# Galois theory

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# Introduction

The notes correspond to the bachelor course *Galois theory* of the Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Faculty of Sciences, Department of Mathematics and Data Sciences. The course is divided into twelve two-hour lectures.

The material is somewhat standard. Basic texts on fields and Galois theory are for example [3] and [4].

As usual, we also mention a set of great expository papers by Keith Conrad, the notes are extremely well-written and useful at every stage of a mathematical career.

Several chapters contain optional paragraphs that give examples of how to apply OSCAR Computer Algebra System to concrete problems in Galois theory.

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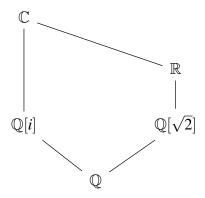
#### Lecture 1, 12/02/2024

§ 1.1. Fields. Recall that a field is a commutative ring such that  $1 \neq 0$  and every non-zero element is invertible. Examples of (infinite) fields are  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\mathbb{C}$ . If p is a prime number, then  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  is a field.

Example 1.1. The abelian group  $\mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$  is a field with multiplication

$$(a,b)(c,d) = (ac+bd,ad+bc+bd).$$

Example 1.2.  $\mathbb{Q}[i] = \{a+bi : a,b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$  are fields.



Exercise 1.3. Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}[i]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$  are not isomorphic as fields.

If R is a ring, there exists a unique ring homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z} \to R$ ,  $m \mapsto m1$ . The image

$$\{m1: m \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

of this homomorphism is a subring of R and it is known as the **ring of integers** of R. The kernel is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}$  generated by some  $t \geq 0$ . The integer t is the **characteristic** of the ring R.

Exercise 1.4. The characteristic of a field is either zero or a prime number.

Example 1.5. The characteristic of the field of Example 1.1 is two. Why?

Recall that a commutative ring R is an **integral domain** if  $xy = 0 \implies x = 0$  or y = 0. Fields are integral domains.

Exercise 1.6. Let *K* be a field. Prove that the following statements are equivalent:

- 1) K is of characteristic zero.
- 2) The additive order of 1 is infinite.
- 3) The additive order of each  $x \neq 0$  is infinite.
- **4)** The ring of integers of K is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Exercise 1.7. Let *K* be a field. Prove that the following statements are equivalent:

- 1) K is of characteristic p.
- 2) The additive order of 1 is p.
- 3) The additive order of each  $x \neq 0$  is p.
- **4)** The ring of integers of *K* is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/p$ .

DEFINITION 1.8. A **subfield** of a ring *R* is a subring of *R* that is also a field.

Note that if K is a subfield of E, then the characteristic of K coincides with the characteristic of E. Moreover, if  $K \to L$  is a field homomorphism, then K and L have the same characteristic.

EXERCISE 1.9. Let K be a field of characteristic p. Prove that  $K \to K$ ,  $x \mapsto x^{p^n}$ , is a field homomorphism for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ .

Note that finite fields are of characteristic p.

Let *K* be a subfield of a field *E*. Then *E* is a *K*-vector space with the usual scalar multiplication  $K \times E \to E$ ,  $(\lambda, x) \mapsto \lambda x$ .

DEFINITION 1.10. A field *K* is **prime** if there are no proper subfields of *K*.

Examples of prime fields are  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  for a prime number p.

Proposition 1.11. *Let K be a field. The following statements hold:* 

- 1) K contains a unique prime field, it is known as the **prime subfield** of K.
- **2)** The prime subfield of K is either isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Q}$  if the characteristic of K is zero, or it is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  for some prime number p if the characteristic of K is p.

PROOF. To prove the first claim let L be the intersection of all the subfields of K. Then L is a subfield of K. If F is a subfield of L, then F is a subfield of K. Thus  $L \subseteq F$  and hence F = L, which proves that L is prime. If  $L_1$  is a subfield of K and  $L_1$  is prime, then  $L \subseteq L_1$  and hence  $L = L_1$ .

Let  $K_0$  be the prime field of K. Suppose that K is of characteristic p > 0. Then the ring  $K_{\mathbb{Z}}$  of integers of K is a field isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  and hence  $K_0 \simeq K_{\mathbb{Z}}$ . Suppose now that the characteristic of K is zero. Let  $E = \{m1/n1 : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0\}$ . We claim that  $K_0 = E$ . Since  $K_{\mathbb{Z}} \subseteq K_0$ , it follows that  $E \subseteq K_0$ . Hence  $E = K_0$ , as E is a subfield of K.

DEFINITION 1.12. Let E be a field and K be a subfield of E. Then E is a **field extension** of K. We will use the notation E/K.

If E is an extension of K, then E is a K-vector space.

DEFINITION 1.13. The **degree** of an extension E of K is the integer  $\dim_K E$ . It will be denoted by [E:K].

We say that E is a **finite extension** of K if [E:K] is finite.

EXAMPLE 1.14. Let K be a field. Then [K:K]=1. Conversely, if E is an extension of K and [E:K]=1, then K=E. If not, let  $x \in E \setminus K$ . We claim that  $\{1,x\}$  is linearly independent over K. Indeed, if a1+bx=0 for some  $a,b \in K$ , then bx=-a. If  $b \neq 0$ , then  $x=-a/b \in K$ , a contradiction. If b=0, then a=0.

We know that  $[\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{R}] = 2$ .

Example 1.15. A basis of  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is given by  $\{1,\sqrt{2}\}$ . Then  $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]:\mathbb{Q}]=2$ . The calculations can be easily done by computer:

```
julia> E, a = quadratic_field(2)
(Real quadratic field defined by x^2 - 2, sqrt(2))

julia> characteristic(E)
0

julia> K = prime_field(E)
Rational Field

julia> degree(E)
2

julia> basis(E)
2-element Vector{nf_elem}:
    1
    sqrt(2)

julia> one(K)==one(E)
true

julia> zero(K)==zero(E)
```

EXAMPLE 1.16. Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is numerable and  $\mathbb{R}$  is not,  $[\mathbb{R} : \mathbb{Q}] > \aleph_0$ . If  $\{x_i : i \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}\}$  is a numerable basis of  $\mathbb{R}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , for each n consider the  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector space  $V_n$  generated by  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{R}=\bigcup_{n\geq 1}V_n,$$

is numerable, as each  $V_n$  is numerable, a contradiction.

If E is an extension of K and E is finite, then [E:K] is finite.

PROPOSITION 1.17. Let K be a finite field. Then  $|K| = p^m$  for some prime number p and some  $m \ge 1$ .

PROOF. We know the prime subfield  $K_0$  of K is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/p$ . In particular,  $|K_0| = p$ . Since K is finite,  $[K:K_0] = m$  for some m. If  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$  is a basis of K over  $K_0$ , then each element of K can be written uniquely as  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i x_i$  for some  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in K_0$ . Then there is a bijection between K and  $K_0^m$  and hence  $|K| = |K_0^m| = p^m$ .

We now perform some basic calculations with a finite field of eight elements:

```
julia> E, x = FiniteField(2, 3, "x")
(Finite field of degree 3 over F_2, x)

julia> characteristic(E)
2

julia> prime_field(E)
Galois field with characteristic 2

julia> degree(E)
```

```
julia> size(E)

julia> [z for z in E]

8-element Vector{fq_nmod}:

0
1
x
x + 1
x^2
x^2 + 1
x^2 + x
x^2 + x
```

DEFINITION 1.18. Let *E* be an extension of *K*. A **subextension** F/K of E/K is a subfield *F* of *E* that contains *K*, that is  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$ .

Definition 1.19. Let E and  $E_1$  be extensions over K. An **extension homomorphism** 

$$E/K \rightarrow E_1/K$$

is a field homomorphism  $\sigma \colon E \to E_1$  such that  $\sigma(x) = x$  for all  $x \in K$ .

To describe the homomorphism  $\sigma: E/K \to E_1/K$  of the extensions over K one typically writes the commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
K & \longrightarrow & K \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
E & \stackrel{\sigma}{\longrightarrow} & E_1
\end{array}$$

We write  $\text{Hom}(E/K, E_1/K)$  to denote the set of homomorphism  $E/K \to E_1/K$  of extensions of K. Note that if  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, E_1/K)$ , then  $\sigma$  is a K-linear map, as

$$\sigma(\lambda x) = \sigma(\lambda)\sigma(x) = \lambda\sigma(x)$$

for all  $\lambda \in K$  and  $x \in E$ .

Example 1.20. The conjugation map  $\mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ ,  $z \mapsto \overline{z}$ , is an endomorphism of  $\mathbb{C}$  as an extension over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R})$ . Then

$$\varphi(x+iy) = \varphi(x) + \varphi(i)\varphi(y) = x + \varphi(i)y$$

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\varphi(i)^2 = \varphi(i^2) = \varphi(-1) = -1$ , it follows that  $\varphi(i) \in \{-i, i\}$ . Thus either  $\varphi(x+iy) = x+iy$  or  $\varphi(x+iy) = x-iy$ .

Exercise 1.21. Let K be a field,  $K_0$  be its prime field and  $\sigma: K \to K$  be a field homomorphism. Prove that  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(K/K_0, K/K_0)$ .

If E/K is an extension, then

Aut
$$(E/K) = \{ \sigma \colon E/K \to E/K \text{ is a bijective extension homomorphism} \}$$
  
=  $\{ \sigma \colon E \to E \colon \sigma \text{ is a bijective field homomorphism with } \sigma|_K = \mathrm{id} \}$ 

is a group with composition.

DEFINITION 1.22. Let E/K be an extension. The **Galois group** of E/K is the group Aut(E/K) and it will be denoted by Gal(E/K).

A typical example:  $Gal(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2$ .

As an example, we show with the computer that  $Gal(\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]/\mathbb{Q}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2$ :

```
julia> E, x = quadratic_field(2)
(Real quadratic field defined by x^2 - 2, sqrt(2))
julia> characteristic(E)
0
julia> G, C = galois_group(E);
julia> describe(G)
"C2"
julia> order(G)
```

Example 1.23. Let  $\theta = \sqrt[3]{2}$  and let  $E = \{a + b\theta + c\theta^2 : a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ . Note that  $a + b\theta + c\theta^2 = 0 \Longleftrightarrow a = b = c = 0$ .

Then E is an extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that  $[E:\mathbb{Q}]=3$ . We claim that  $\mathrm{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is trivial. If  $\sigma \in \mathrm{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  and  $z=a+b\theta+c\theta^2$ , then  $\sigma(z)=a+b\sigma(\theta)+c\sigma^2(\theta)$ . Since

$$\sigma(\theta)^3 = \sigma(\theta^3) = \sigma(2) = 2,$$

it follows that  $\sigma(\theta) = \theta$  and therefore  $\sigma = id$ .

Exercise 1.24. Prove that the polynomial  $X^3 - 2$  is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ .

The previous exercise can easily be solved using computers:

```
julia> R, x = PolynomialRing(QQ, "x");
julia> is_irreducible(x^3-2)
true
```

The following exercise is known as the *Eisenstein's irreducibility criterion*:

EXERCISE 1.25. Let A be a unique factorization domain and K be its fraction field. Let  $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i X^i \in A[X]$  be a polynomial of degree n > 0. Assume that there exists a prime element  $p \in A$  such that  $p \mid a_i$  for all  $i \in \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$ ,  $p \nmid a_n$  and  $p^2 \nmid a_0$ . Then f is irreducible in K[X].

Exercise 1.26. Prove that the polynomials

$$f = X^{10} + 60X^7 + 82X^6 - 36X^3 + 2,$$
  
$$g = 3X^{10} + 15X^2 - 45,$$

are irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ .

Exercise 1.27. Is the polynomial  $f = 3(X^{10} + 5X^2 - 15)$  irreducible in  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ ?

If E/K is an extension and S is a subset of E, then there exists a unique smallest subextension F/K of E/K such that  $S \subseteq F$ . In fact,

$$F = \bigcap \{T : T \text{ is a subfield of } E \text{ that contains } K \cup S\}$$

If L/K is a subextension of E/K such that  $S \subseteq L$ , then  $F \subseteq L$  by definition. The extension F is known as the **subextension generated by** S and it will be denoted by K(S). If  $S = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  is finite, then  $K(S) = K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  is said to be of **finite type**.

EXAMPLE 1.28. If  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is a basis of E over K, then  $E = K(e_1, \dots, e_n)$ .

Example 1.29. The field  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  is precisely the extension of  $\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}$  generated by  $\sqrt{2}$ .

Let E/K be an extension and S and T be subsets of E. Then

$$K(S \cup T) = K(S)(T) = K(T)(S).$$

If, moreover,  $S \subseteq T$ , then  $K(S) \subseteq K(T)$ .

# § 1.2. Algebraic extensions.

DEFINITION 1.30. Let E/K be an extension. An element  $x \in E$  is **algebraic** over K if there exists a non-zero polynomial  $f(X) \in K[X]$  such that f(x) = 0. If x is not algebraic over K, then it is called **transcendental** over K.

Definition 1.31. An extension E/K is algebraic if every  $x \in E$  is algebraic over K.

If *K* is a field, every  $x \in K$  is algebraic over *K*, as *x* is a root of  $X - x \in K[X]$ . In particular, K/K is an algebraic extension.

EXAMPLE 1.32.  $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}$  is an algebraic extension. If  $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ , then z is a root of the polynomial  $X^2 - (z + \overline{z})X + |z|^2 \in \mathbb{R}[X]$ .

If F/K is an extension  $x \in E$  is algebraic over K for some field  $E \supseteq F$ , then x is algebraic over F.

Example 1.33.  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  is algebraic, as the number  $a+b\sqrt{2}$  is a root of the polynomial  $X^2-2aX+(a^2-2b^2)\in\mathbb{Q}[X]$ .

The extension  $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Q}$  is not algebraic. For example, Hermite proved that e is transcendental over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; see [4, Theorem 24.4]. Lindemann's theorem states that  $\pi$  is not algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; see [4, Theorem 24.5].

Example 1.34. Let  $a=\sqrt{2}$  and  $b=\sqrt[3]{3}$ . Both a and b are algebraic numbers over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let us show that a+b is also algebraic. Let  $f(X)=X^3-3\in\mathbb{Q}[X]$ . Then f(b)=0. Note that the polynomial

$$g(X) = f(X - a) = X^3 - 3aX^2 + 3aX - a^3 - 3 \in \mathbb{Q}(a)[X]$$

is such that g(a+b) = 0. How can we find a polynomial with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Q}$  that vanishes on a+b? We do the "conjugation" trick:

$$h(X) = f(X-a)f(X+a) = X^6 - 6X^4 - 6X^3 + 12X^2 - 36X + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X].$$

Note that h(a+b) = 0. How can you prove that ab is also algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ?

#### Lecture 2. 19/02/2024

If E/K is an extension and  $x \in E$  is algebraic over K, then the evaluation homomorphism  $K[X] \to E$ ,  $p \mapsto p(x)$ , is not injective. In particular, its kernel is a non-zero ideal. Hence it is generated by a monic polynomial f.

DEFINITION 2.1. Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E$  be an algebraic element. The monic polynomial that generates the kernel of  $K[X] \to E$ ,  $f \mapsto f(x)$ , is known as the **minimal polynomial** of x over K and it will be denoted by f(x,K). The **degree** of x over K is then  $\deg f(x,K)$ .

Some basic properties of the minimal polynomial of an algebraic element:

Proposition 2.2. Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E$ . Assume that x is algebraic over K.

- 1) If  $g \in K[X] \setminus \{0\}$  is such that g(x) = 0, then f(x, K) divides g and  $\deg f(x, K) \le \deg g$ .
- **2)** f(x,K) is irreducible in K[X].
- **3)** If F/K is a subextension of E/K, then f(x,F) divides f(x,K).

PROOF. Write f = f(x, K) to denote the minimal polynomial of x. To prove 1) note that g(x) = 0 implies that g belongs to the kernel of the evaluation map, so g is a multiple of f. To prove 2) note that if f = pq for some  $p, q \in K[X]$  such that  $0 < \deg p, \deg q < \deg f$ , then f(x) = 0 implies that either p(x) = 0 or q(x) = 0, a contradiction. Finally, we prove 3). Since  $f \in K[X] \subseteq F[X]$  and f(x) = 0, it follows from 1) that f(x, F) divides f.

Some easy examples:  $f(i,\mathbb{R}) = X^2 + 1$ ,  $f(i,\mathbb{C}) = X - i$  and  $f(\sqrt[3]{2},\mathbb{Q}) = X^3 - 2$ :

```
julia> E, x = radical_extension(3, QQ(2), "x");

julia> minpoly(x)
x^3 - 2

julia> F, y = quadratic_field(-1);

julia> minpoly(y)
x^2 + 1
```

Example 2.3. Let us compute  $f(\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3},\mathbb{Q})$ . Let  $\alpha=\sqrt{2}+\sqrt{3}$ . Then

$$\alpha - \sqrt{2} = \sqrt{3} \implies (\alpha - \sqrt{2})^2 = 3 \implies \alpha^2 - 2\sqrt{2}\alpha + 2 = 3$$
$$\implies \alpha^2 - 1 = 2\sqrt{2}\alpha \implies (\alpha^2 - 1)^2 = 8\alpha^2 \implies \alpha^4 - 10\alpha^2 + 1 = 0.$$

Thus  $\alpha$  is a root of  $g = X^4 - 10X^2 + 1$ . To prove that  $g = f(\alpha, \mathbb{Q})$  it is enough to prove that g is irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ . First note that the roots of g are  $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}$ ,  $-\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$  and  $-\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}$ . This means that if g is not irreducible, then  $g = hh_1$  for some polynomials  $h, h_1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  such that  $\deg h = \deg h_1 = 2$ . This is not possible, as  $(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) + (\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}) = 2\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) + (-\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}) = 2\sqrt{3} \notin \mathbb{Q}$  and  $(\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})(-\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}) = -5 - 2\sqrt{6} \notin \mathbb{Q}$ .

Proposition 2.4. Let F/K be a subextension and E/K. Then

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

PROOF. Let  $\{e_i: i \in I\}$  be a basis of E over F and  $\{f_j: j \in J\}$  be a basis of F over K. If  $x \in E$ , then  $x = \sum_i \lambda_i e_i$  (finite sum) for some  $\lambda_i \in F$ . For each i,  $\lambda_i = \sum_j a_{ij} f_j$  (finite sum) for some  $a_{ij} \in K$ . Then  $x = \sum_i \sum_j a_{ij} (f_j e_i)$ . This means that  $\{f_j e_i: i \in I, j \in J\}$  generates E as a K-vector space. Let

us prove that  $\{f_je_i: i \in I, j \in J\}$  is linearly independent. If  $\sum_i \sum_j a_{ij}(f_je_i) = 0$  (finite sum) for some  $a_{ij} \in K$ , then

$$0 = \sum_{i} \left( \sum_{j} a_{ij} f_{j} \right) e_{i} \implies \sum_{j} a_{ij} f_{j} = 0 \text{ for all } i \in I$$

$$\implies a_{ij} = 0 \text{ for all } i \in I \text{ and } j \in J.$$

We state a lemma:

Lemma 2.5. If A is a finite-dimensional commutative algebra over K and A is an integral domain, then A is a field.

PROOF. Let  $a \in A \setminus \{0\}$ . We need to prove that there exists  $b \in A$  such that ab = 1. Let  $\theta : A \to A$ ,  $x \mapsto ax$ . Note that  $\theta$  is K-linear transformation, as

$$\theta(x+y) = a(x+y) = ax + ay = \theta(x) + \theta(y), \quad \theta(\lambda x) = a(\lambda x) = \lambda(ax) = \lambda \theta(x),$$

for all  $x, y \in A$  and  $\lambda \in K$ . It is injective since A is an integral domain. Since  $\dim_K A < \infty$ , it follows that  $\theta$  is an isomorphism. In particular,  $\theta(A) = A$ , which implies that there exists  $b \in A$  such that 1 = ab.

Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E$ . Then

$$K[x] = \{ f(x) : f \in K[X] \}$$

is a subring of E that contains K. Note that K[x] is a K-vector space.

More generally, if  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in E$ , then

$$K[x_1,\ldots,x_n] = \{f(x_1,\ldots,x_n) : f \in K[X_1,\ldots,X_n]\}$$

is a subring of E. Note that  $K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  is a K-vector space. Clearly,  $K[x_1, ..., x_n]$  is a domain and

$$K(x_1,...,x_n) = \left\{ \frac{f(x_1,...,x_n)}{g(x_1,...,x_n)} : f,g \in K[X_1,...,X_n] \text{ with } g(x_1,...,x_n) \neq 0 \right\}$$

is the extension of K generated by  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . Note that

$$K(x_1,...,x_n) = (K(x_1,...,x_{n-1}))(x_n).$$

The previous construction can be generalized. Let I be a non-empty set. For each  $i \in I$ , let  $X_i$  be a variable. Consider the polynomial ring  $K[\{X_i : i \in I\}]$  and let  $S = \{x_i : i \in I\}$  be a subset of E. There exists a unique algebra homomorphism

$$K[\{X_i:i\in I\}]\to E$$

such that  $X_i \mapsto x_i$  for all  $i \in I$ . The image is denoted by K[S]. In particular, an element  $z \in K[S]$  is of the form

$$z = h(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$$

for a polynomial  $h \in K[X_1, ..., X_n]$  in finitely many variables  $X_1, ..., X_n$  and  $x_1, ..., x_n \in S$ .

Exercise 2.6. Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}] = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ .

The exercise is not an accident.

THEOREM 2.7. Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E \setminus K$ . The following statements are equivalent: 1) x is algebraic over K.

- 2)  $\dim_K K[x] < \infty$ .
- 3) K[x] is a field.
- **4)** K[x] = K(x).

PROOF. We first prove  $1) \implies 2$ ). Let  $z \in K[x]$ , say z = h(x) for some  $h \in K[X]$ . There exists  $g \in K[X]$  such that  $g \neq 0$  and g(x) = 0. Divide h by g to obtain polynomials  $q, r \in K[X]$  such that h = gq + r, where r = 0 or  $\deg r < \deg g$ . This implies that

$$z = h(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x) = r(x).$$

If deg g = m, then  $r = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i$  for some  $a_0, \dots, a_{m-1} \in K$ . Thus

$$z = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i x^i$$

and hence  $K[x] \subseteq \langle 1, x, \dots, x^{m-1} \rangle$ .

The previous lemma proves that  $2) \implies 3$ .

It is trivial that  $3) \implies 4$ .

It remains to prove that 4)  $\Longrightarrow$  1). Since  $x \neq 0$ ,  $1/x \in K(x) = K[x]$ . There exists  $a_0, \dots, a_n \in K$  such that  $1/x = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$ . Thus

$$a_n x^{n+1} + \dots + a_1 x^2 + a_0 x - 1 = 0,$$

and hence x is a root of  $a_n X^{n+1} + \cdots + a_0 X - 1 \in K[X] \setminus \{0\}$ .

Note that if *x* is algebraic over *K*, then  $K[x] \simeq K[X]/(f(x,K))$ .

EXERCISE 2.8. Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E$  be an algebraic element over K. Prove that the degree of x over K is equal to [K(x):K].

COROLLARY 2.9. If E/K is finite, then E/K is algebraic.

PROOF. Let n = [E:K] and  $x \in E \setminus K$ . The set  $\{1, x, ..., x^n\}$  has n+1 elements, so it is linearly dependent. There exist  $a_0, ..., a_n \in K$ , not all zero, such that

$$a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n = 0.$$

Thus *x* is a root of the non-zero polynomial  $a_0 + a_1X + \cdots + a_nX^n \in K[X]$ .

In Example 1.34 we proved that  $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt[3]{3}$  and  $\sqrt{2}\sqrt[3]{3}$  are algebraic over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . This can be easily proved now with Corollary 2.9.

EXERCISE 2.10. Let E/K be an extension and a and b be algebraic over K. Prove that a+b and ab are algebraic over K.

We note that the converse of Corollary 2.9 result does not hold.

Corollary 2.11. If E/K is an extension and  $x_1, ..., x_n \in E$  are algebraic over K, then  $K(x_1, ..., x_n)/K$  is finite and  $K(x_1, ..., x_n) = K[x_1, ..., x_n]$ .

PROOF. We proceed by induction on n. The case n=1 follows immediately from the theorem. So assume the result holds for some  $n \ge 1$ . Since the extensions  $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/K(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})$  and  $K(x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1})/K$  are both finite, it follows that  $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/K$  is finite. Moreover,

$$K(x_1, \dots, x_n) = K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})(x_n)$$
  
=  $K(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})[x_n] = K[x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}][x_n] = K[x_1, \dots, x_n].$ 

Corollary 2.12. Let E = K(S) for some set S. Then E/K is algebraic if and only if x is algebraic over K for all  $x \in S$ .

PROOF. Let us prove the non-trivial implication. Let  $z \in K(S)$ . In particular, there exists a finite subset  $T \subseteq S$  such that  $z \in K(T)$ . The previous result implies that K(T)/K is algebraic, and hence z is algebraic.

If E/K is an extension, let

$$\overline{K}_E = \{x \in E : x \text{ is algebraic over } K\}.$$

COROLLARY 2.13. If E/K is an extension, then  $\overline{K}_E$  is a subfield of E that contains K. Moreover,  $K(\overline{K}_E) = \overline{K}_E$  and  $K(\overline{K}_E)/K$  is algebraic.

PROOF. By definition,  $K(\overline{K}_E)/K$  is algebraic. Thus  $K(\overline{K}_E) \subseteq \overline{K}_E$ . From this, it follows that  $K(\overline{K}_E) = \overline{K}_E$ .

The following exercise is now almost trivial:

EXERCISE 2.14. Let E/K be an extension of finite type; this means that E=K(S) for some finite set S. Prove that E/K is algebraic if and only if E/K is finite.

Let  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{C} : \alpha \text{ is algebraic over } \mathbb{Q}\}$ . Then  $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$  is the field of algebraic numbers. Can you compute  $[\overline{\mathbb{Q}} : \mathbb{Q}]$ ?

Exercise 2.15. Prove that  $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}]:\mathbb{Q}]=3$ .

For the previous exercise, you may use Eisenstein's criterion.

Exercise 2.16. Let  $E = \mathbb{Q}[i, \sqrt{2}] = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}][i]$ . Prove that  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ .

Exercise 2.17. Let  $E = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[3]{5}]$ .

- 1) Compute  $[E:\mathbb{Q}]$ .
- 2) Prove that  $E = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2} + \sqrt[3]{5}]$ .
- 3) Find the minimal polynomial of  $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt[3]{5}$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Exercise 2.18. Find the minimal polynomials of  $\sqrt[4]{3}i$  over  $\mathbb{Q}[i]$  and over  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{3}]$ .

Exercise 2.19. Find the minimal polynomial of  $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt[3]{5}i$  over  $\mathbb{Q}[i]$ .

Algebraic field extensions form a nice class of extensions. The same happens with finite field extensions.

PROPOSITION 2.20. Let F/K be a subextension of E/K. Then E/K is algebraic if and only if E/F and F/K are algebraic.

PROOF. If E/K is algebraic, then E/F and F/K are both algebraic, as  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$ . Let us assume that E/F and F/K are both algebraic. Let  $x \in E$  and let L be the subextension over K generated by the coefficients of f(x,F), the minimal polynomial of x over F. Then L/K is finite, since it is generated by finitely many algebraic elements. Moreover, x is algebraic over L. Since

$$[L(x):K] = [L(x):L][L:K] < \infty,$$

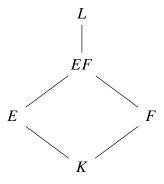
L(x)/K is algebraic. In particular, x is algebraic over K.

EXERCISE 2.21. Let F/K be a subextension of E/K. Prove that E/K is finite if and only if E/F and F/K are finite.

Let *K* be a field and  $K \subseteq F \subseteq L$  and  $K \subseteq F \subseteq L$  be fields. The **composite** of *E* and *F* is defined as

$$EF = K(E \cup F) = F(E) = E(F)$$

and it is equal to the smallest field that contains E and F. Here is the picture:



Exercise 2.22. Let *E* and *F* be fields. Prove that

$$EF = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} e_i f_i : m \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, e_i \in E, f_i \in F \text{ for all } i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \right\}.$$

EXERCISE 2.23. If  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  and  $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ , then  $EF = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ . Compute  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) : \mathbb{Q}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ .

EXERCISE 2.24. Let  $\xi \in \mathbb{C}$  be a primitive cubic root of one. If  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  and  $F = \mathbb{Q}(\xi)$ , then  $EF = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi)$ . Compute  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi) : \mathbb{Q}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\xi)$ .

EXERCISE 2.25. Let E/K and F/K be extensions, where both E and F are subfields of a field E. If E/K is algebraic, then E/E is algebraic.

EXERCISE 2.26. Let E/K and F/K be extensions, where both E and F are subfields of a field E. If E/K is finite, then EF/E is finite.

The solution to the previous exercise shows, in particular, that  $[EF : E] \leq [F : K]$ .

#### Lecture 3. 26/02/2024

LEMMA 3.1. Let  $\sigma: K \to L$  be a field homomorphism. Then there exists an extension E/K and a field isomorphism  $\varphi: E \to L$  such that  $\varphi|_K = \sigma$ .

PROOF. Note that  $\sigma: K \to \sigma(K)$  is bijective. Let A be a set in bijection with  $L \setminus \sigma(K)$  and disjoint with K. Let  $E = K \cup A$ . If  $\theta: A \to L \setminus \sigma(K)$  is bijective, then let

$$\varphi \colon E \to L, \quad \varphi(x) = \begin{cases} \sigma(x) & \text{if } x \in K, \\ \theta(x) & \text{if } x \in A. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\varphi$  is a bijective map such that  $\varphi|_K = \sigma$ . Transport the operations of L onto E, that is to define binary operations on E as follows:

$$(x,y) \mapsto x \oplus y = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(x) + \varphi(y)),$$
  $(x,y) \mapsto x \odot y = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(x)\varphi(y)).$ 

Then, for example,

$$x \oplus y = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(x) + \varphi(y)) = \varphi^{-1}(\sigma(x) + \sigma(y)) = \varphi^{-1}(\sigma(x+y)) = \varphi^{-1}(\varphi(x+y)) = x + y$$
 for all  $x, y \in K$ .

If  $\sigma: A \to B$  is a ring homomorphism, then  $\sigma$  induces a ring homomorphism  $\overline{\sigma}: A[X] \to B[X]$ ,  $\sum_i a_i X^i \mapsto \sum_i \sigma(a_i) X^i$ .

THEOREM 3.2. Let K be a field and  $f \in K[X]$  be such that  $\deg f > 0$ . Then there exists an extension E/K such that f admits a root in E.

PROOF. We may assume that f is irreducible over K. Let L = K[X]/(f) and  $\pi: K[X] \to L$  be the canonical map. Then L is a field (the reader should explain why). Let  $\sigma: K \to L$ ,  $a \mapsto \pi(aX^0)$ , and  $g = \overline{\sigma}(f) \in L[X]$ .

We claim that  $\pi(X)$  is a root of g in L. Suppose that  $f = \sum_i a_i X^i$ . Then

$$g(\pi(X)) = \overline{\sigma}(f)(\pi(X))$$
  
=  $\sum_{i} \sigma(a_i)\pi(X)^i = \sum_{i} \pi(a_i X^0)\pi(X^i) = \pi(\sum_{i} a_i X^i) = \pi(f) = 0.$ 

The previous lemma states that there exists an extension E/K and an isomorphism  $\varphi \colon E \to L$  such that  $\varphi|_K = \sigma$ . Note that  $\varphi(x) = 0$  if and only if x = 0. If  $u = \pi(X)$ , then  $\varphi^{-1}(u)$  is a root of f in E, as

$$\varphi(f(\varphi^{-1}(u))) = \varphi\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \varphi^{-1}(u)^{i}\right) = \varphi\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} \varphi^{-1}(u^{i})\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i} \varphi(a_{i}) u^{i} = \sum_{i} \sigma(a_{i}) u^{i} = g(u) = 0.$$

As a corollary, if K is a field and  $f_1, \ldots, f_n \in K[X]$  are polynomials of positive degree, then there exists an extension E/K such that each  $f_i$  admits a root in E. This is proved by induction on n.

DEFINITION 3.3. A field K is **algebraically closed** if each  $f \in K[X]$  of positive degree admits a root in K.

The fundamental theorem of algebra states that  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed. A typical proof uses complex analysis. Later we will give a proof of this result using Galois theory.

Proposition 3.4. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1) *K* is algebraically closed.
- **2)** If  $f \in K[X]$  is irreducible, then  $\deg f = 1$ .
- **3)** If  $f \in K[X]$  is non-zero, then f decomposes linearly in K[X], that is

$$f = a \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - \alpha_i)^{m_i}$$

*for some*  $a \in K$  *and*  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$ .

**4)** If E/K is algebraic, then E=K.

Proof. 1)  $\implies$  2  $\implies$  3) are exercises.

Let us prove that 3)  $\implies$  4). Let  $x \in E$ . Decompose f(x,K) linearly in K[X] as

$$f(x,K) = a \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - \alpha_i)^{m_i}$$

and evaluate on x to obtain that  $x = \alpha_j$  for some j.

To prove that 4)  $\Longrightarrow$  1) let  $f \in K[X]$  be such that  $\deg f > 0$ . There exists an extension E/K such that f has a root x in E. The extension K(x)/K is algebraic and hence K(x) = K, so  $x \in K$ .  $\square$ 

# § 3.1. Artin's theorem.

DEFINITION 3.5. An **algebraic closure** of a field K is an algebraic extension C/K such that C is algebraically closed.

For example,  $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}$  is an algebraic closure but  $\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Q}$  is not.

PROPOSITION 3.6. Let C be algebraically closed and  $\sigma: K \to C$  be a field homomorphism. If E/K is algebraic, then there exists a field homomorphism  $\varphi: E \to C$  such that  $\varphi|_K = \sigma$ .

PROOF. Suppose first that E = K(x) and let f = f(x, K). Let  $\overline{\sigma}(f) \in C[X]$  and let  $y \in C$  be a root of  $\overline{\sigma}(f)$ . If  $z \in E$ , then z = g(x) for some  $g \in K[X]$ . Let  $\varphi \colon E \to C$ ,  $z \mapsto \overline{\sigma}(g)(y)$ .

The map  $\varphi$  is well-defined. If z = h(x) for some  $h \in K[X]$ , then

$$0 = g(x) - h(x) = (g - h)(x)$$

and thus f divides g - h. In particular,  $\overline{\sigma}(f)$  divides  $\overline{\sigma}(g - h) = \overline{\sigma}(g) - \overline{\sigma}(h)$  and hence

$$(\overline{\sigma}(g) - \overline{\sigma}(h))(y) = 0.$$

It is an exercise to show that the map  $\varphi$  is a ring homomorphism.

Let  $a \in K$ . It follows that  $\varphi|_K = \sigma$ , as

$$\varphi(a) = \overline{\sigma}(aX^0)(y) = \sigma(a)$$

Let us now prove the proposition in full generality. Let X be the set of pairs  $(F, \tau)$ , where F is a subfield of E that contains K and  $\tau \colon F \to C$  is a field homomorphism such that  $\tau|_K = \sigma$ . Note that  $(K, \sigma) \in X$ , so X is non-empty. Moreover, X is partially ordered by

$$(F, \tau) \leq (F_1, \tau_1) \Longleftrightarrow F \subseteq F_1 \text{ and } \tau_1|_F = \tau.$$

If  $\{(F_i, \tau_i) : i \in I\}$  is a chain in X, then  $F = \bigcup_{i \in I} F_i$  is a subfield of E that contains K. Moreover, if  $z \in F$ , then  $z \in F_i$  for some  $i \in I$  and then one defines  $\tau(z) = \tau_i(z)$ . It is an exercise to prove that  $\tau$  is well-defined. Since  $(F, \tau) \in X$  is an upper bound, Zorn's lemma implies that there exists a maximal element  $(E_1, \theta) \in X$ . We claim that  $E = E_1$ . If not, let  $z \in E \setminus E_1$ . Since we know the proposition is true for the extension  $E_1(z)/E_1$ , let  $\rho : E_1(z) \to C$  be a field homomorphism such that  $\rho|_{E_1} = \theta$ .

Then, in particular,  $\rho|_K = \sigma$ . This implies that  $(E_1(z), \rho) \in X$  and hence  $(E_1, \theta) < (E_1(z), \rho)$ , a contradiction to the maximality of  $(E_1, \theta)$ .

#### Lecture 4. 04/03/2024

The previous proposition will be used to prove that the algebraic closure always exists.

Theorem 4.1 (Artin). Let K be a field. Then K admits an algebraic closure C/K. If  $C_1/K$  is an algebraic closure, then the extensions C/K and  $C_1/K$  are isomorphic.

PROOF. Let us first prove the uniqueness. The previous proposition implies the existence of an extension homomorphism  $\varphi \colon C \to C_1$ . Let  $y \in C_1$  and f = f(y, K) be the minimal polynomial of y in K. Since f admits a factorization

$$f = \lambda \prod (X - \alpha_i)^{m_i}$$

in C[X], it follows that

$$f = \overline{\varphi}(f) = \varphi(\lambda) \prod (X - \varphi(\alpha_i))^{m_i}$$

Since 0 = f(y), we conclude that  $y = \varphi(\alpha_j)$  for some j. In particular,  $\varphi$  is surjective and hence  $\varphi$  is bijective.

We now prove the existence. Let us assume that K admits an extension E/K with E algebraically closed. We will prove later that this extension indeed exists; at the moment, we only want to get an algebraic extension from this setting. Let

$$F = \{x \in E : x \text{ is algebraic over } K\}.$$

Then F/K is algebraic. Let  $g \in F[X]$  be such that  $\deg g > 0$ . Since E is algebraically closed, g admits a root  $\alpha$  in E. In particular,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over F and hence  $\alpha$  is algebraic over K. This implies that  $\alpha \in F$ , thus F is algebraically closed. This proves that F/K is an algebraic closure.

Let us prove that there exists an extension  $E_1/K$  such that every polynomial  $f \in K[X]$  with  $\deg f > 0$  has a root in  $E_1$ . Let  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  be the family of monic irreducible polynomials with coefficients in K. We may think that  $f_i = f_i(X_i)$ . Let  $R = K[\{X_i : i \in I\}]$  and let J be the ideal of R generated by the  $f_i(X_i)$ . We claim that  $J \neq R$ . If not,  $1 \in J$ , so

$$1 = \sum_{j=1}^{m} g_{j} f_{i_{j}}(X_{i_{j}})$$

for some  $g_1, \ldots, g_m \in R$ . There exists an extension F/K such that  $f_{i_j}$  has a root  $\alpha_j$  in F for all j. Let

$$au \colon R \to F, \quad au(X_k) = \begin{cases} lpha_j & \text{if } k = i_j, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \not\in \{i_1, \dots, i_m\}. \end{cases}$$

Then  $\tau$  is a ring homomorphism and

$$1 = \tau(1) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \tau(g_j) f_{i_j}(\alpha_j) = 0,$$

a contradiction.

Since J is a proper ideal, it is contained in a maximal ideal M. Let L = R/M and let  $\sigma \colon K \to L$  be the composition  $K \hookrightarrow R \to R/M = L$ , where  $\pi \colon R \to R/M$  is the canonical map. As we did before,  $\pi(X_i)$  is a root of  $\overline{\sigma}(f_i)$  for all i. And there exists an extension  $E_1/K$  such that every  $f_i$  has a root in  $E_1$ . Proceeding in this way, we construct a sequence

$$E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq \cdots$$

of fields such that every polynomial of positive degree and coefficients in  $E_k$  admits a root in  $E_{k+1}$ . Let  $E = \bigcup E_k$ . We claim that E is algebraically closed. In fact, let  $g \in E[X]$  be such that  $\deg g > 0$ . Then, since  $g \in E_r[X]$  for some r, it follows that g has a root in  $E_{r+1} \subseteq E$ .

# § 4.1. Decomposition fields.

DEFINITION 4.2. Let K be a field and  $f \in K[X]$  be such that  $\deg f > 0$ . A **decomposition field** of f over K is a field E that contains K and that satisfies the following properties:

- 1) f factorizes linearly in E[X].
- 2) If F is a field such that  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$  and f factorizes linearly in F[X], then F = E.

Easy examples:

Example 4.3.  $\mathbb{C}$  is a decomposition field of  $X^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{R}[X]$ .

Example 4.4.  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$  is a decomposition field of  $X^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ .

Example 4.5. The decomposition field of  $f = X^2 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Z}/7$  is precisely  $\mathbb{Z}/7$ , as 3 and 4 are the roots of f in  $\mathbb{Z}/7$ .

Example 4.6.  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is not a decomposition field of  $X^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ . However, if  $\omega$  is a primitive cubic root of one, then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$  is a decomposition field of the polynomial  $X^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ .

PROPOSITION 4.7. E is a decomposition field of  $f \in K[X]$  if and only if f factorizes linearly in E[X] and  $E = K(x_1, ..., x_n)$ , where  $x_1, ..., x_n$  are the roots of f.

PROOF. Let  $f = a \prod_{i=1}^r (X - x_i)^{n_i}$  and  $F = K(x_1, \dots, x_r)$  with  $x_1, \dots, x_r \in E$ . Since f factorizes linearly in F[X], it follows that F = E. Conversely, let  $E = K(x_1, \dots, x_r)$  and assume that f factorizes linearly in F[X]. Then, in particular,  $x_1, \dots, x_r \in F$ . Hence  $E \subseteq F$  and F = E.

One immediately obtains the following consequence: If E is a decomposition field of  $f \in K[X]$ , then E/K is finite.

Theorem 4.8. Let  $f \in K[X]$  be such that  $\deg f > 0$ . There exists a (unique up to extension isomorphism) decomposition field of f over K.

PROOF. Let C/K be an algebraic closure of K. Write

$$f = a \prod_{i=1}^{r} (X - x_i)^{n_i}$$

in C[X]. Then  $E = K(x_1, ..., x_r)$  is a decomposition field of f over K.

Let us prove the uniqueness: if  $E_1/K$  is a decomposition field of f over K, then  $E_1/K$  is algebraic and thus Proposition 3.6 implies that there exists  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(E_1/K, C/K)$ , that is  $\varphi \colon E_1 \to C$  is a field homomorphism such that  $\varphi|_K$  is the identity. Factorize f linearly in  $E_1[X]$  and apply  $\overline{\varphi}$ :

$$f = a \prod_{j=1}^{s} (X - y_j)^{m_j} \implies f = \overline{\varphi}(f) = \varphi(a) \prod_{j=1}^{s} (X - \varphi(y_j))^{m_j}$$

so f factorizes linearly in  $\varphi(E_1)[X]$ . Moreover,  $E_1 = K(y_1, \dots, y_s)$  and

$$\varphi(E_1) = K(\varphi(y_1), \ldots, \varphi(y_s)).$$

Thus  $\varphi(E_1)$  is a decomposition field of f. Since  $\varphi(E_1) \subseteq C$ , it follows that  $\varphi(E_1) = E$ .  $\square$ 

Exercise 4.9. If C is an algebraic closure of K and  $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(C/K, C/K)$ , then  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism.

Let C be an algebraic closure of K and G = Gal(C/K). The group G acts on C

$$\sigma \cdot x = \sigma(x), \quad \sigma \in G, x \in C.$$

The orbits are of the form

$$O_G(x) = {\sigma(x) : \sigma \in G} = {y \in C : y = \sigma(x) \text{ for some } \sigma \in G}$$

The elements  $x, y \in C$  are **conjugate** if  $y = \sigma(x)$  for some  $\sigma \in G$ .

PROPOSITION 4.10. Let C be an algebraic closure of K and  $x, y \in C$ . Then x and y are conjugate if and only if f(x,K) = f(y,K). In particular,  $O_G(x)$  is finite.

PROOF. Let  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(C/K)$ . If x and y are conjugate, say  $y = \sigma(x)$  for some  $\sigma \in G$ , let us write g = f(x, K) as

$$g = X^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i X^i$$

for some  $n \ge 1$  and  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in K$ . Then  $0 = g(x) = x^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$  and hence y is a root of g, as

$$0 = \sigma \left( x^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i \right) = \sigma(x)^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sigma(a_i) \sigma(x)^i$$
$$= \sigma(x)^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i \sigma(x)^i = y^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i y^i.$$

Thus f(y, K) = g.

Conversely, assume that f(x,K) = f(y,K). Let g = f(x,K) = f(y,K) and let

$$\varphi \colon K[x] \to K[y], \quad h(x) \mapsto h(y).$$

Let us show that the map  $\varphi$  is well-defined: we need to show that if  $h_1(x) = h_2(x)$ , then

$$h_1(y) = \varphi(h_1(x)) = \varphi(h_2(x)) = h_2(y).$$

If  $h_1(x) = h_2(x)$ , then

$$(h_1 - h_2)(x) = h_1(x) - h_2(x) = 0.$$

This implies that g divides  $h_1 - h_2$ . In particular,  $h_1(y) = h_2(y)$ .

A straightforward calculation shows that  $\varphi$  is a field homomorphism such that  $\varphi|_K = \operatorname{id}$ , this means that  $\varphi$  is an extension homomorphism such that  $\varphi(x) = y$ . There exists  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}(C/K, C/K)$  such that  $\sigma|_{K[x]} = \varphi$ . Since  $\sigma$  is bijective (this is left as an exercise, you did something similar before),  $\sigma(x) = \varphi(x) = y$  and hence  $O_G(x) = O_G(y)$ .

Proposition 4.11. Let C be an algebraic closure of K and  $x \in C$ . Then

$$f(x,K) = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X - y)^m$$

for some m.

PROOF. For each  $y \in O_G(x)$  let  $m_y$  be the multiplicity of y in f(x,K). Then, for example,  $f(x,K) = (X-x)^{m_x}g$  for some g. If  $y \in O_G(x)$ , then  $y = \sigma(x)$  for some  $\sigma \in Gal(C/K)$ . Since

$$\overline{\sigma}(f(x,K)) = f(x,K) = (X-y)^{m_x} \overline{\sigma}(g),$$

it follows that  $m_v \ge m_x$ . By symmetry, we conclude that  $m_x = m_v$ .

The previous proposition shows, in particular, that all the roots of an irreducible polynomial  $f \in K[X]$  in an algebraic closure C of K have the same multiplicity. This is not true if f is not irreducible. Find an example.

DEFINITION 4.12. Let K be a field and  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  be a non-empty family of polynomials of positive degree with coefficients in K. A **decomposition field** of  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  is an extension E/K such that every  $f_i$  factorizes linearly in E[X] and if F/K is a sub extension of E/K such that every  $f_i$  factorizes linearly in F[X], then F = E.

EXERCISE 4.13. Prove that E/K is a decomposition field of  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  if and only if every  $f_i$  factorizes linearly in E[X] and E=K(S) where  $S=\{\text{roots of } f_i \text{ for all } i\}$ .

EXERCISE 4.14. Prove that if E/K is a decomposition field of  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$ , then E/K is algebraic. If, moreover, I is finite, then E/K is a decomposition field of  $\prod_{i \in I} f_i$ .

Exercise 4.15. Prove that there exists a decomposition field of  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  and it is unique up to extension isomorphism.

EXERCISE 4.16. Let  $f = X^3 - X - 1 \in (\mathbb{Z}/3)[X]$  and E be a decomposition field of f. Compute  $[E : \mathbb{Z}/3]$ .

What about the decomposition field of  $f = X^3 - X - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ ?

EXERCISE 4.17. Let  $f = X^4 - 5x^2 + 5 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  and E be a decomposition field of f. Compute  $[E:\mathbb{Q}]$  and  $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$ .

#### Lecture 5. 11/03/2024

# § 5.1. Normal extensions.

Proposition 5.1. Let E/K be an algebraic extension and  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, E/K)$ . Then  $\sigma$  is bijective.

PROOF. It is enough to prove that  $\sigma$  is surjective. Why? Let  $x \in E$  and C be an algebraic closure of K that contains E. By Proposition 3.6, there exists a field homomorphism  $\varphi \colon C \to C$  such that  $\varphi|_E = \sigma$ . Thus  $\varphi|_K = \operatorname{id}_K$ . Let  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(C/K)$ . Then  $\varphi \in G$ . If  $z \in O_G(x)$ , then  $z = \tau(x)$  for some  $\tau \in G$  and hence

$$\varphi(z) = \varphi(\tau(x)) = (\varphi\tau)(x).$$

This implies that  $\varphi(z) \in O_G(x)$  and  $\varphi(O_G(x)) = O_G(x)$ . The restriction  $\sigma|_{E \cap O_G(x)}$  is injective. Then

$$\sigma(E \cap O_G(x)) = \varphi(E \cap O_G(x))$$
  
=  $\varphi(E) \cap \varphi(O_G(x)) = \sigma(E) \cap O_G(x) \subseteq E \cap O_G(x).$ 

Since  $|E \cap O_G(x)| < \infty$ , it follows that  $E \cap O_G(x) = \sigma(E \cap O_G(x))$  and hence x belongs to the image of  $\sigma$ .

DEFINITION 5.2. Let E/K be an algebraic extension and C be an algebraic closure of K containing E. Then E/K is **normal** if  $\sigma(E) \subseteq E$  for all  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ .

Note that  $\sigma(E) \subseteq E$  in the previous definition is equivalent to  $\sigma(E) = E$ .

Example 5.3. The extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  is not normal. Why?

Some trivial examples of normal extensions: K/K is normal and if C is an algebraic closure of K, then C/K is normal.

Example 5.4. The extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  is normal. Every extension generated by algebraic elements of degree two is normal.

Exercise 5.5. Let  $\xi$  be a primitive cubic root of one. Then  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2},\xi)/\mathbb{Q}$  is normal.

The following result is practical but technical. That is why we leave the proof as an exercise.

Exercise 5.6. Prove that the previous definition depends only on E (and not on the algebraic closure C).

Some properties:

PROPOSITION 5.7. Let E/K be a normal extension and  $f \in K[X]$  be an irreducible polynomial that admits a root x in E. Then f factorizes linearly in E.

PROOF. We may assume that f is monic. Let C/K be an algebraic closure of K containing E. Let y be a root of f in C. Since f = f(x,K) = f(y,K), it follows that  $y = \sigma(x)$  for some  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(C/K)$ . Since E/K is normal,  $\sigma|_E \colon E \to C$  is an automorphism of E/K, that is  $\sigma(E) \subseteq E$ . In particular,  $y \in E$ .

Let  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$  be a tower of fields. If E/K is normal, then E/F is normal. However, Note that E/K normal does not imply F/K normal, as this would imply that every extension is normal. Moreover, E/F normal and F/K normal do not imply E/K normal.

Example 5.8. The extensions  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  are both normal, but  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  is not normal, as the roots of  $X^4-2$  are  $\sqrt[4]{2}$ ,  $-\sqrt[4]{2}$ ,  $\sqrt[4]{2}i$  and  $-\sqrt[4]{2}i$ .

Recall that if C is an algebraic closure of K and  $x \in C$ , then

$$f(x,K) = \prod (X - y)^m,$$

where the product is taken over all  $y \in O_{\operatorname{Gal}(C/K)}(x)$ . If E/K is normal and  $x \in E$ , then there exists m such that

$$f(x,K) = \prod (X - y)^m,$$

where the product is taken over all  $y \in O_{Gal(E/K)}(x)$ .

Proposition 5.9. Let E/K and F/K be extensions. If F/K is normal, then EF/E is normal.

PROOF. Let *C* be an algebraic closure of *E* containing *EF* (this exists because EF/E is algebraic). Let  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(EF/E, C/E)$ . We claim that  $\sigma(EF) = EF$ . Let

$$\overline{K} = \{x \in C : x \text{ is algebraic over } K\}.$$

Then  $\overline{K}$  is an algebraic closure over K and  $F \subseteq \overline{K}$ . Since F/K is normal and  $\sigma|_F \in \operatorname{Hom}(F/K, \overline{K}/K)$ , it follows that  $\sigma(F) = F$ . If  $z \in EF$ , then  $z = \sum_{i=1}^m e_i f_i$  for some  $e_1, \ldots, e_m \in E$  and  $f_1, \ldots, f_m \in F$ . Since  $\sigma(e_i) = e_i$  for all i,

$$\sigma(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sigma(e_i) \sigma(f_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} e_i \sigma(f_i) \in EF.$$

What is the relation between normal extensions and decomposition fields? The notions look deeply related. The following proposition serves as an explanation:

PROPOSITION 5.10. Let E/K be an algebraic extension. Then E/K is normal if and only if E/K is the decomposition field of a family of polynomials of K[X] of positive degree.

PROOF. Assume first that E/K is a normal extension. Let  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$ . If  $x \in E$  and  $f(x,K) = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X-y)^m$ , then f(x,K) factorizes linearly in E[X]. Thus E/K is a decomposition field of the family  $\{f(x,K) : x \in E\}$ .

Conversely, assume that E/K is a decomposition field of the family  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$ . Then E = K(S) where S is the set of roots of the polynomials  $f_i$ . Let C/K be an algebraic closure of K that contains E and let  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ . Let  $x \in S$ . Then x is a root of some  $f_j = \sum a_k X^k$ . Since  $f_j(x) = 0$ , it follows that  $\sigma(x)$  is a root of  $f_j$ , as

$$f_j(\sigma(x)) = \sum a_k \sigma(x)^k = \sum \sigma(a_k) \sigma(x^k) = \sigma\left(\sum a_k x^k\right) = \sigma(0) = 0.$$

Hence  $\sigma(E) \subseteq E$ .

Exercise 5.11. Let  $E = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[4]{7} + \sqrt{2}]$ .

- 1) Prove that  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  is not normal.
- **2)** Compute  $[E:\mathbb{Q}]$ .
- **3**) Compute  $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$ .

§ 5.2. **Dedekind's theorem.** Note that every extension homomorphism  $E/K \to F/K$  is, in particular, a K-linear map  $E \to F$ , that is

$$\operatorname{Hom}(E/K, F/K) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_K(E, F)$$
.

If F/K is an extension and V is a K-vector space, the set  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(V,F)$  of K-linear maps is a vector space over F with  $(a \cdot f)(v) = af(v)$  for  $a \in F$ ,  $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_K(V,F)$  and  $v \in V$ .

EXERCISE 5.12. Let V be a K-vector space. Prove that  $\dim_F \operatorname{Hom}_K(V,F) \ge \dim_K V$ . Moreover, if  $\dim_K V < \infty$ , then  $\dim_F \operatorname{Hom}_K(V,F) = \dim_K V$ .

If *V* is a vector space and *S* is a (possibly infinite) subset of *V*, then *S* is linearly independent if every finite subset of *S* is linearly independent.

THEOREM 5.13 (Dedekind). Let E/K and F/K be extensions and let  $\{\varphi_i : i \in I\}$  be a subset of Hom(E/K, F/K), i.e. a family of extension homomorphisms. Assume that  $\varphi_i \neq \varphi_j$  if  $i \neq j$ . Then the subset  $\{\varphi_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \text{Hom}_K(E, F)$  is linearly independent over F.

PROOF. Assume it is not. Let  $\{\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n\}$  be linearly dependent over F with n minimal. Clearly, n > 1. Without loss of generality, we may assume that

$$(5.1) \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \varphi_i = 0$$

for some  $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$  all different from zero. Let  $z \in E \setminus \{0\}$  be such that  $\varphi_1(z) \neq \varphi_2(z)$ . If  $x \in E$ , then

$$0 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \varphi_i\right)(xz) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \varphi_i(xz) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \varphi_i(x) \varphi_i(z) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i \varphi_i(z)) \varphi_i\right)(x).$$

Thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i \varphi_i(z)) \varphi_i = 0.$$

Since  $\varphi_1(z) \neq 0$ ,

(5.2) 
$$a_1 \varphi_1 + a_2 \frac{\varphi_2(z)}{\varphi_1(z)} \varphi_2 + \dots + a_n \frac{\varphi_n(z)}{\varphi_1(z)} \varphi_n = 0.$$

Thus, subtracting (5.1) and (5.2),

$$\left(a_2-a_2\frac{\varphi_2(z)}{\varphi_1(z)}\right)\varphi_2+\cdots+\left(a_n-a_n\frac{\varphi_n(z)}{\varphi_1(z)}\right)\varphi_n=0.$$

Since  $a_n \neq 0$  and  $\varphi_2(z) \neq \varphi_1(z)$ , the scalar  $a_2 - a_2 \frac{\varphi_2(z)}{\varphi_1(z)} \neq 0$  and hence  $\{\varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n\}$  is linearly dependent, a contradiction.

If E/K and F/K are extensions, let  $\gamma(E/K, F/K) = |\operatorname{Hom}(E/K, F/K)|$ .

Exercise 5.14. Prove the following statements:

- 1)  $\gamma(E/K, F/K) \leq \dim_F \operatorname{Hom}_K(E, F)$ .
- 2) If  $[E:K] < \infty$ , then  $\gamma(E/K, F/K) \le [E:K]$ .
- 3) If x is algebraic over K, then  $\gamma(K(x)/K, F/K) \le \deg f(x, K)$ .

If *C* is an algebraic closure of *K*, then we define  $\gamma(E/K) = \gamma(E/K, C/K)$ . This definition does not depend on the algebraic closure.

Exercise 5.15. If C and  $C_1$  are algebraic closures of K, then

$$|\operatorname{Hom}(E/K,C/K)| = |\operatorname{Hom}(E/K,C_1/K)|.$$

Proposition 5.16. Let C be an algebraic closure of K and G = Gal(C/K). If  $x \in C$ , then  $\gamma(K(x)/K) = |O_G(x)|$ .

PROOF. If  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(K(x)/K, C/K)$ , then there exists  $\phi \in G$  such that  $\phi|_{K(x)} = \sigma$ . Thus

$$\sigma(x) = \phi(x) \in O_G(x)$$
.

Conversely, if  $y \in O_G(x)$ , then there exists  $\tau \in G$  such that  $y = \tau(x)$ . Hence

$$\tau|_{K(x)} \in \operatorname{Hom}(K(x)/K, C/K)$$

and  $\tau|_{K(x)}(x) = y$ . Since our sets are then in bijective correspondence, the claim follows.

EXERCISE 5.17. If E/K is finite, then  $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)| \leq [E:K]$ . Moreover, E/K is normal if and only if  $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)| = \gamma(E/K)$ .

# Lecture 6. 18/03/2024

If  $t: A \to B$  is a surjective map, then  $a \sim a_1 \iff t(a) = t(a_1)$  defines an equivalence relation on A. The set  $\overline{A}$  of equivalence classes is in bijective correspondence with  $B, \overline{A} \to B, \overline{a} \mapsto t(a)$ . Moreover, if  $|t^{-1}(\{b\})| = m$  for all  $b \in B$ , then  $|A| = m|\overline{A}| = m|B|$ .

PROPOSITION 6.1. Let E/K be algebraic and F/K be a subextension such that E/F is finite. Then  $\gamma(E/K) = \gamma(E/F)\gamma(F/K)$ .

PROOF. Assume first that E = F(x). Let C be an algebraic closure of K containing E and  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(C/F)$ . Let  $f = f(x,F) = \sum b_i X^i$ .

The map

$$\lambda: \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K) \to \operatorname{Hom}(F/K, C/K), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_F,$$

is well-defined. It is surjective: if  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(F/K, C/K)$ , then  $\varphi \colon F \to C$  is, in particular, a field homomorphism. Since E/F is algebraic, by Proposition 3.6 there exists a field homomorphism  $\sigma \colon E \to C$  such that  $\sigma|_F = \varphi$ . Since  $\sigma|_K = \varphi|_K = \operatorname{id}$ , in particular  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ .

For  $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(F/K, C/K)$ ,

$$\lambda^{-1}(\{\varphi\}) = \{ \sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K) : \sigma|_F = \varphi \}$$

and let  $R_{\varphi}$  be the set of roots (in *C*) of the polynomial  $\overline{\varphi}(f) = \sum \varphi(b_i)X^i$ .

CLAIM. The map  $\alpha: \lambda^{-1}(\{\varphi\}) \to R_{\varphi}, \ \sigma \mapsto \sigma(x)$ , is well-defined.

We need to show that  $\sigma(x)$  is a root of  $\overline{\varphi}(f)$ :

$$\overline{\varphi}(f)(\sigma(x)) = \sum_{i} \varphi(b_i)\sigma(x)^i = \sum_{i} \sigma(b_i)\sigma(x^i)$$
$$= \sum_{i} \sigma(b_i x^i) = \sigma(\sum_{i} b_i x^i) = \sigma(f(x)) = \sigma(0) = 0.$$

Claim. The map  $\beta: R_{\varphi} \to \lambda^{-1}(\{\varphi\})$ ,  $y \mapsto \sigma_y$ , where  $\sigma_y(z) = \overline{\varphi}(h)(y)$  if z = h(x), is well-defined.

We need to show that if z=h(x) and  $z=h_1(x)$  for some  $h,h_1\in F[X]$ , then  $\overline{\varphi}(h)(y)=\overline{\varphi}(h_1)(y)$ . The assumptions imply that  $(h-h_1)(x)=0$  and hence f divides  $h-h_1$ . Since  $\overline{\varphi}$  is a ring homomorphism,  $\overline{\varphi}(f)$  divides  $\overline{\varphi}(h)-\overline{\varphi}(h_1)$ . This implies  $(\overline{\varphi}(h)-\overline{\varphi}(h_1))(y)=0$ . We also need to show that  $\sigma_y|_F=\varphi$ : if  $a\in F$ , then write  $a=aX^0\in F[X]$ . Thus  $\sigma_y(a)=\overline{\varphi}(aX^0)(y)=\varphi(a)\in C$ . It is now an exercise to prove that  $\sigma_y\in \operatorname{Hom}(E/K,C/K)$ .

Claim. 
$$|\lambda^{-1}(\{\varphi\})| = |R_{\varphi}|$$
.

For this we need to show that  $\beta$  is the inverse of  $\alpha$ , that is  $\alpha \circ \beta = \operatorname{id}$  and  $\beta \circ \alpha = \operatorname{id}$ . To prove that  $\beta \circ \alpha = \operatorname{id}$  let  $\sigma$  be such that  $\sigma|_F = \varphi$ . Then  $y = \sigma(x) \in R_{\varphi}$ . Let  $z = h(x) = \sum a_i x^i \in F[x] = E$ . Then

$$\overline{\varphi}(h)(y) = \sum \varphi(a_i)y^i = \sum \sigma(a_i)y^i = \sigma\left(\sum a_ix^i\right) = \sigma(z).$$

Conversely, if  $y \in R_{\varphi}$ , then

$$\alpha(\sigma_{y}) = \sigma_{y}(x) = y,$$

as 
$$\sigma_y(x) = \overline{\varphi}(X)(y) = y$$
.

CLAIM. If  $\phi \in \operatorname{Gal}(C/K)$  is such that  $\phi|_F = \varphi$ , then  $|\phi^{-1}(R_{\varphi})| = |R_{\varphi}|$  and

$$O_G(x) = \phi^{-1}(R_{\varphi}).$$

Let us first prove  $O_G(x) \supseteq \phi^{-1}(R_{\varphi})$ . If  $y \in R_{\varphi}$ , then

$$f(\phi^{-1}(y)) = \sum b_i \phi^{-1}(y^i) = \phi^{-1} \left( \sum \phi(b_i) y^i \right)$$
  
=  $\phi^{-1}(\overline{\varphi}(f)(y)) = \phi^{-1}(0) = 0.$ 

Then  $f(x,F) = f(\phi^{-1}(y),F)$ . By Proposition 4.10,  $\phi^{-1}(y) \in O_G(x)$ .

Now we prove  $O_G(x) \subseteq \phi^{-1}(R_{\varphi})$ . Let  $z \in O_G(x)$ . Then  $\overline{\varphi}(f)(\phi(z)) = 0$ , as

$$\begin{split} \overline{\varphi}(f)(\phi(z)) &= \sum \varphi(b_i)\phi(z^i) \\ &= \sum \varphi(b_i)\phi(z^i) = \phi\left(\sum b_i z^i\right) = \phi(f(z)) = \phi(0) = 0. \end{split}$$

Thus  $\phi(z) \in R_{\varphi}$  and hence  $z \in \phi^{-1}(R_{\varphi})$ . It follows that  $|\lambda^{-1}(\{\varphi\})| = |O_G(x)|$  for all  $\varphi$ . By using the argument before the proposition,

$$\gamma(E/K) = |\operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K)|$$

$$= |O_G(x)||\operatorname{Hom}(F/K, C/K)|$$

$$= |O_G(x)|\gamma(F/K).$$

Since  $\gamma(E/F) = \gamma(F(x)/F) = |O_G(x)|$  by Proposition 5.16, the claim follows.

For the general case, we assume that  $E = F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ . We proceed by induction on n. If n = 0, then E = F and the result is trivial. If n > 0, let  $L = F[x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}]$  and  $E = L(x_n)$ . The case proved implies that  $\gamma(E/F) = \gamma(E/L)\gamma(L/F)$ . By the inductive hypothesis,  $\gamma(L/K) = \gamma(L/F)\gamma(F/K)$ . Thus

$$\gamma(E/F)\gamma(F/K) = \gamma(E/L)\gamma(L/F)\gamma(F/K) = \gamma(E/L)\gamma(L/K) = \gamma(E/K),$$

again using the previous case.

#### § 6.1. Separable extensions.

DEFINITION 6.2. Let E/K be an extension and  $x \in E$  an algebraic element over K. Then x is **separable** over K if x is a simple root of f(x,K).

An algebraic extension E/K is **separable** if every  $x \in E$  is separable over K. Then K/K is separable.

EXERCISE 6.3. Prove that an element x is separable over K if and only if x is a simple root of a polynomial with coefficients in K.

If F/K is a subextension of E/K and  $x \in E$  is separable over K, then x is separable over F.

EXERCISE 6.4. If C is an algebraic closure of K,  $x \in C$  and G = Gal(C/K). Prove that the following statements are equivalent:

- 1) x is separable over K.
- 2) Every  $y \in O_G(x)$  is separable over K.
- 3)  $\gamma(K(x)/K) = [K(x) : K] = \deg f(x, K)$ .

Let K be any field and  $g \in K[X]$ . Let z be a root of g. Then z is a multiple root of g if and only if z is a root of g'.

Exercise 6.5. Prove that if K has characteristic zero or K is finite, then every algebraic extension of K is separable.

EXAMPLE 6.6. Let  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ . Then  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$  and  $Gal(E/Q) \simeq C_2 \times C_2$ . The extension E/Q is normal, as it is the decomposition field of  $(X^2 - 2)(X^2 - 3)$  and it is separable as  $\mathbb{Q}$  has characteristic zero.

EXAMPLE 6.7. Let E be a decomposition field of  $X^4-2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  is normal and separable. Note that  $E=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2},i)$ , so

$$[E:\mathbb{Q}]=8=|\operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})|.$$

Let us compute  $\operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$ . If  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$ , then  $\sigma(\sqrt[4]{2}) \in \{\sqrt[4]{2}, -\sqrt[4]{2}, \sqrt[4]{2}i, -\sqrt[4]{2}i\}$  and  $\sigma(i) \in \{-i, i\}$ . Two examples are

$$lpha : \begin{cases} \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto \sqrt[4]{2}i, \\ i \mapsto i, \end{cases} \qquad eta : \begin{cases} \sqrt[4]{2} \mapsto \sqrt[4]{2}, \\ i \mapsto -i. \end{cases}$$

It follows that  $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is isomorphic to the group  $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ , which turns out to be isomorphic to the dihedral group of eight elements.

Another consequence: If E = K(S), then E/K is separable if and only if every  $x \in S$  is separable over K. One first does the case E = K(x) and then proceeds by induction.

EXERCISE 6.8. Let  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$  be a tower of fields. Prove that E/K is separable if and only if F/K and E/F are separable.

EXERCISE 6.9. Let E/K and F/K be extensions. Prove that if F/K is separable, then EF/E is separable.

If E/K is algebraic, then

$$F = \{x \in E : x \text{ is separable over } K\}$$

is a subfield of E that contains K. It is known as the **separable closure** of K with respect to E. Note that F = K(F), as K(F) is separable because it is generated by separable elements. Moreover, F/K is separable and E/F is a **purely inseparable** extension, meaning that for every  $x \in E \setminus F$ , the polynomial f(x,F) is not separable.

Proposition 6.10. *If* E/K *is separable and finite, then* E=K(x) *for some*  $x \in E$ .

PROOF. Let us assume that K is finite. Then E is finite and hence the multiplicative group  $E^{\times} = E \setminus \{0\}$  is cyclic, say  $E^{\times} = \langle x \rangle$ . It follows that E = K(x).

Let us now assume that K is infinite. We first consider the case E = K(x,y). The general case  $E = K(x_1,...,x_n)$  is left as an exercise, one needs to proceed by induction. Let n = [E:K] and C be an algebraic closure of K containing E. Write  $\text{Hom}(E/K,C/K) = \{\sigma_1,...,\sigma_n\}$ . Let

$$f = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} \left( (\sigma_i(y) - \sigma_j(y)) + X(\sigma_i(x) - \sigma_j(x)) \right) \in C[X].$$

Then  $f \neq 0$ , as f is a product of non-zero polynomials. Since K is infinite, there exists a non-zero  $c \in K$  such that  $f(c) \neq 0$ . For any  $r, s \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  with  $r \neq s$ ,

$$\sigma_r(y) - \sigma_s(y) + c(\sigma_r(x) - \sigma_s(x)) \neq 0,$$

as  $f(c) \neq 0$ . It follows that  $\sigma_r(y+cx) \neq \sigma_s(y+cx)$ . Thus  $\gamma(K(y+cx)/K) \geq n$ . Now

$$n \ge [K(y+cx):K] = \gamma(K(y+cx)/K) \ge n,$$

so 
$$[K(y+cx):K] = n$$
 and hence  $K(y+cx) = E$ .

For example,  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}+i)$ .

#### Lecture 7. 24/03/2024

THEOREM 7.1 (Steinitz). Let E/K be a finite extension. Then E=K(x) for some  $x \in E$  if and only if E/K admits finitely many subextensions.

PROOF. We may assume that K is infinite; otherwise, the result is trivial. We first prove  $\Longrightarrow$ . Let us assume that E = K(x) for some x. We claim that the map

$$\Psi \colon \{F : K \subseteq F \subseteq E\} \to \{g \in K[X] : g \text{ is a monic divisor of } f(x,K)\},$$
$$F \mapsto f(x,F),$$

is injective. Take  $F_0$  such that  $K \subseteq F_0 \subseteq F \subseteq E$  and  $f(x,F) = f(x,F_0)$ . Then

$$[E:F_0] = [F_0(x):F_0] = \deg f(x,F_0) = m = [F(x):F] = [E:F]$$

and hence  $F = F_0$ .

In general, let  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  be such that  $K \subseteq F_1, F_2 \subseteq E$  and  $f(x, F_1) = f(x, F_2)$ . Let  $F_0 = F_1 \cap F_2$ . Then  $f = f(x, F_1) = f(x, F_2) \in F_0[X]$  and hence  $f(x, F_0) = f$ . Hence we can apply what we proved before to  $F_0 \subseteq F_1$  and  $F_0 \subseteq F_2$ , to obtain that  $F_1 = F_0 = F_2$ . It follows that  $\Psi$  is injective and hence there are finitely many fields between K and E.

Let us prove  $\Leftarrow$ . Let us assume that E = K(x, y). For each  $a \in K$ , we consider the extension K(ay + x)/K. By assumption, there exist  $a, b \in K$  such that  $a \neq b$  and

$$K(x+ay) = K(x+by) = L.$$

We claim that L = E. Note that  $x + ay \in L$  and  $x + by \in L$ , so  $(a - b)y \in L$  and hence, since  $K \subseteq L$ , it follows that  $y \in L$ . Thus  $x \in L$  and therefore L = E.

As a consequence, if E/K is finite and separable, then E/K admits finitely many subextensions.

§ 7.1. Galois extensions. Let E/K be an algebraic extension. Assume that E=K(S) and let C be an algebraic closure of K containing E. Let

$$T = \{ y \in C : y \text{ is a root of } f(x, K) \text{ for } x \in S \}$$

and let L = K(T). Then  $E \subseteq L$ , as  $S \subseteq T$ . The extension L/K is normal, as L/K is a decomposition field of the family  $\{f(x,K): x \in S\}$ . Moreover, L is the smallest normal extension of K containing E. The field L is the **normal closure** of E (with respect to C).

EXERCISE 7.2. If E/K is finite, then L/K is finite

EXERCISE 7.3. If E/K is separable, then L/K is separable.

Let E/K be an extension and  $S \subseteq Gal(E/K)$  be a subset. the set

$${}^{S}E = \{x \in E : \sigma(x) = x \text{ for all } \sigma \in S\}$$

is a subfield of E that contains K. The subfield  ${}^{S}E$  is known as the **fixed field** of S.

DEFINITION 7.4. Let E/K be an algebraic extension and G = Gal(E/K). Then E/K is a **Galois** extension if  $^{G}E = K$ .

Clearly, K/K is a Galois extension. Note that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})/\mathbb{Q}$  is not a Galois extension. Why?

Exercise 7.5. Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q}$  is a Galois extension.

EXERCISE 7.6. If the characteristic of *K* is different from two, then every quadratic extension of *K* is a Galois extension.

EXERCISE 7.7. Let E/K be an algebraic extension and G = Gal(E/K). Let  $F = {}^GE$ . Prove that Gal(E/F) = G and hence E/F is a Galois extension.

Proposition 7.8. Let E/K be an algebraic extension. Then E/K is a Galois extension if and only if E/K is normal and separable.

PROOF. Let G = Gal(E/K). Let us first assume that E/K is Galois. For  $x \in E$  let

$$f_X = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X - y) = \sum a_i X^i \in E[X].$$

If  $\varphi \in G$ , then

$$\overline{\varphi}(f_x) = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X - \varphi(y)) = f_x,$$

as if  $O_G(x) = {\sigma_1(x), \dots, \sigma_r(x)}$ , then  $\varphi(\sigma_i(x)) = (\varphi \sigma_i)(x) = \sigma_j(x)$  for some j. Since

$$\sum a_i X^i = f_x = \overline{\varphi}(f_x) = \sum \varphi(a_i) X^i,$$

it follows that  $a_i \in {}^GE = K$  for all i. Thus  $f_x \in K[X]$  and E/K is a decomposition field of the family  $\{f_x : x \in E\}$ . In particular, E/K is normal. Moreover, x is a simple root of  $f_x \in K[X]$  and hence x is separable over K.

Conversely, let  $x \in {}^GE$ . Since E/K is normal, then  $f(x,K) = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X-y)^m$  for some m. Since E/K is separable, m = 1. Moreover  $x \in {}^GE$ , so  $O_G(x) = \{x\}$ . Thus  $f(x,K) = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X-y) = X - x$  and  $x \in K$ .

DEFINITION 7.9. Let K be a field and  $f \in K[X]$ . Then f is **separable** if all roots of f are simple (in some algebraic closure of K).

PROPOSITION 7.10. Let E/K be a finite extension. Then E/K is a Galois extension if and only if E is a decomposition field over K of a separable polynomial  $f \in K[X]$ .

PROOF. Let us assume first that E/K is a Galois extension. Since E/K is finite and separable, E = K(x) by Proposition 6.10. Then E/K is a decomposition field of f(x,K) since E/K is normal. Since E/K is separable, x is separable over K. Thus x is a simple root of f(x,K) and hence f(x,K) is separable. Conversely, let  $x_1, \ldots, x_r$  be the roots of a separable polynomial  $f \in K[X]$ . Then  $E = K(x_1, \ldots, x_r)$  is separable and normal.

In the previous case,  $\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$  is known as the **Galois group** of the polynomial f. The notation is  $\operatorname{Gal}(f,K)$ . If  $n=\deg f$  and  $x_1,\ldots,x_n$  are the roots of f, then any  $\varphi\in\operatorname{Gal}(f,K)$  permutes the roots of f, that is  $\varphi$  permutes the set  $\{x_1,\ldots,x_n\}$ . In particular,  $\operatorname{Gal}(f,K)$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $\mathbb{S}_n$  and hence  $|\operatorname{Gal}(f,K)|$  divides n!.

Proposition 7.11. Let E/K be a normal extension and F be the separable closure of K with respect to E. Then F/K is a Galois extension.

PROOF. Let C/K be an algebraic closure such that  $E \subseteq C$ . Let  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}(F/K, C/K)$ . and let  $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$  be such that  $\varphi|_F = \sigma$ . Since E/K is normal,  $\varphi(E) = E$ . Let  $x \in F$ . Then  $\sigma(x) = \varphi(x) \in E$ . Thus  $f(\sigma(x), K) = f(x, K)$  and  $\sigma(x)$  is separable over K, which implies that  $\sigma(x) \in F$ . Thus F/K is normal. Since F/K is separable, it follows that F/K is a Galois extension by Proposition 7.8.

Some easy facts.

EXERCISE 7.12. Let E/K be a separable extension and L/K be the normal closure of E in some algebraic closure C that contains E. Prove that L/K is a Galois extension.

EXERCISE 7.13. Let E/K be a finite extension. Prove that E/K is Galois if and only if  $[E:K] = |\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)|$ .

For the previous exercise, note that if E/K is a finite extension, then

$$|\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)| \le \gamma(E/K) \le [E:K].$$

The first inequality is equality if and only if E/K is normal. The second inequality is equality if and only if E/K is separable.

EXERCISE 7.14. Let E/K be a Galois extension and F/K be a subextension of E/K. Prove that E/F is a Galois extension.

THEOREM 7.15 (Artin). Let E be a field and G be a finite group of automorphisms of E. If  $K = {}^{G}E$ , then E/K is a Galois extension, [E:K] = |G| and Gal(E/K) = G.

Before proving the theorem, we need a lemma.

Lemma 7.16. Let E/K be a separable extension such that  $\deg f(x,K) \leq m$  for all  $x \in E$ . Then E/K is finite and  $[E:K] \leq m$ .

PROOF. Let  $z \in E$  be of maximal degree. If  $x \in E$ , then K(x,z)/K is separable. There exists y such that K(x,z) = K(y). Then

$$K(z) \subseteq K(x,z) = K(y)$$
.

Since  $\deg f(z,K) \leq \deg f(y,K)$ ,  $\deg f(z,K) = \deg f(y,K)$ . Hence K(y) = K(z). In particular,  $x \in K(z)$  and therefore E = K(z).

Now we are ready to prove Artin's theorem:

PROOF OF THEOREM 7.15. Note that  $G \subseteq Gal(E/K)$ . Let  $x \in E$  and

$$f_X = \prod_{y \in O_G(x)} (X - y).$$

Since  $f_x \in K[X]$ , the extension E/K is normal and separable (as it is a decomposition field of a family of separable polynomials), so E/K is a Galois extension. Moreover,

$$\deg f(x,K) \le \deg f_x = |O_G(x)| \le |G|.$$

By the previous lemma, E/K is finite and  $[E:K] \le |G|$ . This implies that  $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)| = [E:K] \le |G|$  and hence  $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)| = |G|$ .

Example 7.17. Let E=K(X,Y) and  $\sigma\colon K[X,Y]\to E$  be the ring homomorphism given by  $\sigma(X)=Y$  and  $\sigma(Y)=X$ . Note that  $\sigma$  is bijective, as  $\sigma^2=\mathrm{id}$ . The map  $\sigma$  induces a field homomorphism  $\overline{\sigma}\colon E\to E$  such that  $\overline{\sigma}^2=\mathrm{id}$ . Recall that such a homomorphism is given by  $f/g\mapsto \sigma(f)/\sigma(g)$ . Let  $G=\langle\overline{\sigma}\rangle$ . Then |G|=2. We claim that  ${}^GE=K(X+Y,XY)$ . Let F=K(X+Y,XY). We only prove that  ${}^GE\subseteq F$ , as the other inclusion is trivial. Artin's theorem implies that  $[E:{}^GE]=2$  and E=F(X), as X is a root of the polynomial  $Z^2-(X+Y)Z+XY$ . Then  $[E:F]\leq 2$  and  $[{}^GE:F]=1$ .

#### Lecture 8. 15/04/2024

§ 8.1. Galois' correspondence. A partially order set (or *poset*) is a pair  $(X, \leq)$ , where X is a non-empty set and  $\leq$  is a reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive relation on X. This means:

- 1)  $x \le x$  for all  $x \in X$ ,
- 2)  $x \le y$  and  $y \le x$  imply x = y, and
- 3) x < y and y < z imply x < z.

Let  $(X, \leq)$  be a partially ordered set and  $x, y \in X$ . An element z of a poset  $(X, \leq)$  is an **upper bound** of x and y if  $x \leq z$  and  $y \leq z$ . And  $\xi$  is a **least upper bound** of x and y if it is an upper bound with  $\xi \leq z$  for every upper bound z of x and y. Similarly, one defines lower bounds and greatest lower bounds.

DEFINITION 8.1. A **lattice** if a partially ordered set *L* in which each pair of elements  $x, y \in L$  has a least upper bound  $x \vee y$  and a greatest lower bound  $x \wedge y$ .

The basic example is the following. Let X be a set and  $\mathscr{P}(X)$  be the collection of all subsets of X. The relation  $A \leq B \iff A \subseteq B$  turns  $\mathscr{P}(X)$  into a lattice with  $A \vee B = A \cup B$  and  $A \wedge B = A \cap B$ .

Example 8.2. Let G be a group and L(G) be the collection of subgroups of G. The relation

$$H < K \iff H \subseteq K$$

turns L(G) into a lattice with  $H \vee K = \langle H, K \rangle$  and  $H \wedge K = H \cap K$ .

EXAMPLE 8.3. Let E/K be a field extension and L(E/K) be the collection of intermediate fields. The relation

$$F < L \iff F \subseteq L$$

turns L(E/K) into a lattice with  $F \lor L = FL$  and  $F \land L = F \cap L$ .

A map  $f: L \to L_1$  between two lattices is said to be **order-reversing** if  $x \le y$  implies  $f(y) \le f(x)$ . We shall need an exercise.

Exercise 8.4. Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be lattices and  $f: L_1 \to L_2$  be a bijection such that f and its inverse are both order reversing. Then

$$f(x \lor y) = f(x) \land f(y), \quad f(x \land y) = f(x) \lor f(y)$$

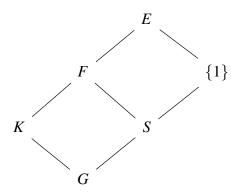
for all  $x, y \in L_1$ .

Theorem 8.5 (Galois). Let E/K be a finite Galois extension and G = Gal(E/K). There exists a bijective correspondence

$$L(E/K) = \{F : K \subseteq F \subseteq E \text{ subfields}\} \leftrightarrow \{S : S \text{ is a subgroup of } G\} = L(G).$$

The correspondence is given by  $\alpha \colon F \mapsto \operatorname{Gal}(E/F)$  and  $\beta \colon {}^SE \leftarrow S$ . Moreover, the following conditions hold:

- 1)  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are order-reversing bijections.
- **2)** [F:K] = (G: Gal(E/F)) and  $(G:S) = [{}^{S}E:K]$ .
- **3)** F/K is a Galois extension if and only if Gal(E/F) is a normal subgroup of G.



PROOF. Let  $\alpha: L(E/K) \to L(G)$ ,  $\alpha(F) = \operatorname{Gal}(E/F)$ , and  $\beta: L(G) \to L(E/K)$ ,  $\beta(S) = {}^{S}E$ . A routine exercise shows that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are well-defined. We first note that

$$\beta(\alpha(F)) = \beta(\operatorname{Gal}(E/F)) = {}^{\operatorname{Gal}(E/F)}E = F$$

since E/F is a Galois extension. Moreover,

$$\alpha(\beta(S)) = \alpha({}^{S}E) = \operatorname{Gal}(E/{}^{S}E) = S$$

by Artin's theorem, as S is finite.

It is straightforward to check that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are order-reversing bijections.

Let *F* be a subfield of *E* containing *K* and  $S = \alpha(F)$ . Then

$$[F:K] = \frac{[E:K]}{[E:F]} = \frac{|G|}{|S|} = (G:S).$$

Let C be an algebraic closure of K that contains E. If S = Gal(E/F), then  $F = {}^{S}E$ .

We need to prove that F/K is normal if and only if S is normal in G. Let us first prove  $\Longrightarrow$ . Let  $\tau \in S$  and  $\sigma \in G$ . Since F/K is normal,  $\sigma|_F \in \operatorname{Aut}(F)$ . Thus  $\sigma^{-1}(F) = F$ . In particular, if  $x \in F$ , then  $\sigma^{-1}(x) \in F$  and

$$\sigma \tau \sigma^{-1}(x) = \sigma \sigma^{-1}(x) = x.$$

Conversely, let  $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(F/K, C/K)$ . There exists  $\Phi \colon E \to C$  such that  $\Phi|_F = \varphi$ . Since E/K is normal,  $\Phi(E) = E$  and hence  $\Phi \in G$ . We claim that  $\varphi(x) \in F$  for all  $x \in F$ . Note that  $F = {}^SE$ , so

$$\tau \varphi(x) = \tau \Phi(x) = \Phi \Phi^{-1} \tau \Phi(x) = \Phi(x) = \varphi(x)$$

for all  $\tau \in S$ , as  $\Phi^{-1}\tau\Phi \in S$ . This means that  $\varphi(x) \in {}^{S}E = F$ .

Let us compute  $\operatorname{Gal}(F/K)$ . Since F/K is normal, the map  $\lambda: G \to \operatorname{Gal}(F/K)$ ,  $\sigma \mapsto \sigma|_F$ , is a surjective group homomorphism such that  $\ker \lambda = S$ . The first isomorphism theorem implies that  $\operatorname{Gal}(F/K) \simeq G/S$ .

Some easy consequences.

EXERCISE 8.6. If E/K is a Galois extension of degree n and p is a prime number dividing n, then E/K admits a subextension of degree n/p.

Exercise 8.7. If E/K is a Galois extension of degree  $p^{\alpha}m$  with p a prime number coprime with m, then E/K admits a subextension of degree m.

DEFINITION 8.8. An extension E/K is abelian if E/K is a Galois extension with Gal(E/K) abelian.

EXERCISE 8.9. If E/K is an abelian extension of degree n and d divides n, then E/K admits a subextension of degree d.

DEFINITION 8.10. An extension E/K is **cyclic** if E/K is a Galois extension with Gal(E/K) cyclic.

Example 8.11. The extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q}$  admits exactly three non-trivial subextensions:

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbb{Q}, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q}, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{6})/\mathbb{Q},$$

as  $Gal(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},\sqrt{3})/Q) \simeq C_2 \times C_2$ .

Example 8.12. Let  $\omega \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{1\}$  be such that  $\omega^5 = 1$ . Then

$$f(\omega, \mathbb{Q}) = 1 + X + X^2 + X^3 + X^4$$

and  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$  has degree four. Moreover,  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$  is a Galois extension and  $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}) \simeq C_4$ . If  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q})$ , then  $\sigma(\omega) = \omega^i$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ . Moreover, for every  $i \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$  the map  $\omega \mapsto \omega^i$  induces an automorphism of  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$ . Thus  $|\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q})| = 4$ . Now

$$\sigma_i^k = \mathrm{id} \Longleftrightarrow \omega^{i^k} = \sigma_i^k(\omega) = \omega \Longleftrightarrow i^k \equiv 1 \bmod 5.$$

Thus the map  $\sigma_2$  given by  $\omega \mapsto \omega^2$  has order four.

Since  $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ , where  $\sigma(\omega) = \omega^2$ , is cyclic of order four, the extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$  has a unique degree-two subtextension  $F/\mathbb{Q}$ . Note that  $|\langle \sigma^2 \rangle| = 2$  and  $\sigma^2(\omega) = \omega^4 = \omega^{-1}$ . Thus  $F = \langle \sigma^2 \rangle \mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ . Let  $\theta = \omega + \omega^{-1}$ . Then

$$\theta^2 = \omega^2 + \omega^3 + 2 = -(1 + \omega + \omega^{-1}) + 2 = 1 - \theta$$

and hence  $\theta$  is a root of  $X^2 + X - 1$ . It follows that

$$\theta \in \{(-1+\sqrt{5})/2, (-1-\sqrt{5})/2\}.$$

Therefore  $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ .

Let us mention some other consequences (of the fact that the correspondence depends on order-reversing bijections).

EXERCISE 8.13. Let E/K be a finite Galois extension and G = Gal(E/K). If S and T are subgroups of G, then  $\langle S,T \rangle E = {}^SE \cap {}^TE$  and  ${}^{S\cap T}E = {}^SE \cap {}^TE$ .

EXERCISE 8.14. Let E/K be a finite Galois extension and  $F, L \in L(E/K)$ . Prove that  $Gal(E/FL) = Gal(E/F) \cap Gal(E/L)$  and  $Gal(E/F \cap L) = \langle Gal(E/F), Gal(E/L) \rangle$ .

EXERCISE 8.15. Let E/K be a finite Galois extension and G = Gal(E/K). Assume that G is the direct product  $G = S \times T$  of the groups S and T. Let  $F = {}^SE$  and  $L = {}^TE$ . Then  $F \cap L = K$  and FL = E.

PROPOSITION 8.16. Let  $E_1/K$ ,  $E_2/K$  be Galois extensions. If  $E = E_1E_2$ , then E/K is a Galois extension. If, moreover,  $E_1/K$  and  $E_2/K$  are finite, then

$$\theta \colon \operatorname{Gal}(E/K) \to \operatorname{Gal}(E_1/K) \times \operatorname{Gal}(E_2/K), \quad \sigma \mapsto (\sigma|_{E_1}, \sigma|_{E_2}),$$

is an injective group homomorphism.

PROOF. Since  $E_1/K$  is algebraic, then  $E_1E_2/E_2$  is algebraic. Since  $E_2/K$  is algebraic,  $E_1E_2/K$  is algebraic. Similarly,  $E_1E_2/K$  is separable.

Let C/K be an algebraic closure such that  $E_1E_2 \subseteq C$ . If  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E_1E_2/K, C/K)$ , then  $\sigma(E_1E_2) \subseteq \sigma(E_1)\sigma(E_2) = E_1E_2$  (do this calculation as an exercise using the fact that  $E_1/K$  and  $E_2/K$  are normal extensions). Thus  $E_1E_2/K$  is normal.

If both  $E_1/K$  and  $E_2/K$  are finite, then  $E_1E_2/K$  is finite.

Then  $\theta$  is a group homomorphism. We claim that the map  $\theta$  is injective. Let  $\sigma \in \ker \theta$ . Then  $\sigma|_{E_i} = \mathrm{id}_{E_i}$  for all  $i \in \{1,2\}$ . Let  $S = \langle \sigma \rangle \subseteq \mathrm{Gal}(E/K)$  and  $F = {}^SE$ . Then  $E_i \subseteq F$  for all  $i \in \{1,2\}$  and hence  $E \subseteq F$ . It follows that  $F = E = {}^{\{\mathrm{id}\}}E$  and therefore  $S = \{\mathrm{id}\}$ , so  $\sigma = \mathrm{id}$ .

EXERCISE 8.17. Let  $E_1/K, \dots, E_r/K$  be finite Galois extensions such that for each j one has  $E_j \cap (E_1 \cdots E_{j-1} E_{j+1} \cdots E_r) = K$ . Then

$$\operatorname{Gal}(E/K) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(E_1/K) \times \cdots \times \operatorname{Gal}(E_r/K).$$

In this case,  $[E : K] = \prod_{i=1}^{r} [E_i : K]$ .

- § 8.2. The fundamental theorem of algebra. We now present an easy proof of the fundamental theorem of algebra based on the ideas of Galois Theory. We need the following well-known facts:
  - 1) Every real polynomial of odd degree admits a real root. This means that  $\mathbb{R}$  does not admit extension of odd degree > 1.
  - 2) Every complex number admits a square root in  $\mathbb{C}$ . This means that  $\mathbb{C}$  does not admit degree-two extensions.

Theorem 8.18. The field  $\mathbb{C}$  is algebraically closed.

PROOF. Let  $E/\mathbb{C}$  be an algebraic finite extension. Then  $E/\mathbb{R}$  is finite separable extension of even degree. There exists a Galois extension  $L/\mathbb{R}$  such that  $E \subseteq L$ , so  $[L:\mathbb{R}]$  is even. Let  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{R})$ . Then  $|G| = 2^m s$  for some odd number s. If T is a 2-Sylow subgroup of G, then there exists a subextension  $F/\mathbb{R}$  of degree s. Since  $\mathbb{R}$  does not admit extensions of odd degree > 1, s = 1 and hence G is a 2-group. Since  $L/\mathbb{R}$  is a Galois extension,  $L/\mathbb{C}$  is a Galois extension. In particular,  $|\operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{C})| = 2^{m-1}$ . If m > 1, let U be a subgroup of  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{C})$  of order  $2^{m-2}$ . Then U corresponds to a subextension  $L_1/\mathbb{C}$  of degree two, a contradiction. Hence m = 1 and  $[L:\mathbb{C}] = 1$ , so  $L = \mathbb{C}$  and  $E = \mathbb{C}$ .

§ 8.3. Purely inseparable extensions. Let E/K be an algebraic extension. In page 6.1 we defined the **separable closure** of K with respect to E as the field

$$F = \{x \in E : x \text{ is separable over } K\}.$$

Note that  $K \subseteq F \subseteq E$  and F = K(F). Moreover, F/K is separable and E/F is a **purely inseparable** extension, meaning that for every  $x \in E \setminus F$ , the polynomial f(x, F) is not separable.

The number  $[E:K]_{ins} = [E:F]$  is known as the **degree of inseparability** of E/K. Clearly, E/K is separable if and only if  $[E:K]_{ins} = 1$  and E/K is purely inseparable if and only if  $[E:K]_{ins} = [E:K]$ .

Proposition 8.19. Let K be a field of characteristic p > 0 and E/K be an algebraic extension. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1) E/K is purely inseparable.
- **2)** If  $x \in E$ , then  $x^{p^m} \in K$  for some  $m \ge 0$ .
- 3) If  $x \in E$ , then  $f(x,K) = X^{p^m} a$  for some  $a \in K$  and  $m \ge 0$ .
- **4)**  $\gamma(E/K) = 1$ .

PROOF. We first prove  $1) \implies 2$ ). Let  $x \in E$  and f = f(x, K). Assume x is not separable. Then f(x) = 0 and f'(x) = 0, as x is not a simple root. Since  $\deg f' < \deg f$  and f is the minimal polynomial of x, it follows that f' = 0. The coefficients of f' are of the form  $ka_k$ . Since E is a field,  $a_k = 0$  if k is not divisible by p. If  $a_k \neq 0$ , then k = pm for some  $m \geq 0$ . It follows that  $f = g(X^p)$  for some  $g \in K[X]$  with  $\deg g < \deg f$ . We now proceed by induction on the degree of x. The result is true for elements of degree one. So assume the result holds for the element of degree  $\leq n$  for some  $n \geq 1$ . If  $x \in E$  is such that  $\deg f(x, K) = n + 1$ , then, since  $f(x, K) = g(X^p)$ , the element  $x^p$  has degree  $\leq n$ . By the inductive hypothesis,  $x^{p^{m+1}} = (x^p)^{p^m} \in K$ .

We now prove 2)  $\Longrightarrow$  3). Let  $x \in E$  and m be the minimal positive integer such that  $x^{p^m} \in K$ . Then x is a root of  $X^{p^m} - x^{p^m} \in K[X]$ . Since  $X^{p^m} - x^{p^m} = (X - x)^{p^m}$ , it follows that

$$f(x,K) = (X-x)^r = X^r + \dots + (-1)^r x^r$$

for some  $r \in \{1, ..., p^m\}$ . Write  $r = p^s t$  for some integer t coprime with p and s such that  $0 \le s \le m$ . Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that  $ar + bp^m = p^s$ . Then

$$x^{p^s} = x^{ar+bp^m} = (x^r)^a (x^{p^m})^b \in K.$$

The minimality of *m* implies that  $s \ge m$  and hence s = m. Now  $p^m t = p^s t = r \le p^m$ , so t = 1. This means  $f(x, K) = X^{p^m} - x^{p^m}$ .

We now prove 3)  $\Longrightarrow$  4). Let C/K be an algebraic closure of K containing E and  $x \in E$ . Let  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ . We claim that  $\sigma(x) = x$ . Since  $f(x, K) = X^{p^m} - a$ ,

$$(\sigma(x))^{p^m} = \sigma(x^{p^m}) = \sigma(a) = a = x^{p^m}.$$

It follows that  $\sigma(x)$  is a root of  $X^{p^m} - x^{p^m} = (X - x)^{p^m}$ . Thus  $\sigma(x) = x$ .

Finally, we prove that  $4) \Longrightarrow 1$ ). Let C be an algebraic closure of K containing E. Then  $Gal(E/K) = Hom(E/K, C/K) = \{id\}$ , as  $\gamma(E/K) = 1$ . If  $x \in E$  is separable over K, then

$$f(x,K) = \prod_{y \in O_{Gal(E/K)}(x)} (X - y) = X - x \in K[X].$$

Thus  $x \in K$  and hence E/K is purely inseparable.

Some consequences:

EXERCISE 8.20. Let K be a field of characteristic p > 0 and E/K be finite and purely inseparable. Then  $[E:K] = p^s$  for some prime number p and some s. Moreover,  $x^{[E:K]} \in K$ .

For the first part of the previous exercise, write  $E = K(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and proceed by induction on n.

EXERCISE 8.21. Let K be of characteristic p > 0 and E/K be a finite extension such that [E:K] is not divisible by p. Then E/K is separable.

Let K be of characteristic p > 0, E/K be finite and F be the separable closure of K in E. Since

$$\gamma(E/K) = \gamma(E/F)\gamma(F/K) = \gamma(F/K),$$

it follows that

$$[E:K] = [E:F]\gamma(E/K) = [E:K]_{ins}\gamma(E/K).$$

## Lecture 9. 22/04/2024

#### § 9.1. Norm and trace.

DEFINITION 9.1. Let E/K be a finite extension and C/K be an algebraic closure that contains E. Let A = Hom(E/K, C/K). For  $x \in E$  we define the **trace** of x in E/K as

$$\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) = [E:K]_{\operatorname{ins}} \sum_{\varphi \in A} \varphi(x)$$

and the **norm** of x in E/K as

$$\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(x) = \left(\prod_{\varphi \in A} \varphi(x)\right)^{[E:K]_{\operatorname{ins}}}.$$

As an optional exercise, one can show that these definitions do not depend on the algebraic closure.

We collect some basic properties as an exercise:

Exercise 9.2. Let E/K be a finite extension. The following statements hold:

- 1) If E/K is not separable, then  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in E$ .
- 2) If  $x \in K$ , then  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) = [E : K]x$ .
- 3) trace $_{E/K}(x) \in K$  for all  $x \in E$ .
- 4)  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(x) = 0$  if and only if x = 0.
- 5) If  $x \in K$ , then  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(x) = x^{[E:K]}$ .
- **6**)  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(x) \in K$  for all  $x \in E$ .

One proves, moreover, that  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K} : E \to K$  satisfies

$$\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x + \lambda y) = \operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) + \lambda \operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(y)$$

for all  $x, y \in E$  and  $\lambda \in K$ , that is to say that  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K} \colon E \to K$  is a linear form in E The norm  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K} \colon E^{\times} \to K^{\times}$  is a group homomorphism.

Exercise 9.3. Let E/K be a finite extension and  $x \in E$ . If

$$f(x,K) = X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_1X + a_0,$$

then  $\text{norm}_{E/K}(x) = ((-1)^n a_0)^{[E:K(x)]}$  and  $\text{trace}_{E/K}(x) = -[E:K(x)]a_{n-1}$ .

Example 9.4. Let  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ . Then

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{trace}_{E/\mathbb{Q}}(\sqrt{2}) &= 0, & \operatorname{norm}_{E/\mathbb{Q}}(\sqrt{2}) &= 4, \\ \operatorname{trace}_{E/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})}(\sqrt{2}) &= 2\sqrt{2}, & \operatorname{norm}_{E/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})}(\sqrt{2}) &= 2. \end{split}$$

EXAMPLE 9.5. If E/K is a finite Galois extension, then

$$\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) = \sum_{\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)} \sigma(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(x) = \prod_{\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)} \sigma(x)$$

for all  $x \in E$ . In particular, since E = K(y) for some y by Proposition 6.10,

$$\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(y) = -a_{n-1}$$
 and  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(y) = (-1)^n a_0$ ,

where  $f(y, K) = X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_1X + a_0$ .

# § 9.2. Finite fields. In this section, p will be a prime number.

Proposition 9.6. Let m be a positive integer. Up to isomorphism, there exists a unique field  $F_m$  of size  $p^m$ .

PROOF. Let C be an algebraic closure of the field  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  and let  $F_m = \{x \in C : x^{p^m} = x\}$  be the set of roots of  $X^{p^m} - X$ . Since the polynomial  $X^{p^m} - X$  has no multiple roots,  $|F_m| = p^m$ . Moreover,  $F_m$  is the unique subfield of C of size  $p^m$ .

To prove the uniqueness, it is enough to note that if K is a field of  $p^m$  elements, then K is the decomposition field of  $X^{p^m} - X$  over  $\mathbb{Z}/p$ .

Let  $K = \mathbb{Z}/p$  and C be an algebraic closure of K. We claim that  $C = \bigcup_k F_k$ . If  $x \in C$ , then x is algebraic over K. Since K(x)/K is finite, K(x) is a finite field, say  $|K| = p^r$  for some r. Then  $x^{p^r} = x$  and hence  $x \in F_r$ .

Exercise 9.7. Prove the following statements:

- 1) If  $x \in F_r$ , then  $x^{p^{rk}} = x$  for all  $k \ge 0$ .
- **2)** If  $m \mid n$ , then  $F_m \subseteq F_n$ .
- 3)  $F_m \cap F_n = F_{\gcd(m,n)}$ .
- **4)**  $F_m \subseteq F_n$  if and only if  $m \mid n$ .

Proposition 9.8. Every finite extension of a finite field is cyclic.

PROOF. Let  $K = \mathbb{Z}/p$ . It is enough to show that  $F_n/F_m$  is cyclic if m divides n. We first prove that  $F_n/K$  is cyclic. Let

$$\sigma: F_n \to F_n, \quad x \mapsto x^p.$$

Then  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(F_n/K)$  (it is bijective because all field homomorphisms are injective and  $F_n$  is finite). Note that  $F_n/K$  is a Galois extension, as  $F_n$  is the splitting field over K of the separable polynomial  $X^{p^n} - X \in K[X]$ . Thus  $|\operatorname{Gal}(F_n/K)| = |F_n : K| = n$ .

We claim that  $\sigma$  generated  $Gal(F_n/K)$ . Since  $\sigma^i(x) = x^{p^i}$  for all  $i \ge 0$ , in particular,

$$\sigma^n(x) = x^{p^n} = x.$$

Thus  $\sigma^n = \text{id}$  and hence  $|\sigma|$  divides n. Let  $s = |\sigma|$ . We know that  $F_n^{\times} = F_n \setminus \{0\}$  is cyclic, say  $F_n^{\times} = \langle g \rangle$ . Since  $|g| = p^n - 1$ ,

$$g = \sigma^s(g) = g^{p^s}$$

and hence  $p^s \equiv 1 \mod (p^n - 1)$ . Thus  $p^n - 1$  divides  $p^s - 1$  and hence n divides s. Therefore n = s and  $Gal(F_n/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ .

For the general case note that if m divides n, then  $Gal(F_n/F_m)$  is a subgroup of  $Gal(F_n/K)$ . Since  $Gal(F_n/K)$  is cyclic, the claim follows.

If  $K = \mathbb{Z}/p$  and m divides n, the subextension  $F_m$  corresponds to the unique subgroup of index m of  $Gal(F_n/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ . This subgroup is  $\langle \sigma^m \rangle$ , where

$$\sigma^m(x) = x^{p^m} = x^{|F_m|}.$$

Note that  $Gal(F_n/F_m) = \langle \sigma^m \rangle$ . The map  $\sigma^m$  is known as the **Frobenius automorphism**.

EXERCISE 9.9. Let E/K be an extension of finite fields. Then E/K is cyclic. Moreover,  $Gal(E/K) = \langle \tau \rangle$ , where  $\tau(x) = x^{|K|}$ .

§ 9.3. Cyclotomic extensions. For  $n \ge 1$  let  $G_n(K) = \{x \in K : x^n = 1\}$  be the set of n-roots of one in K. Note that  $G_n(K)$  is a cyclic subgroup of  $K^{\times}$  and that  $|G_n(K)|$  divides n.

Example 9.10.  $G_n(\mathbb{R}) = \{-1, 1\}$  if n is odd and  $G_n = \{1\}$  if n is even.

Exercise 9.11. Let K be a field of characteristic p > 0. Let  $n = p^s m$  for some m not divisible by p. Then  $G_n(K) = G_m(K)$ .

Exercise 9.12. Let q be a prime number. Then  $G_n(\mathbb{Z}/q) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/\gcd(n,q-1)$ .

Similarly, one can prove that if K is a finite field, then  $G_n(K)$  is a cyclic group of order  $gcd(n, |K^{\times}|)$ .

EXAMPLE 9.13. If C is algebraically closed of characteristic coprime with n, then  $G_n(C)$  is cyclic of order n, as  $X^n - 1$  has all its roots in C and does not contain multiple roots.

Let K be an algebraically closed field and n be such that n is coprime with the characteristic of K. The set of **primitive** n-**roots** is defined as

$$H_n(K) = \{x \in G_n(K) : |x| = n\}.$$

DEFINITION 9.14. Let K be an algebraically closed field and n be such that n is coprime with the characteristic of K. The n-th cyclotomic polynomial is defined as

$$\Phi_n = \prod_{x \in H_n(K)} (X - x) \in K[X].$$

For  $n \ge 1$  the Euler's function is defined as

$$\varphi(n) = |\{k : 1 \le k \le n, \gcd(k, n) = 1\}|.$$

For example,  $\varphi(4) = 2$ ,  $\varphi(8) = \varphi(10) = 4$  and  $\varphi(p) = p - 1$  for every prime p.

Proposition 9.15. Let K be an algebraically closed field and n be such that n is coprime with the characteristic of K. Let A be the ring of integers of K.

- 1) deg  $\Phi_n = \varphi(n)$ .
- **2**)  $\Phi_n \in A[X]$ .

PROOF. The first statement is clear. Let us prove 2) by induction on n. The case n = 1 is trivial, as  $\Phi_1 = X - 1$ . Assume that  $\Phi_d \in A[X]$  for all d such that d < n. In particular,

$$\gamma = \prod_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d \neq n}} \Phi_d \in A[X].$$

Since  $\gamma$  is monic, it follows that  $\frac{X^n-1}{\gamma} \in A[X]$ . Now the claim follows from

$$X^{n}-1=\prod_{d\mid n}\Phi_{d}=\Phi_{n}\prod_{\substack{d\mid n\\d\neq n}}\Phi_{d}=\Phi_{n}\gamma.$$

By taking degree in the equality  $X^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d$  one gets

$$n = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d).$$

DEFINITION 9.16. Let  $n \ge 2$  and K be a field of characteristic coprime with n. A **cyclotomic** extension of K of index n is a decomposition field of  $X^n - 1$  over K.

Let *C* be an algebraic closure of *K* and  $n \ge 2$  be coprime with the characteristic of *K*. If follows from Definition 9.16 that a cyclotomic extension of index *n* is of the form  $K(\omega)/K$  for some  $\omega \in H_n(K)$ .

Proposition 9.17. A cyclotomic extension of index n is abelian and of degree a divisor of  $\varphi(n)$ .

PROOF. Let C be an algebraic closure of K and  $n \ge 2$  be coprime with the characteristic of K. Let  $\omega \in H_n(C)$  and  $K(\omega)/K$  be a cyclotomic extension. Then  $K(\omega)/K$  is a Galois extension, as it is a decomposition field of a separable polynomial. Let  $U = \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}/n)$  be the group of units of  $\mathbb{Z}/n$  and

$$\lambda : \operatorname{Gal}(K(\omega)/K) \to U, \quad \sigma \mapsto m_{\sigma},$$

where  $m_{\sigma}$  is such that  $\sigma(\omega) = \omega^{m_{\sigma}}$ . The map  $\lambda$  is well-defined and it is a group homomorphism, as if  $\sigma, \tau \in \text{Gal}(K(\omega)/K)$ , then, since

$$(\tau\sigma)(\omega) = \tau(\sigma(\omega)) = \tau(\omega^{m_{\sigma}}) = (\omega^{m_{\sigma}})^{m_{\tau}} = \omega^{m_{\sigma}m_{\tau}}$$

it follows that  $\lambda(\sigma)\lambda(\tau) = \lambda(\sigma\tau)$ . Since  $\lambda$  is injective,  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\omega)/K)$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of the abelian group U. Hence  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\omega)/K)$  is abelian. Moreover,  $[K(\omega):K] = |\operatorname{Gal}(K(\omega)/K)|$  is a divisor of  $|U| = \varphi(n)$ .

Exercise 9.18. Prove that a cyclotomic extension  $K(\omega)/K$  has degree  $\varphi(n)$  if and only if  $\Phi_n$  is irreducible over K.

Note that  $\Phi_n$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Some concrete examples:

$$\Phi_1 = X - 1$$
,  $\Phi_2 = X + 1$ ,  $\Phi_3 = X^2 + X + 1$ ,  $\Phi_6 = X^2 - X + 1$ .

If *p* is a prime number, then  $\Phi_p = X^{p-1} + \cdots + X + 1$ .

Example 9.19.  $\Phi_5$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ . First note that  $\Phi_5 = X^4 + \cdots + X + 1$  does not have roots in  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ . If  $\Phi_5$  is reducible, then, since  $X^2 + X + 1$  is the unique degree-two monic irreducible polynomial over  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ , it follows that

$$\Phi_5 = (X^2 + X + 1)(X^2 + X + 1) = (X^2 + X + 1)^2 = X^4 + X^2 + 1$$

a contradiction.

Exercise 9.20. Prove that  $\Phi_{12} = X^4 - X^2 + 1$  is not irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}/5$ .

# § 9.4. Hilbert's theorem 90.

THEOREM 9.21 (Hilbert). Let E/K be a cyclic extension. Assume that Gal(E/K) is generated by  $\tau$ . For  $a \in E$ ,  $norm_{E/K}(a) = 1$  if and only if  $a = b/\tau(b)$  for some  $b \in L \setminus \{0\}$ .

PROOF. Let n = |G|. We first prove  $\iff$  . If  $a = b/\tau(b)$  and  $b \neq 0$ , then

$$\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(a) = a\tau(a)\tau^{2}(a)\cdots\tau^{n-1}(a) = \frac{b}{\tau(b)}\frac{\tau(b)}{\tau^{2}(b)}\cdots\frac{\tau^{n-1}(b)}{\tau^{n}(b)} = 1.$$

Now we prove  $\implies$  . Let  $a \in E$  be such that  $\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(a) = 1$ . For  $c \in E$  let

$$d_0 = ac,$$

$$d_1 = a\tau(a)\tau(c),$$

$$d_2 = a\tau(a)\tau^2(a)\tau^2(c),$$

$$\vdots$$

$$d_{n-1} = \underbrace{a\tau(a)\cdots\tau^{n-1}(a)}_{=\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(a)}\tau^{n-1}(c) = \tau^{n-1}(c).$$

Then

$$a\tau(d_i) = a\tau(a)\cdots\tau^{j+1}(a)\tau^{j+1}(c) = d_{j+1}$$

for all  $j \in \{0, ..., n-2\}$ . Let  $b = d_0 + \cdots + d_{n-1}$ . Then  $b \neq 0$ , otherwise, if b = 0, then, for every  $c \in E$ ,

$$0 = ac + (a\tau(a))\tau(c) + \dots + (a\tau(a)\cdots\tau^{n-1}(a))\tau^{n-1}(c)$$

implies that a = 0 by Dedekind's theorem, a contradiction. So let  $c \in E$  be such that  $b \neq 0$ . Then

$$\tau(b) = \tau(d_0) + \dots + \tau(d_{n-1})$$

$$= \tau(ac) + \tau(a\tau(c)) + \dots + \tau(\tau^{n-1}(c))$$

$$= \frac{1}{a}(d_1 + \dots + d_{n-1}) + \tau^n(c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{a}(d_0 + \dots + d_{n-1})$$

$$= b/a.$$

Exercise 9.22. Let E/K be a cyclic extension. Assume that  $\operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$  is generated by  $\tau$ . Prove that for  $a \in E$ ,  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(a) = 0$  if an only if  $a = b - \tau(b)$  for some  $b \in L \setminus \{0\}$ .

Corollary 9.23. Let  $a,b,c \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ . Then

$$(a,b,c) = \lambda(r^2 - s^2, -2rs, r^2 + s^2)$$

*for some*  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$  *and some*  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

PROOF. We work with the extension  $\mathbb{Q}(i)/\mathbb{Q}$ . Note that  $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(i),\mathbb{Q})=\{\operatorname{id},\gamma\}$  is cyclic, where  $\gamma\colon \mathbb{Q}(i)\to \mathbb{Q}(i),\ z\mapsto \bar{z}$ , is the complex conjugation. We may assume that  $c\neq 0$ , otherwise a=b=0 and the result is trivial. Write  $(a/c)^2+(b/c)^2=1$  and let  $\alpha=(a/c)+(b/c)i\in\mathbb{Q}(i)$ . Then  $\operatorname{norm}_{\mathbb{Q}(i)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)=1$ . By Hilbert's theorem, there exists  $\beta\in\mathbb{Q}(i)\setminus\{0\}$  such that

$$\alpha = a + bi = \frac{\gamma(\beta)}{\beta}.$$

Note that if  $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $\frac{\gamma(m\beta)}{m\beta} = \frac{\gamma(\beta)}{\beta}$ . There exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $m\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ , say  $m\beta = r + is$  with  $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$\alpha = \frac{\gamma(\beta)}{\beta} = \frac{\gamma(m\beta)}{m\beta} = \frac{r - is}{r + is} = \frac{r^2 - s^2 - 2rsi}{r^2 + s^2}.$$

From this the claim follows.

EXERCISE 9.24. Let  $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$  be such that  $A^2 - 4B$  is not a square. Prove that a solution  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$  of  $x^2 + Axy + By^2 = z^2$  is proportional to

$$(r^2 - Bs^2, 2rs + As^2, r^2 + Ars + Bs^2).$$

**§ 9.5. Group cohomology.** Let *G* be a group and *A* be a (**left**) *G*-module. This means that *A* is an abelian group together with a map

$$G \times A \rightarrow A$$
,  $(g,a) \mapsto g \cdot a$ 

such that  $1 \cdot a = a$  for all  $a \in A$ ,  $(gh) \cdot a = g \cdot (h \cdot a)$  for all  $g, h \in G$  and  $a \in A$  and  $g \cdot (a+b) = g \cdot a + g \cdot b$  for all  $g \in G$  and  $a, b \in A$ .

Example 9.25. The group  $Gal(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R})$  acts on  $\mathbb{C}$  and  $\mathbb{C}^{\times}$ . Moreover, it acts trivially on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{R}^{\times}$ .

More generally, if E/K is a finite Galois extension, then the Galois group Gal(E/K) acts on E and  $E^{\times}$ .

DEFINITION 9.26. Let G be a group and M and N be G-modules. A map  $f: M \to N$  is a **homomorphism** of G-modules if  $f(\sigma \cdot m) = \sigma \cdot f(m)$  for all  $m \in M$  and  $\sigma \in G$ .

Definition 9.27. Let G be a group and M be a G-module. The submodule of G-invariants is defined as

$$M^G = \{ m \in M : \sigma \cdot m = m \text{ for all } \sigma \in G \}.$$

Note that  $M^G$  is the largest submodule of the G-module M where G acts trivially. For example, if  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$ , then  $E^G = K$ .

Proposition 9.28. Let G be a group. If the sequence of G-modules and G-module homomorphism

$$0 \longrightarrow P \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact, then

$$0 \longrightarrow P^G \stackrel{\alpha^0}{\longrightarrow} M^G \stackrel{\beta^0}{\longrightarrow} N^G$$

is exact, where  $\alpha^0$  is the restriction  $\alpha|_{P^G}$  of  $\alpha$  to  $P^G$  and  $\beta^0$  is the restriction  $\beta|_{M^G}$  of  $\beta$  to  $M^G$ .

Proof. Since  $\alpha$  is injective, the restriction  $\alpha^0$  is injective.

Note that  $\ker \beta^0 = \ker \beta \cap M^G \subseteq \ker \beta$ .

We claim that  $\alpha^0(P^G) = \alpha(P) \cap M^G$ . If  $m \in \alpha(P) \cap M^G$ , then  $\alpha(p) = m$  for some  $p \in P$  and  $\sigma \cdot m = m$ . Since

$$\alpha(p) = m = \sigma \cdot m = \sigma \cdot \alpha(p) = \alpha(\sigma \cdot p),$$

 $\sigma \cdot p - p \in \ker \alpha = \{0\}$ . Hence  $\sigma \cdot p = p$  and  $p \in P^G$ . Conversely, if  $m \in \alpha^0(P^G)$ , then  $m = \alpha(p)$  for some  $p \in P^G$ . If  $\sigma \in G$ , then

$$\sigma \cdot m = \sigma \cdot \alpha(p) = \alpha(\sigma \cdot p) = \alpha(p) = m.$$

Hence  $m \in M^G \cap \alpha(P)$ .

Now

$$\alpha^{0}(P^{G}) = \alpha(P) \cap M^{G} = \ker \beta \cap M^{G} = \ker \beta^{0}.$$

Note that in the previous proposition, we did not prove that the map  $\beta|_{M^G}$  is surjective.

Example 9.29. Let  $G = \text{Gal}(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R})$ . Consider the following exact sequence of G-modules:

$$1 \longrightarrow \{-1,1\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}^{\times} \xrightarrow{\beta} \mathbb{C}^{\times} \longrightarrow 1$$

where  $\beta(z) = z^2$ . Note that  $\beta$  is surjective. Take invariants to obtain the sequence

$$0 \, \longrightarrow \, \{-1,1\} \, \longrightarrow \, \mathbb{R}^{\times} \, \stackrel{\beta^0}{\longrightarrow} \, \mathbb{R}^{\times}$$

where  $\beta^0(x) = x^2$ . Note that  $\beta^0$  is not surjective!

DEFINITION 9.30. Let G be a group and N be a G-module. We define

$$\begin{split} &H^0(G,M)=M^G,\\ &C^1(G,M)=\{\phi:G\to M:\phi\text{ is a map}\},\\ &Z^1(G,M)=\{\phi\in C^1(G,M):\phi(\sigma\tau)=\phi(\sigma)+\sigma\cdot\phi(\tau)\text{ for all }\sigma,\tau\in G\}, \end{split}$$

Note that  $Z^1(G,M)$  is an abelian group with the operation

$$(\phi + \phi_1)(\sigma) = \phi(\sigma) + \phi_1(\sigma).$$

Moreover, if  $\phi \in Z^1(G,M)$ , then  $\phi(1_G) = 0_M$ . To prove this fact, note that

$$\phi(1_G) = \phi(1_G 1_G) = \phi(1_G) + 1_G \cdot \phi(1_G) = \phi(1_G) + \phi(1_G)$$

implies that  $\phi(1_G) = 0_M$ .

Example 9.31. Let G be a group and M be a G-module. Fix  $m \in M$ . Then the map  $\phi : G \to M$ ,  $\phi(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot m - m$ , is an element of  $Z^1(G,M)$ , because

$$\phi(\sigma\tau) = (\sigma\tau) \cdot m - m$$

$$= (\sigma\tau) \cdot m - \sigma \cdot m + \sigma \cdot m - m$$

$$= \sigma \cdot (\tau \cdot m - m) + \sigma \cdot m - m$$

$$= \sigma \cdot \phi(\tau) + \phi(\sigma)$$

for all  $\sigma, \tau \in G$ .

DEFINITION 9.32. Let G be a group and M be a G-module. The set  $B^1(G,M)$  of **coboundaries** is the set of elements  $\phi \in C^1(G,M)$  such that there is a fixed  $m \in M$  such that  $\phi(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot m = m$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ .

We proved in Example 9.31 that  $B^1(G,M) \subseteq Z^1(G,M)$ . A direct calculation shows that, in fact,  $B^1(G,M)$  is a subgroup of  $Z^1(G,M)$ .

Definition 9.33. Let G be a group and M be a G-module. The **first cohomology group** of G with coefficients in M is defined as the quotient

$$H^1(G,M) = Z^1(G,M)/B^1(G,M).$$

Example 9.34. If G acts trivially on M, then

$$H^0(G,M) = M^G = M$$
,  $B^1(G,M) = \{0\}$ ,  $Z^1(G,M) = \text{Hom}(G,M)$ .

Hence  $H^1(G,M) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}(G,M)$ .

Example 9.35. Let  $G = \text{Gal}(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R}) = \{\text{id}, \gamma\}$ , where  $\gamma \colon \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}, z \mapsto \overline{z}$ , is the complex conjugation. Then

$$H^0(G, \mathbb{R}^{\times}) = (\mathbb{R}^{\times})^G = \mathbb{R}^{\times}.$$

Since G acts trivially on  $\mathbb{R}^{\times}$ ,

$$H^1(G, \mathbb{R}^{\times}) = \operatorname{Hom}(G, \mathbb{R}^{\times}) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}(G, \{-1, 1\}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2.$$

The following lemma will be useful.

Lemma 9.36. Let G be a group and  $\alpha: M \to N$  be a homomorphism of G-modules. Then

$$\alpha^1$$
:  $H^1(G,M) \to H^1(G,N)$ ,  $\phi + B^1(G,M) \mapsto \alpha \circ \phi + B^1(G,N)$ ,

is a group homomorphism.

PROOF. Let us prove that the map  $\alpha^1$  is well-defined. If  $\phi - \phi' \in B^1(G, M)$ , then there exists a fixed  $m \in M$  such that  $(\phi - \phi')(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot m - m$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ . Let  $n = \alpha(m) \in N$ . For  $\sigma \in G$ ,

$$\alpha((\phi - \phi')(\sigma)) = \alpha(\sigma \cdot m - m) = \sigma \cdot \alpha(m) - \alpha(m) = \sigma \cdot n - n.$$

Thus  $\alpha \circ \phi - \alpha \circ \phi' \in B^1(G, N)$ .

We now prove that  $\alpha^1$  is a group homomorphism. If  $\phi, \phi' \in Z^1(G, M)$ , then

$$\alpha^{1}(\phi + B^{1}(G, M) + \phi' + B^{1}(G, M)) = \alpha^{1}(\phi + \phi' + B^{1}(G, M))$$

$$= \alpha \circ (\phi + \phi') + B^{1}(G, N)$$

$$= \alpha \circ \phi + \alpha \circ \phi' + B^{1}(G, N)$$

$$= \alpha \circ \phi + B^{1}(G, N) + \alpha \circ \phi' + B^{1}(G, N)$$

$$= \alpha^{1}(\phi + B^{1}(G, M)) + \alpha^{1}(\phi' + B^{1}(G, M)).$$

We will provide a detailed proof of the upcoming result. The theorem will be established by applying a **diagram chasing** technique, a widely used tool in homological algebra. The proof is tedious and may seem intricate, but the method essentially involves "chasing" elements around a (commutative) diagram until we attain the desired result.

THEOREM 9.37. Let G be a group and

$$0 \longrightarrow P \stackrel{\alpha}{\longrightarrow} M \stackrel{\beta}{\longrightarrow} N \longrightarrow 0$$

be an exact sequence of G-modules and G-module homomorphism. Then there exists a **connection** homomorphism  $\delta$  such that the sequence

$$(9.1) \qquad 0 \longrightarrow H^{0}(G,P) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{0}} H^{0}(G,M) \xrightarrow{\beta^{0}} H^{0}(G,N) \longrightarrow H^{0}(G,N) \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{1}(G,P) \xrightarrow{\alpha^{1}} H^{1}(G,M) \xrightarrow{\beta^{1}} H^{1}(G,N)$$

of abelian groups and group homomorphisms is exact.

PROOF. By Proposition 9.28, the sequence is exact at  $H^0(G,P) = P^G$ ,  $H^0(G,M) = M^G$  and  $H^0(G,N) = N^G$ . Note that, in particular,  $\alpha: P \to \alpha(P)$  is a bijective group homomorphism.

Let us construct the connecting homomorphism  $\delta : H^0(G,N) \to H^1(G,P)$ . For  $n \in N^G$ , let  $m \in M$  be such that  $\beta(m) = n$ . We define  $\delta(n) = \phi + B^1(G,P)$ , where

$$\phi(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m).$$

Note that  $\sigma \cdot m - m \in \operatorname{im} \alpha = \ker \beta$ , as

$$\beta(\sigma \cdot m - m) = \sigma \cdot \beta(m) - \beta(m) = \sigma \cdot n - n = 0.$$

Let us prove that the map  $\delta$  is well-defined: if  $m, m' \in M$  are such that  $\beta(m) = \beta(m') = n$ , then  $m - m' \in \ker \beta = \alpha(P)$ . For  $\sigma \in G$ , write  $\phi'(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot m' - m'$ . Since  $m - m' = \alpha(p)$  for some  $p \in P$  and  $\alpha^{-1}$  is a homomorphism of G-modules,

$$\phi(\sigma) - \phi'(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m) - \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m' - m')$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot (m - m')) - \alpha^{-1}(m - m')$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot \alpha(p) - \alpha(p))$$

$$= \sigma \cdot p - p.$$

Thus  $\phi - \phi' \in B^1(G, P)$ .

Note that  $\phi \in Z^1(G, P)$ , because

$$\phi(\sigma\tau) = \alpha^{-1}((\sigma\tau) \cdot m - m)$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}((\sigma\tau) \cdot m - \sigma \cdot m + \sigma \cdot m - m)$$

$$= \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot (\tau \cdot m - m)) + \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m)$$

$$= \sigma \cdot \phi(\tau) + \phi(\sigma)$$

holds for all  $\sigma, \tau \in G$ .

We now prove that the sequence (9.1) is exact at  $H^0(G,N) = N^G$ . We need to prove that  $\ker \delta = \operatorname{im} \beta^0$ . To prove  $\supseteq$  note that if  $m \in M^G$  is such that  $\delta(\beta(m)) = \phi + B^1(G,P)$ , then

$$\phi(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m) = 0.$$

Conversely, if  $n \in \ker \delta$ , then there exists  $m \in M$  such that  $\beta(m) = n$  and  $\delta(\beta(m)) = \phi + B^1(G, P)$ , where  $\phi \in B^1(G, P)$  and  $\phi(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m)$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ . Since  $\phi \in B^1(G, P)$ , there exists  $p \in P$  such that  $\phi(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot p - p$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ . Note that

$$\beta(m-\alpha(p)) = \beta(m) - \beta(\alpha(p)) = \beta(m) = n.$$

Moreover,  $m - \alpha(p) \in M^G$ , as  $\sigma \cdot (m - \alpha(p)) = m - \alpha(p)$ . Hence  $n \in \text{im } \beta^0$ .

We now prove that (9.1) is exact at  $H^1(G,P)$ , that is im  $\delta = \ker \alpha^1$ . To prove  $\subseteq$  note that for  $n \in N^G$ ,  $\delta(n) = \phi + B^1(G,P)$ , where  $\phi(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m)$  for all  $\sigma \in G$  and some  $m \in M$  such that  $\beta(m) = n$ . In particular,  $\alpha \circ \phi \in B^1(G,M)$ . Then

$$\alpha^1(\phi + B^1(G, P)) = \alpha \circ \phi + B^1(G, M) = B^1(G, M).$$

To prove  $\supseteq$ , let  $\phi + B^1(G, P) \in \ker \alpha^1$ . Then  $\alpha \circ \phi \in B^1(G, M)$ , that is  $\alpha(\phi(\sigma)) = \sigma \cdot m - m$  for all  $\sigma \in G$  and some  $m \in M$ . Note that

$$\delta(\beta(m)) = \psi + B^1(G, P),$$

where  $\psi(\sigma) = \alpha^{-1}(\sigma \cdot m - m)$ . This implies that  $\alpha(\psi(\sigma)) = \alpha(\phi(\sigma))$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ . Since  $\alpha$  is injective,  $\psi = \phi$ . Therefore  $\phi + B^1(G, P)$  belongs to the image of  $\delta$ .

Finally, we prove that the sequence (9.1) is exact at  $H^1(G,M)$ , that is im  $\alpha^1 = \ker \beta^1$ . To prove  $\subseteq$  note that

$$\beta^1(\alpha^1(\phi + B^1(G, P))) = \beta^1(\alpha \circ \phi + B^1(G, M)) = (\beta \circ \alpha) \circ \phi + B^1(G, N) = B^1(G, N).$$

Conversely, let  $\phi + B^1(G, M) \in \ker \beta_1$ . Then  $\beta \circ \phi \in B^1(G, N)$ . Thus there exists  $n \in N$  such that  $\beta(\phi(\sigma)) = \sigma \cdot n - n$  for all  $\sigma \in G$ . Since  $\beta$  is surjective,  $n = \beta(m)$  for some  $m \in M$ . Hence

$$\beta(\phi(\sigma)) = \sigma \cdot n - n = \sigma \cdot \beta(m) - \beta(m) = \beta(\sigma \cdot m - m).$$

For each  $\sigma \in G$ ,  $\phi(\sigma) - (\sigma \cdot m - m) \in \ker \beta = \operatorname{im} \alpha$ . and therefore  $\phi(\sigma) - (\sigma \cdot m - m) = \alpha(\rho_{\sigma})$ . This defines a map  $\rho : G \to P$ ,  $\sigma \mapsto \rho_{\sigma}$ . We claim that  $\rho \in Z^1(G,P)$ . If  $\sigma, \tau \in G$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(\rho_{\sigma\tau}) &= \phi(\sigma\tau) - ((\sigma\tau) \cdot m - m) \\ &= \phi(\sigma) + \sigma \cdot \phi(\tau) - (\sigma \cdot (\tau \cdot m - m) + \sigma \cdot m - m) \\ &= \alpha(\rho_{\sigma}) + \sigma \cdot \alpha(\rho_{\tau}). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\alpha$  is injective, it follows that  $\rho \in Z^1(G,P)$ . Now

$$\alpha_1(\rho + B^1(G, P)) = \alpha \circ \rho + B^1(G, M) = \phi + B^1(G, M).$$

THEOREM 9.38. Let G be a finite group and M be a G-module. Then

$$|G|H^1(G,M) = \{0\}.$$

PROOF. Let n=|G|. It is enough to prove that if  $\phi \in Z^1(G,M)$ , then  $n\phi \in B^1(G,M)$ . Let  $\phi \in Z^1(G,M)$  and  $\sigma \in G$ . Then

$$\phi(\sigma\tau) = \phi(\sigma) + \sigma \cdot \phi(\tau)$$

for all  $\tau \in G$ . Summing over all possible  $\tau \in G$ , we obtain that

$$(9.2) \qquad \sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\tau) = \sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\sigma\tau) = \sum_{\tau \in G} \sigma \cdot \phi(\tau) + \sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\sigma) = n\phi(\sigma).$$

Let  $m = -\sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\tau) \in M$ . Then (9.2) can be rewritten as

$$-m = \sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\tau) = \sigma \cdot \sum_{\tau \in G} \phi(\tau) + n\phi(\sigma) = -\sigma \cdot m + n\phi(\sigma).$$

Thus  $n\phi(\sigma) = \sigma \cdot m - m$  and hence  $n\phi \in B^1(G, M)$ .

EXERCISE 9.39. Let G be a finite group and M be a finite G-module of size coprime to |G|. Prove that  $H^1(G,M) = \{0\}$ .

EXERCISE 9.40. Let G be a finite group and M be a finitely generated G-module. Prove that  $H^1(G,M)$  is finite.

#### Lecture 10, 29/04/2024

PROPOSITION 10.1. Let  $n \ge 2$  and K be a field containing a primitive n-root of one. If  $a \in K^{\times}$  and E/K is a decomposition field of  $f = X^n - a$ , then E/K is cyclic of degree d, where d divides n. Moreover,

$$d = \min\{k : a^k \in K^n\},\$$

where  $K^n = \{x \in K : x = y^n \text{ for some } y \in K\}$ . Conversely, if E/K is cyclic of degree n, then E/K is a decomposition field of an irreducible polynomial of the form  $X^n - a$  for some  $a \in K^{\times}$ .

PROOF. A decomposition field of f over K is of the form  $K(\alpha)$ , where  $\alpha^n = a$ . Thus  $K(\alpha)/K$  is a Galois extension. If  $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(K(\alpha)/K)$ , then  $\sigma(\alpha)$  is a root of f, so  $\sigma(\alpha) = \omega_{\sigma}\alpha$ , where  $\omega_{\sigma} \in G_n(K)$ . This means that there exists an injective map

$$\lambda: \operatorname{Gal}(K(\alpha)/K) \to G_n(K), \quad \sigma \mapsto \omega_{\sigma}.$$

Moreover,  $\lambda$  is a group homomorphism, as

$$\sigma \tau(\alpha) = \sigma(\tau(\alpha)) = \sigma(\omega_{\tau}\alpha) = \omega_{\tau}\sigma(\alpha) = \omega_{\tau}\omega_{\sigma}\alpha.$$

Therefore  $Gal(K(\alpha)/K)$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of  $G_n(K)$ . In particular,  $Gal(K(\alpha)/K)$  is cyclic and  $|Gal(K(\alpha)/K)|$  divides n.

Let  $d = |\operatorname{Gal}(K(\alpha)/K)|$ . Since  $a = \alpha^n$ ,

$$\operatorname{norm}_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha)^n = \operatorname{norm}_{K(\alpha)/K}(a) = a^d$$
.

Thus  $a^d \in K^n$ , as  $\operatorname{norm}_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha) \in K$ . If  $a^k \in K^n$ , say  $a^k = c^n$  for some  $c \in K$ , then

$$c^n = a^k = (\alpha^n)^k = (\alpha^k)^n \implies \alpha^k = c\omega \in K$$

for some  $\omega \in G_n(K)$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is a root of  $X^k - \alpha^k \in K[X]$  and hence  $k \ge d$ .

Note that  $f(\alpha, K) = X^d - \alpha^d$ .

Let E/K be cyclic of degree n. Assume that  $Gal(E/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ . If  $\omega$  is a primitive n-root of one,

$$\operatorname{norm}_{E/K}(\boldsymbol{\omega}) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^n = 1.$$

By Hilbert's theorem 90, there exists  $b \in E^{\times}$  such that  $\omega = \sigma(b)/b$ . Thus  $\sigma(b) = \omega b$  and hence  $\sigma^i(b) = \omega^i b$  for all  $i \ge 0$ . Since  $|\{b, \sigma(b), \dots, \sigma^{n-1}(b)\}| = n$ , it follows that E = K(b). Moreover,

$$\sigma(b^n) = \sigma(b)^n = (\omega b)^n = b^n$$

and hence  $b^n \in K$ . This means that E/K is a decomposition field of  $X^n - b^n$ . Note that  $X^n - b^n$  is irreducible, as [E:K] = [K(b):K] = n.

Proposition 10.2. Let K be a field of characteristic p > 0.

- 1) Let  $a \in K$  and  $f = X^p X a$ . Then f is irreducible over K or all the roots of f belong to K. In the first case, if b is a root of f, then K(b)/K is a cyclic extension of degree p.
- **2)** Every cyclic extension of degree p is a decomposition field of an irreducible polynomial of the form  $X^p X a$ .

PROOF. We first prove 1). Let  $K_0$  be the prime field of K. Note that  $K_0 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/p$ . Let b be a root of f and let  $x \in K_0$ . Then

$$f(b+x) = (b+x)^p - (b+x) - a = (b^p - b - a) + (x^p - x) = 0$$

and thus  $\{b+x: x \in K_0\}$  is the set of roots of f. Note that f'=-1, so f has no multiple roots.

We claim that if  $b \notin K$ , then f is irreducible. If f is not irreducible, then f = gh for some  $g, h \in K[X]$  such that  $0 < \deg g < p$ . There exists a subset S of  $K_0$  such that  $g = \prod_{x \in S} (X - (b + x))$  and hence

$$|S|b + \sum_{x \in S} x = \sum_{x \in S} (b+x) \in K.$$

This implies that  $|S|b \in K$  and hence, since  $|S| \in K^{\times}$ , it follows that  $b \in K$ .

Since K(b)/K is a decomposition field of a separable polynomial, K(b)/K is a Galois extension. Moreover,  $|\operatorname{Gal}(K(b)/K)| = [K(b) : K] = p$  and hence  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(b)/K)$  is cyclic.

We now prove 2). Let E/K be cyclic of degree p. Assume that  $Gal(E/K) = \langle \sigma \rangle$ . Since  $\operatorname{trace}_{E/K}(1) = p = 0$ , Hilbert's theorem implies that there exists  $b \in E$  such that  $\sigma(b) = b + 1$ . In particular,  $b \notin K$  and thus E = K(b). Moreover, since

$$\sigma(b^p - b) = \sigma(b)^p - \sigma(b) = (b+1)^p - (b+1) = b^p - b.$$

it follows that  $b^p - b \in K$ . Thus  $f(b, K) = X^p - X - (b^p - b) \in K[X]$ .

§ 10.1. Symmetric polynomials. Let K be a field and  $\{t_1,\ldots,t_n\}$  be a commuting set of independent variables. Let  $E=K(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$  and  $f=\prod_{i=1}^n(X-t_i)\in E[X]$ . Then

$$f = X^n + \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^i s_i X^{n-i},$$

where

$$s_1 = t_1 + t_2 + \dots + t_n,$$

$$s_2 = \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} t_i t_j,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_n = t_1 t_2 \cdots t_n.$$

For example,

$$(X-t_1)(X-t_2)(X-t_3) = X^3 - (t_1+t_2+t_3)X^2 + (t_1t_2+t_2t_3+t_1t_3)X - t_1t_2t_3.$$

The polynomials  $s_1, s_2, ..., s_n$  are known as the **elementary symmetric polynomials** in the variables  $t_1, ..., t_n$ . Note that deg  $s_i = i$ .

Let  $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$  and

$$\alpha_{\sigma} \colon K[t_1, \dots, t_n] \to K[t_1, \dots, t_n], \quad t_i \mapsto t_{\sigma(i)} \quad \text{for all } i.$$

Then  $\alpha_{\sigma}$  is a bijective homomorphism of *K*-algebras. In fact,  $\alpha_{\sigma}^{-1}=\alpha_{\sigma^{-1}}$ . Note that

$$\alpha_{\sigma}(h(t_1,\ldots,t_n))=h(t_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,t_{\sigma(n)}).$$

Since  $\alpha_{\sigma}$  is injective, it induces an element  $\widehat{\sigma} \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$  given by

$$\widehat{\sigma}\left(\frac{h}{g}\right) = \frac{\alpha_{\sigma}(h)}{\alpha_{\sigma}(h)}.$$

The map  $\mathbb{S}_n \to \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$ ,  $\sigma \mapsto \widehat{\sigma}$ , is an injective group homomorphism. Thus  $\{\widehat{\sigma} : \sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n\} \simeq \mathbb{S}_n$ .

Definition 10.3. Let  $g \in K[t_1, ..., t_n]$ . Then g is **symmetric** if  $\widehat{\sigma}(g) = g$  for all  $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ .

We write P to denote the set of symmetric polynomials in  $K[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$ . Clearly, P is a subalgebra of  $K[t_1, \ldots, t_n]$ . The following statements hold:

- 1)  $K \subseteq P$ .
- 2)  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i^r \in P$  for all  $r \ge 1$ .
- **3**)  $s_i \in P$  for all i.
- **4)**  $K(P) \subseteq {}^{G}E$ , where  $G = \{\widehat{\sigma} : \sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n\}$ .

Let  $F = K(s_1, s_2, ..., s_n)$ . Then E/F is a Galois extension, as it is a decomposition field of f.

Proposition 10.4.  $[E:F] \leq n!$ .

PROOF. We proceed by induction on n. The case n = 1 is clear, as E = F. Assume that n > 1. Let  $u_1, \ldots, u_{n-1}$  be the elementary symmetric polynomials in  $t_1, \ldots, t_{n-1}$ . Then

$$s_i = u_i + t_n u_{i-1}$$

for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , where  $u_0 = 1$  and  $u_n = 0$ . Note that  $u_1 = s_1 - t_n$  and  $u_i = s_i - t_n u_{i-1}$  for all i. Since  $K(s_1, ..., s_n, t_n) = K(u_1, ..., u_{n-1}, t_n)$ ,

$$F(t_n) = K(u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}, t_n) = K(t_n)(u_1, \dots, u_{n-1})$$

and

$$[E:F] = [E:F(t_n)][F(t_n):F] \le n[E:F(t_n)].$$

Note that  $E = K(t_1, ..., t_n) = K(t_n)(t_1, ..., t_{n-1})$ . By the inductive hypothesis,

$$[E: F(t_n)] \le (n-1)!$$

and hence  $[E:F] \leq n!$ .

THEOREM 10.5.  ${}^{G}E = F$ .

PROOF. By Artin's theorem,

$$\begin{bmatrix} {}^{G}E:F \end{bmatrix} = \frac{[E:F]}{\begin{bmatrix} E:{}^{G}E \end{bmatrix}} \le \frac{n!}{\begin{bmatrix} E:{}^{G}E \end{bmatrix}} = 1$$

and hence  ${}^{G}E = F$ .

Exercise 10.6. Prove that  $Gal(E/F) \simeq \mathbb{S}_n$ .

Exercise 10.7. Prove that  $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$  is algebraically independent over K.

Exercise 10.8. Prove that every symmetric polynomial in  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  can be written as a rational fraction in  $s_1, \ldots, s_n$ .

§ 10.2. Solvable groups. Let G be a group. If  $x, y \in G$  we define the **commutator** of x and y as

$$[x,y] = xyx^{-1}y^{-1}$$
.

Note that [x,y] = 1 if and only if xy = yx. Moreover,  $[x,y]^{-1} = [y,x]$ . The **commutator** (or derived) subgroup [G,G] of G is defined as the subgroup of G generated by all commutators, i.e.

$$[G,G] = \langle [x,y] : x,y \in G \rangle.$$

This means that every element of [G,G] is a finite product of commutators, so every element of [G,G] is of the form  $\prod_{i=1}^{m} [x_i,y_i]$ . In general, the commutator subgroup is not equal to the set of commutators!

EXAMPLE 10.9. This example is taken from the book [1] of Carmichael. Let G be the subgroup of  $\mathbb{S}_{16}$  generated by the permutations

```
a = (13)(24), b = (57)(68), c = (911)(1012), d = (1315)(1416), e = (13)(57)(911), f = (12)(34)(1315), g = (56)(78)(1314)(1516), h = (910)(1112).
```

Then [G,G] has order 16. However, the set  $\{[x,y]:x,y\in G\}$  of commutators has 15 elements:

```
julia> a = @perm (1,3)(2,4);
julia> b = @perm (5,7)(6,8);
julia> c = @perm (9,11)(10,12);
julia> d = @perm (13,15)(14,16);
julia> e = @perm (1,3)(5,7)(9,11);
julia> f = @perm (1,2)(3,4)(13,15);
julia> g = @perm (5,6)(7,8)(13,14)(15,16);
julia> h = @perm (9,10)(11,12);
julia> S16 = symmetric_group(16);
julia> G = sub(S16, [a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h])[1];
julia> commutators = G -> Set(comm(x,y) for x in G, y in G);
julia> length(commutators(G))
15
julia> order(derived_subgroup(G)[1])
```

EXERCISE 10.10. Let *G* be a group. Prove the following facts:

- 1) G is abelian if and only if  $[G,G] = \{1\}$ .
- 2) [G,G] is a normal subgroup of G.
- 3) G/[G,G] is abelian.
- **4**) If *H* is a subgroup of *G* and  $[G,G] \subseteq H$ , then *H* is normal in *G*.
- **5**) If *H* is a normal subgroup of *G*, then G/H is abelian if and only if  $[G,G] \subseteq H$ .

DEFINITION 10.11. Let G be a group. The **derived series** of G is defined as  $G^{(0)} = G$  and  $G^{(k+1)} = [G^{(k)}, G^{(k)}]$  for  $k \ge 0$ .

```
Exercise 10.12. Prove that G^{(k)} is normal in G for all k.
```

Why derived series? We cannot explain this here, but let us use the following notation. We write G' = [G, G], G'' = [G', G']... Note that

$$G\supseteq G'\supseteq G''\supseteq\cdots$$

```
Exercise 10.13. Let n \geq 3. Prove that [\mathbb{S}_n, \mathbb{S}_n] = \mathbb{A}_n.
```

EXAMPLE 10.14. Let  $K = \{id, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$ . Then K is a normal subgroup of  $\mathbb{A}_4$ . One proves that  $[\mathbb{A}_4, \mathbb{A}_4] = K$ .

A group G is said to be **simple** if there are no proper non-trivial subgroups of G. If p is a prime number, then the group  $\mathbb{Z}/p$  of integers modulo p is a simple group. We will prove later that  $\mathbb{A}_n$  is simple if  $n \ge 5$ .

Example 10.15. Let  $n \ge 5$ . Since  $\mathbb{A}_n$  is a non-abelian simple group,  $[\mathbb{A}_n, \mathbb{A}_n] = \mathbb{A}_n$ .

Let us show that  $\mathbb{A}_5$  is a non-abelian simple group. Hence it is not solvable:

```
julia> A5 = alternating_group(5)
Alt([1 .. 5])

julia> is_abelian(A5)
false

julia> is_simple(A5)
true

julia> is_solvable(A5)
false
```

Definition 10.16. A group G is **solvable** if and only if  $G^{(m)} = \{1\}$  for some m.

Every abelian group is solvable.

```
Exercise 10.17. Prove that \mathbb{S}_n is solvable if and only if n \leq 4.
```

Let us compute (with the computer software Oscar) the derived series of the symmetric group  $\mathbb{S}_4$ . The calculation shows that  $\mathbb{S}_4$  is solvable:

```
julia> G = symmetric_group(4);

julia> derived_series(G)

4-element Vector{PermGroup}:
    Sym( [ 1 .. 4 ] )
    Alt( [ 1 .. 4 ] )
    Group([ (1,4)(2,3), (1,2)(3,4) ])
    Group(())

julia> [order(x) for x in derived_series(G)]

4-element Vector{fmpz}:
    24
    12
    4
    1
```

```
julia> is_solvable(G)
true
```

Proposition 10.18. Let G be a group and H be a subgroup of G. The following statements hold:

- 1) *If G is solvable, then H is solvable.*
- **2)** If H is normal in G and G is solvable, then G/H is solvable.
- **3**) If H is normal in G and H and G/H are solvable, then G is solvable.

PROOF. The first statement follows from the fact that  $H^{(i)} \subseteq G^{(i)}$  holds for all i.

Assume now that H is normal in G. Let Q = G/H and  $\pi \colon G \to Q$  be the canonical map. By induction one proves that  $\pi(G^{(i)}) = Q^{(i)}$  for all  $i \ge 0$ . The case where i = 0 is trivial, as  $\pi$  is surjective. If the result holds for some  $i \ge 0$ , then

$$\pi(G^{(i+1)}) = \pi([G^{(i)}, G^{(i)}]) = [\pi(G^{(i)}), \pi(G^{(i)})] = [Q^{(i)}, Q^{(i)}] = Q^{(i+1)}.$$

We now prove 2). Since G is solvable,  $G^{(n)} = \{1\}$  for some n. Thus Q is solvable, as  $Q^n = \pi(G^{(n)}) = \pi(\{1\}) = \{1\}$ .

We finally prove 3). Since Q is solvable,  $Q^{(n)} = \{1\}$  for some n. Moreover, since  $\pi(G^{(n)}) = Q^{(n)} = \{1\}$ , it follows that  $G^{(n)} \subseteq H$ . Since H is solvable,

$$G^{(n+m)} \subseteq (G^{(n)})^{(m)} \subseteq H^{(m)} = \{1\}$$

for some m. Thus G is solvable.

An application:

Proposition 10.19. *Let G be a finite p-group. Then G is solvable.* 

PROOF. Assume the result is not true. Let G be a finite p-group of minimal order that is not solvable. Since G is a p-group,  $Z(G) \neq \{1\}$ . Since |G| is minimal, G/Z(G) is a solvable p-group. Since Z(G) is abelian, Z(G) is solvable. Now G is solvable by Proposition 10.18.  $\square$ 

Let G be a group. A subgroup N of G is said to be **maximal normal** if N is a normal subgroup of G and there is no other normal subgroup of G containing N.

Exercise 10.20. If a subgroup N of G is maximal (for the inclusion) and normal, then it is maximal normal. Show that the converse does not hold.

The following result is a direct consequence of the correspondence theorem:

EXERCISE 10.21. Let G be a group and N be a normal subgroup of G. Prove that N is maximal normal if and only if G/N is simple.

Maximal normal subgroups always exist in finite groups (they could be trivial). We can compute maximal normal subgroups as follows:

```
julia> maximal_normal_subgroups(symmetric_group(3))
1-element Vector{PermGroup}:
    Group([ (1,2,3) ])

julia> maximal_normal_subgroups(quaternion_group(8))
```

```
3-element Vector{PcGroup}:
Group([ y2, x ])
Group([ y2, y ])
Group([ y2, x*y ])

julia> maximal_normal_subgroups(alternating_group(4))
1-element Vector{PermGroup}:
Group([ (1,4)(2,3), (1,2)(3,4) ])
```

Exercise 10.22. Let G be a finite solvable group. Prove that if G is simple, then G is cyclic of prime order.

The following result will be important later:

Proposition 10.23. Every finite solvable group contains a normal subgroup of prime index.

PROOF. Let G be a finite solvable group. Let M be a maximal normal subgroup of G (there is at least one, as G is finite). Since G/M is simple and solvable (see Proposition 10.18), G/M is cylic of prime order by Exercise 10.22.

We finish this discussion with two important theorems (without proof) about finite solvable groups.

Theorem 10.24 (Burnside). Let p and q be prime numbers. If G is a group of order  $p^aq^b$ , then G is solvable.

The proof appears in courses on the representation theory of finite groups.

THEOREM 10.25 (Feit-Thompson). Every finite group of odd order is solvable.

The proof of the theorem is extremely hard. It occupies a full volume of *Pacific Journal of Mathematics*, see [2].

**§ 10.3. Simplicity of the alternating simple group.** We will present a family of non-abelian simple groups. We start with some exercises.

EXERCISE 10.26. Let G be a group. Prove that G is simple if and only if  $\{(g,g):g\in G\}$  is a maximal subgroup of  $G\times G$ .

Exercise 10.27. Prove that  $\mathbb{A}_n$  is generated by 3-cycles.

Exercise 10.28. Compute the commutator subgroup of  $\mathbb{A}_n$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

Note that  $\mathbb{A}_2$  and  $\mathbb{A}_3$  are abelian. For  $\mathbb{A}_4$ , one proves that

$$[A_4, A_4] = \{id, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}.$$

Finally,  $[\mathbb{A}_n, \mathbb{A}_n] = \mathbb{A}_n$  for  $n \geq 5$ .

Let us compute some commutator subgroups (and the inclusion group homomorphism) with the computer:

```
julia> derived_subgroup(symmetric_group(3))
(Alt([1 .. 3]), Group homomorphism from
Alt([1 .. 3])
to
Sym([1 .. 3]))
```

```
Exercise 10.29. Let n \geq 3. Prove that [\mathbb{S}_n, \mathbb{S}_n] = \mathbb{A}_n.
```

Recall that every normal subgroup is a union of conjugacy classes. The group  $A_5$  has conjugacy classes of sizes 1, 15, 20, 12 and 12. It follows that the only possible normal subgroups of  $A_5$  are {id} and  $A_5$ .

```
julia> A5 = alternating_group(5);

julia> [length(c) for c in conjugacy_classes(A5)]
5-element Vector{ZZRingElem}:

1
15
20
12
12
```

Theorem 10.30 (Jordan). Let  $n \ge 5$ . Then  $\mathbb{A}_n$  is simple.

Before proving the theorem, we need some preliminary results.

Every permutation  $\rho \in \mathbb{S}_n$  decomposes as a product of disjoint cycles, say

$$\rho = (a_1 \cdots a_r)(b_1 \cdots b_s) \cdots (c_1 \cdots c_t)$$

where, by convention, we do not write cycles of length one. The cyclic structure of  $\rho$  is, by definition, the ordered sequence of integers r, s, ...t, where, again by convention, we omit fixed points. For example, the cyclic structure of the transposition (ab) is 2, of (abc)(d) is 3 and of (123)(45)(789a)(bcd)(d) is 2,3,3,4.

Lemma 10.31. If  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are permutations in  $\mathbb{S}_n$  with the same cyclic structure, then  $\rho_2 = \sigma \rho_1 \sigma^{-1}$  for some  $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ .

Proof. Assume that

$$\rho_1 = (a_1 \cdots a_r)(b_1 \cdots b_s) \cdots (c_1 \cdots c_t),$$
  
$$\rho_2 = (x_1 \cdots x_r)(y_1 \cdots y_s) \cdots (z_1 \cdots z_t).$$

Let

$$Fix(\rho_1) = \{x \in \{1, ..., n\} : \rho_1(x) = x\} = \{k_1, ..., k_m\},$$
  $Fix(\rho_2) = \{l_1, ..., l_m\}$ 

be the fixed points of the permutations  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ , respectively. Then

$$\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} x_j & \text{if } x = a_j \text{ for some } j, \\ y_j & \text{if } x = b_j \text{ for some } j, \\ \vdots & \\ z_j & \text{if } x = c_j \text{ for some } j, \\ l_j & \text{if } x = k_j \text{ for some } j, \end{cases}$$

is such that  $\sigma \rho_1 \sigma^{-1} = \rho_2$ .

What happens with the alternating group?

LEMMA 10.32. If  $\rho_1, \rho_2 \in \mathbb{S}_n$  are conjugate in  $\mathbb{S}_n$  and  $|\operatorname{Fix}(\rho_1)| \geq 2$ , then  $\mu \rho_1 \mu^{-1} = \rho_2$  for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{A}_n$ .

PROOF. Assume that  $\rho_2 = \sigma \rho_1 \sigma^{-1}$  for some  $\sigma \in \mathbb{S}_n$ . There are  $a, b \in \{1, ..., n\}$  such that  $\rho_1(a) = a, \rho_1(b) = b$  and  $a \neq b$ . Let

$$\mu = \begin{cases} \sigma & \text{if } \sigma \in \mathbb{A}_n, \\ \sigma(ab) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then  $\mu \in \mathbb{A}_n$  and  $\mu \rho_1 \mu^{-1} = \rho_2$ , as (ab) commutes with  $\rho_1$ .

Let us discuss some examples.

Example 10.33. If  $\rho_1 = (23)(156)$  and  $\rho_2 = (45)(123)$ , then  $\rho_2 = \sigma \rho_1 \sigma^{-1}$  for

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 123456 \\ 145623 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

Example 10.34. The permutations  $\rho_1 = (123)$  and  $\rho_2 = (132)$  are conjugate in  $\mathbb{S}_3$ , as  $(123) = \sigma(132)\sigma^{-1}$  if  $\sigma = (23)$ . However,  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are not conjugate in  $\mathbb{A}_3$ .

Now we are ready to prove the theorem.

PROOF OF THEOREM 10.30. Let  $N \neq \{id\}$  be a normal subgroup of  $\mathbb{A}_n$ . If  $(abc) \in N$ , then every 3-cycle belongs to N, because all 3-cycles are conjugate in  $\mathbb{S}_n$ , and the previous lemma states that  $(ijk) = \mu(abc)\mu^{-1} \in N$  for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{A}_n$ . Thus  $N = \mathbb{A}_n$ .

We claim that N contains a 3-cycle. Since  $N \neq \{id\}$ , there exists  $\sigma \in N \setminus \{id\}$ . Let  $m = |\sigma|$  and let p be a prime number dividing m. Then  $\tau = \sigma^{m/p}$  has order p and hence  $\tau = \rho_1 \cdots \rho_s$ , where the  $\rho_j$ 's are disjoint p-cycles.

If p = 2, then  $1 = \text{sign}(\tau) = (-1)^s$ . Thus s is even. Write

$$\tau = (ab)(cd)\rho_3\cdots\rho_s$$
.

Since  $\rho_3 \cdots \rho_s$  commutes with (abc) and (acb),

$$\underbrace{(abc)\tau(abc)^{-1}\tau^{-1}}_{\in N}=(abc)(ab)(cd)(acb)(ab)(cd)=(ac)(bd).$$

Hence  $(ac)(bd) \in N$ . Let  $e \in \{1, ..., n\} \setminus \{a, b, c, d\}$ . Then

$$(ae)(bd) = (aec)\underbrace{(ac)(bd)}_{\in N}(aec)^{-1} \in N$$

and therefore

$$(aec) = (ac)(ae) = (ac)(bd)(ae)(bd) \in N.$$

If p = 3, without loss of generality, we may assume that  $s \ge 2$  (otherwise,  $\tau$  would be a 3-cycle). Then  $\tau = (abc)(def)\rho_3 \cdots \rho_s$ . Since (bcd) commutes with  $\rho_3 \cdots \rho_s$  and N is normal in  $\mathbb{A}_n$ ,

$$\underbrace{(bcd)\tau(bcd)^{-1}\tau^{-1}}_{\in \mathbb{N}} = (bcd)(abc)(def)(bdc)(acb)(dfe) = (adbce)$$

and therefore

$$(adc) = (adb)(adbce)(adb)^{-1}(adbce)^{-1} \in N.$$

If 
$$p > 3$$
, then  $\tau = (abcd \cdots z)\rho_2 \cdots \rho_s$ . In particular,  $(abc)$  commutes with  $\rho_2 \cdots \rho_s$ . Then 
$$(abd) = (abc)\tau(abc)^{-1}\tau^{-1} \in N.$$

As an application, we compute the normal subgroups of the symmetric group  $\mathbb{S}_n$ .

Exercise 10.35. Compute the list of normal subgroups of  $\mathbb{S}_n$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

## Lecture 11. 06/05/2024

#### § 11.1. Radical extensions.

DEFINITION 11.1. An extension E/K is said to be **pure** of type m if E=K(x) for some x such that  $x^m \in K$ .

Note that if E = K(x) is a pure extension of type m and K contains m-th roots of one, then E/K is a splitting field of  $X^m - x^m$ .

DEFINITION 11.2. The sequence  $K = R_0 \subseteq R_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq R_m$  of fields is said to be a **radical tower** if each  $R_{i+1}/R_i$  is pure. In this case,  $R_m/K$  is a **radical extension**.

Note that radical extensions are finite.

Example 11.3. Let E be a decomposition field of  $X^4-2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Then  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  is radical, as  $E=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2},i)$ .

Example 11.4. Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  be such that  $\alpha^2 = 2$  and  $\beta^5 = 1 + \alpha$ . The number  $\sqrt[5]{1 + \sqrt{2}}$  belongs to the radical extension  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta)/\mathbb{Q}$ .

Theorem 11.5. Let K be of characteristic zero and R/K be a radical extension. If E/K is a subextension of R/K, then Gal(E/K) is solvable.

PROOF. Without loss of generality, we may assume that E/K is a Galois extension. To prove this fact, let  $G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/K)$  and  $F = {}^GE$ . Then E/F is a Galois extension and  $\operatorname{Gal}(E/F) = G$  by Artin's theorem. Thus, replacing K by F if needed, we may assume that E/K is Galois.

Let L be the normal closure of R in some algebraic closure C that contains R. Note that if  $R = K(x_1, ..., x_m)$ , then

$$L = K(\{\sigma_i(x_j) : 1 \le i \le s, 1 \le j \le m\}),$$

where  $\operatorname{Hom}(R/K, C/K) = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_s\}.$ 

CLAIM. L/K is radical.

Since  $x_i^{a_j} \in K(x_1, \dots, x_{j-1})$  for some integer  $a_j$ ,

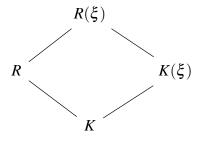
$$\sigma_i(x_j)^{a_j} = \sigma_i\left(x_j^{a_j}\right) \in \sigma_i(K(x_1,\ldots,x_{j-1})) = K(\sigma_i(x_1),\ldots,\sigma_i(x_{j-1}))$$

Thus L/K is radical and Galois.

We may assume then that E/K and R/K are both Galois.

Since  $Gal(E/K) \simeq Gal(R/K)/Gal(R/E)$ , we only need to prove that Gal(R/K) is solvable.

For a positive integer n, let  $\xi$  be a primitive n-th root of one (in some algebraic closure of K that contains R). Consider the diagram



Then

- 1)  $K(\xi)/K$  and  $R(\xi)/R$  are abelian.
- 2)  $R(\xi)/K$  is Galois.
- 3)  $\operatorname{Gal}(R/K) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/K)/\operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/R)$ .
- **4)**  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\xi)/K) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/K)/\operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/K(\xi)).$

The third item implies that we need to show that  $\operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/K)$  is solvable. By the fourth item, it suffices to show that  $\operatorname{Gal}(R(\xi)/K(\xi))$  is solvable (because  $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\xi)/K)$  is abelian and hence solvable).

Since  $R = K(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ ,

$$R(\xi) = K(x_1, ..., x_m, \xi) = K(\xi)(x_1, ..., x_m)$$

and hence  $R(\xi)/K(\xi)$  is radical. This means that without loss of generality, we may assume that K contains primitive n-roots of one. For example, if  $R = K(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$  and  $x_i^{a_i} \in K(x_1, \ldots, x_{i-1})$ , then we may assume that K contains a primitive  $a_i$ -root of one. We proceed by induction on m. The case m=0 is trivial. Assume that the claim holds for some  $m \geq 0$ . Let  $L=K(x_1)$ . Then L/K is a decomposition field of  $X^{a_1}-x_1^{a_1}$ , and hence L/K is a cyclic extension. Thus  $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  is cyclic (and hence, in particular, solvable). Let H be the subgroup that corresponds to L, that is  $H=\operatorname{Gal}(R/L)$  (here, we use Galois' correspondence). Then H is normal in  $\operatorname{Gal}(R/K)$ . Since  $R=K(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=L(x_2,\ldots,x_m)$ , R/L is radical and Galois. By the inductive hypothesis,  $\operatorname{Gal}(R/L)$  is solvable. Since

$$Gal(L/K) \simeq Gal(R/K)/Gal(R/L)$$
,

it follows that Gal(R/K) is solvable.

DEFINITION 11.6. Let  $f \in K[X]$  and E be a decomposition field of f over K. We say that f is **solvable by radicals** if there is a radical extension R/K such that  $E \subseteq R$ .

The general polynomial of degree two is solvable by radicals, as its Galois group is solvable (in fact, isomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}_2$ ).

Exercise 11.7. Prove that  $f = X^2 - s_1 X + s_2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  is solvable by radicals.

Theorem 11.5 translates into the following result:

EXERCISE 11.8. Let K be a field of characteristic zero. If  $f \in K[X]$  is solvable by radicals, then Gal(f, K) is solvable.

As a consequence, the general polynomial of degree  $n \ge 5$  is not solvable by radicals, as its Galois group is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}_5$ .

EXAMPLE 11.9. Let p be a prime number and  $f = X^5 - 2pX + p \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ . We claim that f is not solvable by radicals.

By Gauss' theorem, one proves that f has no rational roots.

Note that  $f' = 5X^4 - 2p$ . Then  $\alpha = \sqrt[4]{2p/5}$  and  $\beta = -\sqrt[4]{2p/5}$  are are critical points. Since  $f(\alpha) < 0$  and  $f(\beta) > 0$ , it follows that f has exactly three real roots. Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$  and  $x_3, x_4, x_5 \in \mathbb{R}$  be the roots of f.

By Eisenstein's theorem, f is irreducible.

Let  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  be a decomposition field of f. Then  $Gal(f,\mathbb{Q}) = Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is isomorphic to a subgroup G of  $\mathbb{S}_5$ . Since f is irreducible, 5 divides  $[E:\mathbb{Q}] = |G|$ . In particular, by Cauchy's

theorem, G contains an element  $\sigma$  of order five. This element is a 5-cycle, so without loss of generality, we may assume that  $\sigma = (x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5)$ . Note that  $(x_1x_2) \in G$ . Thus  $G \simeq \mathbb{S}_5$  and hence G is not solvable.

EXERCISE 11.10. Let  $f = X^6 + 2X^5 - 5X^4 + 9X^3 - 5X^2 + 2X + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ . Prove that f is solvable by radicals.

#### **Some solutions**

2.8. Let f = f(x, K) be the minimal polynomial of x over K of degree  $\deg(f) = n$ . We claim that  $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$  is a basis of K(x) as a K-vector space.

To prove that  $\{1, x, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$  is a generating set, recall that K(x) = K[x], since x is algebraic over K. Let  $z \in K(x) = K[x]$ , say z = h(x) for some  $h \in K[X]$ . Divide h by f to obtain polynomials  $q, r \in K[X]$  such that h = fq + r, where either r = 0 or  $\deg r < \deg f = n$ . Then

$$z = h(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x) = r(x).$$

Write  $r = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_i X^i$  for some  $c_0, \ldots, c_{n-1} \in K$ . Thus  $z = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i \in \langle 1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1} \rangle$ . We now prove that  $\{1, x, \ldots, x^{n-1}\}$  is linearly independent. If not, there exists a linear combination of the contraction of the cont nation  $0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$  with  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in K$  not all zero. Then  $h(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i X^i \in K[X] \setminus \{0\}$  has x

$$n = \deg(f) \le \deg(h) \le n - 1,$$

a contradiction.

4.17. Note that, since  $f = X^4 - 5X^2 + 5$  is an even polynomial if  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  is a root of f, then also  $-\alpha$  is a root of f. Hence, given two roots  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $\beta \neq -\alpha$ , we have that the decomposition field of f over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, -\alpha, \beta, -\beta)$ . But  $-\alpha, -\beta \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq E$  and so

$$E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, -\alpha, \beta, -\beta) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, -\alpha, \beta, -\beta) = E$$

which means that  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta)$ . Moreover we can decompose f in  $\mathbb{C}[X]$  as

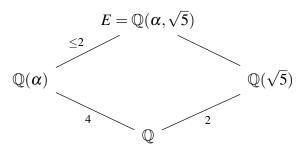
$$(X - \alpha)(X + \alpha)(X - \beta)(X + \beta) = (X^2 - \alpha^2)(X^2 - \beta^2) = X^4 - (\alpha^2 + \beta^2)X^2 + \alpha^2\beta^2.$$

This implies in particular that  $\alpha^2 \beta^2 = 5$ , hence  $\beta = \pm \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5})$ .

Therefore  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5})$ . On the other hand  $\sqrt{5} = \pm \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta)$ , hence  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha,\sqrt{5}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha,\beta) = E$ . So we can conclude that  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha,\sqrt{5})$ . Using the multiplicative of the degree of finite extension we get that

$$[E:\mathbb{Q}]=[E:\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)][\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}].$$

But  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}] = \deg(f(\alpha,\mathbb{Q}))$ . Using Eisenstein criterion (Exercise 1.25) with p = 5, we have that f is irreducible (and monic), so  $f = f(\alpha, \mathbb{Q})$ . Thus  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = \deg f = 4$ . It remains to compute  $[E:\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)]=[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha,\sqrt{5}):\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)]$ . We have the following situation:



Observe that  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5})$  is equal to the composite of  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  and  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ . We can use the property of composite extension, [LF:L] < [F:K], to deduce that

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha,\sqrt{5}):\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)] \leq [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5}):\mathbb{Q}] = 2.$$

The last equality is because  $f(\sqrt{5},\mathbb{Q}) = X^2 - 5$ , as it is monic has  $\sqrt{5}$  as a root and it's irreducible (due to Eisenstein's criterion or because it is of degree 2 with 2 non-rational roots). Finally, we

want to understand whether  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5}) : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)]$  is 1 or 2. Note that  $\alpha^4 - 5\alpha^2 + 5 = 0$ , so we can solve the equation for  $\alpha^2$  as it is a root of  $X^2 - 5X + 5$ , i.e.

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{5 \pm \sqrt{25 - 20}}{2} = \frac{5 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2},$$

hence  $\sqrt{5} = \pm (2\alpha^2 - 5) \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . So  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \sqrt{5})$ , which means that  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  and  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ .

5.5. First of all, note that  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  is a root of the polynomial  $f(X) = X^3 - 2$ . To prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi)$  is a normal extension we use Proposition 5.10, so it is enough to prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi)$  is the decomposition field of f. We know that the decomposition field E of f over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is  $\mathbb{Q}$  extended with the roots of f, i.e.  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{2}\xi, \sqrt[3]{2}\xi^2)$ . But it's easy to see that actually

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2},\xi) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2},\sqrt[3]{2}\xi,\sqrt[3]{2}\xi^2) = E.$$

The inclusion  $\subseteq$  is because  $\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi = \frac{\sqrt[3]{2}\xi}{\sqrt[3]{2}} \in E$ . Vice versa  $\supseteq$  is due to the fact that the roots of f are products of  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  and  $\xi$ , elements in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \xi)$ .

5.11. Let  $\alpha = \sqrt[4]{7} + \sqrt{2}$ . Then  $(\alpha - \sqrt{2})^4 - 7 = 0$ . By expanding the left side, we get  $0 = \alpha^4 - 4\sqrt{2}\alpha^3 + 12\alpha^2 - 8\sqrt{2}\alpha - 3 = (\alpha^4 + 12\alpha^2 - 3) - (4\alpha^3 + 8\alpha)\sqrt{2}$ .

But  $4\alpha^3 + 8\alpha = 4\alpha(\alpha^2 + 2) \neq 0$ , otherwise  $\alpha \in \{0, \pm i\sqrt{2}\}$ . Therefore  $\sqrt{2} = \frac{\alpha^4 + 12\alpha^2 - 3}{4\alpha^3 + 8\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ .

This allows us to prove that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[4]{7}) = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . From the definition of  $\alpha$  it's clear that  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[4]{7})$ . On the other hand, we just proved that  $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . As  $\sqrt[4]{7} = \alpha - \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , we also see that  $\sqrt[4]{7} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ . It follows that  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[4]{7}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ .

Moreover,  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})$ . Otherwise, as  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$  and  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$  we would get that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7}) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})] = 2$ . Let  $f(\sqrt[4]{7}, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})) = X^2 + \beta X + \gamma$ , with  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ . So

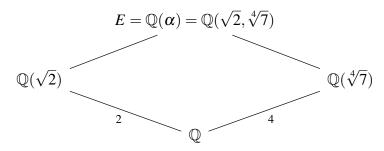
$$0 = f(\sqrt[4]{7}) = \sqrt{7} + \beta \sqrt[4]{7} + \gamma.$$

Therefore

$$\beta^2 \sqrt{7} = (-\sqrt{7} - \gamma)^2 = 7 + 2\gamma \sqrt{7} + \gamma^2.$$

So  $(\beta^2 - 2\gamma)\sqrt{7} = \gamma^2 + 7$ . But  $\beta^2 - 2\gamma \neq 0$  because  $\gamma^2 + \beta\gamma + \frac{\beta^2}{2} = 0$  holds only for  $\gamma = \frac{\beta}{2}(-1 \pm i) \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ , which is clearly not in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ . Thus we would have  $\sqrt{7} = \frac{\gamma^2 + 7}{\beta^2 - 2\gamma} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ , which is a contradiction.

To sum up we have that  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})$  and



1) We know that  $\sqrt[4]{7} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$  which has minimal polynomial  $f(\sqrt[4]{7},\mathbb{Q}) = x^4 - 7$ . One root of this polynomial is  $i\sqrt[4]{7}$ . This root is not in  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  as it is in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}$  is not normal by Proposition 5.7.

**2)** As  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})$ , we see that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})] > 1$ . On the other hand,

$$[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})] \leq [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}:\mathbb{Q}] = 2,$$

which proves that  $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})]=2$ . Therefore,

$$[E:\mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha):\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})] \cdot [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7}):\mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 4 = 8.$$

3) Let  $\sigma \in G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$ . Since  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[4]{7})$  and  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $\sqrt[4]{7}$  are independent because  $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{7})$ , we know that  $\sigma$  is completely determined by  $\sigma(\sqrt{2})$  and  $\sigma(\sqrt[4]{7})$ . By Proposition 4.10,  $\sigma(\sqrt{2}) \in E$  has to be a root of  $f(\sqrt{2}, \mathbb{Q}) = X^2 - 2$  and  $\sigma(\sqrt[4]{7}) \in E$  has to be a root of  $f(\sqrt[4]{7}, \mathbb{Q}) = X^4 - 7$ . So  $\sigma(\sqrt{2}) = \pm \sqrt{2}$  and, since  $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\sigma(\sqrt[4]{7}) \in E \cap \{\sqrt[4]{7}i^j \mid j \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}\} = \{\pm \sqrt[4]{7}\}.$$

Therefore G contains 4 elements  $\sigma_{k,l}$  for  $k,l \in \mathbb{Z}/2$  such that  $\sigma_{k,l}(\sqrt{2}) = (-1)^k \sqrt{2}$  and  $\sigma_{k,l}(\sqrt[4]{7}) = (-1)^l \sqrt[4]{7}$ . This gives directly the isomorphism between G and  $\mathbb{Z}/2 \times \mathbb{Z}/2$ .

5.12. Let  $\{v_i : i \in I\}$  be a basis of V over K. For each  $i \in I$  let  $f_i : V \to F$ ,  $f_i(v_j) = \delta_{ij}$ . Then  $\{f_i : i \in I\}$  is linearly independent over F. In fact, let  $\sum a_i f_i = 0$ , where each  $a_i \in F$ . Then  $a_i = 0$  for almost all i. If  $j \in I$ , then

$$0 = \left(\sum a_i f_i\right)(v_j) = \sum a_i f_i(v_j) = a_j.$$

Now assume that  $\dim_K V = n$ . Let  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  be a basis of V over K. We claim that  $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$  is a basis of  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(V, F)$  over F. If  $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_K(V, F)$ , then  $g = \sum g(v_i)f_i$ . If  $1 \le k \le n$ , then

$$\left(\sum g(v_i)f_i\right)(v_k) = \sum g(v_i)f_i(v_k) = g(v_k).$$

5.15. We need to find a bijective map

$$\operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C/K) \to \operatorname{Hom}(E/K, C_1/K)$$
.

If  $\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ , then  $\theta^{-1}\sigma \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C_1/K)$ . If  $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C_1/K)$ , then  $\theta\varphi \in \text{Hom}(E/K, C/K)$ . The maps  $\sigma \mapsto \theta^{-1}\sigma$  and  $\varphi \mapsto \theta\varphi$  are inverse to each other.

- 10.22. If G is solvable, then [G,G] is a proper normal subgroup of G. Since G is simple,  $[G,G]=\{1\}$  and G is abelian. Thus G is cyclic of prime order.
- 10.26. Assume that G is simple. Let  $A = G \times \{1\}$ ,  $B = \{1\} \times G$  and  $D = \{(x,x) : x \in G\}$  the diagonal subgroup of  $G \times G$ . Since

$$(g,h) = (g,1)(1,h) = (gh^{-1},1)(h,h)$$

it follows that G = AB = AD. Let M be a subgroup of  $G \times G$  that contains D. Note that

$$M = M \cap (G \times G) = M \cap AD = (M \cap A)D.$$

Similarly,  $M = (M \cap B)D$ . Since A is normal in  $G \times G$ ,  $M \cap A$  is normal in  $G \times G$  and  $(M \cap A)B$  is normal in  $MB = G \times G$ . Using the second isomorphism theorem, we see that

$$M \cap A \simeq \frac{(M \cap A)B}{B}$$

is a normal subgroup of  $(G \times G)/B \simeq A$ . Since  $A \simeq G$  is simple, either  $M \cap A = \{1\}$  or  $M \cap A = A$ . Thus either M = D or  $BD = G \times G$ . Therefore D is maximal.

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