

MATH 3962 - RINGS, FIELDS AND GALOIS THEORY

EXAM NOTES

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1. BACKGROUND THEORY

Definition 1.1 (Monoids). A monoid is a set S equipped with a single operation \cdot obeying the following axioms

- **Closure** For all $a, b \in S$, $a \cdot b \in S$
- **Associativity** For all $a, b, c \in S$, $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$.
- **Identity** There exists an element e in S such that $e \cdot a = a = a \cdot e$ for all $a \in S$.

Definition 1.2 (Groups). A group is a set equipped with an operation \cdot obeying the axioms of associativity, existence of inverses, and existence of an identity.

Definition 1.3 (Abelian Groups). An abelian group is a group where the operation \cdot is commutative.

Definition 1.4 (Cyclic Groups). A cyclic group is a group that can be generated by a single element $\langle x \rangle = \{x^n \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Definition 1.5 (Subgroup). A subset H of a group G is a subgroup of G if and only if H is non-empty and for all $x, y \in G$

- If $x, y \in H$ then $x \cdot y \in H$
- If $x \in H$ then $x^{-1} \in H$.

Definition 1.6 (Normal Subgroup). A subgroup K of a group G is said to be **normal** in G if $g^{-1}kg \in K$ for all $k \in K$ and $g \in G$. Equivalently, the subgroup K is normal in G if $g^{-1}Kg = K$, or $gK = Kg$ for all $g \in G$.

Definition 1.7 (Quotient Group). If G is a group and H is a subgroup, we can form the **quotient group** G/H as follows. Defining the equivalence relation as follows: for all $x, y \in G$,

$$x \sim y \text{ if } x = yh$$

for some $h \in H$. The set

$$xH = \{xh \mid h \in H\}$$

is called the left coset containing x . These cosets partition G , and the number of cosets of H in G is denoted by $[G : H]$. By **Lagrange's Theorem**, we have

$$[G : H] = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$$

Now, letting K be a normal subgroup of G , we have the following. The set of all cosets in G forms a group, with multiplication satisfying $(xK)(yK) = xyK$ for all $x, y \in G$.

Definition 1.8 (Solvable Groups). A group G is **solvable** if there is a chain of subgroups

$$1 = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_2 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_s = G$$

where each G_i is normal in G_{i+1} and the quotient groups G_{i+1}/G_i is abelian for all i .

Corollary 1.9. The finite group G is solvable if and only if for every divisor n of $|G|$ with $\gcd(n, \frac{|G|}{n}) = 1$, G has a subgroup of order n .

Corollary 1.10. Let N be normal in G . If N and G/N are solvable, then G is solvable.

Theorem 1.11 (Subgroups of Cyclic Groups). *Let $G = \langle x \rangle$ be a cyclic group. Then we have the following.*

- Every subgroup of H is cyclic. More precisely, if $K \leq H$, then either $K = \{1\}$ or $K = \langle x^d \rangle$, where d is the smallest positive integer such that $x^d \in K$.
- If $|H| = \infty$, then if $a \neq b$, then $\langle x^a \rangle \neq \langle x^b \rangle$.
- If $|H| = n < \infty$, then for each positive integer a dividing n there is a unique subgroup of H of order a . This subgroup is the cyclic group $\langle x^d \rangle$, where $d = \frac{n}{a}$. Furthermore, the subgroups of H correspond bijectively with the positive divisors of n .

Definition 1.12 (Homomorphism of Groups). A map $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism if and only if

- $\varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$ for all $x, y \in G$

Definition 1.13 (Isomorphism of Groups). A map $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is an isomorphism of groups if and only if

- φ is a homomorphism.
- φ is a bijection.

Definition 1.14 (Symmetric Groups). The symmetric group of order n is the set of all permutations of the finite set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, with the operation being composition of permutations.

Proposition 1.15 (Properties of the Symmetric Groups). *Let S_n be the symmetric group of order n . Then we have*

- $|S_n| = n!$

- S_n is non-abelian for all $n \geq 3$.

Definition 1.16 (Elementary Symmetric Functions). Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be indeterminates. Then the **elementary symmetric functions** s_1, x_2, \dots, s_n are defined by

$$s_1 = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n$$

$$s_2 = x_1x_2 + x_1x_3 + \cdots + x_2x_3 + x_2x_4 + \cdots + x_{n-1}x_n$$

$$s_n = x_1x_2 \cdots x_n$$

Definition 1.17 (Symmetric functions). A function $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is called **symmetric** if it is not changed by any permutation of the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

1.1. Solving Polynomial Equations. We have explicit solutions for solving polynomials of degrees two and three. Polynomials of degree two are solved using the quadratic equation. Polynomials of degree three are solvable using **Cardano's Method**

2. GENERAL RING THEORY

Definition 2.1 (Rings). A **ring** R is a set equipped with two binary operations $+$ and \times satisfying the following axioms

- $(R, +)$ is an **abelian group** - implying the existence of negatives, a zero element, and commutative addition.
- \times is associative: $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$ for all $a, b, c \in R$
- Multiplication distributes over addition:

$$(a + b) \times c = (a \times c) + (b \times c) \quad c \times (a + b) = (c \times a) + (c \times b)$$

A ring is **commutative** if multiplication is commutative.

A ring is said to contain an identity if there is an element $1 \in R$ such that $1 \times a = a \times 1 = a$ for all $a \in R$.

Definition 2.2 (Zero divisors). A non-zero element $a \in R$ is called a zero divisor if there is a nonzero element $b \in R$ such that either $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$.

Definition 2.3 (Field). A field can be defined in several ways.

- A field is a commutative ring F with identity $1 \neq 0$ such that every non-zero element $a \in F$ has a multiplicative inverse.
- A field is a commutative ring F with identity $1 \neq 0$ in which every nonzero element is a unit, i.e. $F^\times = F - \{0\}$.

Definition 2.4 (Unit). Assume a ring R has identity $1 \neq 0$. Then an element u of R is called a **unit** if there is some $v \in R$ such that $uv = vu = 1$. The set of units in R is denoted R^\times . The set of units in R form a group under multiplication, denoted the **group of units** of R .

Definition 2.5 (Integral Domain). An integral domain is a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$ with no zero divisors.

Corollary 2.6 (Cancellation property). Let R be an integral domain. Then for any $a, b, c \in R$, if $ab = ac$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = c$. $ab = ac$

Corollary 2.7. Any finite integral domain is a field.

Definition 2.8 (Subring). A subring of a ring R is a subgroup of R that is closed under multiplication. Alternatively, a subset S of a ring R is a subring if the operations of addition and multiplication in R when restricted to S gives S the structure of a ring.

Corollary 2.9. To show a subset of a ring R is a subring it suffices to check that it is **nonempty** and **closed under subtraction and under multiplication**.

Definition 2.10 (Characteristic of a Ring). The characteristic of a ring, $\text{char}(R)$, is defined as the smallest positive number n such that $n \times 1 = 0$

Example 2.11 (Examples of Rings). The set of all $n \times n$ matrices over a ring R is a ring, denoted by $\text{Mat}_n(R)$.

Let x be indeterminate, and let R be a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$. The set of all formal sums

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

with $a_i \in R$ is the **polynomial ring** $R[x]$.

2.1. Homomorphisms, kernels, images. This section deals with maps between rings R and S .

Definition 2.12 (Homomorphisms of Rings). Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ be a map between two rings R and S . Then φ is a ring homomorphism if and only if

- $\varphi(a + b) = \varphi(a) + \varphi(b)$
- $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)$
- $\varphi(1) = 1$

Corollary 2.13. The image of a ring homomorphism φ is a subring of S .

Definition 2.14 (Kernel of a Homomorphism). The kernel of a ring homomorphism φ , denoted $\ker \varphi$, is the set of elements R that maps to $0 \in S$, i.e. the set of all $a \in R$ such that $\varphi(a) = 0$.

Corollary 2.15. The kernel of a homomorphism φ is a subring of R . Furthermore, if $\alpha \in \ker \varphi$, then $r\alpha$ and $\alpha r \in \ker \varphi$ for all $r \in R$, i.e. $\ker \varphi$ is closed under multiplication by elements in R .

Example 2.16. Let R be a subring of a commutative ring T , and let $\alpha \in T$. Then the function $\text{eval}_\alpha : R[x] \rightarrow T$ is a homomorphism.

2.2. Ideals, Quotient Rings, and Isomorphisms.

Definition 2.17 (Ideal of a Ring). A subset I of a ring R is an ideal of R if and only if the following conditions all hold.

- I is nonempty
- $a + b \in I$ for all $a, b \in I$
- $-x \in I$ for all $x \in I$
- $ax, xa \in I$ for all $x \in I$ and $a \in R$.

Corollary 2.18. The kernel of a homomorphism φ is an ideal of R .

Proposition 2.19 (Cosets of an Ideal). Let I be an ideal in a ring R . The equivalence relation \equiv defined by $a \equiv b$ if and only if $a - b \in I$ is an equivalence relation on the ring R , partitioning the ring into a set of equivalence classes $r + I$ with $r \in R$ called the **cosets** of I in R .

Definition 2.20 (Quotient Ring). Let R be a ring and let I be an ideal of R . Then the additive quotient group R/I is a ring under the binary operations:

- $(r + I) + (s + I) = (r + s) + I$
- $(r + I) \times (s + I) = (rs) + I$

The elements of R/I are precisely the cosets of I in R .

Theorem 2.21. Let I be an ideal in the ring R . Then the mapping $\varphi : R \rightarrow R/I$ given by $\varphi(\alpha) = \alpha + I$ is a surjective homomorphism with kernel I .

We can collect these results into the following theorem, known as the **First Isomorphism Theorem**.

Theorem 2.22 (First Isomorphism Theorem). Let R and S be rings, and $\varphi : R \rightarrow S$ a homomorphism of rings. Then the kernel of φ is an ideal of R , the image of φ is a subring of S , and there is an isomorphism $\psi : R/\ker \varphi \rightarrow \varphi(R)$ such that $\psi(r + \ker \varphi) = \varphi(r)$.

Theorem 2.23 (Second Isomorphism Theorem). Let R be a ring. Let S be a subring and let I be an ideal of R . Then $S + I = \{s + i \mid s \in S, i \in I\}$ is a subring of R , $S \cap I$ is an ideal of S , and $(S + I)/I$ is isomorphic to $S/(S \cap I)$.

Theorem 2.24 (Third Isomorphism Theorem). Let I and J be ideals of R with $I \subseteq J$. Then J/I is an ideal of R/I and $(R/I)/(J/I)$ is isomorphic to R/J .

2.3. Classification of Ideals.

Proposition 2.25 (Sum, Product, Intersection of Ideals). Let I and J be ideals of R . Then

- The sum of I and J , $I + J$, is equal to $\{a + b \mid a \in I, b \in J\}$.

- The product of I and J , IJ , is equal to the set of all finite sums of elements of the form ab with $a \in I$, $b \in J$.
- The intersection of ideals, $I \cap J$, is defined simply as $I \cap J$.

It can be shown that the sum $I + J$ of ideal I and J is the smallest ideal of R containing both I and J , and the product IJ is an ideal contained in $I \cap J$, but can be strictly smaller.

Corollary 2.26. Let $I = a\mathbb{Z}$, $J = b\mathbb{Z}$. Then we have $I + J = d\mathbb{Z}$, where $d = \text{GCD}(a, b)$. We also have that $IJ = ab\mathbb{Z}$, and $I \cap J = \text{LCM}(a, b)$.

Definition 2.27 (Principal Ideal). Let R be a commutative ring. An ideal that can be generated by a single element, of the form aR for some $a \in R$, is called a **principal ideal**.

Corollary 2.28. Every ideal in the ring \mathbb{Z} is principal.

Proposition 2.29. Let I be an ideal of a ring R . Then $I = R$ if and only if I contains a unit.

Proposition 2.30. Let I be an ideal of a commutative ring R . Then R is a field if and only if its only ideals are 0 and R .

Definition 2.31 (Maximal Ideal). An ideal M in an arbitrary ring S is called a **maximal ideal** if $M \neq S$ and the only ideals containing M are M and S .

Proposition 2.32. Assume R is commutative. Then the ideal M is a maximal ideal if and only if the quotient ring R/M is a field.

Definition 2.33 (Prime Ideal). Assume R is commutative. An ideal P is called a **prime ideal** if $P \neq R$ and whenever the product ab of two elements $a, b \in R$ is an element of P , then at least one of a and b is an element of P .

The definition is motivated by the following example. Let n be a nonnegative integer. Then $n\mathbb{Z}$ is a **prime ideal** provided $n \neq 1$ and every time the product ab of two integers is an element of $n\mathbb{Z}$, at least one of a, b is an element of $n\mathbb{Z}$. This is equivalent to stating that whenever n divides ab , n must divide a or divide b . Thus, n must be prime. Thus, **the prime ideals of \mathbb{Z} are simply the ideal $p\mathbb{Z}$ of \mathbb{Z} generated by prime numbers p together with the ideal 0 .**

Proposition 2.34. Assume R is commutative. Then the ideal P is a prime ideal in R if and only if the quotient ring R/P is an integral domain.

Corollary 2.35. Assume R is commutative. Then every maximal ideal of R is a prime ideal.

Proof. If M is a maximal ideal then R/M is a field. As a field is an integral domain, we thus have that R/M is an integral domain, and thus M is a prime ideal. \square

3. INTEGRAL DOMAINS

Definition 3.1 (Field of Fractions). Let R be a commutative ring. Let D be any nonempty subset of R that does not contain 0, does not contain any zero divisors, and is closed under multiplication. Then there is a commutative ring Q with 1 such that Q contains R as a subring and every element of D is a unit of Q . The ring Q has the following additional properties.

- Every element of Q is of the form rd^{-1} for some $r \in R$ and $d \in D$. In particular, if $D = R - \{0\}$, then Q is a field.
- The ring Q is the **smallest** ring containing R in which all element of D become units, in the following sense - Any ring containing an isomorphic copy of R in which all the elements of D become units must also contain an isomorphic copy of Q .

Definition 3.2 (Divisibility). Let R is a commutative ring. Let $a, b \in R$. Then we say that a divides b if and only if $b = ca$ for some $c \in R$. We write $a|b$ if a divides b .

Definition 3.3 (Units, Irreducibles, Primes, Associates). Let R be an integral domain - a commutative ring with $1 \neq 0$ with no zero divisors. Then we have the following.

- An element $a \in R$ is a **unit** in R is an element such that there exists $b \in R$ where $ab = ba = 1$.
- Suppose $r \in R$ is nonzero and is not a unit. Then r is called **irreducible** in R if whenever $r = ab$ with $a, b \in R$, at least one of a or b must be a unit in R . Otherwise, r is said to be **reducible**.
- The nonzero element $p \in R$ is called **prime** in R if the ideal (p) generated by p is a prime ideal. Alternatively, if R is a commutative ring, and $p \in R$. We say that p is **prime** if it is nonzero and not a unit, and the following condition holds: for all $a, b \in R$, if $p|ab$ then either $p|a$ or $p|b$.
- Two elements a and b differing by a unit are said to be **associate** in R (i.e., $a = ub$ for some unit u in R).

Proposition 3.4. *In an integral domain a prime element is always irreducible.*

Proof. Suppose (p) is a nonzero prime ideal and $p = ab$. Then $ab = p \in (p)$, so by the definition of prime ideal one of a or b , say a , is in (p) . Thus $a = pr$ for some r . This implies $p = a = prb$, and so $rb = 1$. Thus b is a unit. This shows that p is irreducible. \square

Definition 3.5 (Principle Ideal Domains). A **Principle Ideal Domains** (PID) is an integral domain in which every ideal is principal.

Definition 3.6 (Unique Factorisation Domains). A **Unique Factorisation Domain** (UFD) is an integral domain R in which every nonzero element $r \in R$ which is not a unit has the following two properties:

- r can be written as a finite product of irreducibles p_i of R (not necessarily distinct)
- The decomposition above is **unique up to associates**: if $r = q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$ is another factorisation of r into irreducibles, then $m = n$ and there is a renumbering of the factors so that p_i is associate to q_i .

Theorem 3.7. *Every principle ideal domain is a unique factorisation domain.*

3.1. Greatest Common Divisor, Euclidean Algorithm.

Definition 3.8 (Greatest common divisor). Let R be a principal ideal domain and a, b nonzero elements of R . An element $d \in R$ is called a **greatest common divisor** of a and b if

- (1) $d|a$ and $d|b$, and
- (2) for all $e \in R$, if $e|a$ and $e|b$ then $e|d$.

Proposition 3.9 (Existence and properties of the GCD). *Let R be a principal ideal domain, and $a, b \in R$ nonzero elements. Then*

- *There is an element $d \in R$ which is a greatest common divisor of a and b , and every associate of d is also a greatest common divisor of a and b .*
- *The greatest common divisor is unique up to associates.*
- *An element $d \in R$ is a greatest common divisor of a and b if and only if $d|a$, $d|b$ and there exist $r, s \in R$ such that $d = ar + bs$.*
- *An element $d \in R$ is a greatest common divisor of a and b if and only if $aR + bR = dR$.*

Definition 3.10 (Euclidean Algorithm). This operation works in Euclidean Domains - domains where we can define a degree function measuring the size of each element. Given $a, b \in R$, calculates the GCD of a and b . Operates as follows:

While $b \neq 0$ - set $a, b = b, \text{Rem}(a, b)$

where $\text{Rem}(a, b)$ is the remainder of a upon division by b .

Theorem 3.11. *Every Principle Ideal Domain and Unique Factorisation Domain is a Euclidean Domain.*

Definition 3.12 (Gaussian Integers). The Gaussian Integers \mathbb{G} are defined as $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, the set $\{a + bi \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

Let $\alpha = a + bi \in \mathbb{G}$. Define the norm $N(\alpha) = \alpha\bar{\alpha} = a^2 + b^2$.

We have the following theorem, due to Fermat.

Theorem 3.13. *The prime p is the sum of two integer squares, $p = a^2 + b^2$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, if and only if $p = 2$ or $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. This representation is essentially unique up to signs and interchanging elements.*

Secondly, the irreducible element in the Gaussian integers \mathbb{G} are as follows.

- $1 + i$ (with norm 2)
- The primes $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ (with norm p^2)
- $a + bi, a - bi$, the distinct irreducible factors of $p = a^2 + b^2$ for primes p with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Proof. COMPLETE THIS! □

3.2. Polynomial Rings.

Definition 3.14 (Polynomial Ring). Let x be indeterminate, and let R be a commutative ring with identity $1 \neq 0$. The set of all formal sums

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

with $a_i \in R$ is the **polynomial ring** $R[x]$.

Proposition 3.15. *Let R be an integral domain. Then*

- $\deg p(x)q(x) = \deg p(x) + \deg q(x)$ if $p(x), q(x)$ are non-zero.
- The units of $R[x]$ are the units of R .
- $R[x]$ is an integral domain.

Proposition 3.16. *Let I be an ideal of the ring R , and let $(I) = I[x]$ denote the ideal of $R[x]$ generated by I (the set of all polynomials with coefficients in I). Then we have*

$$R[x]/(I) \simeq (R/I)[x]$$

Theorem 3.17. *Let F be a field. The polynomial ring $F[x]$ is a Euclidean Domain. Specifically, if $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ are two polynomials in $F[x]$ with $b(x)$ nonzero, then there are unique $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ in $F[x]$ such that*

$$a(x) = q(x)b(x) + r(x)$$

with $r(x) = 0$ or $\deg r(x) < \deg b(x)$.

Theorem 3.18. *If F is a field, then $F[x]$ is a Principal Ideal Domain and a Unique Factorisation Domain.*

Theorem 3.19 (Gauss's Lemma). *Let R be a UFD with field of fractions F and let $p(x) \in R[x]$. If $p(x)$ is reducible in $F[x]$ then $p(x)$ is reducible in $R[x]$.*

Corollary 3.20. R is a UFD if and only if $R[x]$ is a UFD.

Proposition 3.21. *Let F be a field and let $p(x) \in F[x]$. Then $p(x)$ has a factor of degree one if and only if $p(x)$ has a root in F , i.e., there exists $\alpha \in F$ with $p(\alpha) = 0$.*

Corollary 3.22. A quadratic or cubic in $F[x]$ is reducible if and only if it has a root in F .

Our next theorem gives us conditions on the roots of polynomials with integer coefficients.

Theorem 3.23 (Rational Roots Theorem). *Let $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. If $\frac{r}{s} \in \mathbb{Q}$ is a root of $p(x)$ and r, s are relatively prime, then $r|a_0$ and $s|a_n$. In particular, if $p(x)$ is **monic** and $p(d) = 0$ for all integers d dividing the constant term a_0 of $p(x)$, then $p(x)$ has no roots in \mathbb{Q} .*

The following theorem gives conditions on the reducibility of a polynomial modulo some proper ideal.

Theorem 3.24. *Let I be a proper ideal in the integral domain R and let $p(x)$ be a non-constant monic polynomial in $R[x]$. If the image of $p(x)$ in $(R/I)[x]$ cannot be factored in $(R/I)[x]$ into two polynomials of smaller degree, then $p(x)$ is irreducible in $R[x]$.*

Example 3.25. Consider the polynomial $p(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then, reducing modulo 2, we see that $p(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Our next theorem, Eisenstein's Irreducibility Criterion, applied to the ring $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is stated below.

Theorem 3.26 (Eisenstein's Criterion for \mathbb{Z}). *Let p be a prime in \mathbb{Z} and let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Suppose p divides a_i for all $a_i, i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$, p does not divide a_n , and p^2 does not divide a_0 . Then $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.*

4. FIELDS

Definition 4.1 (Field Extension). If K is a field containing the subfield F , then K is said to be an **extension field**, or simply and **extension**, of F , denoted K/F .

Definition 4.2 (Degree of an Extension). The degree of a field extension K/F , denoted $[K : F]$, is the dimension of K as a vector space over F . The extension is said to be finite if $[K : F]$ is finite, and **infinite** otherwise.

Theorem 4.3. *Let F be a field and let $p(x) \in F[x]$ be an irreducible polynomial. Then there exists a field K containing an isomorphic copy of F in which $p(x)$ has a root. Identifying F with this isomorphic copy shows that there exists an extension of F in which $p(x)$ has a root.*

Proof. Consider the quotient

$$K = F[x]/(p(x))$$

of the polynomial ring $F[x]$ by the ideal generated by $p(x)$. As $p(x)$ is irreducible in the PID $F[x]$, the ideal generated by $p(x)$ is a **maximal** ideal. Thus, the quotient $F[x]/(p(x))$ is a field. The projection π of $F[x]$ to the quotient $F[x]/(p(x))$ restricted to $F \subset F[x]$ gives a homomorphism $\varphi = \pi|_F : F \rightarrow K$ which is not identically zero, and hence $\varphi(F) \simeq F$.

If $\bar{x} = \pi(x)$ denotes the image of x in the quotient K , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(\bar{x}) &= \overline{p(x)} && \text{(since } \pi \text{ is a homomorphism)} \\ &= p(x) \bmod p(x) && \text{in } F[x]/(p(x)) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus K contains a root of the polynomial $p(x)$. Hence, K is an extension of F in which the polynomial $p(x)$ has a root. \square

Our next theorem allows us to understand the field $K = F[x]/(p(x))$ more fully, by having a simple representation for the elements of this field. Since F is a subfield of K , we might ask in particular for a basis for K as a vector space over F .

Theorem 4.4. *Let $p(x) \in F[x]$ be an irreducible polynomial of degree n over the field F , and let K be the field $F[x]/(p(x))$. Let $\theta = x \bmod (p(x)) \in K$. Then the elements*

$$1, \theta, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^{n-1}$$

are a basis for K as a vector space over F , so the degree of the extension is n , i.e., $[K : F] = n$. Hence,

$$K = \{a_0 + a_1\theta + a_2\theta^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}\theta^{n-1} \mid a_i \in F\}$$

consists of all polynomials of degree less than or equal to n in θ .

Proof. Let $a(x) \in F[x]$ be any polynomial with coefficients in F . Since $F[x]$ is a Euclidean Domain, we may divide $a(x)$ by $p(x)$:

$$a(x) = q(x)p(x) + r(x)$$

It thus follows that $a(x) \equiv r(x) \bmod (p(x))$, which shows that every residue class in $F[x]/(p(x))$ is represented by a polynomial of degree less than n . Hence the images $1, \theta, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^{n-1}$ of $1, x, x^2, \dots$ in the quotient **span** the quotient as a vector space over F . We now show these elements are linearly independent, and so form a basis for the quotient over F . If the elements $1, \theta, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^{n-1}$ were not linearly independent in K , then there would be a linear combination

$$b_0 + b_1\theta + b_2\theta^2 + \dots + b_{n-1}\theta^{n-1} = 0$$

in K , with $b_i \in F$ not all equal to zero. This is equivalent to

$$b_0 + b_1\theta + b_2\theta^2 + \dots + b_{n-1}\theta^{n-1} \equiv 0 \bmod (p(x))$$

i.e., $p(x)$ divides the above polynomial in x . But $\deg p(x) > \deg \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i x^i$, and so by contradiction we have the above elements are a basis for K over F . Thus $\deg KF = n$. \square

Proposition 4.5. *The above theorem gives us a formula for elements of the field K . Let K be an extension of F , and $a(\theta), b(\theta) \in K$. Then addition is defined as usual, and multiplication in K is*

defined as

$$a(\theta)b(\theta) = r(\theta)$$

where $r(x)$ is the remainder obtained upon dividing the polynomial $a(x)b(x)$ by $p(x)$ in $F[x]$

Definition 4.6 (Simple Extension). If the field K is generated by a single element α over F , then $K = F(\alpha)$, then K is said to be a **simple** extension of F and the element α is called a **primitive element** for the extension.

Theorem 4.7. Let F be a field and $p(x) \in F[x]$ be an irreducible polynomial. Suppose K is an extension field of F containing a root α of $p(x)$, thus $p(\alpha) = 0$. Let $F(\alpha)$ denote the subfield of K generated over F by α . Then

$$F(\alpha) \simeq F[x]/(p(x))$$

Proof. Consider the natural homomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi : F[x] &\rightarrow F(\alpha) \subseteq K \\ a(x) &\mapsto a(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

Since $p(\alpha) = 0$ by assumption, we have that the element $p(x)$ is in the kernel of φ , and so we obtain an induced homomorphism

$$\varphi : F[x]/(p(x)) \rightarrow F(\alpha)$$

Since $p(x)$ is irreducible, we have that the quotient ring is a field, and as φ is not identically zero, we must have φ is an isomorphism. \square

We now prove a theorem regarding the different roots of an irreducible polynomial. Consider the equation $p(x) = x^3 - 2$. Adjoining any of the three roots produces the same field extension (up to isomorphism). This is known as the **Isomorphism Extension Theorem**.

Theorem 4.8 (Isomorphism Extension Theorem). Let $\varphi : F \rightarrow F'$ be an isomorphism of fields. Let $p(x) \in F[x]$ be irreducible and let $p'(x) \in F'[x]$ be the irreducible polynomial obtained by applying the map φ to the coefficients of $p(x)$. Let α be a root of $p(x)$ (in some extension of F), and let β be a root of $p'(x)$ in some extension of F' . Then, there is an isomorphism

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma : F(\alpha) &\rightarrow F'(\beta) \\ \alpha &\mapsto \beta \end{aligned}$$

mapping α to β and extending φ , i.e., such that σ restricted to F is the isomorphism φ .

Proof. The isomorphism φ induces a natural isomorphism from $F[x]$ to $F'[x]$ which maps the maximal ideal $(p(x))$ to the maximal ideal $(p'(x))$. Taking quotients by these ideals, we have the following isomorphism of fields

$$F[x]/(p(x)) \rightarrow F'[x]/(p'(x))$$

and as the above fields are isomorphic to $F(\alpha)$ and $F'(\beta)$, respectively. \square

In the following, let K be an extension of F .

Definition 4.9 (Algebraic Elements and Algebraic Extensions). An element α in K is said to be **algebraic** over F if α is a root of some nonzero polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. If α is not algebraic then it is **transcendental** over F . The extension K/F is said to be **algebraic** if every element of K is algebraic over F .

Proposition 4.10 (Minimal polynomials). *Let α be algebraic over F . Then there is a unique monic irreducible polynomial $m_{\alpha,F}(x) \in F[x]$ which has α as a root. A polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ has α as a root if and only if $m_{\alpha,F}(x)$ divides $f(x)$ in $F[x]$.*

Proof. Let $g(x) \in F[x]$ be a polynomial of minimal degree having α as a root. Multiplying $g(x)$ by a constant, we have $g(x)$ is monic. Supposing the $g(x)$ were reducible in $F[x]$, then

$$g(x) = a(x)b(x)$$

with $a(x), b(x)$ having degrees less than $\deg g(x)$. Yet as $g(\alpha) = 0$, then either $a(\alpha)$ or $b(\alpha)$ are zero, contradicting the minimal degree of $g(x)$.

Suppose now that $f(x) \in F[x]$ is a polynomial having α as a root. By the Euclidean Algorithm in $F[x]$, there are polynomials $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$ such that

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$

with $\deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$. Then $f(\alpha) = g(\alpha)q(\alpha) + r(\alpha) = r(\alpha) = 0$, and thus $r(x) = 0$ by minimality of $g(x)$. Thus, any polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ with root α is divisible by $g(x)$. This proves that $m_{\alpha,F}(x) = g(x)$, completing the proof. \square

Corollary 4.11. If L/F is an extension of fields and α is algebraic over both F and L , then $m_{\alpha,L}(x)$ divides $m_{\alpha,F}(x)$ in $L[x]$.

Proposition 4.12. *Let α be algebraic over F , and let $F(\alpha)$ be the field generated by α over F . Then*

$$F(\alpha) \simeq F[x]/(m_{\alpha,F}(x))$$

so that in particular,

$$[F(\alpha) : F] = \deg m_{\alpha,F}(x) = \deg \alpha$$

Theorem 4.13 (Tower Theorem). *Let $F \subseteq K \subseteq L$ be fields. Then*

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

Proof. The proof proceeds as follows. Let (α_i) be a basis for L over K , and let (β_i) be a basis for K over F . The elements of L are of the form $\sum a_i \alpha_i$, with $a_i \in K$. Similarly, the elements a_i are

of the form $\sum b_i \beta_i$ with $b_i \in F$. Thus, elements of L are of the form $\sum c_{ij} \alpha_i \beta_j$ - thus $\alpha_i \beta_j$ span L . Now, consider the linear relation $\sum c_{ij} \alpha_i \beta_j = 0$. As the elements β_j and α_i are both basis, it can be shown that $c_{ij} = 0$, thus elements $\alpha_i \beta_j$ are a basis for L over F , and the theorem follows. \square

Definition 4.14 (Splitting Field). Let F be a field. The extension field K of F is called splitting field for the polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ if $f(x)$ factors completely into linear factors (or **splits completely**) in $K[x]$ and $f(x)$ does not factor completely into linear factors over any proper subfield of K containing F .

Theorem 4.15. For any field F , if $f(x) \in F[x]$, then there exists an extension K of F which is a splitting field for $f(x)$.

Proposition 4.16. The splitting field for a polynomial of degree n over F is of degree at most $n!$ over F .

Proposition 4.17 (Uniqueness of splitting fields). Any two splitting fields for a polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ over a field F are isomorphic.

Proof. Take φ to be the identity mapping from F to itself and E, E' in the isomorphism extension theorem to be the two splitting fields for $f(x)$.

The proof proceeds by inducting on n , the degree of the extension of the splitting field. \square

Definition 4.18 (Separable Polynomial). A polynomial over F is called **separable** if it has no multiple roots. A polynomial which is not separable is inseparable.

Corollary 4.19. Every irreducible polynomial over a field of characteristic 0 (e.g. $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$) is separable. A polynomial over such a field is separable if and only if it is the product of distinct irreducible polynomials.

4.1. Finite Fields. A finite field \mathbb{F} is a field with a finite number of elements. A finite field has characteristic p for some prime p , and so is a finite dimensional vector space over \mathbb{F}_p . If the dimension of the extension $[\mathbb{F}_p : \mathbb{F}] = n$, then the finite field has p^n elements.

Proposition 4.20. Let F be a field of characteristic p . Then for any $a, b \in F$,

$$(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p \quad \text{and} \quad (ab)^p = a^p b^p$$

Alternatively, the map $\varphi(a) = a^p$ is an injective field homomorphism from F to F

Proof. Use the binomial theorem, and note that $\binom{p}{i}, i = 1, 2, \dots, p-1$ is zero in characteristic p . \square

Definition 4.21. The map $\varphi(a) = a^p$ is called the **Frobenius endomorphism** of F .

Corollary 4.22. If \mathbb{F} is finite of characteristic p , then every element of \mathbb{F} is a p^{th} power in \mathbb{F} - notationally, $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{F}^p$

Proof. This follows from the injectivity of the Frobenius endomorphism - as \mathbb{F} is finite, an injective function is surjective. \square

The field K is said to be **separable** over F if every element of K is the root of a separable polynomial over F . Equivalently, the minimal polynomial over F of every element of K is separable.

4.2. Cyclotomic Extensions.

Definition 4.23 (Cyclotomic Extensions). The extension $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)/\mathbb{Q}$ generated by the n^{th} roots of unit over \mathbb{Q} is called a cyclotomic extension.

Definition 4.24 (Cyclotomic Polynomial). The n^{th} cyclotomic polynomial $\varphi_n(x)$ is defined as the polynomial whose roots are the primitive n^{th} roots of unity, which is of degree $\varphi(n)$.

Example 4.25. For p prime, the p^{th} cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_p(x)$ is given by

$$\Phi_p(x) = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$$

For example, $\Phi_5(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$.

Corollary 4.26. We have that

$$\Phi_n(x) = \frac{x^n - 1}{\prod_{d|n, d < n} \Phi_d(x)}$$

Theorem 4.27. The cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_n(x)$ is an irreducible monic polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ of degree $\varphi(n)$.

Proof. If $\Phi_n(x)$ is reducible, there exist $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that

$$\Phi_n(x) = f(x)g(x)$$

where we take $f(x)$ to be an irreducible factor of $\Phi_n(x)$. Let ζ be a primitive n^{th} root of 1 which is a root of $f(x)$ (so that $f(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of ζ over \mathbb{Q}) and let p denote **any** prime not dividing n . Then ζ^p is also a primitive n^{th} root of 1, and hence is a root of either $f(x)$ or $g(x)$.

Suppose $g(\zeta^p) = 0$. Then ζ is a root of $g(x^p)$, and since $f(x)$ is the minimal polynomial for ζ , $f(x)$ must divide $g(x^p)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, say

$$g(x^p) = f(x)h(x)$$

Reducing modulo p gives

$$\bar{g}(x^p) = \bar{f}(x^p)\bar{h}(x^p)$$

in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$.

By the remarks of polynomials over finite fields, we have

$$\bar{g}(x^p) = (\bar{g}(x))^p$$

so we have the equation

$$(\bar{g}(x))^p = \bar{f}(x)\bar{h}(x)$$

in the UFD $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. it follows that $\bar{f}(x)$ and $\bar{g}(x)$ have a factor in common in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$.

Now, from $\Phi_n(x) = f(x)g(x)$ we see by reducing modulo p that $\bar{\Phi}_n(x) = \bar{f}(x)\bar{g}(x)$, and so we have that $\bar{\Phi}_n(x)$ has a multiple root. But then also $x^n - 1$ would have a multiple root over \mathbb{F}_p since it has $\bar{\Phi}_n(x)$ as a factor. This is a contradiction since we have that $x^n - 1$ has n distinct roots over any field of characteristic not dividing n .

Hence ζ^p must be a root of $f(x)$. Since this applies to every root ζ of $f(x)$, we must have that ζ^a is a root of $f(x)$ for every integer a relatively prime to n . This means that **every** primitive n^{th} root of unity is a root of $f(x)$, and thus $f(x) = \Phi_n(x)$, showing the $\Phi_n(x)$ is irreducible. \square

4.3. Constructible Numbers. We now explore the set of numbers that can be constructed by a ruler and compass. Constructible numbers are completely classified by the following theorem.

Proposition 4.28. *If the element $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ is obtained from a field $F \subset \mathbb{Q}$ by a series of compass and straightedge constructions then $[F(\alpha) : F] = 2^k$ for some integer $k \geq 0$.*

Proof. If a number is constructible, then there is a chain of subfields $\mathbb{Q} \subset F_0 \subseteq F_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq F_m$ such that each field F_i is constructed by adjoining the square root of an element $a_{i-1} \in F_{i-1}$, i.e. $F_i = F_{i-1}(\sqrt{a_{i-1}})$. This is an extension of degree one (if a_{i-1} is a square in F_{i-1}) or of degree two. Thus, by the Tower Theorem, we have that the overall extension degree is a power of two, and the proposition follows. \square

5. GALOIS THEORY

Definition 5.1 (Automorphism). Let K be a field.

- An isomorphism σ of K with itself is called an **automorphism** of K . The collection of automorphisms of K is denoted $\text{Aut}(K)$.
- An automorphism $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(K)$ is said to **fix** an element $\alpha \in K$ if $\sigma(\alpha) = \alpha$. If F is a subset of K , then an automorphism σ is said to **fix** F if it fixes all the elements of F .

Definition 5.2. Let K/F be an extension of fields. Let $\text{Aut}(K/F)$ be the collection of automorphisms of K which fix F .

Proposition 5.3. *$\text{Aut}(K)$ is a group under composition and $\text{Aut}(K/F)$ is a subgroup.*

Proposition 5.4. *Let K/F be a field extension and let $\alpha \in K$ be algebraic over F . Then for any $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(K/F)$, $\sigma(\alpha)$ is a root of the minimal polynomial for α over F , i.e., $\text{Aut}(K/F)$ permutes the roots of irreducible polynomials. Equivalently, any polynomial with coefficients in F with α as a root has $\sigma(\alpha)$ as a root.*

Proof. The proof is simple by noting that σ is a homomorphism fixing F . \square

Proposition 5.5. *Let $H \leq \text{Aut}(K)$ be a subgroup of the group of automorphisms of K . Then the collection F of elements of K fixed by all the elements of H is a subfield of K .*

Proposition 5.6. *Let E be splitting field over F of the polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. Then*

$$|\text{Aut}(E/F)| \leq [E : F]$$

with equality if $f(x)$ is separable over F .

Definition 5.7 (Galois Extension). Let K/F be a finite extension. Then K is said to be **Galois** over F and K/F is a **Galois** extension if $|\text{Aut}(K/F)| = [K : F]$. If K/F is Galois, then the group of automorphism $\text{Aut}(K/F)$ is called the **Galois group of K/F** , denoted $\text{Gal}(K/F)$

Proposition 5.8. *If K is the splitting field over F of a separable polynomial $f(x)$ then K/F is Galois.*

Corollary 5.9. The splitting field of any polynomial over \mathbb{Q} is Galois, since the splitting field of $f(x)$ is clearly the same as the splitting field of the product of the irreducible factors of $f(x)$.

Definition 5.10 (Galois group of a polynomial). If $f(x)$ is a separable polynomial over F , then the **Galois group of $f(x)$ over F** is the Galois group of the splitting field of $f(x)$ over F .

We now prove a fundamental relation between the orders of subgroups of the automorphism group of a field K and the degrees of the extensions over their fixed fields.

Theorem 5.11. *Let G be a subgroup of the automorphisms of a field K and let F be the fixed field. Then*

$$[K : F] = |G|$$

Proposition 5.12. *Let K/F be any finite extension. Then*

$$|\text{Aut}(K/F)| \leq [K : F]$$

with equality if and only if F is the fixed field of $\text{Aut}(K/F)$. Alternatively, K/F is Galois if and only if F is the fixed field of $\text{Aut}(K/F)$.

Theorem 5.13. *The extension K/F is Galois if and only if K is the splitting field of some separable polynomial over F . Furthermore, if this is the case then every irreducible polynomial with coefficients in F which has a root in K is separable and has all its roots in K .*

Theorem 5.14 (Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory). *Let K/F be a Galois extension and set $G = \text{Gal}(K/F)$. Then there is a bijection from (subfields E of K containing F) and (subgroups H of G), given by the correspondences (the field E mapping to the elements of G fixing E) and (H mapping to the fixed field of H) which are inverse to each other.*

Let $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ and $1 \leq H \leq G = \text{Gal}(K/F)$, where E is the fixed field of H . Under this correspondence,

- $[K : E] = |H|$ and $[E : F] = |G : H|$, the index of H in G .
- K/E is always Galois, with Galois group $\text{Gal}(K/E) = H$.
- E is Galois over F if and only if H is a normal subgroup in G . If this is the case, then the Galois group is isomorphic to the quotient group

$$\text{Gal}(E/F) \simeq G/H$$

Definition 5.15 (Cyclic Extensions). An extension K/F is said to be **cyclic** if it is Galois with a cyclic Galois group.

Proposition 5.16. Let F be a field of characteristic not dividing n which contains the n^{th} roots of unity. Then the extension $F(\sqrt[n]{a})$ for $a \in F$ is cyclic over F of degree dividing n .

Proof. The extension is Galois over F if F contains the n^{th} roots of unity since it is the splitting field for $x^n - a$. For any $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(K/F)$, $\sigma(\sqrt[n]{a})$ is another root of this polynomial, hence $\sigma(\sqrt[n]{a}) = \zeta_\sigma \sqrt[n]{a}$ for some root of unity ζ_σ . This gives a map

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi : \quad \text{Gal}(K/F) &\rightarrow \mu_n \\ \sigma &\mapsto \zeta_\sigma \end{aligned}$$

where μ_n denotes the group of n^{th} roots of unity. Since F contains μ_n , every n^{th} root of unity is fixed by every element of $\text{Gal}(K/F)$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma\tau(\sqrt[n]{a}) &= \sigma(\zeta_\tau \sqrt[n]{a}) \\ &= \zeta_\tau \sigma(\sqrt[n]{a}) \\ &= \zeta_\tau \zeta_\sigma \sqrt[n]{a} \\ &= \zeta_\sigma \zeta_\tau \sqrt[n]{a} \end{aligned}$$

which shows that $\zeta_{\sigma\tau} = \zeta_\sigma \zeta_\tau$, so the map above is a homomorphism. The kernel consists of precisely of the automorphism which fix $\sqrt[n]{a}$, namely the identity. This gives an injection of $\text{Gal}(K/F)$ into the cyclic group μ_n of order n , which proves the proposition. \square

Theorem 5.17. Any cyclic extension of degree n over a field F of characteristic not dividing n which contains the n^{th} roots of unity is of the form $F(\sqrt[n]{a})$ for some $a \in F$.

Definition 5.18 (Solvable by radicals). An element α which is algebraic over F can be **expressed by radicals** or **solved for in terms of radicals** if α is an element of a field K which can be obtained by a succession of simple radical extensions

$$F = K_0 \subset K_1 \subset \cdots \subset K$$

where $K_{i+1} = K_i(\sqrt[n_i]{a_i})$ for some $a_i \in K_i$, and $\sqrt[n_i]{a_i}$ is some root of the polynomial $x^{n_i} - a_i$. Such a field K is a **root extension** of F .

A polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ can be **solved by radicals** if all its roots can be solved for in terms of radicals.

Definition 5.19 (Solvable Groups). A group G is **solvable** if there is a chain of subgroups

$$1 = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_2 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_s = G$$

where each G_i is normal in G_{i+1} and the quotient groups G_{i+1}/G_i is abelian for all i .

Corollary 5.20. The finite group G is solvable if and only if for every divisor n of $|G|$ with $\gcd(n, \frac{|G|}{n}) = 1$, G has a subgroup of order n .

Corollary 5.21. Let N be normal in G . If N and G/N are solvable, then G is solvable.

Theorem 5.22 (Solvability of a polynomial by radicals). *A polynomial $f(x)$ is solvable by radicals if and only if its Galois group is a solvable group.*

Proof. IMPORTANT PROOF

□

Corollary 5.23. The general equation of degree n cannot be solved by radicals for $n \geq 5$. For $n \geq 5$ the group S_n is not solvable.