MATH 8510 Galois Theory

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1 Introduction

1.1 Warm up

Let's agree on some facts and conventions from elementary abstract algebra, in particular those with polynomial rings before we dig into Galois theory.

A ring is always commutative with multiplicative identity 1 unless otherwise stated. R^* is the multiplicative group of units in R and $R^* = R \setminus \{0\}$. We can use these two notations interchangeably when R is a field.

Let F be a field. A polynomial ring F[X] with an indeterminate X is an F-vector space with basis $1, X, X^2, \dots, X^n, \dots$, with the multiplication

$$\left(\sum_{i} a_i X^i\right)\left(\sum_{j} b_j X^j\right) = \sum_{k} \left(\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j\right) X^k,$$

where X^0 is defined to be 1. Alternatively, we can identify R[X] with

$$R^{(\mathbb{N})} = \{(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} : a_i \in R, a_i = 0 \text{ for all but finitely many } i \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

in an obvious way. But usually, we want to say R embeds into R[X] although the most formal way is to identify R with a subring of R[X]. We will also use notations like F[x], k[x] and k[X] for polynomial rings as long as there is no confusion.

The degree function has the following properties:

- 1. $\deg(f+g) \le \max(\deg f, \deg g)$,
- 2. $\deg(fq) = \deg f + \deg q$.

There are plenty results by arguing over the degree of a polynomial. We have $(R[X])^* = R^*$ if R is an integral domain. We have the division algorithm on R[X].

Theorem 1.1.1. Let F be a commutative ring. Then F[X] is a PID if and only if F is a field.

Hence or otherwise, $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ is not a PID. Indeed, $\langle 2, X \rangle$ is an example of an ideal that cannot be generated by a single polynomial. K[X,Y] is not a PID as $\langle X,Y \rangle$ is not principal.

Theorem 1.1.2. An ideal in a PID is prime if and only if it is maximal.

Definition 1.1.3. If $f(X) \in F[X]$ where F is a field, then a *root* of f in F is an element $\alpha \in F$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$.

Given a polynomial $f[X] \in F[X]$ and any $u \in F$, the division algorithm give us:

$$f(X) = q(X)(X - u) + f(u).$$

And lying in the center of proving that every finite subgroup of F^{\times} is cyclic is counting the roots of polynomial $X^n - 1$.

Theorem 1.1.4. Let F be a field and $f[X] \in F[X]$ a polynomial of degree n. Then f has at most n roots.

Definition 1.1.5. Let F be a field. A nonzero polynomial $p(X) \in F[X]$ is said to be *irreducible* over F (or *irreducible* in F[X]) if $\deg p \geq 1$ and there is no factorization p = fg in F[X] with $\deg f < \deg p$ and $\deg g < \deg p$.

A quadratic or cubic polynomial is irreducible in F[X] if and only if it has no root in F.

Theorem 1.1.6 (Gauss's Lemma). A polynomial $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ is irreducible if and only if it is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}[X]$.

Theorem 1.1.7 (Eisenstein's Criterion). Let $f(X) = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_n X^n \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a polynomial over integers with $a_n \neq 0$. Suppose that there exists a prime p such that

- 1. $p \nmid a_n$
- 2. $p \mid a_i \text{ for } i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$,
- 3. $p^2 \nmid a_0$.

Then f(X) is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}[X]$.

A typical application of Eisenstein's Criterion is to prove the irreducibility of the p-th cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_p(X) = \frac{X^p-1}{X-1}$, where p is a prime. The idea is to apply the criterion to $\Phi(X+1)$.

Theorem 1.1.8. Let F be a field and f(x) a polynomial in F[X]. Then (f(X)) is a prime ideal in F[X] if and only if f(X) is irreducible. Equivalently, f is irreducible if and only if K[X]/(f) is a field.

1.2 Extensions of fields

Most of this course will involve studying fields relative to certain subfield which we feel we understand better. For example, if $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is the root of some polynomial with coefficients in \mathbb{Q} , we might wish to study $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, the smallest subfield of \mathbb{C} containing α and all of \mathbb{Q} . Certainly, if we want to understand how "complicated" the number α is, it makes sense to consider how "complicated" the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is as an extension of \mathbb{Q} . If $F \subset E$ are fields, we will denote denote the extension by E/F (this just means that F is a subfield of E, and that we're considering E relative to F, in particular, E/F is not a quotient or anything too formal). Note that often we will consider E to be an extension of F even if $F \nsubseteq E$, as long as there is an obvious embedding of F into E (an embedding is a homomorphism with is injective).

We will make a lot of use of the observation that if E/F is an extension of fields, then we may view E as a vector space over F.

Definition 1.2.1. Let E/F be an extension of fields. We say that E is a *finite extension* of F if E is finite-dimensional as a vector space over F. In this case we denote the dimension by [E:F]. We say that E is an *infinite extension* of F if E is infinite-dimensional as a vector space over F, and we write [E:F]=1.

Example 1.2.2. $\{1, i\}$ is a basis for \mathbb{C} as a vector space over \mathbb{R} . So \mathbb{C} is a finite extension of \mathbb{R} and $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = 2$.

Example 1.2.3. It is widely known that $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Thus $1, \sqrt{2}$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . On the other hand $(\sqrt{2})^2 \in \mathbb{Q}$ and then any polynomial in $\sqrt{2}$ with rational coefficients is just a \mathbb{Q} -linear combinations of 1 and $\sqrt{2}$. Since

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

every rational function of $\sqrt{2}$ can be written as a \mathbb{Q} -linear combinations of 1 and $\sqrt{2}$. It follows immediately that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$ and $[\mathbb{Q}\sqrt{2}:\mathbb{Q}] = 2$.

Example 1.2.4. We can show $[\mathbb{C}(x):\mathbb{C}]=\infty$ by arguing $\{1,x,x^2,\cdots\}$ is a linear independent set.

Example 1.2.5. To show $[\mathbb{R} : \mathbb{Q}] = \infty$, we make use of the unique factorization theorem of integers and argue that $\{\ln(p) : p \text{ is a prime}\}$ is a linearly independent set.

Proposition 1.2.6. Let $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$ be fields. Then E/K is a finite extensions if and only if both F/K and E/F are, and when this is the case, we have

$$[E:K] = [E:F][F:K].$$

Sketch of proof. If $\{a_i\}$ and $\{b_j\}$ are bases for E/F and F/K respectively, then $\{a_ib_j\}$ is a basis for E/K.

Definition 1.2.7. Let E/F be a field extension. An element $\alpha \in E$ is *algebraic* over F if there is a non-zero polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Otherwise we say that α is *transcendental* over F. The extension E/F is *algebraic* if every element of E is algebraic over F, and is *transcendental* otherwise.

Example 1.2.8. Both $\sqrt{2}$ and i are algebraic over $\mathbb Q$ as they are roots of x^2-2 and x^2+1 . But π and e are transcendental. As you can see, it's much easier to show that something is algebraic over a subfield than to show that it isn't (since to show that it is, one simply needs to exhibit a non-trivial polynomial relation). This shows that $\mathbb R/\mathbb Q$ is a transcendental extension, but some more work is required to show that $\mathbb Q(\sqrt{2})$ is algebraic, namely, we need to make sure that the smallest field containing $\mathbb Q$ and $\sqrt{2}$ doesn't somehow contain transcendental elements over $\mathbb Q$.

Theorem 1.2.9. Let E/F be a finite extension of fields. Then every element of E is algebraic over F. Specifically, for every element $\alpha \in E$ there is a unique non-zero monic irreducible polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$, and f(x) divides every polynomial $g(x) \in F[x]$ with $g(\alpha) = 0$. Moreover, this polynomial satisfies $deg(f) \leq [E : F]$.

Proof. Suppose that E/F is a finite extension and $\alpha \in E$. Consider the elements

$$1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \cdots, \alpha^{[E:F]} \in E.$$

Since there are [E:F]+1 elements, they must be linearly dependent over F. Hence we can find $c_i \in F$ such that

$$c_o \cdot 1 + c_1 \alpha + \dots + c_{[E:F]} \alpha^{[E:F]} = 0.$$

In other words, α is a root of the (non-zero) polynomial

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{[E:F]} c_i x^i \in F[x].$$

And the degree of g is at most [E:F].

Now consider the evaluation map

$$\varphi: F[x] \to E, f(x) \mapsto f(\alpha),$$

where one may consider it as the restriction of $e_{\alpha}: E[x] \to E$. Then $\ker(\varphi)$ is non-empty since g lies in it and then $\ker(\varphi) = (f(x))$ for some monic $f(x) \in F[x]$ since F[x] is a PID. Any polynomial $g(x) \in F[x]$ with a root α belongs to the kernal and hense is divisible by f(x). Clearly, deg f is no bigger than deg g and then no bigger than [E:F]. Since E is a field as well, $\operatorname{im}(\varphi)$ is a domain. So the kernel is a prime ideal and therefore f is irreducible.

Definition 1.2.10. The polynomial f constructed in Theorem 1.2.9 is called the *minimal polynomial* of α over F.

In other words, in a finite extension, every element is the root of some polynomial over the smaller field. The next theorem is a partial converse to this, and we will use it often.

Theorem 1.2.11. Let k be a field and f[x] a monic irreducible polynomial in k[x] of degree d. Let K = k[x]/I, where I = (f), and $\beta = x + I \in K$. Then:

- 1. K is a field and $k' = \{a + I : a \in k\}$ is a subfield of K isomorphic to k,
- 2. β is a root of f in K,
- 3. if $g(x) \in k[x]$ and β is a root of g in K, then $f \mid g$ in k[x],
- 4. f is the unique monic irreducible polynomial in k[x] having β as a root,
- 5. $1, \beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{d-1}$ form a basis of K as a vector space over k and so $\dim_k(K) = d$.

Proof. With the knowledge form the warm-up part, we can prove this theorem easily.

1. I is a prime ideal hence maximal since F[x] is a PID. So the quotient ring K = k[x]/I is a field. Every field homomorphism is injective and so k embeds into K with its image k'.

2. Let $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + x^d$, where $a_i \in k$ for all i. In K = k[x]/I, we have

$$p(\beta) = (a_0 + I) + (a_1 + I)\beta + \dots + (1 + I)\beta^d$$

$$= (a_0 + I) + (a_1 + I)(x + I) + \dots + (1 + I)(x + I)^d$$

$$= (a_0 + I) + (a_1x + I) + \dots + (x^d + I)$$

$$= a_0 + a_x + \dots + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + x^d + I$$

$$= f(x) + I = 0 + I.$$

So β is a root of p.

- 3. If $f \nmid g$ in k[x], then their \gcd is 1 since f is irreducible. Therefore, we can find polynomials s, t in k[x] such that 1 = sf + gt. Treating them as polynomials in K[x] and evaluating at β , we get 1 = 0, a contradiction.
- 4. Let g be a monic irreducible polynomial in k[x] having β as a root. Then by part (3) we have $f \mid g$. Since g is irreducible, we have g = ch for some constant c. But both f, g are monic, we have c = 1 and f = g.
- 5. Every element of K has the form g+I, where $g(x) \in k[x]$. By the division algorithm, we have g=qf+r with either r=0 or $\deg(r)<\deg(f)$. Then g+I=r+I since $g-r=qf\in I$. By the calculation similar in part (2), it follows that $r+I=b_0+b_1\beta+\cdots+b_{d-1}\beta^{d-1}$ if we express $r(x)=b_0+b_1x+\cdots+b_{d-1}x^{d-1}$.

If $\{1, \beta, \beta^2, \cdots, \beta^{d-1}\}$ is not linearly independent, then we can find coefficients $c_i \in k$ not all zero such that

$$c_0 + c_1 \beta + \dots + c_{d-1} \beta^{d-1} = 0.$$

Define $g(x) \in k[x]$ by $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} c_i x^i$. Then $g(\beta) = 0$ and $\deg(g) \le d-1 < \deg(f) = d$. By part (3) says $\deg(f) \le \deg(g)$ since $f \mid g$. We reach a contradiction.

Example 1.2.12. The polynomial $x^2+1\in\mathbb{R}[x]$ is irreducible so $K=\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2+1)$ is a finite extension of \mathbb{R} with degree 2. If β is a root of x^2+1 in K, then $\beta^2=-1$. Moreover, every element of K has a unique expression $a+b\beta$, where $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$.

2 Splitting fields and algebraic closure

2.1 Automorphisms