

Solutions to David A.Cox "Galois Theory"

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3 Chapter 3

3.1 THE EXISTENCE OF ROOTS

Ex. 3.1.1 *This exercise is concerned with the proof of Proposition 3.1.1. Suppose that $f, g, h \in F[x]$ are polynomials such that f is nonzero and $f = gh$. Also let $I = \langle g \rangle$.*

(a) *Prove that g constant if and only if $I = F[x]$.*

(b) *Prove that h constant if and only if $I = \langle f \rangle$.*

Proof. Let $f, g, h \in F[x], f \neq 0, f = gh, I = \langle g \rangle$.

- (a) • Suppose that $g = \lambda \in F$ is a constant. As $f \neq 0$ and $f = gh$, then $g \neq 0$, so $\lambda \neq 0$.

Let $p \in F[x]$ any polynomial. Then $p = \lambda(\frac{1}{\lambda}p) = (\frac{1}{\lambda}p)g \in \langle g \rangle$, thus $F[x] \subset \langle g \rangle$.
Moreover $\langle g \rangle \subset F[x]$, so

$$F[x] = \langle g \rangle = I.$$

- Conversely, if $F[x] = I = \langle g \rangle$, then $1 \in \langle g \rangle$, so $1 = gu, u \in F[x]$, hence $0 = \deg(g) + \deg(u)$, therefore $\deg(g) = 0$, so $g \in F$ is a nonzero constant.

$$g \in F^* \iff \langle g \rangle = F[x].$$

- (b) • If $h = \mu \in F$ is a constant, then $\mu \neq 0$ (since $f \neq 0$), and $f = \mu g, \mu \in F^*$.

If $p \in \langle f \rangle$, then $p = uf, u \in F[x]$, thus $p = \mu ug \in \langle g \rangle$, so $\langle f \rangle \subset \langle g \rangle$.

If $p \in \langle g \rangle$, then $p = qg, q \in F[x]$, thus $p = \mu^{-1}qf \in \langle f \rangle$, so $\langle g \rangle \subset \langle f \rangle$.

$$\langle f \rangle = \langle g \rangle = I.$$

- Conversely, if $\langle f \rangle = \langle g \rangle$, then $g \in \langle f \rangle$, $g = vf, v \in k[x]$, thus $g = vgh$. As $f = gh \neq 0, g \neq 0$, thus $1 = vh$, therefore $h \in F^*$ is a constant.

$$h \in F^* \iff I = \langle f \rangle.$$

□

Ex. 3.1.2 Let F and L be fields, and let $\varphi : F \rightarrow L$ be a ring homomorphism. Prove that φ is one-to-one and that we get an isomorphism $\varphi : F \simeq \varphi(F)$.

Proof. Let $x \in F$. If $x \neq 0$, then $x.x^{-1} = 1$, thus $\varphi(x)\varphi(x^{-1}) = 1$, so $\varphi(x) \neq 0$. For all $x \in F$, $x \neq 0 \Rightarrow \varphi(x) \neq 0$, therefore $\varphi(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$, so $\ker(\varphi) = \{0\}$ and φ is injective.

Consequently, the corestriction $F \rightarrow \varphi(F), x \mapsto \varphi(x)$ is a bijection, so it is a ring isomorphism $\varphi : F \simeq \varphi(F)$. \square

Ex. 3.1.3 Let $I \subset F[x]$ be an ideal, and define $\varphi : F \rightarrow F[x]/I$ by $\varphi(a) = a + I$. Prove carefully that φ is a ring homomorphism.

Proof. Let $a, b \in A = F[x]$. Suppose that $a + I = a' + I$ et $b + I = b' + I$.

Then $a' = a + u, u \in I, b' = b + v, v \in I$, so $a' + b' = a + b + u + v$, where $u + v \in I$, thus $a + b + I = a' + b' + I$.

$a'b' = ab + bu + av + uv$, where $bu + av + uv \in I$, so $ab + I = a'b' + I$.

The equivalence relation \sim defined on A as $a \sim a' \iff a + I = a' + I (\iff a' - a \in I)$ is so compatible with addition and multiplication in A , and the class of an element $a \in A$ is $a + I$. We can so define sum and product of two classes by

$$(a + I) + (b + I) = a + b + I, \quad (1)$$

$$(a + I)(b + I) = ab + I. \quad (2)$$

If $\varphi : A \rightarrow A/I$ is defined by $\varphi(a) = a + I$, then (1) and (2) are written

$$\varphi(a) + \varphi(b) = \varphi(a + b), \varphi(a)\varphi(b) = \varphi(ab)$$

Moreover $\varphi(1) = 1 + I$ is the multiplicative identity of A/I .

$\varphi : A \rightarrow A/I$ is a ring homomorphism. \square

Ex. 3.1.4 In your abstract algebra text, review the definition of the field of fractions of an integral domain and verify that (3.3) is the correct definition of a/b for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$.

Proof. The relation \sim on $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^*$ defined by

$$(a, b) \sim (c, d) \iff ad = bc$$

is an equivalence relation. The class of (a, b) , written $\frac{a}{b}$ is so the set

$$\frac{a}{b} = \{(c, d) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^* \mid ad = bc\}.$$

\square

Ex. 3.1.5 Let $f \in F[x]$ be irreducible, and let $g + \langle f \rangle$ be a nonzero coset in the quotient ring $L = F[x]/\langle f \rangle$.

(a) Show that f and g are relatively prime and conclude that $Af + Bg = 1$, where A, B are polynomials in $F[x]$.

(b) Show that $B + \langle f \rangle$ is the multiplicative inverse of $g + \langle f \rangle$ in L .

Proof. Let $f \in F[x]$ be irreducible, and let $L = F[x]/\langle f \rangle$ the quotient ring.

- (a) Let $\bar{g} \in L, \bar{g} \neq \bar{0}$, that is to say $g + \langle f \rangle \neq 0 + \langle f \rangle$, which is equivalent to $g \notin \langle f \rangle$, or $f \nmid g$ (in $F[x]$).

Let h a common divisor of f et g . Since f is irreducible, either u is a nonzero constant, or $u = kf, k \in F^*$ is associate to f . But in this last case, $f = k^{-1}u$ divides u , which divides g , so $f \mid g$, in contradiction with the hypothesis.

So the only common divisors of f, g are the nonzero constants, thus $f \wedge g = 1$.

By Bézout theorem, there exist polynomials $A, B \in k[x]$ such that

$$1 = Af + Bg.$$

- (b) As $\bar{f} = f + \langle f \rangle = \bar{0}, \bar{1} = \bar{A}\bar{f} + \bar{B}\bar{g} = \bar{B}\bar{g}$, which we can write

$$1 + \langle f \rangle = (B + \langle f \rangle)(g + \langle f \rangle).$$

So $B + \langle f \rangle$ is the inverse of $g + \langle f \rangle$ in $L = F[x]/\langle f \rangle$.

□

Ex. 3.1.6 Apply the method of Exercise 5 to find the multiplicative inverse of the coset $1 + x + \langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle$ in the field $\mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle x^2 + x + 1 \rangle$.

Proof. $f = x^2 + x + 1$ has no root in \mathbb{Q} is has degree 2, therefore f is irreducible on \mathbb{Q} , and consequently $\mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle f \rangle$ is a field.

Moreover $-x(x + 1) + (x^2 + x + 1) = 1$ is a Bézout's relation between $x + 1$ and $x^2 + x + 1$. This gives the following equality in $\mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle f \rangle$:

$$(-x + \langle f \rangle)(x + 1 + \langle f \rangle) + (x^2 + x + 1) + \langle f \rangle = 1 + \langle f \rangle,$$

so

$$(-x + \langle f \rangle)(x + 1 + \langle f \rangle) = 1 + \langle f \rangle.$$

$-x + \langle f \rangle$ is the inverse of $x + 1 + \langle f \rangle$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle f \rangle$.

□

3.2 THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ALGEBRA

Ex. 3.2.1 For $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, define \bar{f} as in (3.5).

- (a) Show carefully that $\overline{fg} = \bar{f}\bar{g}$ for $f, g \in \mathbb{C}[x]$.
(b) Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Show that $\bar{f}(\alpha) = 0$ implies that $f(\bar{\alpha}) = 0$.

Proof. (a) Let $f = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i, g = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j x^j \in \mathbb{C}[x]$.

By definition of the product of polynomials,

$$fg = \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} c_k x^k, \text{ with } c_k = \sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i b_{k-i}$$

Then, using the fact that conjugation is a field automorphism in \mathbb{C} ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{fg} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \overline{c_k} x^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \overline{\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j} x^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \sum_{i+j=k} \overline{a_i} \overline{b_j} x^k \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^n \overline{a_i} x^i \sum_{j=0}^n \overline{b_j} x^j \\
&= \overline{f} \overline{g}.
\end{aligned}$$

(b) If $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\overline{f}(\alpha) = 0 &\Rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^n \overline{a_i} \alpha^i = 0 \\
&\Rightarrow \overline{\sum_{i=0}^n a_i \alpha^i} = \overline{0} = 0 \\
&\Rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^n a_i \overline{\alpha}^i = 0 \\
&\Rightarrow f(\overline{\alpha}) = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Ex. 3.2.2 In Section A.2, we use polar coordinates to construct square (and higher) roots of complex numbers. In this exercise, you will give an elementary argument that every complex number has a square root. The only fact you will use (besides standard algebra) is that every positive real number has a real square root.

(a) First explain why every real number has a square root in \mathbb{C} .

(b) Now fix $a+bi \in \mathbb{C}$ with $b \neq 0$. For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, show that the equation $(x+iy)^2 = a+bi$ is equivalent to the equations

$$x^2 - y^2 = a, \quad 2xy = b.$$

(c) Show that the equation of part (b) are equivalent to

$$x^2 = \frac{a \pm \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}{2}, \quad y = \frac{b}{2x}.$$

Also show that $x \neq 0$ and that $a \pm \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ is positive when we choose the $+$ sign in the formula for x^2 .

(d) Conclude that $a+bi$ has a square root in \mathbb{C} .

Proof. (a) We know that the equation $x^2 = a$ has a real solution if $a \geq 0$ (see Ex. 3.2.3). Therefore, if $a \in \mathbb{R}_*$, there exists $b \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $b^2 = -a = |a|$. Thus $(ib)^2 = a$.

Conclusion: Every $a \in \mathbb{R}$ has a square root in \mathbb{C} .

(b,c,d) Let $z = a + ib$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and $Z = x + iy$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ two complex numbers.

$$\begin{aligned} z^2 = Z &\iff (a + ib)^2 = x + iy \\ &\iff (a + ib)^2 = x + iy \text{ and } |a + ib|^2 = |x + iy| \\ &\iff a^2 - b^2 + 2abi = x + iy \text{ and } a^2 + b^2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ &\iff a^2 - b^2 = x, a^2 + b^2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, 2ab = y. \end{aligned}$$

The system of equations $\begin{cases} a^2 - b^2 = x, \\ a^2 + b^2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \end{cases}$ is equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} a^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right), \\ b^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right). \end{cases}$$

Therefore

$$z^2 = Z \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right), \\ b^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right), \\ \operatorname{sgn}(ab) = \operatorname{sgn}(y). \end{cases}$$

The converse is true, since these last equations imply

$$4a^2b^2 = \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right) \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right) = x^2 + y^2 - x^2 = y^2,$$

and since $\operatorname{sgn}(ab) = \operatorname{sgn}(y)$, we conclude $2ab = y$. So we have proved the equivalence

$$z^2 = Z \iff \begin{cases} a^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right), \\ b^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right), \\ \operatorname{sgn}(ab) = \operatorname{sgn}(y). \end{cases}$$

As $x^2 + y^2 \geq x^2$, $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \geq |x|$, and $|x| \geq x, |x| \geq -x$, so

$$\begin{aligned} z^2 = Z &\iff \begin{cases} a = \varepsilon \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right)} \\ b = \varepsilon \operatorname{sgn}(y) \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right)}, \end{cases} \quad \varepsilon \in \{-1, 1\} \\ &\iff z \in \{z_0, -z_0\}, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right)} + i \operatorname{sgn}(y) \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right)}.$$

Conclusion: Every $z \in \mathbb{C}$ has a square root in \mathbb{C} .

□

Ex. 3.2.3 Use the IVT to prove that every positive real number a has a real square root.

Proof. Suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}^+$.

Let $u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $x \mapsto u(x) = x^2 - a$.

Then u is continuous, u is strictly increasing, and

$u(0) = -a \leq 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} u(x) = +\infty$ (so there exists $A \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $u(A) > 0$).

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists a unique $b \in \mathbb{R}^+$ such that $b^2 = a$, so a has a real square root. \square

Ex. 3.2.4 A field F is an ordered field if there is a subset $P \subset F$ such that:

(a) P is closed under addition and multiplication.

(b) For any $a \in F$, exactly one of the following is true: $a \in P$, $a = 0$, or $-a \in P$.

One then defines $a > b$ to mean $a - b \in P$ (so that P becomes the set of positive elements). From this, one can prove all the typical properties of $>$. Now let F be an ordered field. Prove that -1 is not a square in F .

Proof. Let F an ordered field.

Since P is closed under multiplication by (a), if $a \in P$, then $a^2 \in P$.

If $-a \in P$, $a^2 = (-a)(-a) \in P$. By (b), every $a \in F$ verifies $a \in P$, or $a = 0$, or $-a \in P$, so we can conclude that

$$\forall a, a \in F^* \Rightarrow a^2 \in P. \quad (3)$$

So P contains all squares in F , 0 excluded. By definition of fields, we know that $1 \neq 0$, so $1 = 1^2 \in P$.

By (b), the three cases $a \in P$, $a = 0$, $-a \in P$ are mutually exclusive, thus $-1 \notin P$. Therefore -1 is not a square in F , otherwise $-1 = a^2 \in P$ by (3).

Conclusion: -1 is not a square in the ordered field F . \square

Ex. 3.2.5 Let F be a real closed field. As in the text, this means that F is an ordered field (see Exercise 4) such that every positive element of F has a square root in F and every $f \in F[x]$ of odd degree has a root in F .

(a) Use Exercise 4 to show that $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible over F . Then define $F(i)$ to be the field $F[x]/\langle x^2 + 1 \rangle$. By the Cauchy construction described in Section 3.1, elements of $F(i)$ can be written $a + bi$ for $a, b \in F$.

(b) Show that every quadratic polynomial in $F(i)$ splits completely over $F(i)$.

(c) Prove that $F(i)$ is algebraically closed.

Proof. (a) Since -1 is not a square in F by Exercise 4, the polynomial $x^2 + 1$ has no root in F , and it has degree 2, thus it is irreducible over F .

Therefore $F(i) = F[x]/\langle x^2 + 1 \rangle$ is a field, where $i = x + \langle x^2 + 1 \rangle$, by Proposition 3.1.1.

The division of any polynomial f by $x^2 + 1$ gives

$$f = q(x^2 + 1) + bx + a,$$

so every $y \in F(i)$ is of the form $y = a + ib$.

(b) Let $ax^2 + bx + c$, $a, b, c \in F(i)$, $a \neq 0$, any quadratic polynomial.

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bx + c &= a \left(x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} \right) \\ &= a \left[\left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \frac{b^2}{4a^2} + \frac{c}{a} \right] \\ &= a \left[\left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \frac{\Delta}{4a^2} \right], \Delta = b^2 - 4ac \end{aligned}$$

By definition of a real closed field, every positive element of F has a square root in F . With the same proof as in Ex 3.2.2, we can prove that every $z \in F(i)$ has a square root. One square root of $z = x + iy$, $x, y \in F$, is given by

$$z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + x \right)} + i \operatorname{sgn}(y) \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} - x \right)}.$$

We will write $\sqrt{\Delta}$ one of the square roots of Δ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bx + c &= a \left[\left(x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{2a} \right)^2 \right] \\ &= a(x - x_1)(x - x_2), x_1 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2} \in F(i), x_2 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{\Delta}}{2} \in F(i) \end{aligned}$$

splits completely over $F(i)$.

(c) By definition of a real closed field, and by (b),

- every polynomial of odd degree in $F[x]$ has a root in F ,
- every element $a \in F(i)$ has a square root in $F(i)$,
- every quadratic polynomial $f \in F(i)[x]$ splits completely over $F(i)$.

The Proposition 3.2.2 and the Lemme 3.2.3 are so satisfied if we replace \mathbb{R} by F and \mathbb{C} by $F(i)$.

Theorem 3.2.4 for $F(i)$ follows, with the same proof: $F(i)$ is an algebraically closed field.

□

Ex. 3.2.6 Here is yet another way to state the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra.

- (a) Suppose that $f(\alpha) = 0$, where $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Prove that $f(\bar{\alpha}) = 0$.
- (b) Prove that the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra is equivalent to the assertion that every nonconstant polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is a product of linear and quadratic factors with real coefficients.

Proof. (a) Let $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, and suppose that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Then $\bar{f} = f$, and $\bar{f}(\alpha) = 0$. By Ex. 3.3.1(b), this implies $f(\bar{\alpha}) = 0$.

Conclusion : if $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$,

$$f(\alpha) = 0 \Rightarrow f(\bar{\alpha}) = 0.$$

(b) • Suppose that every nonconstant polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has a root in \mathbb{C} .

Name x_1, \dots, x_r the real roots of $f : f = a(x - x_1)^{k_1} \cdots (x - x_r)^{k_r} g$, where $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and $g \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is monic and has no real root. We show by induction on d that every polynomial $g \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ without real root, monic, of degree d , is product of monic quadratic real polynomials.

If $d = 0$, $g = 1$ is the empty product.

We suppose $d > 0$, and put the induction hypothesis that every polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ without real root, monic, of degree less than d , is product of monic quadratic real polynomials.

Let $g \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ a polynomial of degree d without real root. g has by hypothesis a complex root α . Then $g = (x - \alpha)g_1$, $g_1 \in \mathbb{C}[X]$.

By (a), $\bar{\alpha}$ is a root of g . $0 = g(\bar{\alpha}) = (\bar{\alpha} - \alpha)g_1(\alpha)$, and $\bar{\alpha} \neq \alpha$, thus $g_1(\bar{\alpha}) = 0$, $g_1 = (x - \bar{\alpha})h$, $h \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, therefore

$$g = (x - \alpha)(x - \bar{\alpha})h, \quad h \in \mathbb{C}[x].$$

$u = (x - \alpha)(x - \bar{\alpha}) = x^2 + sx + t$, where $s = \alpha + \bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$, $t = \alpha\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}$, thus $u \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, and also $h \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, since h is the quotient of the Euclidean division of g by u .

$g = (x^2 - sx + t)h$, where $h \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is monic, of degree less than d , without real root. By the induction hypothesis, h is product of monic real quadratic polynomials, thus it is the same for g , and the induction is done.

Consequently, f is product of linear or quadratic factors with real coefficients.

• Conversely, suppose that every polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is product of linear or quadratic factors with real coefficients.

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, with $\deg(f) \geq 1$. We will show that f has a complex root.

By hypothesis f has a linear or a quadratic factor.

If f has a linear factor $ax + b$, then $-b/a$ is a (real) root of f , and if f has a factor $ax^2 + bx + c$, $a \neq 0$, then Lemma 3.2.3 and Exercise 3.2.2 show that f has a complex root. In both cases, f has a complex root, so every non constant polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ has a complex root.

□

Ex. 3.2.7 Prove that a field F is algebraically closed if and only if every nonconstant polynomial in $F[x]$ has a root in F .

Proof. By definition, a field F is algebraically closed if every nonconstant polynomial is product of linear factors in $F[x]$.

• If F is algebraically closed, and if $f \in F[x]$ is not a constant, this product of linear factors is not empty, so f is divisible by a linear factor $ax + b$, $a, b \in F$. Hence f has a root $\alpha = -b/a$ in F .

• Suppose that every nonconstant polynomial has a root in F

We show by induction on d that every polynomial $f \in F[x]$, $d = \deg(f) > 0$ is product of linear factors in $F[x]$

If $d = 1$, $f = ax + b$, $a \neq 0$, is product of one linear factor.

Let $f \in F[x]$, $d = \deg(f) > 1$. Then f has by hypothesis a root $\alpha \in F$, so $f = (x - \alpha)g$, where $\deg(g) < d$. By the induction hypothesis, g is a constant or is product of linear factors, so it is the same for f , and the induction is done.

Conclusion: If F is a field, the two following propositions are equivalent,

- (i) Every nonconstant polynomial in $F[x]$ is product of linear factors.
- (ii) Every nonconstant polynomial in $F[x]$ has a root in F

□