

August 2013:

⑧ - G group, $V = k^2$ $k = K$.

$$G \times V \longrightarrow V$$

$$(g, v) \longmapsto g \cdot v$$

(a) We want group homomorphism

$$\rho: G \longrightarrow GL_2(k)$$

Take a basis $e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

for V . Now for $g \in G$ we

have:

$$g \cdot e_1 = g_{11} \cdot e_1 + g_{12} \cdot e_2$$
$$g \cdot e_2 = g_{21} \cdot e_1 + g_{22} \cdot e_2$$

row, column

$$M_g = \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

M_g^T gives
the group
action:

Decompose $v \in V$ as $v = v_1 \cdot e_1 + v_2 \cdot e_2$

then: $g \cdot v = M_g^T v$

$$\rho: G \longrightarrow M_2(k) \text{ is a map.}$$
$$g \longmapsto M_g^T$$

We can prove that: $\rho(g \cdot h) = \rho(g) \cdot \rho(h)$.

$$\begin{cases} h \cdot e_1 = h_{11} \cdot e_1 + h_{21} \cdot e_2 \\ h \cdot e_2 = h_{12} \cdot e_1 + h_{22} \cdot e_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\rho(g \cdot h) = M_{gh}^T$$

$$\rho(g) \cdot \rho(h) = M_g^T M_h^T =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$gh \cdot e_1 = g(h \cdot e_1) = (g_{11}h_{11} + g_{12}h_{21})e_1 + (g_{11}h_{12} + g_{12}h_{22})e_2$$

$$gh \cdot e_2 = g(h \cdot e_2) = (g_{21}h_{11} + g_{22}h_{21})e_1 + (g_{21}h_{12} + g_{22}h_{22})e_2$$

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{1} = \rho(1) = \rho(gg^{-1}) = \rho(g)\rho(g^{-1}) \\ \mathbb{1} = \rho(1) = \rho(g^{-1}g) = \rho(g^{-1})\rho(g) \end{cases}$$

→ $\rho(g^{-1}) = \rho(g)^{-1}$. So $\rho(g)$ is

invertible so $\rho: G \rightarrow GL_2(k)$.

And $\rho(1) = \mathbb{1}$. because G acts on V .

(b) Suppose that $\rho(g) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(g) \\ 0 & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix}$

$\beta: G \rightarrow k$,

$\rho: G \rightarrow K^*$. Show V has a 1D invariant subspace.

Note:
$$\rho(g) \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(g) \\ 0 & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so $\rho(g)$ keeps $\{ \alpha \cdot e_1 : \alpha \in K \}$ invariant.
is a 1D invariant of V .

subspace W
for all $g \in G$; $\rho(g)(W) \subseteq W$

(c) Show that ρ is a group homomorphism
and that $\rho(gh) = \rho(h) + \rho(g)\delta(h)$.

Since:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(gh) \\ 0 & \delta(gh) \end{bmatrix} = \rho(gh) = \rho(g)\rho(h) =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(g) \\ 0 & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(h) \\ 0 & \delta(h) \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(h) + \beta(g)\delta(h) \\ 0 & \delta(g)\delta(h) \end{bmatrix}$$

Compare entries.

(d) If $\beta(gh) = \beta(h) + \beta(g)\delta(h)$ and

$v = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \in V$ with $b \neq 0$. Take $U = k \cdot v$.

Suppose $\rho(g)(U) \subseteq U$ for all $g \in G$.

Show there is some $c \in k$ so that for

all $g \in G$: $\beta(g) = \delta(g)c - c$.

Check that this β satisfies the condition

in (c).

$$\rho(g) \cdot v = \alpha \cdot v \quad (*)$$

Further assume that $\rho(g) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(g) \\ 0 & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix}$.

Rank: If we work over some

general action $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha(g) & \beta(g) \\ \gamma(g) & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix}$ the

conclusion is

not true; take $\alpha(g) = 2 = \delta(g)$,

$\beta(g) = 0 = \gamma(g)$;

now $0 = \beta(g) = \delta(g) \cdot c - c = 2 \cdot c - c =$

$= c$.

$$(*) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \beta(g) \\ 0 & \delta(g) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a + \beta(g) \cdot b \\ \delta(g) \cdot b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cdot a \\ \alpha \cdot b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(g)b = \alpha \cdot b \Rightarrow \delta(g) = \alpha.$$

$$a + \beta(g)b = \alpha a \Rightarrow \beta(g)b = (\alpha - 1)a$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta(g) = (\alpha - 1) \frac{a}{b} \text{ since } b \neq 0.$$

$$= (\delta(g) - 1) \frac{a}{b}.$$

So set $c := \frac{a}{b}$, β decomposes as

To check that $\beta(gh) = \beta(h) + \beta(g)\delta(h)$: ^{desired.}

$$\beta(gh) = \delta(gh)c - c = \delta(g)\delta(h)c - c$$

$$\begin{aligned}\beta(h) + \beta(g)\delta(h) &= \delta(h)c - c + (\delta(g)c - c)\delta(h) = \\ &= \cancel{\delta(h)c - c} + \delta(g)\delta(h)c - \cancel{\delta(h)c} = \\ &= \delta(g)\delta(h)c - c\end{aligned}$$

January 2014:

① - A characteristic group is normal.

ψ given by conjugation is an automorphism

so: $g^{-1}Hg = \psi(H) = H$, any H that

is characteristic must be normal.

Suppose $G = HK$ with H, K characteristic,

$H \cap K = \{e\}$. Show $\text{Aut}(G) \cong \text{Aut}(H) \times \text{Aut}(K)$.

H, K are both characteristic, so both are normal.

Recognition Thm: $\tilde{H}, \tilde{K} \leq \tilde{G}$, $\tilde{H} \cap \tilde{K} = \{e\}$
and $\langle \tilde{H}, \tilde{K} \rangle = \tilde{G}$, then $\tilde{G} \cong \tilde{H} \times \tilde{K}$.

We want to apply this to
 $\tilde{H} = \text{Aut}(H)$, $\tilde{K} = \text{Aut}(K)$,
 $\tilde{G} = \text{Aut}(G)$.

Hungerford
p. 61
Corollary 8.7.

$A :=$ automorphisms of G leaving K fix.
 $A \leq \text{Aut}(G)$.

Claim: $A \cong \text{Aut}(H)$.

$$\sigma \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \varphi: H \longrightarrow H \\ h \longmapsto \sigma(h) \end{pmatrix}$$

This is well defined.

Surjective: every $\phi \in \text{Aut}(H)$ can be
using $G \cong H \times K$ seen as $\phi \in A$ by just

leaving $\phi|_K := \text{id}_K$.

Injective: if $\sigma, \tau \in A$ with $\sigma(H) = \tau(H)$

then $\sigma|_H = \tau|_H$ and

$\sigma|_K = \tau|_K$ so $\sigma = \tau|_G$

$B :=$ automorphisms of G leaving H fix.

$B \leq \text{Aut}(G)$.

Claim: $B \cong \text{Aut}(K)$, as before.

Now, we prove $A, B \leq \text{Aut}(G)$ satisfy

hypothesis of the Recognition Theorem.

$A \cap B = \{e\}$ is clear.

$A \leq \text{Aut}(G)$ because for $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(G)$

and $\varphi \in A$, then $\varphi \varphi^{-1}(hK) =$

$\varphi(hK) = \varphi^{-1}(hK) = hK$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \varphi \varphi (\varphi (h) \varphi (k)) = \\
&= \varphi (\underbrace{\varphi \varphi^{-1} (h)}_{e} \underbrace{\varphi \varphi^{-1} (k)}_{\varphi^{-1}(k)}) = \\
&= \varphi (\varphi \varphi^{-1} (h) \varphi^{-1} (k)) = \varphi \varphi \varphi^{-1} (h) k \\
&\quad \underbrace{\varphi \varphi^{-1} (k) = k}
\end{aligned}$$

If $h = e$ then $\varphi \varphi \varphi^{-1}$ fixes k , and

it is an automorphism of G so

$\varphi \varphi \varphi^{-1} \in A$. So $A \trianglelefteq \text{Aut}(G)$.

Similarly $B \trianglelefteq \text{Aut}(G)$.

Now: pick $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(G)$; $\varphi|_H \in \text{Aut}(H)$,

say $\varphi \mapsto \varphi_1$. Similarly $\varphi \mapsto \varphi_2$.

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\text{Aut}(H)} \quad \underbrace{\quad}_A$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\text{Aut}(K)} \quad \underbrace{\quad}_B$

We will show $\varphi = \varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2$.

Pick $hk \in Hk = G$, want:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2(hk) &= \varphi_1(\underbrace{\varphi_2(h)\varphi_2(k)}_h) = \\ &= \varphi_1(h\varphi_2(k)) = \varphi_1(h)\underbrace{\varphi_1\varphi_2(k)}_{\varphi_2(k)} = \\ &= \varphi_1(h)\varphi_2(k) = \varphi(h)\varphi(k) = \\ &= \varphi(hk).\end{aligned}$$

Thus $\text{Aut}(G) = \langle AD \rangle = A \times B$

↑
recognition theorem

Alternative: build isomorphism

$$\text{Aut}(G) \cong \text{Aut}(H) \times \text{Aut}(K)$$

$$\sigma \longmapsto (\sigma|_H, \sigma|_K)$$

this heavily uses $H \times K = G$
 $HK =$

(2^o) - Show that G of $|G| = 2514$ has a
normal cyclic subgroup of index 2.

Classify all groups of order 2014.

By Sylow 3 we must have:

$n_{53} = 1$, call it H , it will be normal.

$n_{19} = 1$, call it K , it will be normal.

Now $H \cap K = \{e\}$. Then $HK = H \times K$ and

$|H \times K| = 19 \cdot 53 = 1007$. Moreover:

$$[G : H \times K] = 2.$$

Since 19, 53 are coprime, $\mathbb{Z}_{19} \times \mathbb{Z}_{53} \cong$
 $\cong \mathbb{Z}_{1007}$ and $H \times K$ is cyclic of index 2,
thus normal.

Remark: $[G : \overline{G}]$ smallest prime dividing

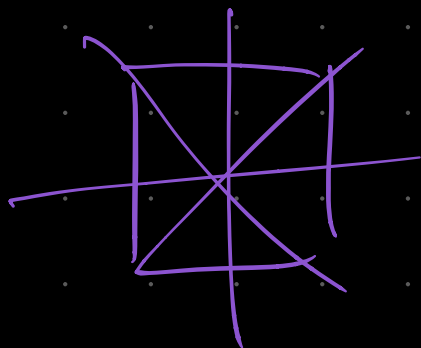
$|G|$ means $\overline{G} \triangleleft G$.

Aside: $H \times K$, H not commutative
 K commutative

$H \times K$ has $(1, K)$ as commutative subgroup.

$H \times K / (1, K) \cong H$ not commutative.

D_8 , mod out by \mathcal{K}_H .



Classifying them: G must have some cyclic normal subgroup F of order 1007.

So given any 2-Sylow subgroup L , we have that $G \cong F \rtimes L$.

big classification theorem

We know $F \cong \mathcal{K}_{19} \times \mathcal{K}_{53}$, $L \cong \mathcal{K}_2$, so

$$\begin{aligned}\phi: \mathcal{K}_2 &\longrightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathcal{K}_{19} \times \mathcal{K}_{53}) \cong \\ &\cong \text{Aut}(\mathcal{K}_{19}) \times \text{Aut}(\mathcal{K}_{53}) \cong \\ &\cong \mathcal{K}_{18} \times \mathcal{K}_{52}.\end{aligned}$$

ϕ must preserve the order of the elements, so $1 \in \mathcal{K}_2$ must be sent to

$\phi(1)$ of order two. The options are

$9 \in \mathcal{K}_{18}$, $26 \in \mathcal{K}_{52}$, so we have:

(i) ϕ is trivial (sends everything to zero).

(ii) $1 \longmapsto (9, 0)$.

(iii) $1 \longmapsto (0, 26)$.

(iv) $1 \longmapsto (9, 26)$.

So for each L we have four options for ϕ , so
four $F \rtimes_{\phi} L \cong G$.

③ - A finite integral domain is a field.

Let D a f.i.d., pick $a \in D$ not zero. Look at

$D \ni \{a^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, we have $a^n = a^m$ by finiteness.
finite $n \neq m$

WLOG let $n > m$, then $a^{n-m} = 1$, so:

$$a \cdot (a^{n-m-1}) = 1$$

where $n-m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ so $n-m-1 \in \mathbb{N}$.

Hence $a^{n-m-1} \in D$ is a^{-1} .

Prove that every prime ideal in a finite commutative ring is maximal.

Let R be finite comm. ring, P prime ideal.

Then R/P is finite integral domain.

So by the above R/P is a field, so P is maximal.

④ - R commutative ring. Prove $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, ?)$ is

left exact.

$$0 \rightarrow L \xrightarrow{e} M \xrightarrow{f} N \quad \text{Apply } \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, ?):$$

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, L) \xrightarrow{e_*} \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, M) \xrightarrow{f_*} \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A, N)$$

$$\varphi: A \rightarrow L \quad e_*(\varphi): A \rightarrow M$$

$$e_*(\varphi): A \xrightarrow{\varphi} L \xrightarrow{e} M$$

$$e_* := e \circ ?$$

To show that this second sequence is exact we need: (i) $\text{Ker}(e_*) = \{0\}$, i.e. e_* injective.

$$(ii) \text{Ker}(f_*) = \text{im}(e_*).$$

(i) Suppose $\phi \in \text{Ker}(e_*)$, $\phi: A \rightarrow L$, with $0 = e_*(\phi) = e \circ \phi: A \rightarrow M$. Take $a \in A$,
now: $0 = e \circ \phi(a) = e(\phi(a))$, since e is injective $\phi(a) = 0$, so $\phi = 0$.

$$(ii) \text{im}(e_*) \subseteq \text{Ker}(f_*).$$

$h: A \rightarrow M$, $h \in \text{im}(e_*)$, so there is

$g: A \rightarrow L$ with $e \circ g = h$.

We know $\text{im}(e) \subseteq \text{ker}(f)$, so applying f :

$$f_*(h) = f \circ h = f \circ e \circ g = f(\underbrace{e \circ g}_{\in \text{im}(e)}) = 0$$

$\text{ker}(f_*) \subseteq \text{im}(e_*)$.

$g \in \text{ker}(f_*)$; $g: A \rightarrow M$ and $f \circ g = 0$.

Since $\text{ker}(f) \subseteq \text{im}(e)$, for all $a \in A$ we

have $g(a) \in \text{im}(e)$, so there is a

$b \in L$ with $g(a) = e(b)$.

We want to define:

$$e_*(h) = g$$

$$e \circ h = g \rightsquigarrow e(h(a)) = g(a) = e(b)$$

$$h: A \rightarrow L$$
$$a \mapsto b$$

Define $h: A \rightarrow L$. This is well
 $a \mapsto b$

defined because e injective means that if
there are b, b' with $e(b) = g(a) = e(b')$
then $b = b'$. ult. $r \in R$

Claim: h is a morphism. Suppose $a \in A$,
then $g(a) = e(b)$ for some $b \in L$. Now pick $r \in R$
then: $g(r \cdot a) = r \cdot g(a) = r \cdot e(b) = e(r \cdot b)$
 $\Rightarrow h(r \cdot a) = r \cdot b = r \cdot h(a)$. $a_1 + a_2 \rightsquigarrow$

Suppose $a_1, a_2 \in A$ with $g(a_1) = e(b_1)$,
 $g(a_2) = e(b_2)$

$$g(a_1 + a_2) = g(a_1) + g(a_2) = e(b_1) + e(b_2) = e(b_1 + b_2)$$
$$\Rightarrow h(a_1 + a_2) = b_1 + b_2 = h(a_1) + h(a_2)$$

Now indeed: $e \circ h(a) = e(b) = g(a)$ so

$$g \in \text{im}(e \circ h)$$

Prove $\text{Hom}_R(_, A)$ is left exact.

$$\text{Hom}_R(M, A) \xleftarrow{f^*} \text{Hom}_R(N, A) \xleftarrow{g^*} \text{Hom}_R(P, A) \leftarrow 0$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\substack{\text{im}(g^*) = \text{ker}(f^*) \\ \subseteq \text{ok.} \\ \cong}} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{ker}(g^*) = \{0\}}$

$\text{ker}(f^*) \subseteq \text{im}(g^*)$: $\varphi: N \rightarrow A$ such that $\varphi \circ f = 0$.

Note: $\text{ker}(g) \subseteq \text{ker}(\varphi) \subseteq N$, because if $u \in \text{ker}(g)$

then $u \in \text{im}(f) = \text{ker}(g)$, so there is $m \in M$

with $f(m) = u$, so $\varphi(u) = \varphi(f(m)) = 0$.

So $\varphi: N \rightarrow A$ factors through the

kernel: $\bar{\varphi}: \underbrace{N / \text{ker}(g)}_{\cong P} \rightarrow A$ (universal property of kernels).

P because $g: N \rightarrow P$ and is surjective (F.I.T.).

Then: $\phi: P \rightarrow A$ can be defined

or: $\phi(p) := \overline{\psi}(u + \ker(g))$ where $p = \overline{u}$.

This gives ϕ is a morphism for free.

Claim: $g^*(\phi) = \psi$.

$$\begin{aligned} g^*(\phi)(u) &= \phi \circ g(u) = \phi(u + \ker(g)) = \\ &= \phi(p) = \overline{\psi}(u + \ker(g)) = \psi(u). \end{aligned}$$

⑤ - For the future.

⑥ - \mathbb{F} finite field with q^n elements.

(a) Why every element of \mathbb{F} is a root of $x^{q^n} - x$.

0 is a root of $x^{q^n} - x$.

Take $a \in \mathbb{F} \setminus \{0\}$, then $a \in \mathbb{F}^\times$ the group of

units, which has order $q^n - 1$. Hence:

⑦ $a^{q^n - 1} = 1$ so $a^{q^n} = a$ so a is root.

(b) If $r \mid p^n - 1$ then all the roots of $x^r - 1$ live in \mathbb{F} .

Suppose a is a root of $x^r - 1$, so $a^r = 1$. Now

$r \mid p^n - 1$, so there is d with $rd = p^n - 1$.

$$1 = 1^d = (a^r)^d = a^{rd} = a^{p^n - 1} = a^{p^n - 1}.$$

So the roots of $x^r - 1$ are also roots of $x^{p^n} - x$. So

by part (1) the roots of $x^r - 1$ live in \mathbb{F} .

⊙ \mathbb{F} has p^n elements, and every one of them is a root of $x^{p^n} - x$.

But $x^{p^n} - x$ has at most p^n roots. So the roots of $x^{p^n} - x$

are exactly the elements in \mathbb{F} .

(c) Show that $x^4 + 1$ is reducible over any finite field.

Hint: $x^4 + 1 = x^4 - (-1)$, so if we see that -1

is always a square, we are done.

If x^4+1 is reducible over \mathbb{F}_p , p prime, it is also reducible over \mathbb{F}_{p^n} for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. (because $\mathbb{F}_p \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ is its prime subfield).

If $p=2$ then $x^4+1 = (x+1)^4$, reducible over \mathbb{F}_2 .

"Thinking techniques": we are told to use p^2-1 .

The way of going from p to p^2-1 is looking at the units of \mathbb{F}_{p^2} .

Consider the field extension \mathbb{F}_{p^2} . We have $\mathbb{F}_{p^2}^\times$ has p^2-1 elements. Notice $8 \mid p^2-1$, and $\mathbb{F}_{p^2}^\times$ is cyclic.

So there is a unit $u \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}^\times$ with $|u|=8$. In

particular since $x^8-1 = (x^4-1)(x^4+1)$, we have

u a root of x^4+1 . So u is algebraic over

$\mathbb{F}_p \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$, so $\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$. Thus $[\mathbb{F}_p(\alpha) : \mathbb{F}_p] \leq$

$\leq [\mathbb{F}_{p^2}(\alpha) : \mathbb{F}_p] = 2$. The minimal irreducible polynomial

Hungerford V.1.6. f of this extension has degree 2 or less. (f not zero)

Since α is a root of $x^4 + 1$, we must have

$f \mid x^4 + 1$, so $x^4 + 1$ is divisible by an irreducible polynomial with coefficients in \mathbb{F}_p . So $x^4 + 1$ is reducible.