Abstract Algebra by Pinter, Chapter 31

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Abstract

Chapter 31 on Galois Theory Preamble

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Note that root field is called splitting field in other texts.

1 A. Examples of Root Fields over \mathbb{Q}

1.1 Q1

```
sage: solve(x^2 - 2*x - 2, x)
[x == -sqrt(3) + 1, x == sqrt(3) + 1]
sage: solve(x^2 + 1, x)
[x == -I, x == I]
```

1.2 Q2

Possible roots for x^2-3 are $\pm 1, \pm 3$. sage: p = lambda x: x^2-3 sage: p(-1), p(1), p(-3), p(3) (-2, -2, 6, 6) So it is irreducible.

```
For x^2 - 2x - 2 we can use Eisenstein's irreducibility criteria.
```

```
sage: solve(x^2 - 3, x)
[x == -sqrt(3), x == sqrt(3)]
sage: solve(x^2 - 2*x - 2, x)
[x == -sqrt(3) + 1, x == sqrt(3) + 1]
```

Root field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$.

1.3 Q3

```
sage: solve(x^4 - 2, x)
[x == I*2^(1/4), x == -2^(1/4), x == -I*2^(1/4), x == 2^(1/4)]
```

Therefore the root field is $\mathbb{Q}(2^{\frac{1}{4}}, i)$

Since $\mathbb{Q}(2^{\frac{1}{4}}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, then the root field of $x^4 - 2$ over \mathbb{R} is $\mathbb{R}(i)$.

1.4 Q4

```
sage: solve(x^4 - 2*x^2 + 9, x)
[x = -sqrt(2*I*sqrt(2) + 1), x = sqrt(2*I*sqrt(2) + 1), x = -sqrt(-2*I*sqrt(2) + 1), x = sqrt(-2*I*sqrt(2) + 1)]
Root field is \mathbb{Q}(i,\sqrt{2}).
sage: solve(x^2 - 2*sqrt(2)*x + 3, x)
[x == sqrt(2) - I, x == sqrt(2) + I]
Root field is \mathbb{Q}(i,\sqrt{2}).
```

1.5 Q5

```
sage: c
sqrt(3) + I
sage: ((c^2 - 2)^2).expand()
sage: ((x^2 - 2)^2
....: ).expand()
x^4 - 4*x^2 + 4
sage: x^4 - 4*x^2 + 4 + 12
x^4 - 4*x^2 + 16
sage: solve(x^4 - 4*x^2 + 4 + 12, x)
[x = -sqrt(2*I*sqrt(3) + 2), x = sqrt(2*I*sqrt(3) + 2), x = -sqrt(-2*I*sqrt(3) + 2), x = sqrt(-2*I*sqrt(3) + 2),
So there are roots -2\sqrt{3}i-2 and 2\sqrt{3}i-2.
And x^2 - 3 for b(x).
sage: c = sqrt(2) + sqrt(3)
sage: (c^2).expand()
2*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2) + 5
sage: (((c^2).expand() - 5)^2).expand()
```

sage: $((x^2 - 5)^2).expand()$

 $x^4 - 10*x^2 + 25$

sage: solve($x^4 - 10*x^2 + 1, x$)

[x = -sqrt(2*sqrt(6) + 5), x = sqrt(2*sqrt(6) + 5), x = -sqrt(-2*sqrt(6) + 5), x = sqrt(-2*sqrt(6) + 5)]

Remembering that $\sqrt{6} = \sqrt{2}\sqrt{3}$.

1.6 Q6

All of them are valid root fields except the cube root one.

2 B. Examples of Root Fields over \mathbb{Z}_n

sage: R.<x> = IntegerModRing(3)[]

2.1 Q1

```
sage: f = x^3 + 2*x + 1
sage: S.<u> = R.extension(f)
sage: (x - u)*(x - (u + 1))*(x - (u + 2))
x^3 + 2*x + 1
List the elements:
sage: S = R.quotient(x^3 + 2*x + 1, 'u')
sage: len(S)
sage: list(S)
[0,
1,
 2,
 u,
 u + 1,
 u + 2,
 2*u,
 2*u + 1,
 2*u + 2,
 u^2,
 u^2 + 1,
 u^2 + 2,
 u^2 + u,
 u^2 + u + 1,
 u^2 + u + 2,
 u^2 + 2*u,
 u^2 + 2*u + 1,
 u^2 + 2*u + 2,
 2*u^2,
 2*u^2 + 1,
 2*u^2 + 2,
 2*u^2 + u,
 2*u^2 + u + 1,
 2*u^2 + u + 2,
 2*u^2 + 2*u,
 2*u^2 + 2*u + 1,
 2*u^2 + 2*u + 2
Roots of a(x) are u, u + 1, u + 2.
Root field is therefore \mathbb{Z}_3(u).
2.2 Q2
sage: S = R.quotient(x^2 + x + 2, 'u')
sage: list(S)
[0, 1, 2, u, u + 1, u + 2, 2*u, 2*u + 1, 2*u + 2]
Utilize the fact that u^2 = -u - 2 = 2u + 1, we can make the addition and multiplication tables.
sage: from sage.matrix.operation_table import OperationTable
sage: OperationTable(S, operation=operator.add)
+ abcdefghi
+----
al a b c d e f g h i
b| bcaefdhig
c | cabfdeigh
d | d e f g h i a b c
```

```
e | efdhigbca
f|fdeighcab
g|ghiabcdef
h \mid \ h \ i \ g \ b \ c \ a \ e \ f \ d
i | i g h c a b f d e
sage: OperationTable(S, operation=operator.mul)
* abcdefghi
+-----
al a a a a a a a a
b| abcdefghi
c a c b g i h d f e
d | adghbefic
el a e i b f g c d h
f | afhegcibd
g | agdfciheb
h | ahfidbecg
i | a i e c h d b g f
Roots are: u, 2u + 2 (figured by substitution)
Root field: \mathbb{Z}_3(u)
2.3 Q3
Root field will be all combos of polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_2 of degree 2 polynomials.
sage: R.<x> = IntegerModRing(2)[]
sage: S = R.quotient(x^3 + x^2 + 1, 'u')
sage: list(S)
[0, 1, u, u + 1, u^2, u^2 + 1, u^2 + u, u^2 + u + 1]
In \mathbb{Z}_2, -1 = 1 so u^3 = u^2 + 1.
sage: OperationTable(S, operation=operator.add)
+ abcdefgh
al a b c d e f g h
b| badcfehg
c| cdabghef
d | d c b a h g f e
el efghabcd
f | f e h g b a d c
g | ghefcdab
h| h g f e d c b a
sage: OperationTable(S, operation=operator.mul)
* abcdefgh
+----
al aaaaaaa
b| abcdefgh
c | acegfhbd
d | adgfbche
el a e f b h d c g
f | afhcdgeb
g| agbhcedf
h | ahdegbfc
sage: R.<x> = IntegerModRing(2)[]
sage: f = x^3 + x^2 + 1
sage: S.<u> = R.extension(f)
sage: f(u)
```

```
sage: f(u^2)
sage: f(u^2 + u + 1)
sage: (x - u)*(x - u^2)*(x - (u^2 + u + 1))
x^3 + x^2 + 1
Root field: \mathbb{Z}_3(u)
2.4 Q4
sage: f = x^3 + x + 1
sage: S.<u> = R.extension(f)
sage: f(u)
sage: f(u + 1)
u^2 + u
sage: f(u^2)
sage: f(u^2 + 1)
sage: f(u^2 + u)
sage: f(u^2 + u + 1)
u^2
Roots are u, u^2, u^2 + u.
2.5 Q5
sage: R.<x> = IntegerModRing(3)[]
sage: f = x^3 + x^2 + x + 2
sage: S.<u> = R.extension(f)
sage: f(u)
sage: f(u + 1)
2*u
sage: f(u + 2)
u + 2
sage: f(u^2)
u^2
sage: f(u^2 + 1)
sage: f(u^2 + 2)
2*u^2 + 2
sage: f(u^2 + u)
2*u^2 + u
sage: f(u^2 + u + 1)
sage: f(u^2 + 2*u)
2*u^2 + 2*u
sage: f(u^2 + 2*u + 1)
u^2
sage: f(u^2 + u + 2)
2*u + 2
sage: f(u^2 + 2*u + 2)
u + 2
sage: f(2*u)
2*u^2 + 1
sage: f(2*u + 1)
2*u^2 + u + 1
sage: f(2*u + 2)
```

```
2*u^2 + 2*u
sage: f(2*u^2)
2*u^2 + u + 2
sage: f(2*u^2 + 1)
sage: f(2*u^2 + 2)
u^2 + u + 1
sage: f(2*u^2 + u)
u^2 + 1
sage: f(2*u^2 + 2*u)
2*u^2 + 2*u
sage: f(2*u^2 + u + 1)
2*u^2 + 2*u + 1
sage: f(2*u^2 + u + 2)
sage: f(2*u^2 + 2*u + 1)
I think the answer in the book is wrong since
sage: R.<x> = IntegerModRing(3)[]
sage: f = x^3 + x^2 + x + 2
sage: S.<u> = R.extension(f)
sage: u^3 + u^2 + u + 2
sage: f(u^2 + 1)
sage: f(2*u^2 + 2*u + 1)
sage: (x - u)*(x - (u^2 + 1))*(x - (2*u^2 + 2*u + 1))
x^3 + x^2 + x + 2
We can even substitute these roots into q(x) which is claimed to be irreducible
sage: a = lambda x: (x^2 + (u + 1)*x + (u^2 + u + 1))
sage: a(u^2 + 1)
sage: a(2*u^2 + 2*u + 1)
Roots are: u, u^2 + 1, 2u^2 + 2u + 1.
Basis is \{u^2, u, 1\}.
```

3 C. Short Questions Relating to Root Field

3.1 Q1

The basis for a degree 2 extension $\mathbb{F}(c)$ is $\{c,1\}$ with $c^2 \in \mathbb{F}$. This includes -c and so $\mathbb{F}(c)$ is the root field for $(x+c)(x-c)=x^2-c^2$.

The question I assume is asking to prove every degree 2 field extension is normal. So since $c \in F(c)$, then we can divide the polynomial by (x - c), leaving a degree 1 polynomial $(x - \alpha) \in F(c)[x]$ or that $\alpha \in F(c)$.

3.2 Q2

a(x) as a polynomial of degree n over a finite field will have n distinct roots. All roots $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in K$ and form a root field over F. Assume some roots are in I, then the roots of a(x) are still the same, and so K forms a root field over I as well.

3.3 Q3

Any polynomial can be factored into a linear combination of complex roots. This means \mathbb{C} is the root field of every polynomial. Since polynomials can also have root fields contained in \mathbb{R} , and $\mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$, this means the root

field is either \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} of every polynomial.

3.4 Q4

This question is impossible. See the answer here.

3.5 Q5

As per the back of the book, we just need to show that $F(d_1, d_2) = F(c)$ and that it's the splitting field.

$$\begin{split} d_1^2 &= \frac{a^2}{4} - b \\ d_2^2 &= \frac{a}{2} + d_1 \\ &= \frac{a}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{4} - b} \end{split}$$

Roots of p(x) are $\pm \sqrt{\frac{a}{2} \pm d_1}$. We know that $\frac{a}{2} \pm d_1 \in F(d_1)$.

 $[F(d_1):F]=2$. Every extension of degree 2 is a root field from 31C1 above.

3.6 Q6

$$\sigma_c(a(x)) = a(c)$$

$$\ker \sigma_c = \{a(x) : a(c) = 0\}$$

Every ideal of a field is principal, so $J = \langle p(x) \rangle$. For some $a(x) \in J$, a(x) is a multiple of p(x).

$$\sigma_c: F[x] \to F$$

so F(c) contains p(x) since the ideal J contains all polynomials with c as their root, and all polys are a multiple of p(x).

3.7 Q7

From the previous argument p(x) is the lowest degree polynomial in J and hence irreducible. Otherwise $p(c) = f(c)g(c) = 0 \implies f(c) = 0$ or g(c) = 0 which would be a contradiction since it implies there would be a lower degree polynomial in J. Every root field is a simple extension F(c), we can convert a polynomial with roots a, b to one with c from theorem 2 in this chapter.

3.8 Q8

Give an isomorphism h(x) which fixes F, and a polynomial

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

We can see that where c is an algebraic root in K, then

$$\begin{split} a(h(c)) &= a_0 + a_1 h(c) + \dots + a_n h(c^n) \\ &= h(a(c)) = h(0) = 0 \end{split}$$

So also h(c) is a root of a(x) and the isomorphism simply permutes roots since it sends unique elements of K to K'. We also observe that the mapping is one to one, fixing F, permuting roots, and that $h: K \to K$.

$$h(\{c_1,\dots,c_n\})=\{c_1,\dots,c_n\}$$

Since the polynomial a(x) is irreducible over F, and K being a finite extension can be reduced to a simple extension F(c) = K, where c is a root of a(x), which means that

$$F(c) \cong F/\langle a(x) \rangle$$

which forms a vector space of $\deg a(x) = n \implies [K : F] = n$.

Given another polynomial b(x) where $b(c) = 0 : c \in K \implies b(h(c)) = 0 \implies K$ is the splitting field for b(x). This means b(x) is split completely by K into linear factors.

Note, this means every polynomial of degree n which has a root in K makes K its splitting field. The converse does not hold. An irreducible polynomial of degree n does not necessarily have a splitting field of degree n. See this answer.

3.9 Q9

First we prove this for an irreducible polynomial p(x) with $n = \deg p(x)$ roots of the form c_1, \ldots, c_n . Inductively adjoining c_1 to F forms a field $F(c_1)$ such that $[F(c_1):F]=n$ with a basis $\{1,c_1,\ldots,c_1^{n-1}\}$. Dividing p(x) by $(x-c_1)$ leaves a polynomial q(x) with degree n-1 and adjoining the second root to $F(c_1)$ forms a field extension with degree $[F(c_1,c_2):F(c_1)]=n-1$. Proceeding in this way, we obtain a maximum order of n!.

The polynomial a(x) is reducible to n irreducible factors $a(x)=p_1(x)p_2(x)\cdots p_n(x)$ where $\deg p_i(x)=k_i$. Each of these fields forms a simple extension $F(c_1,\cdots,c_n)$, where $[F(c_1,\cdots,c_n):F]=[F(c_1,\cdots,c_n):F(c_1,\cdots,c_n):F]$

Since $\deg a(x) = N$ and $k_1 + \cdots + k_n$, so $[K : F] \mid k_1! \cdots k_n!$.

From the binomial formula, given n = k + l, then there's an integer z such that

$$z = \frac{n!}{k!l!} \implies n! = zk!l!$$

So therefore given $n = k_1 + \cdots + k_n$, we can see that $x \mid k_1! \cdots k_n! \implies x \mid n!$

4 D. Reducing Iterated Extensions to Simple Extensions

4.1 Q1

4.1.1 a

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i\sqrt{3}) &= \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + i\sqrt{3}) \\ c &= \sqrt{2} + i\sqrt{3} \\ \left[\mathbb{Q}(c) : \mathbb{Q} \right] &= 4 \\ \implies \sqrt{2} &= a_0 + a_1c + a_2c^2 + a_3c^3 \\ c^2 &= 2i\sqrt{6} - 1 \implies i\sqrt{6} \in \mathbb{Q}(c) \\ c^3 &= 4i\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2} - 6\sqrt{2} - i\sqrt{3} = 3i\sqrt{3} - 7\sqrt{2} \\ c^3 + 7c &= 10i\sqrt{3} \implies i\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(c) \end{split}$$

Same can be shown for $\sqrt{2}$.

4.1.2 b

$$(\sqrt[6]{2})^3 = \sqrt{2}, (\sqrt[6]{2})^2 = \sqrt[3]{2}$$
$$\implies \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[6]{2})$$

4.2 Q2

The roots of $x^2 - 2x - 1$ by completing the square are $\pm \sqrt{2} + 1$.

For a cubic with real coefficients in a field, it either has all real roots or 2 complex roots. By differentiating and sketching the curve where it's increasing or decreasing, we see that this cubic has two complex roots.

According to the **Complex Conjugate Theorem**, if x = a + ib is a solution to a polynomial with real coefficients, then so is x = a - ib.

Thus we conclude that $\mathbb{Q}(a,b) = \mathbb{Q}(a+b)$ where a is a complex root of $x^3 - x - 1$.

4.3 Q3

These factors are all linearly independent so $c = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{-5}$.

4.4 Q4

From C6, because $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{3}$ are independent, the basis is $\{1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6}\}$ and so the minimum polynomial has degree 4.

```
sage: # We let x = sqrt(2) + sqrt(3), so now we square it on both sides
sage: (sqrt(2) + sqrt(3))^2
(sqrt(3) + sqrt(2))^2
sage: ((sqrt(2) + sqrt(3))^2).expand()
2*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2) + 5
sage: # so now (x^2 - 5) = 2*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2)
sage: # lets square again both sides
sage: (2*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2))**2
24
sage: ((x^2 - 5)^2).expand()
x^4 - 10*x^2 + 25
sage: (((x^2 - 5)^2).expand() - 24
(x^4 - 10*x^2 + 1
```

4.5 Q5

The minimum polynomial will now have degree 8.

```
sage: x - sqrt(2) == sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5)
x - sqrt(2) == I*sqrt(5) + sqrt(3)
sage: (x - sqrt(2) == sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5))^2
(x - sqrt(2))^2 == (I*sqrt(5) + sqrt(3))^2
sage: ((x - sqrt(2) == sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5))^2).expand()
x^2 - 2*sqrt(2)*x + 2 == 2*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3) - 2
sage: ((x - sqrt(2) == sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5))^2).expand() + 2*sqrt(2)*x
x^2 + 2 == 2*sqrt(2)*x + 2*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3) - 2
sage: p = ((x - sqrt(2) = sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5))^2).expand() + 2*sqrt(2)*x
sage: p
x^2 + 2 == 2*sqrt(2)*x + 2*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3) - 2
sage: p += 2
sage: p
x^2 + 4 == 2*sqrt(2)*x + 2*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3)
sage: (p^2).expand()
x^4 + 8*x^2 + 16 == 8*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2)*x + 8*x^2 - 60
sage: (p^2).expand() + 60 - 8*x^2
x^4 + 76 == 8*I*sqrt(5)*sqrt(3)*sqrt(2)*x
sage: p = (p^2).expand() + 60 - 8*x^2
sage: (p^2).expand()
x^8 + 152*x^4 + 5776 == -1920*x^2
sage: (p^2).expand() + 1920*x^2
x^8 + 152*x^4 + 1920*x^2 + 5776 == 0
sage: p = x^8 + 152*x^4 + 1920*x^2 + 5776
sage: p(x = sqrt(2) + sqrt(3) + I*sqrt(5)).expand()
```

5 E. Roots of Unity and Radical Extensions

5.1 Q1

The roots of x^n-1 are $1,\omega,\ldots,\omega^{n-1}$ which is the basis for $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ generated by ω since it is primitive.

5.2 Q2

Define a substitution function σ_{α}

$$\sigma_{\omega}(a(x)) = a(\omega)$$

 σ_{ω} is a homomorphism because

$$\sigma_{\omega}(a(x)b(x)) = a(\omega)b(\omega)$$
$$= \sigma_{\omega}(a(x))\sigma_{\omega}(b(x))$$

Which has a kernel of

$$\ker \sigma_{\omega} = \{a(x) : \sigma_{\omega}(a(x)) = a(\omega) = 0\}$$

$$= I$$

The kernel of any homomorphism is an ideal. In F[x] every ideal is a principal ideal so $J = \langle p(x) \rangle$. So p(x) is a polynomial of lowest degree among all nonzero polynomials in J. Hence it is irreducible.

When n is prime, then

$$x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + \dots + x + 1$$

is irreducible. Therefore $p(x) = x^{n-1} + \cdots + 1$ and $p(\omega) = 0$. Since

$$\mathbb{Q}(\omega) \cong \mathbb{Q}[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle$$

Then

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q}] = \deg p(x) = n - 1$$

5.3 Q3

$$p(\omega)=0 \implies \omega^{n-1}=-(\omega^{n-2}+\cdots+\omega+1)$$

5.4 Q4

 $5.4.1 \quad n = 6$

$$x^6 - 1 = (x^3 - 1)(x^3 + 1)$$

The roots are $1, s, s^2$ and $-1, -s, -s^2$ respectively where s is the third root of unity.

But from above we know that $s^2+s+1=0 \implies s^2=-(s+1)$ and $s^2\in\mathbb{Q}(s),$ so $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)=\mathbb{Q}(s)$ with basis $\{1,s\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q}] &= [\mathbb{Q}(s):\mathbb{Q}] \\ &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

 $5.4.2 \quad n = 7$

n=7 is prime so $[\mathbb{Q}(\omega):\mathbb{Q}]=6$.

 $5.4.3 \quad n = 8$

$$x^8 - 1 = (x^4 - 1)(x^4 + 1)$$
$$= (x^2 - 1)(x^2 + 1)(x^4 + 1)$$

With roots -1, 1 and i, -i for $(x^2 - 1)$ and $(x^2 + 1)$ respectively.

The 4th roots of -1 are $\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}$.

 $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, i)$ with a basis $\{1, \sqrt{2}, i, \sqrt{2}i\}$ and

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

5.5 Q5

$$\forall r \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}, (\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^r)^n = 1$$

$$|\{\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^r : r \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}\}| = n$$

5.6 Q6

The basis of $\mathbb{Q}(\omega, \sqrt[n]{a})$ is the set $\{\omega^i(\sqrt[n]{a})^j\}$ where $i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$, which contains the ideal for $\sigma(c) = x^n - 1$, which is $J = \{\sqrt[n]{a}, \sqrt[n]{a}\omega, \dots, \sqrt[n]{a}\omega^{n-1}\}$.

$5.7 \quad Q7$

The degree of $[\mathbb{Q}(\omega, \sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\omega, \sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})][\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2} : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 \times 3 = 6.$

You can calculate $\cos(\pi/3)$ and $\sin(\pi/3)$ by splitting an equilateral triangle with unit sides in half. The sum of a triangle's angles will always be π , and so each corner of the equilateral triangle will be $(\pi/3)$. Use pythagoreas theorem to calculate the midline as $o^2 = 1^2 - (\frac{1}{2})^2$.

Using wolfram alpha, we see that the cube roots of 1 are $1, -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i, -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$.

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

5.8 Q8

Let s be the nth root of a in K, then it is the root of $x^n - a$. Then $\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^i$ is also a root of this polynomial. For every n there is an irreducible cyclotomic polynomial p(x) with roots that consist of $\phi(n)$ nth roots of a that have a multiplicative order of n. By theorem 7, since p(x) has one root in K and is irreducible, therefore all its roots are in K.

For n is not prime, $p(x) \mid x^n - a$ so all $\phi(n)$ primitive roots of p(x) are also roots of $x^n - a$ and so generates all roots. We use the irreducible polynomial p(x) to prove there's an isomorphism permuting roots of p(x), therefore showing both fields are equivalent and contain all roots.

Fixing \mathbb{Q} , there is an isomorphism $h: \mathbb{Q}(s) \to \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^i)$. Note that $p(h(c)) = (h(c))^n - a = h(c^n - a) = 0$ as the function is homomorphic so $h(c)^n = h(c^n)$ and fixes \mathbb{Q} leaving a unchanged. This function is an isomorphism mapping one to one and onto, we can say that h(x) permutes the roots c of $x^n - a$. So we can see that $\mathbb{Q}(s) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^i)$, and that K contains all roots of $x^n - a$.

Since the spltting field contains all powers of $\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^i$ by the isomorphism h(x) as well as $\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^0 = \sqrt[n]{a}$ and also its inverse $(\sqrt[n]{a})^{-1}$ (because it's a field), so it also contains all nth roots of unity since $(\sqrt[n]{a})^{-1}(\sqrt[n]{a}\omega^i) = \omega^i$.

6 F. Separable and Inseparable Polynomials

6.1 Q1

From theorem 1, F has characteristic $0 \implies$ irreducible polynomials never have multiple roots.

6.2 Q2

Each power of x in a(x) is independent, so $a_m x^m + a_n x^n \neq 0$ when $m \neq 0$ unless $a_m = a_n = 0$.

Therefore $a'(x) = \sum m_i a_i x^{m_i-1} = 0 \implies p \mid m_i$ for all m_i and all nonzero terms of a(x) are of the form $a_{mp} x^{mp}$.

6.3 Q3

$$a(x)=(x-c)^2q(x)$$

$$a'(x)=2(x-c)q(x)+(x-c)^2q'(x)$$

Both a(x) and a'(x) have c as a root, but a(x) is irreducible, so $a(x) \mid a'(x)$, but this cannot be true since $\deg a'(x) < \deg a(x)$ unless a'(x) = 0.

From the previous answer a'(x) = 0 means the nonzero terms of a(x) are of the form $a_{mp}x^{mp}$, and a(x) is a polynomial in powers of x^p .

$6.4 \quad Q4$

a(x) is a polynomial in powers of $x^p \implies a'(x) = 0 \implies a(x) \mid a'(x) \implies$ share common factor of $a(x) \implies a(x)$ has a multiple root.

6.5 Q5

This follows from $[a(x) + b(x)]^p = a(x)^p + b(x)^p$ in any field of characteristic p and is proved in 24D6.

6.6 Q6

$$a(x)=a_0+a_1x+\cdots+a_nx^n$$

$$a(x^p)=a_0+a_1x^p+\cdots+a_nx^{np}$$

The frobenius automorphism for a finite field of characteristic p is bijective since the function is injective, and any injective function from a finite set to itself is also surjective.

This implies the coefficients of $a(x^p)$ all have pth roots, and so

$$\begin{split} a(x^p) &= c_0^p + c_1^p x^p + \dots + c_n^p x^{np} \\ &= (c_0 + c_1 x + \dots + c_n x^n)^p \end{split}$$

Thus $b(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + \dots + c_n x^n$ and $a(x^p) = [b(x)]^p$.

6.7 Q7

Assume there is an irreducible polynomial a(x) that is inseparable. Then it is a polynomial in powers of x^p .

Then there is a polynomial $[b(x)]^p = a(x)$. Thus a(x) is reducible, which is a contradiction.

Thus every irreducible polynomial is separable.

7 G. Multiple Roots over Infinite Fields of Nonzero Characteristic

7.1 Q1

There are infinite powers of y, so $\mathbb{Z}_p[y]$ is an infinite ring with characteristic p.

Thus

$$\mathbb{Z}_p(y) = \{a(y)/b(y): a(y), b(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[y]\}$$

is an infinite field, and so is $\mathbb{Z}_p(y^p)$

7.2 Q2

By binomial theorem, all coefficients for the terms of $(x-y)^p$ are a factor of p. E[x] has characteristic p so

$$x^p - y^p = (x - y)^p$$

However $y \notin K[x]$ so $x^p - y^p$ is irreducible in K[x].

7.3 Q3

$$\overline{i}(a_0+\cdots+a_nx^n)=i(a_0)+\cdots+i(a_n)x^n$$

but for all $a_i \in F$, $i(a_i) = a_i$ so $\bar{i}(p(x)) = p(x)$.

7.4 Q4

Expanding out $(x-a)^m$, the coefficients in F and x remain fixed, but a is mapped to b, so

$$\bar{i}((x-a)^m)=(x-b)^m$$

7.5 Q5

Since \bar{i} leaves p(x) fixed, so

$$\begin{split} \overline{i}(p(x)) &= \overline{i}((x-a)^m s(x)) \\ &= (x-b)^m \overline{i}(s(x)) \\ &= p(x) \end{split}$$

so a and b have the same multiplicity in p(x).

8 H. An Isomorphism Extension Theorem (Proof of Theorem 3)

8.1 Q1

$$F_1(a) \cong F_1[x]/\langle p(x) \rangle$$

Where p(x) is the minimum polynomial with a as a root. The homomorphism $\phi: F_1[x] \to F_1(a)$ by $\phi_c(a(x)) = a(c)$ has the kernel $J = \langle p(x) \rangle$ since in F[x] every ideal is a principal ideal.

Thus since s(x) = c(x) - d(x) has a root a since s(a) = 0, so $s(x) \in J$ and it is a multiple of p(x).

Observing that h(c(x) - d(x)) = h(p(x)q(x)), we easily see that h(p(x)q(x)) = hp(x)hq(x) and also that h(c(x) - d(x)) = hc(x) - hd(x) since

$$\begin{split} hc(x) - hd(x) &= (h(c_0) - h(d_0)) + (h(c_1) - h(d_1))x + \dots + (h(c_n) - h(d_n))x^n \\ &= h(c_0 - d_0) + h(c_1 - d_1)x + \dots + h(c_n - d_n)x^n \\ &= h(c(x) - d(x)) \end{split}$$

8.2 Q2

$$\begin{split} h(c(a)) &= h(c_0) + h(c_1)b + \dots + h(c_n)b^n \\ h(d(a)) &= h(d_0) + h(d_1)b + \dots + h(d_n)b^n \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} h(c(a)) - h(d(a)) &= h(c_0 - d_0) + h(c_1 - d_1)b + \dots + h(c_n - d_n)b^n \\ &= h(c(x) - d(x))(b) \\ &= [hp(x)(b)][hq(x)(b)] \end{split}$$

But hp(x)(b) = 0 so $h(c(a)) - h(d(a)) = 0 \implies h(c(a)) = h(d(a))$.

8.3 Q3

$$hc(x) = hd(x)$$

$$\implies hc(x) - hd(x) = 0$$

$$= h(c(x) - d(x))$$

$$= h(c_0 - d_0) + h(c_1 - d_1)x + \dots + h(c_n - d_n)x^n$$

But h is isomorphic on $F_1 \to F_2$ so $c_i = d_i \implies c(x) = d(x).$

8.4 Q4

h(a) = b, there is no other value that produces b.

All the coefficients for a polynomial c(x) are reversible.

$$c(x) = h^{-1}(h(c_0)) + h^{-1}(h(c_1))x + \dots + h^{-1}(h(c_n))x^n$$

8.5 Q5

$$\begin{split} h(c(x)+d(x)) &= h(c_0+d_0) + h(c_1+d_1)x + \dots + h(c_n+d_n)x^n \\ &= (h(c_0)+h(d_0)) + (h(c_1)+h(d_1))x + \dots + (h(c_n)+h(d_n))x^n \\ &= hc(x) + hd(x) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} h(c(x)d(x)) &= h(c_0d_0) + h(\sum_{i+j=1}c_id_jx) + h(\sum_{i+j=2}c_id_jx^2) + \dots + h(\sum_{i+j=n}c_id_jx^n) \\ &= h(c_0)h(d_0) + \sum_{i+j=1}h(c_i)h(d_j)x + \sum_{i+j=2}h(c_i)h(d_j)x^2 + \dots + \sum_{i+j=n}h(c_i)h(d_j)x^n \\ &= hc(x)hd(x) \end{split}$$

9 I. Uniqueness of the Root Field

9.1 Q1

First note that

$$F_1(u) \cong F_1[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle$$

Let $f: F_1[x] \to F_2(v)$ defined by

$$f(a(x)) = h(a(x))(v)$$

Then the ideal is $J = \langle p(x) \rangle$

$$\begin{split} f(a(x)) &= f(b(x)) \iff f(a(x)) - f(b(x)) = 0 \\ &\iff f(a(x) - b(x)) = 0 \\ &\iff a(x) - b(x) \in J \\ &\iff J + a(x) = J + b(x) \end{split}$$

Let $\phi: F_1[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle \to F_2(v)$ by

$$\phi(J + a(x)) = f(a(x)) = h(a(x))(v)$$

We can see that this function is an ismomorphism:

- injective: $\phi(J+a(x)) = \phi(J+b(x)) \implies f(a(x)) = f(b(x))$ $\implies J+a(x) = J+b(x)$
- surjective: h(a(x))(v) = h(a(u)) which is **onto** $F_2(v)$ and surjective, so $f(a(x)) = \phi(J + a(x))$ is surjective.
- Finally,

$$\begin{split} \phi(J + a(x)) + \phi(J + b(x)) &= f(a(x)) + f(b(x)) \\ &= [ha(x) + hb(x)](v) \\ &= h(a(x) + b(x))(v) \\ &= \phi(J + a(x) + b(x)) \end{split}$$

$$\Longrightarrow F_2(v) \cong F_1[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle$$

$$F_1(u) \cong F_1[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle$$

$$F_1(u) \cong F_2(v)$$

9.2 Q2

We start with $F_1(u) = K_1$ and want to prove that this means $F_2(v) = K_2$. This will also automatically prove the converse statement if shown to be true.

Let p(x) be the minimum polynomial p(x) for u such that p(u) = 0.

 $h: F_1(u) \to F_2(v)$ but $F_1(u) = K_1$ so $h: K_1 \to F_2(v)$, but h is surjective and so $\deg p(x) = \deg hp(x)$ since both p(x) and hp(x) are irreducible.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall u_i \in K_1 : p(u_i) = 0, \exists v_i = h(u_i) : hp(v_i) = 0 \\ \Longrightarrow F_2(v) = K_2 \end{aligned}$$

Because there are $\deg hp(x) = \deg p(x)$ such roots v_i which correspond to u_i roots of p(x).

9.3 Q3

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

$$p(u) = 0$$

$$h(p(u)) = h(p(x))(v) = 0$$

$$= [hp(x)](v) = hp(v)$$

Since both are equivalent.

We see that v is a root of hp(x).

9.3.1
$$F_1(u) = K_1$$

If $F_1(u) = K_1$, then $F_1(u)$ contains all roots of p(x) and then

$$F_1(u) = K_1 \iff F_2(v) = K_2$$

Recalling that p(x) is an irreducible factor of a(x),

$$\begin{aligned} u &\in K_1 \\ p(u) &= 0 \\ v &\in K_2 \\ hp(v) &= 0 \\ \Longrightarrow F_1(u) \cong F_2(v) \end{aligned}$$

Putting both together

$$K_1 \cong K_2$$

9.3.2 $F_1(u) \neq K_1$

See that we can extend h fixing the base field.

$$h(u) = v$$
$$h: F_1(u) \to F_2(v)$$

In
$$F_1(u)[x]$$
, $a(x) = (x - u)a_1(x)$.

In
$$F_2(v)[x]$$
, $ha(x) = (x - v)ha_1(x)$.

And
$$\deg a_1(x) = \deg ha_1(x) = n-1$$

Now let there be a new $u' \in K_1, u' \notin F_1(u'), p(u') = 0$ and likewise for hp(x) and v.

9.3.3 $\deg a(x) = 1$

Lastly when $n=\deg a(x)=1$, then $K_1=F_1$ and $K_2=F_2$, since the basis are simply scalars and a(x) is of the form (x-a). The root of a(x) is in F_1 itself, and h is an isomomorphism from $F_1\to F_2$ so

$$K_1 \cong K_2$$

9.4 Q4

$$u \in K_1, v \in K_2$$
 But $F_1 = F_2$
$$h: F[x] \to F[x]$$

$$\forall a \in F, h(a) = a$$

$$h = \mathrm{id}_F$$

$$h(u) = v$$

$$\Longrightarrow K_1 \cong K_2$$

10 J. Extending Isomorphism

10.1 Q1

Let $b \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$

$$\begin{split} h:\mathbb{Q}(\omega)\to\mathbb{C}, \forall a\in\mathbb{Q}, h(a)=a \\ b=s_0+s_1\omega+s_2\omega^2+\cdots+s_{p-1}\omega^{p-1} \\ h(b)=s_0+s_1h(\omega)+s_2h(\omega)^2+\cdots+s_{p-1}\omega^{p-1} \end{split}$$

So h is determined by $h(\omega)$.

Since isomorphisms preserve roots, we deduce they permute roots. There are p-1 roots for the minimum polynomial of ω which has degree p-1.

10.2 Q2

p(x) is irreducible in F[x]. $c \in \mathbb{C} : p(c) = 0$.

Let $h: F \to \mathbb{C}$ be a monomorphism (injective homomorphism), then $h: F \to h(F)$ is an isomorphism and

$$F \cong h(F)$$

The minimum polynomial are p(x) and hp(x) respectively with $\deg p(x) = \deg hp(x) = n$. Since h permutes roots and by theorem 7 contains all roots, there are n possible monomorphisms.

10.3 Q3

$$h: F \to h(F)$$

$$\phi: K \to \mathbb{C}$$

$$[K: F] = n$$

So K forms a splitting field over F for a minimum polynomial $p(x) \in F[x]$ of degree n.

From the previous question we see that there are n monomorphisms $F(c) = K \to \mathbb{C}$.

10.4 Q4

$$h: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{C}$$

$$h(x) = x$$

$$h(x) = h(y) \implies x = y$$

$$h(1) = 1_{\mathbb{C}}$$

$$h\left(\frac{n}{n}\right) = h\left(\frac{1}{n} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$1 = nh\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$\implies h\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$h\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = h\left(\frac{1}{q} + \dots + \frac{1}{q}\right)$$

$$= \underbrace{h\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) + \dots + h\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)}_{p}$$

$$= \frac{p}{q}$$

Thus all monomorphisms $h:\mathbb{Q}(a)\to\mathbb{C}$ fix $\mathbb{Q}.$

10.5 Q5

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \to \mathbb{C}$$

Minimum polynomial for $c = \sqrt[3]{2}$ is $p(x) = x^3 - 2$

Three roots of p(x) are $\sqrt[3]{2}$, $\sqrt[3]{2}\omega$, $\sqrt[3]{2}\omega^2$.

Q remains fixed. Roots are permuted (see above questions).

Three monomorphisms are

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \to \sqrt[3]{2}$$

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \to \sqrt[3]{2}\omega$$

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \to \sqrt[3]{2}\omega^{2}$$

11 K. Normal Extensions

11.1 Q1

K is a finite extension of $F \implies K$ is a simple extension and so that K = F(c).

There is a minimum polynomial p(x) for c in F.

So by the question K is a normal extension.

11.2 Q2

K is a finite extension of $F \implies K = F(c)$.

Let p(x) be the minimum polynomial for c, so p(c) = 0.

Let h be an isomorphism fixing F

$$h: K \to h(K)$$

Then by the question $h(K) \subseteq K$ and since h is an isomorphism where $K \cong h(K)$, so h(K) = K, and $h : K \to K$ is an automorphism fixing F and permuting roots of p(x).