

August 2016:

⑧ - $R = \mathbb{Z}[x] : 0 \rightarrow R \xrightarrow{f} R \xrightarrow{g} \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow 0$

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

(a) Show that it is exact as R -mods.

(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) g is surjective: for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ take $P(x) = n$, then $g(P) = n$.

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

\supseteq $P \in R$, then $g(f(P)) = g(x \cdot P(x)) = 0 \cdot P(0) = 0$.

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

(b) Does it split as R -mods?

If it splits, then there exists a section $h: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$ with $gh = 1_{\mathbb{Z}}$. Hungerford IV.1.18.
 Since h cannot be zero, we have $h(j) = jh(1) \neq 0$ for all $j \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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

This is a contradiction with $x \neq 0$, $h(j) \neq 0$, so since R is an integral domain:
 $x \cdot h(j) \neq 0$.

Thus the sequence does not split.

(c) Does it split as \mathbb{Z} -mods?

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

Hungerford IV.1.18. The sequence splits. Detail: why is h a \mathbb{Z} -homomorphism.

Alternatively: \mathbb{Z} is free, hence projective, as \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: $|S_4/K_4| = \frac{|S_4|}{|K_4|} = \frac{4!}{4} = 6$.

... .. U... .. $\pi \cdot c$

Since everything is finite: $|S_4/K_4| = \frac{|S_4|}{|K_4|} = \frac{24}{4} = 6$.

We know that there are only two groups of order 6: \mathbb{Z}_6 and S_3 . *Hungerford II.6.*
If we show that S_4/K_4 is not abelian, then $S_4/K_4 \cong S_3$.

We will show $S_4/K_4 \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_6$ by showing that it does not contain an element of order 6.
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 6, so $S_4/K_4 \cong S_3$.

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 $H_2 \cap H_5 = \{e\}$.

Hungerford I.5.3. By normality and trivial intersection: H and K commute.

Also $HK = H \times K < G$. Now: $|H \times K| = 20 = |G|$ so $H \times K = G$.

Alternatively: *Hungerford I.8.6.* $H, K \trianglelefteq G$, $H \cap K = \{e\}$ 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 $G < T$ finite means G cyclic.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

For this, we need: $2ab = 0$, hence $b = 0$ since $a \neq 0$ and $b \in \mathcal{K}$. Then: $3a^2 = 2$

which has no solution in \mathcal{K} . Contradiction.

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

⑥ - \mathcal{R} ring, M an \mathcal{R} -mod Noetherian. Let $\phi: M \rightarrow M$ surjective \mathcal{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 $\text{Ker}(\phi^n) \subseteq \text{Ker}(\phi^{n+1})$. Pick $x \in M$ non-zero, $x \in \text{Ker}(\phi)$. Since ϕ^n is surjective,

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

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 $\frac{R}{I}$ an R -mod. Then by hypothesis $\frac{R}{I}$ is projective.

$$\text{We have: } \pi: R \longrightarrow \frac{R}{I}, \quad \iota_{R/I}: \frac{R}{I} \longrightarrow \frac{R}{I}.$$

$$r \longmapsto r+I \quad \quad r+I \longmapsto r+I$$

We can fit them:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \frac{R}{I} & \\ \swarrow f & \downarrow \iota_{R/I} & \\ R & \xrightarrow{\pi} & \frac{R}{I} \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

Since $\frac{R}{I}$ is projective, there exists some R -hom: $f: \frac{R}{I} \longrightarrow R$ such that $\pi f = \iota_{R/I}$.

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

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

But:

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

This proves claim 1.

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

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

Then $\langle c \rangle$ is not prime, proper, ideal.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Let: $b = a_1 \dots a_r$, 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:

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

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

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

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

By p odd:

$$a = a = a^1 = a^1 a = (a^1)^1 = (a^1)^{1^1} = \dots$$

By p odd:

$$-a = -(a^m b^n)^p = (-a^m b^n)^p. \text{ So } -a^m b^n \text{ is a root of } x^p + a.$$

Since $a, b \in k$, we have $-a^m b^n \in k$.

①- $g(x) = (x^2-2)(x^2+3) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, 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. $\sigma: \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3}$; $\tau: \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3}$ have order 2.

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

This is good enough to claim: $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

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): $i\sqrt{3} \mapsto \pm i\sqrt{3}$.

$$\begin{array}{llll} \gamma_+ : \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2} & ; & \delta : \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2} & ; & \gamma_- : \sqrt{2} \mapsto -\sqrt{2} & ; & \text{id} : \sqrt{2} \mapsto \sqrt{2} \\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3} & ; & i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3} & & i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3} & & i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3} \\ |\gamma_+| = 2 & & |\delta| = 2 & & |\gamma_-| = 2 & & |\text{id}| = 2 \end{array}$$

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

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

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

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: $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}), \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}), \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3}), \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{6})$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} E \xrightarrow{\langle \text{id} \rangle} E & \text{so: } \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \text{id} \rangle. \\ \mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{G} \mathbb{Q} & \text{so: } \mathbb{Q} \longleftrightarrow G. \end{array}$$

$$E^{S_{10}} = E \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{5}) \longleftrightarrow \langle 10 \rangle.$$

$$E^G = \mathbb{Q} \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q} \longleftrightarrow G.$$

$$E^{\langle \gamma_+ \rangle} = \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{5}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{5}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \gamma_+ \rangle.$$

$$E^{\langle \delta \rangle} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \delta \rangle.$$

$$E^{\langle \gamma_- \rangle} = \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{5}) \quad \text{so:} \quad \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{5}) \longleftrightarrow \langle \gamma_- \rangle.$$