## GRV, facts about field extensions.

1. Let $F$ be a field and let $\alpha \in K$ where $K$ is a field extension of $F$ (field extension means: $F$ and $K$ are fields, and $F \subseteq K$ ).
The following conditions are equivalent, and we say that $\alpha$ is algebraic over $F$ when these equivalent conditions hold:
(a) There is a nonzero polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ for which $f(\alpha)=0$.
(b) There is an irreducible polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ for which $f(\alpha)=0$.

Notation: this polynomial is denoted as $m_{\alpha, F}(x)$. It is the monic polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ of minimal degree for which $f(\alpha)=0$.
(c) $F[\alpha]=F(\alpha)$.
(d) $F[\alpha]$ is a field.
(e) $[F(\alpha): F]$ is finite.

Definition: $[F(\alpha): F]$ is the dimension of $F(\alpha)$ as a vector space over $F$. If this dimension $n=[F(\alpha): F]$ is finite (if $\alpha$ is algebraic) then $n=\operatorname{degree}\left(m_{\alpha, F}(x)\right)$. We can use the minimal polynomial $m_{\alpha, F}(x)$ to write $\alpha^{n}, \alpha^{n+1}, \ldots$ as $F$-linear combinations of $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}$. So $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}$ will be a basis of $F[\alpha]=F(\alpha)$ as an $F$-vector space. Another important fact is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(\alpha) \cong F[x] /\left(m_{\alpha, F}(x)\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. Given a field $F$ and an element $\alpha \in K$ where $K$ is a field extension of $F$, how do we find, if it exists, a nonzero polynomial $f \in F[x]$ for which $f(\alpha)=0$ ?
Answer: Compute $1, \alpha, \alpha^{2}, \ldots$ and try to find a linear relation. If $\sum a_{i} \alpha^{i}=$ 0 then $f(x)=\sum a_{i} x^{i}$.
For example, suppose that $\alpha=a+b$ where $a$ is a solution of $x^{2}+x+1=0$ (i.e. $a^{2}=-a-1$ ) and $b=2^{1 / 3}$ (i.e. $b$ is a solution of $x^{3}-2$, so $b^{3}=2$ ). Lets take $F=\mathbb{Q}$. Looking at powers of $a$, you see that $a^{2}, a^{3}, \ldots$ can be simplified to $\mathbb{Q}$-linear combinations of $1, a$. Likewise, $b^{3}, b^{4}, \ldots$ can be simplified to $\mathbb{Q}$-linear combinations of $1, b, b^{2}$. Therefore, any product of the form $a^{k} b^{l}$ can be simplified to a $\mathbb{Q}$-linear combination of these six numbers: $B=\left\{a^{i} b^{j} \mid i \in\{0,1\}, j \in\{0,1,2\}\right\}$. So if we think of $\mathbb{Q}[a, b]$ (same as $\mathbb{Q}(a, b)$, use item 1 c twice) as a $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space then $B$ is a basis. Then you compute $1, \alpha, \alpha^{2}, \ldots$ and if you expand these then you get combinations of $a^{k} b^{l}$. When you simplify those, you get linear combinations of the elements of $B$. But since $B$ has only 6 elements, the moment you write down 7 linear combinations of elements of $B$, you must get a linear dependence. Hence, $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{6}$ must be linearly dependent over $\mathbb{Q}$. So we use linear algebra (find linear equations for the $a_{i}$ and then solve them) to find such a linear relation $\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} \alpha^{i}=0$ (in this example $n=6$ suffices). Then we can take $p(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} x^{i}$.
In this example, we find $p(x)=x^{6}+3 x^{5}+6 x^{4}+3 x^{3}+9 x+9$.
3. Given a field $F$ and an element $\alpha \in K$ where $K$ is a field extension of $F$ how do we find, if it exists, the minimal polynomial $m_{\alpha, F}(x)$.
Answer: Same as in item 2, except that we have to make sure that the $n$ in the linear relation $\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} \alpha^{i}=0$ is as small as we can make it. In the example in item 2 , for $m_{\alpha, \mathbb{Q}}$ we find the same polynomial $p(x)$. In general, for computing a minpoly we do have to be more careful than we need to be in item 2. Take for instance $\beta=a b$ where $a, b$ are as in item 2 . The same reasoning shows that $\beta^{0}, \ldots, \beta^{6}$ must be linearly dependent; after all, these seven numbers $\beta^{0}, \ldots, \beta^{6}$ are linear combinations of $B$, and $B$ has only six elements. However, for finding a linear relation between $\beta^{0}, \beta^{1}, \ldots$, the number 6 is not minimal, because in fact $\beta^{0}, \ldots, \beta^{3}$ are already linearly dependent over $\mathbb{Q}$. The minpoly for $\beta$ is $x^{3}-2$ (you can see this when you realize that $a^{3}=1$ ).
Since $\beta$ has the same minpoly over $\mathbb{Q}$ as the number $b$, we get from the formula (1) above that both $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$ and $\mathbb{Q}(b)$ are isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}[x] /\left(x^{3}-2\right)$. Therefore these two fields must also be isomorphic to each other: $\mathbb{Q}(\beta) \cong$ $\mathbb{Q}(b)$ despite the fact that the two fields are not equal (one of them is a subfield of $\mathbb{R}$ while the other is not).
As another example, lets compute a polynomial for the same $\alpha=a+b$ as in item 2 , but this time $F=\mathbb{Q}(a)$. If we do not care about minimality, then we can give the same polynomial as in item 2. However, if we look for a polynomial of minimal degree, then we can use this larger field $F$ to give a lower degree polynomial. We can show that $x^{3}-2$ is still irreducible over $F$ using equation (2) in item 5 c below. Hence it must be the minpoly of $b$ over $F$. But then $(x-a)^{3}-2 \in F[x]$ must also be irreducible since it is simply a shift of $x^{3}-2$, and since this polynomial has $\alpha$ as a solution, it will be the minpoly of $\alpha$ over $F$.
4. Let $K$ be a field extension of $F$. Definitions
(a) $K$ is finite over $F$ when $[K: F]$ is finite.
(b) $K$ is algebraic over $F$ when every $\alpha \in K$ is algebraic over $F$.
(c) $K$ is finitely generated over $F$ if there exist finitely many $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n} \in$ $K$ for which $K=F\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$.
5. Let $F \subseteq K \subseteq L$ be fields.

Notation: $K / F$ does not mean $K$ modulo $F$ or something like it. When we write $K / F$ that means that we are looking at the extension $F \subseteq K$.
(a) $K / F$ is finite $\Longleftrightarrow K / F$ is algebraic and finitely generated.
(b) $L / F$ is algebraic $\Longleftrightarrow$ both $L / K$ and $K / F$ are algebraic.
(c) $L / F$ is finite $\Longleftrightarrow$ both $L / K$ and $K / F$ are finite.

This says that $[L: F]$ is finite iff both $[L: K]$ and $[K: F]$ are finite. In fact, we can say even more than that, namely the following:
If $B_{1}$ is a basis of $L$ as a $K$-vector space, and if $B_{2}$ is a basis of
$K$ as an $F$-vector space, then we get a basis of $L$ as an $F$-vector space by multiplying every element of $B_{1}$ by every element of $B_{2}$. In particular, this means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
[L: F]=[L: K] \cdot[K: F] \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This formula implies the impossibility of trisecting an angle with ruler and compass constructions because, starting with points with rational $x$ and $y$ coefficients, the coefficients of the points we can encounter with $n$ ruler/compass constructions are elements of a tower of $n$ field extensions $\mathbb{Q}=F_{0} \subseteq F_{1} \subseteq F_{2} \subseteq \ldots \subseteq F_{n}$ where $\left[F_{i+1}: F_{i}\right]$ is always either one or two (computing the coordinates of a point in one ruler/compass construction involves solving an equation of degree either 1 or 2 ). But trisections can produce a point with an $x$-coordinate such as $\alpha=\cos (2 \pi / 9)$. Now $\left[F_{n}: \mathbb{Q}\right]$ is a power of 2 so it is not divisible by $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha): \mathbb{Q}]=3$. Then equation (2) shows that $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ can not be a subfield of $F_{n}$, which implies that $\alpha \notin F_{n}$. Hence $\alpha$ is not constructible with $n$ ruler/compass constructions, for any $n$.
6. Let $K_{1}, K_{2}$ be intermediate fields of $K / F$ (so $F \subseteq K_{i} \subseteq K$ for $i=1,2$ ). Notation: $K_{1} K_{2}$ is the smallest subfield of $K$ that contains $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[K_{1} K_{2}: F\right] \leq\left[K_{1}: F\right] \cdot\left[K_{2}: F\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: Assume $n=\left[K_{1}: F\right]$ and $m=\left[K_{2}: F\right]$ are finite. Let $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}$ be a basis of $K_{1}$ as $F$-vector space, and $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{m}$ be a basis of $K_{2}$ as $F$-vector space. Then $S=\left\{b_{i} c_{j} \mid i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, j \in\{1, \ldots, m\}\right\}$ is a spanning set for $K_{1} K_{2}$ with $n m$ elements. Now [ $K_{1} K_{2}: F$ ] is the number of elements of a basis, and this is always $\leq$ to the number of elements of a spanning set.
Note: if $S$ is linearly independent, then the $\leq$ becomes an equality. But $S$ might be dependent (e.g. when $K_{1} \bigcap K_{2} \neq F$ ).
7. If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are algebraic over $F$ then so are $\alpha+\beta, \alpha-\beta, \alpha \beta$, as well as $\alpha / \beta$ if $\beta \neq 0$.
In particular, if you take the subset $S \subseteq K$ of all elements of $K$ that are algebraic over $F$, then this set $S$ is closed under $+,-, \cdot, /$ and hence this $S$ is a field. This $S$ is called the algebraic closure of $F$ in $K$, it is the largest subfield of $K$ that is still algebraic over $F$.

Note: the example in item 2 explains computationally why $\alpha+\beta$ should be algebraic over $F$ when $\alpha, \beta$ are algebraic over $F$.
8. A field $K$ is called algebraically closed when the following equivalent conditions hold:
(a) Every non-constant polynomial $f \in K[x]$ has at least one root in $K$.
(b) Every non-constant polynomial $f \in K[x]$ splits over $K$ (meaning: can be written as a product of linear factors with coefficients in $K$ ).
(c) Whenever $K \subseteq L$ is an algebraic extension we have $K=L$.
9. An algebraic closure of $F$ is a field, lets denote it as $\bar{F}$, with the following properties:
(a) $\bar{F}$ is an algebraic extension of $F$, and
(b) $\bar{F}$ is algebraically closed

For any field $F$ we can prove (if you accept the axiom of choice) that an algebraic closure exists, and that it is unique up to isomorphism, so we can call it the algebraic closure. We can think of $\bar{F}$ as "the largest field that is algebraic over $F$ ". But we can also describe $\bar{F}$ as "the smallest algebraically closed field that contains $F^{\prime \prime}$.

Note: If $F \subseteq K$ then these two fields
(a1) The algebraic closure of $F$, and
(a2) The algebraic closure of $F$ in $K$
are not the same, because (a1) is the largest algebraic extension of $F$ that can be found anywhere, whereas (a2) is the largest algebraic extension of $F$ that can be found inside of $K$. The two field (a1),(a2) are the same if and only if every non-constant polynomial in $F[x]$ splits over $K$.
For instance, $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is not the same as the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{R}$, but it is the same as (isomorphic to) the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{C}$.
10. A field $\bar{F}$ is the algebraic closure of $F$ when it satisfies these two properties:
(a) $\bar{F}$ is an algebraic extension of $F$, and
(b) Every non-constant polynomial in $F[x]$ splits in $\bar{F}[x]$.

Note: condition (10b) appears to be weaker than condition (9b), which says that every non-constant polynomial in $\bar{F}[x]$ splits in $\bar{F}[x]$. However, it turns out that, if we assume condition (9a), then the two conditions (9b) and (10b) become equivalent.
11. (you don't really need to know this). Construction of $\bar{F}$. Let $S$ be the set of all monic irreducible polynomials in $F[x]$. For each polynomial $f_{n} \in S$, if the degree is $d$ then introduce $d$ new variables, say $u_{n, 1}, \ldots, u_{n, d}$, and compute $f-\left(x-u_{n, 1}\right) \cdots\left(x-u_{n, d}\right)$ and write it as $\sum_{k=0}^{d-1} v_{n, k} x^{k}$ for some polynomials $v_{n, k} \in F\left[u_{n, 1}, \ldots, u_{n, d}\right]$. For instance, $v_{n, 0}$ is the constant term of $f_{n}$ minus the product of the $-u_{n, i}, i=1, \ldots, d$. Now let $R$ be
the polynomial ring over $F$ generated by all these variables $v_{n, i}$ (for all $f_{n} \in S$ and all $i=1, \ldots$, degree $\left.\left(f_{n}\right)\right)$. Let $I$ be the ideal in $R$ generated by all these polynomials $v_{n, k}$. Then we can embed $F \subseteq R / I$, and every irreducible polynomial $f_{n} \in F[x]$ will split in the ring $(R / I)[x]$. Problem is, this ring $R / I$ will not be a field. To fix this, let $M$ be a maximal ideal that contains $I$ (to prove that such $M$ exists, we need Zorn's lemma, which is equivalent to the Axiom of Choice). Then again every polynomial in $F[x]$ splits over $R / M$, but this time $R / M$ is a field. It is generated over $F$ by the $u_{n, i}+M$. Although there are infinitely many generators, they are all algebraic over $F$ (by construction, $x-\left(u_{n, i}+M\right)$ is a linear factor of $f_{n}(x)$ and so $u_{n+i}+M$ is a root of $\left.f(x)\right)$ and that makes $R / M$ an algebraic extension of $F$. Then $R / M$ is the algebraic closure by item 10 .
Take for example $F=\mathbb{Q}$, and $S=\left\{f_{1}, f_{2} \ldots\right\}$ is the set of all irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. For instance, $f_{1}=x^{2}+2 x+6, f_{2}=x^{2}+1, f_{3}=x^{3}-2$, etc. Now $f_{1}-\left(x-u_{1,1}\right)\left(x-u_{1,2}\right)=x^{0} \cdot\left(6-u_{1,1} u_{1,2}\right)+x^{1} \cdot\left(2+u_{1,1}+u_{1,2}\right)$ and repeating this for every other irreducible polynomial $f_{2}, f_{3}, \ldots$ we get $R / I=\mathbb{Q}\left[u_{1,1}, u_{1,2}, u_{2,1}, \ldots\right] /\left(6-u_{1,1} u_{1,2}, 2+u_{1,1}+u_{1,2}, \ldots\right)$. Looking at $I$ it is clear that in the ring $(R / I)[x]$ we can write $f_{1}$ as a product of linear factors $f_{1}=\left(x-\left(u_{1,1}+I\right)\right)\left(x-\left(u_{1,2}+I\right)\right)$, and the same is true for $f_{2}, f_{3}, \ldots$ etc. If $I \subseteq M$ then we can do the same in $(R / M)[x]$.
12. If $f \in F[x]$ is a non-constant polynomial then a field $K$ is called a splitting field for $f$ over $F$ if
(a) $F \subseteq K$
(b) $f$ splits into linear factors over $K$
(c) If $F \subseteq K^{\prime} \subsetneq K$ then $f$ does not split into linear factors over $K^{\prime}$.

We get an equivalent definition if we replace (c) by:
(c') $K=F\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right)$ where $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ are the roots of $f$ in $K$.
Given two splitting fields of $f$ over $F$, we can prove them to be isomorphic, and so we can call it the splitting field of $f$ over $F$. We can think of the splitting field as the smallest extension of $F$ over which $f$ splits, that is, the smallest field that contains both $F$ and all roots of $f$. Looking at (c') we see that the splitting field of $f$ over $F$ is an algebraic extension of $F$.
13. If $S$ is a set of non-constant polynomials in $F[x]$, then the splitting field of $S$ over $F$ is the smallest algebraic extension of $F$ over which every $f \in S$ splits into linear factors (such a field must exist, see item 11).

As an example, the splitting field of $S=\left\{x^{2}-2, x^{2}-3, x^{2}-5, x^{2}-7, \ldots\right\}$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{7}, \ldots)$.
14. A field extension $F \subseteq K$ is called a normal extension if the following two equivalent conditions hold:
(a) there is some set of polynomials $S \subseteq F[x]$ such that $K$ is the splitting field of $S$ over $F$.
(b) $K / F$ is algebraic, and for every irreducible polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$ we have the following

$$
f(x) \text { has a root in } K \Longleftrightarrow f(x) \text { splits over } K .
$$

In other words: if $f$ is irreducible in $F[x]$, and if $K$ contains at least one root of $f$, then it has to contain every root of $f$ ! That's a rather strong condition, and this makes it easy to give an example of an extension that is algebraic but not normal: $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}\left(2^{1 / 3}\right)$ is not normal since it contains one root (but not every root) of the irreducible polynomial $x^{3}-2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.
However, using condition (a) we can also easily give examples of extensions that are normal, just take the splitting field of some polynomial. For instance the field $\mathbb{Q}(a, b)$ in item 2 is the splitting field of a polynomial over $\mathbb{Q}$, namely $x^{3}-2$ which factors as $(x-b)(x-$ $a b)\left(x-a^{2} b\right)$. Hence this $\mathbb{Q}(a, b)$ is a normal extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.
15. If $K$ is the splitting field of $f(x)$ over $F$ then $[K: F] \leq n$ ! where $n$ is the degree of $f(x)$.
To see this, let $\alpha \in$ be a root of $f(x)$ and let $d=[F(\alpha): F]$. Since $f(\alpha)=0$ and $f(x) \in F[x]$ it follows the minpoly of $\alpha$ over $F$ must divide $f(x)$. Hence, $d$, the degree of this minpoly, is at most $n$. Now let $g(x)=$ $f(x) /(x-\alpha) \in F(\alpha)[x]$. It has degree $n-1$ and so by induction, the splitting field of $g(x)$ over $F(\alpha)$ has degree at most $(n-1)$ ! over $F(\alpha)$. But this splitting field is just $K$, so we get $[K: F(\alpha)] \leq(n-1)$ !. Then $[K: F]=[K: F(\alpha)] \cdot[F(\alpha): F] \leq(n-1)!\cdot d \leq n!$.
Note that if the $\leq n!$ is an equality then $d$ will have to be equal to $n$, in other words, $f(x)$ is irreducible over $F$. Furthermore, $g(x)$ will have to be irreducible over $F(\alpha)$ (otherwise the $\leq(n-1)$ ! won't be an equality) etc.
16. A polynomial $f \in F[x]-F$ is called square-free in $F[x]$ if there does not exist a polynomial $g \in F[x]-F$ such that $g^{2}$ divides $f$. It is clear that:

$$
f \text { irreducible in } F[x] \Longrightarrow f \text { is square-free in } F[x]
$$

17. Let $K$ be a splitting field of $f$. A polynomial $f \in F[x]-F$ is called separable if the following equivalent conditions hold:
(a) The number of distinct roots of $f$ in the splitting $K$ equals the degree.
(b) $f$ has no multiple roots (roots with multiplicity $>1$ ) in the splitting field $K$.
(c) The gcd of $f$ and the derivative $f^{\prime}$ is a constant (it does not matter if you compute this in $F[x]$ or in $K[x]$, the result of the gcd computation is the same).
(d) $f$ is square-free in $K[x]$ (note: This condition is stronger than the condition that $f$ is squarefree in $F[x]$ because $K$ is a bigger field).
18. If the characteristic of $F$ is 0 , or if $F$ is a finite field, then the following is true for any $f \in F[x]$

$$
f \text { is square-free in } F[x] \Longleftrightarrow f \text { is separable. }
$$

Remarks: In general "separable" is stronger than "square-free in $F[x]$ " because separable means not only square-free in $F[x]$ but also means "square-free in $K[x]$ for any field extension $K$ of $F$ ". For example, if $F=\mathbb{F}_{p}(t)$ then you can find a polynomial $f=x^{p}-t \in F[x]$ that is square-free and even irreducible in $F[x]$ but not separable. The splitting field is $K=\mathbb{F}_{p}(\sqrt[p]{t})$ and in $K[x]$ we find $f=(x-\sqrt[p]{t})^{p}$. So $f$ is square-free in $F[x]$ but is not separable because $f$ is not square-free in $K[x]$.
19. If the characteristic of $F$ is 0 , or if $F$ is a finite field, and if $K$ is an extension of $F$ then the following are equivalent
(a) $K$ is a normal extension of $F$ (this was defined in item 14a)
(b) $K$ is the splitting field of some set of separable polynomials in $F[x]$.

Proof: Take the set $S$ from item 14a. For each polynomial $f \in S \subseteq F[x]$, we can make it square-free as follows: as long as $g^{2}$ divides $f$ for some $g \in F[x]$, replace $f$ by $f / g$. Then $f / g$ and $f$ have the same roots, so the splitting fields do not change. We can repeat this until all the $f$ 's in $S$ have become square-free. Then by item 18 these $f$ 's are also separable. Note: The assumption made on $F$ is relevant, without it we get counter examples such as $F=\mathbb{F}_{p}(t), \quad S=\left\{x^{p}-t\right\}$.
20. Definition: $\operatorname{Aut}(K)$ is the group of all automorphisms of $K$.
21. Definition: An automorphism of $K / F$ (automorphism of $K$ over $F$ ) is an automorphism $\sigma: K \rightarrow K$ that acts trivially on $F$ (i.e. $\sigma(a)=a$ for all $a \in F)$.
Definition: $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ is the group of all automorphisms of $K$ over $F$.
22. Some easy things to note: $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F) \leq \operatorname{Aut}(K)$, i.e. $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(K)$. Also:

$$
F_{1} \subseteq F_{2} \Longrightarrow \operatorname{Aut}\left(K / F_{2}\right) \leq \operatorname{Aut}\left(K / F_{1}\right)
$$

Finally, if $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq K$ and $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(K)$, then $\sigma$ acts trivially on 1 (i.e. $\sigma(1)=1$ ) and so $\sigma$ must also act trivially on the subfield of $K$ that is generated by 1 , i.e. $\sigma$ acts trivially on $\mathbb{Q}$. Hence, $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(K / \mathbb{Q})$. So we find

$$
\operatorname{Aut}(K / \mathbb{Q})=\operatorname{Aut}(K) .
$$

Another trivial remark is that

$$
\operatorname{Aut}(K / K)=\{1\}
$$

23. Let $K / F$ be a finite extension and let $|\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)|$ denote the order, the number of elements, of the group $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$. The following is always true:

$$
\begin{equation*}
|\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)| \leq[K: F] \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, the following are equivalent
(a) $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ has $[K: F]$ elements
(b) $K$ is the splitting field of some separable polynomial in $F[x]$
24. Definition: Let $K / F$ be a finite extension. Then $K / F$ is called a Galois extension if item 23a (and hence item 23b) is true. In this case, we denote $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ as $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ and call this the Galois group.
25. In this item we assume that either $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$, or $F$ is a finite field. We also assume that $[K: F]<\infty$. Then using item 19 you see that you may ignore the word "separable" in item 23b, so then we get

$$
K / F \text { Galois } \Longleftrightarrow K / F \text { normal. }
$$

Recall from item 14 b that this is equivalent to a rather intriguing property, namely that every irreducible $f(x) \in F[x]$ that has at least one root in $K$ has all of its roots in $K$. The explanation for this property is the following: If $f(x) \in F[x]$ has a root $\alpha \in K$, and if $\sigma$ is an automorphism of $K$ over $F$, then $\sigma(\alpha)$ is again a root of $f(x)$ in $K$. Now a Galois extension is by definition an extension that has as many as possible (namely $[K: F]$ ) automorphisms. Applying all these automorphisms to that one root $\alpha$, we find all the roots of the minpoly of $\alpha$ over $F$. If $f(x)$ is irreducible, then that means that we get all roots of $f(x)$.
26. We have to prove item 23. First, we have to prove formula (4) and then we have to show that we get an equality in formula (4) if and only if $K$ is the splitting field of some separable polynomial over $F$.
Let $N:=[K: F]$ and let $G=\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$. By using induction, we may assume that everything in item 23 is true for any field extension of degree smaller than $N$. Now suppose that $K \neq F$ and take some element $\alpha \in K$, $\alpha \notin F$. Let $d=[F(\alpha): F]>1$ and so $[K: F(\alpha)]=N / d$. Since $N / d<N$ we may by induction assume that everything in item 23 is true for the field extension $F(\alpha) \subseteq K$.
Now $G$ acts on $K$. Let $G_{\alpha}$ be the stabilizer of $\alpha$, and let $O_{\alpha}$ be the orbit of $\alpha$ under $G$. Remember from group theory that the stabilizer $G_{\alpha}$ is the group $\{g \in G \mid g(\alpha)=\alpha\}$, that $O_{\alpha}$ is the set $\{g(\alpha) \mid g \in G\}$. Group theory tells us that

$$
|G|=\left|G_{\alpha}\right| \cdot\left|O_{\alpha}\right|
$$

Now $G_{\alpha}=\operatorname{Aut}(K / F(\alpha))$ so by induction we get that $\left|G_{\alpha}\right| \leq[K: F(\alpha)]$, with equality if and only if $K$ is the splitting field over $F(\alpha)$ of some separable polynomial in $F(\alpha)[x]$.
Let $m(x)$ be the minpoly of $\alpha$ over $F$. If $g \in G$ then $g$ acts trivially on $F$ and so $g(m(x))=m(x)$. Then $0=g(0)=g(m(\alpha))=m(g(\alpha))$ so we see that every element of $O_{\alpha}$ is a root of $m(x)$. Hence, $\left|O_{\alpha}\right| \leq \operatorname{deg}(m(x))$. Then we find

$$
|G|=\left|G_{\alpha}\right| \cdot\left|O_{\alpha}\right| \leq[K: F(\alpha)] \cdot \operatorname{deg}(m(x))=[K: F(\alpha)] \cdot[F(\alpha): F]=N
$$

so we have now proved formula (4).
We now have to show that if we get an equality, then $K$ has to be a splitting field. But the only way we can get $|G|=N$ in the last formula is when $\left|O_{\alpha}\right|=\operatorname{deg}(m(x))$. But every element of $O_{\alpha}$ is a root of $m(x)$, so inside $O_{\alpha}$ (which is a subset of $K$ ) we can already find $\operatorname{deg}(m(x))$ roots. Therefore $m(x)$ splits in $K$. Moreover, $m(x)$ also has to be separable (otherwise we it is impossible to find $\operatorname{deg}(m(x))$ roots in any field, let alone $K)$. If $K$ is the splitting field of $m(x)$ then we are done; otherwise write $K=F\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{r}\right)$ for some $\alpha_{i} \in K$ (note: $K / F$ is finite implies $K / F$ is finitely generated). Let $m_{\alpha_{i}}(x)$ be the minpoly of $\alpha_{i}$ over $F$. Just like we saw that $m(x)$ is separable and splits over $K$, the same argument shows that $m_{\alpha_{i}}(x)$ splits over $K$ as well (and is again separable). Then take $f(x)$ as the least common multiple of the polynomials $m_{\alpha_{1}}(x), \ldots, m_{\alpha_{r}}(x)$. Again, this polynomial is separable and splits over $K$ because each of the $m_{\alpha_{i}}$ is separable and splits over $K$. But this time, the splitting field of $f(x)$ is $K$.

We have shown that $G=\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ has at most $[K: F]$ elements, and that if it has exactly $[K: F]$ elements then $K$ has to be the splitting field of some separable polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. Remains to show that if $K$ is the splitting field of some separable polynomial $f(x)$, that then $G$ has precisely $[K: F]$ elements. Again, lets do this by induction. If $f(x)$ splits over $F$ then we're done, otherwise, let $m(x)$ be an irreducible factor of $f(x)$ in $F[x]$ of degree $d>1$. Let $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}$ be the roots of $m(x)$ in $K$. Then each of the fields $F\left(\alpha_{i}\right)$ is isomorphic to $F[x] /(m(x))$ and hence each of these fields is isomorphic to $F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)$. So we have an isomorphism $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}: F\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \rightarrow F\left(\alpha_{i}\right)$ and, following the proof of Theorem 27 in section 13.4, we see that this $\sigma_{i}^{\prime}$ can be extended to an isomorphism $\sigma_{i}: K \rightarrow K$, so $\sigma_{i} \in \operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ (what is denoted as $F, F^{\prime}, E, E^{\prime}, \sigma^{\prime}, \sigma, \alpha, \beta$ in the proof of Theorem 27 is in our setting denoted as $\left.F, F, K, K, \sigma_{i}^{\prime}, \sigma_{i}, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{i}\right)$.
Since $\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}\right\}$ is a subset (not necessarily a subgroup) of $G$, it follows that $\left\{\sigma_{1}\left(\alpha_{1}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{d}\left(\alpha_{1}\right)\right\}=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{d}\right\}$ is a subset of $O_{\alpha_{1}}$, the orbit of $\alpha_{1}$ under $G$. Hence, $O_{\alpha_{1}}$ has at least $d$ elements. Then it has precisely $d$ elements because every element of $O_{\alpha_{1}}$ has to be a root of $m(x)$, the minpoly of $\alpha_{1}$. Now $G_{\alpha_{1}}$, the stabilizer of $\alpha_{1}$, is the same as $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)\right)$ and by induction this group has precisely $\left[K: F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)\right]$ elements (to use induction, note that $K$ is the splitting field of $f(x)$ over $F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)$ and note
that this extension $K / F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)$ is an extension of lower degree than the extension $K / F)$. Then $|G|=\left|G_{\alpha_{1}}\right| \cdot\left|O_{\alpha_{1}}\right|=\left[K: F\left(\alpha_{1}\right)\right] \cdot d=[K: F]$.
27. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(K)$. We define the fixed field of $H$ as

$$
K^{H}:=\{a \in K \mid \sigma(a)=a \text { for all } \sigma \in H\} .
$$

Note that "the smaller the group $H$ is, the bigger the field $K^{H}$ will be", specifically, if you take the smallest group $H=\{1\}$ then the fixed field of $H$ is just $K$ itself.
28. Let $K$ be any field, and let $H$ be any finite subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(K)$. Since $H$ acts trivially on $K^{H}$, it is clear that $H \leq \operatorname{Aut}\left(K / K^{H}\right)$, but in fact we can say much more, namely:

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / K^{H}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
|H|=\left[K: K^{H}\right] \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note: combining the above two equations with the definition in item 24 shows that $K / K^{H}$ is Galois.
Proof: Let $n=|H|$ and $N=\left[K: K^{H}\right]$. Now

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=|H| \leq\left|\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / K^{H}\right)\right| \leq N \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the first $\leq$ is because $H \leq \operatorname{Aut}\left(K / K^{H}\right)$ and the second $\leq$ comes from formula (4). Remains to show: $N \leq n$. Once we've shown this, then both $\leq$ in (7) become an equality, and then both equations (5),(6) follow.
Assume that $N>n$ (remains to prove: a contradiction). Denote $F:=K^{H}$ and with $[K: F]=N>n$ we can then find at least $n+1 F$-linearly independent elements $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n+1}$ in $K$. Let $H=\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}\right\}$, where $\sigma_{1}$ is the identity, and make an $n$ by $n+1$ matrix $A$ in which the $i$ 'th row is equal to $\sigma_{i}\left(\alpha_{1}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{i}\left(\alpha_{n+1}\right)$. Notice that if $\sigma \in H$ then $\sigma(A)$ is just $A$ with some rows interchanged. Therefore, $A$ and $\sigma(A)$ will have the same reduced row echelon form, lets call this matrix $\operatorname{rref}(A)=R$. Then $\sigma(R)=\operatorname{rref}(\sigma(A))=R$ and so $R$ is invariant under $H$, and hence $R$ is an $n$ by $n+1$ matrix with entries in $F=K^{H}$. Now let $\left(c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n+1}\right) \in F^{n+1}$ be a non-zero vector in the Nullspace of $R$. Then this is also in the Nullspace of $A$ (a matrix $A$ has the same Nullspace as its reduced row echelon form). Now multiply the first row of $A$ by this vector $\left(c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n+1}\right)$ and we get a linear relation $c_{1} \alpha_{1}+\cdots+c_{n+1} \alpha_{n+1}=0$ which contradicts that $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n+1}$ are linearly independent over $F$.
29. The book gives a different proof of formula (4), I will sketch it here. First, there is a useful fact that is true in general: "automorphisms of $K$ are linearly independent over $K "$ (Cor. 8 in section 14.2). Now let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}$ be elements of $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$. Then they are also $F$-linear maps from $K$ to
$K$, so they are elements of $V:=\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(K, K)$. Now $V$ is an $F$-vector space of dimension $N^{2}$ where $N:=[K: F]$. If you have an $F$-linear map $\phi: K \rightarrow K$ and if $a \in K$ then $a \phi$ is also an $F$-linear map from $K$ to $K$. In other words, $a \phi \in V$ for every $a \in K$ and $\phi \in V$, or, as mathematicians would say: $V$ is a $K$-vector space. Its dimension as $K$-vector space must then be the dimension as $F$-vector space divided by $[K: F]$, so as a $K$ vector space, $V$ will have dimension $N^{2} / N=N$. Now $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n} \in V$ are linearly independent (over $K$ ) and hence $n \leq N$.
30. Subgroups give you subfields, and subfields give you subgroups, as follows:

Let $G=\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$. Then $K^{H}$, defined in item 27 , is a subfield of $K / F$.

Now, lets say that $E$ is some subfield of $K / F$ (i.e. $E$ is a subfield of $K$ for which $F \subseteq E$ ). Then $\operatorname{Aut}(K / E)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$ because any automorphism of $K$ that acts trivially on $E$ is also an automorphism of $K$ that acts trivially on $F$.
31. Let $S_{1}$ be the set of all subgroups of $G:=\operatorname{Aut}(K / F)$. Let $S_{2}$ be the set of all subfields of $K / F$. In item 30 we gave a map, lets call it $\Phi_{1}$, from $S_{1}$ to $S_{2}$. We also gave a map, lets call it $\Phi_{2}$, from $S_{2}$ to $S_{1}$. Do these two maps give us a 1-1 correspondence here between subgroups and subfields? Are these maps each others inverses?
(a) If $|G|<[K: F]$ then the answer is NO. To see that, start with the two elements $F$ and $K^{G}$ in $S_{2}$. Now $\Phi_{2}(F)=G$ and $\Phi_{2}\left(K^{G}\right)$ is also $G$. However, if $|G|<[K: F]$ then $F \neq K^{G}$ by item 28 , so then we see that $\Phi_{2}$ is not one-to-one.
(b) Galois correspondence: If $K / F$ is a Galois extension, i.e. if $|G|=$ $[K: F]$ then the answer is YES. We will prove this in the next two items.
32. First some observations that are true whether $K / F$ is Galois or not:
(a) If $E \subseteq E^{\prime}$ are subfields of $K / F$, and $H=\operatorname{Aut}(K / E)$ and $H^{\prime}=$ Aut $\left(K / E^{\prime}\right)$ are the corresponding subgroups, then $H^{\prime} \subseteq H$.
Proof: if $g \in H^{\prime}$ then $g$ leaves acts trivially on $E^{\prime}$, so it acts trivially on $E \subseteq E^{\prime}$, and so $g \in H$.
(b) If $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$ are subgroups of $G$, and $E=K^{H}$ and $E^{\prime}=K^{H^{\prime}}$ are the corresponding subfields, then $E^{\prime} \subseteq E$.
Proof: If $a \in E^{\prime}$ then $a$ is invariant under $H^{\prime}$ so then it is definitely invariant under $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$ and so it is in $E$.
(c) If $E$ is a subfield of $K / F$, if $H=\operatorname{Aut}(K / E)$, and if $E^{\prime}=K^{H}$ then

$$
E \subseteq E^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Aut}(K / E)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / E^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proof: If $a \in E$ then it is invariant under $H$, and hence also an element of $K^{H}$, and so $a \in E^{\prime}$. So $E \subseteq E^{\prime}$ and then $H^{\prime}:=\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / E^{\prime}\right) \subseteq$
$H$ by item 32a. Now take $g \in H$, so then $g$ acts trivially on $E^{\prime}=K^{H}$, and hence $g \in H^{\prime}$, so $H \subseteq H^{\prime}$, and so $H=H^{\prime}$.
(d) If $E$ is a subfield of $K / F$ and if $K / F$ is Galois, then $K / E$ is Galois as well.
Proof: $K / F$ Galois is equivalent (see item 23 , I gave a complete proof of this in item 26) to saying that $K$ is the splitting field of some separable polynomial $f(x) \in F[x]$. But then $f(x)$ is also an element of $E[x]$ so $K$ is also the splitting field of $f(x)$ over $E$. Then, using item 23 again, we see that $K / E$ is also Galois.
33. Proof of Galois Correspondence. Assume that $K / F$ is Galois, then we get
(a) The map $\Phi_{1} \Phi_{2}$ is the identity on $S_{2}$.

Proof: Let $E \in S_{2}$, so $E$ is a subfield of $K / F$. Then $K / E$ is Galois by item 32 d, so the group $H:=\operatorname{Aut}(K / E)$ has $[K: E]$ elements. Now let $E^{\prime}=K^{H}$ and let $H^{\prime}=\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / E^{\prime}\right)$. Now $K / E^{\prime}$ is also Galois by item 32 d, so the group $H^{\prime}$ has $\left[K: E^{\prime}\right]$ elements. But $H=H^{\prime}$ by item 32c and so $\left[K: E^{\prime}\right]=[K: E]$. But since $E \subseteq E^{\prime}$, see item 32 c , we get $[K: E]=\left[K: E^{\prime}\right] \cdot\left[E^{\prime}: E\right]$ and hence $\left[E^{\prime}: E\right]=1$ so $E^{\prime}=E$. But $E$ was an arbitrary element of $S_{2}$, and $H=\Phi_{2}(E)$, while $E^{\prime}=$ $\Phi_{1}(H)=\Phi_{1} \Phi_{2}(E)$. So the fact that $E^{\prime}=E$ means that $\Phi_{1} \Phi_{2}$ sends $E$ to $E$.
(b) The map $\Phi_{2} \Phi_{1}$ is the identity on $S_{1}$.

Proof: Let $H \in S_{1}$. Then formula (5) in item 28 says that $H=$ $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K / K^{H}\right)=\Phi_{2}\left(K^{H}\right)=\Phi_{2} \Phi_{1}(H)$.

