Algebra II – Lecture Notes

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0 Repetition Algebra I

0.1 Ring Theory

Definition 0.1. Let R be a UFD and $f \in R[X] \setminus \{0\}$. The gcd of the coefficients of f is called the **content** I(f) of f.

We say that f is **primitive**, if $I(f) \in \mathbb{R}^{\times}$.

Theorem 0.2 (Eisenstein Criterion). Let R be a UFD and $f = a_n X^n + a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 \in R[X]$ be primitive such that there exists some prime $p \in R$ with

$$p \not | a_n, \quad p|a_0, \dots p|a_{n-1}, \quad p^2 \not | a_0$$

then f is prime in R[X].

We will often use the special case where $R = \mathbb{Z}$.

0.2 Group Theory

For every g in a group G, the mapping

$$\gamma_q: G \to G, \quad x \mapsto gxg^{-1}$$

is an automorhpism. The association

$$\Phi: G \to \operatorname{Aut}(G), \quad g \mapsto \gamma_q$$

is a group homomorphism. Its kernel $Z_G = \text{Ker } \Phi$ is called the **center** of the group G.

Definition 0.3. A group G is said to be **nilpotent** of order 1, if G is abelian.

We say that it is nilpotent of order n+1 if G/Z_G is nilpotent of order n.

Definition 0.4. A subnormal series in a group G is a chain of subgroups such that

$$\{e\} = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft G_2 \triangleleft \ldots \triangleleft G_n = G$$

such that every subgroup is normal in the next one. We say that G is **resolvable**, if such a subnormal series exists such that G_{k+1}/G_k is an abelian group for all k.

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0.3 Field Theory

Definition 0.5. Let L be a field and $K \subseteq L$ a subring that is also a field. We say that K is a **subfield** of L and we call L a **field-extension** of K and write L/K (L over K).

L can also be seen as a vector space over K. Its **degree** is $[L:K] := \dim_K L$. If $[L:K] < \infty$, we say that L is a **finite field extension** of K.

Lemma 0.6. Let F/L and L/K be finite field extensions. Then

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

To prove this, we consider basis $x_1, \ldots, x_m \in F$ of F over L and a basis $y_1, \ldots, y_n \in L$ of L over K and show that the products $x_i y_j \in F$ for $1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le n$ is a basis of F over K.

Definition 0.7. Let L/K be a field extension. For $x \in L$ consider the evaluation mapping

$$\varphi_x: K[X] \to L, \quad f \mapsto f(x)$$

- (a) If φ_x is injective, we say that x is **trancendental** over K.
- (b) If φ_x is not injective, we say x is **algebraic** over K. If this is the case, then $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi_x = (m_x)$ is an ideal and we call $m_x(X)$ the **minimal polnomial** of x and its degree the degree of x.

We call L algebraic over K, if every $x \in L$ is algebraic.

Note that x is algebraic over K if and only if x is the root of a non-zero polynomial $f \in K[X]$.

Proposition 0.7.1. If L/K is a finite field extension, then L is algebraic over K.

By seeing L as an n-dimensional vector space over K, we can easily see that the n+1 vectors $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \ldots, \alpha^n$ are linearly dependent. This gives us a non-zero polynomial for which α is a root. The converse is not true.

Proposition 0.7.2. Let L/K be a field extension and $x \in L$. Then there exists a (up to isomorhpism) unique subfield K(x) of L that is the smallest subfield of L containing K and x and:

- If x is transcendent, then $K[X] = \Im \varphi_x \cong L[X]$
- If x is algebraic, then

Definition 0.8. Let $f \in K[X] \setminus \{0\}$. A field extension L/K of the form $L = K(a_1, ..., a_n)$, where $f(X) = \alpha \prod_{i=1}^n (X - a_i)$ for $\alpha \in L^{\times}$ is a **splitting field** of f over K.

Every polynomial has a splitting field and they are unique up to a (non-canonical) isomorphism.

Definition 0.9. A field K is called **algebraically closed**, if every non-zero polynomial splits into linear factors in K.

If L/K is a field extension such that L is algebraically closed, then the set

$$E = \{x \in L | x \text{ is algebraic over } K\}$$

forms an algebraically closed field that does not depend on the choice of such L. We call E the **algebraic** closure \overline{K} of K.

Definition 0.10. Let E/k be a field extension and $\alpha \in E$. Then $k[\alpha]$ is the image of the evaluation homormophism

$$k[X] \to E, \quad p \mapsto p(\alpha)$$

Since E is a field, $k[\alpha]$ is an integral domain and $k(\alpha)$ is the space of rational functions of $k[\alpha]$

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1 Introduction

The main topic of the lecture will be **Galois theory**. The motivating problem in Galois theory is to find a formula for solutions to the function $x^n a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0 = 0$. Formulae for linear and quadratic polynomials were already known to Babylonian mathematicians (~ 1700 B.C).

Euclid (~ 300 BC) was able to translate the problem for quadratic equations into a geometric problem. Arabian mathematician al-Khwarizmi (780-850) wrote a book "al-gabr" where we would present a way to systematically solve linear and quadratic equations. From the name al-gabr came our modern anglizied name "Algebra".

In 16-th century Italy, Scipione del Ferro was able to solve equations of degree 3, with the degree 4 case being solved by Ludovico Ferrari. These solutions were initially kept secret until they were publicised by Cardano. Cardano's transformed equations of the form $x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ into simpler equations of the form

$$\xi^{3} + p\xi + q = 0$$
 for $\xi = x - \frac{a}{3}$

The idea is to then write $\xi = y + u$, where we set u later to simplify the equation. Substituting gives us

$$\xi^{3} + p\xi + q = y^{3} + 3y^{2}u + 3yu^{2} + u^{3} + p(y+u) + q$$
$$= y^{3} + (y+u)(3yu+p) + u^{3} + q$$

By setting u such that 3yu + p = 0, i.e. $u = -\frac{p}{3y}$, we obtain a simple formula for y

$$y^3 - \frac{p^3}{27y^3} + q = 0 \implies y^6 + qy^3 - \left(\frac{p}{3}\right)^3$$

Which is quadratic in $z = y^3$ and can easily be solved. The solution only uses the arithmetic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and taking roots.

Many people tried to solve the equation for degree 5, but were unable to do so.

Substantion contribution was made by Lagrange (1736 - 1813) which found hat if ξ_1, ξ_2, ξ_3 were solutions to the equation $\xi^3 + p\xi + q = 0$, then the six solutions to the resolvent $y^6 + qy^3 - (\frac{p}{3})^3 = 0$ can be expressed in terms of the Permutation group S_3

$$y_{\sigma} = \frac{1}{3} \left(\xi_{\sigma(1)} + \omega \xi_{\sigma(2)} + \omega^2 \xi_{\sigma(3)} \right)$$

where $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}$ is the primary third root of unity.

Paolo Ruffini then wanted to show that the general solution to the equation of degree 5 had no closed formula. He studied rational functions $f(\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_5)$, where ξ_i are solutions to the equation of degree 5 and realized that the permutations $\sigma \in S_5$ that keep $f(\sigma(\zeta))$ invariant form a subgroup of S_5

He then classified the subgroups of S_5 , and Nils Henrik Abel finished the proof the theorem

Theorem 1.1 (Abel-Ruffini). The general equation of fifth degree

$$x^5 + ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0$$

does not have a formula for the roots that only uses finite arithmetic operations.

The statement of the theorem is very intuitive, but it is hard to give a precise mathematical definition of it. This makes it also quite hard to prove. We will prove this as a side-result of Galois-theory, where we have seen that the alternating group A_5 is anabelian and simple (a group whose normal divisors are only the trivial group and the group itself).

What we will do is to every polynomial $f \in k[X]$ we associate a group $Gal(f) < S_n$ and show that if k is "nice enough", then f(X) = 0 is solvable if and only if Gal(f) is resolvable.

2 Galois Groups of a field extension

Let E be a field. Then the set of field isomorphisms

$$\operatorname{Aut}(E) := \{ \varphi : E \to E | \varphi \text{ is a field isomorphisms} \}$$

is a group under composition.

If $k \subseteq E$ is a subfield, we call E a field-extension of k.

Definition 2.1. For a given field extension E/k, the associated **Galois group** is the subgroup

$$Gal(E/k) := \{ \varphi \in Aut(E) : \varphi(x) = x \forall x \in k \} < Aut(E) \}$$

We know from Algebra I that E can be seen as a k-vector space. As we will see in the exercise classes, we can show that every $\varphi \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$ is an isomorphism of E as a k-vector space.

For example, we can show that $Gal(\mathbb{C}, \mathbb{R}) = \{id_{\mathbb{C}}, \bar{\cdot}\}$, where $\bar{\cdot}$ is the complex conjugation.

Lemma 2.2. Let $f \in k[X]$ be a polynomial and E/k be a field extension such that f splits in E (i.e. f can be written as a product of linear factors). If we set $R(f) \subseteq E$ to be the set of roots of f, then every $\sigma \in Gal(E/k)$ induces a permutation on R(f).

Proof. Let $f(X) = a_n X^n + a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0$, where $a_i \in K$, $\alpha \in R(f)$ and $\sigma \in Gal(E/k)$. Then we can write

$$0 = f(\alpha) = \sigma(f(\alpha)) = \sigma(a_n a^n + \dots + a_0) = \sigma(a_n) \sigma(\alpha)^n + \dots + \sigma(a_0)$$

= $a_n \sigma(\alpha)^n + \dots + a_0 = f(\sigma(\alpha))$

so $\sigma(\alpha) \in R(f)$ and $\sigma(R(f)) \subseteq R(f)$. Since $\sigma : E \to E$ is injective and $|R(\varphi)| \le n$, it follows that $\sigma(R(f)) = R(f)$

Definition 2.3. Let $f \in k[X]$. The **Galois group** of f is the Galois group Gal(E/k) associated to the field extension of the splitting field E of f.

We know from Algebra I that the splitting field always exists and is unique up to isomorphism. So the Galois group is also unique up to isomorphism.

For a set X, let S_X denote the set of permutations of X.

Lemma 2.4. Let E/k be a splitting field of a polynomial $f \in k[X]$ and $R(f) \subseteq E$ its roots. Then the restriction mapping

$$Gal(E/k) \to S_{R(f)}, \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma_{|R(f)}$$

is an injective group homomorphism.

Proof. From Lemma 2.4 we know that $\sigma(R(f)) = R(f)$ for all $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$. For injectivity let $R(f) = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$. From Algebra I, we know tha $E = k[\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n]$, where $k[\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n]$ is the image of the restriction mapping

$$k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \to E, \quad p \mapsto p(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

We now show that the kernel of the ring homomorphism is the identity id_E . Assume $\sigma \in \mathrm{Gal}(E/k)$ such that $\sigma|_{R(f)} = \mathrm{id}_{R(f)}$, which means $\sigma(\alpha_i) = \alpha_i$. Let $\xi \in E$ and chose $p \in k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ such that $p(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) = \xi$. Since $\sigma(x) = x \forall x \in K$ it follows that

$$\sigma(\xi) = \sigma(p(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)) = p(\sigma(\alpha_1), \dots, \sigma(\alpha_n)) = p(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \xi$$

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which shows $\sigma = id_E$.

An alternate proof would be to write

$$E = k(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \left\{ \frac{p(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)}{q(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)} \middle| p, q \in k[X_1, \dots, X_n], q(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \neq 0 \right\}$$

and applying such a σ on any rational function obviously keeps it invariant, so $\sigma = id_E$.

Example 2.5. Take $k = \mathbb{F}_p(t)$ and $f = X^p - t \in k[X]$. Then f is irreducible and |R(f)| = 1. Let E be a splitting field of f and $\alpha \in R(f)$. So $\alpha^p = t$. It follows that

$$(X - \alpha)^p = X^p - \alpha^p = X^p - t = f \implies R(f) = \{\alpha\}$$

A central goal of this section is to find out criteria for when |Gal(E/K)| = [E:K] We will show that this is the case when f is irreducible such that $|R(f)| = \deg(f)$.

Definition 2.6. A polynomial is said to have no multiple roots, if in a splitting field, $|R(f)| = \deg f$.

Lemma 2.7. Let $f \in k[x]$ and $f' \in k[x]$ the formal derivative of f. Then

$$f$$
 has no multiple roots $\iff \gcd(f, f') \in k[x]^{\times}$

We will prove this in exercise sheet 2.

The nice thing about this is that the euclidean algorithm can calculate the gcd and we know that it is rather easy.

Corollary 2.7.1 (Rotman Lemma 3.4). Let $f \in k[X]$ irreducible satisfying one of the following:

- (a) char k = 0
- (b) If char k > 0, then char $k \nmid \deg f$

then f does not have multiple roots.

Proof. For $d = \deg f$ and $a_d \neq 0$ we write out f and f'

$$f(x) = a_x X^d + a_{d-1} X^{d-1} + \dots + a_0 f'(x)$$
 = $a_x dX^{d-1} + a_{d-1} (d-1) X^{d-2} + \dots + a_1$

Since f is irreducible and either (a) or (b) is true, we know $a_d d \neq 0$, so deg f' = d - 1.

If $p \in k[x]$ divides both f and f', then for sure $\deg p \leq d-1$. But f is irreducible, so $\deg p = 0$. Therefore, $p \in k$ and $\gcd(f, f') = 1$. Using the previous lemma, it follows that f does not have multiple roots. \square

Definition 2.8. • An irreducible polynomial is **separable**, if it has no multiple roots.

• A polynomial is **separable**, if all its irreducible factors are separable

Example 2.9. $X^4 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is irreducible, and since char $\mathbb{Q} = 0$, it follows from the previous corollary that it separable. Note that $(X^4 + 1)^{15}$ is also separable, in the reducible sense.

Let E/k be a field extension, $\alpha \in E$ $\varphi_{\alpha} : k[X] \to E$ the evaluation homomorphism at α . Then Ker φ_{α} is an ideal in k[X]. There are two possibilities

• Ker $\varphi_{\alpha} = \{0\}$. We then say that α is **transcendent** over k.

• Ker $\varphi_{\alpha} \neq \{0\}$ and we say that α is **algebraic** over k. Since k[x] is a PID there exists a unique unitary (leading coefficient = 1) polynomial $\operatorname{irr}(\alpha, k)$ that generates $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi_{\alpha}$, i.e. $(\operatorname{Ker} \varphi_{\alpha} = (\operatorname{irr}(\alpha, k))$. We call this polynomial the **minimal polynomial** (and sometimes write $m_{\alpha,k}$.

Since $m_{\alpha,k}$ is irreducible and k[X] is a euclidean domain, it follows that $k[x]/\ker \varphi_{\alpha}$ is a field and φ_{α} induces a field isomorphism

$$\overline{\varphi}_{\alpha}: {}^{k[X]}/_{\operatorname{Ker}\varphi_{\alpha}} \to k(\alpha)$$

Let $\varphi: k \to k'$ be a field isomorphism. By the universal property of the polynomial ring, this induces a ring isomorphism

$$\varphi_*: k[X] \to k'[X], \quad \varphi_*(a_n X^n + \dots a_0) := \varphi(a_n) X^n + \dots \varphi(a_0)$$

Since φ_* is a ring isomorphism it follows that $p \in k[x]$ is irreducible if and only $\varphi_*(p)$ is irreducible.

Lemma 2.10 (Rotman 3.130). Sei $\varphi: K \to K'$ ein Körperisomorphismus, $f \in K[X]$ irreduzibel und $f_* = \varphi_*(f) \in K'[X]$.

Dann gibt es für alle $\alpha \in R(f)$, $\beta \in R(f_*)$ einen Körperisomorphismus $\widehat{\varphi} : K(\alpha) \to K'(\beta)$ der φ erweitert und α auf β abbildet.

Beweis. Da K[X] ein Hauptidealring und $f \in K[X]$ irreduzibel ist, ist (f) ein maximales Ideal. Insbesondere ist K[X]/(f) ein Körper. Weiterin ist α eine Nullstelle von f und da f irreduzibel ist, generiert f gerade den Kern des Evaluationshomomorphismus: Ker $\operatorname{ev}_{\alpha} = (f)$. Dasselbe gilt natürlich auch für f_* . Darum induziert φ_* mit dem Ersten Isomorphiesatz einen Körperisomorphismus

$$K[X] \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} K'[X]$$

$$\downarrow^{\pi_1} \qquad \downarrow^{\pi_2}$$

$$K[X] \xrightarrow{\overline{\varphi_*}} K'[X] \xrightarrow{K'[X]} \ker \operatorname{ev}_{\beta}$$

Diese Abbildung ist wohldefiniert, da die Abbildung $\pi_2 \circ \varphi_* : K[X] \to K'[X]$ Ker ev_β für π_2 die kanonische Projektion einen Ringhomomorphismus ist und als Kern gerade Ker $\pi_2 \circ \varphi_* = \operatorname{Ker} \operatorname{ev}_\alpha$ hat. Zuletzt benutzen wir gerade die Definition der Adjunktion von Nullstellen an einem Körper und erhalten somit Körperisomorphismen Φ, Ψ :

$$\Phi: K[X]/_{\operatorname{Ker}\operatorname{ev}_{\alpha}} \to K(\alpha), \quad \operatorname{und} \quad \Psi: K'[X]/_{\operatorname{Ker}\operatorname{ev}_{\beta}} \to K'(\beta)$$

und man beachte, dass dies wegen $\varphi_*(f) = f_*$ gerade α auf β abbildet. Wir können die ganze Argumentation in einem Diagramm zusammenfassen.

$$K \xrightarrow{\varphi} K' \downarrow \qquad \downarrow \downarrow \\ K[X] \xrightarrow{\varphi_*} K'[X] \downarrow^{\pi_1} \downarrow^{\pi_2} \\ K[X] \swarrow_{\text{Ker ev}_{\alpha}} \xrightarrow{\overline{\varphi_*}} K'[X] \swarrow_{\text{Ker ev}_{\beta}} \downarrow^{\wr \Psi} \\ \downarrow^{\wr \Phi} \qquad \downarrow^{\wr \Psi} \\ K(\alpha) \xrightarrow{\widehat{\varphi} = \Psi \circ \overline{\varphi_*} \circ \Phi^{-1}} K'(\beta)$$

und sehen, dass $\widehat{\varphi} = \Psi \circ \overline{\varphi_*} \circ \Phi^{-1}$ gerade die gewünschten Eigenschaften hat.

A stronger version of this lemma is the following proposition:

Proposition 2.10.1. Let $k \subseteq B \subseteq E$ be field extensions where E is the splitting field of some $g \in k[x]$. Then, any automorphism $\sigma : B \to B$ can be extended to an automorphism $\Sigma : E \to E$

Proof. We prove this using induction on [E:k]. If [E:k]=1, then f splits in linear factors in k[X] and the same is true for f_* .

Theorem 2.11 (Rotman 3.7). Let $\varphi: k \to k'$ be a field isomorphism, $f \in k[X]$, $f_* = \varphi_*(f)$ and E/k be a splitting field of f and E_* a splitting field of f_* .

If f is seperable, then there are exactly [E:k] isomorphisms $\Phi: E \to E_*$ extending φ . In particular, $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/k)| = [E:k]$ as we can just take k' = k, E' = E and use $\varphi = \operatorname{id}_k$.

Proof. We prove this using induction on [E:k]. For [E:k]=1 it's clear as f already splits over k. If [E:k]>1, then there exists an irreducible factor $p \in k[X]$ of f of highest degree $\deg p=d>1$. So if we write $f=p\cdot g$ for some $g\in k[X]$ then we can use the fact that φ_* is a ring isomorphism to get

$$\varphi_*(f) = \varphi_*(p)\varphi_*(g) = p_* \cdot g_* = f_*$$

since p is irreducible, so too must be p_* and separable as $\deg(p_*) = \deg(p) = d > 1$. If we name the roots $\alpha_1^*, \ldots, \alpha_d^*$ we can use the previous lemma, which gives us for every α_i^* an Isomorphism

$$\hat{\varphi}_i : k(\alpha_i) \to k'(\alpha_i^*) \text{ with } \hat{\varphi}_i(\alpha) = \alpha_i^*$$

extending φ . Now write $\alpha = \alpha_i$ for some i to clear up the notation.

We can view the fields $k(\alpha)$ and $k(\alpha^*)$ as subfields of E and E_* , respectively.

Using the multiplicity of the field extension dimensions we get

$$[E:k(\alpha)] = \frac{[E:k]}{[k(\alpha):k]} = \frac{[E:k]}{d} < [E:k]$$

using induction on $[E:k(\alpha)]$, we get that there should be exactly $[E:k(\alpha)$ isomorphisms extending $\hat{\varphi}:k(\alpha)\to k'(\alpha_*)$ to $E\to E_*$. [<???>]

Now we can look at $f \in k[X]$ as polynomials with coefficients in $k(\alpha)$. Same goes for f_* . By the universal property of the polynomial ring, this then induces an isomorphism

$$(\widehat{\varphi})_*: k(\alpha) \to k(\alpha_*)$$

which maps $f \in k(\alpha)[X]$ to $f_* \in k(\alpha_*)[X]$. So they are both separable again. [</???>]

Doing this for all $1 \le i \le d$ we get exactly

$$d \cdot [E : k(\alpha)] = [k(\alpha) : k][E : k(\alpha)] = [E : k]$$

isomorphisms $E \to E_*$ extending φ .

Corollary 2.11.1 (Rotman 3.9). Let E/k be a splitting field of a separable polynomial $f \in k[X]$ of degree $\deg(f) = n$. If f is irreducible, then n divides $|\operatorname{Gal}(E/k)|$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in R(f) \subseteq E$. Then $k(\alpha) \subseteq E$ and since f is irreducible $[k(\alpha) : k] = n = \deg f$. From the previous theorem (the special case) we immediately get that

$$|\operatorname{Gal}(E/k)| = [E:k] = [E:k(\alpha)] \cdot [k(\alpha):k] = [E:k(\alpha)] \cdot n$$

Theorem 2.12 (Rotman 3.15). Let p be prime, $n \ge 1 \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $Gal(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p) \cong \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ an a generating element is given by the **Frobenius** homomorphism

$$Fr: \mathbb{F}_{p^n} \to \mathbb{F}_{p^n}, \quad x \mapsto x^p$$

Proof. Note that the group of units has $|\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^{\times}| = p^n - 1$ elements. So $\mathbb{F}_{p^n}^{\times}$ is exactly the roots of the polynomial $X^{p^n-1} - 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$.

This polynomial has no multiple roots, which means it is separable. So using the previous theorem, we get that $|\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p)| = [\mathbb{F}_{p^n} : \mathbb{F}_p] = n$.

We now show that Fr generates all n Elements of the Galois group. For $k \geq 1 \in \mathbb{N}$ we can see that $\operatorname{Fr}^k(\xi) = \xi^{p^k}$. Let m be the order of $\operatorname{Fr} \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{F}_{p^n}/\mathbb{F}_p)$. This means that we would have $\xi^{p^m} = \xi$ for all $\xi \in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}$ which gives us $n \leq m \leq n$.

Theorem 2.13. Let p be prime and $f \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ with $\deg f = p$ and a splitting field E. Assume that f is irreducible and f has exactly p-2 real roots. Then $\operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q}) \cong S_p$.

We know from the previous corollary that deg f = p divides $|Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})|$. To complete the proof, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 2.14 (Cauchy). Let G be a finite group and p prime that divides the order of G. Then G contains an element of order p.

We could obviously use the Sylow-theorem to prove the existence of a subgroup of order p, but there is also a more elementary proof.

Proof Lemma. Let

$$\Gamma_p = \{(g_1, \dots, g_p) \in G^p | g_1 \dots g_p = e\} \subseteq G^p$$

and define a group action of the symmetry group S_p on G^p by permutation of the elements. We claim that the *p*-cycle $\sigma = (1, 2, ..., p) \in S_p$ is an invariant, since

$$g_2 \dots g_p g_1 = g_1^{-1}(g_1 \dots g_p)g_1 = g_1^{-1}eg_1 = e$$

and therefore, the cyclic subgroup generated by σ also keeps Γ_p invariant. If we let $C_p = \{id, \sigma, \dots, \sigma^{p-1}\} < S_p$, then we see that Γ_p can be written as the disjoint union of C_p orbits.

Further, the only possible cardinalities of a C_p orbit is either 1 or p. Since p divides $|G|^{p-1}$ it must also divide the cardinality of the set of C_p orbits of cardinality 1. So there is at least one non-trivial element there. But the only possible C_p orbits of cardinality 1 are orbits of elements of the form (h, h, \ldots, h) with the trivial element being (e, e, \ldots, e) .

This shows the existence of such an h with order p.

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Proof Theorem. Consider the field extension \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{Q} . Since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, we can chose a splitting field E of f with $Q \subseteq E \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. Let $R(f) = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_p\}$ be the roots of f and order them such that $\{\alpha_3, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Since $f \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$, its coefficients are real, so $\alpha_2 = \overline{\alpha_1}$. Using Lemma 2.4 we can identify $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$ with a subgroup of $S_{R(f)} = S_p$, so we have the inclusion $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q}) \subseteq S_p$.

If we write $\epsilon : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$ to be the complex conjucation, then we have $\epsilon(E) = E$, so $\epsilon|_E \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$ corresponds to the transposition $\tau_{12} \in S_p$.

We also know from Coroallary 2.11.1 that since f is irreducible, p divides $|Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})|$. Cauchy's Lemma then says that there exists an element of order p in $Gal(E/\mathbb{Q})$. But the elements of order p are exactly the p-cycles in S_p .

From exercise sheet 03 problem 6, the p-cycles and a transposition generate S_p , which concludes the proof.

A remarkable thing about this proof is that it combines knowledge about fields, finite groups and permutation groups.

Example 2.15. We wish to compute the Galois group of $f = X^5 - 4X + 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. f fulfills the Eisenstein criterion for the prime p = 2 so it is irreducible (and prime). f also has exactly 3 = 5 - 2 real roots, because $f' = 5X^4 - 4$ has two real roots $\pm \sqrt[4]{\frac{4}{5}}$.

There exists a correspondence between irreducibility and transitivity of the Galois group.

Corollary 2.15.1 (Rotman 3.14). Let $f \in k[X]$ and let E be a splitting field of f. If f has no multiple roots, then

$$f$$
 is irreducible \iff Gal (E/K) acts transitively on $R(f)$

Note: the implication \implies holds without the assumption that f has no mltiple roots as the following proof will show.

Proof. Let f be irreducible. Recall that transitivtiy means that for every $\alpha, \beta \in R(f)$ there exists a $g \in Gal(E/k)$ such that $g \cdot \alpha = \beta$.

This is just the special case for Theorem 2.10 for k' = k and $\varphi = \mathrm{id}_K$. See Exercise sheet 02 problem 3 for details.

Now, assume the group action $\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \to R(f)$ is transitive and let f = pq for $p, q \in K[X]$. Then $R(p), R(q) \subseteq R(f)$. Since f has no multiple roots $R(p) \cap R(q) = \emptyset$. But since the group action is transitive, it means that one of R(p), R(q) is empty or else that would mean a $g \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$ would map an element of R(p) to an element of R(q) but since $\operatorname{Gal}(E/k)R(p) \subseteq R(p)$ it means that their intersection is non-empty. Since either one of p or q has no roots, f is irreducible.

Definition 2.16. A field extension E/k is calld **normal** if it is a splitting field of a polynomial $f \in k[X]$.

Note: If E/B and B/k are field extensions such that E/k is normal, then E/B is also normal as we can take the same polynomial $f \in k[X] \subseteq B[X]$.

Theorem 2.17. Let E/B and B/k be finite extensions such that E/k and B/k are normal. Then for all $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k), \sigma(B) = B$ and the group homomorphism

$$Gal(E/k) \to Gal(B/k), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_{B}$$

is surjective with kernel Gal(E/B).

Proof. Let $f \in k[X]$ be the polynomial such that B is the splitting field of f. From Lemma ??, it follows that

$$\sigma(R(f)) = R(f), \quad \forall \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$$

so since B = k(R(f)), we also get $\sigma(B) = B$. Therefore, the group homomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \to \operatorname{Gal}(B/k)$ is indeed well defined. The kernel is obiously $\operatorname{Gal}(E/B)$. To show surjectivity, let $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(B/k)$. Because E/k is normal, there exists a $g \in k[X]$ such that E is the splitting field of g. But then, the induced ring homomorphism σ_* maps g to g, and as such, Lemma 2.10.1 says that that σ can be extended to an automorphism $\Sigma : E \to E$ with $\Sigma|_B = \sigma$.

In the exercise sheet 4 problem 6 we will prove the following theorem

Theorem 2.18. A finite extension E/k is normal if and only if every irreducible polynomial $f \in k[X]$ that has a root in E also splits over E.

3 Resolvable groups

In this section, we will prove the insolvability of the quntic using radicals. The main problem is to find a good definition of what a *formula* using some arithmetic operations *is*.

For this, we will start with a **field**, which is closed under the normal operations. Then we define **pure extensions**, which are field extensions obtained by adjoining roots of polynomials. Then, we introduce **radical extensions** and **resolvable extensions** to check whether a polynomial can be solved. This will result in Galois' theorem.

Theorem (Galois). Let $f \in k[x]$ and E be its splitting field. If f is solvable using radicals, then Gal(E/k) is a resolvable group.

Let $K = k(\alpha)$ be a field extension of k for some $\alpha \neq 0$. Then the set

$$\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : \alpha^n \in k\}$$

is a subgroup of \mathbb{Z} and therefore of the form $m\mathbb{Z}$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. But it could be that no powers of α are in k. (For example $\mathbb{Q}(\pi)$). Then $m\mathbb{Z} = 0$.

Definition 3.1. The field extension $k(\alpha)/k$ is said to be a **pure extension** of type $m \ge 1$ if

$$\{m\mathbb{Z}=n\in\mathbb{Z}:\alpha^k\in k\}\neq 0$$

We say that a field extension K/k is **radical** if there exists a tower of pure field extensions

$$k = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq K_t = K, \quad K_{i+1}/K_i \text{ pure}$$

A polynomial $f \in k[X]$ is said to be **solvable by radicals**, if there exists a splitting field of f contained in a radical extension of k.

We see that this defintion of radically solvable polynomials matches with our intuition that the m-th root of a number in k has a power that is in k again.

Example 3.2. Let $f(x) = X^2 + bX + c \in k[X]$ and E be a splitting field of f containing its roots $R(f) = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\}.$

Plugging in a root and expanding binomially, we get

$$0 = \alpha^2 + b\alpha + c = \left(\alpha + \frac{b}{2}\right)^2 + c - \frac{b^2}{4}$$

so if $u := \alpha_1 + \frac{b}{2} \in E/k(u)$, then $u^2 = \frac{b^2}{4} - c \in k$. But since $E = k(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$ and

$$\alpha_1 = u - \frac{b}{2}$$
, $\alpha_2 + \alpha_1 = -b \implies \alpha_2 = -b - \alpha_1 = -u - \frac{b}{2}$

so E = k(u).

Let $k(\alpha)/k$ be a pure extension of type m. If we consider the prime factorisation $m = p_1 \dots p_r$, then we can look at the towers

$$k(\alpha) \supset k(\alpha^{p_1}) \supset k(\alpha^{p_1p_2} \supset \ldots \supset k(\alpha^m) = k$$

where every extension is of type p_i . This leads us to study $X^p - c \in k[x]$.

Lemma 3.3. Let p be prime and $f = X^p - c \in k[X]$. Then

- (a) There are two cases: f is irreducible, or c is the p-th power of an element in k.
- (b) Let E/k be the splitting field of f and assume k contains all p-th roots of 1. Let $\alpha \in E, \alpha \in R(f)$, then $E = k(\alpha)$ and
 - (i) If f is irreducible and $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq p$, then $\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$
 - (ii) If f is irreducible and char(k) = p, then $Gal(E/k) = \{e\}$.
 - (iii) If f is reducible, then E = k (and $Gal(E/k) \cong (e)$)
- Proof. (a) If f is reducible, then f = gh for some $g = X^d + b_{d-1}X^{d-1} + \ldots + b_0, 1 \le d < p$. Let E/k be a splitting field of $f = X^p c$ and $\alpha \in R(f)$. If $\beta \in R(f)$ is another root, then $\alpha^p = \beta^p = c \implies \frac{\alpha^p}{\beta^p} = 1$. Therefore we can write

$$R(f) = \{\alpha \cdot \xi | \xi^p = 1\}$$

and since $R(g) \subseteq R(f)$ and b_0 is the product of all roots of g, we have $b_0 = \alpha^d \cdot \eta$ for some $\eta^p = 1$.

$$\implies b_0^p = \alpha^{dp} = c^d$$

but since p is prime and $1 \le d < p$, p and d have no common divisors, so there exist $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that rp + sd = 1. This gives us

$$c = c^{rp+sd} = c^{rp}c^{ds} = c^{rp}b_0^{ps} = (c^rb_0^s)^p$$

(b) By assumption, k contains all the roots of 1. By our trick $\frac{\alpha^p}{\beta^p} = 1$, the roots of f must be of the form

$$R(f) = {\alpha \zeta : \zeta^p = 1} \implies E = k(\alpha)$$

(i) Because $\operatorname{char}(k) \neq p$ and f is irreducible we have that the derivative is $f' = pX^{p-1} \neq 0$. Since $\gcd(f, f') = 1$, f is also separable by the $\gcd(f, f')$ lemma. By Theorem 2.11, we have

$$|Gal(E/k)| = |[E:k]| = |[k(\alpha):k]| = p$$

and since the only groups of order p are cyclic, $Gal(E/k) \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

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Other parts of lemma???

Now that polynomials that can be solved by radicals have a splitting field contained in a radical extension, we can ask when are radical extensions contained in a normal extension? We want to get a tower $k \subseteq E \subseteq K \subseteq F$, where E is normal and F is normal and radical.

Looking at the tower $k \subseteq E \subseteq F$ of normal extensions E/k, F/k and applying theorem 2.17 we get a surjective homomorphism

$$Gal(F/k) \to Gal(E/k), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_E$$

If we can show that Gal(F/k) is resolvable, then it follows that Gal(E/k) is also resolvable. Resulting in the theorem stating that every subgroup and anevery quotient of a resolvable group are again resolvable. For the next two lemmata, we set the context as follows:

- Let $B = k(u_1, ..., u_t)$ be a finite extension. This in particular means that $u_1, ..., u_t$ are algebraic (or else it wouldn't be a finite extension)
- Let $p_i = \operatorname{irr}(u_i, k) \in k[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of u_i over k and let E be the splitting field of $f = p_1 \dots p_t \in k[x]$ and write $G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$.

The following lemma tells us how to construct E given the u_i .

Lemma 3.4. E can be obtained by adjoining $\sigma(u_i)$ for all $\sigma \in Gal(E/k)$, and all i

$$E = k (\sigma(u_1), \dots, \sigma(u_t), \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k))$$

Proof. Since E is the splitting field of $f = p_1 \dots p_t$, E contains all the roots of the p_i . Then for any $u, u' \in R(p_i)$ we can use Lemma 2.10 to find an isomorphism $\hat{\varphi} : k(u) \to k(u')$ extending the identity $\mathrm{id}_k : k \to k$.

Since $f \in k[x]$ can also be viewed as a polynomial $f \in k(u)[X]$, and the extension to the polynomial ring fixes $f: \hat{\varphi}_*(f) = f$, we can use the fact that E is a splitting field together with Proposition 2.10.1 to extend $\hat{\varphi}$ to an isomorphism $\Phi: E \to E$. In particular, we have $\Phi \in \text{Gal}(E/k)$ and $\Phi(u) = u'$.

Therefore, for all i, any root $u' \in R(p_i)$, there exists a $\sigma \in Gal(E/k)$ such that $\sigma(u_i) = u'$. So by writing

$$R(f) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{t} R(p_i) \subseteq \{\sigma(u_i) | 1 \le i \le t, \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)\}\$$

any root of f can be obtained by adjoining $\sigma(u_i)$ for the right $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E/k)$.

Lemma 3.5. In the context of the previous Lemma, assume that the u_i are ordered such that there exist $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$u_1^{m_1} \in K$$
, $u_2^{m_2} \in k(u_1)$, ... $u_t^{m_t} \in k(u_1, \dots, u_{t-1})$

Then E/k is a radical extension

Proof. For $\sigma_r \in \text{Gal}(E/k)$, set $B_0 = k, B_1 = k(\sigma_1(u_1), \dots, \sigma_l(u_l))$ and inductively, set $B_j = B_{j-1}(\sigma_1(u_j), \dots, \sigma_l(u_j))$. This results in a tower of extensions

$$k = B_0 \subseteq B_1 \subseteq B_2 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq B_t = E$$

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Now we show that B_1/k is a radical extension.

Using the assumption, we find that for any $1 \le r \le l$:

$$\sigma_r(u_1)^{m_1} = \sigma_r(\underbrace{u_1^{m_1}}_{\in k}) = u_1^{m_1} \in k \subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_1), \dots, \sigma_{r-1}(u_1))$$

So for all $1 \le r \le t$, the extension

$$k(\sigma_1(u_1),\ldots,\sigma_{r-1}(u_1))\subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_1),\ldots,\sigma_r(u_1))$$

is pure. Therefore, we get a tower or pure extensions

$$k \subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_i)) \subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_i), \sigma_2(u_i)) \subseteq \ldots \subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_i), \ldots, \sigma_{r-1}(u_i)) \subseteq k(\sigma_1(u_i), \ldots, \sigma_r(u_i)) \subseteq \ldots = B_1$$

which means that $k \subseteq B_1$ is radical.

The same argument goes for the other B_j/B_{j-1} , so E/k is radical.

Corollary 3.5.1. Let K/k be a radical extension. Then there exists a field F with $k \subseteq K \subseteq F$ such that F/k is radical and normal.

Recall the definition for resolvable groups. A group G is resolvable, if there exists a subnormal sequence

$$\{e\} = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft \ldots \triangleleft G_t = G$$

such that the factor groups G_{i+1}/G_i are abelian.

And we also saw that A_n, S_n were resolvable for $n \geq 4$. There is a criterion for when a group is resolvable, that uses iterated commutator groups:

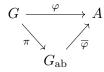
For a group G, let [G, G] be the subgroup generated by $\{[a, b] | a, b \in G\}$, where $[a, b] = aba^{-1}b^{-1}$. This subgroup [G, G] is a normal divisor of G and also characteristic, which means that it is invariant under automorphisms of G ($\forall \alpha \in \text{Aut}(G), \alpha([G, G]) = [G, G]$).

In Algebra I, we inductively defined

$$G^{(1)} := [G,G], \quad G^{(j+1)} := [G^{(j)},G^{(j)}]$$

and saw that G is resolvable if and only if there exists an n such that $G^{(n)} = \{e\}$.

We sometimes write $G_{ab} := G/[G, G]$, which is the largest abelian quotient of G in the sense that for any homomorphism to an abelian group $\varphi : G \to A$, then φ factors through G_{ab} . That is, there exists a unique group homomorphism $\overline{\varphi} : G_{ab} \to A$ such that the following diagram commutes



Proposition 3.5.1. (a) If H < G, then G resolvable $\implies H$ resolvable.

(b) If $N \triangleleft G$, then G is resolvable if and only if N and G/N are resolvable.

Proof. Note that if $\varphi: G \to L$ is a homomorphism, then

$$\varphi([a,b]) = [\varphi(a), \varphi(b)], \quad \forall a, b \in G$$

so $\varphi([G,G]) \subseteq [L,L]$. In particular, if φ is surjective, then $\varphi([G,G]) = [L,L]$.

- (a) Since H < G, we can consider the embedding $\varphi : H \to G$ to get $[H, H] \to [G, G]$. Inductively, we also get $H^{(j)} \subseteq G^{(j)}$, so if G is resolvable for $G^{(n)} = \{e\}$, then $H^{(n)} \subseteq G^{(n)} = \{e\}$.
- (b) If G is resolvable, then, by (a), N is resovable. Taking the surjective quotient map $\pi: G \to G/N$, we get $\pi([G,G]) = [G/N,G/N]$, and also inductively, $\pi(G^j) = (G/N)^{(j)}$.

Now, assume that N and G/N are resolvable. Then there exists an $n \geq 1$ such that

$$\{e\} = (G/N)^{(n)} = \pi(G^n) \implies G^{(n)} \subseteq N$$

but since N is resolvable, there exists a $l \ge 1$ such that $N^{(l)} = \{e\}$. Therefore

$$G^{(n+l)} = (G^{(n)})^{(l)} \subseteq N^l = \{e\}$$

Now we are finally able to prove the following:

Theorem 3.6. Let E be a splitting field of $f \in k[X]$. If f is solvable by radicals, then Gal(E/k) is a resolvable group.

The proof makes use of the following observation

Lemma 3.7. For a tower of field extensions $k = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq ... \subseteq K_t$ such that

- (a) K_t/k is normal
- (b) K_i/K_{i-1} is a pure extension of prime type p_i
- (c) k contains all p_i -th roots of 1.

Then $Gal(K_t/k)$ is resolvable

The sketch of the proof is as follows: If f is solvable with radicals, then there exists a field L with $k \subseteq E \subseteq L$ and L/k radical.

Using Corollary 3.5.1 there exists a field F with $k \subseteq E \subseteq L \subseteq F$ such that F/k is radical and normal.

The lemma then says that Gal(F/k) is resovaable, and since

$$\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(F/k)/\operatorname{Gal}(F/E)$$

it follows that Gal(E/k) is resolvable.

Proof Lemma. Set $G = \text{Gal}(K_t/k)$, $G_1 = \text{Gal}(K_t/K_1)$, $G_2 = \text{Gal}(K_t/K_2)$ etc. and we obtain a sequence of groups

$$\{e\} = G_t \subseteq G_{t-1} \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G_2 \subseteq G_1 \subseteq G$$

If u_i is the adjoint of the *i*-th pure extension: $K_i = K_{i-1}(u_i)$, which by assumption satisfies $u_i^{p_i} \in K_{i-1}$, we consider the polynomial

$$f_i(X) = X^{p_i} - c_i \in K_{i-1}[X]$$
 where $c_i = u_i^{p_i} \in K_{i-1}$

In 3.3 (a) we saw that either f is irreducible or c_i is the p_i -th power of an element in K_{i-1} .

But by assumption, $u_i \notin K_{i-1}$, so f_i is irreducible and K_{i-1} contains all p_i -th roots of 1. Therefore, K_i is a splitting field of $f_i \in K_{i-1}[X]$.

By the same Lemma, $Gal(K_i/K_{i-1})$ is either $\mathbb{Z}/p_i\mathbb{Z}$ or $\{e\}$.

Furthermore, because K_i/K_{i-1} is normal and the cyclic group is abelian, the sequence of groups $G_t \subseteq \ldots \subseteq G_1 \subseteq G$ is indeed a subnormal sequence with abelian quotients.

Proof Theorem. Let $f \in k[X]$ be solvable by radicals and E a splitting field of f. By Corollary 3.5.1 we can assume that there exists a field K such that K/k is radical and normal Let

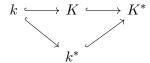
$$k = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq K_t = K$$
, where $K_i = K_{i-1}(u_i)$, and $u_i^{p_i} \in K_{i-1}$

be the corresponding chain of fields. Set $m = \prod_{i=1}^{t} p_i$ and let

$$k^* = \text{ splitting field of } X^m - 1 \in k[X]$$

$$K^* = \text{ splitting field of } X^m - 1 \in K[X]$$

In exercise sheet 6, we proved that since K/k and K^*/K are normal, also K^*/k is normal. Looking at the diagram



we claim that $Gal(K^*/k^*)$ is resolvable. By setting

$$K_0^* = k^*, K_1^* = K_0^*(u_1), \dots, K_i^* = K_{i-1}^*(u_i)$$

we obtain a tower from k^* to K^* . Since $u_i^{p_i} \in K_{i-1} \subseteq K_{i-1}^*$, these extensions are all pure, but their prime type might have changed from p_i to something else.

Either it's still p_i , or $\{m \in \mathbb{Z} | u_i^m \in K_{i-1}^*\} = \mathbb{Z}$, in which case $K_i^* = K_{i-1}^*$.

So by the Lemma, $\operatorname{Gal}(K^*/k^*)$ is resolvable.

Now we claim that $Gal(k^*/k)$ is resolvable. Let

$$\Gamma_m(k^*) = \{ \xi \in k^* | \xi^m = 1 \}$$

be the set of roots of $X^m - 1$ in k^* . Then $\Gamma_m(k^*)$ is a finite subgroup of $(k^*)^{\times}$ and thus cyclic. We also know that the restriction homomorphism

$$\operatorname{Gal}(k^*/k) \to \operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma_m(k^*)), \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_{\Gamma_m(k^*)}$$

is injective. But since $\operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma_m(k^*))$ is abelian, so is $\operatorname{Gal}(k^*/k)$.

Now we know that from $k \subseteq k^* \subseteq K^*$ we get

$$\operatorname{Gal}(K^*/k)/\operatorname{Gal}(K^*/k^*) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(k^*/k)$$

and from proposition 3.5.1 $Gal(K^*/k)$ is resolvable.

And looking at $k \subseteq E \subseteq K^*$ we get

$$\operatorname{Gal}(E/k) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(K^*/k)/\operatorname{Gal}(K^*)/E$$

we get $Gal(K^*/k)$ resolvable $\implies Gal(E/k)$ resolvable.

Corollary 3.7.1 (Abels-Ruffini). For $n \geq 5$, the general polynomial

$$f(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - y_i)$$

is not solvable by radicals.

Proof. Considering $f \in k(y_1, \ldots, y_n)[X]$ we can write

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - y_i) = X^n - s_1 X^{n-1} + \ldots + (-1)^n s_n$$

so we also get $f \in k(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$. If we set $E = k(s_1, \ldots, s_n) \subseteq k(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = F$, then $f \in E[X]$ and F is a splitting field of f.

We wish to compute Gal(E/F) and notice that we get an injective group homomorphism

$$Gal(E/F) \to S_{\{y_1,\dots,y_n\}}, \quad \sigma \mapsto \sigma|_{\{y_1,\dots,y_n\}}$$

Now let $s \in S_n$ and $R \in F$ and define

$$(\sigma_s R)(y_1, \dots, y_n) = R(y_{y_{s(1)}}, \dots, y_{s(n)})$$

and it's easy to show that $\sigma_s \in \text{Aut } F$, where $\sigma_s(s_j) = s_j$ and as such, the restriction homomorphism is a bijection

$$\sigma_s \in \operatorname{Gal}(F/E) \cong S_n$$

So for $n \geq 5$, we know that $[S_n, S_n] = A_n$ is simple and non-abelian, thus $Gal(F/E) = S_n$ is not solvable. By the theorem, it follows that f is not solvable by radicals.

Corollary 3.7.2. The polynomial $f = X^5 - 4X + 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is not solvable by radicals because $Gal(f) = S_5$

The abels ruffini corollary does not fully capture the power of the theorem, which says something deeper that just finding roots of polynomials.

Lecture 8 missing