks since

    $$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

    □

22. Prove that an $n \times n$ matrix A with entries from $\mathbb{C}$ satifying $A^3 = A$ can be diagonalized. Is the same statement true over *any* field?

    Proof. If $A^3 = A$, then $A^2 = I$, so $m_A(x) = x^2 - 1$ is the minimal polynomial for A (unless A is $0, I$, or $-I$, in which case there is nothing to show). Since $m_A(x)$ has no repeated roots in $\mathbb{C}$, A is diagonalizable. In $\mathbb{F}_2$, $m_A(x)$ does have repeated roots, and so A need not be diagonalizable. For example:

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

    □

23. Suppose A is a 2×2 mtrix with entries from $\mathbb{Q}$ for which $A^3 = I$ but $A \neq I$. Write A in rational canonical form and in Jordan Canonical form viewed as a matrix over $\mathbb{C}$.

    Proof. We have that $A^3 - I = (A-I)(A^2 + A + I) = 0$ and $A \neq I$, so $m_A(x) = x^2 + x + 1$ is the minimal polynomial for A. Since $m_A(x)$ is degree 2, it is also the characteristic polynomial. Letting ω be a primitive 3^{rd} root of unity, we have:

    $$R_A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } J_A = \begin{pmatrix} \omega & 0 \\ 0 & \omega^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

    □

25. Determine the Jordan canonical form for the $n \times n$ matrix A over $\mathbb{Q}$ whose entries are all equal to 1.

    Proof. Using row and column operations, we get that J_A has all 0s except for a 1 in the bottom or top corner, depending on convention. □

26. Determine the Jordan canonical form for the $n \times n$ matrix A over $\mathbb{F}_p$ whose entries are all equal to 1.

    Proof. Note that A^2 has all n for all of its entries. If p divides n, then x^2 is the minimal polynomial and so J_A has 0s everywhere except a single 1 above the diagonal. If p does not divide n, then we get the same answer as in 12.3.25. □

31. Let N be an $n \times n$ matrix with coefficients in the field F. The matrix N is said to be nilpotent if $N^k = 0$ for some k. Prove that any nilpotent matrix is similar to a block diagonal matrix whose blocks are matrices with 1's along the first superdiagonal and 0's elsewhere.

Proof. The minimal polynomial is $m_N(x) = x^k$, and so the characteristic polynomial is $c_N(x) = x^n$. Since all eigenvalues are 0, J_A will have 0's along the diagonal. If v is an eigenvector for N, then $Nv = 0$, so $v \in \ker N$. Therefore, at least one v has geometric multiplicity greater than 1 unless $k = 1$, in which case $N = 0$. □

32. Prove that N is an $n \times n$ nilpotent matrix then in fact $N^n = 0$.

    Proof. As stated above, $m_N(x) = x^k$, so $c_N(x) = x^n$. □

34. Prove that the trace of a nilpotent $n \times n$ matrix is 0.

    Proof. This is immediate from 12.3.31 and the definition of the trace. □

Chapter 13

Field Theory

13.1 Basic Theory of Field Extensions

3. Show that $x^3 + x + 1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}_2$ and let θ be a root. Compute the powers of θ in $\mathbb{F}_2(\theta)$.

   Proof. Since the polynomial is degree three, it is irreducible only if it has a root. F_2 has only 0 and 1 as elements, so it is easy enough to show that neither is a root. There is no simplification for θ or θ^2. $\theta^3 = 1 + \theta$. $\theta^4 = \theta + \theta^2$. $\theta^5 = 1 + \theta + \theta^2$. $\theta^6 = 1 + \theta^2$. $\theta^7 = \theta^0 = 1$. ☐

5. Suppose α is a rational root of a monic polynomial f in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Prove that α is an integer.

   Proof. Let $\alpha = \frac{p}{q}$ for some $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(p, q) = 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n + c_{n-1}\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n-1} + ... + c_1\frac{p}{q} + c_0 &= 0 \\ p^n + qc_{n-1}p^{n-1} + ... + q^{n-1}c_1p + c_0q^n &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

   So q divides p, but since $(p, q) = 1$, q is 1. ☐

7. Prove that $f(x) = x^3 - nx + 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$ for $n \neq -1, 3, 5$.

   Proof. If $f(x)$ is reducible, then it has a root. If $f(\alpha) = 0$, then $\alpha(n - \alpha^2) = 2$, so α divides 2. If $\alpha = -1$, then $n = -1$. If $\alpha = 1$, then $n = 3$. If $\alpha = 2$, then $n = 5$. If $\alpha = -2$, then $n = 3$. These are the only cases in which f has roots. ☐

13.2 Algebraic Extensions

3. Determine the minimal polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}$ for the element $\alpha = 1 + i$.

   Proof. We want $x = 1 + i$, so $x - 1 = i$ and $(x - 1)^2 = -1$, so $m_\alpha(x) = x^2 - 2x + 1$. ☐

4. Determine the degree over $\mathbb{Q}$ of $\alpha = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ and of $\beta = 1 + \sqrt[3]{2} + \sqrt[3]{4}$. In the case of α, we want $x = 2 + \sqrt{3}$ to be a root, so $(x - 2)^2 = 3$ and $m_\alpha(x) = x^2 - 4x + 1$, so α is degree 2. We notice that

$$\beta = 1 + \sqrt[3]{2} + \sqrt[3]{4} = \frac{(1 - \sqrt[3]{2})(1 + \sqrt[3]{2} + \sqrt[3]{2}^2)}{1 - \sqrt[3]{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2} - 1}$$

   so we can see that $m_{\beta^{-1}}(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 3x - 1$. Since β and β^{-1} have the same degree, the degree of β is 3.

5. Let $F = \mathbb{Q}(i)$. Prove that $x^3 - 2$ and $x^3 - 3$ are irreducible over F.

   Proof. Both of these polynomials are irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by Eisentstein's Criterion. The extension $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, for α a root of either, would be degree 3. Since $\mathbb{Q}(i)$ is degree 2, $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \cap \mathbb{Q}(i) = \mathbb{Q}$ when considered as subfields of $\mathbb{C}$. Thus, the polynomials do not have roots in $\mathbb{Q}(i)$ and so are irreducible. $\square$

10. Determine the degree of the extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3 + 2\sqrt{2}})$ over $\mathbb{Q}$.

    We notice that $\sqrt{3 + 2\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2 + 2\sqrt{2} + 1} = \sqrt{(\sqrt{2} + 1)^2} = \sqrt{2} + 1$, so the extension is of degree 2.

12. Suppose the dergee of the extension K/F is a prime p. Show that any subfield E of K containing F is either K or F.

    Proof. We have $p = [K : F] = [K : E][E : F]$, so $[K : E] = 1$ or $[E : F] = 1$. $\square$

13. Suppose $F = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$, where $\alpha_i^2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ for each i. Prove that $\sqrt[3]{2} \notin F$.

    Proof. $[F : \mathbb{Q}]$ must be even, but $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is of odd degree. $\square$

14. Prove that if $[F(\alpha) : F]$ is odd then $F(\alpha) = F(\alpha^2)$.

    Proof. Suppose not. Then $[F(\alpha) : F(\alpha^2)] = 2$ and $[F(\alpha) : F] = [F(\alpha) : F(\alpha^2)][F(\alpha^2) : F]$, but this contradicts that $[F(\alpha) : F]$ is odd. $\square$

16. Let K/F be an algebraic extension and let R be a ring contained in K and containing F. Show that R is a subfield of K.

    Proof. Let $\alpha \in R$. Then α is a root of some polynomial $f(x) = a_n x^n + ... + a_0$ with coefficients in F. Then $\alpha^{-1} = \frac{-1}{a_0}(a_n \alpha^{n-1} + ... + a_1) \in K$. But $\frac{-1}{a_0} \in R$ because $F \subseteq R$ and $\alpha^k \in R$ for any k because $\alpha \in R$. Therefore, $\alpha^{-1} \in R$ as well; *i.e.*, R is a field. $\square$

19. Let K be an extension of F of degree n.

    (a) For any $\alpha \in K$ prove that α acting by multiplication on K is an F-linear trasnformation of K.

    Proof. We consider K as an n-dimensional vector space over F. Then for any $x, y \in K$ and $\lambda \in F$, $\alpha(x + \lambda y) = \alpha x + \alpha\lambda y$, so multiplication by α is a linear transformation. $\square$

    (b) Prove that K is isomorphic to a subfield of the ring of $n \times n$ matrices over F, so the ring of $n \times n$ matrices over F contains an isomorphic copy of *every* extension of F of degree $\leq n$.

    Proof. Fix a basis for K and let $\varphi : K \to \mathcal{M}^{n\times n}(F)$ by taking to α to the matrix representation of its linear transformation. φ is injective since $\varphi(\alpha) = 0$ iff $\alpha = 0$. Therefore, $\varphi(K) \cong K$ is a subfield of $\mathcal{M}^{n\times n}(F)$. $\square$

13.3 Classical Straightedge and Compass Constructions

4. The construction of a regular 7-gon amounts to the constructibility of $\zeta = \cos(\frac{2\pi}{7})$. We shall see later that $\cos(\frac{2\pi}{7})$ satisfies the equation $x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1 = 0$. Use this to prove that the reqular 7-gon is not constructible by compass and straightedge.

   Proof. It is enough to show that $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ since elements of $\mathbb{R}$ with degree 3 over $\mathbb{Q}$ are not contructible by compass and straightedge. If f has no zeros in $\mathbb{Z}$, then it has no zeros in $\mathbb{Q}$. It is easy to see that $f(x)$ is increasing outside of $(-2, 2)$, so its only possible integer roots are ± 1 or 0, but it can be easily varified that these are not zeros. $\square$

5. Use the fact that $\alpha = 2\cos(\frac{2\pi}{5})$ satisfies the equation $x^2 + x - 1 = 0$ to conclude that the regular 5-gon is constructible.

   Proof. Recall that the interior angle of an n-gon is given by $\frac{n-2}{n}\pi$, so it is enough to construct the point $(\cos(\frac{2\pi}{5}), \sin(\frac{2\pi}{5}))$. As α is degree 2, it is constructible. Furthermore, $\sin(\frac{2\pi}{5}) = \sqrt{1-\alpha^2}$, so it is constructible as well. □

13.4 Splitting Fields and Algebraic Closures

1. Determine the splitting field and its degree over $\mathbb{Q}$ for $f(x) = x^4 - 2$.
   $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i)$ has degree 8 over $\mathbb{Q}$.

2. Determine the splitting field and its degree over $\mathbb{Q}$ for $f(x) = x^4 + 2$.
   $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i)$ has degree 8 over $\mathbb{Q}$.

3. Determine the splitting field and its degree over $\mathbb{Q}$ for $f(x) = x^4 + x^2 + 1$.
   $f(x) = u^2 + u + 1$ where $u = x^2$. $u = \frac{-1\pm\sqrt{-3}}{2} = -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}, e^{\frac{4\pi i}{3}}$. $x = \pm e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}}, \pm e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$ has degree 2.

4. Determine the splitting field and its degree over $\mathbb{Q}$ for $f(x) = x^6 - 4$.
   Let $\omega = e^{\frac{\pi i}{3}}$. $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ has degree 6.

13.5 Separable and Inseparable Extensions

3. Prove that d divides n if and only if $x^d - 1$ divides $x^n - 1$.

   Proof. If $n = ad$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$, then

   $$x^n - 1 = (x-1)\sum_{0<j<n} x^j = \sum_{0<q<a} x^{qd} \sum_{0<r<d} x^r = (x^d - 1)\sum_{0<q<a} x^{qd}$$

   Conversely, if $n = qd + r$ for some $0 < r < d$, then $x^n - 1 = (x^n - x^r) + (x^r - 1) = x^r(x^{qd} - 1) + (x^r - 1)$. By the previous argument, $x^d - 1$ divides $x^r(x^{qd} - 1)$, but it does not divide $x^r + 1$ because $r < d$. Therefore $x^d - 1$ does not divide $x^n - 1$ □

6. Prove that

   $$x^{p^n - 1} - 1 = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^\times} (x - \alpha)$$

   so the product of the nonzero elements of a finite field is $+1$ if $p = 2$ and -1 otherwise. For p odd and $n = 1$ derive *Wilson's Theorem:* $(p-1)! \equiv_p -1$.

   Proof. Every $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^\times$ is a root for $x^{p^n-1} - 1$ since $\alpha^{p^n} = \alpha$. Since $x^{p^n-1} - 1$ has at degree $p^n - 1$, each α is a root with multiplicity 1. Therefore, for any p prime,

   $$(p-1)! = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times} (0 - \alpha) = 0^{p^n - 1} - 1 = -1$$

   and we note that $-1 = +1$ when $p = 2$. □

9. Show that the binomial coefficient $\binom{pn}{pi}$ is the coefficient of x^{pi} in the expansion of $(1+x)^{pn}$. Working over $\mathbb{F}_p$ show that this is the coefficient of $(x^p)^i$ in $(1 + x^p)^n$ and hence *pnchoosepi* $\equiv_p \binom{n}{i}$.

   Proof. This is a trivial corollary of the binomial theorem. □

13.6 Cyclotomic Polynomials and Extensions

1. Suppose m and n are relatively prime positive integers. Let ζ_m be a primitive m^{th} root of unity and let ζ_n be a primitive n^{th} root of unity. Prove that $\zeta_m\zeta_n$ is a primitive mn^{th} root of unity.

   Proof. Note that $(\zeta_m\zeta_n)^d = 1$ if and only if d is a common multiple of m and n. Since m and n are coprime, mn is the least common multiple of m and n. Therefore, $\zeta_m\zeta_n$ is not a root of $\Phi_d(x)$ for any $d|, n$, where $d < mn$. Since $\zeta_m\zeta_n$ is clearly an mn^{th} root of unity, it therefore must be a root of $\Phi_{mn}(x)$. *I.e.,* it is primitive. □

2. Let ζ_n be a primitive n^{th} root of unity and let d be a divisor of n. Prove that ζ_n^d is a primitive $(\frac{n}{d})^{th}$ root of unity.

   Proof. Let a be any divisor of $\frac{n}{d}$. Then $(\zeta_n^d)^a = \zeta_n^{da} = 1$ if and only if $a = \frac{n}{d}$ since ζ_n is primitive. Therefore, ζ_n^d is a primitive $(\frac{n}{d})^{th}$ root of unity. □

3. Prove that if a field F contains the n^{th} roots of unity for n odd then it also contains the $2n^{th}$ roots of unity.

   Proof. Let ζ_n be an n^{th} root of unity. Then $(-\zeta_n)^m = 1$ iff $m \equiv 0 \pmod{2n}$. Since negation is bijective, and n^{th} roots of unity are also $2n^{th}$ roots of unity, F contains all $2n$ such roots. □

4. Prove that if $n = p^k m$ where p is prime and m is relatively prime to p then there are precicely m distinct n^{th} roots of unity over a field of characteristic p.

   Proof. If $n = p^k m$, we have
   $$x^n - 1 = (x^m)^{p^k} - 1^{p^k} = (x^m - 1)^{p^k}$$
   in a field of characteristic p, so any n^{th} root of unity must also be an m^{th} root. As such, there are *at most* m of them. Now we notice that $D_x(x^m - 1) = mx^{m-1}$, which has only 0 as its roots. Therefore, $x^m - 1$ has no multiple roots and so there are exactly m m^{th} roots of unity. □

6. Prove that for n odd, $n > 1$, $\Phi_{2n}(x) = \Phi_n(-x)$.

   Proof. ζ_n is a primitive n^{th} root of unity iff $-\zeta_n$ is a primitive $2n^{th}$ root of unity (see 13.6.3). Thus, α is a root of $\Phi_{2n}(x)$ if and only if α is a root of $\Phi_n(-x)$. Since both of these polynomials are monic and separable, they must be equal. □

9. Suppose A is an $n \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{C}$ for which $A^k = I$ for some integer $k \geq 1$. Show that A can be diagonolized.

   Proof. Observe that the polynomial $f(x) = x^k - 1$ sends A to the zero matrix, and so it must be divisible by $m_A(x)$, the minimal polynomial for A. Therefore $m_A(x)$ is seperable, and so by Corollary 25 *[Dummit & Foote pg. 494]*, A is diagonalizable. □

10. Let φ denote the Frobenius map $x \mapsto x^p$. Prove that φ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ and that $\varphi^n = 1$.

    Proof. We already have that φ is an injective homomorphism of fields. Any injection on a finite set is bijective. Recall that the multiplicative group $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^\times$ is cyclic; let α be a generator. be a generator. Then $\alpha^{pk} = \alpha$ iff $k \equiv 0 \bmod n$. □

Chapter 14

Galois Theory

14.1 Basic Definitions

2. Let $\tau : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ by $\tau(a+bi) = a - bi$ (*complex conjugation*). Prove that $\tau \in \mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{C})$.

   Proof. Complex conjugation is an automorphism of $\mathbb{C}$ when considered as a vector space over $\mathbb{R}$. For $a+bi, c+di \in \mathbb{C}$,

   $$\tau((a+bi)(c+di)) = \tau(ac-bd+adi+bci) = ac-bd-(ad+bc)i = (a-bi)(c-di) = \tau(a+bi)\tau(b+ci)$$

   $\square$

3. Determine the fixed field of complex conjugation.

   Clearly, it is just $\mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$.

4. Prove that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ are not isomorphic.

   Proof. Suppose that $\sigma : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \to \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ is an isomorphism. Since $\sigma(1) = 1$, $\sigma(2) = 2 = \sigma((\sqrt{2})^2)$ so $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ has a square root of 2. Of course, this can't be, since we would need $\sqrt{2} = a + b\sqrt{3}$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, which would imply $2 = a^2 + 2ab\sqrt{3} + b^2$, but $\sqrt{3}$ is not rational. $\square$

6. Let k be a field.

   (a) Show that the mapping $\varphi : k[t] \to k[t]$ defined by $\varphi(f(t)) = f(at+b)$ for fixed $a, b \in k$, $a \neq 0$ is an automorphism of $k[t]$ that fixes k.

   Proof. Clearly this is a homomorphism. It fixes k tautologically, and so it is injective. It is surjective since for any $f \in k[t]$, $\varphi(\frac{f}{a} - b) = f$. $\square$

   (b) Conversely, let $\varphi \in \mathrm{Aut}(k[t])$ that fixes k. Prove that there exist $a, b \in k$ with $a \neq 0$ such that $\varphi(f(t)) = f(at+b)$.

   Proof. Isomorphisms preserve the degree of a polynomial, so if $f(x) = x$, then $\varphi(x) = ax + b$ for some $a, b \in k$. Then for an arbitrary polynomial $g(x) = a_n x^n + ... + a_0$,

   $$\varphi(g(x)) = a_n \varphi(x)^n + ... + \varphi(a_n) = a_n(ax+b)^n + ... + a_0 = g(ax+b)$$

   since φ fixes k. $\square$

7. This exercise determines $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q})$.

(a) Prove that any $\sigma \in \mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q})$ takes squares to squares and takes positive reals to positive reals. Conclude that $\sigma(a) < \sigma(b)$ for $a < b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma(x^2) = \sigma(x)^2$ so σ takes squares to squares. Since every positive real is a square, σ takes positives to positives. Therefore, if $a < b$, $\varphi(b-a) > 0$ and so $\varphi(b) > \varphi(a)$. $\square$

(b) Prove that $-\frac{1}{m} < a - b < \frac{1}{m}$ implies $\frac{1}{m} < \sigma(a) - \alpha(b) < \frac{1}{m}$ for any positive $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Conclude that σ is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$.

Proof. This is immediate from the monotonicity proved in (a), since σ fixes $-\frac{1}{m}$ and $\frac{1}{m}$. $\square$

(c) Prove that any continuous map which is the identity on $\mathbb{Q}$ is the identity map. *I.e.*, $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}) = 1$.

Proof. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$ there is a sequence $(a_n)_{n\in\omega} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ converging to x. If $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and fixes $\mathbb{Q}$, then

$$\sigma(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \sigma(a_n) = \lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = x.$$

$\square$

10. Let K be an extension of the field F. Let $\varphi : K \to K'$ be an isomorphism of K with a field K' which maps F to the subfield F' of K'. Prove that the map $\Phi : \sigma \mapsto \varphi\sigma\varphi^{-1}$ defines a group isomorphism $\mathrm{Aut}(K/F) \to \mathrm{Aut}(K'/F')$.

Proof. For $\sigma, \tau \in \mathrm{Aut}(K/F)$,

$$\Phi(\sigma\tau) = \varphi\sigma\tau\varphi^{-1} = \varphi\sigma\varphi^{-1}\varphi\tau\varphi^{-1} = \Phi(\sigma)\Phi(\tau)$$

so Φ is a homomorphism. To see that Φ is an isomorphism, we simply notice that $\Psi : \mathrm{Aut}(K'/F') \to \mathrm{Aut}(K/F)$ by $\Psi(\tau) = \varphi^{-1}\tau\varphi$ is an inverse for Φ. $\square$

14.2 The Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory

1. Determine the minimal polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}$ for the element $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5} \\ x^2 &= 2 + 2\sqrt{10} + 5 \\ (x^2 - 7)^2 &= 40 \\ x^4 - 14x^2 + 9 &= m(x) \end{aligned}$$

4. Let p be prime. Determine the elements of the Galois group of $x^p - 2$.

Proof. $x^p - 2$ has as roots $\sqrt[p]{2}\zeta_p^i$ for $0 \le i < p$ where ζ_p is a primitive p^{th} root of unity. Since the splitting field contains all of these roots, it contains $\sqrt[p]{2}$, and so it also contains each ζ_p^i. Thus, the splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[p]{2}, \zeta_p)$. Note that $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[p]{2}, \zeta_p) : \mathbb{Q}] = p(p-1)$ since p and $p-1$ are relatively prime.

Any automorphism will defined by its action on the two generators of the splitting field, and so can be contstructed by compositions of the following two automorphisms:

$$\sigma : \begin{cases} \sqrt[p]{2}\zeta_p^i & \mapsto \sqrt[p]{2}\zeta_p^{i+1} \\ \zeta_p & \mapsto \zeta_p \end{cases} \text{ and } \tau : \begin{cases} \sqrt[p]{2} & \mapsto \sqrt[p]{2} \\ \zeta_p^i & \mapsto \zeta_p^{2i} \end{cases}$$

Where multiplication and addition are mod p. Note that $\sigma\tau = \tau\sigma^{\frac{p+1}{2}}$, so we have the following presentation of the Galois group:

$$\langle \sigma, \tau | \sigma^p = \tau^{p-1} = 1, \sigma\tau = \tau\sigma^{\frac{p+1}{2}} \rangle.$$

$\square$

5. Prove that the Galois group of $x^p - 2$ for p a prime is isomorphic to the group of matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p$ and $a \neq 0$.

Proof. Let the Galois group be written as in 14.2.4 and define the following map:

$$\Phi(\sigma) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \Phi(\tau) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $\Phi(\sigma)^p = \Phi(\tau)^{p-1} = I$ and

$$\Phi(\sigma)\Phi(\tau) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{p+1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \Phi(\tau)\Phi(\sigma)^{\frac{p+1}{2}}$$

So Φ is a homomorphism. Clearly, it is injective and it is surjective since both groups have the same size. $\square$

8. Suppose K is a Galois extension of F of degree p^n for some prime p and some $n \geq 1$. Show there are Galois extensions of F contained in K of degrees p and p^{n-1}.

Proof. Let $G = \operatorname{Aut}(K/F)$, so that $|G| = p^n$. Recall that a group of order p^n has a normal subgroup of order p^k for all $0 \leq k \leq n$. In particular, there is a normal subgroup H of order p and another, I of order p^{n-1}. From the fundamental theorem of Galois theory, there are fields L and J such that $F \subseteq L \subseteq K$ and $F \subseteq J \subseteq K$ with $\operatorname{Aut}(K/L) = H$ and $\operatorname{Aut}(K/J) = I$. Moreover, L and J are Galois over F, since H and I are normal in G. $\square$

11. Suppose $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is an irreducible quartic whose splitting field L has Galois group S_4 over $\mathbb{Q}$. Let θ be a root of $f(x)$ and such that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\theta)$. Prove that K is an extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree 4 which has no proper subfields. Are there Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree 4 with no proper subfields?

Proof. We have that $[L : K] = |H| = 6$ where $H \leq S_4$ fixes K. If there were a subfield $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$, the corrseponding subgroup H' would need to contain H. Hovever, the only larger proper subgroup of S_4 is A_4 and A_4 has no subgroup of order 6.

If K/F is a degree 4 Galois extension, then its Galois group has order 4, and so it has at least 1 proper subgroup of degree 2. Hence, K has a proper subfield containing F. $\square$

13. Prove that if the Galois group of the splitting field of a cubic $f(x)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ is the cyclic group of order 3 then all the roots of the cubic are real.

Proof. Assume not, so that $f(x)$ has a complex root z. Then $\bar{x}$ is also a root of f, so the complex conjugate map $\tau \in \operatorname{Aut}(K/\mathbb{Q})$. However, τ has order 2, contradicting the hypothesis that $\operatorname{Aut}(K/\mathbb{Q})$ is cyclic of order 3. $\square$

14.3 Finite Fields

1. Factor $x^8 - x$ into irreducibles in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$.

In $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, we have

$$x^8 - x = x\Phi_1(x)\Phi_7(x) = x(x-1)(x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1)$$

In $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$

$$x^8 - x = x(x-1)(x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1) = x(x-1)(x^3 + x^2 + 1)(x^3 + x + 1)$$

3. Prove that an algebraically closed field must be infinite.

   Proof. Let F be an algebraically closed field and for the sake of contradiction, suppose it is finite with n elements. Then $f(x) = (x - x_1)...(x - x_n) + 1$ has no roots in F since $f(x) = 1$ for all $x \in F$. This contradicts the assumption that F is algebraically closed. $\square$

7. Prove that one of $2, 3$, or 6 is a square in $\mathbb{F}_p$ for every prime p. Conclude that the polynomial

$$f(x) = x^6 - 11x^4 + 36x^2 - 36 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 - 3)(x^2 - 6)$$

   has a root mod p for every prime p but has no root in $\mathbb{Z}$.

   Proof. If 2 or 3 are squares in $\mathbb{F}_p$, there is nothing to show. Otherwise, recall that $\mathbb{F}^\times$ is cyclic–let $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times$ be a generator. Every element in $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ can be written as a power of α and even powers of α are squares, so $2 = \alpha^m$ and $3 = \alpha^n$ for m and n both odd. But then $6 = \alpha^{m+n}$ and $m + n$ is even, so 6 is a square. $\square$

8. Determine the splitting field of the polynomial $f(x) = x^p - x - a$ over $\mathbb{F}_p$ where $a \neq 0$. Show explicitly that the Galois group is cyclic. Such an extension is called an *Artin-Schreier extension.*

   Proof. Let α be a root of $f(x)$. For all $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$, $x^p - x = 0$, so

$$f(\alpha) + x^p - x = \alpha^p + x^p - \alpha - x - a = (x + \alpha)^p - (x + \alpha) - a = f(x + \alpha) = 0$$

   i.e., $x + \alpha$ is also a root. Therefore, $\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha)$ contains all p roots of f, and so it is the splitting field. Let $\sigma : \mathbb{F}_p(\alpha) \to \mathbb{F}_p(\alpha)$ by $\sigma : \alpha \mapsto \alpha + 1$. It is easy to see that σ is an automorphism on $\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha)/\mathbb{F}_p$. Moreover, any automorphism of $\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha)/\mathbb{F}_p$ can be defined by where it takes α, so $\langle\sigma\rangle = \mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha)/\mathbb{F}_p)$. $\square$

9. Let $q = p^m$ be a power of the prime p and let $\mathbb{F}_q = \mathbb{F}_{p^m}$ be the finite field with q elements. Let $\sigma_q = \sigma_p^m$ be the m^{th} power of the Frobenius automorphism σ_p, called the q-Frobenius automorphism.

   (a) Prove that σ_q fixes $\mathbb{F}_q$.

   Proof. For any $x \in \mathbb{F}_q$, $\sigma_p^m(x) = x^{p^m} = x$. $\square$

   (b) Prove that every finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ of degree n is the splitting field of $x^{q^n} - x$ over $\mathbb{F}_q$, hence is unique.

   Proof. Every finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ of degree n is an extension of $\mathbb{F}_p$ of degree mn. Thus, it is the splitting field of $x^{p^{nm}} - x = x^{q^n} - x$ over $\mathbb{F}_p$, which is a subfield of $\mathbb{F}_q$. $\square$

   (c) Prove that every finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ of degree n is cyclic with σ_q as a generator.

   Proof. Let $K/\mathbb{F}_q$ be an extension of degree n. K is also an extension of F_p of degree mn and its Galois group is generated by σ_p. Since $\mathrm{Aut}(K/\mathbb{F}_q) \leq \mathrm{Aut}(K/\mathbb{F}_p)$, it must also be cyclic. σ_q fixes $\mathbb{F}_q$ and has the right order to be a generator. $\square$

   (d) Prove that the subfields of the unique extension of $\mathbb{F}_q$ of degree n are in bijective correspondence with the divisors d of n.

   Proof. This is immediate from the Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory and the fact that $\mathrm{Aut}(K/\mathbb{F}_q)$ is cyclic. $\square$

10. Prove that n divides $\varphi(p^n - 1)$.

   Proof. Recall that $\varphi(p^n - 1) = |\,\mathrm{Aut}(\langle\zeta_{p^n-1}\rangle)|$ where $\langle\zeta_{p^n-1}\rangle$ is the cyclic group of order $p^n - 1$. Recall further that $\langle\zeta_{p^n-1}\rangle \cong \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^\times$. Thus, there is a subgroup isomorphic to $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p)$, which has order n. The claim follows from Lagrange's Theorem. $\square$

14.4 Composite Extensions and Simple Extensions

1. Determine the Galois closure of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{1+\sqrt{2}})$ over $\mathbb{Q}$.

   To find the minimal polynomial

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sqrt{1+\sqrt{2}} \\ x^2 - 1 &= \sqrt{2} \\ m(x) &= x^4 - 2x^2 - 1 \\ &= (x^2 - 1 + \sqrt{2})(x^2 - 1 - \sqrt{2}) \\ &= \left(x + \sqrt{1+\sqrt{2}}\right)\left(x - \sqrt{1+\sqrt{2}}\right)\left(x + i\sqrt{-1+\sqrt{2}}\right)\left(x - i\sqrt{-1+\sqrt{2}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

   We can see that the splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{1+\sqrt{2}}, i\sqrt{-1+\sqrt{2}})$ as those are the two generators.

3. Let F be a field contained in the ring of $n \times n$ matrices over $\mathbb{Q}$. Prove that $[F : \mathbb{Q}] \leq n$.

   Proof. Since $\mathbb{Q}$ has characterisitic 0, all of its extensions are separable. Therefore, by the primitive element theorem, $F = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in F$. The minimal polynomial $m_\alpha(x)$ divides the characteristic polynomial $\chi_\alpha(x)$ since $\chi_\alpha(\alpha) = 0$. Recalling that $\deg \chi_\alpha(x) = n$, the claim follows. □

14.5 Cyclotomic Extensions and Abelian Extensions Over $\mathbb{Q}$

4. Let $\sigma_a \in \mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q})$ denote the automorphism of the cyclotomic field of n^{th} roots of unity which maps $\zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^a$ where $(a, n) = 1$ and ζ_n is a primitive n^{th} root of unity. Show that $\sigma_a(\zeta) = \zeta^a$ for *every* n^{th} root of unity.

   Proof. For any n^{th} root of unity ζ, $\zeta = \zeta_n^k$ for some $0 \leq k < n$. Then $\sigma_a(\zeta) = \sigma_a(\zeta_n^k) = \zeta_n^{ak} = \zeta^a$. □

5. Let p be a prime and let $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, ..., \epsilon_{p-1}$ denote the primitive p^{th} roots of unity. Set $p_n = \epsilon_1^n + \epsilon_2^n + ... + \epsilon_{p-1}^n$, the sum of the n^{th} powers of the ϵ_i. Prove that $p_n = -1$ if p does not divide n and that $p_n = p - 1$ if p does divide n.

   Proof. Note that
$$1 + \epsilon_1 + ... + \epsilon_{p-1} = \zeta^{p-1} + ... + \zeta + 1 = 0$$
   where ζ is *any* primitive p^{th} root of unity. When p does not divide n, ζ^n is still a primitive p^{th} root of unity, and so $p_n = -1$. Otherwise, $\zeta^n = 1$, and so $p_n = p - 1$. □

7. Show that complex conjugation restricts to the automorphism $\sigma_{-1} \in \mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q})$ of the cyclotomic field of n^{th} roots of unity. Show that the field $K^+ = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n + \zeta_n^{-1})$ is the subfield of real elements in $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$, called the *maximal real subfield of* K.

   Proof. This is a trivial property of roots of unity. In case it is not plain to see, simply write $\zeta_n = e^{\frac{2ki\pi}{n}}$ where k and n are coprime and see that $\operatorname{im} \zeta_n^{-1} = \sin(\frac{-2\pi}{n}) = -\sin(\frac{2\pi}{n}) = -\operatorname{im} \zeta_n$. The subfield of real elements of $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$ is precisely the subfield fixed by $\langle \sigma_{-1} \rangle$ and so it must have degree 2. Therefore, there can be no possible extensions betweeen $K^+/\mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q}$. □

10. Prove that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is not a subfield of any cyclotomic field over $\mathbb{Q}$.

   Proof. $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})/\mathbb{Q}) = S_3$, which is not abelian. Hence, it cannot be a subgroup of an abelian group, let alone a cyclic one. Therefore, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ cannot be extended further to a cyclotomic field. □

12. Let σ_p denote the Frobenius automorphism $x \mapsto x^p$ of the finite field $\mathbb{F}_q$ of $q = p^n$ elements. Viewing $\mathbb{F}_q$ as a vector space V of dimension n over $\mathbb{F}_p$ we can consider σ_p as a linear transformation of V to V. Determine the characteristic polynomial of σ_p and prove that σ_p is diagonalizable over $\mathbb{F}_p$ iff n divides $p-1$, and is diagonalizable over the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{F}_p$ iff $(n,p) = 1$.

    Proof. $\sigma_q = \sigma_p^n$ fixes $\mathbb{F}_q$, so $\chi_{\sigma_p}(x) = x^n - 1$ is the charactersitic polynomial form σ_p. σ_n is diagonalizable iff χ_{σ_p} factors linearly over p, which happens iff $n|p-1$ (since $\mathbb{F}_p$ has n n^{th} roots of unity in that case). Similarly, the cyclotomic polynomial Φ_n is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}_p$ iff $(p,n) = 1$, in which case the splitting field has degree n over $\mathbb{F}_p$. □

14.6 Galois Groups of Polynomials

2. Determine the Galois groups of the following polynomials:

    (a) $x^3 - x^2 - 4 = (x-2)(x^2+x+2)$. Since the quadratic is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$, the Galois group is $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

    (b) $x^3 - 2x + 4 = (x+2)(x^2-2x+2)$, so the Galois group is $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

    (c) $x^3 - x + 1$ is irreducible. $D = -4 - 27 = -23$, which is not a square, so the Galois group is S_3.

    (d) $x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1 = (x - 2\cos(\frac{2\pi}{7}))(x - 2\cos(\frac{4\pi}{7}))(x - 2\cos(\frac{6\pi}{7}))$ is also irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. The Galois group is $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

3. Prove that for any $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ that if $x^3 + ax + b$ is irreducible then $-4a^3 - 27b^2$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$. Note that the descriminant $D = -4a^3 - 27b^2$ in this case. Since the Galois group of the extension of a finite group must be cyclic, this means that the Galois group is Z_3 and so D is a square.

4. Determine the Galois group of $f(x) = x^4 - 25$.

    $f(x) = (x^2+5)(x^2-5)$, so the Galois group is $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$.

11. Let F be an extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree 4 that is not Galois over $\mathbb{Q}$. Prove that the Galois closure of F has Galois group either S_4 or A_4 or D_8. Prove that the Galois group is dihedral if and only if F contains a quadratic extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.

    Proof. F is a finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}$, so it is simple, generated by some α. Then the minimal polynomial $f(x)$ over α has degree 4 by hypothesis and the splitting field K over F will be the Galois closure. Therefore, $\text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q})$ is $S_4, A_4, D_8, V_4, or Z_4$, but $\text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q})$ must have a non-normal subgroup H of index 4, so it cannot be V_4 or Z_4. F contains a quadratic extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ iff H sits inside a subgroup of index 2. A_4 has no subgroups of index 2 and so K can't be S_4 or A_4. On the other hand, every subgroup of index 4 of D_8 sits inside of the Klein-4 group. □

17. Find the Galois group of $f(x) = x^4 - 7$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ explicitly as a permutation group on the roots.

    Proof. The roots of $f(x)$ are $\pm\sqrt[4]{7}$ and $\pm i\sqrt[4]{7}$, so the splitting field is given by $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7}, i)$. This extension is of degree 8 and its Galois group is determined by the automorphisms σ, which takes i to i and $\sqrt[4]{7}$ to $i\sqrt[4]{7}$ and τ, the complex conjugation map. Thus the Galois group is isomorphic to D_8. □

44. Let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$ be the roots of a quartic polynomial $f(x)$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Show that the quantities $\gamma_1 = \alpha_1\alpha_2 + \alpha_3\alpha_4, \gamma_2 = \alpha_1\alpha_3 + \alpha_2\alpha_4$, and $\gamma_3 = \alpha_1\alpha_4 + \alpha_2\alpha_3$ are permuted by the Galois group of $f(x)$. Conclude that these elements are the roots of a cubic polynomial with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Let $G \leq S_4$ be the Galois group of $f(x)$. Note that any transposition fixes one of the γ_i and transposes the other 2. *E.g.* $(1\,2)$ fixes γ_1 and swaps γ_2 with γ_3. Since the transpositions generate S_4, every element in S_4 and hence G permutes the γs. Let

$$g(x) = (x - \gamma_1)(x - \gamma_2)(x - \gamma_3) = x^3 - (\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3)x^2 + (\gamma_1\gamma_2 + \gamma_2\gamma_3 + \gamma_1\gamma_3)x - \gamma_1\gamma_2\gamma_3$$

Note that $\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$, $\gamma_1\gamma_2 + \gamma_2\gamma_3 + \gamma_1\gamma_3$, and $\gamma_1\gamma_2\gamma_3$ are all symmetric in $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$, and α_4, and so they are all fixed by G. Thus, $g(x)$ has coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$. $\square$

46. Prove that every finite group occurs as the Galois group of a field extension of the form $F(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)/E$
Let G be a finite group with n elements, so that we can think of G as a subgroup of S_n via the Cayley representation. S_n is the Galois group for $F(x_1, ..., x_n)$, and since $G \leq S_n$, there is an extension E/F such that G fixes E and $G = \mathrm{Gal}(F(x_1, ..., x_n), E)$.

14.7 Solvable and Radical Extensions: Insolvability of the Quintic

10. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ be the cyclotomic field of p^{th} roots of unity for the prime p and let $G = \mathrm{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q})$. Let ζ denote any p^{th} root of unity. Prove that $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\zeta)$ (the trace from K to $\mathbb{Q}$ of ζ) is -1 or $p - 1$ depending on whether ζ is primitive or not.

Proof. Recall that cyclotomic extensions are cyclic, so $G = Z_{p-1}$. If ζ is not primitive, then $\zeta = 1$ since p is prime, and so $\sigma(\zeta) = 1$ for all $\sigma \in G$. In that case, $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\zeta) = p - 1$. Otherwise, $\sum_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(\zeta) = \sum_{1 \leq k < p} \zeta^k = -1$. $\square$

12. Let L be the Galois closure of the finite extension $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ of $\mathbb{Q}$. For any prime p dividing the order of $\mathrm{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ prove there is a subfield F of L with $[L : F] = p$ and $L = F(\alpha)$.

Proof. Let $G = \mathrm{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ and let $n = |G|$. By Cauchy's theorem, if $p|n$, then G has a cyclic subgroup H of order p. By the Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory, there is an extension $F'/\mathbb{Q}$ such that $[K : F'] = p$. There must be some $\sigma \in G$ such that $\sigma(\alpha) \notin F'$, since otherwise G fixes F, which contradicts that $K \neq F'$. Let $F = \sigma(F')$, so that $[K : F] = p$ and $\alpha \notin F$. Then $F(\alpha)$ properly contains F, so $F(\alpha) = K$ since there cannot be any extensions lying between F and K. $\square$