

# M3P11 Galois Theory

Lectured by Prof Alessio Corti

Typeset by David Kurniadi Angdinata

Spring 2019

## Contents

<b>0</b>	<b>What is Galois theory?</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>Main example</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Elementary facts</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Axiomatics</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>Galois correspondence</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Normal extensions</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Separable extensions</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>Separable degree</b>	<b>20</b>

## 0 What is Galois theory?

Lecture 1  
Thursday  
10/01/19

References.

- E Artin, Galois theory, 1994
- A Grothendieck and M Raynaud, Revêtements étales et groupe fondamental, 2002
- I N Herstein, Topics in algebra, 1975
- M Reid, Galois theory, 2014

*Notation.* If  $K$  is a field, or a ring, I denote

$$K[x] = \{a_0 + \cdots + a_n x^n \mid a_i \in K\},$$

the ring of polynomials with coefficients in  $K$ .

**Example.**

- $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ .
- Quadratic fields

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle}.$$

It is also a field, since

$$\frac{1}{(a + b\sqrt{2})} = \frac{a - b\sqrt{2}}{a^2 - 2b^2}.$$

- If  $p$  is prime,  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{F}_p$  is a finite field. If  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is irreducible,  $K[x]/\langle f(x) \rangle$  is a field. For example,  $x^2 - 2$ . Both  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $K[x]$  have a division algorithm. For example, let  $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  and  $[a] \neq 0$ , that is  $p \nmid a$ . Since  $p$  is prime,  $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ , so there exist  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ax + py = 1$ . Thus  $[a] \cdot [x] = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .
- For  $K$  a field, either for all  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \neq 0$  in  $K$ , so  $K$  has characteristic  $\text{ch}(K) = 0$ , or there exists  $p$  prime such that  $m = 0$  if and only if  $p \mid m$ , so  $K$  has characteristic  $\text{ch}(K) = p$ .
- For  $K$  a field,

$$K(x) = \text{Frac}(K[x]) = \left\{ \phi(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \mid f, g \in K[x], g \neq 0 \right\}.$$

is also a field, the field of rational functions with coefficients in  $K$ . For example,  $\mathbb{F}_p(x, Y) = \mathbb{F}_p(x)(Y)$ .

**Example.** Consider algebraic equations in a field  $K$ .

- Let  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  for  $a, b, c \in K$  be a quadratic. There is a formula

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

- For a cubic  $y^3 + 3py + 2q = 0$ ,

$$y = \sqrt[3]{-q + \sqrt{q^2 + p^3}} + \sqrt[3]{-q - \sqrt{q^2 + p^3}}.$$

- There is a formula for quartic equations.
- It is a theorem that there can be no such formula for equations of degree at least five.

Galois theory deals with these easily.

Lecture 2  
Friday  
11/01/19

**Definition 0.1.** A **field homomorphism** is a function  $\phi : K_1 \rightarrow K_2$  that preserves the field operations, for all  $a, b \in K_1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(a + b) &= \phi(a) + \phi(b), \\ \phi(ab) &= \phi(a)\phi(b),\end{aligned}$$

and  $\phi(0_{K_1}) = 0_{K_2}$  and  $\phi(1_{K_1}) = 1_{K_2}$ .

*Remark.* All field homomorphisms are injective. If  $a \in K_1 \setminus \{0\}$ , then there exists  $b \in K_1$  such that  $ab = 1$ , then  $\phi(a)\phi(b) = 1$ , so  $\phi(a) \neq 0$ . This easily implies  $\phi$  is injective. If  $a_1 \neq a_2$ , then  $a_1 - a_2 \neq 0$ , so  $0 \neq \phi(a_1 - a_2) = \phi(a_1) - \phi(a_2)$ . Then  $\phi(a_1) \neq \phi(a_2)$ .

We concern ourselves with field extensions  $k \subset K$ , and every homomorphism is an extension. Consider a field extension  $k \subset K$  and  $\alpha \in K$ . Then  $k(\alpha) \subset K$  denotes the smallest subfield of  $K$  that contains  $k, \alpha$ . Not to be confused with  $k(x)$ .

**Example.** There are two very different cases exemplified in  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{C}$ .

- $\alpha = \sqrt{2}, \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ .
- $\alpha = \pi, \mathbb{Q}(\pi)$ .

**Definition 0.2.**

- $\alpha$  is **algebraic** over  $k$  if  $f(\alpha) = 0$  for some  $0 \neq f \in k[x]$ . Otherwise we say that  $\alpha$  is **transcendental** over  $k$ .
- The extension  $k \subset K$  is **algebraic** if for all  $\alpha \in K$ ,  $\alpha$  is algebraic over  $k$ .

**Definition 0.3.** Consider a field  $k$  and  $f \in k[x]$ . We say that  $k \subset K$  is a **splitting field** for  $f$  if

- $f(x) = a \prod_{i=1}^n (x - \lambda_i) \in K[x]$  for  $a \in k \setminus \{0\}$ , and
- $K = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ .

**Example.**

- If  $f(x) = x^2 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , then  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$  is a splitting field for  $f$ . Indeed

$$x^2 - 2 = (x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2}) \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})[x].$$

- If  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ , then  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$ .
- If  $f(x) = x^3 - 2$ , then

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt[3]{2} + c\sqrt[3]{4} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

is not a splitting field.  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ , where  $\omega = \frac{-1+\sqrt{3}}{2}$ , is a splitting field.

$$x^3 - 2 = (x - \sqrt[3]{2})(x - \omega\sqrt[3]{2})(x - \omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}).$$

**Theorem 0.4** (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory). Assume characteristic zero. Let  $k \subset K$  be the splitting field of  $f(x) \in k[x]$ . Let

$$G = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow K \mid \sigma \text{ field automorphism, } \sigma|_k = id_k\}.$$

We call this group the **Galois group**. There is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\begin{aligned} \{k \subset K_1 \subset K \mid K_1 \text{ subfield}\} &\leftrightarrow \{H \leq G \mid H \text{ subgroup}\} \\ K_1 &\mapsto \{\sigma \in G \mid \forall \lambda \in K_1, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} \\ \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} &\leftarrow H \leq G \end{aligned}$$

Why is this cool? Fields are hard, groups are easy. We will see that there is a good formula for the roots of  $f(x)$  if and only if  $G$  is a soluble group.

**Example.** Let  $\deg(f) = 2$  and  $f(x) = x^2 + 2Ax + B \in K[x]$ . If  $K$  already contains the roots then  $L = K$  and  $G = \{id\}$ . Suppose  $K$  does not contain the roots. We still have quadratic formula

$$\lambda_{1,2} = -A \pm \sqrt{A^2 - B}.$$

If  $\Delta = A^2 - B$  then  $\sqrt{\Delta}$  does not exist in  $K$ . We must have

$$L = K(\sqrt{\Delta}) = \{a + b\sqrt{\Delta} \mid a, b \in K\}.$$

Then  $K \subset L$  and

$$G = \{\sigma : L \rightarrow L \mid \sigma|_K = id_K\} = C_2$$

is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{\Delta} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{\Delta}.$$

The following is further specialisation.

- Let  $K = \mathbb{R}$  and  $\Delta = -1$ . Then

$$L = \mathbb{C} = \{a + b\sqrt{-1} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R}\},$$

and  $G = C_2$  is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{-1} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{-1},$$

complex conjugation.

- Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $\Delta = 2$ . Then

$$L = \{a + b\sqrt{2} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\},$$

and  $G = C_2$  is generated by

$$\sigma : a + b\sqrt{2} \mapsto a - b\sqrt{2}.$$

The fundamental theorem implies there does not exist

$$K \subsetneq K_1 \subsetneq K(\sqrt{\Delta}) = L.$$

Is this obvious? Consider  $x \in L \setminus K$ , so  $x = a + b\sqrt{\Delta}$ , and  $b \neq 0$ , and then

$$\sqrt{\Delta} = \frac{x - a}{b},$$

so  $K(x) = L$ .

# 1 Main example

Let  $f(x) = x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  and  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ , where  $\omega = \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$  is a solution of  $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$ . Then

$$\mathbb{Q}(\omega) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3}), \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \left\{ a + b\sqrt[3]{2} + c\sqrt[3]{4} \mid a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}.$$

*Remark.* For any splitting field of  $f$ , there is always a natural inclusion group homomorphism

$$\rho : G \hookrightarrow S(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n),$$

where  $S(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  is the group of permutations of the roots of  $f = x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$ .

- If  $\sigma \in G$ ,  $f(\lambda) = 0$ , so  $\lambda^n + a_1\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0$ .

$$0 = \sigma(0) = \sigma(\lambda^n + a_1\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_n) = \sigma(\lambda)^n + a_1\sigma(\lambda)^{n-1} + \dots + a_n.$$

- $\rho$  is injective. If for all  $i$ ,  $\sigma(\lambda_i) = \lambda_i$ , then  $\sigma = id$  on  $K(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n) = L$ .

The fundamental theorem and remark gives  $G = \mathfrak{S}_3$ .

**Definition 1.1.**  $K \subset L$  is **finite** if  $L$  is finite-dimensional as a vector space over  $K$ . The **degree** of  $L$  over  $K$  is

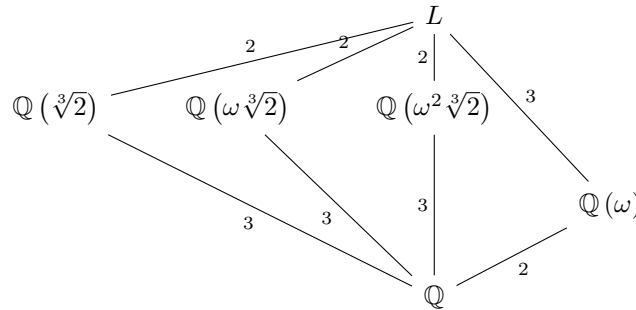
$$[L : K] = \dim_K(L).$$

**Theorem 1.2** (Tower law). *Let  $K \subset L \subset F$ . Then*

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

**Theorem 1.3.** *Suppose  $f(x) \in K[x]$  is irreducible of degree  $d = \deg(f)$  and  $L = K(\lambda)$  where  $f(\lambda) = 0$ , then  $[K(\lambda) : K] = d$ .*

$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is a field, and  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ . Let  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$  be the splitting field of  $x^3 - 2$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . The lattice of subfields is



Then (Exercise)

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2} + \omega) = L, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\omega^2 \sqrt[3]{2}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\omega \sqrt[3]{2}) = \mathbb{Q}, \quad \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega \sqrt[3]{2}) = L.$$

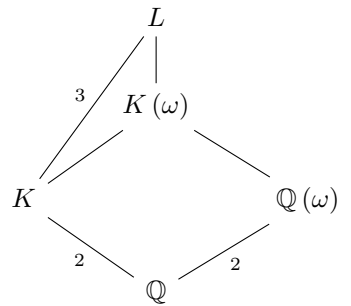
What is  $[L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})]$ ? Note that  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})(\sqrt{-3})$ . Could  $\sqrt{-3} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ ? Consider  $x^2 + 3 \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})[x]$ . By the tower law,

$$\begin{cases} [L : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\omega)] [\mathbb{Q}(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 [L : \mathbb{Q}(\omega)] \\ [L : \mathbb{Q}] = [L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] [\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3 [L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] \end{cases} \implies \begin{matrix} 2 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}] \\ 3 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}] \end{matrix} \implies 6 \mid [L : \mathbb{Q}].$$

- Either  $x^2 + 3$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ , so by Theorem 1.3  $[L : \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})] = 2$  and  $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 6$ .
- Or  $x^2 + 3$  is not irreducible, so  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = L$  and  $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ , a contradiction.

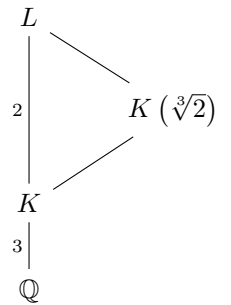
Are there any other fields? Claim that there are no other fields. Suppose  $\mathbb{Q} \subsetneq K \subsetneq L$  is such a field. By the tower law  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$  or  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ .

- Suppose  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$ .



- Either  $\omega \in K$ , that is  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) \subset K$ , so by the tower law  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega) = K$ .
- Or  $\omega \notin K$  gives  $[K(\omega) : K] = 2$ , so  $[K(\omega) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$  contradicts the tower law for  $\mathbb{Q} \subset K(\omega) \subset L$ .

- Suppose  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ .



Claim that  $x^3 - 2 \in K[x]$  splits. Suppose that it were irreducible, then  $[K(\sqrt[3]{2}) : K] = 3$ , which contradicts the tower law for  $K \subset K(\sqrt[3]{2}) \subset L$ . So it has a root in  $K$ . Either  $\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$ ,  $\omega\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$ , or  $\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2} \in K$ . Thus  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$ , or  $\mathbb{Q}(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}) = K$ .

I want to prove that

$$G = \text{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(L) = \{\sigma : L \rightarrow L \mid \sigma|_{\mathbb{Q}} = \text{id}_{\mathbb{Q}}\} = \mathfrak{S}_3.$$

*Proof of Theorem 1.2.* Suppose  $y_1, \dots, y_m \in F$  is a basis of  $F$  as a vector space over  $L$ . Suppose  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in L$  is a basis of  $L$  as a vector space over  $K$ . Claim that  $\{x_i y_j\}$  is a basis of  $F$  over  $K$ .

- $\{x_i y_j\}$  generates  $F$ . Let  $z \in F$ . There exist  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n \in L$  such that

$$z = \mu_1 y_1 + \dots + \mu_n y_n. \quad (1)$$

$\mu_j \in L$  so for all  $j$  there exists  $\lambda_{ij} \in K$  such that

$$\mu_j = x_1 \lambda_{1j} + \dots + x_m \lambda_{mj}. \quad (2)$$

Plug in (2) into (1),

$$z = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_{ij} x_i y_j.$$

- $\{x_i y_j\}$  are linearly independent over  $K$ . Suppose there exists  $\lambda_{ij} \in K$  such that

$$0 = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_{ij} x_i y_j = \sum_j \left( \sum_i \lambda_{ij} x_i \right) y_j,$$

so for all  $j$ ,  $\sum_i \lambda_{ij} x_i = 0$ , so for all  $j$  and all  $i$ ,  $\lambda_{ij} = 0$ .

□

**Example.** To show  $G = \mathfrak{S}_3$ . Let  $\sigma = (1 \ 2)$ . A basis of  $L/\mathbb{Q}$  is

$$1, \sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt[3]{4}, \omega, \omega\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega\sqrt[3]{4}.$$

- $\sigma(1) = 1$ .
- $\sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \omega\sqrt[3]{2}$ .
- $\sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}$ .
- $\sigma(\sqrt[3]{4}) = \sigma(\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) = \omega\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \omega\sqrt[3]{2} = \omega^2\sqrt[3]{4} = (-\omega - 1)\sqrt[3]{4} = -\omega\sqrt[3]{4} - \sqrt[3]{4}$ .
- $\sigma(\omega) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}/\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2})/\sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}/\omega\sqrt[3]{2} = 1/\omega = -1 - \omega$ .
- $\sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{4}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \sqrt[3]{2}) = \sigma(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}) \cdot \sigma(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \omega\sqrt[3]{2} = \omega\sqrt[3]{4}$ .

Thus

$$\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

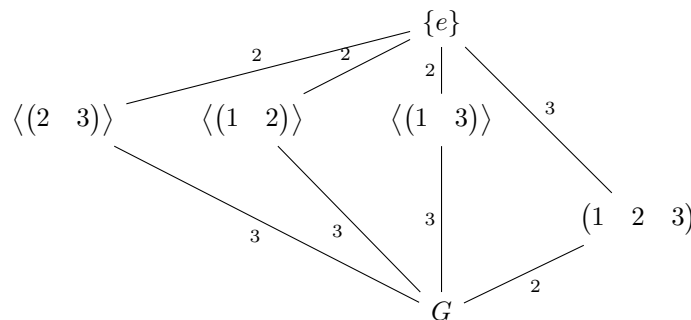
A question is if there were  $\sigma \in G$  such that  $\rho(\sigma) = (1 \ 2)$  then we have written the matrix of  $\sigma$  as a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -linear map of  $L$  in a basis. But how to check that this  $\mathbb{Q}$ -linear map is a field homomorphism? We know the Galois correspondence for extensions of degree two.

$$\text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})}(L), \text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2})}(L), \text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\omega\sqrt[3]{2})}(L) \subset G$$

contain an element of order two, and

$$\begin{aligned} \rho : \quad \text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})}(L) &\mapsto (2 \ 3) \\ \text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2})}(L) &\mapsto (1 \ 2) \\ \text{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}(\omega\sqrt[3]{2})}(L) &\mapsto (1 \ 3). \end{aligned}$$

The lattice of subgroups is



$\mathbb{Q}(\omega)/\mathbb{Q}$  is the splitting field of  $x^2 + x + 1$  and of  $x^2 + 3$ .

We can learn the following. Let  $k \subset L$  be a splitting field. Consider  $k \subset K \subset L$ . Then  $K \subset L$  is also a splitting field. The corresponding  $H \leq G$  is the Galois group  $\text{Gal}_K(L)$ . On the other hand  $k \subset K$  is not always a splitting field. It is a splitting field if and only if the corresponding  $H \leq G$  is a normal subgroup and in that case  $\text{Gal}_k(K) = G/H$ .



## 2 Elementary facts

Let  $K \subset L$  and  $a \in L$ . The **evaluation homomorphism**

$$\begin{aligned} e_a : K[x] &\rightarrow K[a] \subset L \\ f(x) &\mapsto f(a) \end{aligned}$$

is a surjective ring homomorphism, where  $K[a]$  is the smallest subring of  $L$  containing  $K$  and  $a$ .

**Definition 2.1.**  $f(x) = a_0x^n + \cdots + a_n \in K[x]$  is **monic** if  $a_0 = 1$ .

**Lemma 2.2.**

- If  $a$  is transcendental,  $e_a$  is injective and it extends to  $\tilde{e}_a : K(x) \rightarrow K(a)$ , by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K(x) & & \\ \cup & \searrow \tilde{e}_a & \\ K[x] & \xrightarrow{e_a} & L \end{array} .$$

- If  $a$  is algebraic, then  $\text{Ker}(e_a) = \langle f_a \rangle$ , where  $f_a \in K[x]$  is irreducible, or prime, and unique if monic, then called the minimal polynomial of  $a \in L/K$ . In this case

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K[x] & \xrightarrow{e_a} & K[a] \cong K(a) \subset L \\ \cup & \nearrow \sim & \\ \frac{K[x]}{\langle f_a \rangle} & \xrightarrow{[e_a]} & \end{array} .$$

*Proof.* There is nothing to prove. □

*Remark.* Let  $g(x) \in K[x]$  and  $g(a) \neq 0$ . Claim that  $1/g(a) \in K[a]$ . Indeed  $\gcd(f, g) = 1$  in  $K[x]$  and  $f \nmid g$ . There exists  $\phi, \psi \in K[x]$  such that  $f\phi + g\psi = 1$  and  $g(a)\psi(a) = 1$ . All of this is saying

- $K[a] \cong K(a)$ , and
- $K[x] / \langle f_a \rangle \cong K(a)$ .

Let

$$\text{Em}_K(K(a), F) = \{\sigma : K(a) \rightarrow F \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism, } \sigma_K = \text{id}_K\},$$

where

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & & K(a) \\ & \subset & \vdots \\ K & & \sigma \\ & \subset & \vdots \\ & & F \end{array} .$$

**Corollary 2.3.** For  $K \subset L$  and  $a \in L$  algebraic over  $K$ ,

- $[K(a) : K] = \deg(f_a)$ , and
- If  $K \subset F$  is an extension,

$$\text{Em}_K(K(a), F) = \{b \in F \mid f_a(b) = 0\}.$$

Lecture 6  
Tuesday  
22/01/19

*Proof.* Since  $K(a) = K[a]$ ,  $[K(a) : K] = \dim_K(K(a)) = \dim_K(K[a])$ . Suppose

$$f(x) = x^n + \mu_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n \in K[x]$$

is the minimal polynomial of  $a$  over  $K$ . Claim that  $1, \dots, a^{n-1}$  is a basis of  $K[a]$  over  $K$ .

- The set generates  $K[a]$ . Let  $c \in K[a]$ . There exists  $g \in K[x]$  such that  $g(a) = c$ . Long division gives

$$g(x) = f(x)q(x) + r(x), \quad m = \deg(r(x)) < n.$$

Then  $r(x) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m x^m$  and  $g(a) = r(a) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_m a^m$ .

- The set is linearly independent, otherwise there exists

$$g(x) = \lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_{n-1} x^{n-1} \in K[x], \quad g(a) = 0,$$

and  $f$  was not the minimal polynomial.

$\sigma(a)$  is a root of  $f$ , since applying  $\sigma$  to  $f(a) = 0$  gives

$$0 = \sigma(a^n + \mu_1 a^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n) = \sigma(a)^n + \mu_1^{n-1} \sigma(a)^{n-1} + \cdots + \mu_n = f(\sigma(a)).$$

Vice versa, if  $b \in F$  is a root of  $f$ ,

$$K(b) \xleftarrow[\sim]{[e_b]} \frac{K[x]}{\langle f \rangle} \xrightarrow[\sim]{[e_a]} K(a),$$

then  $\sigma = [e_b][e_a]^{-1}$ . Thus there is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Em}_K(K(a), F) & \leftrightarrow & \{b \in F \mid f(b) = 0\} \\ \sigma & \mapsto & \sigma(a) \\ [e_b][e_a]^{-1} & \mapsto & b \end{array}.$$

□

**Corollary 2.4.** Let  $K$  be a field and  $f \in K[x]$ . Then there exists  $K \subset L$  such that  $f$  has a root in  $L$ .

*Proof.* Take  $g$  a prime factor of  $f$ . Take  $L = K[x]/\langle g \rangle$ . In here  $a = [x]$  is a root of  $g$  hence a root of  $f$ . □

From now on in this course, we study field extensions  $K \subset L$ , always assumed to be finite, so  $[L : K] = \dim_K(L) < \infty$ .

*Remark.*  $K \subset L$  is finite if and only if

- it is algebraic, that is for all  $a \in L$ ,  $a$  is algebraic over  $K$ , and
- it is finitely generated, that is there exist  $a_1, \dots, a_m \in L$  such that  $L = K(a_1, \dots, a_m)$ .

An important point of view is that we study all possible field homomorphisms

$$\text{Em}(K, L) = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow L \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism}\}.$$

Often there is a field  $k \subset K, L$  in the background which we want to stay fixed, so let

$$\text{Em}_k(K, L) = \{\sigma : K \rightarrow L \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism, } \sigma|_k = \text{id}_k\}.$$

**Example.** Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ . The minimal polynomial of  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  is  $x^3 - 2$ . Let  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$  be the splitting field of  $x^3 - 2$ . Then

$$\text{Em}_{\mathbb{Q}}(K, L) = \text{Em}(K, L) = \{\text{roots of } x^3 - 2 \text{ in } L\} = \{\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega \sqrt[3]{2}, \omega^2 \sqrt[3]{2}\}.$$

*Remark.* Suppose  $k \subset K$ .  $\text{Em}_k(K, K) = G = \text{Gal}_k(K)$ . Indeed every  $k$ -homomorphism  $\sigma : K \rightarrow K$  is automatically invertible. We know  $\sigma$  is injective.  $\sigma$  is also surjective because  $\sigma$  is a  $k$ -linear endomorphism of a finite-dimensional  $k$ -vector space.

Lecture 7  
Thursday  
24/01/19

### 3 Axiomatics

**Proposition 3.1.** Fix  $k \subset K$  and  $k \subset L$ . Then  $\#Em_k(K, L) \leq [K : k]$ .

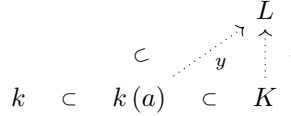
*Proof.*

Special case. If  $K = k(a)$ , let  $f(x) \in k[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $a$ . Then  $Em_k(k(a), L)$  is the roots of  $f(x)$  in  $L$ , so

$$\#Em_k(K, L) = \#\{\text{roots}\} \leq \deg(f) = [k(a) : k],$$

as proved last time.

General case. If  $k = K$ , nothing to do. Otherwise choose  $a \in K \setminus k$ .



Consider the restriction map

$$\rho : Em_k(K, L) \rightarrow Em_k(k(a), L).$$

Fix  $y \in Em_k(k(a), L)$ . Then

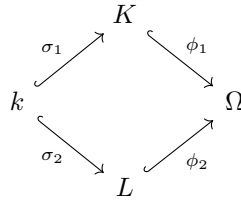
$$\rho^{-1}(y) = \{x : K \rightarrow L \mid x|_{k(a)} = id_{k(a)}\}.$$

Since  $[k(a) : k] > 1$ , by the tower law  $[K : k(a)] < [K : k]$ . By induction we may assume  $\#\rho^{-1}(y) \leq [K : k(a)]$ . So

$$\#Em_k(K, L) \leq \sum_{y \in Em_k(k(a), L)} \#\rho^{-1}(y) \leq [k(a) : k] [K : k(a)] = [K : k],$$

by the tower law. □

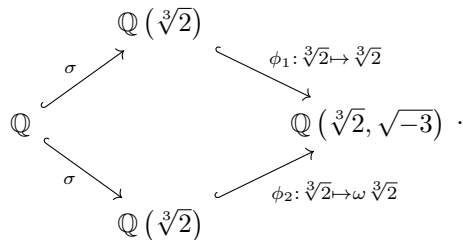
**Proposition 3.2.** Suppose given two field extensions  $k \subset K$  and  $k \subset L$ . Then there is a non-unique bigger common field



that contains both.

*Remark.*

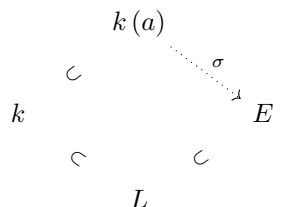
- More formally, suppose given  $\sigma_1 \in Em(k, K)$  and  $\sigma_2 \in Em(k, L)$ , then there exists  $\Omega$ ,  $\phi_1 \in Em(K, \Omega)$ , and  $\phi_2 \in Em(L, \Omega)$  such that  $\phi_1 \circ \sigma_1 = \phi_2 \circ \sigma_2$ .
- I never said that  $\Omega$  is unique. For example, let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  and  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ . One choice is  $\Omega = k$ . Another choice is  $\Omega = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$ , where



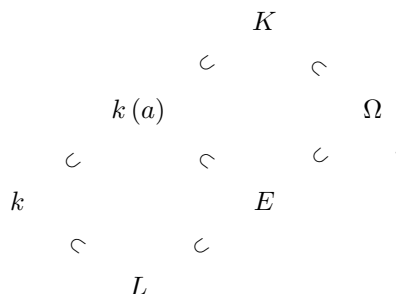
Another more precise way to state this is there exists  $k \subset \Omega$  such that  $Em_k(K, \Omega)$  and  $Em_k(L, \Omega)$  are both non-empty.

*Proof.*

Special case. If  $K = k(a)$ , let  $f(x) \in k[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $a$  over  $k$ . Let  $L \subset E$  be such that  $f(x) \in L[x]$  has a root  $\alpha \in E$ . Then there exists  $\sigma \in Em_k(k(a), E)$  such that  $\sigma(a) = \alpha$ .



General case. By induction on  $[K : k]$ . If  $[K : k] = 1$ , take  $\Omega = L$ . If  $[K : k] > 1$ , take  $a \in K \setminus k$ .



By special case there exists  $E$  as in the diagram. By tower law  $[K : k(a)] < [K : k]$  hence by induction find  $\Omega$  as in the diagram.  $\Omega$  solves the original problem.

□

**Proposition 3.3.** Let  $L$  be any field and  $G$  be a finite group acting on  $L$  as automorphisms. Let

$$K = G^* = \text{Fix}(G) = L^G = \{\lambda \in L \mid \forall \sigma \in G, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\}.$$

Consider  $\text{Aut}_K(L) = K^\dagger$ . Then the obvious inclusion  $G \subset K^\dagger = (G^*)^\dagger$  is an equality, so  $G$  is all of  $K^\dagger$ .

*Remark.* Contextualising, this thing is half of the Galois correspondence.

$$\begin{aligned} \{F \mid k \subset F \subset \Omega\} &\leftrightarrow \{G \mid G \leq \text{Aut}_k(\Omega)\} \\ F &\mapsto \text{Aut}_F(\Omega) = F^\dagger \\ \text{Fix}(G) = G^* &\leftarrow G \end{aligned}$$

Then to prove the Galois correspondence, we need for all  $G$ ,  $G = (G^*)^\dagger$ . We also need for all  $F$ ,  $F = (F^\dagger)^*$ .

Proposition 3.3 follows from the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.4.**  $K \subset L$  is a finite extension of degree  $[L : K] \leq |G|$ .

*Proof of Proposition 3.3.* From Proposition 3.1,  $\text{Aut}_K(L) = Em_K(L, L)$  because  $K \subset L$  is finite, and  $\#Em_K(L, L) \leq [L : K]$ . By the lemma,

$$[L : K] \leq \#Em_K(L, L) \leq [L : K],$$

so  $|G| = \#Em_K(L, L)$ . By what we said,  $G \subset Em_K(L, L)$ , so  $G = Em_K(L, L)$ .

□

Lecture 9 is a problem class.

Lecture 8  
Friday  
25/01/19

Lecture 9  
Tuesday  
29/01/19  
Lecture 10  
Thursday  
31/01/19

*Proof of Lemma 3.4.* Write  $G = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n\}$  for  $n = |G|$ . Want that all  $(n+1)$ -tuples  $a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \in L$  are linearly dependent over  $K$ . Let  $a_1, \dots, a_{n+1} \in L$ . Consider the  $n+1$  vectors in  $L^n$ . Let

$$\overline{a_1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(a_1) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_1) \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \overline{a_{n+1}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(a_{n+1}) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_{n+1}) \end{pmatrix} \in L^n.$$

These are linearly dependent over  $L$ . There exist  $x_1, \dots, x_{n+1} \in L$  not all zero such that

$$x_1 \overline{a_1} + \dots + x_{n+1} \overline{a_{n+1}} = \overline{0}.$$

By reordering the  $\overline{a_i}$ , may assume

$$x_1 \overline{a_1} + \dots + x_k \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}, \tag{3}$$

for some  $1 \leq k \leq n+1$  with

- for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ ,  $x_i \neq 0$ ,
- such  $k$  is the smallest, and
- $x_1 = 1$ .

Claim that all these  $x_i \in K$ . This does it, by reading  $j$ -th row where  $\sigma_j = id_G$ . We need to show for all  $i$   $x_i \in L^G$ . Take  $\sigma \in G$ .

$$\sigma(x_1) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(\sigma_1(a_1)) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(\sigma_n(a_1)) \end{pmatrix} + \dots + \sigma(x_k) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(\sigma_1(a_k)) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(\sigma_n(a_k)) \end{pmatrix} = \overline{0} \in L^n.$$

Note that

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G & \rightarrow & G \\ \tau & \mapsto & \sigma \circ \tau \end{array}$$

is a bijective function and  $\{\sigma \circ \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma \circ \sigma_n\} = G$ . Multiplying by  $\sigma$  reshuffles the rows. So in fact,

$$\sigma(x_1) \overline{a_1} + \dots + \sigma(x_k) \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}. \tag{4}$$

Claim that for all  $i$   $\sigma(x_i) = x_i$ . Otherwise (3) – (4),

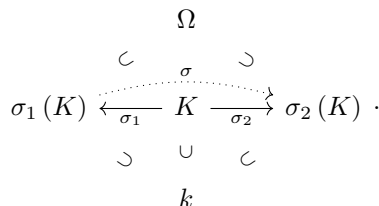
$$(x_2 - \sigma(x_2)) \overline{a_2} + \dots + (x_k - \sigma(x_k)) \overline{a_k} = \overline{0}$$

is a shorter solution, contradicting  $k$  minimal. □

## 4 Galois correspondence

**Definition 4.1.**  $k \subset K$  is **normal** if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega), \exists \sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K), \sigma_2 = \sigma_1 \circ \sigma. \quad (5)$$



Equivalently,  $k \subset K$  is normal if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega), \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K). \quad (6)$$

**Example.**  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is not normal. Take  $\Omega = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3})$ .

(5)  $\implies$  (6) Indeed for all  $\lambda \in K$ ,  $\sigma_2(\lambda) = \sigma_1(\sigma(\lambda)) \in \sigma_1(K)$ , so  $\sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K)$ .

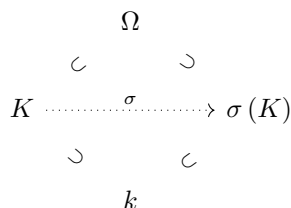
(6)  $\implies$  (5) Work inside  $\Omega$ , so  $k \subset \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K) \subset \Omega$ . Tower law gives

$$[K : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] [\sigma_2(K) : k] = [\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] [K : k].$$

So  $[\sigma_1(K) : \sigma_2(K)] = 1$ , so  $\sigma_1(K) = \sigma_2(K)$ . Take  $\sigma = \sigma_1^{-1} \circ \sigma_2$ .  $\sigma$  is clearly bijective and it is more or less obvious that  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K)$ .

Equivalently,  $k \subset K$  is normal if for all  $K \subset \Omega$ , for all  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$ ,  $\sigma(K) \subset K$ .

Lecture 11  
Friday  
01/02/19



*Remark.* We will see that  $k \subset K$  is normal if and only if there exists  $f(x) \in K[x]$  such that  $K$  is a splitting field of  $f$ .

**Lemma 4.2.** Suppose  $k \subset K$  is normal. Consider  $k \subset L \subset K$ . Then also  $L \subset K$  is normal.

*Proof.* If  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_L(K, \Omega)$ , then  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$ . □

Warning.

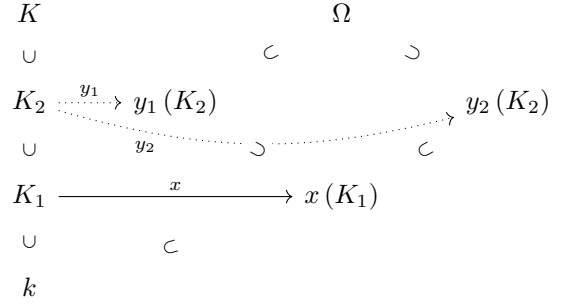
- It is not true in general that  $k \subset K$  is normal gives that  $k \subset L$  is normal. For example, let

$$k = \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \sqrt{-3}) = K.$$

$k \subset K$  is normal because it is a splitting field but  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$  is not normal.

- Suppose  $k \subset L$  is normal and  $L \subset K$  is normal. This does not imply  $k \subset K$  is normal. This will be in an example sheet.

**Definition 4.3.**  $k \subset K$  is **separable** if for all  $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$ , if  $K_1 \neq K_2$ , there exist  $k \subset \Omega$  and embeddings  $x \in \text{Em}_k(K_1, \Omega)$  and  $y_1, y_2 \in \text{Em}_k(K_2, \Omega)$  such that



That is,  $y_1|_{K_1} = y_2|_{K_1} = x$  but  $y_1 \neq y_2$ .

Slogan is that embeddings separate fields. We will see that

- in characteristic zero everything is separable, and
- in characteristic  $p$  we will have good ways to decide if something is separable.

**Lemma 4.4.** Suppose  $k \subset K \subset L$ . Then  $k \subset L$  is separable if and only if  $k \subset K$  and  $K \subset L$  are separable.

*Proof.*

$\Rightarrow$  Obvious.  $K \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$  leads to  $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$ .

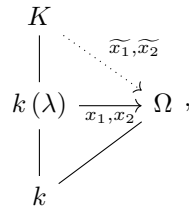
$\Leftarrow$  I will do later.

□

**Theorem 4.5** (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory). Let  $k \subset K$  be normal and separable. Let  $G = \text{Em}_k(K, K)$ . Then there is a one-to-one correspondence

$$\begin{aligned}
 \{k \subset L \subset K\} &\leftrightarrow \{H \leq G\} \\
 L &\mapsto L^\dagger = \{\sigma \in G \mid \forall \lambda \in L, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} \\
 H^* = \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \sigma(\lambda) = \lambda\} &\mapsto H
 \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* We show that for all  $H \leq G$ ,  $(H^*)^\dagger = H$  and for all  $k \subset L \subset K$ ,  $(L^\dagger)^* = L$ . We already did the former. We just prove the latter now. Note that  $L \subset K$  is normal and separable so all I need to show is  $(k^\dagger)^* = k$ , that is  $k = G^*$  is the fixed field of  $G$ . That is, if  $\lambda \notin k$ , there exists  $\sigma : K \rightarrow K$  in  $G$  such that  $\sigma(\lambda) \neq \lambda$ . By separability, there exists  $\Omega$  and  $x_1 \neq x_2 \in \text{Em}_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$  such that



so  $x_1(\lambda) \neq x_2(\lambda)$ . Two steps.

- There exist  $\widetilde{x_1}, \widetilde{x_2} : K \rightarrow \Omega$  extending  $x_1, x_2 : k(\lambda) \rightarrow \Omega$ , by the following lemma.
- Because  $k \subset K$  is normal there exists  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(K, K)$  such that  $\widetilde{x_2} = \widetilde{x_1} \circ \sigma$  then clearly  $\sigma(\lambda) \neq \lambda$ .

□

**Lemma 4.6.** Suppose  $k \subset K$  is normal. Then for all towers  $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$ , the natural restriction  $\rho : \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega) \rightarrow \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$  is surjective.

The statement says for all  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$ , there exists  $\tilde{\sigma} \in \text{Em}_k(K, \Omega)$  such that  $\tilde{\sigma}|_F = \sigma$ .

Lecture 12  
Tuesday  
05/02/19

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & & \\ | & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \Omega \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

*Proof.* We know that there exists  $\tilde{\Omega}$  as follows.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K & \xrightarrow{\phi_2} & \tilde{\Omega} \\ | & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \uparrow \psi \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \Omega \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

There are two  $K \subset \tilde{\Omega}$ ,

$$\phi_1 : K \subset \Omega \xrightarrow{\psi} \tilde{\Omega}, \quad \phi_2 : K \hookrightarrow \tilde{\Omega}.$$

Because  $k \subset K$  is normal  $\phi_2(K) \subset \phi_1(K) \subset \psi(\Omega)$ . That proves that  $\tilde{\sigma}$  exists.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.7.** Suppose  $k \subset K$  is normal. Then for all towers  $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$ ,  $\text{Em}_k(F, K) \rightarrow \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$  is also surjective.

The corollary states that for all  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(F, \Omega)$ ,  $\sigma(F) \subset K$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Omega & & \\ | & \searrow & \\ K & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\sigma}} & \tilde{\sigma}(K) \\ | & \searrow & | \\ F & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \sigma(F) \\ | & \nearrow & \\ k & & \end{array} .$$

*Proof.* This clearly follows from the lemma.  $\sigma(F) \subset \tilde{\sigma}(K) \subset K$  by definition of normal.  $\square$



## 5 Normal extensions

**Theorem 5.1.** For finite  $k \subset K$ , the following are equivalent.

1. For all  $f \in k[x]$  irreducible either  $f$  has no root in  $K$  or  $f$  splits completely in  $K$ .
2. There exists  $f \in k[x]$  not necessarily irreducible such that  $K$  is a splitting field of  $f$ .
3.  $k \subset K$  is normal.

*Proof.*

- 1  $\implies$  2 There are  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m \in K$  such that  $K = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$ . For all  $i$  let  $f_i \in k[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\lambda_i$ .  $f_i$  is irreducible and by 1 it splits completely.  $K$  is the splitting field of

$$f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^m f_i(x).$$

- 2  $\implies$  3 Suppose  $K \subset \Omega$ . Let  $\sigma : K \rightarrow \Omega$  be another embedding. For all  $\lambda_i$ ,  $\sigma(\lambda_i)$  is a root of  $f$ , so  $\sigma(K) \subset K$  hence  $\sigma(K) = K$ .

- 3  $\implies$  1 Let  $f(x) \in k[x]$  be irreducible. Suppose there exists  $\lambda \in K$  such that  $f(\lambda) = 0$ . Let  $\Omega$  be a splitting field of  $f(x) \in K[x]$ . Let  $\mu \in \Omega$  be a root of  $f$ . There exists a unique  $\sigma \in \text{Em}_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$  such that  $\sigma(\lambda) = \mu$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & K & \\ & | & \\ F = k(\lambda) & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \sigma(F) \subset \Omega \ni \mu \\ & | & \nearrow \\ & k & \end{array}$$

By corollary,  $\sigma(F) \subset K$ , so  $\mu \in K$ .

□

(Exercise: prove that any two splitting fields of  $f \in k[x]$  are  $k$ -isomorphic, not necessarily in a unique way)

**Proposition 5.2.** Let  $k \subset L$  be a field extension. Then there exists a tower  $k \subset L \subset K$  such that  $k \subset K$  is normal.

*Proof.* We use normal if and only if splitting field. Pick  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n \in L$  such that  $L = k(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ . Let  $f_i \in k[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\lambda_i$  over  $k$ . Let  $K$  be the splitting field of

$$f = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i \in L[x].$$

Claim that  $K$  is the splitting field of  $f$  over  $k$ . Key point is argue that  $K$  is generated by the roots of  $f$  over  $k$ . □

Lecture 13  
Thursday  
07/02/19

## 6 Separable extensions

**Definition 6.1.** A polynomial  $f \in k[x]$  is **separable** if it has  $n = \deg(f)$  distinct roots in any field  $k \subset K$  such that  $f \in K[x]$  splits completely.

*Remark.* It is not completely obvious that this definition is independent of  $K$ . To see this, use the fact that any two splitting fields are isomorphic.

**Example.**

- Let  $k = \mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $x^p - a = (x - a)^p$  is not separable, since in characteristic  $p$ ,  $(a + b)^p = a^p + b^p$ .
- Let  $k = \mathbb{F}_p(t)$ . Then  $x^p - t$  is an irreducible polynomial. Why? Let

$$K = \frac{\mathbb{F}_p(t)[u]}{\langle u^p - t \rangle} = \mathbb{F}_p(u).$$

In  $K[x]$ ,  $x^p - t = (x - u)^p$ .

For all  $k$ , define the **derivation** as

$$D : \begin{array}{ccc} k[x] & \rightarrow & k[x] \\ x^n & \mapsto & nx^{n-1} \end{array},$$

and extend linearly to all of  $k[x]$ . The following are some properties.

- $D$  is  $k$ -linear, that is for all  $\lambda, \mu \in k$ , for all  $f, g \in k[x]$ ,

$$D(\lambda f + \mu g) = \lambda Df + \mu Dg.$$

- Leibnitz rule, that is for all  $f, g \in k[x]$ ,

$$D(fg) = fDg + gDf.$$

Most important thing to know in characteristic  $p$ , if  $p \mid n$  then  $Dx^n = nx^{n-1} = 0$ . If  $Df = 0$  that does not mean  $f$  is constant. This just means that there exists  $h \in k[x]$  such that  $f(x) = h(x^p)$ .

**Proposition 6.2.**  $f(x) \in k[x]$  is separable if and only if  $\gcd(f, Df) = 1$ .

In  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ ,  $f$  is inseparable if and only if there exists a multiple root, a critical point, which is a root of  $Df$ .

**Lemma 6.3.** Let  $f, g \in k[x]$  and  $c = \gcd(f, g)$  in  $k[x]$ . Let  $k \subset L$  be an extension. Then  $c = \gcd(f, g)$  in  $L[x]$ .

*Proof.* Indeed, if  $c \mid f$ ,  $c \mid g$  in  $k[x]$  then also in  $L[x]$ . We also know that there exists  $\phi, \psi \in k[x]$  such that

$$f\phi + g\psi = c \tag{7}$$

in  $k[x]$ , and hence also in  $L[x]$ . Suppose that  $u \mid f$ ,  $u \mid g$  in  $L[x]$ , so  $u \mid c$  in  $L[x]$  by (7).  $\square$

*Proof of Proposition 6.2.* Let  $k \subset L$  be any field where  $f$  splits completely. We can do the proof in  $L[x]$ . That is, we may assume that  $f$  splits completely, so

$$f(x) = \prod_i (x - \lambda_i).$$

$\Leftarrow$  Assume for a contradiction that  $f$  is not separable then  $f(x) = (x - \lambda)^2 g(x)$ .

$$Df(x) = 2(x - \lambda)g(x) + (x - \lambda)^2 Dg(x) = (x - \lambda)(2g(x) + (x - \lambda)Dg(x)).$$

That is,  $(x - \lambda) \mid f$  and  $(x - \lambda) \mid Df$ , so  $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$ .

Lecture 14  
Friday  
08/02/19

$\implies$  For all  $i \neq j$ ,  $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$ .

$$Df = \sum_{i=1}^j \left( \prod_{j \neq i} (x - \lambda_j) \right).$$

Claim that for all  $i$ ,  $(x - \lambda_i) \nmid Df$ . I hope you see this. This shows  $\gcd(f, Df) = 1$ .

□

**Theorem 6.4.**  $f \in k[x]$  irreducible is inseparable if and only if

- $ch(k) = p > 0$ , and
- there exists  $h \in k[x]$  such that  $f(x) = h(x^p)$ .

*Proof.* Indeed  $f$  is inseparable if and only if  $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$ , if and only if  $Df = 0$ , since  $f$  is irreducible so  $\gcd(f, Df) \neq 1$  if and only if  $f \mid Df$ , and  $\deg(Df) < \deg(f)$ . □

**Definition 6.5.** A field  $k$  in  $ch(k) = p > 0$  is **perfect** if for all  $a \in k$  there exists  $b \in k$  such that  $b^p = a$ .

**Proposition 6.6.** If  $k$  is perfect then  $f \in k[x]$  is irreducible gives that  $f(x)$  is separable.

*Proof.* If  $f$  were inseparable then  $f(x) = h(x^p)$ . For all  $i$ , find  $b_i^p = a_i$ ,

$$h(x) = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n = x^n + b_1^p x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n^p.$$

Thus

$$f(x) = h(x^p) = (x^n + b_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n)^p,$$

so  $f$  is not irreducible. □

**Example.** All finite fields are perfect. Suppose  $F$  is a finite field. Then  $ch(F) = p > 0$  so  $\mathbb{F}_p \subset F$  therefore  $[\mathbb{F} : \mathbb{F}_p] = n < \infty$ .  $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_p}(F) = n < \infty$ , so  $F \cong (\mathbb{F}_p)^n$  as a vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  gives that  $F$  has  $p^n$  elements. The group  $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$  has  $p^n - 1$  elements. So for all  $a \in F^\times$ ,  $a^{p^n-1} = 1$ . For all  $a \in F$ ,  $a^{p^n} = a$ , so

$$(a^{p^{n-1}})^p = a,$$

and this shows  $F$  is perfect.

**Definition 6.7.** Consider  $k \subset K$ . An element  $a \in L$  is **separable** over  $k$  if the minimal polynomial  $f(x) \in k[x]$  of  $a$  is a separable polynomial.

Lecture 15 is a problem class.

Lecture 16 is a problem class.

Lecture 17 is a test.

Lecture 15

Tuesday

12/02/19

Lecture 16

Thursday

14/02/19

Lecture 17

Friday

15/02/19

## 7 Separable degree

**Definition 7.1.** Let  $k \subset K$ . Choose  $K \subset \Omega$  such that  $k \subset \Omega$  is normal. Define the **separable degree** as

$$[K : k]_s = |Em_k(K, \Omega)|.$$

*Remark.*  $[K : k]_s$  does not depend on  $K \subset \Omega$ . Suppose  $k \subset \Omega_1$  and  $k \subset \Omega_2$  are normal. Then there exists a bigger field  $\tilde{\Omega}$  such that  $\Omega_1 \subset \tilde{\Omega}$  and  $\Omega_2 \subset \tilde{\Omega}$ . Then

$$Em_k(K, \Omega_1) = Em_k(K, \tilde{\Omega}) = Em_k(K, \Omega_2),$$

by one of the corollaries a while ago,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \Omega_1 & & \\ \cup & \searrow \tilde{\sigma} & \\ K & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \tilde{\Omega} \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

*Remark.* We can restate the definition of separable extension. Recall that  $k \subset K$  is separable if for all towers  $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$ , there exist  $\Omega$ ,  $y : K_1 \rightarrow \Omega$ , and  $x_1, x_2 : K_2 \rightarrow \Omega$  such that  $x_1 \neq x_2$  and  $x_1|_{K_1} = x_2|_{K_1} = y$ , so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K_2 & & \\ \cup & \searrow x_1, x_2 & \\ K_1 & \xrightarrow{y} & \Omega \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

that is  $[K_2 : K_1]_s \neq 1$ . Thus  $k \subset K$  is separable if for all towers  $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$ ,

$$[K_2 : K_1]_s = 1 \quad \implies \quad K_1 = K_2.$$

**Theorem 7.2** (Tower law). For all  $k \subset K \subset L$ ,

$$[L : k]_s = [L : K]_s [K : k]_s.$$

*Proof.* Choose  $L \subset \Omega$  and  $k \subset \Omega$  normal, so

$$\begin{array}{ccc} L & & \\ \cup & \searrow y & \\ K & \xrightarrow{x=y|_K} & \Omega \\ \cup & & \\ k & & \end{array}$$

Study

$$\rho : Em_k(L, \Omega) \rightarrow Em_k(K, \Omega).$$

$\rho$  is surjective. For all  $x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)$ , there exists  $y \in Em_k(L, \Omega)$  such that  $y|_K = x$ .  $\rho^{-1}(x) = Em_K(L, \Omega)$ . Then

$$[L : k]_s = |Em_k(L, \Omega)| = \sum_{x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)} |\rho^{-1}(x)| = \sum_{x \in Em_k(K, \Omega)} [L : K]_s = [L : K]_s [K : k]_s.$$

□

Recall that for  $k \subset K$ , we said  $a \in K$  is separable over  $k$  if the minimal polynomial  $f(x) \in k[x]$  of  $a$  is a separable polynomial.

**Theorem 7.3.**

1.  $k \subset K$  is separable if and only if  $[K : k]_s = [K : k]$ .
2. For all towers  $k \subset K \subset L$ , if  $k \subset K$  and  $K \subset L$  are separable then  $k \subset L$  is separable.
3.  $k \subset K$  is separable if and only if for all  $a \in K$ ,  $a$  is separable over  $k$ .

*Proof.*

1. Step 1.  $[K : k]_s = [K : k]$  gives  $k \subset K$  is separable. Recall  $[K : k]_s \leq [K : k]$ . Statement follows from two tower laws for  $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset K$ , so  $[K_2 : K_1]_s = [K_2 : K_1]$ . So if  $[K_2 : K_1]_s = 1$  then  $[K_2 : K_1] = 1$  then  $K_1 = K_2$ .

Step 2. Suppose that  $k \subset k(a)$  is separable then  $a$  is separable. Let  $f(x) \in k[x]$  be the minimal polynomial. Suppose for a contradiction that it is not a separable polynomial.  $f$  is irreducible and  $f \mid Df$  gives that  $Df \equiv 0$  so  $ch(k) = p$  and there exists  $h(x) \in k[x]$  irreducible such that  $f = h(x^p)$ . Let  $b = a^p$  and consider  $k \subset k(b) \subset k(a)$ .  $a$  is a root of  $x^p - b \in k(b)[x]$ .

$$p \deg(h) = [k(a) : k] = [k(a) : k(b)] [k(b) : k] = [k(a) : k(b)] \deg(h),$$

so  $[k(a) : k(b)] = p$ . Thus  $x^p - b = (x - a)^p$  is the minimal polynomial of  $a$  over  $k(b)$ , so  $[k(a) : k(b)]_s = 1$  contradicts step 1 and two tower laws.

Step 3. For  $k \subset k(a)$ ,  $k \subset k(a)$  is separable gives  $[k(a) : k]_s = [k(a) : k]$ . This is obvious from step 2.  $[k(a) : k]$  is the degree of the minimal polynomial and  $[k(a) : k]_s$  is the number of roots of minimal polynomial.

Step 4. End of proof of 1, by a familiar method, with induction and two tower laws.

□