Notes on Galois Theory

${\rm Apiros3}$

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1 Introduction

TODO: orbit stabiliser, structure theorem for finitely generated abelian groups

Lemma 1.0.1. A finite commutative group G is cyclic if and only if for any d|#G, there is at most one subgroup in G with cardinality #G.

Proof. In the infinite case, we use the fact $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 1.0.2. Let G be a finite cyclic group. Let k := #G. Define $I : (\mathbb{Z}/k\mathbb{Z})^* \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Groups}}(G)$ by $a \mapsto (\gamma \mapsto \gamma^a)$. Then I is an isomorphism.

Proof. Note first that this is well defined as $\gamma^k = e$ for any $\gamma \in G$. Also,

$$I([a][b])(\gamma)=\gamma^{ab}=I([a])(\gamma^b)=(I([a])\circ I([b]))(\gamma)$$

thus is a homomorphism.

Take any $\psi \in \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Groups}}(G)$. If g is the generator for G, $\psi(g) = g^a$ must also be a generator, with $\gcd(a,k) = 1$. In particular, $I([a]) = \psi$, thus I is surjective.

Suppose I([a]) is the identity automorphism. In particular, $g^a = g$ for a generator g. As G is cyclic, this forces $a = 1 \mod k$. In particular, [a] = [1].

Definition 1.0.3. A group G is **simple** if it has no nontrivial normal subgroups.

Definition 1.0.4. A subgroup G of S_n is called **transitive** if it has only one orbit in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

1.1 Solvable Group

Definition 1.1.1. Let G be a group. A **finite filtration** of G is a finite ascending sequence G_{\bullet} of subgroups

$$0 = G_0 \subset G_1 \subset \cdots \subset G_n = G$$

such that G_i is normal in G_{i+1} for all $i \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$.

The number n is called the **length** of the finite filtration. The finite filtration G_{\bullet} is said to have **no redundacies** if $G_i \neq G_{i+1}$ for all $i \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$. It is said to have **abelian quotients** if the quotient group G_{i+1}/G_i is an abelian group for all $i \in \{0, ..., n-1\}$.

The finite filtration G_{\bullet} is **trivial** if n = 1.

Note that the trivial filtration always exists and is unique.

Definition 1.1.2. A group is **solvable** if there exists a finite filtration with abelian quotients on G

Lemma 1.1.3 (Solvability via restriction and quotient). Let G be a group and let H be a subgroup. Then H is solvable. If H is normal in G, then the quotient group G/H is also solvable.

Proof. Let G_{\bullet} be a finite filtration with abelian quotients on G. Let n be the length of this filtration. We first claim that $H \cap G_i$ is normal in $H \cap G_{i+1}$. In particular, for any $h \in H \cap G_{i+1}$, the automorphism $\gamma \mapsto h^{-1}\gamma h$ of G_{i+1} sends H into H and G_i into G_i , thus sends $H \cap G_i$ into $H \cap G_i$. In particular,

$$0 = G_0 \cap H \subset G_1 \cap H \subset \cdots \subset G_n \cap H = H$$

is a finite filtration of H. Furthermore, we have an injective map of groups

$$\phi: G_{i+1} \cap H/G_i \cap H \hookrightarrow G_{i+1}/G_i$$

given by $[\gamma]_{G_i \cap H} \mapsto [\gamma]_{G_i}$. Thus this gives a finite filtration with abelian quotients for H. In particular, H is solvable.

Suppose now that H is normal. Consider the ascending sequence of subgroups

$$0 = [G_0]_H \subseteq [G_1]_H \subseteq \cdots \subseteq [G_n]_H = G/H$$

of G/H. Using the fact $[\bullet]_H : G \to G/H$ is a morphism of groups, taking $\gamma \in G_{i+1}$ and $\tau \in G_i$, we have

$$[\gamma]_H^{-1}[\tau]_H[\gamma]_H = [\gamma^{-1}\tau\gamma]_H$$

we have $[\gamma]_H^{-1}[\tau]_H[\gamma]_H \in [G_i]_H$, as $\gamma^{-1}\tau\gamma \in G_i$. In particular, $[G_{\bullet}]_H$ is a finite filtration of G/H. Also, we have a surjection of groups

$$\mu: G_{i+1}/G_i \to [G_{i+1}]_H/[G_i]_H$$

such that for any $\gamma \in G_{i+1}$, we have

$$\mu([\gamma]_{G_i}) = [[\gamma]_H]_{[G_i]_H}$$

Noting that we are mapping surjectively from a abelian group, the target is also abelian. In particular $[G_{\bullet}]_H$ is a finite filtration with abelian quotients for G/H.

Lemma 1.1.4 (Solvability via inflation). Let G be a group and $H \subseteq G$ be a normal subgroup. If H is solvable and G/H is solvable, then G is solvable.

Proof. As H is solvable, we have a finite filtration

$$0 = H_0 \subset \cdots \subset H_n = H$$

with abelian quotients. Similarly, we G/H is solvable, we have a finite filtration of abelian quotients

$$0 = [G_0]_H \subseteq \dots \subseteq [G_m]_H = G/H$$

Let $\phi: G \to G/H$ be the standard quotient map. Consider,

$$H = \phi^{-1}([G_0]_H) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \phi^{-1}([G_m]_H) = G$$

For $i \in \{0, ..., m-1\}$, $\phi^{-1}([G_i]_H)$ is normal in $\phi^{-1}([G_{i+1}]_H)$. By the third isomorphism theorem, we have

$$\phi^{-1}([G_i]_H)/\phi^{-1}([G_{i+1}]_H) \simeq [G_i]_H/[G_{i+1}]_H$$

Thus by gluing the two finite filtrations,

$$0 = H_0 \subseteq \dots \subseteq H_n = H = \phi^{-1}([G_0]_H) \subseteq \dots \subseteq \phi^{-1}([G_m]_H) = G$$

gives a finite filtration of abelian quotients in G.

Proposition 1.1.5. Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime number. Suppose there is an $n \ge 0$ such that $\#G = p^n$. Then G is solvable.

Such groups are called p-groups.

Proof. We proceed by induction on n. For n = 0, the proposition clearly holds.

Let $\phi: G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Groups}}(G)$ be the map of groups such that $\phi(g)(h) = ghg^{-1}$. This gives an action of G on G via conjugation. By the orbit stabiliser theorem, and Lagrange's theorem, the orbits of G in G all have a cardinality a power of G. The orbit of the unit element of G is $\{1_G\}$, and as the orbits partition G, we have $g_0 \in G$ with $g_0 \neq 1_G$ such that g_0 is a fixed point of the action of G on G. Now, $g_0g = (gg_0g^{-1})g = gg_0$, so g?0 commutes with every element of G. In particular, $g_0 \in Z(G)$ is nontrivial. By definition, Z(G) is abelian thus solvable, and G/Z(G) has cardinality g for g0 or g1. Thus, by Lemma 1.1.4, g2 is solvable.

Definition 1.1.6. The **length** of a finite group length(G) is

 $\sup\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \text{ is the length of a finite filtration with no redundacies of } G\}$

This is well-defined as the length of a finite group is finite, as it cannot be larger than #G.

Lemma 1.1.7. Suppose that G is a finite solvable group and let G_{\bullet} is a finite filtration with no redundacies of length length(G) on G. Then for all $i \in \{0, ..., \operatorname{length}(G) - 1\}$, the group G_{i+1}/G_i is a cyclic group of prime order.

Proof. Let n := length(G). Suppose there exists an i_0 such that G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0} is not cyclic of prime order. Then, noting G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0} is solvable, if it is not abelian, it has some nontrivial proper normal subgroup. If it is abelian but not of prime order, by the structure theorem for finitely generated abelian groups, G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0} is isomorphic to a finite direct sum of cyclic groups each with order a power of a prime number, giving us a nontrivial subgroup.

Call such a subgroup H. Let $q: G_{i_0+1} \to G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0}$ be the quotient map. Consider the ascending sequence of subgroups

$$0 = G_0 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_{i_0} \subseteq q^{-1}(H) \subseteq G_{i_0+1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq G_n = G$$

There are no redundacies as H is nontrivial and proper. Note first that $G_{i_0} \triangleleft q^{-1}(H)$ is immediate. We have $q^{-1}(H) \triangleleft G_{i_0+1}$ as it is the kernel of the map

$$G_{i_0+1} \to G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0} \to (G_{i_0+1}/G_{i_0})/H$$

This gives a longer filtration, contradicting the maximality of n, and in particular every quotient has prime order.

Remark 1.1.8. If G is a finite group and $G_{\#}$ is a finite filtration with no redundacies, then we can prove similarly that for the longest sequence, G_{i+1}/G_i is a nonzero simple group (intuitively, if we can pick a nontrivial normal subgroup, we can always extend the sequence).

Example 1.1.9. We note the following facts.

- Abelian groups are solvable (trivially)
- S_3 is solvable. The ascending sequence $0 \subseteq A_3 \subseteq S_3$ is a finite filtration of S_3 , with quotients $A_3/0 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $S_3/A_3 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.
- The group S_4 is also solvable $(0 \subseteq V_4 \subseteq A_4 \subseteq S_4)$.
- A_5 is not solvable, as it is simple but non-abelian. Consequently, any group which contains A_5 as a subgroup is not solvable. In particular, S_n for $n \ge 5$ is not solvable (as $A_5 \le S_5 \le S_n$).

2 Properties about Commutative Rings

Definition 2.0.1. For any ring R, there is a unique ring map (homomorphism) $\phi : \mathbb{Z} \to R$ such that

$$\phi(n) = 1 + \dots + 1$$

Define the **characteristic** written char(R) to be the unique $r \ge 0$ such that $(r) = ker(\phi)$

Note that if R is a domain, then char(R) is either 0 or a prime number.

2.1 Fields

Proposition 2.1.1. Let R be a domain. Then there is a field F and an injective ring map ϕ : $R \to F$ such that if

$$\phi: R \to F_1$$

is a ring map into a field F_1 , then there is a unique ring map $\lambda: F \to F_1$ such that $\phi_1 = \lambda \circ \phi$.

Definition 2.1.2. As a consequence of the above proposition, F is determined uniquely up to isomorphism. We call F the **field of fractions**, and write Frac(F).

Note that $Frac(R) = R_{R \setminus \{0\}}$

Lemma 2.1.3. Let K be a field and $I \subseteq K$ be an ideal. Then I = (0) or I = K.

Proof. Immediate (any non-zero element has an inverse, thus generates K).

Lemma 2.1.4. Let K, L be fields and $\phi: K \to L$ be a ring map. Then ϕ is injective.

Proof. Consider the kernel of ϕ . This is an ideal, thus is either (0) or K. In the former ϕ is injective (by the First Isomorphism Theorem), in the latter K and L are both zero-rings, so it follows. \square

2.2 Polynomial Rings

Definition 2.2.1. Let R be a ring. Write R[x] to be the ring of polynomials in the variable x and coefficients in R (with standard operations). If $r \ge 0$ is an integer, $K[x_1, \ldots, x_r] := K$ if r = 0 and

$$K[x_1,\ldots,x_r]:=K[x_1][x_2]\ldots[x_r]$$

Given $P(x) = a_d x^d + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in R[x]$ with $a_d \neq 0$, P(x) is **monic** if $a_d = 1$ (and $\deg(0) = -\infty$). We define the **degree** of P(x) written $\deg(P) := d$.

An element $t \in R$ is a **root** of P(x) if P(t) = 0.

Lemma 2.2.2. If R is a domain, then R[x] is also a domain.

$$Proof.$$
 TODO!!!

Proposition 2.2.3. If K is a field, K[x] is a euclidian domain.

Proof. TODO!!
$$\Box$$

Consequently, K[x] is a PID.

Definition 2.2.4. A unique factorization domain (UFD) is a domain R such that for any $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$, there is a sequence $r_1, \ldots, r_k \in R$ such that

- 1. r_i is irreducible for all i
- 2. $(r) = (r_1 \cdots r_k)$
- 3. if $r'_1, \ldots, r'_{k'}$ is another such sequence with the above properties, k = k' and there is a permutation $\sigma \in S_n$ such that $(r_i) = (r'_{\sigma(i)})$ for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$

Proposition 2.2.5. Any PID is a UFD.

Definition 2.2.6. Write $gcd(P_1, ..., P_k)$ for the unique monic generator of the ideal $(P_1(x), ..., P_k(x))$.

Lemma 2.2.7. Suppose that R is a UFD. An element $f \in R \setminus \{0\}$ is irreducible if and only if (f) is a prime ideal.

Proof. The forward direction is immediate, noting that if $f|p_1p_2$, $f|p_1$ or $f|p_2$, from the fact that f is irreducible and p_1, p_2 can be split into irreducible components.

On the other hand, if (f) is a prime ideal and f is not irreducible, then $f = f_1 f_2$ for some non-units. But as f is prime, $f|f_1$ or $f|f_2$. Without loss of generality, taking $f|f_1$, we have $f_1f_2|f_1$, meaning f_2 is a unit, a contradiction.

Lemma 2.2.8. Let R be a PID. Let $I \triangleleft R$ be a nonzero prime ideal. Then I is a maximal ideal.

Proof. Suppose not. Then we can find an element $r \in R$ such that $r \notin I$ and $([r]_I)$ is not R/I. Also, $([r]_I) = [(r,I)]_I$, and $(r,I) \neq R$ and $I \subsetneq (r,I)$. As we are in a PID, we can find $g,h \in R$ such that (g) = (r,I) and (h) = I. Then, g|h but $h \not |g$ (thus h is reducible). But h is irreducible as I is prime and R is a UFD, a contradiction.

Proposition 2.2.9. Let K be a field and $f \in K[x], a \in K$. Then,

- 1. a is a root of f if and only if (x-a)|f
- 2. there is a polynomial $g \in K[x]$ with no roots and a decomposition

$$f(x) = g(x) \prod_{i=1}^{k} (x - a_i)^{m_i}$$

where $k \geq 0$ and $m_i \geq 1$ and $a_i \in K$.

Proof. Immediate. For the forward case in (i), we use euclidian division on (x - a) and show the remainder is 0.

Proposition 2.2.10 (Eisenstein Criterion). Let

$$f = x^d + \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_i x^k \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$$

Let p > 0 be a prime number. Suppose $p|a_i$ and $p^2 \nmid a_0$. Then f is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Proof. Sketch. The idea is that viewing this polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ gives x^d , and we show that if this is reducible, they are x^n and x^{d-n} in the same field. This contradicts with the assumption $p|a_0$. (Need some algebraic manipulation to show the first statement)

Lemma 2.2.11. Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be monic. Let p > 0 and $f \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$ is irreducible. Then f is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Lemma 2.2.12 (Gauss Lemma). Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then f is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ if and only if it is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

2.3 Action of Groups on Rings

Definition 2.3.1. Let S be a set and G be a group. Write $Aut_{Sets}(S)$ for the group of bijective maps $a: S \to S$ (where the group operator works by composition). An **action** of G on S is a group homomorphism

$$\phi: G \to \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Sets}}(S)$$

Notation 2.3.2. Given $\gamma \in G$ and $s \in S$, we write

$$\gamma(s) := \phi(\gamma)(s)$$

or γs for $\gamma(s)$.

Definition 2.3.3. The set of invariants of S under the action of G is written

$$S^G := \{ s \in S \mid \gamma(s) = s \ \forall \gamma \in G \}$$

If $s \in S$,

$$Orb(G, s) := \{ \gamma(s) \mid \gamma \in G \}$$

is the **orbit** of s under G, and

$$Stab(G, s) := \{ \gamma \in G \mid \gamma(s) = s \}$$

is the **stabiliser** of s. We omit G when it is clear.

Definition 2.3.4. The action of G on a ring R is **compatible** with the ring structure of R, or G acts on a ring R if the image of ϕ lies in the subgroup

$$\operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Rings}}(R) \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Sets}}(R)$$

where $\operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Rings}}(R)$ is the group of bijective maps $R \to R$ which respects the ring structure.

Intuitively, each group element is mapped to a endomorphism which has some structure.

Lemma 2.3.5. Let G act on a ring R.

- 1. R^G is a subring of R.
- 2. If R is a field, R^G is a field.

Proof. The first case is immediate by noting $\gamma(ab) = \gamma(a)\gamma(b) = ab$ and $\gamma(a+b) = \gamma(a)+\gamma(b) = a+b$. The second follows from the fact that $1 = \gamma(aa^{-1}) = \gamma(a)\gamma(a^{-1}) = a\gamma(a^{-1})$.

Definition 2.3.6. Let R be a ring and $n \geq 1$. There is a natural action of S_n on the ring $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ by

$$\sigma(P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)) = P(x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(n)})$$

Define a symmetric polynomial with coefficients in R to be an element in $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$.

Example 2.3.7. For any $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$, the polynomial

$$s_k := \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k} \prod_{j=1}^k x_{i_j} \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

is symmetric. We call this the k-th elementary symmetric function (in n variables), and this satisfies

$$(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_d) = x^d - s_1(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^d s_d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$$

Theorem 2.3.8 (Fundamental Theorem of the Theory of Symmetric Functions). Let ϕ : $R[x_1,\ldots,x_n] \to R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$ be the map of rings which sends x_k to s_k and constants to themselves. Then,

- 1. $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n}$ is the image of ϕ
- 2. ϕ is injective

Then, by the first isomorphism theorem, we have $R[x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{S_n} = R[s_1, \ldots, s_n]$.

Proof. For the first case, we show that every symmetric polynomial can be expressed as a polynomial in s_i . Define lexicographic ordering on monomials

$$x_1^{\alpha_1}\cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \leq x_1^{\beta_1}\cdots x_n^{\beta_n}$$

By $\alpha_1 < \beta_1$ or $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$ and $x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n} \le x_2^{\beta_2} \cdots x_n^{\beta_n}$. Fix any symmetric polynomial f. Let $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$ be the largest monomial in f. We need $\alpha_1 \ge \cdots \ge \alpha_n$, as any permutation of the powers must also be in f. Also, the largest monomial in $s_1^{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2} s_2^{\alpha_2 - \alpha_3} \cdots s_n^{\alpha_n}$ is also $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$. Thus, there exists a $c \in R$ such that all monomials in $f - c \cdot s_1^{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2} s_2^{\alpha_2 - \alpha_3} \cdots s_n^{\alpha_n}$ are strictly smaller than $x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$. By repeating, we can write f as a polynomial in s_i .

To show (ii), we can show that s_i are algebraicly independent, and therefore that the kernel is 0. TODO!!!

Definition 2.3.9. Define,

- 1. $\Delta(x_1, ..., x_n) := \prod_{i < j} (x_i x_j)^2 \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, ..., x_n]^{S_n}$
- 2. $\delta(x_1, ..., x_n) := \prod_{i < j} (x_i x_j) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, ..., x_n]^{A_n}$
- 3. If $\sigma \in S_n$, $\delta(x_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, x_{\sigma(n)}) = \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) \cdot \delta(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

where sign : $S_n \to \{-1,1\}$ gives the **sign** of the permutation, and $A_n := \ker(sign)$ is called the **alternating group**. We call $\Delta(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ the **discriminant**.

Note the third point follows from the fact that any permutation can be written as a product of transpositions, and $sign(\sigma) = -1$ if σ is a transposition. The \in in the second point follows from this.

3 Field Extensions

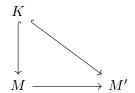
3.1 Field extension

Definition 3.1.1. Let K be a field. A field extension of K, or K-extension is an injection

$$K \hookrightarrow M$$

of fields. This injection gives M the structure of a K-vector space. We write M|K for the field extension of K to M.

A map from the K extension M|K to M'|K is a ring map $M \to M'$ that is compatible with the injections $K \hookrightarrow M$ and $K \hookrightarrow M'$. Alternatively, it is a map that makes the following commute.



Given M|K is a field extension, we write $\operatorname{Aut}_K(M)$ for the group of bijective maps of K-extensions from M to M, where the group law is the composition of maps. This is the subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Rings}}(M)$ which are compatible with the K-extension structure of M. We say that the field extension is **finite** if $\dim_K(M) < \infty$.

If M is a finite extension of K, then by rank nullity, any ring map from M to M is a bijection.

Example 3.1.2. If M is not a finite extension of K, then endomorphisms on M need not be bijective. Consider $\phi: \mathbb{Q}(t) \to \mathbb{Q}(t)$ which sends $t \mapsto t^2$. Consequently, $\dim_M(M)$ need not be 1, depending on the structure of the extension.

Proposition 3.1.3 (Tower Law). If L|M and M|K are finite field extensions, we have

$$[M:K] \cdot [L:M] = [L:K]$$

Specifically, if m_1, \ldots, m_s is a basis of M as a K-vector space and l_1, \ldots, l_t is a basis of L as a M vector space, (as vector spaces induced by the field extensions), then $\{m_i l_j\}$ is a basis for L as a K-vector space (as the composition of extensions).

Definition 3.1.4. Let M|K be a field extension and $a \in M$. Define

$$Ann(a) := \{ P(x) \in K[x] \mid P(a) = 0 \}$$

We have $Ann(a) \subseteq K[x]$ is an ideal.

We say that a is **transcendental** over K if Ann(a) = (0) and **algebraic** if $Ann(a) \neq (0)$. If a is algebraic over K, then the **minimal polynomial** m_a is the unique monic polynomial that generates Ann(a).

Alternatively the annihalator is the kernel of the map from K[x] to L.

$$\begin{array}{c}
K \\
\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\
K[x] \xrightarrow{e_{a}} M
\end{array}$$

Consequently, there is a injection $K[x]/\mathrm{Ann}(a) \hookrightarrow M$ where M is a domain. Thus, $\mathrm{Ann}(a)$ is prime. If a is algebraic over K, m_a is irreducible (as (m_a) is a prime ideal in a UFD). Thus a monic irreducible polynomial that annihalates a is the minimal polynomial. Prime ideals in a PID are maximal, so $\mathrm{Ann}(a)$ is maximal.

Definition 3.1.5. We say that a field extension M|K is algebraic if for all $m \in M$, the element m is algebraic over K. Else, we say that the field extension is **transcendental**.

Lemma 3.1.6. If M|K is finite, then M|K is algebraic.

Proof. Let $m \in M$. If m is transcendental over K, there is an injection of a K-vector space $K[x] \hookrightarrow M$. K[x] is infinite dimensional, but this contradicts the fact M is a finite-dimensional vector space over K.

3.2 Separability

Let K be a field. Let $P(x) \in K[x]$, and suppose

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + a_0$$

Define $P'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}P(x) := da_dx^{d-1} + (d-1)a_{d-1}x^{d-2} + \cdots + a_1$, where d-i is $1_K + \cdots + 1_K (d-i)$ -times. This is a K-linear map from K[x] to K[x] and satisfies

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(P(x)Q(x)) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(P(x))Q(x) + P(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(Q(x))$$

Definition 3.2.1. P(x) has **multiple roots** if (P(x), P'(x)) = (1). Equivalently, we have that gcd(P(x), P'(x)) = 1 (by Bézout's Lemma).

Given

$$P(x) = (x - \rho_1)(x - \rho_2) \cdots (x - \rho_d)$$

we see that P(x) has multiple roots if and only if there are $i \neq j$ such that $\rho_i = \rho_j$.

Lemma 3.2.2. Let L|K be a field extension, $P(x), Q(x) \in K[x]$. Write $gcd_L(P(x), Q(x))$ for the greatest common divisor of P(x) and Q(x) viewed as polynomials with coefficients in L. Then,

$$gcd(P(x), Q(x)) = gcd_L(P(x), Q(x))$$

Proof. We use the fact that a generator of (P(x), Q(x)) can be computed using Euclidian division. We note that the sequence in which we get this by euclidian algorithm is unique and is invariant of the field.

In particular, the definition of multiple roots captures roots that may not yet be in the base field.

Remark 3.2.3. Let K be a field and $P(x) \in K[x]$. Let L|K be a field extension. Then, P(x) has multiple roots as a polynomial with coefficients in K if and only if it has multiple roots as a polynomial with coefficients in L.

Lemma 3.2.4. Let $P(x), Q(x) \in K[x]$ and suppose Q(x)|P(x). If P(x) has no multiple roots, Q(x) also has no multiple roots.

Proof. Let $T(x) \in K[x]$ be such that Q(x)T(x) = P(x). By the Leibniz rule,

$$(P, P') = (QT, Q'T + QT')$$

If Q and Q' were both divisible by some polynomial W with positive degree, it also divides Q'T+QT' and QT, thus 1 would be divisible by W, a contradiction.

Lemma 3.2.5. Suppose that K is a field and that $P(x) \in K[x] \setminus \{0\}$. Suppose that $\operatorname{char}(K)$ does not divide $\operatorname{deg}(P)$ and that P(x) is irreducible. Then (P, P') = (1).

Proof. Let

$$P(x) = a_d x^d + a_{d-1} x^{d-1} + \dots + a_0$$

where $a_d \neq 0$. First note that $d = 0_K$ in K as $\operatorname{char}(K)$ does not divide d. Thus, $P'(x) \neq 0$. As P is irreducible, any common divisor of P and P' is a non-zero constant or P times a non zero constant. It is not the latter as $\deg(P') < \deg(P)$. Thus, it must be a non-zero constant. In other words, (P, P') = (1).

Noting the proof, if $P' \neq 0$, and P is irreducible, the same result follows.

Definition 3.2.6. Let K be a field. We say that $P(x) \in K[x] \setminus \{0\}$ is **separable** if all the irreducible factors of P(x) have no multiple roots.

Note that by Remark 3.2.3 and Lemma 3.2.4, this notion is invariant under field extensions. Also, by Lemma 3.2.5, irreducible polynomials with coefficients in K whose degree is prime to the characteristic of K is separable. Specifically, if char(K) = 0, any irreducible polynomial with coefficients in K is separable.

Definition 3.2.7. Let L|K be an algebraic field extension. We say that L|K is **separable** if the minimal polynomial over K of any element of L is separable.

Noting the previous paragraph, if K is a field and char(K) = 0, all algebraic extensions of K are separable (noting that minimal polynomials are irreducible in K[x]).

Lemma 3.2.8. Let M|L and L|K be algebraic field extensions. Suppose M|K is separable. Then, M|L and L|K are both separable.

Proof. By definition, L|K is separable. Let $m \in M$ and let $P(x) \in K[x]$ be the minimal polynomial over K. Let Q(x) be the minimal polynomial of m over L. By assumption, Q(x)|P(x). By assumption, P(x) has no multiple roots over K thus also over L by Remark 3.2.3. By Lemma 3.2.4, Q(x) also has no multiple roots over L, thus is separable.

Lemma 3.2.9 (MOVE LATER). Let M|L and L|K be finite separale extensions. Then M|K is separable.

Proof. Consider the following commutative diagram of extensions:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L' & \longrightarrow M' \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ K & \longrightarrow L & \longrightarrow M \end{array}$$

where L' is the normal closure of L over K such that L'|K is Galois, and M' is the smallest field containing M and L'. Then note that L'|K is separable (as it is Galois), and by using the fact that

L'|L is separable, M'|L is also separable. Thus, M'|L' is separable. Thus, we may reduce to the case where L'|K is a Galois extension and take L := L', M := M'.

Let $\alpha \in M$ be a root of an irreducible polynomial $f \in L[t]$. By assumption, this is separable. Now let G := Gal(L|K). For each $\sigma \in G$, we have

$$f^{\sigma}(t) = \sigma(f(t)) = \sum_{i} \sigma(a_i)t^i$$

This is also irreducible and separable. Taking

$$g(t) = \prod_{\sigma \in G} f^{\sigma}(t)$$

we see that $g \in K[t]$ and is also separable as each f^{σ} is separable. Any minimum polynomial of α in K divides g, so in particular is separable. Thus M|K is separable.

Example 3.2.10. Finite extensions need not be separable. Noting the proof in Lemma 3.2.5, we at least want to find a polynomial P such that P' = 0.

Consider $K := \mathbb{F}_2(t)$ where $\mathbb{F}_2 = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. Let $P(x) := x^2 - t$. As P(x) is of degree 2 and has no roots in K (by considering degrees), it is irreducible.

Define L := K[x]/(P(x)). As P(x) is irreducible, (P(x)) is prime, thus maximal in K[x], meaning L is a field. However, P'(x) = 0, thus $(P', P) = (P) \neq (1)$. As P(x) is the minimal polynomial of $x \in L$, L|K is not separable.

Example 3.2.11. Let p be a prime and take $f \in \mathbb{F}_p(t)$. Write

$$f(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i t^i$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{F}_p$. Then, $D(f)(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n i a_i t^{i-1}$ By characteristic, this vanishes if and only if $p|ia_i$ for all i, which is equivalent to $a_i = 0$ whenever $p \not|i$. Hence the only possible nonzero terms in f are those with exponent a multiple of p, so

$$f(t) = \sum_{j} a_{pj} t^{pj} = \sum_{j} a_{pj} (t^p)^j = g(t^p)$$

Suppose now that the map $x \mapsto x^p$ is bijective (such fields are called perfect). Then, writing $f(t) = g(t^p)$, we can take $g(t^p) = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j t^{pj}$ and picking j such that $c_j^p = b_j$, we have

$$g(t^p) = \sum_{j} (c_j)^p u^{pj} = \left(\sum_{j} c_j u^j\right)^p = h(u)^p$$

where $h(u) = \sum_j c_j u^j$. In particular, $f(t) = h(t)^p$. But then f is not irreducible. Thus, if f is irreducible and \mathbb{F}_p is perfect, $D(f) \neq 0$, meaning f is separable.

3.3 Simple Extensions

Definition 3.3.1. Let $\iota: K \hookrightarrow M$ be a field extension and $S \subseteq M$ be a subset. Define

$$K(S) := \bigcap_{\text{field } L, L \subseteq M, L \supseteq S, L \supseteq \iota(K)} L$$

This is a subfield of M and is called the **field generated by** S **over** K, and the elements of S are called **generators** of K(S). The field extensions M|K is the composition of the natural field extensions K(S)|K and M|K(S).

Note also that if $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_k\}$, then

$$K(S) = K(s_1) \dots (s_k)$$

We also say that M|K is a **simple extension** if there is a $m \in M$ such that M = K(m).

Example 3.3.2. Some examples of simple extensions:

- Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$ and $M = \mathbb{Q}(i, \sqrt{2})$ be a field generated by i and $\sqrt{2}$ in \mathbb{C} . Then M is a simple algebraic extension of K generated by $i + \sqrt{2}$.
- Let $M = \mathbb{Q}(x) = \operatorname{Frac}(\mathbb{Q}[x])$ and let $K = \mathbb{Q}$. Then M is a simple transcendental extension of K, generated by x.

Proposition 3.3.3. Let $M = K(\alpha)|K$ be a simple algebraic extension. Let P(x) be the minimal polynomial of α over K. Then, there is a natural isomorphism of K-extensions

$$K[x]/(P(x)) \simeq M$$

which sends x to α .

Proof. We first note that there is a natural map from K[x]/(P(x)) to M by evaluation. As $P(x) \neq 0$, we have (P(x)) is a maximal ideal. Thus, the image of K[x]/(P(x)) in M is a field. By definition, this is the entirety of M.

Remark 3.3.4. Noting the above proposition, we can note that $[M:K] = \deg(P)$. Then, the set $\{1, x, \ldots, x^{\deg(P)-1}\}$ is a basis. Also as a consequence, a finitely generated algebraic extension is a finite extension.

Corollary 3.3.5. Let $M = K(\alpha)|K$ be a simple algebraic extension. Let $K \hookrightarrow L$ be an extension of fields. Let P(x) be the minimal polynomial of α over K. There is a bijective correspondence with the roots of P(x) in L and the maps of K-extensions $M \hookrightarrow L$.

Proof. The corresponding map is given by the unique map extended from sending α to the root of P(x) in L.

Example 3.3.6. Let $M := \mathbb{Q}(i) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ and let $K = \mathbb{Q}$, and $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. There is no map of K-extensions $M \hookrightarrow L$ because the roots of $x^2 + 1$ do not lie in $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. If we change $L = \mathbb{C}$, then there are two maps of K-extensions $M \hookrightarrow L$ corresponding to the function extended by sending $i \mapsto i$ and $i \mapsto -i$.

3.4 Splitting Fields

Definition 3.4.1. Let K be a field. Let $P(x) \in K[x]$. We say that P(x) **splits** in K if for some $c \in K$ and sequence of $\{a_i \in K\}$, we have

$$P(x) = c \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k} (x - a_i)$$

We call a field algebraicly closed if any polynomial with coefficients with L splits in L.

If $P(x) \in K[x]$ is irreducible and $\deg(P) > 1$, P(x) has no roots in K and thus does not split in K.

Definition 3.4.2. A field extension M|K is a **splitting extension** for $P(x) \in K[x]$ if

- 1. P(x) splits in M
- 2. M is generated over K by the roots of P(x) in M.

Theorem 3.4.3. Let $P(x) \in K[x]$. Then,

- There exists a field extension M|K which is a splitting extension for P(x)
- If L|K is a splitting extension for P(x), then L and M are isomorphic as K-extensions
- Let L|K be a splitting extension for P(x) and J|K be any K-extension. Then, the images of all the maps of K-extensions $L \hookrightarrow J$ coincide.

Proof. (i) We work by induction on $\deg(P)$. If $\deg(P) = 1$, then K|K is a splitting extension for P(x). Suppose that $\deg(P) > 1$. Let P_1 be an irreducible factor of P(x). Consider $M_1 := K[x]/(P_1(x))$. M_1 is a field, and there is a natural map of rings $K \hookrightarrow M_1$.

By definition, P(x) has a root a in M_1 (which is just x in the presentation $M_1 = K[x]/(P_1(x))$). Let M be a splitting field for $P(x)/(x-a) \in M_1[x]$ over M_1 , which exists by the inductive hypothesis. By construction, P(x) splits in M. Let a_2, \ldots, a_k be roots of P(x)/(x-a) in M. By Proposition 3.3.3, $M = K(a)(a_2) \ldots (a_k) = K(a, a_2, \ldots, a_k)$ and thus M is generated over K by roots in M. Consequently, M is a splitting field of P(x) over K.

(ii) We work by induction on $\deg(P)$. If $\deg(P)=1$, we are done. Suppose $\deg(P)>1$. Let $a\in M$ be a root of P(x) in M and $Q(x)\in K[x]$ be its minimal polynomial. As Q(x)|P(x), Q(x) splits in M and also in L.

Now let a_1 be a root of Q(x) in L. Note from before that M|K(a) is a splitting extension of $P(x)/(x-a) \in K(a)$. Similarly, $L|K(a_1)$ is a splitting extension of $P(x)/(x-a_1) \in K(a_1)$. Define J := K[x]/(Q(x)). This is a field as Q(x) is irreducible, and there are natural isomorphisms $J \simeq K(a)$ and $J \simeq K(a_1)$ of K-extensions. Considering the J-extensions M|J and L|J from these isomorphisms, the inductive hypothesis shows the two are isomorphic as J extensions. By construction, this gives an isomorphism of K-extensions.

(iii) If there are no maps of K-extensions $L \hookrightarrow J$, we are done. Else, suppose there is a map $\phi: L \hookrightarrow J$ of K-extensions. As L is generated over the roots of P(x), the image of ϕ are generated over K by the image of these roots in J under ϕ . We claim these images are the roots of P(x) in J.

To prove the above claim, let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_d$ be roots of P(x) in L with multiplicities. Then,

$$P(x) = x^d - s_1(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^d s_d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$$

Thus, the elements of $\phi(\alpha_1), \ldots, \phi(\alpha_d)$ are the roots of

$$x^{d} - s_{1}(\phi(\alpha_{1}), \dots, \phi(\alpha_{d}))x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^{d}s_{d}(\phi(\alpha_{1}), \dots, \phi(\alpha_{d}))$$

$$= x^{d} - \phi(s_{1}(\alpha_{1}, \dots, \alpha_{d}))x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^{d}\phi(s_{d}(\alpha_{1}, \dots, \alpha_{d}))$$

$$= P(x)$$

As P(x) has coefficients in K. Now the set of roots of P(x) in J does not depend on ϕ , and so the claim follows.

Remark 3.4.4. Let K be a field and $P(x) \in K[x]$. Suppose that there is a field extension $K \hookrightarrow L$, where L is algebraicly closed. Let $S \subseteq L$ be the roots of $P(x) \in L$. Then $K(S) \subseteq L$ is a splitting field for P(x). This follows from the fact P(x) splits in K(S) as L is algebraicly closed, and that K(S) is generated by the roots of P(x) by construction.

As a specific example, we can generate a splitting field for any polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ by considering $L = \mathbb{C}$.

Remark 3.4.5. Any field K has an algebraic field extension $K \hookrightarrow K'$ such that K' is algebraicly closed. This is unique up to isomorphism and is called the **algebraic closure** of K.

3.5 Normal Extensions

Definition 3.5.1. An algebraic extension L|K is called **normal** if the minimal polynomial over K of any element of L splits in L.

Note that a splitting extension (field) is by definition a normal extension (field).

Example 3.5.2. Some examples of extensions are

- $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})|\mathbb{Q}$ is not normal, as the minimal polynomial for $\sqrt[3]{2}$, namely $x^3 + 2$, does not split.
- $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})|\mathbb{Q}$ is normal, noting that as $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}):\mathbb{Q}]=2$, any minimal polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ has degree at most 2, which if it has a root, splits.

Lemma 3.5.3. Let $M = K(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k) | K$ be an algebraic field extension. Let J | K be an extension in which the polynomial $\prod_{i=1}^k m_{\alpha_i} \in K[x]$ splits. Then the set of maps of K-extensions $M \to J$ is finite and non-empty. If m_{α_i} are all separable, there are [M:K] such maps.

Proof. We first prove that this set is finite and non-empty. By Corollary 3.3.5, there is an extension of the map $K \hookrightarrow J$ to $K(\alpha_1)$, and only finitely many choices for such extension. The minimal polynomial of α_2 over $K(\alpha_1)$ divides m_{α_2} and has a root in J as m_{α_2} splits in J. Thus, again, there is an extension from the ring map $K(\alpha_1) \hookrightarrow J$ to $K(\alpha_1)(\alpha_2) = K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \hookrightarrow J$, and only finitely many such. Repearing shows the same is the case for $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k) = M \hookrightarrow J$.

For the cardinality of the set, we note that there are $[K(\alpha_1):K] = \deg(m_{\alpha_1})$ extensions of maps $K \hookrightarrow J$ to $K(\alpha_1)$. Continuting, for any ring map $K(\alpha_1) \hookrightarrow J$, there are $[K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2):K(\alpha_1)]$ extensions of this map to a map $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \hookrightarrow J$. By the tower law, there are

$$[K(\alpha_1):K][K(\alpha_1,\alpha_2):K(\alpha_1)] = [K(\alpha_1,\alpha_2):K]$$

extensions of the map $K \hookrightarrow J$ to a ring map $K(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \hookrightarrow J$. Continuting,

$$[K(\alpha_1):K]\cdots[M:K(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_{k-1})] = [M:K]$$

extensions of the map $K \hookrightarrow J$ to a ring map $M \hookrightarrow J$.

Theorem 3.5.4. A finite field extension L|K is normal if and only if it is a splitting extension for a polynomial with coefficients in K.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that L|K is finite and normal. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$ be generators for L over K (as a K-basis). Define

$$P(x) := \prod_{i=1}^{k} m_{\alpha_i}(x)$$

where $m_{\alpha_i}(x)$ is the minimal polynomial for α_i over K. Then, by assumption, P(x) splits in L and the roots of P(x) generate L, so L is a splitting field for P(x).

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that L is a splitting field of a polynomial in K[x]. Let $\alpha \in L$ and $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k \in L$ be such that $L = K(\alpha, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k)$. Let J be a splitting field of the products of the minimal polynomials over K over the elements $\alpha, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k$. Choose a root ρ in J of the minimal polynomial Q(x) of α over K. By Corollary 3.3.5, there is an extension of the map $K \hookrightarrow J$ to a ring map $\mu : K(\alpha) \hookrightarrow J$ such that $\mu(\alpha) = \rho$. By Lemma 3.5.3, there is an extension of μ to a ring map $\lambda : L \hookrightarrow J$. By Theorem 3.4.3, the image of λ on L in J is independent of λ and thus of μ . Consequently, as we have not fixed ρ , the image of λ with L in J contains all the roots of Q(x). Thus, Q(x) splits in the image of λ . As Q(x) has coefficients in K and λ gives an isomorphism between L and the image of λ , Q(x) splits in L.

Theorem 3.5.5. Let L|K be a splitting field of a separable polynomial over K. Then we have $\#Aut_K(L) = [L:K]$.

Proof. Apply Lemma 3.5.3 with L = M = J.

Theorem 3.5.6. Let $\iota: K \hookrightarrow L$ be a finite field extension. Then $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ is finite. Furthermore, the following are equivalent:

- 1. $\iota(K) = L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}$
- 2. L|K is normal and separable
- 3. L|K is a splitting extension for a separable polynomial with coefficients in K.

Proof. We first note that if $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ were infinite, we can obtain infinitely many maps of K extensions $L \hookrightarrow J$ by composing any map $L \hookrightarrow J$ with elements of $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$, which contradicts the result from Lemma 3.5.3.

 $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ Let P(x) be the minimal polynomial of some element $\alpha \in L$. We have to show that P(x) splits and is separable. Define

$$Q(x) := \prod_{\beta \in \text{Orb}(\text{Aut}_K(L), \alpha)} (x - \beta)$$

By definition, Q(x) is separable. Let $d := \#\mathrm{Orb}(\mathrm{Aut}_K(L), \alpha)$. Let β_1, \ldots, β_d be the elements of $\mathrm{Orb}(\mathrm{Aut}_K(L), \alpha)$. Note that

$$Q(x) = x^{d} - s_{1}(\beta_{1}, \dots, \beta_{d})x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^{d}s_{d}(\beta_{1}, \dots, \beta_{d})$$

For any $\gamma \in \operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ and for any $i \in \{1, \ldots, d\}$ we have

$$\gamma(s_i(\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_d)) = s_i(\gamma(\beta_1),\ldots,\gamma(\beta_d))$$

Noting that s_i is a symmetric function and γ permutes elements of $\mathrm{Orb}(\mathrm{Aut}_K(L), \alpha)$ (by composition), we have

$$s_i(\gamma(\beta_1),\ldots,\gamma(\beta_n))=s_i(\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_n)$$

As γ was arbitrary, we see that $s_i(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_d) \in L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)} = \iota(K)$. Thus, $Q(x) \in \iota(K)[x]$. We can therefore identify Q(x) with a polynomial in K[x] with ι .

However, $\alpha \in \text{Orb}(\text{Aut}_K(L), \alpha)$, so $Q(\alpha) = 0$. By definition of P(x), P(x)|Q(x), so P(x) splits in L and has no multiple roots and therefore is separable.

- $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$ Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$ be generators of L over K. Let $P(x) := \prod_{i=1}^k m_{\alpha_i}(x)$, where $m_{\alpha_i}(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of α_i over K. Then, P(x) is a separable polynomial by construction and L is also a splitting extension for P(x).
- $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$ Note first that by construction, $\iota(K) \subseteq L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}$ as any element of $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ fixes the image of K in L by definition. So, L|K is the composition of extensions $L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}|K$ and $L|L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}$. Note that $L|L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}$ is also the splitting field of a separable polynomial over $L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}$ (by taking the same polynomial for L|K). Also note the identity $\operatorname{Aut}_{L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}}(L) = \operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$

Now, by Theorem 3.5.5, we have

$$[L:L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}]=\#\operatorname{Aut}_{L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}}(L)$$

and

$$[L:K] = \#Aut_K(L)$$

giving $[L:L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}]=[L:K]$. The tower law shows that $[L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}:K]=1$, or equivalently, $L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)}=\iota(K)$.

Corollary 3.5.7. Let L|K be an algebraic field extension. Suppose that L is generated by $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k \in L$ and the minimal polynomial of each α_i is separable. Then, L|K is separable.

Proof. By Lemma 3.5.3 and Theorem 3.4.3, there is an extension M|L such that M|K is the splitting field of a separable polynomial (the product of the minimal polynomials). By 3.5.6, the extension M|K is separable. Thus, the extension L|K is also separable.

3.6 Galois Extensions

Definition 3.6.1. A field extension $\iota: K \hookrightarrow L$ is called a Galois extension if $L^{\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)} = \iota(K)$. As notation, $\iota(K)$ is often replaced with K (unless there is ambiguity).

If L|K is a Galois extension, write

$$Gal(L|K) = \Gamma(L|K) := Aut_K(L)$$

and call Gal(L|K) the Galois group of L|K. If L|K is finite, then this is a finite group (by Theorem 3.5.6).

As a consequence of Theorem 3.5.6, a finite field extension L|K is a Galois extension if and only if L is a splitting field of a separable polynomial over K if and only if it is normal and separable. As a consequence, if L|K is a finite galois extension which is the composition of two extensions $L|K_1$ and $K_1|K$, then $L|K_1$ is a finite galois extension. This is because properties like normal and separable are preserved by such cuts (noting that the minimal polynomial of L over K_1 divides that over K). However, it does not hold in general that $K_1|K$ is a galois extension, noting that this need not be a normal extension.

Definition 3.6.2. Let K be a field and $P(x) \in K[x]$ be a separable polynomial. Let L|K be a splitting field for P(x). We sometimes write Gal(P) = Gal(P(x)) for Gal(L|K). Note the abuse of notation, as splitting fields are not related by canonical isomorphism. Thus, in the strict sense, Gal(P) refers to an isomorphism class of finite groups.

Lemma 3.6.3. Let K be a field and let $G \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Rings}}(K)$ be a finite subgroup. Then $[K:K^G] \leq \#G$.

Proof. Suppose not. Then, we have a sequence $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_d$ of elements of K which is linearly independent over K^G and such that d > #G. Let n := #G and let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \in G$ be the enumeration of G. Consider now the matrix defined by $(\sigma_i(\alpha_j))$. The columns are linearly dependent over K as n < d. Thus, we have a sequence β_1, \ldots, β_d with some non-vanishing term such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} \beta_i(\sigma_k(\alpha_i))$$

for all k. Choose a sequence β_1, \ldots, β_d such that

$$r := \#\{i \in \{1, \dots, d\} \mid \beta_i \neq 0\}$$

is minimal. By reordering, suppose that $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_r \neq 0$ and that $\beta_{r+1}, \ldots, \beta_d = 0$. Dividing through by β_r , suppose that $\beta_r = 1$. As $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_d$ are linearly independent over K^G , (noting that β_i kills the identity) we have some $i_0 \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$ such that $\beta_{i_0} \notin K^G$. Note that r > 1 as $i_0 \neq r$. By renumbering, we may assume $\beta_1 \notin K^G$.

Now, take $k_0 \in \{1, ..., n\}$ such that $\sigma_{k_0}(\beta_1) \neq \beta_1$. Applying σ_{k_0} to our first equation, we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sigma_{k_0}(\beta_i)(\sigma_{k_0}\sigma_k)(\alpha_i) = 0$$

for all $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Noting that σ only permutes, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} \sigma_{k_0}(\beta_i)(\sigma_k)(\alpha_i) = 0$$

for all $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Subtracting with the original equation, this gives

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} (\sigma_{k_0}(\beta_i) - \beta_i)(\sigma_k)(\alpha_i) = 0$$

for all $k \in \{1, ..., n\}$. Noting the definition of r and from $\beta_r = 1$, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r-1} (\sigma_{k_0}(\beta_i) - \beta_i)(\sigma_k)(\alpha_i) = 0$$

Now, as $\sigma_{k_0}(\beta_1) \neq \beta_1$, we have a non-zero annihlating sum, which contradicts the minimality of r. Thus $d \leq n$.

Theorem 3.6.4 (Artin's Lemma). Let K be a field and let $G \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Rings}}(K)$ be a finite subgroup. Then the extension $K|K^G$ is a finite Galois extension, and the inclusion $G \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$ is an isomorphism of groups.

Proof. First we claim that

$$K^G - K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)}$$

First note that $K^G \subseteq K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)}$ (if you are in K^G , you are fixed by things that fix K^G). On the other hand, $G \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$ (automorphisms in G fix K^G). Thus, $K^G \supseteq K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)}$. Thus, we have proven the claim.

Now, as $K|K^G$ is a finite extension by Lemma 3.6.3, we have from Theorem 3.5.6 that $K|K^G$ is a splitting extension of a separable polynomial with coefficients in K^G . By Theorem 3.5.5,

$$[K:K^G] = \# \operatorname{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$$

On the other hand, from Lemma 3.6.3, $[K:K^G] \leq \#G$ so, we have $\#\mathrm{Aut}_{K^G}(K) \leq \#G$. Now, $G \subseteq \mathrm{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$ so, $\#G \leq \#\mathrm{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$, giving $\#G = \#\mathrm{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$. Thus, $G = \mathrm{Aut}_{K^G}(K)$.

Finally, Theorem 3.5.6 implies that $K|K^G$ is a finite Galois extension with Galois group G. \square

Theorem 3.6.5 (Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory). (i) The map

$$\{subfields\ of\ L\ containing\ \iota(K)\}\mapsto \{subgroups\ of\ \mathrm{Gal}(L|K)\}$$

given by

$$M \mapsto \operatorname{Gal}(L|M)$$

is a bijection. The inverse is given by the map

$$H \mapsto L^H$$

(ii) Let M be a subfield of L containing $\iota(K)$. We have

$$[L:M] = \#\mathrm{Gal}(L|M)$$

and

$$[M:K] = \frac{\#\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)}{\#\operatorname{Gal}(L|M)}$$

- (iii) Let M be a subfield of L containing $\iota(K)$. Then M|K is a Galois extension if and only if the group $\operatorname{Gal}(L|M)$ is a normal subgroup of $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$. In that case, there is an isomorphism $I_M : \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)/\operatorname{Gal}(L|M) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(M|K)$.
- *Proof.* (i) By considering the claimed isomorphisms, we want to show that $M = L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L|M)}$ and $\operatorname{Gal}(L|L^H) = H$ for any intermediate field M and any subgroup $H \subseteq \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$.

The first equality is a consequence of the fact that L|M is a Galois extension. The second follows from Artin's Lemma.

- (ii) The equation [L:M] = #Gal(L|M) is a consequence of Theorem 3.5.5. The equation [M:K] = #Gal(L|K)/#Gal(L|M) is a consequence of the tower law and #Gal(L|K) = [L:K].
- (iii) Suppose that M is an intermediate field and that M|K is a Galois extension. Then for any $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$, $\gamma(M) = M$ by Theorem 3.4.3 (iii). In particular, we have a homomorphism

$$\phi_M(\gamma) = \gamma|_M$$

The kernel of this homomorphism is Gal(L|M) by definition. Hence, Gal(L|M) is normal in Gal(L|K) by the first isomorphism theorem.

On the other hand, suppose that $\operatorname{Aut}_M(L)$ is a normal subgroup of $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$. Take $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$. By definitions,

$$\operatorname{Aut}_{\gamma(M)}(L) = \operatorname{Gal}(L|\gamma(M)) = \{ \mu \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K) \mid \mu(\alpha) = \alpha, \ \forall \alpha \in \gamma(M) \}$$

$$= \{ \mu \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K) \mid \mu(\gamma(\beta)) = \gamma(\beta), \ \forall \beta \in M \}$$

$$= \{ \mu \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K) \mid (\gamma^{-1}\mu\gamma)(\beta) = \beta, \ \forall \beta \in M \}$$

$$= \gamma \operatorname{Gal}(L|M)\gamma^{-1}$$

$$= \operatorname{Gal}(L|M)$$

By bijective correspondence given in (i), we have $M = \gamma(M)$. Thus, we have a homomorphism

$$\phi_M: \operatorname{Gal}(L|K) \to \operatorname{Aut}_K(M)$$

given by $\phi_M(\gamma) = \gamma|_M$. From (ii) and the first isomorphism theorem, $\operatorname{im}(\phi_M) \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_K(M)$ has cardinality [M:K], with kernel $\operatorname{Aut}_M(L)$. On the other hand, by Artin's Lemma, we know $[M:M^{\operatorname{Im}(\phi)}] = \#\operatorname{Im}(\phi_M)$ such that $[M:M^{\operatorname{Im}(\phi)}] = [M:K]$. By the tower law, $K = M^{\operatorname{Im}(\phi)}$. In particular, M|K is a Galois extension and ϕ_M is therefore surjective.

The isomorphism is uniquely determined by the fact that $I_M(\gamma \mod \operatorname{Gal}(L|M)) = \gamma|_M$ for any $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$.

Remark 3.6.6. Let $\iota: K \hookrightarrow L$ be a Galois extension. Let $M \subseteq L$ be an intermediate field. Then M|K is a Galois extension if and only if the maps of K-extensions $M \to L$ have the same image (which is M).

If all the maps have M as an image, then for all $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$, $\gamma(M) = M$, and thus from the proof above, M|K is a Galois extension. On the other hand, if M|K is a Galois extension, then for all $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$, $\gamma(M) = M$ by Theorem 3.4.3 (images of embeddings from splitting fields coincide).

Corollary 3.6.7. Let $\iota: K \to L$ be a finite separable extension. There are only finitely many intermediate fields between L and $\iota(K)$.

Proof. Without loss of generality, we can extend L to a Galois extension (by Lemma 3.5.3, taking the splitting field over the minimal polynomials of the generators). The Galois group is finite, and bijectively corresponds to intermediate fields.

Example 3.6.8. We consider the Galois group of the extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}$ and of its subfields. Note first that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)$ is the splitting field of the polynomial $(x^2-2)(x^2+1)$ whose roots are $\pm\sqrt{2},\pm i$. In particular, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}$ is a splitting field of a separable polynomial, thus Galois.

We note the successive extensions $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})|\mathbb{Q}$. The minimal polynomial of $\sqrt{2}$ over \mathbb{Q} is x^2-2 , and the polynomial x^2+1 is the minimal polynomial of i over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. By the tower law, $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i):\mathbb{Q}]=4$. By Theorem 3.5.5, we have $\#\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q})=4$. Define $G:=\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q})$. By the classification of finite groups, we know that G is abelian, and that $G\simeq \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}\times\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ or $G\simeq \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$. Note also that $\#\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}(i))=2$. This follows from the fact the extension is not trivial (otherwise $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i):\mathbb{Q}]$ would equal 2). With similar $\log_{\mathbb{Q}}(\mathbb{Q},\mathbb{Q})$ in $\mathbb{Q}(\mathbb{Q},\mathbb{Q})$ in

By the fundamental theorem of Galois theory, the two subgroups $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}(i))$ and $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)|\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}))$ cannot coincide, as they correspond to different subfields of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2},i)$. Consequently, $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

 $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ has three non trivial subgroups, and we find the third is given by $\mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{2})$.

Example 3.6.9. We also note some field extensions that are not Galois.

- The extension $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})|\mathbb{Q}$ is not a normal extension, thus not Galois.
- The extension $\mathbb{F}_2(t)[x]/(x^2-t)|\mathbb{F}_2(t)$ is not separable, thus not Galois.

Lemma 3.6.10. Let L|K be a finite Galois extension. Let $\alpha \in L$. Then the minimal polynomial of α over K is the polynomial

$$\prod_{\beta \in \text{Orb}(\text{Gal}(L|K),\alpha)} (x - \beta)$$

Proof. Let $P(x) = \prod_{\beta \in \text{Orb}(\text{Gal}(L|K),\alpha)} (x-\beta)$. Let $m_{\alpha}(x) \in K$ be the minimal polynomial of α over K. We know that $P(x) \in K[x]$, thus we have

$$m_{\alpha}(x)|P(x)$$

It is therefore sufficient to prove that P(x) is irreducible over K. Suppose for contradiction P(x) = Q(x)T(x) for $Q(x), T(x) \in K[x]$ and $\deg(Q), \deg(T) > 1$. Note that if $\rho \in L$ and $Q(\rho) = 0$, $\gamma(Q(\rho)) = Q(\gamma(\rho)) = \gamma(0) = 0$, thus roots of Q(x) in L are stable under the action $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$. As Q(x) has a root in L, noting P(x) splits in L and Q(x)|P(x), the set of roots of P(x) contains a strict subset who is stable under $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$. This contradicts the fact the set of roots of P(x) is the orbit of α under $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$.

Lemma 3.6.11. Let K be a field and let $P(x) \in K[x]$. Let L|K be a splitting extension of P(x) and let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in L$ be the roots of P(x) with multiplicities. Then,

- 1. If P(x) has no repeated roots, and $\phi : \operatorname{Aut}_K(L) \to S_n$ satisfies $\gamma(\alpha_i) = \alpha_{\phi(\gamma)(i)}$, then ϕ is an injective group homomorphism.
- 2. If P(x) is irreducible over K and has no repeated roots, the image of ϕ is a transitive subgroup of S_n
- 3. The element $\Delta_P := \Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ lies in K and depends only on P(x)
- 4. Suppose that $char(K) \neq 2$. Suppose also that P(x) has no repeated roots. Then the image of ϕ lies inside $A_n \subseteq S_n$ if and only if $\Delta_P \in (K^*)^2$.
- *Proof.* (i) The map is tautologically a group homomorphism. It is injective as L is generated by the roots, thus an element γ that acts as the identity on the roots must act as the identity on L.
- (ii) We only need to show $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ acts transitively on the roots. As P(x) is irreducible, it is the minimal polynomial of any α_i . By Lemma 3.6.10, the roots are an orbit under $\operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$ over any root, so we are done.
 - (iii) Note first that

$$P(x) = x^d + a_{d-1}x^{d-1} + \dots + a_0 = x^d + s_1(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)x^{d-1} + \dots + (-1)^d s_d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_d)$$

By The Fundamental Theorem of Symmetric Functions, there is a unique polynomial $Q(x) \in K[x]$ such that $Q(s_1, \ldots, s_d) = \Delta(x_1, \ldots, x_d)$. Thus,

$$\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = Q(-a_{d-1}, a_{d-2}, \dots, (-1)^d a_0)$$

As this function depends only on P(x) and lies in K, we are done.

(iv) Consider $\delta(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n):=\prod_{i< j}(\alpha_i-\alpha_j)$. For any $\gamma\in \operatorname{Aut}_K(L)$, we have

$$\gamma(\delta(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)) = \delta(\gamma(\alpha_1),\ldots,\gamma(\alpha_n)) = \delta(\alpha_{\phi(\gamma)(1)},\ldots,\alpha_{\phi(\gamma)(n)}) = \operatorname{sign}(\phi(\gamma)) \cdot \delta(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)$$

As this is a Galois extension, $\delta(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in K$ if and only if the image of ϕ lies in A_n . Now also note that $\delta(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in K$ if and only if $\Delta_P \in (K^*)^2$.

Note the characteristic being non-two is necessary to distinguish between sign, as else $\delta(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ always lies in K.

Remark 3.6.12. The key idea is that the Galois group of the splitting field of a degree n polynomial is a subgroup of S_n . Moreover, if P(x) is irreducible, then it is transitive. If n is prime, then this means it contains an n-cycle (though not generally, as V_4 is transitive on $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$).

The last case is useful to note for when we consider $Gal(M|K(\sqrt{\Delta_P}))$.

Example 3.6.13. Note that

$$\Delta(x_1, x_2, x_3) = -4s_1^3 s_3 + s_1^2 s_2^2 + 18s_1 s_2 s_3 - 4s_2^3 - 27s_3^2$$

Taking $P(x) = x^3 - x - \frac{1}{3}$, The polynomial has no roots in \mathbb{Q} (moving it to $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and seeing it has no roots in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$), thus irreducible. It also has no multiple roots as the characteristic of \mathbb{Q} is 0.

Let $L|\mathbb{Q}$ be a splitting field for P(x) and take $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ to be the roots of P(x) in L. Matching coefficients, $s_3(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = -1/3$, $s_2(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = -1$, $s_1(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = 0$, so

$$\Delta_P = -4s_2(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)^3 - 27s_3(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)^2 = 4 - \frac{27}{9} = 1$$

In particular, $\Delta_P \in (\mathbb{Q}^*)^2$ (as this is nonzero, it is an alternative way to see it has no repeated roots).

By the previous Lemma, $\operatorname{Gal}(L|\mathbb{Q})$ can be seen as a subgroup of A_3 . On the other hand, $\operatorname{Gal}(L|\mathbb{Q})$ has order at least 3 as the extension $K(\alpha_i)|\mathbb{Q}$ has degree 3 for any α_i , as P(x) is irreducible. By the tower law, $\operatorname{Gal}(L|\mathbb{Q})$ has order at least 3, thus $\#A_3 = 3$, giving $\operatorname{Gal}(L|\mathbb{Q}) \simeq A_3$.

Theorem 3.6.14 (Primitive Element Theorem). Let L|K be a finite separable extension of fields. Then there is an element $\alpha \in L$ such that $L = K(\alpha)$

Proof. We prove the case for K being finite and infinite separately.

In the finite case, we have $K \simeq \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ for some prime p and positive integer n. Define $G_d := \{x \mid \operatorname{ord}(x) = d\} \subseteq \{x^d = 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p_n}^*$. By definition, if $G_d \neq \emptyset$, $|G_d| = \phi(d)$ and if $G_d = \emptyset$, $|G_d| = 0$. Now, we have

$$p^{n} = |\mathbb{F}_{p_{n}}^{*}| + 1$$

$$= \sum_{d|p^{n}-1} |G_{d}| + 1$$

$$= \sum_{d|p^{n}-1} \phi(d) + 1$$

$$= (p^{n}-1) + 1 = p^{n}$$

In particular, G_{p^n-1} is nonempty, thus we have a generator for the field (that is irrespective of the base field).

If K is an infinite field, noting that L is generated over K by a finite number of elements, induction shows that it is sufficient to prove that L is generated by one element if it is generated by two elements. Suppose that $L = K(\beta, \gamma)$. For $d \in K$, consider the intermediate field $K(\beta + d\gamma)$. As there are finitely many such, and as K is infinite, we can find $d_1, d_2 \in K$ such that $d_1 \neq d_2$ and $K(\beta + d_1\gamma) = K(\beta + d_2\gamma)$. We can find a $P(x) \in K[x]$ such that $\beta + d_1\gamma = P(\beta + d_2\gamma)$, meaning we have

$$\gamma = \frac{P(\beta + d_2\gamma) - (\beta + d_2\gamma)}{d_1 - d_2}$$

and

$$\beta = (\beta + d_2 \gamma) - d_2 \frac{P(\beta + d_2 \gamma) - (\beta + d_2 \gamma)}{d_1 - d_2}$$

and in particular, $K(\beta, \gamma) = K(\beta + d_2 \gamma)$.

Proposition 3.6.15. Let F be a field of characteristic 0 and let $K = F(\beta, \gamma)$ where β and γ are algebraic over F. Then there exists a d such that $K = F(\beta + c\gamma)$ for some $c \in F$.

Proof. We give a minimum polynomial argument. Suppose that $\beta + c\gamma$ is not a primitive element, such that $F(\beta + c\gamma) \subseteq F(\beta, \gamma)$. In particular, $\gamma \notin F(\beta + c\gamma)$. Consider the minimal polynomials of β and γ over $F(\beta + c\gamma)$, calling them $f(X), g(X) \in F(\beta + c\gamma)[X]$, and take a splitting field L containing all roots of f(X) and g(X). Since $\gamma \notin F(\beta + c\gamma)$, there is another root $\gamma' \neq \gamma$ and a field automorphism which fixes $F(\beta + c\gamma)$ and takes $\sigma(\gamma) = \gamma'$. Then,

$$\beta + c\gamma = \sigma(\beta + c\gamma) = \sigma(\beta) + c\sigma(\gamma)$$

implying

$$c = \frac{\sigma(\beta) - \beta}{\gamma - \sigma(\gamma)}$$

As there are only finitely many field automorphisms $\operatorname{Aut}_{F(\beta+c\gamma)}(L)$ (where L is the splitting field), there are only finitely many $c \in F$ that fail to give the primitive element. All other values give $F(\beta+c\gamma)=F(\beta,\gamma)$.

4 Special Classes of Extensions

4.1 Cyclotomic Extension

Definition 4.1.1. Let $n \ge 1$. For any field E, define

$$\mu_n(E) := \{ \rho \in E \mid \rho^n = 1 \}$$

The elements of $\mu_n(E)$ are called the n-th roots of unity. $\mu_n(E)$ inherits a group structure from E^* .

Lemma 4.1.2. The group $\mu_n(E)$ is a finite cyclic group.

Proof. This group is clearly finite, as there are at most n elements that satisfy $x^d - 1 = 0$ over a field.

Suppose that we have two distinct subgroups H, K of $\mu_n(E)$ of the same cardinality, say d. By Lagrange's Theorem, we have that elements of both H and K are annihalated by $x^d - 1$, but their union has cardinality larger than d. This is a contradiction, thus $\mu_n(E)$ is finite cyclic.

Definition 4.1.3. If $\#\mu_n(E) = n$, we call $\omega \in \mu_n(E)$ a **primitive** n-th root of unity if it is a generator of $\mu_n(E)$ (note the initial condition $\#\mu_n(E) = n$).

Note that if $\omega \in \mu_n(E)$ is a primitive n-th root of unity, all other primitive n-th roots of unity are of the form ω^k where k is an integer coprime to n.

Remark 4.1.4. Let K be a field and suppose that $(n, \operatorname{char}(K)) = (1)$. Let L be a splitting field for the polynomial $x^n - 1 \in K[x]$. We denote this by $K(\mu_n)$ (though abusing language, as L is only well-defined up to non-canonical isomorphism). By construction, $x^n - 1$ has no repeated roots, thus $\#\mu_n(L) = n$ and L|K is a Galois extension. L|K is also a simple extension as L is generated over K by any primitive n-th root of unity in L.

By Lemma 4.1.2, $\mu_n(L) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$, there are $\#(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^* = \Phi(n)$ primitive *n*-th roots of unity in L.

Definition 4.1.5. Define

$$\Phi_{n,K}(x) := \prod_{\omega \in \mu_n(L), \omega \ primitive} (x - \omega)$$

Note that $deg(\Phi_{n,K}(x)) = \Phi(n)$.

Lemma 4.1.6. The polynomial $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ has coefficients in K and depends only on n and K (does not depend on the choice of splitting field).

Proof. The coefficients of $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ are symmetric functions in the primitive n-th roots. As these roots are permuted by Gal(L|K), the coefficients are invariant under Gal(L|K), and thus lie in K.

The polynomial $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ only depends on n and K (and not on the choice of extension), as all the splitting K-extensions for $x^n - 1$ are isomorphic.

Proposition 4.1.7. There is a natural injection of groups $\phi : \operatorname{Gal}(L|K) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{\operatorname{Groups}}(\mu_n(L)) \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$. This map is surjective if and only if $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ is irreducible over K.

Proof. The first statement is straightforward, noting that $\mu_n(L)$ generates L and Gal(L|K) acts on L by ring automorphisms.

Let $\omega \in \mu_n(L)$ be a primitive *n*-th root of unity. Suppose that $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ is irreducible over K. Since $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ annihalates ω , it is the minimal polynomial of ω . In particular, $[L:K] \geq \Phi(n)$, and thus $\#\text{Gal}(L|K) \geq \Phi(n)$. On the other hand, we have an injection from $\text{Gal}(L|K) \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$, giving $\#\text{Gal}(L|K) \leq \Phi(n)$. Thus $\#\text{Gal}(L|K) = \Phi(n)$, and by injectivity of this map, ϕ is also surjective.

Conversely, if ϕ is surjective, then the minimal polynomial of ω is $\Phi_{n,K}(x)$ by Lemma 1.0.2 and Lemma 3.6.10.

Proposition 4.1.8. The polynomial $\Phi_{n,\mathbb{Q}}(x)$ is irreducible and has coefficients in \mathbb{Z} .

Proof. Let L be a splitting field of $x^n - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Let $\omega \in L$ be a primitive n-th root of unity. Let Q(x) be the minimal polynomial of ω over \mathbb{Q} . Then $Q(x)|x^n - 1$, thus we can find a polynomial $T(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $Q(x)T(x) = x^n - 1$. Note that T(x) and Q(x) are monic. Thus 1/c(T) and 1/c(Q) are both positive integers. On the other hand, $c(x^n - 1) = 1$, and noting that 1 = c(T)c(Q), we see that c(T) = c(Q) = 1. In particular, Q(x) and T(x) have coefficients in \mathbb{Z} .

Fix a prime number p which is coprime to n. We claim that $Q(\omega^p) = 0$. Else, we have $T(\omega^p) = 0$, as $Q(x)T(x) = x^n - 1$. In particular ω is a root of $T(x^p)$. Thus $Q(x)|T(x^p)$. In particular, we have some H(x) such that $Q(x)H(x) = T(x^p)$, where H(x) is also monic. Repeating the same logic as before, $H(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Now,

$$T(x^p) \pmod{p} = (T(x) \pmod{p})^p$$

in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ as the *p*-power function is additive in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. In particular, from $Q(x)H(x) = T(x^p)$, we see that $(Q(x) \pmod{p}, T(x) \pmod{p}) \neq (1)$. Define $J(x) := \gcd(Q(x) \pmod{p}, T(x) \pmod{p})$. Then, $J(x)^2 | x^n - 1 \pmod{p}$, and in particular $x^n - 1 \pmod{p}$ has multiple roots, which is a contradiction. Thus $Q(\omega^p) = 0$.

Generally, $Q(\omega^k) = 0$ for k coprime to n. Thus, all primitive n-th roots of unity are roots of Q(x). We see that $\deg(Q) \geq \Phi(n)$. By definition, $Q(x)|\Phi_{n,\mathbb{Q}}(x)$, so we have $Q(x) = \Phi_{n,\mathbb{Q}}(x)$. In particular, $\Phi_{n,\mathbb{Q}}(x)$ is irreducible with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} .

Example 4.1.9. Let p > 2 be prime and $\zeta_p := \exp(2\pi i/p)$. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$. The cyclotomic polynomial is

$$f(x) = \frac{x^p - 1}{x - 1} = x^{p-1} + \dots + x + 1 = \Phi_{p,\mathbb{Q}}(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{p-i} (x - \zeta^i)$$

is by the previous proposition and by Gauss's Lemma irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

In particular $[K:\mathbb{Q}] = p-1$. So a regular p-gon can be constructed with a ruler and compass only if p-1 is a power of 2 (such as 17).

4.2 Kummer Extension

Definition 4.2.1. Let K be a field and n be a positive integer with $(n, \operatorname{char}(K)) = (1)$. Suppose that $x^n - 1$ splits in K. Let $a \in K$ and let M | K be a splitting extension for the polynomial $x^n - a$. We call such extension a **Kummer extension**

Note that by construction, $x^n - a$ is a separable polynomial. In particular, M|K is a Galois extension.

Lemma 4.2.2. Let M|K be a Kummer extension. Let $\rho \in M$ be such that $\rho^n = a$. There is a unique homomorphism $\phi : \operatorname{Gal}(M|K) \to \mu_n(K)$ such that $\phi(\gamma) = \gamma(\rho)/\rho$. The map does not depend on the choice of ρ and is injective.

Proof. First, $(\gamma(\rho)/\rho)^n = \gamma(\rho^n)/\rho^n = a/a = 1$, so in particular $\gamma(\rho)/\rho \in \mu_n(K)$, giving a well-defined map. Uniqueness follows from the fact the map is defined on all γ .

To see this map does not depend on the choice of ρ , if we have $\rho_1^n = a$, then note that $(\rho/\rho_1)^n = a/a = 1$. Thus, there is an n-th root of unity $\mu \in K$ such that $\mu = \rho/\rho_1$ as $x^n - 1$ splits in K. Now,

$$\gamma(\rho)/\rho = \mu \gamma(\rho)/(\mu \rho) = \gamma(\mu \rho)/(\mu \rho) = \gamma(\rho_1)/\rho_1$$

So ϕ does not depend on ρ .

To see that ϕ is a group homomorphism, for any $\gamma, \lambda \in \operatorname{Gal}(M|K)$, we have

$$\phi(\gamma\lambda) = \gamma(\lambda(\rho))/\rho$$

and

$$\phi(\gamma)\phi(\lambda) = (\gamma(\rho)/\rho)(\lambda(\rho)/\rho)$$

thus it suffices to show

$$\gamma(\lambda(\rho)) = \lambda(\rho)\gamma(\rho)/\rho$$

but this follows immediately from the fact $x^n - 1$ splits in K;

$$\lambda(\rho)/\rho = \gamma(\lambda(\rho)/\rho) = \gamma(\lambda(\rho))/\gamma(\rho)$$

Finally ϕ is injective, as if $\phi(\gamma) = 1$, as γ fixes ρ , it fixes any root of $x^n - a$ and hence $\gamma = 1$.

Remark 4.2.3. Note that from the above proof, Gal(M|K) is cyclic. Let it be isomorphic to C_d , and pick a generator σ . In particular, taking any root ρ of $x^n - a$, $\sigma(\rho) = \zeta \rho$ for some ζ with order d. σ^i generate distinct images and by dimension argument, we can see that in fact M|K is a simple extension, generated by any root of $x^n - a$.

Definition 4.2.4. Let E be a field. Let H be a group. A **character** of H is a group homomorphism $H \to E^*$.

Proposition 4.2.5 (Dedekind). Let χ_1, \ldots, χ_k be distinct characters of H with values in E^* . Let $a_1, \ldots, a_k \in E$ be such that

$$a_1\chi_1(h) + \cdots + a_k\chi(h) = 0$$

for all $h \in H$. Then $a_1 = \cdots = a_k = 0$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on k. The result is immediate for k = 1. Suppose $k \ge 2$ and the proposition holds for any smaller parameter. If a_i all vanish, we are done. Else, up to reordering, without loss of generality, suppose that $a_2 \ne 0$.

Pick $\alpha \in H$ such that $\chi_1(\alpha) \neq \chi_2(\alpha)$. Now for any $\beta \in H$, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \chi_i(\alpha \beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i \chi_i(\alpha) \chi_i(\beta) = 0$$

And

$$\chi_1(\alpha) \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \chi_i(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_1 \chi_1(\alpha) \chi_i(\beta)$$

Subtracting,

$$\sum_{i=2}^{k} a_i (\chi_i(\alpha) - \chi_1(\alpha)) \chi_i(\beta) = 0$$

As this holds for any $\beta \in H$, we have from the inductive hypothesis that $a_2 = 0$, a contradiction. \square

Theorem 4.2.6. Let K be a field and n be a positive integer with $(n, \operatorname{char}(K)) = (1)$. Suppose that $x^n - 1$ splits in K. Suppose also that L|K is a Galois extension and that $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ is a cyclic group of order n.

Now let $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ be a generator of $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ and $\omega \in K$ is a primitive n-th root of unity in K. For any $\alpha \in L$, let

$$\beta(\alpha) := \alpha + \omega \sigma(\alpha) + \omega^2 \sigma^2(\alpha) + \dots + \omega^{n-1} \sigma^{n-1}(\alpha)$$

Then,

- For any $\alpha \in L$, $\beta(\alpha)^n \in K$
- There is an $\alpha \in L$ such that $\beta(\alpha) \neq 0$.
- If $\beta(\alpha) \neq 0$, then $L = K(\beta(\alpha))$ (such that L is the splitting field of $x^n \beta(\alpha)^n$)

Proof. Let $\alpha \in L$. Compute

$$\sigma(\beta(\alpha)) = \sigma(\alpha) + \omega \sigma^{2}(\alpha) + \omega^{2} \sigma^{3}(\alpha) + \dots + \omega^{n-1} \alpha = \omega^{n-1} \beta(\alpha) = \omega^{-1} \beta(\alpha)$$

In particular, $\sigma^i(\beta(\alpha)) = \omega^{-i}\beta(\alpha)$ Furthermore, we have

$$\sigma(\beta(\alpha)^n) = \sigma(\beta(\alpha))^n = \omega^{-n}\beta(\alpha)^n = \beta(\alpha)^n$$

As L|K is Galois, we have $\beta(\alpha)^n \in K$. Note that any element of $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ defines a character on L^* with values in L^* . By Dedekind, there is some α such that $\beta(\alpha) \neq 0$. As $\omega^{-i}\beta(\alpha)$ are roots of $x^n - \beta(\alpha)^n$, it splits in L.

Now, $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ acts transitively and faithfully (the only element in $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ that fixes all the roots is the identity) on the roots of $x^n - (\beta(\alpha))^n$. In particular, $x^n - \beta(\alpha)^n$ is irreducible over K. Thus $[K(\beta(\alpha)):K] = n = [L:K]$, which from the tower law, we conclude $K(\beta(\alpha)) = L$. Thus L is a splitting field for $x^n - \beta(\alpha)^n$.

4.3 Radical Extension

Definition 4.3.1. The field extension L|K is said to be **radical** if $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$ and there are natural numbers n_1, \ldots, n_k such that $\alpha_1^{n_1} \in K, \alpha_2^{n_2} \in K(\alpha_1), \ldots, \alpha_k^{n_k} \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1})$.

By definition, if L|K and M|L are radical extensions, M|K is a radical extension.

Example 4.3.2. Kummer extensions are radical. This is an immediate consequence of the fact Kummer extensions L|K are simple extensions generated by any root of $x^n - a$ for $a \in K$.

Lemma 4.3.3. Let L|K be a radical extension and let J|L be a finite extension such that the composed extension J|K is a Galois extension. Then there is a field L' which is intermediate between J and L such that L'|K is Galois and radical.

Proof. Suppose that $L = K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$ and that we have natural numbers n_1, \ldots, n_k such that $\alpha_1^{n_1} \in K, \alpha_2^{n_2} \in K(\alpha_1), \ldots, \alpha_k^{n_k} \in K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{k-1})$. Let $G := \operatorname{Gal}(J|K) = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_t\}$. Then for any $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ and $\sigma \in G$, we have

$$\sigma(\alpha_i^{n_i}) = \sigma(\alpha_i)^{n_i} \in \sigma(K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i-1})) = K(\sigma(\alpha_1), \dots, \sigma(\alpha_{i-1}))$$

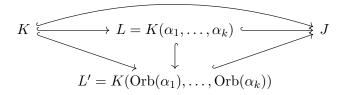
In particular,

$$K(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k,\sigma_1(\alpha_1),\ldots,\sigma_1(\alpha_k),\ldots,\sigma_t(\alpha_1),\ldots,\sigma_t(\alpha_k))=K(\mathrm{Orb}(\alpha_1),\ldots,\mathrm{Orb}(\alpha_k))$$

is a radical extension of K. Now, given $\sigma \in G$, we have

$$\sigma(K(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1), \dots, \operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))) = K(\sigma(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1)), \dots, \sigma(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))) = K(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1), \dots, \operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))$$

we see that $K(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1), \ldots, \operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))|K$ is a Galois extension (field fixed by Galois group actions). Thus we may set $L' := K(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1), \ldots, \operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))$.



4.3.1 Solvability by Radical Extensions

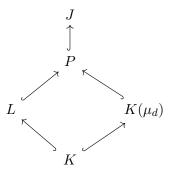
Theorem 4.3.4. Suppose that char(K) = 0. Let L|K be a finite Galois extension. If Gal(L|K) is solvable, then there exists a finite extension M|L with the following properties

- 1. The composed extension M|K is Galois
- 2. There is a map of K-extensions $K(\mu_{[L:K]}) \hookrightarrow M$
- 3. M is generated by the images of L and $K(\mu_{[L:K]})$ in M.
- 4. The extension $M|K(\mu_{[L:K]})$ is a composition of Kummer extensions. In particular, M|K is a radical extension.

Conversely, if there exists a finite extension M|L such that the composed extension M|K is radical, then Gal(L|K) is solvable.

Proof. First note that the images of L and $K(\mu_c)$ in M do not depend on the maps of K-extensions $L \hookrightarrow M$ and $K(\mu_{[L:K]}) \hookrightarrow M$ as the two are both galois extensions.

Let d := # Gal(L|K) = [L:K]. There is a Galois extension of K and maps of K extensions $K(\mu_d) \hookrightarrow J$ and $L \hookrightarrow J$ by the existence of splitting extensions and Lemma 3.5.3. Choose such an extension and maps of K-extensions. Now, let P be the field generated by L and $K(\mu_d)$ in J. Then we have



Let G := Gal(J|K). We can observe the following:

- 1. P|K is a Galois extension, as it is fixed by any $\sigma \in G$ (as the fields they are generated by are Galois)
- 2. $P|K(\mu_d)$ is Galois by lifting from K.
- 3. The restriction map $\operatorname{Gal}(P|K(\mu_d)) \to \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ is injective. If $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(P|K(\mu_d))$ restricts to the identity in L, it fixed both $K(\mu_d)$ and L, thus fixes P.

Suppose now that Gal(L|K) is solvable. Then, by Lemma 1.1.3 and injectivity of $Gal(P|K(\mu_d))$ into Gal(L|K), $Gal(P|K(\mu_d))$ is solvable. In particular, there is a finite filtration with abelian quotients

$$0 = H_0 \subseteq H_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq H_n = \operatorname{Gal}(P|K(\mu_d))$$

By Lemma 1.1.7, we may assume without loss of generality that the quotients of the filtration are cyclic. By the fundamental theorem of Galois Theory, the subgroups H_i correspond to a descreasing sequence of subfields of P

$$P = P_0 \supseteq P_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq P_n = K(\mu_d)$$

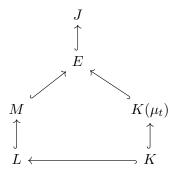
such that $P_i|P_{i+1}$ is a Galois extension for any i. Also,

$$H_{i+1}/H_i \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(P|P_i)/\operatorname{Gal}(P|P_{i+1}) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(P_i|P_{i+1})$$

such that $Gal(P_i|P_{i+1})$ is cyclic. By Lagrange's Theorem (applied repeatedly) $\#(H_{i+1}/H_i)$ is a divisor of $\#Gal(P|K(\mu_d))$ and thus of #Gal(L|K) = d. In particular, $x^{\#Gal(P_i|P_{i+1})} - 1$ splits in $K(\mu_d)$, and so in P_{i+1} . By Theorem 4.2.6, $P_i|P_{i+1}$ is a Kummer extension, thus a radical extension. Setting M := P, we have shown this satisfies all our mentioned properties.

To prove the other direction, suppose that we have a finite extension M|L such that the composed extension M|K is radical. We may thus suppose that $M=K(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_k)$ and there are n_1,\ldots,n_k such that $\alpha_1^{n_1}\in K,\ldots,\alpha_k^{n_k}\in K(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_{k-1})$. Let $t:=\prod_{i=1}^k n_i$. Choose a Galois

extension J|K such that there are maps of K-extensions $M \hookrightarrow J$ and $K(\mu_t) \hookrightarrow J$. Fixing maps, let E be the intermediate field generated by M and $K(\mu_t)$ in J. Thus, we have a diagram of extensions



By definition, $E = K(\mu_t)(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$, and by construction each $K(\mu_t)(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{i+1})|K(\mu_t)(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_i)$ is a Kummer extension, as $n_i|t$. In particular, the Galois group is abelian. Now $\operatorname{Gal}(K(\mu_t)|K)$ is abelian also. By the Fundamental Theorem for Galois groups, we see that $\operatorname{Gal}(E|K)$ is solvable. Finally, as $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ is a quotient of $\operatorname{Gal}(E|K)$, $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ is solvable.

Definition 4.3.5. Let $P(x) \in K[x]$ and let L|K be a splitting extension for P(x). We say P(x) is **solvable by radicals** if there is an extension M|L such that the composed extension M|K is radical (as the splitting extensions are isomorphic, the choice does not matter). By the previous theorem, P(x) is solvable by radicals if and only if Gal(L|K) is solvable.

Corollary 4.3.6. Let $n \geq 5$ and K be a field. The extension $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n) | K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n}$ is not radical. (Note the action is induced by the action of S_n on $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$)

Proof. By Artin's Lemma, $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n) | K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n}$ is a Galois extension. On the other hand, S_n is not solvable for $n \geq 5$, so by Theorem 4.3.4, is not radical.

Remark 4.3.7. To see $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n) | K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)^{S_n}$ is a Galois extension directly, note that it is the splitting field of the polynomial

$$U_n(x) = x^n - s_1(x_1, \dots, x_n)x^{n-1} + \dots + (-1)^n s_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in K(x_1, \dots, x_n)^{S_n}[x]$$

And the roots are x_1, \ldots, x_n generate the field.

Example 4.3.8 (Solution to the General Cubic Equation). Let K be a field and suppose that char(K) = 0. We wish to solve the cubical equation

$$y^3 + ay^2 + by + c = 0$$

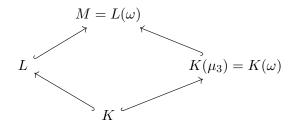
where $a, b, c \in K$. Letting $x = y + \frac{a}{3}$, we see that this is equivalent to solving

$$x^3 + px + q = 0$$

where $p = -\frac{1}{3}a^2 + b$ and $q = \frac{2}{27}a^3 - \frac{1}{3}ab + c$. So let $P(x) = x^3 + px + q$. We wish to find a solution that starts with p, q and iteratively applies multiplication, addition, multiplication by K, extraction of 2nd and 3rd roots.

Let L|K be a splitting extension for P(x). Let $\omega \in K(\mu_3)$ ne a primitive 3rd root of unity. Now by Lemma 3.5.3 we can choose a finite Galois extension J|K and maps of K extensions $L \hookrightarrow J$ and

 $K(\mu_3) = K(\omega) \hookrightarrow J$. Let $M = L(\omega)$ be the field generated in J by the images of L and $K(\omega)$ in J. So we have the following



Now note that Gal(L|K) is solvable as it injects into S_3 , and thus M|K is radical by Theorem 4.3.4 (from which we should be able to retrieve an expression for ω).

Consider the sequence of extensions

$$K \hookrightarrow K(\omega) \hookrightarrow K(\omega, \sqrt{\Delta_P}) \hookrightarrow M$$

As the square root of Δ_P is a polynomial in the roots of P(x), it lies in L. Now note that

5 Main Ideas in GT - No definitions

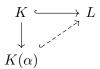
The concept of multiple roots (on $P(x) \in K[x]$) is invariant under

- field extension. (Pf. ED algorithm is unique in computing a generator)
- polynomials Q(x) such that Q(x)|P(x)

The gcd of P, Q is the generator of (P, Q)

If $P' \neq 0$ and P is irreducible, it has no multiple roots.

Extension of maps:



is determined by sending α to the roots of m_{α} in L, where m_{α} is the minimal polynomial of α with coefficients in K. So the cardinality of maps is the number of roots of m_{α} in L. This is a consequence of the fact $K(\alpha) \simeq K[x]/m_{\alpha}$.

- composition of normal extensions need not be normal, consider $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2})$.

5.1 Relating Field Extensions

• Splitting fields exist for any polynomial

$$K \stackrel{\exists s_P}{\longleftrightarrow} M$$

• Lemma 4.3.3: If L|K is a radical extension and J|L is a finite extension such that J|K is a Galois extension, there is an intermediate field L' between J and L such that L'|K is Galois

and radical

$$K \xrightarrow{r} L = K(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) \xrightarrow{f} J$$

$$L' = K(\operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_1), \dots, \operatorname{Orb}(\alpha_k))$$

5.2 Examples of Galois Extensions

Example 5.2.1. Consider $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ as a field extension over \mathbb{Q} . K is the splitting field over the separable polynomial $(x^2 - 2)(x^2 - 3)$, thus is Galois. Field automorphisms must send each generator to their conjugates, so our choice is

$$\sqrt{2} \mapsto \pm \sqrt{2} \qquad \sqrt{3} \mapsto \pm \sqrt{3}$$

giving $G = \operatorname{Gal}(K|\mathbb{Q}) \simeq C_2 \times C_2$. By Galois correspondence, the nontrivial subgroups give intermediate fields, where the correspondence is given by K^H where $H \subseteq G$. Taking the subgroup that flips $\sqrt{2}$, we have

$$K^{H_2} = \{a + c\sqrt{3} \mid a, c \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$$

and similarly with H_3 . The map that flips $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{3}$ would be

$$K^{H_{2,3}} = \{a + \sqrt{d} \mid a, d \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{6})$$

We also give an example of a Kummer extension.

Example 5.2.2. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta_3)$ where $\zeta_3 = e^{2\pi i/3}$. This is the splitting field over the separable polynomial $x^3 - 2$. The galois group is generated by choices of maps

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \mapsto \zeta_3^k \sqrt[3]{2}, k = 0, 1, 2 \qquad \zeta_3 \mapsto \zeta_3^{\pm 1}$$

Now note that $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}):\mathbb{Q}] = 3$ and $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}] = 2$, and as $\zeta \notin \mathbb{Q}(\alpha), [K:\mathbb{Q}] = 6$ by the tower law. In particular |G| = 6, and we can check via relations that this is S_3 . The proper subfields correspond to the subgroups of S_3 which correspond to subfields $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_3), \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}), \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_3^2\sqrt[3]{2}), \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_3^2\sqrt[3]{2})$.

Example 5.2.3. Taking $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_5)$ where $\zeta_5 = e^{2\pi i/5}$. This is a cyclotomic field which has Galois group $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_5)|\mathbb{Q}) \simeq (\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \simeq C_4$. C_4 has exactly one nontrivial subgroup of order 2, whose automorphism set is $\{\operatorname{id}, \sigma^2\}$. As σ^2 sends ζ_5 to $\zeta_5^4 = \zeta_5^{-1}$, it fixes $\zeta_5 + \zeta_5^{-1}$ whose minimum polynomial is $x^2 + x - 1$.

Remark 5.2.4. The above give rise to a variety of examples [K:F] such that K|F is Galois but there are intermediate fields $F \subseteq L \subseteq K$ such that L|F is not Galois. For instance, take $F = \mathbb{Q}$ and $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$, $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \zeta_3)$.

Example 5.2.5. Let $f := t^4 - 4t^2 + 2$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of f. Then $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is the splitting field of f, by noting how the roots relate to each other. Also, we have the tower of extensions

$$\mathbb{Q}\subsetneq\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})\subsetneq\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$$

which shows the extension has degree 4. Explicit mappings of roots shows that $Gal(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)|\mathbb{Q}) \simeq C_4$.

5.3 Important Things to Keep in Mind

- Splitting extensions always exist (induction by repeatedly quotienting by irreducible factors of P, and noting this always produces roots)
- Splitting extensions are (non-canonically) isomorphic as K-extensions (induction with quotienting with a min-poly of a root of P)
- Extensions from splitting fields preserve image (because any automorphism only permutes roots)
- Number of injections from simple extensions $K(\alpha)$ to J depends on root presense (of minpoly) in J (bijective correspondence).
- Taking $K(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k)$, there is a nonempty/finite number of injections to fields where the product of the minpoly split. By bijective correspondence, there are 'tower' many ([M:K] many) when the minpolys separate.
- Normal iff splitting extension for poly with coefficients in K (\Rightarrow , consider product of minpoly of generators, \Leftarrow , pick any $\alpha \in L$, extend to splitting field of prod of minpoly, induce map λ from L to splitter, by image invariance $\lambda(L)$ contains all roots of α , splits.)
- Galois correspondence with intermediate fields and raising base fields, use Artin with identity $(Gal(K|K^G) = G)$, inverse given by $H \mapsto L^H$
- Lowering to subfield from L to M only works if $\operatorname{Gal}(L|M)$ is a normal subgroup of $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$ (use FIT, image fixing of M by $\gamma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$, kernel argument) (reverse, navigate through to show $\operatorname{Gal}(L|\gamma(M)) = \operatorname{Gal}(L|M)$, which implies $M = \gamma(M)$ by FTGT) (image invariance lets us define maps about M) ($\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)/\operatorname{Gal}(L|M) \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(M|K)$).
- ullet also lets us lower galois field by image invariance
- Kummer has cyclic Galois group (injects into roots of unity) (injective by root fixing argument)