



Fields

Book II

Eq. $\alpha = \sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}}$
 $\alpha^2 = 2+\sqrt{2}$
 $\alpha^2 - 2 = \sqrt{2}$
 $\alpha^4 - 4\alpha^2 + 4 = 2$
 $\alpha^4 - 4\alpha^2 + 2 = 0$

The minimal poly. of α over \mathbb{Q} is $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.
 (Exercise: $f(x)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ so it really is the min. poly. of α over \mathbb{Q})
 The roots of $f(x)$ are

$\alpha = \sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}}$
 $-\alpha = -\sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}}$
 $\beta = \sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}}$
 $-\beta = -\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}}$

$f(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 2 = (x-\alpha)(x+\alpha)(x-\beta)(x+\beta)$

In this case $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3 : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ contains all the roots of $f(x)$ so it is a normal extension of \mathbb{Q} .

$\beta = \sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{4-2} = \sqrt{2} = \alpha^2 - 2$

$\beta = (*) + (*)\alpha + (*)\alpha^2 + (*)\alpha^3 = \alpha^3 - 3\alpha$

$\Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\alpha^3 - 2}{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$

$\alpha^4 - 4\alpha^2 + 2 = 0$

$\alpha^4 = 4\alpha^2 - 2$

$\alpha^6 = 4\alpha^4 - 2\alpha^2$

$= 4(4\alpha^2 - 2) - 2\alpha^2$

$= 14\alpha^2 - 8$

$\beta = \alpha - \frac{2}{\alpha} = \alpha - (4\alpha - \alpha^3) = \alpha^3 - 3\alpha$

$\alpha^3 - 4\alpha + \frac{2}{\alpha} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{2}{\alpha} = 4\alpha - \alpha^3$

Look for an automorphism $\sigma: E \rightarrow E$ ($E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$) satisfying $\sigma(\alpha) = \beta$.

$\sigma(\beta) = \sigma(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha) = \sigma(\alpha)^3 - 3\sigma(\alpha) = \beta^3 - 3\beta = (\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)^3 - 3(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha) = (\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)^2 - 3(\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)$

$= (\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)(\alpha^6 - 6\alpha^4 + 9\alpha^2 - 3) = (\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)(14\alpha^2 - 8 - 6(4\alpha^2 - 2) + 9\alpha^2 - 3) = (\alpha^3 - 3\alpha)(-\alpha^2 + 1) = \alpha(\alpha^2 - 3)(-\alpha^2 + 1)$

$= \alpha(-\alpha^4 + 4\alpha^2 - 3) = \alpha(-4\alpha^2 + 2 + 4\alpha^2 - 3) = -\alpha$

$\sigma: \alpha \mapsto \beta = \alpha^3 - 3\alpha \mapsto -\alpha \mapsto -\beta \mapsto \alpha$

Aut $E = \langle \sigma \rangle$ of order 4; cyclic.

$G = \text{Aut } E = \langle \sigma \rangle = \{1, \sigma, \sigma^2, \sigma^3\}$

$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$

$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha^2]$

\mathbb{Q}

Galois correspondence

$\langle \sigma^2 \rangle = \{1, \sigma^2\}$

$\langle 1 \rangle$

$\sigma^2(\sqrt{2}) = \sigma(\sigma(\sqrt{2})) = \sigma(-\sqrt{2}) = \sqrt{2}$

$\sigma(\sqrt{2}) = ?$

$\sqrt{2} = \alpha\beta$

$\sigma(\sqrt{2}) = \sigma(\alpha)\sigma(\beta)$

$= \beta(-\alpha)$

$= -\alpha\beta$

$= -\sqrt{2}$

$\sigma(\sqrt{2}) = \sigma(\alpha^2 - 2)$

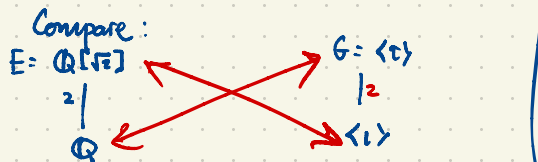
$= \sigma(\alpha^2) - 2 = \beta^2 - 2 = -\sqrt{2}$

$\sigma(\alpha) = \beta$

$\sigma(-\alpha) = -\sigma(\alpha) = -\beta$

$\sigma(\beta) = -\alpha$

$\sigma(-\beta) = -\sigma(\beta) = \alpha$



$G = \text{Aut } E = \{1, \tau\}$, $\tau(a+b\sqrt[3]{2}) = a+b\sqrt[3]{2}$

- Degree 2 extension : quadratic extension
- 3 : cubic
- 4 : quartic
- 5 : quintic

$\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2} = 2^{1/3}$
 $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is an extension of degree
 $[E:\mathbb{Q}] = 3$
 with basis $1, \alpha, \alpha^2 = \sqrt[3]{4}$ ($\alpha^3 = 2$)

α has min. poly. $x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ which is irreducible
 In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $f(x) = x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha)(x^2 + \alpha x + \alpha^2)$

Subfields
 $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$
 $|$
 \mathbb{Q}

If $E \supseteq F \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$ (i.e. F is an intermediate field) then
 the transitivity of degrees tells us $[E:\mathbb{Q}] = [E:F][F:\mathbb{Q}]$

$$\begin{matrix} 3 & \times & 1 \\ \hline 3 & \text{or } 1 & \times 3 \end{matrix}$$

If $[F:\mathbb{Q}] = 1$ then $\{1\}$ is a basis for F over \mathbb{Q} so $F = \{a1 : a \in \mathbb{Q}\} = \mathbb{Q}$

If $[E:F] = 1$ then (similarly) $E = F$.

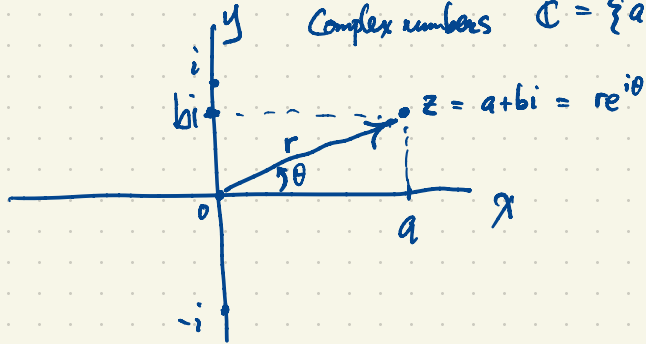
More generally if $E \supseteq F$ is an extension of prime degree $p = [E:F]$
 then the only intermediate extensions are E and F .

What are the automorphisms of $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2}$? If $\phi \in \text{Aut } E$ then $\phi(\alpha)^3 = \phi(\alpha^3) = \phi(2) = 2$

In \mathbb{C} , every poly. $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ of degree n factors as $f(x) = a(x-r_1)(x-r_2)\dots(x-r_n)$ ($a, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n \in \mathbb{C}$).
 eg. $x^n - 1 = (x-1)(x-\xi)(x-\xi^2)(x-\xi^3)\dots(x-\xi^{n-1})$ where $\xi = e^{2\pi i/n}$.

de Moivre's formula: $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$

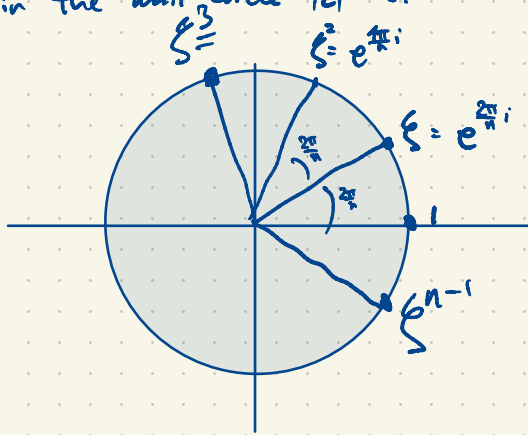
Complex numbers $\mathbb{C} = \{a+bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R}\}$, $i = \sqrt{-1}$



Every $z \in \mathbb{C}$ has unique representation as $z = a+bi$ ($a, b \in \mathbb{R}$) in rectangular coordinates

$a = \operatorname{Re} z = \text{real part of } z$
 $b = \operatorname{Im} z = \text{imaginary part of } z$
 $r = |z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

The roots of $x^n - 1$ are the n^{th} roots of unity: $1, \xi, \xi^2, \dots, \xi^{n-1}$ forming the vertices of a regular n -gon inscribed in the unit circle $|z| = 1$.

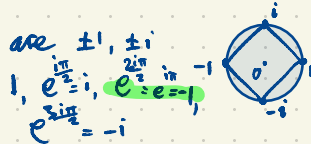


Eg. $n=4$

The fourth roots of unity are $\pm 1, \pm i$

Euler's Formula $e^{i\pi} = -1$

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$



Eg. $n=3$: The three cube roots of unity in \mathbb{C} are $1, \omega, \omega^2$ where

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3} = \cos \frac{2\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{2\pi}{3} = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

$$x^3 - 1 = (x-1)(x^2 + x + 1) = (x-1)(x-\omega)(x-\omega^2)$$

$$\omega = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

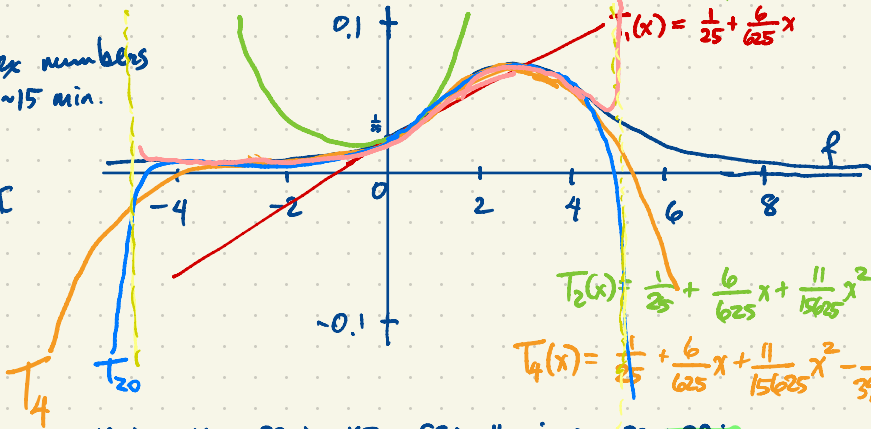


$$\omega^2 = \bar{\omega}$$

follow links on course website
instructional videos → complex numbers
~15 min.

Eg. consider $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 6x + 25}$

This function has poles at $x = 3 \pm 4i \in \mathbb{C}$
with $|3 \pm 4i| = 5$



By the Binomial Theorem

$$(1+i)^{11} = 1 + 11i - 55 - 165i + 330 + 462i - 462 - 330i + 165 + 55i - 11 - i = -32 + 32i$$

Much faster way to evaluate powers $z^n = (x+iy)^n = x^n + n x^{n-1} y i + \dots + i^n y^n$ (Binomial Theorem)



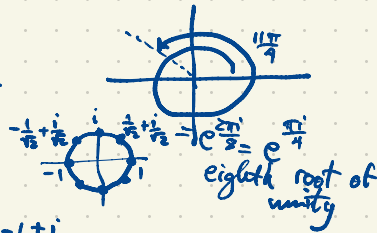
$$1+i = \sqrt{2} e^{i\pi/4}$$

$$|1+i| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$(1+i)^{11} = (\sqrt{2} e^{i\pi/4})^{11} = 32\sqrt{2} e^{i11\pi/4}$$

$$= 32\sqrt{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$= -32 + 32i$$



$$\zeta = \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\zeta^{11} = \zeta^3 = -\frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$$

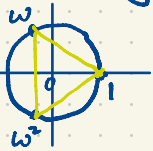
n^{th} roots of $z = r e^{i\theta}$, $r = |z|$

all complex numbers whose n^{th} power is z

$$z^{1/n} = r^{1/n} e^{i\theta/n}, r^{1/n} e^{i(\theta+2\pi)/n}, r^{1/n} e^{i(\theta+4\pi)/n}, \dots, r^{1/n} e^{i(\theta+2(n-1)\pi)/n}$$

i.e. $r^{1/n} e^{i \frac{\theta+2k\pi}{n}}$, $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$

Cube roots of unity in \mathbb{C} : $1, \omega, \omega^2 = \bar{\omega}$



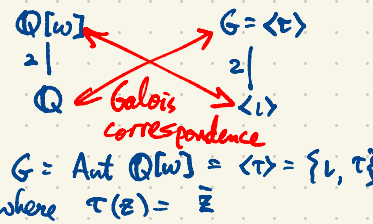
$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3} = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{3}i}{2} = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

$$\omega^3 + \omega + 1 = 0$$

$$\omega \text{ is a root of } x^3 - 1 = (x-1)(x^2 + x + 1) = (x-1)(x-\omega)(x-\omega^2)$$

$$\bar{\omega} = \omega^2$$

$$\tau(\omega) = \omega^2$$



Now let $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2}$, $F = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.

The min. poly. of α over \mathbb{Q} is $x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

$$F = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 : a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}, \quad \text{Aut } F = \{1\}$$

$$x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha)(x^2 + \alpha x + \alpha^2)$$

The other roots of $x^3 - 2$ are not in $F = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ i.e. the extension $F \supset \mathbb{Q}$ is not normal.

scale by factor of α

$$x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3) \text{ where } \alpha_1 = \alpha, \alpha_2 = \alpha\omega, \alpha_3 = \alpha\omega^2$$

$$x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3) = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha\omega)(x - \alpha\omega^2)$$

basis $\{1, \omega\}$ so $[E:F] = 2$
 basis $1, \alpha, \alpha^2$ so $[F:\mathbb{Q}] = 3$

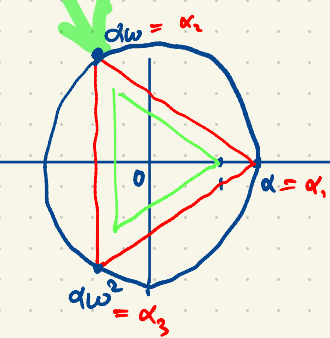
$$E \supset F \supset \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3] \supset \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \supset \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \omega] \supset \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$$

$$[E:\mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 3 = 6$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{2}\alpha_1^2\alpha_2 = \frac{1}{2}2^{2/3} \cdot 2^{1/3}\omega = \omega$$



$$\alpha^2 = 2$$

$$(\alpha\omega)^3 = \alpha^3\omega^3 = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$$

$$(\alpha\omega^2)^3 = \alpha^3\omega^6 = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$$

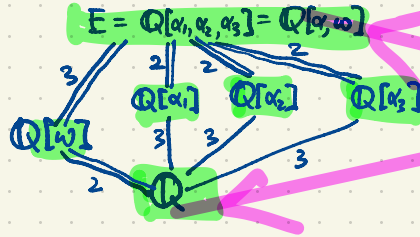
There are $3! = 6$ permutations of $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$.

x	$\sigma(x)$	$\tau(x)$ ← complex conjugation
α_1	α_2	α_1
α_2	α_3	α_3
α_3	α_1	α_2
α	$\alpha\omega$	α
ω	ω	ω^2

In $S_3 = \langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$, $\sigma = (123)$, $\tau = (23)$.

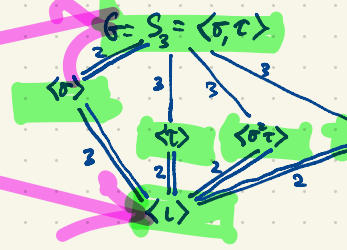
$$\sigma(\omega) = \sigma\left(\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\right) = \frac{\sigma(\alpha_2)}{\sigma(\alpha_1)} = \frac{\alpha_3}{\alpha_2} = \frac{\alpha\omega^2}{\alpha\omega} = \omega$$

$$\tau(\omega) = \tau\left(\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\right) = \frac{\alpha_3}{\alpha_1} = \frac{\alpha\omega^2}{\alpha} = \omega^2 = \bar{\omega}$$



Hasse diagram of subfields of E

Hasse diagram of subgroups of $G = \text{Aut } E$



$\sigma^2 \tau = \tau \sigma$
 $\sigma \tau = \tau \sigma^2$

Double lines indicate normality.

Using right-to-left composition

Galois correspondence

A subgroup $H \leq G$ is normal if its left and right cosets agree i.e. $gH = Hg$ for all $g \in G$.

for $\begin{cases} \sigma^2 \tau = (132)(23) = (13) \\ \sigma \tau = (123)(23) = (12) \\ \tau = (23) \end{cases}$

Eg. in $G = S_3$, $H = \langle \tau \rangle = \langle (123) \rangle$ is normal.

eg. $(12)H = (12) \{ (1), (123), (132) \} = \{ (12), (23), (13) \}$

$\downarrow \quad \uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 $\tau \quad \sigma \quad \sigma^2$

$(12)(123) = (1)(23) = (23)$

$H(12) = \{ (1), (123), (132) \} (12) = \{ (12), (13), (23) \}$

E is the splitting field of $x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha\omega)(x - \alpha\omega^2)$

$E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \alpha\omega, \alpha\omega^2] = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \omega]$

$\langle \tau \rangle$ is a subgroup of G which is not normal in G .

$(13) \langle \tau \rangle = (13) \{ (1), (23) \} = \{ (13), (132) \}$

$\langle \tau \rangle (13) = \{ (1), (23) \} (13) = \{ (13), (123) \}$

The extension $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \supset \mathbb{Q}$ of degree $[\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$ is not normal

$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$

since the min. poly. of α over \mathbb{Q} is $x^3 - 2$ with $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ containing only one of the three roots of $x^3 - 2$.

In $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha, \omega]$ the splitting field of $x^3 - 2 = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha\omega)(x - \alpha\omega^2)$, can we find a single element $\beta \in E$ generating E i.e. $E = \mathbb{Q}[\beta] = \{a_0 + a_1\beta + a_2\beta^2 + \dots + a_5\beta^5 : a_0, a_1, \dots, a_5 \in \mathbb{Q}\}$?

Such an element β must be in E but not in $\mathbb{Q}[\omega] \cup \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] \cup \mathbb{Q}[\alpha\omega] \cup \mathbb{Q}[\alpha\omega^2]$.

In a 6-dimensional vector space, we must find a vector not contained in this union of four proper subspaces of dimension 2, 3, 3, 3 respectively.

In \mathbb{R}^3 , can \mathbb{R}^3 be a union of finitely many proper subspaces? No, because each proper subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 has only dimension ≤ 2 so it covers a slice of the unit ball of volume 0. A finite union of proper subspaces covers zero volume of the unit ball; it can never cover the total volume $\frac{4}{3}\pi$ of the unit ball.

In \mathbb{Q}^3 , i.e. points of \mathbb{R}^3 with rational coordinates, can $\mathbb{Q}^3 = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup U_3 \cup \dots \cup U_k$ with $U_i \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^3$ proper subspaces? The volume of \mathbb{Q}^3 (as a subset of \mathbb{R}^3) is zero.

$\mathbb{Q}^3 = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, \dots\}$ is countably infinite.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. We will show that the volume of \mathbb{Q}^3 is at most ε .

Take a ball B_i of radius small enough centered at v_i such that its volume is less than $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. ($i=1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$)



$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$ has volume $< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{8} + \frac{\varepsilon}{16} + \dots = \varepsilon$. Now $\mathbb{Q}^3 \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$, so $\text{Vol}(\mathbb{Q}^3) < \varepsilon$.

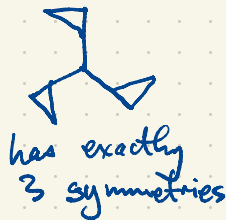
Try another approach. Suppose $\mathbb{Q}^3 = U_1 \cup U_2 \cup \dots \cup U_k$, $U_i \subseteq \mathbb{Q}^3$ proper ^{distinct} subspaces, so $\dim U_i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$. Take a line $l \subset \mathbb{Q}^3$ not through the origin. Then l is contained in at most one of the subspaces U_i . With careful choice we may assume l is not contained in any U_i . (Not hard.) Each U_i intersects l in at most one point. This is a contradiction.

Galois theory handout: ignore "separable" for now.

Example of an extension $E \supset \mathbb{Q}$ of degree 3 with $G = \text{Aut } E$ of order 3?

$f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is irreducible

$$f(x) = (x-\alpha)(x-\beta)(x-\gamma) \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{aligned} \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha - 1 &= 0 \\ \alpha^3 &= 1 + 2\alpha - \alpha^2 \\ \alpha^4 &= \alpha + 2\alpha^2 - \alpha^3 = \alpha + 2\alpha^2 - (1 + 2\alpha - \alpha^2) = -1 - \alpha + 3\alpha^2 \\ \alpha^5 &= 3 + 5\alpha - 4\alpha^2 \\ \alpha^6 &= -1 - 5\alpha + 9\alpha^2 \end{aligned}$$



Check that $\alpha^2 - 2$ is also a root of $f(x)$:

$$f(\alpha^2 - 2) = (\alpha^2 - 2)^3 + (\alpha^2 - 2)^2 - 2(\alpha^2 - 2) - 1 = 0 \quad \text{after collecting terms, so } \alpha^2 - 2 \in \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}.$$

Can $\alpha^2 - 2 = \alpha$? No. If α is a root of $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1$ and a root of $g(x) = x^2 - x - 2$ then α is a root of

$$\gcd(f(x), g(x)) = r(x)f(x) + s(x)g(x) \quad \text{by Euclid's Algorithm}$$

which is a factor of $f(x)$ of degree less than 3, a contradiction.

WLOG $\beta = \alpha^2 - 2$. Now $\beta^2 - 2$ is also a root of $f(x)$ by the same reasoning, so $\beta^2 - 2 \in \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$.

$$\text{As before, } \beta^2 - 2 \neq \beta. \quad \text{If } \beta^2 - 2 = \alpha \text{ then } (\alpha^2 - 2)^2 - 2 = \alpha = \alpha^4 - 4\alpha^2 + 4 - 2 = \alpha \\ \alpha^4 - 4\alpha^2 - \alpha + 2 = 0$$

but $\gcd(x^3 + x^2 - 2x - 1, x^4 - 4x^2 - x + 2) = 1$, contradiction.

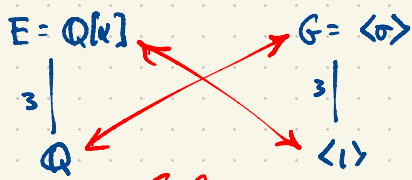
So $\beta^2 - 2 = \gamma$. Now $\gamma^2 - 2 = \alpha$. Indeed

$$\text{Better: } \begin{aligned} -1 - \alpha + 3\alpha^2 - 4\alpha^2 - \alpha + 2 &= 0 \\ 1 - 2\alpha - \alpha^2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma^2 - 2 = (\beta^2 - 2)^2 - 2 = ((\alpha^2 - 2)^2 - 2)^2 - 2 = \alpha.$$

The map $x \mapsto x^2 - 2$ gives a cyclic permutation $\sigma: \alpha \mapsto \beta \mapsto \gamma \mapsto \alpha$.

The field $E = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 : a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}\}$ of degree $[E:\mathbb{Q}] = 3$ (a cyclic cubic extension) has automorphism group $G = \text{Aut } E = \langle \sigma \rangle = \{1, \sigma, \sigma^2\}$, cyclic of order 3.



Galois Correspondence

Exercise: Find three 3×3 matrices over \mathbb{Q} A, B, C which are roots of $f(x)$

Satisfying $B = A^2 - 2I$
 $C = B^2 - 2I$
 $A = C^2 - 2I$
(not HW)

$$A^3 + A^2 - 2A - I = 0$$

$$B^3 + B^2 - 2B - I = 0$$

$$C^3 + C^2 - 2C - I = 0$$

In a finite (separable) extension $E \supset \mathbb{Q}$ of degree $[E:\mathbb{Q}] = n$, there exists $\beta \in E$ such that $E = \mathbb{Q}[\beta]$.
↖ don't worry about this technical condition for now
↖ degree $n < \infty$

(Theorem of the simple element or simple extension)
ie. extension generated by a single element

Note: $\mathbb{C} \supset \mathbb{R}$ is a simple extension, $\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{R}[i]$.
 $\mathbb{R} \supset \mathbb{Q}$ is not a simple extension. There is no $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $\mathbb{Q}[\beta] = \mathbb{R}$.
or $\mathbb{Q}(\beta) = \mathbb{R}$

NOVEMBER 2024

SUN	MON	TUE	WED	THU	FRI	SAT
27	28	29	30	31	1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

Mon Nov 4
Test

Given a number field $E \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$ of degree $n = [E : \mathbb{Q}] < \infty$, there exists $\beta \in E$ such that $E = \mathbb{Q}[\beta]$ (Theorem of the Primitive Element: $E \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is a simple extension). It follows that $|\text{Aut } E| \leq n$. Why? $1, \beta, \beta^2, \beta^3, \dots, \beta^n$ are linearly dependent so $a_0 + a_1\beta + a_2\beta^2 + \dots + a_n\beta^n = 0$ for some

$a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Q}$, not all zero. Actually $a_n \neq 0$, otherwise $1, \beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{n-2}$ would generate the extension, a contradiction. After dividing by $a_n \neq 0$ we get

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + x^n \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$$

as the minimal polynomial of β . Over \mathbb{C} there exist $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n \in \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$f(x) = (x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2) \dots (x - \beta_n)$$

If $\sigma \in \text{Aut } E$ then σ must permute the n roots β_1, \dots, β_n .

(but β_1, \dots, β_n are not necessarily in $E = \mathbb{Q}[\beta]$). Think of $f(x) = x^3 - 2$, $\beta = \sqrt[3]{2}$.

$$\beta^n + a_{n-1}\beta^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\beta + a_0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma(\beta^n + a_{n-1}\beta^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\beta + a_0) = 0$$

$$\sigma(\beta)^n + a_{n-1}\sigma(\beta)^{n-1} + \dots + a_1\sigma(\beta) + a_0 = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \sigma(\beta)$ is a root of $f(x)$.

If $\beta_i = \beta, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_r \in E$ and $\beta_{r+1}, \dots, \beta_n \notin E$ then there exist automorphisms mapping $\beta = \beta_1$ to any of β_1, \dots, β_r .

Behind this fact is the explanation coming from the First Isomorphism for Ring Theory:

The evaluation map $\mathbb{Q}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}[\beta]$

$$g(x) \mapsto g(\beta) \text{ is a homomorphism of rings.}$$

This map is onto, by definition, but not one-to-one.

The kernel of this homomorphism is the

principal ideal $(f(x)) = \{u(x)f(x) : u(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}$. So $\mathbb{Q}[x]/(f(x)) \cong \mathbb{Q}[\beta] = E$

But in the same way we can evaluate at any of the $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \in E$ to get $\mathbb{Q}[x]/(f(x)) \cong \mathbb{Q}[\beta_i]$ ($1 \leq i \leq r$)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \mathbb{Q}[x]/(f(x)) & \\ \cong \swarrow & & \searrow \cong \\ \mathbb{Q}[\beta_1] & \xrightarrow{\cong} & \mathbb{Q}[\beta_i] \\ \text{"} \downarrow \text{"} & & \text{"} \downarrow \text{"} \\ E & & E \end{array} \quad (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

This gives r isomorphisms $E \rightarrow E$. $|\text{Aut}(E)| = r \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
 where r is how many of the roots of $f(x)$ lie in $E = \mathbb{Q}[\beta]$.

When $r = n$ (all roots of $f(x)$ lie in E) then the extension $E \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$ is a Galois extension and we have a one-to-one Galois correspondence between subfields of E and subgroups of $G = \text{Aut } E$.

Wait: What if $f(x)$ has repeated roots? Is it possible for an irreducible polynomial $f(x)$ to have repeated roots?

A field F is separable if every irreducible poly $f(x) \in F[x]$ has only simple roots (no multiple roots) in any extension.

Theorem \mathbb{C} is separable.

Proof Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be irreducible of degree $n \geq 2$. If $f(x)$ has a repeated root $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then $f(x) = (x - \alpha)^2 g(x)$, $g(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ of degree $\geq n - 2$. Continue on Mondays...