PMATH348 — Fields and Galois Theory

Classnotes for Winter 2019

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Table of Contents

Li	ist of Definitions	4
Li	ist of Theorems	6
Pr	reface	7
I	Sylow's Theorem	
1	Lecture 1 Jan 07th 1.1 Cauchy's Theorem	11 11
2	Lecture 2 Jan 09th	15
	2.1 Sylow Theory	15
3	Lecture 3 Jan 11th	19
	3.1 Sylow Theory (Continued)	19
4	Lecture 4 Jan 14th	25
	4.1 Sylow Theory (Continued 2)	25
II	I Fields	
5	Lecture 5 Jan 14th	31
	5.1 Sylow Theory (Continued 3)	31
	5.2 Review of Ring Theory	31
	5.3 Irreducibles	32
6	Lecture 6 Jan 18th	35
	6.1 Irreducibles (Continued)	35

7	Lecture 7 Jan 21st	39
	7.1 Irreducibles (Continued 2)	39
	7.2 Field Extensions	41
8	Lecture 8 Jan 23rd	43
	8.1 Field Extensions (Continued)	43
9	Lecture 9 Jan 25th	47
	9.1 Field Extensions (Continued 2)	47
10	Lecture 10 Jan 28th	51
	10.1 Field Extensions (Continued 3)	51
	10.1.1 Linear Algebra on Field Extensions	51
	10.1.2 Polynomials on Field Extensions	53
11	Lecture 11 Jan 30th	57
	11.1 Field Extensions (Continued 4)	57
	11.1.1 Polynomials on Field Extensions (Continued)	57
	11.2 Splitting Fields	59
12	Lecture 12 Feb 01st	61
	12.1 Splitting Fields (Continued)	61
	12.2 Algebraic Closures	64
A	Asides and Prior Knowledge	65
	A.1 Correspondence Theorem	65
Inc	dex	67

List of Definitions

	Definition (<i>p</i> -Group)	12
2	Definition (Sylow <i>p</i> -Subgroup)	12
3	Definition (Stabilizers and Orbits)	12
4	Definition (Normalizer)	17
5	Definition (Simple Group)	22
6	Definition (Irreducible)	32
7	Definition (Field Extension)	41
8	Definition (Generated Field Extension)	43
9	Definition (Minimal Polynomial)	47
10	Definition (Finite Extension)	51
11	Definition (Tower of Fields)	52
12	Definition (Algebraic and Transcendental)	53
13	Definition (Finitely Generated Extension)	57
14	Definition (Splits)	59
15	Definition (Splitting Field)	61
16	Definition (Algebraic Closures)	64
17	Definition (Algebraically Closed)	61

List of Theorems

	■ Theorem (Lagrange's Theorem)	11
2	■ Theorem (Cauchy's Theorem for Abelian Groups)	12
3	■ Theorem (Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem)	13
4	■ Theorem (Orbit Decomposition Theorem)	13
5	► Corollary (Class Equation)	15
6	■ Theorem (First Sylow Theorem)	15
7	► Corollary (Cauchy's Theorem)	16
8	\clubsuit Lemma (Intersection of a Sylow p -subgroup with any other p -subgroups)	17
9	Lemma (Counting The Conjugates of a Sylow <i>p</i> -Subgroup)	19
10	■ Theorem (Second Sylow Theorem)	20
11	■ Theorem (Third Sylow Theorem)	21
12	$ ightharpoonup$ Corollary (A_5 is Simple)	27
13	• Proposition (Polynomials with Roots are Reducible)	33
14	• Proposition (Irreducible Rootless Polynomials)	33
15	■ Theorem (Gauss' Lemma)	33
16	lacktriangle Proposition (Mod- p Irreducibility Test)	35
17	• Proposition (Polynomials that Cannot be Factored Over the Ideals is Irreducible)	36
18	• Proposition (Eisenstein's Criterion)	37
19	► Corollary (Eisenstein + Gauss)	39
20	♦ Proposition (Span of the Extension)	44
21	• Proposition (Span of an Extension if Linearly Independent)	48
22	► Corollary (Isomorphism between Extensions)	49
23	■ Theorem (Tower Theorem)	52
24	■ Theorem (Finite Extensions are Algebraic)	54
25	• Proposition (Finitely Generated Algebraic Extensions are Finite)	57

6 LIST OF THEOREMS - LIST OF THEOREMS

26	• Proposition (Greater Algebraic Extensions)	58
27	♦ Proposition (Algebraic Numbers Form a Subfield)	59
28	■ Theorem (Kronecker's Theorem)	60
29	■ Theorem (Repeated Kronecker's Theorem)	60
30	• Proposition (A Splitting Field is Generated)	61
31	Lemma (Isomorphic Fields have Isomorphic Polynomial Rings)	62
32	♣ Lemma (Isomorphism Extension Lemma)	62
33	♣ Lemma (Extended Isomorphism Extension Lemma)	63
34	Corollary (Splitting Fields are Unique up to Isomorphism)	63
A.1	■ Theorem (Correspondence Theorem)	65

Preface

This is a 3 part course; it is separated into

1. Sylow's Theorem

which is a leftover from group theory (PMATH 347). It has little to do with the rest of the course, but PMATH 347 was a course that is already content-rich to a point where Sylow's Theorem gets pushed into the later course that is this course.

2. Field Theory

is a somewhat understood concept from ring theory, where we learned that it is a special case of a ring where all of its elements have an inverse.

3. Galois Theory

is the beautiful theory from the French mathematican Évariste Galois that ties field theory back to group theory. This allows us to reduce certain field theory problems into group theory, which, in some sense, is easier and better understood.

Part I

Sylow's Theorem

1 Lecture 1 Jan 07th

1.1 Cauchy's Theorem

Recall Lagrange's Theorem.

■ Theorem 1 (Lagrange's Theorem)

If G is a finite group and H is a subgroup of G^{1} , then $|H| | |G|^{2}$.

 1 I shall write this as $H \leq G$ from hereon.

² This just means |H| divides |G|.

The full converse is not true.

Example 1.1.1

Let $G=A_4$, the alternating group of 4 elements. Then $|G|=12^3$. We have that G=12. We shall show that G=12. We shall show that G=12.

Suppose to the contrary that $H \le G$ such that |H| = 6. Let $a \in G$ such that |a| = 3 ⁴ There are 8 such elements in G ⁵. Note that the **index**⁶ of H, |G:H|, is $\frac{|G|}{|H|} = 2$.

Now consider the cosets H, aH and a^2H . Since |G:H|=2, we must have either

•
$$aH = H \implies a \in H$$
;

•
$$aH = a^H \stackrel{\text{`multiply'}}{\Longrightarrow} a^{-1} H = aH \implies a \in H$$
; or

•
$$a^2H = H \stackrel{\text{`multiply'}}{\Longrightarrow} H = aH \implies a \in H.$$

Thus all 8 elements of order 3 are in H but |H|=6, a contradiction. Therefore, no such subgroup (of order 6) exists.

Our goal now is to establish a partial converse of Lagrange's Theorem.

³ Recall that the symmetric group of 4 elements S_4 has order 4! = 24, and an alternating group has half of its elements.

⁴ i.e. the order of *a* is 3. This is a **trick**. ⁵ This shall be left as an exercise.

Exercise 1.1.1

Prove that there are 8 *elements in G that have order* 3.

 6 The index of a subgroup is the number of unique cosets generated by H.

To that end, we shall first lay down some definitions.

Definition 1 (*p*-Group)

Let p be prime. We say that a group G is a p-group if $|G| = p^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. For $H \leq G$, we say that H is a p-subgroup of G if H is a p-group.

Definition 2 (Sylow *p***-Subgroup)**

Let G be a group such that $|G| = p^n m$ for some $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $p \nmid m$. If $H \leq G$ with order p^n , we call H a Sylow p-subgroup.

Recall Cauchy's Theorem for abelian groups⁷.

■ Theorem 2 (Cauchy's Theorem for Abelian Groups)

If G is a finite abelian group, and p is prime such that $p \mid |G|$, then |G| has an element of order p.

⁷ In the course I was in, we were introduced only to the full theorem and actually went through this entire part. See notes on PMATH 347

Definition 3 (Stabilizers and Orbits)

Let G be a finite group which acts on a finite set X^8 . For $x \in X$, the stabilizers of x is the set

$$\operatorname{stab}(x) := \{ g \in G : gx = x \} \le G.$$

The orbits of x is a set

$$orb(x) := \{gx : g \in G\}.$$

- ⁸ Recall that a group action is a function
- $\cdot: G \times X \to X$ such that
- 1. g(hx) = (gh)x; and
- $2. \quad ex = x$

66 Note

One can verify that the function G / $\operatorname{stab}(x) \to \operatorname{orb}(x)$ *such that*

$$g \operatorname{stab}(x) \mapsto gx$$

is a bijection.

■ Theorem 3 (Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem)

Let G be a group acting on a set X, and for each $x \in X$, stab(x) and orb(x) are the stabilizers and orbits of x, respectively. Then

$$|G| = |\operatorname{stab}(x)| \cdot |\operatorname{orb}(x)|$$
.

Moreover, if $x, y \in X$, then either $orb(x) \cap orb(y) = \emptyset$ or $orb(x) = \emptyset$ orb(y).

The theorem is actually equivalent to Proposition 45 in the notes for PMATH 347. However, feel free to...

Exercise 1.1.2

prove **P** Theorem 3 as an exercise.

Consequently, we have that

$$|X| = \sum |\operatorname{orb}(a_i)|,$$

where a_i are the distinct orbit representatives. Letting

$$X_G := \{ x \in X : gx = x, g \in G \},$$

we have...

■ Theorem 4 (Orbit Decomposition Theorem)

$$|X| = |X_G| + \sum_{a_i \notin X_G} |\operatorname{orb}(a_i)|.$$

2 Lecture 2 Jan 09th

2.1 Sylow Theory

From the Orbit Decomposition Theorem, one special case is when G acts on X = G by conjugation.

► Corollary 5 (Class Equation)

From \blacksquare Theorem 4, if X = G, we have

non-central

$$|G| = |Z(G)| + \sum |\operatorname{orb}(a_i)|$$

$$= |Z(G)| + \sum [G : \operatorname{stab}(a_i)] \text{ by Orbit } - \text{Stabilizer}$$

$$= |Z(G)| + \sum [G : C(a_i)],$$

where $C(a_i)$ is called the **centralizers** of G.

■ Theorem 6 (First Sylow Theorem)

Let G be a finite group, and let $p \mid |G|$ such that p is prime. Then G contains a Sylow p-subgroup.

Proof

We proceed by induction on the size of G. If |G| = 2, then p = 2, and so G is its own Sylow p-subgroup 1 .

Consider a finite group G with $|G| \ge 2$. Let p be a prime that divides |G|, and assume that the desired result holds for smaller groups.

¹ A 2-cycle is a Sylow *p*-group.

Let $|G| = p^n m$, where $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, and $p \nmid m$.

Case 1: $p \mid |Z(G)|$ By \blacksquare Theorem 2, $\exists a \in Z(G)$ such that |a| = p. Since $\langle a \rangle \subsetneq Z(G)$, we have that

$$\langle a \rangle \triangleleft G$$
 and $|\langle a \rangle| = p$.

² Notice that the group $G/\langle a \rangle$ is a group that has a lower order than G, and so by IH, $\exists \overline{H} \leq G/\langle a \rangle$ such that \overline{H} is a Sylow p-subgroup of $G/\langle a \rangle$. Note that if n=1. then $\langle a \rangle$ itself is the Sylow p-subgroup. WMA n>1. We have that $|H|=p^{n-1}$. By correspondence,

$$\overline{H} = H/\langle a \rangle$$
,

where $H \leq G$. By comparing the orders, we have

$$p^{n-1} = \frac{|H|}{p} \implies |H| = p^n.$$

Therefore H is a Sylow p-subgroup of G.

Case 2: $p \nmid Z(G)$ By the class equation, notice that

$$p^{n}m = |G| = |Z(G)| + \sum [G : C(a_{i})], \tag{2.1}$$

and the summation cannot be 0 or p would otherwise divide Z(G).

Since p divides the LHS of Equation (2.1) and not |Z(G)|, and the sum is nonzero, we must have that $\exists a_i \in G$ such that $p \nmid [G:C(a_i)]$. This implies that $p^n \mid |C(a_i)|$.

Since $a_i \notin Z(G)$, we have $|C(a_i)| \leq |G|$. Thus by IH, $C(a_i)$ has a Sylow p-subgroup, which is also a Sylow p-subgroup of G.

Corollary 7 (Cauchy's Theorem)

If p is prime and $p \mid |G|$, then G has an element of order p.

Proof

WLOG, WMA $|G| = p^n m$, where $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \nmid m$. By \blacksquare Theorem 6, $\exists H \leq G$ such that H is a Sylow p-subgroup. Take $a \in H \setminus \{e\}$. Then $|a| = p^k$ for some $k \leq n$.

² This feels like a struck of genius. Let's break it down and find some way that makes it easier to remember. We want to find $H \le G$ such that $|H| = p^n$. We have $|\langle a \rangle| = p$. We want to be able to use the **Correspondence Theorem**, so we should adjust our materials to fit that mold: since $|\langle a \rangle| = p$, notice that

$$\frac{|G|}{|\langle a\rangle|}=p^{n-1}m.$$

This is a smaller group than G, and so IH tells us that it has a Sylow p-subgroup, say \overline{H} . By the Correspondence Theorem, we may retrieve H.

This highlighted part requires clarifica-

Let $b = a^{p^{k-1}}$. Notice that $b \neq e$, or it would contradict the definition of an order (for a). Then $b^p = \left(a^{p^{k-1}}\right)^p = a^p = e$. Therefore |b| = pand $b \in G$.

Definition 4 (Normalizer)

Let G be a group, and $H \leq G$. The set

$$N_G(H) = \left\{ g \in G \mid gHg^{-1} = H \right\}$$

is called the **normalizer** of H in G.

Exercise 2.1.1

Verify that $N_G(H)$ *is the largest subgroup of* G *that contains* H *as a normal* subgroup.

Proof

It is clear by definition of a normalizer that $H \triangleleft N_G(H)$.

Suppose there exists $N_G(H) < \tilde{H} \leq G$ such that $H \triangleleft \tilde{H}$. Let $h \in \tilde{H} \setminus N_G(H)$. But since $H \triangleleft \tilde{H}$, we have

$$hHh^{-1} = H$$
,

which implies that $h \in N_G(H)$, a contradiction. Therefore $N_G(H)$ is the largest subgroup that contains H as a normal subgroup.

Before proceeding with the Sylow's next theorem, we require two lemmas.

A Lemma 8 (Intersection of a Sylow *p*-subgroup with any other *p*subgroups)

Let G be a finite group and p a prime such that $p \mid |G|$. Let P, $Q \leq G$ be a Sylow p-subgroup and a (regular) p-subgroup, respectively. Then

$$Q \cap N_G(P) = Q \cap P. \tag{2.2}$$

Proof

Since $P \subseteq N_G(P)$, \subseteq of Equation (2.2) is done.

Let $N = N_G(P)$, and let $H = Q \cap N$. WTS $H \subseteq Q \cap P$. Since $H = Q \cap N \subseteq Q$, it suffices to show that $H \subseteq P$. Since P is a Sylow p-subgroup, let $|P| = p^n$. By Lagrange, we have that $|H| = p^m$ for some $m \le n$. Since $P \triangleleft N$, we have that $HP \le N^3$. Moreover, we have that

$$|HP| = \frac{|H|\,|P|}{|H\cap P|} = p^k$$

for some $k \le n$. Also, $P \subset HP$, and so $n \le k$, implying that k = n. Thus P = HP, and thus

$$H \subseteq HP = P$$
,

as required.

3 Lecture 3 Jan 11th

3.1 Sylow Theory (Continued)

♣ Lemma 9 (Counting The Conjugates of a Sylow *p*-Subgroup)

Let G be a finite group, and p a prime such that $p \mid |G|$. Let

- P be a Sylow p-subgroup;
- Q be a p-subgroup;
- $K = \{gPg^{-1} \mid g \in G\};$
- Q act on K by conjugation; and
- $P = P_1, P_2, ..., P_r$ be the distinct orbit representatives from the action of Q on K.

Then

$$|K| = \sum_{i=1}^{r} [Q:Q \cap P_i].$$

Proof

From the definition of K, and the fact that Q acts on K, we have

$$|K| = \sum_{i=1}^{r} |\operatorname{orb}(P_i)|$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{r} |Q| / |\operatorname{stab}(P_i)| \quad \text{orbit-stabilizer}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{r} |Q| / |N_G(P_i) \cap Q| \quad \text{by the action}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{r} [Q : N_G(P_i) \cap Q] \quad \text{by definition}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{r} [Q : Q \cap P_i] \quad \text{the last lemma.}$$

■ Theorem 10 (Second Sylow Theorem)

If P and Q are Sylow p-subgroups of G, then $\exists g \in G$ such that $P = gQg^{-1}$.

Proof

Let $K = \{qPq^{-1} \mid q \in G\}$. WTS $Q \in K$. We shall also note that $|P| = p^k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let P act on K by conjugation. Let the orbit representatives be

$$P = P_1, P_2, \dots, P_r$$
.

By Lemma 9, we have

$$|K| = \sum_{i=1}^{r} [P:P \cap P_i] = [P:P] + \sum_{i=2}^{r} [P:P \cap P_i] = 1 + \sum_{i=2}^{r} [P:P \cap P_i].$$

Thus

$$|K| \equiv 1 \mod p$$
.

Now let Q act on K by conjugation. Reordering if necessary, the orbit representatives are

$$P=P_1,P_2,\ldots,P_s,$$

where s is not necessarily r. From here, it suffices to show that $Q = P_i$ for some $i \in \{1, 2, ..., s\}$. Suppose not. Then by Lemma 9,

$$|K| = \sum_{i=1}^{s} [Q: P_i \cap Q].$$

Note that it must be the case that $[Q: P_i \cap Q] > 1$, for some if not all i, for otherwise it would imply that $Q \cap P_i$ and that would be a contradiction. Then by Lagrange,

$$|K| \equiv 0 \mod p$$
.

This contradicts the fact that $|K| \equiv 1 \mod p$.

This shows that $Q = P_i$ for some $i \in \{1, 2, ..., s\}$, and so Q is a conjugate of P.

66 Note (Notation)

We shall denote n_v as the number of Sylow p-subgroups in G.

■ Theorem 11 (Third Sylow Theorem)

Let p be a prime, and that it divides |G|, where G is a group. Suppose $|G| = p^n m$, where $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $p \nmid m$. Then

- *I.* $n_p \equiv 1 \mod p$; and
- 2. $n_p \mid m$.

Proof

Let P be a Sylow p-subgroup of G, and let

$$K = \left\{ gPg^{-1} \mid g \in G \right\}.$$

By Sylow's second theorem, $n_p = |K|$ as all the conjugates are exactly the Sylow p-subgroups. And by our last proof, we saw that $n_p \equiv 1$ mod p.

Let G act on K by conjugation. Then by the Orbit-Stabilizer Theo-

rem.

$$|G| = |\operatorname{stab}(P)| |\operatorname{orb}(P)|$$
.

Thus

$$p^{n}m = |N_{G}(P)| n_{p}. (3.1)$$

Thus $n_p \mid p^n m$. Since $n_p \equiv 1 \not\equiv 0 \mod p$, we must have $n_p \mid m$.

Remark

1. From Equation (3.1), we have that

$$n_p = [G: N_G(P)].$$

2. \bigstar Note that

$$n_p = 1 \iff \forall g \in G \ gPg^{-1} = P \iff P \triangleleft G.$$

However, note that P may be trivial! This means that if G is simple, it does not imply that $n_p = 1$.

Definition 5 (Simple Group)

A group is said to be **simple** if it has no non-trivial normal subgroups.

Example 3.1.1

Prove that there is no simple group of order 56.

Proof

Let G be a group. Note that $56 = 2^3 \cdot 7$. Then $n_7 \equiv 1 \mod 7$ and $n_7 \mid 8 = 2^3$. Thus

$$n_7 = 1 \text{ or } n_7 = 8.$$

 $n_7 = 1$ By the remark above, G has a normal Sylow 7-subgroup. Thus G is not simple.

 $n_7 = 8$ By Lagrange, since 7 is prime, by the Finite Abelian group structure, the distinct Sylow 8-subgroups of G intersect trivially. Therefore, there are $8 \times 6 = 48$ elements of order 7 in G. But this

implies that 56 - 48 = 8 elements that are not of order 7. One of them is the identity, thus the remaining 7 elements must have order 2 ¹. This implies that

$$n_2 = 7 \equiv 1 \mod 2$$
,

which by our remark means that *G* has a normal Sylow 2-subgroup. Thus *G* is not simple by both accounts.

would create a cyclic group that is not of order 2 or 7, which is impossible.

4 Lecture 4 Jan 14th

4.1 Sylow Theory (Continued 2)

Remark

1. Let $p \neq q$ both be primes, and $p, q \mid |G|$. Let H_p and H_q be a Sylow p-subgroup and a Sylow q-subgroup of G, respectively. By Lagrange's Theorem, we must have that $H_p \cap H_q = \{e\}$. Then

$$|H_p \cup H_q| = |H_p| + |H_q| - 1.$$

2. Let |G| = pm and $p \nmid m$, where p is prime. If H, K are Sylow p-subgroups of G with $H \neq K$, then $H \cap K = \{e\}$.

Example 4.1.1

Note that the second remark is not true if $G = D_6$. Notice that

$$H = \langle 1, s \rangle, \quad K = \langle 1, rs \rangle$$

are both Sylow 2-subgroups of D_6 and $H \neq K$, and their intersection is trivial.

Example 4.1.2

Let |G| = pq where p, q are primes with p < q and $p \nmid q - 1$. Then |G| is cyclic.

Proof

By the Third Sylow Theorem, $n_p \equiv 1 \mod p$ and $n_p \mid q$. Notice that $n_p = 1$, since if $n_p = q$, then $n_p \equiv 1 \mod p \implies p \mid q-1$, contradicting our assumption. By our remark last lecture, G has a normal Sylow p-subgroup, which we shall call H_p .

On the other hand, $n_q \equiv 1 \mod q$ and $n_q \mid p$. Since p < q, $q \nmid p-1$, and so the same argument as before holds. Hence $n_q = 1$, and so G has a normal Sylow q-subgroup.

Since $H_p \triangleleft G$, we know that $H_p H_q \leq G$, and we notice that

$$|H_pH_q|=\frac{|H_p||H_q|}{|H_p\cap H_q|}=pq=|G|.$$

Thus $G = H_pH_q$. Let $a, b \in G$. If a, b is either both in H_p or both in H_q , then $ab = ba^{-1}$. WMA $a \in H_p$ and $b \in H_q$. By our first remark today, note that $H_p \cap H_q = \{e\}$. Then, observe that

¹ Crap, I don't remember why...

$$\underbrace{aba^{-1}}_{H_q} \underbrace{b^{-1}}_{\uparrow} \in H_q \qquad \underbrace{a}_{\uparrow} \underbrace{ba^{-1}b^{-1}}_{H_p} \in H_p$$

Thus $aba^{-1}b^{-1} = e \implies ab = ba$. So *G* is abelian. By the Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups

$$G \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{pq}$$
,

which is cyclic.

Example 4.1.3

By the Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups

$$S_3 \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$$
,

and $|S_3| = 6 = 2 \cdot 3$, is not cyclic.

Example 4.1.4

If |G| = 30, then G has a subgroup isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_{15} . Note that $|G| = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. By the Third Sylow Theorem,

$$n_5 \equiv 1 \mod 5$$
 and $n_5 \mid 6 \implies n_5 = 1$ or 6

and

$$n_3 \equiv 1 \mod 3$$
 and $n_3 \mid 10 \implies n_3 = 1$ or 10.

Suppose $n_5 = 6$ and $n_3 = 10$. Since the Sylow 3-subgroups and Sylow 5-subgroups intersect trivially, this accounts for $(6 \times 4) + (10 \times 2) = 44$ elements but |G| = 30 < 44. Thus we must have $n_5 = 1$ or $n_3 = 1$. Thus G is not simple.

Let H_3 and H_5 be Sylow 3- and 5-subgroups, respectively. WLOG, suppose $H_3 \triangleleft G$. Then $H_3H_5 \leq G$, and notice that $|H_3H_5| = 15$. Since $15 = 3 \cdot 5$ and $3 \nmid 4 = 5 - 1$, we know that $H_3H_5 \simeq \mathbb{Z}_{15}$ by an earlier example.

Example 4.1.5

Let |G| = 60 with $n_5 > 1$. Then G is simple.

This is an important example for it is with this that we can prove the following:

ightharpoonup Corollary 12 (A_5 is Simple)

 A_5 is simple.

Proof

Note that $|A_5| = \frac{5!}{2} = 60$, and

$$\left\langle \ \left(1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \right) \ \right\rangle$$
 and $\left\langle \ \left(1 \quad 3 \quad 2 \quad 4 \quad 5 \right) \ \right\rangle$

are both Sylow 5-subgroups that are distinct (one has odd parity while the other has even).

Proof (For Example 4.1.5)

Suppose $n_5 > 1$. Notice that $60 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. By \blacksquare Theorem 11, $n_5 \equiv 1$ mod 5 and $n_5 \mid 12$, and thus $n_5 = 6$. This accounts for $6 \times 4 + 1 = 25$ elements. Now suppose $H \triangleleft G$ is proper and non-trivial.

If $5 \mid |H|$, then H contains a Sylow 5-subgroup of G. Since $H \triangleleft G$, H contains all the conjugates of this Sylow 5-subgroup. Thus by our argument above, we have that $|H| \ge 25^{\circ}$. Also, $H \mid 60$. Thus it must be that |H| = 30. But then by the last example, $n_5 = 1$, a contradiction.

So $5 \nmid |H|$. By Lagrange, it remains that

$$|H| = 2, 3, 4, 6 \text{ or } 12.$$

Case A $|H| = 12 = 2^2 \cdot 3.3$ So H contains a normal Sylow 2- or

Exercise 4.1.1 *Prove that either* $n_2 = 1$ *or* $n_3 = 1$.

² These are the 25 elements that were found in the last paragraph.

28 Lecture 4 Jan 14th - Sylow Theory (Continued 2)

3-subgroup that is normal in G.

The proof shall be continued next lecture.

Part II

Fields

5 Lecture 5 Jan 14th

5.1 Sylow Theory (Continued 3)

We shall continue with the last proof from where we left off.

Proof (Example 4.1.5 continued)

Case A |H| = 12. WLOG, let K be a normal Sylow 3-subgroup of H, which is also normal in G^{-1} .

Case B |H| = 6. H would then have a normal Sylow 3-subgroup, which is normal in G. We shall also call this subgroup K.

By replacing H with K if necessary, wma $|H| \in \{2,3,4\}$. Consider $\overline{G} = G/H$. Then $|\overline{G}| \in \{15,20,30\}$. 2 In any case, \overline{G} has a normal Sylow 5-subgroup. Call this normal subgroup \overline{P} . By correspondence, $\overline{P} = P/H$ where P is a normal subgroup of G. Thus P is a proper non-trivial normal subgroup of G. Also,

$$|P| = |\bar{P}| \cdot |H| = 5 \cdot |H|.$$

Thus $5 \mid |P|$, putting us back to the case where $5 \mid |H|$. Thus G does not have a non-trivial normal subgroup, i.e. G is simple.

¹ In Sylow Theory, normality is transitive.

Exercise 5.1.1

Prove that \overline{G} has a normal Sylow 5-subgroup in all the three possible orders of \overline{G} .

³ Note: correspondence works for the normal case as well.

5.2 Review of Ring Theory

Let F be a field, and I be an ideal of F[x], its polynomial ring. Since F[x] is a PID, we have $I = \langle p(x) \rangle$ for some $p(x) \in F[x]$.

Moreover, I is maximal iff p(x) is irreducible.

Thus we observe that

F[x]/I is a field iff $I = \langle p(x) \rangle$ is maximal iff $p(x) \in F[x]$ is irreducible.

Therefore, to talk about fields, we need to understand irreducibles.

5.3 Irreducibles

Definition 6 (Irreducible)

Let R be an integral domain (ID) ⁴. We say that $f(x) \in R[x]$ is **irreducible** (over R) if

- 1. $f(x) \neq 0$;
- 2. $f(x) \notin R^{\times}$, where R^{\times} is the set of units of R;
- 3. whenever f(x) = g(x)h(x), where $g(x), h(x) \in R[x]$, then either $g(x) \in R^{\times}$ or $h(x) \in R^{\times}$.

If $f(x) \neq 0$, $f(x) \notin R^{\times}$ and f(x) is not irreducible, we say that f(x) is reducible (over R).

Example 5.3.1

 $f(x) = x^2 - 2$ is irreducible over Q but reducible over R as

$$f(x) = \left(x - \sqrt{2}\right)\left(x + \sqrt{2}\right).$$

Let *F* be a field, $f(x) \in F[x]$ and $a \in F$. By the Division Algorithm, we can write

$$f(x) = (x - a)q(x) + r(x),$$

where $q(x), r(x) \in F[x]$. Note that we either have r(x) = 0 or $\deg r < \deg(x - a) = 1$. In the latter case, $r \in F$, and so

$$f(x) = (x - a)q(x) + r.$$

Then f(a) = 0 + r = r, and so f(x) = (x - a)q(x) + f(a).

$$\therefore (x-a) \mid f(x) \iff f(a) = 0.$$

• Proposition 13 (Polynomials with Roots are Reducible)

⁴ **Integral domains** are commutative rings that has no zero divisors.

Let F be a field. If $f(x) \in F[x]$ with $\deg f > 1$, and f has a root in F, then f is reducible (over F).

Example 5.3.2

Let
$$f(x)=x^6+x^3+x^4+x^3+3\in\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$$
. Then $f(1)=0$. Therefore
$$f(x)=(x-1)g(x) \text{ where } g(x)\in\mathbb{Z}_7[x].$$

Thus f(x) is reducible over \mathbb{Z}_7 .

• Proposition 14 (Irreducible Rootless Polynomials)

Let F be a field⁵. If $f(x) \in F[x]$ with $\deg f \in \{2,3\}$, then f(x) is irreducible over F iff f(x) has no roots in F.

⁵ Note that this does not work in an ID. For example, $2x^2 + 2$.

*Warning

 $(x^2+1)^2 \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is reducible but has no root in \mathbb{R} . Note that the degree of the polynomial is 4.

Example 5.3.3

Let $f(9x) = x^3 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$. Note that f(0) = 1 and $f(1) = 3 \equiv 1$ mod 2. Since deg f = 3 and f has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_2 , f(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 .

■ Theorem 15 (Gauss' Lemma)

Let R be a Unique Factorization Domain (UFD), with field of fractions F. Let $p(x) \in R[x]$. If

$$p(x) = A(x)B(x),$$

where A(x), B(x) are non-constant in F[x], then $\exists r, s \in F^{\times}$ non-zero such that

$$p(x) = a(x)b(x),$$

where a(x) = rA(x) and b(x) = sB(x).

66 Note

If $p(x) \in R[x]$ is reducible over F, then p(x) is reducible over R.

66 Note

If $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $F = \mathbb{Q}$, then p(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} , then p(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

6 Lecture 6 Jan 18th

6.1 Irreducibles (Continued)

Our goal in this section is to develop methods to test for the irreducibility of polynomials.

₩ Warning

Note that f(x) = 2x + 4 = 2(x + 2) is reducible ovver \mathbb{Z}^{1} but irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

¹ This is interesting over \mathbb{Z} , since $2 \notin \mathbb{Z}^{\times}$.

• Proposition 16 (Mod-p Irreducibility Test)

Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ with $\deg f \geq 1$. Let $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ be prime. If $\overline{f}(x)$ is the corresponding polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ such that

- the coefficients of $\bar{f}(x)$ are coefficients of f(x) in mod p,
- $\deg f = \deg \overline{f}^2$, and
- \bar{f} is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_p ,

then f(x) is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

 2 This means that the leading coefficient of f is not killed off.

Proof

Suppose $\deg f = \deg \overline{f}$, and $\overline{f}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_p . Suppose to the contrary that f(x) is reducible over \mathbb{Q} . Then for some g(x), $h(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ with $\deg g$, $\deg h < \deg f$, we have

$$f(x) = g(x)h(x).$$

By Gauss' Lemma, wma g(x), $h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then we have

$$\bar{f}(x) = \bar{g}(x)\bar{h}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x].$$

By assumption, \bar{f} is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_p , either

$$\deg \bar{g} = 0$$
 or $\deg \bar{h} = 0$.

Wlog, deg $\bar{g} = 0$. Then

$$\deg h \leq \deg f = \deg \bar{f} = \deg \bar{h} \leq \deg h$$
,

which implies that $\deg f = \deg h$ but $\deg h < \deg f$. Thus f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Example 6.1.1

Consider the polynomial

$$f(x) = 3x^3 + 22x^2 + 17x + 471.$$

Then consider

$$\bar{f}(x) = x^3 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x].$$

Since $\bar{f}(0) \neq 0$ and $\bar{f}(1) \neq 0$, and $\deg f = 3$, by \bullet Proposition 14, $\bar{f}(x)$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Since $\deg f = \deg \bar{f}$, f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} by the Mod-2 irreducible test.

*Warning

Consider $f(x) = 2x^2 + x \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, which is reducible over \mathbb{Q} . However, $\bar{f}(x) = x \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ is reducible over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Notice here that $\deg \bar{f} \neq \deg f$.

More generally so...

6 Proposition 17 (Polynomials that Cannot be Factored Over the Ideals is Irreducible)

Let I be a proper ideal of an ID R. Let $p(x) \in R[x]$ be monic and nonconst. If p(x) cannot be factored in $(R/I)[x]^3$ into polynomials of lesser degree, then p(x) is irreducible over R.

³ Note that (R/I) may not be an ID even if R is one.

Proof

Sps to the contrary that p(x) is reducible over R. Then

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

for some $f(x), g(x) \notin R^{\times}$. Since p(x) is monic, and deg f, deg g < g $\deg p$, wma f(x) and g(x) are also monic. Then

$$\bar{p}(x) = \bar{f}(x)\bar{g}(x) \in (R/I)[x].$$

Since $I \subseteq R$, we have that $1 \notin I$, and so

$$\deg \bar{f}$$
, $\deg \bar{g} < \deg \bar{p}$

but that implies that p(x) can be factored in (R/I)[x].

• Proposition 18 (Eisenstein's Criterion)

Let R be an ID. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Let

$$f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_1x + a_0 \in R[x]$$

with $n \ge 1$. Note that f is monic. Now if

$$a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \ldots, a_1, a_0 \in P \text{ and } a_0 \notin P^2,$$

then f is irreducible over R.

Proof

Sps to the contrary that f is reducible over R. Since f(x) is monic,

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

where g(x), $h(x) \in R[x]$ and deg g, deg $h < \deg f$. Then

$$\bar{f}(x) = \bar{g}(x)\bar{h}(x) = x^n \in (R/P)[x]$$

since $a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_1, a_0 \in P$. Since P is prime, R/P is an ID, we have that either $\bar{g}(0) = 0$ or $\bar{h}(0) = 0$. Wlog, $\bar{g}(0) = 0 \in P$. But that implies that $a_0 = \bar{g}(0)\bar{h}(0) = 0 \in P^2$, a contradiction.

7 Lecture 7 Jan 21st

7.1 Irreducibles (Continued 2)

Example 7.1.1

Prove that $f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x,y] = (\mathbb{Q}[x])[y]$.

Proof

Let $g(y) = y^2 + (x^2 + 1)$. Since x + 1 is irreducible, let $P = \langle x + 1 \rangle$, which is therefore a prime ideal of $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Moreover, notice that

$$x^2 - 1 = (x+1)(x-1) \in P.$$

Since $(x+1)^2 \nmid (x^2-1)$, we have that $x^2-1 \notin P^2$. Then by Eisenstein, we have that f(x,y) is irreducible.

► Corollary 19 (Eisenstein + Gauss)

Let $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a prime, and let

$$f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

be non-const in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. If $p \mid a_i$ for all $i \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$, and $p^2 \nmid a_0$, then f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Recall that the prime ideals of \mathbb{Z} are \mathbb{Z}_p where p is prime.

Proof

Let $P = \langle p \rangle$. It follows from Eisenstein that f is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} , and then from Gauss that f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

Example 7.1.2

Let $f(x) = x^n - d \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ where $\exists p \in \mathbb{Z}$ prime such that $p^2 \nmid d$ and $p \mid d$. Let $P = \langle p \rangle$ and so by \blacktriangleright Corollary 19, f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

66 Note

The above example is noteworthy since it will appear rather often throughout this course. Notice that if we have polynomials of the above form, then we immediately have that the polynomial is irreducible.

Example 7.1.3

Are the following irreducible over Q?

1.
$$f(x) = x^7 + 21x^5 + 15x^2 + 9x + 6$$

Yes. Notice that all the non-leading coefficients have a factor of 3, and so if we let p = 3, since $3^2 = 9 \nmid 6$, it follows from Eisenstein that f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

2.
$$f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 16$$

Eisenstein can't help us here since $\gcd(2,16)=2$ and $2^2=4\mid 16$. Consider $\bar{f}(x)=x^3+2x+1\in\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. Notice that $\bar{f}(0)=1=\bar{f}(2)$ and $\bar{f}(1)=4$. Since $\deg \bar{f}=3$, it follows from \clubsuit Proposition 14 that \bar{f} is irreducible over \mathbb{Z}_3 . Since $\deg f=\deg \bar{f}$, it follows from the Mod-3 irreducible test that f is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} .

3.
$$f(x) = x^4 + 5x^3 + 6x^2 - 1$$

Again, Eisenstein can't help us here, since $5 \perp 6 \perp 1^{-1}$. Consider

$$\bar{f}(x) = x^4 + x^3 + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x].$$

We know that $\bar{f}(0) = 1 = \bar{f}(1)$, and so \bar{f} has no roots in \mathbb{Z}_2 . ² Consider the quadratics³ of $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]$: we have

$$x^2$$
, $x^2 + x$, $x^2 + 1$, $x^2 + x + 1$,

all, but the last, of which are reducible. However, notice that

$$(x^2 + x + 1)^2 = x^4 + x^2 + 1 \neq \bar{f}(x)$$

 1 \perp is a common notation for coprimeness.

• Proposition 14 here as $\deg \bar{f} = 4 > 3$.

² Note that we cannot use

³ Why did we only check for the quadratics and not others? We did so as we have already checked for the linear factors by checking for roots, which also checks for the cubic factors, since if we can factor out a linear factor, we are left with a cubic factor. Ruling out linear factors in turn rules out cubic factors.

(by the Freshman's Dream). Thus \bar{f} is irreducible in \mathbb{Z}_2 . Since $\deg f = \deg \overline{f}$, by Mod-2 irreducible test.

4. \bigstar Let p be a prime, and let

$$f(x) = x^{p-1} + x^{p-2} + \dots + x^2 + x + 1.$$

Note that $f(x)(x-1) = x^p - 1$, and so $f(x) = \frac{x^p - 1}{x-1}$. Furthermore, notice that

$$f(x+1) = \frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{x} = \sum_{k=0}^p \binom{p}{k} x^{p-k} - \frac{1}{x}$$
$$= x^{p-1} + \binom{p}{p-1} x^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{2} x + \binom{p}{1}.$$

By setting $P = \langle p \rangle$, we have that f(x+1) is irreducible by Eisenstein. It follows from A3Q2 that f(x) is also irreducible.

7.2 Field Extensions

Let K be a field. Recall that a non-empty subset $F \subseteq K$ is called a subfield of *K* if *F* is a field under the same operations.

Example 7.2.1

 $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) := \left\{ a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}$ is a subfield of \mathbb{C} . We call this field \mathbb{Q} 'adjoin' $\sqrt{2}$.

66 Note

We did not actually show that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is indeed a field but note the following: let $a + b\sqrt{2} \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. Then

$$\frac{1}{a+b\sqrt{2}}\cdot\frac{(a-b\sqrt{2})}{(a-b\sqrt{2})}=\frac{a-b\sqrt{2}}{a^2-2b^2}\in\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}),$$

and note that

$$a^2 - 2b^2 \neq 0 \iff \frac{a}{b} = \sqrt{2}$$

which does not happen in Q itself.

Definition 7 (Field Extension)

Let F be a field. A field extension (or an extension) of F is a field K which

contains an **isomorphic** copy of F as a subfield. We denote this notion of K/F.

Example 7.2.2

- We have that \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R} and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$.
- For a prime p, if

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = (x) \left\{ \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \mid f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x], g \neq 0 \right\},$$

then $\mathbb{Z}_p(x)/\mathbb{Z}_p$.

• Let F be a field, and $f(x) \in F[x]$ be irreducible. Then let $K = F[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$. Then K/F.

66 Note

Note that in the last example, K is not a 'direct' extension of F, but it contains an isomorphic copy of F. This allows us to have more flexibility in what we can do.

*Warning

If given $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, ..., p-1\}$, then \mathbb{Q} is not an extension of \mathbb{Z}_p since the two use different operations.

8 Lecture 8 Jan 23rd

8.1 Field Extensions (Continued)

Example 8.1.1

Let F be a field.

- If the characteristic ch(F) = p > 0 is a prime, then $F \supset \{0, 1, 2, ..., p 1\} \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p$. Thus F/\mathbb{Z}_p .
- If ch(F) = 0, then F/\mathbb{Q} .

In either of these cases, we call \mathbb{Z}_p and/or \mathbb{Q} the **prime subfield** of F.

Definition 8 (Generated Field Extension)

Let K/F, and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. The field extension of F generated by $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^n$ is

$$F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n):=\left\{\frac{f(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)}{g(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)}\;\middle|\;f,g\in F[x_1,\ldots,x_n],g\neq 0\right\},\,$$

of which we call as F **adjoin** $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$.

66 Note

We have that $F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)/F$, and in turn $K/F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$.

Remark (Minimality)

Let K/F, and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. If we have E/F such that K/E and $\alpha_i \in E$ for all i, then

$$F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)\subseteq E$$
,

i.e. $F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$ is the smallest extension of F that contains the α_i 's.

Example 8.1.2 (A classical example of field extensions)

Show that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})$.

Proof

Since $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$, by closure, we have that $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$, and so $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$.

For the other direction, we have that $\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3}\in\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3})$. Then in particular $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3}}\in\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3})$. Notice that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}} = \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}).$$

So $2\sqrt{3}$, $2\sqrt{2}\in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3})^{-1}$, and in turn $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt{3}\in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3})$. Then by minimality, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3})\subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3})$.

 $^{1}2\sqrt{2}$ follows from a similar argument by using $1=\frac{\sqrt{3}-\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{3}-\sqrt{2}}$.

Remark

Notice that $F(\alpha, \overline{\beta}) = [F(\alpha)](\beta)$.

We have that $F(\alpha) \subseteq F(\alpha, \beta)$, $\beta \in F(\alpha, \beta)$, which implies that $F(\alpha)(\beta) \subseteq F(\alpha, \beta)$ by minimality.

Also, since $F \subseteq F(\alpha, \beta)$, and $\alpha, \beta \in F(\alpha, \beta)$, we have, by minimality (again), that $F(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq F(\alpha)(\beta)$.

• Proposition 20 (Span of the Extension)

Let K/F and $\alpha \in K$. If α is a root of some non-zero $f(x) \in F[x]$ irreducible over F, then $F(\alpha) \simeq F[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$. Moreover, if $\deg f = n$, then

$$F(\alpha) = \operatorname{span}_F \{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}.$$

Proof

Sps $\alpha \in K$ is a root of an irreducible $f(x) \in F[x]$ over F. Let deg $f = n \in \mathbb{N}$. Define $\phi : F[x] \to F(\alpha)$ by $\phi(g(x)) = g(\alpha)$. Note that this is a

² See PMATH347.

ring homomorphism. Let

$$I = \{g(x) \in F[x] \mid g(\alpha) = 0\} = \ker \phi,$$

which is an ideal. Since F[x] is a PID 2 , $\exists g(x) \in F[x]$ such that I = $\langle g(x) \rangle$. Since α is a root of f(x), $f(x) \in I$, and so f(x) = g(x)h(x)for some $h(x) \in F[x]$. Since $I \neq F[x]$ and f is irreducible, $h(x) \in F^{\times}$. Thus $\langle g(x) \rangle = \langle g(x) \rangle$. Then by the First Isomorphism Theorem,

$$F[x]/\langle f(x)\rangle \simeq \phi(F[x]).$$

By construction, $\phi(F[x]) \subseteq F(\alpha)$. Since $\phi(F[x])$ is a field (by isomorphism) which contains $\alpha = \phi(x)$ and F, and so by minimality $F(\alpha) \subseteq \phi(F[x])$. Therefore

$$F[x]/\langle f(x)\rangle \simeq F(\alpha)$$
,

as required.

Through the isomorphism, for any $h(x) \in F[x]$, we have

$$h(x) + \langle f(x) \rangle \mapsto h(\alpha).$$

$$F[x]/\langle f(x)\rangle = \left\{c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + c_1x + c_0 + \langle f(x)\rangle \mid c_i \in F\right\}$$

and thus

$$F(\alpha) = \left\{ c_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + c_1\alpha + c_0 + \mid c_i \in F \right\}$$
$$= \operatorname{span}_F \left\{ 1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1} \right\},$$

as claimed.

9 Lecture 9 Jan 25th

9.1 Field Extensions (Continued 2)

Let K/F, and $0 \neq g(x) \in F[x]$, and $\alpha \in K$ such that $g(\alpha) = 0$. Since F[x] is an ID, g(x) must have an irreducible factor $f(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. By the proof of \bullet Proposition 20,

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \ker \phi = I = \{ h(x) \in F[x] \mid h(\alpha) = 0 \}.$$

In particular,

- If $h(x) \in F[x]$ such that $h(\alpha) = 0$, then $h(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$. In particular, $f(x) \mid h(x)$.
- $\langle f(x) \rangle$ contains a unique, monic, irreducible polynomial: for any $g(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$ that is irreducible, we know that g(x) = uf(x), where $0 \neq u \in F^{\times}$, and so we can just divide the polynomial g by u to make it monic.

Definition 9 (Minimal Polynomial)

Let K/F, and $\alpha \in K$ be a root of a non-zero polynomial in F[x]. Then there exists a unique irreducible monic polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. We call this f(x) the **minimal polynomial** for α over F. If $\deg f = n$, we call n the **degree** of α over F, denoted $\deg_F(\alpha)$.

SE Note

For an $\alpha \in K$, its minimal polynomial is unique, but a minimal polynomial need not have only one root.

• Proposition 21 (Span of an Extension if Linearly Independent)

Let K/F, and $\alpha \in K$ with minimal polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$, with $\deg_F(\alpha) = n$. Then the span $F(\alpha) = \operatorname{span}_F\{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is linearly independent over F.

Proof

Sps to the contrary that

$$c_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + c_{n-2}\alpha^{n-2} + \ldots + c_1\alpha + c_0 = 0, c_i \in F$$

has a non-trivial solution, i.e. not all c_i 's are 0 (i.e. we assume that the α 's are linearly dependent). Consider

$$g(x) = c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + c_1x + c_0,$$

and so $g \neq 0$. However, $g(\alpha) = 0$, so $g(x) \in \langle f(x) \rangle$, i.e. $f(x) \mid g(x)$. However, that contradicts the fact that $\deg f = n > n - 1 \geq \deg g$. \square

Example 9.1.1

Consider K/F, and $\alpha \in K$. Then

$$\deg_F(\alpha) = 1 \iff \text{ min. polym } f(x) = x - \alpha \in F[x] \iff \alpha \in F.$$

Example 9.1.2

Consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$. Let $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$. Note that $f(\alpha) = 0$ for $f(x) = x^2 - 2$, which is irreducible by Eisenstein by $P = \langle 2 \rangle$. Thus $\deg_F(\alpha) = 2$, and so

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{Q}}\{1, \alpha\} = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

Example 9.1.3

Let $\alpha = \sqrt{1+\sqrt{3}}$. Notice that $\alpha^2 = 1+\sqrt{3}$, and so $(\alpha^2-1)^2 = 3$. Thus

$$\alpha^4 - 2\alpha^2 + 1 - 3 = 0.$$

Let $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2 - x \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Note that f is monic and $f(\alpha) = 0$. By Eisenstein, f is irreducible if we pick $P = \langle 2 \rangle$. Thus f is a minimal

polynomial for α . We have that

$$\deg_{\mathbb{O}}(\alpha) = \deg f = 4.$$

Example 9.1.4

Let $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}_2[x]$. Let α be a root of f(x) in some extension of \mathbb{Z}_2 . Compute the size of $\mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha)$.

Solution

We showed in one of our previous examples that such an f is irreducible in \mathbb{Z}_2 . Thus $deg_{\mathbb{Z}_2}(\alpha) = 3$. Then

$$\mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha) = \operatorname{span}_{\mathbb{Z}_2} \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2\},$$

where $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2\}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Z}_2 . Thus

$$|\mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha)| = 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8.$$

66 Note

Notice that there is no guarantee that such a root exists, but it does, which is a theorem that we shall prove later. (Link will be provided later)

→ Corollary 22 (Isomorphism between Extensions)

Let K/F and $\alpha, \beta \in K$ have the same minimal polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. *Then* $F(\alpha) \simeq F(\beta)$.

Proof

From • Proposition 20, we have that

$$F(\alpha) \simeq F[x]/\langle f(x)\rangle \simeq F(\beta).$$

10 Lecture 10 Jan 28th

10.1 Field Extensions (Continued 3)

How can we work with field extensions algebraically?

10.1.1 Linear Algebra on Field Extensions

We can look at K/F as K being an F-vector space.

Definition 10 (Finite Extension)

We say K/F is a **finite extension** if K is a finite dimensional F-vector space. We call the dimension, $\dim_F K$, the **degree** of K/F, and denote this dimension as

$$[K:F]$$
.

Example 10.1.1

We have $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = |\{1, i\}| = 2.$

Example 10.1.2

$$[\mathbb{R}:\mathbb{Q}]=\infty.$$

Example 10.1.3

Let K/F and $\alpha \in K$ with the minimal polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. Then $[F(\alpha):F] = |\{1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^{n-1}\}| = n$, where $n = \deg f = \deg_F(\alpha)$.

¹ This is why we call the dimension of K/F as a degree.

We say $F_1/F_2/F_3/.../F_n$ is a tower of fields if each F_i/F_{i+1} is a field extension

■ Theorem 23 (Tower Theorem)

If K/E and E/F are finite extensions, then

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

Proof

Let $\mathcal{B}_v = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis for K/E and $\mathcal{B}_w = \{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ be a basis for E/F.

Claim The set $\{v_i w_j :: 1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m\}$ is a basis for K/F.

Linear Independence Assume

$$\sum_{i,j} c_{i,j} w_j v_i = 0. (10.1)$$

Notice that we may write Equation (10.1) as

$$\sum_i \left(\sum_j c_{i,j} w_j
ight) v_i = 0.$$

Since \mathcal{B}_v is a basis of K/E, for each i, we have

$$\sum_{i} c_{i,j} w_j = 0.$$

Since \mathcal{B}_w is a basis for E/F, for each j, we have

$$c_{i,i}=0$$

It follows that the $w_i v_i$'s are linearly independent of each other.

Span Let $u \in K$. Then

$$u = \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i v_i,$$

where $c_i \in E$ is given by

$$c_i = \sum_{j=1}^m d_{i,j} w_j.$$

Then

$$u = \sum_{i,j} d_{i,j} w_j v_i.$$

Thus $\{v_i, w_i\}$ is a basis for K/F.

Example 10.1.4

Compute $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5},i):\mathbb{Q}].$

Solution

By the Tower Theorem, we have that

$$[Q(\sqrt[3]{5},i):Q] = [Q(\sqrt[3]{5})(i):Q(\sqrt[3]{5})] \cdot [Q(\sqrt[3]{5}):Q].$$

Notice that

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5}) : \mathbb{Q}] = \deg(x^3 - 5) = 3.$$

For $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})(i):\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})]$, let p(x) be the minimal polynomial for i over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})$. Since $i^2 + 1 = 0$, we know that i is a root of $x^2 + 1 = 0$. Then in particular, we must have $p(x) \mid x^2 + 1$. So deg $p \in \{1, 2\}$.

Now since $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $i \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})$, we observe that deg $p \neq 1$. Thus $\deg p = 2$. It follows that

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})(i) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5})] = 2.$$

Therefore

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{5},i):\mathbb{Q}]=2\cdot 3=6.$$

Polynomials on Field Extensions 10.1.2

Definition 12 (Algebraic and Transcendental)

Let K/F. We say that $\alpha \in K$ is algebraic over F if $\exists 0 \neq f(x) \in F[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Otherwise, we say that α is **transcendental** over F; that is, there is no non-zero polynomial over F such that α is a root.

We say that K/F is algebraic if every $\alpha \in K$ is algebraic over F. Otherwise, we say that K/F is transcendental.

Example 10.1.5

 π is transcendental over Q 2 . However, π is algebraic over $\mathbb R$ (note that $x-\pi\in\mathbb R[x]$.).

² The proof of this statement is beyond our power at this point.

Example 10.1.6

As a direct consequence of the above example, we have that \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q} is transcendental.

Example 10.1.7

As we have seen numerous times, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$ is algebraic.

Remark

If $\alpha \in K$ is algebraic over F, then α has a minimal polynomial in F[x].

■ Theorem 24 (Finite Extensions are Algebraic)

If K/F is finite, then K/F is algebraic.

Proof

Suppose $[K : F] = n < \infty$. Let $\alpha \in K$. Consider

$$\alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots, \alpha^n, \alpha^{n+1}$$
.

Case 1 Suppose $\alpha^i = \alpha^j$ for some $i \neq j \in \{1, ..., n+1\}$. Then α is certainly a root of $f(x) = x^i - x^j$.

Case 2 Suppose $\alpha^i \neq \alpha^j$ for all $i \neq j$. Then we must have that

$$\alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots, \alpha^n, \alpha^{n+1}$$

is linearly dependent over F. Thus we may have

$$c_1\alpha + c_2\alpha^2 + \ldots + c_{n+1}\alpha^{n+1} = 0$$

where not all c_i 's are 0. Then α is a root of

$$f(x) = c_{n+1}x^{n+1}...+c_1x,$$

which is a non-zero polynomial.

In either case, we observe that α is algebraic over F. Therefore K/F is algebraic.

The idea is to make use of the fact that the extension will at least have the algebraic number as a span up to some degree n, and instead of working with the spanning set, we work with one α away. There will be two cases, each of which can be dealt with at relative ease.

11 Lecture 11 Jan 30th

11.1 Field Extensions (Continued 4)

- 11.1.1 Polynomials on Field Extensions (Continued)
 - 66 Note

Recall that given K/F,

- Finite (defn): $\dim_F K = [K:F] < \infty$
- Algebraic (defn): $\forall \alpha \in K, \exists 0 \neq f \in F[x]$, such that $f(\alpha) = 0$
- Finite \Longrightarrow Algebraic
- **Definition 13 (Finitely Generated Extension)**

We say K is a finitely generated extension of F if $\exists \alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n \in K$ such that $K = F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$.

• Proposition 25 (Finitely Generated Algebraic Extensions are Finite)

If K is a finitely generated algebraic extension of F, then K/F is finite.¹

Proof

Sps K/F is algebraic, where $K = F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$. We shall proceed by performing induction on n. If n = 1, then $[F(\alpha_1) : F] = \deg_F(\alpha_1) < \infty$.

¹ This proposition is actually an **iff** statemnt in disguise.

Now suppose that the result holds for n. Consider $K = F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n, \alpha_{n+1})$. Then by the Tower Theorem,

$$[F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n,\alpha_{n+1}):F]$$

$$= [F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)(\alpha_{n+1}):F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)] \cdot [F(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n):F].$$

It follows from the base case and the induction hypothesis that $[F(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_{n+1}) : F]$ is finite.

66 Note

Finite extensions are, therefore, finitely generated.

Example 11.1.1

The field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{4}, \dots)$ is an algebraic extension of \mathbb{Q} but it is not a finite extension.

• Proposition 26 (Greater Algebraic Extensions)

If K/E and E/F are algebraic extensions, then K/F is an algebraic extension.

Proof

Let $\alpha \in K$. Since K/E is algebraic, α has a minimal polynomial in E[x], say it is

$$p(x) = x^n + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \ldots + c_1x + c_0.$$

Then α is algebraic over $F(c_{n-1}, \ldots, c_1, c_0)$. By the Tower Theorem,

$$[F(c_{n-1},\ldots,c_1,c_0,\alpha):F(c_{n-1},\ldots,c_0)]<\infty,$$

and so $F(c_{n-1},\ldots,c_1,c_0,\alpha)\subseteq E$.

Now $F(c_{n-1},...,c_0)/F$ is algebraic and finitely generated. So it follows from the Tower Theorem that

$$[F(c_{n-1},\ldots,c_0,\alpha):F]<\infty.$$

Thus α is algebraic over F and so K/F is algebraic.

• Proposition 27 (Algebraic Numbers Form a Subfield)

Let K/F. The set of elements of K algebraic over F form a subfield of K.

Proof (Sketch proof)

Let $L = \{ \alpha \in K : \alpha \text{ is alg. over } F \}$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in L$ and $\beta \neq 0$. Then

$$\alpha, \beta, \alpha + \beta, \alpha\beta, \beta^{-1} \in F(\alpha, \beta).$$

Then $[F(\alpha, \beta) : F] < \infty$ implies that L is finitely generated, which is thus algebraic, and is hence a subfield of K.

11.2 Splitting Fields

From various examples in the past, we notice that many of the roots that we have come across live in C. We shall see why later on, but we can ask ourselves if we can generalize this notion and make use of properties from this notion.

Definition 14 (Splits)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. We say f(x) splits in an extension K/F if there exists $\exists u \in F$, and $\exists \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$ such that

$$f(x) = u(x - \alpha_1) \dots (x - \alpha_n).$$

Example 11.2.1

Every non-constant polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ splits in \mathbb{C} .

■ Theorem 28 (Kronecker's Theorem)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. There exists an extension K/F such that f(x) has a root in K.

Proof

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. Then let $p(x) \in F[x]$ be an irreducible factor of f(x). Then consider $K = F[t]/\langle p(t) \rangle$, which we know is a field. Then

$$\bar{t} = t + p(t) \in K$$

is a root of p(x), which means that \bar{t} is also a root for f(x).

■ Theorem 29 (Repeated Kronecker's Theorem)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. Then there exists an extension K/F such that f(x) splits over K.

Proof

By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, if we suppose that $\deg f = n < \infty$, then f has n roots. Consequently, we need only to apply

■ Theorem 28 for at most n-many times to get to an extension where f(x) splits.

12 Lecture 12 Feb 01st

12.1 Splitting Fields (Continued)

Definition 15 (Splitting Field)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. A minimal extension K of F with the property that f(x) splits over K is called a splitting field for f(x) over F.

The following result is a direct consequence of \blacksquare Theorem 29.

• Proposition 30 (A Splitting Field is Generated)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant, and let K/F be such that f(x) splits over K. Suppose

$$f(x) = u(x - \alpha_1) hdots(x - \alpha_n),$$

where $u \in F$ and $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. Then a splitting field for f(x) over F is $F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$.

Example 12.1.1

Find a splitting field for

$$f(x) = x^4 + x^2 - 6$$

over Q.

Solution

Notice that

$$f(x) = (x^2 + 3)(x^2 - 2) = (x + \sqrt{3}i)(x - \sqrt{3}i)(x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})$$

in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. Then a splitting field of f(x) over \mathbb{Q} is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}i)$.

Now what if we had two differing extensions at which f(x) splits, say K and E, and K and E are not the same field extension? In particular, K and E would contain some subfield, say $F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and $F(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$ respectively, which may not be the same splitting field. How are these splitting fields related?

f(x) splits in K f(x) splits in Erelation? $F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ $F(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$ $f(x) \in F[x]$

Figure 12.1: Differing Splitting Fields

Lemma 31 (Isomorphic Fields have Isomorphic Polynomial Rings)

Let F ad F' be fields. If $\phi: F \to F'$ is an isomorphism, there exists a map $\tilde{\phi}: F[x] \to F'[x]$ that is also an isomorphism.

Proof

The map $\tilde{\phi}: F[x] \to F'[x]$ given by

$$\tilde{\phi}(\alpha_n x^n + \ldots + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_0) = \tilde{\alpha}_n x^n \ldots + \tilde{\alpha}_1 x + \tilde{\alpha}_0$$

is clearly an isomorphism between F[x] and F'[x].

66 Note

Since there is no difference between talking about ϕ and $\tilde{\phi}$, we shall freely write $\tilde{\phi}$ as ϕ without remorse.

♣ Lemma 32 (Isomorphism Extension Lemma)

Let F and F' be fields, $\phi : F[x] \to F'[x]$ be an isomorphism, $f(x) \in F[x]$ be irreducible, α be a root of f(x) in an extension of F, and β be a root of f(x) be a root of f(x) in an extension of F'. Then there exists an isomorphism $\psi : F(\alpha) \to F'(\beta)$ such that $\psi \upharpoonright_F = \phi$. Moreover, $\psi(\alpha) = \beta$.

Proof (Sketch)

Using the **First Isomorphism Theorem** to find ρ_1 and ρ_2 , we have

$$F(\alpha) \stackrel{\rho_1}{\to} F[x] \Big/ \langle f(x) \rangle \stackrel{\sigma}{\to} F'[x] \Big/ \langle \phi(f(x)) \rangle \stackrel{\rho_2}{\to} F'(\beta),$$

¹ where $\sigma(\overline{g(x)}) = \overline{\phi(g(x))}$. ²

Then $\psi = \rho_2 \circ \sigma \rho_1 : F(\alpha) \to F'(\beta)$ is an isomorphism.

Let $a \in F$. Then

$$\psi(a) = \rho_2 \circ \sigma \circ \rho_1(a) = \rho_2 \circ \sigma(\bar{a}) = \rho_2(\overline{\phi(a)}) = \phi(a).$$

Also,

$$\psi(\alpha) = \rho_2 \circ \sigma \circ \rho_1(\alpha) = \rho_2 \circ \sigma(\bar{x}) = \rho_2(\overline{\phi(x)}) = \rho_2(\bar{x}) = \beta.$$

It follows from induction that

♣ Lemma 33 (Extended Isomorphism Extension Lemma)

Let F be a field, $f(x) \in F[x]$ non-constant, K a splitting field for f(x)over F, F' a field, $\phi: F \to F'$ an isomorphism, and K' a splitting field for $\phi(f(x))$ over F'. Then there is an isomorphism $\psi: K \to K'$ such that $\psi \upharpoonright_F = \phi$.

► Corollary 34 (Splitting Fields are Unique up to Isomorphism)

Let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be non-constant. If K and K' are splitting fields for f(x)over F, then $K \cong K'$.

Proof

Consider $\phi = id$ and use Lemma 33.

Exercise 12.1.1

Prove that $\phi(f(x))$ *is irreducible.*

Exercise 12.1.2

Prove that σ is an isomorphism.

12.2 Algebraic Closures

We talked about algebraicity, and it makes sense asking about where exactly 'upstairs' that we will be able to find all of the algebraic numbers over our given field. A lot of the machinery has been taken care of with the introduction of splitting fields.

Definition 16 (Algebraic Closures)

A field \overline{F} is an algebraic closure of a field F if

- 1. \overline{F}/F is algebraic; and
- 2. every non-constant $f(x) \in F[x]$ splits over \overline{F} .

Example 12.2.1

 \mathbb{C} is an algebraic closure for \mathbb{R} .

Example 12.2.2

C is **not** an algebraic closure for Q.³

3 Why?

Definition 17 (Algebraically Closed)

A field F is algebraically closed if every non-constant $f(x) \in F[x]$ has a root in F.

Remark

If F is algebraically closed, then every non-constant $f(x) \in F[x]$ splits over F.

Example 12.2.3

 $\mathbb C$ is algebraically closed.

A Asides and Prior Knowledge

A.1 Correspondence Theorem

The Correspondence Theorem is somewhat widely known as the Fourth Isomorphism Theorem, although some authors associates the name with a proposition known as Zaessenhaus Lemma.

■ Theorem A.1 (Correspondence Theorem)

Let G be a group, and $N \triangleleft G^1$. Then there exists a bijection between the set of all subgroups $A \subseteq G$ such that $A \supseteq N$ and the set of subgroups A/N of G/N.

 1 Recall that this symbol means that N is a normal subgroup of G.



Index

<i>p</i> -Group, 12	Finitely Generated Extension, 57 First Sylow Theorem, 15	Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem, 13 Orbits, 12
adjoin, 41, 43		
Algebraic, 53	Gauss' Lemma, 33	prime subfield, 43
Algebraic Closures, 64	Generated Field Extension, 43	
Algebraically Closed, 64		reducible, 32
	Integral domains, 32	reddelbie, 52
Cauchy's Theorem, 16	Irreducible, 32	C 1 C - 1 Th 00
Cauchy's Theorem for Abelian Groups,	Isomorphism Extension Lemma, 62	Second Sylow Theorem, 20
12		Simple Group, 22
centralizers, 15	Kronecker's Theorem, 60	Splits, 59
Class Equation, 15		Splitting Field, 61
Correspondence Theorem, 65	Lagrange's Theorem, 11	Stabilizers, 12
		subfield, 41
degree, 47, 51	Minimal Polynomial, 47	Sylow <i>p</i> -Subgroup, 12
	Mod-p Irreducibility Test, 35	
Eisenstein's Criterion, 37		Third Sylow Theorem, 21
	Normalizer, 17	Tower of Fields, 52
Field Extension, 41		Tower Theorem, 52
Finite Extension, 51	Orbit Decomposition Theorem, 13	Transcendental, 53