# A DATABASE FOR FIELD EXTENSIONS OF THE RATIONALS 

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#### Abstract

This paper announces the creation of a database for number fields. It describes the contents and the methods of access, indicates the origin of the polynomials, and formulates the aims of this collection of fields.


## 1. Introduction

We report on a database of field extensions of the rationals, its properties, and the methods used to compute it. At the moment, the database encompasses roughly 100,000 polynomials generating distinct number fields over the rationals, of degrees up to 15 . It contains polynomials for all transitive permutation groups up to that degree, and even for most of the possible combinations of signature and Galois group in that range. Moreover, whenever these are known, the fields of minimal discriminant with given group and signature have been included. The database can be found in Appendix A, or downloaded from the sites listed there, and accessed via the computer algebra system Kant [10].

One of the aims in the compilation of this database was to test the limitations of current methods for the realization of groups as Galois groups. It turned out that these methods have limitations if the signature of the resulting Galois extension is also prescribed.

## 2. Galois realizations with prescribed signature

Let $K / \mathbb{Q}$ be a number field of degree $n$. We denote by $r_{1}$ the number of real embeddings of $K$, and by $r_{2}$ the number of pairs of complex embeddings. Then we have $n=r_{1}+2 r_{2}$. The pair $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ is called the signature of $K$. The extension $K / \mathbb{Q}$ is called totally real if $r_{2}=0$. The solution of embedding problems often requires knowledge of the field extensions with a prescribed signature. This is one reason for the attempt to realize all the groups in all possible signatures.

Now let $G$ be the Galois group of the Galois closure of $K / \mathbb{Q}$. Then, for any embedding of $K$ into $\mathbb{C}$, complex conjugation is an element of $G$; that is, $G$ in its permutation representation on the conjugates of the fixed group of $K$ contains an involution with $r_{1}$ fixed points. Clearly, this restricts the signatures that may occur for a given Galois group. This leads to the following question.

Given a finite permutation group $G$ and a conjugacy class $C$ of involutions in $G$, does there exist a number field $K / \mathbb{Q}$ whose Galois closure has group $G$, such that the image of complex conjugation lies in class $C$ ?

Obviously, a positive solution to this problem would solve the inverse problem of Galois theory. In a letter to Matzat, dated 20th July 1992, Serre has remarked that the converse is true, at least for totally real extensions, as follows.

[^0]Proposition 1 (Serre). If all finite groups occur as Galois groups over $\mathbb{Q}$, then all finite groups occur as Galois groups of totally real extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a finite group. We use a special case of a result of Haran and Jarden [20, Corollary 6.2]: There exists a finite group $\tilde{G}$ and an epimorphism $\phi: \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$ having all involutions of $\tilde{G}$ in the kernel. Indeed, assume that $G$ is generated by $r$ elements, and let $\psi: F_{r} \rightarrow G$ be a corresponding epimorphism from the free profinite group $F_{r}$ of rank $r$ onto $G$. Then $S:=F_{r} \backslash \operatorname{ker}(\psi)$ is a compact subset which is invariant under conjugation. Hence $S^{2}:=\left\{g^{2} \mid g \in S\right\}$ is compact and invariant under conjugation as well, and $1 \notin S^{2}$. Thus there exists a normal subgroup $\tilde{N} \leqslant F_{r}$ of finite index with $\tilde{N} \cap S^{2}=\emptyset$. Defining $N:=\tilde{N} \cap \operatorname{ker}(\psi)$, we have $N \cap S^{2}=\emptyset$, and $N$ has a finite index in $F_{r}$. Then $\tilde{G}:=F_{r} / N$ with $\phi: \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$ induced by $\psi$ is as required.

Now let $K / \mathbb{Q}$ be a Galois extension with group $\tilde{G}$ and $\phi: \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$ as above, with $H=\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$. Assume that $K^{H} / \mathbb{Q}$ is not totally real. Then some involution of $G$ acts as a complex conjugation. However, by the construction of $\tilde{G}$, this involution lifts to an element of order bigger than 2 in $\tilde{G}=\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbb{Q})$, contradicting the fact that complex conjugation has order 2. Thus $K^{H} / \mathbb{Q}$ is a totally real realization for $G$.

For the explicit construction of fields with given signature, we may distinguish two cases. In the solvable case, class field theory may be used as in the general inverse problem. The construction of extensions with non-solvable groups is usually done via the rigidity method. But this seems less well-adapted to the case where, in addition, the signature is prescribed. In fact, Serre [32, p. 91] has shown that rigidity with three branch points never gives totally real Galois extensions for groups $G \neq \mathfrak{S}_{3}$. At the moment, we are reduced to using ad hoc methods to construct extensions with arbitrary signature.

### 2.1. Symmetric groups

Let us first treat the symmetric groups. We propose an even stronger statement.
Proposition 2. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n / 2$, and let $f_{i} \in \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X]$ (where $i=1, \ldots, r$ ) be separable polynomials of degree $n$, where $p_{i} \neq p_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Then there exist infinitely many number fields $K / \mathbb{Q}$ with Galois group $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ and signature $(n-2 k, k)$, and such that $K \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}} \cong \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X] /\left(f_{i}\right)$ for $i=1, \ldots, r$.

Proof. Let $g_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a separable polynomial with $n-2 k$ real and $k$ pairs of complex zeros, for example the polynomial $\prod_{i=1}^{n-2 k}(X-i) \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left((X-i)^{2}+1\right)$. By the main theorem on elementary symmetric functions and Hilbert's irreducibility theorem, there exist irreducible polynomials with group $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ arbitrarily close to $g_{0}$ (for example, with respect to the metric induced by taking the maximal absolute value of the coefficients). To find such a polynomial constructively, choose three further primes $p_{r+1}, \ldots, p_{s}$, where $s:=r+3$. Furthermore, let $g_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, where $i=1, \ldots, r$, be separable polynomials such that $\mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X] /\left(f_{i}\right) \cong$ $\mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X] /\left(g_{i}\right), i=1, \ldots, r$, and $g_{r+1}, \ldots, g_{s} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ are separable such that the only nonlinear irreducible factor of the reduction $g_{i}\left(\bmod p_{i}\right)$, where $r+1 \leqslant i \leqslant s$, has degree $n$, $n-1$ or 2 , respectively.

Write

$$
g_{i}=\sum_{j=0}^{n} a_{i, j} X^{j} \quad \text { for } i=0, \ldots, s
$$

By the weak approximation theorem [25, Theorem 1.11], we may choose $b_{0}, \ldots, b_{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$
f:=\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i} X^{i} \in \mathbb{Q}[X]
$$

satisfies the following two conditions:

- $\left|b_{j}-a_{0, j}\right|$ (where $j=0, \ldots, n$ ) is sufficiently small that $f$ has the same signature as $g_{0}$;
- $\left|b_{j}-a_{i, j}\right|_{p_{i}}$ are sufficiently small that $\mathbb{Q}[X] /(f) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}} \cong \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X] /\left(g_{i}\right)$ for $i=1, \ldots, s$ (see the lemma of Krasner [25, Proposition 5.5]).
Then $f$ has the same signature as $g_{0}$, and $\mathbb{Q}[X] /(f) \otimes \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}} \cong \mathbb{Q}_{p_{i}}[X] /\left(f_{i}\right)$, where $i=1, \ldots, r$, are as required. Finally, factorization modulo $p_{r+1}, \ldots, p_{s}$ shows that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)$ is 2 -fold transitive, and hence primitive, and contains a transposition. By a theorem of Jordan, this implies that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)=\mathfrak{S}_{n}$.

By varying the additional primes, or by enlarging the set of primes, we may clearly obtain infinitely many examples.

### 2.2. Alternating groups

The case of alternating groups is inherently more complicated, and it is the only other case that we can solve uniformly. We first rephrase a result of Mestre into a universal lifting property as follows (see [2] for definitions and other results in this area).

Theorem 3. The group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$ has the universal lifting property over fields of characteristic 0 . More precisely, if $K$ is a field of characteristic 0 and $g(X) \in K[X]$ is a separable polynomial with square discriminant, then there exists a polynomial $f(t, X) \in K(t)[X]$ generating a regular Galois extension of $K(t)$ with group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$, for $n \geqslant 3$, such that the splitting fields of $g(X)$ and $f(0, X)$ coincide.

Proof. Let $g(X) \in K[X]$ be of degree $n \geqslant 3$ with square discriminant. First, assume that $n$ is odd. Then, by the result of Mestre (see [24, IV.5.12]), there exists a polynomial $h(X) \in K(X)$ of degree $n-1$ such that $f(t, X):=g(X)-t h(X) \in K(t)[X]$ has Galois group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$ over $K(t)$.

Now assume that $n$ is even. Replacing $X$ by $X-a$ for a suitable $a \in K$, we may assume that $g_{1}(X):=X g(X)$ is separable. Since $g_{1}$ again has a square discriminant and odd degree, by the first part there exists a polynomial $f_{1}(t, X)=g_{1}(X)-t h(X)$ with group $\mathfrak{A}_{n+1}$. Note that this implies that $h(0) \neq 0$. By [24, IV.5.12(b)], the polynomial

$$
\tilde{f}(t, X):=\left(g_{1}(X) h(t)-g_{1}(t) h(X)\right) /(X-t) \in K(t)[X]
$$

has group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$. Moreover, $\tilde{f}(0, X)=X g(X) h(0) / X=h(0) g(X)$ is a non-zero scalar multiple of $g(X)$, so $f(t, X):=\tilde{f}(t, X) / h(0)$ has all the required properties.

Note that the signature of a field with even Galois group is necessarily of the form $(n-2 k, k)$ with $k$ even. For alternating groups, all these signatures can be realized over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Corollary 4. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $0 \leqslant k \leqslant n / 2$ be even. Then there exist infinitely many number fields $K / \mathbb{Q}$ with Galois group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$ and signature ( $n-2 k, k$ ).

## A database for fields

Proof. For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k / 2$, let $u_{i}(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be distinct totally complex polynomials of degree 4 with Galois group $\mathfrak{A}_{4}$; for example, $u_{i}(X)=(X-i)^{4}-7(X-i)^{2}-3(X-i)+1$. Then

$$
g(X):=\prod_{i=1}^{n-2 k}(X-i) \prod_{i=1}^{k / 2} u_{i}(X)
$$

is separable with square discriminant and signature $(n-2 k, k)$. By Theorem 3, there exists a polynomial $f(t, X) \in \mathbb{Q}(t)[X]$ with Galois group $\mathfrak{A}_{n}$ such that $f(0, X)=g(X)$. Since $g$ is separable, for any $t_{0}$ close to 0 the specialization $f\left(t_{0}, X\right)$ has the same signature as $g$. By the Hilbert irreducibility theorem, there exist infinitely many such $t_{0}$ for which the Galois group is preserved under specialization.

Note that for symmetric and alternating groups, the conjugacy classes of involutions are parametrized by the cycle types, so the preceding results show that any involution in an alternating or symmetric group can occur as a complex conjugation in a Galois extension of the rationals.

### 2.3. Further simple groups

The non-abelian simple groups with faithful permutation representations of degree at most 15 are $\mathrm{L}_{2}(7), \mathrm{L}_{2}(8), \mathrm{L}_{2}(11), M_{11}, M_{12}, \mathrm{~L}_{3}(3), \mathrm{L}_{2}(13)$ and the alternating groups. For the groups $\mathrm{L}_{2}(7), \mathrm{L}_{2}(11), M_{11}$ and $M_{12}$, totally real realizations were found in [23], by constructing the Hurwitz spaces for certain $n$-tuples of conjugacy classes, where $n \geqslant 4$. These constructions involve a considerable amount of calculation, and seem to be restricted to groups of small degree. At the moment we are not aware of any totally real extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ with group $L_{2}(8), L_{3}(3)$ or $L_{2}(13)$, nor with the almost simple groups $P \Gamma L_{2}(8)$, $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}$ (11) or $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(13)$.

## 3. How to construct the polynomials

In this section we give a short overview of the methods that were used to construct the polynomials contained in the database.

### 3.1. Methods from the geometry of numbers

Let $K$ be a number field of degree $n$ with absolute discriminant $D$. For $\alpha \in K$, we denote by $\alpha=\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in \mathbb{C}$ the conjugates of $\alpha$, and we define $T_{2}(\alpha):=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\alpha_{i}^{2}\right|$. Now [7, Theorem 6.4.2] (attributed to Hunter) states that there exists an algebraic integer $\alpha \in K \backslash \mathbb{Q}$ such that $T_{2}(\alpha) \leqslant B$, where $B$ depends only on $n$ and $D$. This can be used to derive bounds for the coefficients of the characteristic polynomial of a primitive element of $K$. A description of this method can be found in [8, Section 9.3]. In the case where all the conjugates $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ are real, we have used a slightly different approach.

Let $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be a totally real separable polynomial of degree $n$ (that is, the stem field of $f$ has $n$ different real embeddings). Then all the derivatives of $f$ are also totally real and separable. Conversely, given a totally real polynomial $g(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree $n-1 \geqslant 2$, there are only finitely many totally real polynomials $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $f^{\prime}=g$. Moreover, the constant terms of such polynomials $f$ consist of all integers in an interval $I$ which can be computed from $g$. Indeed, denote by $\alpha_{1}<\ldots<\alpha_{n-1}$, the (different
real) roots of $g$, and let $f_{0}$ denote any integral polynomial with derivative $f_{0}^{\prime}=g$. Assume for definiteness that the highest coefficient of $g$ is positive. Denote by

$$
m:=\max \left\{f_{0}\left(\alpha_{n-1-2 i}\right) \mid 0 \leqslant i \leqslant(n-2) / 2\right\}
$$

the maximum of the minima of $f_{0}$, and by

$$
M:=\min \left\{f_{0}\left(\alpha_{n-2-2 i}\right) \mid 0 \leqslant i \leqslant(n-3) / 2\right\}
$$

the minimum of the maxima.
Then, clearly, $f_{0}-c$ is totally real if and only if $c \in I:=\{\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \mid m \leqslant \alpha \leqslant M\}$.
The above considerations lead us to the following conclusion (see also [8, p. 448], for example).

Lemma 5. For fixed $a_{n}, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2} \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exist only finitely many totally real polynomials $f(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, and these may be enumerated effectively.

Indeed, such polynomials can exist only if $f^{(n-2)}$ is totally real. Since $f^{(n-2)}$ of degree 2 is completely determined by $a_{n}, a_{n-1}$ and $a_{n-2}$, there are only finitely many possibilities for $f^{(n-3)}$, and now induction proves the assertion.

By the theorem of Hunter, any primitive extension $K$ of $\mathbb{Q}$ of degree $n$ can be generated by a monic polynomial $f(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ of degree $n$ such that $0 \leqslant a_{n-1} \leqslant n / 2$, and with $T_{2}$-norm bounded by a function in the discriminant $d(K)$. Moreover, the $T_{2}$-norm bounds the third-highest coefficient, $a_{n-2}$.

Hence Lemma 5 can be used to enumerate the totally real fields of bounded discriminants. It seems that this strategy produces far fewer polynomials to be considered, as compared to the approach that first tries to bound the discriminant, and then to sieve for totally real polynomials. For example, in the case of totally real degree-8 extensions (see Theorem 13), only 869062 polynomials were produced and had to be processed further. (Among the corresponding fields, only 4896 had a Galois group different from $\mathfrak{S}_{8}$.)

### 3.2. Specializing from polynomials over $\mathbb{Q}(t)$

Let $G$ be a finite group. We call the field extension $K / \mathbb{Q}(t)$ a $G$-realization, if it is Galois with group $G$ and regular, which means that $\mathbb{Q}$ is algebraically closed in $K$. When a group has a $G$-realization over $\mathbb{Q}$, it is an immediate consequence that there exist infinitely many disjoint number fields $L / \mathbb{Q}$ with Galois group $G$. Suppose that we have a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Q}(t)[X]$ such that the splitting field of $f$ is a regular extension with Galois group $G$. By specializing $t$ to $a \in \mathbb{Q}$, we see that $\operatorname{Gal}(f(a, X))$ is a subgroup of $G$. Hilbert's irreducibility theorem states that $\operatorname{Gal}(f(a, X))=G$ for infinitely many $a \in \mathbb{Q}$. See for example [32, Section 4.6] for a method to find infinitely many $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ with that property. This allows us to construct polynomials with Galois group $G$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ when we have an explicit polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Q}(t, X)$. In some lucky cases, we are able to get proper subgroups of $G$.

### 3.3. Methods from class field theory

Suppose that we want to construct a polynomial $f$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)=G$ for some permutation group $G$. Furthermore, suppose that in a corresponding field extension, the stem field $N$ of $f$ has a subfield $L$ such that $N / L$ is an Abelian extension with Galois group $A$. Then we can try the following approach. The Galois group of (the splitting field of) $L$ can be determined group-theoretically, and is denoted by $H$. Given a field $L$ with

Galois group $H$, we generate relative Abelian extensions with Galois group $A$ using class field theory. The Galois groups over $\mathbb{Q}$ of such extensions are subgroups of the wreath product $A \imath H$. Experiments show that most of the computed fields have the wreath product or the direct product as a Galois group. But we also get other Galois groups. One advantage of this method is that we are able to control the field discriminants of the computed fields. Therefore we can prove minimal discriminants for such groups. For example, this has been successfully applied to degree-8 fields having a degree-4 subfield [9]. For a complete description, we refer the reader to [8, Section 9.2]. We should point out that we have used the class field algorithm described in [15] and implemented in [10]. Cohen [8, Theorem 9.2.6] remarks that the class field methods can be extended to fields where the Galois group of $N / L$ is a dihedral group of order $2 n$, where $n$ is odd. Fieker and the first author [16] are able to extend this method to the case where $N / L$ is a Frobenius group with Abelian kernel. For example, this applies to the Frobenius groups $Z_{l} \rtimes Z_{p}$, where $p$ is prime and $p \mid l-1$.

### 3.4. Embedding obstructions

Suppose that we want to construct a field extension of degree 4 with cyclic group $Z_{4}$, applying the methods of the preceding paragraph and taking $L:=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1})$. Then we would find out that there are no extensions $N / L$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(N / \mathbb{Q}) \cong Z_{4}$. It would be nice to know in advance whether or not $L$ is a good choice. Let $K$ be a number field, let $L / K$ be a finite field extension with Galois group $H$, and let

$$
1 \longrightarrow U \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow 1
$$

be an exact sequence of groups. Then a field $N / L$ is called a proper solution of the embedding problem if $\operatorname{Gal}(N / K) \cong G$. For the general theory, we refer the reader to [24, Chapter IV]. Here, we restrict ourselves to the special case with kernel $U \cong Z_{2}$. Then $U$ is a subgroup of the center of $G$, and we have the following result [24, IV.7.2].

Proposition 6. Let $N=L(\sqrt{\alpha})$, with $\alpha \in L$, be a proper solution of the given embedding problem with kernel $Z_{2}$. Then all solution fields are of the form $N_{a}:=L(\sqrt{a \alpha})$ with $a \in K^{\times}$.

Furthermore, we find a local-global principle. Let $L / K$ be a number field with Galois group $H$, and suppose that we have the embedding problem

$$
1 \longrightarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow G \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow 1 .
$$

Denote by $\mathbb{P}_{K}$ the set of prime ideals of $\mathcal{O}_{K}$, including the infinite ones. For $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathbb{P}_{K}$ and $\mathfrak{P}$ a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{L}$ lying over $\mathfrak{p}$, we denote by $L_{\mathfrak{P}} / K_{\mathfrak{p}}$ the corresponding local extension. We write $\bar{H}$ for the Galois group of $L_{\mathfrak{P}} / K_{\mathfrak{p}}$. We get the following induced embedding problem:

$$
1 \longrightarrow Z_{2} \longrightarrow \bar{G} \longrightarrow \bar{H} \longrightarrow 1 .
$$

This embedding problem has a solution if it has a proper solution, or if the exact sequence is split (see [24, p. 265] for the general definition of a 'solution').

Proposition 7. Let $L / K$ be a finite extension with Galois group $H$. Then the embedding problem $1 \rightarrow Z_{2} \rightarrow G \rightarrow H \rightarrow 1$ has a proper solution if and only if the induced embedding problems have a solution for all $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathbb{P}_{K}$, with one possible exception.

Proof. The theorem follows from [24, Corollary IV.10.2] and the subsequent remark, and a theorem of Ikeda [24, Theorem IV.1.8]. Recall that split embedding problems with Abelian kernel have proper solutions [24, Theorem IV.2.4].

In our special case with kernel $Z_{2}$, it is easy to see that the induced embedding problems have solutions for all $\mathfrak{p}$ which are unramified in $L$, or which have an odd ramification index in $L$. If an infinite prime $\mathfrak{p}$ is ramified, the induced embedding problem is solvable if and only if it is split.

These results give us a practical method of checking whether an embedding problem with kernel $Z_{2}$ has a proper solution. If such a solution field of the embedding problem exists, it then remains to compute such a field.

Proposition 8. Let $N=L(\sqrt{\alpha})$ be a proper solution of an embedding problem with kernel $Z_{2}$. Let $S \subset \mathbb{P}_{K}$ be a finite subset containing all prime ideals with even ramification index in $L / K$, all infinite primes, and all prime ideals lying above $2 \mathbb{Z}$. Furthermore, assume that $S$ contains enough prime ideals to generate the class group of $\mathcal{O}_{K}$. Then there exists a proper solution $\tilde{N} / L$ which is unramified outside $\tilde{S}$, where

$$
\tilde{S}:=\left\{\mathfrak{P} \in \mathbb{P}_{L} \mid \mathfrak{P} \supseteq \mathfrak{p} \text { for some } \mathfrak{p} \in S\right\} \text {. }
$$

Proof. Denote by $\hat{S}$ the set of all prime ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{L}$ which are ramified in $N$ and are not contained in $\tilde{S}$. All prime ideals in $\hat{S}$ are tamely ramified. Furthermore, if $\mathfrak{P} \in \hat{S}$, it follows that all conjugate prime ideals are contained in $\hat{S}$ as well. Define $\mathfrak{a}$ to be the product of all prime ideals contained in $\hat{S}$. We see that $\mathfrak{a}=\mathfrak{b} \mathcal{O}_{L}$, where $\mathfrak{b}$ is a square-free ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{K}$. Then there exist $\mathfrak{p}_{1}, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_{r} \in S$ and $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\mathfrak{b p}_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_{r}^{e_{r}}$ is a principal ideal in $\mathcal{O}_{K}$ with generator $b$, say. Then $N_{b}:=L(\sqrt{b \alpha})$ is a proper solution, unramified outside $\tilde{S}$.

Since there are only finitely many relative quadratic extensions that are unramified outside a finite set, the above technique furnishes a method of explicitly computing a solution. We remark that in the case where $K=\mathbb{Q}$, the condition about the infinite primes can be dropped. In the case where $L$ is totally real and $L(\sqrt{\alpha})$ is totally complex (both extensions are normal over $\mathbb{Q}$ ), the field $L(\sqrt{-\alpha})$ is a totally real solution field.

We now provide a few examples of how the solvability in the $p$-adic case can be decided.
Example 1. 1. A degree 2 extension $L / \mathbb{Q}$ is embeddable into a $Z_{4}$ extension if and only if $L$ is totally real and all odd primes $p$ that are ramified in $L$ are congruent $1 \bmod 4$.
2. Let $L / \mathbb{Q}$ be an extension with Galois group $V_{4}$. Then $L$ is embeddable into a $Q_{8}$ extension if and only if $L$ is totally real and all odd primes $p$ that are ramified in $L$ have the property that $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ if and only if $p$ has odd inertia degree in $L$.
3. Let $L / \mathbb{Q}$ be an extension with Galois group $\mathrm{L}_{2}(l)$, where $l$ is a prime with $l \equiv 3 \bmod 8$ or $l \equiv 5 \bmod 8$. Then $L$ is embeddable into an $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(p)$ extension if and only if $L$ is totally real and all odd primes $p$ that are ramified in $L$ have the property that $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ if and only if $p$ has odd inertia degree in $L$ (see [5]).

The following example is more complicated, and demonstrates most of the effects that may occur.

There exists a subdirect product $G=\mathrm{SL}_{2}(3) \times_{\mathfrak{A}_{4}}\left[4^{2}\right] 3$ with a faithful transitive permutation representation of degree 12 , usually denoted by $12 T_{57}$. As we have noted in [21, 4.1] in order to construct an extension with this group, we have to find an $\mathfrak{A}_{4}$-extension which is embeddable both into an $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(3)$-extension and into a $\left[4{ }^{2}\right] 3$-extension. For $p \neq 2$, the possible non-trivial local Galois groups of an $\mathfrak{A}_{4}$-extension are $Z_{2}, Z_{3}$ and $Z_{2} \times Z_{2}$. Let $E / \mathbb{Q}_{p}$, where $p \neq 2$, be a $p$-adic field. If the local Galois group is totally ramified with Galois group $Z_{2}$, we find that both local embedding problems are solvable if $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$.

If the local Galois group is $Z_{2} \times Z_{2}$, it cannot be a totally ramified extension $(p \neq 2$, by Abhyankar's lemma [25, p. 236]). In this case, the embedding problem into $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(3)$ can be solved only when $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. But then the 4 th roots of unity are not contained in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$, and the embedding problem into $\left[4^{2}\right] 3$ cannot be solved. Therefore we let $L / \mathbb{Q}$ be an extension that is embeddable into a $12 T_{57}$ extension. Then $L$ is totally real, and all odd primes $p$ which are ramified have inertia degree 1 and satisfy $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$. The converse is true when $L$ is unramified in 2 , or when the degree of the completion at 2 has degree divisible by 3 .

Proposition 9. Let $L / \mathbb{Q}$ be an extension with Galois group $\mathfrak{A}_{4}$. Then $L$ is embeddable into a $12 T_{57}$ extension if and only if the following statements hold.

1. $L$ is totally real.
2. If $p \neq 2$ is a ramified prime in $L$, then $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ and $p$ has inertia degree 1 in $L$.
3. If 2 is ramified, then the corresponding embedding problem for $p=2$ is solvable.

Denote by $M$ the subfield of $L$ which has Galois group $Z_{3}$. Suppose that $L$ is embeddable into a $12 T_{57}$ extension. Denote by $S$ the set of prime ideals in $\mathcal{O}_{M}$ containing all prime ideals above $2 \mathbb{Z}$, all infinite primes, all prime ideals that are ramified in $L$, and enough prime ideals to generate the class group of $\mathcal{O}_{M}$. Then there exists a $12 T_{57}$ extension containing $L$ which is unramified outside $\tilde{S}$, where $\tilde{S}:=\left\{\mathfrak{P} \in \mathbb{P}_{L} \mid \mathfrak{P} \supseteq \mathfrak{p}\right.$ for some $\left.\mathfrak{p} \in S\right\}$.

Proof. The first part of the theorem has already been proved. We can solve the corresponding embedding problems independently. For the $\mathrm{SL}_{2}$ (3) part we can apply Proposition 8. Denote by $K$ one of the degree- 6 subfields of $L$. As noted in [21, 4.1], the embedding problem into [4 $4^{2}$ ] 3 is solvable if and only if $K / M$ is embeddable into a $Z_{4}$-extension. Therefore we can again apply Proposition 8.

If 2 is ramified, we cannot decide the solvability of the embedding problem just by looking at the ramification behaviour. We have to determine whether $K / M$ is embeddable into a $Z_{4}$ extension, which is the case if and only if -1 is a norm in $K / M$. This can be decided by applying the methods described in [1].

### 3.5. Computing polynomials from other representations

Suppose that we want to compute polynomials for a permutation group which already has a faithful representation on fewer points; that is, we want to construct a different stem field of a given Galois extension. In [21, 3.3], we have described how to compute such polynomials when we know a polynomial belonging to the other representation. In this paper, we strive to control the discriminants of these fields. The proof of the following theorem can be found in [22, Proposition 6.3.1].

Theorem 10. Let $N / K$ be a normal extension with Galois group $G$, and let $L$ be the fixed field of a subgroup $H$ of $G$. Let $\mathfrak{P} \neq(0)$ be a prime ideal of $\mathcal{O}_{N}$ with ramification index $e$, and let $\mathfrak{p}:=\mathfrak{P} \cap \mathcal{O}_{K}$. Denote by $D_{\mathfrak{P}}$ and $I_{\mathfrak{P}}$ the decomposition group and the inertia group, respectively. Let $R_{H}:=\left\{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}\right\}$ be a system of representatives of the double cosets of $H$ and $D_{\mathfrak{P}}$ in $G$; that is, $G=\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} H g_{i} D_{\mathfrak{P}}$. Then

1. The prime divisors of $\mathfrak{p}$ in $\mathcal{O}_{L}$ are $\mathfrak{p}_{i}:=g_{i} \mathfrak{P} \cap \mathcal{O}_{L}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$.
2. $\mathfrak{p} \mathcal{O}_{L}=\prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathfrak{p}_{i}^{e_{i}}$, where $e_{i}:=e /\left|g_{i} I_{\mathfrak{P}} g_{i}^{-1} \cap H\right|$.

Table 1: Permutation types for $L_{2}(7)$ in degrees 7 and 8

| $n=7$ | $n=8$ |
| ---: | ---: |
| $1^{7}$ | $1^{8}$ |
| $1^{3} \cdot 2^{2}$ | $2^{4}$ |
| $1 \cdot 3^{2}$ | $1^{2} \cdot 3^{2}$ |
| $1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4$ | $4^{2}$ |
| 7 | $1 \cdot 7$ |

Corollary 11. Suppose that $\mathfrak{P}$ is not wildly ramified over $\mathfrak{p}$. In this case, we denote by $\pi$ a generator of the cyclic group $I_{\mathfrak{P}}$. Then $v_{\mathfrak{p}}(\operatorname{disc}(L / K))=\operatorname{ind}(\pi)$, where $\operatorname{ind}(\pi):=[G: H]-$ the number of orbits of $\pi$ on $G / H$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathfrak{p} \mathcal{\vartheta}_{L}=\prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathfrak{p}_{i}^{e_{i}}$. In the case of tamely ramified extensions, we find that $v_{\mathfrak{p}}(\operatorname{disc}(L / K))=\sum_{i=1}^{m} f_{i}\left(e_{i}-1\right)$, where $f_{i}$ denotes the degree of the residue field extension $\left(\mathcal{O}_{L} / \mathfrak{p}_{i}\right) /\left(\mathcal{O}_{K} / \mathfrak{p}\right)$. Obviously, this formula does not depend on the number of primes lying above $\mathfrak{p}$, or on their inertia degrees, but only on the index of $\pi$.

Example 2. Let $G=\mathrm{L}_{2}(7)$, the second smallest non-abelian simple group. Table 1 illustrates the assertion of Corollary 11. The two columns give the cycle types of elements of $G$ in the transitive degree-7 and degree-8 representations, respectively. This allows us to compare the contribution made to the discriminant by tamely ramified prime ideals.

We can see that, independently of the cycle type, the discriminant in the degree-8 representation remains at least the same as in the degree-7 representation, in the case of tame ramification. A case-by-case study shows that the same is true when wild ramification occurs. This opens a way to determining the smallest fields of degree 8 with Galois group $\mathrm{L}_{2}(7)$, by computing enough fields of degree 7 with the corresponding Galois group.

## 4. Minimal discriminants

### 4.1. Results known to date

One goal of our database is to provide fields with small (absolute values of the) discriminant for each Galois group and signature. In small degrees, it is even possible to determine the field(s) with the smallest discriminant. We comment on the present state of knowledge in this area (which is restricted to degrees less than 10).

It is very easy to enumerate the discriminants of quadratic fields. Belabas [3] gives a very efficient algorithm for enumerating cubic number fields. For higher degrees, methods from the geometry of numbers and class field theory are applied.

In [6], all quartic fields with absolute discriminant smaller than $10^{6}$ are enumerated. Huge tables of the smallest quintic fields are also available, due to Schwartz et al. [31]. These tables are sufficient to extract the smallest discriminants for all Galois groups and classes of involutions for degrees 4 and 5.

The general enumeration methods are not powerful enough to give the minima for all Galois groups in degree 6. The minimal discriminants for all signatures of degree 6 are

Table 2: Minimal discriminants in degree 7

| $G$ | $r_{1}=1$ | $r_{1}=3$ | $r_{1}=5$ | $r_{1}=7$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| 7 | - | - | - | 594823321 |
| $7: 2$ | -357911 | - | - | 192100033 |
| $7: 3$ | - | - | - | 1817487424 |
| $7: 6$ | -38014691 | - | - | 12431698517 |
| $\mathrm{~L}_{3}(2)$ | - | 2007889 | - | 670188544 |
| $\mathfrak{A}_{7}$ | - | 3884841 | - | 988410721 |
| $\mathfrak{S}_{7}$ | -184607 | 612233 | -2306599 | 20134393 |

computed in [30]. Olivier [26] and Ford and Pohst [17, 18, 19] have completed the computation of the minimal discriminants of all signatures and all primitive Galois groups of degree 6 . Olivier and others $[27,4]$ have also computed the minimal fields for imprimitive groups of degree 6. This yields enough information to determine the minimal fields for all the groups and all the conjugacy classes of that degree.

In degree 7, the minimal fields of each signature are known, due to $[\mathbf{1 1 , 1 3 , 2 9 ]}$. This covers all the signatures of the symmetric groups. We complete the determination in degree 7 by proving the following theorem.

Theorem 12. The minimal discriminants for the possible pairs ( $G, r_{1}$ ) of Galois group $G$, and the number of real places $r_{1}$, in degree 7 are as shown in Table 2.

Proof. The fields generated in $[\mathbf{1 1 , 1 3 , 2 9 ]}$ are sufficient to prove the minimal discriminants for all signatures of the symmetric group and the non totally real dihedral case. The minima for $\mathfrak{A}_{7}$ and $L_{3}(2)$ are found by using methods from the geometry of numbers (see Section 3.1), using the fact that the discriminant has to be a square. The minimal discriminant for the cyclic case can easily be determined using the theorem of Kronecker-Weber and the fact that a ramified prime $p$ must be either equal to 7 or congruent to $1 \bmod 7$. All the other groups are Frobenius groups, where we can apply class field theory as described in [16] to prove the minima.

The polynomial

$$
X^{7}-2 X^{6}-7 X^{5}+11 X^{4}+16 X^{3}-14 X^{2}-11 X+2
$$

generates a totally real $\mathfrak{A}_{7}$-extension with minimal discriminant, while

$$
X^{7}-8 X^{5}-2 X^{4}+15 X^{3}+4 X^{2}-6 X-2
$$

generates one of the two totally real $L_{3}(2)$-extensions with minimal discriminant. (The other one is arithmetically equivalent to the first one, which means that these two non-isomorphic fields have the same Dedekind $\zeta$-function.)

The smallest totally real octic number field is computed in [28]. Diaz y Diaz [12] determined the smallest totally complex octic number field. To the best of our knowledge, the smallest totally real octic field with symmetric Galois group was previously unknown. The following theorem can be proved using the methods of Section 3.1.

Table 3: Minimal discriminants of primitive groups in degree 8

| $G$ | $r_{1}=0$ | $r_{1}=2$ | $r_{1}=4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $8 T_{25}$ | 594823321 | - | - |
| $8 T_{36}$ | 1817487424 | - | - |
| $8 T_{37}$ | $\leqslant 37822859361$ | - | - |
| $8 T_{43}$ | $\leqslant 418195493$ | $\geqslant-1997331875$ | - |
| $8 T_{48}$ | $\leqslant 32684089$ | - | $\leqslant 351075169$ |
| $8 T_{49}$ | $\leqslant 20912329$ | - | $\leqslant 144889369$ |
| $8 T_{50}$ | $\leqslant 1282789$ | $\geqslant-4296211$ | $\leqslant 15908237$ |


| $G$ | $r_{1}=6$ | $r_{1}=8$ |
| :---: | :---: | ---: |
| $8 T_{25}$ | - | 9745585291264 |
| $8 T_{36}$ | - | 6423507767296 |
| $8 T_{37}$ | - | $\leqslant 8165659002209296$ |
| $8 T_{43}$ | - | $\leqslant 312349488740352$ |
| $8 T_{48}$ | - | $\leqslant 81366421504$ |
| $8 T_{49}$ | - | $\leqslant 46664208361$ |
| $8 T_{50}$ | $\geqslant-65106259$ | 483345053 |

Theorem 13. The minimal discriminant for a totally real primitive field of degree 8 is given by $d=483345053$. The corresponding extension is unique up to isomorphism, with Galois group $\mathfrak{S}_{8}$, generated by the polynomial

$$
X^{8}-X^{7}-7 X^{6}+4 X^{5}+15 X^{4}-3 X^{3}-9 X^{2}+1
$$

For imprimitive octic fields with a quartic subfield, Cohen et al. [9] computed huge tables using class field theory; these cover all the imprimitive groups and all the possible signatures such that the corresponding field has a quartic subfield. These tables are not sufficient to find all the minimal fields of that shape, such that complex conjugation lies in a given class of involutions. In [16], the minima for octic fields having a quadratic subfield are given.

It remains to say something about primitive groups in degree 8. In Table 3, we give the primitive groups, together with the smallest discriminants that we know. If there is no ' $\leqslant$ ' or ' $\geqslant$ ' sign, this means that this entry has been proved to be minimal. The totally real $\mathfrak{S}_{8}$ case has already been proved in Theorem 13. The minima for the groups $8 T_{25}$ and $8 T_{36}$ are proved in [16].

If we knew enough fields of degree 7 with Galois group $L_{2}(7)$, it would be possible to compute the minima for the groups $8 T_{37} \cong \mathrm{~L}_{2}(7)$ and $8 T_{48} \cong 2^{3} . \mathrm{L}_{2}(7)$.

Diaz y Diaz and Olivier [14] have applied a relative version of the geometry of numbers methods to compute tables of imprimitive fields of degree 9 . These tables do not, however, cover all the imprimitive Galois groups of that degree.

Table 4: Reality types for non-solvable groups

| Group | Number of real zeroes |
| :--- | :---: |
| $9 T_{27}=\mathrm{L}_{2}(8)$ | 9 |
| $9 T_{30}={\mathrm{P} \Gamma \mathrm{L}_{2}(8)}$ | 9 |
| $12 T_{218}=\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(11)$ | 12 |
| $13 T_{7}=\mathrm{L}_{3}(3)$ | 13 |
| $13 T_{8}=\mathfrak{A}_{13}$ | $5,9,13$ |
| $14 T_{30}=\mathrm{L}_{2}(13)$ | 14 |
| $14 T_{39}=\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(13)$ | 14 |
| $14 T_{62}=\mathfrak{A}_{14}$ | 6 |
| $15 T_{103}=\mathfrak{A}_{15}$ | $7,11,15$ |

## 5. The database

In this section we report on the content of the database. As was mentioned in the introduction, it contains about 100,000 polynomials generating distinct number fields over the rationals. Especially in smaller degrees (up to degree 5), there already exist much larger tables of number fields covering all the fields up to a given discriminant bound. It is not very surprising that most of these fields have a symmetric Galois group. The aim of our database is different: we want to cover all the groups. More precisely, we want to look at the following problems, which are of increasing difficulty.

1. For each transitive group $G$, find a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)=G$.
2. For each transitive group $G$ and each class $C$ of involutions, find a polynomial $f \in$ $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)=G$, and complex conjugation lies in class $C$.
3. For each transitive group $G$ and each class $C$ of involutions, find a polynomial $f \in$ $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(f)=G$ and complex conjugation lies in class $C$, and the stem field $K$ of $f$ has minimal absolute discriminant, subject to these restrictions.

We have a positive answer to problem 1 for all transitive groups up to degree 15, as shown in [21]. Problem 2 is inherently much more difficult. Let us first look at a slightly easier variant of problem 2. Here, we ask only that complex conjugation should cover all cycle types of involutions in $G$. The easier problem has a positive answer for all transitive groups, with the possible exception of the groups shown in Table 4.

The missing signatures for the alternating groups are simply a practical problem, as we have proved in Theorem 3. In all the other cases, the missing signature is the totally real one; we do not even know of a theoretical argument to indicate that such an extension should exist.

Let us come back to problem 2. Write $N:=N_{\mathfrak{S}_{n}}(G)$ for the normalizer in $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ of $G \leqslant \mathfrak{S}_{n}$. Let $L / K$ be an extension of degree $n$, generated by a polynomial $f$ such that $G$ is the Galois group of the Galois closure of $L / K$ as a permutation group on the roots of $f$. Then conjugation of $G$ by an element of $N$ amounts to a renumbering of the roots of $f$. In particular, if $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are two conjugacy classes of $G$ fused in $N$, then whenever we have found an

Table 5: Contents of the database

| Degree | \# Groups | \# Classes | \# Polynomials |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | 549 |
| 3 | 2 | 3 | 619 |
| 4 | 5 | 13 | 2292 |
| 5 | 5 | 10 | 1489 |
| 6 | 16 | 48 | 5979 |
| 7 | 7 | 14 | 1360 |
| 8 | 50 | 233 | 15269 |
| 9 | 34 | 83 | 6174 |
| 10 | 45 | 184 | 12448 |
| 11 | 8 | 19 | 502 |
| 12 | 301 | 1895 | 43200 |
| 13 | 9 | 23 | 248 |
| 14 | 63 | 331 | 5155 |
| 15 | 104 | 395 | 4107 |

extension such that complex conjugation lies in class $C_{1}$, a simple renumbering provides an extension with complex conjugation in $C_{2}$. Thus, in problem 2 we may restrict ourselves to considering classes of $G$ modulo the action of $N$. We have constructed extensions for all these possibilities up to degree 11, with the three above-mentioned exceptions.

Problem 3 has been completely solved up to degree 7 . In degree 8, most transitive groups are covered, but there are some primitive groups left where we cannot prove that we have found the minimal discriminant.

We close by giving a table containing some statistics about the number of polynomials in each degree (see Table 5). The '\# Classes’ column denotes the total number of conjugacy classes of elements of orders 1 and 2 up to conjugation in the symmetric normalizer.

## Appendix A. Accessing the database

This appendix, which includes a zip file containing the database, is available to subscribers to the journal at:

```
http://www.lms.ac.uk/jcm/4/lms2001-004/appendixa/.
```

The database is also downloadable from either

```
www.iwr.uni-heidelberg.de/iwr/compalg/minimum/minimum.html
or www.mathematik.uni-kassel.de/~malle/minimum/minimum.html.
```

The computer algebra system KANT [10], required to utilise the database, can be found at
http://www.math.tu-berlin.de/algebra/.

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