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# 1 Intro & Rings

# 1.1 Motivation

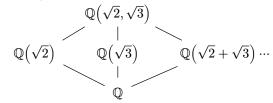
**Definition** (Radical): An expression involving only  $+, -, *, /, \sqrt[n]{\cdot}$ .

After a linear transformation, all cubics can be reduced to  $x^3 + px = q$ , and there is a formula for solutions to the above. Quartics can also be reduced to a cubic and solved.

The quintic was attempted by Euler, Bezout, Lagrange, etc without success. In 1799, Ruffini gave a 516-page proof on the insolubility of the quintic that was almost right. In 1824, Abel filled in the gap in Ruffini's proof.

The main steps of Galois theory are to:

1. Link a root  $\alpha$  of a quintic to  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , the smallest field containing  $\alpha$ . It has more structure to be played with. Currently, our knowledge of  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  is lacking. For instance, we don't know how many intermediate fields there are between  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ .



We can list infinitely many of these intermediate fields, but how many are actually distinct?

2. To ameliorate the situation, we link the field  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  to a group. Precisely, we associate the field extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}$  to the group

$$\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)) = \left\{ \varphi : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \to \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \varphi|_{\mathbb{Q}} = \operatorname{id}_{\mathbb{Q}} \right\}$$

i.e. the set of automorphisms that fix the smaller field. It can be shown that if  $\alpha$  is "good" then  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha))$  is finite. Moreover, there is a bijection between the intermediate fields of  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}$  and the subgroups of  $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha))$ . Galois theory is the interplay between fields and groups.

### 1.2 Review of ring theory

Rings in this course are by and large commutative and unital.

**Definition** (Integral Domain, Field): A ring R where for all  $a, b \in R$  m  $ab = 0 \Longrightarrow a = 0$  or b = 0 is an **integral domain**. A **field** is a ring R such that  $R^* = R \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Proposition 1.1** (Subrings of fields): Every subring of a field F, including F itself, is an integral domain.

**Definition** (Ideal): A subset I of a commutative ring such that  $0 \in I$ , and for  $a, b \in I$  and any  $r \in R$ ,  $a - b \in I$  and  $ra \in I$ .

Remark: If  $1 \in I$  is an ideal, then I = R, since any  $r \in R$  satisfies  $r1 = r \in I$ , so  $R \subseteq I$ .

The only ideals of a field F are  $\{0\}$  and F, since if  $a \in I$  with  $a \neq 0$ , then  $aa^{-1} = 1 \in I$ , so I = F.

Recall that using the division algorithm in  $\mathbb{Z}$ , we can prove all ideals of  $\mathbb{Z}$  are principal ideals.

*Remark*: The smallest field containing  $\mathbb{Z}$  is  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

- If  $a_m = 1$ , we say f is **monic**.
- If  $a_m \neq 0$ , the **degree** of f is  $\deg(f) = m$ . By convention,  $\deg(0) = -\infty$ .

• For  $f, g \in F[x]$ ,  $\deg(fg) = \deg(f) + \deg(g)$ .

Notes about F[x]:

- F[x] is an integral domain.
- The units of F[x] are  $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$ , i.e. the unital constant polynomials.
- The division algorithm works. For f, g with  $f \neq 0$ , we can write g(x) = q(x)f(x) + r(x) with  $\deg(r) < \deg(f)$  (here the  $-\infty$  convention is handy).
- Using the DA, we can prove all ideals of F[x] are principal. Moreover, if we impose that generators f(x) are monic, then generators are unique.

Remark: The smallest field containing F[x] is the set of rational functions

$$F(x) \coloneqq \left\{ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} : f, g \in F[x] \text{ and } g \neq 0 \right\}$$

Recall when I is an ideal of R, that the additive quotient group R/I is a ring with multiplication (r + I)(s + I) = rs + I, and the unit of R/I is 1 + I.

**Theorem 1.2** (First Isomorphism Theorem): Let  $\varphi : R \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then  $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$  is an ideal of R and  $R/\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi) \cong \operatorname{Im}(\varphi)$ .

*Example*: Let F be a field, S a ring, and  $\varphi: F \to S$  be a ring homomorphism. Then either  $\varphi$  is injective or the zero map, since  $\text{Ker}(\varphi)$  is an ideal of F, hence either  $\{0\}$  or F.

**Definition** (Prime, maximal): Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal  $P \neq R$  is a **prime** ideal if whenever  $rs \in P$ , then  $r \in P$  or  $s \in P$ .

An ideal  $M \neq R$  of R is **maximal** if whenever A is an ideal such that  $M \subseteq A \subseteq R$ , then A = M or A = R.

**Theorem 1.3**: Let  $I \neq R$  be an ideal of a commutative ring R. Then

- (1) I is maximal iff R/I is a field.
- (2) I is prime iff R/I is an integral domain.

Proof:

(1) Suppose I is maximal. Note  $I \neq R \iff R/I$  is a commutative ring with 1. We show the non-zero elements in R/I have inverses. Let  $a \in R$  with  $a \notin I$ , so  $a + I \neq 0 + I$ . Since  $a \notin I$ , we have  $I \subsetneq \langle a \rangle + I = \langle I \cup \{a\} \rangle = R$  by maximality, so  $\langle a \rangle + I$  contains 1. Notice

$$\langle a \rangle + I = \{ar + m : m \in I, r \in R\}$$

so say 1 = ar + m where  $r \in R, m \in I$ . Then we have our inverse:

$$(a+I)(r+I) = ar + I = (ar+m) + I = 1 + I$$

Conversely if R/I is a field, since  $1+I\neq 0+I$  we have  $1\notin I$  so  $I\neq R$ . Let A be an ideal with  $I\subseteq A\subseteq R$  and suppose  $A\neq I$ . Choose  $a\in A-I$  so  $a+I\neq 0+I$ . Then since R/I is a field, a+I has an inverse, say b+M. Then (a+I)(b+I)=ab+I=1+I. Then  $1-ab\in I\subseteq A$ . Since  $a\in A$  we have  $ab\in A$ , so  $1\in A\Longrightarrow A=R$ . Thus I is maximal.

(2) Since  $I \neq R$ , R/I is a commutative ring with 1. For  $a, b \in R$ ,

$$(a+P)(b+P) = ab + P.$$

and  $a+P=0+P \iff a \in P$ . So  $(a+P)(b+P)=0+P \iff ab \in P$ . The result is immediate.

 $\Diamond$ 

Corollary 1.4: Every maximal ideal is prime.

### 2 Domains

# 2.1 Irreducibles and primes

**Definition** (Divides): Let R be an integral domain and  $a, b \in R$ . We say a divides b, denoted  $a \mid b$ , if ca = b for some  $c \in R$ .

Notice in  $\mathbb{Z}$  that if  $n \mid m$  and  $m \mid n$ , then  $n = \pm m$  so  $\langle n \rangle = \langle m \rangle$ .

**Proposition 2.1** (Divisibility characterization): Let R be an integral domain. For  $a, b \in R$ , TFAE:

- (1)  $a \mid b$  and  $b \mid a$
- (2) a = ub for some unit  $u \in R$
- (3)  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$

Proof:

 $(1 \Longrightarrow 2)$  Suppose there are  $u, v \in R$  so b = ua and a = vb. If a = 0, then b = 0 so a = 1b. Otherwise,  $a = vb = v(ua) = (vu)a \Longrightarrow a(1 - vu) = 0$ .

Since R is an integral domain and  $a \neq 0$ ,  $1 - vu = 0 \iff vu = 1$ . Thus v is a unit.

 $(2 \Longrightarrow 3)$  Say a = ub. Then  $a \in \langle b \rangle$ , so  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq \langle b \rangle$ . Since u is a unit and  $b = u^{-1}a$ ,  $\langle b \rangle \subseteq \langle a \rangle$ .

 $(3 \Longrightarrow 1)$  If  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ , then  $a \in \langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ , so a = tb for some  $t \in R$ , giving  $b \mid a$ . Similarly,  $a \mid b$ .

**Definition** (Associated): Let R be an integral domain. For  $a, b \in R$ , we say a is associated to b, denoted  $a \sim b$ , if  $a \mid b$  and  $b \mid a$ .

 $\Diamond$ 

Often this is most useful with a=ub for a unit u. From the previous proposition, we can show  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on R.

- $a = 1a \Longrightarrow a \sim a$
- $a \sim b \Longrightarrow a = ub \Longrightarrow b = u^{-1}a = b \sim a$
- $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$  gives a = ub and b = vc so a = uvc where uv is a unit with inverse  $v^{-1}u^{-1}$ , so  $a \sim c$ .

Exercise 2.1: Show that for  $a, b \in R$  where R is an integral domain,

- (a) if  $a \sim a'$  and  $b \sim b'$  then  $ab \sim a'b'$ .
- (b) if  $a \sim a'$  and  $b \sim b'$  then  $a \mid b \iff a' \mid b'$ .

Example: Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{3}\right] = \left\{m + n\sqrt{3} : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ . This is an integral domain, where  $\left(2 + \sqrt{3}\right)\left(2 - \sqrt{3}\right) = 1$ , so  $2 + \sqrt{3}$  is a unit in R. Since  $3 + 2\sqrt{3} = \left(2 + \sqrt{3}\right)\sqrt{3}$ , we have  $3 + 2\sqrt{3} \sim \sqrt{3}$ .

**Definition** (Irreducible): Let R be an integral domain. We say  $p \in R$  is **irreducible** if  $p \neq 0$  and for all  $b, c \in R$ , if p = bc then one of b, c is a unit.

Example: Let  $R := \mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{-5}\right]$  and  $p := 1 + \sqrt{-5}$ . We claim p is irreducible. Suppose it is reducible, so p = ab where a, b are not units.

**Definition** (Norm in  $\mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{d}\right]$ ): Let R be the ring  $\mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{d}\right]$  where  $1 \neq d \in \mathbb{Z}$  is squarefree and non-zero. Define  $N: R \to \mathbb{Z}$  by

$$N(a+b\sqrt{d}) = (a+b\sqrt{d})(a-b\sqrt{d}) = a^2 - db^2$$

Exercise 2.2: Prove that N(xy) = N(x)N(y) for all  $x, y \in R$ .

Now N(p) = 6 = N(a)N(b) but  $N(a), N(b) \neq 1$  as N(x) = 1 iff x is a unit. Therefore  $N(a), N(b) \in \{2, 3\}$ . Say  $a =: u + v\sqrt{-5}$  so  $N(a) = u^2 + 5v^2$ . Then we see  $N(a) = u^2 \mod 5$ , but the possible values of  $u^2$  are 0, 1, 4 since  $u \in \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2\} \mapsto \{0, 1, 4\} \mod 5$ . Therefore N(a) cannot be 2 or 3, a contradiction, so p is irreducible.

**Proposition 2.2** (Characterizations of irreducibility): Let R be an integral domain and  $p \in R, p \neq 0$  with p not a unit. TFAE:

- (1) p is irreducible.
- (2) if  $d \mid p$ , then  $d \sim 1$  or  $d \sim p$ .
- (3) if  $p \sim ab$ , then  $p \sim a$  or  $p \sim b$ .
- (4) If p = ab, then  $p \sim a$  or  $p \sim b$ .

Proof:

- $(1 \Longrightarrow 2)$  Suppose p = ad so one of a, d is a unit. If a is a unit then  $p \sim d$ . If d is a unit,  $d \sim 1$ .
- $(2 \Longrightarrow 3)$  Suppose  $p \sim ab$ , then  $b \mid p$ . Then  $b \sim 1$  or  $b \sim p$ . If the latter, we're done, if  $b \sim 1$ , then  $a \sim p$ .
- $(3 \Longrightarrow 4)$  Suppose p = ab, then  $p = 1ab \sim ab$  and by assumption  $p \sim a$  or  $p \sim b$ .
- $(4 \Longrightarrow 1)$  Say p = ab. If  $p \sim a$  then a = up for a unit u, Since R is commutative, p = ab = upb = pub so 1 = ub since R is an integral domain. Thus b is a unit. Similarly,  $p \sim b$  gives a is a unit.

**Definition** (Prime): Let R be an integral domain and  $p \in R$ . We say p is **prime** if  $p \neq 0$  is not a unit and if  $p \mid ab \in R$  then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

Remark: If  $p \sim q$ , then p is prime iff q is prime. Indeed, say p is prime and suppose  $q \mid ab \in R$ . Then dq = ab for some  $d \in R$ . Say p = uq for a unit  $u \in R$ , so  $ab = du^{-1}p$  so  $p \mid ab$ , so  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ . If  $p \mid a$  then cp = a = cuq so  $q \mid a$ . Similarly  $p \mid b \Longrightarrow q \mid b$ . The converse is identical.

By induction we can also show if p is prime and  $p \mid a_1 \cdots a_n$  then  $p \mid a_i$  for some i.

**Proposition 2.3** (Primes are irreducible): Let R be an integral domain,  $p \in R$ . If p is prime, then p is irreducible.

*Proof*: Say  $p = ab \in R$ , and wlog  $p \mid a$ . Write  $a = dp, d \in R$ , so by commutativity p = dpb = pdb so as  $p \neq 0$ , we have db = 1. Thus b is a unit, so p is irreducible.

Example: The converse is false. Consider  $R = \mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{-5}\right]$ , where we know  $p = 1 + \sqrt{-5}$  is irreducible. Note

$$\left(1+\sqrt{-5}\right)\left(1-\sqrt{-5}\right)=6=2\cdot 3$$

so  $p \mid 2 \cdot 3$  but neither of 2 or 3. Indeed, if  $p \mid 2$  then qp = 2 for some q, then  $N(2) = N(q)N(p) \iff 4 = N(q)6$  but there are no integer solutions to this. The same argument works for 3.

Exercise 2.3: Construct a ring R and an element in R that is irreducible but not prime, different to the above example.

Recall that for a prime  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\pm 1 \cdot \pm p$  are the only factorizations of p, so p is irreducible. Also, we can prove Euclid's lemma, showing p is prime. The same things hold for F[x] when F is a field. We want to know the additional property of  $\mathbb{Z}$  or F[x] that gives us irreducible implying prime.

#### 2.2 Ascending chains

**Definition** (ACCP): An integral domain R is said to satisfy the **ascending chain conditions on principal ideals** (ACCP) if for any chain

$$0 \subsetneq \langle a_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots$$

of principal ideals in R, there is  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  so

$$\langle a_n \rangle = \langle a_{n+1} \rangle = \dots$$

That is, the chain stabilizes eventually.

 $Example: \mathbb{Z}$  satisfies ACCP.

Given a chain, we see  $a_2 \mid a_1$  and  $a_3 \mid a_2$ , and so on. Thus taking absolute values gives

$$|a_1| \ge |a_2| \ge \dots$$

Since each  $|a_n| \ge 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we get  $|a_n| = |a_{n+1}| = \dots$  for some n, so  $a_{n+1} = \pm a_i$  for all  $i \ge n$ . Thus the chain stabilizes, so  $\mathbb{Z}$  satisfies ACCP.

Notice this proof uses the well-ordering principle on  $\mathbb{N}$ , and so does the proof of unique factorization over  $\mathbb{Z}$  (MATH135).

**Theorem 2.4** (Product of irreducibles): Let R be an integral domain satisfying ACCP. If  $a \in R$  is not zero and not a unit, then a is a product of irreducibles.

*Proof*: Suppose bwoc a is not a product of irreducibles. Say  $a=x_1a_1$  where wlog  $a_1$  is not a product of irreducibles, and a is not irreducible so  $a \nsim x_1, a_1$ . Inductively, construct  $a_n = x_{n+1}a_{n+1}$  so  $a_n \nsim a_{n+1}$  and  $a_{n+1}$  is not a product of irreducibles. Then

$$\langle a \rangle \subsetneq \langle a_1 \rangle \subsetneq \dots$$

 $\bigcirc$ 

which violates ACCP, where the ideal containments are proper since  $a_n \sim a_{n+1}$ .

**Theorem 2.5** (R[x] ACCP): If R is an integral domain satisfying ACCP, so is R[x].

*Proof*: Suppose bwoc there is a chain

$$\{0\} \subset \langle f_1 \rangle \subset \langle f_2 \rangle \subset ... \in R[x].$$

Since  $f_{i+1} \mid f_i$ , let  $a_i$  be the leading coefficient of each  $f_i$  to get  $a_{i+1} \mid a_i$  for all i. Thus

$$\{0\} \subseteq \langle a_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots$$

Since R has ACCP, there is  $n \in N$  so  $\langle a_n \rangle = \langle a_{n+1} \rangle = \dots$  For  $m \geq n$ , we have  $f_m = gf_{m+1}$  for some  $g(x) \in R[x]$ , say g has leading coefficient b. Then  $a_m = ba_{m+1}$ , so b must be a unit and  $\langle a_m \rangle = \langle a_{m+1} \rangle$ . Now, if g = b is a constant polynomial, then

$$\langle f_m \rangle = \langle f_{m+1} \rangle,$$

a contradiction, so  $\deg(g) \ge 1$ . Thus  $\deg(f_m) > \deg(f_{m+1})$  for all  $m \ge n$ , but this is also a contradiction as  $\deg(f_i) \ge 0$ .

Example: Since  $\mathbb{Z}$  satisfies ACCP, so does  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

Example: Consider  $R = \{n + xf : n \in \mathbb{Z}, f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}$ , i.e. the set of polynomials in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  with integer constant term. R is an integral domain, but consider

$$\langle x \rangle = \{x(n+xf)\}, \quad \left\langle \frac{1}{2}x \right\rangle = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}x(n+xf) \right\}$$

and so on. This gives

$$\langle x \rangle \subsetneq \left\langle \frac{1}{2} x \right\rangle \subsetneq \left\langle \frac{1}{2^2} x \right\rangle \subsetneq \dots$$

Thus R is an integral domain that does not satisfy ACCP.

# 2.3 Unique factorization domains

**Definition** (UFD): An integral domain R is called a UFD if it satisfies:

- If  $a \neq 0 \in R$  is not a unit, then a is a product of irreducibles
- If  $p_1p_2...p_n \sim q_1q_2...q_s$  where  $p_i,q_j$  are irreducible, then r=s and after possible relabelling,  $p_i \sim q_i$  for all i=1,...,r.

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}$  and F[x] are UFDs, and a field F is also a UFD.

**Proposition 2.6** (Irreducible implies prime): Let R be a UFD and  $p \in R$ . If p is irreducible, then p is prime.

*Proof*: Let  $p \in R$  be irreducible. If  $p \mid ab \in R$ , write ab = pd for  $d \in R$ . Since R is a UFD, we can factor a, b, d into irreducible elements:

$$a = q_1...q_k$$
$$b = s_1...s_{\ell}$$

$$d = r_1...r_m.$$

We allow  $k, \ell, m$  to be 0 in case a, b, d are units. Now since pd = ab,

$$pr_1...r_m = q_1...q_k s_1...s_\ell.$$

Since p is irreducible and R is a UFD,  $m+1=k+\ell$  and  $p\sim q_i$  or  $p\sim s_j$  for some i or j. Thus  $p\mid a$  or  $p\mid b$ .

 $Example: \mathbb{Z}$  is a UFD, where we know a prime satisfies Euclid's lemma. A similar statement holds for F[x].

Example: Consider  $R = \mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{-5}\right]$  and  $p = 1 + \sqrt{-5}$ . We have seen that p is irreducible but not prime, so R is not a UFD. Claim: R satisfies ACCP. Say

$$\{0\} \subsetneq \langle a_1 \rangle \subsetneq \langle a_2 \rangle \subsetneq \dots$$

Then  $a_{i+1} \mid a_i$  for all i, and as the norm is non-negative, and multiplicative,

$$N(a_{i+1}) \leq N(a_i)$$
.

Therefore,

$$N(a_1) \geq N(a_2) \geq ...,$$

but each  $N(a_n) \geq 0$ , so we must have  $N(a_n) = N(a_{n+1}) = \dots$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

The takeaway here is UFD implies ACCP, but ACCP does not imply UFD. We would like to know exactly how much stronger a UFD is than an integral domain with ACCP.

**Definition** (GCD): Let R be an integral domain and  $a, b \in R$ . We say  $d \in R$  is a **greatest common divisor** of a and b, denoted gcd(a, b) if:

- $d \mid a, b$ .
- If  $e \in R$  with  $e \mid a, b$  then  $e \mid d$ .

Remark: One can show if R is a UFD and a, b are non-zero and  $p_1, ..., p_k$  are non-associated primes dividing a, b, say

$$a \sim p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$

$$b \sim p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}$$

Then  $\gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min\{\alpha_1,\beta_1\}} \cdots p_k^{\min\{\alpha_k,\beta_k\}}$ .

Furthermore, if R is a UFD and  $d, a_1, ..., a_m \in R$ , we have

$$\gcd(da_1,...,da_m)=d\gcd(a_1,...,a_m).$$

Exercise 2.4: Prove the above remark.

**Theorem 2.7** (UFD characterization): Let R be an integral domain. TFAE:

- (1) R is a UFD
- (2) R satisfies ACCP and gcd(a, b) exists for all  $a, b \neq 0 \in R$
- (3) R satisfies ACCP and every irreducible element is prime.

Proof:

 $(1 \Longrightarrow 2)$  By the previous remark, gcd(a, b) exists for all  $a, b \ne 0$ . Also, suppose

$$\{0\} \subsetneq \langle a_1 \rangle \subsetneq \langle a_2 \rangle \subsetneq \dots$$

Since  $\langle a_1 \rangle \neq \{0\}$  and  $a_1$  is not a unit, we can write  $a \sim p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_r^{k_r}$  where  $p_i$  are non-associated primes and  $k_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $a_i \mid a_1$  for all i we have

$$a_i \sim p_1^{d_{i,1}} \cdots p_r^{d_{i,r}}$$

for  $0 \le d_{i,j} \le k_j$   $(1 \le j \le r)$ . Thus there are only finitely many non-associated choices for  $a_i$ , and so there exist  $m \ne n$  with  $a_m \sim a_n \Longrightarrow \langle a_m \rangle = \langle a_n \rangle$ , a contradiction. Hence R satisfies ACCP.

- $(2 \Longrightarrow 3)$  Let r be irreducible and suppose  $p \mid ab \in R$ . Then let  $d = \gcd(a, p)$ . Since  $d \mid p$  which is irreducible,  $d \sim 1$  or  $d \sim p$ . If  $d \sim p$  then  $d \mid a \Longrightarrow p \mid a$ . Otherwise,  $d \sim 1$  so  $1 \sim \gcd(a, p) \Longrightarrow b \sim \gcd(ab, pb)$ , where  $p \mid ab$  and  $p \mid pb$ , so  $p \mid b$ .
- $(3 \Longrightarrow 1)$  R satisfies ACCP, so for  $a \neq 0 \in R$  not a unit, a is a product of irreducibles, so it suffices to prove such factorizations are unique. Suppose we have

$$p_1 {\cdots} p_r \sim q_1 {\dots} q_s$$

where each  $p_i, q_j$  is irreducible. Since  $p_1$  is prime by assumption, we have  $p_1 \mid q_j$  for some j, say wlog  $p_1 \mid q_1$ . Thus  $p_1 \sim q_1$ . Since  $p_1 \sim q_1$  we can divide out and repeat inductively to get  $p_1 \cdots p_r \sim q_1 \dots q_s$  has r = s and  $p_i \sim q_i$   $(1 \le i \le r)$ . Thus the factorization is unique.

 $\bigcirc$ 

#### 2.4 Principal ideal domains

**Definition** (PID): An integral domain R is a **principal ideal domain** (PID) if every ideal in R is principal (singly-generated).

Example:  $\mathbb{Z}$  and F[x] are PIDs, as are fields. Note that although all ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  are principal,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is not an integral domain, so is not a PID.

**Proposition 2.8**: Let R be a PID and  $a_1,...,a_n \neq 0$ . Then  $d \sim \gcd(a_1,...,a_n)$  exists, and there exist  $r_1,...,r_n \in R$  so that

$$gcd(a_1, ..., a_n) \sim r_1 a_1 + ... + r_n a_n$$

*Proof*: Let  $A = \langle a_1, ..., a_n \rangle = \{r_1 a_1 + ... + r_n a_n : r_i \in R\}$  so A is an ideal, hence principal i.e. there is  $d \in R$  so  $A = \langle d \rangle$ . In particular,

$$d = r_1 a_1 + \ldots + r_n a_n$$

 $\text{for some } r_i \in R \text{ as } d \in A. \text{ We claim } d \sim \gcd(a_1,...,a_n). \text{ For each } i \in [n], \, a_i \in \langle d \rangle \text{ so } a_i = qd \text{ for some } q, \\ \text{hence } d \mid a_i. \text{ Also, if } r \mid a_i \text{ for all } i, \text{ then } r \mid (r_1a_1+...+r_na_n) \Longleftrightarrow r \mid d, \text{ so } d \sim \gcd(a_1,...,a_n) \sim r_1a_1+...+r_na_n \text{ by definition.}$ 

**Theorem 2.9** (PIDs are UFDs): Every PID is a UFD.

*Proof*: If R is a PID, by Theorem 2.7 and Proposition 2.8 it suffices to show R satisfies ACCP. Suppose

$$\{0\} \subsetneq \langle a_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle a_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots$$

Let  $A = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \langle a_i \rangle$ , which is an ideal, so  $\langle a \rangle = A$  for some  $a \in R$ . Then as  $a \in A$ , there is  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  so  $a \in \langle a_n \rangle$ . Thus  $a \in \langle a_m \rangle$  for all  $m \geq n$ , so  $\langle a \rangle \subseteq \langle a_m \rangle \subseteq \langle a \rangle \Longrightarrow \langle a \rangle = \langle a_m \rangle$ , so the chain stabilizes. Thus R satisfies ACCP, so is a UFD.

Example: We claim  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is not a PID. Consider

$$A := \{2n + xf(x) : n \in \mathbb{Z}, f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}\$$

i.e. those polynomials with even constant term. Suppose  $A = \langle g(x) \rangle$  for some  $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Since  $2 \in A$ ,  $g(x) \mid 2$ , so  $g(x) \sim 1$  or  $g(x) \sim 2$ . In the former case,  $1 \in A \Longrightarrow A = \mathbb{Z}[x]$  is a contradiction, and in the latter case,  $A = \{2f(x) : f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}$  which is also a contradiction, since e.g.  $x \in A$ . Therefore there exist ideals that are not principal.

**Theorem 2.10**: Let R be a PID. If  $0 \neq p \in R$  is not a unit, TFAE:

- (1) p is prime
- (2)  $R/\langle p \rangle$  is a field (iff  $\langle p \rangle$  is a maximal ideal)
- (3)  $R/\langle p \rangle$  is an integral domain (iff  $\langle p \rangle$  is a prime ideal)

*Proof*:

 $(1 \Longrightarrow 2)$  Let p be prime and let  $0 + \langle p \rangle \neq a + \langle p \rangle \in R/\langle p \rangle$  for some  $a \in R$  such that  $p \nmid a$ . We wish to show  $(a + \langle p \rangle)^{-1}$  exists. Consider the ideal

$$A = \langle a, p \rangle = \{ ra + sp : r, s \in R \}.$$

Since R is a PID,  $A = \langle d \rangle$  for some  $d \in R$ . Since  $p \in A$  we have  $d \mid p$ , but as p is prime hence irreducible,  $d \sim 1$  or  $d \sim p$ . Notice if  $d \sim p$  then  $\langle p \rangle = \langle d \rangle = A$  where  $a \in A$ , so then  $p \mid a$ , a contradiction.

Thus we have  $d \sim 1$ , so  $A = \langle d \rangle = \langle 1 \rangle = R$ . Hence 1 = ba + cp for some  $b, c \in R$ , giving

$$(a + \langle p \rangle)(b + \langle p \rangle) = ab + \langle p \rangle$$
$$= (1 - cp) + \langle p \rangle$$
$$= 1 + \langle p \rangle.$$

Therefore  $(a + \langle p \rangle)^{-1}$  exists, so  $R/\langle p \rangle$  is a field.

- $(2 \Longrightarrow 3)$  Every field is an integral domain.
- $(3 \Longrightarrow 1)$  Suppose  $p \mid ab \in R$ . Then

$$(a+\langle p\rangle)(b+\langle p\rangle)=ab+\langle p\rangle=0+\langle p\rangle$$

because  $p \mid ab \Longrightarrow ab \in \langle p \rangle$ . Since  $R/\langle p \rangle$  is an integral domain, one of  $a + \langle p \rangle, b + \langle p \rangle$  is  $0 + \langle p \rangle$ , so one of  $a, b \in \langle p \rangle$  i.e.  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ , so p is prime.

 $\Diamond$ 

*Remark*: The proofs for  $(2) \Longrightarrow (3)$  and  $(3) \Longrightarrow (1)$  work for integral domains, only  $(1) \Longrightarrow (2)$  leverages that R is a PID.

Note: We have the following relations between algebraic structures:

where  $A = \{n + xf : n \in \mathbb{Z}, f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}.$ 

We don't yet know if the PID  $\subseteq$  UFD containment is proper, but we will show  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is a UFD eventually.

Remark: Theorem 2.10 fails for UFDs. Consider  $\langle x \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , then  $\mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$  which is an integral domain but not a field, i.e.  $\langle x \rangle$  is a prime ideal but not a maximal ideal.

In a PID, non-zero proper ideals are prime iff they are maximal. In general, only maximal implies prime.

In a UFD, non-zero non-units are prime iff they are irreducible. In general, only prime implies irreducible.

### 2.5 Polynomials

Consider 2x + 4, which is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ , but factors as 2(x + 4) in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  where 2 is not a unit, so it is reducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . This motivates the following definition:

**Definition** (Content, primitive): If R is a UFD and  $0 \neq f(x) \in R[x]$ , a greatest common divisor of all coefficients of f is called a **content** of f, denoted c(f). If  $c(f) \sim 1$ , we say f is a **primitive** polynomial.

Example: In  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ ,  $c(6+10x^2+15x^3) \sim \gcd(6,10,15) \sim 1$  so this is primitive. However,  $c(6+9x^2+15x^3) \sim \gcd(6,9,15) \sim 3$ , so this is not primitive.

**Lemma 2.11**: Let R be a UFD and  $0 \neq f(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ .

- f(x) can be written as  $f(x) = c(f)f_1(x)$  for some primitive  $f_1(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$
- if  $0 \neq b \in R$ , then  $c(bf) \sim bc(f)$ .

Proof: Let  $f(x) = a_m x^m + ... + a_0$ . Let  $c(f) \sim \gcd(a_m, ..., a_0)$  and write  $a_i = c(f)b_i$  for all i, so  $f(x) = c(f)f_1(x), \text{ where } f_1(x) = b_m x^m + ... + b_0.$ 

We show  $f_1$  is primitive. Indeed,

$$c(f) \sim \gcd(a_m,...,a_0) \sim \gcd(c(f)b_m,...,c(f)b_0) \sim c(f)\gcd(b_m,...,b_0).$$

Hence  $1 \sim \gcd(b_m,...,b_0) \iff c(f_1) \sim 1$ , so  $f_1$  is primitive. Furthermore, the coefficients of bf for  $b \neq 0$  are  $ba_m,...,ba_0$ , so

$$c(bf) \sim \gcd(ba_m,...,ba_0) \sim b\gcd(a_m,...,a_0) \sim bc(f).$$

Thus  $c(bf) \sim bc(f)$ .

**Lemma 2.12**: Let R be a UFD and  $\ell(x) \in R[x]$  be irreducible with  $\deg(\ell) \geq 1$ . Then  $c(\ell) \sim 1$ .

*Proof*: Write  $\ell(x) = c(\ell)\ell_1(x)$  with  $\ell_1$  primitive and  $\deg(\ell_1) = \deg(\ell) = 1$ . Since  $\ell$  is irreducible one of  $c(\ell), \ell_1$  must be a unit but clearly  $\ell_1$  cannot be, so  $c(\ell) \sim 1$ .

**Theorem 2.13** (Gauss' Lemma): Let R be a UFD. If  $f, g \neq 0 \in R[x]$  then  $c(fg) \sim c(f)c(g)$ . In particular, the product of primitive polynomials is again primitive.

*Proof*: Let  $f = c(f)f_1$  and  $g = c(g)g_1$  with  $f_1, g_1$  primitive. Then

$$c(fg) \sim c(c(f)f_1c(g)g_1) \sim c(f)c(g)c(f_1g_1).$$

It suffices then to prove a product of primitives is primitive. Suppose bwoc f, g are primitive but fg is not. Write

$$\begin{split} f(x) &= a_0 + \ldots + a_m x^m \\ g(x) &= b_0 + \ldots + b_n x^n. \end{split}$$

Since R is a UFD, there is a prime p dividing each coefficient of fg. Since f, g are primitive, there is some k, s so  $p \nmid a_k, b_s$ . Let k and s be the minimum such values. Then

- $p \nmid a_k$  but  $p \mid a_i$  for i = 0, ..., k-1
- $p \nmid b_s$  but  $p \mid b_j$  for j = 0, ..., s 1

Now the coefficient  $c_{k+s}$  of  $x^{k+s}$  in fg is

$$\begin{split} c_{k+s} &= \sum_{i+j=k+s} a_i b_j \\ &= a_0 b_{k+s} + \ldots + a_{k-1} b_{s+1} + a_k b_s + a_{k+1} b_{s-1} + \ldots + a_{k+s} b_0. \end{split}$$

By the above, p divides every term on the left of  $a_k b_s$  and every term on the right of it. However, it does not divide  $a_k b_s$ , hence cannot divide the sum, i.e.  $p \nmid c_{k+s}$ , a contradiction. Thus fg is primitive.

**Theorem 2.14**: Let R be a UFD whose field of fractions F is

$$F = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : a, b \in R, b \neq 0 \right\}.$$

Regard R as a subring of F. If  $\ell(x) \in R[x]$  is irreducible in R[x], then  $\ell(x)$  is irreducible in F[x].

*Proof*: Let  $\ell(x) \in R[x]$  be irreducible. Suppose  $\ell(x) = g(x)h(x) \in F[x]$ . If a, b are the products of the denominators of the coefficients of g(x) and h(x), then  $g_1(x) = ag(x) \in R[x]$  and  $h_1(x) = bh(x) \in R[x]$ . Notice that  $ab\ell(x) = g_1(x)h_1(x)$  is a factorization in R[x]. Since  $\ell(x)$  is irreducible,  $c(\ell) \sim 1$ . Also, by Gauss' lemma, we have

$$ab \sim abc(\ell) \sim c(ab\ell) \sim c(g_1h_1) \sim c(g_1)c(h_1). \quad (\star)$$

Now, write  $g_1(x)=c(g_1)g_2(x)$  and  $h_1(x)=c(h_1)h_2(x)$  where  $g_2(x),h_2(x)$  are primitive in R[x]. Then  $ab\ell(x)=g_1(x)h_1(x)=c(g_1)c(h_1)g_2(x)h_2(x).$ 

By  $(\star)$  we have  $\ell(x) \sim g_2(x)h_2(x)$  in R[x]. Since  $\ell(x)$  is irreducible, it follows that  $h_2(x) \sim 1$  or  $g_2(x) \sim 1$ 

If  $g_2(x) \sim 1$ , then  $ag(x) = g_1(x) = c(g_1)g_2(x)$ . Thus  $g(x) = a^{-1}c(g_1)g_2(x)$  with  $g_2(x) \sim 1$  is a unit in F[x]. Similarly if  $h_2(x) \sim 1$ , we can show h(x) is a unit in F[x]. Thus  $\ell(x) = g(x)h(x)$  in F[x] implies that either g(x) or h(x) is a unit in F[x], so  $\ell(x)$  is irreducible in F[x].

Recall the converse is false: 2x + 4 is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  but reducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . What's notable about this example is the content of 2x + 4 is not a unit. One might wonder if this is the only such restriction preventing an iff statement. Indeed it is.

**Proposition 2.15**: Let F be a UFD whose field of fractions is F. Let  $f(x) \in R[x]$  with  $deg(x) \ge 1$ . TFAE:

- (1) f(x) is irreducible in R[x].
- (2) f(x) is primitive and irreducible in F[x].

*Proof*:

- $(1 \Longrightarrow 2)$  Follows from Lemma 2.12 and Theorem 2.14.
- $(2 \Longrightarrow 1)$  Suppose f(x) is primitive and irreducible in F[x] but reducible in R[x]. Then a nontrivial factorization of f(x) in R[x] must be of the form f(x) = dg(x) with  $d \in R$  and  $d \nsim 1$  (if both factors have degree  $\geq 1$ , then it would be a nontrivial factorization in F[x]). Since  $d \mid f(x)$ ,  $d \nsim 1$  divides each coefficient of f(x), contradicting the fact that f(x) is primitive. Thus f(x) is irreducible in R[x].

lack

Notice that primitive guarantees irreducibility in R[x] iff F[x]. Only the  $R[x] \Longrightarrow F[x]$  direction holds for general polynomials.

**Theorem 2.16**: If R is a UFD, then so is R[x].

Let R be a UFD and  $x_1, ..., x_n$  be n commutative variables and define the ring  $R[x_1, ..., x_n]$  of polynomials in n variables inductively by

$$R[x_1,...,x_n] = (R[x_1,...,x_{n-1}])[x_n].$$

Corollary 2.17: If R is a UFD, then for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $R[x_1, ..., x_n]$  is a UFD.

Since  $\mathbb{Z}$  is a UFD,  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  and  $\mathbb{Z}[x_1,...,x_n]$  are UFDs. With this, we can say that PID  $\subsetneq$  UFD because  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  is a UFD but not a PID.

**Theorem 2.18** (Eisenstein's criterion): Let R be a UFD with field of fractions F. Let  $h(x) = c_n x^n + ... + c_1 x + c_0 \in R[x]$  with  $n \ge 1$ . Let  $\ell \in R$  be irreducible. If:

- $\ell \nmid c_n$
- $\ell \mid c_i$  for all i = 0, ..., n-1
- $\ell^2 \nmid c_0$

Then h is irreducible in F[x].

*Proof*: By contradiction. If h(x) is reducible in F[x], by Gauss' lemma there are  $r(x), s(x) \in R[x]$  of degree at least 1 so h(x) = s(x)r(x). Write

$$s(x) = a_0 + \ldots + a_m x^m$$

$$r(x) = b_0 + \dots + b_k x^k.$$

where  $1 \le m, k < n$ . Since h(x) = s(x)r(x) we have

$$c_0 = a_0 b_0, ..., c_{k+s} = \sum_{i+j=k+s} a_i b_j.$$

Consider the constant term. Since  $\ell \mid c_0$ , we have  $\ell \mid a_0b_0$ . Since  $\ell$  is irreducible and R is a UFD,  $\ell$  is prime, hence  $\ell \mid a_0$  or  $\ell \mid b_0$ . Wlog, suppose  $\ell \mid a_0$ . Since  $\ell \nmid c_0$ , we have  $\ell \nmid b_0$ .

If we consider the coefficient of x, since  $\ell \mid c_1$  we have  $\ell \mid (a_0b_1+a_1b_0)$  where  $\ell \mid a_0$  but  $\ell \nmid b_0$ , hence  $\ell \mid a_1b_0 \Longrightarrow \ell \mid a_1$ .

By repeating the above argument, conditions on coefficients of h(x) imply that  $\ell \mid a_i$  for all  $1 \leq \ell \leq m-1$ . However,  $\ell \nmid a_m$  since  $\ell \nmid c_m$ . Consider the reduction  $\overline{h}(x) = \overline{s}(x)\overline{r}(x)$   $\in (R/\langle \ell \rangle)[x]$ . By the assumption on the coefficients of h, we have  $\overline{h}(x) = \overline{c_n}x^n$ . However, since  $\overline{s}(x) = \overline{a_m}x^m$  and  $\ell \nmid b_0$ ,  $\overline{s}(x)\overline{r}(x)$  contains the term  $\overline{a_mb_0}x^m$ , which is a contradiction. Thus h(x) is irreducible in F[x].

*Example*: Consider  $2x^7 + 3x^4 + 6x^2 + 12$ , where for p = 3 by Eisenstein's criterion this is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

Example: Let p be prime and  $\zeta_p = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{p}\right)$  be a  $p^{\text{th}}$  root of unity. Now  $\zeta_p$  is a root of the  $p^{\text{th}}$  cyclotomic polynomial

$$\begin{split} \Phi_p(x) &= \frac{x^p-1}{x-1} \\ &= x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \ldots + x + 1. \end{split}$$

Eisenstein's does not work directly here, but  $\Phi_p(x+1)$  is irreducible iff  $\Phi_p(x)$  is, so

$$\begin{split} \Phi_p(x+1) &= \frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{x} \\ &= x^{p-1} + \binom{p}{1} x^{p-2} + \binom{p}{2} x^{p-3} + \ldots + \binom{p}{p-2} x + \binom{p}{p-1} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]. \end{split}$$

Then  $p\mid\binom{p}{i}$  for i=1,...,p-1, but  $p\nmid 1$  and  $p^2\nmid\binom{p}{p-1}=p$ . Thus by Eisenstein's criterion  $\Phi_p(x+1)$  is irreducible iff  $\Phi_p(x)$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . Furthermore, observe  $\Phi_p(x)$  is primitive, so by Proposition 2.15 it is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$  as well.

### 3 Field Extensions

#### 3.1 Basics

**Definition** (Field extension): If E is a field containing another field F, we say E is a **field extension** of F, denoted E/F.

Remark: E/F does not mean a quotient ring, as the only ideals are  $\{0\}$  and E.

If E/F is a field extension, we can view E as a vector space over F with the obvious addition and scaling.

**Definition** (Degree): The dimension of E over F is called the **degree** of E over F, denoted [E:F]. If  $[E:F] < \infty$  we say E/F is a finite extension, and otherwise it is an infinite extension.

 $Example: [\mathbb{C}:\mathbb{R}] = 2$  is a finite extension.

Example: Let F be a field and let  $F(x) = \left\{\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}: f(x), g(x) \in F[x], g(x) \neq 0\right\}$ . Then [F(x):F] is an infinite extension since  $\{1, x, x^2, ...\}$  is linearly independent over F.

**Theorem 3.1** (Intermediate field extensions): If E/K and K/F are finite field extensions then E/F is a finite field extension with

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

In particular, if K is an intermediate field of a finite extension F, then  $[K:F] \mid [E:F]$ .

*Proof*: Suppose [E:K]=m and [K:F]=n. Let  $\{a_1,...,a_m\}$  and  $\{b_1,...,b_n\}$  be bases for E/K and K/F respectively. It suffices to show  $\{a_ib_i\}$  is a basis for E/F.

For  $e \in E$  we have

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^{m} k_i a_i$$

for some  $k_i \in K$ , and for each  $k_i$  we have

$$k_i = \sum_{j=1}^n c_{i,j} b_j$$

with each  $c_{i,j} \in F$ . Hence

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n c_{i,j} b_j a_i \in \operatorname{Span}_F \bigl\{ a_i b_j \bigr\}.$$

Next, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{i,j} a_i b_j = 0$$

$$\implies \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{i,j} b_j = 0.$$

Since the  $a_i$  are LI in E/K with each sum term in K, by linearly independence of the  $a_i$  over K we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i,j} b_j = 0$$

for each i. Then by the linear independence of the  $b_j$  over K/F, we have each  $c_{i,j} = 0$ , so the  $\{a_ib_j\}$  are LI.

**Definition** (Algebraic, transcendental): Let E/F be a field extension and  $\alpha \in E$ . We say  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F if there is  $f(x) \in F[x] \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . Otherwise,  $\alpha$  is transcendental over F.

Example:  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $\sqrt{2}$  are algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but e and  $\pi$  are transcendental over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Example: Claim:  $\alpha = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$  is algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

$$(\alpha - \sqrt{2})^2 = 3$$
$$\alpha^2 - 1 = 2\sqrt{2}\alpha$$
$$\alpha^4 - 10\alpha^2 + 1 = 0$$

So  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^4 - 10x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , so is algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

<u>Notation</u>: Let E/F be a field extension and  $\alpha \in E$ . Then  $F[\alpha]$  denotes the smallest subring of E containing F and  $\alpha$ , and  $F(\alpha)$  denotes the smallest subfield of E containing F and  $\alpha$ . For  $\alpha, \beta \in E$  we define  $F[\alpha, \beta]$  and  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  similarly.

#### 3.2 Simple extensions

**Definition** (Simple extension): If  $E = F(\alpha)$  for some  $\alpha \in E$ , we say E is a **simple** extension of F.

We would like to know what  $[F(\alpha):F]$  is.

**Definition** (F-homomorphism): Let  $R, R_1$  be two rings containing a field F. A ring hom  $\varphi : R \to R_1$  is called an F-homomorphism if  $\varphi|_F = \mathrm{id}$ .

**Theorem 3.2**: Let E/F be a field extension and  $\alpha \in E$ . If  $\alpha$  is transcendental over F, then  $F[\alpha] \cong F[x]$  and  $F(\alpha) \cong F(x)$ . In particular,  $F[\alpha] \neq F(\alpha)$ .

*Proof*: Define  $\psi : F(x) \to F(\alpha)$  as the unique F-hom mapping  $x \mapsto \alpha$ . Then for  $f(x), g(x) \in F[x]$  with  $g(x) \neq 0$ ,

$$\psi\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f(\alpha)}{g(\alpha)}.$$

Notice this is well-defined as  $\alpha$  is transcendental, so  $g(\alpha) \neq 0$ . Now Ker  $\psi$  is an ideal of F(x), so  $\psi$  is injective as  $x \notin \text{Ker}(\psi)$ . Also, since F(x) is a field, so too is  $\text{Im}(\psi)$ , which contains F and  $\alpha$ , so  $F(\alpha) \subseteq \text{Im}(\psi)$ . Thus  $F(\alpha) = \text{Im}(\psi)$  and by the first isomorphism theorem,  $F(x)/\text{Ker}(\psi) \cong F(x) \cong \text{Im}(\psi) = F(\alpha)$ . As F[x] and  $F[\alpha]$  are subrings of these fields, they too are isomorphic.

**Theorem 3.3**: Let E/F be a field extension with  $\alpha \in E$ . If  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F, there is a unique monic irreducible  $p(x) \in F[x]$ , called the **minimal polynomial of**  $\alpha$  **over** F, such that there is an F-isomorphism  $\varphi : F[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle \to F[\alpha]$  with  $\varphi(x) = \alpha$  from which we conclude  $F[\alpha] = F(\alpha)$ .

*Remark*: Since  $\alpha$  is algebraic, the map in the proof of Theorem 3.2 is not well-defined.

*Proof*: Consider the unique F-homomorphism  $\varphi : F[x] \to F[\alpha]$  sending  $x \mapsto \alpha$ . Since F[x] is a ring,  $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi)$  is a ring containing F and  $\alpha$ , so  $F[\alpha] \subseteq \operatorname{Im}(\varphi)$  gives  $\operatorname{Im}(\varphi) = F[\alpha]$ .

Let  $I = \text{Ker}(\varphi) = \{f(x) \in F[x] : f(\alpha) = 0\}$ . Since  $\alpha$  is algebraic,  $I \neq \{0\}$ , where I is an ideal of F[x]. Since  $F[x]/I \cong \text{Im } \varphi = F[\alpha]$  is an integral domain, I is a prime ideal. As F[x] is a PID, there is a unique monic irreducible p(x) so that  $I = \langle p(x) \rangle$ . Since I is a prime ideal and therefore a maximal ideal,  $F[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle$  is a field by Theorem 2.10.

Then,  $F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle \cong F[\alpha]$  is a field containing F and  $\alpha$ , so  $F(\alpha)\subseteq F[\alpha]$ . The reverse containment is obvious, so  $F[\alpha]=F(\alpha)$ .

Remark: If p(x) is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over F, we have  $\langle p(x) \rangle = \{f(x) \in F[x] : f(\alpha) = 0\}$ . In particular, if  $f(x) \in F[x]$  satisfies  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , then  $p(x) \mid f(x)$ .

As a direct consequence of these theorems, we have the following result:

**Theorem 3.4** (Degree of a simple extension): Let E/F be a field extension,  $\alpha \in E$ .

- (1)  $\alpha$  is transcendental over F iff  $[F(\alpha):F]$  is infinite.
- (2)  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F iff  $[F(\alpha):F]$  is finite. Moreover, if p(x) is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over F,  $[F(\alpha):F]=\deg(p)$  and  $\{1,\alpha,\alpha^2,...,\alpha^{\deg(p)-1}\}$  is a basis for  $F(\alpha)/F$ .

*Proof*: Notice (1) and (2) are equivalent contrapositives, so it suffices to just prove the forwards direction of each.

- (1)  $(\Longrightarrow)$  By Theorem 3.2 we have  $F(x) \cong F(\alpha)$ . In F(x), the elements  $\{1, x, x^2, ...\}$  are linearly independent over F, so  $[F(\alpha): F] = \infty$ .
- (2)  $(\Longrightarrow)$  By Theorem 3.3,  $F(\alpha) \cong F[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle$ . Note that

$$F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle = \{r(x) \in F[x] : \deg(r) < \deg(p)\}$$

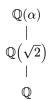
so  $\left\{1,x,x^2,...,x^{\deg(p)-1}\right\}$  is a basis of  $F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle.$ 

Example: Let p be a prime and  $\zeta_p = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{p}\right)$  be a root of  $\Phi_p(x) = \frac{x^p-1}{x-1} = x^{p-1} + \dots + x + 1$ . We know  $\Phi_p(x)$  is irreducible, so it is the minimal polynomial of  $\zeta_p$ . Thus by Theorem 3.4,  $\left[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p):\mathbb{Q}\right] = p-1$ .

Example:  $\alpha = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$  is algebraic, as a root of  $x^4 - 10x^2 + 1$ . We would like to show that this is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  by showing  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ . Notice

$$(\alpha - \sqrt{2})^2 = \sqrt{3}^2 \Longrightarrow \sqrt{2} = \frac{\alpha^2 - 1}{2\alpha},$$

so  $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . We have the following diagram:



Since  $\sqrt{2}$  is a root of  $x^2-2$ , which is irreducible, we have  $\left[\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{2}\right):\mathbb{Q}\right]=2$ . Also,  $\sqrt{3}\notin\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{2}\right)$ , giving  $\left[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{2}\right)\right]\geq 2$ . Since  $\alpha\in\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)\setminus\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{2}\right)$ , it follows that  $\left[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}\right]\geq 4$ . However,  $\alpha$  is a root of a degree 4 polynomial, so  $\left[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}\right]\leq 4$ , so we have equality, and thus  $x^4-10x^2+1$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Exercise 3.1: Show that  $\sqrt{3} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ 

Exercise 3.2: Can we show that  $x^4 - 10x^2 + 1$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  by Eisenstein's?

#### 3.3 Finite extensions and the algebraic closure

It turns out that to understand finite field extensions, it suffices to understand simple ones.

**Theorem 3.5**: Let E/F be a field extension. If  $[E:F]<\infty$ , there exist  $a_1,...,a_n\in E$  such that

$$F \subsetneq F(\alpha_1) \subsetneq ... \subsetneq F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n) = E.$$

*Proof*: By induction on [E:F]. If [E:F]=1, then E=F and we are done. Suppose [E:F]>1 and the statement holds for all field extensions  $E_1/F_1$  with  $[E_1:F_1]<[E:F]$ . Let  $\alpha_1\in E\setminus F$  so by Theorem 3.1 we have

$$[E:F] = [E:F(\alpha_1)][F(\alpha_1):F].$$

Since  $[F(\alpha_1):F]>1$ , we have  $[E:F(\alpha_1)]<[E:F]$  so by the IH, there are  $a_2,...,a_n\in E$  such that

$$F(\alpha_1) \subseteq F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \subseteq ... \subseteq F(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n) = E.$$

 $\bigcirc$ 

 $\bigcirc$ 

Therefore placing  $F \subseteq F(\alpha_1)$  at the start of this chain gives the desired result.

**Definition** (Algebraic field extension): A field extension E/F is **algebraic** if every  $\alpha \in E$  is algebraic over F. Otherwise, it is **transcendental**.

**Theorem 3.6**: Let E/F be a field extension. If  $[E:F] < \infty$ , then E/F is algebraic.

*Proof*: Suppose [E:F] = n. For  $\alpha \in E$ , the elements  $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, ..., \alpha^n\}$  are not linearly independent over F, so there exist  $c_i \in F$  not all zero such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \alpha^i = 0$$

i.e. that  $\alpha$  is a root of  $c_0 + ... + c_n x^n \in F[x]$ , so  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F.

**Theorem 3.7** (Algebraic closure): Let E/F be a field extension. Define

$$L := \{ \alpha \in E : [F(\alpha) : F] < \infty \}.$$

Then L, called the algebraic closure of F in E, is an intermediate field of E/F.

*Proof*: Certainly  $F \subseteq L$ , so if  $\alpha, \beta \in L$  we need to show  $\alpha \pm \beta, \alpha\beta$ , and  $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}$  for  $\beta \neq 0$  are all in L. By definition,  $[F(\alpha):F], [F(\beta):F] < \infty$ .

Consider the field  $F(\alpha, \beta)$ . Notice the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over F, say  $p(x) \in F[x]$ , is also an element of  $F(\beta)[x]$  with  $p(\alpha) = 0$ . Therefore the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $F(\beta)$  divides the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over F, so the former has at most the degree of the latter. It follows by Theorem 3.1 that

$$[F(\alpha,\beta):F(\beta)] \leq [F(\alpha):F]$$
 
$$[F(\alpha,\beta):F] = [F(\alpha,\beta):F(\beta)][F(\beta):F] \leq [F(\alpha):F][F(\beta)F] < \infty.$$

Now since  $\alpha \pm \beta \in F(\alpha, \beta)$ , we have  $[F(\alpha + \beta) : F] \leq [F(\alpha, \beta) : F] < \infty$ , so  $\alpha \pm \beta \in L$ . Similarly, we can show  $\alpha\beta, \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \in L$ , so L is a field.

**Definition** (Algebraically closed): A field F is **algebraically closed** if for any algebraic extension E/F, we have E=F.

Example: By the fundamental theorem of algebra,  $\mathbb C$  is algebraically closed. Moreover,  $\mathbb C$  is the algebraic closure of  $\mathbb R$  in  $\mathbb C$ .

*Example*: Let  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$  be the algebraic closure of  $\mathbb{Q}$  in  $\mathbb{C}$ , i.e.

$$\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \{ \alpha \in \mathbb{C} : \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } \mathbb{Q} \}.$$

For a prime p, since  $\zeta_p \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$  as  $\zeta_p$  is a root of its minimal polynomial  $\Phi_p(x)$ , we have

$$\left[\overline{\mathbb{Q}}:\mathbb{Q}\right] \ge \left[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p):\mathbb{Q}\right] = p-1.$$

As there are infinitely many primes,  $\left[\overline{\mathbb{Q}}:\mathbb{Q}\right]=\infty$ . In particular, this example shows that an algebraic extension need not be finite, i.e. the converse of Theorem 3.6 is false.

# 4 Splitting Fields

#### 4.1 Existence

**Definition** (Splits over): Let E/F be a field extension. We say  $f(x) \in F[x]$  splits over E if E contains all roots of f(x), i.e. f can be written as a product of linear factors in E[x].

**Definition** (Splitting field): Let  $\tilde{E}/F$  be a field extension,  $f(x) \in F[x]$ , and  $F \subseteq E \subseteq \tilde{E}$ . If

- f(x) splits over E and
- f(x) does not split over any proper subfield of E

we say that E is a splitting field of f(x) in  $\tilde{E}$ .

**Theorem 4.1**: Let  $p(x) \in F[x]$  be irreducible. The quotient ring  $F[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle$  is a field containing F and a root of p(x).

*Proof*: Since p(x) is irreducible,  $I := \langle p(x) \rangle$  is a prime ideal. Since F[x] is a PID, I is maximal iff E := F[x]/I is a field. Consider the map

$$\varphi: F \to E$$
$$a \mapsto a + I.$$

Since F is a field and  $\varphi \neq 0$ ,  $\varphi$  is injective. Thus by identifying F with  $\varphi(F)$ , we view F as a subfield of E. We claim  $\alpha := x + I$  is a root of p(x). Write

$$\begin{split} p(x) &= a_0 + a_1 x + \ldots + a_n x^n \in F[x] \\ &= (a_0 + I) + (a_1 + I) x + \ldots + (a_n + I) x^n \in E[x]. \end{split}$$

We have

$$\begin{split} p(\alpha) &= a_0 + I + (a_1 + I)\alpha + \ldots + (a_n + I)\alpha^n \\ &= (a_0 + I) + (a_1 + I)(x + I) + \ldots + (a_n + I)(x + I)^n \\ &= (a_0 + a_1 x + \ldots + a_n x^n) + I \\ &= p(x) + I = 0 + I = I. \end{split}$$

Thus  $\alpha = x + I \in E$  is a root of p(x).

**Theorem 4.2** (Kronecker's theorem): Let  $f(x) \in F[x]$ . There exists a field E containing F such that f(x) splits over E.

*Proof*: By induction on  $\deg(f)$  with any field. If  $\deg(f) = 1$ , we let E = F and are done. If  $\deg(f) > 1$ , write f(x) = p(x)h(x) with p(x) irreducible in F[x]. By Theorem 4.1, there is a field K with  $F \subseteq K$  containing a root of p(x), say  $\alpha$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) &= (x - \alpha) q(x) \\ \Longrightarrow f(x) &= (x - \alpha) q(x) h(x) \end{aligned}$$

where  $q(x) \in K[x]$ . Since  $\deg(qh) < \deg(f)$ , by induction there is a field E containing K over which q(x)h(x) splits. It follows that f(x) splits over E.

**Theorem 4.3** (Splitting fields are finite extensions): Every  $f(x) \in F[x]$  has a splitting field which is a finite extension of F.

*Proof*: For  $f(x) \in F[x]$ , by Theorem 4.2 there is a field extension E/F over which f(x) splits. Say  $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$  are the roots of f(x) in E. Consider  $L := F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$ , which is the smallest subfield of E containing all roots of f(x), so f(x) does not split over any proper subfield of E. Thus E/F is a splitting field of E. In addition, since the  $\alpha_i$  are all algebraic in E/E is finite.  $\Box$ 

Example: Consider  $x^3-2\in\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . We know  $x^3-2=\left(x-\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\left(x-\sqrt[3]{2}\zeta_3\right)\left(x-\sqrt[3]{2}\zeta_3^2\right)$  where  $\zeta_3=\exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{3}\right)$ . Hence the splitting field of  $x^3-2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is

$$\mathbb{Q}\!\left(\sqrt[3]{2},\sqrt[3]{2}\zeta_3,\sqrt[3]{2}\zeta_3^2\right) = \mathbb{Q}\!\left(\sqrt[3]{2},\sqrt[3]{2}\zeta_3\right)\!.$$

### 4.2 Uniqueness

**Question**: If we have two field extensions E/F and  $E_1/F$ , what is the relation between the splitting field of f(x) in E and in  $E_1$ ?

**Definition** (Homomorphism extension): Let  $\varphi: R \to R_1$  be a ring homomorphism, and  $\Phi: R[x] \to R_1[x]$  be the unique ring homomorphism satisfying  $\Phi|_R = \varphi$  and  $\Phi(x) = x$ . We say  $\Phi$  extends  $\varphi$ .

More generally, if  $R \subseteq S$  and  $R_1 \subseteq S_1$  are all rings and  $\Phi : S \to S_1$  is a ring homomorphism with  $\Phi|_R = \varphi$ , we say  $\Phi$  extends  $\varphi$ .

**Theorem 4.4**: Let  $\varphi: F \to F_1$  be a field isomorphism and  $f(x) \in F[x]$ . Let  $\Phi: F[x] \to F_1[x]$  extend  $\varphi$ . Let  $f_1(x) = \Phi(f(x))$  and  $E/F, E_1/F_1$  be splitting fields of f(x) and  $f_1(x)$  respectively. Then there is an isomorphism  $\psi: E \to E_1$  which extends  $\varphi$ .

*Proof*: By induction on [E:F]. If [E:F]=1, then f(x) is a product of linear factors in F[x], and so is  $f_1(x)$  in  $F_1[x]$ . Thus E=F,  $E_1=F_1$ , so let  $\psi=\varphi$  and we are done.

Suppose [E:F] > 1 and the statement holds for all  $\tilde{E}/\tilde{F}$  with  $[\tilde{E}:\tilde{F}] < [E:F]$ . Let  $p(x) \in F[x]$  be an irreducible factor of f(x) with  $\deg(p) \geq 2$ . Such a p exists, as otherwise all the irreducible factors of f are degree 1, giving [E:F] = 1. Define  $p_1(x) := \Phi(p(x))$ .

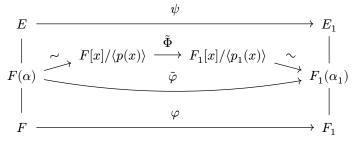
Let  $\alpha \in E$  and  $\alpha_1 \in E_1$  be roots of p(x) and  $p_1(x)$  respectively. From Theorem 3.3, we have the F and  $F_1$ -isomorphisms

$$\begin{split} F(\alpha) &\cong F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle, \quad \alpha \mapsto x + \langle p(x)\rangle \\ F_1(\alpha_1) &\cong F_1[x]/\langle p_1(x)\rangle, \quad \alpha_1 \mapsto x + \langle p_1(x)\rangle. \end{split}$$

Consider the isomorphism  $\Phi: F[x] \to F_1[x]$  extending  $\varphi$ . Since  $p_1(x) = \Phi(p(x))$ , there is a field isomorphism  $\tilde{\Phi}$  given by

$$\tilde{\Phi}: F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle \to F_1[x]/\langle p_1(x)\rangle$$
$$x + \langle p(x)\rangle \mapsto x + \langle p_1(x)\rangle$$

which extends  $\varphi$ . It follows from the commutative diagram below that there exists a field isomorphism  $\tilde{\varphi}: F(\alpha) \to F_1(\alpha_1), \alpha \mapsto \alpha_1$  extending  $\varphi$ .



Notice since  $\deg(p) \geq 2$ , we have  $[E:F(\alpha)] < [E:F]$ . Since E (resp.  $E_1$ ) is the splitting field of  $f(x) \in F(\alpha)[x]$  (resp.  $f_1(x) \in F_1(\alpha_1)[x]$ ) over  $F(\alpha)$  (resp.  $F_1(\alpha_1)$ ), by induction there is an isomorphism  $\psi: E \to E_1$  which extends  $\tilde{\varphi}$ . Therefore  $\psi$  extends  $\varphi$ .

Corollary 4.5 (Uniqueness of splitting fields): Any two splitting fields of  $f(x) \in F[x]$  over F are isomorphic, and so we can say the splitting field of f(x) over F.

*Proof*: Let  $\varphi: F \to F$  be the identity map, and apply Theorem 4.4.

 $\bigcirc$ 

**Theorem 4.6**: Let F be a field,  $f(x) \in F[x]$  with  $\deg(f) = n \ge 1$ . If E/F is the splitting field of f(x), then  $[E:F] \mid n!$ .

*Proof*: By induction on  $\deg(f)$ . If  $\deg(f) = 1$ , choose E = F and we have  $[E : F] \mid 1!$ . Suppose  $\deg(f) > 1$  and the statement holds for all g(x) with  $\deg(g) < \deg(f)$ . Two cases:

Case 1. f(x) is irreducible in F[x]. Let  $\alpha \in E$  be a root of f(x), and by Theorem 3.3

$$F(\alpha) \cong F[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$$
 and  $[F(\alpha):F] = \deg(f) = n$ 

since f is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$ . Write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)g(x)$  with  $g(x) \in F(\alpha)[x]$  and  $\deg(g) \leq n - 1$ . Since E is the splitting field of g(x) over  $F(\alpha)$ , by induction  $[E : F(\alpha)] \mid (n - 1)!$  which gives

$$[E:F] = [E:F(\alpha)][F(\alpha):F] = n \cdot [E:F(\alpha)] \Longrightarrow [E:F] \mid n!.$$

Case 2. f(x) is reducible in F[x]. Write f(x) = g(x)h(x) with  $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$  and  $\deg(g) = m, \deg(h) = k, m+k=n,$  and  $1 \le m, k < n$ . Let K be the splitting field of g(x) over F. Since  $\deg(g) = m$ , by induction  $[K:F] \mid m!$ . Since E is the splitting field of h(x) over K, by induction  $[E:K] \mid k!$ . Therefore  $[E:F] \mid m!k!$  which is a factor of n! since  $\binom{n}{m} = \frac{n!}{m!k!}$  is an integer.

Aside: E is the splitting field of h(x) over K because certainly h(x) splits over E, and if L/K were to be a splitting field for h(x) with  $L \subseteq E$ , then f(x) would split over L as well. However, E is the splitting field of f(x) over E, a contradiction.

# 5 More Field Theory

#### 5.1 Prime fields

**Definition** (Prime field): The **prime field** of a field F is the intersection of all subfields of F.

**Theorem 5.1**: If F is a field, its prime field is isomorphic to either  $\mathbb{Q}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for a prime p.

**Definition** (Character): Given a field F, if its prime field is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Q}$  (resp.  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ ), we say F has characteristic 0 (resp. p), denoted  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = 0$  (resp.  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = p$ ).

Remark: When ch(F) = p, for  $a, b \in F$ ,

$$(a+b)^p = a^p + \binom{p}{1}a^{p-1}b + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1}ab^{p-1} + \binom{p}{p}b^p$$
$$= a^p + b^p$$

since  $p \mid \binom{p}{i}$  for each i = 1, ..., p - 1.

*Proof of Theorem 5.1*: Let  $F_1$  be a subfield of F. Consider the map

$$\chi: \mathbb{Z} \to F_1$$
$$n \mapsto n \cdot 1$$

where  $1 \in F_1 \subseteq F$ . Let  $I = \operatorname{Ker} \chi$ . Since  $\mathbb{Z}/I \cong \operatorname{Im} \chi$ , a subring of  $F_1$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}/I$  is an integral domain. Thus I is a prime ideal.

- If  $I = \langle 0 \rangle$ , then  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq F_1$ . Since  $F_1$  is a field,  $\mathbb{Q} = \operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq F_1$ .
- If  $I = \langle p \rangle$  for a prime  $p, \mathbb{Z}_p \cong \mathbb{Z}/\langle p \rangle \cong \operatorname{Im} \chi \subseteq F_1$ .

**Proposition 5.2**: Let F be a field with  $\mathrm{ch}(F)=p$  and  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\varphi:F\to F, u\mapsto u^{p^n}$  is an injective  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ -homorphism of fields. In particular if F is finite, then  $\varphi$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ -isomorphism.

*Proof*: By (a slight modification of) the previous remark,  $\varphi(a+b)=\varphi(a)+\varphi(b)$  and multiplicativity is obvious, so  $\varphi$  is indeed a hom. Also,  $1\notin \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ , so  $\operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)\neq F\Longrightarrow \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)=\{0\}$  since F is a field, hence  $\varphi$  is injective. For  $a\in\mathbb{Z}_p$ , we have  $a=a\cdot 1\Longrightarrow \varphi(a)=a\varphi(1)=a1=a$  and so  $\varphi$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ -hom. $\Diamond$ 

# 5.2 Formal derivatives and repeated roots

**Definition** (Formal derivative): If F is a field, the monomials  $\{1, x, x^2, ...\}$  form an F-basis for F[x]. Define the linear operator

$$\begin{split} D: F[x] &\to F[x] \\ 1 &\mapsto 0 \\ x^i &\mapsto i x^{i-1}, \forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \end{split}$$

Notice that D(f+g) = D(f) + D(g) and D(fg) = D(f)g + fD(g). We call D(f) =: f' the formal derivative of f.

**Theorem 5.3**: Let F be a field,  $f(x) \in F[x]$ .

- (1) If ch(F) = 0, then  $f'(x) = 0 \iff f(x) = c$  for some  $c \in F$ .
- (2) If  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = p$ , then  $f'(x) = 0 \iff f(x) = g(x^p)$  for some  $g(x) \in F[x]$ .

*Proof*:

(1) ( $\iff$ ) is clear. For ( $\implies$ ), say  $f(x) = a_0 + ... + a_n x^n$ . Then

$$f'(x) = a_1 + 2a_2x + \dots + na_nx^{n-1} = 0$$

implies that each  $ia_i = 0$  for all i = 1, ..., n. Since  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = 0$  we have  $i \neq 0$ , and so each  $a_i = 0$ . Therefore  $f(x) = a_0$ .

$$\begin{split} f(x) &= g(x^p) = b_0 + b_1 x^p + \ldots + b_m x^{pm} \\ \Longrightarrow f'(x) &= b_1 p x^{p-1} + \ldots + b_m p m x^{pm-1}. \end{split}$$

Since ch(F) = p, we have p = 0 so f'(x) = 0.

 $(\Longrightarrow)$  For  $f(x) = a_0 + ... + a_n x^n$ ,

$$f'(x) = a_1 + 2a_2x + \dots + na_nx^{n-1} = 0$$

implies  $ia_i = 0$ . Since ch(F) = p,  $ia_i = 0$  gives  $a_i = 0$  unless  $p \mid i$ . Thus

$$f(x)=a_0+a_px^p+a_{2p}x^{2p}+\ldots+a_{mp}x^{mp}=g(x^p)$$
 where  $g(x)=a_0+a_px+\ldots+a_{mp}x^m$ .

**Definition** (Repeated root): Let E/F be a field extension,  $f(x) \in F[x]$ . We say  $\alpha \in E$  is a **repeated** root of f(x) if  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^2 g(x)$  for some  $g(x) \in E[x]$ .

**Theorem 5.4**: Let E/F be a field extension,  $f(x) \in F[x]$ ,  $\alpha \in E$ . Then  $\alpha$  is a repeated root of f(x) iff  $x - \alpha$  divides both f and f', i.e.  $(x - \alpha) \mid \gcd(f, f')$ .

*Proof*:  $(\Longrightarrow)$  Suppose  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^2 g(x)$ . Then

$$f'(x) = 2(x - \alpha)g(x) + (x - \alpha)^2 g'(x)$$
  
=  $(x - \alpha)[2g(x) + (x - \alpha)g'(x)],$ 

so  $(x-\alpha) \mid f, f'$ .

 $(\longleftarrow)$  Suppose  $(x-\alpha)\mid f,f'.$  Write  $f(x)=(x-\alpha)h(x)$  with  $h(x)\in E[x].$  Then

$$f'(x) = h(x) + (x - \alpha)h'(x)$$

$$\implies h(\alpha) = f'(\alpha) - (\alpha - \alpha)h'(\alpha) = 0,$$

since  $(x - \alpha) \mid f'$ . So  $\alpha$  is a root of h, giving  $(x - \alpha) \mid h$ , hence  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^2 g(x)$  for some  $g(x) \in E[x]$ .

**Definition** (Separable): Let F be a field,  $f(x) \in F[x] \setminus \{0\}$ . We say f(x) is **separable over** F if it has no repeated roots in any extension of F.

Example: f(x) = (x-4)(x-9) is separable in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ .

Corollary 5.5: Let F be a field and  $f(x) \in F[x]$ . f(x) is separable iff gcd(f, f') = 1.

Remark: The condition of repeated roots depends on the extension of F while gcd involves only F.

*Proof*: Note  $gcd(f, f') \neq 1 \iff (x - \alpha) \mid gcd(f, f')$  for some  $\alpha$  in some extension of F. By Theorem 5.4, the result follows.

Corollary 5.6: If ch(F) = 0, then every irreducible  $r(x) \in F[x]$  is separable.

*Proof*: Let  $r(x) \in F[x]$  be irreducible. Then

$$\gcd(r,r') = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } r' \neq 0 \\ r \text{ if } r' = 0 \end{cases}$$

If r'(x) = 0, then r(x) = c for  $c \in F$ , but  $\deg(r) \ge 1$  as r is irreducible, so we must have  $\gcd(r, r') = 1$  and the result follows by Corollary 5.5.

Example:  $\Phi_p(x) = 1 + x + ... + x^{p-1} = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$  is irreducible, hence separable. Recall the roots of  $\Phi_p(x)$  are  $\zeta_p, \zeta_p^2, ..., \zeta_p^{p-1}$  which are all distinct.

#### 5.3 Finite fields

Given a field F, define  $F^{\times} := F \setminus \{0\}$  (the group of units).

**Proposition 5.7**: If F is a finite field, then ch(F) = p for some prime p and  $|F| = p^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof*: Since F is finite, by Theorem 5.1 its prime field is  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for some prime p. Since F is a finite dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ ,  $F \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^n$  where  $n = [F : \mathbb{Z}_p]$ . Therefore  $|F| = |\mathbb{Z}_p|^n = p^n$ .

**Theorem 5.8**: Let F be a field and G a finite subgroup of  $F^{\times}$ . Then G is cyclic. In particular, the group of units of a finite field is cyclic.

*Proof*: Wlog we assume  $G \neq \{1\}$ . Since G is abelian, by the classification of finite abelian groups

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \times ... \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_n}$$

where each  $n_i \mid n_{i+1}$  and  $n_i > 1$  since  $G \neq \{1\}$ . Notice every  $g \in G$  must then satisfy  $g^{n_r} = 1$ , so is a root of  $x^{n_r} - 1 \in F[x]$ . Since  $x^{n_r} - 1$  has at most  $n_r$  distinct roots in F, we have  $|G| \leq n_r$ , where the above isomorphism gives  $|G| = n_1 \times n_2 \times ... \times n_r$ , so it must be that r = 1 and  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1}$  is a cyclic group.

 $\Diamond$ 

Corollary 5.9: If F is a finite field, then F is a simple extension of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

*Proof*: By taking  $u \in F$  to be a generator of  $F^{\times}$ , we have  $F = \mathbb{Z}_p(u)$ .

**Theorem 5.10**: Let p be a prime and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

- (1) F is a finite field with  $|F| = p^n$  iff F is the splitting field of  $x^{p^n} x$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .
- (2) Let F be a finite field with  $|F| = p^n$ , let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $m \mid n$ . Then F contains a unique subfield K with  $|K| = p^m$ .

*Proof*:

- (1)  $(\Longrightarrow)$  Suppose  $|F|=p^n$ . Then  $|F^\times|=p^n-1$ , so every  $u\in F^\times$  satisfies  $u^{p^n-1}=1$ , thus is a root of  $f(x):=x(x^{p^n-1}-1)=x^{p^n}-x\in\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ . Also,  $0\in F$  is a root of f(x), so every element of F is a root of f(x) which therefore has  $p^n$  distinct roots in F. Clearly f(x) cannot split over any smaller field, so F must be the splitting field of f(x) over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .
  - $(\Leftarrow)$  Suppose F is the splitting field of  $f(x) := x^{p^n} x$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Since  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = p$ , we have

$$f'(x) = p^n x^{p^n - 1} - 1 = -1.$$

Thus gcd(f, f') = 1, so by Corollary 5.5 f(x) has  $p^n$  distinct roots in F. Let E be the set of all roots of f(x) in F and define

$$\varphi: F \to F$$
 
$$u \mapsto u^{p^n}$$

Notice  $u \in F$  satisfies  $u \in E$  iff  $\varphi(u) = u$ . This equality condition is closed under  $+, -, \times, /$ , and so E is a subfield of F of order  $p^n$ . Since F is a splitting field, it is generated over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  by the roots of f(x) i.e. the elements of E, so  $F = \mathbb{Z}_p(E) = E$ , giving  $|F| = p^n$ .

(2) Let  $\alpha \neq 0$  be a root of  $x^{p^m} - x$ , so  $\alpha$  must be a root of  $x^{p^m-1} - 1$ , giving  $\alpha^{p^m-1} = 1$  We recall

$$x^{ab} - 1 = (x^a - 1)(x^{ab-a} + x^{ab-2a} + \dots + 1)$$

so as  $m \mid n \iff n = mk$  for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we have

$$p^n - 1 = p^{mk} - 1 = (p^m - 1)M$$

for some  $M \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and so

$$\alpha^{p^n-1} = \alpha^{(p^m-1)M} = (\alpha^{p^m-1})^M = 1^M = 1.$$

Therefore  $\alpha$  is a root of  $x^{p^n-1}-1$ , and so every root of  $x^{p^m}-x$  is a root of  $x^{p^n}-x$ . Since  $x^{p^n}-x$  splits over F, so does  $x^{p^m}-x$ . Let

$$K := \{ u \in F : u^{p^m} - u = 0 \}.$$

Then  $|K| = p^m$  since the roots of  $x^{p^m} - x$  are distinct and by (1), K is a field. Now if  $\tilde{K} \subseteq F$  is a subfield with  $|\tilde{K}| = p^m$ , then  $\tilde{K} \subseteq K$ , since all elements  $v \in \tilde{K}$  satisfy  $v^{p^m} - v = 0$ . Therefore  $\tilde{K} = K$ , so K is unique.

Corollary 5.11 (E.H. Moore): Let p be a prime and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then any two finite fields of order  $p^n$  are isomorphic. We denote such a field by  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ .

 $\Diamond$ 

 $\Diamond$ 

*Proof*: Follows by <u>Theorem 5.10</u> and uniqueness of splitting fields.

**Definition**  $(F^p)$ : Let F be a field with ch(F) = p. Define  $F^p := \{b^p : b \in F\}$ .

Remark:  $F^p$  is a subfield of F as  $(a+b)^p = a^p + b^p$  and multiplicativity is obvious.

**Theorem 5.12**: Let F be a finite field with ch(F) = p.

- (1)  $F = F^p$ .
- (2) Every irreducible  $r(x) \in F[x]$  is separable.

Proof:

(1) Clearly  $F^p \subseteq F$ . Every finite field  $F = \mathbb{F}_p^n$  is the splitting field of  $x^{p^n} - x$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for some prime p and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Thus for any  $a \in F$ ,

$$a = a^{p^n} = \left(a^{p^{n-1}}\right)^p \in F^p.$$

(2) Let  $r(x) \in F[x]$  be irreducible. Now gcd(r, r') divides r(x), so

$$\gcd(r,r') = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } r' \neq 0 \\ r \text{ if } r' = 0 \end{cases}$$

Supposing r'=0, by Theorem 5.3  $r(x)=g(x^p)$  for some  $g(x)\in F[x]$ , but then

$$r(x) = a_0 + a_1 x^p + \ldots + a_m x^{mp}$$

and since  $F = F^p$ , each  $a_i = b_i^p$  for some  $b_i \in F$ , giving

$$\begin{split} r(x) &= b_0^p + b_1^p x^p + \ldots + b_m^p x^{mp} \\ &= \left(b_0 + b_1 x + \ldots + b_m x_m\right)^p, \end{split}$$

so r(x) is reducible, a contradiction. Therefore gcd(r, r') = 1, so by <u>Corollary 5.5</u> we have r(x) is separable.

Example: We now know that irreducible implies separable in the following cases:

- ch(F) = 0.
- ch(F) = p and F is finite.

However, this is not true if  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = p$  and F is infinite. Let F be a field with  $\operatorname{ch}(F) = p$  and consider  $f(x) = x^p - a \in F[x]$ . Since  $f'(x) = px^{p-1} = 0$  we have  $\gcd(f, f') \neq 1$ , so by Corollary 5.5 f(x) is not separable. Furthermore:

- (1) If  $a \in F^p$ , say  $a = b^p$ . Then  $f(x) = x^p b^p = (x b)^p$  and so f(x) is reducible.
- (2) If  $a \notin F^p$ , let E/F be a field extension where  $x^p a$  has a root  $\beta \in E$ . Then  $\beta^p = a$ , and since  $a \notin F^p$  we have  $\beta \notin F$ , so

$$f(x) = x^p - \beta^p = (x - \beta)^p$$

which is not separable. However, in this situation  $x^p - a$  is actually irreducible in F[x].

*Proof*: Write  $x^p - a = g(x)h(x)$  for monic  $g(x), h(x) \in F[x]$ . We have

$$(x - \beta)^p = g(x)h(x)$$

$$\implies g(x) = (x - \beta)^r, \quad h(x) = (x - \beta)^s$$

for some  $0 \le r, s$  with r + s = p. Write

$$g(x) = x^r + r\beta x^{n-1} + \ldots \in F[x],$$

so  $r\beta \in F$ . However  $\beta \notin F$  so it must be that  $r=0 \in F$ . As an integer, then, r=0 or r=p. Either way, g(x)=1 or h(x)=1 (one is a unit), so f(x) is irreducible in F[x].

# 6 Solvable and Automorphism Groups

#### 6.1 Solvable groups

**Definition** (Solvable): A group G is **solvable** if there is a tower

$$G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \subseteq G_2 \supseteq \dots \supseteq G_m = \{1\}$$

with  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$  and  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  abelian for all i = 0, ..., m-1.

Remark:  $G_{i+1}$  is not necessarily a normal subgroup of G, but if it is then we get  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$  for free.

Example: Consider  $S_4$ . Let  $V := \mathbb{Z}/\langle 2 \rangle \times \mathbb{Z}/\langle 2 \rangle$ . Note  $A_4$  and V are normal subgroups of  $S_4$ , and we have  $S_4 \supseteq A_4 \supseteq V \supseteq \{e\}$ .

Since  $S_4/A_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ ,  $A_4/V \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$ , and  $V/\{e\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  are all abelian,  $S_4$  is solvable.

Recall from group theory:

**Theorem 6.1** (Second isomorphism theorem): Let  $H, K \leq G$  with  $K \leq G$ . Then  $HK \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  are  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  are  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  are  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  and  $K \leq G$  are  $K \leq G$  ar

**Theorem 6.2** (Third isomorphism theorem): Let  $K \leq H \leq G$  with  $K \leq G$  and  $H \leq G$ . Then  $H/K \leq g/K$  and  $(G/K)/(H/K) \cong G/H$ .

**Theorem 6.3**: Let G be a solvable group. If  $H \leq G$ , then

- (1) H is solvable.
- (2) Let  $N \subseteq G$ . Then G/N is solvable.

*Proof*: As G is solvable there is a tower

$$G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq G_m = \{1\}$$

with  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$  and  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  abelian.

(1) Define  $H_i = H \cap G_i$ . Since  $G_{i+1} \unlhd G_i$ , the tower

$$H=H_0\supseteq G_1\supseteq\ldots\supseteq H_m=\{1\}$$

satisfies  $H_{i+1} \subseteq H_i$ . Note that both  $H_i$  and  $G_{i+1}$  are subgroups of  $G_i$  and

$$H_{i+1}=H\cap G_{i+1}=H_i\cap G_{i+1}.$$

By the second isomorphism theorem:

$$H_{i}/H_{i+1} = H_{i}/(H_{i} \cap G_{i+1}) \cong H_{i}G_{i+1}/G_{i+1} \leq G_{i}/G_{i+1}$$

Since  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is abelian, so is  $H_i/H_{i+1}$ , hence H is solvable.

(2) Consider the towers

$$\begin{split} G &= G_0 N \supseteq G_1 N \supseteq \ldots \supseteq G_m N = N \\ G/N &= G_0 N/N \supseteq G_1 N/N \supseteq \ldots \supseteq G_m N/N = N/N = \{1\}. \end{split}$$

Since  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$  and  $N \leq G$ , we have  $G_{i+1}N \leq G_iN$  which implies  $G_{i+1}N/N \leq G_iN/N$ . By the third isomorphism theorem,

$$(G_i N/N)/(G_{i+1} N/N) \cong G_i N/G_{i+1} N.$$

Notice that as  $G_{i+1} \subseteq G_i$ ,

$$G_iG_{i+1}N = \left\{g_1g_2n: g_1 \in G_i, g_2 \in G_{i+1}, n \in N\right\} = \left\{g_1n: g_1 \in G_i, n \in N\right\} = G_iN,$$

so by the second isomorphism theorem,

$$G_i N/G_{i+1} N = G_i G_{i+1} N/G_{i+1} N \cong G_i/(G_i \cap G_{i+1} N)$$

Consider the natural quotient map

$$G_i \to G_i/(G_i \cap G_{i+1}N)$$

which is surjective, and since  $G_{i+1} \subseteq G_i \cap G_{i+1}N$ , induces a surjective map

$$\varphi: G_i/G_{i+1} \to G_i/(G_i \cap G_{i+1}N)$$

by the universal property of groups. Since  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is abelian, so is  $G_i/(G_i \cap G_{i+1}N) = \operatorname{Im} \varphi$ . Therefore

$$(\mathit{G}_{i}\mathit{N}/N)/(\mathit{G}_{i+1}\mathit{N}/N)$$

 $\bigcirc$ 

is abelian. It follows that G/N is solvable.

Example: Since  $S_4$  is solvable, so are  $S_3$  and  $S_2$ .

**Theorem 6.4**: Let  $N \subseteq G$ . If N and G/N are both solvable, then G is solvable. In particular, a direct product of finitely many solvable groups is solvable.

Proof: Since N is solvable, we have a tower

$$N=N_0\supseteq N_1\supseteq\ldots\supseteq N_m=\{1\}$$

with  $N_{i+1} \leq N_i$  and  $N_i/N_{i+1}$  abelian. For a subgroup  $H \leq G$  with  $N \leq H$ , write  $\overline{H} = H/N$ . Since G/N is solvable, we have a tower

$$G/N=\overline{G}=\overline{G_0}\supseteq\overline{G_1}\supseteq\ldots\supseteq\overline{G_r}=N/N=\{1\}$$

with  $\overline{G_{i+1}} \unlhd \overline{G_i}$  and  $\overline{G_i}/\overline{G_{i+1}}$  abelian. Let  $\operatorname{Sub}_N(G) := \{H \leq G : N \leq H\}$  and  $\operatorname{Sub}(G)$  be the set of all subgroups of G. Consider the map<sup>1</sup>

$$\sigma: \operatorname{Sub}_N(G) \to \operatorname{Sub}(G/N)$$
 
$$H \mapsto H/N.$$

For all i=0,...,r, define  $G_i=\sigma^{-1}\left(\overline{G_i}\right)$ . Since  $N \leq G$  and  $\overline{G_{i+1}} \leq \overline{G_i}$ , we have (see Piazza)  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$ . Moreover, by the third isomorphism theorem,

$$G_i/G_{i+1} \cong \overline{G_i}/\overline{G_{i+1}}$$
.

It follows that

$$G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq G_r = N = N_0 \supseteq N_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq N_m = \{1\}.$$

with  $G_{i+1} \leq G, N_{i+1} \leq N_i$ , and  $G_i/G_{i+1}, N_i/N_{i+1}$  are all abelian. Therefore G is solvable.

**Definition** (Simple): A group G is **simple** if  $G \neq \{1\}$  and its only normal subgroups are  $\{1\}$  and G.

Example: One can show  $A_5$  is simple, so its only tower is  $A_5 \supseteq \{1\}$ . As  $A_5/\{1\} = A_5$  is not abelian,  $A_5$  is not solvable, so by Theorem 6.3  $S_5$  cannot be solvable  $(A_5 \le S_5)$ . Moreover, since all  $S_n$  for  $n \ge 5$  contains a subgroup isomorphic to  $S_5$ , Theorem 6.3 gives that  $S_n$  is not solvable.

Corollary 6.5: Let G be a finite solvable group. Then there is a tower

$$G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq \dots \supseteq G_m = \{1\}$$

with  $G_{i+1} \leq G_i$  and  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  a *cyclic* group.

 $<sup>{}^{1}\</sup>mathrm{This}\ \mathrm{map}\ \mathrm{is}\ \mathrm{a}\ \mathrm{bijection:}\ \mathrm{see}\ \underline{\mathrm{https:}//\mathrm{en.wikipedia.org/wiki}/\mathrm{Correspondence}\ \underline{\mathrm{theorem}}\ }$ 

*Proof*: We know in such a tower each  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  is abelian, so by the classification of finite abelian groups for each  $A_i := G_i/G_{i+1}$ ,

$$A_i \cong C_{k_1} \times \ldots \times C_{k_r}$$

 $\bigcirc$ 

where  $C_k$  is a cyclic group of order k, so each  $A_i$  is cyclic and the result follows.

Remark: In the above proof, given a finite cyclic group C by the Chinese remainder theorem

$$C \cong \mathbb{Z}/\langle p_1^{\alpha_1} \rangle \times ... \times \mathbb{Z}/\langle p_r^{\alpha_r} \rangle$$

where the  $p_i$  are distinct primes. Also, for a cyclic group whose order is a prime power, say  $\mathbb{Z}/\langle p^{\alpha} \rangle$ , we have a tower of subgroups

$$\mathbb{Z}/\langle p^{\alpha}\rangle \supseteq \mathbb{Z}/\langle p^{\alpha-1}\rangle \supseteq \dots \supseteq \mathbb{Z}/\langle p\rangle \supseteq \{1\}$$

so we can further require the quotient  $G_i/G_{i+1}$  in Corollary 6.5 to be a cyclic group of prime order.

# 7 Appendix A: Solutions to Exercises

2.1:

- (a) Say a = ua' and b = vb', u, v units. Then ab = uva'b' by commutativity of the ring, so  $ab \sim a'b'$ .
- (b) Suppose  $a \mid b$ . Then b = ca for some  $c \in R$ , so vb' = b = ca = cua', giving  $v^{-1}cua' = b'$ , so  $a' \mid b'$ . The converse is identical.

2.2: Let  $x = a + b\sqrt{d}$  and  $y = u + v\sqrt{d}$ .

$$\begin{split} N(x)N(y) &= \big(a^2 - db^2\big)\big(u^2 - dv^2\big) \\ &= a^2u^2 - da^2v^2 - db^2u^2 + d^2b^2v^2 \\ N(xy) &= N\Big(au + dbv + (av + bu)\sqrt{d}\Big) \\ &= (au + dbv)^2 - d(av + bu)^2 \\ &= a^2u^2 + 2abuvd + d^2b^2v^2 - d(a^2v^2 + 2abuv + b^2u^2) \\ &= a^2u^2 - da^2v^2 - db^2u^2 + d^2b^2v^2 = N(x)N(y). \end{split}$$

2.3: Take  $R := \mathbb{Q} + x\mathbb{R}[x]$ . Then x is irreducible in R and  $x \mid 2x^2$  where  $2x^2 = \left(\sqrt{2}x\right)^2$  but  $x \nmid \sqrt{2}x$ . If this were true we'd have  $qx = \sqrt{2}x$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , but  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .

2.4: Let  $d \coloneqq p_1^{\min\{\alpha_1,\beta_1\}} \cdots p_k^{\min\{\alpha_k,\beta_k\}}$ , where it is clear  $d \mid a,b.$  If  $c \mid a,b$  write

$$c \sim p_1^{\gamma_1} {\cdots} p_k^{\gamma_k}.$$

Notice this product cannot contain any primes that are not  $p_1, ..., p_k$  as otherwise we'd have some  $q \mid c$  but  $q \nmid a, b$ . Suppose wlog  $p_1$  with  $\gamma_1 > \min\{\alpha_1, \beta_1\}$ . Then wlog say  $\alpha_1$  is the minimum, so as cm = a for some  $m \in R$ ,

$$\begin{split} p_1^{\gamma_1} \cdots p_k^{\gamma_k} m &= p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k} \\ \Longrightarrow p_1^{\gamma_1 - \alpha_1} \cdots p_k^{\gamma_k} m &= p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k} \quad (\star) \end{split}$$

since  $p_1^{\alpha_1} \neq 0$  and R is an integral domain. Then  $p_1$  divides the LHS of  $(\star)$  but not the RHS as the  $p_i$  are pairwise non-associated, a contradiction. Thus each  $\gamma_i \leq \min\{\alpha_i,\beta_i\}$ , so  $c \mid d$ .

3.1: Suppose  $\sqrt{3} = x + y\sqrt{2}$  where  $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Notice  $y \neq 0$  as otherwise  $x = \sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $x \neq 0$  as otherwise  $y = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , so

$$3 = x^2 + 2xy\sqrt{2} + 2y^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3 - x^2 - 2y^2}{2xy} = \sqrt{2}$$

where the above LHS is rational but the RHS is not, a contradiction.

3.2: