## NAP 2019, MODULE II, HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT #1

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• Problem 4.1 p. 42.

Assume [L : K] is prime. If E is an extension of K contained in L, then the tower law yields [L : K] = [L : E][E : K], hence — either [L : E] = 1, which means E = L, — or else [E : K] = 1, which means E = K. Hence the intermediate fields are only L and K.

• Problem 4.2 p. 45.

If one of the two extensions  $K_1 : K, K_2 : K$  is not finite, then  $K(K_1, K_2) : K$  is not a finite extension, and the result is true.

Assume now that both  $K_1 : K$  and  $K_2 : K$  are finite. In this case  $K(K_1, K_2) : K$  is a finite extension. Replacing L by  $K(K_1, K_2)$ , there is no loss of generality to assume that L : K is a finite extension, hence an algebraic extension.

(a) To start with, let us show that if L: K is an algebraic extension and A a subset of L which is a ring and a K-vector space, then A is a subfield of L. We need to prove that any nonzero element t in A has its inverse 1/t in A. By assumption t is algebraic over K. Let  $a_0 + a_1t + \cdots + a_nt^n = 0$  be a polynomial relation for t with  $a_j \in K$  and  $a_0 \neq 0$ . Then

$$t^{-1} = -(a_1/a_0) - (a_2/a_0)t - \dots - (a_n/a_0)t^{n-1}$$

and the assumptions imply that the right hand side is in A.

(b) Consider the subset A of L of finite sums  $x_1y_1 + \cdots + x_my_m$  where  $x_i \in K_1$  and  $y_i \in K_2$ .

The sum and the product of two elements in A is again in A, hence A is a subring of L.

The product of an element of A by an element of K is in A, hence A is a subspace of the K-vector space L.

(c) Let  $e_1, \ldots, e_d$  be a basis of  $K_1$  as a K-vector space and  $f_1, \ldots, f_m$  a basis of  $K_2$  as a K-vector space. Then  $d = [K_1 : K], m = [K_2 : K]$  and any element in A is a finite sum of  $a_{ij}e_if_j$ , hence  $\{e_if_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq d, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$  is a generating subset of A as a K-vector space. This shows that the dimension of A over K is  $\leq [K_1 : K][K_2 : K]$ .

(d) Using (a), it follows that the field  $K(K_1, K_2)$  is A, hence this field is an extension of K of degree  $\leq [K_1 : K][K_2 : K]$ .

• Problem 4.3 p. 45.

Let  $F(x) = \det(xI - T_{\alpha})$  be the characteristic polynomial of  $T_{\alpha}$ . By the Cayley–Hamilton Theorem,  $F(T_{\alpha}) = 0$ . Since  $T_{\alpha}^m = T_{\alpha}^m$  is the multiplication by  $\alpha^m$ , the endomorphism  $F(T_{\alpha})$  of  $K(\alpha)$  is the multiplication by  $F(\alpha)$ . Hence  $F(\alpha) = 0$ . Now F(x) is a monic polynomial in K[x] of degree  $[K(\alpha) : K]$ . Hence it is the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over K.

Here is another proof. Let  $f(x) = x^d + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over K. A basis of  $K(\alpha)$  over K is  $(1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{d-1})$ . For  $0 \leq j < d-1$ , we have  $T_{\alpha}(\alpha^j) = \alpha^{j+1}$ , while for j = d-1 we have

$$T_{\alpha}(\alpha^{d-1}) = \alpha^{d} = -a_0 - a_1 \alpha - \dots - a_{d-1} \alpha^{d-1}.$$

This means that in this basis, the matrix of  $T_{\alpha}$  is

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 & -a_2 & \cdots & -a_{d-2} & -a_{d-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

The characteristic polynomial of this matrix is f(x).

• Problem 4.4 p. 45.

A polynomial of degree 3 is irreducible over a field K if and only if it has no root in  $K^1$ .

The roots p/q in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , with gcd(x, y) = 1, of a polynomial

$$a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

with coefficients  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a_0 a_d \neq 0$ , have the property that  $a_0$  divides p and  $a_d$  divides q. In particular when  $a_0 = \pm 1$  and  $a_d = \pm 1$  the only possible roots are 1 and -1. Here neither 1 not -1 is root of  $x^3 + 3x + 1$ , hence this polynomial is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

We have  $\alpha^3 = -3\alpha - 1$ ,  $\alpha^{-1} = -\alpha^2 - 3$ .

There are several ways of finding the answer for  $(1 + \alpha)^{-1}$ , namely

$$(1+\alpha)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3}\alpha^2 - \frac{1}{3}\alpha + \frac{4}{3}$$

One solution is to write

$$(1+\alpha)^{-1} = a_2\alpha^2 + a_1\alpha + a_0,$$

namely  $(a_2\alpha^2 + a_1\alpha + a_0)(1 + \alpha) = 1$ , to develop using  $\alpha^3 = -3\alpha - 1$  and to solve the system of three equations in three unknowns

$$\begin{cases} a_1 + a_2 &= 0, \\ a_0 + a_1 - 3a_2 &= 0, \\ a_0 &- a_2 &= 1. \end{cases}$$

Another solution is to write the Euclidean division in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$  of the polynomial  $x^3 + 3x + 1$  by x + 1:

$$x^{3} + 3x + 1 = (x+1)(x^{2} - x + 4) - 3$$

and to evaluate at  $x = \alpha$ :

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

• Problem 4.5 p. 45.

Let j be a complex root of  $x^2 + x + 1$  (notice that  $j^3 = 1$  and  $j \neq 1$ ), let  $\alpha = j + \sqrt[3]{2}$ ,  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $L = \mathbb{Q}(j)$ ,  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ . We have  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ ,  $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ . It follows that  $L(j) = E(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  is the field  $\mathbb{Q}(E, L)$ . From Problem 4.2 we deduce that it has degree  $\leq 6$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Since it contains a subfield of degree 2 and a subfield of degree 3 over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , it has degree 6 over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Notice that  $[L(\alpha) : L] = 2$  and [L : K] = 3 are relatively prime.

The minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over L is

$$(x-j)^3 - 2 = x^3 - jx^2 + j^2x - 3$$

(with  $j^2 = -j - 1$ ), its coefficients are not in K.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is true also for polynomials of degree 2, but not for polynomials of higher degree.

• Problem 4.6 p. 45.

Since  $[L:K] \neq 1$ , we have  $L \neq K$ . Let  $\alpha \in L \setminus K$ . The field  $K(\alpha)$  is a subfield of L containing K, it is not K, hence it is L (Problem 4.1).

• Problem 4.7 p. 47.

Since K is countable, the set of polynomials with coefficients in K is also countable, hence the set of irreducible polynomials in K[x] is countable, and each of them has only finitely many roots. Any element in L is a root of an irreducible polynomial with coefficients in K, hence L is countable.

Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, the set  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$  of algebraic numbers is also countable. Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is not countable, the set of transcendental numbers is not countable. In particular it is not empty.

• Problem 4.8 p. 47.

(a) Write  $f(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + a_0$  with  $d \ge 1$ ,  $a_i \in K$  and  $a_d \ne 0$ . Since  $\alpha$  is transcendental, it makes sense to say that the degree of  $f(\alpha)$  in  $\alpha$  is d. For  $m \ge 1$  the degree in  $\alpha$  of  $f(\alpha)^m$  is md. Therefore the elements  $1, f(\alpha), f(\alpha)^2, \dots, f(\alpha)^m, \dots$  are linearly independent (they have distinct degrees). This means that  $f(\alpha)$  is transcendental over K.

*Remark.* This shows that when  $\alpha$  is transcendental over K, the only elements in  $K[\alpha]$  which are algebraic over K are the elements in K. For solving Problem 4.10 below, we will need to prove more: the only elements in  $K(\alpha)$  which are algebraic over K are the elements in K.

(b) If  $\beta$  is algebraic over K, for  $f \in K[x]$  we have  $f(\beta) \in K(\beta)$ , and  $K(\beta)$  is an algebraic extension of K, therefore in this case  $f(\beta)$  is algebraic over K. Hence if  $f(\beta)$  is transcendental over K then  $\beta$  is transcendental over K.

• Problem 4.9 p. 48.

The answer is no in general. For instance, since the set of  $2^t = e^{t \log 2}$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , t transcendental, is not countable, it contains transcendental numbers, and then the numbers  $a = 2^t$  and b = 1/t are both transcendental with  $a^b = 2$  algebraic.

Also  $a^b$  may be transcendental: fix a transcendental number a; the set of  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a^c$  algebraic is countable, hence the set of  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a^b$  transcendental is not countable, therefore it contains transcendental elements.

*Remark.* A theorem of transcendental number theory (Gel'fond – Schneider, 1934) states that if a and b are algebraic with  $a \neq 0$ ,  $b \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , and  $\log a \neq 0$ , then  $a^b = e^{b \log a}$  is transcendental. For instance  $2^{\sqrt{2}}$  is transcendental, also  $e^{\pi} = (-1)^{-i}$  is transcendental.

• Problem 4.10 p. 48.

If  $K(\alpha, \beta)$  is a simple extension of K, it can be written  $K(\gamma)$  for some  $\gamma \in K(\alpha, \beta)$ . Since  $K(\alpha, \beta)$  is not an algebraic extension of K (it contains the transcendental element  $\beta$ ), it follows that  $\gamma$  is transcendental over K.

Write  $\alpha = P(\gamma)/Q(\gamma)$ . Since  $\gamma$  is root of the polynomial  $P(x) - \alpha Q(x)$ , it is algebraic over  $K(\alpha)$  and the extension  $K(\gamma) : K(\alpha)$  is algebraic. From Theorem 4.7 we deduce that  $K(\alpha) : K$  is not an algebraic extension, hence  $\alpha$  is transcendental over K.

This means that the only elements in a simple transcendental extension  $K(\gamma)$ : K which are algebraic over K are the elements in K. See also exercises 4.8 and 5.5.

## • Problem 4.11 p. 48.

Take L = K(x) (the field of rational fractions in one variable over K) and  $\tau$  the monomorphism which maps x to  $x^2$ :

$$\tau\left(\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}\right) = \frac{P(x^2)}{Q(x^2)}$$

The image of  $\tau$  is the subfield  $K(x^2)$ , and L is a quadratic extension of  $K(x^2)$ .

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