University of Waterloo

PMATH 352
Fields and Galois Theory

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Contents

1 Introduction

1.1 Polynomial Equations

Consider the quadratic equation. Let $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ with the leading coefficient $a \neq 0$, then we have that,

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

We notice immediately that there are a couple of operations that are involved in this equation.

Definition 1.1.1. An expression involving only addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and radicals is called a radical. These operations are denoted by $+, -, \times, \div$ and $\sqrt[n]{\cdot}$

The natural question that is raised is the extension to higher dimensions.

1.2 Cubic Equations

All cubic equations can be reduced to the following equation,

$$x^3 + px = q$$

for some $p, q \in \mathbb{C}$. A solution to the above equation is of the form

$$x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{q}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{p^3}{27} + \frac{q^2}{4}}} + \sqrt[3]{\frac{q}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{p^3}{27} + \frac{q^2}{4}}} \qquad \text{(Cardano's Formula)}$$

1.3 Quartic Equations

A radical solution can be obtained by reducing a quartic to a cubic equation.

1.4 Quintic Equations

- General radical solutions were attempted by Euler, Bézout and Lagrange without success
- In 1799, Ruffini gave a 516 page proof about the insolvability of quintic equations. His Proof was "almost right"
- In 1824, Abel filled the gap in Ruffini's proof.

We can now ask ourselves, given a quintic equation, is it solvable by radicals? This question seems to be too hard, so we ask, suppose that a radical solution exists. How does its associated quintic equation look like?

Two main steps in Galois Theory

1. Link a root of a quintic equation, say α to $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, the smallest field containing $\mathbb{Q}$ and α. $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is a field. So it has more structures to be played with than α; however, our knowledge of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is still too little to answer the question. For example, we do not know how many intermediate fields, E between $\mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. What we mean is how many fields E satisfy

$$\mathbb{Q} \subseteq E \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha).$$

2. Link the field $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ to a group. More precisely, we associate $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}$ to the group

$$\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)) = \left\{ \Psi : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \to \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \text{ an isomorphism and } \Psi|_{\mathbb{Q}} = 1_{\mathbb{Q}} \right\}$$

It can be shown that if α is "good", say algebraic, $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha))$ is finite. If α is "very good", say constructable, the order of $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha))$ is in certain forms. Moreover, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the intermediate fields between $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and $\mathbb{Q}$ and the subgroups of $\mathrm{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha))$.

It follows that given some "good" α, we have that the intermediate fields of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and $\mathbb{Q}$ are indeed finitely many. This introduces Galois Theory; the interplay between fields and groups.

2 Field Extensions

2.1 Degree of Extensions

Definition 2.1.1. If E is a field containing another field F, we say E is a field extension of F, denoted by E/F.

If E/F if a field extension, we can view E as a vector space over F.

1. Addition: For $e_1, e_2 \in E$, $e_1 + e_2 \coloneqq e_1 + e_2$ (addition in E)
2. Scalar Multiplication: For $c \in F, e \in E$, $c \cdot e \coloneqq ce$ (multiplication in E)

Definition 2.1.2. The dimension of E over F (viewed as a vector space) called the degree of E over F, denoted by $[E : F]$. If $[E : F] < \infty$, we say E/F is a finite extension. Otherwise, E/F is an infinite extension

Example 2.1.3. $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = 2$ is a finite extension since $\mathbb{C} \cong \mathbb{R} + \mathbb{R}i$, with $i^2 = -1$.

Example 2.1.4. Let F be a field. Then $[F(x) : F]$ is ∞ since $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$ are linearly independent over F.

Remark. $F[x] = \{f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n : a_i \in F, n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$, the polynomial ring of F.

Remark. $F(x) = \{\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} : f(x), g(x) \in F[x]\}$, the fraction field of the polynomial ring of F.

Theorem 1. *If E/K and K/F are finite field extensions, then E/F is a finite field extension and*

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

In particular, K is an intermediate field of an field extension E/F, then $[K : F] \mid [E : F]$.

Proof. Suppose $[E : K] = m$ and $[K : F] = n$. Let $\{a_i, \dots, a_m\}$ be a basis of E/K and $\{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis of K/F. It suffices to show $\{a_i b_j : 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n\}$ is a basis of $[E/F]$.

Claim. *Every element of E is a linear combination of $\{a_i b_j\}$ over F.*

For $e \in E$, we have

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^{m} k_i a_i$$

with $k_i \in K$. Also, for each $k_i \in K$, we have

$$k_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} b_j$$

with $c_{ij} \in F$. Thus,

$$e = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} b_j a_i.$$

Claim. *The set $\{a_i b_j : 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is linearly independent over F.*

Suppose that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} b_j a_i = 0$$

with $c_{ij} \in F$. Since $\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} b_j \in K$ and $\{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$ are independent over K. We have

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij} b_j = 0.$$

Since $\{b_1, \ldots, b_n\}$ are independent over F, we have $c_{ij} = 0$.

Combining both claims, we see that $\{a_i b_j, 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$ is a basis of E/F and we have $[E : F] = [E : K][K : F]$. □

2.2 Algebraic and Transcendental Extensions

Definition 2.2.1. Let E/F be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$. We say α is algebraic over F if there exists $f(x) \in F[x] \setminus \{0\}$ with $f(\alpha) = 0$. Otherwise, α is transcendental over F.

Example 2.2.2. $\frac{c}{d} \in \mathbb{Q}$, $\sqrt{2}$ $\sqrt[2]{7} + 2i$ are algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$ (see Assignment 1) but e (Hermite, 1873) and π (Lindemann, 1882) are transcendental over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Let E/F be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$. Let $F[\alpha]$ denote the smallest subfield of E containing F and α. For $\alpha, \beta \in E$, we define $F[\alpha, \beta]$ and $F(\alpha, \beta)$ similarly.

Definition 2.2.3. If $F = F(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in E$, we say E is a simple extension of F.

Definition 2.2.4. Let R_1 and R_2 be two rings which contain a field F. A ring homomorphism $\Psi : R_1 \to R_2$ is said to be a F-homomorphism if $\Psi|_F = 1_F$.

Theorem 2. *Let E/F be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$. If α is transcendental over F, then*

$$F[\alpha] \cong F[x] \quad \textit{and} \quad F(\alpha) \cong F(x)$$

In particular, $F[\alpha] \neq F(\alpha)$.

Remark. In fact, if α is algebraic, indeed $F[\alpha] = F(\alpha)$.

Proof. Let $\Psi : F(x) \to F(\alpha)$ be the unique F-homomorphism defined by $\Psi(x) = \alpha$. Thus, for $f(x), g(x) \in F[x], g(x) \neq 0$,

$$\Psi\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f(\alpha)}{g(\alpha)} \in F(\alpha).$$

Notice that this is indeed a well-defined map as $g(x) \neq 0$ implies $g(\alpha) \neq 0$ since α is transcendental. Since $F(x)$ is a field and $\ker(\Psi)$ is an ideal of $F(x)$, we have $\ker(\Psi) = F(x)$ or trivial. This $\Psi = 0$ or Ψ is injective. Since $\Psi(x) = \alpha \neq 0$, Ψ must be injective. Also, since $F(x)$ is a field, $\operatorname{im}\Psi$ contains a field generated by F and α, in other words, $F(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{im}\Psi$. Thus, $\operatorname{im}\Psi = F(\alpha)$ and Ψ is surjective. It follows that Ψ is an isomorphism and we have

$$F[\alpha] \cong F[x] \quad \text{and} \quad F(\alpha) \cong F(x).$$

□

Theorem 3. *Let E/F be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$. If α is algebraic over F, there exists a unique monic irreducible polynomial $p(x) \in F[x]$ such that there exists a F-homomorphism*

$$\Psi : F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle \to F[\alpha] \quad \textit{with } \Psi(x) = \alpha$$

from which we conclude $F[\alpha] \cong F(\alpha)$.

Proof. Consider the unique F-homomorphism $\Psi : F[x] \to F[\alpha]$ defined by $\Psi(x) = \alpha$. Thus, for $f(x) \in F[x]$, we have $\Psi(f) = f(\alpha)$. Since $F[x]$ is a ring, $\operatorname{im}\Psi$ contains a ring generated by F and α, in other words, $F[\alpha] \subseteq \operatorname{im}\Psi$. Thus, $\operatorname{im}\Psi = F[\alpha]$.
Let

$$I = \ker\Psi = \{f(x) \in F[x] : f(\alpha) = 0\}.$$

Since α is algebraic, $I \neq \{0\}$. We have $F[x]/I \cong \operatorname{im}\Psi = F[\alpha] \subseteq F(\alpha)$, a subring of a field $F(\alpha)$. Thus, $F[x]/I$ is an integral domain so I is a prime ideal. It follows that $I = \langle p(x)\rangle$, where $p(x)$ is irreducible. If we assume $p(x)$ is monic, then it is unique. It follows that

$$F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle \cong F[\alpha].$$

Since $p(x)$ is irreducible, $F[x]/\langle p(x)\rangle$ is a field. So $F[\alpha]$ is a field. It follows that $F[\alpha] = F(\alpha)$. □

Definition 2.2.5. If α is algebraic over a field F, the unique monic polynomial irreducible polynomial $p(x)$ in Theorem 3 is called the minimal polynomial of α over F.

Remark. From the proof of Theorem 3, if $f(x) \in F[x]$ with $f(\alpha) = 0$, then $p(x) \mid f(x)$.

Theorem 4. *Let E/F be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$.*

1. *α is transcendental over F if and only if $[F(\alpha) : F]$ is ∞.*
2. *α is algebraic over F if and only if $[F(\alpha) : F] < \infty$.*

Moreover, if $p(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of α over F, we have $[F[\alpha] : F] = \deg(p)$ and $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots, \alpha^{\deg(p)-1}\}$ is a basis of $F(\alpha)/F$.

Proof. It suffices to prove the forward direction for each statement as the inverse direction implies the other statement.
(1) **Forwards**: From Theorem 2, if α is transcendental over F, then $F(x) \cong F(\alpha)$. In $F(x)$, the elements $\{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$ are linearly independent over F. Thus, $[F(\alpha) : F]$ is ∞.
(2) **Forwards**: From Theorem 3, if α is algebraic over F, ${}^{F[x]}\!/_{\langle p(x)\rangle} \cong F(x)$ with the map $x \mapsto \alpha$. Note that,

$$ {}^{F[x]}\!/_{\langle p(x)\rangle} \cong \{r(x) \in F[x] : \deg(r) < \deg(p)\} \qquad (\deg(0) = -\infty) $$

Thus, $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{\deg(p)-1}\}$ forms a basis for ${}^{F[x]}\!/_{\langle p(x)\rangle}$. It follows that $[F(\alpha) : F] = \deg(p)$ and $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{\deg(p)-1}\}$ is a basis of ${}^{F(\alpha)}\!/_{F}$. □

Theorem 5. *Let ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$ be a field extension. If $[E : F] < \infty$, then there exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in E$ such that*

$$ F \subsetneq F(\alpha_1) \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = E. $$

Proof. We proceed with induction on $[E : F]$. If $[E : F] = 1$, $E = F$. Suppose that $[E : F] > 1$ and the statement holds for any field extension ${}^{\widetilde{E}}\!/_{\widetilde{F}}$ with $[\widetilde{E} : \widetilde{F}] < [E : F]$. Let $\alpha_1 \in {}^{E}\!/_{F}$. By Theorem 1,

$$ [E : F] = [E : F(\alpha_1)][F(\alpha_1) : F]. $$

Since $[F(\alpha) : F] > 1$, we have $[E : F] > [E : F(\alpha_1)]$. By induction hypothesis, there exists $\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that

$$ F(\alpha_1) \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = E. $$

Thus, we have

$$ F \subsetneq F(\alpha_1) \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = E. $$

as desired. □

Definition 2.2.6. A field extension ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$ is <u>algebraic</u> if every $\alpha \in E$ is algebraic over F. Otherwise, it is <u>transcendental</u>.

Theorem 6. *Let ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$ be a field extension. If $[E : F] < \infty$, then ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$ is algebraic.*

Proof. Suppose $[E : F] = n$. For $\alpha \in E$, the elements $\{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^n\}$ are not linearly independent over F. Thus, there exists $c_i \in F$ for all $i = 0, \dots, n$, not all 0, such that

$$ \sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \alpha^i = 0 $$

Thus, α is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^{n} c_i \alpha^i \in F[x]$ so it is algebraic over F. □

Theorem 7. *Let ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$ be a field extension. Define,*

$$ L \coloneqq \{\alpha \in E : [F(\alpha) : F] < \infty\}. $$

Then L is an intermediate field of ${}^{E}\!/_{F}$.

Proof. If $\alpha, \beta \in L$ with $\beta \neq 0$, we need to show that $\alpha \pm \beta, \alpha\beta, \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \in L$. By definition of L, we have $[F(\alpha)] < \infty$ and $[F(\beta) : F] < \infty$. Consider the field $F(\alpha, \beta)$. Since the minimal polynomial of α over $F(\beta)$ divides the minimal polynomial of α over F (the minimal polynomial α over F, say $p(x) \in F[x]$, is also a polynomial over $F(\beta)$. In otherwords, $p(x) \in F(\beta)[x]$ such that $p(\alpha) = 0$), we have

$$[F(\alpha, \beta) : F(\beta)] \leq [F(\alpha) : F].$$

Combining this with Theorem 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned}[F(\alpha.\beta) : F] &= [F(\alpha, \beta) : F(\beta)][F(\beta) : F] \\ &\leq [F(\alpha) : F][F(\beta) : F]\end{aligned}$$

Since $\alpha + \beta \in F(\alpha, \beta)$, it follows that

$$[F(\alpha + \beta) : F(\beta)] \leq [F(\alpha, \beta) : F] < \infty,$$

so $a + b \in L$. We can follow a similar line to show $\alpha - \beta, \alpha\beta, \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \in L$. So L is a field. □

Definition 2.2.7. Let E/F be a field extension. The set,

$$L \coloneqq \{\alpha \in E : [F(\alpha) : F] < \infty\}$$

is called the algebraic closure of F in E.

Definition 2.2.8. A field F is algebraically closed if for any algebraic extension E/F, we have $E = F$.

Example 2.2.9. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, $\mathbb{C}$ is algebrraically closed.

2.3 Eisenstein's Criterion

Definition 2.3.1. Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. We say $f(x)$ is primitive if $a_n > 0$ and $\gcd(a_0, \ldots, a_n) = 1$.

Lemma 8. *Every non-zero polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ can be written uniquely as a product $F(x) = cf_0(x)$ where $c \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $f_0(x)$ is a primitive polynomial on $\mathbb{Z}[x]$. Moreover, $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ if and only if $c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If so, then $|c|$ is the greatest common divisor of the coefficients of $f(x)$ and the sign of c is the sign of the leading coefficient of $f(x)$.*

Theorem 9 (Gauss' Lemma for $\mathbb{Z}[x]$)**.** *Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be non-constant. If $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, then it is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.*

Example 2.3.2. The converse of Theorem 9 is not true. Consider the polynomial $2x + 8$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, but $2x + 8 = 2(x + 4)$ is reducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Remark. $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ if and only if either

1. $f(x)$ is a prime integer
2. $f(x)$ is a primitive polynomial which is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$

Theorem 10 (Eisenstein's Criterion for $\mathbb{Z}[x]$)**.** *Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and let p be a prime integer. Suppose that $p \nmid a_n$, $p \mid a_i$ for all $0 \leq i \leq (n-1)$ and $p^2 \nmid a_0$, then $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. In particular, if $f(x)$ is primitive, then it is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.*

Proof. Consider the map $f : \mathbb{Z}[x] \to \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ defined by

$$f(x) \mapsto \overline{f}(x) = \bar{a}_n x^n + \cdots + \bar{a}_1 x + \bar{a}_0$$

where $\bar{a}_i = a_i \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Since $p \nmid a_n$ and $p \mid a_i$ for all $0 \leq i(n-1)$, we have $\overline{f}(x) = \bar{a}_n x^n$ with $\bar{a}_n \neq 0$. If $f(x)$ is reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, then it can be factored in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ into polynomials of positive degree, say $f(x) = g(x)h(x)$ with $g(x), h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\deg(g), \deg(h) \geq 1$. It follows that $\bar{a}_n x^n = \bar{g}(x)\bar{h}(x)$ from which we see that $\bar{g}(x)$ and $h(x)$ have 0 constant terms in $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, as $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is a UFD. Since the constants of both $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ are divisible by p, this implies that the constant of $f(x)$ is divisible by p^2, which leads to a contradiction. So, $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ □

Example 2.3.3. The polynomial $2x^7 + 3x^4 + 6x^2 + 12$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ by applying Eisenstein's Criterion with $p = 3$.

Example 2.3.4. Consider the n^{th} cyclotomic polynomial defined by

$$\Phi_n(x) = \sum_{\substack{1 \leq k \leq n \\ \gcd(k,n)=1}} \left(x - e^{2i\pi \frac{k}{n}} \right).$$

If $n = p$ where p is a prime number, then $\xi_p = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{p}} = \cos\frac{2\pi}{p} + i \sin\frac{2\pi}{p}$ is a root of the p^{th} cyclotomic polynomial. Notice here, since p is co-prime with all $1 \leq k \leq p$, we have

$$\Phi_p(x) = x^{p-i} + x^{p-2} + \cdots + x + 1 = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1}$$

Eisenstein's Criterion does not imply the irreducibility of $\Phi_p(x)$ immediately; however, consider

$$\Phi_p(x+1) = \frac{(x+1)^p - 1}{x} = x^{p-1} + \binom{p}{1} x^{p-2} + \cdots + \binom{p}{p-2} x + \binom{p}{p-1} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

with the Binomial Theorem. Since p is prime, $p \nmid 1$, $p \mid \binom{p}{i}, \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ and $p^2 \nmid \binom{p}{p-1}$. Here, Eisenstein's Criterion gives that $\Phi_p(x+1)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, but if $\Phi_p(x) = g(x)f(x)$, then $\Phi_p(x+1) = g(x+1)h(x+1)$ gives a factorization for $\Phi_p(x+1)$, so $\Phi_p(x)$ must be irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ as well. Furthermore, since $\Phi_p(x)$ is primitive, $\Phi_p(x)$ is also irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.