M3P11 Galois Theory

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Contents

0	What is Galois theory?	3
1	Elementary facts	9
2	Axiomatics	11
3	Galois correspondence	14
4	Normal extensions	17
5	Separable extensions	18
6	Separable degree	20

0 What is Galois theory?

References.

Lecture 1 Thursday 10/01/19

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- 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

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

the ring of polynomials with coefficients in K.

Example.

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

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

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 $p \mid a$. 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 ch(K) = 0, or there exists p prime such that m = 0 if and only if $p \mid m$, so K has characteristic ch(K) = p.
- For K a field,

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

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

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

• 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.

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

$$\phi(a+b) = \phi(a) + \phi(b),$$

$$\phi(ab) = \phi(a) \phi(b),$$

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 ϕ is injective. If $a_1 \neq a_2$, then $a_1 - a_n \neq 0$, 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, α . 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.

- α is algebraic over k if $f(\alpha) = 0$ for some $0 \neq f \in k[x]$. Otherwise we say that α is **transcendental** over k.
- The extension $k \subset K$ is algebraic if for all $\alpha \in K$, α 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
- $K = k(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$.

Example.

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

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

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

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

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

$$G = \{ \sigma : K \to K \mid \sigma \text{ field automorphism}, \ \sigma \mid_k = id_k \}.$$

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

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \{k \subset K_1 \subset K \mid K_1 \ subfield\} & \leftrightarrow & \{H \leq G \mid H \ subgroup\} \\ & K_1 & \mapsto & \{\sigma \in G \mid \forall \lambda \in K_1, \ \sigma\left(\lambda\right) = \lambda\} \\ \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \ \sigma\left(\lambda\right) = \lambda\} & \leftrightarrow & H \leq G \end{array} .$$

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.

Lecture 3 Tuesday 15/01/19

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

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

Then $K \subset L$ and

$$G = \{ \sigma : L \to L \mid \sigma \mid_K = id_K \} = C_2$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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

where $S(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$ is the group of permutations of the roots of $f = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_n$.

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

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

• ρ is injective. If for all i, $\sigma(\lambda_i) = \lambda_i$, then $\sigma = id$ on $K(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n) = L$.

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

Lecture 4 Thursday 17/01/19

Definition 0.5. $K \subset L$ is **finite** if L is finite-dimensional as a vector space over K. The **degree** of L over K is $[L:K] = \dim_K(L)$.

Two things about this.

Theorem 0.6 (Tower law). Let $K \subset L \subset F$. Then [F:K] = [F:L][L:K].

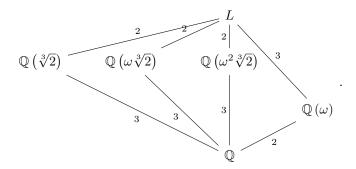
Theorem 0.7. Suppose $f(x) \in K[x]$ is irreducible of degree $d = \deg(f)$ and $L = K(\lambda)$ where $f(\lambda) = 0$, then $[K(\lambda) : K] = d$.

Example.

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

is a field, and $[K:\mathbb{Q}]=3$.

Example. 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

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

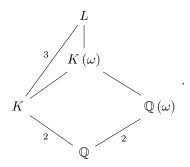
(Exercise) What is $[L:\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})]$? Note that $L=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})(\sqrt{-3})$. Could $\sqrt{-3}\in\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$? Consider $x^2+3\in\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})[x]$. By the tower law,

$$\begin{cases} [L:\mathbb{Q}] = [L:\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\right)] \left[\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\right):\mathbb{Q}\right] = 2 \left[L:\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\right)\right] & \Longrightarrow 2 \mid [L:\mathbb{Q}] \\ [L:\mathbb{Q}] = \left[L:\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right] \left[\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right):\mathbb{Q}\right] = 3 \left[L:\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right] & \Longrightarrow 3 \mid [L:\mathbb{Q}] \end{cases} \Rightarrow 6 \mid [L:\mathbb{Q}].$$

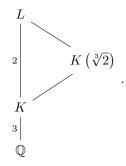
- Either $x^2 + 3$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)$, so by Theorem 0.7 $\left[L:\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)\right] = 2$ and $\left[L:\mathbb{Q}\right] = 6$.
- Or $x^2 + 3$ is not irreducible, so $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = L$ and $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$, a contradiction.

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 $ω \notin K$ gives [K(ω) : K] = 2, so $[K(ω) : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ contradicts the tower law for $\mathbb{Q} \subset K(ω) \subset L$.
- Suppose $[K:\mathbb{Q}]=3$.



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

I want to prove that

$$G=\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(L\right)=\left\{\sigma:L\rightarrow L\mid\sigma\mid_{\mathbb{Q}}=id_{\mathbb{Q}}\right\}=\mathfrak{S}_{3}.$$

Lecture 5 Friday 18/01/19

Proof of Theorem 0.6. Suppose $y_1, \ldots, y_m \in F$ is a basis of F as a vector space over L. Suppose $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in L$ is a basis of L as a vector space over K. Claim that $\{x_iy_j\}$ is a basis of F over K.

• $\{x_iy_j\}$ generates F. Let $z \in F$. There exist $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_n \in L$ such that

$$z = \mu_1 y_1 + \dots + \mu_n y_n. \tag{1}$$

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

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

Plug in (2) into (1),

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

• $\{x_iy_j\}$ 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 $\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$. A basis of L/\mathbb{Q} is

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

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

Thus

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

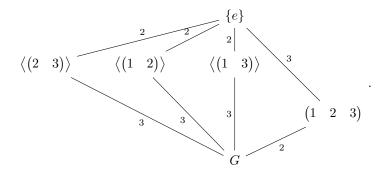
A question is if there were $\sigma \in G$ such that $\rho(\sigma) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ then we have written the matrix of σ as a \mathbb{Q} -linear map of L in a basis. But how to check that this \mathbb{Q} -linear map is a field homomorphism? We know the Galois correspondence for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

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

contain an element of order two, and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \rho: & \operatorname{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt[3]{2}\right)}\left(L\right) & \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \\ & \operatorname{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega^2\sqrt[3]{2}\right)}\left(L\right) & \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ & \operatorname{Gal}_{\mathbb{Q}\left(\omega\sqrt[3]{2}\right)}\left(L\right) & \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}. \end{array}$$

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 $Gal_K(L)$. 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 $Gal_k(K) = G/H$.

1 Elementary facts

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

Lecture 6 Tuesday 22/01/19

$$e_a: K[x] \rightarrow K[a] \subset L$$

 $f(x) \mapsto f(a)$

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

Definition 1.1. $f(x) = a_0 x^n + \cdots + a_n \in K[x]$ is **monic** if $a_0 = 1$.

Lemma 1.2.

• If a is transcendental, e_a is injective and it extends to $\widetilde{e_a}: K(x) \to K(a)$, by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} K\left(x\right) & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ K\left[x\right] & \xrightarrow{e_{a}} & L \end{array}.$$

• If a is algebraic, then $Ker(e_a) = \langle f_a \rangle$, 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

$$K[x] \xrightarrow{e_a} K[a] \cong K(a) \subset L$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

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

$$Em_{K}\left(K\left(a\right),F\right)=\left\{ \sigma:K\left(a\right)\rightarrow F\mid\sigma\text{ field homomorphism, }\sigma_{K}=id_{K}\right\} ,$$

where

$$K\left(a
ight)$$
 k
 σ
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Corollary 1.3. 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,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

and f was not the minimal polynomial.

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

$$0 = \sigma (a^{n} + \mu_{1}a^{n-1} + \dots + \mu_{n}) = \sigma (a)^{n} + \mu_{1}^{n-1}\sigma (a)^{n-1} + \dots + \mu_{n} = f(\sigma (a)).$$

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

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

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

$$Em_{K}\left(K\left(a\right),F\right) \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \left\{b \in F \mid f\left(b\right)=0\right\} \\ \sigma \quad \mapsto \quad \sigma\left(a\right) \\ \left[e_{b}\right]\left[e_{a}\right]^{-1} \quad \leftarrow \quad b \\ \end{array}.$$

Corollary 1.4. 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. \square

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

Lecture 7 Thursday 24/01/19

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 $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in L$ such that $L = K(a_1, \ldots, a_m)$.

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

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

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

$$Em_k(K, L) = \{ \sigma : K \to L \mid \sigma \text{ field homomorphism}, \ \sigma \mid_k = id_k \}$$

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

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

Remark. Suppose $k \subset K$. $Em_k(K, K) = G = Gal_k(K)$. Indeed every k-homomorphism $\sigma : K \to K$ is automatically invertible. We know σ is injective. σ is also surjective because σ is a k-linear endomorphism of a finite-dimensional k-vector space.

2 Axiomatics

Proposition 2.1. Fix $k \subset K$ and $k \subset L$. Then $\#Em_k(K, L) \leq [K : k]$.

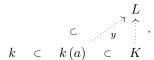
Proof.

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

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

as proved last time.

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



Consider the restriction map

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

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

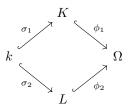
$$\rho^{-1}(y) = \{x : K \to L \mid x \mid_{k(a)} = id_{k(a)} \}.$$

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

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

by the tower law.

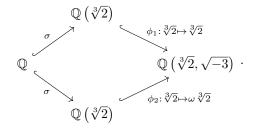
Proposition 2.2. Suppose given two field extensions $k \subset K$ and $k \subset L$. Then there is a non-unique bigger common field



that contains both.

Remark.

- More formally, suppose given $\sigma_1 \in Em(k, K)$ and $\sigma_2 \in Em(k, L)$, then there exists Ω , $\phi_1 \in Em(K, \Omega)$, and $\phi_2 \in Em(L, \Omega)$ such that $\phi_1 \circ \sigma_1 = \phi_2 \circ \sigma_2$.
- I never said that Ω 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

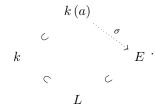


Another more precise way to state this is there exists $k \subset \Omega$ such that $Em_k(K,\Omega)$ and $Em_k(L,\Omega)$ are both non-empty.

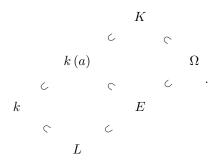
Lecture 8 Friday 25/01/19

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 Ω as in the diagram. Ω solves the original problem.

Proposition 2.3. Let L be any field and G be a finite group acting on L as automorphisms. Let

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

Consider $Aut_K(L) = K^{\dagger}$. 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.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \left\{ F \mid k \subset F \subset \Omega \right\} & \leftrightarrow & \left\{ G \mid G \leq Aut_k\left(\Omega\right) \right\} \\ F & \mapsto & Aut_F\left(\Omega\right) = F^{\dagger} \\ Fix\left(G\right) = G^* & \leftrightarrow & G \end{array} .$$

Then to prove the Galois correspondence, we need for all G, $G = (G^*)^{\dagger}$. We also need for all F, $F = (F^{\dagger})^*$. Proposition 2.3 follows from the following lemma.

Lemma 2.4. $K \subset L$ is a finite extension of degree $[L:K] \leq |G|$.

Proof of Proposition 2.3. From Proposition 2.1, $Aut_K(L) = Em_K(L, L)$ because $K \subset L$ is finite, and $\#Em_K(L, L) \leq [L:K]$. By the lemma,

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

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

Proof of Lemma 2.4. 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 $x_1, \ldots, x_{n+1} \in L$ 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 $1 \le k \le n+1$ with

- for all $i \in \{1, ..., k\}, x_i \neq 0$,
- \bullet 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

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

is a bijective function and $\{\sigma \circ \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma \circ \sigma_n\} = G$. Multiplying by σ 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),

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

is a shorter solution, contradicting k minimal.

3 Galois correspondence

Definition 3.1. $k \subset K$ is normal if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \ \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in Em_k(K, \Omega), \ \exists \sigma \in Em_k(K, K), \ \sigma_2 = \sigma_1 \circ \sigma. \tag{5}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\Omega \\
C & \sigma & \searrow \\
\sigma_1(K) & \longleftrightarrow \sigma_1 & K & \xrightarrow{\sigma_2} & \sigma_2(K) & \ddots \\
\searrow & & & & & & & & \\
k
\end{array}$$

Equivalently, $k \subset K$ is normal if

$$\forall k \subset \Omega, \ \forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in Em_k(K, \Omega), \ \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K).$$
 (6)

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

- (5) \Longrightarrow (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) \Longrightarrow (5) Work inside Ω .

$$k \subset \sigma_2(K) \subset \sigma_1(K) \subset \Omega$$
.

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 $\sigma=\sigma_1^{-1}\circ\sigma_2$. σ is clearly bijective and it is more or less obvious that $\sigma\in Em_k(K,K)$.

Equivalently, $k \subset K$ is normal if for all $K \subset \Omega$, for all $\sigma \in Em_k(K,\Omega)$, $\sigma(K) \subset K$.

Lecture 11 Friday 01/02/19

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\Omega \\
\zeta & \searrow \\
K & \xrightarrow{\sigma} & \sigma(K) \\
\searrow & \varsigma \\
k
\end{array}$$

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 3.2. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Consider $k \subset L \subset K$. Then also $L \subset K$ is normal.

Proof. If
$$\sigma \in Em_L(K,\Omega)$$
, then $\sigma \in Em_k(K,\Omega)$.

Warning.

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

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

 $k \subset K$ 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 3.3. $k \subset K$ 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 $x \in Em_k(K_1, \Omega)$ and $y_1, y_2 \in Em_k(K_2, \Omega)$ 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
- \bullet in characteristic p we will have good ways to decide if something is separable.

Lemma 3.4. 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.

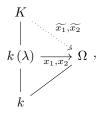
- \implies Obvious. $K \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$ leads to $k \subset K_1 \subset K_2 \subset L$.
- \leftarrow I will do later.

Theorem 3.5 (Fundamental theorem of Galois theory). Let $k \subset K$ be normal and separable. Let $G = Em_k(K, K)$. Then there is a one-to-one correspondence

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

$$H^* = \{\lambda \in K \mid \forall \sigma \in H, \ \sigma \left(\lambda \right) = \lambda \} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad H$$

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 $\sigma : K \to K$ in G such that $\sigma(\lambda) \neq \lambda$. By separability, there exists Ω and $x_1 \neq x_2 \in Em_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$ such that



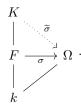
so $x_1(\lambda) \neq x_2(\lambda)$. Two steps.

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

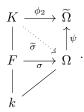
Lemma 3.6. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Then for all towers $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$, the natural restriction $\rho: Em_k(K,\Omega) \to Em_k(F,\Omega)$ is surjective.

The statement says for all $\sigma \in Em_k(F,\Omega)$, there exists $\widetilde{\sigma} \in Em_k(K,\Omega)$ such that $\widetilde{\sigma}|_{F} = \sigma$.

Lecture 12 Tuesday 05/02/19



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



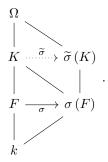
There are two $K \subset \widetilde{\Omega}$,

$$\phi_1: K \subset \Omega \stackrel{\psi}{\hookrightarrow} \widetilde{\Omega}, \qquad \phi_2: K \hookrightarrow \widetilde{\Omega}.$$

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

Corollary 3.7. Suppose $k \subset K$ is normal. Then for all towers $k \subset F \subset K \subset \Omega$, $Em_k(F,K) \to Em_k(F,\Omega)$ is also surjective.

The corollary states that for all $\sigma \in Em_k(F, \Omega)$, $\sigma(F) \subset K$.



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

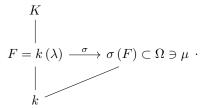
4 Normal extensions

Theorem 4.1. 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 \Longrightarrow 2 There are $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m \in K$ such that $K = k(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m)$. For all i let $f_i \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of λ_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 \Longrightarrow 3 Suppose $K \subset \Omega$. Let $\sigma : K \to \Omega$ be another embedding. For all λ_i , $\sigma(\lambda_i)$ is a root of f, so $\sigma(\lambda_i) \subset K$ hence $\sigma(K) \subset K$.
- 3 \Longrightarrow 1 Let $f(x) \in k[x]$ be irreducible. Suppose there exists $\lambda \in K$ such that $f(\lambda) = 0$. Let Ω be a splitting field of $f(x) \in K[x]$. Let $\mu \in \Omega$ be a root of f. There exists a unique $\sigma \in Em_k(k(\lambda), \Omega)$ such that $\sigma(\lambda) = \mu$.



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)

Lecture 13 Thursday 07/02/19

Proposition 4.2. 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 $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in L$ such that $L = k(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$. Let $f_i \in k[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of λ_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. \square

5 Separable extensions

Definition 5.1. 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

$$D: k[x] \to k[x] x^n \mapsto nx^{n-1},$$

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. 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 5.2. $f(x) \in k[x]$ 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 5.3. 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].

Lecture 14 Friday 08/02/19

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).

Proof of Proposition 5.2. 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 $f(x) = (x - \lambda)^2 g(x)$.

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

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

 \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 5.4. $f \in k[x]$ 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 5.5. 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 5.6. 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

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

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 $[\mathbb{F} : \mathbb{F}_p] = n < 0$. $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_p}(F) = n < \infty$, 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

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

and this shows F is perfect.

Definition 5.7. 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.

6 Separable degree

Definition 6.1. Let $K \subset L$. Then

$$[L:K]_{s} = |Em_{K}(L,\Omega)|,$$

where $K \subset L \subset \Omega$ is any such that $K \subset \Omega$ is normal.

Proposition 6.2. $[L:K]_s$ does not depend on Ω .

Theorem 6.3.

- $k \subset L$ is separable if and only if $[L:K]_s = [L:K]$.
- For all $k \subset K \subset L$, $k \subset K$ and $K \subset L$ are separable gives that $k \subset L$ is separable.
- $k \subset L$ is separable if and only if for all $\lambda \in L$, λ is separable over k.

Lecture 15 is a problem class.

Lecture 16 is a problem class.

Lecture 15 Tuesday 12/02/19 Lecture 16 Thursday 14/02/19