

A Harvard Sampler

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I crashed a few math classes at Harvard on February 21, 2014. Here are notes from the classes.

1 MATH 123: Algebra II

In this lecture we will make two assumptions.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{char}(F) &= 0 \\ [K : F] &< \infty\end{aligned}$$

Recall that $\text{char}(F) = 0$ means that the sum of n 1's is always nonzero. Also, we deal with finite extensions. We will be using the primitive element theorem a lot. There is a Galois theory of infinite extensions, but not covered here.

Some notes about the notation $F(\cdot)$. If $\alpha \in K$ algebraic over F , K is an extension of F , then $F(\alpha)$ is the subfield of K generated by F . On the other hand, $F(x)$ is the field of rational functions (ratios of polynomials) of x if x is not *a priori* something in a large field F .

1.1 Review

Definition 1.1. A splitting field of a polynomial $p(X)$ over a field F is a field extension K of F over which p factors into linear factors

$$p(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{\deg(p)} (X - a_i) \in K[X]$$

and such that the roots a_i generate K over F .

From last lecture we had the following.

Theorem 1.2 (Splitting Theorem). *Let $F \hookrightarrow K$ and suppose $\exists f \in F[x]$ splitting completely over K as*

$$f(x) = \prod (x - \alpha_i).$$

If $K = F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$, then K splits over many polynomials: if $g \in F[x]$ is any irreducible polynomial with a root in K , then g splits completely in K .

Here the roots of g may not necessarily generate K .

Here are some basic facts.

- Given F , $f \in F[x]$, there exists a splitting field (should be called a splitting extension) $F \hookrightarrow K$. That is, splitting fields exist for any polynomial. You just repeatedly adjoin.

- Take $F \hookrightarrow L \hookrightarrow K$. If K is a splitting field over F , then it is a splitting field F . This is obvious.
- Any finite $F \hookrightarrow K$ is contained in a splitting field. Indeed, we may put $K = F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$, and take consider

$$g = \prod g_i$$

where g_i is the minimal polynomial of the α_i over F . Then $K \hookrightarrow L$ is a splitting field for g in F .

At this point the professor makes a remark about “clearly”. He mentions that he had a sobering experience in one of his manuscripts where he noticed a false statement; it was preceded by the word “clearly”. He then proceeded to search for all other instances of the word “clearly” and found a half-dozen other errors.

1.2 Galois Theory

The basic idea of Galois theory: algebraically, it’s impossible to distinguish between the different roots of a polynomial in a splitting field.

Explicitly, let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the roots of an irreducible polynomial. Consider $K = F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$, and look at its subfields $F(\alpha_1), F(\alpha_2), \dots, F(\alpha_n)$ each themselves an extensions of F . The point is that each of these subfields are isomorphic. Now we want to use automorphisms using the irreducibility.

Definition 1.3. The *Galois group* $G(K/F)$ is precisely the group of automorphisms of (K/F) ; that is, it is the set of maps

$$\{\varphi : K \rightarrow K \text{ such that } \varphi|_F \text{ is the identity}\}$$

1.3 Main Theorem

Theorem 1.4. *For any finite extension $F \hookrightarrow K$, then*

$$\#G(K/F) \leq [K : F].$$

In fact, the order of the Galois group $G(K/F)$ will divide the degree of the extension $[K : F]$.

Moreover, equality holds if and only if K is a splitting field over F .

Henceforth, “splitting fields” will also be known as “Galois extensions”. The above theorem is used to characterize Galois extensions! Note that we are being careful to take $\text{char } F = 0$! These two notions become different if F has characteristic p .

Proof. Say $F \hookrightarrow K$ is a splitting field (hence finite); the other case is pretty similar.

Let α be a generator (primitive element) of K that is, $K = F(\alpha)$. Let f be the minimal polynomial (hence irreducible); the splitting theorem then implies

$$f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \alpha_i) \in K[x].$$

where of course $\alpha \in \{\alpha_i\}$.

Of course each of the α_i is degree n . That means $F(\alpha_i)$ is a degree n extension of K contained in K ; hence equal to K . The whole point is that

$$K = F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \cong F(\alpha_1) \cong \dots \cong F(\alpha_n).$$

Of course these are also isomorphic to $F[x]/(f)$ by $\alpha_i \mapsto x$. The proof is simply that

$$K = F(\alpha_i) \cong F[x]/(f) \cong F(\alpha_j) = K$$

for all i, j . (The isomorphisms are $x \mapsto \alpha_i$ and $x \mapsto \alpha_j$).

Note that since $K = F(\alpha_i)$, any automorphism of K/F is determined by where it sends any one of the α_i .¹ It has no stabilizers – if an automorphism fixes any α_i , then it is the identity.² Hence $G(K/F) \hookrightarrow S_n$ has an image which is a simply transitive subgroup. Hence $\#G = n = [K : F]$.

What happens if we don't assume $F \hookrightarrow K$ is a splitting extension? (Reversing the assumption at the beginning of the proof.) Let $F \hookrightarrow K$ be any finite extension and put $n = [K : F]$. Let $\alpha \in K$ be a primitive element and set $K = F(\alpha)$, and let $f(x) \in F[x]$ be the irreducible polynomial of α over F . We are no longer sure that f splits completely over F . But if we let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$ be the roots that do live in K , then once again we see that $K = F(\alpha_1) = \dots = F(\alpha_k)$. Once again we find that $G(K/F) \hookrightarrow S_k$ and is simply transitive, so $\#G(K, F) = k$. Now just observe $k \leq n$. \square

Again note that we've been using the primitive element theorem; that is, there exists a primitive element. That's why we need $\text{char}(F) = 0$.

1.4 Fixed points of Galois groups

Given a Galois extension K over F , let $G = G(K/F)$. By definition, all automorphisms in G fix F .

Proposition 1.5. *Any element of $\alpha \in K$ fixed by all automorphisms in G is in F . In other words, F is the set of fixed points of K under G .*

We write this as $F = K^G$. This means we can recover F from K and G !

Let's try doing this the other way around!

Theorem 1.6. *Let H be any finite group, and K is any field. Suppose H acts on K , with $H \hookrightarrow \text{Aut}(K)$. Set $F = K^H$. Then K/F is Galois, with splitting field $G(K/F) = H$.*

This lets us find any intermediate extensions! The end.

2 MATH 137: Algebraic Geometry

Definition 2.1. The radical \sqrt{I} of an ideal is defined by

$$\{x : \exists n : x^n \in I\}.$$

In what follows we will assume S is a polynomial ring. We will be interested in varieties $V(I)$, where I is an ideal in S . This can be interpreted as the set of points in space which vanish on all the polynomials in the ideal.

¹It fixes all the things in F by definition. Because it carries f to f , it carries a root of f to a root of f .

²If α_3 is fixed by the automorphism, then it fixes everything in K , since $K = F(\alpha_3)$.

2.1 Primary Ideal

Definition 2.2. Recall that I an ideal of any ring S is *primary* if $fg \in I$ implies either $f \in I$ or $g^m \in I$ for some m . Equivalently, if $xy \in I$, then $x \in I$, $y \in I$, or $x, y \in \sqrt{I}$.

This is a refinement of *prime* ideal. It's slightly weaker.

Roughly, an ideal is primary if it specifies some higher order vanishing conditions “uniformly” on $V(I)$.

Throughout this lecture $S = k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a polynomial ring we care about.

Example 2.3. Let $f(x, y)$ be a nonzero irreducible polynomial and define

$$I = \langle f(x, y), z^2 \rangle.$$

This ideal is primary (homework), but we claim that $I \cap \langle z \rangle$ is not primary.

Proposition 2.4. Every ideal has a primary decomposition – it is an intersection of of primary ideals.

Say I is *irreducible* if $I = I_1 \cap I_2$ implies that either $I_1 = I$ or $I_2 = I$.

Claim 2.5. Let I be irreducible. Then it's primary.

Proof. Consider the quotient (colon ideal) chain

$$I : g \subseteq I : g^2 \subseteq \dots$$

This is an ascending chain contained within I , so it eventually stabilizes. That means $I : g^N = I : g^{N+1}$ for some N .

Now we claim that

$$(I + \langle g^N \rangle) \cap (I + \langle f \rangle) = I.$$

If so, then irreducibility will force $I + \langle g^N \rangle = I$, and hence $g^N \in I$.

Take $h = a + bg^N = c + df$, where $a, c \in I$ and $b, d \in S$. Once we show $h \in I$ we're done. Product by g gives

$$hg = ag + bg^{N+1} = cg + dfg.$$

Since $fg \in I \Rightarrow dfg \in I$. Now $ag, cg \in I$ gives $bg^{N+1} \in I$. Now use the ascending chain condition to get $b \in I : g^{N+1} = I : g^N$. \square

Proof. By standard argument, we can write $I = \bigcap Q_i$ for Q_i irreducible, since otherwise we can just get an infinite chain. Now this gives the proposition. \square

2.2 Minimal decompositions

Definition 2.6. A primary decomposition $I = \bigcap Q_i$ is minimal/irredundant if

- (a) One cannot delete any of the Q_i 's and get the same result
- (b) All the radicals $\sqrt{Q_i}$ are distinct.

Recall that $\sqrt{Q_i}$ is prime, and Q_i is “ $\sqrt{Q_i}$ -primary” (whatever that means).

Lemma 2.7. If I, J are P -primary, then $I \cap J$ is P -primary.

Example 2.8. Let $I = (x, y^2)$, $J = (x^2, y)$, and $P = (x, y)$. Then $I \cap J = (x^2, xy, y^2)$.

Proof. Exercise. \square

Theorem 2.9 (LN). Every proper ideal has a minimal primary decomposition.

The idea is that given a primary decomposition, we use the lemma to intersect anything appearing more than once. Then throw out redundant terms.

2.3 Associated Primes

Recall our example $I = \langle f(x, y), z^2 \rangle$. We can decompose it as the intersection of the plane and the $f(x, y)$ zero locus from whatever.

Theorem 2.10. *If $I = \cap Q_i$ is a minimal primary decomposition, then the prime ideals $\sqrt{Q_i}$ are precisely the primes in the set*

$$\left\{ \sqrt{I : f} \mid f \in S \right\}.$$

Apparently things that are defined by \sqrt{Q} are “flat” in some sense.

The point is that even though primary decompositions need not be unique, the associated primes are unique and hence depend only on I . Here is an example.

$$I = (xy, y^2) = (y) \cap (x, y^2) = (y) \cap (x^2, xy, y^2).$$

This means something geometrically, but I can’t tell what it is. The associated primes are (y) and (x, y) in both cases (line and point).

We have uniqueness in some cases though.

Definition 2.11. The minimal element of a set of associated primes \mathcal{P} are called *isolated*/minimal primes/components. The others are called *embedded*.

Example 2.12. In our example, (xy, y^2) breaks into two things. Here the guy with (x, y) prime can vary, since it depends only on what it induces in (y) . ON the other hand (y) can’t change.

Fact 2.13. If $\sqrt{Q_i}$ is minimal in a primary decomposition $\cap Q_i$, then this Q_i is uniquely determined.

This lecture was the last in which we describe the objects we study in algebraic geometry (varieties). In future lectures we discuss regular mappings between varieties.

3 Math 129: Algebraic Number Theory

Warning: the other two lectures before this sort of made sense to me. This one was all symbols.

3.1 Review

Last time we stated the following theorem.

Theorem 3.1. *Let A be a Dedekind domain, and K a fraction field.*

- (a) *The set of fractional ideals of A is a group under multiplication.*
- (b) *For any fractional ideal b there is a unique factorization*

Proposition 3.2. *If $m \subset A$ is a maximal ideal and $m' = \{x \in K : xm \subset A\}$ then m' is a fractional ideal and $mm' = A$.*

There are two lemmas involved.

Lemma 3.3. *If a prime $p \subset A$ contains a product of ideals $Q_1 \dots Q_n$, then it contains Q_i for some i .*

Lemma 3.4. *Any nonzero ideal in A contains a nonzero product of primes.*

3.2 Some proofs

Now we prove the proposition.

Proof. First, we claim that $m' \not\subseteq A$. Pick $0 \neq a \in m$ and observe that by the second lemma,

$$p_1 p_2 \dots p_r \subset (a) \subset m.$$

By Lemma 2, we may assume $p_1 \subset m$ (since some prime does, WLOG it is p_1). Hence $p_1 = m$.

Suppose that the collection $\{p_1, \dots, p_r\}$ is minimal with respect to the property $p_1 p_2 \dots p_r \subset (a)$. Then $p_1 p_2 \dots p_m$ is not contained in A .

Then $b = p_2 p_3 \dots p_m$ is not contained in (a) , so $\exists t \in b - (a)$. On the other hand

$$tm \subset bm \subset bp_1 \subset (a)$$

hence $a^{-1}bm \in A$ but $a^{-1}b \notin A$; hence $a^{-1}b \in m - A$.

If $mm' = m$, then for every $x \in m'$ we have $xm \subset m \Rightarrow x^n m \subset m$ for all $n \geq 0$. Thus $A[x] \subset K$ is integral over A . Hence $x \in A$ because A is an integrally closed; this is a contradiction since $m' \not\subseteq A$. \square

Now we prove the theorem.

Proof. We will first show that every ideal b has a product decomposition

$$b = \prod_p p^{n_p(pb)}.$$

We may assume that $b \subset A$; otherwise $\exists d \in A$ such that $b \subseteq d^{-1}A$; hence we may write $b = (db)(dA)^{-1}$. This is the same as saying $db \subseteq A$, then we can express db is a product of primes, and hence b . This is the first reduction.

Hence we only need to prove the claim when b is an ideal. The assertion is trivially true for maximal ideals. Hence given $b \subset A$ we can assume that every ideal containing b strictly admits a product decomposition (in the style of induction).

Pick a maximal prime $p \subset A$ containing b . Then we have the fractional ideal p' such that $pp' = A$. We know that $p' \not\subseteq A$. Hence $b \not\subseteq p$, so if $x \in p' - A$ then $xb \subseteq A$. Hence $p'b \subseteq A$. Since $1 \in p'$, so $b \in p'b \subseteq A$.

Now we claim that $b \subsetneq p'b$. This is basically the same argument as before – if not we can find $x \in p' - A$ such that $xb \subset b$ implying $x^n b \subset b$ for all n . Hence $A[x] \subseteq K$ is a fractional ideal, meaning $A[x]$ is integral over A ; thus $x \in A$ by integral closure, contradiction.

Now we're basically done. $b \subsetneq p'b \subset A$ gives $p'b = \prod_q q^{n_q(p'b)}$ admits a composition because it strictly contains b . Hence $b = Abp'b = b \prod_q q^{n_q(p'b)}$, showing part (a).

To show uniqueness, we mimic the proof in \mathbb{Z} . \square

Corollary 3.5. *Given two ideals $a, b \subset A$, we have $a \subset b$ for all maximal ideals $p \subset A$ if and only if $n_p(A) \geq n_p(b)$.*

Proof. Blah. \square

3.3 An Example

Example 3.6. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$, where ζ_p is a p th root of unity.

Note that ζ_p is a root of the irreducible polynomial $f(x) = x^{p-1} + \cdots + 1$. One can show that A , the ring of the integers in K , is precisely equal to

$$A = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p] \cong \mathbb{Z}[x]/(f(x)).$$

We want to like find the factorization of the principle ideal (p) generated inside of A . It's convenient to put $x = y + 1$, so that

$$\frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1} = \frac{(y + 1)^p - 1}{y} = y^p + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} y^{i-1}.$$

So let's call $g(y) = y^{p-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} y^{i-1}$. Then $A = \mathbb{Z}[y]/g(y)$.

So what is A/pA ? It is

$$A/pA = \mathbb{Z}[y]/(g(y), p) = \mathbb{F}_p[y]/(y^{p-1}).$$

Since, after all $g(y)$ disappears modulo p .

Now $y = \zeta_p - 1$ and hence

$$A/(\zeta_p - 1)A = \mathbb{Z}[y]/(g(y), y) = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_p.$$

wat. Okay so $(\zeta_p - 1)A$ is prime.

Apparently this gives $(\zeta_p - 1)^{p-1} \in pA$. Hence

$$(\zeta_p - 1)^{p-1}A \subseteq pA \subseteq (\zeta_p - 1)A.$$

That implies in turn that $pA = (\zeta_p - 1)^e A$ for some $0 \leq e \leq p - 1$.

On the other hand, $A/(\zeta_p - 1)^p A = \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[y]}{y^p} y^e$.

This is called a *ramification*. You take p , look at how it decomposes in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$. They all collapse into one prime. It turns out that essentially p is the only prime with that property. The end.