## NAME:

## MATH 450

## Final Exam

Instructions: Give a complete solution to each problem. You may use any result from class, the book, or homework except the statement you are asked to prove. You may also use any fact established in Calculus or Linear Algebra classes. Be sure to justify your statements.

1. (15 points) Show that a group of order 351 has a normal Sylow $p$-subgroup for some $p$.

Proof: It is enough to show $n_{p}=\left|\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)\right|=1$, for some $p \mid 351$. Note $351=3^{3} \cdot 13$. By Sylow III we know $n_{13} \equiv 1(\bmod 13)$ and $n_{13} \mid 27$. So $n_{13}=1$ or 27 . Suppose $n_{13}=27$. If $P, Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_{13}(G)$, then $|P|=|Q|=13$ is prime, so $P \cap Q=\{e\}$. Thus, there are $12 \cdot 27=324$ elements of order 13 in $G$. Since there are only 27 more elements, and any Sylow 3-subgroup has order 27, we see $n_{3}=1$. Thus, either $n_{13}=1$ or $n_{3}=1$, so for some $p$ there is a normal Sylow $p$-subgroup.
2. (14 points) State and prove the Lagrange's Theorem.

Theorem: (Lagrange) If $G$ is a finite group and $H$ is a subgroup of $G$, then $|H|||G|$.

Proof: Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}$ be representatives of the distinct left cosets of $H$ in $G$. If $i \neq j$, then $a_{i} H \cap a_{j} H=\emptyset$. Also, $\left|a_{i} H\right|=|H|$. Finally, if $g \in G$, we know $g \in g H=a_{i} H$ for some $i$. So

$$
G=a_{1} H \cup a_{2} H \cup \cdots \cup a_{k} H
$$

is a disjoint union, so $|G|=k|H|$, proving the claim.
3. (18 points) Consider the following $3 \times 3$ grid :

| $a_{1}$ | $a_{2}$ | $a_{3}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a_{4}$ | $a_{5}$ | $a_{6}$ |
| $a_{7}$ | $a_{8}$ | $a_{9}$ |

and let $D_{4}$ act on the full square. Find an expression for the number of inequivalent colorings of the grid using 4 colors.

Solution: Number the vertices of the square as shown:

| $a_{1}$ | $a_{2}$ | $a_{3}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a_{4}$ | $a_{5}$ | $a_{6}$ |
| $a_{7}$ | $a_{8}$ | $a_{9}$ |

We use Burnside's Theorem. We note that without considering symmetry, there are $4^{9}$ colorings of the grid. For each $\sigma \in D_{4}$, we compute $\mid$ fix $(\sigma) \mid$. We note if $\sigma=1$, then $|\operatorname{fix}(\sigma)|=4^{9}$. If $\sigma=(1234)$, then the orbits of $\sigma$ are $\left\{a_{1}, a_{3}, a_{7}, a_{9}\right\},\left\{a_{2}, a_{4}, a_{6}, a_{8}\right\}$, and $\left\{a_{5}\right\}$ so there are $4^{3}$ fixed colorings. Similarly, for $\sigma=(1432)$ we have $\mid$ fix $(\sigma) \mid=$ $4^{3}$. For $\sigma=(13)(24)$ we see the orbits are $\left\{a_{1}, a_{9}\right\},\left\{a_{2}, a_{8}\right\},\left\{a_{3}, a_{7}\right\},\left\{a_{4}, a_{6}\right\}$, and $\left\{a_{5}\right\}$. So $|\operatorname{fix}(\sigma)|=4^{5}$. For the reflection (14)(23) the orbits are $\left\{a_{1}, a_{7}\right\},\left\{a_{2}, a_{8}\right\}$, $\left\{a_{3}, a_{9}\right\},\left\{a_{4}\right\},\left\{a_{5}\right\}$, and $\left\{a_{6}\right\}$. So $|\operatorname{fix}(\sigma)|=4^{6}$. Similarly, if $\sigma=(12)(34)$, then $\mid$ fix $(\sigma) \mid=4^{6}$. For $\sigma=(24)$, we have the orbits are $\left\{a_{2}, a_{4}\right\},\left\{a_{3}, a_{7}\right\},\left\{a_{6}, a_{8}\right\},\left\{a_{1}\right\},\left\{a_{5}\right\}$,
and $\left\{a_{9}\right\}$. So $\mid$ fix $(\sigma) \mid=4^{6}$. Similarly, for $\sigma=(13)$, we have $\mid$ fix $(\sigma) \mid=4^{6}$.

$$
\frac{1}{8}\left(4^{9}+2 \cdot 4^{3}+4^{5}+4 \cdot 4^{6}\right)
$$

4. (a) (8 points) Give an example of a non-zero homomorphism $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ between rings with identity so that $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \neq 1_{S}$, where $1_{R}$ and $1_{S}$ are identities of $R$ and $S$, respectively.
(b) (7 points) Show that if $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ is a surjective homomorphism of rings with identity, then $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S}$.

## Solution:

(a) Let $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ be defined by $\varphi(n)=(n, 0)$. Then $\varphi$ is a homomorphism and $\varphi(1)=(1,0)$ is not the identity of $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$.
(b) Let $s \in S$. By surjectivity, we have $s=\varphi(r)$, for some $r \in R$. Then

$$
s \cdot \varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=\varphi(r) \varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=\varphi\left(r \cdot 1_{R}\right)=\varphi(r)=s
$$

and

$$
\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \cdot s=\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \cdot \varphi(r)=\varphi\left(1_{R} \cdot r\right) \varphi(r)=s
$$

Since $s \cdot \varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=s=\varphi\left(1_{R}\right) \cdot s$ for any $s \in S$, we see $\varphi\left(1_{R}\right)=1_{S}$, by the uniqueness of the identity in $S$.
5. (20 points) State and prove the First Homomorphism Theorem for rings.

First Homomorphism Theorem: Let $\varphi: R \rightarrow S$ be a homomorphism of rings with kernel $K$. Then $\varphi(R) \simeq R / K$.

Proof: Let $\psi: R / K \rightarrow \varphi(R)$ be defined by $\psi(a+K)=\varphi(a)$. By the First Isomorphism Theorem for groups, we know this is an isomorphism of the additive groups $R / K$ and $\varphi(R)$. Thus, we only need to prove

$$
\psi((a+K)(b+K))=\psi(a+K) \psi(b+K)
$$

But

$$
\psi((a+K)(b+K))=\psi(a b+K)=\varphi(a b) \varphi(a) \varphi(b)=\psi(a+K) \psi(b+K) .
$$

Thus, $\psi$ is also a ring homomorphism, and hence is a ring isomorphism.
6. Let $F$ be a field and suppose $f(x) \in F[x]$ is a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$.
(a) (9 points) If $g(x) \in F[x]$, let $\overline{g(x)}$ be the element $g(x)+(f(x)) \in F[x] /(f(x))$. Prove that for each $\overline{g(x)} \in F[x] /(f(x))$ there is a unique polynomial $g_{0}(x)$ of degree at most $n-1$ so that $\overline{g_{0}(x)}=\overline{g(x)}$.
(b) (6 points) Suppose $F$ is a field with $q$ elements. Show $F[x] /(f(x))$ has $q^{n}$ elements.

## Solution:

(a) By the Division Algorithm, for each $g(x) \in F[x]$ there are $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ with $g(x)=q(x) f(x)+r(x)$, and $\operatorname{deg} r(x)<\operatorname{deg} f(x)=n$. So takking $g_{0}(x)=$ $r(x)$, we have $\left(g-g_{0}\right)(x)=q(x) f(x) \in(f(x))$, so $\overline{g(x)}=\overline{g_{0}(x)}$. This shows there is a representative $g_{0}$ of degree at most $n-1$. To see it is unique, suppose $\overline{g_{0}(x)}=\overline{g_{1}(x)}$ and $\operatorname{deg} g_{0}, \operatorname{deg} g_{1}<n$. Then $\left(g_{0}-g_{1}\right)(x) \in(f(x))$ and so $\left(g_{0}-g_{1}\right)(x)=q(x) f(x)$ for some $q(x)$. If $q(x) \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{deg}\left(g_{0}-g_{1}\right)=$ $\operatorname{deg}(f q)=\operatorname{deg} f+\operatorname{deg} q$, which is a contradiction, since $\operatorname{deg}\left(g_{0}-g_{1}\right)<n$. Thus, $q(x)=0$, so $g_{0}(x)=g_{1}(x)$, and thus the representative is unique.
(b) By (a), each coset is represented by an element $g_{0}(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+\cdots+$ $a_{n-1} x^{n-1}$, and each $n$-tuple, $\left(a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right)$ of coefficients gives a unique
coset in $F[x] /(f(x))$. Since there are $q$ choices for each $a_{i}$, we see there are $q^{n}$ disctinct cosets.
7. True/False (5 points each). Determine whether each of the following statements is true or false. If true, give a proof. If false, give a concrete counterexample.
(a) If $G$ is a group, $H$ is a subgroup of $G$, and $H a$ and $H b$ are distinct right cosets, then $a H$ and $b H$ are distinct left cosets.
(b) If $R$ is a commutative ring with identity, and $P$ and $Q$ are maximal ideals of $R$ then $P \cap Q$ is a maximal ideal.
(c) If $R$ is a ring, $F$ is a field, and $\varphi: R \rightarrow F$ is a non-zero homomorphism, then $\operatorname{ker} \varphi$ is a maximal ideal.
(d) $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ is a cyclic group.
(e) If $G$ has a unique subgroup $H$ of a given order, then $H$ is normal in $G$.

## Solutions:

(a) False: Let $G=S_{3}, H=\{1,(12)\}, a=(123)$ and $b=(23)$. Since $b \notin H a=$ $\{(123),(13)\}$, we have $H a \neq H b$. But $a H=b H=\{(123),(23)\}$.
(b) False: Let $R=\mathbb{Z}$. Take maximal ideals $P=2 \mathbb{Z}$ and $Q=3 \mathbb{Z}$. Then $P \cap Q=6 \mathbb{Z}$ is not maximal.
(c) False: Let $R=\mathbb{Z}, F=\mathbb{Q}$, and $\varphi(n)=n$. This is a homomorphisms whose kernel is (0) which is not maximal.
(d) False: Suppose $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}=\langle(a, b)\rangle$, for some $(a, b)$. Then $(2,3)=(c a, c b)$, for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $\operatorname{gcd}(2,3)=1$, so $c= \pm 1$, and so $(a, b)= \pm(2,3)$. But then $(1,0) \notin\langle(2,3)\rangle$, contradicting our choice of $(a, b)$. Thus, $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ is not cyclic.
(e) True: For each $g \in G$, we have $\left|g H g^{-1}\right|=|H|$, so by uniqueness, $g H g^{-1}=H$, so $H \triangleleft G$.
8. Let $G$ be a group. For $g \in G$, define $\sigma_{g}: G \rightarrow G$ by $\sigma_{g}(x)=g x g^{-1}$.
(a) (9 points) Show $\sigma_{g}$ is an automorphism of $G$.
(b) (9 points) Let $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ be the group of all automorphisms of $G$ (You need not prove $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ is a group.) Let $\psi: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(G)$ be given by $\psi(g)=\sigma_{g}$. Show $\psi$ is a homomorphism.
(c) (5 points) Find the kernel of $\psi$.

## Solutions:

(a) Let $x, y \in G$. Then $\sigma_{g}(x y)=g x y g^{-1}=\left(g x g^{-1}\right)\left(g y g^{-1}\right)=\sigma_{g}(x) \sigma_{g}(y)$. So $\sigma_{g}$ is a homomorphism. If $\sigma_{g}(x)=\sigma_{g}(y)$ then $g x g^{-1}=g y g^{-1}$, so $x=y$, and thus $\sigma_{g}$ is one-to-one. If $y \in G$, then $y=\sigma_{g}\left(g^{-1} y g\right)$, so $\sigma_{g}$ is onto. Hence $\sigma_{g}$ is an isomorphism from $G$ to $G$,i.e., an automorphism.
(b) Note, for $g, h \in G$ we have $\psi(g h)=\sigma_{g h}$, and

$$
\sigma_{g h}(x)=(g h) x(g h)^{-1}=g\left(h x h^{-1}\right) g^{-1}=\sigma_{g}\left(\sigma_{h}(x)\right)=\sigma_{g} \sigma_{h}(x)
$$

So, $\sigma_{g h}=\sigma_{g} \sigma_{h}$, and so $\psi(g h)=\psi(g) \psi(h)$. Thus, $\psi$ is a homomorphism.
(c) Note $g \in \operatorname{ker} \psi$ if and only if $\psi(g)=1_{G}$, where $1_{G}(x)=x$, for all $x \in G$. Thus, $g \in \operatorname{ker} \psi$ if and only if $\sigma_{G}(x)=x$ for all $x$. Which holds if and only if $g x g^{-1}=x$ for all $x$. Which holds if and only if $g x=x g$ for all x . so $\operatorname{ker} \psi=Z(G)$, the center of $G$.
9. (13 points) Let $G$ be a group of permutations on a set $X$. For $x \in X$ we let

$$
\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)=\{\sigma \in G \mid \sigma(x)=x\} .
$$

Prove $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$ is a subgroup of $G$.
Proof: Note, the identity $1_{X}: X \rightarrow X$ satisfies $1_{X}(y)=y$, for all $y \in X$, and so we know $1_{X} \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$, so $\left.\operatorname{Stab}_{G} x\right) \neq \emptyset$. Let $\sigma, \tau \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$. Then $\sigma \tau(x)$ $s(\tau(x))=\sigma(x)=x$, so $\sigma \tau \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$. Thus, $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$ is closed under group multiplication. Also, $\sigma(x)=x$ implies $\sigma^{-1}(\sigma(x))=\sigma^{-1}(x)$, so $\sigma^{-1}(x)=x$, so
$\sigma^{-1} \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$. Tghus, $\operatorname{Stab}_{G}(x)$ is also closed under inversion, and hence is a subgroup.
10. (18 points) Let $n \geq 3$. Recall $A_{n} \subset S_{n}$ is the subgroup of even permutations of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Prove that $A_{n}$ contains a subgroup which is isomorphic to $S_{n-2}$. (Hint: Try to construct an explicit monomorphism $\varphi: S_{n-2} \rightarrow S_{n}$, whose image is in $A_{n}$.

Proof: Let $\gamma=(n-1 n) \in S_{n}$. Note $\sigma \gamma=\gamma \sigma$ for any $\sigma \in S_{n-2}$, since the two permutations are disjoint. Now let $\varphi: S_{n-2} \rightarrow S_{n}$ be given by

$$
\varphi(\sigma)= \begin{cases}\sigma & \text { if } \sigma \text { is even } \\ \sigma \gamma & \text { if } \sigma \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

Note $\varphi(\sigma) \in A_{n}$ for each $\sigma$. Also, if $\sigma, \tau$ are both even, then $\varphi(\sigma \tau)=\sigma \tau=$ $\varphi(\sigma) \varphi(\tau)$. If both $\sigma, \tau$ are odd, then $\sigma \tau$ is even and $\varphi(\sigma \tau)=\sigma \tau=(\sigma \gamma)(\tau \gamma)=$ $\varphi(\sigma) \varphi(\tau)$. Now if one of $\sigma, \tau$ is even, and the other odd,then $\sigma \tau$ is odd,so $\varphi(\sigma \tau)=$ $\sigma \tau \gamma=\sigma(\tau \gamma)=(\sigma \gamma) \tau=\varphi(\sigma) \varphi(\tau)$, no matter which is odd. Thus, $\varphi$ is a homomorphism. Clearly, $\varphi(\sigma)=1$ only if $\sigma=1$, so $\varphi$ is a monomorphism. Thus, $\varphi\left(S_{n-2}\right) \subset A_{n}$ is the desired subgroup.
11. Let $R$ be a ring. An element $a \in R$ is nilpotent if there is some $n>0$ with $a^{n}=0$.
(a) (10 points) Prove that if $R$ is commutative $a, b$ are nilpotent, then so is $a+b$.
(b) (8 points) Show that if $R$ is a commutative ring with identity, then the set, $N$, of all nilpotent elements of $R$ forms an ideal.
(c) (6 points) Show $R / N$ is a ring with no non-zero nilpotent elements.

## Solutions:

(a) Let $m \geq n>0$, with $a^{n}=b^{m}=0$. Note if $k \geq m$ then $a^{k}=b^{k}=0$. Now note

$$
\begin{equation*}
(a+b)^{2 m}=\sum_{k=0}^{2 m}\binom{2 m}{k} a^{k} b^{2 m-k} \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note, if $k<m$, then $2 m-k>m$, so for each term in the sum, either $a^{k}=0$ or $b^{2 m-k}=0$. Thus, the sum $\left(^{*}\right)$ is zero, and $(a+b)^{2 m}=0$, which shows $a+b$ is nilpotent.
(b) By (a) $N$ is closed under addition. Also, if $a \in N$, and $a^{n}=0$, then $(-a)^{n}=$ $(-1)^{n} a^{n}=0$, so $-a \in N$. Thus, $N$ is a subgroup of the additive group $R$. Let $r \in R$ and $a \in N$. Suppose $n>0$ with $a^{n}=0$. Then $(r a)^{n}=r^{n} a^{n}=r^{n} \cdot 0=0$, so $r a \in N$. Thus, $N$ is an ideal.
(c) Suppose $a \in R$ and $\bar{a}=a+N$ is a nilpotent element in $R / N$. Then, for some $n>0$, we have $\bar{a}^{n}=\overline{0}$, the zero element of $R / N$. Since $N$ is the zero element of $R / N$, we have $\bar{a}^{n}=\overline{a^{n}}=N$, so $a^{n} \in N$. But then, for some $m>0$, we have $\left(a^{n}\right)^{m}=0$, so $a \in N$, i.e., $\bar{a}=\overline{0}$. Thus, zero is the only nilpotent element in $R / N$.

Extra Credit: (10 points) Prove the following are equivalent for a ring $R$ :
i) $R$ has no non-zero nilpotent elements
ii) If $a \in R$ and $a^{2}=0$, then $a=0$.

Proof: Suppose (i) holds. If $a^{2}=0$, then by definition, $a$ is nilpotent, hence $a=0$. So (ii) holds. Now suppose (ii) holds. Let $a \in R$ be nilpotent. Then, for some $n>0$, we have $a^{n}=0$. If $a=1$, then $a=0$. If $n=2$, then by assumption (ii) $a=0$. Suppose $n \geq 3$, and $n$ is the smallest positive integer with $a^{n}=0$, i.e., assume $a^{n-1} \neq 0$. Then $2(n-1)=2 n-2>n$, since $n>2$. So $a^{2 n-2}=\left(a^{n-1}\right)^{2}==$, so by (ii) we have $a^{n-1}=0$, contradicting our choice of $n$. Thus, if $a$ is nilpotent, $a=0$.

