# Field Theory and Galois Theory.

Alec Zabel-Mena

January 16, 2023

# Contents

1	$\mathbf{Fiel}$	$\mathrm{d}\mathrm{s}.$
	1.1	Field Extensions
	1.2	Algebraic Extensions
	1.3	Splitting Fields
	1.4	Algebraic Closures
	1.5	Seperability
	1.6	Cyclotomic Polynomials

4 CONTENTS

# Chapter 1

# Fields.

#### 1.1 Field Extensions.

**Definition.** We define the **characteristic** of a field F to be the smallest positive integer p, such that  $p \cdot 1 = 0$ , where 1 is the identity of F. We write char F = p, and if no such p exists, then we write char F = 0.

**Lemma 1.1.1.** Let F be a field, then char F is either 0, or a prime integer.

Proof. Let  $\Gamma F = p$ . If p = 0, then we are done. Now suppose that p = mn, with  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  $p \cdot 1 = (mn)1 = (n \cdot 1)(m \cdot 1) = mn = 0$ , which makes m and n 0 divisors. Since F is a field, and hence an integral domain, this is impossible, and hence p must be prime.

Corollary. If char 
$$F = p$$
, then for all  $a \in F$ ,  $pa = \underbrace{a + \cdots + a}_{p \text{ times}}$ .

*Proof.* We have  $pa = p(a \cdot 1) = (p \cdot 1)a$ .

**Example 1.1.** (1) Both  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  have char = 0. Similarly, char  $\mathbb{Z} = 0$ , even though  $\mathbb{Z}$  is just an integral domain.

(2) char  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}} = p$  and char  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}[x] = p$  for any prime p.

**Definition.** We define the **prime subfield** of a field F to be the subfield of F generated by 1.

**Example 1.2.** (1) The prime subfields of  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{R}$  is  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

(2) Let  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}(x)$  the field of rational functions over  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}$ . Then the prime subfield of  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}(x)$  is  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}(x)$ . Similarly, the prime subfield for  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}[x]$  is also  $\mathbb{Z}_{p\mathbb{Z}}(x)$ .

**Definition.** If K is a field containing a field F, then we call K field extension over F, and write  $K/_F$  (not the quotient field!) or denote it by the diagram



Lemma 1.1.2. Every field is a field extension of its prime subfield.

**Lemma 1.1.3.** Let K an extension over a field F. Then K is a vector space over F.

**Definition.** Let  $K_{F}$  a field extension. We define the **degree** of K over F, [K:F] to be the dimension of  $K_{F}$  as a vector space.

**Definition.** Let F be a field, and  $f \in F[x]$  a polynomial. We call am element  $\alpha \in R$  a **root** (or **zero**) of f if  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .

**Lemma 1.1.4.** Let  $\phi: F \to L$  a field homomorphism. Then either  $\phi = 0$ , or  $\phi$  is 1–1.

**Lemma 1.1.5.** Let F be a field, and  $p \in F[x]$  an irreducible polynomial. Then there exists a field K containing an embedding of F, such that p has a root in K.

*Proof.* Consider  $K = F[x]_{(p)}$ . Since p is irreducible in a principle ideal domain, (p) is a maximal idea, and hence K is a field. Now consider the canonical map  $\pi: F[x] \to K$  taking  $f \to f \mod(p)$  and let  $\phi = \pi|_F$ . Then  $\phi \neq 0$ , since  $\pi: 1 \to 1$ . Then  $\phi$  is 1–1. And so  $\phi(F) \simeq F$ .

Now, consider F as a subfield of K. Then  $p(x \mod (p)) \equiv p(x) \mod (p) \equiv 0 \mod (p)$ , so that  $x \mod (p)$  is a root of p in K.

Corollary. There exists a field extension of F containing a root of p.

**Theorem 1.1.6.** Let F be a field, and let  $p \in F[x]$  an irreducible polynomial of degree n, and let K = F[x]/(p), and  $\theta = x \mod (p)$ . Then  $\{1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1}\}$  forms a basis for K as a vector space over F and [K : F] = n.

*Proof.* Let  $a \in F[x]$ , since F[x] is Euclidean domain, there exist  $q, r \in F[x], q \neq 0$  for which

$$a(x) = q(x)p(x) + r(x)$$
 where  $\deg r < n$ 

Now, since  $pq \in (p)$ ,  $a(x) \equiv r(x) \mod (p)$ , and every element of K is a polynomial of degree less than n. Then the elements  $\{1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1}\}$  span K.

Now, suppose that there are  $b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} \in F$  not all 0 for which

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

Then

$$b_0 + b_1 \theta + \dots + b_{n-1} \theta^{n-1} \equiv 0 \mod (p)$$

so that  $p|(b_0+b_1\theta+\cdots+b_{n-1}\theta^{n-1})$  in F. But deg p=n and p divides a polynomial of degree n-1, which is a contradiction. Therefore we are left with  $b_0=\cdots=b_{n-1}=0$ .

**Corollary.** 
$$K = \{ \alpha_0 + a_1 \theta + \dots + a_{n-1} \theta^{n-1} : a_i \in F \text{ for all } 1 \le i \le n-1 \}$$

Corollary. If  $a(\theta), b(\theta) \in K$ , are elements of degree less than n, and the operations of polynomial addition, and polynomial multiplication mod (p) are defined, then K forms a field.

**Example 1.3.** (1) Consider the polynomial  $x^2 + 1$  over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then one has the field

$$\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$$

an extension of  $\mathbb{R}$  of degree  $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = 2$ . Let i be a root of  $x^2 + 1$  in this field, then  $i^2 = -1$ , and the elements of  $\mathbb{C}$  are of the form a + ib where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then we have described the field of complex numbers, and the addition and multiplication (  $\mod x^2 + 1$ ) of these elements are the addition and multiplication of complex numbers.

One might also construct  $\mathbb C$  differently by defining the isomorphism

$$\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2+1) \to \mathbb{C}$$
 taking  $a+xb \to a+ib$ 

(2) Consider again  $x^2 + 1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then we get the field

$$\mathbb{Q}(i) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^2 + 1)$$

of degree  $[\mathbb{Q}(i):\mathbb{Q}]=2$ , and where i is a root of  $x^2+1$ , so that  $i^2=-1$ . Then the elements of  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  are of the form a+ib where  $a,b\in\mathbb{Q}$ , i.e. it is isomorphic to the set of all complex numbers with rational components.

(2) Consider  $x^2 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . by Eisenstein's criterion for p = 2,  $x^2 - 2$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\alpha$  a root of  $x^2 - 2$ , so that  $\alpha^2 = 2$ . Then we have the field

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^2 - 2)$$

of degree  $[Q(\sqrt{2}):\mathbb{Q}]=2$ , and whose elements are of the form  $a+b\sqrt{2}$ . One can define an isomorphism between  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  by taking  $\sqrt{2} \to i$ .

(3) The polynomial  $x^3 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  gives us the field

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^3 - 2)$$

of degree  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}):\mathbb{Q}]=3$  over 2. Here the elements are of the form  $a+b\xi+c\xi^2$  where  $\xi^3=2$ .

(4) Denote  $\mathbb{F}_2$  to be a finite field of 2 elements. Consider the polynomial  $x^2 + x + 1$  over  $\mathbb{F}_2$  which is irreducible. Then the field

$$\mathbb{F}_2(\alpha) = \mathbb{F}_2[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$$

is a field of degree 2 over  $\mathbb{F}_2$ , whose elements are of the form  $a + b\alpha$ , where  $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$ . In fact, one can generate this field using the fact that  $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$ .

(5) Let F = K(t) the field of rational functions in t over a field K. Let  $p(x) = x^2 - t \in F[x]$ , then by Eisenstien's criterion with the ideal (t), p is irreducible over F[x]. Let  $\theta$  be a root for p, that is  $\theta = \sqrt{t}$ , then we get the field  $K(t, \sqrt{t})$  of degree  $[K(t, \sqrt{t}) : K] = 2$ , whose elements are of the form  $a(t) + b(t)\sqrt{t}$ .

**Lemma 1.1.7.** Let F be a subfield of a field K, and let  $\alpha \in K$ . Then there exists a unique minimal subfield of K containing F and  $\alpha$ ; more preciesly, it is the intersection of all subfields of K containing F and  $\alpha$ .

**Definition.** Let K be any extension of a field F, and let  $\alpha, \beta, \dots \in K$ . Then we define the subfield **generated** by  $\alpha, \beta, \dots$  over F to be the unique minimal subfield containing all  $\alpha, \beta, \dots$  and F and we denote it  $F(\alpha, \beta, \dots)$ . Moreover, we call K a **simple extension** of F if  $K = F(\alpha, \beta, \dots)$ . If  $K = (F\alpha_1, \dots, a_n)$  for  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$ , then it is a **finitely generated** simple extension.

**Theorem 1.1.8.** Let F be a field, and  $p \in F[x]$  irreducible, and let K an extension of F containing a root  $\alpha$  of p. Then

$$F(\alpha) \simeq F[x]_{(p)}$$

Proof. Consider the homomorphism  $F[x] \to F(\alpha)$  taking  $a(x) \to a(\alpha)$ . Since  $p(\alpha) = 0$ , p is in the kernel of this homomorphism, and we get an induced homomorphism from  $F[x]/(p) \to F(\alpha)$ . Now, since p is irreducible, F[x]/(p) is a field, and since the homomorphism takes  $1 \to 1$ , it is 1–1. Then by the first isomorphism theorem for ring homomorphisms these two fields are isomorphic.

Corollary. If deg p = n, then  $F(\alpha) = \{a_0 + a_1 \alpha + \dots a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} : a_i \in F \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq n-1\}$  and  $[F(\alpha) : F] = n$ .

- **Example 1.4.** (1) The polynomial  $x^2 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  also has the root  $-\sqrt{2}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ , so that  $\mathbb{Q}(-\sqrt{2})$  is of degree 2 over  $\mathbb{Q}$  with elements of the form  $a b\sqrt{2}$ . Notice however that  $\mathbb{Q}(-\sqrt{2}) \simeq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  by taking  $a b\sqrt{2} \to a + b\sqrt{2}$ .
  - (2) The polynomial  $x^3 2$  only has the solution  $\xi = \sqrt[3]{2}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . However, in  $\mathbb{Q}$  it has the solutions given by

$$\sqrt[3]{2}(\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2})$$

So that the subfields generated by either of these three elements (over  $\mathbb{C}$ ) are isomorphic.

**Theorem 1.1.9.** Let  $\phi: F \to L$  a field isomorphism and  $p \in F[x]$ ,  $q \in L[x]$  irreducible polynomials, where q is obtained by applying  $\phi$  to the coefficients of p. Let  $\alpha$  a root of p, and  $\beta$  a root of q. Then there exists an isomorphism  $F(\alpha) \to L(\beta)$  taking  $\alpha \to \beta$  and extending  $\phi$ . That is, we have the following diagram

$$F(\alpha) \longrightarrow L(\beta)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$F \longrightarrow_{\phi} E$$

*Proof.* Notice that  $\phi$  induces a ring homomorphism between F[x] and L[x], so that (p) is maximal. Since q is obtained from p, (q) is also maximal, so that F[x]/(p) and L[x]/(q) are fields. Then we have an isomorphism

$$F[x]_{(p)} \simeq L[x]_{(q)}$$

Then, if  $\alpha$  is a root of p, and  $\beta$  a root of q, we obtain the isomorphism

$$F(\alpha) \simeq L(\beta)$$

moreover, this isomorphism takes  $\alpha \to \beta$ .

## 1.2 Algebraic Extensions.

**Definition.** Let  $K_F$  be a field extension. We say that an element  $\alpha \in K$  is algebraic over F, provided there exists a polynomial over F having  $\alpha$  as a root. Otherwise we call  $\alpha$  transcendental. If every  $\alpha \in K$  is algebraic, we call K algebraic and  $K_F$  an algebraic extension.

**Lemma 1.2.1.** Let  $\alpha$  be algebraic over a field F. Then there exist a unique monic irreducible polynomial  $m \in F[x]$  having  $\alpha$  as a root. Moreover, if  $f \in F[x]$  is a polynomial, then f has  $\alpha$  as a root if, and only if m|f.

*Proof.* Let m a polynomial of minimal degree having  $\alpha$  as a root. Suppose, also that , is monic. Now, if m were reducible, then m(x) = a(x)b(x) for some  $a, b \in F[x]$  polynomials both of degree less than deg m. Then we also have that  $a(\alpha) = b(\alpha) = 0$ , which contradicts that m is the polynomial of minimal degree satisfying that condition. Hence, m is irreducible.

Now, let  $f \in F[x]$  have  $\alpha$  as a root, then by the divison theorem, there exist  $q, r \in F[x]$ , with  $q \neq 0$  for which

$$f(x) = q(x)m(x) + r(x)$$
 where  $\deg r < \deg m$ 

Now, since  $f(\alpha) = q(\alpha)m(\alpha) + r(\alpha) = 0$ , then r(x) = 0 for all x lest we contradict the minimality of m. Hence m|f. Conversely, if m|f, then f has  $\alpha$  as a root.

Now, let g a polynomial of minimal degree for which  $g(\alpha) = 0$ . Then by above, we have that deg  $g = \deg m$ , and that moreover, m|g and g|m. therefore g = m and uniqueness is established.

Corollary. Let  $L_{/F}$  be an extension, and  $\alpha$  algebraic over F. Let  $m_{\alpha,F}$  the unique monic irreducible polynomial over F having  $\alpha$  as root, and  $m_{\alpha,L}$  the unique monic irreducible polynomial over L having  $\alpha$  as root. Then  $m_{\alpha,L}|m_{\alpha,F}$  in L[x].

**Definition.** Let F be a field, and  $\alpha$  algebraic over F. We define the **minimal polynomial**  $m_{\alpha,F}$ , to be the polynomial over F of minimal degree having  $\alpha$  as a root. If the field is clear, we instead write  $m_{\alpha}$ , or even just m when the root itself is also clear. We define the **degree** of  $\alpha$  to be deg  $\alpha = \deg m_{\alpha}$ .

**Lemma 1.2.2.** Let  $\alpha$  algebraic over F. Then

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

Corollary.  $[F(\alpha):F]=\deg m_{\alpha}=\deg \alpha$ .

#### Example 1.5.

- (1) The minimal polynomial for  $\sqrt{2}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $x^2 2$ .
- (3) The minimal polynomial for  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $x^3 2$ .
- (3) Let n > 1, then by the Eisenstein-Schömann criterion,  $x^n 2$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Moreover,  $x^n 2$  has as root in  $\mathbb{R}$   $\sqrt[n]{2}$ . Then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[n]{2})$  is a field of degree  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[n]{2}):\mathbb{Q}] = 2$ . Moreover  $x^n 2$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\sqrt[n]{2}$ . Notice, that over  $\mathbb{R}$ , deg [n]2 = 1, and that  $m_{\sqrt[n]{2},\mathbb{R}}(x) = x \sqrt[n]{2}$ .
- (4) Consider  $p(x) = x^3 3x 1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Notice that p is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and let  $\alpha$  a root of p. Then  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}]=3$ .

**Lemma 1.2.3.** An element  $\alpha$  is algebraic over a field F if, and only if the simple extension  $F(\alpha)/_F$  is finite.

*Proof.* If  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F then  $[F(\alpha):F]=\deg \alpha \leq n$  if  $\alpha$  satisfies a polynomial of degree n. Conversely, if  $\alpha$  is an element of the finite extenson K/F, of degree n, then the set  $\{1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^n\}$  is linearly dependent over F. Hence there exist  $b_0,\ldots,b_n\in F$  not all 0 for which

$$b_0 + b_1 \alpha + \dots + a_n \alpha^n = 0$$

making  $\alpha$  a root of a nonzero polynomial over F of degree deg  $\leq n$ .

Corollary. If an extension  $K_F$  is finite, then it is algebraic.

*Proof.* If  $\alpha \in K$  is algebraic, then  $K_{/F}$  implies that  $F(\alpha)_{/F}$  is finite, since  $F(\alpha) \subseteq K$ .

**Example 1.6.** Let F a field of char  $F \neq 2$ , and let K an extension field of F of degree [K:F]=2. Let  $\alpha \in K$  not in F, then  $\alpha$  satisfies an polynomial of at most degree 2 over F. Now, since  $\alpha \notin F$ , this polynomial must have degree greater than 1. Hence it satisfies a polynomial of degree 2. Then the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  is a quadratic

$$m_{\alpha}(x) = x^2 + bx + c$$
 with  $b, c \in F$ 

Since  $F \subseteq F(\alpha) \subseteq K$ , and  $F(\alpha)$  is a vector space over F of dimension 2, then we must have  $K = F(\alpha)$ ; that is K/F is simple.

Now, the roots of  $m_{\alpha}$  are

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

Since  $\alpha \notin F$ ,  $b^2 - 4c$  is not a square in F, and  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4c}$  is a root of the equation  $x^2 - (b^2 - 4c) = 0$  in K.

Conversely,  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4c} = \pm (b + 2\alpha)$  which puts  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4c} \in F(\alpha)$ . That is  $F(\sqrt{b^2 - 4c}) = \mathbb{F}(\alpha)$ . Moreover,  $x^2 - (b^2 - 4c)$  does not have solutions in K.

We call field extensions  $K_{f}$  of degree 2 quadratic field extension, where  $K = F(\sqrt{D})$ , and D is a squarefree element of F.

**Theorem 1.2.4.** Let  $F \subseteq K \subseteq L$ . Then [L:F] = [L:K][K:F].

*Proof.* Let [L:K]=m and [K:F]=n. Let  $\{\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_m\}$  and  $\{\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_n\}$  be bases for the extensions  $L_K$  and  $K_F$ . Now, the elements of L over K are of the form

$$a_1\alpha_1 + \cdots + a_m\alpha_m$$
 where  $a_i \in K$  for all  $1 \le i \le m$ 

Since each  $a_i \in K$ , which is an extension over F, they have the form

$$a_i = b_{i1}\beta_{i1} + \cdots + b_{in}\beta_{in}$$
 where  $b_{ij} \in F$  for all  $1 \le j \le n$ 

That is, every element of L, as a vector space over F are of the form

$$\sum b_{ij}\alpha_i\beta_j$$

So the set  $\{\alpha_1\beta_1, \dots \alpha_m\beta_n\}$  spans L. It remains to show that this set is linearly in dependent. Suppose that

$$\sum b_{ij}\alpha_i\beta_j=0$$

for some  $b_{ij} \in F$ . Since  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m\}$  are linearly independent in L over K, we have that the coefficients  $a_1 = \cdots = a_n = 0$  which makes

$$a_i = b_{i1}\beta_{i1} + \cdots + b_{in}\beta_{in} = 0$$

Now, since  $\{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n\}$  is linearly independent in K over F, this implies that  $b_{i1} = \cdots = b_{in} = 0$  which makes the collection  $\{\alpha_1\beta_1, \ldots, \alpha_m\beta_n\}$  linearly independent, and hence, a basis. Moreover, notice that this basis has size mn.

**Example 1.7.** (1) The element  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , where  $\alpha$  is the root of  $x^3 - 3x - 1$ ; since  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ , and  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ .

(2) We have  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2}):\mathbb{Q}] = 6$ , and since  $(\sqrt[6]{2})^3 = \sqrt{2}$ , we observe that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2})$ . Moreover, notice that by theorem 1.2.4  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2}):Q(\sqrt{2})] = 3$ . Then we have the following tower of fields for

$$\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2})$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2})$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$$

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$$

**Lemma 1.2.5.** Let  $\alpha, \beta$  be algebraic over a field F. Then  $F(\alpha, \beta) = (F(\alpha))(\beta)$ .

*Proof.* By definition,  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  contains F, and  $\alpha$ , and hence contains  $F(\alpha)$ . It also contains  $\beta$  so that  $(F(\alpha))(\beta) \subseteq F(\alpha, \beta)$ . By the same argument,  $(F(\alpha))(\beta)$  contains F,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  so that  $F(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq (F(\alpha))(b)$ .

**Corollary.** The elements of  $F(\alpha, \beta)$  are of the form  $\sum a_{ij}\alpha^i b^j$ , where  $1 \leq i \leq \deg \alpha$  and  $1 \leq j \leq \deg \beta$ .

**Example 1.8.** Consider  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$  generated by  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $\sqrt{3}$ . Notice that deg  $\sqrt{3}=2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  so that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}): \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})] \leq 2$ . Now  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}): \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})] = 2$  if, and only if the polynomial  $x^2 - 3$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ . Then it is irreducible if, and only if  $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ . It can be shown that this is not the case by trying to find  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$  for which  $\sqrt{3} = a + b\sqrt{2}$ . Moreover we have

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3}):\mathbb{Q}]=4$$

**Theorem 1.2.6.** An extension field  $K_{/F}$  is finite if, and only if it is generated by finitely many algebraic elements over F.

*Proof.* Let  $K_{F}$  finite of degree n, and  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$  a basis. Then by theorem 1.2.4,  $[F(\alpha_i): F]|[K:F]$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . So each  $\alpha_i$  is algebraic over F. Then K is generated by finitely many algebraic elements.

Conversely, let  $K = F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k) = (F(\alpha_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}))(\alpha_k)$  We obtain K by taking the extensions  $F_{i+1}/F_i$  iteratively, where  $F_{i+1} = F_i(\alpha_{i+1})$ , and obtain the sequence

$$F = F_0 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq F_k = K$$

Now, if the elements  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$  are algebraic over F, each of  $\deg \alpha_i = n_i$  for  $1 \le i \le k$ , then the extension  $F_{i+1}/F_i$  is a simple extension, and  $[F_{i+1}:F_i] = \deg m_{\alpha_{i+1}} \le \deg \alpha_{i+1} = n_{i+1}$ . Then we have

$$[K:F] = [F_k:F_{k-1}]\dots[F_1,F] \le n_1\dots n_k$$

which makes  $K_{/F}$  a finite extension.

**Corollary.** If  $\alpha, \beta$  are algebraic over F, then so are  $\alpha \pm \beta$ ,  $\alpha\beta$ , and  $\alpha\beta^{-1}$  (for  $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Corollary. If  $L_{/F}$  is an extension, then the collection of elements of L which are algebraic over F forms a subfield of L.

- **Example 1.9.** (1) Consider the extension  $\mathbb{C}_{\mathbb{Q}}$ , and let  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q}$  the subfield of all elements of  $\mathbb{C}$  which are algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then  $\sqrt[n]{2} \in \operatorname{cl} Q$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , so that  $[\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q} : \mathbb{Q}] \geq n$ . This makes  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q}$  an infinite algebraic extension, and we call  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q}$  the **field of algebraic numbers**.
  - (2) Consider  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathbb{R}$  as a subfield of  $\mathbb{R}$  (i.e. the subfield of all algebraic elements of  $\mathbb{Q}$ ). Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, so is the field  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ , and each polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  has at most n roots in  $\mathbb{R}$ , hence the number of all algebraic elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is also countable. This means that  $\operatorname{cl} \mathbb{Q}$  must also be countable. Now, since  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable, then there exist uncountably transcendental numbers of  $\mathbb{R}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Most notably the irrational numbers  $\pi$  and e are transcendental.

**Theorem 1.2.7.** If K is algebraic over F, and L algebraic over K, then L is algebraic over F.

Proof. Let  $\alpha \in L$ , since L is algebraic over K, there exists a  $p \in K[x]$  having  $\alpha$  as root. Let  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ . Consider then  $F(\alpha, a_0, \ldots, a_n)$ . Since  $K_f$  is algebraic,  $a_0, \ldots, a_n$  are algebraic over F, and so  $F(\alpha, a_0, \ldots, a_n)$  is a finite extension over F. Then  $\alpha$  generates an extension field of degree less than n, and we get

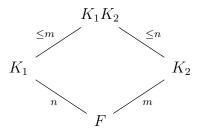
$$[F(\alpha, a_0, \dots, a_n) : F] = [F(\alpha, a_0, \dots, a_n) : F(a_0, \dots, a_n)][F(a_0, \dots, a_n) : F]$$

is finite, and  $F(\alpha, a_0, \dots, a_n)$  is algebraic over F. That is,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F, and so L is algebraic over F.

**Definition.** Let  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  subfields of a field K. The **composite field**  $K_1K_2$  is the smallest subfield of K containing both  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ .

**Example 1.10.** The composite field of  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  is  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2})$ .

**Lemma 1.2.8.** Let  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  be extensions of a field F contained in a field K. Then  $[K_1K_2:F] \leq [K_1:F][K_2:F]$  with equality holding if, and only if a basis of F in the other field is linearly independent. Moreover if  $\{\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_m\}$  and  $\{\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_n\}$  are bases for  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ , then  $\{\alpha_1,\beta_1,\ldots,\alpha_m\beta_n\}$  span  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ .



**Corollary.** If  $[K_1 : F] = m$ , and  $[K_2 : F] = n$  with m and n coprime, then  $[K_1K_2 : F] = [K_1 : F][K_2 : F]$ .

*Proof.* We have that  $m, n|[K_1K_2:F]$  and since  $K_1, K_2 \subseteq K_1K_2$  are subfields of  $K_1K_2$ , we get the least common multiple  $[m, n]|[K_1K_2:F]$ . Now, since (m, n) = 1, we get [m, n] = mn so that  $mn \leq [K_1K_2:F]$ .

### 1.3 Splitting Fields

**Definition.** Let K be an extension of a field F. We say a polynomial f over F splits completely over K if f factors into linear factors over K. If f splits completely over K, and in no other proper subfield, then we say K is the splitting field of f over F.

**Theorem 1.3.1.** If f is a polynomial over a field F, then there exists a splitting field K of f over F.

*Proof.* Let E an extension of F with [E:F]=n. By induction on n, for n=1, we take E=F and we are done. Now, for  $n\geq 1$ , suppose the irreducible factors of f are of deg = 1. Then f has all its roots in F, and hence splits completely over F. Then take E=F. On

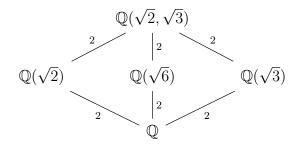
the other hand, if f has at least one irreducible factor of  $\deg \geq 2$ , then there is an extension  $E_1$  of F for which f has the factor  $(x - \alpha)$  for some root  $\alpha$ . Then  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)f_1(x)$  where  $\deg f_1 = n - 1$ . Therefore by the induction hypothesis, there is an extension E of  $E_1$  containing all the roots of  $f_1$ . Hence, it contains all the roots of f and f splits completely over E.

Now, let K be the intersection of all subfields of E for which f splite; i.e. all subfields containing the roots of f. Then by definition, K is the splitting field of f over F.

**Definition.** If K is an algebraic extension of F such that it is the splitting field for a collection of polynomials over F, then we say that K is a **normal extension** of F.

**Example 1.11.** (1) The splitting field of  $x^2 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ , since  $x^2 - 2 = (x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2})$  and  $\pm \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  and  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ , so there is no other subfield in between.

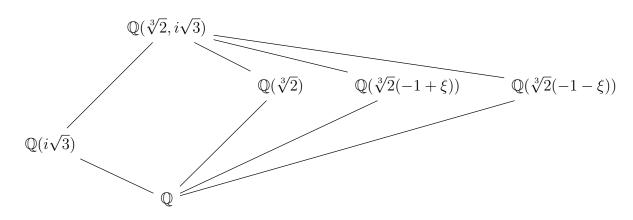
(2) The splitting field for  $(x^2-2)(x^2-3)=(x+\sqrt{2})(x-\sqrt{2})(x+\sqrt{3})(x-\sqrt{3})$  is  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3})$ . Now,  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3}):Q]=4$  and the lattice of fields is



(3) Let  $\xi = i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . Notice that  $x^3 - 2$  factors into  $x^3 - 2 = (x - \sqrt[3]{2})(x + \sqrt[3]{2}(-1 + \xi))(x + \sqrt[3]{2}(-1 - \xi))$ . Now,  $-1 + \xi, -1 - \xi \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ , so  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is not the splitting field for  $x^3 - 2$ . Let K be the splitting field of  $x^3 - 2$ . Then K conmtains  $-1 \pm \xi$ , so that  $i\sqrt{3} \in K$ . Thus

$$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3})$$

Moreover,  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] \geq 2$  and since  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is not the splitting field,  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] = 2$ . Hence  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, i\sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 6$ . We have the following lattice.



15

(4) Notice that  $x^4+4=(x^2+2x+2)(x^2-2x+2)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  which is irreducible by Eisenstein's criterion. Using the quadratic formula, we get  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm i$  as the roots, moreover, notice that  $\pm 1, \pm i \in \mathbb{Q}(i)$  and since  $[\mathbb{Q}(i):\mathbb{Q}]=2$  there are no subfields between  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  so that  $\mathbb{Q}(i)$  is the splitting field of  $x^4+4$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Lemma 1.3.2.** A splitting field of a polynomial of degree n over a field F is of degree at most n! over F.

*Proof.* Let  $f \in F[x]$  a polynomial of deg f = n. Adjoining one root of f to F, we have an extension  $F_1/F$  of degree  $[F_1 : F] = n$ . Now, f over  $F_1$  has at leas one linear factor, and so any root of f satisfies a polynomial of degree n-1. Hence proceeding inductively gives the result.

**Example 1.12.** Consider the polynomial  $x^n - 1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then the roots of  $x^n - 1$  are of the form  $\xi$  where  $\xi^n = 1$ . Notice, that in  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\xi = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{n}}$ , so that  $\mathbb{C}$  contains a splitting field of  $x^n - 1$ . Hence  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$  is a splitting field of  $x^n - 1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Notice that the set of all roots  $\xi$  of  $x^n - 1$  forms a cyclic group generated by  $\xi$ .

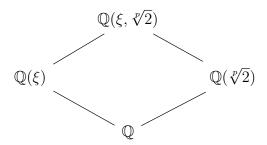
**Definition.** Consider a field F and the polynomial  $x^n - 1$  over F. We call the roots  $\xi$  of  $x^n - 1$ , where  $\xi^n = 1$  the **primitive** n-th roots of unity over F. We call  $F(\xi)$  the cyclotomic field over F.

**Example 1.13.** Let p be a prime, and consider the splitting field  $x^p - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . If  $\alpha$  is a root, then  $\alpha^p = 2$  so that  $(\xi \alpha)^p = 2$  where  $\xi$  is a primitive p-th root of unity over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . So the roots of  $x^2 - 2$  are

$$\sqrt[p]{2}$$
 and  $\xi\sqrt[p]{2}$ 

Notice that  $\frac{\xi\sqrt[p]{2}}{\sqrt[p]{2}} = \xi$  so the splitting field contains  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2})$ , Moreover,  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2})$  contains all the roots of  $x^p - 2$  so that  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2})$  is the splitting field of  $x^p - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Notice, that  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2})$  so that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}(\xi)] \leq p$ . not, since  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[p]{2})$  is also a subfield, we get  $[\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2}) : Q] \leq p(p-1)$ . Since (p, p-1) = 1 (i.e. they are coprime), we have  $p(p-1)|[\mathbb{Q}(\xi, \sqrt[p]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}]$  so that  $[p]2) : \mathbb{Q}] = p(p-1)$ . We have the following lattice.



**Theorem 1.3.3.** Let  $\phi: F \to F'$  a field isomorphism. Let f and f' polynomials over F and F', where f' is obtained by applying  $\phi$  to the coefficients of f. Let E and E' be splitting fields of f and f' over F and F', respectively. Then  $\phi$  extends to an isomorphism between E and E'; i.e.  $E \simeq E'$ .

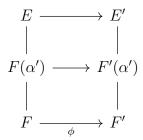
$$E \longrightarrow E'$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$F \stackrel{\phi}{\longrightarrow} F'$$

*Proof.* Let deg f = n. By induction on n. If f has all its roots in F, f splits completely over F, and f' over F'. Then take E = F and E' = F' and we are done for n = 1.

Now, for  $n \geq 1$ , suppose the theorem is true. Let p an irreducible factor of f, and p' an irreducible factor of f'. If  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha'$  are roots of p and p', respectively, then extend  $\phi$  to  $F(\alpha)$  and  $F'(\alpha')$ . Then  $f(x) = (x-\alpha)f_1(x)$  and  $f'(x) = (x-\alpha')f'_1(x)$ ; with deg  $f_1 = \deg f'_1 = n-1$ . Then let E the splitting field of  $f_1$  over  $F(\alpha)$ , and E' the splitting field of  $f'_1$  over  $F'(\alpha')$ 



The the roots of  $f_1$  and  $f'_1$  are in E and E', respectively, and hence so are the roots of f and f'. Then by the induction hypothesis, we can extend  $\phi$  to E and E' so that  $E \simeq E'$ .

Corollary. Any two splitting fields of a given polynomial over a field are isomorphic.

*Proof.* Take  $\phi$  to be the identity map.

## 1.4 Algebraic Closures.

**Definition.** We define the **algebraic closure** of a field F to be the algebraic extension,  $\operatorname{cl} F$ , over F for which every polynomial over F splits. We call a field K **algebraically closed** if every polynomial over K has at least one root in K.

**Lemma 1.4.1.** A field K is algebraically closed if, and only if every polynomial over K has all of its roots in K.

*Proof.* Certainly, if a polynomial f over K contains all of its roots in K, then K is algebraically closed, by definition.

Now, suppose that K is algebraically closed, and let f a polynomial over K. Then f contains at least one root in K. Hence  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)f_1(x)$  for some root  $\alpha$  of f, and where  $f_1 \in K[x]$ . But then by definition again,  $f_1$  contains at least one root in K. Hence, we proceed until we exhaust all the roots of f, and obtain that every root of f lies in K.

Corollary. K is algebraically closed if, and only if cl K = K.

**Lemma 1.4.2.** Let F be a field, and  $\operatorname{cl} F$  its algebraic closure. Then  $\operatorname{cl} F$  is algebraically closed; i.e.  $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{cl} F) = \operatorname{cl} F$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f \in \operatorname{cl} F[x]$ , and  $\alpha$  a root of f. Then  $\alpha$  generates all of  $\operatorname{cl} F(\alpha)$ , making  $\operatorname{cl} F$  algebraic over F. Hence  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F, but  $\alpha \in \operatorname{cl} F$ , so that  $\operatorname{cl} (\operatorname{cl} F) = \operatorname{cl} F$ .

**Lemma 1.4.3.** For every field F, there exists an algebraically closed set containing F.

1.5. SEPERABILITY. 17

*Proof.* Consider the polynomial ring  $F[\ldots, x_n, \ldots]$  where  $f(x_n)$  is a nonconstant polynomial over f. Consider the ideal (f). Then, if (f) = (1), then

$$g_1 f_1(x_1) + \dots + g_n f_n(x_n) = 1$$

where  $g_i \in F[x_i]$ . Then we get

$$g_1(x_1,\ldots,x_m)f_1(x_1)+\cdots+g_n(x_1,\ldots,x_m)f_n(x_n)=1$$

Now, let F' an extension of F containing a root  $\alpha_i$  of  $f_i$ . Then we observe that 0 = 1 in the above equation which is a blatant contradiction. So (f) must be a proper ideal.

Now, by Zorn's lemma, there exists a maximal ideal M containing I. Then the quotient

$$K_1 = F[\ldots, x_n, \ldots]/M$$

is a field containing an imbedding of F. Moreover, f has a root in  $K_1$ , so that  $f(x_n) \in (f) \subseteq M$ . Then  $K_1$  is a field in which every polynomial over F has a root. Proceeding as before with  $K_1$ , we obtain  $K_2$  in which every polynomial over  $K_1$  has a root. Hence, proceeding recursively, we obtain the sequence

$$F = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq K_n \subseteq \dots$$

in which everypolynomial over  $K_n$  has all its roots in  $K_{n+1}$ . Now, let

$$K = \bigcup K_n$$

Then  $F \subseteq K$ , and every polynomial over K has a root in  $K_N$ , for N large enough; but  $K_N \subseteq K$ , so that K is algebraically closed.

**Lemma 1.4.4.** Let K be algebraically closed, and let  $F \subseteq K$ . Then the collection of elements of the algebraic closure  $\operatorname{cl} F$  of K that are algebraic over F is an algebraic closure of F.

*Proof.* By definition,  ${}^{\operatorname{cl} F}/_F$  is algebraic. Then every polynomial f over F splits over K into linear factors  $(x-\alpha)$ , where  $\alpha$  is a root of f. So  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F, and hence  $\alpha \in \operatorname{cl} F$ . then all linear factors have a coefficient in  $\operatorname{cl} F$ , so that f splits completely over  $\operatorname{cl} F$ .

Corollary. Algebraic closures are unique up to isomorphism.

**Theorem 1.4.5** (The Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed.

Corollary.  $\mathbb{C}$  contains the an algebraic closuder of any of its subfields.

## 1.5 Seperability.

**Definition.** Let f be a polynomial over a field F with factorization

$$f(x) = a_n(x - \alpha_1)^{n_1} \dots (x - \alpha_k)^{n_k}$$

where  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$  are roots of f, and  $a_n$  is the leading coefficient of f. If  $n_i > 1$ , we call  $\alpha_i$  a **multiple root** of f, and if  $n_i = 1$ , we call  $\alpha_i$  a **simple root**. We call  $n_i$  the **multiplicity** of  $\alpha_i$ .

**Definition.** A polynomial over a field F is said to be **seperable** if it has only simple roots. Otherwise, we say it is **inseperable**.

Lemma 1.5.1. Seperable polynomials have all their roots distinct.

**Definition.** We say a field F is a **finite field** if it has a finite number of elements. If |F| = n, then we denote F as  $\mathbb{F}_n$ .

Lemma 1.5.2. Every finite field has finite characteristic.

*Proof.* Recall that the characteristic is just the additive order of the element 1 in the field.

**Example 1.14.** (1)  $x^2 - 2 = (x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2})$  is separable over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . However  $(x^2 - 1)^n$  is inseparable.

(2) Consider  $x^2 - t$  over the field  $\mathbb{F}_2(t)$  of rational functions over t.  $x^2 - t$  is irreducible, but inseperable. Let  $\sqrt{t}$  a root, then  $(x - \sqrt{t})^2 = x^2 - t$  since char  $\mathbb{F}_2 = 2$ .

**Definition.** The **derivative** of a polynomial  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n$  over a field F is the polynomial

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

over F.

**Lemma 1.5.3.** For any two polynomials f and g over a field, the following are true.

- (1) D(f+g) = Df + D(g).
- (2) D(fg) = fDg + gDf.

**Lemma 1.5.4.** A polynomial f has a multiple root  $\alpha$  if, and only if  $\alpha$  is a root of Df. Moreover, the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$ ,  $m_{\alpha}$  divides (f, Df).

*Proof.* Let  $\alpha$  a multiple root of f. Then  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^n g(x)$  for some polynomial g. Hence

$$Df(x) = n(x - \alpha)^{n-1}g(x) + (x - \alpha)^n Dg(x)$$

so that  $\alpha$  is a root of Df.

Conversly, suppose that  $\alpha$  is a root of both f and Df. Then  $f(x) = (x - \alpha)g(x)$  for some polynomial g, and  $Df(x) = g(x) + (x - \alpha)Dg(x)$ . Now, since  $Df(\alpha) = 0$ , we get  $h(\alpha) = 0$ , so that h has a linear factor  $(x - \alpha)$ . This makes  $\alpha$  a multiple root of f.

**Corollary.** f is separable if and only if (f, Df) = 1.

Corollary. Every irreducible polynomial in a field F of char F = 0 is separable. Moreover, a polynomial over such a field is irreducible if, and only if it is the product of distinct irreducible factors.

*Proof.* Let p an irreducible polynomial over F of  $\deg p = n$ . Then  $\deg Dp = n - 1$ . Up to constant factors, the factors of p are 1 and itself, so that (p, Dp) = 1. This makes p separable. Therefore every irreducible polynomial over F is separable, and the rest follows.

1.5. SEPERABILITY. 19

**Example 1.15.** (1) Let p prime and  $f(x) = x^{p^n} - x$  over the finite field  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , of char  $\mathbb{F}_p = p$ . Then  $Df(x) = p^n x^{p^n - 1} - 1 \equiv -1 \mod p$ . Then Df has no roots, which makes f seperable.

- (2)  $D(x^n 1) = nx^{n-1}$  for any field of char coprime to p. Then  $D(x^n 1)$  has a root 0 of multiplicity n > 1, but 0 is not a root of  $x^n 1$  so that  $x^n 1$  is separable. That is,  $x^n 1$  has n distinct roots of unity  $\xi$ .
- (3) Let F a field of char F = p, where p|n. Then there are fewew than n distinct n-th roots of unity over F, since  $n \equiv 0 \mod p$ . Then  $D(x^n 1) = 0$ , and every root of  $x^n 1$  is a multiple root.

**Lemma 1.5.5.** If f is a polynomial over a field F whose derivative is 0, then there exist a polynomial g for which  $f(x) = g(x^p)$  where char F = p.

*Proof.* Let  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_nx^n$ . Then  $Df(x) = a_1 + \cdots + na_nx^{n-1} = 0$ , so that every exponent  $i \equiv 0 \mod p$ . That is,  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x^p + \cdots + a_mx^{mp}$ . Then let

$$g(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_m x^m$$

then  $f(x) = q(x^p)$ .

**Lemma 1.5.6.** Let F a field of char F = p. The for every  $a, b \in F$ ,  $(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p$  and  $(ab^p) = a^p b^p$ .

*Proof.* The binomial theorem gives

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

Now, since  $\binom{p}{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$  for any  $1 \le i \le p-1$ , and p is prime (the charateristic of a field has to be prime), then  $p|\binom{p}{i}$ . Hence  $\binom{p}{i} \equiv 0 \mod p$ , so that the binomial exapnsion above reduces to

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \mod p$$

Now, let  $\phi: a \to a^p$ , then  $\phi$  is an automorphism of fields taking  $(ab)^p = a^p b^p$ .

Corollary. Let F be a finite field of char F = p. Then every element of F is a  $p^{th}powerin F$ .

**Definition.** Let F be a field. We call the automorphism  $F \to F$  defined by  $a \to a^p$  where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  the Forbenius automorphism.

**Lemma 1.5.7.** Every irreducible polynomial in a finite field F is separable.

*Proof.* Suppose otherwise. Since F has finite characteristic, there is a polynomial q over F for which  $p(x) = q(x^l)$ , where p is the irreducible polynomial in question, and char F = l. Let

$$q(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$$

then  $a_i = b_i^p$  for some  $b_i \in F$ , and

$$p(x) = q(x^{l})$$

$$= a_{0} + a_{1}x^{p} + \dots + a_{n}x^{pn}$$

$$= b_{0}^{p} + b_{1}^{p}x^{p} + \dots + b_{n}^{p}x^{np}$$

$$= (b_{0} + b_{1}x + \dots + b_{n}x^{n})^{p}$$

which is a contradiction.

**Definition.** A field K of characteristic char K = p is called **perfect** if for every  $a \in K$ , there exists a  $b \in K$  for which  $a = b^p$ , or p = 0.

**Example 1.16.** Let n > 0 and consider the splitting field of the polynomial  $x^{p^n} - x$  over the finite field  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Then  $x^{p^n} - x$  has precisely  $p^n$  roots.

Let  $\alpha, \beta$  be roots. Then  $\alpha^{p^n} = \alpha$ , and  $\beta^{p^n} = \beta$ . Then  $(\alpha\beta)^{p^n} = \alpha\beta$  and  $(\alpha^{-1})^{p^n} = \alpha^{-1}$ . Moreover,  $(\alpha + \beta)^{p^n} = \alpha + \beta$ . So the set of  $p^n$  disctinct roots of  $x^{p^n} - x$  is closed under addition, multiplication, and inverses in its splitting field. Let F be that splitting field. Notice that  $F \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ , moreover,  $[F:F_p] = n$  so that  $|F| = p^n$ . We also have that  $\mathcal{U}(F)$  is a cyclic group of order  $p^n - 1$ , so that  $F_{p^n} \subseteq F$ , since  $\alpha^{p^n-1} = 1$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}$  is the splitting field of  $x^{p^n} - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , and so contains all the roots of  $x^{p^n} - x$ . Hence finite fields of order  $p^n$  exist and are unique up to isomorphism.

**Lemma 1.5.8.** Let f an irreducible polynomial over a field F of char F = p. Then there exists a unique integer  $k \ge 0$  and a unique separable polynomial s such that  $f(x) = s(x^{p^k})$ .

Proof. We have that since char F = p, there exists a polynomial  $f_1$  over F for which  $f(x) = f_1(x^p)$ . Now, if  $f_1$  is seperable, take k = 1 and we are done. Otherwise, there is a polynomial  $f_2$  over F for which  $f_2(x) = f_2(x^p)$ , so that  $f(x) = f_1(x^p) = f_2(x^{p^2})$ . Then proceeding in this fashion, we obtain a seperable polynomial s for which  $f(x) = s(x^{p^k})$  where  $k \ge 0$ .

**Definition.** Let f an irreducible polynomial over a field of characteristic p, a prime. Let  $f_s$  the polynomial for which  $f(x) = f_s(x^{p^k})$  for some unique integer  $k \ge 0$ . Then we call the degree of  $f_s$  the **seperable degree** of f and write  $\deg_s f = \deg f_s$ . We call the integer  $p^k$  the **inseperable degree** and write  $\deg_i f = p^k$ . We call  $f_s$  the **seperable part** of f.

**Lemma 1.5.9.** A polynomial f is separable if, and only if  $\deg_i f = 1$  and  $\deg_s f = \deg f$ . Moreover,

$$\deg f = \deg_s f \cdot \deg_i f$$

**Example 1.17.** (1)  $x^p - t$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p(t)$  is irreducible with derivative D = 0. Hence  $x^p - t$  is inseperable. We call  $x^p - t$  a **purely inseperable polynomial**. Notice that  $x^p - t$  has seperable part (x - t).

- (2)  $x^{p^n} t$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p(t)$  is irreducible with separable part (x t), and  $\deg_i = p^n$ .
- (3) Let  $f(x) = (x^{p^n} t)(x^p t)$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p(t)$ . Then p has two inseperable irreducible factors, and so is inseperable.

**Definition.** An extension K over a field F is a called **seperable** if every  $\alpha \in K$  is the root of a seperable polynomial over F. Otherwise, we call K inseperable.

**Lemma 1.5.10.** Every fnite extension of a perfect field is separable.

**Corollary.** Finite extension fields of  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{F}_p$  are separable.

## 1.6 Cyclotomic Polynomials.

**Definition.** We define **Euler's totient** to be the map  $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  defined by the rule  $\phi(n) = |\{a \in \mathbb{Z} : (a,n) = 1\}|$ . That is,  $\phi$  of n is the number of all integers less than n, coprime to n.

**Definition.** We define  $\Xi_n$  to be the **group of all primitive** n**-th roots of unity**,  $\xi$  for which  $\xi^n = 1$ .

Lemma 1.6.1.  $\Xi_n \simeq \mathbb{Z}/_{n\mathbb{Z}}$ 

*Proof.* The map  $a \to \xi^a$  defines the required isomorphism.

Corollary. ord  $\Xi_n = \phi(n)$  where  $\phi$  is Euler's totient.

*Proof.* Since  $\xi^n \equiv \xi^{0 \mod n} \equiv 1$ , we have every non identity power of  $\xi$  has exponent coprime to n. That is there are  $\phi(n)$  such distinct powers of  $\xi$ .

Corollary. If d|n, then  $\Xi_d \leq \Xi_n$ .

*Proof.* Notice that if d|n, then d=mn for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  $\xi^d=1$  implies  $(\xi^d)=\xi^{dm}=\xi^n=1$ .

**Definition.** We define the *n*-th cyclotomic polynomial to be the polynomial

$$\Phi_n(x) = \prod x - \xi$$

having as roots all *n*-primitive roots of unity.

**Lemma 1.6.2.** The n-th cyclotomic polynomial  $\Phi_n$  has degree  $\deg \Phi_n = \phi(n)$ , where  $\phi$  is Euler's totient.

*Proof.* Recall that ord  $\Xi_n = \phi(n)$ , and since the elements of  $\Xi_n$  are the roots of  $\Phi_n$ , there are  $\phi(n)$  such roots. This puts deg  $\Phi_n = \phi(n)$ .

**Example 1.18** (Computing Cyclotomic Polynomials). Recall that the polynomial  $x^n - 1$  has as roots precisely all n-th roots of unity  $\xi$ , that is  $\xi^n = 1$ . If  $x^n - 1 \in F[x]$ , F a field, the the splitting field of  $x^n - 1$  is  $F(\xi)$ . Then we have

$$x^n - 1 = \prod_{\xi \in \Xi_n} (x - \xi)$$

Now, grouping those factors where  $\xi^d = 1$  for some d|n, then we have

$$x^{n} - 1 = \prod_{\xi \in \Xi_{d}} (x - \xi) \prod_{\xi \in \Xi_{n}} (x - \xi) = \prod_{\xi \in \Xi_{n}} d | n \prod_{\xi \in \Xi_{n}} (x - \xi) = \prod_{d \mid n} \Phi_{n}(x)$$

that is,

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

which gives a method for computing  $\Phi_n$  recursively.

We have  $\Phi_1(x) = x - 1$  and  $\Phi_2(x) = x + 1$ . Now,  $\Phi_3(x) = \Phi_1(x)\Phi_3(x) = (x - 1)\Phi_3(x)$ , so that

$$Phi_n(x) = x^2 + x + 1$$

We have  $\Phi_4(x) = \Phi_1(x)\Phi_2(x)\Phi_4(x) = (x-1)(x+1)\Phi_4(x) = (x^2-1)\Phi_4(x)$ . So

$$\Phi_4(x) = x^2 + 1$$

Similarly,

$$\Phi_{5}(x) = x^{4} + x^{3} + x + 1$$

$$\Phi_{6}(x) = x^{2} - x + 1$$

$$\Phi_{7}(x) = x^{6} + x^{5} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$\Phi_{8}(x) = x^{4} + 1$$

$$\Phi_{9}(x) = x^{6} + x^{x} + 1$$

$$\Phi_{10}(x) = x^{4} - x^{3} + x^{2} - x + 1$$

$$\Phi_{11}(x) = x^{10} + x^{9} + x^{8} + x^{7} + x^{6} + x^{5} + x^{4} + x^{3} + x^{2} + x + 1$$

$$\Phi_{12}(x) = x^{4} - x^{2} + 1$$

Also observe that if p is prime, then

$$\Phi_p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} x^i = x^{p-1} + x^p + \dots + x + 1$$

**Lemma 1.6.3.**  $\Phi_n(x)$  is monic over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Notice that since  $x^n - 1 = \prod \Phi_d(x)$ , is monic, then each  $\Phi_d$  must also be monic for all d|n.

Now, by induction on n, for n=1, it is clear that x-1 has coefficiencts in  $\mathbb{Z}$  (if  $x^n-1\in\mathbb{Z}[x]$  we are done, if not, just take  $1_F\to 1_{\mathbb{Z}}$ , whre F is the underlying field of  $x^n-1$ ). Now, suppose that  $\Phi_d(x)\in\mathbb{Z}[x]$  for all  $1\leq d< n$ , and d|n. Then  $x^n-1=f(x)\Phi_n(x)$ , where  $f(x)=\prod\Phi_d(x)$  is monic over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Moreover,  $f|x^n-1$ , in the splitting field  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi)$  (since we take  $1_F\to F_{\mathbb{Z}}$ ), where  $\xi^n=1$ . Then  $f|x^n-1$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  by the division theorem, and by Gauss' lemma,  $f|x^n-1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . So  $\Phi_n\in\mathbb{Z}[x]$ .

**Theorem 1.6.4.**  $\Phi_n$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof. Again, if  $x^n - 1 \in F[x]$  for some field F, take  $1_F \to 1_{\mathbb{Z}}$  so that  $x^n - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Suppose then that  $\Phi_n(x) = f(x)g(x)$  where f and g are monic, and f is irreducible. Let  $\xi^n = 1$ , a primitive n-th root, so that  $\xi$  is a root of f. Then f is the minimal polynomial for  $\xi$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Now, let p a prime such that  $p \nmid n$ . Then  $\xi^p$  is a n-th root, of f or g. If  $f(\xi^p) = 0$ , then for all g with g with g is a root of g. Moreover, g where each g is prime. That means the g is a root of g where g are all roots of g making g and we are done.

Suppose then that  $g(\xi^p) = 0$ . Then  $\xi$  is root of  $g(x^p)$ , and since f is minimal,  $f|g(x^p)$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ . Then we have  $g(x^p) = f(x)h(x)$  for  $f, h \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . reducing mod p, we get  $g(x^p) \equiv f(x)h(x) \mod p$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ ; but  $g(x^p) \equiv (g(x))^p \mod p$ . Since  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$  is a unique factorization domain, we get that  $f \mod p$  and  $g \mod p$  have a common factor. Then  $\Phi_n(x) \equiv f(x)g(x) \mod p$  has a multiple root in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ ; implying that  $x^n - 1$  has a multiple root, which is impossible; since  $x^n - 1$  has n distinct roots. Therefore  $\xi^p$  is a root of f.

Corollary.  $[\mathbb{Q}(\xi) : \mathbb{Q}] = \phi(n)$ .

*Proof.* We have by above that  $\Phi_n$  is the minimal polynomial for  $\xi$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

**Example 1.19.** Let  $\xi^8 = 1$  an 8-th root of unity. Then  $[\mathbb{Q}(\xi) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi)$  has minimal polynomial  $\Phi_8(x) = x^4 + 1$ . Moreover,  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi)$  contains a primitive 4-th root of unity  $i^4 = 1$  (over  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $i^2 = -1$ ). So that  $\mathbb{Q}(i) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\xi)$ . We als get that  $\xi + \xi^7 = \sqrt{2}$  (since  $\xi = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{8}}$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ ), and  $\mathbb{Q}(\xi) = \mathbb{Q}(i,\sqrt{2})$ .

# Bibliography

- [1] D. Dummit, Abstract algebra. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc, 2004.
- $[2]\,$  I. N. Herstein, Topics~in~algebra. New York: Wiley, 1975.