

August 2014:

- ⑥ - H finite p -group acting on Σ finite.
 $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$ fixed points. Show that $|\Sigma| \equiv |\Sigma_0|$
mod p .

Lemma II.5.1. Hungerford.

Let $\{\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_n\}$ be representatives of the orbits of
the action $H \curvearrowright \Sigma$ with size over 1. Then:

$$|\Sigma| = |\Sigma_0| + |\bar{x}_1| + \dots + |\bar{x}_n|$$

By the Order-Stabilizer theorem: $|\bar{x}_i| = [H : H_{x_i}] > 1$,

since H is p -group, all subgroups have order divisible

by p . So: $|\Sigma| - |\Sigma_0| = |\bar{x}_1| + \dots + |\bar{x}_n|$ is

divisible by p , so $|\Sigma| - |\Sigma_0| \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

(b) Prove Second Sylow Theorem.

Any two Sylow p -subgroups are conjugate.

Let H, K be two Sylow p -subgroups, $H \cap G/p \xrightarrow[\Sigma]{\cong}$ translation.

The number of cosets: $|G/p| = [G : P]$, which is relatively prime to p . Then $\#\Sigma |G/p|$, so $|\Sigma| > 0$

part (a). This means that a coset $aP \in G/p$ is

fixed: $h(aP) = aP$ for all $h \in H$. Thus:

$$\tilde{\alpha}^{-1}(h(aP)) = \tilde{\alpha}^{-1}(aP) = P, \text{ which means } \tilde{\alpha}^{-1}ha \in P$$

for all $h \in H$. So $\tilde{\alpha}^{-1}ha \in P$, so since

$$|\tilde{\alpha}^{-1}H\alpha| = |H| = |P| \text{ we have } \tilde{\alpha}^{-1}H\alpha = P.$$

Q) - F_1, F_2 f.d. G -extension fields of K with

$F_i \subset \bar{k}$, $i=1,2$. Show $F_1 \cdot F_2$ is Galois over K .

Hungerford I.1.11. Finite dimensional extensions are finitely generated and algebraic.

So \bar{F}_1/k , \bar{F}_2/k are f.g. and algebraic.

Also, Galois and also f.d. over k , so Hungerford I.3.11.

and following remark implies that there exist polynomials

$f_1(x), f_2(x) \in k[x]$ with irreducible factors such that

F_1, F_2 are the splitting fields of $f_1(x), f_2(x)$ respectively.

Thus $\bar{F}_1 \cdot \bar{F}_2$ is the splitting field of the least common

multiple of $f_1(x), f_2(x)$. So by Hungerford I.3.11. we

have that $\bar{F}_1 \cdot \bar{F}_2$ is Galois over k .

(8)- R comm. ring satisfying the descending chain condition.

Show that every prime ideal in R is maximal.

We work with $R \ni 1$. Trick: look at R/ρ for ρ prime.

We want to use that ρ maximal iff R/ρ field.

We know that ρ prime iff R/ρ domain.

Recall: An ideal $I \subset R/\rho$ is of the form J/ρ for

some ideal $J \subset R$. So this means that R/ρ also

satisfies the descending chain condition. \hookrightarrow maybe be more explicit with details here.

Take an element $x \in R/\rho$, we want $x^i \in R/\rho$. Consider:

$(x) \supseteq (x^2) \supseteq (x^3) \supseteq \dots \supseteq (x^n) \supseteq \dots$ is a descending chain in R/ρ .

It must stabilize: there is some i with $(x^i) = (x^{i+1})$ for

all $j > i$. In particular $(x^i) = (x^{i+1})$ so there is $\gamma \in R/\rho$

such that $x^i = \gamma x^{i+1}$, since ρ prime, R/ρ is domain so

we can cancel: $1 = \gamma x$ (and $1 = x\gamma$) so $x^i = \gamma \in R/\rho$.

January 2015:

(i) - (a) G group, $A, B \subseteq G$ abelian. Prove $A \cap B \trianglelefteq \langle A \cup B \rangle$.

Thought process: $A \cap B$ should be commutative inside $\langle A \cup B \rangle$.
So if we see $A \cap B \subseteq Z(\langle A \cup B \rangle) \trianglelefteq \langle A \cup B \rangle$, we are done.

Let $x \in A \cap B$, $g \in \langle A \cup B \rangle$, we want: $gx = xg$. Write:

$g = a_1 b_1 \dots a_n b_n$ with $a_i \in A$, $b_i \in B$. Now:

$$gx = a_1 b_1 \dots a_n b_n x = a_1 b_1 \dots a_n \times b_n = \dots =$$

$$= a_1 \times b_1 \dots a_n b_n = x a_1 b_1 \dots a_n b_n = xg.$$

because $x \in A, B$ both abelian. Then $A \cap B \subseteq Z(\langle A \cup B \rangle)$,

so $A \cap B \trianglelefteq \langle A \cup B \rangle$.

(b) G finite group not cyclic of prime order (not $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$ for p prime)

with every proper subgroup abelian. Prove G contains a nontrivial, proper, normal subgroup.

Since $|G|$ is not prime, by the Sylow Theorems we have a bunch of proper nontrivial subgroups of G (all of them are abelian because we are told so). Since G is finite, there is a proper nontrivial subgroup that is maximal with respect to inclusion H .

Look at $N_G(H)$, since H is maximal and $H < N_G(H)$ we have $N_G(H) = H$ or $N_G(H) = G$. If $N_G(H) = G$ then $H \trianglelefteq G$ and we are done. We are left with the case $N_G(H) = H$.

In particular $[G : N_G(H)] = [G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$ are the conjugates of H . Take \bar{H} a conjugate of H , it must also be maximal ($\bar{H} < M$, then $\bar{H} = gHg^{-1}$ so $H = \bar{g}^{-1}\bar{H}\bar{g} = \bar{g}^{\prime}\bar{H}g \leq \bar{g}^{\prime}Mg = \bar{M}$, contradiction with H maximal)

If $H \cap \bar{H} \neq \{e\}$ then $\langle H \cup \bar{H} \rangle = G$ by maximality of

H, \bar{H} , and by (a) we have $\{e\} \neq H \cap \bar{H} \leq \langle H \cup \bar{H} \rangle = G$.

What remains is $H \cap \bar{H} = \{e\}$. This must be the case for all conjugates of H (otherwise we are in the previous case).

The number of nonidentity elements in some conjugate of H is:

$$\frac{|G|}{|H|} \cdot (|H|-1) = |G| - \frac{|G|}{|H|}.$$

Now since $|H| \geq 2$ because H nontrivial, we have:

$$\frac{|G|}{2} \leq |G| - \frac{|G|}{|H|} < |G|-1.$$

So there is some nontrivial $x \in G$ that is not contained in any conjugate of H . Thus $\langle x \rangle$ is a proper nontrivial subgroup of G ,

so it is contained in some maximal nontrivial proper subgroup K that is not conjugate to H . We can assume (by doing the same argument as for H) that the intersection of K with

any of its conjugates \bar{K} is trivial: $K \cap \bar{K} = \{e\}$.

We now have two options: $\bar{H} \cap \bar{K} = \{e\}$ or $\bar{H} \cap \bar{K} \neq \{e\}$.

If $\bar{H} \cap \bar{K} = \{e\}$ then we must have:

$$|G| > |G| - \underbrace{\frac{|G|}{|\bar{H}|}}_{\text{number of nonidentity elements in some conjugate of } H} + |G| - \underbrace{\frac{|G|}{|\bar{K}|}}_{\text{number of nonidentity elements in some conjugate of } K} \geq \frac{|G|}{2} + \frac{|G|}{2} = |G|, \text{ contradiction.}$$

number of nonidentity elements in some conjugate of H

number of nonidentity elements in some conjugate of K

Finally, we find \bar{H}, \bar{K} some conjugates of H, K that are maximal, so $\langle \bar{H} \cup \bar{K} \rangle = G$, and different, and $\bar{H} \cap \bar{K} \neq \{e\}$, so

$\bar{H} \cap \bar{K}$ is a nontrivial, proper subgroup. By part (a) we have

$$\bar{H} \cap \bar{K} \trianglelefteq \langle \bar{H} \cup \bar{K} \rangle = G.$$

② - $|G| = 45$, prove G abelian.

$$|G| = 45 = 3^2 \cdot 5.$$

By Sylow 3 we have $n_5 = 1, 3, 9$ so $n_5 = 1$ so it is normal
H

and such subgroup is $\frac{\mathcal{N}}{(5)}_1$, and $n_3 = 1$ so it is normal and
K

such subgroup is $\frac{\mathcal{N}}{(9)}_1$ or $\frac{\mathcal{N}}{(3)}_1 \times \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(3)}_1$.

Any non-identity element in H or K have coprime orders, so

$H \cap K = \{e\}$. Now $|HK| = 45$, since $H, K \trianglelefteq$ we have

$$HK = H \times K \leq G \text{ so } H \times K = G.$$

Thus $G \cong \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(9)}_1 \times \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(5)}_1$ or $G \cong \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(3)}_1 \times \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(3)}_1 \times \frac{\mathcal{N}}{(5)}_1$,

both abelian.

③ - R integral domain, Noetherian. Prove that if every two

$a, b \neq 0$ in R have a common divisor $x a + y b$, $x, y \in R$,

then R is a P.I.D.

Since R is Noetherian, every ideal is finitely generated Theorem 1.9.

So it suffices to prove that if $I \subseteq R$ is an ideal generated by n elements,

then I is principal (i.e. generated by one element). Do induction.

$n=1$: Good.

Suppose hypothesis true for $n-1$: if an ideal can be generated
by $n-1$ elements (or fewer), then it is principal.

n : Suppose $I = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$, an element $x \in I$ can be written
as $\overset{\text{claim}}{I} = (\epsilon, a_3, \dots, a_n)$, ϵ taking a_1, a_2 .

Warning! : $I = (a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}) + (a_n) = (\epsilon)(a_n) = (\epsilon, a_n) = (S)$

is dangerous to do!

$$(a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}) = (d)$$

$$\text{as } x = \epsilon_1 a_1 + \dots + \epsilon_n a_n = \underbrace{(\epsilon_1 a_1 + \dots + \epsilon_{n-1} a_{n-1})}_a + (a_n).$$

Nok: What if $a = 0$? $x \in (d) + (a_n) = (S)$

By hypothesis, if $a \neq 0$, then a and a_n have a \square

common divisor, call it $s = u a + v a_n$ for some $u, v \in R$.

Compare (S) with $(a) + (a_n)$, we want $(S) = (a) + (a_n)$.

This does not work as general as we need!

Remark: $(a_1, \dots, a_n) = (a_1) + \dots + (a_n)$, but for this proving just $n=1$ is not good enough, we also need $\boxed{n=2}$.

① Here proving $(d) + (an) = (S)$ is good enough for a solution.

② Reducing n to $n=1$. This does not require to prove $n=2$.

$n=2$: $I = (a, b)$. We know that $a, b \neq 0$, so they have

a common divisor $r = xa + yb$. The claim is

$(r) = (a, b)$. Clearly $r \in (a, b)$ so $(r) \subseteq (a, b)$. Now
 ↑ this is hard without explicit form!
 since $r | a$ and $r | b$ we have $(a, b) \subseteq (r)$.

$s, a_1 + \dots + sna_n \in (r, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ and any element in (r, a_2, \dots, a_n) is in (a_1, \dots, a_n) .

④ - Prove that $x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

By Gauss' Lemma, if it is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} it will be irreducible

over \mathbb{Q} . How to proceed:

1. Show that it does not have a root.
Hence if it decomposes, it must be as a multiplication of polynomials of degree 2.
2. Suppose it decomposes as a multiplication of polynomials of degree 2. Find contradiction by multiplying out.

Alternatively:

Rule: A polynomial is reducible over \mathbb{Z} implies that it is reducible over $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ for all prime p .

So if a polynomial is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ for some prime p , then it is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} .

Look at $p=3$ and proceed as before.

⑤ - $f(x) = x^5 - 6x + 3$ over \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{F} : its splitting field.

(a) Prove $f(x)$ irreducible.

Eisenstein's by $p=3$.

Roots of $f(x)$:

s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5 .

(b) Prove $\text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q}) \leq S_5$.

Elements of the Galois group must permute roots of $f(x)$.

Since F is the splitting field of $f(x)$, it is generated by all the roots of $f(x)$. Note that any two $\alpha, \beta \in \text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q})$

such that $\alpha(\zeta_i) = \beta(\zeta_i)$ for all $i=1,\dots,5$ are equal.

for injectivity Associate each root ζ_i to a letter, we have 5 of them,

each element of $\text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q})$ permutes them, since they are

determined by their action on the roots, the way:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q}) & \xrightarrow{\phi} & S_5 \\ \alpha & \longmapsto & \phi(\alpha) \text{ permuting } 1, \dots, 5 \text{ as} \\ & & \text{roots } \zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_5. \end{array}$$

This ϕ is an injection.

(c) Prove that G contains a 5-cycle.

Let r be a root of $f(x)$. Then (since f is irreducible of degree 5) we have $[\mathbb{Q}(r), \mathbb{Q}] = 5$. Since F/\mathbb{Q} is Galois we

have $|G| = [F : \mathbb{Q}] = [F : \mathbb{Q}(r)][\mathbb{Q}(r) : \mathbb{Q}]$ so $5 \mid |G|$.

Then we must have an element of order 5 by Cauchy's

Theorem. Since $G \leq S_5$, the only elements of S_5 with

order 5 are the 5-cycles, we must have that G has

a 5-cycle.

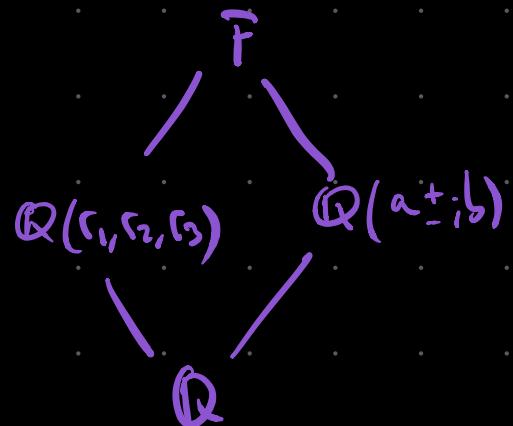
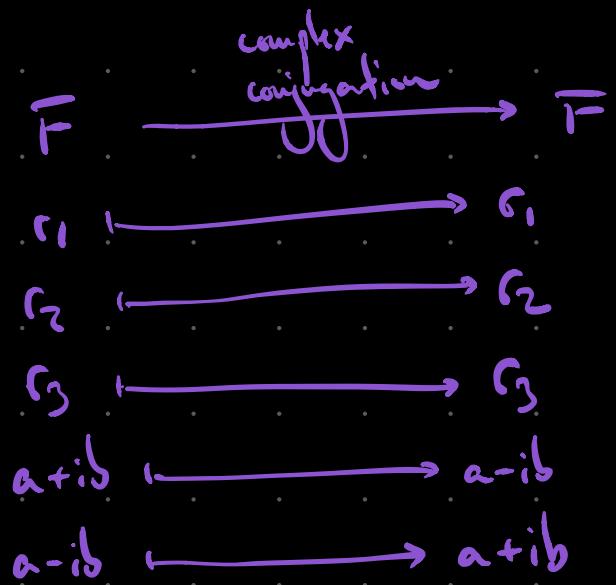
(d) Prove that G contains a transposition.

Hint: $f(x)$ has exactly 3 real roots, so $f(x)$ has exactly 2 complex non-real roots.

Two of the roots are then of the form $a \pm bi$ with $b \neq 0$.

Then complex conjugation is an F -automorphism fixing \mathbb{Q} .

Real roots: r_1, r_2, r_3 .



$$Q \subseteq \bar{F} \subseteq C \xrightarrow{?} Q \subseteq F \subseteq C$$

So complex conjugation is a

transposition in $G \leq S_5$.

Roots:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$

$$\begin{array}{c} k \quad (x-\alpha)(x-\beta)(x-\gamma)(x-\delta) \\ | \\ F \quad (x-k)(x-\gamma) \\ | \\ Q \end{array}$$

(e) Determine G .

Claim: $G \cong S_5$. Because G has a 5-cycle and a transposition.

Rank: One of the equivalent ways of generating S_n is having an n -cycle and a transposition.

Let σ be our 5-cycle, τ the transposition. There is
 $\begin{matrix} \text{"} \\ (i_1, i_2) \end{matrix}$

some power of σ that sends any a to b , for $a, b \in \{1, \dots, 5\}$.

$$\sigma = (a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5).$$

$$\sigma^2 = (a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5).$$

$$\sigma^3 = (a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5).$$

$$\sigma^4 = (a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5).$$

$$\sigma^5 = \text{id}.$$

We may then assume that G contains a 5-cycle σ of the form $\sigma = (i_1 i_2 i_3 i_4 i_5)$. Since S_5 is generated by transpositions,

it suffices to show that G has all transpositions. It is good

enough to show G has $(i_1 i_2), (i_2 i_3), (i_3 i_4), (i_4 i_5)$

by taking $i_j \neq i_k$ for all $j < k$:

$$(i_1 i_2) = (i_1 i_{j+1})(i_{j+1} i_{j+2}) \cdots (i_{k-2} i_{k-1})(i_{k-1} i_k)(i_{k-2} i_{k-1}) \cdots$$

$$\dots (ij+ij\sigma)(ij+\tau ij) \dots$$

$$\tau = (ii_2) \cdot$$

Well now: $(ij \ i j \bar{\sigma}) = \sigma^{j-i} \tau \sigma^{-(j-i)}$ for $\sigma = (i_1 i_2 i_3 i_4 i_5)$

⑥- Prove $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$ is not the splitting field of any

polynomial over \mathbb{Q} .

We do this by showing that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})/\mathbb{Q}$ is not normal, and thus by Hungerford V.3.14. it cannot be the splitting field of any polynomial over \mathbb{Q} .

We show that the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt[4]{2}$ has a non-real root, meaning that a root cannot be in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$, so it cannot split in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$. Then by definition $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})/\mathbb{Q}$ is not normal.

$$f(x) = (x - \sqrt[4]{2})(x + \sqrt[4]{2})(x - i\sqrt[4]{2})(x + i\sqrt[4]{2}) = \\ = (x^2 - \sqrt[4]{2})(x^2 + \sqrt[4]{2}) = x^4 - 2.$$

$$f(\sqrt[4]{2}) = 0.$$

(or we reduction to $\mathbb{F}_{(S)}$).

This $f(x)$ is irreducible by Eisenstein's with $p=2$.

Thus $f(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt[4]{2}$ and has $i\sqrt[4]{2}$ a non-real root.