

Galois Theory

Course Notes

22 February 2016 – 24 April 2016

1 About This Course

1.1 Suggested Reading

S. Lang, *Algebra* (3rd ed., 2002) Contains many exercises. Parts V, VI, and VII are especially relevant.

R. Elkik, *Cours d’algebre* (2002) In French. Closest in content to this course.

J. S. Milne, *Fields and Galois Theory* (2015) Course notes. Available for free on the Web at <http://www.jmilne.org/math/CourseNotes/ft.html>. The last three chapters contain “interesting and important material” not covered in the course.

I. Stewart, *Galois Theory* (2015) Less technically ambitious than this course, but includes history, and other applications such as ruler-and-compass constructions.

2 Week 1 Notes: 22 Feb – 28 Feb

2.1 Field extensions. Examples.

This course assumes a basic knowledge of abstract algebra (groups, rings, fields, modules), and linear algebra. All rings we consider will be associative, commutative, and with unity.

2.1.1 Two definitions of field extension.

Let K and L be fields.

Definition 1. We say that L is an **extension of K** if $K \subset L$. That is, K is a subfield of L . Equivalently, L is an extension of K if L is a K -**algebra**—in other words, if we have $(k_1 \mathbf{a}_1)(k_2 \mathbf{a}_2) = k_1 k_2 \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{a}_2$ for $k_i \in K$ and $\mathbf{a}_i \in A$.

Why are these definitions equivalent? In fact, given a K -algebra structure on a ring A , this is the same as having a homomorphism of rings $f : K \rightarrow A$. So if we have a K -algebra, define a homomorphism f by setting $f(k) = k\mathbf{1}$ for $k \in K$. Conversely, given an arbitrary homomorphism $f : K \rightarrow A$, set $k\mathbf{a} = f(k)\mathbf{a}$ for $\mathbf{a} \in A$.

Suppose now that $A = L$ a field. Then any homomorphism $f : K \rightarrow L$ is injective. There are several ways to see this; for example, we can show that $f(k)$ is always invertible. Indeed, $\mathbf{1} = f(1) = f(kk^{-1}) = f(k)f(k^{-1})$ for any $k \neq 0$, so $f(k) \neq \mathbf{0}$ whenever k is nonzero. Alternatively, we know that the kernel of f is always an ideal. But L is a field, so the only ideals of L are (0) and $(1) = K$.

2.1.2 Three examples.

Example 1. \mathbb{C} is an extension of \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{R} is an extension of \mathbb{Q} .

Example 2. If L is a field, then either (a) $1 + 1 + \dots + 1 \neq 0$ for any sum of 1's. Then L has characteristic 0 and so we have $\mathbb{Z} \subset L$, which means $\mathbb{Q} \subset L$. Then L is an extension of \mathbb{Q} . Alternatively, suppose (b) $1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = 0$ for some finite m number of terms. The minimal such number for which this is true turns out to necessarily be a prime, p . We then say that L has characteristic p , and so we have $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \subset L$; $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field, and we denote it (with field structure) by \mathbb{F}_p . In this case L is an extension of \mathbb{F}_p . We call \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{F}_p the **prime fields**: any field is an extension of a prime field, and prime fields don't contain any proper subfields.

Example 3. Take $K[x]/(P)$, the ring of polynomials in one variable over K , modded out by the ideal of an irreducible polynomial P . This is a field. Suppose $Q \notin (P)$, then $\gcd(Q, P) = 1$, so for some polynomials A, B we have $AP + BQ = 1$ by Bézout's identity. Hence $BQ \equiv 1 \pmod{P}$, that is, B is an inverse of Q in $K[x]/(P)$.

2.2 Algebraic elements. Minimal polynomial.

We continue with the previous example: the quotient $K[x]/(P)$ is a field. Rather than Bézout's identity, we can say that (P) is a **maximal ideal** of $K[x]$, and the quotient of a ring by a maximal ideal is always a field. The proof of this fact uses the same identity.

This field is an extension of K in the obvious way: it is a K -algebra!

2.2.1 A concrete example.

Let $K = \mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\} = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, and $P = x^2 + x + 1$. Then $K[x]/(P)$ contains four elements: 0, 1, the class containing x (denoted by \bar{x} , and the class containing $x + 1$ (denoted by $\overline{x+1}$). We have that $\bar{x}^2 = -\bar{x} - 1 = \overline{x+1}$ since K has characteristic 2. Similarly $(\overline{x+1})^2 = \bar{x}$. Moreover, these elements are inverses of each other: $\bar{x}(\overline{x+1}) = \bar{x}^2 + \bar{x} = -1 = 1$. Since $|K[x]/(P)| = 4$, we write $K[x]/(P) = \mathbb{F}_4$. This notation seems presumptuous, implying that there is “only” one field with four elements: in fact every field with a given finite number of elements is isomorphic, so this is true. A proof will come later.

2.2.2 Algebraic elements of a field extension.

Example 4. Given a field extension $K \subset L$ and an element $\alpha \in L$, we say that α is **algebraic** if there exists some polynomial $P \in K[x]$ such that $P(\alpha) = 0$; if no such polynomial exists, we say that α is **transcendental**.

Lemma 1. *If α is algebraic, then there exists a unique unitary polynomial P of minimal degree with $P(\alpha) = 0$. P is irreducible, and for any Q such that $Q(\alpha) = 0$, then Q is divisible by P .*

Definition 2. We call such a polynomial P the **minimal polynomial of α over K** , denoted $P_{\min}(\alpha, K)$.

Proof of lemma. We know that $K[x]$ is a **principal ideal domain**, and the polynomials $I = \{Q \in K[x] : Q(\alpha) = 0\}$ forms an ideal. Thus I has a generator, so $I = (P)$ for some P . This generator is a

unique (up to a constant) element of minimal degree in I . Furthermore, if P was *not* irreducible—if $P = QR$ —then $P(\alpha) = Q(\alpha)R(\alpha)$ and so at least one of $Q(\alpha) = 0$ or $R(\alpha) = 0$. This would contradict the minimal-degree condition on P . ■

2.3 Algebraic elements. Algebraic extensions.

2.3.1 An important bit of notation.

Definition 3. We denote by $K(\alpha)$ the smallest subfield of L containing α . We say that $K[\alpha]$ (note the square braces) is the smallest subring (or K -algebra) containing K and α .

$K[\alpha]$ is generated, as a vector space over K , by $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^n, \dots$

Example 5. $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}(i)$ as a field, but also $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}[i]$ as a ring. Every $z \in \mathbb{C}$ can be written $z = x + iy$; this is a vector subspace generated by $1, i$.

Proposition 1. *The following are equivalent: (1) α is algebraic over K ; (2) $K[\alpha]$ is a finite dimensional vector space over K ; (3) $K[\alpha] = K(\alpha)$.*

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2): We have that $\alpha^d + a_{d-1}\alpha^{d-1} + \dots + \alpha_1\alpha + a_0 = 0$ for $a_i \in K$ (this is just the minimal polynomial). Then $\alpha^d = -\left(\sum_{k=0}^{d-1} a_k \alpha^k\right)$, a linear combination of the lower powers of α . Therefore $K[\alpha]$ is generated by $1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{d-1}$ over K : it is finite-dimensional.

(2) \Rightarrow (3): It is enough to prove that $K[\alpha]$ is a field, since $K[\alpha] \subset K(\alpha)$. Let $x \in K[\alpha]$ nonzero. We want to show that x is invertible. Consider the operation of multiplication by x , that is, $y \mapsto xy$ for $y \in K[\alpha]$: this is an injective homomorphism of vector spaces over K . But as $K[\alpha]$ is finite-dimensional, this is also a surjection, so there exists $z \in K[\alpha]$ such that $xz = 1$. Hence x is invertible, and so $K[\alpha]$ is a field.

(3) \Rightarrow (1): If α is not algebraic, then there exists no polynomial P such that $P(\alpha) = 0$. This means that the natural homomorphism $i : K[x] \rightarrow L$ defined by $P \mapsto P(\alpha)$ is injective, but $K[\alpha]$ is *not* a field, and the image of i is a field. Contradiction! ■

2.3.2 Definition and properties of algebraic extensions.

Definition 4. L is called **algebraic** over K if every element of L is algebraic over K .

Proposition 2. *If L is algebraic over K , then any K -subalgebra of L is a field.*

Proof. Let $L' \subset L$ be a subalgebra. We know that $\alpha \in L'$ algebraic. Then $K[\alpha] \subset L$ is a field, so α is invertible (when nonzero). This holds for any such (nonzero) α , so L' is a field. ■

Proposition 3. *If $K \subset L \subset M$, and $\alpha \in M$ is algebraic over K , then α is algebraic over L and its minimal polynomial $P_{\min}(\alpha, L)$ divides $P_{\min}(\alpha, K)$.*

Proof. Consider $P_{\min}(\alpha, K)$ as an element of $L[x]$. ■

2.4 Finite extensions. Algebraicity and finiteness.

Definition 5 (Finite extension). L is said to be a **finite extension** of K if it is a finite-dimensional K -vector space. The dimension of L over K is called the **degree** of L over K , and is denoted by $[L : K]$.

Theorem 1. *Suppose $K \subset L \subset M$. Then M is finite over K if and only if M is finite over L and L is finite over K . Moreover, in this case, the degrees multiply: $[M : K] = [M : L][L : K]$.*

Proof of Thm. 1. First, suppose M is finite over K . Then any linearly independent family $\{m_i\}$ over L are also linearly independent over K , so $\dim_L M$ is finite. Now L is a K -vector subspace of M , so $\dim_K M$ is finite and thus $\dim_K L$ is finite.

Second, let $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be an L -basis of M , and $\{\varepsilon_j\}_{j=1}^d$ a K -basis of L . We want to show that $e_i \varepsilon_j$ form a K -basis of M . Indeed, for any $x \in M$, we have that $x = \sum_i a_i e_i$ with $a_i \in L$. And for each i , $a_i = \sum_j b_{ij} \varepsilon_j$ with $\sum_{i,j} b_{ij} \varepsilon_j \in K$. So we can write $x = \sum_{i,j} b_{ij} \varepsilon_j e_i$, showing that $e_i \varepsilon_j$ generate M over K . We now need to verify that these elements are linearly independent over K .

If we have $\sum_{i,j} c_{ij} e_i \varepsilon_j = 0$ then $\sum_i \left(\sum_j c_{ij} \varepsilon_j \right) e_i = 0$, and $\sum_j c_{ij} \varepsilon_j \in L$. But $\{e_i\}$ is a basis, so for all i , we have $\sum_j c_{ij} \varepsilon_j = 0$. And since $\{\varepsilon_j\}$ is a basis, necessarily $c_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j . This proves the theorem. ■

Definition 6. We say that $K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \subset L$, the smallest subfield of L containing $K, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$, is **generated** by $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ over K .

Theorem 2. *L is finite over K if and only if L is generated by a finite number of algebraic elements over K .*

Proof. First, suppose that $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^d$ is a K -basis of L . Then $L = K[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d] = K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$. Moreover, each $K[\alpha_i]$ is a finite-dimensional K -algebra since it is a subring of (already finite-dimensional) L . Then by Proposition 1, α_i is algebraic.

Second, suppose $K[\alpha_1]$ is finite dimensional over K ; $K[\alpha_1, \alpha_2]$ is finite dimensional over $K[\alpha_1]$; \dots ; $K[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{d-1}, \alpha_d]$ finite dimensional over $K[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{d-1}]$. Each α_i is algebraic, so for $1 \leq i \leq d$ we have $K[\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_i] = K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_i)$. Now we use Theorem 1 to conclude that $L = K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$ is finite over K . ■

2.5 Algebraicity in towers. An example.

Algebraic extensions have a similar property to finite extensions: a tower of extensions is algebraic only if the floor of the tower is algebraic.

Theorem 3. *Let $K \subset L \subset M$. Then M is algebraic over K if and only if M is algebraic over L and L is algebraic over K .*

Proof. First, let $\alpha \in M$. If $P(\alpha) = 0$ for some $P \in K[x]$, then also $P \in L[x]$, so α is algebraic over L . Now if $\alpha \in L$ then also $\alpha \in M$ and so α is algebraic over K . Thus L is algebraic over K .

Second, suppose L is algebraic over K and M is algebraic over L ; we need to show that M is algebraic over K . Take $\alpha \in M$ and consider $P_{\min}(\alpha, L)$. Its coefficients are elements of L , so they are algebraic over K . By the previous theorem, they generate an extension, E , which is *finite* over K . Now $E(\alpha)$ is also finite over K . Since $E(\alpha)$ is finite over E , then α is algebraic over K : there exists a linear dependence relation between powers of α . ■

We now consider an example.

Example 6. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{3})$. This is clearly algebraic and finite over \mathbb{Q} . The degree of this extension is 6: we have $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{3})$. The minimal polynomial $P_{\min}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \mathbb{Q}) = x^3 - 2$; $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ is generated over \mathbb{Q} by $1, \sqrt[3]{2}, (\sqrt[3]{2})^2$, so $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$.

Now $\sqrt{3} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, because otherwise we would have $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$. Then $2 = [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}]$ would divide $3 = [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}]$, which is impossible. Therefore, $x^2 - 3$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, and so is in fact the minimal polynomial for $\sqrt{3}$ over this extension.

The degree of the big extension, $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] = 2$, and therefore $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}] = (2)(3) = 6$.

In fact, this reflects a more general property:

Proposition 4. *If α is algebraic over K , then the degree of $K(\alpha)$ over K is equal to the degree of the minimal polynomial of α over K .*

Proof. The proof is obvious: $K(\alpha)$ is generated by the powers of α up to some α^{d-1} (if $\deg P_{\min}(\alpha, K) = d$), and these are linearly independent. ■

This gives us a nice tool to compute the degree of algebraic extensions.

Proposition 5. *Let $K \subset L$ be a field extension and let $L' = \{\alpha \in L : \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } K\}$. Then L' is a subfield of L ; we call this the **algebraic closure** of K in L .*

Proof. Let α, β be algebraic over K . We want to show that $\alpha + \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$ are algebraic; these facts follow immediately from Theorem 2, since $\alpha + \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$ belong to $K[\alpha, \beta]$, which is a finite (by Theorem 2) extension of K . ■

2.6 A digression: Gauss lemma, Eisenstein criterion.

2.6.1 A brief review.

We said that for a field K , an element α is algebraic over K if α is a root of some polynomial $P \in K[x]$.

We said that an extension L is algebraic over K if every element $\alpha \in L$ is algebraic over K .

We said that L is finite over K if the dimension of L over K is finite.

We saw that finite implies algebraic, and that we have finiteness if and only if the field is algebraic and finitely generated.

Finally, we deduced that $[K(\alpha) : K] = \deg P_{\min}(\alpha, K)$.

Therefore, it's important to be able to know whether a given polynomial is in fact irreducible over K .

2.6.2 How to decide that a polynomial is irreducible over K .

In our example we had $x^3 - 2$ is irreducible \mathbb{Q} . Since the degree of this polynomial is equal to 3 and there is no root in \mathbb{Q} .

But if we ask whether $x^{100} - 2$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} , this is not so trivial. In fact it is irreducible, based on a few facts.

Lemma 2 (Gauss). *Let $P \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. If P decomposes nontrivially (that is, $P = QR$, where $\deg Q, \deg R < \deg P$) over \mathbb{Q} , then it also decomposes over \mathbb{Z} .*

Proof. Let $P = QR$. Set $mQ = Q_1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $nR = R_1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then $mnP = Q_1R_1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. For $p|mn$, then modulo p we have $0 = \bar{Q}_1\bar{R}_1$. Since we're working over \mathbb{F}_p a field, we have that $\bar{Q}_1 = 0 \pmod{p}$ or $\bar{R}_1 = 0 \pmod{p}$: that is, p divides all of the coefficients of either Q_1 or R_1 . WLOG say this is Q_1 . Then $\frac{mn}{p}P = Q_2R_1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ where $Q_2 = \frac{Q_1}{p}$. Continuing in this way, we arrive at $P = Q_lR_s \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. ■

Example 7 (Eisenstein criterion example). To show that $x^{100} - 2$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} ? We reduce modulo 2: if $x^{100} - 2 = QR$ then $x^{100} = \bar{Q}\bar{R}$ in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$, so \bar{Q} and \bar{R} are of the form x^k respectively x^l . The constant coefficients of both \bar{Q} and \bar{R} must be divisible by 2; hence the constant coefficient of $x^{100} - 2$ must be divisible by 4, except this is not the case. Therefore

Proposition 6 (Eisenstein criterion). *Let $P \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ with $P = a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$. If there exists a prime p such that (1) p divides a_n ; (2) p divides a_i for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$; and (3) p^2 does not divide a_0 ; then $P \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is irreducible.*

Proof. The proof is the same as in the example. ■

Both facts are valid in more generality, by replacing \mathbb{Z} with any unique factorization domain R , and replacing \mathbb{Q} by the fraction field of R .

Quiz 1

Which of the following are true?

Solution. **A finite extension of fields is algebraic.** This is *true*.

An algebraic extension of fields is finite. This is *false*; for example, the field of all algebraic numbers is an infinite extension of \mathbb{Q} .

A finitely generated and algebraic extension of fields is finite. This is *true*. ■

Which of the following pairs is an extension of fields?

Solution. \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q} is *not* a field extension because \mathbb{Z} is not a field.

\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R} is a field extension because \mathbb{R} is a field and $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$.

$\mathbb{Q}(\iota), \mathbb{R}$ is *not* a field extension because, e.g., $\iota \in \mathbb{Q}(\iota)$ but $\iota \notin \mathbb{R}$, and so $\mathbb{Q}(\iota)$ is not a subfield of \mathbb{R} .

$\mathbb{Q}(\iota), \mathbb{C}$ is a field extension because \mathbb{C} is a field and $\mathbb{Q}(\iota) \subset \mathbb{C}$. ■

What is the minimal polynomial of $e^{2\pi\iota/3}$ over \mathbb{Q} ?

Solution. Let $\zeta = e^{2\pi\iota/3}$, and note that $\zeta^3 = e^{2\pi\iota} = 1$. Therefore ζ is a root of the polynomial $Q(x) = x^3 - 1$. Now Q is not irreducible: $Q = PR$, where $P(x) = x^2 + x + 1$ and $R(x) = x - 1$. $R(\zeta) \neq 0$ but $P(\zeta) = 0$, and P is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} (by, e.g., the quadratic formula). Therefore $P(x) = x^2 + x + 1$ is the minimal polynomial for ζ over \mathbb{Q} . ■

Which of the following polynomials f is irreducible over the specified field K ?

Solution. $f_1 = x^2 + x + 1$ is irreducible over $K_1 = \mathbb{Q}$; see previous question.

$f_2 = x^2 - 2$ is irreducible over $K_2 = \mathbb{Q}$, since its roots are $\pm\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

$f_3 = x^2 - 2$ is *not* irreducible over $K_3 = \mathbb{R}$, since its roots are $\pm\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}$.

$f_4 = x^2 + x + 1$ is *not* irreducible over $K_4 = \mathbb{F}_3$: we have $f_4(1) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 0$ since the field has characteristic 3, and $1 \in \mathbb{F}_3$.

$f_5 = x^4 + 6x^2 + 2$ is irreducible over $K_5 = \mathbb{Q}$. Setting $y = x^2$ and $\hat{f}_5 = y^2 + 6y + 2$, we obtain by

the quadratic formula

$$y = \frac{-6 \pm \sqrt{36 - 4}}{2} = \frac{-6 \pm \sqrt{32}}{2} = \frac{-6 \pm 4\sqrt{2}}{2} = -3 \pm 2\sqrt{2},$$

and hence $x = \pm\sqrt{-3 \pm 2\sqrt{2}} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

$f_6 = x^3 - 1$ is *not* irreducible over $K_6 = \mathbb{Q}$; see previous question. ■

Which of the following quotient rings is a field?

Solution. Note that this is equivalent to asking if the polynomial we're modding out by is irreducible over the base field.

$\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 - 2)$ is *not* a field, since $x^2 - 2$ is not irreducible over \mathbb{R} .

$\mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^2 - 2)$ is a field, since $x^2 - 2$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

$\mathbb{F}_3[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$ is *not* a field, since $x^2 + x + 1$ is not irreducible over F_3 .

$\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 - 1)$ is *not* a field, since $x^2 - 1$ is not irreducible over \mathbb{R} .

$\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$ is a field, since $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over \mathbb{R} . ■

What is the degree of the field extension $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$?

Solution. We know that the extension is generated by products of $1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}$. Now $1^2 = 1$, $(\sqrt{3})^2 = 3$, $(\sqrt{2})^2 = 2$, and $\sqrt{2}\sqrt{3} = \sqrt{6}$; therefore any element $q \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ can be written $q = a + b\sqrt{2} + c\sqrt{3} + d\sqrt{6}$ with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Q}$. Therefore $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$. ■