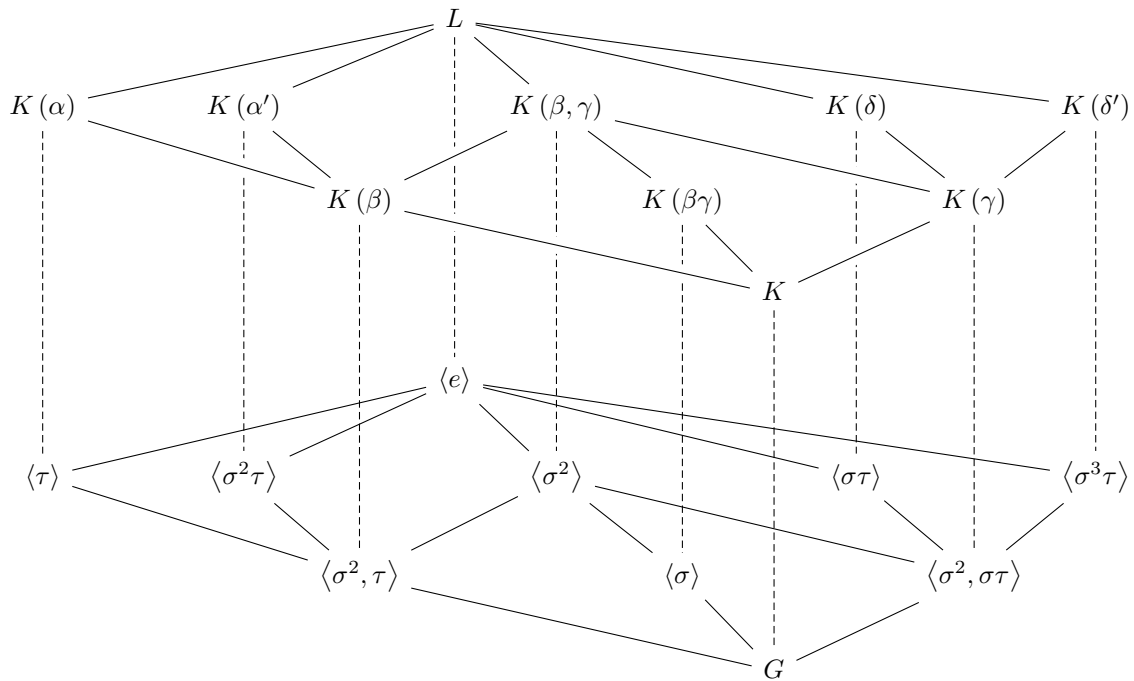


M3P11 Galois Theory

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Syllabus

Field extensions. Irreducible polynomials. Normal extensions. Separable extensions. Fundamental theorem of Galois theory. Galois theory of quadratic polynomials. Galois theory of biquadratic polynomials. Galois theory of finite fields. Galois theory of cubic polynomials. Reduction modulo prime.

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0 What is Galois theory?

Lecture 1
Thursday
10/01/19

References.

- E Artin, Galois theory, 1994
- A Grothendieck and M Raynaud, Revêtements étales et groupe fondamental, 2002
- I N Herstein, Topics in algebra, 1975
- M Reid, Galois theory, 2014

Notation. If K is a field, or a ring, I denote

$$K[x] = \{a_0 + \cdots + a_n x^n \mid a_i \in K\},$$

the ring of polynomials with coefficients in K .

Example.

- $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$.
- Quadratic fields

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle}.$$

It is also a field, since

$$\frac{1}{(a + b\sqrt{2})} = \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b^2}.$$

- If p is prime, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_p$ is a finite field. If $f(x) \in K[x]$ is irreducible, $K[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$ is a field. For example, $x^2 - 2$. Both \mathbb{Z} and $K[x]$ have a division algorithm. For example, let $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $[a] \neq 0$, that is $p \nmid a$. Since p is prime, $\gcd(p, a) = 1$, so there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ax + py = 1$. Thus $[a] \cdot [x] = 1$ in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.
- For K a field, either for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \neq 0$ in K , so K has characteristic $\text{ch}(K) = 0$, or there exists p prime such that $m = 0$ if and only if $p \mid m$, so K has characteristic $\text{ch}(K) = p$.
- For K a field,

$$K(x) = \text{Frac}(K[x]) = \left\{ \phi(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \mid f, g \in K[x], g \neq 0 \right\}.$$

is also a field, the field of rational functions with coefficients in K . For example, $\mathbb{F}_p(x, Y) = \mathbb{F}_p(x)(Y)$.

Example. Consider algebraic equations in a field K .

- Let $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ for $a, b, c \in K$ be a quadratic. There is a formula

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

- For a cubic $y^3 + 3py + 2q = 0$,

$$y = \sqrt[3]{-q + \sqrt{q^2 + p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{-q - \sqrt{q^2 + p^3}}.$$

- There is a formula for quartic equations.
- It is a theorem that there can be no such formula for equations of degree at least five.

Galois theory deals with these easily.

Definition 0.1. A **field homomorphism** is a function $\phi : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$ that preserves the field operations, for all $a, b \in K_1$,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(a + b) &= \phi(a) + \phi(b), \\ \phi(ab) &= \phi(a)\phi(b),\end{aligned}$$

and $\phi(0_{K_1}) = 0_{K_2}$ and $\phi(1_{K_1}) = 1_{K_2}$.

Remark. All field homomorphisms are injective. If $a \in K_1 \setminus \{0\}$, then there exists $b \in K_1$ such that $ab = 1$, then $\phi(a)\phi(b) = 1$, so $\phi(a) \neq 0$. This easily implies ϕ is injective. If $a_1 \neq a_2$, then $a_1 - a_2 \neq 0$, so $0 \neq \phi(a_1 - a_2) = \phi(a_1) - \phi(a_2)$. Then $\phi(a_1) \neq \phi(a_2)$.

We concern ourselves with field extensions $k \subset K$, and every homomorphism is an extension. Consider a field extension $k \subset K$ and $\alpha \in K$. Then $k(\alpha) \subset K$ denotes the smallest subfield of K that contains k, α . Not to be confused with $k(x)$.

Example. There are two very different cases exemplified in $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{C}$.

- $\alpha = \sqrt{2}, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.
- $\alpha = \pi, \mathbb{Q}(\pi)$.

Definition 0.2.

- α is **algebraic** over k if $f(\alpha) = 0$ for some $0 \neq f \in k[x]$. Otherwise we say that α is **transcendental** over k .
- The extension $k \subset K$ is **algebraic** if for all $\alpha \in K$, α is algebraic over k .

Definition 0.3. Consider a field k and $f \in k[x]$. We say that $k \subset K$ is a **splitting field** for f if

- $f(x) = a \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \lambda_i) \in K[x]$ for $a \in k \setminus \{0\}$, and
- $K = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$.

Example.

- If $f(x) = x^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, then $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is a splitting field for f . Indeed

$$x^2 - 2 = (x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2}) \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})[x].$$

- If $f(x) = x^2 + 2$, then $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$.
- If $f(x) = x^3 - 2$, then

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt[3]{2} + c\sqrt[3]{4} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

is not a splitting field. $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$, where $\omega = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{3}}{2}$, is a splitting field.

$$x^3 - 2 = (x - \sqrt[3]{2})(x - \omega\sqrt[3]{2})(x - \omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}).$$

Theorem 0.4 (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory, Galois correspondence). *Assume characteristic zero. Let $k \subset K$ be the splitting field of $f(x) \in k[x]$. Let*

$$G = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow K \mid \sigma \text{ field automorphism, } \sigma|_k = id_k\}.$$

*We call this group the **Galois group**. There is a one-to-one correspondence*

$$\begin{aligned} \{k \subset K_1 \subset K \mid K_1 \text{ subfield}\} &\leftrightarrow \{H \leq G \mid H \text{ subgroup}\} \\ K_1 &\mapsto \{\sigma \in G \mid \forall \lambda \in K_1, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} \\ \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} &\leftarrow H \leq G \end{aligned}$$

Why is this cool? Fields are hard, groups are easy. We will see that there is a good formula for the roots of $f(x)$ if and only if G is a soluble group.

Example. Let $\deg(f) = 2$ and $f(x) = x^2 + 2Ax + B \in K[x]$. If K already contains the roots then $L = K$ and $G = \{id\}$. Suppose K does not contain the roots. We still have quadratic formula

$$\lambda_{1,2} = -A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B}.$$

If $\Delta = A^2 - B$ then $\sqrt{\Delta}$ does not exist in K . We must have

$$L = K(\sqrt{\Delta}) = \{a + b\sqrt{\Delta} \mid a, b \in K\}.$$

Then $K \subset L$ and

$$G = \{\sigma : L \rightarrow L \mid \sigma|_K = id_K\} = C_2$$

is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{\Delta} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{\Delta}.$$

The following is further specialisation.

- Let $K = \mathbb{R}$ and $\Delta = -1$. Then

$$L = \mathbb{C} = \{a + b\sqrt{-1} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

and $G = C_2$ is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{-1} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{-1},$$

complex conjugation.

- Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$ and $\Delta = 2$. Then

$$L = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\},$$

and $G = C_2$ is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{2} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{2}.$$

The fundamental theorem implies there does not exist

$$K \subsetneq K_1 \subsetneq K(\sqrt{\Delta}) = L.$$

Is this obvious? Consider $x \in L \setminus K$, so $x = a + b\sqrt{\Delta}$, and $b \neq 0$, and then

$$\sqrt{\Delta} = \frac{x - a}{b},$$

so $K(x) = L$.

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Tuesday
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1 Eisenstein numbers

Let $f(x) = x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$, where $\omega = \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$ is a solution of $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$. Then

$$\mathbb{Q}(\omega) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3}), \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \left\{ a + b\sqrt[3]{2} + c\sqrt[3]{4} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}.$$

Remark. For any splitting field of f , there is always a natural inclusion group homomorphism

$$\rho : G \hookrightarrow S(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n),$$

where $S(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ is the group of permutations of the roots of $f = x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$.

- If $\sigma \in G$, $f(\lambda) = 0$, so $\lambda^n + a_1\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$.

$$0 = \sigma(0) = \sigma(\lambda^n + a_1\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_n) = \sigma(\lambda)^n + a_1\sigma(\lambda)^{n-1} + \dots + a_n.$$

- ρ is injective. If for all i , $\sigma(\lambda_i) = \lambda_i$, then $\sigma = id$ on $K(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) = L$.

The fundamental theorem and remark gives $G = \mathfrak{S}_3$.

Definition 1.1. $K \subset L$ is **finite** if L is finite-dimensional as a vector space over K . The **degree** of L over K is

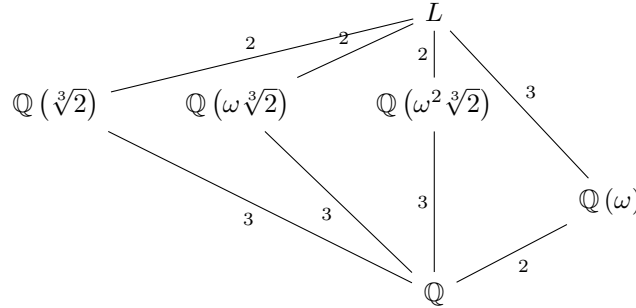
$$[L : K] = \dim_K(L).$$

Theorem 1.2 (Tower law). Let $K \subset L \subset F$. Then

$$[F : K] = [F : L][L : K].$$

Theorem 1.3. Suppose $f(x) \in K[x]$ is irreducible of degree $d = \deg(f)$ and $L = K(\lambda)$ where $f(\lambda) = 0$, then $[K(\lambda) : K] = d$.

$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is a field, and $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ be the splitting field of $x^3 - 2$ over \mathbb{Q} . The lattice of subfields is



Then (Exercise)

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2} + \omega) = L, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = L.$$

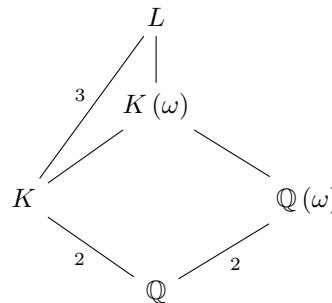
What is $[L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})]$? Note that $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})(\sqrt{-3})$. Could $\sqrt{-3} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$? Consider $x^2 + 3 \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})[x]$. By the tower law,

$$\begin{cases} [L : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\omega)][\mathbb{Q}(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2[L : \mathbb{Q}(\omega)] & \implies 2 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}] \\ [L : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})][\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3[L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] & \implies 3 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}] \end{cases} \implies 6 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}].$$

- Either $x^2 + 3$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, so by Theorem 1.3 $[L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] = 2$ and $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 6$.
- Or $x^2 + 3$ is not irreducible, so $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = L$ and $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$, a contradiction.

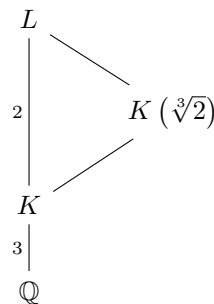
Are there any other fields? Claim that there are no other fields. Suppose $\mathbb{Q} \subsetneq K \subsetneq L$ is such a field. By the tower law $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ or $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$.

- Suppose $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$.



- Either $\omega \in K$, that is $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) \subset K$, so by the tower law $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) = K$.
- Or $\omega \notin K$ gives $[K(\omega) : K] = 2$, so $[K(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ contradicts the tower law for $\mathbb{Q} \subset K(\omega) \subset L$.

- Suppose $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$.



Claim that $x^3 - 2 \in K[x]$ splits. Suppose that it were irreducible, then $[K(\sqrt[3]{2}) : K] = 3$, which contradicts the tower law for $K \subset K(\sqrt[3]{2}) \subset L$. So it has a root in K . Either $\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$, $\omega\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$, or $\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$. Thus $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$, $\mathbb{Q}(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$, or $\mathbb{Q}(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$.

I want to prove that

$$G = \text{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(L) = \{\sigma : L \rightarrow L \mid \sigma|_{\mathbb{Q}} = \text{id}_{\mathbb{Q}}\} = \mathfrak{S}_3.$$

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Suppose $y_1, \dots, y_m \in F$ is a basis of F as a vector space over L . Suppose $x_1, \dots, x_n \in L$ is a basis of L as a vector space over K . Claim that $\{x_i y_j\}$ is a basis of F over K .

- $\{x_i y_j\}$ generates F . Let $z \in F$. There exist $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n \in L$ such that

$$z = \mu_1 y_1 + \dots + \mu_n y_n. \quad (1)$$

$\mu_j \in L$ so for all j there exists $\lambda_{ij} \in K$ such that

$$\mu_j = x_1 \lambda_{1j} + \dots + x_m \lambda_{mj}. \quad (2)$$

Plug in (2) into (1),

$$z = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_{ij} x_i y_j.$$

- $\{x_i y_j\}$ are linearly independent over K . Suppose there exists $\lambda_{ij} \in K$ such that

$$0 = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_{ij} x_i y_j = \sum_j \left(\sum_i \lambda_{ij} x_i \right) y_j,$$

so for all j , $\sum_i \lambda_{ij} x_i = 0$, so for all j and all i , $\lambda_{ij} = 0$.

□

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Example. To show $G = \mathfrak{S}_3$. Let $\sigma = (1 \ 2)$. A basis of L/\mathbb{Q} is

$$1, \sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{4}, \omega, \omega\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega\sqrt[3]{4}.$$

- $\sigma(1) = 1$.
- $\sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \omega\sqrt[3]{2}$.
- $\sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}$.
- $\sigma(\sqrt[3]{4}) = \sigma(\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) = \omega\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \omega\sqrt[3]{2} = \omega^2\sqrt[3]{4} = (-\omega - 1)\sqrt[3]{4} = -\omega\sqrt[3]{4} - \sqrt[3]{4}$.
- $\sigma(\omega) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}/\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2})/\sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}/\omega\sqrt[3]{2} = 1/\omega = -1 - \omega$.
- $\sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{4}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) \cdot \sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \omega\sqrt[3]{2} = \omega\sqrt[3]{4}$.

Thus

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

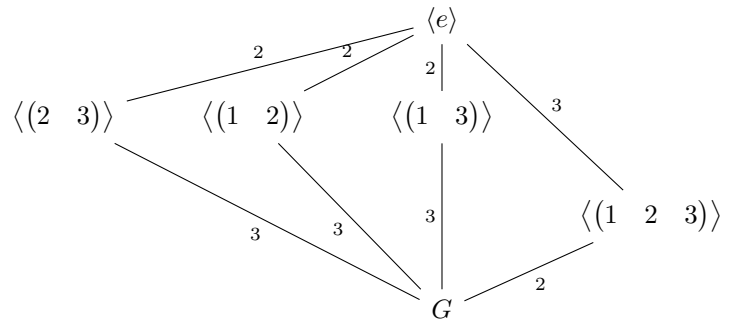
A question is if there were $\sigma \in G$ such that $\rho(\sigma) = (1 \ 2)$ then we have written the matrix of σ as a \mathbb{Q} -linear map of L in a basis. But how to check that this \mathbb{Q} -linear map is a field homomorphism? We know the Galois correspondence for extensions of degree two.

$$\text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right), \text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right), \text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right) \subset G$$

contain an element of order two, and

$$\begin{aligned} \rho: \quad \text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right) &\mapsto (2 \ 3) \\ \text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right) &\mapsto (1 \ 2) \\ \text{Gal}\left(L/\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right) &\mapsto (1 \ 3). \end{aligned}$$

The lattice of subgroups is



$\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$ is the splitting field of $x^2 + x + 1$ and of $x^2 + 3$.

We can learn the following. Let $k \subset L$ be a splitting field. Consider $k \subset K \subset L$. Then $K \subset L$ is also a splitting field. The corresponding $H \leq G$ is the Galois group $\text{Gal}(L/K)$. On the other hand $k \subset K$ is not always a splitting field. It is a splitting field if and only if the corresponding $H \leq G$ is a normal subgroup and in that case $\text{Gal}(K/k) = G/H$.

2 Elementary facts

Let $K \subset L$ and $a \in L$. The **evaluation homomorphism**

$$\begin{aligned} e_a : K[x] &\rightarrow K[a] \subset L \\ f(x) &\mapsto f(a) \end{aligned}$$

is a surjective ring homomorphism, where $K[a]$ is the smallest subring of L containing K and a .

Definition 2.1. $f(x) = a_0x^n + \cdots + a_n \in K[x]$ is **monic** if $a_0 = 1$.

Lemma 2.2.

- If a is transcendental, e_a is injective and it extends to $\tilde{e}_a : K(x) \rightarrow K(a)$, by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K(x) & & \\ \cup & \searrow \tilde{e}_a & \\ K[x] & \xrightarrow{e_a} & L \end{array} .$$

- If a is algebraic, then $\text{Ker}(e_a) = \langle f_a \rangle$, where $f_a \in K[x]$ is irreducible, or prime, and unique if monic, then called the minimal polynomial of $a \in L/K$. In this case

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K[x] & \xrightarrow{e_a} & K[a] \cong K(a) \subset L \\ \cup & \nearrow \sim & \\ \frac{K[x]}{\langle f_a \rangle} & \xrightarrow{[e_a]} & \end{array} .$$

Proof. There is nothing to prove. □

Remark. Let $g(x) \in K[x]$ and $g(a) \neq 0$. Claim that $1/g(a) \in K[a]$. Indeed $\gcd(f, g) = 1$ in $K[x]$ and $f \nmid g$. There exists $\phi, \psi \in K[x]$ such that $f\phi + g\psi = 1$ and $g(a)\psi(a) = 1$. All of this is saying

- $K[a] \cong K(a)$, and
- $K[x] / \langle f_a \rangle \cong K(a)$.

Let

$$\text{Em}_K(K(a), F) = \{\sigma : K(a) \rightarrow F \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism, } \sigma_K = \text{id}_K\},$$

where

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & K(a) \\ & \subset & \vdots \\ K & & \sigma \\ & \subset & \vdots \\ & & F \end{array} .$$

Corollary 2.3. For $K \subset L$ and $a \in L$ algebraic over K ,

- $[K(a) : K] = \deg(f_a)$, and
- If $K \subset F$ is an extension,

$$\text{Em}_K(K(a), F) = \{b \in F \mid f_a(b) = 0\}.$$

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Proof. Since $K(a) = K[a]$, $[K(a) : K] = \dim_K(K(a)) = \dim_K(K[a])$. Suppose

$$f(x) = x^n + \mu_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n \in K[x]$$

is the minimal polynomial of a over K . Claim that $1, \dots, a^{n-1}$ is a basis of $K[a]$ over K .

- The set generates $K[a]$. Let $c \in K[a]$. There exists $g \in K[x]$ such that $g(a) = c$. Long division gives

$$g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x), \quad m = \deg(r(x)) < n.$$

Then $r(x) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m x^m$ and $g(a) = r(a) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m a^m$.

- The set is linearly independent, otherwise there exists

$$g(x) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_{n-1} x^{n-1} \in K[x], \quad g(a) = 0,$$

and f was not the minimal polynomial.

$\sigma(a)$ is a root of f , since applying σ to $f(a) = 0$ gives

$$0 = \sigma(a^n + \mu_1 a^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n) = \sigma(a)^n + \mu_1^{n-1} \sigma(a)^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n = f(\sigma(a)).$$

Vice versa, if $b \in F$ is a root of f ,

$$K(b) \xleftarrow[\sim]{[e_b]} \frac{K[x]}{\langle f \rangle} \xrightarrow[\sim]{[e_a]} K(a),$$

then $\sigma = [e_b][e_a]^{-1}$. Thus there is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Em_K(K(a), F) & \leftrightarrow & \{b \in F \mid f(b) = 0\} \\ \sigma & \mapsto & \sigma(a) \\ [e_b][e_a]^{-1} & \leftrightarrow & b \end{array}.$$

□

Corollary 2.4. Let K be a field and $f \in K[x]$. Then there exists $K \subset L$ such that f has a root in L .

Proof. Take g a prime factor of f . Take $L = K[x]/\langle g \rangle$. In here $a = [x]$ is a root of g hence a root of f . □

From now on in this course, we study field extensions $K \subset L$, always assumed to be finite, so $[L : K] = \dim_K(L) < \infty$.

Remark. $K \subset L$ is finite if and only if

- it is algebraic, that is for all $a \in L$, a is algebraic over K , and
- it is finitely generated, that is there exist $a_1, \dots, a_m \in L$ such that $L = K(a_1, \dots, a_m)$.

An important point of view is that we study all possible field homomorphisms

$$Em(K, L) = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow L \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism}\}.$$

Often there is a field $k \subset K, L$ in the background which we want to stay fixed, so let

$$Em_k(K, L) = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow L \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism, } \sigma|_k = id_k\}.$$

Example. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$. The minimal polynomial of $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is $x^3 - 2$. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$ be the splitting field of $x^3 - 2$. Then

$$Em_{\mathbb{Q}}(K, L) = Em(K, L) = \{\text{roots of } x^3 - 2 \text{ in } L\} = \{\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}\}.$$

Remark. Suppose $k \subset K$. $Em_k(K, K) = G = Gal(K/k)$. Indeed every k -homomorphism $\sigma : K \rightarrow K$ is automatically invertible. We know σ is injective. σ is also surjective because σ is a k -linear endomorphism of a finite-dimensional k -vector space.

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3 Axiomatics

Proposition 3.1. *Fix $k \subset K$ and $k \subset L$. Then $\#Em_k(K, L) \leq [K : k]$.*

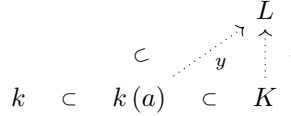
Proof.

Special case. If $K = k(a)$, let $f(x) \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of a . Then $Em_k(k(a), L)$ is the roots of $f(x)$ in L , so

$$\#Em_k(K, L) = \#\{\text{roots}\} \leq \deg(f) = [k(a) : k],$$

as proved last time.

General case. If $k = K$, nothing to do. Otherwise choose $a \in K \setminus k$.



Consider the restriction map

$$\rho : Em_k(K, L) \rightarrow Em_k(k(a), L).$$

Fix $y \in Em_k(k(a), L)$. Then

$$\rho^{-1}(y) = \{x : K \rightarrow L \mid x|_{k(a)} = id_{k(a)}\}.$$

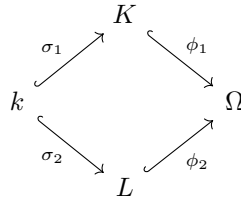
Since $[k(a) : k] > 1$, by the tower law $[K : k(a)] < [K : k]$. By induction we may assume $\#\rho^{-1}(y) \leq [K : k(a)]$. So

$$\#Em_k(K, L) \leq \sum_{y \in Em_k(k(a), L)} \#\rho^{-1}(y) \leq [k(a) : k][K : k(a)] = [K : k],$$

by the tower law.

□

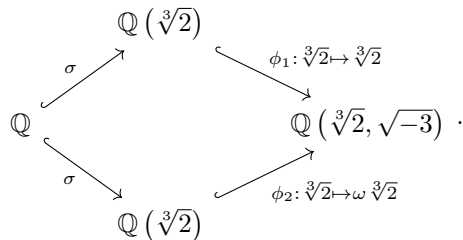
Proposition 3.2. *Suppose given two field extensions $k \subset K$ and $k \subset L$. Then there is a non-unique bigger common field*



that contains both.

Remark.

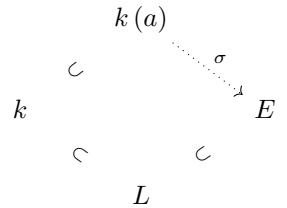
- More formally, suppose given $\sigma_1 \in Em(k, K)$ and $\sigma_2 \in Em(k, L)$, then there exists Ω , $\phi_1 \in Em(K, \Omega)$, and $\phi_2 \in Em(L, \Omega)$ such that $\phi_1 \circ \sigma_1 = \phi_2 \circ \sigma_2$.
- I never said that Ω is unique. For example, let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ and $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$. One choice is $\Omega = k$. Another choice is $\Omega = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$, where



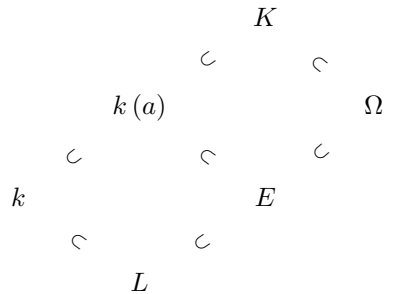
Another more precise way to state this is there exists $k \subset \Omega$ such that $Em_k(K, \Omega)$ and $Em_k(L, \Omega)$ are both non-empty.

Proof.

Special case. If $K = k(a)$, let $f(x) \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of a over k . Let $L \subset E$ be such that $f(x) \in L[x]$ has a root $\alpha \in E$. Then there exists $\sigma \in Em_k(k(a), E)$ such that $\sigma(a) = \alpha$.



General case. By induction on $[K : k]$. If $[K : k] = 1$, take $\Omega = L$. If $[K : k] > 1$, take $a \in K \setminus k$.



By special case there exists E as in the diagram. By tower law $[K : k(a)] < [K : k]$ hence by induction find Ω as in the diagram. Ω solves the original problem.

□

Proposition 3.3. *Let L be any field and G be a finite group acting on L as automorphisms. Let*

$$K = G^* = \text{Fix}(G) = L^G = \{\lambda \in L \mid \forall \sigma \in G, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\}.$$

Consider $\text{Aut}_K(L) = K^\dagger$. Then the obvious inclusion $G \subset K^\dagger = (G^)^\dagger$ is an equality, so G is all of K^\dagger .*

Remark. Contextualising, this thing is half of the Galois correspondence.

$$\begin{aligned} \{F \mid k \subset F \subset \Omega\} &\leftrightarrow \{G \mid G \leq \text{Aut}_k(\Omega)\} \\ F &\mapsto \text{Aut}_F(\Omega) = F^\dagger \\ \text{Fix}(G) = G^* &\leftarrow G \end{aligned}$$

Then to prove the Galois correspondence, we need for all G , $G = (G^*)^\dagger$. We also need for all F , $F = (F^\dagger)^*$. Proposition 3.3 follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 3.4. *$K \subset L$ is a finite extension of degree $[L : K] \leq |G|$.*

Proof of Proposition 3.3. From Proposition 3.1, $\text{Aut}_K(L) = Em_K(L, L)$ because $K \subset L$ is finite, and $\#Em_K(L, L) \leq [L : K]$. By Lemma 3.4,

$$[L : K] \leq \#Em_K(L, L) \leq [L : K],$$

so $|G| = \#Em_K(L, L)$. By what we said, $G \subset Em_K(L, L)$, so $G = Em_K(L, L)$.

□

Lecture 9 is a problem class.

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Proof of Lemma 3.4. Write $G = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n\}$ for $n = |G|$. Want that all $(n+1)$ -tuples $a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \in L$ are linearly dependent over K . Let $a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \in L$. Consider the $n+1$ vectors in L^n . Let

$$\overline{a_1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(a_1) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_1) \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \overline{a_{n+1}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(a_{n+1}) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_{n+1}) \end{pmatrix} \in L^n.$$

These are linearly dependent over L . There exist $x_1, \dots, x_{n+1} \in L$ not all zero such that

$$x_1 \overline{a_1} + \dots + x_{n+1} \overline{a_{n+1}} = \overline{0}.$$

By reordering the $\overline{a_i}$, may assume

$$x_1 \overline{a_1} + \dots + x_k \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}, \quad (3)$$

for some $1 \leq k \leq n+1$ with

- for all $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, $x_i \neq 0$,
- such k is the smallest, and
- $x_1 = 1$.

Claim that all these $x_i \in K$. This does it, by reading j -th row where $\sigma_j = id_G$. We need to show for all i , $x_i \in L^G$. Take $\sigma \in G$.

$$\sigma(x_1) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(\sigma_1(a_1)) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(\sigma_n(a_1)) \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \sigma(x_k) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(\sigma_1(a_k)) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(\sigma_n(a_k)) \end{pmatrix} = \overline{0} \in L^n.$$

Note that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \rightarrow & G \\ \tau & \mapsto & \sigma \circ \tau \end{array}$$

is a bijective function and $\{\sigma \circ \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma \circ \sigma_n\} = G$. Multiplying by σ reshuffles the rows. So in fact,

$$\sigma(x_1) \overline{a_1} + \dots + \sigma(x_k) \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}. \quad (4)$$

Claim that for all i , $\sigma(x_i) = x_i$. Otherwise (3) – (4),

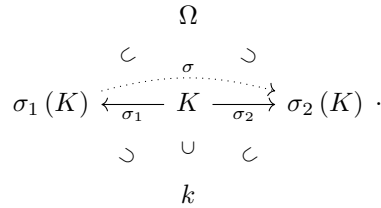
$$(x_2 - \sigma(x_2)) \overline{a_2} + \dots + (x_k - \sigma(x_k)) \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}$$

is a shorter solution, contradicting k minimal. □

4 Galois correspondence

Definition 4.1. $k \subset K$ is **normal** if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega), \exists \sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K), \sigma_2 = \sigma_1 \circ \sigma. \quad (5)$$



Equivalently, $k \subset K$ is normal if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega), \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K). \quad (6)$$

Example. $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is not normal. Take $\Omega = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$.

(5) \implies (6) Indeed for all $\lambda \in K$, $\sigma_2(\lambda) = \sigma_1(\sigma(\lambda)) \in \sigma_1(K)$, so $\sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K)$.

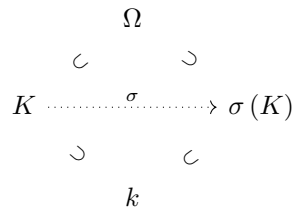
(6) \implies (5) Work inside Ω , so $k \subset \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K) \subset \Omega$. Tower law gives

$$[K : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] [\sigma_2(K) : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] [K : k].$$

So $[\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] = 1$, so $\sigma_1(K) = \sigma_2(K)$. Take $\sigma = \sigma_1^{-1} \circ \sigma_2$. σ is clearly bijective and it is more or less obvious that $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K)$.

Equivalently, $k \subset K$ is normal if for all $K \subset \Omega$, for all $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$, $\sigma(K) \subset K$.

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Remark. We will see that $k \subset K$ is normal if and only if there exists $f(x) \in K[x]$ such that K is a splitting field of f .

Lemma 4.2. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Consider $k \subset L \subset K$. Then also $L \subset K$ is normal.

Proof. If $\sigma \in \text{Em}_L(K, \Omega)$, then $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$. □

Warning.

- It is not true in general that $k \subset K$ is normal gives that $k \subset L$ is normal. For example, let

$$k = \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3}) = K.$$

$k \subset K$ is normal because it is a splitting field but $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is not normal.

- Suppose $k \subset L$ is normal and $L \subset K$ is normal. This does not imply $k \subset K$ is normal. This will be in an example sheet.

Definition 4.3. $k \subset K$ is **separable** if for all $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$, if $K_1 \neq K_2$, there exist $k \subset \Omega$ and embeddings $x \in \text{Em}_k(K_1, \Omega)$ and $y_1, y_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K_2, \Omega)$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 K & & & & \Omega \\
 \cup & & \subset & & \supset \\
 K_2 & \xrightarrow{y_1} & y_1(K_2) & & y_2(K_2) \\
 \cup & & \searrow & & \swarrow \\
 & & y_2 & & \\
 K_1 & \xrightarrow{x} & x(K_1) & & \\
 \cup & & \subset & & \\
 k & & & &
 \end{array}$$

That is, $y_1|_{K_1} = y_2|_{K_1} = x$ but $y_1 \neq y_2$.

Slogan is that embeddings separate fields. We will see that

- in characteristic zero everything is separable, and
- in characteristic p we will have good ways to decide if something is separable.

Lemma 4.4. Suppose $k \subset K \subset L$. Then $k \subset L$ is separable if and only if $k \subset K$ and $K \subset L$ are separable.

Proof.

\Rightarrow Obvious. $K \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$ leads to $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$.

\Leftarrow I will do later.

□

Theorem 4.5 (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory, Galois correspondence). Let $k \subset K$ be normal and separable. Let $G = \text{Em}_k(K, K)$. Then there is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\begin{aligned}
 \{k \subset L \subset K\} &\leftrightarrow \{H \leq G\} \\
 L &\mapsto L^\dagger = \{\sigma \in G \mid \forall \lambda \in L, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} \\
 H^* = \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} &\mapsto H
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof. We show that for all $H \leq G$, $(H^*)^\dagger = H$ and for all $k \subset L \subset K$, $(L^\dagger)^* = L$. We already did the former. We just prove the latter now. Note that $L \subset K$ is normal and separable so all I need to show is $(k^\dagger)^* = k$, that is $k = G^*$ is the fixed field of G . That is, if $\lambda \notin k$, there exists $\sigma : K \rightarrow K$ in G such that $\sigma(\lambda) \neq \lambda$. By separability, there exists Ω and $x_1 \neq x_2 \in \text{Em}_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$ such that

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 K & & \\
 \downarrow & \searrow \widetilde{x_1, x_2} & \\
 k(\lambda) & \xrightarrow{x_1, x_2} & \Omega \\
 \downarrow & \nearrow & \\
 k & &
 \end{array}$$

so $x_1(\lambda) \neq x_2(\lambda)$. Two steps.

- There exist $\widetilde{x_1}, \widetilde{x_2} : K \rightarrow \Omega$ extending $x_1, x_2 : k(\lambda) \rightarrow \Omega$, by the following lemma.
- Because $k \subset K$ is normal there exists $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K)$ such that $\widetilde{x_2} = \widetilde{x_1} \circ \sigma$ then clearly $\sigma(\lambda) \neq \lambda$.

□

Lemma 4.6. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Then for all towers $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$, the natural restriction $\rho : \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega) \rightarrow \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$ is surjective.

Lemma 4.6 says for all $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$, there exists $\tilde{\sigma} \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$ such that $\tilde{\sigma}|_F = \sigma$.

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$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & & \\ | & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \Omega \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

Proof. We know that there exists $\tilde{\Omega}$ as follows.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & \xrightarrow{\phi_2} & \tilde{\Omega} \\ | & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \uparrow \psi \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \Omega \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

There are two $K \subset \tilde{\Omega}$,

$$\phi_1 : K \subset \Omega \xrightarrow{\psi} \tilde{\Omega}, \quad \phi_2 : K \hookrightarrow \tilde{\Omega}.$$

Because $k \subset K$ is normal $\phi_2(K) \subset \phi_1(K) \subset \psi(\Omega)$. That proves that $\tilde{\sigma}$ exists. \square

Corollary 4.7. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Then for all towers $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$, $\text{Em}_k(F, K) \rightarrow \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$ is also surjective.

Corollary 4.7 states that for all $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$, $\sigma(F) \subset K$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Omega & & \\ | & \searrow & \\ K & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\sigma}} & \tilde{\sigma}(K) \\ | & \searrow & | \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \sigma(F) \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

Proof. This clearly follows from Lemma 4.6. $\sigma(F) \subset \tilde{\sigma}(K) \subset K$ by definition of normal. \square

5 Normal extensions

Theorem 5.1. For finite $k \subset K$, the following are equivalent.

1. For all $f \in k[x]$ irreducible either f has no root in K or f splits completely in K .
2. There exists $f \in k[x]$ not necessarily irreducible such that K is a splitting field of f .
3. $k \subset K$ is normal.

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 There are $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in K$ such that $K = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$. For all i let $f_i \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of λ_i . f_i is irreducible and by 1 it splits completely. K is the splitting field of

$$f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^m f_i(x).$$

- 2 \implies 3 Suppose $K \subset \Omega$. Let $\sigma : K \rightarrow \Omega$ be another embedding. For all λ_i , $\sigma(\lambda_i)$ is a root of f , so $\sigma(K) \subset K$ hence $\sigma(K) \subset K$.

- 3 \implies 1 Let $f(x) \in k[x]$ be irreducible. Suppose there exists $\lambda \in K$ such that $f(\lambda) = 0$. Let Ω be a splitting field of $f(x) \in K[x]$. Let $\mu \in \Omega$ be a root of f . There exists a unique $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$ such that $\sigma(\lambda) = \mu$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & K & \\ & | & \\ F = k(\lambda) & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \sigma(F) \subset \Omega \ni \mu \\ & | & \nearrow \\ & k & \end{array}$$

By Corollary 4.7, $\sigma(F) \subset K$, so $\mu \in K$.

□

(Exercise: prove that any two splitting fields of $f \in k[x]$ are k -isomorphic, not necessarily in a unique way)

Proposition 5.2. Let $k \subset L$ be a field extension. Then there exists a tower $k \subset L \subset K$ such that $k \subset K$ is normal.

Proof. We use normal if and only if splitting field. Pick $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in L$ such that $L = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$. Let $f_i \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of λ_i over k . Let K be the splitting field of

$$f = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i \in L[x].$$

Claim that K is the splitting field of f over k . Key point is argue that K is generated by the roots of f over k . □

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6 Separable polynomials

Definition 6.1. A polynomial $f \in k[x]$ is **separable** if it has $n = \deg(f)$ distinct roots in any field $k \subset K$ such that $f \in K[x]$ splits completely.

Remark. It is not completely obvious that this definition is independent of K . To see this, use the fact that any two splitting fields are isomorphic.

Example.

- Let $k = \mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. Then $x^p - a = (x - a)^p$ is not separable, since in characteristic p , $(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p$.
- Let $k = \mathbb{F}_p(t)$. Then $x^p - t$ is an irreducible polynomial. Why? Let

$$K = \frac{\mathbb{F}_p(t)[u]}{\langle u^p - t \rangle} = \mathbb{F}_p(u).$$

In $K[x]$, $x^p - t = (x - u)^p$.

For all k , define the **derivation** as

$$D : \begin{array}{ccc} k[x] & \rightarrow & k[x] \\ x^n & \mapsto & nx^{n-1} \end{array},$$

and extend linearly to all of $k[x]$. The following are some properties.

- D is k -linear, that is for all $\lambda, \mu \in k$, for all $f, g \in k[x]$,

$$D(\lambda f + \mu g) = \lambda Df + \mu Dg.$$

- Leibnitz rule, that is for all $f, g \in k[x]$,

$$D(fg) = fDg + gDf.$$

Most important thing to know in characteristic p , if $p \mid n$ then $Dx^n = nx^{n-1} = 0$. If $Df = 0$ that does not mean f is constant. This just means that there exists $h \in k[x]$ such that $f(x) = h(x^p)$.

Proposition 6.2. $f(x) \in k[x]$ is separable if and only if $\gcd(f, Df) = 1$.

In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, f is inseparable if and only if there exists a multiple root, a critical point, which is a root of Df .

Lemma 6.3. Let $f, g \in k[x]$ and $c = \gcd(f, g)$ in $k[x]$. Let $k \subset L$ be an extension. Then $c = \gcd(f, g)$ in $L[x]$.

Proof. Indeed, if $c \mid f$, $c \mid g$ in $k[x]$ then also in $L[x]$. We also know that there exists $\phi, \psi \in k[x]$ such that

$$f\phi + g\psi = c \tag{7}$$

in $k[x]$, and hence also in $L[x]$. Suppose that $u \mid f$, $u \mid g$ in $L[x]$, so $u \mid c$ in $L[x]$ by (7). \square

Proof of Proposition 6.2. Let $k \subset L$ be any field where f splits completely. We can do the proof in $L[x]$. That is, we may assume that f splits completely, so

$$f(x) = \prod_i (x - \lambda_i).$$

\Leftarrow Assume for a contradiction that f is not separable then $f(x) = (x - \lambda)^2 g(x)$.

$$Df(x) = 2(x - \lambda)g(x) + (x - \lambda)^2 Dg(x) = (x - \lambda)(2g(x) + (x - \lambda)Dg(x)).$$

That is, $(x - \lambda) \mid f$ and $(x - \lambda) \mid Df$, so $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$.

\Rightarrow For all $i \neq j$, $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$.

$$Df = \sum_{i=1}^j \left(\prod_{j \neq i} (x - \lambda_j) \right).$$

Claim that for all i , $(x - \lambda_i) \nmid Df$. I hope you see this. This shows $\gcd(f, Df) = 1$.

\square

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Theorem 6.4. $f \in k[x]$ irreducible is inseparable if and only if

- $ch(k) = p > 0$, and
- there exists $h \in k[x]$ such that $f(x) = h(x^p)$.

Proof. Indeed f is inseparable if and only if $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$, if and only if $Df = 0$, since f is irreducible so $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$ if and only if $f \mid Df$, and $\deg(Df) < \deg(f)$. \square

Definition 6.5. A field k in $ch(k) = p > 0$ is **perfect** if for all $a \in k$ there exists $b \in k$ such that $b^p = a$.

Proposition 6.6. If k is perfect then $f \in k[x]$ is irreducible gives that $f(x)$ is separable.

Proof. If f were inseparable then $f(x) = h(x^p)$. For all i , find $b_i^p = a_i$,

$$h(x) = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n = x^n + b_1^p x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n^p.$$

Thus

$$f(x) = h(x^p) = (x^n + b_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n)^p,$$

so f is not irreducible. \square

Example. All finite fields are perfect. Suppose F is a finite field. Then $ch(F) = p > 0$ so $\mathbb{F}_p \subset F$ therefore $[F : \mathbb{F}_p] = n < \infty$. $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_p}(F) = n < \infty$, so $F \cong (\mathbb{F}_p)^n$ as a vector space over \mathbb{F}_p gives that F has p^n elements. The group $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$ has $p^n - 1$ elements. So for all $a \in F^\times$, $a^{p^n-1} = 1$. For all $a \in F$, $a^{p^n} = a$, so

$$(a^{p^{n-1}})^p = a,$$

and this shows F is perfect.

Definition 6.7. Consider $k \subset K$. An element $a \in L$ is **separable** over k if the minimal polynomial $f(x) \in k[x]$ of a is a separable polynomial.

Lecture 15 is a problem class.

Lecture 16 is a problem class.

Lecture 17 is a test.

Lecture 15

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7 Separable degree

Definition 7.1. Let $k \subset K$. Choose $K \subset \Omega$ such that $k \subset \Omega$ is normal. Define the **separable degree** as

$$[K : k]_s = |Em_k(K, \Omega)|.$$

Remark. $[K : k]_s$ does not depend on $K \subset \Omega$. Suppose $k \subset \Omega_1$ and $k \subset \Omega_2$ are normal. Then there exists a bigger field $\tilde{\Omega}$ such that $\Omega_1 \subset \tilde{\Omega}$ and $\Omega_2 \subset \tilde{\Omega}$. Then

$$Em_k(K, \Omega_1) = Em_k(K, \tilde{\Omega}) = Em_k(K, \Omega_2),$$

by Corollary 4.7 a while ago,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Omega_1 & & \\ \cup & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \\ K & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \tilde{\Omega} \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

Remark. We can restate the definition of separable extension. Recall that $k \subset K$ is separable if for all towers $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$, there exist Ω , $y : K_1 \rightarrow \Omega$, and $x_1, x_2 : K_2 \rightarrow \Omega$ such that $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $x_1|_{K_1} = x_2|_{K_1} = y$, so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K_2 & & \\ \cup & \searrow x_1, x_2 & \\ K_1 & \xrightarrow{y} & \Omega \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

that is $[K_2 : K_1]_s \neq 1$. Thus $k \subset K$ is separable if for all towers $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$,

$$[K_2 : K_1]_s = 1 \quad \implies \quad K_1 = K_2.$$

Theorem 7.2 (Tower law). *For all $k \subset K \subset L$,*

$$[L : k]_s = [L : K]_s [K : k]_s.$$

Proof. Choose $L \subset \Omega$ and $k \subset \Omega$ normal, so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L & & \\ \cup & \searrow y & \\ K & \xrightarrow{x=y|_K} & \Omega \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

Study

$$\rho : Em_k(L, \Omega) \rightarrow Em_k(K, \Omega).$$

ρ is surjective. For all $x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)$, there exists $y \in Em_k(L, \Omega)$ such that $y|_K = x$. $\rho^{-1}(x) = Em_K(L, \Omega)$. Then

$$[L : k]_s = |Em_k(L, \Omega)| = \sum_{x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)} |\rho^{-1}(x)| = \sum_{x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)} [L : K]_s = [L : K]_s [K : k]_s.$$

□

8 Separable extensions

Recall that for $k \subset K$, we said $a \in K$ is separable over k if the minimal polynomial $f(x) \in k[x]$ of a is a separable polynomial.

Theorem 8.1. $k \subset K$ is separable if and only if $[K : k]_s = [K : k]$.

Proof.

Step 1. $[K : k]_s = [K : k]$ gives $k \subset K$ is separable. Recall $[K : k]_s \leq [K : k]$. Statement follows from two tower laws for $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$, so $[K_2 : K_1]_s = [K_2 : K_1]$. So if $[K_2 : K_1]_s = 1$ then $[K_2 : K_1] = 1$ then $K_1 = K_2$.

Step 2. Suppose that $k \subset k(a)$ is separable then a is separable. Let $f(x) \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial. Suppose for a contradiction that it is not a separable polynomial. f is irreducible and $f \mid Df$ gives that $Df \equiv 0$ so $ch(k) = p$ and there exists $h(x) \in k[x]$ irreducible such that $f = h(x^p)$. Let $b = a^p$ and consider $k \subset k(b) \subset k(a)$. a is a root of $x^p - b \in k(b)[x]$.

$$p \deg(h) = [k(a) : k] = [k(a) : k(b)] [k(b) : k] = [k(a) : k(b)] \deg(h),$$

so $[k(a) : k(b)] = p$. Thus $x^p - b = (x - a)^p$ is the minimal polynomial of a over $k(b)$, so $[k(a) : k(b)]_s = 1$ contradicts step 1 and two tower laws.

Step 3. For $k \subset k(a)$, $k \subset k(a)$ is separable gives $[k(a) : k]_s = [k(a) : k]$. This is obvious from step 2. $[k(a) : k]$ is the degree of the minimal polynomial and $[k(a) : k]_s$ is the number of roots of minimal polynomial.

Step 4. End of proof, by a familiar method. Let us do the general case by induction on $[K : k]$. If $k = K$ then there is nothing to prove. Otherwise pick $a \in K \setminus k$. We know that both $k \subset k(a)$ and $k(a) \subset K$ are separable. $[K : k(a)] < [K : k]$ by tower law, hence by induction $[K : k(a)]_s = [K : k(a)]$. We also know $[k(a) : k]_s = [k(a) : k]$. Two tower laws give $[K : k]_s = [K : k]$.

□

Lecture 19
Thursday
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Corollary 8.2. For all towers $k \subset K \subset L$, if $k \subset K$ and $K \subset L$ are separable then $k \subset L$ is separable.

Corollary 8.3. $k \subset K$ is separable if and only if for all $a \in K$, a is separable over k .

Proof. Suppose $k \subset K$ is separable. Pick $a \in K$ then $k \subset k(a)$ is also separable. By step 2 last time, a is separable. Conversely, suppose for all $a \in K$, a is separable over k . Pick $a \in K \setminus k$. I claim $k \subset k(a)$ is separable. Then

$$[k(a) : k]_s = |\{\text{roots of minimal polynomial } f\}| = \deg(f) = [k(a) : k],$$

so $k \subset k(a)$ is separable. We want to show that $k(a) \subset K$ is separable, by the following lemma. □

Lemma 8.4. Let $k \subset L \subset K$. For $\lambda \in K$, λ is separable over k gives that λ is separable over L .

Proof. The minimal polynomial over L divides the minimal polynomial over k . □

9 Biquadratic polynomials

Let

$$K \subset K\left(\sqrt{a \pm \sqrt{b}}\right) = L, \quad c = a^2 - b, \quad \beta = \sqrt{b} \notin K, \quad \alpha = \sqrt{a + \beta} \in L, \quad \alpha' = \sqrt{a - \beta} \in L.$$

We know that $\pm\alpha, \pm\alpha'$ are the roots of

$$f(x) = x^4 - 2ax^2 + c. \quad (8)$$

This time we are not assuming (8) is irreducible. Let

$$\delta = \alpha + \alpha', \quad \delta' = \alpha - \alpha', \quad \gamma = \alpha\alpha' = \sqrt{c}.$$

Then

$$\gamma^2 = c, \quad \delta^2 = 2(a + \gamma), \quad \delta'^2 = 2(a - \gamma), \quad \delta\delta' = 2\beta, \quad \alpha = \frac{\delta + \delta'}{2}, \quad \alpha' = \frac{\delta - \delta'}{2},$$

and $\pm\delta, \pm\delta'$ are the roots of

$$g(y) = y^4 - 4ay^2 + 4b.$$

L is the splitting field of g . Assume

1. $ch(K) \neq 2$, and
2. b is not a square in K , that is $[K(\beta) : K] = 2$.

Claim that the extension $K \subset L$ is separable. It is the splitting field of $f(x)$. I need to check $\gcd(f, Df) = 1$.

$$Df = 4x^3 - 4ax = 4x(x^2 - a).$$

f, Df have no common roots, since $x = 0$ is not a root of f and $x = \pm\sqrt{a}$ is not a root of f , since $b \neq 0$.

Theorem 9.1. *Assume 1 and 2.*

1. *Suppose bc, c are not squares. Then*

$$[L : K] = 8, \quad G = D_8,$$

and $f(x)$ is irreducible.

2. *Suppose bc is a square, so c is not a square. Then*

$$[L : K] = 4, \quad G = C_4,$$

and $f(x)$ is irreducible.

3. *Suppose c is a square, so bc is not a square. Then*

- *either $2(a + \gamma), 2(a - \gamma)$ both not squares in K , then*

$$[L : K] = 4, \quad G = C_2 \times C_2,$$

and $f(x)$ is irreducible.

- *or one of $2(a + \gamma), 2(a - \gamma)$ is a square in K , but not the other, then*

$$[L : K] = [K(\beta) : K] = 2, \quad G = C_2,$$

and $f(x)$ is reducible.

Lemma 9.2. Let $B \in F$ and $A \in F$ be not square in F . If B is square in $F(\sqrt{A})$ then either B is square in F or AB is square in F .

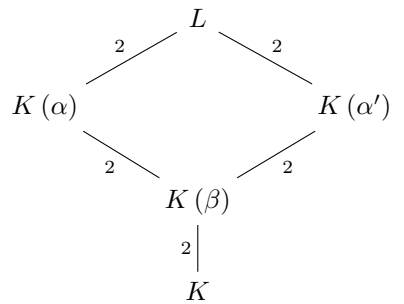
Proof. Let $B = (x + y\sqrt{A})^2 = (x^2 + Ay^2) + 2xy\sqrt{A}$. Then

- either $x = 0$, so $B = Ay^2$ gives that $AB = (Ay)^2$ is square in F ,
- or $y = 0$, so $B = x^2$ gives that $B = x^2$ is square in F .

□

Proof of Theorem 9.1.

1. Strategy is $[K(\alpha) : K(\beta)] = [K(\alpha') : K(\beta)] = 2$ and $K(\alpha) \neq K(\alpha')$.



- Key idea is that suppose $\alpha \in K(\beta) = \{x + y\beta \mid x, y \in K\}$. There exist $x, y \in K$ such that $\alpha = x + y\beta$. $(x + y\beta)^2 = a + \beta$ and $(x - y\beta)^2 = a - \beta$ gives

$$K \ni (x^2 - y^2b)^2 = ((x + y\beta)(x - y\beta))^2 = (a + \beta)(a - \beta) = a^2 - b = c,$$

so c is a square in K . Similarly, $\alpha' \in K(\beta)$ gives $\alpha' \in K(\beta)$, so c is a square in K . c is not a square therefore $\alpha \notin K(\beta)$ and $\alpha' \notin K(\beta)$, that is $[K(\alpha) : K(\beta)] = [K(\alpha') : K(\beta)] = 2$.

- Suppose for a contradiction $\alpha' \in K(\alpha)$, that is $a - \beta$ is square in $K(\alpha) = K(\beta)(\sqrt{a + \beta})$. Apply Lemma 9.2 with

$$F = K(\beta), \quad A = a + \beta, \quad B = a - \beta.$$

Then either B is square in F , a contradiction, or AB is square in F , that is $(a + \beta)(a - \beta) = a^2 - b = c$ is a square in $K(\beta)$. Apply Lemma 9.2 again with

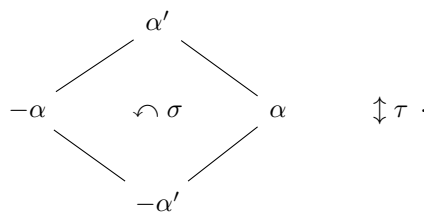
$$F = K, \quad A = b, \quad B = c.$$

Then either c is square in K or bc is square in K , which are contradictions. Thus $K(\alpha) \neq K(\alpha')$.

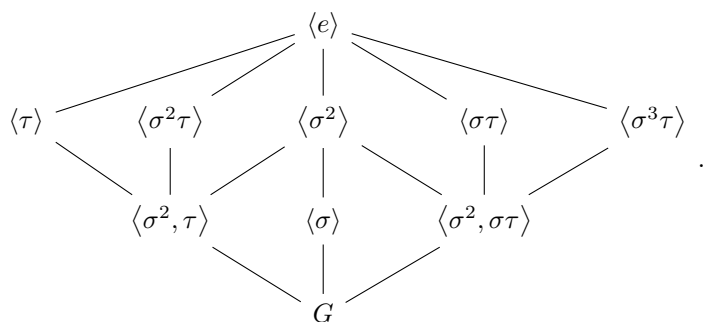
$|G| = 8$. Let $\sigma \in G$. Then

- either $\sigma(\beta) = \beta$, so there are four possibilities $\sigma(\alpha) = \pm\alpha$ and $\sigma(\alpha') = \pm\alpha'$,
- or $\sigma(\beta) = -\beta$, so there are four possibilities $\sigma(\alpha) = \pm\alpha'$ and $\sigma(\alpha') = \pm\alpha$, since $\sigma(y^2 - a - \beta) = y^2 - a + \beta$.

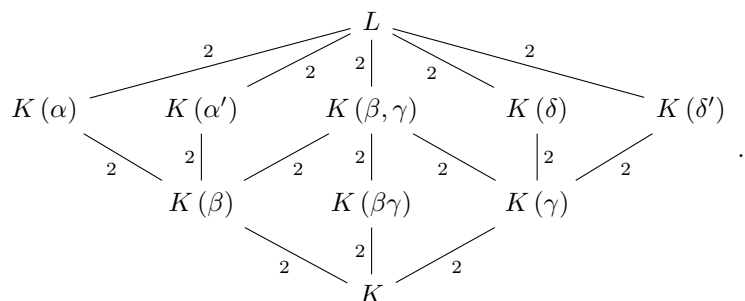
Because $|G| = 8$ all these permutations are elements of G . Thus $G = D_8$ is the group of symmetries of the square



The lattice of subgroups is



The lattice of subfields is



2. $K(\beta\gamma) = K$, so $K(\beta) = K(\gamma)$. $\beta \notin K$. Suppose $a + \beta$ is square in $K(\beta)$. There exist $x, y \in K$ such that $a + \beta = (x + y\beta)^2 = x^2 + y^2\beta + 2xy\beta$, so $(x - y\beta)^2 = a - \beta$, then

$$K \ni (x^2 - by^2)^2 = ((x + y\beta)(x - y\beta))^2 = (a + \beta)(a - \beta) = a^2 - b = c,$$

so c is square in K , a contradiction.

$$L = K(\alpha) = K(\alpha') = K(\delta) = K(\delta')$$

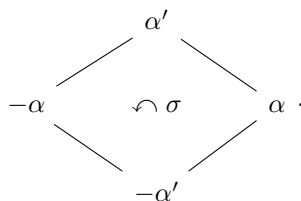
$$\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \mid \\ K(\beta) = K(\gamma) = K(\beta, \gamma) \\ 2 \\ \mid \\ K = K(\beta\gamma) \end{array} .$$

Claim that $G = C_4$. What's different? $\alpha\alpha' = \gamma$ and $\beta\gamma \in K$. Let $\sigma \in G$. If $\sigma(\beta) = \beta$ then $\sigma(\alpha) = \pm\alpha$.

- $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha$ gives $\sigma(\alpha') = \alpha'$, and
- $\sigma(\alpha) = -\alpha$ gives $\sigma(\alpha') = -\alpha'$.

If $\sigma(\beta) = -\beta$ then $\sigma(\alpha) = \pm\alpha'$.

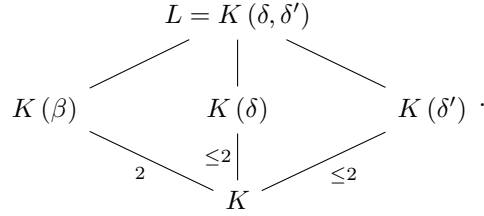
- $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha'$ gives $\sigma(\alpha') = -\alpha$, and
- $\sigma(\alpha) = -\alpha'$ gives $\sigma(\alpha') = \alpha$.



Thus $G = C_4$.

Lecture 21
Tuesday
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3. $L = K \left(\sqrt{2(a \pm \gamma)} \right)$ is the splitting field of $g(y) = (y^2 - 2a - 2\gamma)(y^2 - 2a + 2\gamma)$.



If $[L : K] = 4$ then $G = C_2 \times C_2$. Note that $[L : K]$ cannot be 1. Can it be $[L : K] = 2$? At least one of $2(a + \gamma), 2(a - \gamma)$ is not square in K . Suppose $2(a - \gamma)$ is not square in K . Can it be that $2(a + \gamma)$ is square in $K \left(\sqrt{2(a - \gamma)} \right) = K(\delta')$? By Lemma 9.2

- either $2(a + \gamma)$ is square in K , which is possible,
- or $2(a + \gamma)2(a - \gamma) = 4(a^2 - c) = 4b$ is square in K , which is impossible.

Conclusion is

- either $[L : K] = 4$, $f(x)$ is irreducible, and $G = C_2 \times C_2$,
- or one of $2(a + \gamma), 2(a - \gamma)$ is square in K but not the other, $[L : K] = 2$, $f(x)$ is not irreducible, and $G = C_2$.

□

Example. All over \mathbb{Q} .

- Let

$$f(x) = x^4 - 2, \quad L = \mathbb{Q} \left(\sqrt{\pm\sqrt{2}} \right).$$

Then $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 8$ and $G = D_8$.

- Let

$$f(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 2, \quad L = \mathbb{Q} \left(\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}} \right).$$

Then $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ and $G = C_4$.

- Let

$$f(x) = x^4 - x^2 + 1, \quad L = \mathbb{Q} \left(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{12}} \right) = \mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt{3}).$$

Then $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ and $G = C_2 \times C_2$.

- Let

$$f(x) = x^4 - 10x^2 + 1, \quad L = \mathbb{Q} \left(\sqrt{5 + 2\sqrt{6}} \right) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}).$$

Then $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ and $G = C_2 \times C_2$.

- Let

$$f(x) = x^4 - 6x^2 + 1 = (x^2 - 2x - 1)(x^2 + 2x - 1), \quad L = \mathbb{Q} \left(\sqrt{3 + 2\sqrt{2}} \right) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}).$$

Then $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ and $G = C_2$.

10 Finite fields

Lecture 22

Thursday

28/02/19

If F is finite, then it has $\text{ch}(F) = p$ for some prime p . Then $F_p \subset F$. Because F is finite, it is a finite dimensional vector space over F_p . As a vector space $F \cong (F_p)^m$ where $m = \dim_{F_p}(F) = [F : F_p]$, so $|F|$ is a power of p .

Theorem 10.1. *Fix a prime $p > 0$. Then for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, there exists a unique, up to non-unique isomorphism, finite field with $q = p^m$ elements. Notation is \mathbb{F}_q . Moreover, $G = \text{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_q/\mathbb{F}_p) = \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$.*

Proof. Suppose $|F| = q$. $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$ is a group with $q - 1$ elements. That is, if $\lambda \in F \setminus \{0\}$ then $\lambda^{q-1} = 1$.

$$\mathbb{F}_p[x] \ni x^{q-1} - 1 = \prod_{\lambda \in F \setminus \{0\}} (x - \lambda) \in \mathbb{F}_q[x].$$

Every such field is a splitting field of $x^{q-1} - 1$. Any two splitting fields are isomorphic. This does the uniqueness part. As for the existence part, let F be a splitting field over \mathbb{F}_p of $f(x) = x^{q-1} - 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$. Let us prove that F has q elements. \mathbb{F}_p is a perfect field, so for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_p$ there exists $\mu \in \mathbb{F}_p$ such that $\mu^p = \lambda$. In particular $f(x)$ has $q - 1$ distinct roots in F . Let us call them $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{q-1}$. Claim that

$$F' = \{0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{q-1}\}$$

is a field, then clearly $F' = F$. We need to show that

- F is closed under addition,
- F is closed under multiplication, and
- things in $F \setminus \{0\}$ have inverses.

F is closed under multiplication and inverses since for all n , $\{\lambda \mid \lambda^n = 1\}$ is a group. F is closed under addition since for all $a, b \in F$, $(a + b)^q = a^q + b^q$, for example

$$(a + b)^p = a^p + \binom{p}{1} a^{p-1}b + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} ab^{p-1} + b^p, \quad \forall 1 \leq k \leq p-1, \quad p \nmid \binom{p}{k}.$$

Claim that the function

$$F : \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q \\ a \mapsto a^p$$

is a field automorphism, that is $F \in G$, of order exactly m . It is a field automorphism, since

$$F(ab) = (ab)^p = a^p b^p = F(a)F(b), \quad F\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^p = \frac{a^p}{b^p} = \frac{F(a)}{F(b)},$$

$$F(a + b) = (a + b)^p = a^p + b^p = F(a) + F(b), \quad F(1) = 1, \quad F(0) = 0.$$

Certainly $F^m = F \circ \dots \circ F = \text{id}$, since for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q$, $\lambda^q = \lambda$. Otherwise if order is $k < m$ then for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q$, $\lambda^{p^k} = \lambda$, so $x^{p^k} - x$ has $q > p^k$ roots, a contradiction. \square

11 Symmetric polynomials

Lecture 23
Friday
01/03/19

Consider

$$f(x) = (x - x_1) \dots (x - x_n) = x^n - \sigma_1 x^{n-1} + \dots \pm \sigma_n \in K(x_1, \dots, x_n)[x],$$

where

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i \leq i \leq n} x_i, \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_2(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i \leq i \leq j \leq n} x_i x_j, \quad \dots$$

Here $\sigma_1 \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are the **elementary symmetric polynomials**. Let

$$\delta = \prod_{\text{roots of } f} (x_i - x_j), \quad \Delta = \delta^2 = \prod_{\text{roots of } f} (x_i - x_j)^2.$$

Definition 11.1. $\sigma \in K[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is **symmetric** if and only if for all $g \in \mathfrak{S}_n$

$$\sigma(x_{g(1)}, \dots, x_{g(n)}) = \sigma(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Example. Consider a degree two polynomial $(x - x_1)(x - x_2) = x^2 - \sigma_1 x + \sigma_2$.

- $\delta = x_1 - x_2$ is not symmetric, for $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $\delta(x_{g(1)}, x_{g(2)}) = \delta(x_2, x_1) = x_2 - x_1 = -\delta(x_1, x_2)$.
- But $\Delta = \delta^2 = (x_1 - x_2)^2 = (x_1 + x_2)^2 - 4x_1 x_2 = \sigma_1^2 - 4\sigma_2$ is symmetric.

Example. Let $f(x) = x^3 - \sigma_1 x^2 + \sigma_2 x - \sigma_3$. Plan is to write an invariant telling us when a cubic has repeated roots. $\delta = (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_3)$ is not symmetric under \mathfrak{S}_3 , but it is invariant under $\mathfrak{A}_3 = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle \cong C_2$. Can I write $\delta^2 = \Delta$ as a polynomial in

$$\sigma_1 = x_1 + x_2 + x_3, \quad \sigma_2 = x_1 x_2 + x_1 x_3 + x_2 x_3, \quad \sigma_3 = x_1 x_2 x_3?$$

Yes,

$$\Delta = \sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2 - 4\sigma_1^3 \sigma_3 - 4\sigma_2^3 + 18\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \sigma_3 - 27\sigma_3^2.$$

For $x^3 + 3px + 2q$,

$$\Delta = -2^2 3^3 (p^3 + q^2).$$

The exact expression is totally relevant.

Can we find a formula for discriminant of a degree n polynomial? It is a general fact that all symmetric polynomials are polynomials in the elementary symmetric polynomials, so

$$K[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{\mathfrak{S}_n} = K[\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n] \subset K(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n).$$

Theorem 11.2. Consider a degree n separable polynomial $f(x) = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n \in k[x]$. Let $k \subset L$ be the splitting field of f . Then $G \subset \mathfrak{A}_n$ if and only if Δ is a square in k .

By Galois theory $\Delta \in k$, because Δ is symmetric, that is \mathfrak{S}_n -invariant, and hence G -invariant.

Proof. $G \subset \mathfrak{A}_n$ if and only if δ is G -invariant, if and only if $\delta \in k$. □

Remark.

- We know $K \subset L$ is a normal and separable splitting field of $f \in K[x]$ gives $G \subset \mathfrak{S}_n$.
- If in addition $f \in k[x]$ is irreducible then G is transitive, that is for all λ, μ roots of f there exists $\sigma \in G$ such that $\sigma(\lambda) = \mu$.

Theorem 11.3. Consider an irreducible cubic polynomial $x^3 - \sigma_1 x^2 + \sigma_2 x - \sigma_3$ and $k \subset L$ be the splitting field then $G = \mathfrak{S}_3$ iff Δ is not square in k , and $G = \mathfrak{A}_3 = C_3$ iff Δ is square in k .

Example. For $K = \mathbb{Q}$,

$f(x)$	Δ	G
$x^3 - x - 1$	-23	\mathfrak{S}_3
$x^3 - 3x - 1$	81	\mathfrak{A}_3
$x^3 - 4x - 1$	229	\mathfrak{S}_3
$x^3 - 5x - 1$	473	\mathfrak{S}_3
$x^3 - 6x - 1$	837	\mathfrak{S}_3

12 Irreducible polynomials

Lecture 24
Tuesday
05/03/19

Proposition 12.1. Suppose $f(x) = a_0 + \cdots + a_d x^d \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ has a root $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then $p \mid a_0$ and $q \mid a_d$.

Example.

- $x^5 - 5$ has no rational roots. Note that this does not show $x^5 - 5$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .
- $x^3 - 2$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Proof. $f(p/q) = a_0 + \cdots + a_d (p/q)^d = 0$. Multiplying by q^d , $a_0 q^d + \cdots + a_d p^d = 0$. q divides $a_0 q^d + \cdots + a_{d-1} q p^{d-1}$, so $q \mid a_d p^d$. Note that if $c \mid ab$ and $\gcd(c, a) = 1$ then $c \mid b$. Then $\gcd(q, p^d) = 1$, so $q \mid a_d$. Similarly $p \mid a_0$. \square

Remark. If K is a field then $K[x]$ is a Euclidean domain, in particular unique factorisation holds, in particular $K[x]$ is an integral domain, that is for all $a, b \in K[x]$ if $ab = 0$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

Suppose that you want to show $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime. Try to factor by all primes $p < \sqrt{n}$.

Example. 97 is prime because $2 \nmid 97$, $3 \nmid 97$, $5 \nmid 97$, and $7 \nmid 97$.

A question is can such a method work with polynomials $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$? Yes but we will not go there because it is not very practical. This method is ok in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$, where p is prime, and this leads to a useful strategy.

Example. Is $x^5 - 5 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ irreducible?

- Is it irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$? $x^5 - 5 \equiv x^5 + 1 \pmod{2}$ and $x = 1$ is a root, so not irreducible.
- Is it irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_3[x]$? $x^5 - 5 \equiv x^5 + 1 \pmod{3}$ and $x = -1$ is a root, so not irreducible.
- It is not irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_5[x]$ since $x^5 - 5 \equiv x^5 \pmod{5}$.
- Is it irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_7[x]$? (Exercise)

Lemma 12.2 (Gauss' lemma). Suppose $f(x) = a_0 + \cdots + a_d x^d \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, where $\gcd(a_0, \dots, a_d) = 1$, factorises non-trivially in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Then it factors non-trivially in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Corollary 12.3. If $f(x)$ is prime in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$, for some p , then it is prime in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Proof. Otherwise $f(x)$ factors in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. \square

Proof of Lemma 12.2. Suppose $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ for $g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. There is a $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$cf(x) = g'(x)h'(x), \quad (9)$$

where $g'(x), h'(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $g' = \lambda g$, and $h' = \mu h$ for $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{Q}$. There is a smallest such c . I claim $c = 1$. Otherwise there exists p prime such that $p \mid c$, so (9) is

$$0 = \overline{g'}(x)\overline{h'}(x) \in \mathbb{F}_p[x].$$

Either $p \mid g'(x)$, that is p divides all coefficients of g' , or $p \mid h'(x)$, a contradiction. \square

Corollary 12.4 (Eisenstein). $f(x) = a_0 + \cdots + a_d x^d \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ if there exists p prime such that $p \nmid a_d$ but $p \mid a_i$ for $i < d$ and $p^2 \nmid a_0$.

Proof. Work in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. Then $f(x) \equiv a_d x^d \pmod{p}$. If $f(x) = h(x)g(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, then $h(x) \equiv b_k x^k \pmod{p}$ and $g(x) \equiv c_{d-k} x^{d-k} \pmod{p}$, and that means that $h(x) = b_0 + \cdots + b_k x^k$ and $p \mid b_i$ for all $i < k$ and $h(x) = c_0 + \cdots + c_{d-k} x^{d-k}$ and $p \mid c_i$ for all $i < d - k$. Thus $p^2 \mid a_0 = b_0 c_0$, a contradiction. \square

Example. $x^5 - 5$ is irreducible by Eisenstein and $p = 5$.

Lecture 25 is a problem class.
Lecture 26 is a problem class.

Lecture 25
Thursday
07/03/19
Lecture 26
Friday
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13 Reduction modulo prime

Theorem 13.1. Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be monic of degree n , $\mathbb{Q} \subset K$ be the splitting field of f , and $G = \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) \subset \mathfrak{S}_n$. For p prime, denote by \bar{f} as f viewed in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. If there exists p such that $\bar{f} \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$ has n distinct roots in a splitting field and

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$$\bar{f} = \prod_{i=1}^k \bar{f}_i(x) \in \mathbb{F}_p[x],$$

with $\bar{f}_i \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$ irreducible of degree n_i , then there exists $\sigma \in G \subset \mathfrak{S}_n$ of cycle decomposition type $(n_1) \dots (n_k)$.

Plan is to understand the statement and prove it, following Jacobson Basic Algebra I page 301. I want to use Theorem 13.1 to write down an explicit degree five polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $G = \mathfrak{S}_5$.

Proposition 13.2. Suppose that r is prime and let $G \subset \mathfrak{S}_r$ be a subgroup. If G contains an r -cycle and one transposition, then $G = \mathfrak{S}_r$.

Proof. Say $\sigma = (1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5) \in G$ and $(1 \ 2) \in G$, by relabelling. Then $\sigma^{-i} (1 \ 2) \sigma^i = (1-i \ 2-i)$ gives $(1 \ 2), (2 \ 3), (3 \ 4), (4 \ 5) \in G$. A general fact is that for all n , $(1 \ 2), \dots, (n-1 \ n)$ generate \mathfrak{S}_n , since $a < b$ gives $(a \ b) = (a \ a+1)(a+1 \ b)(a \ a+1)$. \square

Plan is the following.

- Find irreducible monic degree five $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$.
- Find irreducible monic degree two $\psi(x) \in \mathbb{F}_3[x]$.
- Find $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $f \equiv \phi$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ and $f \equiv x(x-1)(x+1)\psi$ in $\mathbb{F}_3[x]$.

Theorem 13.1 gives $G = \mathfrak{S}_5$.

- The irreducible degree two polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ is $x^2 + x + 1$.
- The irreducible degree two polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_3[x]$ are $x^2 + 1$, and two more.

Claim that $\phi(x) = x^5 + x^3 + 1 \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ is irreducible. Need to check that ϕ has no root in \mathbb{F}_2 and ϕ is not divisible by $x^2 + x + 1$. Then $f \equiv x^5 + x^3 + 1$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ and $f \equiv x(x-1)(x+1)(x^2+1) = x^5 - x$ in $\mathbb{F}_3[x]$. Thus

$$f(x) = x^5 + 3x^3 + 2x + 3.$$

Definition 13.3. The **character** of a monoid to K is $\chi : P \rightarrow K$ such that

- $\chi(0) = 1$, and
- for all $p_1, p_2 \in P$, $\chi(p_1 + p_2) = \chi(p_1)\chi(p_2)$.

Remark. If K is a field and A is a set then $\{f : A \rightarrow K\}$ is a K -vector space.

Theorem 13.4 (Linear independence of characters, Dedekind independence theorem). Let K be a field and P be a monoid, such as $P = \mathbb{N}$. Any set of distinct non-zero characters

$$\chi_1 : P \rightarrow K, \quad \dots, \quad \chi_n : P \rightarrow K, \quad \dots$$

is linearly independent in the vector space $\{f : P \rightarrow K\}$.

Proof. Assume for a contradiction that

$$\lambda_1 x_1 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n = 0. \quad (10)$$

We may assume (10) to be the shortest. We may assume for all i , $\lambda_i \neq 0$. $n \geq 2$, since all are not zero. There exists p such that $\chi_1(p) \neq \chi_2(p)$, so

$$\lambda_1 \chi_1(p) \chi_1 + \dots + \lambda_n \chi_n(p) \chi_n = 0. \quad (11)$$

Because (10) is the shortest then (10) and (11) are multiples of each other, so $\chi_1(p) = \chi_2(p)$, a contradiction. \square

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Theorem 13.5. Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be degree n monic, $\mathbb{Q} \subset K$ be the splitting field of f , $G = \text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) \subset \mathfrak{S}_n$, and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in K$ be the roots of $f(x)$. Let p be a prime. Denote by \bar{f} image of $f \bmod p$. Assume \bar{f} is separable. Let $\mathbb{F}_p \subset F$ be a splitting field for \bar{f} , so \bar{f} has n distinct roots in F . Let $R \subset K$ be the subring generated by the roots of f , so $R = \mathbb{Z}[\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n]$. Then

1. there exists a ring homomorphism $\psi : R \rightarrow F$,

2. if $\psi' : R \rightarrow F$ is a ring homomorphism then ψ' induces a bijection

$$\phi' : \{\text{roots of } f(x) \text{ in } R\} \rightarrow \{\text{roots of } \bar{f}(x) \text{ in } F\},$$

3. $\psi' : R \rightarrow F$ is a ring homomorphism if and only if there exists $\sigma \in G$ such that $\psi' = \psi \circ \sigma$.

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Proof.

Step 1. R is a finitely generated free \mathbb{Z} -module, since R is generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by $\lambda_1^{e_1}, \dots, \lambda_n^{e_n}$ where $0 \leq e_i < n$.

Step 2. Let u_1, \dots, u_d be a basis of R as \mathbb{Z} -module. This is a basis of K as a \mathbb{Q} -vector space, so $d = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$. u_1, \dots, u_d are clearly linearly dependent over \mathbb{Q} . Next let $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}R \subset K$. Then $\mathbb{Q}R$ is a subring containing \mathbb{Q} , so $\mathbb{Q}R$ is a field. (Exercise: if $K \subset L$ is finite and $K \subset R \subset L$ then R is a ring gives that R is a field) $\mathbb{Q}R$ contains all roots of f , so $\mathbb{Q}R = K$, that is u_1, \dots, u_d generate K over \mathbb{Q} .

Step 3. Proof of 1. Let $\mathfrak{m} \supset \langle p \rangle$ be a maximal ideal in R then $\mathbb{F}_p \subset R/\mathfrak{m}$ is a finite field. $\pi : R \rightarrow R/\mathfrak{m}$ gives

$$f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \lambda_i) \mapsto \bar{f}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \pi(\lambda_i)),$$

that is $\bar{f}(x)$ splits in $R/\mathfrak{m}[x]$. R is generated by λ_i gives that R/\mathfrak{m} is generated by $\pi(\lambda_i)$, so R/\mathfrak{m} is a splitting field for $\bar{f} \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$, so $R/\mathfrak{m} \cong F$. Thus

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & & \\ \pi \downarrow & \searrow \psi & \\ R/\mathfrak{m} & \xrightarrow{\sim} & F \end{array}.$$

Step 4. Proof of 2. Easy. $\psi' : R \rightarrow F$ gives $f(x) \mapsto \bar{f}(x)$, so $\{\lambda_i\} \mapsto \{\pi(\lambda_i)\}$.

Step 5. Proof of 3. Converse is obvious. Let $\sigma \in G$ and $G = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_N\}$ for $\text{rk}_{\mathbb{Z}}(R) = N = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$. Consider $\psi_i = \psi \circ \sigma_i : P \rightarrow F$ where $P = (R \setminus \{0\}, \times)$ is a semigroup. Suppose $\psi_{N+1} : P \rightarrow F$ is another character. If for all i , $\psi_{N+1} \neq \psi_i$, we will derive a contradiction. Let r_1, \dots, r_N be a basis of R as a \mathbb{Z} -module. Solve for $x_i \in F$, for $i = 1, \dots, N$, in

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} x_i \psi_i(r_j) = 0 \mid 1 \leq j \leq N \right\},$$

N equations in $(N+1)$ variables in F . Since r_j is a \mathbb{Z} -basis this implies $\sum_{i=1}^{N+1} x_i \psi_j = 0$ and this contradicts Dedekind. □

Proof of Theorem 13.1. Let R and $\psi : R \rightarrow F$ be as above. Consider $Fr \in \text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{F}_p)$ then $\psi' = Fr \circ \psi : R \rightarrow F$ is a ring homomorphism. By Theorem 13.5.3 there exists $\sigma \in G$ such that $Fr \circ \psi = \psi \circ \sigma$. Thus

$$\sigma \circ \{\text{roots of } f \text{ in } R\} \xrightarrow{\psi} \{\text{roots of } \bar{f} \text{ in } F\} \circ Fr.$$

□