MATH 4108: Abstract Algebra II

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Lecture 1

Jan. 8 — Rings and Fields

1.1 Lots of Definitions

Recall the definitions of a ring and a field:

Definition 1.1 (Ring)**.** A *ring* $R = (R, +, \cdot)$ is a non-empty set R together with two binary operations $+$ and $\cdot$, called addition and multiplication respectively, which satisfy:

(R1) *Associative law for addition*: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

(R2) *Commutative law for addition*: $a + b = b + a$ for all $a, b \in R$.

(R3) *Existence of zero*: There exists $0 \in R$ such that $a + 0 = a$ for all $a \in R$.

(R4) *Existence of additive inverses*: For all $a \in R$, there exists $-a \in R$ such that $a + (-a) = 0$.[1]

(R5) *Associative law for multiplication*: $(ab)c = a(bc)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

(R6) *Distributive laws*: $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(a + b)c = ac + bc$ for all $a, b, c \in R$.

Definition 1.2 (Commutative ring)**.** In this class, we will mostly be interested in *commutative rings*, which satisfy the following additional property for multiplication:

(R7) *Commutative law for multiplication*: $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Definition 1.3 (Ring with unity)**.** A ring *with unity* satisfies the additional property that

(R8) *Existence of unity*: There exists $1 \neq 0 \in R$ such that and $a1 = 1a = a$ for $a \in R$.

Note that a ring need not be commutative to have a unity.

Definition 1.4 (Domain)**.** A commutative ring with unity is called a *(integral) domain* if it has the following cancellation property:

(R9) *Cancellation*: For all $a, b \in R$ and $c \neq 0$, $ca = cb$ implies $a = b$.

(R9') *No zero divisors*: For all $a, b \in R$, $ab = 0$ implies $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

The conditions (R9) and (R9') are equivalent.

Definition 1.5 (Field)**.** A commutative ring with unity is called a *field* if it has the following additional property for multiplicative inverses:

(R10) *Existence of multiplicative inverses*: For all $a \neq 0 \in R$, there exists $a^{-1} \in R$ such that $aa^{-1} = 1$.

[1]Note that we'll usually write $a - b$ in place of $a + (-b)$.

Example 1.5.1. Some examples of rings are $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, which also happens to be a field. The ring $\mathbb{Z}$ is a domain. The set $M_{2\times 2}(\mathbb{R})$ is a non-commutative ring with unity, and has zero divisors. The ring $\mathbb{Q}$ is a field.[2] The real polynomials in a single variable $\mathbb{R}[x]$ form a ring, which is a domain but not a field. The complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$ and the real numbers $\mathbb{R}$ both form a field. The even integers $2\mathbb{Z}$ form a commutative ring without unity. In general, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a commutative ring with unity, and is a field if and only if n is prime (and has zero divisors otherwise, if n is composite).

Remark. If $(R, +, \cdot)$ is a ring, then $(R, +)$ is an abelian group. If $(K, +, \cdot)$ is a field, then $(K^*, \cdot)$ is an abelian group, where $K^* = K \setminus \{0\}$.

Definition 1.6 (Group of units)**.** Let R be a commutative ring with unity. The *group of units* of R is

$$U = \{u \in R \mid \text{there exists } v \in R \text{ such that } uv = 1\}.$$

Exercise 1.1. Show that U is in fact a group under multiplication.

Definition 1.7 (Associate)**.** If $a, b \in R$ such that $a = ub$ for some $u \in U$, then a and b are called *associates*, denoted by $a \sim b$.

Exercise 1.2. Show that $\sim$ is in fact an equivalence relation.

Example 1.7.1. The group of units of $\mathbb{Z}$ is $\{1, -1\}$. The group of units of a field K is $K^* = K \setminus \{0\}$.

Exercise 1.3. Let $R = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Check the following:

1. R is a commutative ring with unity.
2. The group of units of R is $\{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, |a^2 - 2b^2| = 1\}$.

Definition 1.8 (Divisor)**.** Let D be an integral domain, $a \in D \setminus \{0\}$, $b \in D$. Then a divides b, or a is a *divisor* or *factor* of b, denoted by $a|b$, if there exists $z \in D$ such that $az = b$. We write $a\nmid b$ if a does not divide b. We say that a is a *proper divisor* or that a *properly divides* b if z is not a unit.

Remark. Equivalent, a is a proper divisor of b if and only if $a|b$ and $b\nmid a$.

Definition 1.9 (Subring)**.** A *subring* U of a ring R is a non-empty subset of R with the property that for all $a, b \in R$, $a, b \in U$ implies $a + b \in U$ and $ab \in U$, and $a \in U$ implies $-a \in U$.

Remark. Equivalently, U is a subring of R if and only if $a, b \in U$ implies $a - b \in U$ and $ab \in U$.

Remark. We automatically have $0 \in U$ since we can pick any $a \in U$, and then $0 = a - a \in U$.

Definition 1.10 (Subfield)**.** A *subfield* of a field K is a subset E containing at least two elements such that $a, b \in E$ implies $a - b \in E$ and $a \in E, b \in E \setminus \{0\}$ implies $ab^{-1} \in E$. If E is a subfield and $E \neq K$, then we say E is a *proper* subfield.

Remark. As before, we can replace the last condition with the equivalent statement that $a, b \in E$ implies $ab \in E$ and $a \in E \setminus \{0\}$ implies $a^{-1} \in E$.

Definition 1.11 (Ideal)**.** An *ideal* of R is a non-empty subset I of R with the properties that $a, b \in I$ implies $a - b \in I$ and $a \in I, r \in R$ implies $ra \in I$.

Remark. All ideals are subrings, but the converse is not true in general.

Example 1.11.1. The integers $\mathbb{Z}$ form a subring of $\mathbb{R}$ but not an ideal.

[2] In fact, $\mathbb{Q}$ is somehow the smallest field containing $\mathbb{Z}$.

Remark. We trivially have that $\{0\}$ and R are both ideals of R. An ideal I is called *proper* if $\{0\} \subsetneq I \subsetneq R$.

Theorem 1.1. *Let $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ be a finite subset of a commutative ring R. Then the set*

$$Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_n = \{x_1 a_1 + \cdots + x_n a_n \mid x_i \in R\}$$

is the smallest ideal of R containing A.

Proof. See Howie. Check this is indeed an ideal and is contained in any other ideal containing A. □

Definition 1.12 (Ideals generated by elements of a ring)**.** The set $Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_n$ is the *ideal generated by* $a_1, \dots, a_n$, denoted by $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$. If the ideal is generated by a single element $a \in R$, then we say that $Ra = \langle a \rangle$ is a *principal ideal*.

Example 1.12.1. In $\mathbb{Z}$, the ideal $\langle 2 \rangle = 2\mathbb{Z}$ are the even numbers. We have $\langle 2, 3 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}$, but $\langle 6, 8 \rangle = \langle 2 \rangle$.

Theorem 1.2. *Let D be an integral domain with group of units U and let $a, b \in D \setminus \{0\}$. Then*

1. *$\langle a \rangle \subseteq \langle b \rangle$ if and only if $b | a$,*
2. *$\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ if and only if $a \sim b$,*
3. *$\langle a \rangle = D$ if and only if $a \in U$.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Definition 1.13 (Homomorphism of rings)**.** A *homomorphism* from a ring R to a ring S is a mapping $\varphi : R \to S$ such that $\varphi(a +_R b) = \varphi(a) +_S \varphi(b)$ and $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$ for all $a, b \in R$.

Example 1.13.1. The zero mapping $\varphi(a) = 0$ is always a homomorphism. The inclusion map $\iota : 2\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ or $\iota : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$ is a homomorphism.

Theorem 1.3. *Let R, S be rings and $\varphi : R \to S$ a homomorphism. Then*

1. *$\varphi(0_R) = 0_S$,*
2. *$\varphi(-r) = -\varphi(r)$ for all $r \in R$,*
3. *the image $\varphi(R)$ is a subring of S.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Definition 1.14 (Monomorphism)**.** Let $\varphi : R \to S$ be a homomorphism. If φ is injective, we say that φ is a *monomorphism* or an *embedding*.

Example 1.14.1. The inclusion map $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $\varphi(n) = n$ is an embedding.

Lecture 2

Jan. 10 — Field of Fractions, Polynomials

2.1 Isomorphisms

Definition 2.1 (Isomorphism)**.** If a homomorphism $\varphi : R \to S$ is both one-to-one and onto, then φ is an *isomorphism* and we say R and S are *isomorphic*, denoted $R \cong S$.

Definition 2.2 (Automorphism)**.** An isomorphism $\varphi : R \to R$ is called an *automorphism*.

Example 2.2.1. For any ring R, the identity map $\varphi : R \to R$ with $\varphi = \mathrm{id}$ is an automorphism.

Exercise 2.1. The complex conjugation $\varphi : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ with $\varphi(z) = \overline{z}$ is an automorphism.

Definition 2.3 (Kernel)**.** Let $\varphi : R \to S$ be a homomorphism. The *kernel* of φ is

$$\ker \varphi = \phi^{-1}(0_S) = \{a \in R : \varphi(a) = 0_S\}.$$

Exercise 2.2. For any homomorphism φ, $\ker \varphi$ is an ideal.

Definition 2.4 (Residue class)**.** Let I be an ideal of a ring R and $a \in R$. The set

$$a + I = \{a + x \mid x \in I\}$$

is the *residue class* of a modulo I.

Exercise 2.3. The set R/I of residue classes modulo I forms a ring with respect to the operations

$$(a + I) + (b + I) = (a + b) + I \quad \text{and} \quad (a + I)(b + I) = ab + I.$$

Exercise 2.4. The map $\theta_I : R \to R/I$ with $\theta_I(a) = a + I$ is a surjective homomorphism onto R/I with kernel I. This map θ_I is called the *natural homomorphism* from R to R/I.

Example 2.4.1. Consider $\mathbb{Z}$ and $I = \langle n \rangle = n\mathbb{Z}$. Then $\theta_I : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ with $\theta_I(a) = a + \langle n \rangle$ is the natural homomorphism. There are n residue classes, which are

$$\langle n \rangle, \quad 1 + \langle n \rangle, \quad \ldots, \quad (n-1) + \langle n \rangle.$$

Theorem 2.1. *Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. Then $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a field if and only if n is prime.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Remark. If $n = 0$, then $\mathbb{Z}/0\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 2.2. *Let $\varphi : R \to S$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel K. Then there is an isomorphism $\alpha : R/K \to S$ such that the following diagram commutes (i.e. $\varphi = \alpha \circ \theta_K$):*

$$\begin{tikzcd} R \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[d, "\theta_K"'] & S \\ R/K \arrow[ur, "\alpha"] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Proof. See Howie. But the general idea is to define $\alpha : R/K \to S$ by $\alpha(a + K) = \varphi(a)$. Then need to check that α is well-defined and an isomorphism. □

2.2 Field of Fractions

The motivating question is: How do we get from $\mathbb{Z}$ to $\mathbb{Q}$? Recall that

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{a/b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\},$$

where $a/c = b/d$ if $ad = bc$. We add and multiply fractions by

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}.$$

How do we do this more generally (construct a field out of an arbitrary integral domain)?

Definition 2.5 (Field of fractions of a domain)**.** Let D be an integral domain and

$$P = D \times (D \setminus \{0\}) = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in D, b \neq 0.\}$$

Define an equivalence relation $\equiv$ on P by $(a, b) \equiv (a', b')$ if $ab' = a'b$. Then the *field of fractions* of D is

$$Q(D) = P/\equiv.$$

We denote the equivalence class $[a, b]$ by a/b, i.e. $a/b = c/d$ if $ad = bc$. We define addition and multiplication on $Q(D)$ by

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}.$$

Exercise 2.5. Do the following:

1. Check that $\equiv$ is an equivalence relation.
2. Check that these operations are well-defined.
3. Check that $Q(D)$ is a commutative ring with unity.
    - The zero element is $0/b$ for $b \neq 0$.
    - The unity element is a/a for $a \neq 0$.
    - The negative of a/b is $(-a)/b$ or equivalently $a/(-b)$.
    - The multiplicative inverse of a/b is b/a for $a, b \neq 0$.
4. Complete the previous exercise and check that $Q(D)$ is a field.

Exercise 2.6. The map $\varphi : D \to Q(D)$ defined by $\varphi(a) = a/1$ is a monomorphism. In particular, the field of fractions $Q(D)$ contains D as a subring and $Q(D)$ is the smallest field containing D, in the sense that if K is a field with the property that there exists a monomorphism $\theta : D \to K$, then there exists a monomorphism $\psi : Q(D) \to K$ such that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{tikzcd} D \arrow[r, "\theta"] \arrow[d, "\varphi"'] & K \\ Q(D) \arrow[ur, "\psi"] & \end{tikzcd}$$

2.3 The Characteristic of a Field

Note that for $a \in R$, we might write $a + a$ as $2a$ and $a + a + \cdots + a$ (n times) as na. Furthermore, $0a = 0_R$ and $(-n)a = n(-a)$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. Thus na has meaning for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.[1]

Exercise 2.7. For $a, b \in R$ and $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $(ma)(nb) = (mn)(ab)$.

Definition 2.6 (Characteristic of a ring)**.** For an arbitrary ring R, there are two possibilities:

1. $m1_R$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ are all distinct. In this case, we say that R has *characteristic* 0.
2. There exists $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m1_R = (m + n)1_R$. In this case, we say that R has *characteristic* n, where n is the least positive n for which this property holds.

We denote the characteristic of R by $\operatorname{char} R$. If $\operatorname{char} R = n$, then $na = 0_R$ for all $a \in R$ since

$$na = (n1_R)a = 0a = 0.$$

Example 2.6.1. We have $\operatorname{char} \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = n$.

Theorem 2.3. *The characteristic of a field is either* 0 *or a prime.*

Proof. Let K be a field and suppose $\operatorname{char} K = n \neq 0$ and n is not prime. Then we can write $n = rs$ where $1 < r, s < n$. The minimal property of n implies that $r1_K \neq 0$ and $s1_K \neq 0$. But then

$$r1_K \cdot s1_K = rs1_K = n1_K = 0,$$

which is impossible since K is a field and thus has no zero divisors. □

Remark. Note the following:

1. If K is a field with $\operatorname{char} K = 0$, then K has a subring isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$, i.e. elements of the form $n1_K$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, and K has a subfield isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}$, i.e.
$$P(K) = \{m1_K/n1_K \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\}.$$
This is the *prime subfield* of K, and any subfield of K must contain $P(K)$.
2. If K is a field with $\operatorname{char} K = p$, then the prime subfield of K is
$$P(K) = \{1_K, 2 \cdot 1_K, \ldots, (p-1) \cdot 1_K\},$$
which is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

[1] This is saying that any abelian group is naturally a *module* over the integers $\mathbb{Z}$.

Remark. In other words, every field of characteristic 0 is an *extension* of $\mathbb{Q}$ (contains $\mathbb{Q}$ as a subfield), and every field of characteristic p is an *extension* of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ (contains $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ as a subfield).

Remark. If $\operatorname{char} K = 0$, then writing $a/n1_K$ as a/n is fine. But if $\operatorname{char} K = p$, then a/n does not make sense when $p|n$ (since $p \cdot 1_K = 0$).

Theorem 2.4. *If K is a field with $\operatorname{char} K = p$, then for all $x, y \in K$, $(x+y)^p = x^p + y^p$.*

Proof. See Howie. Uses the binomial theorem. □

2.4 Polynomials

Let R be a ring, then we have the polynomial ring over R

$$R[X] = \{a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n \mid a_i \in R, n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

If $f \in R[X]$, then it has *degree* n if the last nonzero element in the sequence $\{a_0, a_1, \dots\}$ is a_n, denoted $\partial f = n$. By convention, the zero polynomial has degree $-\infty$. The coefficient a_n is called the *leading coefficient*, and if $a_n = 1$, then f is *monic*. Addition and multiplication work as expected:

$$(a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_m X^m) + (b_0 + b_1 X + \cdots + b_n X^n) = (a_0 + b_0) + (a_1 + b_1)X + \dots$$

and

$$(a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_m X^m)(b_0 + b_1 X + \cdots + b_n X^n) = c_0 + c_1 X + \dots$$

where

$$c_k = \sum_{i+j=k}^{k} a_i b_j.$$

The ground ring R sits inside of the polynomial ring $R[X]$. Take the monomorphism $\theta : R \to R[X]$ by $\theta(a) = a$, i.e. an element a maps to the constant polynomial a.

Theorem 2.5. *Let D be an integral domain. Then*

1. *$D[X]$ is an integral domain.*
2. *If $p, q \in D[X]$, then $\partial(p+q) \le \max(\partial p, \partial q)$.*
3. *If $p, q \in D[X]$, then $\partial(pq) = \partial p + \partial q$.*
4. *The group of units of $D[X]$ coincides with the group of units of D.*

Proof. Statements (2) and (3) are left as exercises.

(1) We need to show that $D[X]$ has no zero divisors. For this, suppose that p, q are nonzero polynomials with leading coefficients a_m and b_n respectively. Then the leading coefficient of pq is $a_m b_n$, which is nonzero since D is an integral domain and thus has no zero divisors. So pq is nonzero.

(4) Let $p, q \in D[X]$ and suppose $pq = 1$. Since $\partial(pq) = \partial(1) = 0$, we must have $\partial p = \partial q = 0$. Thus $p, q \in D$ and $pq = 1$ if and only if p and q are in the group of units of D. □

Since $D[X]$ is a domain, we can consider polynomials in the variable Y with coefficients in $D[X]$:

$$D[X, Y] = (D[X])[Y].$$

We can repeat this to get polynomials in n variables: $D[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$, which is an integral domain.

Lecture 3

Jan. 17 — Irreducible Polynomials

3.1 Principal Ideal Domains and Irreducibile Polynomials

Definition 3.1. The field of fractions of $D[X]$ consists of *rational forms*

$$\frac{a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_mX^m}{b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_nX^n}$$

where $b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_nX^n \neq 0$, denoted by $D(X)$.

Definition 3.2. A domain D is a *principal ideal domain* (PID) if all of its ideals are principal.[1]

Example 3.2.1. The integers $\mathbb{Z}$ is a PID, since every ideal is of the form $\langle n \rangle$.

Definition 3.3. A non-zero, non-unit element p in a domain D is *irreducible* if it has no proper factors.

Definition 3.4. A domain D is a *unique factorization domain* (UFD) if every non-unit $a \neq 0$ in D has an essentially unique[2] factorization into irreducible elements.

Example 3.4.1. Again $\mathbb{Z}$ is a UFD, e.g. $12 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = (-2) \cdot 2 \cdot (-3)$.

Theorem 3.1. *Every PID is a UFD.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Theorem 3.2. *If K is a field, then $K[X]$ is a PID.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Theorem 3.3. *Let p be an element in a PID D. Then the following are equivalent:*

1. *p is irreducible.*
2. *$\langle p \rangle$ is maximal.*
3. *$D/\langle p \rangle$ is a field.*

In particular if $f \in K[X]$, then $K[X]/\langle f \rangle$ is a field if and only if f is irreducible.

Proof. See Howie. □

[1] Recall that a principal ideal is one generated by a single element.
[2] As in, unique up to use of associates or adding in units.

Definition 3.5. Let D be a domain and $\alpha \in D$. Let $\sigma_\alpha : D[X] \to D$ defined by

$$\sigma_\alpha(a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n) = a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_n\alpha^n.$$

Note that we often write $\sigma_\alpha(f)$ as $f(\alpha)$. If $f(\alpha) = 0$, we say α is a *root* of f, or a *zero*.

Exercise 3.1. Check that σ_α is a homomorphism.

Theorem 3.4. *Let K be a field, $\beta \in K$ and f a non-zero polynomial in $K[X]$. Then β is a root of f if and only if $X - \beta | f$.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Example 3.5.1. We have $X^2 + 1$ in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ is irreducible, so $\mathbb{R}[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle$ is a field. In fact this field is isomorphic to the complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$.

Exercise 3.2. Do the following:

1. Show that $\varphi : \mathbb{R}[X] \to \mathbb{C}$ given by

$$\varphi(a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n) = a_0 + a_1 i + \cdots + a_n i^n$$

   is a surjective homomorphism.[3]

2. Show that $\ker\varphi = \langle X^2 + 1\rangle$.

So by the first isomorphism theorem we can conclude that $\mathbb{R}[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle = \mathbb{R}/\ker\varphi \cong \varphi(\mathbb{R}[X]) = \mathbb{C}$.

Theorem 3.5. *Let K be a field and $g \in K[X]$ an irreducible polynomial. Then $K[X]/\langle g\rangle$ is a field containing K up to isomorphism.*

Proof. Since g is irreducible, $K[X]/\langle g\rangle$ is a field. Now define $\varphi : K \to K[X]/\langle g\rangle$ by

$$\varphi(a) = a + \langle g\rangle.$$

(Left as an exercise to check that φ is a homomorphism.) We need to show that φ is injective. For this, take $a, b \in K$. If $a + \langle g\rangle = b + \langle g\rangle$, then $a - b \in \langle g\rangle$. But K is a field, so this happens precisely when $a = b$. Thus φ embeds K into $K[X]/\langle g\rangle$, as desired. □

3.2 Irreducible Polynomials over $\mathbb{C}$, $\mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{Q}$, and $\mathbb{Z}$

Our goal now is to study irreducible polynomials. Note that linear polynomials are irreducible, and recall that every polynomial in $\mathbb{C}$ factorizes, essentially uniquely, into linear factors. Furthermore, complex roots of real polynomials come in conjugate pairs, hence

$$g = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n \in \mathbb{R}[X]$$

factors as

$$g = a_n(X - \beta_1)\ldots(X - \beta_r)(X - \gamma_1)(X - \overline{\gamma}_1)\ldots(X - \gamma_3)(X - \overline{\gamma}_s)$$

[3]Note that there's some technicality about this φ not being a σ_α since we defined σ_α for α in the base domain, and i is kind of somewhere else.

in $\mathbb{C}[X]$, where $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_s \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ and $r + 2s = n$. Thus over $\mathbb{R}[X]$, g factors as

$$g = a_n(X - \beta_1) \dots (X - \beta_r)(X^2 - (\gamma_1 + \overline{\gamma}_1)X + \gamma_1\overline{\gamma}_1) \dots (X^2 - (\gamma_s + \overline{\gamma}_s)X + \gamma_s\overline{\gamma}_s)$$

in $\mathbb{R}[X]$, where the quadratic factors are irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[X]$.

Exercise 3.3. A quadratic $aX^2 + bX + c \in \mathbb{R}[X]$ is irreducible if and only if its discriminant $b^2 - 4ac < 0$.

Now we have pretty much characterized irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[X]$. But what about $\mathbb{Q}[X]$?

Theorem 3.6. *Let $g = a_0 + a_1X + a_2X^2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. Then*

1. *If g is irreducible over $\mathbb{R}$, then it is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.*
2. *If $g = a_2(X - \beta_1)(X - \beta)$ with $\beta_1, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, then g is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ if and only if β_1 and β_2 are irrational.*

Proof. (1) We show the contrapositive. If g factors as

$$g = a_2(X - q_1)(X - q_2) \in \mathbb{Q}[X],$$

then g also factors in $\mathbb{R}[X]$.

(2) If β_1 and β_2 are rational, then g factors in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ and is thus not irreducible. For the other direction, if β_1 and β_2 are irrational, then $g = a_2(X - \beta_1)(X - \beta_2)$ is the only factorization in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ since $\mathbb{R}[X]$ is a UFD, so there is no factorization in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ into linear factors. □

Example 3.5.2. Are the following polynomials irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[X]$? In $\mathbb{Q}[X]$?

1. $X^2 + X + 1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$ since $b^2 - 4ac = -3$.
2. $X^2 - X - 1$ has roots $(-1 \pm \sqrt{5})/2$, so it factors over $\mathbb{R}$ but is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.
3. $X^2 + X - 2$ factors as $(X + 2)(X - 1)$ over $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$.

Now that we have studied irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[X]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[X]$, can a polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ be irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$ but not $\mathbb{Q}$? The answer is no!

Theorem 3.7 (Gauss's lemma)**.** *Let f be a polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$. Then f is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.*

Proof. For sake of contradiction, suppose $f = gh$ with $g, h \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ and $\partial g, \partial h < \partial f$. Then there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ such that $nf = g'h'$ where $g', h' \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. Let n be the smallest positive integer with this property. Let

$$g' = a_0 + a_1X + \dots + a_kX^k$$
$$h' = b_0 + b_1X + \dots + b_lX^l.$$

If $n = 1$, then $g' = g$ and $h' = h$, a contradiction. Now $n \geq 1$, so let p be a prime factor of n.[4] Without loss of generality, assume p divides g', i.e. $g' = pg''$ where $g'' \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. Then

$$\frac{n}{p}f = g''h',$$

contradicting the minimality of n. Hence f cannot be factored over $\mathbb{Q}$. □

[4] Lemma: Either p divides all the coefficients of g' or p divides all the coefficients of h'. Proof left as an exercise.

Example 3.5.3. Show that $g = X^3 + 2X^2 + 4X - 6$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. If g factors over $\mathbb{Q}$, it factors over $\mathbb{Z}$ and at least one factor must be linear, i.e.

$$g = X^3 = 2X^2 + 4X - 6 = (X - a)(X^2 + bX + c)$$

where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. We must have $ac = 6$, so $a \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 6\}$ and $g(a) = 0$. We can check this:

a	1	−1	2	−2	3	−3	−6	6
$g(a)$	1	−9	1	−10	51	−27	306	−174

Hence g is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$ and thus also irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. □

We could do this trick since the degree was 3, forcing a linear factor. What about degrees higher than 3?

Theorem 3.8 (Eisenstein's criterion). *Let $f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. Suppose there exists a prime p such that*

1. $p \nmid a_n$,
2. $p | a_i$ *for* $i = 0, \ldots, n-1$,
3. $p^2 \nmid a_0$.

Then f is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. By Gauss's lemma, it suffices to show that f is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$. Suppose for sake of contradiction that $f = gh$ for

$$g = b_0 + b_1X + \cdots + b_rX^r \quad \text{and} \quad h = c_0 + c_1X + \cdots + c_sX^s,$$

$r, s < n$, and $r + s = n$. Note that $a_0 = b_0c_0$, so $p|a_0$ from (2) implies that $p|b_0$ or $p|c_0$. Since $p^2 \nmid a_0$, it cannot be both. Without loss of generality, assume $p|b_0$ and $p \nmid c_0$. Now suppose inductively that p divides $b_0, \ldots, b_{k-1}$ where $1 \leq k \leq r$. Then

$$a_k = b_0c_k + b_1c_{k-1} + \cdots + b_{k-1}c_1 + b_kc_0$$

and since p divides a_k, b_0c_k, b_1c_{k-1}, $\ldots$, $b_{k-1}c_1$, it follows that $p|b_kc_0$. Since $p \nmid c_0$ by assumption, we must have $p|b_k$. Thus $p|b_r$ and since $a_n = b_rc_s$, we have $p|a_n$, contradicting (1). Hence is f is irreducible. □

Example 3.5.4. The polynomial

$$X^5 + 2X^3 + \frac{8}{7}X^2 - \frac{4}{7}X + \frac{2}{7}$$

is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Multiply by 7 and take the integer polynomial $7X^5 + 14X^3 + 8X^2 - 4X + 2$. Taking $p = 2$ satisfies Eisenstein's criterion, so this polynomial is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$ and thus also irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. □

Example 3.5.5. If $p > 2$ is prime, then show that

$$f = 1 + X + X^2 + \cdots + X^{p-1}$$

is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. First observe that
$$f = \frac{X^p - 1}{X - 1}.$$
Let $g(X) = f(X+1)$. Then
$$\begin{aligned} g(X) &= \frac{(X+1)^p - 1}{(X+1) - 1} = \frac{1}{X}((X+1)^p - 1) = \frac{1}{X}\sum_{i=0}^{p}\binom{p}{i}X^{p-i} - 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{X}\sum_{i=0}^{p-1}\binom{p}{i}X^{p-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1}\binom{p}{i}X^{p-i-1}. \end{aligned}$$
Note that $\binom{p}{1}, \binom{p}{2}, \ldots \binom{p}{p-1}$ are all divisible by p, so g is irreducible by Eisenstein's criterion. Now if f factors as $f = uv$, then $g(X) = u(X+1)v(X+1)$, which is a contradiction since g is irreducible. $\square$

Lecture 4

Jan. 22 — Field Extensions

4.1 More on Irreducibility

The following excerpt is from Howie:

> Another device for determining irreducibility over $\mathbb{Z}$ (and consequently over $\mathbb{Q}$) is to map the polynomial onto $\mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ for some suitably chosen prime p. Let $g = a_0+a_1X+\cdots+a_nX^n \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, and let p be a prime not dividing a_n. For each i in $\{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$, let $\overline{a}_i$ denote the residue class $a_i + \langle p\rangle$ in the field $\mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/\langle p\rangle$, and write the polynomial $\overline{a}_0 + \overline{a}_1X + \cdots + \overline{a}_nX^n$ as $\overline{g}$. Our choice of p ensures that $\partial\overline{g} = n$. Suppose that $g = uv$, with $\partial u, \partial v < \partial f$ and $\partial u + \partial v = \partial g$. Then $\overline{g} = \overline{u}\,\overline{v}$. If we can show that $\overline{g}$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}_p[X]$, then we have a contradiction, and we deduce that g is irreducible. The advantage of transferring the problem from $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ to $\mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ is that $\mathbb{Z}_p$ is finite, and the verification of irreducibility is a matter of checking a finite number of cases.

Example 4.0.1. Show that
$$g = 7X^4 + 10X^3 - 2X^2 + 4X - 5$$
is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Let $p = 3$ and
$$\overline{g} = X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + 1$$
This has no linear factors since
$$\overline{g}(0) = 1, \quad \overline{g}(1) = 2, \quad \overline{g}(-1) = 1.$$
So suppose
$$\overline{g} = X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1 = (X^2 + aX + b)(X^2 + cX + d)$$
in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. Then for some $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}_3 = \{-1, 0, 1\}$, we have
$$\begin{cases} X^3 & a + c = 1 \\ X^2 & b + ac + d = 1 \\ X & ad + bc = 1 \\ 1 & bd = 1 \end{cases}$$
The first case is if $b = d = 1$, but this implies $ac = -1$, so $a = \pm 1$ and $c = \mp 1$. But $a + c = 1$, so this cannot happen. The second case is if $b = d = -1$. This implies that $ac = 0$ and $a + c = 1$. So if $a = 0$, then $c = 1$, so $1 = ad + bc = b$, which is a contradiction with $b = -1$. If $c = 0$, then $1 = ad + bc = d$,

which is a contradiction with $d = -1$. Thus $\overline{g}$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$, so g is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, and by Gauss's lemma, g is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. □

Remark. If we had tried $p = 2$, then we have $\overline{g} = x^4 + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$, which is not in fact irreducible since

$$\overline{g} = x^4 + 1 = (x+1)^4 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x].$$

4.2 Field Extensions

Definition 4.1. Let K, L be fields and $\varphi : K \to L$ an injective homomorphism. Then L is a *field extension* of K, denoted $L : K$.

Example 4.1.1. We have $\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}$ is a field extension.

Definition 4.2. Recall that V is a K-*vector space* if

1. V is an abelian group under $+$,
2. For $a, b \in K$ and $x, y \in V$, we have

$$\text{(i). } a(x+y) = ax + ay, \quad \text{(ii). } (a+b)x = ax + bx, \quad \text{(iii). } (ab)x = a(bx), \quad \text{(iv). } 1x = 1.$$

Remark. If $L : K$ is a field extension, then L is a a vector space over K.

Definition 4.3. A *basis* for a vector space is a linearly independent spanning set.

Example 4.3.1. The complex numbers $\mathbb{C}$ is a $\mathbb{R}$-vector space with basis $\{1, i\}$. Bases are not unique, since $\{1+i, 1-i\}$ is another basis for $\mathbb{C}$.

Example 4.3.2. If there is a vector space that we know to be a field, then it is automatically a field extension of its ground field.

Definition 4.4. The *dimension* of L is the cardinality of a basis for $L : K$.[1] The dimension is also called the *degree* of $L : K$, denoted $[L : K]$. We say that L is a *finite extension* if $[L : K]$ is finite, and an *infinite extension* otherwise.

Example 4.4.1. We have $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = 2$, which is finite. On the other hand, $\mathbb{R} : \mathbb{Q}$ is an infinite extension.

Theorem 4.1. *Let $L : K$ be a field extension. Then $L = K$ if and only if $[L : K] = 1$.*

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) If $L = K$, then $\{1\}$ is a basis for $L : K$, and thus $[L : K] = 1$.

($\Leftarrow$) If $[L : K] = 1$, then $\{x\}$ is a basis for $L : K$ for some $x \in L$. Then there exists some $a \in K$ such that $1 = ax$, so $x = a^{-1} \in K$. For every $y \in L$, there exists $b \in K$ such that $y = bx$. But then

$$y = bx = b(a^{-1}) \in K,$$

so $y \in K$ as well by closure. Thus $L = K$ as desired. □

Remark. Let $L : K$ and $M : L$ be field extensions with

$$K \xrightarrow{\alpha} L \xrightarrow{\beta} M$$

[1]Note that this is well-defined since any two bases of L have the same length.

Then $M : K$ is also a field extension.

Theorem 4.2. *For field extensions $L : K$ and $M : L$, we have $[M : L][L : K] = [M : K]$.*

Proof. Suppose $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots a_r\}$ is a linearly independent subset of M over L and $\{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_s\}$ is a linearly independent subset of L over K. Now we claim that

$$\{a_i b_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq s\}$$

is a linearly independent subset of M over K. To see this, suppose

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \lambda_{ij} a_i b_i = 0$$

for some $\lambda_{ij} \in K$. We can rewrite this as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{s} \lambda_{ij} b_j \right) a_i = 0.$$

Since the a_i are linearly independent over L, it follows that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{s} \lambda_{ij} b_j = 0$$

for each $i = 1, \ldots, r$. Since the b_j are linearly independent over K, it follows that $\lambda_{ij} = 0$ for each i, j, which proves the claim. Returning to the main proof, if $[M : L]$ or $[L : K]$ is infinite, then r or s can be made arbitrarily large, so

$$\{a_i b_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq s\}$$

can also be made arbitrarily large, and hence $[M : K]$ is infinite. Now suppose $[M : L] = r < \infty$ and $[L : K] = s < \infty$. Let $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_r\}$ be a basis for $M : L$ and $\{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_s\}$ be a basis for $L : K$. We will show that

$$\{a_i b_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq s\}$$

is a basis for $M : K$. Since we already showed that $\{a_i b_j\}$ is linearly independent, it only remains to show that they span M over K. For each $z \in M$, there exist $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_r \in L$ such that

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_i a_i.$$

Then for each $\lambda_i \in L$, there exist $\mu_{i1}, \ldots, \mu_{is} \in K$ such that

$$\lambda_i = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \mu_{ij} b_j.$$

Combining this yields

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \mu_{ij} a_i b_j$$

as desired, which finishes the proof. $\square$

Example 4.4.2. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$.

Exercise 4.1. Show that $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is a field. (Hint: $1/(a + b\sqrt{2}) = (a - b\sqrt{2})/(a^2 - 2b^2)$.)

Definition 4.5. Let K be a subfield of L and S a subset of L. The *subfield of L generated over K by S*, denoted $K(S)$, is the intersection of all subfields of L containing $K \cup S$. If $S = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ is finite, we write $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$.

Theorem 4.3. *Let E be the elements in L that can be expressed as quotients of finite K-linear combinations of finite products of elements in S. Then $K(S) = E$.*

Proof. To see that $K(S) \subseteq E$, simply check that E is a subfield of L containing $K \cup S$.

For $E \subseteq K(S)$, note that any subfield of L containing K and S must contain all finite products of elements in S, all linear combinations of such products, and all quotients of such linear combinations. This is precisely what is means to have $E \subseteq K(S)$. □

Definition 4.6. A *simple extension* of K is $K(\alpha)$, i.e. S has a single element $\alpha \notin K$.

Example 4.6.1. The previous example $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is a simple extension.

Theorem 4.4. *Let L be a field, K a subfield, and $\alpha \in L$. Then either*

1. *$K(\alpha)$ is isomorphic to $K(X)$, the field of rational forms with coefficients in K,*
2. *or there exists a unique monic polynomial $m \in K[X]$ with the property that for all $f \in K[X]$,*
   (a) *$f(\alpha) = 0$ if and only if $m|f$,*
   (b) *the field $K(\alpha)$ coincides with $K[\alpha]$, the ring of all polynomials in α with coefficients in K,*
   (c) *and $[K[\alpha] : K] = \partial m$.*

Proof. Suppose there does not exist nonzero $f \in K[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Then there exists a map $\varphi : K(X) \to K(\alpha)$ with $f/g \mapsto f(\alpha)/g(\alpha)$, which is defined since $g(\alpha) = 0$ only if g is the zero polynomial. Note that φ is a surjective homomorphism,[2] which one can check as an exercise. Now we show that φ is also injective. To see this, suppose

$$\varphi(f/g) = \varphi(p/q),$$

which happens if and only if

$$f(\alpha)q(\alpha) - p(\alpha)g(\alpha) = 0.$$

in L. This happens if and only if $fq - pg = 0$ in $K[X]$, which happens if and only if $f/g = p/q$ in $K(X)$. This completes the first case of the theorem.

Now suppose there exists nonzero $g \in K[X]$ such that $g(\alpha) = 0$. Furthermore, suppose g is a polynomial of least degree with this property. Let a be the leading coefficient of g, and let $m = g/a$, so that m is monic and $m(\alpha) = 0$ still. The reverse implication in (2a) is clear. For the forwards implication in (2a), note that by division with remainder for polynomials over a field, we can write

$$f = qm + r,$$

where $\partial r < \partial m$. By the minimality of ∂m, we must have $r = 0$, so $m|f$. For the uniqueness of m, suppose there exists m' with the same properties. Then $m(\alpha) = m'(\alpha) = 0$, so $m|m'$ and $m'|m$, which

[2] Also check that φ is well-defined.

implies that $m = m'$ since m and m' are monic. For the irreducibility of m, suppose for the sake of contradiction that $m = pq$ with $\partial p, \partial q < \partial m$. Then $m(\alpha) = p(\alpha)q(\alpha) = 0$, so either $p(\alpha) = 0$ or $q(\alpha) = 0$, which contradicts the minimality of ∂m.

Now we show (2b), which says that $K(\alpha) = K[\alpha]$. For this, consider $p(\alpha)/q(\alpha) \in K(\alpha)$ for $q(\alpha) \neq 0$. Then $m \nmid q$, and since m is irreducible we have $\gcd(m, q) = 1$. Now by Theorem 2.15 of Howie (about gcd's in the Euclidean domain $K[X]$), there exist polynomials a, b such that $aq + bm = 1$. Setting $X = \alpha$ yields $a(\alpha)q(\alpha) = 1$, so

$$\frac{p(\alpha)}{q(\alpha)} = p(\alpha)a(\alpha) \in K[\alpha].$$

Thus $K(\alpha) \subseteq K[\alpha]$. Since we already know that $K[\alpha] \subseteq K(\alpha)$, we conclude that $K(\alpha) = K[\alpha]$.

Finally we show (2c), which claims that $[K[\alpha] : K] = \partial m$. For this, suppose $\partial m = n$ and let

$$p(\alpha) \in K[\alpha] = K(\alpha).$$

Then $p = qm + r$ where $\partial r < \partial m = n$. We have $p(\alpha) = r(\alpha)$, so if

$$r = c_0 + c_1 X + \cdots + c_{n-1} X^{n-1}$$

for $c_i \in K$, then

$$p(\alpha) = c_0 + c_1 \alpha + \cdots + c_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1}.$$

So $\{1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is a spanning set for $K[\alpha]$. To see that $\{1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is also linearly independent, suppose there exists $a_i \in K$ such that

$$a_0 + a_1 \alpha + \cdots + a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} = 0.$$

Then $a_0 = \cdots = a_{n-1} = 0$ since otherwise we would have a polynomial

$$p = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_{n-1} X^{n-1}$$

with $\partial p \leq n - 1$ and $p(\alpha) = 0$, which is a contradiction with the minimality of $\partial m = n$. Thus $\{1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is a basis, and so $[K[\alpha] : K] = n = \partial m$. $\square$

Example 4.6.2. Continuing the same example, note that

$$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \{a_0 + a_1\sqrt{2} + a_2\sqrt{2}^2 + a_3\sqrt{2}^3 + \cdots + a_n\sqrt{2}^n \mid a_i \in \mathbb{Q}\},$$

which falls in the second case of the previous theorem.

Remark. We also have $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2 - 2\rangle$.

Lecture 5

Jan. 24 — Algebraic Extensions

5.1 Minimal Polynomials

Remark. The m in the previous theorem from last class is called the *minimal polynomial* of α.

Example 5.0.1. Let
$$\mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{3}] = \{a + bi\sqrt{3} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}.$$
Here $m = X^2 + 3$, so this is a degree 2 extension.

Exercise 5.1. Write $1/(a + bi\sqrt{3})$ in the form $c + di\sqrt{3}$.

Example 5.0.2. Is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ a simple extension? In fact it is! Note that certainly
$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}).$$
For the reverse inclusion, observe that $(\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2})(\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2}) = 1$, so
$$1/(\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2}) = \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}).$$
From this we have
$$(\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2}) + (\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2}) = 2\sqrt{3},$$
which implies that $\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})$. Similarly $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})$, so that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})$. Now we can consider
$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}] = (\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}])[\sqrt{3}].$$
First we have $[Q[\sqrt{2}] : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$. Note that $X^2 - 3$ is the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt{3}$ over $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$, so $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}] : \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]] = 2$. Hence $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}] : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ with basis $\{1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6}\}$.[1] To find the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, we can compute
$$(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})^2 = 2 + 2\sqrt{6} + 3 = 5 + 2\sqrt{6}$$
$$(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})^4 = 25 + 20\sqrt{6} + 24 = 49 + 20\sqrt{6}.$$
Thus $X^4 - 10X^2 + 1$ is the minimal polynomial, since $\alpha^4 - 10\alpha^2 + 1 = 0$ for $\alpha = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$.

[1] Since $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}] = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ where $\alpha = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$, we have $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3\}$ as another basis.

5.2 Algebraic Extensions

Definition 5.1. If α has a minimal polynomial over K, we say α is *algebraic* over K, and $K[\alpha] = K(\alpha)$ is an *algebraic extension* of K. A complex number that is algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$ is called an *algebraic number*. Otherwise, if $K(\alpha) \cong K(X)$, then we say α is *transcendental* over K. A transcendental number α is a complex number that is transcendental over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Example 5.1.1. We have that $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$, and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ are all simple algebraic extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$, whereas $\mathbb{Q}(X)$ is a simple transcendental extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem 5.1. *Let $K(\alpha)$ be a simple transcendental extension of K. Then $[K(\alpha) : K] = \infty$.*

Proof. Observe that $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots$ are linearly independent over K, since no minimal polynomial exists. □

Definition 5.2. An extension L over K is an *algebraic extension* if any element of L is algebraic over K. Otherwise, L is a *transcendental extension*.

Theorem 5.2. *Every finite extension is algebraic.*

Proof. Let $L : K$ be a finite extension and suppose for sake of contradiction that $\alpha \in L$ is transcendental over K. Then $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots$ are linearly independent, contradicting the fact that $L : K$ is finite. □

Theorem 5.3. *Let $L : K$ be a field extension and let $\mathcal{A}(L)$ be the set of elements in L that are algebraic over K. Then $\mathcal{A}(L)$ is a subfield of L.*

Proof. See Howie. Just need to show the closure of algebraic elements under usual field operations. □

Example 5.2.1. For $L = \mathbb{C}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}$, we have that $\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{C})$ is the field $\mathbb{A}$ of algebraic numbers.

Theorem 5.4. *The set of algebraic numbers $\mathbb{A}$ is countable.*

Proof sketch. Note that the set of monic polynomials of degree n with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$ is countable, and each such polynomial has at most n distinct roots in $\mathbb{C}$. Hence the number of roots of such polynomials is countable. Then $\mathbb{A}$ is the countable union of countable sets, so $\mathbb{A}$ is countable. □

Theorem 5.5. *Transcendental numbers exist.*

Proof. Since $|\mathbb{R}| = |\mathbb{C}| = 2^{\aleph_0} > \aleph_0$, we must have that $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{A}$ is nonempty. □

Remark. The above proof is very nonconstructive, what about actual examples of transcendental numbers? In 1844, Liouville constructed the following example:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{-n!},$$

which was shown to be transcendental. In 1873, Hermite showed that e is transcendental, and in 1882, Lindemann showed that π is transcendental.

Theorem 5.6. *Let $L : K$ be a field extension and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in L$ have minimal polynomials $m_1, \ldots, m_n$, respectively. Then $[K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) : K] \le \partial m_1 \partial m_2 \ldots \partial m_n$.*

Proof. See Howie. Uses induction and the fact that $[M : L][L : K] = [M : K]$. □

Example 5.2.2. Consider

$$[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{3}] : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{6}] : \mathbb{Q}] = 2,$$

but $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6}] : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$. So the bound in the previous theorem cannot be made into an equality.

Proposition 5.1. *A field extension $L : K$ is finite if and only if for some n, there exist $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ algebraic over K such that $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$.*

Proof. ($\Leftarrow$) This is precisely the previous theorem.

($\Rightarrow$) Suppose $L : K$ is finite and $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ is a basis for L over K. Since finite extensions are algebraic, the α_i must be algebraic. □

Exercise 5.2. Show that $\varphi : \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] \to \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2 - 2\rangle$ defined by

$$a + b\sqrt{2} \mapsto a + bX + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle$$

is an isomorphism.

Theorem 5.7. *Let K be a field and m a monic irreducible polynomial in $K[X]$. Then $L = K[X]/\langle m\rangle$ is a simple algebraic extension $K[\alpha]$ of K, and $\alpha = X + \langle m\rangle$ has minimal polynomial m over K.*

Proof. First note that L is indeed a field since m is irreducible. Also $L : K$ is indeed a field extension since $\varphi : K \to L$ defined by $a \mapsto a + \langle m\rangle$ is an injective homomorphism. Now let $\alpha = X + \langle m\rangle$. For

$$f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X],$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha) &= a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_n\alpha^n = a_0 + a_1(X + \langle m\rangle) + \cdots + a_n(X + \langle m\rangle)^n \\ &= a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n + \langle m\rangle = f + \langle m\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

So $f(\alpha) = 0$ if and only if $f \in \langle m\rangle$, i.e. $m|f$. Hence m is the minimal polynomial of α. □

Lecture 6

Jan. 29 — Geometric Constructions

6.1 K-Isomorphisms

Recall from last class that $L = K[X]/\langle m \rangle$ is a simple algebraic extension of K. In fact, we can show that the field L is essentially unique, i.e. unique up to isomorphism.

Theorem 6.1. *Let K be a field and and f and an irreducible polynomial in $K[X]$. If L and L' are two extensions of K containing roots α and α' respectively of f, then there exists an isomorphism $K[\alpha] \to K[\alpha']$ which fixes every element of K.*

Proof sketch. Suppose
$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n.$$
Then $K[\alpha]$ consists of polynomials of the form
$$b_0 + b_1\alpha + \cdots + b_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1}.$$
This is because multiplication in $K[\alpha]$ relies on the observation that
$$\alpha^n = -\frac{1}{\alpha_n}(a_0 + a_1\alpha + \cdots + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1})$$
since α is a root of f. Define $\psi : K[\alpha] \to K[\alpha']$ by $\psi(g(a)) = g(\alpha')$ and show that ψ is an isomorphism. $\square$

Exercise 6.1. Check the following from the previous proof:

1. ψ is one-to-one and onto,
2. ψ fixes K,
3. and ψ is a homomorphism.

For the last point, the addition is mostly straightforward but the multiplication is more involved since we need to reduce when we get α^n terms in the product.

Definition 6.1. A *K-isomorphism* is an isomorphism $\varphi : L \to L'$ such that $\varphi(x) = x$ for all $x \in K$.

Example 6.1.1. For $\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}$, the complex conjugation map $\varphi : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ given by $\varphi(a + bi) = a - bi$ is a $\mathbb{R}$-isomorphism.

Example 6.1.2. For $\mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2+3\rangle : \mathbb{Q}$,[1] the map $\psi : \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2+3\rangle \to \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2+3\rangle$ given by

$$\psi(a+bX+\langle X^2+3\rangle) = a-bX+\langle X^2+3\rangle$$

is a $\mathbb{Q}$-isomorphism. The analogous map $\psi : \mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{3}] \to \mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{3}]$ given by $\psi(a+bi\sqrt{3}) = a-bi\sqrt{3}$ also works, which we can view as a restriction of the complex conjugation map to $\mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{3}]$.

6.2 Applications to Geometric Constructions

Consider the straightedge and compass Constructions from geometry. Let B_0 be a set of points. Then we have the following operations:

1. (straightedge) Draw a straight line through any two points in B_0.
2. (compass) Draw a circle whose center is a point in B_0 passing through another point in B_0.

Let $C(B_0)$ be the set of points which are intersections of lines or circles obtained form B_0 by (1) and (2). Let $B_1 = B_0 \cup C(B_0)$, and proceed inductively to get $B_n = B_{n-1} \cup C(B_{n-1})$.

Definition 6.2. A point is *constructible from* B_0 if it belongs to B_n for some n. A point is *constructible* if it is constructible from $\{O, I\}$ where $O = (0,0)$ and $I = (1,0)$.

Example 6.2.1. To find the midpoint of the line segment OI from $B_0 = \{O, I\}$, we can do the following:

1. Draw a circle with center O passing through I.
2. Draw a circle with center I passing through O.
3. Mark points P and Q where these circles intersect. So $B_1 \supseteq \{O, I, P, Q\}$.
4. Draw a line connecting P and Q.
5. Draw a line connecting O and I.
6. Mark the point M where PQ and OI meet. So $B_2 \supseteq \{O, I, P, Q, M\}$.

Thus M is constructible from $\{O, I\}$.

The algebraic perspective is the following: Associate to B_i the subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ generated by coordinates of points in B_i, i.e. view each coordinate of each point as an element and take the subfield generated.

Example 6.2.2. For $B_0 = \{(0,0),(1,0)\}$, we have $\{0,0,1,0\} \subseteq K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$ is the subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ generated by the coordinates of B_0. Next take[2]

$$B_1 = \{O, I, P, Q\} = \{(0,0),(1,0),(1/2, \pm\sqrt{3}/2)\},$$

so that $K_1 = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{3}]$ is the field generated by B_1. Then

$$B_2 = \{O, I, P, Q, M\} = \{(0,0),(1,0),(1/2,\pm\sqrt{3}/2),(1/2,0)\},$$

and the field generated by B_2 is still $K_2 = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{3}]$.

---

[1]Note that $\mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2+3\rangle \cong \mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{3}]$. The isomorphism is given by $a+bX+\langle X^3+3\rangle \mapsto a+bi\sqrt{3}$.

[2]There is some abuse of notation here since we take B_i to be only some subset of all the actual possible points.

Theorem 6.2. *Let P be a constructible point belonging to B_n, where $B_0 = \{(0,0),(1,0)\}$, and let K_n be the field generated over $\mathbb{Q}$ by B_n. Then $[K_n : \mathbb{Q}]$ is a power of 2.*

Proof sketch. We proceed by induction. The base case is $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$, so $[K_0 : \mathbb{Q}] = 1 = 2^0$. Now suppose $[K_{n-1} : \mathbb{Q}] = 2^k$ for some $k \geq 0$, and we want to show that $[K_n : K_{n-1}]$ is a power of 2. Observe that new points in B_n can be obtained by

1. intersection of two lines,
2. intersection of a line and a circle,
3. or intersection of two circles.

In case (1), the intersection of two lines is given by solving a system of two linear equations, which only involves rational operations[3]. In other words, this case takes place entirely in K_{n-1}.

In case (2), the intersection of a line and a circle is given by solving of a system of one linear equation and one quadratic equation. Solving the linear equation for one of the variables and substituting into the quadratic equation reduces the system down to a single quadratic equation in a single variable. The solution involves $\sqrt{\Delta}$, where Δ is the discriminant. Then the new points are in $K_{n-1}[\sqrt{\Delta}]$.

In case (3), the intersection of two circles is given by solving a system of two quadratic equations. Subtracting the two quadratic equations yields a linear equation, which reduces back to case (2).

Thus the elements in K_n are either in K_{n-1} or $K_{n-1}[\sqrt{\Delta}]$ for some $\Delta \in K_{n-1}$.[4] Hence $[K_n : K_{n-1}]$ is either 1 or 2, so by induction $[K_n : \mathbb{Q}]$ is a power of 2. □

6.3 Classic Problems

6.3.1 Duplicating the Cube

Consider the problem of taking a cube of volume 1, and constructing a cube of volume 2. We need α such that $\alpha^3 = 2$. But $X^3 - 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by Eisenstein's criterion, so $[\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$. This is not a power of 2, so α is not constructible and thus we cannot duplicate the cube.

6.3.2 Trisecting the Angle

Recall the triple angle formula:

$$\cos 3\theta = 4\cos^3\theta - 3\cos\theta.$$

Suppose $\cos 3\theta = c$. So to find $\cos\theta$, we want a root of $4X^3 - 3X - c = 0$. This depends on c.

Example 6.2.3. If $3\theta = \pi/2$, then $c = 0$ and the polynomial factors into

$$4X^3 - 3X = 4X(4X^2 - 3),$$

so $[\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{3}] : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$. So in fact we can trisect $\pi/2 = 90°$.

[3]By rational operations we mean addition, subtraction, multiplication, division.

[4]We can set it up so that we only gain one extra intersection, i.e. only one Δ, at each step.

Example 6.2.4. If $3\theta = \pi/3$, then $c = 1/2$ and we have $4X^3 - 3X - 1/2$. Let

$$f(X) = 8X^3 - 6X - 1,$$

so that $g(X) = g(X/2) = X^3 - 3X - 1$. Note that g does not factor over $\mathbb{Z}$ since that requires a linear factor of $X \pm 1$ but $g(\pm 1) \neq 0$. So g is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}$ and by Gauss's lemma, g is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. Thus f is irreducible. Hence $[\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$, so we cannot trisect $\pi/3$ with a straightedge and compass.

Lecture 7

Jan. 31 — Splitting Fields

7.1 Review of Notation

Recall that

$$\mathbb{Q}[X] = \{a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n : a_i \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$
$$\mathbb{Q}(X) = \{f/g : f, g \in \mathbb{Q}[X], g \neq 0\}/\sim,$$

where $\sim$ is the usual relation on fractions, e.g. $2f/2g = f/g$. Next, recall that

$$\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \{a_0 + a_1\sqrt{2} + \cdots + a_n\sqrt{2}^n : a_i \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \{a + b\sqrt{2} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

since $\sqrt{2}^2 = 2$. Also $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is the smallest subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ containing $\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\sqrt{2}\}$. In this case, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ since

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

Next, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2 - 2\rangle &= \{a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle : a_i \in \mathbb{Q}\} \\ &= \{a + bX + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}\end{aligned}$$

since $X^2 + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle = 2 + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle$. In fact, $\mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2 - 2\rangle \cong \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$.[1]

7.2 Splitting Fields

The motivating question here is: When can we factor a polynomial into linear factors?

Definition 7.1. A polynomial *splits completely* over K if it can be factored into linear factors over K.

Example 7.1.1. The polynomial X^2+2 splits completely over $\mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{2}]$ since $X^2+2 = (X - i\sqrt{2})(X + i\sqrt{2})$.

Example 7.1.2. The polynomial $X^3 - 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by Eisenstein's criterion. However, it factors as

$$X^3 - 2 = (X - \alpha)(X^2 + \alpha X + \alpha^2)$$

in $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, where $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2}$. Also $X^2 + \alpha X + \alpha^2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, since its discriminant shows that it is irreducible even over $\mathbb{R}$. But in $\mathbb{C}$, we can factor it as

$$X^3 - 2 = (X - \alpha)(X - \alpha e^{2\pi i/3})(X - \alpha e^{4\pi i/3}).$$

A smaller field that $X^3 - 2$ splits completely over is $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}]$.

[1] Here the isomorphism $\mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^2 - 2\rangle \to \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ is given by $a + bX + \langle X^2 - 2\rangle \mapsto a + b\sqrt{2}$.

Definition 7.2. Let K be a field and $f \in K[X]$. An extension L of K is a *splitting field* for f over K if

1. f splits completely over L,
2. and f does not split completely over any subfield E with $K < E < L$.

Example 7.2.1. From the last two examples, $\mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{2}]$ is a splitting field over $\mathbb{Q}$ for X^2+2, and $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}]$ is a splitting field for $X^3 - 2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem 7.1. *Let K be a field and $f \in K[X]$ with $\partial f = n$. Then there exists a splitting field L for f over K and $[L : K] \leq n!$.*

Proof. The proof is essentially the process we perform in the following example. At each step, construct an extension in which we can split off a linear factor from f. For more details, see Howie. □

Example 7.2.2. Let us find a splitting field for

$$f = X^5 + X^4 - X^3 - 3X^2 - 3X + 3$$

over $\mathbb{Q}$. Note that $\partial f = n$. Stare hard enough and we can see that

$$f = (X^3 - 3)(X^2 + X - 1),$$

where the first factor is irreducible by Eisenstein's criterion and the second factor is irreducible by checking the discriminant. Now add a root, say $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{3}$, and let $E_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Then

$$f = (X - \alpha)(X^2 + \alpha X + \alpha^2)(X^2 + X - 1).$$

Note that $[E_1 : K] \leq n = \partial f$. Now let $E_2 = E_1(\alpha e^{2\pi i/3})$, so that

$$f = (X - \alpha)(X - \alpha e^{2\pi i/3})(X - \alpha e^{-2\pi i/3})(X^2 + X - 1).$$

Note that $[E_2 : \mathbb{Q}] \leq n(n-1)$. Next $E_3 = E_2(\alpha e^{-2\pi i/3})$ with

$$f = (X - \alpha)(X - \alpha e^{2\pi i/3})(X - \alpha e^{-2\pi i/3})(X^2 + X - 1).$$

Note that $[E_3 : K] \leq n(n-1)(n-2)$. Now let

$$\gamma = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad \delta = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}.$$

Let $E_4 = E_3(\gamma)$,

$$f = (X - \alpha)(X - \alpha e^{2\pi i/3})(X - \alpha e^{-2\pi i/3})(X - \gamma)(X - \delta).$$

Finally $E_5 = E_4(\delta)$ is the splitting field for f over $\mathbb{Q}$. Note that we did much better than $n!$ here, since

$$[E_1 : \mathbb{Q}] = 3, \quad [E_2 : E_1] = 2, \quad [E_3 : E_2] = 1, \quad [E_4 : E_3] = 2, \quad [E_5 : E_4] = 1,$$

so $[E_5 : \mathbb{Q}] = 12 \leq 120$.

Remark. Splitting fields are unique (up to isomorphism).

Theorem 7.2. *Let L and L' be splitting fields of f over K. Then there exists an isomorphism $\varphi : L \to L'$ fixing K.*

Proof sketch. Induct on the number of roots of f that are not in K. The induction step uses Theorem 6.1 from last class giving an isomorphism $K[\alpha] \to K[\alpha']$ for α, α' roots of an irreducible polynomial. $\square$

Example 7.2.3. Let us find the splitting field of $f = X^4 - 2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and its degree. Note that $X^4 - 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by Eisenstein's criterion. Note that

$$X^4 - 2 = (X - \alpha)(X + \alpha)(X - i\alpha)(X + i\alpha)$$

where $\alpha = \sqrt[4]{2}$. So the splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i)$. For the degree, note that $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ since the minimal polynomial of $\sqrt[4]{2}$ is $X^4 - 2$. A basis for this extension is $\{1, \sqrt[4]{2}, \sqrt[4]{2}^2, \sqrt[4]{2}^3\}$. Since $i \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$, we have $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})] = 2$ since the minimal polynomial of i over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$ is $X^2 + 1$. Thus we see that the degree of the splitting field is $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i) : \mathbb{Q}] = 8$.

Example 7.2.4. Let us look at monic quadratic polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}_3 = \{-1, 0, 1\}$.[2] These are

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X^2 & X^2+1 & X^2-1 \\ X^2+X & X^2+X+1 & X^2+X-1 \\ X^2-X & X^2-X+1 & X^2-X-1. \end{array}$$

We have 0 is a root of the polynomials in the first column, 1 is a root of $X^2 - 1$ and $X^2 + X + 1$, and -1 is a root of $X^2 - X + 1$. So the irreducible polynomials over $\mathbb{Z}_3$ are

$$X^2 + 1, \quad X^2 + X - 1, \quad X^2 - X - 1.$$

Let $L = \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle$. Observe that $\alpha = X + \langle X^2 + 1\rangle$ satisfies

$$\alpha^2 = X^2 + \langle X^2 + 1\rangle = -1 + \langle X^2 + 1\rangle.$$

Hence L is a splitting field for $X^2 + 1$ since $(X - \alpha)(X + \alpha) = X^2 + 1$. Similarly, $\mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 + X - 1\rangle$ is a splitting field for $X^2 + X - 1$ and $\mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 - X - 1\rangle$ is a splitting field for $X^2 - X - 1$. Note that each of these fields have $9 = 3^2$ elements since they are degree 2 extensions of $\mathbb{Z}_3$.

Remark. In L, we had $\alpha \in L$ such that $\alpha^2 = -1$ and addition is performed modulo 3. Now observe

$$(\alpha + 1)^2 + (\alpha + 1) - 1 = (\alpha^2 - \alpha + 1) + (\alpha + 1) - 1 = \alpha^2 - \alpha + \alpha + 1 + 1 - 1 = 0$$

since $\alpha^2 = -1$. So $\alpha + 1$ is a root of $X^2 + X - 1$ in L. By a similar computation, we see that $-\alpha + 1$ is a root of $X^2 + X - 1$, so L is also a splitting field for $X^2 + X - 1$. Additionally, $\alpha - 1$ and $-\alpha - 1$ are roots of $X^2 - X - 1$, so L is also a splitting field for $X^2 - X - 1$. So by uniqueness of splitting fields,

$$\mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 + X - 1\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 - X - 1\rangle.$$

Exercise 7.1. Find explicit isomorphisms between these fields.

7.3 Finite Fields

Definition 7.3. Let $f = a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X]$. Then the *formal derivative* of f is

$$Df = a_1 + 2a_2X + \cdots + na_nX^{n-1}.$$

Exercise 7.2. The usual formulas for derivatives

$$D(kf) = kDf, \quad D(f + g) = Df + Dg, \quad D(fg) = (Df)g + f(Dg)$$

all still hold for $f, g \in K[X]$ and $k \in K$.

[2] Note that as opposite to $\mathbb{Q}$, this field has finite characteristic.

Lecture 8

Feb. 5 — Finite Fields

8.1 Last Time

Example 8.0.1. The splitting field of $X^4 - 2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt[4]{2}])$ since

$$X^4 - 2 = (X - \sqrt[4]{2})(X + \sqrt[4]{2})(X - i\sqrt[4]{2})(X + i\sqrt[4]{2}).$$

Example 8.0.2. The splitting field of $Y^2 + 1$ over $\mathbb{Z}_3$ is $\mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle$. If $\alpha = X + \langle X^2 + 1\rangle$, then

$$Y^2 + 1 = (Y - \alpha)(Y + \alpha).$$

Also the degree of this extension is $[Z_3[X]/\langle X^2 + 1\rangle : \mathbb{Z}_3] = 2$, and a basis for the extension is $\{1, X\}$.

8.2 Finite Fields

Lemma 8.1. *Let $f \in K[X]$, K a field, and L be a splitting field for f over K. Then the roots of f are distinct if and only if f and Df have no nonconstant common factor.*

Proof. ($\Leftarrow$) We show the contrapositive. Suppose f has a repeated root α in L. Then

$$f = (X - \alpha)^r g$$

for some $r \geq 2$. Then

$$Df = (X - \alpha)^r Dg + r(X - \alpha)^{r-1} g,$$

so Df and f both have $X - \alpha$ as a factor.

($\Rightarrow$) Suppose the roots of f are all distinct. Then for each root α of f in L, we have

$$f = (X - \alpha)g,$$

where $g(\alpha) \neq 0$. Then

$$Df = (X - \alpha)Dg + g,$$

so that

$$(Df)(\alpha) = g(\alpha) \neq 0,$$

i.e. $X - \alpha \nmid Df$. This holds for factor of f in $L[X]$, so f and Df have no common proper factors. ∎

Theorem 8.1. *Finite fields exist and are unique up to isomorphism. In particular,*

1. *Let K be a finite field. Then $|K| = p^n$ for some prime p and integer $n \geq 1$. Every element of K is a root of $X^{p^n} - X$ and K is a splitting field of $X^{p^n} - X$ over $\mathbb{Z}_p$.*
2. *Let p be a prime and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \geq 1$. Then there exists a unique field of order p^n up to isomorphism.*

Proof. (1) Let $\operatorname{char} K = p$. Then K is a finite extension of $\mathbb{Z}_p$. Let $n = [K : \mathbb{Z}_p]$. If $\{\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_n\}$ is a basis for K over $\mathbb{Z}_p$, then every element in K can be uniquely written as

$$a_1\delta_1 + \cdots + a_n\delta_n$$

for some $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. There are p^n such elements, so $|K| = p^n$. Then $|K^*| = p^n - 1$.[1] For any $\alpha \in K^*$, the order of α divides $p^n - 1$. So $\alpha^{p^n-1} = 1$, and hence $\alpha^{p^n} - \alpha = 0$. We also have $0^{p^n} - 0 = 0$ so every element in K is a root of $X^{p^n} - X$. Hence $X^{p^n} - X$ splits completely over K. Since $X - \alpha$ is a factor of $X^{p^n} - X$ for each of the p^n elements of K, $X^{p^n} - X$ does not split over any proper subfield of K. Thus we conclude that K is a splitting field of $X^{p^n} - X$ over $\mathbb{Z}_p$.

(2) Given a prime p and an integer $n \geq 1$, let L be the splitting field of $X^{p^n} - X$ over $\mathbb{Z}_p$. Note that

$$Df = p^n X^{p^n-1} - 1 = -1$$

since $\operatorname{char} \mathbb{Z}_p = p$. Then Df and f have no nonconstant common factors, so by Lemma 8.1, we see that $X^{p^n} - X$ has p^n distinct roots in L. Let K be the set of p^n distinct roots, and we claim that K is a subfield of L. To check this, let $a, b \in K$. Then by an extension of Theorem 2.4,

$$(a-b)^{p^n} = a^{p^n} - b^{p^n} = a - b$$

in $\mathbb{Z}_p$, $a - b \in K$. Also

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

so $ab^{-1} \in K$. Hence K is a field of order p^n. In fact, $K = L$ since K contains all the roots of $X^{p^n} - X$ and no proper subfield does. By uniqueness of splitting fields, K is unique up to isomorphism. □

Definition 8.1. We call the field of order p^n the *Galois field* of order p^n, denoted $\mathrm{GF}(p^n)$.

Example 8.1.1. We have $\mathrm{GF}(3^2) = \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2+1\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2+X-1\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/\langle X^2-X-1\rangle$.

Remark. Recall that for a finite group G and $a \in G$, the *order* of a is

$$\operatorname{ord}(a) = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} : a^k = 1\}.$$

The *exponent* of G is

$$\exp(G) = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} : a^k = 1 \text{ for all } a \in G\}.$$

Also recall that $\operatorname{ord}(a)$ divides $|G|$ for all $a \in G$, and thus $\exp(G)$ divides $|G|$.

Exercise 8.1. Show that $\exp(G) = \operatorname{lcm}\{\operatorname{ord}(a) : a \in G\}$.

Example 8.1.2. For $S_3 = \{\mathrm{id}, (12), (23), (13), (123), (132)\}$, the order of the transpositions is 2 and the order of 3-cycles is 3. So we see that $\exp(S_3) = 6$.

Proposition 8.1. *If G is a finite abelian group, then there exists $a \in G$ such that* $\operatorname{ord}(a) = \exp(G)$.

[1] Recall that K^* is the set of nonzero elements of K, which forms a group under multiplication. We also call K^* the group of units of K.

Proof. Suppose that
$$\exp(G) = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k},$$
where the p_i are distinct primes and $\alpha_i \geq 1$ for all i. Since
$$\exp(G) = \operatorname{lcm}\{\operatorname{ord}(a) : a \in G\},$$
there exists $h_1 \in G$ such that $p_1^{\alpha_1} | \operatorname{ord}(h_1)$. So $\operatorname{ord}(h_1) = p_1^{\alpha_1} q_1$ where $q_1 | p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$. Let $g_1 = h_1^{q_1}$. For each $m \geq 1$, we have $g_1^m = h_1^{mq_1}$, and
$$h_1^{mq_1} = 1 \iff p_1^{\alpha_1} q_1 | mq_1 \iff p_1^{\alpha_1} | m.$$
Hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = p_1^{\alpha_1}$. Similarly for $i = 2, \dots, k$, we can find elements g_i of order $p_i^{\alpha_i}$. Let
$$a = g_1 g_2 \dots g_k$$
and $n = \operatorname{ord}(a)$. Now check as an exercise that $\operatorname{ord}(a) = \exp(G)$. This relies on
$$a^n = g_1^n g_2^n \dots g_k^n = 1,$$
which uses the assumption that G is abelian. □

Remark. The previous example shows that the abelian condition in this theorem is necessary.

Corollary 8.1.1. *If G is a finite abelian group with $\exp(G) = |G|$, then G is cyclic.*

Theorem 8.2. *The group of units $\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*$ of a Galois field is cyclic.*

Proof. Let $e = \exp(\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*)$. Then $a^e = 1$ for all $a \in \mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*$, so every element $a \in \mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*$ is a root of $X^e - 1$. Since $X^e - 1$ has at most e roots, we see that $|\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*| \leq e$. But $e \leq |\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*|$ since $\exp(\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*)$ divides $|\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*|$. Hence $|\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*| = e$, so by Corollary 8.1.1, $\mathrm{GF}(p^n)^*$ is cyclic. □

8.3 Automorphisms of Fields

Example 8.1.3. The complex conjugation $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ given by $f(a + bi) = a - bi$ is an automorphism of $\mathbb{C}$. Observe that $f(c) = c$ if and only if $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 8.3. *Let K be a field. The set $\operatorname{Aut} K$ of automorphisms of K forms a group under composition.*

Proof. First observe that composition is associative. The identity element in $\operatorname{Aut} K$ is the identity map id_K. For inverses, let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Aut} K$. Since α is a bijection, there exists an inverse map $\alpha^{-1} : K \to K$, where $\alpha^{-1}(x)$ is the unique element s such that $\alpha(s) = x$. Now we check that α^{-1} is also a homomorphism. For this, let $x, y \in K$ and suppose that $\alpha^{-1}(x) = s$ and $\alpha^{-1}(y) = t$. Then $\alpha(s) = x$ and $\alpha(t) = y$, so
$$\alpha(s + t) = \alpha(s) + \alpha(t) = x + y$$
since α is a homomorphism. Then we see that
$$\alpha^{-1}(x + y) = s + t = \alpha^{-1}(x) + \alpha^{-1}(y).$$
Similarly, $\alpha(st) = xy$, so
$$\alpha^{-1}(xy) = st = \alpha^{-1}(x)\alpha^{-1}(y).$$
Hence $\alpha^{-1} \in \operatorname{Aut} K$ and $\alpha \circ \alpha^{-1} = \alpha^{-1} \circ \alpha = \mathrm{id}_K$, so $\operatorname{Aut} K$ is indeed a group. □

Definition 8.2. We call $\operatorname{Aut} K$ the *group of automorphisms* of K.

Definition 8.3. Let L be a field extension of K. A K-*automorphism* is an automorphism $\alpha : L \to L$ such that $\alpha(x) = x$ for all $x \in K$. The *Galois group* of L over K, denoted $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$, is the set of K-automorphisms of L. The *Galois group* $\operatorname{Gal}(f)$ of a polynomial $f \in K[X]$ is $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$ where L is a splitting field of f over K.

Theorem 8.4. *The Galois group* $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$ *is a subgroup of* $\operatorname{Aut} L$.

Proof. Clearly $\mathrm{id}_L \in \operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$ since it fixes all elements of L. Now let $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$. Then we have $\alpha(x) = x$ and $\beta(x) = x$ for all $x \in K$. Then $\beta^{-1}(x) = x$, which gives

$$\alpha\beta^{-1}(x) = \alpha(x) = x,$$

so $\alpha\beta^{-1} \in \operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$. Thus $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut} L$. $\square$

Remark. The big idea here is that there is a correspondence between subfields E with $K \subseteq E \subseteq L$ and subgroups H of $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K)$.

Exercise 8.2. From a past homework, we identified the subfields of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5})$ as:

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) & \\
\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \arrow[ur] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) \arrow[u] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{15}) \arrow[ul] \\
 & \mathbb{Q} \arrow[ul] \arrow[u] \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Compare the subgroups of $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) : \mathbb{Q})$ to the subfields of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5})$ containing $\mathbb{Q}$.

Lecture 9

Feb. 7 — The Galois Correspondence

9.1 Automorphisms of Fields

Example 9.0.1. The complex conjugation $\beta : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ given by $\beta(a + bi) = a - bi$ is a nontrivial element of the Galois group of $\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}$. In fact, $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}) = \{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}$. Note that β fixes $\mathbb{R}$, id fixes $\mathbb{C}$, and

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbb{C} \\ \uparrow \\ \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

9.2 The Galois Correspondence

Definition 9.1. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(E) &= \{\alpha \in \mathrm{Aut}\, L : \alpha(z) = z \text{ for all } z \in E\}, \\ \Phi(H) &= \{x \in L : \alpha(x) = x \text{ for all } \alpha \in H\}, \end{aligned}$$

where E is a subfield of L and H is a subgroup of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$. This is called the *Galois correspondence*.

Example 9.1.1. In the previous example of $\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}$, we have $\Gamma(\mathbb{C}) = \{\mathrm{id}\}$ and $\Gamma(\mathbb{R}) = \{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}$. We also have $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}) = \mathbb{R}$ and $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}\}) = \mathbb{C}$.

Remark. The goal is to determine: When are Γ and Φ inverses of one another?

Theorem 9.1. *We have the following:*

1. *For every subfield E of L containing K, $\Gamma(E)$ is a subgroup of* $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$.
2. *Conversely, for every subgroup H of* $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, *$\Phi(H)$ is a subfield of L containing K.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Theorem 9.2. *Let $z \in L \setminus K$. If z is a root of $f \in K[X]$ and $\alpha \in \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, then $\alpha(z)$ is also a root of f.*

Proof. Let $f = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n$, where $a_i \in K$. Then since α fixes each $a_i \in K$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(\alpha(z)) = a_0 + a_1\alpha(z) + \cdots + a_n(\alpha(z))^n &= \alpha(a_0) + \alpha(a_1)\alpha(z) + \cdots + \alpha(a_n)(\alpha(z))^n \\ &= \alpha(a_0 + a_1 z + \cdots + a_n z^n) = \alpha(0) = 0, \end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof. □

Example 9.1.2. Recall this example from homework:

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) & \\
\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \arrow[ur] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) \arrow[u] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{15}) \arrow[ul] \\
 & K = \mathbb{Q} \arrow[ul] \arrow[u] \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

A basis for L over K is $\{1, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{15}\}$. Since $\sqrt{3}$ is a root of $X^2 - 3$, by the previous theorem, any element in $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$ must send $\sqrt{3} \mapsto \pm\sqrt{3}$. Similarly, any element must send $\sqrt{5} \mapsto \pm\sqrt{5}$. So the $\mathbb{Q}$-isomorphisms of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5})$ are

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) &= a - b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} - d\sqrt{15}, \\
\beta(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) &= a + b\sqrt{3} - c\sqrt{5} - d\sqrt{15}, \\
\gamma(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) &= a - b\sqrt{3} - c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}, \\
\mathrm{id}(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) &= a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}.
\end{aligned}$$

We can write the multiplication table for this group as:

$\times$	id	α	β	γ
id	id	α	β	γ
α	α	id	γ	β
β	β	γ	id	α
γ	γ	β	α	id

The proper subgroups are $H_1 = \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha\}$, $H_2 = \{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}$, and $H_3 = \{\mathrm{id}, \gamma\}$. Also $\{\mathrm{id}\}$ and $G = \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ are subgroups. Then

$$\Phi(H_1) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}), \quad \Phi(H_2) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}), \quad \Phi(H_3) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{15}),$$
$$\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}), \quad \Phi(G) = \mathbb{Q}.$$

Under Φ, this gives the diagram:

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & G & \\
H_2 \arrow[ur] & H_1 \arrow[u] & H_3 \arrow[ul] \\
 & \{\mathrm{id}\} \arrow[ul] \arrow[u] \arrow[ur] &
\end{tikzcd}
\longrightarrow
\begin{tikzcd}
 & \Phi(G) = \mathbb{Q} \arrow[dl] \arrow[d] \arrow[dr] & \\
\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \arrow[dr] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}) \arrow[d] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{15}) \arrow[dl] \\
 & \Phi(\{\mathrm{id}\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) &
\end{tikzcd}$$

Also note that $\Gamma(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})) = \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha\}$ since

$$\alpha(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) = a - b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} - d\sqrt{15}.$$

Exercise 9.1. Show that Γ is the inverse of Φ in the previous example.

Theorem 9.3. *Let $L : K$ be a field extension. Then*

1. *If E_1, E_2 are two subfields of L containing K, then $E_1 \subseteq E_2$ implies $\Gamma(E_1) \supseteq \Gamma(E_2)$.*
2. *If H_1, H_2 are subgroups of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, then $H_1 \subseteq H_2$ implies $\Phi(H_1) \supseteq \Phi(H_2)$.*

Proof. (1) Suppose $E_1 \subseteq E_2$ and $\alpha \in \Gamma(E_2)$. Then α fixes every element in E_2, so since $E_1 \subseteq E_2$, α also fixes every element in E_1. Hence $\alpha \in \Gamma(E_1)$ by definition.

(2) Suppose $H_1 \subseteq H_2$ and let $z \in \Phi(H_2)$. Then $\alpha(z) = z$ for every $\alpha \in H_2$, and since $H_1 \subseteq H_2$, $\alpha(z) = z$ for every $\alpha \in H_1$ as well. Hence $z \in \Phi(H_1)$ by definition. □

Remark. Note that Γ and Φ are not always inverses of one another.

Example 9.1.3. Consider the extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$. If $\alpha \in \mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q})$, then

$$\alpha(\sqrt[3]{2})^3 = \alpha(2) = 2.$$

Since there is only one cube root of 2 in this field, we must have $\alpha(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}$. So $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}) = \{\mathrm{id}\}$. So Γ cannot be the inverse of Φ here since there are two subfields, namely $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ and $\mathbb{Q}$. In particular,

$$\Gamma(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})) = \Gamma(\mathbb{Q}) = \{\mathrm{id}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi(\{\mathrm{id}\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}).$$

Theorem 9.4. *For any subfield E of L and subgroup H of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, we have*

1. *$E \subseteq \Phi(\Gamma(E))$*
2. *and $H \subseteq \Gamma(\Phi(H))$.*

Proof. (1) Let $z \in E$. Then $\Gamma(E)$ is the set of all automorphisms fixing every element of E, and so z is fixed by every element of $\Gamma(E)$. Hence $z \in \Phi(\Gamma(E))$.

(2) Let $\alpha \in H$. Then $\Phi(H)$ is the set of elements of L fixed by every element of H, and so α fixes every element of $\Phi(H)$. Hence $\alpha \in \Gamma(\Phi(H))$. □

Remark. Now the goal will be to find sufficient conditions for Γ and Φ to be inverses of one another.

9.3 Normal Extensions

Definition 9.2. A field extension $L : K$ is *normal* if every irreducible polynomial in $K[X]$ having at least one root in L splits completely over L.

Example 9.2.1. An nonexample is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$. This is not a normal extension since $X^3 - 2$ is irreducible and has a root in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, but does not split completely over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$.

Remark. Is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$ normal?

Theorem 9.5. *A finite extension $L : K$ is normal if and only if it is a splitting field for some polynomial in $K[X]$.*

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Let L be a finite normal extension and $\{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$ be a basis for $L : K$. let m_i be the minimal polynomial for z_i, and let

$$m = m_1 m_2 \ldots m_n.$$

Each m_i has at least one root z_i in L, hence m splits completely over L since L is normal. Since L is generated by $z_1, \ldots, z_n$, it is not possible for m to split over a proper subfield of L, hence L is a splitting field for m over K.

($\Leftarrow$) See Howie. Relies on the isomorphism $K(\alpha) \to K(\beta)$ for α, β roots of an irreducible polynomial f. We also need properties of degrees of field extensions. $\square$

Corollary 9.5.1. *Let L be a normal extension of K and E a subfield of L containing K. Then every injective K-homomorphism $\varphi : E \to L$ can be extended to a K-automorphism φ^* of L.*

$$\begin{tikzcd} E \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[d, hook, "i"'] & L \\ L \arrow[ur, dashed, "\varphi^*"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Proof. By the theorem, there exists $f \in K[X]$ such that L is a splitting field for f over K. But L is also a splitting field for f over E and $\varphi(E)$. From here, a slight generalization of the proof of uniqueness of splitting fields gives the desired K-automorphism of L extending φ. $\square$

Example 9.2.2. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5})$, $K = \mathbb{Q}$, and $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$. Define $\varphi : E \to L$ by

$$\varphi(a + b\sqrt{3}) = a - b\sqrt{3},$$

which is an injective K-homomorphism. We have the following diagram:

$$\begin{tikzcd} \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}) \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[d, hook, "i"'] & \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) \\ \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}) \arrow[ur, dashed, "\varphi^*"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Then we can define

$$\varphi^*(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) = a - b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} - d\sqrt{15}$$

as an extension of φ. Note that we could have also defined

$$\varphi^*(a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}) = a - b\sqrt{3} - c\sqrt{5} + d\sqrt{15}.$$

Remark. From the previous example we see that φ^* is not unique.

Lecture 10

Feb. 12 — Normal Closures

10.1 Normal Closures

Recall this theorem from last time:

> **Theorem 9.5.** A finite extension $L : K$ is normal if and only if it is a splitting field for some polynomial in $K[X]$.

A natural question to ask is: Can we always extend a finite extension to make it normal?

Definition 10.1. Let $L : K$ be a finite extension. A field N containing L is a *normal closure* of $L : K$ if

1. N is a normal extension of K,
2. and if E is a proper subfield of N containing L, then E is not a normal extension of K.

Theorem 10.1. *Let $L : K$ be a finite extension. Then*

1. *there exists a normal closure N of L over K,*
2. *and N is unique up to isomorphism.*

Proof. Let $\{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$ be a basis for $L : K$. Since $L : K$ is finite, each z_i is algebraic over K, with say minimal polynomial $m_i \in K[X]$. Let

$$m = m_1 \ldots m_n,$$

and let N be the splitting field of m over L. Then N is also a splitting field of m over K, since L is generated over K by some of the roots of m in N. Hence N is a normal extension of K containing L.

To see that N is the smallest such field, suppose E is a subfield of N containing L, and suppose E is normal. For each m_i, E contains a root z_i, so the normality of E implies that E contains all the roots of m, so $E = N$. For uniqueness, see Howie. The proof relies on the uniqueness of splitting fields. $\square$

Definition 10.2. Let $K_1, \ldots, K_n$ be subfields of L. The *join* of $K_1, \ldots, K_n$, denoted

$$K_1 \vee K_2 \vee \cdots \vee K_n,$$

is the smallest subfield of L containing $K_1 \cup K_2 \cup \cdots \cup K_n$.

Remark. The smallest subfield of L containing $K_1 \cup K_2$ is $K_1 \vee K_2 = K_1(K_2) = K_2(K_1)$, similar to how the smallest subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ containing $\mathbb{Q} \cup \{\sqrt{3}\}$ is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$.

Example 10.2.1. Let $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}), \mathbb{Q}(e^{2\pi i/3} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. Then $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \vee \mathbb{Q}(e^{2\pi i/3} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3})$, since

$$e^{2\pi i/3} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2} = -\frac{\sqrt[3]{2}}{2} + \frac{i\sqrt{3}}{2}\sqrt[3]{2}.$$

Remark. In the above example, we have $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \cong \mathbb{Q}(e^{2\pi i/3} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) \cong \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^3 - 2\rangle$.

Corollary 10.1.1. *Let $L : K$ be a finite extension, and N the normal closure of $L : K$. Then*

$$N = L_1 \vee L_2 \vee \cdots \vee L_k,$$

where $L_1, L_2, \ldots, L_k$ are subfields of N containing K isomorphic to L.

Proof. As in the previous proof, suppose $\{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$ is a basis for $L : K$, so $L = K(z_1, \ldots, z_n)$, and m_i is a minimal polynomial for z_i, and N a splitting field for $m = m_1 \ldots m_n$ over K. Let z_i' be an arbitrary root of m_i. Since z_i and z_i' are both roots of m_i, there exists a K-isomorphism $\varphi : K(z_i) \to K(z_i')$, which by Corollary 9.5.1 implies there exists a K-automorphism $\varphi^* : N \to N$. We have that

$$z_i' \in \varphi^*(L) \cong L,$$

so every root of m_i is contained in a subfield $L' = \varphi^*(L)$ of N that contains K and is isomorphic to L, since φ^* is a K-automorphism. Since N is generated over K by the roots of m, it is generated by finitely many subfields containing K and isomorphic to L. $\square$

Example 10.2.2. Find the normal closure of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. Following the proof of the theorem,

$$\{1, \sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{2}^2\}$$

is a basis of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$. The minimal polynomials of $1, \sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{2}^2$ are $X - 1, X^3 - 2, X^3 - 4$, respectively. The splitting field of

$$(X - 1)(X^3 - 2)(X^3 - 4)$$

over $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3})$, since

$$X^3 - 2 = (X - \sqrt[3]{2})(X - e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})(X - e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$$

and

$$X^3 - 4 = (X - \sqrt[3]{2}^2)(X - e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}^2)(X - e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}^2).$$

So $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) = L_1 \vee L_2 \vee L_3$, where $L_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, $L_2 = \mathbb{Q}(e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$, and $L_3 = \mathbb{Q}(e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$, and

$$L_1 \cong L_2 \cong L_3 \cong \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle X^3 - 2\rangle.$$

Theorem 10.2. *Let $L : K$ be a finite normal extension and E a subfield of L containing K. Then E is a normal extension of K if and only if every K-monomorphism of E into L is a K-automorphism of E.*

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$) Suppose $E : K$ is normal and let $\varphi : E \to L$ be a K-monomorphism. Now we would like to show that $\varphi(E) \subseteq E$. So let let $z \in E$ and suppose

$$m = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n$$

is the minimal polynomial of z over K. Then

$$a_0 + a_1 z + \cdots + a_n z^n = 0,$$

so that

$$a_0 + a_1\varphi(z) + \cdots + a_n\varphi(z)^n = 0$$

since φ is a homomorphism fixing K pointwise. Hence $\varphi(z)$ is also a root of m in L. Since $E : K$ is normal, the irreducible polynomial m splits completely over E. Hence $\varphi(z) \in E$, so that $\varphi(E) \subseteq E$. Then[1]

$$[\varphi(E) : K] = [\varphi(E) : \varphi(K)] = [E : K] = [E : \varphi(E)][\varphi(E) : K],$$

so $[E : \varphi(E)] = 1$. Hence $\varphi(E) = E$, so φ is a K-automorphism of E.

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose every K-monomorphism $E \to L$ is a K-automorphism of E. Let f be an irreducible polynomial in $K[X]$ having a root $z \in E$. We need to show that f splits completely over E. Since L is normal, f splits completely over L. Let z' be another root of f in L. Then there exists a K-automorphism $K(z) \to K(z')$ which sends $z \mapsto z'$, which by Corollary 9.5.1 extends to a K-automorphism ψ of L. Let $\psi^* = \psi|_E$, i.e. the restriction of ψ to E. By hypothesis, ψ^* is a K-automorphism of E, so

$$z' = \psi(z) = \psi^*(z) \in E.$$

That is, E is normal. $\square$

Example 10.2.3. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$, which is not normal. The $\mathbb{Q}$-monomorphism $\varphi : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \to \mathbb{C}$ given by

$$\varphi(a + b\sqrt[3]{2} + c\sqrt[3]{2}^2) = a + be^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2} + ce^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}^2$$

is not an automorphism of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$.

Example 10.2.4. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}$, which is normal. The $\mathbb{Q}$-monomorphisms are id and

$$\varphi(a + b\sqrt{2}) = a - b\sqrt{2},$$

which are both $\mathbb{Q}$-automorphisms of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.

10.2 Separable Extensions

Definition 10.3. An irreducible polynomial $f \in K[X]$ is *separable* over K if it has no repeated roots over a splitting field. A polynomial $g \in K[X]$ is *separable* over K if its irreducible factors are separable over K. An algebraic element in $L : K$ is *separable* over K if its minimal polynomial is separable over K. An algebraic extension $L : K$ is *separable* if every $\alpha \in L$ is separable over K.

Remark. A polynomial like $(X - 2)^2$ actually *is* separable over $\mathbb{Q}$ since its irreducible factors are $X - 2$ and $X - 2$, which are each separable.

Definition 10.4. A field K is *perfect* if every polynomial in $K[X]$ is separable over K.

Theorem 10.3. *We have the following:*

1. *Every field of characteristic* 0 *is perfect.*

[1] We need to make this argument since E may be infinite, so injectivity does not imply bijectivity.

2. Every finite field is perfect.

Proof. (1) It suffices to show that if $\operatorname{char} K = 0$, then any irreducible polynomial f is separable. Let

$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n$$

for $n \geq 1$ and suppose f is not separable. Then f and Df have a non-constant common factor d. Since f is irreducible, d must be a constant multiple of f, and thus d cannot divide Df unless

$$Df = a_1 + 2a_2 X + \cdots + na_n X^{n-1}$$

is the zero polynomial, by comparing degrees. Then

$$a_1 = 2a_2 = \cdots = na_n = 0.$$

Since $\operatorname{char} K = 0$, this implies

$$a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_n = 0,$$

and so $f = a_0$, a constant polynomial.[2] Contradiction. Hence f is separable.

(2) The same argument as above implies the only possible inseparable irreducible polynomials are of the form[3]

$$f(X) = b_0 + b_1 X^p + b_2 X^{2p} \cdots + b_m X^{mp}.$$

Now Theorem 7.24 of Howie implies that if K is finite, such a polynomial is reducible. Hence every irreducible polynomial is separable, so K is perfect. See Howie for details. □

Remark. Recall that $\mathbb{Z}_p(X)$ is an example of an infinite field with characteristic p.

[2]Recall that an irreducible polynomial is by definition a non-unit.

[3]We can still conclude $ka_k = 0$ implies $a_k = 0$ when k is not a multiple of p.

Lecture 11

Feb. 21 — Galois Extensions

11.1 Example of an Inseparable Extension

Example 11.0.1. The field $K = \mathbb{Z}_p(X)$ is not perfect. Consider the polynomial

$$f = Y^p - X \in \mathbb{Z}_p(X)[Y],$$

which is irreducible. Now let L be a splitting field of f over K and α a root of f, i.e. $\alpha^p - X = 0$. Then

$$(Y - \alpha)^p = Y^p - \alpha^p = Y^p - X$$

by freshman exponentiation. In particular, α is a repeated root of f in L.

11.2 Galois Extensions

Definition 11.1. A *Galois extension* of K is a finite extension that is both normal and separable.

Remark. The main goal here is: For a Galois extension, Γ and Φ are inverses of one another.

Theorem 11.1. *Let $L : K$ be a separable extension of degree n. Then there are exactly n distinct K-monomorphisms of L into a normal closure N of L over K.*

Proof. Use strong induction on the degree of $L : K$. See Howie for details. □

Corollary 11.1.1. *If $L : K$ is Galois, then $|\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)| = [L : K]$.*

Proof. If $L : K$ is Galois, then $L : K$ is normal and separable. So the previous theorem applies, where L is its own normal closure. So we get exactly $[L : K]$ distinct K-monomorphisms of L into L, which are precisely the K-automorphisms of L and thus the elements of the Galois group. □

Example 11.1.1. The extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}$ is Galois with $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 6$. We could have

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto \sqrt[3]{2} \text{ or } e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2} \text{ or } e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2} \quad \text{and} \quad i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3} \text{ or } -i\sqrt{3}.$$

Combinining these options gives us 6 distinct maps, so these must in fact all be $\mathbb{Q}$-automorphisms of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3})$, since we know the Galois group has size 6. In fact, $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}) \cong S_3 \cong D_3$.

Remark. The proper nontrivial subfields of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3})$ are $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$, and $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{3})$. Maybe draw a pretty diagram with this showing the Galois correspondence.

Exercise 11.1. Show that $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

Exercise 11.2. Show that $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \not\cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 11.2. *Let $L : K$ be a finite extension. Then $\Phi(\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)) = K$ if and only if $L : K$ is normal and separable.*

Proof. ($\Leftarrow$) Let $[L : K] = n$. By Corollary 11.1.1, we have $|\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)| = n$. Let $K' = \Phi(\mathrm{Gal}(L : K))$. By definition, $K \subseteq K'$. By Theorem 7.12 of Howie, we find that

$$[L : K'] = |\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)|.$$

Hence $[L : K'] = [L : K]$ and thus we conclude that $K = K'$.

($\Rightarrow$) See Howie. □

Exercise 11.3. Show that if $K \subseteq K'$ and $[L : K'] = [L : K]$, then $K = K'$.

Theorem 11.3. *Let $L : K$ be Galois and E a subfield of L containing K. If $\delta \in \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, then*

$$\Gamma(\delta(E)) = \delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1}.$$

Proof. We begin by showing $\delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1} \subseteq \Gamma(\delta(E))$. For this, let $\theta \in \Gamma(E)$ and $z' \in \delta(E)$. Then there exists a unique $z \in E$ such that $\delta(z) = z'$, since δ is an automorphism. Then

$$\delta\theta\delta^{-1}(z') = \delta\theta(z) = \delta(z) = z'$$

since $\delta(z) = z'$ and $\theta \in \Gamma(E)$. So we see that $\delta\theta\delta^{-1} \in \Gamma(\delta(E))$.

Now for $\Gamma(\delta(E)) \subseteq \delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1}$, we will show that $\delta^{-1}\Gamma(\delta(E))\delta \subseteq \Gamma(E)$. Let $\theta' \in \Gamma(\delta(E))$ and $z \in E$. Then $\delta(z) \in \delta(E)$ and so $\theta'(\delta(z)) = \delta(z)$. Thus

$$(\delta^{-1}\theta'\delta)(z) = (\delta^{-1} \circ \delta)(z) = z,$$

so we get $\delta^{-1}\theta'\delta \in \Gamma(E)$, as desired. □

Example 11.1.2. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}$. Define the elements of $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q})$ by

$$\mu_1 : \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto \sqrt[3]{2},\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3}, \quad \mu_2 : \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2},\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3},$$
$$\mu_3 : \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2},\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto -i\sqrt{3},$$
$$\rho_1 : \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2},\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3}, \quad \rho_2 : \sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2},\ i\sqrt{3} \mapsto i\sqrt{3}.$$

Let $\delta = \mu_3$ and $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$. Then $\delta(E) = \mathbb{Q}(e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2})$ since $\mu_3(\sqrt[3]{2}) = e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}$. Now

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_2(e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}) &= \mu_2(e^{-2\pi i/3})\mu_2(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \mu_2(-\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})\mu_2(\sqrt[3]{2}) \\ &= (-\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})(e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2}) = e^{2\pi i/3}e^{2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2} = e^{-2\pi i/3}\sqrt[3]{2},\end{aligned}$$

so $\Gamma(\delta(E)) = \{\mathrm{id}, \mu_2\}$. Also $\Gamma(E) = \{\mathrm{id}, \mu_1\}$, and we find that

$$\delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1} = \{\delta\mathrm{id}\delta^{-1}, \delta\mu_1\delta^{-1}\} = \{\mathrm{id}, \mu_3\mu_1\mu_3^{-1}\} = \{\mathrm{id}, \mu_2\},$$

so indeed we have $\Gamma(\delta(E)) = \delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1}$ in this case.

Lecture 12

Feb. 26 — The Fundamental Theorem

12.1 Normal Subgroups

Recall the following:

Definition 12.1. A subgroup H of G is *normal* if

$$gHg^{-1} = H$$

for all $g \in G$ (equivalently, $gH = Hg$ for all $g \in G$). This is denoted $H \triangleleft G$.

Remark. If G is abelian, then every subgroup of G is normal.

Exercise 12.1. If $[G : H] = 2$, then H is normal.

Remark. Normality is a necessary and sufficient condition for G/H to be a well-defined group (with operation induced by the operation on G).

Theorem 12.1. *Let $\varphi : G \to G'$ be a surjective homomorphism with kernel H. Then there exists a unique isomorphism $\alpha : G/H \to G'$ such that the following diagram commutes:*

$$\begin{tikzcd} G \arrow[r, "\varphi"] \arrow[d, "\pi"'] & G' \\ G/H \arrow[ur, "\alpha"'] & \end{tikzcd}$$

Here $\pi : G \to G/H$ is the canonical projection $g \mapsto gH$.

12.2 The Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory

Theorem 12.2 (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory)**.** *Let $L : K$ be a separable, normal extension of finite degree n. Then*

1. *For all subfields E of L containing K and for all subgroups H of* $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$*,*
   (a) $\Phi(\Gamma(E)) = E$ *and* $|\Gamma(E)| = [L : E]$,
   (b) $\Gamma(\Phi(H)) = H$ *and* $|\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)|/|\Gamma(E)| = [E : K]$.
2. *A subfield E is a normal extension of K if and only if $\Gamma(E)$ is a normal subgroup of* $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$*. If $E : K$ is normal, then*

$$\mathrm{Gal}(E : K) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)/\Gamma(E).$$

Proof. (1) By a homework exercise, $L : K$ being normal implies that $L : E$ is normal. Also, by Howie's Theorem 7.26, $L : K$ being finite and separable implies that $L : E$ is separable. Hence $L : E$ is Galois, so $|\Gamma(E)| = [L : E]$. Then

$$[E : K] = \frac{[L : K]}{[L : E]} = \frac{|\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)|}{|\Gamma(E)|}.$$

Now $\Gamma(E) = \mathrm{Gal}(L : E)$, so $L : E$ being Galois and Howie's Theorem 7.30 imply that $\Phi(\Gamma(E)) = E$. Now let H be a subgroup of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$. We showed that $H \subseteq \Gamma(\Phi(H))$. Also $\Phi\Gamma\Phi = \Phi$, so

$$|H| = [L : \Phi(H)] = [L : \Phi\Gamma\Phi(H)] = |\Gamma\Phi(H)|$$

by Howie's Theorem 7.12. Now finiteness and $H \subseteq \Gamma(\Phi(H))$ imply that $H = \Gamma(\Phi(H))$.

(2) ($\Rightarrow$) Suppose $E : K$ is normal and let $\delta \in \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$. Let $\delta' = \delta|_E$, the restriction of δ to E. Hence δ' is a monomorphism $E \to L$ and thus a K-automorphism of E, by Howie's Theorem 7.21. Hence

$$\delta(E) = \delta'(E) = E,$$

and so by Theorem 11.3,

$$\Gamma(E) = \Gamma(\delta(E)) = \delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1},$$

i.e. $\Gamma(E)$ is a normal subgroup of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$.

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose $\Gamma(E)$ is a normal subgroup of $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$. Let δ_1 be a K-monomorphism from E to L. This extends (by Howie's Corollary 7.14) to a K-automorphism δ of L. Since $\Gamma(E)$ is normal, $\delta\Gamma(E)\delta^{-1} = \Gamma(E)$. Hence by Theorem 11.3, we get $\Gamma(\delta(E)) = \Gamma(E)$. Since Γ is injective,

$$\delta_1(E) = \delta(E) = E,$$

so δ is a K-automorphism of E. By Howie's Theorem 7.21, this implies $E : K$ is normal.

Now suppose $E : K$ is normal, and we want to show that

$$\mathrm{Gal}(E : K) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)/\Gamma(E).$$

Let $\delta \in \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$ and $\delta' = \delta|_E$. By Howie's Theorem 7.21, having $E : K$ be normal implies that $\delta'(E) = E$. Thus we can define $\theta : \mathrm{Gal}(L : K) \to \mathrm{Gal}(E : K)$ by $\delta \mapsto \delta'$, i.e. restricting δ to E. Clearly θ is surjective onto $\mathrm{Gal}(E : K)$. Also, we see that

$$\ker\theta = \{\delta \in \mathrm{Gal}(L : K) \mid \delta|_E = \mathrm{id}_E\} = \Gamma(E).$$

Hence by the first isomorphism theorem, $\mathrm{Gal}(E : K) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)/\ker\theta = \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)/\Gamma(E)$. $\square$

Exercise 12.2. Show that $\Phi\Gamma\Phi = \Phi$.

Exercise 12.3. Check that θ is a homomorphism.

Example 12.1.1. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}, i)$ with $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 8$. Any $\mathbb{Q}$-automorphism in $\mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$ must map

$$i \mapsto \pm i, \quad \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto \pm\sqrt[4]{2}, \pm i\sqrt[4]{2}.$$

So there are only 8 possible automorphisms, and thus each of these must in fact be automorphisms since $|\mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})| = [L : \mathbb{Q}] = 8$. We can enumerate these automorphisms via

$$\begin{gathered}\mathrm{id}, \quad \alpha : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto i\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto i, \quad \beta : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto -\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto i, \quad \gamma : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto -i\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto i,\\ \lambda : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto \sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto -i, \quad \mu : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto i\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto -i, \quad \nu : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto -\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto -i,\\ \rho : \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto -i\sqrt[4]{2}, i \mapsto -i.\end{gathered}$$

Note that $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q})$ is not abelian, as

$$\lambda\alpha(\sqrt[4]{2}) = \lambda(i\sqrt[4]{2}) = -i\sqrt[4]{2}, \quad \lambda\alpha(i) = \lambda(i) = i,$$

so $\lambda\alpha = \rho$. We can show as an exercise that $\alpha\lambda = \mu \neq \rho$, so $\lambda\alpha \neq \alpha\lambda$. The subgroups of $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q})$ are

$$\begin{gathered} G = \mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q}), \quad \{\mathrm{id}\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \mu\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \nu\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \rho\}, \\ \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma\}, \qquad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \lambda, \nu\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \mu, \rho\}. \end{gathered}$$

Now we could draw a nice subgroup lattice for this (identical to D_4, the dihedral group of order 8). The normal subgroups of $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q})$ are

$$G, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \lambda, \nu\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \mu, \rho\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}, \quad \{\mathrm{id}\}.$$

Let $H_1 = \{\mathrm{id}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$. Then $\Phi(H_1) = \mathbb{Q}(i)$. Also $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$ and $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \nu\}) = \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt[4]{2})$. We can also see that $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \mu\}) = \mathbb{Q}((1+i)\sqrt[4]{2})$ and $\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \rho\}) = \mathbb{Q}((1-i)\sqrt[4]{2})$.

Exercise 12.4. Write out the multiplication table for $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q})$.

Lecture 13

Feb. 28 — Join of Subgroups and Subfields

13.1 Join of Subgroups

Let H_1, H_2 be subgroups of G.

Exercise 13.1. Show that $H_1 \cap H_2$ is a subgroup of G.

Remark. In general, $H_1 \cup H_2$ is *not* a subgroup of G.

Definition 13.1. The *join* of H_1 and H_2, denoted $H_1 \vee H_2$, is the smallest subgroup of G containing $H_1 \cup H_2$, i.e. $H_1 \vee H_2$ consists of all products of the form

$$a_1 b_1 \ldots a_n b_n,$$

where $a_i \in H_1$ and $b_i \in H_2$ for all n.

Remark. Recall that if E_1 and E_2 are subfields of L, then $E_1 \cap E_2$ is also a subfield of L, as is the join

$$E_1 \vee E_2 = E_1(E_2) = E_2(E_1).$$

Example 13.1.1. In Example 12.1.1, we have $\{\mathrm{id}, \beta\} \vee \{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\} = \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \lambda, \nu\}$. Now notice that

$$\Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \beta\}) = \mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt{2}), \quad \Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}), \quad \Phi(\{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \lambda, \nu\}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}).$$

Notice that $\mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.

Theorem 13.1. *Let $L : K$ be Galois and E_1, E_2 subfields of L containing K. If*

$$\Gamma(E_1) = H_1, \quad \Gamma(E_2) = H_2,$$

then $\Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2) = H_1 \vee H_2$ and $\Gamma(E_1 \vee E_2) = H_1 \cap H_2$.

Proof. Certainly $E_1 \cap E_2 \subseteq E_1$, so $H_1 = \Gamma(E_1) \subseteq \Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2)$, since the Galois correspondence is order reversing. Similarly, $H_2 = \Gamma(E_2) \subseteq \Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2)$, so $H_1 \vee H_2 \subseteq \Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2)$. Now $H_1 \subseteq H_1 \vee H_2$, so we get $E_1 = \Phi(H_1) \supseteq \Phi(H_1 \vee H_2)$. Similarly, $E_2 = \Phi(H_2) \supseteq \Phi(H_1 \vee H_2)$, so $\Phi(H_1 \vee H_2) \subseteq E_1 \cap E_2$. Since $L : K$ is Galois, we get

$$H_1 \vee H_2 \supseteq \Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2)$$

by applying Γ to both sides. So $\Gamma(E_1 \cap E_2) = H_1 \vee H_2$.

The proof for $\Gamma(E_1 \vee E_2) = H_1 \cap H_2$ is similar, see Howie for details. $\square$

Lecture 14

Mar. 4 — Solvable Groups

14.1 Solvable Groups

Definition 14.1. A finite group G is *solvable* if, for some $m \geq 0$, it has a finite series

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} = G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_m = G$$

of subgroups such that for $i = 0, \ldots, m-1$,

1. $G_i \triangleleft G_{i+1}$,
2. and G_{i+1}/G_i is cyclic.

Remark. We require $G_i \triangleleft G_{i+1}$, but G_i need not be normal in G.

Example 14.1.1. Let $G = \mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt[4]{2}), \mathbb{Q})$ from Example 12.1.1. We have

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} \subseteq \{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\} \subseteq \{\mathrm{id}, \beta, \lambda, \nu\} \subseteq G,$$

where $G_i \triangleleft G_{i+1}$ and $|G_{i+1}/G_i| = 2$, so it is cyclic. Observe that $\{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\}$ is not normal in G, since

$$\alpha\{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\} = \{\alpha, \mu\} \neq \{\alpha, \rho\} = \{\mathrm{id}, \lambda\}\alpha.$$

Theorem 14.1. *Every finite abelian group G is solvable.*

Proof. Recall from the structure theorem for finitely generated abelian groups that every finite abelian group is a direct sum of cyclic groups. Then

$$G = U_1 \oplus U_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_k$$

where each U_i is cyclic. Let

$$G_i = U_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus U_i.$$

Observe that $G_i \triangleleft G_{i+1}$ since G is abelian, and $G_{i+1}/G_i \cong U_{i+1}$, which is cyclic. So G is solvable. □

Remark. Recall that S_n is the symmetric group on n elements.

Theorem 14.2. *Every permutation can be expressed as a product of transpositions (i.e. 2-cycles).*

Definition 14.2. A permutation σ is *even* (respectively *odd*) if σ can be expressed as a product of an *even* (respectively *odd*) number of transpositions. This is well defined. The set

$$A_n = \text{subgroup of even permutations}$$

is called the *alternating group*.

Example 14.2.1. We have $S_3 = \{\mathrm{id}, (12), (23), (13), (123), (132)\}$. We can write

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} \subseteq \{\mathrm{id}, (123), (132)\} \subseteq S_3.$$

Call these G_i for $i = 0, 1, 2$. Then $G_i \lhd G_{i+1}$, and $G_2/G_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ and $G_1/G_0 = G_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$. So S_3 is solvable.

Example 14.2.2. The symmetric group S_4 is solvable. We can write

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} \subseteq \{\mathrm{id}, (12)(34)\} \subseteq \{\mathrm{id}, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\} \subseteq A_4 \subseteq S_4.$$

Call the first three subgroups G_i for $i = 0, 1, 2$. Then $G_i \lhd G_{i+1}$, and we have

$$S_4/A_4 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad A_4/G_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_3, \quad G_2/G_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad G_1/G_0 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2.$$

Exercise 14.1. Show that $G_2 = \{\mathrm{id}, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\} \lhd A_4$.

Definition 14.3. A group is *simple* if it has no proper normal subgroups.

Remark. A non-abelian simple group is not solvable.

Theorem 14.3. *For $n \geq 5$, the alternating group A_n is simple.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Theorem 14.4. *We have the following:*

1. *If G is solvable, then every subgroup of G is solvable.*
2. *If G is solvable and $N \lhd G$, then G/N is solvable.*
3. *Let $N \lhd G$. Then G is solvable if and only if N and G/N are solvable.*

Proof. (1) Since G is solvable, there exists

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} = G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_m = G$$

where $G_i \lhd G_{i+1}$ and G_{i+1}/G_i is cyclic. Now let H be a subgroup of G. Let $K_i = G_i \cap H$. Now check as an exercise that

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq K_m = H$$

is the desired series of subgroups. In particular, check that $K_i \lhd K_{i+1}$ and K_{i+1}/K_i is cyclic (show that it is a subgroup of the cyclic group G_{i+1}/G_i).

(2) Take

$$N/N = NG_0/N \subseteq NG_1/N \subseteq \ldots NG_m/N = G/N$$

as the desired series of subgroups. Here

$$NG = \{ng \mid n \in N, g \in G\}.$$

Check as an exercise that this construction works. For the cyclic part, verify that $(NG_{i+1}/N)/(NG_i/N)$ is a quotient of the cyclic group G_{i+1}/G_i. One of the isomorphism theorems may help here.

(3) ($\Rightarrow$) this follows from (1) and (2).

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose N and G/N are solvable. Then there exists a series

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} \subseteq N_0 \subseteq N_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq N_p = N$$

such that $N_i \triangleleft N_{i+1}$ and N_{i+1}/N_i is cyclic, and a series

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} = N/N = G_0/N \subseteq G_1/N \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_n/N = G/N$$

such that $G_i/N \triangleleft G_{i+1}/N$ and $(G_{i+1}/N)/(G_i/N) \cong G_{i+1}/G_i$ by one of the isomorphism theorems, so it is cyclic as well. Now check as an exercise that

$$\{\mathrm{id}\} = N_0 \subseteq N_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq N_p = N = G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_n = G$$

is the desired series (i.e. check the normal and cyclic conditions). □

Corollary 14.4.1. *For $n \geq 5$, S_n is not solvable.*

Proof. For $n \geq 5$, A_n is simple, hence it is not solvable. Now if S_n were solvable, all of its subgroups would be solvable, which leads to a contradiction since $A_n \subseteq S_n$. □

14.2 Solvable Polynomials

Definition 14.4. A field extension $L : K$ is a *radical extension* if there exists a sequence

$$K = L_0 \subseteq L_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq L_m = L$$

such that $L_{j+1} = L_j(\alpha_j)$, where α_j is a root of a polynomial in $L_j[X]$ of the form $X^{n_j} - c_j$.

Example 14.4.1. For $L_0 = \mathbb{Q}$, we can take

$$\begin{aligned}
&L_0 = \mathbb{Q}, \\
&L_1 = L_0(\alpha_0), && \alpha_0^2 = 2, \\
&L_2 = L_1(\alpha_1), && \alpha_1^5 = 3 + \sqrt{2} \in L_1, \\
&L_3 = L_2(\alpha_2), && \alpha_2^2 = 2 + \sqrt[5]{3 + \sqrt{2}} \in L_2.
\end{aligned}$$

This is a radical extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Definition 14.5. A polynomial $f \in K[X]$ is *solvable by radicals* if there is a splitting field for f contained in a radical extension of K.

Example 14.5.1. Any quadratic $f = X^2 + bX + c \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is solvable by radicals, since its roots are

$$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4c}}{2}.$$

Remark. In the 16th and 17th centuries, mathematicians proved that cubics

$$X^3 + a_2X^2 + a_1X + a_0$$

and quartics
$$X^4 + a_3X^3 + a_2X^2 + a_1X + a_0$$
are solvable by radicals. For cubics, the idea is to *depress* the cubic, i.e. make a substitution to remove the quadratic term. Then we get
$$Y^3 + 3aY + b = 0.$$
By a lengthy algebra argument, the roots are
$$q + r, \quad q\omega + r\omega^2, \quad q\omega^2 + r\omega,$$
where
$$q = \left(\frac{1}{2}(-b + \sqrt{b^2 + 4a^3})\right)^{1/3}$$
and we have similar expressions for r and ω. A similar but longer algebraic manipulations can be made for quartics. In particular, the expressions for the roots of cubics and quartics only involve radicals.

Theorem 14.5. *Let $L : K$ be a radical extension and N the normal closure of L over K. Then N is also a radical extension of K.*

Proof. By Corollary 10.1.1, we have
$$N = L_1 \vee \cdots \vee L_k,$$
where each $L_i \cong L$, hence they are all radical. Now it suffices to show that the join of two radical extensions is radical. For this, let
$$L_1 = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m), \quad L_2 = K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n),$$
where $\alpha_i^{k_i} \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1})$ and $\beta_j^{l_j} \in K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{j-1})$. Then
$$L_1 \vee L_2 = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n),$$
where $\alpha_i^{k_i} \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1})$ and $\beta_j^{l_j} \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{j-1})$, so $L_1 \vee L_2$ is radical. □

Remark. Radical extensions involve polynomials of the form $X^m - c$. Let us look more closely at $X^m - 1$. We focus on fields K of characteristic 0, so that the splitting field L of $X^m - 1$ over K is normal and separable.

Lemma 14.1. *The set R of roots of $X^m - 1$ is a cyclic group under multiplication.*

Proof. Check as an exercise that R is indeed a subgroup of L. To see that it is cyclic, recall that
$$\exp(R) = \text{smallest positive integer } e \text{ such that } a^e = 1 \text{ for all } a \in R.$$
Clearly we have $\exp(R) \le |R|$. Now observe that $x^e - 1$ has at most e roots, so $|R| \le e$. Hence $e = |R| = m$, so $(R, \cdot)$ is cyclic. □

Definition 14.6. A *primitive mth root of unity* ω is a generator for $(R, \cdot)$.

Remark. We have
$$R = \{1, \omega, \omega^2, \ldots, \omega^{m-1}\},$$
and ω^i is a primitive mth root of unity if $\gcd(m, i) = 1$.

Definition 14.7. Let $P_m = \{\text{primitive } m\text{th roots of unity}\}$. The *cyclotomic polynomial* Φ_m is
$$\Phi_m = \prod_{\varepsilon \in P_m} (X - \varepsilon).$$

Lecture 15

Mar. 6 — Cyclotomic Polynomials

15.1 Cyclotomic Polynomials

Example 15.0.1. For $X^p - 1$ with p prime, all roots except 1 are primitive:

$$X^p - 1 = (X-1)(X^{p-1} + X^{p-2} + \cdots + 1).$$

So we get $\Phi_p = X^{p-1} + X^{p-2} + \cdots + 1$.

Example 15.0.2. Consider $f = X^{12} - 1$, where $L \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is the splitting field of f over $\mathbb{Q}$. We have

$$P_{12} = \{\omega, \omega^5, \omega^7, \omega^{11}\},$$

the powers of $\omega = e^{2\pi i/12}$ relatively prime to 12. This gives

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_{12} &= (X-\omega)(X-\omega^{11})(X-\omega^5)(X-\omega^7) = (X^2 - (\omega+\omega^{11})X + 1)(X^2 - (\omega^5+\omega^7)X + 1) \\ &= (X^2 - \sqrt{3}X + 1)(X^2 + \sqrt{3}X + 1) = X^4 - X^2 + 1,\end{aligned}$$

since $\omega^{11} = \overline{\omega}$ with $\mathrm{Re}(\omega) = \sqrt{3}/2$ (a similar analysis works for ω^5 and ω^7). We have $P_6 = \{\omega^2, \omega^{10}\}$, so

$$(X-\omega^2)(X-\omega^{10}) = X^2 - (\omega^2 + \omega^{10})X + 1 = X^2 - X + 1$$

Next $P_3 = \{\omega^3, \omega^9\} = \{\pm i\}$, so

$$\Phi_4 = (X-i)(X+i) = X^2 + 1.$$

Now $P_3 = \{\omega^4, \omega^8\}$, so

$$\Phi_2 = (X-\omega^4)(X-\omega^8) = X^2 + X + 1.$$

Finally $P_2 = \{\omega^6\}$, so $\Phi_2 = X + 1$, and $P_1 = \{1\} = \{\omega^{12}\}$, so $\Phi_1 = X - 1$.

Remark. Observe that

$$X^{12} - 1 = \prod_{d|12} \Phi_d = (X-1)(X+1)(X^2+X+1)(X^2+1)(X^2-X+1)(X^4-X^2+1).$$

This works in general, i.e.

$$X^m - 1 = \prod_{d|m} \Phi_d.$$

Note that we need $1|m$ and $m|m$ here.

Remark. The question here is: Does Φ_d always have coefficients in K?

Lemma 15.1. *Let K, L be fields and $K \subseteq L$. If $f, g \in L[X]$ such that $f, fg \in K[X]$, then $g \in K[X]$.*

Proof. Let
$$f = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_m X^m$$
for $a_i \in K$, $a_m \neq 0$, and
$$g = b_0 + b_1 X + \cdots + b_n X^n$$
for $b_i \in L$, $b_n \neq 0$. Then
$$fg = c_0 + c_1 X + \cdots + c_{m+n} X^{m+n}$$
for $c_i \in K$, so $b_n = c_{m+n}/a_m \in K$. Now suppose inductively that $b_j \in K$ for all $j > r$. Then
$$c_{m+r} = a_m b_r + a_{m-1} b_{r+1} + \cdots + a_{m-n+r} b_n$$
where $a_i = 0$ if $i < 0$. Then we get that
$$b_r = \frac{c_{m+r} - a_{m-1} b_{r+1} - \cdots - a_{m-n+r} b_n}{a_m}.$$
Since each $a_i \in K$, $c_{m+r} \in K$, and $b_j \in K$ for $j > r$, we get that $b_r \in K$. So in fact $b_j \in K$ for all j by induction, and thus $g \in K[X]$. □

Theorem 15.1. *Let* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ *(so the prime subfield $K_0 \cong \mathbb{Q}$). Suppose K contains the mth roots of unity, where $m \geq 2$. Then for every divisor d of m, $\Phi_d \in K_0[X]$.*

Proof. Note that $\Phi_1 = X - 1 \in K_0[X]$. Let $d|m$, $d \neq 1$, and suppose inductively that $\Phi_r \in K_0[X]$ for all proper divisors r of d. Now
$$X^d - 1 = \left(\prod_{r|d, r \neq d} \Phi_r \right) \Phi_d,$$
so Lemma 15.1 gives $\Phi_d \in K_0[X]$. □

Remark. In fact, $\Phi_m \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$.

Theorem 15.2. *The cyclotomic polynomials Φ_m are irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.*

Proof. See Howie. □

15.2 The Galois Groups of Cyclotomic Polynomials

Remark. When we talk about the *Galois group of a polynomial*, we mean the Galois group of the splitting field of that polynomial.

Theorem 15.3. *Let L be a splitting field over $\mathbb{Q}$ of $X^m - 1$. Then* $\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_m^*$.

Proof. Let ω be a primitive mth root of unity and $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$. Since $L = \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$, $\sigma(\omega)$ must be another primitive mth root of unity, so $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$ if and only if $\sigma(\omega) = \omega^{k_\sigma}$ where $\gcd(k_\sigma, m) = 1$. Then $\sigma \mapsto k_\sigma$ is an isomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) \to \mathbb{Z}_m^*$, so $\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_m^*$. □

Exercise 15.1. Show that the map $\sigma \mapsto k_\sigma$ is an isomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) \to \mathbb{Z}_m^*$.

Corollary 15.3.1. *If L is a splitting field of $X^p - 1$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ with p prime, then $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q})$ is cyclic.*

Proof. By Theorem 15.3, $\mathrm{Gal}(L:\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, which we have previously shown is cyclic. $\square$

Example 15.0.3. Consider the splitting field $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ of $X^8 - 1$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/8} = e^{\pi i/4}$. Then

$$\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q}) = \{\omega \mapsto \omega, \omega \mapsto \omega^3, \omega \mapsto \omega^5, \omega \mapsto \omega^7\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_8^*.$$

In particular, $\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q})$ is not cyclic since every element has order 2.

Example 15.0.4. Consider the splitting field $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ of $X^5 - 1$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/5}$. Then

$$\mathrm{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q}) = \{\omega \mapsto \omega, \omega \mapsto \omega^2, \omega \mapsto \omega^3, \omega \mapsto \omega^4\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_5^*.$$

Theorem 15.4. *Let $f = X^m - a \in K[X]$, where $\operatorname{char} K = 0$. Let L be a splitting for f over K. Then*

1. *L contains a primitive mth root of unity ω,*
2. *$\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$ is cyclic, with order dividing m,*
3. *and $|\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))| = m$ if and only if f is irreducible over $K(\omega)$.*

Proof. If α is a root of f, then over L we have

$$f = (X-\alpha)(X-\omega\alpha)(X-\omega^2\alpha)\ldots(X-\omega^{m-1}\alpha)$$

where ω is a primitive mth root of unity. Since $\alpha, \omega\alpha \in L$, this proves (1). Thus $L = K(\omega,\alpha)$, and an element $\sigma \in \mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$ is determined by $\sigma(\alpha)$, which must be another root of f. Hence $\sigma(\alpha) = \omega^{k_\sigma}\alpha$ for some $k_\sigma \in \{0,1,\ldots,m-1\}$. Now for $\sigma,\tau \in \mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$,

$$\sigma \circ \tau(\alpha) = \sigma(\omega^{k_\tau}\alpha) = \omega^{k_\tau}\sigma(\alpha) = \omega^{k_\tau}\omega^{k_\sigma}\alpha = \omega^{k_\sigma+k_\tau}\alpha,$$

so $\sigma \mapsto k_\sigma$ is a homomorphism $\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega)) \to \mathbb{Z}_m$. This homomorphism is injective since

$$k_\sigma \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

if and only if $m|k_\sigma$, if and only if $\sigma(\alpha = \alpha)$. Hence $\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of the cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}_m$, so $\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$ is cyclic (subgroups of cyclic groups are cyclic). This proves (2).

(3) ($\Leftarrow$) Suppose f is irreducible over $K(\omega)$. Then by the Galois correspondence

$$|\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))| = [L:K(\omega)] = \partial f = m,$$

where the second equality follows from the characterization of simple algebraic extensions. So we get $\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega)) \cong \mathbb{Z}_m$, since we already showed that $\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_m$.

(3) $\Rightarrow$) We show the contrapositive. Suppose f is not irreducible over $K(\omega)$, so f has a monic proper factor g with $\partial g < m$. Let β be a root of g. Then

$$X^m - a = (X-\beta)(X-\omega\beta)\ldots(X-\omega^{m-1}\beta),$$

so $L = K(\omega,\beta)$ is a splitting field for f over $K(\omega)$. Hence

$$|\mathrm{Gal}(L:K(\omega))| = [L:K(\omega)] = \partial g < m,$$

so the Galois group is a proper subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_m$. $\square$

Theorem 15.5 (Abel's theorem)**.** *Let* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$*,* p *prime, and* $a \in K$*. If* $X^p - a$ *is reducible over* K*, then it has a linear factor* $X - c$ *in* $K[X]$*.*

Proof. Suppose $f = X^p - a$ is reducible over K. Let $g \in K[X]$ be a monic irreducible factor of f of egree d. If $d = 1$, then we are done, so suppose $1 < d < p$. Let L be a splitting field of f over K, and β a root of f in L. Then in $L[X]$,

$$g = (X - \omega^{n_1}\beta)(X - \omega^{n_2}\beta)\dots(X - \omega^{n_d}\beta)$$

where ω is a primitive pth root of unity and $0 \le n_1 < n_2 < \cdots < n_d < p$. Suppose

$$g = X^d - b_{d-1}X^{d-1} + \cdots + (-1)^d b_0.$$

Then we have

$$b_0 = \omega^{n_1+n_2+\cdots+n_d}\beta^d = \omega^n\beta^d$$

where $n = n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_d$. So

$$b_0^p = \omega^{pn}\beta^{pd} = (\beta^p)^d = a^d$$

since $\omega^p = 1$ and β is a pth root of a. We have $\gcd(d, p) = 1$ since p is prime, so there exist $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $sd + tp = 1$. Then since $a^d = b_0^p$, we get that

$$a = a^{sd+tp} = a^{sd}a^{tp} = b_0^{sp}a^{tp} = (b_0^s a^t)^p.$$

Now $X - b_0^s a^t$ is the desired linear factor of f in $K[X]$. □

Example 15.0.5. Let L be the splitting field of $X^5 - 7$ over $\mathbb{Q}$. We have $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[5]{7}, \omega)$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/5}$. Note that the minimum polynomial of ω is $X^4 + X^3 + X^2 + X + 1$. What is $\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$? First we show that $X^5 - 7$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$. To do this, suppose not. Then by Abel's theorem, $X^5 - 7$ has a linear factor $X - c$ in $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)[X]$, i.e. $c = \sqrt[5]{7} \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ and $[\mathbb{Q}(c) : \mathbb{Q}] = 5$. But if $c \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$, then

$$[\mathbb{Q}(c) : \mathbb{Q}] \le [\mathbb{Q}(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4,$$

a contradiction. Now notice that the roots of $X^5 - 7$ in $\mathbb{C}$ are

$$\alpha, \omega\alpha, \omega^2\alpha, \omega^3\alpha, \omega^4\alpha,$$

where $\alpha = \sqrt[5]{7}$. Since $|\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})| = 20$, define the maps

$$\sigma_{p,q} : \alpha \mapsto \omega^p\alpha, \quad \omega \mapsto \omega^q$$

for $0 \le p \le 4$ and $1 \le q \le 4$. Then we can write

$$\operatorname{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) = \{\sigma_{p,q} \mid 0 \le p \le 4, 1 \le q \le 4\},$$

where the identity element is $\mathrm{id} = \sigma_{0,1}$.

Exercise 15.2. Check that

$$\sigma_{p,q}\sigma_{r,s} = \sigma_{rq+p,qs}$$

in the above example, where the subscripts are taken modulo 5 (i.e. compute $\sigma_{p,q}\sigma_{r,s}(\alpha)$ and $\sigma_{p,q}\sigma_{r,s}(\omega)$).

Lecture 16

Mar. 11 — Solvable Polynomials

16.1 More on Cyclotomic Polynomials

Exercise 16.1. From Example 15.0.5, check that

$$(\sigma_{1,1})^n = \sigma_{n,1}, \quad (\sigma_{0,2})^n = \sigma_{0,2^n}, \quad \sigma_{2,1}\sigma_{0,2} = \sigma_{2,2} = \sigma_{0,2}\sigma_{1,1}.$$

Let $a = \sigma_{1,1}$ and $b = \sigma_{0,2}$. Use the above to show that

$$\mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q}) = \langle a, b \mid a^5 = 1,\, b^4 = 1,\, a^2 b = ba \rangle$$

is a presentation for $\mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$ in terms of generators and relations.

Theorem 16.1. *Let $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ and suppose $X^m - 1$ splits completely over K. Let $L : K$ be a cyclic extension with $[L : K] = m$. Then there exists $a \in K$ such that*

1. *$X^m - a$ is irreducible over K,*
2. *L is a splitting field for $X^m - a$ over K,*
3. *and $L = K(\alpha)$ where α is a root of $X^m - a$.*

Proof. See Howie. □

Remark. This is a partial converse to Theorem 15.4.

16.2 Solvable Polynomials

Remark. For $f \in K[X]$, we define $\mathrm{Gal}(f) = \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$ where L is a splitting field for f over K.

Theorem 16.2. *Let $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ and $f \in K[X]$. If $\mathrm{Gal}(f)$ is solvable, then f is solvable by radicals.*

Proof. Let L be a splitting field of f over K, where $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$ is solvable by hypothesis, and let $m = |\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)|$. If K does not contain an mth root of unity, adjoin one, i.e. let E be the splitting field of $X^m - 1$ over K. Let M be the splitting field of f over E. This gives the subfield lattice:

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & M & \\
E \arrow[ur] & & L \arrow[ul] \\
 & E \cap L \arrow[ul] \arrow[ur] & \\
 & K \arrow[u] &
\end{tikzcd}$$

By Theorem 7.36 of Howie, we get $G = \mathrm{Gal}(M : E) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(L : E \cap L)$. Now $\mathrm{Gal}(L : E \cap L) \subseteq \mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$, i.e. G is isomorphic to a subgroup of a solvable group, hence it is also solvable. So

$$\{1\} = G_0 \lhd G_1 \lhd \cdots \lhd G_{r-1} \lhd G_r = G,$$

with G_{i+1}/G_i cyclic. By the fundamental theorem of Galois theory, we get

$$M_0 = M \supseteq M_1 \supseteq \cdots \subseteq M_{r-1} \supseteq M_r = E \supseteq K,$$

where $M_i : M_{i+1}$ is normal. We have $\mathrm{Gal}(M : M_i) = G_i$, so

$$\mathrm{Gal}(M_i : M_{i+1}) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(M : M_i)/\Gamma(M_i) \cong G_{i+1}/G_i,$$

which yields that $M_i : M_{i+1}$ is cyclic. Let $d_i = [M_i : M_{i+1}]$. Then $d_1 \big| [M : E] = \mathrm{Gal}(M : E)$. Now since $\mathrm{Gal}(M : E) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(L : E \cap L)$, we have that

$$|\mathrm{Gal}(L : E \cap L)| \big| |\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)| = m,$$

so $d_1 | m$. Since M_{i+1} contains E, it contains every mth root of unity, so E also contains all d_ith roots of unity. By Theorem 15.4, there exists $\beta_i \in M_i$ such that $M_i = M_{i+1}(\beta_i)$, where β_i is a root of $X^{d_i} - c_{i+1}$ with $c_{i+1} \in M_{i+1}$. Hence we get that f is solvable by radicals. □

Theorem 16.3. *Let* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ *and* $K \subseteq L \subseteq M$ *where* M *is a radical extension. Then* $\mathrm{Gal}(L : K)$ *is solvable.*

Proof. By hypothesis, there exists a sequence

$$M_r = M \supseteq M_{r-1} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq M_1 \supseteq M_0 = K,$$

where $M_{i+1} = M_i(\alpha_i)$ with α_i a root of $X^{n_i} - a_i \in M_i[X]$. The main idea from here is that if $L : K$ and $M : K$ are normal, then

$$\mathrm{Gal}(L : K) \cong \mathrm{Gal}(M : K)/\,\mathrm{Gal}(M : L),$$

so it is sufficient to show that $\mathrm{Gal}(M : K)$ is solvable. Now use Theorem 8.18 and Corollary 8.14 from Howie to show that $\mathrm{Gal}(M : K)$ is solvable (uses induction). See Howie for details. □

Theorem 16.4. *A polynomial* $f \in K[X]$ *with* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ *is solvable by radicals if and only if* $\mathrm{Gal}(f)$ *is solvable.*

Proof. This is summarizing the previous two theorems. □

16.3 Insolvability of the Quintic

Theorem 16.5. *Let $f \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ be a monic irreducible polynomial with $\partial f = p$, p prime. Suppose f has exactly two roots in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$. Then* $\mathrm{Gal}(f) = S_p$.

Proof. Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a splitting field for f. Now $G = \mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})$ is a subgroup of S_p since G is a group of permutations on the p roots of f in L. Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, where α has minimum polynomial f. Then $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = p$, so we get that

$$|G| = |\mathrm{Gal}(L : \mathbb{Q})| = [L : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)][\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)] \cdot p.$$

By the Sylow theorems, G has an element of order p.[1] Now G is a subgroup of S_p, and the only elements in S_p of order p are p-cycles, so G contains a p-cycle. Also complex roots of f come in conjugate pairs, so G contains a transposition τ that swaps conjugate roots (there are only two complex roots of f in $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$). Then G is a subgroup of S_p that contains a p-cycle and a transposition, so by Homework 8, $G = S_p$. □

Example 16.0.1. Consider the polynomial $f = X^5 - 8X + 2$, which is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by Eisenstein's criterion. Now we have:

X	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(X)$	-14	9	2	-5	18

So by the intermediate value theorem, f has at least 3 real roots. Then $f'(X) = 5X^4 - 8$, and $f'(X) \leq 0$ if and only if

$$-\sqrt[4]{\frac{8}{5}} \leq X \leq \sqrt[4]{\frac{8}{5}} \approx 1.12.$$

Rolle's theorem tells us that there exists at least one zero of $f'(X)$ between zeroes of $f(X)$.[2] Thus f has exactly 3 real roots. Then by the previous theorem, $\mathrm{Gal}(f) = S_5$, so f is not solvable by radicals since S_5 is not solvable. So there exists a quintic polynomial which is not solvable by radicals.

16.4 Finitely-Generated Extensions

Definition 16.1. A subset $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \subseteq L$ is *algebraically independent* over K if for all polynomials $f(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$ with coefficients in K, we have

$$f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n) = 0 \iff f = 0..$$

Example 16.1.1. Notably, this is a stronger condition than linear independence. A non-example is $\{1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6}\}$, which is linearly independent over $\mathbb{Q}$ but not algebraically independent, since

$$\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{6} = 0.$$

This means we can take $f(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4) = X_2 \cdot X_3 - X_4$ to get $f(1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6}) = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{6} = 0$.

Exercise 16.2. Show that $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ is algebraically independent over K if and only if α_1 is transcendental over K and for each $2 \leq d \leq n$, α_d is transcendental over $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{d-1})$. Also show that this is if and only if

$$K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n) \cong K(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n).$$

[1] Cauchy's theorem directly gives this, but also $|S_p| = p!$, so the p-Sylow subgroup can only have order p.

[2] The above conditions guarantee that $f'(X)$ has only two zeroes, so $f(X)$ can have at most three.

Definition 16.2. An extension L of K is *finitely generated* if $L = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ for some natural number n.

Example 16.2.1. Finite extensions are finitely generated.

Example 16.2.2. The extension $K(X)$ is finitely generated but not a finite extension.

Theorem 16.6. *Let $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ be a finitely generated extension of K. Then there exists a field E with $K \subseteq E \subseteq L$ such that for some m with $0 \leq m \leq n$,*

1. *$E = K(\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m)$, where $\{\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m\}$ are algebraically independent,*
2. *and $[L : E]$ is finite.*

Proof. If all the α_i are algebraic over K, then $[L : K]$ is finite and we can take $E = K$ with $m = 0$. Otherwise, there exists α_i that is transcendental over K. Let $\beta_1 = \alpha_i$. If $[L : K(\beta_1)]$ is not finite, then there exists α_j that is transcendental over $K(\beta_1)$. Let $\beta_2 = \alpha_j$, and so on. Repeat this process, which terminates in at most n steps, so

$$E = K(\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m)$$

with $m \leq n$. By construction, $\{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m\}$ are algebraically independent over K and $[L : E]$ is finite. $\square$

Remark. We can think of this theorem as saying that E is the "transcendental part" of the extension.

Remark. The elements β_i are not unique, but the number m is determined uniquely by L and K.

Lecture 17

Mar. 13 — Symmetric Polynomials

17.1 Transcendental Extensions

Theorem 17.1. *Let $K, L, m, E, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m$ be as defined in Theorem 16.6. If $K \subseteq F \subseteq L$ and*

1. *$F = K(\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_p)$ where $\{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_p\}$ are algebraically independent over K,*
2. *$[L : F]$ is finite,*

then $p = m$.

Proof. Suppose $p > m$. Since $[L : E]$ is finite, γ_1 is algebraic over E, so γ_1 is the root of a polynomial with coefficients in $E = K(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)$. In other words, there exists a nonzero polynomial f with coefficients in K such that

$$f(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m, \gamma_1) = 0.$$

Since γ_1 is transcendental over K, at least one β_i (without loss of generality say β_1) must show up in this polynomial. Hence β_1 is algebraic over $K(\beta_2, \beta_3, \ldots, \beta_m, \gamma_1)$ and $[L : K(\beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m, \gamma_1)]$ is finite. Repeat this argument, replacing each β_i with γ_i, so $[L : K(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m)]$ is finite. Recall that $p > m$ by assumption. But γ_{m+1} is transcendental over $K(\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m)$, a contradiction. Thus we must have $p \leq m$.

We also get $m \leq p$ for free by symmetry, so we conclude that $p = m$. □

Definition 17.1. The m in Theorem 16.6 is called the *transcendence degree* of $L : K$.

17.2 Symmetric Polynomials

Definition 17.2. Let $L = K(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$ where $\{t_1, \ldots, t_n\}$ are algebraically independent over K. For $\sigma \in S_n$, define the K-automorphism $\varphi_\sigma : L \to L$ by $\varphi_\sigma(t_i) = t_{\sigma(i)}$, i.e. it permutes the t_i's by σ. Let

$$\mathrm{Aut}_n = \{\varphi_\sigma \mid \sigma \in S_n\}.$$

Example 17.2.1. If $\sigma = (1\ 2\ 3)$, then we have

$$\varphi_\sigma\left(\frac{t_1 + t_2}{t_3}\right) = \frac{t_2 + t_3}{t_1}.$$

Exercise 17.1. Show that the map $\sigma \mapsto \varphi_\sigma$ is an isomorphism $S_n \to \mathrm{Aut}_n$.

Example 17.2.2. What is $\Phi(\mathrm{Aut}_n)$, the fixed field of Aut_n? Certainly $\Phi(\mathrm{Aut}_n)$ includes all of

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= t_1 + t_2 + \cdots + t_n, \\ s_2 &= t_1 t_2 + t_1 t_3 + \cdots + t_{n-1} t_n, \\ &\vdots \\ s_n &= t_1 t_2 \dots t_n. \end{aligned}$$

We call these the *elementary symmetric polynomials*. All rational combinations of the s_i are also fixed.

Exercise 17.2. Show

$$X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - t_i).$$

Example 17.2.3. The sum of the squares of the t_i is fixed by Aut_n. We can also see that

$$t_1^2 + t_2^2 + \cdots + t_n^2 = s_1^2 - 2s_2.$$

Theorem 17.2. *The fixed field of* Aut_n *is precisely* $\Phi(\mathrm{Aut}_n) = K(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)$.

Proof. We claim $[K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)] \le n!$. The proof follows since $K(s_1, \dots, s_n) \subseteq \Phi_n(\mathrm{Aut}_n)$ and we have[1]

$$[K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : \Phi_n(\mathrm{Aut}_n)] = |\mathrm{Aut}_n| = n!.$$

So it suffices to prove the claim to finish.

We show the claim by induction on n. The base case $n = 1$ is clear. Now for the inductive step, suppose we have

$$K(t_1, \dots, t_n) \supseteq K(s_1, \dots, s_n, t_n) \supseteq K(s_1, \dots, s_n).$$

Note that

$$f(X) = X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n = (X - t_1) \dots (X - t_n)$$

over $K(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, so the minimum polynomial of t_n over $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ divides f. So we get

$$K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)] \le n. \tag{$\star$}$$

Now let $s'_1, \dots, s'_{n-1}$ be the elementary symmetric polynomials in $t_1, \dots, t_{n-1}$, and notice that

$$\begin{aligned} s'_1 &= t_1 + t_2 + \cdots + t_{n-1}, \\ s_2 &= s'_1 + t_n \\ &\vdots \\ s_j &= s'_j + s'_{j-1} t_n, \\ &\vdots \\ s_n &= s'_{n-1} t_n. \end{aligned}$$

So $K(s_1, \dots, s_n) = K(s'_1, \dots, s'_{n-1}, t_n)$ and so

$$\begin{aligned} [K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : K(s_1, \dots, s_n t_n)] &= [K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : K(s'_1, \dots, s'_{n-1}, t_n)] \\ &= [K(t_n)(t_1, \dots, t_{n-1}) : K(t_n)(s'_1, \dots, s'_{n-1})] \le (n-1)! \end{aligned}$$

by the inductive hypothesis. So this combined with ($\star$) completes the inductive step. $\square$

[1] Note that $K(s_1, \dots, s_n) \subseteq \Phi(\mathrm{Aut}_n) \subseteq K(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.

Theorem 17.3. *The elementary symmetric polynomials $s_1, \dots, s_n$ are algebraically independent.*

Proof. We have $[K(t_1, \dots, t_n) : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)]$ is finite since $t_1, \dots, t_n$ are roots of

$$X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n.$$

Hence $K(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ and $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ have the same transcendence degree over K, namely n, so we get that $s_1, \dots, s_n$ must be algebraically independent. □

Definition 17.3. The *general polynomial* of degree n over K is

$$f = X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n.$$

Remark. Note that:

1. The coefficients live in $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$.
2. For now, s_i are just algebraically independent elements.

Theorem 17.4. *Let* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ *and f as above. Let L be a splitting field for f over $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$. Then*

1. *the zeros $t_1, \dots, t_n$ of f in L are algebraically independent over K,*
2. *and* $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)) = S_n$.

Proof. Note that $[L : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)]$ is finite, so the transcendence degree of L over K is the transcendence degree of $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ over K, which is n. So $L = K(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, which means that $t_1, \dots, t_n$ must be algebraically independent. Then we have that

$$X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - t_i),$$

so $s_1, \dots, s_n$ are precisely the elementary symmetric polynomials in $t_1, \dots, t_n$. So by Theorem 10.8 from Howie, we get $\Phi(\operatorname{Aut}_n) = K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$. From here we have

$$[L : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)] = [L : \Phi(\operatorname{Aut}_n)] = |\operatorname{Aut}_n| = |S_n| = n!,$$

so $\operatorname{Gal}(L : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)) \cong S_n$. □

Corollary 17.4.1. *If* $\operatorname{char} K = 0$ *and $n \geq 5$, then the general polynomial*

$$X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \cdots + (-1)^n s_n$$

is not solvable by radicals.

Corollary 17.4.2. *Every finite group is the Galois group of some field extension.*

Proof. Recall that by Cayley's theorem, every finite group is a subgroup of S_n for some n. By Theorem 17.4, we can realize S_n as the Galois group of $L : K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$. The fundamental theorem of Galois theory then says that for every subgroup G of S_n, there exists a subfield M of L containing $K(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ such that $G = \operatorname{Gal}(L : M)$. □

Remark. In the above theorem, we kind of lost control of the ground field, which is just some field M. Given a finite group G, is it the Galois group of a Galois extension over $\mathbb{Q}$? Equivalently, does there exist $f \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ such that $G = \mathrm{Gal}(f)$? If so, we say that G is *realizable* (over $\mathbb{Q}$). This is known as the *inverse Galois problem.*

Remark. In 1956, Shafarevich showed that every solvable group is realizable. An open question is: Is every finite simple group realizable?

Lecture 18

Mar. 25 — Modules

18.1 Introduction to Modules

Remark. Let $(G, +)$ be an abelian group. Recall that given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we defined

$$ng = \begin{cases} g + \cdots + g & \text{if } n > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } n = 0, \\ (-g) + \cdots + (-g) & \text{if } n < 0, \end{cases}$$

where we add g or its inverse n times. This gives a map $\mathbb{Z} \times G \to G$ by $(n, g) \mapsto ng$ that satisfies

1. $(n_1 n_2)g = n_1(n_2 g)$,
2. $(n_1 + n_2)g = n_1 g + n_2 g$,
3. and $n(g_1 + g_2) = ng_1 + ng_2$.

From this, we would say that every abelian group G is naturally a $\mathbb{Z}$-*module*.

Definition 18.1. A *module* M over a ring R is an abelian group M together with a map $R \times M \to M$, called the *product*, satisfying

1. $(r_1 r_2)m = r_1(r_2 m)$,
2. $(r_1 + r_2)m = r_1 m + r_2 m$,
3. $r(m_1 + m_2) = rm_1 + rm_2$,
4. and $1m = m$.

Remark. For this class, we will only consider modules over commutative rings with unity.

Exercise 18.1. Verify the following:

1. $0m = 0$, $r0 = 0$,
2. $r(-m) = -(rm) = (-r)m$,
3. $(-1)m = -m$.

Example 18.1.1. A K-vector space is a module over K, where K is a field.

Example 18.1.2. A ring R is always a module over itself, where the product $R \times R \to R$ is the normal ring multiplication in R.

Example 18.1.3. An ideal I in a ring R is a module over R. The product $R \times I \to I$ is given by $(r, m) \mapsto rm$, where $rm \in I$ since I is an ideal.

Example 18.1.4. The set $R^n = R \times \cdots \times R$ is an R-module, where the product is given by

$$r(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = (rr_1, rr_2, \ldots, rr_n).$$

18.2 Submodules

Definition 18.2. A *R-submodule* of an R-module M is a subgroup W of M such that for all $r \in R$ and $w \in W$, we have $rw \in W$.

Example 18.2.1. Recall that R is a module over itself. Then any ideal of R is a submodule, and conversely, any submodule is an ideal.

Proposition 18.1. *Let M be an R-module.*

1. *If $\{M_\alpha\}$ is a collection of submodules of M, then $\bigcap_\alpha M_\alpha$ is also a submodule.*
2. *If $M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \ldots$ is an increasing sequence of submodules, then $\bigcup_n M_n$ is a submodule.*
3. *If A and B are submodules of M, then $A + B = \{a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ is a submodule of M.*

Proof. Left as an exercise. □

Definition 18.3. Let M be an R-module and S a subset of M. The *submodule of M generated by S* is

$$RS = \{r_1s_1 + r_2s_2 + \cdots + r_ns_n \mid r_i \in R, s_i \in S, n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

Exercise 18.2. Verify that RS is a submodule.

Example 18.3.1. If $S = \{x\}$ for some $x \in M$, then $R\{x\}$ is the *cyclic module* generated by x.

Definition 18.4. If there exists $x \in M$ such that $M = R\{x\}$, then we say M is *cyclic*. If there exists a finite set $S \subseteq M$ such that $M = RS$, then M is *finitely generated*.

18.3 Module Homomorphisms

Definition 18.5. Let M and N be R-modules. Then an R-module *homomorphism* $\varphi : M \to N$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups such that $\varphi(rm) = r\varphi(m)$ for all $r \in R$ and $m \in M$.

Definition 18.6. An R-module *isomorphism* is a bijective R-module homomorphism. An R-module *endomorphism* is an R-module homomorphism from M to itself.

Remark. The set of all R-module homomorphisms from M to N is denoted $\mathrm{Hom}_R(M, N)$, and the set of all R-module endomorphisms of M is denoted $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$.

Definition 18.7. The *kernel* of an R-module homomorphism $\varphi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(M, N)$ is

$$\ker \varphi = \{x \in M \mid \varphi(x) = 0\}.$$

Example 18.7.1. Let $M = R^m$ and $N = R^n$, thought of as column vectors. Let T be a fixed $n \times m$ matrix with entries in R. Then left multiplication by T is an R-module homomorphism from M to N.

18.4 Direct Sums of Modules

Definition 18.8. The *direct sum* of R-modules $M_1, \dots, M_n$, denoted

$$M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n,$$

is the product $M_1 \times \cdots \times M_n$ endowed with the operations

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (x_1', \dots, x_n') = (x_1 + x_1', \dots, x_n + x_n') \quad \text{and} \quad r(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (rx_1, \dots, rx_n).$$

Remark. Note that M_i is naturally isomorphic to the following submodule of $M_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus M_n$:

$$\widetilde{M_i} = \{0\} \oplus \cdots \oplus M_i \oplus \cdots \oplus \{0\},$$

and $M = \widetilde{M_1} + \cdots + \widetilde{M_n} = \{m_1 + \cdots + m_n \mid m_i \in \widetilde{M_i}\}$.

Proposition 18.2. *Let M be an R-module with submodules $A_1, \dots, A_s$ such that $M = A_1 + \cdots + A_s$. Then the following are equivalent:*

1. $(a_1, \dots, a_s) \mapsto a_1 + \cdots + a_s$ *is a group isomorphism* $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_s \to M$.
2. $(a_1, \dots, a_s) \mapsto a_1 + \cdots + a_s$ *is an R-module isomorphism* $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_s \to M$.
3. *Each element $x \in M$ can be expressed as a sum*

$$x = a_1 + \cdots + a_s$$

   with $a_i \in A_i$ is exactly one way.
4. *If $0 = a_1 + \cdots + a_s$ with $a_i \in A_i$, then $a_i = 0$ for all i.*

Proof. (2) ⇒ (1) This is clear since an R-module isomorphism is also a group isomorphism.

(1) ⇒ (2) Let $\varphi : A_1 \times \cdots \times A_s \to M$ be the given group isomorphism. Then

$$\varphi(r(a_1, \dots, a_s)) = \varphi(ra_1, \dots, ra_s) = ra_1 + \cdots + ra_s = r(a_1 + \cdots + a_s) = r\varphi(a_1, \dots, a_s),$$

so φ is also an R-module isomorphism.

Now observe that (1), (3), (4) say nothing about the module structure of R, so from here (1) ⇔ (3) ⇔ (4) is just an exercise in group theory. □

Example 18.8.1. Let $M = \mathbb{Z}_6$ with $R = \mathbb{Z}$, and let $A_1 = \{0, 2, 4\}$ and $A_2 = \{0, 3\}$. Then the map $A_1 \oplus A_2 \to M$ given by

$$(a_1, a_2) \mapsto a_1 + a_2.$$

We can see that this is an isomorphism since $A_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$ and $A_2 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Definition 18.9. A subset $S \subseteq M$ is *linearly independent* over R if for any distinct $x_1, \dots, x_n \in S$,

$$r_1 x_1 + \cdots + r_n x_n = 0$$

if and only if $r_i = 0$ for all i.

Definition 18.10. A *basis* for M is a linearly independent set S with $RS = M$. An R-module M is called *free* if it has a basis.

Example 18.10.1. Every vector space over a field K is free as a K-module.

Example 18.10.2. Note that $\mathbb{Z}_n$ is not a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module since $na = 0$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. So $\{a\}$ for $a \neq 0$ is in fact linearly dependent. More generally, any finite abelian group G is not a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

Example 18.10.3. However, $\mathbb{Z}$ is a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module. In general, R^n is a free R-module. The *standard basis* for R^n is the set $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ where

$$e_1 = (1, 0, 0, \ldots, 0), \quad \ldots, \quad e_n = (0, 0, 0, \ldots, 1).$$

Definition 18.11. Let M be an R-module and $B = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be distinct nonzero elements in M. Then the following are equivalent:

1. B is a basis for M.
2. The map $\varphi : (r_1, \ldots, r_n) \mapsto r_1x_1 + \ldots r_nm_n$ is an R-module isomorphism from R^n to M.
3. For each i, the map $R \to M$ given by $r \mapsto rx_i$ is injective and $M = Rx_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus Rx_n$.

Proof. (1) $\Leftrightarrow$ (2) Observe that B is linearly independent if and only if φ is injective and $\mathcal{B}$ spans M if and only if φ is surjective. Now check as an exercise that φ is an R-module homomorphism.

(1) $\Leftrightarrow$ (3) Left as an exercise. $\square$

Proposition 18.3. *We have the following:*

1. *If $\varphi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(M, N)$, then $\ker\varphi$ is a submodule of M and $\varphi(M)$ is a submodule of N.*
2. *If $\varphi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(M, N)$ and $\psi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(N, P)$, then $\psi \circ \varphi \in \mathrm{Hom}_R(M, P)$.*

Proof. (1) We need to show that if $m \in \ker\varphi$ and $r \in R$, then $rm \in \ker\varphi$. For this, observe that

$$\varphi(rm) = r\varphi(m) = r0 = 0$$

since $m \in \ker\varphi$, so we have $rm \in \ker\varphi$. The rest of the proof is left as an exercise. $\square$

Proposition 18.4. *We have the following:*

1. $\mathrm{Hom}_R(M, N)$ *is an abelian group with the operation*

$$(\varphi + \psi)(m) = \varphi(m) + \psi(m).$$

2. $\mathrm{End}_R(M)$ *is a ring with addition as above and multiplication given by composition.*

Proof. (1) Clearly the addition is associative and commutative. The identity element is the zero map, and the inverse of φ is $-\varphi$, i.e. if $\varphi : m \mapsto n$, then $-\varphi : m \mapsto -n$.

(2) Left as an exercise (the multiplicative identity is the identity map id_M). $\square$

Remark. Many of the usual facts about group and ring homomorphisms have module analogues.

Proposition 18.5. *Let M be an R-module and N an R-submodule. Then the quotient group M/N is an R-module and the quotient map $\pi : M \to M/N$ is an R-module homomorphism.*

Proof. Define the product $R \times M/N \to M/N$ by

$$r(m + N) = rm + N.$$

To see that this product is well-defined, observe that if $m + N = m' + N$, then $m - m' \in N$. Hence

$$rm - rm' = r(m - m') \in N$$

since N is an R-submodule. Thus $rm + N = rm' + N$ as desired. Now check as an exercise that this makes M/N into an R-module.

For the latter part about the quotient map $\pi : M \to M/N$, simply observe that

$$\pi(rm) = rm + N = r(m + N) = r\pi(m),$$

so indeed π is an R-module homomorphism. □