

GALOIS THEORY

Solutions to Worksheet 7

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A 1. Long division (for example) of $f(X)$ by $X - \alpha$ yields:

$$f(X) = (X - \alpha) \left(X^2 + \alpha X + (-3 + \alpha^2) \right) \in L[X]$$

The quadratic formula for $g(X)$ needs the square root of

$$\Delta = b^2 - 4ac = \alpha^2 - 4(-3 + \alpha^2) = 12 - 3\alpha^2$$

which is explicitly shown to be a square in the hint.

[Note: if $\text{char}(K) = 3$, then $f(X) = X^3 + 1 = (X + 1)(X^2 - X + 1)$ is not irreducible.]

A 2. It is easy to see that (ii) implies (i) and here I focus on proving that (i) implies (ii).

The key thing to understand is this: **Claim** If $\text{char}(K) \neq 2$ then every extension $K \subset L$ of degree $[L : K] = 2$ is of the form $L = K(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in L$ such that $\alpha^2 \in K$. I am going to leave out the proof of the Claim (hint: quadratic formula) and I will use it to answer the question.

So assume (i), then by the tower law $[L : E] = 2$ and $[E : K] = 2$ and by the Claim $L = E(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in L$ with $\alpha^2 \in E$. Also $E = K(\beta)$ where $\beta^2 \in K$. Hence we can write $\alpha^2 = u + v\beta$ with $u, v \in K$, so

$$(\alpha^2 - u)^2 = v^2\beta^2 \in K$$

hence α is a root of the polynomial

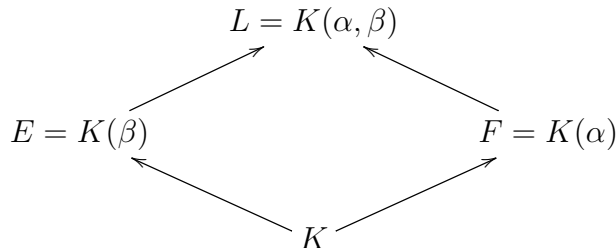
$$f(X) = (X^2 - u)^2 - v^2\beta^2 = X^4 - 2uX^2 + (u^2 - v^2\beta^2) \in K[X]$$

which is of the required form. If $f(X) \in K[X]$ is irreducible then we are done.

So what if $f(X)$ is not irreducible? This is *really awkward!* In that case by the tower law $[K(\alpha) : K] = 2$ and the minimal polynomial of α over K is a quadratic polynomial

$$X^2 + cX + d \in K[X]$$

and necessarily $c = 0$, otherwise $\alpha = \frac{-\alpha^2 - d}{c} \in E$, a contradiction. Hence in fact $\alpha^2 \in K$ and we have extensions:



where $\beta^2 = b \in K$ and $\alpha^2 = a \in K$ BUT also, clearly, $\alpha \notin K(\beta)$ and $\beta \notin K(\alpha)$.

Remark there is a third field, $G = K(\alpha\beta)$, *distinct* from E, F , and also of degree $[G : K] = 2$. Note also that $(\alpha\beta)^2 = ab \in K$. (I leave all this to you to sort out.)

I now want to work with the element $\alpha + \beta \in L$: I claim that it has degree 4 over K , and then $L = K(\alpha + \beta)$ and, since

$$(\alpha + \beta)^2 = a + b + 2\alpha\beta \in G, \tag{1}$$

the argument above shows that the minimal polynomial of $\alpha + \beta$ has the required form.

Suppose for a contradiction that $\alpha + \beta$ satisfies a quadratic polynomial

$$X^2 + AX + B \in K[X]$$

If $A = 0$ then we have that $(\alpha + \beta)^2 = -B \in K$, and this implies (by Equation 1) that $\alpha\beta \in K$, a contradiction. If $A \neq 0$ then $\alpha + \beta = \frac{-(\alpha + \beta)^2 - B}{A} \in G$ (Equation 1 again) and the polynomial

$$g(X) = (X - \alpha)(X - \beta) = X^2 - (\alpha + \beta)X + \alpha\beta$$

is in $G[X]$. This polynomial is irreducible, otherwise its roots α, β already belong to G , so $L = G$ and we get a contradiction in too many ways (for instance $[L : K] = [G : K] = 2$). But then $g(X)$ equals $X^2 - a$, the minimal polynomial of α over $K[X]$, and this then leads to a contradiction in too many ways (for instance it implies that $\alpha = -\beta$).

A 3. (i) $a > 1$ so a has a prime divisor p ; now use Eisenstein. Or use uniqueness of factorization to prove $\sqrt{a} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Next, if $\sqrt{b} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$ then write $\sqrt{b} = x + y\sqrt{a}$; square, and use the fact that \sqrt{a} is irrational to deduce that $2xy = 0$. Hence either $y = 0$ (contradiction, as $\sqrt{b} \notin \mathbb{Q}$) or $x = 0$ (contradiction, as we can write $ab = cd^2$ with c squarefree, and $a \neq b$ so $c \neq 1$, and again $\sqrt{c} \notin \mathbb{Q}$).

(ii) $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a}, \sqrt{b})$ and the preceding part, plus the tower law, shows that $[F : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$. Now F is a splitting field in characteristic zero, so it's finite, normal and separable. By the fundamental theorem, the Galois group G of $\mathbb{Q} \subset F$ must be a finite group of order 4, so it's either C_4 or $C_2 \times C_2$. There are lots of ways of seeing that it is actually $C_2 \times C_2$. Here are two that spring to mind: firstly, C_4 only has one subgroup of order 2, whereas F has at least two subfields of degree 2 over \mathbb{Q} , namely $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{b})$, so by the correspondence in the fundamental theorem, C_4 is ruled out. And another way: if we set $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$ then F/K is normal and separable and $[F : K] = 2$, so $K \subset F$ is cyclic of order 2 by the fundamental theorem, and the Galois group permutes the roots of $X^2 - b$. We deduce that there must be an element of this Galois group, and thus a field automorphism g_a of F , that sends $+\sqrt{b}$ to $-\sqrt{b}$ and fixes \sqrt{a} (as it fixes K). Similarly there's an automorphism g_b of F that sends $+\sqrt{a}$ to $-\sqrt{a}$ and fixes \sqrt{b} . This gives us two elements of order 2 in G , which must then be $C_2 \times C_2$. Of course their product, $g_a g_b$, sends \sqrt{a} to $-\sqrt{a}$ and \sqrt{b} to $-\sqrt{b}$, so it fixes \sqrt{ab} and is the third non-trivial element of G .

The subgroups of $C_2 \times C_2$ are: the subgroup of order 1 (corresponding to F), the group itself, of order 4 (corresponding to \mathbb{Q}) (both of these because the Galois correspondence is order-reversing, so i.e. sends the biggest things to the smallest things and vice-versa), and

then there are three subgroups of order 2, corresponding to $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{b})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{ab})$. One way to see this for sure is, for example, that g_a fixes \sqrt{a} , so the subfield corresponding to $\langle g_a \rangle$ definitely contains \sqrt{a} , but has degree 2 over \mathbb{Q} by the tower law and so must be $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$. Arguing like this will show everything rigorously.

Finally, all of the subfields are normal over \mathbb{Q} , because all subgroups of the Galois group are normal (as it's abelian).

(iii) Every element of G sends $\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b}$ to something else! (for example g_a sends it to $\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b}$). So the subgroup of G corresponding to $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b})$ must be the identity, which corresponds to F , and so $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b})$.

(iv) If $\sqrt{r} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{q})$ then $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{r})$ must be one of the quadratic subfields of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{q})$, and hence it must be either $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{q})$ or $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{pq})$ by part (ii). But by part (i) \sqrt{r} is not in any of these fields!

(v) $[F : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{q})]$ must be 2 (as it isn't 1) and now use the tower law. To determine the Galois group G , note first that any element of the G will be determined by what it does to \sqrt{p} , \sqrt{q} and \sqrt{r} , and of course for all $n \in \mathbb{Q}$ \sqrt{n} must be sent to $\pm\sqrt{n}$, so there are at most eight possibilities for G , corresponding to the $8 = 2^3$ choices we have for the signs. However we know the size of G is eight, so all eight possibilities must occur and the group must be $C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$.

Let me stress here, for want of a better place, that you *cannot* just say “clearly \sqrt{p} , \sqrt{q} and \sqrt{r} are “independent” so we can move them around as we please” – one really has to come up with some sort of an argument to prove that there really is a field automorphism of F sending, for example, \sqrt{p} to $-\sqrt{p}$, \sqrt{q} to $+\sqrt{q}$ and \sqrt{r} to $-\sqrt{r}$. You can build it explicitly from explicit elements you can write down in the Galois group using degree 4 subfields, or you can get it via the counting argument I just explained, but you *can't* just say “it's obvious” because Galois theory is offering you precisely the framework to make the arguments rigorous and I don't think it is obvious without this framework.

(vi) Think of the Galois group as a 3-dimensional vector space over the field with two elements. There are seven 1-dimensional subspaces (each cyclic of order 2 and generated by the seven non-trivial elements), and there are also seven 2-dimensional subspaces, by arguing for example on the dual vector space – or by arguing that any subgroup of order 4 of $C_2 \times C_2 \times C_2$ is the kernel of a group homomorphism to C_2 and such a homomorphism is determined by where the three generators go; there are eight choices, one of which gives the trivial homomorphism and the other seven of which give order 4 subgroups.

Hence other than F and \mathbb{Q} there are 14 fields; seven have degree 2 and seven have degree 4. The degree 2 ones are $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p^a q^b r^c})$ as a, b, c each run through 0 and 1, but not all zero. The degree 4 ones are $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p^a q^b r^c}, \sqrt{p^d q^e r^f})$ as $(a, b, c), (d, e, f)$ run through bases of the seven 2-dimensional subspaces of the Galois group considered as a vector space of dimension 3 over the field with 2 elements.

(vii) We know all seven non-trivial elements of the Galois group, and none of them fix $\sqrt{p} + \sqrt{q} + \sqrt{r}$ (because if you think of it as a real number, they all send it to something strictly smaller), so the subgroup corresponding to $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p} + \sqrt{q} + \sqrt{r})$ is trivial and we're home.

(viii) Induction and the argument in (v) gives the degree; considering possibilities of signs gives that the Galois group is what you think it is, acting how you think it acts, and the last

part again follows by observing that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1} + \sqrt{p_2} + \cdots + \sqrt{p_n})$ corresponds to the trivial subgroup.

A 4. (i) We know $X^p - 1 = (X - 1)(1 + X + X^2 + \cdots + X^{p-1})$, and $f(X) = 1 + X + X^2 + \cdots + X^{p-1}$ is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} (by Eisenstein after a coordinate change). Hence if $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/p}$ then $f(X)$ must be the min poly of ζ . Note that the roots of $p(X)$ are just the roots of $X^p - 1$ other than $X = 1$, so they're ζ^j for $1 \leq j \leq p - 1$. Moreover if $F = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ then $[F : \mathbb{Q}] = \deg(f) = p - 1$, and K contains ζ^j for all j , so $X^p - 1$ splits completely in K . Hence K is the splitting field of $X^p - 1$ and it has degree $p - 1$.

Now $\mathbb{Q} \subset F$ is finite, normal and separable, so the fundamental theorem applies, so we know that the Galois group G will have size $p - 1$. If $\tau \in G$ then, because $F = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$, τ is determined by $\tau(\zeta)$, which is a root of $\tau(f) = f$, so is ζ^j for some $1 \leq j \leq p - 1$. It's perhaps not immediately clear that, given j , some field automorphism τ of F sending ζ to ζ^j will exist – but it has to exist because we know there are $p - 1$ field automorphisms. So the elements of the Galois group can be called τ_j for $1 \leq j \leq p - 1$. The remaining question is what this group is. We can figure out the group law thus: $\tau_i \circ \tau_j$ – where does this send ζ ? Well $\tau_j(\zeta) = \zeta^j$, and $\tau_i(\zeta) = \zeta^i$ so $\tau_i(\zeta^j) = \zeta^{ij}$ as τ_i is a field homomorphism. Note finally that ζ^{ij} only depends on $ij \pmod p$, as $\zeta^p = 1$. So if we identify G with $\{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$ then the group law is just “multiplication mod p ”, and we see $G = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

(I write $=$ because our isomorphism — which seemed to depend on a choice of ζ , our p th root of unity — is in fact independent of that choice, so G is *canonically* isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. The notation in mathematics for a canonical isomorphism is “ $=$ ”, so we can write $G = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ in this situation.) This concludes part (i).

For Part (ii), you need to know that, in fact, $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times \cong C_{p-1}$ is always a cyclic group¹ and hence it has a unique subgroup of index 2: the fixed field of that subgroup is the field K that you are looking for.

Part (iii) is really easy.

For Part (iv): first, when $p = 3$, $K = F$ and hence $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$.

When $p = 5$, I claim that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$. Indeed from part (i) $G = (\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^\times = \{1, 2, -2, -1\}$. It is clear that $H = \{1, -1\} \subset G$ has index 2 and that $K = H^*$ in the notation of the Galois correspondence. Writing as in Part (i) $\zeta = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{5}}$, it is clear that

$$\alpha = \zeta + \frac{1}{\zeta} \in H^*$$

and it is reasonable to guess $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. It is easy to finish from here:

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

hence $\alpha = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$ and from this we conclude that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$.

Part (v). For p general, writing as above $\zeta = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}$, and denoting by $H \leq (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ the unique subgroup of index 2, we want to evaluate something like

$$\sum_{h \in H} h(\zeta)$$

¹This is a non-completely trivial fact. In general, every finite subgroup of the multiplicative group of a field is cyclic. I don't normally like to prove this result — sometimes I give it as a worksheet question — but I encourage you to look it up.

because this thing being the average over all of H is manifestly H -invariant. The next observation is that H is the image of the “squaring homomorphism”

$$(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times \ni k \mapsto k^2 \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

so we are led to evaluating:

$$\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\frac{p-1}{2}} e^{\frac{2\pi i k^2}{p}}$$

You can find this thing in number theory books under the name of “quadratic Gauss sum” and the upshot is

$$K = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}) & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \\ \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}) & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

(The exact evaluation of the Gauss sum is a bit tricky, but you may be able to evaluate it up to sign, and this is enough to determine K . This, however, is a number theory question, not a Galois theory question.)

A 5. (a) Well $z^3 = \omega^3 \alpha^3 = 1 \times 2 = 2$ so z is a root of $X^3 - 2 = 0$, which is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} because it has no root in \mathbb{Q} , so $X^3 - 2$ is the min poly of z , and by what we did in class this means $[\mathbb{Q}(z) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$. Although we don’t need it, we can note that in fact $\mathbb{Q}(z)$ is isomorphic to, but not equal to, $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, as an abstract field.

(b) We know $\omega^3 = 1$ but $\omega \neq 1$ so ω is a root of $(X^3 - 1)/(X - 1) = X^2 + X + 1$. This polynomial is irreducible as it has no rational (because no real) roots, so $[\mathbb{Q}(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$. Note also while we’re here that solving the quadratic gives $\omega = \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$ (plus sign because the imaginary part of ω is positive; the other root is ω^2).

(c) We have $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Furthermore $\bar{\omega}$ is another cube root of 1 so it must be ω^2 . Hence $\bar{z} = \bar{\omega}\bar{\alpha} = \omega^2\alpha = \omega z$. In particular if $\bar{z} \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$ then $\omega = \bar{z}/z \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$. This means $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(z)$, and by the first two parts and the tower law we deduce $[\mathbb{Q}(z) : \mathbb{Q}(\omega)] = \frac{3}{2}$, which is nonsense because the dimension of a (finite-dimensional) vector space is an integer.

(d) If $x \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$ then $\bar{z} = -z + 2x \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$, contradiction. So x is not in. If $i \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$ then $\mathbb{Q}(i) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(z)$ and this contradicts the tower law like in part(c). Finally because the imaginary part of ω is $\sqrt{3}/2$ we see $y = \alpha\sqrt{3}/2$, so if $y \in \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ then $y^3 = 3\alpha^3/8\sqrt{3} = 3/4\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$, implying $\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}(z)$ which again contradicts the tower law.

A 6. You really have to do it yourself if you want to understand what is going on. Let me tell you what is going on. Let $\psi: \mathbb{Z}[y_1, \dots, y_n] \rightarrow R = \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{\mathfrak{S}_n}$ be the homomorphism defined in (c); that is, $\psi(y_i)$ is the i^{th} elementary symmetric polynomial $\sigma_i(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

(a, b) The largest monomial in σ_i is $x_1 \cdots x_i$; therefore

$$\psi(y_1^{c_1} \cdots y_n^{c_n}) = x_1^{c_1 + \cdots + c_n} x_2^{c_2 + \cdots + c_n} \cdots x_n^{c_n} + \text{l.o.t.}$$

where “l.o.t.” stands for (strictly) *lower order terms*. To prove the surjectivity of ψ , let $f = f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in R$ be a symmetric polynomial; f has a highest monomial $x_1^{k_1} \cdots x_n^{k_n}$.

Because f is symmetric, $k_1 \geq k_2 \geq \dots \geq k_n$. Writing $k_i - k_{i+1} = c_i$, we have that $\psi(y_1^{c_1} \dots y_n^{c_n})$ and f have the same highest monomial; therefore for some nonzero constant λ

$$f = \psi(\lambda y_1^{c_1} \dots y_n^{c_n}) + \text{l.o.t.}$$

where the lower order term is also a symmetric polynomial and we may assume by induction that it is in the image of ψ . Thus f also is in the image of ψ .

(c) To prove that ψ is injective we apply the same method to show that $\text{Ker}(\psi) = (0)$. The hint suggests to work with a particular ordering on the monomials in $\mathbb{Z}[y_1, \dots, y_n]$ that is defined there. The important property, which I leave to you to verify is: If $y_1^{c_1} \dots y_n^{c_n} > y_1^{c'_1} \dots y_n^{c'_n}$, then the leading monomial of $\psi(y_1^{c_1} \dots y_n^{c_n})$ (measured with the good old ordering of monomials in x_1, \dots, x_n) is strictly larger than the leading monomial of $\psi(y_1^{c'_1} \dots y_n^{c'_n})$. Suppose now that a polynomial $f(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ is in the kernel of ψ . Assume that $f \neq 0$, then f has a monomial of highest order and we can write (for some nonzero constant λ):

$$f = \lambda y_1^{c_1} \dots y_n^{c_n} + \text{l.o.t.}$$

Then by what we just said

$$\psi(f) = \lambda x_1^{c_1 + \dots + c_n} x_2^{c_2 + \dots + c_n} \dots x_n^{c_n} + \text{l.o.t.}$$

and this, if you think about it, means that $\psi(f) \neq 0$. We have shown that $f \neq 0$ implies $\psi(f) \neq 0$.