# Kayla Orlinsky <br> Algebra Exam Fall 2010 

Problem 1. Use Sylow's Theorems to show that any group of order $\left(99^{2}-4\right)^{3}$ is solvable.

Solution. First, we decompose the number.

$$
\begin{aligned}
99^{2}-4 & =(100-1)^{2}-4 \\
& =10,000-200+1-4 \\
& =10,000-200-3 \\
& =9,800-3 \\
& =9,797 \\
& =97 \cdot 101
\end{aligned}
$$

Since both 97 and 101 are prime, $\left(99^{2}-4\right)^{3}=97^{3} \cdot 101^{3}$.
Now, it is merely tedious to check that, by the Sylow theorems, $n_{97} \mid 101^{3}$ and $n_{97} \equiv 1$ $\bmod 97$ implies that $n_{97}=1$. Since the Sylow- 97 subgroups $P_{97}$ is a $p$ group, it has non-trivial center by the class equation and so we obtain a subnormal series for $P_{97}$.

Namely,

$$
1 \leq Z\left(P_{97}\right) \leq P_{97}
$$

since $Z\left(P_{97}\right)=P_{97}$ so $P_{97}$ is abelian, or $\left|Z\left(P_{97}\right)\right|=97,97^{2}$ in which case $P_{97} / Z\left(P_{97}\right)$ is abelian.
In any case, $P_{97}$ is solvable.
Finally, since $G / P_{97}$ is also a $p$-group of order $101^{3}$, it will be solvable for the same reason.

Thus, $G$ contains a normal solvable subgroup such that $G / N$ is solvable and so $G$ is solvable.

Problem 2. For any finite group $G$ and positive integer $m$, let $n_{G}(m)$ be the number of elements $g$ of $G$ that satisfy $g^{m}=e_{G}$. If $A$ and $B$ are finite abelian groups so that $n_{A}(m)=n_{B}(m)$ for all $m$, show that as groups $A \cong B$.

Solution. By the fundamental theorem of Abelian groups, we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}}\right)^{n_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}^{\alpha_{k}}}\right)^{n_{k}} \\
& B \cong\left(\mathbb{Z}_{z_{1}^{\beta_{1}}}\right)^{m_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q_{l}^{\beta_{l}}}\right)^{m_{l}}
\end{aligned}
$$

with $p_{i}, q_{j}$ primes, $\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}$ distinct and $n_{i}, m_{j}$ not zero. We note that $N_{A}(m), N_{B}(m) \geq 1$ for all $m$ since $e_{A}$ and $e_{B}$ will always be counted.

Now, $N_{A}\left(p_{i}\right)>1$ since each copy of $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{i}{ }_{i}}$ contains an element of order $p_{i}$ by Lagrange's theorem.

However, $N_{A}\left(p_{i}\right)=N_{B}\left(p_{i}\right)$ and so then $B$ contains a non-trivial element with order dividing $p_{i}$. Namely, $B$ contains an element of order $p_{i}$.

Since $p_{i}$ is prime and the $q_{i}$ are primes, it must be that $p_{i}=q_{j}$ for some $j$.
Since this holds for all $p_{i}$ and $q_{j}$, we can conclude that $k=l$ and $p_{i}=q_{i}$.
Now, $N_{A}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}\right)=n_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}-1\right)+1$ since, if $g \in A$ satisfies that $g^{p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}}=e_{A}$, then $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}}$. Since there are $p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}-1$ non-identity elements in each copy, and $n_{i}$ copies plus 1 identity element, we conclude the above value.

In fact, $N_{A}\left(p_{i}^{n}\right)=n_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}-1\right)+1$ for all $n \geq \alpha_{i}$.
Therefore, $\beta_{i}=\alpha_{i}$ for all $i$. Else, if $N_{B}\left(p_{i}^{\beta_{i}}\right)$ would be larger or smaller than $N_{A}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}\right)$.
Finally,
However, then

$$
N_{A}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}\right)=n_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}-1\right)+1=m_{i}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}-1\right)+1=N_{B}\left(p_{i}^{\alpha_{i}}\right)
$$

and so $m_{i}=n_{i}$ for all $i$.
Therefore, $A \cong B$.

Problem 3. If $g(x)=x^{5}+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, for $\mathbb{Q}$ the field of rational numbers, compute the Galois group of a splitting field $L$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ of $g(x)$. How many subfields of $L$ containing $\mathbb{Q}$ are Galois over $\mathbb{Q}$ ?

Solution. First, if $g(z)=0$ then $z^{5}=-2$. Letting $z=R e^{i \theta}$ we get that $R=\sqrt[6]{2}$ and $5 \theta=(2 k+1) \pi$ so, letting $z=e^{i \frac{\pi}{5}}$, we have that the roots of $g$ are $R z,-R z^{2}, R z^{3},-R z^{4}, R z^{5}$.

Since $R z^{5}=-2=-R \zeta^{5}$ where $\zeta$ is a primitive $5^{\text {th }}$-root of unity, we can let $z=-\zeta$.
Thus, the splitting field for $g$ is $L=\mathbb{Q}(R, \zeta)$.
Now, it is clear that $R \zeta$ has minimal polynomial $g$ and so

$$
[L: \mathbb{Q}]=[L: \mathbb{Q}(R \zeta)][\mathbb{Q}(R \zeta): \mathbb{Q}]=[L: \mathbb{Q}(R \zeta)] 5
$$

and similarly, $\zeta$ has minimal polynomial $x 4+x^{3}+x^{2}+x+1$ and so

$$
[L: \mathbb{Q}]=[L: \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)][\mathbb{Q}(\zeta): \mathbb{Q}]=4[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta): \mathbb{Q}]
$$

Thus, $20 \mid[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta): \mathbb{Q}]$ and since $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta): \mathbb{Q}] \geq 20$ we have that $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta): \mathbb{Q}]=20$.
Now, $g$ is separable, the extension is Galois and so $|\operatorname{Gal}(g)|=[L: \mathbb{Q}]=20$.
Now, we must work to identify $G=\operatorname{Gal}(g)$.
First, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma: L & \rightarrow L & \tau: L & \rightarrow L \\
R & \mapsto R \zeta & R & \mapsto R \\
\zeta & \mapsto \zeta & \zeta & \mapsto \zeta^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then both of these are automorphisms of $L$ and furthermore, they do not commute since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sigma(\tau(R))=\sigma(R)=R \zeta \\
& \tau(\sigma(R))=\tau(R \zeta)=R \zeta^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

we have that $G$ is not abelian.
Now,

$$
\tau^{4}(\zeta)=\tau^{3}\left(\zeta^{3}\right)=\tau^{2}\left(\zeta^{4}\right)=\tau\left(\zeta^{2}\right)=\zeta
$$

we have that $\tau$ is an element of order 4 and so $G$ contains $\langle\tau\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ as a subgroup.
Now, by the Sylow Theorems, $n_{5} \equiv 1 \bmod 5$ and $n_{5} \mid 4$ so $n_{5}=1$. Namely, $G$ has one Sylow 5 -subgroup and it is normal.

Therefore,

$$
0 \longrightarrow P_{5} \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow P_{4} \longrightarrow 0
$$

is split because $P_{5} \cap P_{4}=\{e\}$ and so $\left|P_{5} P_{4}\right|=\frac{\left|P_{5}\right|\left|P_{4}\right|}{\left|P_{5} \cap P_{4}\right|}=\frac{5 \cdot 4}{1}=20=|G|$ and so

$$
G \cong P_{5} \rtimes P_{4} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{5} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4} .
$$

Finally, by the Galois Correspondence Theorem, to count the number of Galois extensions, we need to determine number of normal subgroups of $G$.

This requires exactly determining $G$ up to isomorphism.
Let $\varphi: \mathbb{Z}_{4} \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{5}\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{4}$. We have already seen that $\langle\tau\rangle \cong P_{4} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ and it is easy to show that $\langle\sigma\rangle=P_{5} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{5}$

Then because $G$ can be characterized as a semi-direct product, $\tau \sigma \tau^{-1}=\varphi(\tau)$.
Therefore, since

$$
\tau\left(\sigma\left(\tau^{-1}(R)\right)\right)=\tau(\sigma(R))=\tau(R \zeta)=R \zeta^{3}=\sigma^{3}(R)
$$

Thus,

$$
G \cong\left\langle\sigma, \tau \mid \sigma^{5}=\tau^{4}=1, \tau \sigma \tau^{-1}=\sigma^{3}\right\rangle
$$

Now, we must count normal subgroups of $G$.
The trivial subgroup as well as $G$ itself are both normal subgroups and so $L$ and $\mathbb{Q}$ are both Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$.

We already have that $P_{5}$ is a normal subgroup and $P_{4}$ is not, so that adds one more. Note that $P_{4}$ is not normal since the above computation for $G$ gave that

$$
\sigma^{-1} \tau \sigma=\sigma^{2} \tau \notin P_{4}
$$

Namely,

$$
\sigma\left(\tau\left(\sigma^{-1}(R)\right)\right)=\sigma\left(\tau\left(R \zeta^{4}\right)\right)=\sigma\left(R \zeta^{2}\right)=R \zeta^{3} \neq \tau^{i}
$$

for any $i$.
Finally, if $G$ has a subgroup of order 10 it will be normal since it will have index 2 which is the smallest prime dividing $|G|$. (To see a proof of this see Spring 2010, Problem 2, Claim 1).

Now, if $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ of order 10 , then it necessarily contains a copy of $P_{5}$ and since $P_{5}$ is the unique subgroup of $G$ of order $5, \sigma \in H$.

Now, it is not difficult to check that this forces $H=\left\langle\sigma, \tau^{2}\right\rangle$ since if $H$ must contain some power of $\tau^{i}$ with $i \neq 1$ (else $H=G$ ).

Thus, $H$ is the unique normal subgroup of $G$ of order 10 .
Now, $G$ is not a direct product since it is non-abelian and is defined as the semi-direct product of two abelian groups. Therefore, if $G$ has a normal subgroup $K$ of order 2 it must be contained in $H$, else $|H K|=\frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}=\frac{10 \cdot 2}{1}=|G|$ and so $H K \cong H \times K \cong G$.

Now, if $K$ is normal in $G$, then it must be normal in $H$ and since $K \cong Q_{2}$ the Sylow 2-subgroup of $H$, it suffices to check if $n_{2}=1$ with $n_{2}=$ the number of Sylow 2-subgroups of $H$.

However, $n_{2} \neq 1$ since $\left\langle\tau^{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle\sigma^{2} \tau^{2}\right\rangle$ both represent distinct Sylow 2-subgroups of $H$. This is because

$$
\left(\sigma^{2} \tau^{2}\right)^{2}=\sigma^{2} \tau^{2} \sigma^{2} \tau^{2}=\sigma^{2} \tau \sigma \tau^{3}=\sigma^{2} \sigma^{3} \tau^{4}=1
$$

Thus, $n_{2} \neq 1$ and so $G$ has no normal subgroups of degree 2 .
Finally, the total number of Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ contained in $L$ is $2+1+1=4$ which are associated to the trivial subgroup, $G$ itself, $P_{5}$ which is $G$ 's Sylow 5 -subgroup, and $H$ the normal subgroup in $G$ of order 10.

Problem 4. Let $P$ be a minimal prime ideal in the commutative ring $R$ with 1 ; that is, if $Q$ is a prime ideal in $R$ and if $Q \subset P$, then $Q=P$. Show that each $x \in P$ is a zero divisor in $R$.

Solution. Let $S=R \backslash P$ as a set. Since $P$ is a prime ideal, if $a, b \in R \backslash P$ then $a b \in R \backslash P$ (else if $a b \in P$ then $a \in P$ or $b \in P$ which is a contradiction).

Thus, $S$ is closed under multiplication and since $0 \notin S$ (because $0 \in P$ ), $R^{\prime}=S^{-1} R$ is a well defined ring.

Now, we claim that $P R^{\prime}=\left\{\left.\frac{p}{s} \right\rvert\, p \in P, s \in S\right\}$ is the unique maximal ideal of $R^{\prime}$.

Claim 1. $P R^{\prime}$ is the unique maximal ideal of $R^{\prime}$.

Proof. Let $Q$ be an ideal of $R^{\prime}$. If there exists some $\frac{q}{s} \in Q$ such that $\frac{q}{s} \notin P R^{\prime}$, then $q \notin P$. However, then $q \in S$ and so $\frac{q}{q}=1 \in Q$ and namely, $Q=R^{\prime}$.

Therefore, all proper ideals of $R^{\prime}$ are contained in $P R^{\prime}$.

Claim 2. $P R^{\prime}$ is the unique prime ideal of $R^{\prime}$.

Proof. Now, assume that there is a $Q$ prime ideal of $R^{\prime}$. By the previous claim, $Q \subset P^{\prime} R$. Thus, if $q \in Q$ then $\frac{p}{s} \in P R^{\prime}$ so we have that $\frac{p}{s}=q \in Q$ for some $q$.

Thus, $p=q s \in Q S$ and so $q s \in P$. Therefore, $q \in P$ or $s \in P$.
If $s \in P$ then $\frac{s}{s}=1 \in P R^{\prime}$ which is a contradiction since $P \neq R$. Thus, $q \in P$ and so namely, $Q S \in P$. Since $Q$ was assumed to be prime, $Q S$ will also be a prime ideal of $R$ and so $P=Q S$. Therefore, $Q=P R^{\prime}$.

Finally, we use the fact that the nilradical of $R^{\prime}$, which is the intersection of all prime ideals of $R^{\prime}$, which is exactly the set of nilpotent elements of $R^{\prime}$, is $P R^{\prime}$ (the only prime ideal of $R^{\prime}$ ).

Therefore, every element of $P R^{\prime}$ is nilpotent, and

$$
\left(\frac{p}{s}\right)^{n}=\frac{p^{n}}{s^{n}}=0 \Longrightarrow p^{n}=0
$$

because $S$ is closed under multiplication and does not contain 0 so namely, $s^{n} \neq 0$ for all $s \in S$ and all $n$.

Therefore, every element of $P$ is nilpotent.

Problem 5. Let $R=\mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ with $n \geq 3$ and $\mathbb{C}$ the field of complex numbers. Consider the ideal $I$ of $R$ defined by

$$
I=\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{n-1}-x_{n}, x_{1} \cdots x_{n-2} x_{n}-x_{n-1}, \ldots, x_{2} \cdots x_{n}-x_{1}\right)
$$

so the generators of $I$ are obtained by subtracting each $x_{j}$ from the product of the others. Show that ther are fixed positive integers $s$ and $t$ so that for each $0 \leq i \leq n,\left(x_{i}^{s}-x_{i}\right)^{t} \in I$. (Hint: Consider the product of the generators of $I$.)

Solution. We examine $V(I)$.
First, if $x_{i}=0$ for any $i$, then $x_{k}=0$ for all $k$. This is immediate since $x_{i}=$ $x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{i-1} x_{i+1} \cdots x_{n-1} x_{n}$ for all $i$.

Now, taking $x_{i} \neq 0$ for all $i$, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{i} & =x_{1} \cdots x_{i-1} x_{i+1} \cdots x_{n} \\
x_{i+1} & =x_{1} \cdots x_{i} x_{i+2} \cdots x_{n} \\
\frac{x_{i+1}}{x_{1} \cdots x_{i-1} x_{i+2} \cdots x_{n}} & =x_{i} \\
& =x_{1} \cdots x_{i-1} x_{i+1} \cdots x_{n} \\
1 & =x_{1}^{2} \cdots x_{i-1}^{2} x_{i+2}^{2} \cdots x_{n}^{2} \\
& =\frac{x_{i}^{2}}{x_{i+1}^{2}} \\
x_{i}^{2} & =x_{i+1}^{2} \quad \text { for all } i .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, as long as $x_{i} \neq 0$ for all $i$,

$$
1=x_{i}^{2(n-1)}
$$

so namely, the $x_{i}$ are equal to $2 n-2$-roots of unity.
Namely,

$$
x_{i}=x_{i}^{2 n-1}
$$

for all $i$. That is to say that $x_{i}^{2 n-1}-x_{i} \in \sqrt{I}$ for all $i$ and so namely, for each $i$, there exists a $t$ such that $\left(x_{i}^{2 n-1}-x_{i}\right)^{t} \in I$.

Problem 6. Let $R$ be a right artinian algebra over an algebraically closed field $F$. Show that $R$ is algebraic over $F$ of bounded degree. That is, show there is a fixed positive integer $m$ so that for any $r \in R$ there is a non $g_{r}(x) \in F[x]$ with $g_{r}(r)=0$ and with $\operatorname{deg} g \leq m$.

Solution. First, we note that $J(R / J(R))=0$ trivially.
Now, there is a correspondence between maximal ideals of $R / J(R)$ and max ideals of $R$ containing $J(R)$. However, $J(R) \subset M$ for all $M$ maximal ideals of $R$ by definition and so there is a $1-1$ correspondence between max ideals of $R$ and max ideals of $J(R)$.

Now, we claim that $R / J(R)$ has only finitely many maximal ideals.
Let

$$
M_{1} \supset M_{1} M_{2} \supset \cdots
$$

be a descending chain of maximal ideals of $R / J(R)$. Because $R$ is artinian, $R / J(R)$ is also artinian since quotients of artinian rings are artinian and so the chain terminates.

However, if the chain terminates at $M_{1} \cdots M_{n}$, then these must be the only maximal ideals of $R / J(R)$.

Claim 3. $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}$ are the only ideals of $R / J(R)$.

Proof. Assume not, then if $x \in M_{1} \cdots M_{n}$ and there is some maximal ideal of $R / J(R)$ such that $x \notin M$, we have that $M M_{1} \cdots M_{n} \subsetneq M_{1} \cdots M_{n}$ and therefore extends the chain which is a contradiction.

Now, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi: R / J(R) & \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} \frac{R / J(R)}{M_{i}} \\
r & \mapsto\left(r+M_{1}, \ldots, r+M_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $\varphi$ is injective since clearly

$$
\operatorname{ker} \varphi \subset \bigcap M_{i}=J(R / J(R))=0
$$

Furthermore, $\varphi$ is clealry surjective so $R / J(R)$ is semi-simple since $(R / J(R)) / M_{i}$ is a field for all $i$.

Therefore, by Artin-Wedderburn,

$$
R / J(R) \cong M_{n_{1}}\left(D_{1}\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus M_{n_{k}}\left(D_{k}\right)
$$

for some integers $n_{i}$ and some division rings over $F, D_{i}$.
Namely, $R / J(R)$ is finite dimensional over $F$.

Now, because the center of $D_{i}, Z\left(D_{i}\right)$ is a field, by Schur's Lemma, $\psi: F \rightarrow Z\left(D_{i}\right)$ is either trivial or an isomoprhism.

However, $F$ being commutative (by definition of field) and $R / J(R)$ being an algebra over $F$, we have that

$$
F \in Z(R /(J(R))) \cong Z\left(M_{n_{1}}\left(D_{1}\right)\right) \oplus \cdots \oplus Z\left(M_{n_{k}}\left(D_{k}\right) 0 \cong Z\left(D_{1}\right) \oplus Z\left(D_{n}\right)\right.
$$

and so namely, we can define a projection map to send $F \rightarrow Z\left(D_{i}\right)$ for all $i$. This map must be non-trivial for all $i$ since $F \in Z(R /(J(R)))$ and so $F \cong Z\left(D_{i}\right)$ for all $i$.

Now, let $\alpha \in D_{i}$. Since $[F(\alpha): F]<\infty$ (because $\left[D_{i}: F\right]<\infty$ by semi-simpleness of $R / J(R)$ ), we have that $\alpha$ is algebraic over $F$ and thus satisfies a monic irreducible polynomial with coefficients in $F$. However, $F$ is algebraically closed and so the only monic irreducible polynomials over $F$ are linear. Namely, $\alpha \in F$.

Thus, $D_{i}=F$ for all $i$.
Now, $R / J(R)$ is a finite dimensional $F$-algebra and so $R / J(R)$ is algebraic over $F$. That is, $a+J(R)$ is algebaric over $F$ for all $a \in R$.

Finally, $J(R)$ is algebraic over $F$ because $R$ is artinian and so $J(R)$ is nilpotent. Namely, $x$ satisfies $x^{n}=0$ for all $x \in J(R)$.

Since the sum of two algebraic elements is algebraic, this implies that $t=a+x$ and $x$ is algebraic so $t-x=a$ is algebraic for all $a \in R$, and for all $x \in J(R)$.

