

Solution to Algebra : Chapter 0 by Paolo Aluffi

macyayaya¹

Last updated at February 17, 2020
v0.3.5a

¹<https://github.com/macyayaya/>

Copyright (C) 2020 macyayaya @ <https://github.com/macyayaya/>.
Permission is granted to copy, distribute and/or modify this document under the terms of the GNU Free Documentation License, Version 1.3 or any later version published by the Free Software Foundation; with the Invariant Sections being Prologue. A copy of the license is included in the section entitled "GNU Free Documentatin License".

Prologue

Over a few months I want to improve my skills in solving algebra problems. I tried to find a textbook that can serves me good and is good enough to use in self-study.

Eventually, this is what I felt the most "comfortable" book in my opinion. It doesn't contain that much unlike Dummit & Foote, but the writing style, the explanation, and the exercises really served me well.

So here is the solution to Algebra : Chapter 0. There are a few important points to note here:

- The solution is *only* hosted on my GitHub page <https://github.com/macyayaya/algebra-chapter-0-solutions>. If you find this document outside this page, you might have an outdated version of the solution which might have errors, so please be aware.
- I will update the solution irregularly.
- I'll try to write this beginner-friendly (as I am also a beginner), so the answer might be way too detailed/verbose. Sorry if you find this annoying.
- If you found an error in the solutions, typos, bad grammar or want to give an advise on LaTeX formatting, etc., don't hesitate to open an issue or a pull request on my repo.
- The questions I picked is completely random, so if you want to see some solution of a certain problem (but please not all of them), you can also open an issue to notify me.
- However, I currently do *not* accept any PRs to new solutions; this is more than my note on self-study rather than a complete solution set.

Thanks.

macyayaya @ <https://github.com/macyayaya/>
Department of Mathematics, National Taiwan University
February 16, 2020

Contents

Prologue	ii
II Groups, first encounter	1
II.1	1
II.2	2
II.3	2
II.4	3
II.5	4
II.6	5
II.7	6
II.8	7
II.9	9
III Rings and modules	11
III.1	11
III.2	12
III.3	14
III.4	15
III.5	16
	17

Chapter II

Groups, first encounter

Unless otherwise specified, in the following G denotes a group, e denotes the identity of G . Some description and hints are omitted for simplicity.

II.1

Problem II.1.8. Let G be a finite abelian group with exactly one element f of order 2. Prove that $\prod_{g \in G} g = f$.

Proof. For all elements that is not of order 2, they have an inverse that is not itself, so they canceled out in the product $\prod_{g \in G} g$, leaving only elements that is of order 2, i.e. f . ■

Problem II.1.10. If the order of g is odd, what can you say about the order of g^2 ?

Solution. The order of g^2 is $|g|$ since the only number that divides $|g|$ and in $\{2, 4, \dots, 2|g|\}$ is $2|g|$ if $|g|$ is odd. ■

Problem II.1.11. Prove that for all g, h in a group G , $|gh| = |hg|$.

Proof. Simply observe that $e = (gh)^{|gh|} = g(hg)^{(|gh|-1)}h$, therefore

$$g^{-1}h^{-1} = (hg)^{-1} = (hg)^{|gh|-1}$$

hence $(hg)^{|gh|} = e$. The other case is the same. ■

Problem II.1.13. Give an example showing that $|gh| \neq \text{lcm}(|g|, |h|)$ even if g and h commute.

Solution. In C_4 , $|1 + 3| = |0| = 1$ but $\text{lcm}(|1|, |3|) = 4$. Clearly C_4 is abelian. ■

Problem II.1.14. As a counterpoint of II.1.13, prove that if g and h commute and $\text{gcd}(|g|, |h|) = 1$, then $|gh| = |g||h|$.

Proof. One has $|gh|$ divides $\text{lcm}(|g|, |h|) = |g||h|$ by Proposition II.1.14, so it suffices to prove that $|g||h|$ divides $|gh|$.

Let $N = |gh|$. Then one sees that $(gh)^N = g^N h^N$ since g and h commutes. Then

$$(gh)^{N|h|} = e^{|h|} = g^{N|h|} h^{N|h|} = g^{N|h|}$$

so we have $|g|$ divides $N|h|$, which implies $|g|$ divides N since $\text{gcd}(|g|, |h|) = 1$. Similarly $|h|$ divides N , therefore $|g||h|$ divides $N = |gh|$, as desired. ■

Problem II.1.15. Let G be a commutative group, and let $g \in G$ be an element of maximal finite order. Prove that if h has finite order in G , then $|h|$ divides $|g|$.

Proof. Suppose that $|h|$ does not divide $|g|$, then we can assume that $|g| = p^m r$, $|h| = p^n s$, where p is a prime and r, s relatively prime to p and $m < n$. Then by the previous problem we can calculate the order of $g^{p^m} h^s$, which is $p^n r$. But this element has order bigger than $|g|$, contradict to the maximality of $|g|$. Hence $|h|$ must divide $|g|$. ■

II.2

Problem II.2.10. Prove that $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ consists of precisely n elements.

Proof. Trivial. ■

Problem II.2.14. Show that the multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a well-defined action.

Proof. If $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$, then $a = a' + kn$, $b = b' + ln$ for $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$, therefore

$$(ab) - (a'b') = (a' + kn)(b' + ln) - a'b' = a'ln + b'kn + kln^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

as desired. ■

Problem II.2.16. Find the last digit of $1238237^{18238456}$.

Solution. $1238237^{18238456} \equiv 7^{18238456} = 49^{9119228} = 2401^{4559614} \equiv 1^{4559614} = 1 \pmod{10}$. ■

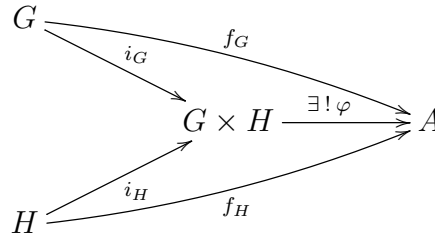
Problem II.2.17. Show that if $m \equiv m' \pmod{n}$, then $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ if and only if $\gcd(m', n) = 1$.

Proof. We can write $m = nk + m'$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and use Euclidean Algorithm to conclude. ■

II.3

Problem II.3.3. Show that if G, H are abelian groups, then $G \times H$ satisfies the universal property for coproducts in **Ab**.

Proof. Let A be an arbitrary abelian group, f_G, f_H be homomorphisms, i_G, i_H be inclusions.



To check the universal property, define $\varphi(g, h) := f_G(g)f_H(h)$. Now φ is a homomorphism since for $g_1, g_2 \in G, h_1, h_2 \in H$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi((g_1, h_1)(g_2, h_2)) &= \varphi(g_1g_2, h_1h_2) = f_G(g_1g_2)f_H(h_1h_2) = f_G(g_1)f_G(g_2)f_H(h_1)f_H(h_2) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{abelian}}{=} f_G(g_1)f_H(h_1)f_G(g_2)f_H(h_2) = \varphi(g_1, h_1)\varphi(g_2, h_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

as desired. ■

Problem II.3.6. Consider the product $C_2 \times C_3$, which is a coproduct in **Ab**. Show that it is *not* a coproduct of C_2 and C_3 in **Grp**.

Proof. If $C_2 \times C_3$ is a coproduct, then take $A = S_3$. Although there are injective homomorphisms

$$\begin{aligned}
 \varphi_1 : C_2 &\rightarrow S_3 \text{ by } \varphi_1(1) = (12) \text{ or other two cycle} \\
 \varphi_2 : C_3 &\rightarrow S_3 \text{ by } \varphi_2(1) = (123) \text{ or other three cycle}
 \end{aligned}$$

but there are no homomorphisms $\varphi : C_2 \times C_3 \rightarrow S_3$ that satisfies the universal property of coproducts: Observe that any choice of cycles in φ_1 and φ_2 will exhaust all possible element of S_3 , hence force φ to be an isomorphism. But the element $\varphi(1, 1)$ must be either a 2(or 3)-cycle, and neither $(1, 1)^2$ nor $(1, 1)^3$ are $(0, 0)$, and φ will map a non-identity element to the identity, a contradiction. ■

II.4

Problem II.4.3. Prove that a group of order n is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if it contains an element of order n .

Proof. Let G be such group.

(\Rightarrow) Trivial.

(\Leftarrow) Let g be an element of order n . Then consider a homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $\varphi(g) = \bar{1}$. It is a direct check that this is an isomorphism. ■

Problem II.4.8. Let $g \in G$. Prove that the function $\gamma_g : G \rightarrow G$ defined by $\gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1}$ is an automorphism of G . Prove that the function $G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G)$ defined by $g \rightarrow \gamma_g$ is a homomorphism, and show that this homomorphism is trivial if and only if G is abelian.

Proof. γ_g is injective since if $gag^{-1} = gbg^{-1}$ then $a = b$; it is surjective since for $k \in G$ we can find $g^{-1}kg$ so that $\gamma_g(g^{-1}kg) = k$; it is a homomorphism since

$$\gamma_g(ab) = gabg^{-1} = gag^{-1}gbg^{-1} = \gamma_g(a)\gamma_g(b).$$

If G is abelian then the automorphism is simply $\gamma_g(a) = a$; conversely if $gag^{-1} = a$ then $ga = ag$ for all $a, g \in G$, hence abelian. ■

Problem II.4.9. Prove that if m, n are positive integers such that $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, then $C_{mn} \cong C_m \times C_n$.

Proof.

$$\varphi : C_{mn} \rightarrow C_m \times C_n, \varphi(a) = (a \bmod m, a \bmod n)$$

is a homomorphism and a bijection. ■

Problem II.4.11. Assuming the fact that the equation $x^d = 1$ can have at most d solutions in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ for a prime p , prove that $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ is cyclic.

Proof. Let g be an element of maximal order, and by 1.15, all elements have degree that divides $|g|$, i.e. $|h|^{|g|} = 1 \forall h \in G$. Using the fact, we have $|G| \leq |d|$, since only at most $|g|$ elements can be the solution to $h^{|g|} = 1$. Clearly we also have $|G| \geq |d|$, so $|G| = |d|$. Thus the proof is complete by II.4.3. ■

Problem II.4.13. Prove that $\text{Aut}_{\text{Grp}}(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \cong S_3$.

Proof. To make an automorphism φ , φ must fix $(0, 0)$, leaving 6 possible permutations for elements $(0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 1)$. It suffices to check that all permutations of these elements are homomorphisms (hence isomorphisms). ■

Problem II.4.16. Prove the *Wilson's theorem*: for $p \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, p is a prime if and only if

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Assuming that the result of II.1.8 and II.4.11 is true, consider $G = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$. It is cyclic, and has exactly one element of order 2 since for $0 \leq k \leq p-2$,

$$(p-1-k)^2 \equiv 1 + 2k + k^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff k(k+2) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

and such solution can only be $k = 0$ or $p - 2$ since p is a prime, which correspond to $p - 1$ and 1 (identity). Therefore by II.1.8

$$\prod_{g \in G} g = (p - 1)! \equiv (p - 1) \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

as desired.

(\Leftarrow) If p is not a prime, then there exists $1 < k < p$ such that $k|p$. Since $k < p$ we have $k|(p - 1)!$, i.e.

$$(p - 1)! \equiv rk \pmod{p} \text{ for some } r \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and clearly no choice of r will make $rk \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ by the fact that $k|p$. Therefore p must be a prime. ■

II.5

Problem II.5.3. Use the universal property of free groups to prove that the map $j : A \rightarrow F(A)$ is injective.

Proof. If there is $a, b \in A$ such that $j(a) = j(b)$ but $a \neq b$, then let f be a set function such that $f(a) \neq f(b)$; in particular, let $G = \mathbb{Z}$ and let $f(a) = 1, f(b) = 2$. Then there are no homomorphisms that will make the diagram commute, therefore j must be injective. ■

Problem II.5.6. Prove that the group $F(\{x, y\})$ is a coproduct $\mathbb{Z} * \mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{Z} by itself in the category Grp.

Proof. We are given the universal property of free group: for $j : \{x, y\} \rightarrow F(\{x, y\})$, $\exists G, f$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F(\{x, y\}) & \xrightarrow{\exists! \varphi} & G \\ j \uparrow & \nearrow g & \\ \{x, y\} & & \end{array}$$

commutes. To check that it is a coproduct, consider the coproduct diagram composed with above. Let $i(0) = x, j$ be the inclusion, then we have the following diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \mathbb{Z} & & \\ & \nearrow \gamma & & \searrow i & \\ \{x, y\} & \xrightarrow{j} & F\{x, y\} & \xrightarrow{\exists! \varphi} & G \\ & \searrow \gamma & & \nearrow i & \\ & & \mathbb{Z} & & \end{array}$$

f (curved arrow from \mathbb{Z} to G), f (curved arrow from \mathbb{Z} to G), g (curved arrow from $\{x, y\}$ to G)

Note that the arrows j, g, φ comes from the free group diagram. From this, we have $f \circ \gamma = \varphi \circ j$. To check the coproduct diagram commutes, it suffices to check $f = \varphi \circ i$. To do this, define $\gamma(x) = 0, \gamma(y) = 1$. Then

$$f \circ \gamma(x) = f(0) = \varphi(x) = \varphi \circ j(x), \quad f \circ \gamma(y) = f(1) = \varphi(y) = \varphi \circ j(y)$$

Since $f(1) = \varphi \circ i(1) = \varphi(y)$, the homomorphisms agree on the generator, hence are the same. ■

II.6

Problem II.6.5. Let G be a *commutative* group, and let $n > 0$ be an integer. Prove that $\{g^n : g \in G\}$ is a subgroup of G . Prove that this is not necessarily the case if G is not commutative.

Proof. For any two elements a, b in the set, they can be represented as g^n and h^n respectively. Now

$$ab^{-1} = g^n h^{-n} = (gh^{-1})^n$$

which shows that ab^{-1} is also in the set, proving the set is a subgroup. A counterexample would be D_6 , the dihedral group with 6 elements, with the choice $n = 3$. Let s denote the reflection, r denotes the rotation, we then have

$$\{g^3 : g \in D_3\} = \{1, r^3, r^{2 \cdot 3}, s^3, (sr)^3, (sr^2)^3\} = \{1, 1, 1, s, sr, sr^2\}$$

this set is not a subgroup, as $s^{-1}sr = r$ is not an element of this set. ■

Problem II.6.7. Show that inner automorphisms (the collection of γ_g in II.4.8) form a subgroup $\text{Inn}(G)$ of $\text{Aut}(G)$, and show that $\text{Inn}(G)$ is cyclic if and only if G is trivial if and only if G is abelian. Deduce that if $\text{Aut}(G)$ is cyclic, then G is abelian.

Proof. $\text{Inn}(G)$ is a subgroup: clearly g_e is the identity, inverse exists, and the associative clearly holds.

If $\text{Inn}(G)$ is cyclic, then let $\gamma_g(a) = gag^{-1}$ be a generator of order n . Then $\forall b \in G$ we have $\gamma_b = \gamma_g^n$, i.e. $gbg^{-1} = b^n b b^{-n}$. This gives $gb = bg \ \forall b \in G$, so γ_g is in fact trivial, and hence G is abelian by II.4.8. The last statement follows from Proposition II.6.11 that every subgroup of cyclic group is cyclic. ■

Problem II.6.9. Prove that an *abelian* group G is finitely generated if and only if there is a surjective homomorphism

$$\underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}}_{n \text{ times}} \twoheadrightarrow G$$

for some n .

Proof.

(\Rightarrow) As the group is abelian, for $G = \langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$, we can represent an element g uniquely as

$$g = a_1^{p_1} \cdots a_n^{p_n}$$

where $p_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore we can explicitly write down the surjective homomorphism

$$\varphi : \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}}_{n \text{ times}} \twoheadrightarrow G \quad \text{by} \quad \varphi(p_1, \dots, p_n) = a_1^{p_1} \cdots a_n^{p_n} = g$$

as desired.

(\Leftarrow) By the universal property of $\mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n}$ we have the following diagram that commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} & \xrightarrow{\exists! \varphi} & G \\ \uparrow j & \nearrow f & \\ \{1, \dots, n\} & & \end{array} \quad (*)$$

To prove, it suffices to "replace" the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$ by a subset of G .

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \mathbb{Z}^{\oplus n} & \xrightarrow{\exists! \varphi} G \\
 j \nearrow & \uparrow \tilde{j} & \nearrow i \\
 \{1, \dots, n\} & \xrightarrow{f} A &
 \end{array}$$

By the diagram (*), we have $i \circ f = \varphi \circ j$. It is a fast check that the diagram formed by \tilde{j} , i and φ commutes. Finally since A is a finite set and $\text{im } \varphi = G$, it follows by definition that G is finitely generated. ■

Problem II.6.14. Let ϕ be the Euler's ϕ -function. Prove that for $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_{m>0, m|n} \phi(m) = n.$$

Proof. Let $\langle x \rangle = C_n$. We have the trivial equation

$$\sum_{g \in C_n} 1 = n$$

Now note that every element in C_n generates a cyclic subgroup. To establish the result, we show that for every $d > 0$ that is a division of n , the subgroup of order d is *unique*, i.e. the unique subgroup is given by

$$\langle x^{n/d} \rangle = \{g \in G : g^d = 1\}$$

Indeed, if $g = x^{kn/d}$ for some positive integer k , then $g^d = x^{kn} = 1$. Conversely, if $g^d = 1$, then we have $g = x^m$ for some m since x is a generator. But this means that $x^{md} = 1$, and this implies $n|md$. Hence we have

$$g = x^m = x^{n/d \cdot dm/n} = x^{n/d} \in \langle x^{n/d} \rangle$$

as desired.

Now we count the generators of each subgroup of C_n , which is $\phi(d)$ for every d that is a divisor of n . Since every element in C_n generates a cyclic subgroup C_d , the sum of generator along each subgroup is exactly n , namely

$$\sum_{g \in C_n} 1 = \sum_{m: m|n} \phi(m) = n$$

which proved the assertion. ■

Problem II.6.15. Prove that if $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$ has a left inverse, then φ is a monomorphism.

Proof. If $a, b \in G$ are distinct elements that satisfies $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$, then having left inverse means there exists a homomorphism ψ such that $\psi \circ \varphi = \text{id}_G$. Then we would have $\psi \circ \varphi(a) = \psi \circ \varphi(b)$, which means $a = b$, a contradiction. ■

II.7

Problem II.7.7. Let n be a positive integer. Let $H \subset G$ be the subgroup generated by all elements of order n in G . Prove that H is normal.

Proof. For $a \in H, g \in G$, since $a^n = e$,

$$(gag^{-1})^n = ga^n g^{-1} = e$$

we have $gag^{-1} \in H$, hence normal. ■

Problem II.7.11. Prove that the commutator subgroup $[G, G]$ is normal, and the quotient $G/[G, G]$ is commutative.

Proof. Observe

$$gaba^{-1}b^{-1} = (gag^{-1})(gbg^{-1})(ga^{-1}g^{-1})(gb^{-1}g^{-1}) = xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in [G, G]$$

for $x = gag^{-1}, y = gbg^{-1}$. The quotient is commutative since $aba^{-1}b^{-1}[G, G] = [G, G]$ implies $ab[G, G] = ba[G, G]$. ■

II.8

Problem II.8.7. Let $(A|\mathcal{R}), (A'|\mathcal{R}')$, be the presentation for groups G, G' , respectively, and assume that A and A' are disjoint. Prove that

$$G * G' := (A \cup A' \mid \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}')$$

satisfies the universal property for the coproduct of G and G' in **Grp**.

Proof. Write $H = \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{R}'$. Let us construct a homomorphism from G to $G * G'$. As $G = F(A)/R$, by the universal property of quotient we have a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F(A) & \xrightarrow{f} & G * G' \\ & \searrow \pi & \nearrow \exists! \varphi_1 \\ & F(A)/\mathcal{R} & \end{array}$$

In particular, we let f be an quotient map, i.e. $f(w) = wH$. Then naturally we have $\varphi_1(w\mathcal{R}) = wH$. Similarly, for G' we have another homomorphism $\varphi_2(v\mathcal{R}') = vH$.

Now it suffices to check the universal property. For every homomorphism that maps G and G' to a group K , which we call them f_1 and f_2 , we can define $\phi : G * G' \rightarrow K$ by

$$\phi(wH) = \prod_{i=1}^{|w|} (f_1(w_i\mathcal{R})\chi_{F(A)}(w_i) + f_2(w_i\mathcal{R}')\chi_{F(A')}(w_i))$$

where $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$, χ is the indicator function. The commutative of the coproduct diagram is clear, and ϕ is clearly a homomorphism since we can clearly combine two finite product to one. ■

Problem II.8.13. Let G be a finite group, and assume $|G|$ is odd. Prove that every element of G is a square.

Proof. Let $|G| = 2n - 1$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For every $g \in G$, we have

$$g = g \cdot g^{2n-1} = g^{2n} = (g^n)^2$$

which implies that every element in G is a square. ■

Problem II.8.13. Generalize the result of II.8.13: if G is a group of order n and k is an integer relatively prime to n , then the function $G \rightarrow G, g \rightarrow g^k$ is surjective.

Proof. By the prime condition, we can apply Bezout's identity, namely there exists integers a, b such that $an + bk = 1$. Then for every $g \in G$, we have

$$g = g \cdot g^{-an} = g^{1-an} = g^{bk} = (g^b)^k$$

which implies that every element in G is a k -power of some element in G . ■

Problem II.8.17. Assume that G is a finite abelian group, and let p be a prime divisor of $|G|$. Prove that there exists an element in G of order p .

Proof. We proceed by induction. Clearly if $|G| = 1$ then the statement is true. Now suppose for all abelian group with order less than n , we can find a element whose order is a prime and a divisor of G . Then for any group G that has order n , consider an element $g \in G$, and consider the subgroup generated by g , $H = \langle g \rangle$.

Clearly H is cyclic, so we can find a element $g^{|g|/q}$ of order q where q is a prime since

$$1 = g^{|g|} = (g^{|g|/q})^q$$

provided that $q \mid |g|$. Now if $q = p$, then we are done; otherwise, we replace G with $G/\langle h \rangle$, where $h = g^{|g|/q}$ (note that all subgroups are normal since G is abelian). Now this quotient has order less than n , and by induction, we can find an element of order p in it, which we call it $m\langle h \rangle$. Finally the element mh^q has order p , since

$$(mh^q)^p = m^p g^{p|g|} = 1$$

Note that the commutative is used here. ■

Problem II.8.20. Assume that G is a finite abelian group, and let d be a divisor of $|G|$. Prove that there exists a subgroup $H \subseteq G$ of order d .

Proof. We proceed by induction. Clearly if $|G| = 1$ then the statement is true. Now suppose for all abelian group with order less than n , we can find a subgroup whose order is a divisor of $|G|$. Then if $|G| = n$, then by II.8.18, we have an element in G that is of order p , where p is a prime and a divisor of d . If $p = d$, then we are done. Otherwise, we consider the quotient $G/\langle p \rangle$. This group has order $|G|/p$, and by induction hypothesis, we can find a subgroup H in the quotient that is of order d/p . Now we claim that the set

$$H' = \{gp^n : n \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}, g\langle p \rangle \in H\}$$

is a subgroup of order d . It is indeed a subgroup since for $g, h \in H'$,

$$gh^{-1} = ap^kb^{-1}p^{-l} = ab^{-1}p^{k-l} \in H'$$

for some a, b that is a coset representative ($ab^{-1}\langle p \rangle \in H$ since H is a subgroup). As the cosets are disjoint, there are precisely $p \cdot d/p = d$ elements in H' , proving the assertion. ■

Problem II.8.22. Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$ be a group homomorphism, and let N be the smallest normal subgroup containing $\text{im } \varphi$. Prove that G'/N satisfies the universal property of coker φ in **Grp**.

Proof. By universal property of quotient, for every homomorphism $\alpha : G' \rightarrow L$, the homomorphism $\bar{\alpha} : G'/N \rightarrow L$ exists and is unique. Now it suffices to check the universal property of cokernel. For any $\alpha : G' \rightarrow L$ such that $\alpha \circ \varphi = 0$, define $\bar{\alpha}(gN) = \alpha(g)$. We need to check that this is well defined. If $\bar{\alpha}(gN) = \bar{\alpha}(hN)$ but $\alpha(g) \neq \alpha(h)$, then $gh^{-1} \notin \ker \alpha$. However since $\alpha \circ \varphi = 0$, $\text{im } \varphi \subseteq \ker \alpha$. By noting that N is normal and minimal, we have

$$\ker \alpha \supseteq N \ni gh^{-1}$$

since $gN = hN$. This is a contradiction, therefore $\alpha(g) = \alpha(h)$, showing the well-definedness of $\bar{\alpha}$. Then

$$\bar{\alpha}(\pi(\varphi(g))) = \bar{\alpha}(N) = \alpha(e) = e_L$$

for all $g \in G$. This shows $\bar{\alpha} \circ \pi \circ \varphi = 0$, and the assertion is proved. ■

Problem II.8.24. Show that epimorphisms in \mathbf{Grp} do not necessarily have right-inverses.

Proof. Let

$$\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad \varphi(x) = x \pmod{2}$$

this map has no right inverses as any homomorphism from \mathbb{Z}_2 to \mathbb{Z} can only be the identity map. ■

II.9

Problem II.9.7. Prove that stabilizers are indeed subgroups.

Proof. Assume G acts on A , and pick $a \in A$. For $g, h \in \text{Stab}_G(a)$, we have

$$gh^{-1}a = g(h(h^{-1}a)) = ga = a$$

as required. ■

Problem II.9.11. Let G be a finite group, and let H be a subgroup of index p , where p is the *smallest prime dividing* $|G|$. Prove that H is normal in G .

Proof. We consider the left-multiplication action of G on the left cosets of H , which is $g \cdot hH = ghH$. This induces a homomorphism $\varphi : G \rightarrow S_p$, whose kernel includes H since

$$\text{if } g \in \ker \varphi, \text{ then } aH = gaH \forall a \in G \Rightarrow g = gH \Rightarrow g \in H.$$

Then $G/\ker \varphi \cong \text{im } \varphi$, so $G/\ker \varphi$ is a subgroup of S_p , therefore it has order dividing $p!$. However by Lagrange, such order also divides $|G|$, and hence must be divisible by p , so $|G/\ker \varphi| = p$. Finally

$$p = [G : H] = [G : \ker \varphi][\ker \varphi : H] = p[\ker \varphi : H]$$

which leads to $[\ker \varphi : H] = 1$. Since $\ker \varphi \subseteq H$, $\ker \varphi = H$ by index consideration, proving the assertion. ■

Problem II.9.13. Prove 'by hand' that that for all subgroups H of a group G and $\forall g \in G$, G/H and $G/(gHg^{-1})$ (endowed with the action of G by left-multiplication) are isomorphic in $G\text{-Set}$.

Proof. We want to find a *bijection* function $\varphi : G/H \rightarrow G/gHg^{-1}$ such that the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G \times G/H & \xrightarrow{id_G \times \varphi} & G \times G/gHg^{-1} \\ \downarrow \rho & & \downarrow \rho' \\ G/H & \xrightarrow{\varphi} & G/gHg^{-1} \end{array}$$

commutes. Indeed the most natural map would be $\varphi(xH) = (xg^{-1})gHg^{-1}$. We check that this is well-defined; if $aH = bH$, then $gaHg^{-1} = gbHg^{-1}$ clearly. We now check that this is a bijection, by explicitly give the inverse

$$\phi : G/gHg^{-1} \rightarrow G/H, \quad \phi(xgHg^{-1}) = (g^{-1}xg)H$$

so $\varphi \circ \phi = id$. Therefore G/H and $G/(gHg^{-1})$ are isomorphic in $G\text{-Set}$. Note that if we assume $\varphi(xH) = xgHg^{-1}$, then H would need to be normal in order to be well-defined. ■

Problem II.9.17. Consider G as a G -set, by acting with left-multiplication. Prove that $\text{Aut}_{G\text{-Set}(G)} \cong G$.

Proof. The set of automorphisms on $G - \mathbf{Set}(G)$ are bijections that satisfies $g\varphi(h) = \varphi(gh)$. In particular we can define

$$\varphi_g(h) = g^{-1}h$$

this is clearly a bijection and forms a group structure by $\varphi_g\varphi_h = \varphi_{gh}$. We now consider the map $\psi : \text{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}(G)} \rightarrow G$ by $\psi(\varphi_g) = g$. We claim that this is an isomorphism. Indeed, its kernel is precisely φ_e , which is the identity of $\text{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}(G)}$. The map is clearly surjective, and it is an homomorphism by construction. Therefore $\text{Aut}_{G-\mathbf{Set}(G)} \cong G$. ■

Chapter III

Rings and modules

Unless otherwise specified, in the following $R = (R, +, \cdot)$ denotes an arbitrary ring *with identity*, $0, 1$ denotes the additive and multiplicative identity of R , respectively. In the case of possible confusion, I will use $0_R, 1_R$ instead.

Some description and hints are omitted for simplicity.

III.1

Problem III.1.1. Prove that if $0 = 1$ in a ring R , then R is a zero ring.

Proof. If r is any nonzero element in R , then

$$r = r \cdot 1 = r \cdot 0 = 0$$

showing that $R = 0$. ■

Problem III.1.6. Prove that if a and b are nilpotent in R and $ab = ba$, then so is $a + b$.

Proof. If $a^n = 0, b^m = 0$, then

$$(a + b)^{n+m} = a^{n+m} + \binom{n+m-1}{1} a^{n+m-1}b + \dots + b^{n+m}$$

and all terms are zeros since every term either have a^n or b^m . If we do not assume that $ab = ba$, then the statement would be false, for example, in $M_n(\mathbb{Z})$,

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

are nilpotent of degree 3, but $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, which is not nilpotent. ■

Problem III.1.7. Prove that $[m]$ is nilpotent in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if m is divisible by all prime factors of n .

Proof.

(\Rightarrow) If $[m]^k = [0]$ for some integer k , then this implies $m^k = dn$ for some integer d . Now we write $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$, where p_i are primes, and a_i are positive integers. Then

$$m^k = dp_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$$

and it is clear to see that m must contain each p_i at least once.

(\Leftarrow) If $n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ where p_i are primes, and a_i are positive integers, then we can write

$$m = p_1^{b_1} \cdots p_n^{b_n} d$$

where b_i, d are positive integers, and $p_i \nmid d$ for all i . Define

$$f = \text{floor} \left(\max \left\{ \frac{a_1}{b_1}, \dots, \frac{a_n}{b_n} \right\} \right)$$

then let $r = m^f/n$, which is an integer larger than 0 by the choice of f . Finally

$$m^f = nr = 0 \pmod n$$

showing that m is nilpotent in $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$. ■

Problem III.1.9. Prove Proposition 1.12, that is:

- The inverse of a two-sided unit is unique;
- two-sided units form a group under multiplication.

Proof. For a two-sided unit v , we have $uv = 1$ and $vw = 1$ for some $u, w \in R$. Then

$$w = 1 \cdot w = uvw = u \cdot 1 = u$$

showing that $w = u$, so the inverse can be uniquely defined as $v^{-1} = u$. Now as the inverse is unique, we can properly define a group structure, using the multiplication from the ring R . ■

Problem III.1.15. Prove that $R[x]$ is a domain if and only if R is a domain.

Proof.

(\Rightarrow) Trivial since $R \subset R[x]$.

(\Leftarrow) Assume the contrary that $R[x]$ is not a domain. Then we can find $f = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$, $g = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j x^j$, $f \neq 0, g \neq 0$ such that $fg = 0$. Then we would have $a_n b_m = 0$, and since R is a domain, either a_n or b_m is zero. Without loss of generality, we can reduce the case to $f = a_0 \neq 0$. Then by the same argument, we would arrive at $a_0 b_0 = 0$, since all higher terms must be zero. But this contradicts to the assumption that R is a domain, since $f = a_0$ and $g = b_0$ are nonzero. Hence $R[x]$ must be a domain. ■

III.2

Problem III.2.1. Prove that if there is a homomorphism from a zero ring to a ring R , then R is a zero ring.

Proof. If 1_R is the multiplicative identity of R , then for any homomorphism $\varphi : 0 \rightarrow R$,

$$0_R = \varphi(0) = \varphi(1) = 1_R$$

and by III.1.1, R is a zero-ring. ■

Problem III.2.6. Verify the 'extension property' of polynomial ring:

Let $\alpha : R \rightarrow S$ be a fixed ring homomorphism, and let $s \in S$ be an element commuting with $\alpha(r)$ for all $r \in R$. Then there is a unique ring homomorphism $\bar{\alpha} : R[x] \rightarrow S$ extending α and sending x to s .

Proof. Indeed, for $\sum_{i \geq 0} a_i x^i \in R[x]$, we have no choice but to define

$$\bar{\alpha} \left(\sum_{i \geq 0} a_i x^i \right) = \sum_{i \geq 0} \alpha(a_i) s^i \quad (1)$$

so that $\bar{\alpha}(r) = \alpha(r)$ and x sends to s in this map. It is clearly a homomorphism (note that the commutativity of s is used in the proof of $\bar{\alpha}(fg) = \bar{\alpha}(f)\bar{\alpha}(g)$), so it suffices to check that $\bar{\alpha}$ is unique. But it is clear by the fact that any map that extends α and send x to s must have the same value evaluated as in (1). ■

Problem III.2.9. Prove that the center of R is a subring. Moreover, prove that the center of a division ring is a field.

Proof. A subset of a ring S is a subring if it is a subgroup of $(R, +)$, closed under multiplication, and 1 is in it. So we check that:

- it is a subgroup of $(R, +)$: for $a, b \in C$, for all $r \in R$,

$$(a - b)r = ar - br = ra - rb = r(a - b)$$

showing that $a - b \in C$, hence a subgroup;

- closed under multiplication: for $a, b \in C$, for all $r \in R$,

$$abr = a(br) = a(rb) = (ar)b = (ra)b = rab$$

showing that $ab \in C$;

- finally, 1 is in C since $1r = r1$ for all $r \in R$.

Clearly the center forms a commutative ring since for $a, b \in C$, $ab = ba$. Then it follows by definition that a commutative division ring is a field. ■

Problem III.2.10. Prove that the centralizer of a is a subring for every $a \in R$. Prove that the center is the intersection of all its centralizers, and prove that every centralizer of a division ring is a division ring.

Proof. We use the same test as above. Let C_x denotes the centralizer of x .

- It is a subgroup of $(R, +)$: for $a, b \in C_x$,

$$(a - b)x = ax - bx = xa - xb = x(a - b)$$

showing that $a - b \in C_x$, hence a subgroup;

- closed under multiplication: for $a, b \in C_x$,

$$abx = a(bx) = a(xb) = (ax)b = (xa)b = xab$$

showing that $ab \in C_x$;

- finally, 1 is in C_x since $1x = x1$.

It is easy that the center is the intersection of all its centralizers, since such element in the intersection must commute with the whole ring R . Finally, if R is a division ring, then for every element $a \in C_x$, then we show that $a^{-1} \in C_x$:

$$ax = xa \Rightarrow axa^{-1} = x \Rightarrow xa^{-1} = a^{-1}x$$

as desired. ■

Problem III.2.11. Prove that a division ring R which consists of p^2 elements where p is a prime, is commutative.

Proof. Suppose the contrary that R is not commutative. Then the center C must be a proper subring, which can only consist of p elements by Lagrange. Now let $r \in R \setminus C$. Then the centralizer of r will contain at least r and C by III.2.10, therefore the centralizer of r must be R itself (again by Lagrange), for every $r \in R \setminus C$. But then the intersection of all centralizer are now R (element of center has centralizer R clearly), which is a contradiction to that C is proper. Therefore R must be commutative, i.e. a field. ■

Problem III.2.12. Consider the inclusion map $\iota : \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. Describe the cokernel of ι in **Ab** and its cokernel in **Ring**.

Solution. In **Ab**, this is easy: it is just $\mathbb{Q}/\text{im } \iota = \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$. However in **Ring**, we notice that for any map $\alpha : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow F$ that satisfy $\alpha \circ \iota = 0$, we have

$$0_F = \alpha(1) = \alpha \circ \iota(1) = \alpha(1) = 1_F$$

which shows that F must be the zero ring by III.1.1. Now the unique homomorphism $\bar{\alpha} : \text{coker } \iota \rightarrow F$ must also be the zero map, and by the requirement $\bar{\alpha} \circ \pi \circ \iota = 0$, we finally have $\pi \circ \iota = 0$, and by the same argument as above, we have that the codomain of π is the zero ring, i.e. $\text{coker } \iota = 0$. ■

III.3

Problem III.3.2. Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a ring homomorphism, and let J be an ideal of S . Prove that $\varphi^{-1}(J)$ is an ideal.

Proof. The ideal is clearly nonempty, so it suffices to check that $\varphi^{-1}(J)$ is a additive subgroup and satisfies the absorption property. For $x, y \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$, we have $\varphi(x), \varphi(y) \in J$, so $\varphi(x) - \varphi(y) = \varphi(x - y) \in J$, therefore $x - y \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$, showing that it is a subgroup of $(R, +)$.

Now for any $r \in R, a \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$, we have $\varphi(a) \in J$, so $\varphi(r)\varphi(a) = \varphi(ra) \in J$, and hence $ra \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$, showing the left-absorption property. The right case is the same. ■

Problem III.3.7. Let R be a ring, and let $a \in R$. Prove that Ra is a left-ideal of R and aR is a right-ideal of R . Prove that a is a left-, resp. right-, unit if and only if $R = aR$, resp. $R = Ra$.

Proof. We prove only the left-ideal case since the same argument holds for right-ideal case. Ra is a subgroup of $(R, +)$ since for $ra, sa \in Ra$, $ra - sa = (r - s)a \in Ra$. The absorption property follows easily since $rsa = (rs)a \in Ra$.

If a is a right unit, then there exists u such that $ua = 1$. Then 1 is contained in Ra , and since for all $r \in R$, $r \cdot 1 \in Ra$, we conclude that $R = Ra$. ■

Problem III.3.8. Prove that R is a division ring if and only if its only left-ideals and right-ideals are $\{0\}$ and R .

In particular, a commutative ring R is a field if and only if the only ideals of R are $\{0\}$ and R .

Proof.

(\Rightarrow) If a nonzero element a is in the left-ideal I , then so is 1 since

$$1 = a^{-1}a \in I \text{ by definition}$$

Therefore any nonzero left-ideals are automatically R itself. The right-ideal case is the same.

(\Leftarrow) If a nonzero element a does not have a left inverse, then aR would be a proper right-ideal by III.3.7. Therefore all elements must have left(and hence right) inverse. ■

Problem III.3.10. Let $\varphi : k \rightarrow R$ be a ring homomorphism, where k is a field and R is a nonzero ring. Prove that φ is *injective*.

Proof. φ is injective if and only if $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$ by Proposition III.2.4. Also, the ideals of k are only $\{0\}$ and k by III.3.8. If $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$ then there is nothing to prove, so let $\ker \varphi = k$. But this means that $\varphi = 0$, so we have

$$1_R = \varphi(1) = 0 = \varphi(0) = 0_R$$

and by III.1.1, R is a zero ring, a contradiction to the hypothesis. Therefore $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$, showing that φ is injective. ■

Problem III.3.12. Let R be a *commutative* ring. Prove that the set of nilpotent elements forms an ideal of R . This ideal is called the *nilradical* of R .

Proof. From III.1.6 we already know that it forms a subgroup of $(R, +)$ by replacing b with $-b$, so it remains to check that it is an ideal. Let I be such ideal. If $a \in R, r \in I$ and $r^n = 0$, then since

$$(ar)^n \stackrel{!}{=} a^n r^n = 0$$

in which $!$ is where commutative is used. Therefore $ar \in I$, proving the absorption property.

For an counter-example where R is not commutative, simply consider the example of III.1.6: it is not even a subgroup of $(R, +)$. ■

Problem III.3.13. Let R be a commutative ring, and let N be its nilradical. Prove that R/N contains no nonzero nilpotent elements. Such a ring is said to be *reduced*.

Proof. Pick an element $a \in R \setminus N$. Then for every integer $n > 0$,

$$(a + N)^n = a^n + \binom{n}{1} a^{n-1} N + \cdots + N^n = a^n + N$$

Since a is not nilpotent, $a^n \neq 0$ for every n , showing that $a + N$ is not nilpotent for $a \in R \setminus N$. ■

III.4

Problem III.4.1. Let R be a ring,

Problem III.4.2. Prove that the homomorphic image of a Noetherian ring is Noetherian.

Proof. Let R be Noetherian, S be any ring, $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a surjective ring homomorphism. Let J be an ideal of S . By III.3.2, the preimage is an ideal, which we call $I = \langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$. We claim that $J = \langle \varphi(a_1), \dots, \varphi(a_n) \rangle$, so every finitely generated ideal will map to a finitely generated ideal, proving that S is Noetherian.

Indeed, since $a_i \in \varphi^{-1}(J)$, $\varphi(a_i) \in J$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, so $\langle \varphi(a_1), \dots, \varphi(a_n) \rangle \subseteq J$. On the other hand, for an element $j \in J$, there exists $i \in R$ such that $\varphi(i) = j$ by surjectivity, therefore $i \in I$, so i is generated by elements a_1, \dots, a_n , i.e. $i = r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_n a_n$. Then since φ is a homomorphism,

$$\varphi(i) = j = \varphi(r_1 a_1 + \dots + r_n a_n) = s_1 \varphi(a_1) + \dots + s_n \varphi(a_n)$$

so $J \subseteq \langle \varphi(a_1), \dots, \varphi(a_n) \rangle$, and the claim is proved. ■

In the following, let M be a (left-)module over R .

III.5

Problem III.5.3. Prove that $0 \cdot m = 0$ and that $(-1) \cdot m = -m$ for all $m \in M$.

Proof. Since $0m = (0 + 0)m = 0m + 0m$, $0m = 0$. Since $0 = 0m = (-1 + 1)m = (-1)m + m$, $(-1)m = -m$. ■

Problem III.5.11. Let R be commutative. Prove that there is a natural bijection between the set of $R[x]$ -module structures on M and $\text{End}_{R\text{-Mod}}(M)$.

Proof. If f is a R -endomorphism $f : M \rightarrow M$, then we have to show that there are some suitable maps

$$\begin{aligned} R[x] \times M &\rightarrow M \\ (g(x), m) &\rightarrow ? \end{aligned}$$

that makes M into a module. We consider $(g(x), m) \rightarrow g(f)(m)$, where if $g(x) = \sum_i a_i x^i$, then

$$g(f)(m) = \sum_i a_i f^i(m) \text{ where } f^i = \underbrace{f \circ \cdots \circ f}_{i \text{ times}}$$

We can easily check by definition that M satisfies the property of $R[x]$ -module, so this gives the injectivity of $R[x]$ -modules to $\text{End}_{R\text{-Mod}}(M)$. To prove surjectivity, if M is a $R[x]$ -module, then define $f(m) = xm$. Then M is indeed an endomorphism, proving the statement. ■

Problem III.5.12. Let M, N be R -modules, and let $\varphi : M \rightarrow N$ be a homomorphism of R -modules which has a inverse (therefore a bijection). Prove that φ^{-1} is also a homomorphism of R -modules. Conclude that a bijective R -module homomorphism is a R -module isomorphism.

Proof. Since

$$\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(m) + \varphi^{-1}(n)) = m + n = \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(m + n))$$

we have $\varphi^{-1}(m) + \varphi^{-1}(n) = \varphi^{-1}(m + n)$. And

$$\varphi(r\varphi^{-1}(m)) = r\varphi(\varphi^{-1}(m)) = rm = \varphi(\varphi^{-1}(rm))$$

so $r\varphi^{-1}(m) = \varphi^{-1}(rm)$ indeed. ■

This is the end of the solution manual as of February 17, 2020.

Please revisit

<https://github.com/macyayaya/algebra-chapter-0-solutions/releases>

for possible new releases.

Thanks for your reading.