

August 2016:

$$\textcircled{8} - R = \mathcal{L}[x] : \quad 0 \rightarrow R \xrightarrow{f} R \xrightarrow{g} \mathcal{L} \rightarrow 0$$

For $P \in R$ then $f(P) = x \cdot P$, $g(P) = P(0)$. Action $R \times \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}$
 $(x, 1) \mapsto 0$

(a) Show that it is exact on \mathbb{R} -mod.

(i) f is injective: if $f(p)=0$ then $x \cdot P(x)=0$, and since $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is integral domain we must have $p=0$.

(ii) φ is injective: for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ take $\varphi(x) = n$, now $\varphi(p) = n$.

(iii) $\text{im}(f) = \text{ker}(g)$:

$\Leftrightarrow p \in R$, then $g(f(p)) = g(x \cdot p(x)) = 0 \cdot p(0) = 0$.

3) $P \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f(P) = P(0) = 0$, then P has no constant term, so we can factor x . Then there is $Q \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x \cdot Q = P$, then $f(Q) = P$.

(b) Does it split our R-words?

If it splits, then there exists a section $h: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ with $gh = 1_{\mathcal{X}}$. Hungenford §1.18-
 S:

Since h cannot be zero, we have $h(j) = jh(1) \neq 0$ for all $j \in \mathbb{Z}$.

But then using the R -word action: $x \cdot h(j) = h(x \cdot j) = h(0) = 0$.

$$x \cdot h(j) \neq 0.$$

Thus the sequence does not split.

(c) Does it split over \mathbb{K} -words?

Define: $h: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Now: $gh(j) = g(j) = j$ for all $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, so $gh = 1_{\mathbb{Z}}$.

Hungerford IV.1.18. The sequence splits. Detail: why is \ln a πL -homomorphism.

Alternatively: \mathbb{Z} is free, hence projective, or \mathbb{Z} -mod, so the sequence splits.

January 2017

①- Prove that S_4/k_4 is isomorphic to S_3 .

Since everything is finite: $|S_n|/|K_n| = \frac{|S_n|}{1} = \frac{n!}{n} = n!$

Since everything is finite: $|S_4/K_4| = \frac{|S_4|}{|K_4|} = \frac{12}{4} = 3$.

We know that there are only two groups of order 3: \mathbb{Z}_3 and S_3 . Hungford I.G.

If we show that S_4/K_4 is not abelian, then $S_4/K_4 \cong S_3$.

We will show $S_4/K_4 \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_3$ by showing that it does not contain an element of order 3. Let $\sigma \in S_4$, then $|\sigma|$ is the least common multiple of the orders of the disjoint cycles into which it decomposes. Since σ acts on four elements, the decomposition must be:

σ is a 4-cycle; σ is a 3-cycle, σ is two disjoint 2-cycles, σ is a 2-cycle. But all of these have order less than six.

An element of S_4/K_4 is of the form σK_4 where $\sigma \in S_4$. Now $|\sigma K_4|$ divides $|\sigma|$, so $|\sigma K_4| < 6$. So S_4/K_4 has no element of order 3, so $S_4/K_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$.

② - How many Sylow 2 and Sylow 5 subgroups are there in a non-commutative group of order 20?

$|G|=2^2 \cdot 5$, so by the Third Sylow Theorem: $n_5=1$, $n_2=1, 5$.

Suppose $n_2=1$, we prove that G is abelian. Let H_2 be the only Sylow 2-subgroup, by the Second Sylow Theorem, $H_2 \trianglelefteq G$, $H_5 \trianglelefteq G$. Also, $|H_2|=4$, $|H_5|=5$, and $H_2 \cap H_5 = \{e\}$.

Hungford I.S.3. By normality and trivial intersection: H and K commute.

Also $\underline{HK=H \times K \trianglelefteq G}$. Now: $|H \times K|=20=|G|$ so $H \times K=G$.

Alternatively: Hungford I.B.6. $H, K \trianglelefteq G$, $|H \times K|=20$ so $H \times K=G$.

Now H is commutative, K is commutative, and H and K commute with each other, so G is commutative.

Hence G has 5 Sylow 2-subgroups and 1 Sylow 5-subgroup.

③ - Let $T = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z|=1\}$ group with respect to multiplication. Prove that $G \triangleleft T$ finite means G cyclic.

Let $G \triangleleft T$ finite subgroup, if $G=\{1\}$ then it is cyclic. Let G non-trivial. We can write elements of T as: $e^{\theta i}$ for $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$. Consider:

$$G = \{e^{\theta i} \in T \mid \theta \in J \subseteq \mathbb{N} \text{ finite}\}.$$

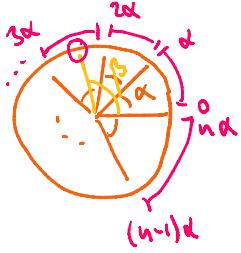
Let: $\alpha := \min \{\theta \in J \mid e^{\theta i} \neq 1\}$, which exists because J is finite. Then we have:

$e^{\alpha i} \in G$, so it has some order $|e^{\alpha i}|=n$, i.e. $e^{n\alpha i}=1$.

$e^{di} \in G$, so it has some order $|e^{di}| = n$, i.e. $e^{n di} = 1$.

Suppose G is not cyclic, then there is $p \in J$ with $e^{pi} \notin \langle e^{di} \rangle = \{1, e^{di}, \dots, e^{(n-1)di}\}$.

Now $p \in (kd, (k+1)d)$ for some $k = 0, \dots, n-1$. Hence: $e^{pi-kdi} = \underbrace{e^{pi}}_G \cdot \underbrace{e^{-kdi}}_G \in G$ for



that specific $k = 0, \dots, n-1$. But now $p-kd \in J$, and $kd < p < (k+1)d$ mean $p-kd \in J$. This contradicts the minimality of d . So $G = \langle e^{di} \rangle$ must be cyclic.

Alternatively: Use the classification theorem for finitely generated abelian groups, pick element of maximal order, get contradiction.

④ Prove that every two sided ideal of $M_n(\mathbb{Z})$ is of the form $M_n(k\mathbb{Z})$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Note that $k\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is an ideal. All ideals of \mathbb{Z} are of this form.

Claim: Let R commutative ring (with unit), then every two sided ideal of $M_n(R)$ is of the form $M_n(I)$ for some ideal $I \subseteq R$.

Let $J \subseteq M_n(R)$ a two sided ideal. Let: $I := \{a \in R \mid \text{there is } A \in J \text{ with } a_{ii} = a\}$.

This is an ideal: if $a, b \in I$ then there are $A, B \in J$ with $a_{ii} = a$, $b_{ii} = b$, so:

$a - b = a_{ii} - b_{ii} = c_{ii}$ for $C = A - B \in J$. If further $r \in R$, then:

$$r \cdot a = d_{ii} \text{ for } D = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} A \in J.$$

Now we prove $J = M_n(I)$.

1) Pick $A \in J$, then:

so $a_{ij} \in I$ for all
 $i, j = 1, \dots, n$.

Hence $A \in M_n(I)$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & \overset{j}{\cdots} \\ & \ddots & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & & \\ \cdots & a_{ij} & \cdots & \\ \vdots & & & \end{bmatrix}}_J \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ \vdots & 0 & & \\ \vdots & & 0 & \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} & & & \\ * & & & \end{bmatrix} \in J$$

2) Pick $B \in M_n(I)$. Since $b_{ij} \in I$ for all $i, j = 1, \dots, n$, there are matrices $d_{ij} \in J$ such that $(a_{ij})_{ii} = b_{ij}$. Now:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & & \overset{j}{\cdots} \\ & \ddots & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & \ddots & & \\ & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & \overset{j}{\cdots} \\ & \ddots & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \vdots & & & \\ \cdots & d_{ij} & \cdots & \\ \vdots & & & \end{bmatrix}}_J \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & \\ \vdots & 0 & & \\ \vdots & & 0 & \\ 0 & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} & & & \\ * & & & \end{bmatrix} \in J$$

such that $(a_{ij})_{ii} = b_{ij}$. Now:

$$B_{ij} := \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{A_{ij}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & \\ 0 & & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & & \\ 0 & & & & & \\ \vdots & & & & & \\ 0 & & & & & \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\Sigma} \in J \text{ since } A_{ij} \in J.$$

$$\text{So: } B = \sum_{i,j=1}^n B_{ij} \in J.$$

Alternatively: use linear transformations for the matrices Σ, Σ' .

⑤ - Are $\mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-2)$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-3)$ isomorphic?

Suppose: $\phi: \mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-2) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-3)$ is an isomorphism. We must have $\phi(1)=1$, so

$\phi(j)=j$ for all $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now let's look at $\phi(x)$:

$$\phi(x)^2 = \phi(x^2) = \phi(2) = 2, \text{ since } x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{x^2-2}.$$

Since ϕ is surjective, we must have $\phi(x) = ax+b$ for some $a \neq 0$ (otherwise $\text{im}(\phi) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$).

$$\text{Now: } (ax+b)^2 = a^2x^2 + b^2 + 2axb = 3a^2 + b^2 + 2axb \pmod{x^2-3}.$$

$$\text{And: } (ax+b)^2 = \phi(x)^2 = 2 \pmod{x^2-3}.$$

For this, we need: $2ab=0$, hence $b=0$ since $a \neq 0$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then: $3a^2=2$ which has no solution in \mathbb{Z} . Contradiction.

Hence $\mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-2)$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x] / (x^2-3)$ are not isomorphic.

⑥ - R ring, M an R -mod Noetherian. Let $\phi: M \rightarrow M$ surjective R -hom. Show ϕ is an isomorphism.

We want to show that ϕ is injective. Suppose not, that is, suppose $\text{ker}(\phi) \neq 0$.

Claim: $\text{ker}(\phi) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^2) \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^n) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1}) \subsetneq \dots$

Remark: ϕ surjective means ϕ^n is also surjective. details.

Now if $\text{ker}(\phi) \neq 0$, we show $\text{ker}(\phi^n) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1})$. For $m \in \text{ker}(\phi^n)$, then $\phi^{n+1}(m) = \phi(\phi^n(m)) = 0$, so indeed $\text{ker}(\phi^n) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1})$. Pick $x \in M$ non-zero, $x \in \text{ker}(\phi)$. Since ϕ^n is surjective, there is $y \in M$ with $\phi^n(y) = x$, and now $\phi(\phi^n(y)) = \phi(x) = 0$. Hence $y \in \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1})$

there is $\gamma \in M$ with $\phi^n(\gamma) = x$, and now $\phi(\phi^n(\gamma)) = \phi(x) = 0$. Hence $\gamma \in \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1})$ but $\gamma \notin \text{ker}(\phi^n)$. Then $\text{ker}(\phi^n) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1})$.

We found:

$\text{ker}(\phi) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^2) \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^n) \subsetneq \text{ker}(\phi^{n+1}) \subsetneq \dots$ an ascending chain of submodules that doesn't stabilize, a contradiction with M being Noetherian.

⑦- R I.D. Show that R field iff every R-mod is projective.

\Rightarrow) Suppose R field, the R-mods are R-vector spaces, so they are free, so projective.

\Leftarrow) Suppose every R-mod is projective.

Claim 1: R cannot contain a proper ideal that is not prime.

Claim 2: If R is not a field, then R contains a proper ideal that is not prime.

Proof 1: Suppose $I \subseteq R$ is a proper ideal that is not prime. Since R is an integral domain, $I \neq \{0\}$ since otherwise we would have zero divisors. Consider R/I an R-mod.

Then by hypothesis R/I is projective.

$$\text{We have: } \pi: R \rightarrow \frac{R}{I}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Id}_{R/I}: \frac{R}{I} \rightarrow \frac{R}{I}.$$

$$r \mapsto r+I \quad \quad \quad r+I \mapsto r+I$$

We can fit them:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & R/I & \\ f \swarrow & \downarrow \text{Id}_{R/I} & \\ R & \xrightarrow{\pi} & \frac{R}{I} \rightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Since R/I is projective, there exists some R-hom:

$$g: \frac{R}{I} \rightarrow R$$

such that $\pi g = \text{Id}_{R/I}$.

Since I is not prime, there are $r, s \in R \setminus I$ such that $rs \in I$ and $r, s \notin I$. Now:

$\pi g(s+I) = s+I \neq I$, so $s+I \neq 0$, also since R is an integral domain and $r \neq 0$, $g(s+I) \neq 0$, then $rg(s+I) \neq 0$.

But:

$$rg(s+I) = g(r(s+I)) = g(rs+I) = g(I) = 0, \text{ a contradiction.}$$

This proves Claim 1.

Proof 2: Let R not be a field, we want a proper, non-prime, ideal.

Pick $r \in R$ that is not a unit, which exists because R is not a field.

-n - Linear then $\langle r \rangle$ is not prime, proper, ideal.

Pick $r \in R$ that is not a unit, which exists because $\dots = 0$ never.

If r is not prime then $\langle r \rangle$ is not prime, proper, ideal.

If r is prime, then $r^2 | r \cdot r$, but if $r^2 | r$ then $r = s \cdot r^2$ for some $s \in R$. Since R is integral domain, we can cancel: $1 = s \cdot r$, so in fact r is a unit. Hence r^2 is not prime, so $\langle r^2 \rangle$ is not prime, proper, ideal. This proves Claim 2.

To put everything together: by contrapositive of Claim 2, if R does not contain a proper, not-prime, ideal, then R is a field, and by Claim 1 we have that R indeed cannot contain a proper ideal that is not prime.

Alternatively: \Leftarrow) Suppose R not a field, consider $\frac{R}{M}$ as R -mod, where M is any proper non-trivial ideal. Then:

$$0 \rightarrow M \rightarrow R \rightarrow \frac{R}{M} \rightarrow 0 \text{ splits because } \frac{R}{M} \text{ is projective.}$$

Then: $R \cong M \oplus \frac{R}{M}$ a contradiction.
 integral domain
 has torsion

⑧- k field, $a \in k$, p prime. Prove that $x^p + a$ is either irreducible or has a root in k .

If $p=2$ then $x^2 + a$ doesn't have a root in k iff it is irreducible, it works.

Assume $p \geq 3$ (is odd). In this factor: $x^p + a = (x - a_1) \dots (x - a_p)$. Suppose $x^p + a$ is not irreducible in k . Then: $x^p + a = f(x)g(x)$ for $f(x), g(x) \in k[x]$ and $\deg(f), \deg(g) \geq 1$.

Since p is odd, either f or g has even degree, let's say f . Now:

$f(x) = (x - a_1) \dots (x - a_r)$ with $1 \leq r < p$, maybe reordering the roots.

Set: $b = a_1 \dots a_r$, the constant term of f , so $b \in k$. Moreover: $a_i^p + a = 0$ because a_i are roots of $x^p + a$, so $a_i^p = -a$. Hence:

$$b^p = a_1^p \dots a_r^p = (-a)^p = (-a)^p = a^p.$$

Since p is prime, it is coprime with r , so there are $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that:

$$1 = mp + nr. \text{ Thus:}$$

$$a = a^1 = a^{mp+nr} = a^m a^n = (a^m)^p (a^n)^p = (a^m)^p (b^p)^n = (a^m)^p (b^n)^p = (a^m b^n)^p.$$

By p odd:

$$a = a \cdot a^{-1} = a \cdot a = (a^{\frac{1}{p}})^p \cdot (a^{\frac{1}{p}})^{-p} = a^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot a^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdots$$

By p odd:

$$-a = -(a^{\frac{1}{p}})^p = (-a^{\frac{1}{p}})^p. \text{ So } -a^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ is a root of } x^p + a.$$

Since $a, b \in k$, we have $-a^{\frac{1}{p}}b^{\frac{1}{p}} \in k$.

- (9) - $g(x) = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 + 3) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, E the splitting field of g over \mathbb{Q} .

(a) What is $[E : \mathbb{Q}]$?

The roots of g are $\pm\sqrt{2}$ and $\pm i\sqrt{3}$, so $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3})$. Thus:

$$[E : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})][\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 2 = 4 \text{ because:}$$

(i) $x^2 - 2$ is the minimal poly. of $\sqrt{2}$ over \mathbb{Q} (irreducible).

(ii) $x^2 + 3$ is the minimal poly. of $i\sqrt{3}$ over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ (irreducible).

(b) Construct $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q}) = G$.

We have $|G| = [E : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$, so either $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Alternatively: send $\sqrt{2} \mapsto \pm\sqrt{2}$, $i\sqrt{3} \mapsto \pm i\sqrt{3}$. There are all in G by cardinality reasons. $\sigma: \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}$; $\tau: \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2}$, $i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3}$; $i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3}$ have order 2.

Now: $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, given by: $\gamma: \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}$, $\text{id}: \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2}$.

This is good enough to continue:

Then by the Extension Theorem, since $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})] = 2$ we have two possible ways of extending γ , id (for each): $i\sqrt{3} \mapsto \pm i\sqrt{3}$.

$$\begin{array}{lll} G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 & \gamma_+: \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}; \quad \delta: \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2}; \quad \gamma_-: \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}; \quad \text{id}: \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2}. \\ & i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3} \quad i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3} \quad i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3} \quad i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3} \\ |\gamma_+| = 2 & |\delta| = 2 & |\gamma_-| = 2 \end{array}$$

So $G \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ is an explicit isomorphism.

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_+ &\mapsto (1, 0) \\ \delta &\mapsto (0, 1) \\ \gamma_- &\mapsto (1, 1) \\ \text{id} &\mapsto (0, 0) \end{aligned}$$

- (c) Show explicitly the correspondence between the intermediate fields $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq F \subseteq E$ and the subgroups $H \subseteq G$.

The subgroups of $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ are $\langle (1, 0) \rangle, \langle (0, 1) \rangle, \langle (1, 1) \rangle, G, \langle (0, 0) \rangle$.

The intermediate fields are: \mathbb{Q} , $\overbrace{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3})}^E$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3})$, $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{6})$.

$$\begin{aligned} E^{\langle \text{id} \rangle} &= E \quad \text{so: } \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \text{id} \rangle. \\ E^G = \mathbb{Q} &\quad \text{so: } \mathbb{Q} \longleftrightarrow G. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} E^{(10)} &= E \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) \longleftrightarrow \langle 10 \rangle. \\ E^G &= \mathbb{Q} \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q} \longleftrightarrow G. \\ E^{\langle \gamma_+ \rangle} &= \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \gamma_+ \rangle. \\ E^{\langle \delta \rangle} &= \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \delta \rangle. \\ E^{\langle \gamma_- \rangle} &= \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{6}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{6}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \gamma_- \rangle. \end{aligned}$$