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Applications of Galois Theory

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2080-12-24

Outlines

Let F be a field extension of a field K.

1. K-automorphism

A field-automorphism $\sigma \in AutF$ which is also K-homomorphism is called K-automorphism. In other words, a field-automorphism $\sigma \in AutF$ that fixes K element-wise is called K-automorphism [3].

2. Galois Group

The group of all K-automorphisms of F is called the Galois group of F over K and it is denoted by Aut_K^F [3].

3. Galois Extension

Let F be an extension field of K such that the fixed field of the Galois group Aut_K^F is K itself. Then F is said to be a Galois extension of K or Galois over K [3].

4. Fundamental Theorem of Galois Theory

If F is a finite dimensional Galois extension of K, then there is a one-to-one correspondence between the set of all intermediate fields of F over K and the set of subgroups of the Galois group Aut_K^F such that:

i) *the relative dimension of two intermediate fields is equal to the relative index of the corresponding subgroups. In particular Aut_K^F has order $[F : K]$;*

ii) *F is Galois over every intermediate field E, but E is Galois over K if and only if the corresponding subgroup $E' = Aut_E^F$ is normal in $G = Aut_K^F$.In this case G/E' is isomorphic to the Galois group Aut_K^E of E over K [3].*

Illustration of The Fundamental Theorem

Let F be an Galois extension of a field K. Let the towers of the intermediate fields of F over K be as follows:

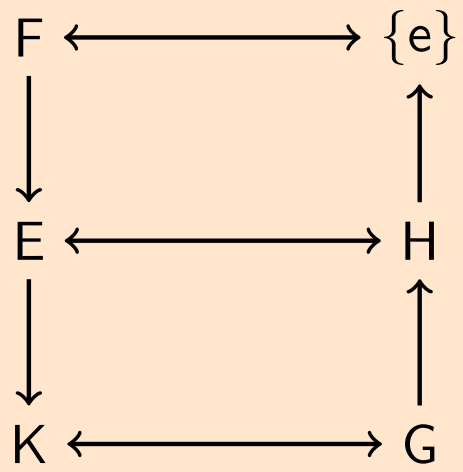
$$K \subset E \subset F$$

Let G be the Galois group of F over K. Then its subsets are

$$\{e\} \subset H \subset G$$

Then the one-to-one correspondence is as shown:

Galois-correspondence



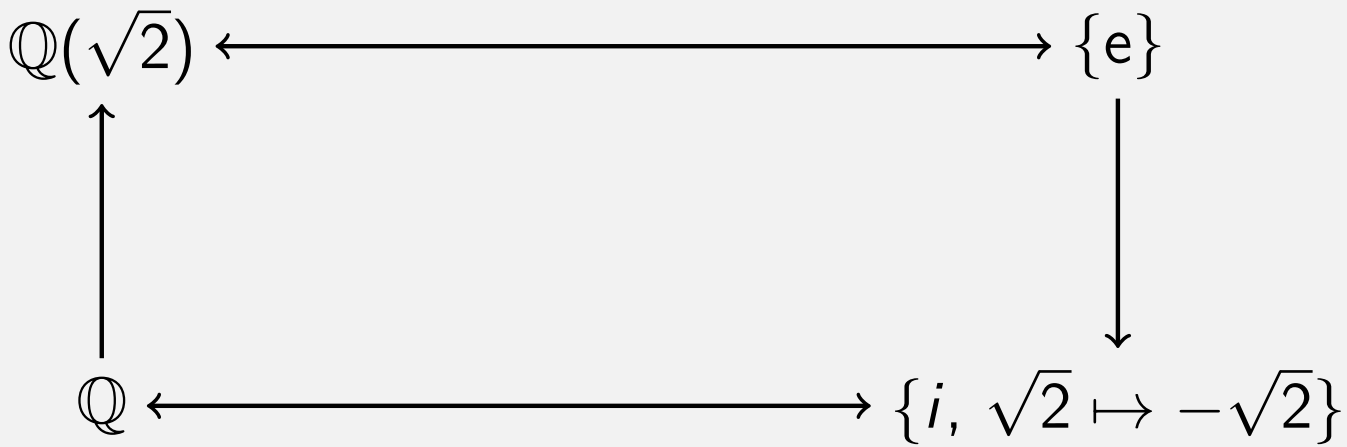
5. Remark

The intermediate fields are getting larger as we go from top to bottom as the fields are getting extended. But the subgroups are getting smaller.

Nature of Number

The nature of a number depends upon the underlying field.
A field-automorphism of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ that fixes $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\sqrt{2} \longmapsto -\sqrt{2}$. So, any polynomial equation over $\mathbb{Q}$ satisfied by the number $\sqrt{2}$ is also satisfied by the number $-\sqrt{2}$. You can fluidly pass between these two numbers and the equation with a rational coefficient will not know. Hence the two numbers $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$ are algebraically same over $\mathbb{Q}$.

But the map $\sqrt{2} \longmapsto -\sqrt{2}$ is not an automorphism of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ fixing itself, i.e fixing $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. The only automorphism of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is the identity map. So, you cannot pass $\sqrt{2}$ for $-\sqrt{2}$ for every equation with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. Hence the two numbers $\sqrt{2}$ and $-\sqrt{2}$ are not algebraically same over $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.



Structure of a Field

The structure of a field as an extension field over some field is mirrored in the structure of the "group" of permutations of its elements that keeps the base field fixed. But these permutations are the symmetries of the field. So, the structure of field extension is equals to its own symmetry.

The structure of a field is a **complicated** thing; specially if it is infinite. But the structure of a group is rather simple; especially if it is finite. So the Galois theory has fairly simplified the complicated thing in a very insightful and beautiful way.

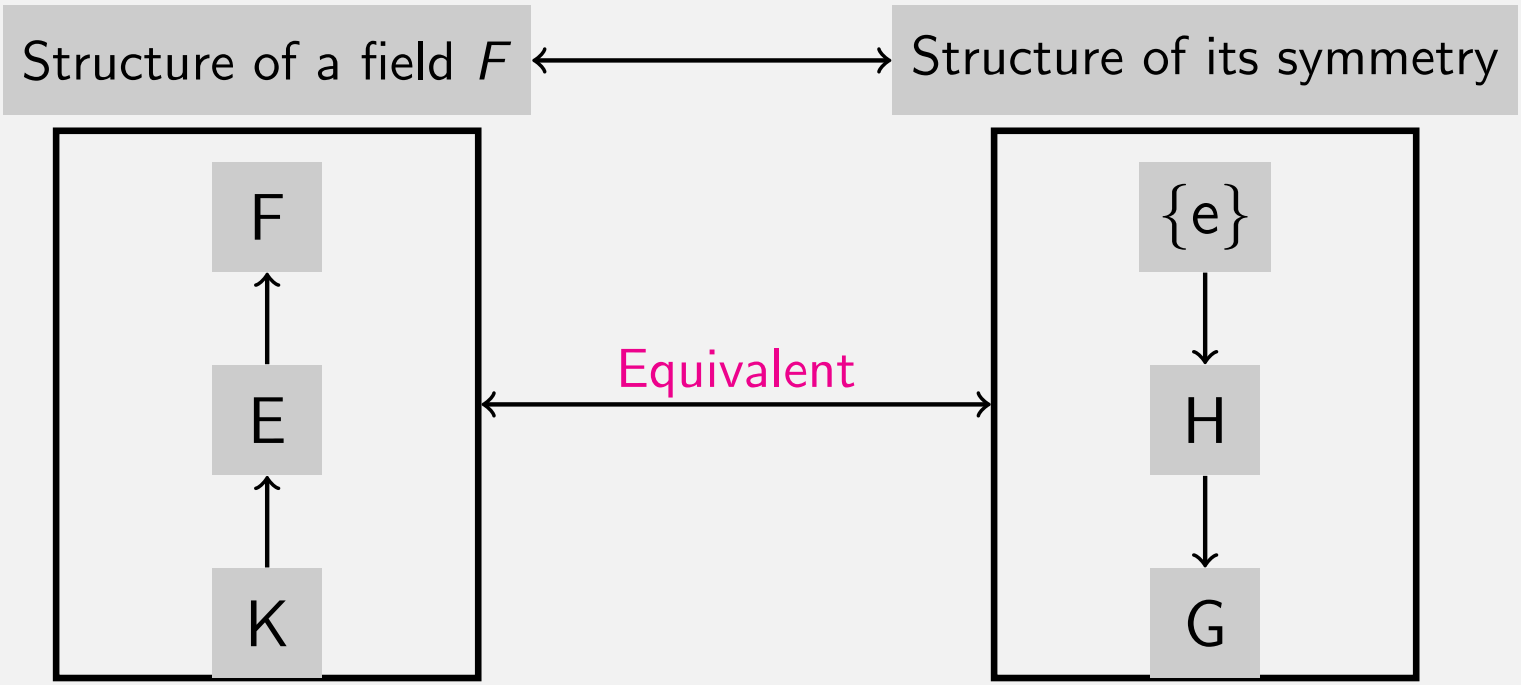


Figure: Equivalency

Question

Galois extension F of K is a field for which the fixed field of the Galois group Aut_K^F is K itself.

Questions:

1. But for what extension field F of K the Galois group keeps the base field K fixed?
2. What is the structure of Galois field and how do we construct (obtain) a Galois field?

Since, for $F = K(u)$, any $\sigma \in Aut_K^F$ is completely determined by its action on u. Any algebraic Galois extension of K is generated by all roots u of a polynomial $f \in K[x]$.

Splitting Field

Such a minimal field F where a polynomial $f \in K[x]$ splits into linear factors and thus contains all roots of $f(x)$ is called a splitting field of f over K [3].

Thus, an algebraic Galois extension is going to be characterized by a splitting field of a polynomial over the base field.

Example

The extension field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$ over the field $\mathbb{Q}$ is a Galois extension and it is also a splitting field of the polynomial $f(x) = x^2 - 3 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

As, the roots of f are $\sqrt{3}$ and $-\sqrt{3}$ which are the generators of the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$.

6. Galois Group

The Galois group of a polynomial $f \in K[x]$ is the group Aut_K^F, where F is a splitting field of f over K [3].

7. Characterization of Galois Groups

Let G be a Galois group of a polynomial $f \in K[x]$.

i) *G is isomorphic to a subgroup of some symmetric group S_n[3].*

ii) *If f is separable of degree n, the n divides $|G|$ and G isomorphic to a transitive subgroup of S_n [3].*

8. Corollary

i) *If the degree of f is 2 then its Galois group $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.*

ii) *If the degree of f is 3 then its Galois group G is either S_3 or A_3 [3].*

9. Discriminant of a Polynomial

Let $f \in K[x]$ a polynomial of degree n with n distinct roots $u_1, u_2, ..., u_n$ in some splitting field F of f over K. Let
$\Delta = \prod_{i<j}(u_i - u_j) = (u_1 - u_2)(u_1 - u_3)...(u_{n-1} - u_n) \in F$.
The discriminant of f is the element $D = \Delta^2$ [3].

10. Theorem

If f is a separable polynomial of degree 3, then the Galois group of f is A_3 if and only if the discriminant of f is the square of an element of K [3].

11. Resolvant Cubic of a Quartic

Let $u_1, u_2, ..., u_4$ be the roots of a quartic $f \in K[x]$ and
$\alpha = u_1u_2 + u_3u_4$, $\beta = u_1u_3 + u_2u_4$, $\gamma = u_1u_4 + u_2u_3$.

The polynomial $(x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)$ is called the resolvant cubic of f.
The resolvant cubic is actually a polynomial over K[3].

An Application of Fundamental Theorem

Now under "the Galois correspondence the subfield $K(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ corresponds to the normal subgroup $V \cap G$" [3] because $K(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is a splitting field of the resolvant cubic whose Galois group is a subgroup of S_3 and only normal subgroup of N of S_4 with $|N| \leq 6$ is V, where
$V = \{(1), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$.
Hence $K(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ is Galois over K and $Aut_K^{K(\alpha,\beta,\gamma)} = G/(G \cap V)$[3].

12. Theorem

Let K be a field and $f \in K[x]$ a separable quartic with Galois Group G. Let α, β, γ be the roots of the resolvant cubic of f and let $m = [K(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) : K]$ then,

i) $m = 6 \iff G = S_4$;

ii) $m = 3 \iff G = A_4$;

iii) $m = 1 \iff G = V$;

iv) $m = 2 \iff G = D_4$ *or* $G = \mathbb{Z}_4$; *in this case* $G = \mathbb{Z}_4$ *if* f *is irreducible over* $K(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ *and* $G = \mathbb{Z}_4$ *otherwise[3].*

13. Theorem

If p is a prime and f is an irreducible polynomial of degree p over $\mathbb{Q}$ which has precisely two non-real roots, then the Galois group of f is S_p[3].

The polynomial is $f(x) = x^5 - 10x + 5 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$. Its graph is shown below.

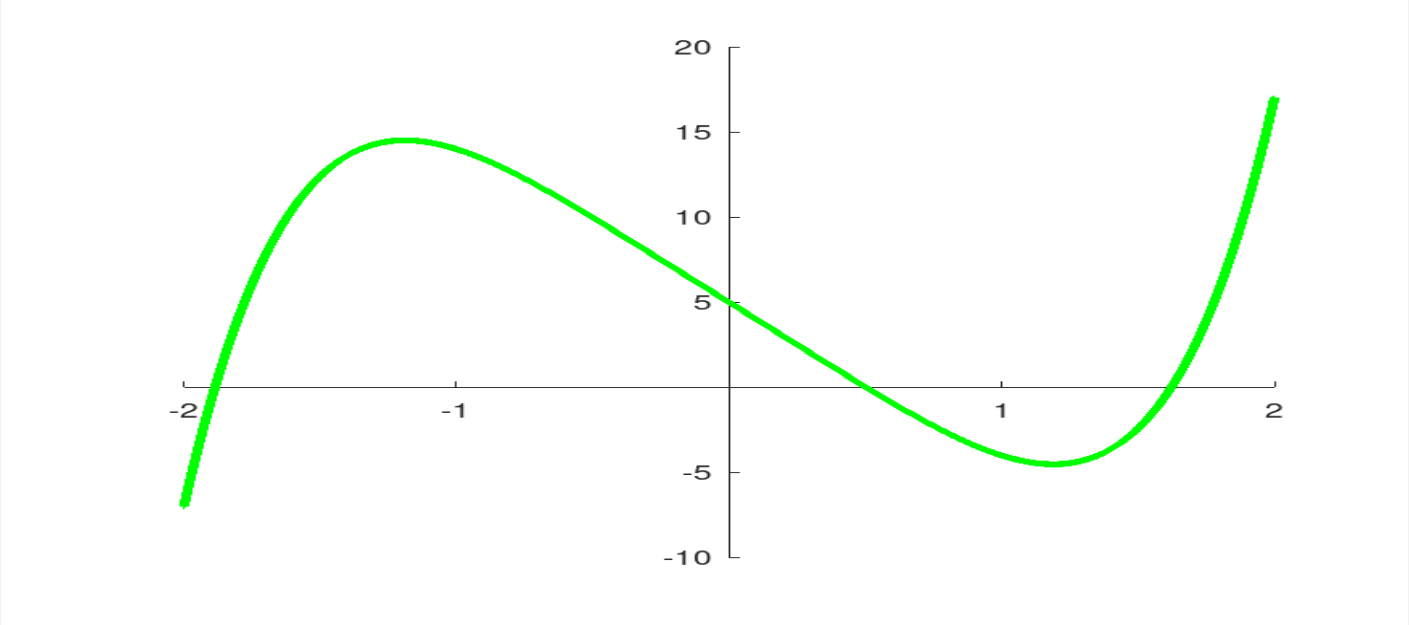


Figure: Plotted by the "GNU-Octave"

From its graph this polynomial has only three real roots. This polynomial is "irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by the Eisenstein's criterion" [3] so by Theorem-15 its Galois group is S_5 which contains $5! = 120$ elements.

Galois Group of a seventh degree polynomial

The polynomial is $f(x) = x^7 - 2x^5 - 4x^3 + 2x^2 + 4x - 2$ which is "irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ by the Eisenstein's criterion" [3]. Its graph is shown below.

Figure: Plotted by the "Geogebra"

The Graph shows this polynomial has exactly five real roots. So exactly two of its roots are complex. Hence by the Theorem-15 its Galois Group is S_7 which contains $7! = 5040$ elements.

Galois Group of Multi-variable Polynomials

The Galois group of a polynomial in single variable can be generalized to the Galois group of a multi-variable polynomial.

If the polynomial is $f(x, y) = x + y \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$. Now the roots of f over all the complex numbers. Hence its Galois group is $\mathbb{C}$.

Example

The polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$ are:

$$y = x^2 + 1 \tag{1}$$
$$y = 1 - x \tag{2}$$

. The roots of these simultaneous polynomials are ω, ω^2. Then the splitting field of this system is $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$. Here the automorphisms of $\mathbb{Q}(\omega)$ are:
$\omega \longmapsto \omega$ and $\omega \longmapsto \omega^2$.
Hence the Galois group of this system is $\{(1), (12)\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Question:

1. Is every polynomial equation solvable by the method of radicals?
2. In other words; does there exist an explicit "formula" which gives all solutions of a polynomial equation?

If the degree of the polynomial f is at most four then the answer is **yes** [3].

14. Radical Extension

An extension field F of a field K is a radical extension of K if $F = K(u_1, ..., u_n)$, some power of u_1 lies in K and for each $i \geq 2$, some power of u_i lies in $K(u_1, ..., u_{i-1})$ [3].

The equation $f(x) = 0$ is *solvable by radicals* if there exists a radical extension F of K and splitting field E of f over K such that $F \supset E \supset K$ [3].

15. Theorem

If F is a radical extension of K and E is an intermediate field, then Aut_K^E is a solvable group [3].

16. Corollary

If the equation $f(x) = 0$ is solvable by radicals, then the Galois group of f is a solvable group [3].

17. Theorem

The symmetric group S_n is not solvable for $n \geq 5$ [3].

Conclusion

The polynomial $f(x) = x^5 - 10x + 5 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ has Galois group "S_5, which is not a solvable group" [3].
The quantic polynomials over $\mathbb{Q}$ are not solvable by radicals. That is there does not exist an explicit formula for solving the quantics.
Moreover, "polynomials of degree $n \geq 5$ are not solvable by radicals" [3].

Galois theory gives the precise condition under which a polynomial of degree $n \geq 5$ is solvable by radicals or not.

Example

The polynomial is $x^5 - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.
The set of roots of this polynomial are the fifth roots of unity which forms a group under addition modulo 5. Hence the "Galois group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_5$" [3]. The group $\mathbb{Z}_5$ is cyclic and "every cyclic group is solvable" [1]. Hence this polynomial is solvable by radicals.

18. Cyclotomic Polynomial

The *nth*-cyclotomic polynomial is the polynomial Φ_n defined as $\Phi_n = \prod (x - \zeta)$, where ζ is a primitive-*nth* of unity [1].

19. Theorem

"The Galois group of a nth-cyclotomic polynomial Φ_n of is $\mathbb{Z}_n$" [1].

Example

The polynomial is $f(x) = x^{12} - x^{10} + x^8 - x^6 - x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}$
which is a 58th-cyclotomic polynomial i.e this polynomial $f(x) = \Phi_{58}$.
So its Galois group is $\mathbb{Z}_{58}$, which is abelian and hence is solvable. Therefore this polynomial $f(x)$ is solvable by radicals.

Galois fields are the finite fields. We denote Galois field with q elements by $GF(q)$.

Integer representation

"$GF(p^n) = \{0, 1, ..., p-1\} \cup \{p, p+1, ..., p+p-1\} \cup ... \cup \{p^{n-1}, p^{n-1}+1, ..., p^{n-1}+p^{n-2}+...+p-1\}$" [1].

20. Example

$GF(2) = \{0, 1\}$
$GF(2^3) = \{0, 1\} \cup \{2, 2+1\} \cup \{2^2, 2^2+1, 2^2+2, 2^2+2+1\} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$

Polynomial representation

If F is a finite field and $f(x) \in F[x]$ is irreducible then $F[x]/(f(x))$ is finite field [1]. This field consists of all polynomials modulo $f(x)$.
If $F = GF(2^3)$ then $x^8 + x^7 + ... + x + 1 \in F[x]$ is irreducible in $F[x]$. Since F has 8 elements which are modulo 8, elements of F is represented by the elements of the factor ring $F[x]/(f(x))$ [7].

In the example-5, the number 5 has the representation $2^2 + 1$. This gives the polynomial representation $x^2 + 1 = (1, 0, 1)$(coefficient of x^2 is 1 of x is 0 and of constant is 1) Now the binary equivalent of 5 is 101.

Operations in Galois Field

Let the Galois field be $GF(p^n)$. Since the elements of a Galois field can be represented as polynomials the operations are similar to polynomial operations.

Coding Theory

Any information gets deteriorated or lost over time.

1. Paintings gets deteriorated over time and has to be renovated.
2. Some of the words spoken by teacher in the class is missed due to noise [5].

"The loss of information is inevitable".

- To be able to over come this issue , i.e to be able to detect and correct errors during transmission of information in digital system "coding theory" is developed. In digital system, information are transmitted as strings of 0 and 1.
- So the fundamental of the coding theory in computer system is the manipulation of strings of binary digits. The proper and complete manipulation of these strings is possibly only if the space of the strings is a field. This field is finite so this field is a **Galois field**. This is where the application of Galois theory comes.

The idea of coding theory is to append some extra digits to the information and use this to detect and possibly correct the errors during transmission. These codes that can correct themselves are called Error correcting codes [5].

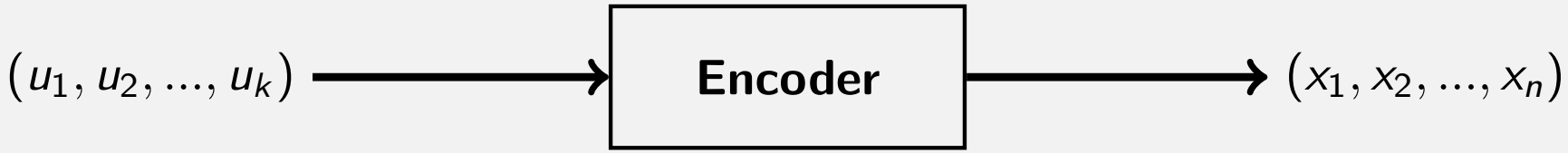
21. Linear Code

Let $K = GF(q)$ be a Galois field. Then a finite extension of K of dimension n is $V = GF(q)^n = GF(q^n)$.
A linear code C is a subspace of V. The code C has dimension $k \leq n$ and the length n" . It is called a (n, k) code [2].

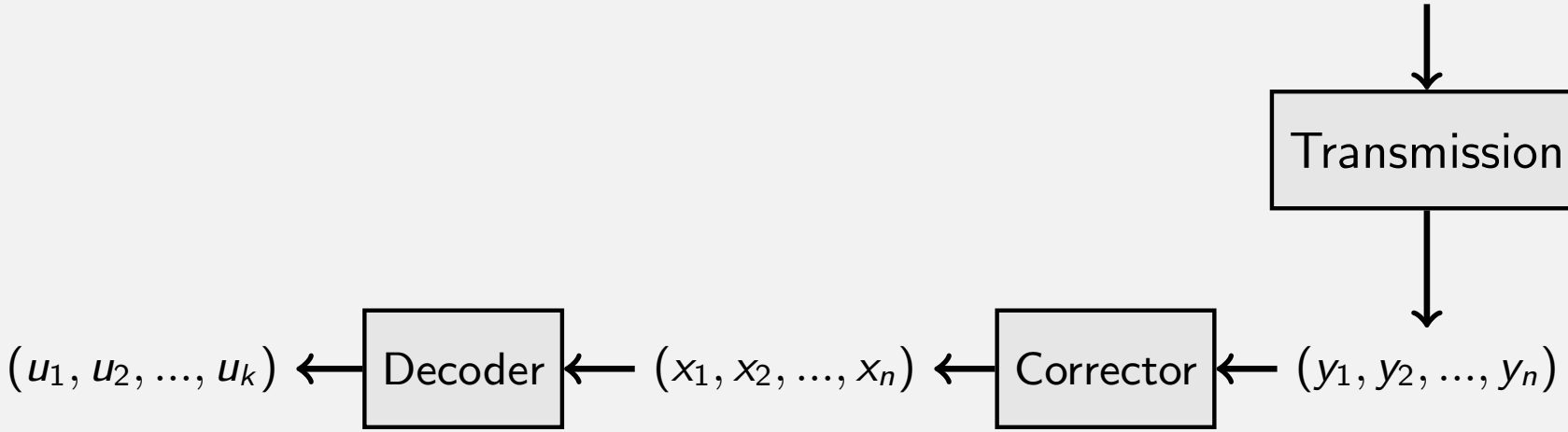
The usefulness of linear code is that they are vector spaces over the base field so they have a basis. All the code words can be generated with this basis. Instead of storing all 2^k number of code words (for k-dimensional binary codes), storing only k basis elements is sufficient which saves massive storage.

Illustration

To apply (n, k) coding first we need to group our information into blocks of length k. $u_1, ..., u_k,\ u_k, ..., u_{2k}, ...$. This space has dimension k. Now these block of codes are encoded separately each to a code of length n as shown [5].



Mathematically, the encoded vector x is obtained form the original vector u using the generator matrix G by the relation $x = uG$ [5].
To continue and complete the diagram.



22. Syndrome of a code

The syndrome of a vector $y \in V$ is defined as

$$syn(y) = \begin{pmatrix} y.h_1 \\ y.h_2 \\ \dots \\ y.h_{n-k} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where} \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ \dots \\ h_{n-k} \end{pmatrix} \text{ is the parity check matrix}$$

of C. A generator matrix H of the dual code $C^{\perp}$ of the code C called a parity check matrix[2].

Decoding Process

Suppose the signal received is the vector y.

1. First we determine its syndrome, $syn(y)$.
2. Determine the co-set of C containing $syn(y)$, say $e + C$.
3. Then $y = e + x$ for some $x \in C$. This implies $x = y - e$. Since $x \in C$, this x is the required decoding of y [2].

This e is also called "error vector" [2].

An example

Suppose we have the parity check matrix is $H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and the code is $C = \{(0,0,0,0),(1,0,1,0),(0,1,1,1),(1,0,1,1)\} \subset GF(2^4)$.

Suppose the received vector is $y = (1,1,1,0)$. Then $y \notin C$ so the information is distorted from the original information. To get the original information:

$syn(y) = \begin{pmatrix} y.h_1 \\ y.h_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

where h_1 is the first row and h_2 is the second row of H.

Now if $e = (0,1,0,0)$ then $e + C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ so

$y - e = (1,1,1,0) - (0,1,0,0) = (1,0,1,0) \in C$ is the original information [2].

AES

It is the science of safe-guarding information by converting the original message into something unreadable. Galois Fields are the life of modern cryptography used in digital communication.

Advance Encryption Standard

The Advance Encryption Standard is a Computer Security Standard for cryptography which is approved by the "Federal Information Processing Standards Publications" of USA which became effective on May 26, 2002. "The AES algorithm is a *symmetric block cipher* that can encrypt and decrypt digital information" [7]. Symmetric key cryptography is used to share information between two parties where the two parties share a secret "key" and a public encryption algorithm.

In 2000, NIST announced the selection of the "Rijndael" block cipher family which was developed by two Belgian cryptographers, *(Vincent Rijmen and Joan Daemen)* as the winner of the AES competition and since then AES has been the standard for digital cryptography.

Algorithm I

The generic algorithm of AES consists of smaller sub-algorithms namely"Sub-Bytes, Shift-Rows, Mix-Columns and Add-Round-Key" [7].

1. **The State**
   First the data is broken into blocks and each block is broken into smaller chunks of a size byte (16 bytes for a block of size 128 bits). This block is then represented in a which consisting of bytes of the word. This matrix is called the State.
   Mathematical operations are not applicable to the data directly so the significance of this step is to make the data applicable for mathematical operations.

2. **Sub-Bytes**
   In this step, first each byte of the matrix is replaced with its multiplicative inverse if it has one. Then it transforms each bytes using an invertible affine transformation, $x \mapsto Ax + b$ [7].

Mathematical Preliminaries

Each byte in the state i.e each entry in the matrix, is interpreted as one of the 256 elements of a finite field $GF(2^8)$. Then the addition, multiplication operations are performed according to the respective field operations of the field $GF(2^8)$.

3 Shift-Rows

In this step entries of a row is shifted to scramble data. Row-n shifted to the left by $n-1$ unit. Here,
$1-1=0$, so row-1 is left unchanged. $2-1=1$, so row-2 is shifted to the left by 1 unit and row-3 by 2 unit and so on as shown below [7].

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{then } A' = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{21} \\ a_{33} & a_{34} & a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{44} & a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} \end{bmatrix}$$

is the matrix after Shit-Row

4 **Mix-Columns**

In this step each column is transformed using a linear transformation, $c \mapsto Bc$ where c is a column of the matrix obtained above. Since linear transformation is invertible this step is invertible. Note every step of this algorithm must be invertible to be able to decrypt the data [7].

5 **Add-Round-Key**

This is the step where the encrypted data gets uniqueness. Each user is assigned an "unique key" and this key is added to the matrix obtained from the last step [7].

Illustration I

Let us encrypt the sentence "Fun Cryptography". This consists of exactly 16 characters.

1. First we write the ASCII representation of each character of the sentence as shown below. We do so because the ASCII representation gives the binary representation of each character which has a size of a byte. The ASCII representation of "F" is 70 which is 01000110 in binary.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 70 & 117 & 110 & 32 \\ 67 & 114 & 121 & 112 \\ 116 & 111 & 103 & 114 \\ 97 & 112 & 104 & 121 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 01000110 & 01110110 & 01101110 & 00010000 \\ 01000011 & 01110010 & 01111001 & 01110000 \\ 01110100 & 01101111 & 01100111 & 01110010 \\ 01100001 & 01110000 & 01101000 & 01111001 \end{bmatrix}$$

2. After performing Sub-Bytes, Shift-Rows, Mix-Columns, we get the following matrix.

Illustration II

$$\begin{bmatrix} 11100111 & 00011000 & 00100100 & 01110000 \\ 00101010 & 10101011 & 00111001 & 01100011 \\ 00010101 & 01100101 & 11110111 & 10100111 \\ 10101011 & 11110110 & 00000011 & 10100100 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 231 & 24 & 36 & 112 \\ 42 & 171 & 57 & 99 \\ 21 & 101 & 247 & 167 \\ 171 & 246 & 3 & 164 \end{bmatrix}$$

3. We have omitted the Add-Round-Key step just for the sake of simplicity. The matrix obtained at last in step-2 translates to something different from our original sentence.

4. The decryption process is applying the inverse of the encryption process [7].

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Acknowledgments

First of all I would like to thank my **supervisor** Mr. Tulasi Prasad Nepal. Then I am thankful to former HOD of the department Prof. Dr. **Tanka Nath Dhamala** for his valuable support and time.

I am grateful to Kathmandu Center for Research and Education Chinese Academy of Sciences-TU for awarding me with KCRE Excellent Student Thesis Grant 2023(Grant number: 08092023).

I would like thank Mr. **Santosh Gnawali** for providing me the necessary articles. Then I am thankful to Mr. **Dipak Babu Amgain** for assisting me with the bibliography. Finally I am thankful my friends and family.

Thank You

Sandesh Thakuri