# Lectures on Algebra 

Weizhe Zheng
March 10, 2022

Morningside Center of Mathematics and Hua Loo-Keng Key Laboratory of Mathematics
Academy of Mathematics and Systems Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences Beijing 100190, China

University of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China
Email: wzheng@math.ac.cn

## Contents

Preface ..... V
1 Fields and Galois theory ..... 1
1.1 Introduction: Solvability by radicals ..... 1
1.2 Fields and field extensions ..... 3
1.3 Simple extensions ..... 4
1.4 Algebraic extensions ..... 6
1.5 Splitting fields and normal extensions ..... 8
1.6 Separable extensions ..... 11
1.7 The Primitive Element Theorem ..... 15
1.8 Finite Galois extensions ..... 16
1.9 Irreducibility of polynomias ..... 19
1.10 Galois groups of polynomials ..... 22
1.11 Finite fields ..... 25
1.12 Cyclotomic fields ..... 26
L.13 Trace and norm ..... 28
1.14 Hilbert's Theorem 90 ..... 30
1.15 Kummer and Artin-Schreier theories ..... 32
1.16 Solvability by radicals ..... 37
1.17 Straightedge and compass construction ..... 38
1.18 Infinite Galois theory ..... 40
1.19 Galois categories ..... 46
1.20 Derivations and the Jacobson correspondence ..... 51
1.21 Transcendental extensions ..... 53
2 Modules ..... 59
2.1 Modules and homomorphisms ..... 59
2.2 Products and direct sums ..... 60
2.3 Modules over a PDD ..... 64
2.4 Chain conditions ..... 70
2.5 Semisimple modules ..... 75
2.6 Indecomposable modules ..... 77
2.7 Modules over a full matrix ring ..... 80
2.8 Tensor products of modules ..... 81
3 Rings and algebras ..... 85
3.1 Algebras and tensor products ..... 85
3.2 Semisimple rings ..... 89
3.3 Simple rings ..... 90
3.4 Jacobson radicals ..... 91
3.5 Semiprimitive and semiprimary rings ..... 93
3.6 Jacobson density theorem ..... 95
3.7 Central simple algebras ..... 97
3.8 Galois descent ..... 104
4 Representations of finite groups ..... 107
4.1 Group representations and modules ..... 107
4.2 Absolutely simple modules ..... 110
4.3 Characters of finite groups ..... 115
4.4 Induced representations ..... 120
4.5 Representations of the symmetric group ..... 126
4.6 Induction theorems ..... 132
4.7 Tannaka duality ..... 136
Bibliography ..... 139

## Preface

These lecture notes were prepared for the graduate course Algebra I taught in 2019 and 2021 at the University of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. We have followed more or less closely notes of Wen-Wei Li [L3] and Yongquan Hu [H2], who taught the course in previous years. I am deeply indebted to them for sharing their notes. I thank Zhijian Chen, Zhibin Geng, Peng Shan, and Hu Tan for corrections and suggestions.

## Chapter 1

## Fields and Galois theory

Convention 1.0.1. Rings are assumed to have identities and ring homomorphisms are assumed to preserve the identities. Some authors, notably Noether, do not follow this convention.

### 1.1 Introduction: Solvability by radicals

Let $F$ be a field. One goal of this chapter is to address the question of solvability by radicals of a polynomial equation $a_{n} X^{n}+\cdots+a_{0}=0$ in one variable with coefficients in $F$. We let $F[X]$ denote the ring of polynomials in $X$ with coefficients in $F$.

Example 1.1.1. Assume that the characteristic of $F \neq 2$. Then the roots of a quadratic polynomial $P(X)=a X^{2}+b X+c \in F[X](a \neq 0)$ are

$$
\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{\Delta}}{2 a}
$$

where $\Delta=b^{2}-4 a c$ is the discriminant.
Solutions of cubic and quartic equations by radicals were published by Cardano in 1545 and attributed to del Ferro and Tartaglia for cubic equations and Ferrari for quartic equations.

Example 1.1.2. Assume that the characteristic of $F \neq 2,3$. Let $P(X)=a X^{3}+$ $b X^{2}+c X+d \in F[X](a \neq 0)$ be a cubic polynomial. Up to scaling we may assume $a=1$. Up to replacing $X$ by $X-\frac{b}{3}$, we may assume $P(X)=X^{3}+c X+d$. Write $P(X)=\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{3}\right)$. Let $\omega=\frac{1}{2}(-1+\sqrt{-3})$ be a primitive cube root of unity. Consider the Lagrange resolvents

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{3}, \\
\beta_{1} & =\alpha_{1}+\omega \alpha_{2}+\omega^{2} \alpha_{3}, \\
\beta_{2} & =\alpha_{1}+\omega^{2} \alpha_{2}+\omega \alpha_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the polynomial
$\left(Y-\beta_{1}\right)\left(Y-\omega \beta_{1}\right)\left(Y-\omega^{2} \beta_{1}\right)\left(Y-\beta_{2}\right)\left(Y-\omega \beta_{2}\right)\left(Y-\omega^{2} \beta_{2}\right)=\left(Y^{3}-\beta_{1}^{3}\right)\left(Y^{3}-\beta_{2}^{3}\right)=Q\left(Y^{3}\right)$.

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta_{1}^{3}+\beta_{2}^{3}= & \left(\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}\right)\left(\beta_{1}+\omega \beta_{2}\right)\left(\beta_{1}+\omega^{2} \beta_{2}\right)=3 \alpha_{1} \cdot 3 \omega^{2} \alpha_{3} \cdot 3 \omega \alpha_{2}=-27 d, \\
& \beta_{1} \beta_{2}=\alpha_{1}^{2}+\alpha_{2}^{2}+\alpha_{3}^{2}-\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}-\alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}-\alpha_{3} \alpha_{1}=-3 c .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\beta_{1}^{3}$ and $\beta_{2}^{3}$ are the roots of the polynomial $Q(Z)=Z^{2}+27 d Z-27 c^{3}$. Let $\gamma_{i}=\beta_{i} / 3, i=1,2$. Then (up to reordering)

$$
\gamma_{1}^{3}=-\frac{d}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{d^{2}}{4}+\frac{c^{3}}{27}}, \quad \gamma_{2}^{3}=-\frac{d}{2}-\sqrt{\frac{d^{2}}{4}+\frac{c^{3}}{27}} .
$$

Take $\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right)$ satisfying $\gamma_{1} \gamma_{2}=-c / 3$. Finally,

$$
\alpha_{1}=\gamma_{1}+\gamma_{2}, \quad \alpha_{2}=\omega^{2} \gamma_{1}+\omega \gamma_{2}, \quad \alpha_{3}=\omega \gamma_{1}+\omega^{2} \gamma_{2}
$$

Example 1.1.3. Assume that the characteristic of $F \neq 2,3$. Without loss of generality, let $P(X)=X^{4}+c X^{2}+d X+e \in F[X]$ be a quartic polynomial. Write

$$
P(X)=\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{3}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{4}\right) .
$$

Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{4}\right), \\
& \beta_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{4}\right), \\
& \beta_{3}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{3}+\alpha_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and the polynomial
$\left(Y-\beta_{1}\right)\left(Y+\beta_{1}\right)\left(Y-\beta_{2}\right)\left(Y+\beta_{2}\right)\left(Y-\beta_{3}\right)\left(Y+\beta_{3}\right)=\left(Y^{2}-\beta_{1}^{2}\right)\left(Y^{2}-\beta_{2}^{2}\right)\left(Y^{2}-\beta_{3}^{2}\right)=Q\left(Y^{2}\right)$.
An elementary computation gives $Q(Z)=Z^{3}+2 c Z^{2}+\left(c^{2}-4 e\right) Z-d^{2} \in F[Z]$. One can thus find $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \beta_{3}$ by radicals up to signs. Finally

$$
\alpha_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\beta_{1}+\beta_{2}+\beta_{3}\right), \quad \alpha_{i+1}=\beta_{i}-\alpha_{1}, i=1,2,3 .
$$

The correct signs can be determined by trial.
By contrast, polynomial equations of degree $\geq 5$ are not solvable by radicals in general.

Theorem 1.1.4 (Abel-Ruffini 1824). Let $P(X)=X^{n}+T_{1} X^{n-1}+\cdots+T_{n} \in$ $F\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right)[X]$ be the generic monic polynomial of degree $n \geq 5$. Here $F\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right)$ is the fraction field of the polynomial ring $F\left[T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right]$. Then $P(X)=0$ is not solvable by radicals.

We will deduce the theorem from Galois theory and Kummer theory.

### 1.2 Fields and field extensions

Definition 1.2.1. A field is a nonzero commutative ring whose nonzero elements are invertible.

Lemma 1.2.2. (1) $A$ commutative ring $A$ is a field if and only if 0 is a maximal ideal $A$.
(2) Let $F$ be a field and $R$ a nonzero ring. Then every ring homomorphism $\iota: F \rightarrow$ $R$ an injection.

Proof. (1) Indeed,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A \text { is a field } & \Leftrightarrow A \text { is nonzero and } a A=A \text { for every nonzero } a \in A \\
& \Leftrightarrow A \text { is nonzero and the only ideals are } 0 \text { and } A \\
& \Leftrightarrow 0 \text { is a maximal ideal of } A .
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) The kernel of $\iota$ is an ideal of $F$ not containing 1 , and thus must be zero by (1).

In particular every ring homomorphism $\iota: F \rightarrow E$ of fields is an embedding. The embedding $\iota$ factorizes as $F \simeq \iota(F) \subseteq E$, where $F \simeq \iota(F)$ is an isomorphism (of fields, namely of rings). Given an inclusion of fields $F \subseteq E$ (preserving 1), $K$ is called a subfield of $E$ and $E$ is called a (field) extension of $K$, and we adopt the notation $E / K$ (not to be confused with quotient). We sometimes extend the terminology of field extensions to field embeddings.

Recall the characteristic of a ring $R$ is the number $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ such that $\operatorname{ker}(\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow$ $R)=n \mathbb{Z}$. The characteristic of a field is 0 or a prime number. A prime field is a field not containing any proper subfield. It is uniquely isomorphic to $\mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{F}_{p}=\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ for some prime number $p$. Every field $F$ admits a smallest subfield of $F$, called the prime field of $F$. For any field embedding $F \hookrightarrow E, F$ and $E$ have the same characteristic.

Given a field extension $E / F$ and a subset $S \subseteq E$, there exists a smallest subring $F[S] \subseteq E$ containing $F$ and $S$. This is a commutative domain and its fraction field $F(S) \subseteq E$ is the smallest subfield containing $F$ and $S$, called the subfield obtained by adjoining $S$ to $F$ or the subfield generated by $S$ over $F$.

Given field extensions $K / F$ and $K / F^{\prime}$, the smallest subfield $E \subseteq K$ containing $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ is called the composite of $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ in $K$ and denoted by $F \cdot F^{\prime}$ (or $F F^{\prime}$ ). Every element of $F \cdot F^{\prime}$ has the form

$$
\frac{a_{1} b_{1}+\cdots+a_{m} b_{m}}{c_{1} d_{1}+\cdots+c_{n} d_{n}}
$$

where $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}, c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n} \in F$ and $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n} \in F^{\prime}$ satisfying $c_{1} d_{1}+$ $\cdots+c_{n} d_{n} \neq 0$. More generally, given a family of field extensions, $\left(K / F_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, the smallest subfield $E \subseteq K$ containing the $F_{i}$ 's is called the composite of $\left(F_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ in $K$ and denoted by $\bigvee_{i \in I} F_{i}$. We have

$$
\bigvee_{i \in I} F_{i}=\bigcup_{J \subseteq I} \bigvee_{j \in J} F_{j}
$$

where $J$ runs through finite subsets of $I$.

Warning 1.2.3. Given field embeddings $\iota: F \hookrightarrow K, \iota^{\prime}: F^{\prime} \hookrightarrow K$, the composite $\iota(F) \cdot \iota^{\prime}\left(F^{\prime}\right)$ depends on the choice of $\iota, \iota^{\prime}$, and $K$. See Example

Given a field extension $E / F, E$ is an $F$-vector space.
Definition 1.2.4. The degree of a field extension $E / F$ is $[E: F]=\operatorname{dim}_{F}(E)$ (a cardinal number). A field extension is said to be finite if $[E: F]$ is finite.

Lemma 1.2.5. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions.
(1) We have $[K: F]=[K: E][E: F]$ (as cardinal numbers). More precisely, if $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ is a basis for $K / E$ and $\left(b_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is a basis for $E / F$, then $\left(a_{i} b_{j}\right)_{(i, j) \in I \times J}$ is a basis for $K / F$.
(2) $K / F$ is finite if and only if both $K / E$ and $E / F$ are finite.

Proof. (1) Every element $x \in K$ can be written uniquely as $x=\sum_{i \in I} c_{i} a_{i}$ with $c_{i} \in E$ and each $c_{i}$ can be written uniquely as $c_{i}=\sum_{j \in J} c_{i, j} b_{j}$ with $c_{i, j} \in F$. Thus we have a unique expression

$$
x=\sum_{(i, j) \in I \times J} c_{i, j} a_{i} b_{j} .
$$

(2) follows from (1).

### 1.3 Simple extensions

A field extension $K / F$ generated by one element $\alpha \in K$ is called a simple extension. The element $\alpha$ is called a primitive element of $K / F$.

Definition 1.3.1. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and let $\alpha \in E$. We say that $\alpha$ is algebraic over $F$ if there exists a nonzero polynomial $P \in F[X]$ such that $P(\alpha)=0$. Otherwise we say that $\alpha$ is transcendental over $F$.

Example 1.3.2. $\sqrt[3]{2}, i \in \mathbb{C}$ are algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$. It is well known that $e, \pi \in \mathbb{R}$ are transcendental over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Consider the ring homomorphism $h_{\alpha}: F[X] \rightarrow E$ carrying $X$ to $\alpha$, which induces an isomorphism $F[X] / \operatorname{ker}\left(h_{\alpha}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} F[\alpha]$. By definition, $\alpha$ is algebraic if and only if $\operatorname{ker}\left(h_{\alpha}\right)$ is nonzero. In this case, since $F[X]$ is a Principal Ideal Domain (PID) and $F[X]^{\times}=F^{\times}, \operatorname{ker}\left(h_{\alpha}\right)=(P(X))$ for a unique monic polynomial $P(X)$. Since $\operatorname{ker}\left(h_{\alpha}\right)$ is a prime ideal, $P(X)$ is irreducible. We call $P(X)$ the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$.

Proposition 1.3.3. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and let $\alpha \in E$.
(1) If $\alpha$ is algebraic over $F$ of minimal polynomial $P(X)$, then $h_{\alpha}$ induces an isomorphism $F[X] /(P(X)) \xrightarrow{\sim} F[\alpha]$. In this case $F[\alpha]=F(\alpha)$, and $[F(\alpha):$ $F]=\operatorname{deg}(P)$.
(2) If $\alpha$ is transcendental over $F$, then $h_{\alpha}$ induces isomorphisms $F[X] \xrightarrow{\sim} F[\alpha]$ and $F(X) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(\alpha)$. In this case $F(\alpha) / F$ is infinite.
In particular, $\alpha$ is algebraic over $F$ if and only if $F(\alpha) / F$ is a finite extension.

Proof. (1) The first sentence is clear. Note that $(P(X))$ is a maximal ideal, $F[\alpha]$ is a field, so that $F[\alpha]=F(\alpha)$. Let $d=\operatorname{deg}(P)$. Then $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{d-1}$ form a basis for $F(\alpha) / F$.
(2) The first sentence is clear. For the second sentence, note that $1, \alpha, \alpha^{2}, \ldots$ are $F$-linearly independent.

Part (1) has the following converse.
Proposition 1.3.4. Let $F$ be a field and let $P(X) \in F[X]$ be a monic irreducible polynomial. Then there exists a simple field extension $F(\alpha) / F$ such that $P(X)$ is the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$.

Proof. We take $\alpha$ to be the image of $X$ in $F[X] /(P(X))$.
Definition 1.3.5. Let $E / F$ and $E^{\prime} / F$ be field extensions. An embedding $E \hookrightarrow E^{\prime}$ (resp. isomorphism $E \xrightarrow{\sim} E^{\prime}$ ) whose restriction to $F$ is an identity is called an $F$ embedding (resp. $F$-isomorphism).

The simple extension in the above proposition is unique up to (not necessarily unique) $F$-isomorphism by the following.

Proposition 1.3.6. Let $F(\alpha) / F$ be a field extension with $\alpha$ algebraic and let $P(X) \in$ $F[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and let $\beta \in E$ be a root of $P(X)$. Then there exists a unique $F$-embedding $\iota: F(\alpha) \rightarrow E$ carrying $\alpha$ to $\beta$. Moreover, $\iota$ induces an isomorphism $F(\alpha) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(\beta)$.

Proof. The uniqueness is clear. For the existence, it suffices to take $\iota=\iota_{\beta} \iota_{\alpha}^{-1}$, where $\iota_{\alpha}: F[X] /(P(X)) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(\alpha)$ and $\iota_{\beta}: F[X] /(P(X)) \xrightarrow{\sim} F(\beta)$.

Example 1.3.7. Let $E / F$ be an extension of prime degree. Then $E=F(\alpha)$ for any $\alpha \in E \backslash F$ (exercise).

Example 1.3.8. A quadratic extension $E / F$ of characteristic $\neq 2$ has the form $E=F(\sqrt{\Delta})$ for some $\Delta \in F^{\times} \backslash\left(F^{\times}\right)^{2}$. Here $\sqrt{\Delta}$ denotes a square root of $\Delta$. By contrast, even in characteristic 0 , an extension of degree $n \geq 3$ is not necessarily of the form $F(\sqrt[n]{a})$ for any $a \in F$ (see Kummer theory later).

## More on algebraic elements

Remark 1.3.9. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions and $\alpha \in K$ algebraic over $F$. Then $\alpha$ is algebraic over $E$ and $[E(\alpha): E] \leq[F(\alpha): F]$. In fact, if $P(X) \in F[X]$ denotes the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$, then $P(\alpha)=0$ so that the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $E$ divides $P(X)$.

Proposition 1.3.10. Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations with $\left[E^{\prime}: F\right]$ finite. Then $\left[E \cdot E^{\prime}: E\right] \leq\left[E^{\prime}: F\right]$.

Proof. If $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}$ form an $F$-linear basis, then $E^{\prime}=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}\right)$. Let $F_{i}=$ $F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i}\right)$ and $E_{i}=E\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i}\right)$. By the Remark L.3.9, $a_{i}$ is algebraic over $F_{i-1}$ and $\left[E_{i}: E_{i-1}\right] \leq\left[F_{i}: F_{i-1}\right]$, and we conclude by induction.

Example 1.3.11. Let $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq E \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ where $E=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})$ and let $\iota: E \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the embedding carrying $\sqrt[3]{2}$ to $\omega \sqrt[3]{2}$, where $\omega=e^{2 \pi i / 3}$ is a primitive cube root of unity. Then $2=[E \cdot \iota(E): E]<[\iota(E): F]=3$. (Note that $\iota(E) \neq E$ because $E \subseteq \mathbb{R} \nsupseteq \iota(E)$.

Proposition 1.3.12. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. Then the set of elements $\alpha \in E$ algebraic over $F$ form a subfield of $E$. In other words, if $\alpha, \beta \in E$ are algebraic over $F$, then $\alpha+\beta, \alpha \beta$, and $\alpha^{-1}($ if $\alpha \neq 0)$ are algebraic over $F$.

Proof. Indeed, $F(\alpha) / F$ is finite and $F(\alpha, \beta) / F(\alpha)$ is finite by Remark $\mathbb{L . 3 . 9 .}$ Thus $F(\alpha, \beta) / F$ is finite, so that every $\gamma \in F(\alpha, \beta)$ is algebraic over $F$.

Note that $\alpha \neq 0$ is a root of $P(X) \in F[X]$ of degree $n \geq 0$ if and only if $1 / \alpha$ is a root of $X^{n} P(1 / X) \in F[X]$. We can construct polynomials in $F[X]$ with $\alpha+\beta$ and $\alpha \beta$ as follows. Let $P(X)=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(X-\alpha_{i}\right) \in F[X], Q(Y)=\prod_{j=1}^{n}\left(Y-\beta_{j}\right) \in F[Y]$ with $\alpha_{i}$ and $\beta_{j}$ in an extension $E$ of $F$ (see the next sections for the existence of such an extension). For every polynomial $R(X, Y) \in F[X, Y]$, we have

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{m} \prod_{j=1}^{n}\left(Z-R\left(\alpha_{i}, \beta_{j}\right)\right) \in F[Z]
$$

Indeed, the coefficients are symmetric polynomials over $F$ in $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}$ and in $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n}$.

## Finitely generated extensions

Definition 1.3.13. A field extension $E / F$ is said to be finitely generated if there exists a finite subset $S \subseteq E$ such that $E=F(S)$.

Given a tower of field extensions $K / E / F$ with $F / E$ and $E / K$ finitely generated, then $K / F$ is finitely generated: $F\left(S_{1}\right)\left(S_{2}\right)=F\left(S_{1} \cup S_{2}\right)$. We will see later that the converse also holds (Proposition $\mathbb{L} 2 \mathrm{~L} \cdot 2 \mathrm{D})$. Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations with $E^{\prime} / F$ finitely generated. Then $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ is finitely generated: $E \cdot F(S)=E(S)$. In particular, if $E / F$ and $E^{\prime} / F$ are finitely generated, then $E \cdot E^{\prime} / F$ is finitely generated.

Warning 1.3.14. Finite generation as a field extension is not the same as finite generation as a commutative algebra. For example, $F(X)$ is a finitely-generated field extension of $F$, but not a finitely-generated commutative $F$-algebra. One can show that a field extension $E / F$ is finite if and only if $E$ is a finitely-generated commutative $F$-algebra [AM, Corollary 5.24].

### 1.4 Algebraic extensions

Definition 1.4.1. We say that a field extension $E / F$ is algebraic if every $\alpha \in E$ is algebraic over $F$. Otherwise we say that $E / F$ is transcendental.

Note that $F(\alpha) / F$ is algebraic if and only if $\alpha$ is algebraic. Indeed, the "only if" part is trivial and the "if" part follows from the last assertion of Proposition [.3.3.

Proposition 1.4.2. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. Then $E / F$ is finite if and only if it is algebraic and finitely generated.

Proof. We have already seen that if $E / F$ is finite and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}$ form an $F$-linear basis, then each $\alpha \in E$ is algebraic over $F$ and $E=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d}\right)$. Conversely, if $E=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ with $a_{i}$ algebraic over $F$, we have seen that $F_{i} / F_{i-1}$ is finite, where $F_{i}=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i}\right)$.

Proposition 1.4.3. Let $E / F$ be an algebraic extension. Then every $F$-endomorphism of $E$ is an $F$-automorphism.

Proof. Let $\iota: E \rightarrow E$ be an $F$-endomorphism and let $x \in E$. Let $P(X) \in F[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of $x$ and let $S$ be the set of roots of $P$ in $E$. Then $\iota$ permutes $S$. Thus $x \in S$ is in the image of $\iota$.

Proposition 1.4.4. (1) Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions. Then $K / F$ is algebraic if and only if both $K / E$ and $E / F$ are algebraic.
(2) Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations with $E^{\prime} / F$ algebraic. Then $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ is algebraic.
(3) Let $K / E_{i} / F, i \in I$ be a family of factorizations with $E_{i} / F$ algebraic. Then $\bigvee_{i \in I} E_{i} / F$ is algebraic.

Proof. (1) The "only if" part is trivial. Conversely, if $E / F$ is algebraic and $\alpha$ is algebraic with minimal polynomial $P(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{d} a_{i} X^{i}$ over $E$, then $\alpha$ is algebraic over $E_{0}=F\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{d}\right)$, which is finite over $F$, so that $F(\alpha) \subseteq E_{0}(\alpha)$ is finite over $F$.
(2) $E \cdot E^{\prime}=E\left(E^{\prime}\right)$ is algebraic over $E$ by Proposition $\mathbb{\square} .3 .2$.
(3) We may assume that $I$ is finite. By induction, we then reduce to the case $I=\{1,2\}$, which follows from (1) and (2).

Definition 1.4.5. (1) Let $E / F$ be a field extension. We say that $F$ is algebraically closed in $E$ if there is no algebraic subextension of $E / F$ other than $F$.
(2) We say that a field $F$ is algebraically closed if there is no algebraic extension of $F$ other than $F$ itself. ${ }^{\text {. }}$

Let $E / F$ be a field extension. The elements $\alpha \in E$ algebraic over $F$ form a field $E_{\text {alg }}$, called the algebraic closure of $F$ in $E$. Note that $E_{\text {alg }} / F$ is algebraic and $E_{\text {alg }}$ is algebraically closed in $E$ by Proposition $\mathbb{L . 4 . 4 ( 1 ) \text { . }}$

Remark 1.4.6. Let $F$ be a field. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $F$ is algebraically closed.
(2) Every polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$ has a root in $F$.
(3) Every polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$ splits into linear factors.

Indeed, $(1) \Leftrightarrow(2) \Leftrightarrow(3)$.
Let $E / F$ be a field extension with $E$ algebraically closed. Then the algebraic closure $E_{\text {alg }}$ of $F$ in $E$ is algebraically closed. Indeed, if $P(X) \in E_{\text {alg }}[X]$ is a polynomial of degree $\geq 1$, then it admits a root $\alpha \in E$. Since $\alpha$ is algebraic over $E_{\text {alg }}$, we have $\alpha \in E_{\text {alg }}$.

[^0]Theorem 1.4.7 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra). The field $\mathbb{C}$ of complex numbers is algebraically closed.

Definition 1.4.8. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. We say that $E$ is an algebraic closure of $F$ if $E / F$ is algebraic and $E$ is algebraically closed. Algebraic closures of $F$ are denoted by $F^{\text {alg }}$ or $\bar{F}$.

Example 1.4.9. (1) $\mathbb{C}$ is an algebraic closure of $\mathbb{R}$.
(2) The algebraic closure $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {alg }}$ of $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ is an algebraic closure of $\mathbb{Q}$.

Algebraic closures exist in general and are unique in the following sense.
Theorem 1.4.10. Let $F$ be a field.
(1) There exists an algebraic closure $F^{\text {alg }} / F$.
(2) For field extensions $E / F$ and $K / F$ with $E / F$ algebraic and $K$ algebraically closed, there exists an $F$-embedding $E \hookrightarrow K$, which is an $F$-isomorphism if both $E$ and $K$ are algebraic closures of $F$.

We postpone the proof to the next section.
Given a field extension $E / F$, we let $\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E)$ denote the group of $F$-automorphisms of $E$. The group law is given by composition. For any field $F$ with algebraic closure $F^{\mathrm{alg}}, \operatorname{Aut}_{F}\left(F^{\mathrm{alg}}\right)$ is called the absolute Galois group of $F$. This group, equipped with a topology that we will specify later, governs all algebraic extensions of $F$ at least for $F$ of characteristic 0 .

### 1.5 Splitting fields and normal extensions

Definition 1.5.1. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and $\mathcal{P}$ a family of polynomials in $F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$. We say that $\mathcal{P}$ splits in $E[X]$ if every $P \in \mathcal{P}$ splits into linear factors in $E[X]$. We say that $E$ is a splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$ if moreover the roots of $P \in \mathcal{P}$ generate $E / F$.

A splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$ is an algebraic extension of $F$. A splitting field of $F[X] \backslash F$ is precisely an algebraic closure of $F$ by the following lemma, which extends (1) $\Leftrightarrow(3)$ of Remark [.4.6].

Lemma 1.5.2. Let $E / F$ be an algebraic field extension. Assume that every polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$ splits into linear factors in $E[X]$. Then $E$ is algebraically closed.

Proof. Let $K / E$ be an algebraic extension. Then $K / F$ is an algebraic extension by Proposition [.4.4 (1). Let $\alpha \in K$. Since the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$ splits into linear factors in $E[X]$, we have $\alpha \in E$. Thus $K=E$.

We will prove the following generalization of Theorem [.4.10. To see that Theorem $\mathbb{L . 5 . 3}$ (2) implies Theorem [.4.Jd (2), note that in the latter we may replace $E$ by an algebraic closure of $E$.

Theorem 1.5.3. Let $F$ be a field and $\mathcal{P}$ a family of polynomials in $F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$.
(1) There exists a splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$.
(2) For field extensions $E / F$ and $K / F$ such that $E$ is a splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$ and $\mathcal{P}$ splits in $K[X]$, there exists an $F$-embedding $E \hookrightarrow K$, which is an $F$-isomorphism if $K$ is also a splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$.

We start by constructing a splitting field in the case where $\mathcal{P}$ consist of one single polynomial.

Lemma 1.5.4. Let $F$ be a field and $P(X) \in F[X]$ a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$. Then there exists a splitting field $E$ of $P(X)$ over $F$ such that $[E: F] \leq n$ !.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. The case $n=1$ is trivial. For $n \geq 2$, there exists an extension $F(\alpha) / F$ of degree $\leq n$ such that $P(\alpha)=0$, and we apply induction hypothesis to $P(X) /(X-\alpha) \in F(\alpha)[X]$.

Lemma 1.5.5. Let $\left(E_{i} / F\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of field extensions. Then there exists a field extension $K / F$ equipped with $F$-embeddings $E_{i} \hookrightarrow K$.

Proof. Consider the commutative ring $R=\bigotimes_{i \in I} E_{i}$, where the tensor product is taken over $F$. Explicitly, choosing an $F$-linear basis $S_{i} \ni 1$ for each $E_{i}, R$ is an $F$ vector space with a basis consisting of $\otimes_{i \in I} e_{i}$, where $e_{i} \in S_{i}$ for all $i$ and $e_{i}=1$ for all but finitely many $i$, with multiplication defined in the obvious way (see Remark 3.L. for a generalization). Since $R$ is nonzero, it admits a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ by the axiom of choice. Take $K=R / \mathfrak{m}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.5.⿹勹. (1) For every $P \in \mathcal{P}$, choose a splitting field $F_{P} / F$ of $P$, which exists by Lemma [.5.4. By Lemma $\mathbb{L} .5 .5$, there exists an extension $L / F$ and $F$-embeddings $\iota_{P}: F_{P} \hookrightarrow L$ for all $P$. We may assume that $\iota_{P}\left(F_{P}\right)$ generate $L / F$. Then $L$ is a splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$.
(2) Consider the set $S$ of pairs $(L, \iota)$, where $L$ is an intermediate field for $E / F$ and $\iota: L \hookrightarrow K$. We say $(L, \iota) \leq\left(L^{\prime}, \iota^{\prime}\right)$ if $L \subseteq L^{\prime}$ and $\iota^{\prime}$ extends $\iota$. This defines a partial order on $S$. Every chain $\left(L_{i}, \iota_{i}\right)$ has an upper bound $\left(\cup_{i} L_{i}, \iota\right)$, with $\iota$ given by $\iota_{i}$. By Zorn's Lemma, there exists a maximal element $(L, \iota)$. For $\alpha \in E$ satisfying $P(\alpha)=0$ for some $P \in \mathcal{P}, \iota$ extends to an $F$-embedding $L(\alpha) \hookrightarrow K$. By the maximality of $(L, \iota)$, we have $\alpha \in L$. Thus $E=L$. The last assertion is clear.

Splitting fields have the following characterizations.
Theorem 1.5.6. Let $E / F$ be an algebraic extension. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) Every irreducible polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ having a root in $E$ splits in $E[X]$.
(2) There exists a family $\mathcal{P}$ of polynomial in $F[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$ such that $E$ is the splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$ over $F$.
(3) For every extension $K / E$ and every $F$-embedding $\iota: E \rightarrow K$, we have $\iota(E)=$ E.
(4) There exists an extension $K / E$ with $K$ algebraically closed such that for every $F$-embedding $\phi: E \rightarrow K$, we have $\iota(E) \subseteq E$.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). It suffices to take $\mathcal{P} \subseteq F[X]$ to be the set of irreducible polynomials having a root in $E$.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. For every $P \in \mathcal{P}, \iota$ permutes the roots of $P$. Since $E$ is generated by such roots over $F, \iota(E)=E$.
$(3) \Rightarrow(4)$. We can take $K$ to be an algebraic closure of $E$.
$(4) \Rightarrow(1)$. Let $x \in E$ be a root of some $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and let $y$ be another root of $P$. Consider the $F$-embedding $F(x) \rightarrow K$ carrying $x$ to $y$. By Theorem I.4.II, this extends to an $F$-embedding $\iota: E \hookrightarrow K$. By (4), $y=\iota(x) \in E$.

Definition 1.5.7. A field extension $E / F$ satisfying the conditions of Theorem [.5.6] is said to be normal.

Example 1.5.8. Every quadratic extension $E / F$ is normal. Indeed, every irreducible polynomial in $F[X]$ admitting a root in $E$ splits in $E[X]$.

Warning 1.5.9. A subextension of a normal extension is not normal in general. For example, let $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be the splitting field of $X^{3}-2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ and let $F=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}) \subsetneq E$. Then $E / \mathbb{Q}$ is normal but $F / \mathbb{Q}$ is not. We have the following criterion for the normality of a subextension.

Proposition 1.5.10. Let $K / F$ be a normal extension. $A$ subextension $E / F$ is normal if and only if for every $F$-automorphism $\sigma$ of $K, \sigma(E) \subseteq E$.

Proof. The "only if" part is a special case of Condition (3) of Theorem [.5.6]. For the "if" part, let $K^{\text {alg }}$ be an algebraic closure of $K$ and let $\iota: E \rightarrow K^{\text {alg }}$ be an $F$-embedding. Then $\iota$ extends to an $F$-embedding $\sigma: K \rightarrow K^{\text {alg }}$. Since $K / F$ is normal, $\sigma(K)=K$ and $\iota(E)=\sigma(E) \subseteq E$.

Given an algebraic extension $E / F$, the splitting field of the minimal polynomials $P_{x}$ of elements of $x \in E$ over $F$ is called the normal closure of $E / F$. In fact, it suffices to restrict to a set of generators of $E / F$. In particular, the normal closure of a finite extension is finite.

Warning 1.5.11. For a tower of field extensions $K / E / F$ with both $E / F$ and $K / E$ normal, $K / F$ is not normal in general. For example, both $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) / \mathbb{Q}$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}) / \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ are normal, but $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}) / \mathbb{Q}$ is not normal: $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[4]{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ but the splitting field of $X^{4}-2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{C}$ contains $i$ (one checks easily that $X^{4}-2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$ ).

Proposition 1.5.12. (1) Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions. Then $K / F$ normal implies $K / E$ normal.
(2) Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations. Then $E^{\prime} / F$ normal implies $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ normal.
(3) Let $K / E_{i} / F, i \in I$ be a family of factorizations. Then $E_{i} / F$ normal for all $i \in I$ implies $\bigcap_{i \in I} E_{i}$ (assuming I nonempty) and $\bigvee_{i \in I} E_{i} / F$ normal.

Proof. For (2), if $E^{\prime} / F$ is the splitting field of a family of polynomials $\mathcal{P}$, then $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ is the splitting field of $\mathcal{P}$. For (1) and (3), we check Condition (4) of Theorem [.5.6] (with $\subseteq$ replaced by $=$ ).

Remark 1.5.13. Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations with $E^{\prime} / F$ normal. The composite field $E \cdot E^{\prime}$ does not depend on the choice of $K$, up to $F$ isomorphisms. More precisely, given embeddings $\iota: E \hookrightarrow L$ and $\iota^{\prime}: E^{\prime} \hookrightarrow L$, we have an $F$-isomorphism $E \cdot E^{\prime} \simeq \iota(E) \cdot \iota^{\prime}\left(E^{\prime}\right)$. Indeed, if $\mathcal{P}$ denotes the collection of minimal polynomials of elements of $E^{\prime}$ over $F$, then both composite fields are splitting fields of $\mathcal{P}$ over $E$.

Proposition 1.5.14. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions such that $K / F$ is normal. Let $\iota: E \rightarrow K$ be an $F$-embedding. Then $\iota$ extends to an $F$-isomorphism of $K$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{P} \subseteq F[X]$ be a family such that $K$ is the splitting field of $K$ over $F$. Let $(K, i)$ denote $K$ regarded as an extension of $E$ via the inclusion $i: E \rightarrow K$ and let $(K, \iota)$ denote $K$ regarded as an extension of $E$ via $\iota$. Then $(K, i)$ and $(K, \iota)$ are both splitting fields of $E$ over $F$. By Theorem $[.5 .3$, there exists an $E$-embedding $(K, i) \rightarrow(K, \iota)$, namely an embedding $\sigma: K \rightarrow K$ extending $\iota$. In particular, $\sigma$ is an $F$-endomorphism, which is necessarily an $F$-isomorphism by Proposition [.4.3].

### 1.6 Separable extensions

Definition 1.6.1. Let $F$ be a field.
(1) A nonzero polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is said to be separable if all roots of $P$ in a splitting field of $P$ are simple. A nonzero polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is said to be purely inseparable if $P$ has only one root in a splitting field of $P$.
(2) In a field extension $E / F$, an algebraic element $\alpha$ is said to be separable (resp. purely inseparable) over $F$ if its minimal polynomial over $F$ separable.
(3) An algebraic extension $E / F$ is said to be separable (resp. purely inseparable) if every element $\alpha \in E$ is separable (resp. purely inseparable) over $F_{\text {, }}^{\text {, }, \text { [] }}$
The derivative of a polynomial $P=\sum_{k=0}^{d} a_{k} X^{k}$ is $P^{\prime}=\sum_{k=1}^{d} k a_{k} X^{k-1}$.
To unify statements in all characteristics, it is convenient to adopt the following terminology: the characteristic exponent $p$ of a field $F$ is $\max \{1, \operatorname{char}(F)\}$. The Frobenius endomorphism $F \rightarrow F$ carrying $x$ to $x^{p}$ is a field embedding:

$$
(x+y)^{p}=\sum_{i=0}^{p}\binom{p}{i} x^{i} y^{p-i}=x^{p}+y^{p} .
$$

In particular, $p$-th root of an element of $F$ is unique when it exists.
Proposition 1.6.2. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic exponent $p$.
(1) A nonzero polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is separable if and only if $\left(P, P^{\prime}\right)=(1)$.
(2) A irreducible polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is separable if and only if $P^{\prime} \neq 0$. In particular, if $p=1$, every irreducible polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is separable; if $p>1$, an irreducible polynomial $P \in F[X]$ is inseparable if and only if $P=$ $P_{1}\left(X^{k}\right)$ for some $P_{1} \in F[X], k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

[^1](3) Every irreducible polynomial $P \in F[X]$ can be written as $P(X)=P_{k}\left(X^{p^{k}}\right)$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and $P_{k} \in F[X]$ separable. This expression is unique for $p>1$.
(4) The polynomial $a X^{p^{k}}-b, a \in F^{\times}, b \in F, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ is purely inseparable. Conversely, every irreducible purely inseparable polynomial in $F[X]$ is of this form.

Proof. (1) Up to replacing $F$ by an algebraic closure, we may assume that $P$ splits in $F$. Let $a$ be a root in $F$. Then $P(X)=(X-a) Q(X)$, so that $P^{\prime}(X)=$ $Q(X)+(X-a) Q^{\prime}(X)$. Thus $a$ is a simple root of $P$ if and only if $P^{\prime}(a) \neq 0$. Thus $P$ is separable if and only if $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ have no common root.
(2) If $P^{\prime}=0$, then $\left(P, P^{\prime}\right) \neq(1)$. Conversely, if $\left(P, P^{\prime}\right) \neq(1)$, then $P \mid P^{\prime}$, which implies $P^{\prime}=0$ because $\operatorname{deg}\left(P^{\prime}\right)<\operatorname{deg}(P)$.
(3) For $p=1, P_{k}=P$ is separable for any $k$. For $p>1$, we apply the last assertion of (2) recursively to construct $P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots$. The process will stop because $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{i}\right)=\operatorname{deg}(P) / p^{i}$.
(4) Clearly $a X^{p^{k}}-b=a(X-\sqrt[p^{k}]{b / a})^{p^{k}}$ is purely inseparable. Conversely, if $P(X)=P_{k}\left(X^{p^{k}}\right)$ as in (3) is purely inseparable, then $P_{k}$ must be both separable and purely inseparable, and hence of degree 1.

Remark 1.6.3. By (4), for a field extension $E / F$ of characteristic exponent $p$, $x \in E$ is purely inseparable over $F$ if and only if $x^{p^{k}} \in F$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. Let $k$ be the smallest such number and let $a=x^{p^{k}}$. Then $X^{p^{k}}-a$ is the minimal polynomial of $x$ and $[F(x): F]=p^{k}$. It follows that if $E / F$ is finite and purely inseparable, then $[E: F]$ is a power of $p$.

Example 1.6.4. The Frobenius embedding $F \rightarrow F$ gives rise to a purely inseparable extension $F / F^{p}$, where $F^{p}$ denotes the image of the Frobenius embedding. For example, for $F=\mathbb{F}_{p}[X]$, we have $F^{p}=\mathbb{F}_{p}\left[X^{p}\right]$.

Next we discuss the relationship between separability and embeddings.
Lemma 1.6.5. Let $E / F$ be a purely inseparable extension. Then the restriction map $\operatorname{Hom}(E, K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(F, K)$ is an injection for every field $K$.

Proof. We may assume that $K$ and $F$ have the same characteristic exponent $p$. Let $x \in E$. Then $x^{p^{k}} \in F$ for some $k$. For any $\iota: E \rightarrow K, \iota(x)$ is the unique $p^{k}$-th root of $\iota\left(x^{p^{k}}\right)$.

Definition 1.6.6. The separable degree of a finite extension $E / F$ is $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=$ $\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\mathrm{alg}}\right)\right.$ ), where $F^{\text {alg }}$ denotes an algebraic closure of $F$. This definition does not depend on the choice of $F^{\text {alg }}$.

Lemma 1.6.7. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic exponent $p, F(x) / F$ a simple extension with $x$ algebraic over $F$ of minimal polynomial $P(X)=P_{k}\left(X^{p^{k}}\right)$, with $P_{k}$ separable. Then $[F(x): F]_{\text {sep }}=\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{k}\right) \mid[F(x): F]$. In particular, $x$ is separable over $F$ if and only if $[F(x): F]_{\text {sep }}=[F(x): F]$. Moreover, $x$ is purely inseparable over $F\left(x^{p^{k}}\right)$ and $x^{p^{k}}$ is separable over $F$.

Proof. The first assertion follows from the fact that $P$ has exactly $\operatorname{deg}\left(P_{k}\right)$ distinct roots in $F^{\text {alg }}$. For the last assertion, note that the minimal polynomial of $x^{p^{k}}$ over $F$ is $P_{k}$.

Lemma 1.6.8. Let $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ be a tower of finite extensions. Then $[K: F]_{\text {sep }}=$ $[K: E]_{\text {sep }}[E: F]_{\text {sep }}$.

Proof. The fiber of the restriction map $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(K, F^{\text {alg }}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\text {alg }}\right)$ at $\iota$ can be identified with $\operatorname{Hom}_{E}\left(K, E^{\text {alg }}\right)$, where $E^{\text {alg }}$ is $F^{\text {alg }}$, regarded as an algebraic closure of $E$ via $\iota$.

Remark 1.6.9. Let $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ be field inclusions and $\alpha \in K$ separable (resp. purely inseparable) over $F$. Then $\alpha$ is separable (resp. purely inseparable) over $E$. The follows from the fact that any factor of a separable (resp. purely inseparable) polynomial is separable (resp. purely inseparable).

Theorem 1.6.10. Let $E / F$ be an algebraic extension.
(1) The elements of $E$ separable over $F$ form a subfield $E_{\text {sep }}$, called the separable closure of $F$ in $E$. Moreover, $E_{\text {sep }} / F$ is separable and $E / E_{\text {sep }}$ is purely inseparable.
(2) For $E / F$ finite, we have $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=\left[E_{\text {sep }}: F\right]$. In particular, a finite extension $E / F$ is separable if and only if $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=[E: F] ;$ a finite extension $E / F$ is purely inseparable if and only if $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=1$.

Proof. Let us start by showing
(0) A finite extension $E / F$ is separable if and only if $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=[E: F]$.

Write $E=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ and let $F_{i}=F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{i}\right)$. Applying Lemma $[.6 .7$ to $F_{i} / F_{i-1}$ and the tower properties of degree and separable degree, we obtain $[E$ : $F]_{\text {sep }} \mid[E: F]$ and that if $E / F$ is separable, then $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=[E: F]$. Conversely, if $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=[E: F]$, and $x \in E$, then $[F(x): F]_{\text {sep }}=[F(x): F]$, so that $x$ is separable over $F$ by Lemma [.6.7.
(1) For the first assertion, it suffices to show that if $x, y \in E$ are separable over $F$, then $F(x, y)$ is separable over $F$. By Lemma $\mathbb{L . 6 . 7}$,
$[F(x, y): F]_{\text {sep }}=[F(x, y): F(x)]_{\text {sep }}[F(x): F]_{\text {sep }}=[F(x, y): F(x)][F(x): F]=[F(x, y): F]$.
By ( 0 ), $F(x, y)$ is separable over $F$. By definition, $E_{\text {sep }} / F$ is separable. By the last assertion of Lemma $\left[.6 . \square, E / E_{\text {sep }}\right.$ is purely inseparable.
(2) $[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=\left[E: E_{\text {sep }}\right]_{\text {sep }}\left[E_{\text {sep }}: F\right]_{\text {sep }}=\left[E_{\text {sep }}: F\right]$ by Lemma $[6.5$ and (0).

Definition 1.6.11. For a finite extension $E / F$, we define the inseparable degree by $[E: F]_{\text {insep }}=\left[E: E_{\text {sep }}\right]$.

We have $[E: F]=[E: F]_{\text {sep }}[E: F]_{\text {insep }}$.
Remark 1.6.12. For a tower $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$ of algebraic extensions, the equality of cardinals

$$
\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(K, F^{\mathrm{alg}}\right)\right)=\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\mathrm{alg}}\right)\right) \operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{E}\left(K, E^{\mathrm{alg}}\right)\right)
$$

holds. However, the cardinals $\operatorname{card}\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\text {alg }}\right)\right)$ and $\left[E_{\text {sep }}: F\right]$ are different in general. For example, for $E=\mathbb{Q}\left(2^{1 / 2^{\infty}}\right)=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt[4]{2}, \sqrt[8]{2}, \ldots),[E: \mathbb{Q}]=\aleph_{0}$ is countable, but $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(E, \mathbb{Q}^{\text {alg }}\right)=\lim _{n} \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(2^{1 / 2^{n}}\right), \mathbb{Q}^{\text {alg }}\right)$ is the continuum.

Warning 1.6.13. By Remark $[.6 .3$, for an algebraic extension $E / F$, the purely inseparable elements of $E$ over $F$ form a subfield $E_{\text {insep }}$. However, $E / E_{\text {insep }}$ is not separable in general for $p>1$. For example, if $k$ is a field of characteristic $p$ with $x \in k \backslash k^{p}$ (e.g. $k=\mathbb{F}_{p}(X)$ with $\left.x=X\right), E=k(Y), F=k\left(Y^{p^{2}} /\left(Y^{p}+x\right)\right.$ ), then $E_{\text {insep }}=F$ and $E_{\text {sep }}=k\left(Y^{p}\right)[\mathrm{B} 2, \S \mathrm{~V} .7$, exerc. 2]. (For the last equality note that $Y^{p}$ is a root of the separable polynomial $Z^{p}-a Z-a x \in F[Z]$, where $a=\frac{Y^{p^{2}}}{Y^{p}+x}$.) Nonetheless, we will see later that $E / E_{\text {insep }}$ is separable if $E / F$ is normal.

Proposition 1.6.14. (1) Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions. Then $K / F$ is separable if and only if both $K / E$ and $E / F$ are separable.
(2) Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations with $E^{\prime} / F$ separable. Then $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ is separable.
(3) Let $K / E_{i} / F, i \in I$ be a family of factorizations with $E_{i} / F$ separable. Then $\bigvee_{i \in I} E_{i} / F$ is separable.
The same holds with "separable" replaced everywhere by "purely inseparable".
Proof. The only nontrivial part is $K / E$ and $E / F$ separable implies $K / F$ separable. As in the proof of Proposition $\mathbb{L . 4 . 4}(1)$, we may assume $K / E$ and $E / F$ finite. Then the assertion follows from Theorem [.6.IT.

Definition 1.6.15. We say that a field $F$ is separably closed if every separable extension of $F$ is trivial.

By Theorem [.6.]0, $F$ is separably closed if and only if every algebraic extension of $F$ is purely inseparable.

A splitting field for all separable irreducible polynomials in $F[X]$ is called a separable closure $F^{\text {sep }}$ of $F$. Note that $F^{\text {sep }} / F$ is separable and $F^{\text {sep }}$ is separably closed (here we used Proposition $[.6 .14$ (1)).

Proposition 1.6.16. Let $F$ be a field. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) Every algebraic extension of $F$ is separable.
(2) Every purely inseparable extension of $F$ is trivial.
(3) The Frobenius endomorphism $F \rightarrow F$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). By (1), every purely inseparable extension is separable and hence trivial.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. By (2), the extension $F \rightarrow F$ given by the Frobenius embedding is trivial.
$(3) \Rightarrow(1)$. For $E / F$ algebraic and $x \in E$, let $P(X)=P_{k}\left(X^{p^{k}}\right)$ be the minimal polynomial of $x$ over $F$, with $P_{k}=\sum_{i} a_{i} X^{i}$ separable and $k \geq 0$. By (3), there exists $b_{i} \in F$ such that $b_{i}^{p^{k}}=a_{i}$. Then $P(X)=\left(\sum_{i} b_{i} X^{i}\right)^{p^{k}}$, so that $p^{k}=1$ and $P=P_{0}$ by the irreducibility of $P$. It follows that $x$ is separable over $F$.

Definition 1.6.17. We say that a field $F$ is perfect if it satisfies the above conditions.
This notion extends to commutative rings (of characteristic $p>0$ ) using Condition (3).

Example 1.6.18. (1) Any field of characteristic 0 is perfect.
(2) Any finite field is perfect. In fact, the Frobenius embedding of a finite field must be an isomorphism.

Given a field $F$, a splitting field for all purely inseparable irreducible polynomials in $F[X]$ is called a perfection $F^{\text {perf }}$. Note that $F^{\text {perf }} / F$ is purely inseparable and $F^{\text {perf }}$ is perfect. We have $F^{\text {perf }}=F^{1 / p^{\infty}}=\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} F^{1 / p^{n}}$. Here $F^{1 / p^{n}}=\left\{a \in F^{\text {perf }} \mid a^{p^{n}} \in\right.$ $F\}$. Note that the $n$-th iterate of Frobenius induces an isomorphism $F^{1 / p^{n}} \xrightarrow{\sim} F$.

### 1.7 The Primitive Element Theorem

Theorem 1.7.1. Every finite separable extension $E / F$ admits a primitive element.
Lemma 1.7.2. Let $F$ be a field. Then every finite subgroup $A$ of $F^{\times}$is cyclic. In particular, $F^{\times}$is cyclic if $F$ is a finite field.

Proof. By the structure theorem of finite abelian groups, $A \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{Z} / d_{i} \mathbb{Z}$ with $d_{1}|\cdots| d_{n}$. Note that $\# A=d_{1} \cdots d_{n}$ and each $a \in A$ satisfies $a^{d_{n}}=1$. However, $X^{d_{n}}-1$ has at most $d_{n}$ roots. Thus $d_{1}=\cdots=d_{n-1}=1$ and $A \simeq \mathbb{Z} / d_{n} \mathbb{Z}$ is cyclic.

Proof of Theorem T.7.1. If $F$ is a finite field, then $E$ is also finite. In this case, any generator of $E^{\times}$is a primitive element for $E / F$.

Assume $F$ infinite. We have $E=F\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$. By induction it suffices to show that $F\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=F(a)$ for some $a$. We will show that $F\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=F\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}\right)$ for all but finitely many $t \in F$. Let $P_{i}$ be the minimal polynomial of $x_{i}$. Let $R \in F\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}\right)[X]$ be the monic greatest common divisor of $P_{1}\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}-t X\right)$ and $P_{2}(X)$. Then $x_{2}$ is a root of $R$. For every root $z \neq x_{2}$ of $R$ in an algebraic closure $F^{\text {alg }}$ of $F, y=x_{1}+t x_{2}-t z$ is a root of $P_{1}$. Let $T$ be the finite set of $t \in F$ of the form $t=\frac{y-x_{1}}{x_{2}-z}$ for some root $z \in F^{\text {alg }}$ of $P_{2}$ different from $x_{2}$ and some root $y \in F^{\text {alg }}$ of $P_{1}$. Let $t \in F \backslash T$. Then $x_{2}$ is the only root of $R$ in $F^{\text {alg }}$. Since $R \mid P_{2}$ is separable, we have $R=X-x_{2}$. Thus $x_{2} \in F\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}\right)$ and $x_{1}=\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}\right)-t x_{2} \in F\left(x_{1}+t x_{2}\right)$.
Example 1.7.3. Let $F=\mathbb{F}_{p}(X, Y)$. Then $F / F^{p}$ is a finite purely inseparable extension with no primitive element. Indeed, $\left[F: F^{p}\right]=p^{2}$, but $\left[F^{p}(x): F^{p}\right]=p$ for every $x \in F \backslash F^{p}$.

The following theorem, which gives a necessary and sufficient condition for simple extensions, will not be used in the rest of these notes.

Theorem 1.7.4 (Steinitz). A finite extension $K / F$ admits a primitive element if and only if there are only finitely many intermediate fields $F \subseteq E \subseteq K$.

Proof. The "only if" part. As before we may assume that $F$ is infinite. By Lemma L.7.5 below, there exists $x \in K$ that is not contained in any intermediate field $F \subseteq E \subsetneq K$. Since $F \subseteq F(x) \subseteq K$. We must have $F(x)=K$.

The "if" part. Let $x \in K$ be a primitive element. Let $P \in F[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of $x$ over $F$. Consider the map

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { intermediate fields } E \text { of } K / F\} & \rightarrow\{\text { factors of } P \text { in } K[X]\} \\
E & \mapsto P_{E},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $P_{E}=X^{d}+a_{d-1} X^{d-1}+\cdots+a_{0} \in E[X]$ denotes the minimal polynomial of $x$ over $E$. We claim that $E=F\left(a_{0}, \ldots a_{d-1}\right)$. Clearly $F\left(a_{0}, \ldots a_{d-1}\right) \subseteq E$. Since $P(x)=0,\left[K: F\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{d-1}\right)\right] \leq d=[K: E]$. This finishes the proof of the claim. It follows from the claim that the map $E \mapsto P_{E}$ is an injection. Since there are only finitely many factors of $P$, the same holds for intermediate fields of $K / F$.

Lemma 1.7.5. Let $F$ be an infinite field and let $A=F^{d}$ be an affine $F$-space. Then A cannot be covered by finitely many hyperplanes.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $d$. The case $d=0$ is trivial. Let $d \geq 1$. Assume that $A=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_{i}$, where each $H_{i}$ is a hyperplane of $A$. Since $F$ is infinite, there are infinitely many hyperplanes of $A$. Let $H$ be a hyperplane of $A$ that is not one of the $H_{i}$ 's. Then $H=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n}\left(H \cap H_{i}\right)$, where each $H \cap H_{i}$ is either empty or a hyperplane of $H$. This contradicts the induction hypothesis.

In the case where $K / F$ is finite separable, Galois theory gives a description of the finite partially ordered set of intermediate fields of $K / F$.

### 1.8 Finite Galois extensions

Definition 1.8.1. A separable and normal field extension $E / F$ is called a Galois extension. $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)=\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E)$ is called the Galois group of the extension.

Given a separable extension $E / F$, the normal closure is a Galois extension over $F$ and is called the Galois closure of $E / F$.

Combining Propositions $\mathbb{[ . 5 . ]} \mathbb{Z}$ and $[.6 .]^{2}$, we get the following properties.
Proposition 1.8.2. (1) Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions. Then $K / F$ Galois implies $K / E$ Galois.
(2) Let $K / E / F$ and $K / E^{\prime} / F$ be two factorizations. Then $E^{\prime} / F$ Galois implies $E \cdot E^{\prime} / E$ Galois.
(3) Let $K / E_{i} / F, i \in I$ be a family of factorizations. Then $E_{i} / F$ Galois for all $i \in I$ implies $\bigcap_{i \in I} E_{i}$ (assuming I nonempty) and $\bigvee_{i \in I} E_{i} / F$ Galois.

In the rest of this section, we study finite Galois extensions.
Proposition 1.8.3. Let $E / F$ be a finite extension. Then $\#_{A u t_{F}}(E) \leq[E: F]$. The equality holds if and only if the extension is Galois.

Proof. Let $E^{\text {alg }}$ be an algebraic closure of $E$. Then $\# \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E) \leq \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, E^{\text {alg }}\right)=$ $[E: F]_{\text {sep }} \leq[E: F]$. The first inequality is an equality if and only if $E / F$ is normal. The second inequality is an equality if and only if $E / F$ is separable.

For a subgroup $H<\operatorname{Aut}(E)$, the fixed point set

$$
E^{H}=\{x \in E \mid \sigma(x)=x \text { for all } \sigma \in H\}
$$

is a field, called the fixed field.
Theorem 1.8.4 (Fixed Field Theorem). Let $H<\operatorname{Aut}(E)$ be a finite subgroup. Then $E / E^{H}$ is a finite Galois extension with Galois group $H$.

Proof. Let $x \in E$ and let $O=H x \subseteq E$. Then $x$ is a root of $P(X)=\prod_{y \in O}(X-y) \in$ $E^{H}[X]$. Note that $P(X)$ is a separable polynomial of degree dividing $\# H$ and $P(X)$ splits in $E[X]$. Thus $E / E^{H}$ is a Galois extension. Moreover, $\left[E: E^{H}\right] \leq \# H$ by Lemma [.8.5 below. By Proposition [.8.3], $\# \operatorname{Gal}\left(E / E^{H}\right)=\left[E: E^{H}\right] \leq \# H$. Clearly $H<\operatorname{Gal}\left(E / E^{H}\right)$. Therefore, $H=\operatorname{Gal}\left(E / E^{H}\right)$.

Lemma 1.8.5. Let $E / F$ be an separable extension. Then

$$
\sup _{x \in E}[F(x): F]= \begin{cases}{[E: F]} & E / F \text { finite } \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Proof. The finite case follows immediately from the Primitive Element Theorem. Assume that $E / F$ is infinite. Then, for any $x \in E$, there exist $y \in E \backslash F(x)$ and $z \in E$ such that $F(x, y)=F(z) \supsetneq F(x)$ by the Primitive Element Theorem. Thus $[F(z): F]>[F(x): F]$.
E. Artin gave a direct proof of the inequality $\left[E: E^{H}\right] \leq \# H$, called Artin's lemma, without using the Primitive Element Theorem.

We have the following strengthening of the first assertion of Proposition [.8.3.
Corollary 1.8.6. Let $E / F$ be a finite extension. Then $\# \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E) \mid[E: F]$.
Proof. Let $H=\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E)$. Then $F \subseteq E^{H}$, so that $\# H=\left[E: E^{H}\right] \mid[E: F]$.
Theorem 1.8.7 (finite Galois correspondence). Let $K$ be a field. Then we have a bijection
$\{$ subfields $E \subseteq K$ such that $K / E$ is finite Galois $\} \leftrightarrow\{$ finite subgroups $H<\operatorname{Aut}(K)\}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
E & \mapsto \operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \\
K^{H} & \hookleftarrow H
\end{aligned}
$$

satisfying the following properties:
(1) (order-reversal) For $E \leadsto H$ and $E^{\prime} \longleftrightarrow H^{\prime}, E \subseteq E^{\prime}$ if and only if $H \supseteq H^{\prime}$. In particular, $E E^{\prime} \leadsto H \cap H^{\prime}$.
(2) (equivariance) For $E \longleftrightarrow H$ and $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(K), \sigma E \longleftrightarrow \sigma H \sigma^{-1}$.

Proof. By the Fixed Field Theorem, $H=\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{H}\right)$. Clearly $E \subseteq K^{\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)}$. Moreover $[K: E]=\# \operatorname{Gal}(K / E)=\left[K: K^{\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)}\right]$ by the Fixed Field Theorem. Thus $E=K^{\mathrm{Gal}(K / E)}$. Properties (1) and (2) are clear.

Warning 1.8.8. For $E, E^{\prime} \subseteq K$ such that $K / E$ and $K / E^{\prime}$ are finite Galois, $K / E \cap E^{\prime}$ is not necessarily an algebraic extension. For example, if $k$ is a field of characteristic 0 and $K=k(X), E=k\left(X^{2}\right), E^{\prime}=k\left((X-1)^{2}\right)$, then $E \cap E^{\prime}=k$. Indeed, $E=K^{\langle\sigma\rangle}$ and $E^{\prime}=K^{\langle\tau\rangle}$ with $\sigma(x)=-x$ and $\tau(x-1)=1-x$, so that $E \cap E^{\prime} \subseteq E^{\langle\sigma \tau\rangle}=k$, where $\sigma \tau(x)=x+2$.

Remark 1.8.9. For $E \leftrightarrow H$ and $E^{\prime} \leadsto H^{\prime}$ under the above bijection, $K$ is finite Galois over $E \cap E^{\prime}$ if and only if $\left\langle H H^{\prime}\right\rangle$ is finite. In this case, $E \cap E^{\prime} \leadsto\left\langle H H^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Here $\left\langle H H^{\prime}\right\rangle$ denotes the subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(K)$ generated by $H$ and $H^{\prime}$.

Corollary 1.8.10. Let $K / F$ be a finite Galois extension with Galois group $G$. Then we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { intermediate fields } E \text { of } K / F\} & \leftrightarrow\{\text { subgroups } H<G\} \\
E & \mapsto \operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \\
K^{H} & \leftrightarrow H
\end{aligned}
$$

satisfying the following properties:
(1) (order-reversal) For $E \leadsto H$ and $E^{\prime} \leadsto H^{\prime}, E \subseteq E^{\prime}$ if and only if $H \supseteq H^{\prime}$. In particular, $E E^{\prime} \leftrightarrow H \cap H^{\prime}$ and $E \cap E^{\prime} \longleftrightarrow\left\langle H H^{\prime}\right\rangle$.
(2) (G-equivariance) For $E \longleftrightarrow H$ and $\sigma \in G, \sigma E \leadsto \sigma H \sigma^{-1}$. In particular, $E / F$ is normal if and only if $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$.

## Remark 1.8.11.

(1) For $E \leftrightarrow H$ under the above bijection, we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi: G / H & \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, K)} \\
\sigma H & \left.\mapsto \sigma\right|_{E},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is an isomorphism of groups $G / H \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ for $E / F$ normal. Indeed, $\phi$ is a surjection by Proposition $\mathrm{LS}$. . M . Moreover, $\phi$ is an injection, because for $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime} \in G,\left.\sigma\right|_{E}=\left.\sigma^{\prime}\right|_{E}$ if and only if $\left.\sigma^{-1} \sigma^{\prime}\right|_{E}=\mathrm{id}_{E}$.
(2) For $E \longleftrightarrow H$ and $E^{\prime} \longleftrightarrow H^{\prime}$ under the Galois correspondence, the bijection in (1) induces a bijection

$$
\left\{\sigma \mid \sigma H \sigma^{-1} \supseteq H^{\prime}\right\} / H \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, E^{\prime}\right) .
$$

For $E^{\prime}=E$, this is an isomorphism of groups

$$
N_{G}(H) / H \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E),
$$

where $N_{G}(H)$ denotes the normalizer of $H$ in $G$.
Proposition 1.8.12. Let $E$ and $K$ be intermediate fields of an extension $L / F$. Assume that $K / F$ is finite Galois. Then we have an isomorphism of groups

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Gal}(E K / E) & \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Gal}(K / E \cap K) \\
\sigma & \left.\mapsto \sigma\right|_{K} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The homomorphism is clearly injective. Let $H$ be its image. Then $K^{H} \subseteq$ $(E K)^{\operatorname{Gal}(E K / E)}=E$. Thus $K^{H}=E \cap K$. It follows that $H=\operatorname{Gal}(K / E \cap K)$.

We say that an extension $E / F$ is abelian if it is Galois and $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ is abelian.
Corollary 1.8.13. Let $E / F$ and $K / F$ be finite Galois subextensions of an extension $L / F$. We have an injective homomorphism of groups

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Gal}(E K / F) & \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \times \operatorname{Gal}(K / F) \\
\sigma & \mapsto\left(\left.\sigma\right|_{E},\left.\sigma\right|_{K}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

which is an isomorphism if $F=E \cap K$. In particular, if $E / F$ and $K / F$ are both abelian, then $E K / F$ is abelian.

Proof. The homomorphism is clearly injective. If $F=E \cap K$, then the source and target have the same cardinality: $[E K: F]=[E K: E][E: F]=[K: F][E: F]$ by Proposition
Example 1.8.14. Let $K=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ be the fraction field of the irreducible polynomial $X^{3}-2$ over $\mathbb{Q}$, where $\omega=e^{2 \pi i / 3}$. Let $\alpha_{n}=\sqrt[3]{2} \omega^{n-1}, n=0,1,2$ be the roots of $X^{3}-2$. Then $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbb{Q})$ acts faithfully on $S=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}\right\}$, so that we have a group embedding $G \rightarrow \Sigma_{S} \simeq \Sigma_{3}$ into the symmetric group. We have seen $[K: \mathbb{Q}]=[K: \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})][\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}): \mathbb{Q}]=6=\# \Sigma_{3}$. Thus the embedding is an isomorphism $G \xrightarrow{\sim} \Sigma_{3}$. The subgroups of $\Sigma_{3}$ are

$$
1,\langle(23)\rangle,\langle(13)\rangle,\langle(12)\rangle,\langle(123)\rangle=A_{3}, \Sigma_{3} .
$$

The corresponding intermediate fields are

$$
K, \mathbb{Q}\left(\alpha_{1}\right), \mathbb{Q}\left(\alpha_{2}\right), \mathbb{Q}\left(\alpha_{3}\right), \mathbb{Q}(\omega), \mathbb{Q} .
$$

Proposition 1.8.15. Let $F_{0}$ be a field and let $K=F_{0}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ be the field of rational functions, equipped with the obvious action of $\Sigma_{n}$. Then $K^{\Sigma_{n}}=F:=$ $F_{0}\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right)$ is the field of rational functions in the elementary symmetric polynomials $T_{k}=\sum_{1 \leq i_{1}<\cdots<i_{k} \leq n} X_{i_{1}} \cdots X_{i_{k}}$. Moreover, $K / F$ is a finite Galois extension with Galois group $\Sigma_{n}$.

Proof. By the Fundamental Theorem of Symmetric Polynomials, $F_{0}\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]^{\Sigma_{n}}=$ $F_{0}\left[T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right]=R$ is a polynomial ring in the $T_{k}$ 's. Clearly $F \subseteq K^{\Sigma_{n}}$. Conversely, for $f=P / Q \in K^{\Sigma_{n}}$, where $P, Q \in F_{0}\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$, we have $f=A / B$, where $B=\prod_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{n}} \sigma Q \in R$ and $A=f B \in R$. The last assertion follows from the fact that the action of $\Sigma_{n}$ on $K$ is faithful.

Remark 1.8.16. Given any field $F$ and any finite group $G$, there exists a finitely generated extension $E / F$, a finite Galois extension $K / E$ and an isomorphism $G \simeq$ $\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)$. Indeed, it suffices to embed $G$ into $\Sigma_{n}$ for some $n$ and take $K=$ $F\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), E=K^{G}$.

### 1.9 Irreducibility of polynomials

Proposition 1.9.1 (Gauss's Lemma). Let $R$ be a Unique Factorization Domain (UFD) and let $F=\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. Let $P \in R[X]$ such that $P=P_{1} P_{2}$ with $P_{1}, P_{2} \in F[X]$. Then there exists $c \in F^{\times}$such that $P=\left(c^{-} 1 P_{1}\right)\left(c P_{2}\right)$ with $c^{-1} P_{1}, c P_{2} \in R[X]$. In particular, every polynomial irreducible in $R[X]$ of degree $\geq 1$ is also irreducible in $F[X]$.

We will give a proof in the language of valuations.
Definition 1.9.2. Let $F$ be a field. A valuation (of rank 1 ) on $F$ is a group homomorphism $v: F^{\times} \rightarrow(\mathbb{R},+)$ satisfying $v(x+y) \geq \min \{v(x), v(y)\}$ for all $x, y \in$ $F$. We adopt the convention $v(0)=+\infty$.

Remark 1.9.3. (1) For any real number $a>1$, we then obtain an absolute value $|x|=a^{-v(x)}$ that satisfies the strong triangle inequality $|x+y| \leq \max \{|x|,|y|\}$.
(2) For any root of unity $\zeta \in F, v(\zeta)=0$.
(3) If $v(x) \neq v(y)$, then $v(x+y)=\min \{v(x), v(y)\}$. Indeed, if $v(x)<v(y)$, then $v(x)=v((x+y)+(-y)) \geq \min \{v(x+y), v(y)\}$ implies $v(x+y)=v(x)$.

Example 1.9.4. Let $R$ be a UFD and $F=\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. Let $p$ be an irreducible element of $R$. Then $v_{p}: F^{\times} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ carrying $u \prod_{q} q^{a_{q}}$ to $a_{p}$ is a valuation on $F$, called the $p$-adic valuation. Here $u \in R^{\times}$and $q$ runs through associate classes of irreducible elements of $R$. Note that $R$ can be recovered from $F$ and the $v_{p}$ 's: we have $R=\left\{x \in F \mid v_{p}(x) \geq 0, \forall p\right\}$.

If $R$ is a PID, the $v_{p}$ 's are the only valuations $v$ of $F$ satisfying $v(R \backslash\{0\}) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. In particular, for $R=\mathbb{Z}$, the $v_{p}$ 's are the only valuations $v$ of $F=\mathbb{Q}$ (Ostrowski's Theorem).

Lemma 1.9.5. Let $v$ be a valuation on a field $F$. For a polynomial $P(X)=$ $\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i}$, define $v(P)=\min _{i} v\left(a_{i}\right)$. Then $v(P Q)=v(P)+v(Q)$.

It is then easy to check that $v$ extends to a valuation of $F(X)$, called the Gauss valuation, given by the formula $v(P / Q)=v(P)-v(Q)$.

Proof. Let $Q=\sum_{j=0}^{m} b_{j} X^{j}, P Q=\sum_{k=0}^{n+m} c_{k} X^{k}$. Then $c_{k}=\sum_{l} a_{l} b_{k-l}$. Clearly $v\left(c_{k}\right) \geq v(P)+v(Q)$. Let $i$ be the least integer such that $v(P)=v\left(a_{i}\right)$ and let $j$ be the least integer such that $v(Q)=v\left(b_{j}\right)$. Then $v\left(a_{i} b_{j}\right)=v(P)+v(Q)$ and $v\left(a_{l} b_{i+j-l}\right)>v(P)+v(Q)$ for all $l \neq i$ by Remark $\mathbb{L . 9 3}$ (3). Thus $v\left(c_{i+j}\right)=$ $v(P)+v(Q)$. Therefore, $v(P Q)=v(P)+v(Q)$

Proof of Proposition [.9.]. For every irreducible element $p$ of $R, v_{p}\left(P_{1}\right)+v_{p}\left(P_{2}\right)=$ $v_{p}(P) \geq 0$. Let $a_{p}=v_{p}\left(P_{1}\right)$. We have $a_{p}=0$ for all but finitely many associate classes of $p$. Let $c=\prod_{p} p^{a_{p}} \in F^{\times}$, where $p$ runs through a system of representatives of the associate classes of irreducible elements. Then $P=\left(c^{-1} P_{1}\right)\left(c P_{2}\right)$.

The associate class of $c \in F^{\times}$in the proof is called the content of $P_{1}$.
Corollary 1.9.6. Let $R$ be a UFD of fraction field $F$ and let $P \in R[X]$ and $P_{1} \in$ $F[X]$ be monic polynomials satisfying $P_{1} \mid P$ in $F[X]$. Then $P_{1} \in R[X]$.

Proof. By Gauss's Lemma, there exists $c \in F^{\times}$such that $c P_{1}$ is a factor of $P$ in $R[X]$. Since $P$ and $P_{1}$ are monic, we have $c \in R^{\times}$and $P_{1} \in R[X]$.

Example 1.9.7. $P(X)=X^{3}+X+1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$. (By the proposition, otherwise $P$ would have a factor of the form $X \pm 1$, which is not the case.)

## Newton polygons

Let $F$ be a field equipped with a valuation $v: F^{\times} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
Definition 1.9.8. Let $P(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \in F[X]$ be a nonzero polynomial. The Newton polygon $N P_{P}$ of $P$ with respect to $v$ is the lower boundary of the convex hull of the points $\left\{\left(i, v\left(a_{i}\right)\right) \mid a_{i} \neq 0\right\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

The polygon $N P_{P}$ is the graph of a lower-convex piecewise-linear function defined on a closed interval of $\mathbb{R}$. The endpoints and breakpoints are of the form $\left(i, v\left(a_{i}\right)\right)$. The length of the interval on which the function has slope $\lambda \in R$ is called the multiplicity of $\lambda$.

Given two nonvertical line segments $L=\overline{A B}$ and $L^{\prime}=\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}$ (possibly of zero length) of the same slope in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, with $A$ lying to the left of $B$ and $A^{\prime}$ lying to the left of $B^{\prime}$, we let $L+L^{\prime}$ denote the line segment $\overline{A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}$, where $A^{\prime \prime}=A+A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime \prime}=B+B^{\prime}$. The graph of a lower-convex piecewise-linear functions defined on a closed interval can be written uniquely as $\Gamma=\bigcup_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}} L_{\lambda}$, where $L_{\lambda}=\ell_{\lambda} \cap \Gamma$ is a line segment (possibly of zero length), $\ell_{l} a m b d a$ is a line of slope $\lambda$. Let $\Gamma^{\prime}=\bigcup_{\lambda} L_{\lambda}^{\prime}$ be another such graph, of a lower-convex piecewise-linear functions defined on another closed intervals of $\mathbb{R}$. We define $\Gamma+\Gamma^{\prime}=\bigcup_{\lambda}\left(L_{\lambda}+L_{\lambda}^{\prime}\right)$. It is easy to see that $\Gamma+\Gamma^{\prime}$ is the lower boundary of the convex hull of $\left\{C+C^{\prime} \mid C \in \Gamma, C^{\prime} \in \Gamma^{\prime}\right\}$.

Proposition 1.9.9. Let $P, Q \in F[X]$ be nonzero. Then $N P_{P Q}=N P_{P}+N P_{Q}$.
 The line segments of slope $\lambda$ of $N P_{P}$ and $N P_{Q}$ have the form $L=\overline{\left(i, v\left(a_{i}\right)\right)\left(i^{\prime}, v\left(a_{i^{\prime}}\right)\right)}$, $i \leq j$ and $M=\overline{\left(j, v\left(b_{j}\right)\right)\left(j^{\prime}, v\left(b_{j^{\prime}}\right)\right)}, i^{\prime} \leq j^{\prime}$, respectively. Then $v\left(a_{k}\right) \geq v\left(a_{i}\right)+\lambda(k-i)$ and strict inequality holds for $k \notin\left[i, i^{\prime}\right]$. Similarly for $v\left(b_{k}\right)$. Note that $c_{k}=\sum_{l} a_{l} b_{k-l}$. Thus $v\left(c_{k}\right) \geq v\left(a_{i}\right)+v\left(b_{j}\right)+\lambda(k-i-j)$ and strict inequality holds for $k \notin\left[i+i^{\prime}, j+j^{\prime}\right]$. Moreover, $v\left(c_{i+j}\right)=v\left(a_{i}\right)+v\left(b_{j}\right)$ and $v\left(c_{i^{\prime}+j^{\prime}}\right)=v\left(a_{i^{\prime}}\right)+v\left(b_{j^{\prime}}\right)$. Thus the line segment of $N P_{P Q}$ of slope $\lambda$ is $L+M$.

Remark 1.9.10. Let $K$ be the splitting field of $P$ over $F$ and let $w: K^{\times} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a valuation extending of $v$. (One can show that an extension of $v$ to an algebraic extension of $F$ always exists, but is not unique in general.) It follows from the proposition that the multiset of slopes of $N P_{P}$ is precisely the multiset of $-w(\alpha), \alpha$ running through roots of $P$.

Corollary 1.9.11. Let $P(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \in F[X]$ be a polynomial with $a_{0} a_{n} \neq 0$. Assume that there exists a valuation $v$ on $F$ such that $N P_{P}$ is a line segment and $\frac{v\left(a_{n}\right)-v\left(a_{0}\right)}{p} \notin v\left(F^{\times}\right)$for all prime divisors $p$ of $n$. Then $P(X)$ is irreducible.

Proof. Assume that $P=Q R$ is reducible with $i=\operatorname{deg}(Q)$ satisfying $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. Then $N P_{Q}$ is a line segment of slope $\lambda=\frac{v\left(a_{n}\right)-v\left(a_{0}\right)}{n}$ so that $i \lambda \in v\left(F^{\times}\right)$. It follows that $(i, n) \lambda \in v\left(F^{\times}\right)$, where ( $i, n$ ) denotes the least common divisor of $i$ and $n$. This contradicts the assumption by taking a prime divisor of $n /(i, n)$.

Corollary 1.9.12. Let $P(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \in F[X]$. Assume that there exists a valuation $v: F^{\times} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v\left(a_{0}\right)=1, v\left(a_{n}\right)=0$, and $v\left(a_{i}\right) \geq 1$ for all $i=$ $1, \ldots, n-1$. Then $P(X)$ is irreducible.

Such a polynomial is called an Eisenstein polynomial for $v$.
Example 1.9.13. (1) $X^{4}+2 X+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is an Eisenstein polynomial for $v_{2}$ and hence is irreducible.
(2) $X^{5}+4 X+4 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is irreducible by Corollary 1.9$]$ applied to $v_{2}$.

### 1.10 Galois groups of polynomials

Let $F$ be a field and $P(X) \in F[X]$ a separable polynomial. Let $K$ be the splitting field of $P$ over $F$, which is a finite Galois extension of $F$. Every finite Galois extension of $F$ can be obtained in this way. The Galois group $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is also called the Galois group of $P$ over $F$. Note that $G$ acts faithfully on the set $S$ of roots of $P$ in $K$ : we have a group embedding $G \rightarrow \Sigma_{S}$.

Lemma 1.10.1. The is a bijection between irreducible factors of $P(X)$ in $F[X]$ and orbits $O$ of $S$ under $G$. More precisely, we have $P(X)=c \Pi_{O} Q_{O}(X)$, where $c \in F^{\times}$ and $Q_{O}(X)=\prod_{\alpha \in O}(X-\alpha) \in F[X]$ is irreducible. In particular, $P(X) \in F[X]$ is irreducible if and only if $G$ acts transitively on $S$. Moreover, for every $\alpha \in S$, we have a bijection $G / \operatorname{Gal}(K / F(\alpha)) \xrightarrow{\sim} O$ carrying $\sigma H$ to $\sigma \alpha$, where $O=G \alpha$ is the $G$-orbit of $\alpha$.

Proof. Clearly $Q_{O}(X) \in K[X]^{G}=F[X]$. Moreover, any factorization of $Q_{O}$ corresponds to a partition of $O$ into $G$-stable subsets. Thus $Q_{O}$ is irreducible. The last assertion follows from Remark $[.8 . \square 1$ (1).

We fix an enumeration $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ of $S$, which induces $\Sigma_{S} \simeq \Sigma_{n}$. Assume that $P(X)$ is monic. Let $D(P)=\prod_{i<j}\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right) \in K$. For $\sigma \in G, \sigma(D(P))=\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) D(P)$, where $\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)= \pm 1$ denotes the signature of $\sigma$. Thus $\Delta(P)=D(P)^{2} \in K^{G}=F$, which does not depend on the enumeration of $S$ and is called the discriminant of $P$. Without assuming $P$ monic or separable, one defines $\Delta(P)=a_{n}^{2 n-2} \prod_{i<j}\left(\alpha_{i}-\alpha_{j}\right)^{2} \in$ $F$, where $a_{n}$ is the leading coefficient of $P$. Note that $\Delta(P) \neq 0$ if and only if $P$ is separable.

Example 1.10.2. (1) $\Delta\left(X^{2}+b X+c\right)=\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}\right)^{2}=b^{2}-4 c$.
(2) $\Delta\left(X^{3}+b X^{2}+c X+d\right)=-4 b^{3} d+b^{2} c^{2}+18 b c d-4 c^{3}-27 d^{2}$. In particular, $\Delta\left(X^{3}+c X+d\right)=-4 c^{3}-27 d^{2}$.

Assume again that $P$ is monic and separable.
For $\operatorname{char}(F)=2, D(P) \in F$. In this case, let $d(P)=\sum_{i<j} \alpha_{i} /\left(\alpha_{i}+\alpha_{j}\right)$. For $\sigma \in G$,

$$
\sigma(d(P))=d(P)+ \begin{cases}0 & \sigma \in A_{n} \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Thus $\delta(P)=d(P)^{2}+d(P) \in K^{G}=F$, which does not depend on the enumeration of $S$. Indeed, $\delta(P)=\sum_{i<j} \frac{\alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}}{\left(\alpha_{i}+\alpha_{j}\right)^{2}}$.

## Proposition 1.10.3.

(1) Assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2$. Then $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F(D(P)))=G \cap A_{n}$. In particular, $G<A_{n}$ if and only if $\Delta(P) \in F^{\times 2}$.
(2) Assume $\operatorname{char}(F)=2$. Then $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F(d(P)))=G \cap A_{n}$. In particular, $G<A_{n}$ if and only if $X^{2}+X+\delta(P)$ has a root in $F$.

Proof. For (1), $\sigma(D(P))=D(P)$ if and only $\sigma \in A_{n}$. It follows that $F(D(P))=F$ if and only if $G<A_{n}$. (2) is similar, with $D(P)$ replaced by $d(P)$. The roots of $X^{2}+X+\delta(P)$ are $d(P)$ and $d(P)+1$.

Remark 1.10.4. Assume $\operatorname{deg}(P)=2$. If $P$ splits, then $G=1$. If $P$ is irreducible, then $G=\Sigma_{2}$.

Remark 1.10.5. Assume $\operatorname{deg}(P)=3$. If $P$ splits, then $G=1$. If $P=Q \cdot\left(X-\alpha_{3}\right)$ with $Q \in F[X]$ irreducible and $\alpha_{3} \in F$, then $G=\Sigma_{2}$. If $P$ is irreducible, then $G=A_{3}$ or $G=\Sigma_{3}$, which can be determined by Proposition [.]...3.

Example 1.10.6. $P(X)=X^{3}-3 X-1 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. Since $P(X)$ is irreducible and $\Delta(P)=-4(-3)^{3}-27(-1)^{2}=81=9^{2}$, the Galois group is $A_{3}$.

Example 1.10.7. $P(X)=X^{3}-3 X-3 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. This is an Eisenstein polynomial for 3 and hence irreducible. Since $\Delta(P)=-4(-3)^{3}-27(-3)^{2}=-5 \times 27$ is not a square in $\mathbb{Q}$, the Galois group of $P(X)$ is $A_{3}$.

## Quartic equations

Assume $\operatorname{deg}(P)=4$. We have the following possibilities:
(1) $P=Q \cdot\left(X-\alpha_{4}\right)$ in $F[X]$. Then $G<\Sigma_{3}$ is as in Remark [.]0.5.
(2) $P=Q R$ with $Q$ and $R$ irreducible of degree 2 in $F[X]$. Then we number the roots so that $Q=\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{2}\right)$ and $R=\left(X-\alpha_{3}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{4}\right)$. Then $G=\{\mathrm{id},(12)(34)\}<A_{4}$ or $G=\langle(12),(34)\rangle \nless A_{4}$. This can be determined for example by Proposition [1.10.3.
(3) $P$ irreducible. There are five possibilities for $G$ up to conjugation:

- $\Sigma_{4}$
- $A_{4}$
- $C_{4}=\langle(1234)\rangle$
- $D_{4}=\langle(1234),(13)\rangle$ (dihedral group)
- $V=\{\mathrm{id},(12)(34),(13)(24),(14)(23)\}$.

We have $V<A_{4}, C_{4} \nless A_{4}, D_{4} \nless A_{4}$. Proposition I.IO. 3 is not enough to determine $G$.

Example 1.10.8. (1) For $P(X)=\left(X^{2}-2\right)\left(X^{2}-8\right), G=\{i d,(12)(34)\}$.
(2) For $P(X)=\left(X^{2}+1\right)\left(X^{2}-2\right), G=\langle(12),(34)\rangle$.

Consider the set of partitions

$$
T=\{\{\{1,2\},\{3,4\}\},\{\{1,3\},\{2,4\}\},\{\{1,4\},\{2,3\}\}\}
$$

of $\{1,2,3,4\}$, equipped with the obvious action of $\Sigma_{4}$. The homomorphism $\Sigma_{4} \rightarrow \Sigma_{T}$ is surjective of kernel $V$. Consider the elements of $K$

$$
\gamma_{1}=\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}+\alpha_{3} \alpha_{4}, \quad \gamma_{2}=\alpha_{1} \alpha_{3}+\alpha_{2} \alpha_{4}, \quad \gamma_{3}=\alpha_{1} \alpha_{4}+\alpha_{2} \alpha_{3} .
$$

They are pairwise distinct:
$\gamma_{1}-\gamma_{2}=\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{4}\right)\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{3}\right), \quad \gamma_{1}-\gamma_{3}=\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right)\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{4}\right), \quad \gamma_{2}-\gamma_{3}=\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{4}\right)$.
We thus have an obvious bijection between $T$ and $\left\{\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}\right\}$, equivariant under $G$. The polynomial

$$
Q(X)=\left(X-\gamma_{1}\right)\left(X-\gamma_{2}\right)\left(X-\gamma_{3}\right) \in F[X]
$$

is called the cubic resolvent of $P(X)$. By (LIU.D), we have $D(P)=D(Q)$. (Similarly, an easy computation shows that $d(P)=d(Q)$ if $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2$.) We have proved the following.
Proposition 1.10.9. $K^{G \cap V}=F\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}\right)$ is the splitting field of $Q(X)$.
Corollary 1.10.10. Assume that $P \in F[X]$ is irreducible of degree 4 and let $E=$ $F\left(\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}, \gamma_{3}\right)$. Then
(1) If $[E: F]=1$, then $G=V$;
(2) If $[E: F]=2$, then $G$ is conjugate to $C_{4}$ or $D_{4}$; moreover, in this case, $G$ is conjugate to $D_{4}$ if and only if $P(X)$ remains irreducible in $E[X]$;
(3) If $[E: F]=3$, then $G=A_{4}$;
(4) If $[E: F]=6$, then $G=\Sigma_{4}$.

Proof. Let us compute $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \simeq G / G \cap V$ for each possibility of $G$. We have $V / V=1, C_{4} / C_{4} \cap V \simeq\left\{\mathrm{id},\left(\gamma_{1} \gamma_{3}\right)\right\} \simeq D_{4} / D_{4} \cap V, A_{4} / A_{4} \cap V \simeq A_{T}, \Sigma_{4} / \Sigma_{4} \cap V \simeq \Sigma_{T}$.

Moreover, $\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)=G \cap V$. For the last assertion of (2), note that $C_{4} \cap$ $V=\{\mathrm{id},(13)(24)\}$ does not act transitively on $\{1,2,3,4\}$, while $D_{4} \cap V=V$ acts transitively on $\{1,2,3,4\}$.

Proposition 1.10.11. Let $P \in F[X]$ be a quartic separable polynomial without any root in $F$ such that the cubic resolvent $Q$ is irreducible. Then $P$ is irreducible.

Proof. Assume that $P$ is reducible. Then $P=P_{1} P_{2}$ with $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ of degree 2, so that $G<\langle(12),(34)\rangle$ under a suitable numbering of the roots. Then $G$ fixes $\gamma_{1}$, contradicting the irreducibility of $Q$.

Remark 1.10.12. For $P(X)=X^{4}+b X^{3}+c X^{2}+d X+e$, its cubic resolvent is $Q(X)=X^{3}-c X^{2}+(b d-4 e) X-\left(b^{2} e-4 c e+d^{2}\right)$. In particular, for $b=0$, $Q(X)=X^{3}-c X^{2}-4 e X+\left(4 c e-d^{2}\right)$.

In the notation of Example [.].3], we have $\beta_{i}^{2}=(b / 2)^{2}-c+\gamma_{i}$ if $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2$.
Example 1.10.13. Let $P(X)=X^{4}+X^{2}+4 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. One can check that this is irreducible (exercise). Its cubic resolvent is $Q(X)=(X-c)\left(X^{2}-4 e\right)=(X-$ 1) $\left(X^{2}-16\right)=(X-1)(X-4)(X+4)$. Thus $G=V$.

Example 1.10.14. $P(X)=X^{4}+4 X^{2}+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. This is an Eisenstein polynomial for 2 and hence irreducible. Its cubic resolvent is $Q(X)=(X-4)\left(X^{2}-8\right)$. Over $E=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}), P(X)=\left(X^{2}+2-\sqrt{2}\right)\left(X^{2}+2+\sqrt{2}\right)$. Thus $G \simeq C_{4}$.

The following proposition can be deduced from Corollary [.....]. . We leave the proof as an exercise.
Proposition 1.10.15. Assume that $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2$. Let $P(X)=X^{4}+c X^{2}+e \in F[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial.
(1) If $e$ is a square in $F$, then $G=V$.
(2) If $e\left(c^{2}-4 e\right)$ is a square in $F$, then $G$ is conjugate to $C_{4}$.
(3) If neither e nor $e\left(c^{2}-4 e\right)$ is a square in $F$, then $G$ is conjugate to $D_{4}$.

Example 1.10.16. $P(X)=X^{4}+3 X^{2}+3 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. This is an Eisenstein polynomial for 3 and hence irreducible. Neither $e=3$ nor $e\left(c^{2}-4 e\right)=-9$ is a square in $\mathbb{Q}$. Thus $G \simeq D_{4}$.

Example 1.10.17. $P(X)=X^{4}+8 X+12 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. Its cubic resolvent is $Q(X)=$ $X^{3}-48 X-64=64\left(Y^{3}-3 Y-1\right)$, where $X=4 Y$. We have seen in Example [..0.6 that the Galois group of $Q$ is $A_{3}$. Since $Q(X)$ is irreducible, so is $P(X)$. Since $P(X)$ has no root in $\mathbb{Z}$, it has no root in $\mathbb{Q}$. It follows that $P(X)$ is irreducible and $G=A_{4}$.

Example 1.10.18. $P(X)=X^{4}-2 X+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. This is an Eisenstein polynomial for 2 and hence irreducible. Its cubic resolvent is $Q(X)=X^{3}-8 X-4$, which is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ by Corollary $\mathbb{T . T D .}$. We have $\Delta(Q)=-4(-8)^{3}-27(-4)^{2}=$ $2^{4} \times 101$, which is not a square in $\mathbb{Q}$. Thus, $[E: \mathbb{Q}]=6$ and $G=\Sigma_{4}$.

## Further comments

Proposition 1.10.19. Let $F$ be a subfield of $\mathbb{R}$. Let $P \in F[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial of prime degree $p$ with exactly two imaginary roots in $\mathbb{C}$. Then the Galois group $G$ of $P$ is isomorphic to $\Sigma_{p}$.

The proof of the following lemma is an easy exercise.
Lemma 1.10.20. Let $p$ be a prime number and $G<\Sigma_{p}$ a subgroup containing a $p$-cycle and a transposition. Then $G=\Sigma_{p}$.
Proof of Proposition W...1.19. Let $S$ be the set of roots of $P$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and let $K=F(S)$. Complex conjugation induces an element $\sigma \in G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$, whose image in $\Sigma_{S}$ is a transposition. Since $P$ is irreducible, $S$ is a $G$-orbit. In particular, $p \mid \# G$. By a theorem of Cauchy, it follows that $G$ admits an element of order $p$, which is necessarily a $p$-cycle in $\Sigma_{p}$. We conclude by the preceding lemma.

Example 1.10.21. $P(X)=X^{5}-4 X+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. This is an Eisenstein polynomial for 2 and hence irreducible. The stationary points are $\pm \sqrt[4]{\frac{4}{5}}$, with $P\left(\sqrt[4]{\frac{4}{5}}\right)<0$ and $P\left(-\sqrt[4]{\frac{4}{5}}\right)>0$. Thus $P$ has exactly three real roots. By Proposition ㄷ.IU.19, $G=\Sigma_{5}$.

Given a field $F$ and a finite group $G$, the inverse Galois problem asks whether there exists a finite Galois extension $K / F$ with an isomorphism $G \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$. In the case $F=\mathbb{Q}$, this remains an open problem in general, but is known for many finite groups: $\Sigma_{n}, A_{n}$ (Hilbert), finite solvable groups (Shafarevich), all subgroups of $\Sigma_{16}$, and many others.

### 1.11 Finite fields

Every finite field $F$ has characteristic $p>1$. Moreover, $F$ is a finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, so that $\# F=p^{\left[F: \mathbb{F}_{p}\right]}$.

Theorem 1.11.1. Let $p$ be a prime number and $n \geq 1$ an integer. Let $q=p^{n}$. There exists a finite field $F$ with $\# F=q$, unique up to isomorphism, denoted by $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. It is a splitting field of the separable polynomial $X^{q}-X$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$.

Note that in a field $F$ with $\# F=q, x^{q}=x$ for all $x \in F$. Indeed, for $x \in F^{\times}$, $x^{q-1}=1$.

Proof. Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ be a splitting field of $P(X)=X^{q}-X$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Since $P^{\prime}=-1$ and $\left(P, P^{\prime}\right)=(1), P$ is separable and has exactly $q$ roots. Let $S$ be the set of roots of $P$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Then $S$ contains $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ and is stable under addition, multiplication, and taking inverses (of nonzero elements). Thus $\mathbb{F}_{q}=S$ and $\# \mathbb{F}_{q}=q$.

Let $F$ be a field with $\# F=q$. Then, since $x^{q}=x$ for all $x \in F$, there exists an embedding $F \hookrightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q}$, which must be an isomorphism.

Corollary 1.11.2. Let $E / F$ and $K / F$ be extensions of finite fields with $\# F=q$, $\# E=q^{m}, \# K=q^{n}$. Then there exists an $F$-embedding $E \rightarrow K$ if and only if $m \mid n$.

Proof. If such an $F$-embedding exists, then $\left(q^{m}\right)^{[K: E]}=q^{m}$, so that $n=m[K: E]$. Conversely, assume $m \mid n$. Note that $E$ is the splitting field of $P(X)=X^{q^{m}}-X$ over $F$ and $K$ is the splitting field of $Q(X)=X^{q^{n}}-X$. Moreover, every element $x \in E$ satisfies $x^{q^{m}}=x$ and hence is a root of $Q$. It follows that $P$ divides $Q$ and splits in $K$. Thus there exists an $F$-embedding $E \rightarrow K$.

Theorem 1.11.3. Let $K / F$ be an extension of finite fields with $\# F=q$. Then $K / F$ is a Galois extension and $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is a cyclic group generated by $\operatorname{Fr}_{q}: x \mapsto x^{q}$.

Proof. We have seen that $K / F$ is the splitting field of a separable polynomial and hence is a Galois extension. Let $n=[K: F]=\# \operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$. Then the order $d$ of $\mathrm{Fr}_{q}$ divides $n$. Every $x \in K$ satisfies $x^{q^{d}}=x$. Since $X^{q^{d}}-X$ has (at most) $q^{d}$ roots, $\# K=q^{n} \leq q^{d}$. Thus $d=n$ and $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)=\left\langle\operatorname{Fr}_{q}\right\rangle$.

### 1.12 Cyclotomic fields

Let $F$ be a field.
Definition 1.12.1. For an integer $n \geq 1$, we say that $\zeta \in F$ is an $n$-th root of unity if $\zeta^{n}=1$. We let $\mu_{n}(F) \subseteq F^{\times}$denote the group of $n$-th roots of unity in $F$. We say $\zeta \in F^{\times}$is a primitive $n$-th root of unity if it has order $n$.

Lemma 1.12.2. $\mu_{n}(F)$ is a cyclic group of order dividing $n$. Moreover, if $n=p^{a} m$ for $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, where $p$ denotes the characteristic exponent of $F$, then $\mu_{n}(F)=$ $\mu_{m}(F)$.

Proof. There are at most $n$ solutions of $X^{n}-1$. Thus $\mu_{n}(F) \subseteq F^{\times}$is a finite subgroup. By Lemma $\mathbb{L T} .2, \mu_{n}(F)$ is cyclic. Then $\# \mu_{n}(F)$ is the order of a generator, which must divide $n$. The last assertion is clear, as $x^{p^{a}}=1$ if and only if $x=1$.

It follows that if $\zeta$ is a primitive $n$-th roots of unity of $F$, then $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n$.
Proposition 1.12.3. Let $F\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / F$ be a field extension where $\zeta_{n}$ is a primitive $n$ th roots of unity. Then $F\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / F$ is the splitting field of the separable polynomial $P(X)=X^{n}-1$ over $F$ and we have a group embedding $G=\operatorname{Gal}\left(F\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / F\right) \rightarrow$ $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$carrying $\sigma$ to $a \in(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$satisfying $\sigma\left(\zeta_{n}\right)=\zeta_{n}^{a}$.
$F\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / F$ is called the $n$-th cyclotomic extension of $F$.

Proof. Since $\zeta_{n}$ generates $\mu_{n}(F), F\left(\zeta_{n}\right)$ is the splitting field of $P(X)=X^{n}-1$. Note that $P(X)$ and $P^{\prime}(X)=n X^{n-1}$ are coprime, so that $P$ is separable. For every $\sigma \in G, \sigma\left(\zeta_{n}\right)$ is also a generator of $\mu_{n}(F)$, so that $\sigma\left(\zeta_{n}\right)=\zeta_{n}^{a}$ for some $a \in(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. The injectivity of the group homomorphism is clear.

Let $F$ be a field with $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n$. Let $\Phi_{n}(X)=\Pi_{\zeta}(X-\zeta)$, where $\zeta$ runs through the $n$-th primitive $n$-th roots of unity in a separable closure of $F$.

Lemma 1.12.4. $\Phi_{n}$ belongs to $F[X]$ and has degree $\varphi(n)$, where $\varphi(n)=\#(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ is Euler's totient function. Moreover, $X^{n}-1=\prod_{d \mid n} \Phi_{d}(X)$.

Proof. Let $K$ be the splitting field of $X^{n}-1$ over $F$. For every $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$, $\sigma$ permutes the primitive $n$-th roots of unity, which are in bijection with $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. Finally, $X^{n}-1=\prod_{\zeta \in \mu_{n}(K)}(X-\zeta)$.

We now restrict to the case $F=\mathbb{Q}$.
Theorem 1.12.5. For $F=\mathbb{Q}, \Phi_{n}(X)$ belongs to $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ and is irreducible. Moreover, the group embedding in Proposition $\mathbb{T V 3}$ is an isomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / \mathbb{Q}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim}$ $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$.
Proof of Theorem [1, [2.5. Since $\Phi_{n}(X) \mid X^{n}-1$ in $\mathbb{Q}[X], \Phi_{n}(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$. It suffices to show that $\Phi_{n}(X)$ is irreducible. Indeed, this implies $\left[\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right): \mathbb{Q}\right]=\operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi_{n}\right)=$ $\#(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, so that the homomorphism in Proposition $\mathbb{L} \mathbb{L} 3$ must be an isomorphism.

Assume that $\Phi_{n}=P Q$ with $P, Q \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ monic of degree $\geq 1$. Every root of $\Phi_{n}$ has the form $\zeta_{n}^{a}$ with $(a, n)=1$. Thus there exists a prime number $p \nmid n$ and a root $\zeta$ of $P$ such that $\zeta^{p}$ is a root of $Q$. Indeed, otherwise the roots of $P$ would be stable under raising to the $a$-th power for all $(a, n)=1$, which is impossible. Then $P(X)$ and $Q\left(X^{p}\right)$ are not coprime in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$. It follows that there exists $R(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ monic of degree $\geq 1$ and dividing $P(X)$ and $Q\left(X^{p}\right)$. Consider the reductions $\bar{P}, \bar{Q} \in \mathbb{F}_{p}[X]$ of $P, Q$ modulo $p$. Then $\bar{Q}\left(X^{p}\right)=\bar{Q}(X)^{p}$ is not prime to $\bar{P}$. It follows that $\bar{P}$ and $\bar{Q}$ are not coprime. However $\bar{P} \bar{Q} \mid X^{n}-1$ and $X^{n}-1$ is separable in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[X]$. Contradiction.

Example 1.12.6. For $n=p^{a}$, $\Phi_{p^{a}}(X)=\left(X^{p^{a}}-1\right) /\left(X^{p^{a-1}}-1\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} X^{p^{a-1}}$.
Remark 1.12.7. More generally, $\Phi_{n}$ is given by the Möbius inversion formula

$$
\Phi_{n}=\prod_{d \mid n}\left(X^{d}-1\right)^{\mu(n / d)},
$$

where $\mu$ is the Möbius function

$$
\mu\left(p_{1} \ldots p_{m}\right)= \begin{cases}(-1)^{m} & \text { if } p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m} \text { are distinct primes } \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Indeed, $\prod_{d \mid n}\left(X^{d}-1\right)^{\mu(n / d)}=\prod_{c|d| n} \Phi_{c}(X)^{\mu(n / d)}$, where the multiplicity of $\Phi_{c}(X)$ is

$$
\sum_{c|d| n} \mu(n / d)= \begin{cases}1 & c=n \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

by the elementary identity

$$
\sum_{d \mid n} \mu(d)= \begin{cases}1 & n=1 \\ 0 & n>1\end{cases}
$$

Example 1.12.8. $\Phi_{12}(X)=\left(X^{12}-1\right)\left(X^{6}-1\right)^{-1}\left(X^{4}-1\right)^{-1}\left(X^{2}-1\right)=\frac{X^{6}+1}{X^{2}+1}=$ $X^{4}-X^{2}+1$.

Every subfield of $\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right)$ is an abelian extension of $\mathbb{Q}$. Conversely, we have the following important theorem in number theory, whose proof is beyond the scope of these lectures.

Theorem 1.12.9 (Kronecker-Weber). Every finite abelian extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ can be embedded into $\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right)$ for some $n$.

A finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ is called a number field. The problem of explicit construction of abelian extensions of number fields is known as Kronecker's Jugendtraum or Hilbert's 12th problem. The theory of complex multiplication (CM) solves this for CM fields, but the problem for more general number fields remains open.

### 1.13 Trace and norm

Let $E / F$ be a finite field extension.
Definition 1.13.1. For $\alpha \in E$, we let $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\alpha)=\operatorname{tr}\left(m_{\alpha}\right) \in F$ and $N_{E / F}(\alpha)=$ $\operatorname{det}\left(m_{\alpha}\right) \in F$, where $m_{\alpha}: E \rightarrow E$ is the $F$-linear map defined by $m_{\alpha}(\beta)=\alpha \beta$.

It follows from standard facts about the trace and determinant of linear operators that $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}: E \rightarrow F$ is an $F$-linear map satisfying $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(a)=[E: F] a$ and

$$
N_{E / F}(\alpha \beta)=N_{E / F}(\alpha) N_{E / F}(\beta), \quad N_{E / F}(a)=a^{[E: F]}
$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in E$ and $a \in F$. Moreover, $N_{E / F}(\alpha)=0$ if and only if $\alpha=0$. In particular, $N_{E / F}$ induces a homomorphism $E^{\times} \rightarrow F^{\times}$.

Example 1.13.2. Let $E=F(\alpha)$ and let $P(X)=X^{n}+a_{n-1} X^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{0}$ be the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$. Then $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\alpha)=-a_{n-1}$ and $N_{E / F}(\alpha)=(-1)^{n} a_{0}$. Indeed, in the basis $\left\{1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}\right\}, m_{\alpha}$ is represented by the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -a_{0} \\
1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -a_{1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & -a_{n-1}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

(In fact, $P$ is the characteristic polynomial of $m_{\alpha}$.)
Lemma 1.13.3. Let $K / E / F$ be finite extensions. For every $\alpha \in E$,

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{K / F}(\alpha)=[K: E] \operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\alpha), \quad N_{K / F}(\alpha)=N_{E / F}(\alpha)^{[K: E]} .
$$

Proof. Let $\left(v_{i}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq m}$ be a basis of $K / E$, where $m=[K: E]$ and let $\left(w_{j}\right)$ be a basis of $E / F$. Let $A$ be the matrix of $\alpha$ under $\left(w_{j}\right)$. Then the matrix of $\alpha$ under the basis $\left(v_{i} w_{j}\right)$ of $K / F$ is $\operatorname{diag}(A, \ldots, A)$ ( $A$ repeated $m$ times).

Proposition 1.13.4. Let $K / F$ be a normal extension containing $E$. Then, for any $\alpha \in E$,

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\alpha)=[E: F]_{\text {insep }} \sum_{\iota} \iota(\alpha), \quad N_{E / F}(\alpha)=\prod_{\iota} \iota(\alpha)^{[E: F]_{\text {insep }}}
$$

where $\iota$ runs through $F$-embeddings $E \rightarrow K$.
Proof. The minimal polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ of $\alpha$ satisfies

$$
P(X)=\prod_{\lambda}(X-\lambda(\alpha))^{[F(\alpha): F]_{\text {insep }}},
$$

where $\lambda$ runs through $F$-embeddings $F(\alpha) \rightarrow K$. Thus for $E=F(\alpha)$, the assertion follows from Example [.].3.2]. The general case follows then from Lemma [.].3.3 and the fact that each fiber of the restriction map $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(F(\alpha), K)$ has cardinality $[E: F(\alpha)]_{\text {sep }}$.

The following generalizes Lemma [.].3.3].
Proposition 1.13.5. Let $K / E / F$ be finite extensions. For every $\alpha \in K$,

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{K / F}(\alpha)=\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}\left(\operatorname{tr}_{K / E}(\alpha)\right), \quad N_{K / F}(\alpha)=N_{E / F}\left(N_{K / E}(\alpha)\right) .
$$

Proof. We prove the assertion for traces. The assertion for norms can be proved similarly. Let $L / F$ be a normal extension containing $K$. We have

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}\left(\operatorname{tr}_{K / E}(\alpha)\right)=[E: F]_{\text {insep }} \sum_{\lambda} \lambda\left([K: E]_{\text {insep }} \sum_{\iota} \iota(\alpha)\right)=[K: F]_{\text {insep }} \sum_{\lambda, \iota} \tilde{\lambda} \iota(\alpha),
$$

where $\iota \in \operatorname{Hom}_{E}(K, L), \lambda \in \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, L)$. For each $\lambda, \tilde{\lambda}: L \rightarrow L$ is a chosen extension of $\lambda$. The fiber of the restriction map $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(K, L) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, L)$ at $\lambda$ is $\left\{\tilde{\lambda} \iota \mid \iota \in \operatorname{Hom}_{E}(K, L)\right\}$. Thus

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}\left(\operatorname{tr}_{K / E}(\alpha)\right)=[K: F]_{\text {insep }} \sum_{\mu \in \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(K, L)} \mu(\alpha)=\operatorname{tr}_{K / F}(\alpha) .
$$

More generally, for any $E$-linear map $\phi: V \rightarrow V$, where $V$ is a finite-dimensional $E$-vector space $V$, we have

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{F}(\phi)=\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}\left(\operatorname{tr}_{E}(\phi)\right), \quad \operatorname{det}_{F}(\phi)=N_{E / F}\left(\operatorname{det}_{E}(\phi)\right) .
$$

We refer to [L44, 定理 7.8.5] for a generalization over a commutative ring and a direct proof.

Proposition 1.13.6. (1) If $E / F$ is separable, then $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}: E \rightarrow F$ is surjective. (2) If $E / F$ is inseparable, then $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}$ is zero.

Proof. (2) follows from Proposition [.[.3.4. For (1), it suffices to show that $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}$ is nonzero. Let $\alpha$ be a primitive element for $E / F$. Then $1, \alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}$ is a basis of $E / F$, where $n=[E: F]$. Let $K / F$ be a normal extension containing $E$ and let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots \sigma_{n}: E \rightarrow K$ be the $F$-embeddings. The elements $\sigma_{1}(\alpha), \ldots, \sigma_{n}(\alpha)$ are distinct, so that the Vandermonde matrix $A=\left(\sigma_{j}\left(\alpha^{i-1}\right)\right)$ is invertible. It follows that $\left(\begin{array}{c}\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(1) \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{tr}_{E / F}\left(\alpha^{n-1}\right)\end{array}\right)=A\left(\begin{array}{c}1 \\ \vdots \\ 1\end{array}\right)$ is nonzero.

It is harder to determine the image of $N_{E / F}$.

### 1.14 Hilbert's Theorem 90

Let $E / F$ be a finite Galois extension and let $G=\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$. For any $\beta \in E$,

$$
\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\sigma \beta-\beta)=\sum_{\tau \in G} \tau \sigma \beta-\sum_{\tau \in G} \tau \beta=0 .
$$

Similarly, for any $\beta \in E^{\times}, N_{E / F}(\sigma \beta / \beta)=1$.
A finite Galois extension with cyclic Galois group is called a cyclic extension. For such extensions, the kernels of the trace and norm maps can be determined as follows.

Theorem 1.14.1. Let $E / F$ be a finite cyclic extension and let $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ be a generator.
(1) If $\alpha \in E$ satisfies $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(\alpha)=0$, then $\alpha=\sigma(\beta)-\beta$ for some $\beta \in E$.
(2) (Hilbert 90) If $\alpha \in E^{\times}$satisfies $N_{E / F}(\alpha)=1$, then $\alpha=\sigma(\beta) / \beta$ for some $\beta \in E^{\times}$.

Hilbert's original statement [H], §54, Satz 90] has some extra assumptions ( $F$ is a number field and $[E: F]$ is a prime number).

We will prove a more general form of Theorem $\mathbb{I T} 4$ involving group cohomology. Let $G$ be a group. An abelian group equipped with a $G$-action by automorphisms of abelian groups is called a $G$-module.

Definition 1.14.2. Let $M$ be a $G$-module. A crossed homomorphism is a map $f: G \rightarrow M$ such that $f(\sigma \tau)=f(\sigma)+\sigma f(\tau)$ for all $\sigma, \tau \in G$. For $m \in M$, let $d^{0}(m): G \rightarrow M$ be the $\sigma \mapsto \sigma m-m$, which is clearly a crossed homomorphism. Indeed, $\sigma \tau m-m=(\sigma m-m)+\sigma(\tau m-m)$. A crossed homomorphism of the form $d^{0}(m)$ for some $m \in M$ is called a principal crossed homomorphism. We let $Z^{1}(G, M)$ and $B^{1}(G, M)$ denote the abelian groups of crossed homomorphisms and principal crossed homomorphisms, respectively. We define the first cohomology of $G$ with coefficients in $M$ to be

$$
H^{1}(G, M)=Z^{1}(G, M) / B^{1}(G, M)
$$

Example 1.14.3. If the action of $G$ on $M$ is trivial, then $B^{1}(G, M)=0$ and $H^{1}(G, M)=Z^{1}(G, M)=\operatorname{Hom}(G, M) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(G_{\mathrm{ab}}, M\right)$, where $G_{\mathrm{ab}}=G /[G, G]$ denotes the abelianization of $G$.

Example 1.14.4. Let $G=\langle\sigma\rangle$ be a cyclic group of order $n$. Then we have an isomorphism $Z^{1}(G, M) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{ker}(N)$ carrying $f$ to $f(\sigma)$, where $N: M \rightarrow M$ is defined by $N(m)=\sum_{\tau \in G} \tau m$. The inverse carries $m$ to $f: G \rightarrow M$ defined by $f\left(\sigma^{i}\right)=$ $\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \sigma^{j} m$ for $i \geq 0$. Under this bijection, the image of $B^{1}(G, M)$ is $\operatorname{im}(\sigma-\mathrm{id})=$ $\{\sigma m-m \mid m \in M\}$. Thus the bijection induces an isomorphism $H^{1}(G, M) \simeq$ $\operatorname{ker}(N) / \operatorname{im}(\sigma-\mathrm{id})$.

For $M=E$, where $E / F$ is a cyclic extension with group $G$, we have $N=\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}$. For $M=E^{\times}$, we have $N=N_{E / F}$.

In view of the example, Theorem f. 4. dollows from the cyclic case of the following theorem.

Theorem 1.14.5. Let $E / F$ be a finite Galois extension and let $G=\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$. Then $H^{1}(G, E)=0$ and $H^{1}\left(G, E^{\times}\right)=1$.

The triviality of $H^{1}\left(G, E^{\times}\right)$was proved by Speiser.
Lemma 1.14.6 (Dedekind-Artin). Let $\Gamma$ be a monoid and let $R$ be a commutative domain. Then $\operatorname{Hom}(\Gamma,(R, \times))$ is $R$-linearly independent. In other words, if $\chi_{1}, \ldots, \chi_{n}: \Gamma \rightarrow(R, \times)$ are distinct homomorphisms and $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n} \in R$ are such that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{i} \chi_{i}(g)=0$ for all $g \in \Gamma$, then $r_{1}=\cdots=r_{n}=0$.

Note that in the lemma we may replace $R$ by its fraction field without loss of generality.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. For $n=1$, it suffices to take $g=1$. For $n \geq 2$, it suffices to show $r_{n}=0$. Choose $h \in \Gamma$ such that $\chi_{1}(h) \neq \chi_{n}(h)$. Then

$$
\sum_{i=2}^{n} r_{i}\left(\chi_{i}(h)-\chi_{1}(h)\right) \chi_{i}(g)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{i} \chi_{i}(h g)-\chi_{1}(h) \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{i} \chi_{i}(g)=0 .
$$

By induction hypothesis, $r_{n}\left(\chi_{n}(h)-\chi_{1}(h)\right)=0$, which implies that $r_{n}=0$.
Proof of Theorem 1.14.5. Let $f: G \rightarrow E^{\times}$be a crossed homomorphism. Note that this means $f(\sigma \tau)=f(\sigma) \sigma(f(\tau))$ for all $\sigma, \tau \in G$. By the lemma applied to $\Gamma=E^{\times}$, $\sum_{\tau \in G} f(\tau) \tau: E^{\times} \rightarrow E$ is not the zero map. There exists $x \in E^{\times}$such that $y:=$ $\sum_{\tau \in G} f(\tau) \tau(x) \neq 0$. Then, for every $\sigma \in G$,

$$
\sigma(y)=\sum_{\tau \in G} \sigma(f(\tau)) \sigma \tau(x)=\sum_{\tau \in G} f(\sigma)^{-1} f(\sigma \tau) \sigma \tau(x)=f(\sigma)^{-1} y
$$

In other words, $f(\sigma)=\sigma\left(y^{-1}\right) / y^{-1}$.
Let $f: G \rightarrow E$ be a crossed homomorphism. Let $x \in E$ such that $\operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(x) \neq 0$ and let $y=\sum_{\tau \in G} f(\tau) \tau(x)$. Then, for every $\sigma \in G$,

$$
\sigma(y)=\sum_{\tau \in G} \sigma(f(\tau)) \sigma \tau(x)=\sum_{\tau \in G}(f(\sigma \tau)-f(\sigma)) \sigma \tau(x)=y-f(\sigma) \operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(x) .
$$

In other words, $f(\sigma)=\sigma(z)-z$, where $z=-y / \operatorname{tr}_{E / F}(x)$.
Remark 1.14.7. The Normal Basis Theorem [L44, 定理 9.5.6] states that $E \simeq F[G]$ as $F[G]$-modules, which implies $H^{n}(G, E)=0$ for all $n \geq 1$. On the other hand, $H^{2}\left(G, E^{\times}\right)$is in general nontrivial and meaningful.

### 1.15 Kummer and Artin-Schreier theories

We will deduce Kummer and Artin-Schreier theories from long exact sequences for group cohomology.

Definition 1.15.1. We say that a sequence of groups $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ is exact at $B$ if $\operatorname{im}(f)=\operatorname{ker}(g)$. We say that a sequence of groups $A^{0} \rightarrow A^{1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow A^{n}$ is exact if it is exact at each $A^{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n-1$.

We restrict our attention to exact sequences of abelian groups.
Example 1.15.2. (1) A sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $A=0$.
(2) A sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B$ is exact if and only if $f$ is injective.
(3) A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $f$ is surjective.
(4) A sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $f$ is an isomorphism.
(5) A sequence $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C$ is exact if and only if $f$ induces $A \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{ker}(g)$.
(6) A sequence $A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is exact if and only if $g$ induces $\operatorname{coker}(f) \xrightarrow{\sim} C$, where coker $(f):=B / \operatorname{im}(f)$ is the cokernel of $f$.

An exact sequence of the form $0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{f} B \xrightarrow{g} C \rightarrow 0$ is called a short exact sequence. In this case, $f$ induces $A \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im}(f)$ and $g$ induces $B / \operatorname{im}(f) \xrightarrow{\sim} C$.

Lemma 1.15.3 (Snake lemma). Consider a commutative diagram of abelian groups with exact rows


Then we have an exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}(u) \rightarrow \operatorname{ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right) \xrightarrow{\delta} \operatorname{coker}\left(u^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{coker}(u) \rightarrow \operatorname{coker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right), \tag{1.15.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the unmarked arrows are induced by the horizontal arrows in (ㄸ.15..d) and for each $b \in X$ of image $a \in \operatorname{ker}\left(u^{\prime \prime}\right), \delta(a)$ is the class of $c \in Y^{\prime}$ whose image in $Y$ is $u(b)$.

The construction of $\delta$ is shown by the diagram


Proof. It is clear that $\delta(a)$ does not depend on the choice of $b$. It follows that $\delta$ is a homomorphism. One checks the exactness by diagram chasing.

Let $G$ be a group, $M$ a $G$-module. Consider the sequence of abelian groups

$$
0 \rightarrow M \xrightarrow{d^{0}} \operatorname{Map}(G, M) \xrightarrow{d^{1}} \operatorname{Map}\left(G^{2}, M\right),
$$

where $d^{1}(f):(\sigma, \tau) \mapsto f(\sigma)+\sigma f(\tau)-f(\sigma \tau)$. We have $\operatorname{ker}\left(d^{1}\right)=Z^{1}(G, M)$ and $\operatorname{im}\left(d^{0}\right)=B^{1}(G, M)$, so that $\operatorname{ker}\left(d^{1}\right) / \operatorname{im}\left(d^{0}\right)=H^{1}(G, M)$. Moreover, $\operatorname{ker}\left(d^{0}\right)=M^{G}$, where

$$
M^{G}=\{m \in M \mid \sigma m=m \text { for all } \sigma \in G\} .
$$

A homomorphism of $G$-modules is a $G$-equivariant homomorphism of abelian groups.

Proposition 1.15.4. Let $0 \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of $G$-modules. Then we have a long exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow M^{\prime G} \rightarrow M^{G} \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime G} \xrightarrow{\delta} H^{1}\left(G, M^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}(G, M) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, M^{\prime \prime}\right),
$$

where, for each $x \in M$ of image $y \in M^{\prime \prime G}, \delta(y)$ is the class of $\sigma \mapsto \sigma(x)-x$ (with $\sigma(x)-x$ regarded as an element of $\left.M^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. Applying the snake lemma to the commutative diagram with exact rows

we obtain an exact sequence $0 \rightarrow Z^{1}\left(G, M^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow Z^{1}(G, M) \rightarrow Z^{1}\left(G, M^{\prime \prime}\right)$. We have seen $d^{1} d^{0}=0$. Thus we have a commutative diagram with exact rows


We conclude by applying the snake lemma to the above diagram.

## Kummer theory

Let $F$ be a field and let $E$ be a finite Galois extension of $F$ of group $G$. Let $n \geq 1$. We have a short exact sequence of $G$-modules

$$
1 \rightarrow \mu_{n}(E) \rightarrow E^{\times} \xrightarrow{(-)^{n}} E^{\times n} \rightarrow 1,
$$

which induces the long exact sequence

$$
1 \rightarrow \mu_{n}(F) \rightarrow F^{\times} \xrightarrow{(-)^{n}} E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, \mu_{n}(E)\right) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, E^{\times}\right)=1 .
$$

We get an isomorphism $E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} / F^{\times n} \xrightarrow{\sim} H^{1}\left(G, \mu_{n}(E)\right)$ carrying the class of $x^{n}$, $x \in E^{\times}$to the class of $\sigma \mapsto \sigma(x) / x$. In particular, $E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} / F^{\times n}$ is a finite abelian group. Assume now that $\mu_{n}(E)=\mu_{n}(F)$. Then $G$ acts trivially on $\mu_{n}(E)$, so that $H^{1}\left(G, \mu_{n}(E)\right)=\operatorname{Hom}\left(G, \mu_{n}(F)\right)$.

Let us recall the duality for finite abelian groups. Recall that the exponent of a group $A$ is the least common multiple of the orders of $g \in A$. Let $C$ be a cyclic group of order $n$. For an abelian group $A$ of exponent dividing $n$, let $A^{\vee}:=\operatorname{Hom}(A, C)$. For $A$ finite, $\# A=\#\left(A^{\vee}\right)$ and the canonical map $A \rightarrow A^{\vee \vee}$ is an isomorphism. Let $A$ and $B$ be abelian groups of exponent dividing $n$. A bilinear pairing $A \times B \rightarrow C$ corresponds to homomorphisms $L: A \rightarrow B^{\vee}$ and $R: B \rightarrow A^{\vee}$.

Lemma 1.15.5. If $A$ and $B$ are finite, then the following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $L$ and $R$ are injections.
(2) $L$ is an isomorphism.
(3) $R$ is an isomorphism.

We say that the pairing is perfect if it satisfies the equivalent conditions in the lemma.

Proof. (1) implies $\# A \leq \# B \leq \# A$, so that $\# A=\# B$. Thus (1) implies (2) and (3). For $(2) \Rightarrow(1)$, it suffices to note that $R$ is the composition $B \xrightarrow{\sim} B^{\vee \vee} \xrightarrow{L^{\vee}} A^{\vee}$. Similarly for $(3) \Rightarrow(1)$.

The exponent of a Galois extension is defined to be the exponent of its Galois group.

Theorem 1.15.6. Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer and let $F$ be a field containing a primitive $n$-th root of unity. Let $F^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure of $F$. Then we have a bijection
$\left\{F^{\text {sep }} / E / F: E / F\right.$ finite abelian of exp. $\left.\mid n\right\} \leftrightarrow\left\{F^{\times n}<\Delta<F^{\times}:\left(\Delta / F^{\times n}\right)<\infty\right\}$

$$
E \mapsto E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times}
$$

$$
F(\sqrt[n]{\Delta}) \hookleftarrow \Delta
$$

Here $F(\sqrt[n]{\Delta}) \subseteq F^{\text {sep }}$ denotes the splitting field over $F$ of $\left\{X^{n}-y \mid y \in \Delta\right\}$. Moreover, for $E \leftrightarrow \Delta$ under the above bijection, the pairing $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \times \Delta / F^{\times n} \rightarrow$ $\mu_{n}(F)$ carrying $(\sigma, \bar{y})$ to $\sigma \sqrt[n]{y} / \sqrt[n]{y}$ is perfect and $[E: F]=\left(\Delta: F^{\times n}\right)$. Here $y \in \Delta$, $\bar{y}$ denotes its class in $\Delta / F^{\times n}$, and $\sqrt[n]{y} \in E$ denotes an $n$-th root of $y$.

Note that $X^{n}-y=\Pi_{\zeta € \mu_{n}(F)}(X-\zeta \sqrt[n]{y})$.
Proof. Let $E / F$ be a finite abelian extensions of exponent dividing $n$ contained in $F^{\text {sep }}$ and let $\Delta_{E}=E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times}$. We have seen that the map $\Delta_{E} / F^{\times n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\operatorname{Gal}(E / F), \mu_{n}(F)\right)$ induced by the pairing is an isomorphism.

Let $F^{\times n}<\Delta<F^{\times}$such that $\left[\Delta: F^{\times n}\right]<\infty$. Then $E_{\Delta}=F(\sqrt[n]{\Delta})$ is a finite Galois extension of $F$. The homomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}\left(E_{\Delta} / F\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Delta / F^{\times n}, \mu_{n}(F)\right)$ induced by the pairing is clearly injective. It follows that $E_{\Delta} / F$ is an abelian extension of $F$ of exponent dividing $n$ and $\left[E_{\Delta}: F\right] \leq\left(\Delta: F^{\times n}\right)$. We have $\Delta_{E_{\Delta}}=$ $E_{\Delta}^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} \supseteq \Delta$ and $\left(\Delta_{E_{\Delta}}: F^{\times n}\right)=\left[E_{\Delta}: F\right] \leq\left(\Delta: F^{\times n}\right)$, which implies that $\Delta_{E_{\Delta}}=\Delta$ and $\left[E_{\Delta}: F\right]=\left(\Delta: F^{\times n}\right)$.

Finally, for $E$ as at the beginning of the proof, we have $E_{\Delta_{E}}=F\left(\sqrt[n]{\Delta_{E}}\right) \subseteq E$ and $\left[E_{\Delta_{E}}: F\right]=\left(\Delta_{E}: F^{\times n}\right)=[E: F]$, which implies that $E_{\Delta_{E}}=E$.

Remark 1.15.7. If $E \leftrightarrow \Delta$ and $E^{\prime} \leadsto \rightarrow \Delta^{\prime}$ under the bijection above, then $E \cap$ $E^{\prime} \leadsto \Delta \cap \Delta^{\prime}$ and $E E^{\prime} \leadsto \leadsto \Delta \Delta^{\prime}$. In fact, by construction, $E \cap E^{\prime} \mapsto \Delta \cap \Delta^{\prime}$ and $E E^{\prime} \leftrightarrow \Delta \Delta^{\prime}$.

Example 1.15.8. $E=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{-3})$ is an abelian extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ with group $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{2}$. Indeed, under the above bijection, $E$ corresponds to $\Delta=\langle 2,-3\rangle \mathbb{Q}^{\times 2}$ and $\Delta / \mathbb{Q}^{\times 2} \simeq(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{2}$.

Corollary 1.15.9. Assume that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity. Let $E / F$ be a finite cyclic extension of degree $n$. Then there exists $x \in F$ such that $E=F(\sqrt[n]{x})$. In fact, the equality holds for every $x \in E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times}$that is a generator of $E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} / F^{\times n}$.

For $E / F$ as in the corollary, one can express every $\alpha \in E$ as an $F$-linear combination of $n$-th roots of elements of $F$. To do this, consider the Lagrange resolvent

$$
(\zeta, \alpha)=\sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}} \zeta^{i} \sigma^{i}(\alpha),
$$

where $\zeta \in \mu_{n}(F), \alpha \in E$ and $\sigma \in G=\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ is a generator. We have $\sigma(\zeta, \alpha)=$ $\zeta^{-1}(\zeta, \alpha)$. It follows that $\sigma(\zeta, \alpha)^{m}=(\zeta, \alpha)^{m}$ and $(\zeta, \alpha)^{m} \in F$ if $\zeta$ has order $m$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma^{i}(\alpha)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\zeta \in \mu_{n}(F)} \zeta^{-i}(\zeta, \alpha) \tag{1.15.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $(\zeta, \alpha) \neq 0$ for $\zeta$ of order $m$, then $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F((\zeta, \alpha)))=\left\langle\sigma^{m}\right\rangle$, so that $[F((\zeta, \alpha))$ : $F]=m$. In particular, $E=F((\xi, \alpha))$ if $(\xi, \alpha) \neq 0$ for some primitive $n$-th root of unity $\xi$. The following proposition guarantees the existence of such a $(\xi, \alpha)$.

Proposition 1.15.10. Assume that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity. Let $E / F$ be a finite cyclic extension with group $\langle\sigma\rangle$ of order $n$. Then
(1) For every $\zeta \in \mu_{n}(F)$, there exists $\alpha \in F$ such that $(\zeta, \alpha) \neq 0$.
(2) Assume $n=\ell^{m}$, where $\ell$ is a prime, and let $E=F(\beta)$. Then there exists a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\xi$ such that $(\xi, \beta) \neq 0$ (and hence $E=F((\xi, \beta))$ ).

Proof. (1) Let $E=F(\beta)$. We have $\left(\left(\zeta, \beta^{i}\right)\right)=A\left(\zeta^{j}\right) \neq 0$, where $A=\left(\sigma^{j}\left(\beta^{i}\right)\right)$, $0 \leq i, j \leq n-1$ is an invertible matrix.
(2) For every nonprimitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$, we have $(\zeta, \beta) \in E^{H}$, where $H=\left\langle\sigma^{\ell^{m-1}}\right\rangle$. If $(\xi, \beta)=0$ for every primitive $n$-th root of unity $\xi$, then $\beta \in E^{H}$ by ( $[.[5.3)$, which contradicts the assumption that $E=F(\beta)$.

Example 1.15.11. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic $\neq 2,3$. Let $P(X)=X^{3}+$ $c X+d \in F[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial and let $K$ be its splitting field over $F$. Let $E=F(\sqrt{\Delta})$, where $\Delta=-4 c^{3}-27 d^{2}$ is the discriminant. Write $P(X)=$ $\left(X-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(X-\alpha_{3}\right)$. We have seen that $K / E$ is a cyclic extension with Galois group $A_{3}=\langle\sigma\rangle$, where $\sigma=(123)$. Let $K(\omega)$ be the fraction field of $X^{3}-1$ over
$K$, where $\omega=\frac{1}{2}(-1+\sqrt{-3})$ is a primitive cube root of unity. Then $K(\omega) / E(\omega)$ is cyclic of group $A_{3}$. The Lagrange resolvents

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(1, \alpha_{1}\right) & =\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\alpha_{3}=0, \\
\beta_{1}=\left(\omega, \alpha_{1}\right) & =\alpha_{1}+\omega \alpha_{2}+\omega^{2} \alpha_{3}, \\
\beta_{2}=\left(\omega^{2}, \alpha_{1}\right) & =\alpha_{1}+\omega^{2} \alpha_{2}+\omega \alpha_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

can be used to solve the cubic equation by radicals, as we have seen in Example [.].2]. Note that, in the formulas given there, $\gamma_{i}^{3}=\frac{-d \pm \sqrt{-\Delta / 27}}{2} \in E(\omega)$.

## Artin-Schreier theory

Let $F$ be a field of characteristic $p>1$. Let $E / F$ be a finite Galois extension with Galois group $G$. Let $P(X)=X^{p}-X$. Note that $P: E \rightarrow E$ is a homomorphism of $G$-modules. We have a short exact sequence of $G$-modules

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{p} \rightarrow E \xrightarrow{P} P(E) \rightarrow 0,
$$

which induces the long exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{p} \rightarrow F \xrightarrow{P} P(E) \cap F \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, \mathbb{F}_{p}\right) \rightarrow H^{1}(G, E)=0 .
$$

This induces an isomorphism $P(E) \cap F / P(F) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}\left(G, \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ carrying the class of $P(x), x \in E$ to $\sigma \mapsto \sigma x-x$. The proof of the following theorem is parallel to the proof of Theorem [.].5.6].

Theorem 1.15.12. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic $p>1$ and let $F^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure of $F$. Then we have a bijection
$\left\{F^{\text {sep }} / E / F: E / F\right.$ finite abelian of $\left.\exp . \mid p\right\} \leftrightarrow\{P(F)<\Delta<F:(\Delta: P(F))<\infty\}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
E & \mapsto P(E) \cap F \\
F\left(P^{-1}(\Delta)\right) & \leftrightarrow \Delta,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $F\left(P^{-1}(\Delta)\right) \subseteq F^{\text {sep }}$ denotes the splitting field over $F$ of $\left\{X^{p}-X-y \mid y \in \Delta\right\}$. Moreover, for $E \leftrightarrow \Delta$ under the above bijection, the pairing $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \times \Delta / P(F) \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ carrying $(\sigma, \overline{P(x)})$ to $\sigma x-x$ is perfect and $[E: F]=(\Delta: P(F))$. Here $x \in E$ and $\overline{P(x)}$ denotes the class of $P(x)$ in $\Delta / P(F)$.

Note that for $x \in E$ as in the theorem, $X^{p}-X-P(x)=\prod_{a \in \mathbb{F}_{p}}(X-x-a)$. For $x \notin F, \operatorname{Gal}(F(x) / F) \simeq \mathbb{F}_{p}$ acts transitively on the roots. Thus, for $y \in F \backslash P(F)$, $X^{p}-X-y$ is irreducible in $F[X]$.

Example 1.15.13. For any $a \in \mathbb{F}_{p}^{\times}, X^{p}-X-a$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{F}_{p}[X]$.
It follows that the polynomial $P(X)=X^{5}-6 X+1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$. As in Example \|.I..2ᅦ, $P$ has exactly two imaginary roots and it follows that the Galois group of $P$ over $\mathbb{Q}$ is $\Sigma_{5}$.

Witt extended Artin-Schreier theory to cover abelian extensions of exponent a power of $p$.

### 1.16 Solvability by radicals

Definition 1.16.1. Let $E / F$ be a finite separable extension.
(1) We say that $E / F$ is a radical extension if there exists a tower of extensions $F=E_{0} \subseteq E_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{m}=E$ such that for each $1 \leq i \leq m, E_{i}=E_{i-1}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)$, where one of the following holds
(a) $\alpha_{i}$ is a root of $X^{n}-a_{i}, a_{i} \in E_{i-1}^{\times}$and $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n$;
(b) $\alpha_{i}$ is a root of $X^{p}-X-a_{i}, a_{i} \in E_{i-1}$ and $p=\operatorname{char}(F)>0$.
(2) We say that $E / F$ is a solvable extension if $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is a solvable group, where $K / F$ is the Galois closure of $E / F$.

Recall that a group $G$ is said to be solvable if there exists a composition series $G=G_{0}>G_{1}>\cdots>G_{m}=\{1\}$ such that for every $1 \leq i \leq m, G_{i} \triangleleft G_{i-1}$ has abelian quotient. Any subquotient of a solvable group is solvable. It follows that $E / F$ is solvable if and only there exists a Galois extension $K / F$ containing $E$ with solvable Galois group.

Theorem 1.16.2. A finite separable extension $E / F$ is solvable if and only if it is contained in a radical extension $K / F$.

The implication "solvable $\Rightarrow$ radical" is due to Galois, at least in characteristic 0 .
Proof. The "only if" part. Let $F=E_{0} \subseteq E_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{m} \supseteq E$ and $E_{i}=E_{i-1}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)$ be as in the definition of radical extensions. Let $N$ be the least common multiple of the numbers $n$ appearing in part (a) of the definition. Let $\zeta$ be a primitive $N$ th root of unity in a separable closure of $E_{m}$ and let $L / F$ be the Galois closure of $E_{m}(\zeta) / F$. Let $\operatorname{Gal}(L / F)=\left\{\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{d}\right\}$. Then $L$ is obtained from $F$ by successively adjoining $\zeta, \sigma_{1}\left(\alpha_{1}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{d}\left(\alpha_{1}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{1}\left(\alpha_{m}\right), \ldots, \sigma_{d}\left(\alpha_{m}\right)$. We have seen that $L_{1}=$ $F(\zeta) / F$ is abelian. Moreover, if $\alpha_{i}$ is of type (a) (resp. (b)), then by (an easy part of) Kummer (resp. Artin-Schreier) theory applied to $\Delta=\left\langle\sigma_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)\right\rangle \cdot L_{k}^{\times n}$ (resp. $\Delta=\mathbb{Z} \sigma_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)+P\left(L_{k}\right)$, where $\left.P(X)=X^{p}-X\right), L_{k+1}=L_{k}\left(\sigma_{j}\left(\alpha_{i}\right)\right) / L_{k}$ is an abelian extension.

The "if" part. We may assume that $E / F$ is a solvable Galois extension with Galois group $G$. There exists a composition series $G=G_{0}>G_{1}>\cdots>G_{m}=\{1\}$ such that $G_{i} / G_{i+1}$ is cyclic of prime order $\ell_{i}$. Consider the corresponding tower of extensions $F=E_{0} \subseteq E_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{m}=E$, where $E_{i}=E^{G_{i}}$. Let $\mathbb{L}$ be the set of the $\ell_{i}$ different from $p=\operatorname{char}(F)$ and let $N=\prod_{\ell \in \mathbb{L}} \ell$. Let $\zeta$ be a primitive $N$-th root of unity in a separable closure of $E$. Let $E_{i}^{\prime}=E_{i}(\zeta)$. We have $F \subseteq F(\zeta)=E_{0}^{\prime} \subseteq$ $\cdots \subseteq E_{m}^{\prime} \supseteq E$. Each $E_{i+1}^{\prime} / E_{i}^{\prime}$ is Galois with $\operatorname{Gal}\left(E_{i+1}^{\prime} / E_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ a subgroup of $G_{i+1} / G_{i}$ and hence is either trivial or cyclic of order $\ell_{i}$. For $\ell_{i} \neq p$, the extension is of type (a) by Kummer theory (Corollary [.].. ${ }^{(1)}$ ). For $\ell_{i}=p$, the extension is of type (b) by Artin-Schreier theory. Thus $E_{m} / F$ is radical.

We say that a separable polynomial $P(X) \in F[X]$ is solvable by radicals over $F$ if its splitting field over $F$ is contained in a radical extension of $F$. By the theorem, this is equivalent to the condition that the Galois group of $P(X)$ over $F$ is solvable.

Example 1.16.3. (1) For $\operatorname{deg}(P(X)) \leq 4$, since every subgroup of $\Sigma_{4}$ is solvable, $P(X)$ is solvable by radicals.
(2) Let $P(X)=X^{n}+T_{1} X^{n-1}+\cdots+T_{n} \in F\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{n}\right)[X]$ be the generic monic polynomial of degree $n$. The Galois group of $P(X)$ is $\Sigma_{n}$ by Proposition $[.8 .1 .5$. For $n \geq 5, \Sigma_{n}$ is not solvable and thus $P(X)$ is not solvable by radicals. This is known as the Abel-Ruffini Theorem.
(3) The Galois group of $P(X)=X^{5}-4 X+2 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ is $\Sigma_{5}$ (Example [....21) and thus $P(X)$ is not solvable by radicals.

### 1.17 Straightedge and compass construction

Let $S$ be a subset of the Euclidean plane. The set Cons $(S)$ of points constructible from $S$ using straightedge and compass can be defined as follows. Consider the following objects:
(1) lines passing through two distinct points of $S$;
(2) circles with one point of $S$ as the center and radius equal to the distance of two points of $S$.
Let $I(S)=S \cup \bigcup_{C \neq C^{\prime}} C \cap C^{\prime}$, where $C$ runs through the above objects and so does $C^{\prime}$. We define $I^{n}(S)$ recursively by $I^{0}(S)=S$ and $I^{n}(S)=I\left(I^{n-1}(S)\right)$ for $n \geq 1$. Finally, we define Cons $(S)=\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} I^{n}(S)$.

Our goal is to describe $\operatorname{Cons}(S)$. This is trivial if $\# S \leq 1$ : we have $\operatorname{Cons}(S)=S$ in this case. In the sequel we will assume that $\# S \geq 2$. We identify the Euclidean plane with the complex plane via the choices of $0,1 \in S$ and an orientation.

Theorem 1.17.1. Let $\{0,1\} \subseteq S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. Then $\operatorname{Cons}(S)=\cup_{E} E$, where $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ runs through finite Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S})$ of such that $\operatorname{Gal}(E / \mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$ is a 2-group. Here $\bar{S}=\{\bar{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in S\}$.

Remark 1.17.2. In the theorem and the lemma below, one cannot replace $S \cup \bar{S}$ by $S$. For example, if $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ are algebraically independent over $\mathbb{Q}$ (see Section $\amalg \cdot \mathbb{I})$ and $S=\{0,1, x+i y\}$, then $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(\operatorname{Cons}(S) / \mathbb{Q})=2$ and $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(\cup_{E} E / \mathbb{Q}\right)=1$, where $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ runs through finite Galois extensions of $\mathbb{Q}(S)$ such that $\operatorname{Gal}(E / \mathbb{Q}(S))$ is a 2 -group.

Lemma 1.17.3. $\operatorname{Cons}(S) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is a subfield. Moreover, $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ belongs to $\operatorname{Cons}(S)$ if and only if there exists a tower of extensions $\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S})=E_{0} \subseteq E_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ with $\alpha \in E_{n}$ and $\left[E_{i}: E_{i-1}\right]=2$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$.

For a subfield $F \subseteq \mathbb{C}$, let $U(F)$ denote the union of towers of quadratic extensions $F=E_{0} \subseteq E_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{n}$ in $\mathbb{C}$. Recall that $E_{i}=E_{i-1}\left(\sqrt{\alpha_{i}}\right)$ for some $\alpha_{i} \in E_{i-1}$. Thus $U(F) \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is the smallest subfield containing $F$ and stable under square roots. Indeed, if $\alpha \in E_{n}$, then $\sqrt{\alpha} \in E_{n}(\sqrt{\alpha})$. We have $\overline{U(F)}=U(\bar{F})$.

The lemma says that $\operatorname{Cons}(S)=U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$, where $U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$ is the smallest subfield of $\mathbb{C}$ containing $S$ that is table under complex conjugation and square roots.

Proof. Let us first show that Cons $(S)$ is a subfield. Cons $(S)$ is stable under addition in $\mathbb{C}$, which can be constructed using parallelograms. Clearly $-1 \in \operatorname{Cons}(S)$. It is easy to see that $\alpha \in \operatorname{Cons}(S)$ if and only if $|\alpha|, \alpha /|\alpha| \in \operatorname{Cons}(S)$. Thus to construct $\alpha \beta$ and $\alpha / \beta(\beta \neq 0)$, we may assume that either (a) $\alpha$ and $\beta$ both lie on the unit
circle; or (b) $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Case (a) is clear. In case (b), it suffices to apply the intercept theorem.

Next we show that $\alpha \in \operatorname{Cons}(S)$ implies $\pm \sqrt{\alpha} \in \operatorname{Cons}(S)$. Again the case where $\alpha$ lies on the unit circle is clear and we may assume $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Then $\sqrt{\alpha}$ can be constructed by taking the intersection of the circle $x^{2}+y^{2}=\left(\frac{\alpha+1}{2}\right)^{2}$ and the line $x=\frac{\alpha-1}{2}$.

It is clear that $\operatorname{Cons}(S)$ is stable under complex conjugation. Thus $\operatorname{Cons}(S) \supseteq$ $U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$.

For the inclusion $\operatorname{Cons}(S) \subseteq U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$, it suffices to show $I^{m}(S) \subseteq U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup$ $\bar{S})$ ) for all $m \geq 1$. We proceed by induction on $m$. In the case $m=1$, take $\alpha \in I(S)$. Then $\alpha \in C \cap C^{\prime}$, where $C$ admits an equation of the form $a x+b y+c=0$ $((a, b) \neq(0,0))$ or $(x-a)^{2}+(y-b)^{2}=c^{2}$, with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}(S, \bar{S}, i)$, and similarly for $C^{\prime}$. Here we have written $\alpha=x+i y$. There are three cases:
(1) $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ are lines. In this case the equations are linear and it follows that $\alpha=x+i y \in \mathbb{Q}(S, \bar{S}, i) \subseteq U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$.
(2) Exactly one of $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ is a circle. By symmetry we may assume that $C$ is a circle and $C^{\prime}$ is a line. In this case $\alpha=x+i y$ with $x, y$ roots of quadratic equations over $\mathbb{Q}(S, \bar{S}, i)$. Thus $\alpha \in U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$.
(3) $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ are circles. In this case the difference between the two equations defines a line $C^{\prime \prime}$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}(S, \bar{S}, i)$ and $C \cap C^{\prime}=C \cap C^{\prime \prime}$. We are thus reduced to the preceding case.
Therefore, $I(S) \subseteq U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$. For $m \geq 2, I^{m}(S)=I\left(I^{m-1}(S)\right) \subseteq I(U(\mathbb{Q}((S \cup$ $\bar{S}))) \subseteq U(U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S})))=U(\mathbb{Q}(S \cup \bar{S}))$.

Theorem [.].] then follows from the following characterization of $U(F)$.
Lemma 1.17.4. Let $E / F$ be a finite separable extension. Show that the following conditions are equivalent.
(1) There exists a tower of separable quadratic extensions $F=E_{0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq E_{n}$ such that $E \subseteq E_{n}$;
(2) $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is a 2-group, where $K / F$ denotes a Galois closure of $E / F$.

The proof of the lemma is similar to and simpler than the proof of Theorem I. 16.2. We leave it as an exercise.

We now apply the theorem to the classical problem of the constructibility of the regular polygon. The regular $n$-gon is constructible by straightedge and compass if and only if $\zeta_{n}=e^{2 \pi i / n} \in \operatorname{Cons}(\{0,1\})$.

Definition 1.17.5. A Fermat prime is a prime number of the form $2^{m}+1$ for a positive integer $m$.

If $d$ is an odd divisor of $m$, then $2^{m / d}+1 \mid 2^{m}+1$. Thus a Fermat prime has the form $p_{a}=2^{2^{a}}+1$, where $a \geq 0$ is an integer. The first Fermat primes are $p_{0}=3$, $p_{1}=5, p_{2}=17, p_{3}=257, p_{4}=65537$. It is not known whether these are the only Fermat primes.

Corollary 1.17.6. Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer. Then $\zeta_{n}$ belongs to Cons $(\{0,1\})$ if and only if $n=2^{e} p_{1} \cdots p_{r}$, where $e \geq 0$ is an integer and $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{r}$ are distinct Fermat primes.

This "if" part of the corollary is due to Gauss. He proved that the regular heptadecagon (17-gon) is constructible in 1796 at the age of 19 .

Proof. By Theorem [.].D, $\zeta_{n}$ belongs to $\operatorname{Cons}(\{0,1\})$ if and only if $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / \mathbb{Q}\right)$ is a 2 -group. Let $n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$. Then $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / \mathbb{Q}\right) \simeq(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$has order $\prod_{i}\left(p_{i}-1\right) p_{i}^{e_{i}-1}$. The latter is a power of 2 if and only if for every $i$ such that $p_{i}$ is odd, $p_{i}$ is a Fermat prime and $e_{i}=1$.

### 1.18 Infinite Galois theory

Let $I$ be a partially ordered set.
Definition 1.18.1. A system of sets (resp. groups) $\left(G_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ indexed by $I$ consists of sets (resp. groups) $G_{i}$ for all $i \in I$ and transition maps (resp. homomorphisms) $\alpha_{i j}: G_{i} \rightarrow G_{j}$ for all $i \leq j$ such that for $i \leq j \leq k, \alpha_{j k} \alpha_{i j}=\alpha_{i k}$ and $\alpha_{i i}=$ id. The limit (also called projective limit or inverse limit) $\lim _{i \in I} G_{i}$ of the system is the subset (resp. subgroup) of $\prod_{i \in I} G_{i}$ consisting of $\left(g_{i} \in G_{i}\right)$ satisfying $\alpha_{i j}\left(g_{i}\right)=g_{j}$ for all $i \leq j$.

The $i$-th projection induces a map $\phi_{i}: \lim _{\underset{\leftarrow}{ } \in I} G_{i} \rightarrow G_{i}$, satisfying $\alpha_{i j} \phi_{i}=\phi_{j}$ for $i \leq j$.

Let $K / F$ be a Galois extension. We let $I$ denote the set of intermediate fields $E$ such that $E / F$ is a finite Galois extension. We order $I$ by inverse inclusion.

Proposition 1.18.2. Let $K / F$ be a Galois extension. Then the map

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Gal}(K / F) & \rightarrow \varliminf_{E \in I} \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)  \tag{1.18.1}\\
\sigma & \mapsto\left(\left.\sigma\right|_{E}\right)_{E \in I},
\end{align*}
$$

where the transition maps are given by restriction, is a group isomorphism.
Proof. The map is clearly a group homomorphism. For every $\alpha \in K$, the Galois closure of $F(\alpha) / F$ belongs to $I$. Thus $\bigcup_{E \in I} E=K$. Given an element $\left(\sigma_{E}\right)_{E \in I} \in$ ${\underset{๘}{\leftrightarrows}}_{E \in I} \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$, we define $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ by $\left.\sigma\right|_{E}=\sigma_{E}$. This provides an inverse of (ㄴ.18..1).

## Profinite groups

Definition 1.18.3. A topological group is a group $G$ equipped with a topology such that the maps

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
G \times G & \rightarrow G & (x, y) & \mapsto x y \text { (multiplication) } \\
G & \rightarrow G & x & \mapsto x^{-1} \text { (inversion) }
\end{array}
$$

are continuous. Between two topological groups, a group isomorphism that is a homeomorphism is called an isomorphism of topological groups.

Remark 1.18.4. (1) The continuity of the multiplication and inversion maps is equivalent to the continuity of the map $G \times G \rightarrow G$ given by $(x, y) \mapsto x^{-1} y$.
(2) For $x \in G$, the map $l_{x}: G \rightarrow G$ given by $y \mapsto x y$, called left translation by $x$, is continuous. Moreover, $l_{x}$ has a continuous inverse $l_{x^{-1}}$, so $l_{x}$ is a homeomorphism. Similarly, the map $r_{x}: G \rightarrow G$ given by $y \mapsto y x$ (right translation by $x$ ) is a homeomorphism. It follows that $G$ is a homogeneous space, in the sense that given $x, y \in G$, there exists a homeomorphism $G \rightarrow G$ sending $x$ to $y$ (for example, $l_{y x^{-1}}$ or $r_{x^{-1} y}$ or $r_{y} l_{x}^{-1}$ ). Thus $G$ looks topologically the same at all points. We can use translations to transfer topological properties from one point to another.

Let $H$ be subgroup of a topological group $G$. Then $H$, equipped with the subspace topology, is a topological group.

Lemma 1.18.5. (1) Every subgroup $H$ of $G$ containing an open set $U$ of $G$ is open.
(2) Every open subgroup $H$ of $G$ is closed. Every closed subgroup $H$ of $G$ of finite index is open.
(3) Every open subgroup $H$ of a compact topological group $G$ has finite index.

Proof. (1) We have $H=\bigcup_{h \in H} h U$.
(2) $H=G-\bigcup_{g H \neq H} g H$ and every left coset $g H$ is open (resp. closed) for $H$ open (resp. closed).
(3) $G=\bigcup_{g \in H} g H$ is an open cover of $G$ and thus admits a finite subcover.

Let $\left(G_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a system of finite groups. We equip each $G_{i}$ with the discrete topology. Then $\prod_{i \in I} G_{i}$, equipped with the product topology, is a topological group. The subgroup $G=\lim _{i \in I} G_{i}$, equipped with the subspace topology, is a topological group. By definition, the open subgroups $\operatorname{Ker}\left(G \rightarrow G_{i}\right)$ form a subbase for the system of neighborhoods of the identity element $e \in G$.

Definition 1.18.6. A topological group isomorphic to $\lim _{i \in G} G_{i}$ as above is called a profinite group.

Proposition 1.18.7. A profinite group is compact, Hausdorff, and totally disconnected.

A topological space is said to be totally disconnected if every point is a connected component.

Proof. Each $G_{i}$ is compact, Hausdorff, and totally disconnected. Thus so is $\prod_{i \in I} G_{i}$ (for the compactness we use Tychonoff's theorem) and its closed subset ${\underset{\gtrless}{\gtrless}}_{i \in G} G_{i}$.

Remark 1.18.8. (1) One can show that conversely every compact, Hausdorff, and totally disconnected topological group $G$ is a profinite group. In fact, $G$ is isomorphic to $\lim _{H \in I} G / H$, where $I$ is the set of open normal subgroups of $G$, indexed by inclusion [LE, 命题 1.9.3]. The partially ordered set $I$ is cofiltered (see below). Indeed, if $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ are open normal subgroups of $G$, then so is $H \cap H^{\prime}$. Thus every profinite group is isomorphic to a filtered limit of finite groups.
(2) If $G=\lim _{\mathrm{l}_{i \in I}} G_{i}$ is a limit of finite groups with $I$ cofiltered (see below), then the open subgroups $H_{i}=\operatorname{Ker}\left(G \rightarrow G_{i}\right), i \in I$ form a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $e \in G$. In fact, $H_{k}<H_{i} \cap H_{j}$ for $k \leq i$ and $k \leq j$.

Definition 1.18.9. We say that a partially ordered set $J$ is filtered if for all $i, j \in J$, there exists $k \in J$ with $i \leq k$ and $j \leq k$. We say that $I$ is cofiltered if $I^{\text {op }}$ is filtered.

## The Galois correspondence

Let $K / F$ be a Galois extension. We equip $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ with a topology via the isomorphism ([.].…). Then $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is a profinite group, with a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $\operatorname{id}_{K} \in \operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ given by $\operatorname{Ker}(\operatorname{Gal}(K / F) \xrightarrow{\phi} \operatorname{Gal}(E / F))=$ $\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)$, where $E$ runs through finite Galois extensions of $F$. (The index set in (ㄴID.I) is cofiltered.) Here $\phi$ is the restriction map.

The profinite group $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ acts continuously on $K$, equipped with the discrete topology. Indeed, the stabilizer of $x \in K, \operatorname{Gal}(K / F(x))$, is an open subgroup, since it contains the open subgroup $\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)$, where $E / F$ denotes the Galois closure of $F(x) / F$ in $K$. For any intermediate field $E$ of $K / F, \operatorname{Gal}(K / E)=$ $\bigcap_{x \in E} \operatorname{Gal}(K / F(x))$ is a closed subgroup of $G$.

We have the following extension of the finite Galois correspondence.
Theorem 1.18.10. Let $K / F$ be a Galois extension and let $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$. Then we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { intermediate fields } E \text { of } K / F\} & \leftrightarrow\{\text { closed subgroups } H<G\} \\
E & \mapsto \operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \\
K^{H} & \leftrightarrow H
\end{aligned}
$$

satisfying the following properties:
(1) (order-reversal) For $E \leadsto H$ and $E^{\prime} \leadsto H^{\prime}, E \subseteq E^{\prime}$ if and only if $H \supseteq H^{\prime}$. In particular, $E \cap E^{\prime} \rightsquigarrow \overline{\left\langle H H^{\prime}\right\rangle}$ and $E E^{\prime} \rightsquigarrow H \cap H^{\prime}$.
(2) (G-equivariance) For $E \longleftrightarrow H$ and $\sigma \in G, \sigma E \leadsto \sigma H \sigma^{-1}$. In particular, $E / F$ is normal if and only if $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$.

Lemma 1.18.11. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$. Then $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{H}\right)=\bar{H}$ is the closure of $H$.

Proof. $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{H}\right)$ is a closed subgroup containing $H$, hence contains $\bar{H}$. Let $\sigma \in$ $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{H}\right)$. It suffices to show that for every intermediate field $E$ of $K / F$ with $E / F$ finite Galois, $\sigma \operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \cap H \neq \emptyset$. Let $\phi: \operatorname{Gal}(K / F) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ be the restriction map. Since $\phi(\sigma)$ fixes $E \cap K^{H}=E^{\phi(H)}, \phi(\sigma) \in \phi(H)$ by the fixed field theorem for finite group actions. Thus $\operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \cap H \neq \emptyset$.

Proof of Theorem 1.18 .10 . For the bijection, it remains to show that for every $E$, $K^{\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)}=E$. Clearly $K^{\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)} \supseteq E$. Conversely, for $x \in K^{\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)}$, let $L$ be the Galois closure of $E(x) / E$ in $K$, which is a finite extension of $E$. By the normality of $K / E, \operatorname{Gal}(K / E) \rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(L / E)$ is a surjection by Proposition [.5.54. It follows that $x \in L^{\operatorname{Gal}(L / E)}=E$. Properties (1) and (2) are clear.

Proposition 1.18.12. For $E$ be an intermediate field of a Galois extension $K / F$. Let $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F), H=\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)$.
(1) we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi: G / H & \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, K) \\
\sigma H & \left.\mapsto \sigma\right|_{E} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) For $E / F$ normal, the bijection is an isomorphism of topological groups $G / H \xrightarrow{\sim}$ $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F)$ (namely, a group isomorphism and a homeomorphism), where $G / H$ is equipped with the quotient topology.
(3) $E / F$ is finite if and only if $H$ is an open subgroup of $G$.

Proof. (1) $\phi$ is a surjection by Proposition 4.5 C 4 . Moreover, $\phi$ is an injection, because for $\sigma, \sigma^{\prime} \in G,\left.\sigma\right|_{E}=\left.\sigma^{\prime}\right|_{E}$ if and only if $\left.\sigma^{-1} \sigma^{\prime}\right|_{E}=\mathrm{id}_{E}$.
(2) This is clearly a group homomorphism. Moreover, any continuous bijection from a compact space onto a Hausdorff space is closed, and hence is a homeomorphism.
(3) If $E / F$ is finite, then by (1) $H<G$ is closed of finite index, and hence is open. Conversely, if $H<G$ is open, then $H<G$ has finite index, and by (1) $\left[E_{0}: F\right] \leq(G: H)$ for any intermediate field $E_{0}$ of $E / F$ with $E_{0} / F$ finite. We conclude by Lemma [.]8.I.3 below (or Lemma [.8.5).

Lemma 1.18.13. Let $E / F$ be an infinite algebraic extension. Then $\sup _{E_{0}}\left[E_{0}: F\right]=$ $\infty$. Here $E_{0}$ runs through intermediate fields of $E / F$ such that $E / F$ is finite.

Proof. Assume that $n=\sup _{E_{0}}\left[E_{0}: F\right]<\infty$. Take an $F$-linearly independent subset $S \subseteq E$ of cardinality $n+1$. Then $[F(S): F]>n$, which contradicts the definition of $n$.

Warning 1.18.14. A subgroup of finite index of $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ is not necessarily closed.
 groups of index 2 that are not closed (exercise). Here $\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{\mathbb{Q}^{\times}}\right)$denotes the extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ obtained by adjoining $\sqrt{r}$ for all $r \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$.

For any field $F$ with separable closure $F^{\text {sep }}$, the profinite group $G_{F}:=\operatorname{Gal}\left(F^{\text {sep }} / F\right)$ is called the absolute Galois group of $F$. Up to isomorphism $G_{F}$ does not depend on the choice of $F^{\text {sep }}$. If $F^{\text {alg }}$ denotes an algebraic closure of $F$ containing $F^{\text {sep }}$, the restriction map induces a group isomorphism $\operatorname{Aut}_{F}\left(F^{\mathrm{alg}}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} G_{F}$. The profinite group $G_{\mathbb{Q}}$ plays a crucial role in number theory.

Example 1.18.15. Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ be a finite field and let $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure. For each $n \geq 1$, we let $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q}^{\text {sep }}$ denote the unique subfield of cardinality $q^{n}$. Then $\mathbb{F}_{q}^{\text {sep }}=\cup_{n \geq 1} \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. We have an isomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} / \mathbb{F}_{q}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ sending $\mathrm{Fr}_{q}$ to the class of 1. Taking limit, we get an isomorphism of topological groups $G_{\mathbb{F}_{q}} \simeq \hat{\mathbb{Z}}:=\lim _{{ }_{2}} \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ sending $\operatorname{Fr}_{q}$ to 1 , where the transition maps are given by the projection $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z}$ for $m \mid n$. Here $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}$ is called the profinite completion of $\mathbb{Z}$.

Example 1.18.16. Let $\mathbb{Q}^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure of $\mathbb{Q}$ and let $K=\bigcup_{n} \mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right)$. For each $n$, we have an isomorphism $\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{n}\right) / \mathbb{Q}\right) \simeq(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$. Taking limit, we
get an isomorphism of topological groups $\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbb{Q}) \simeq \hat{\mathbb{Z}}^{\times}:=\lim _{\underset{\sim}{n}}(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$, where the transition maps are given by the projection $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{\times} \rightarrow(\mathbb{Z} / m \mathbb{Z})^{\times}$for $m \mid n$. By the Kronecker-Weber theorem, $\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbb{Q})$ can be identified with the maximal abelian quotient $G_{\mathrm{ab}}=G / \overline{[G, G]}$ (by a closed subgroup) of the absolute Galois group $G=\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\text {sep }} / \mathbb{Q}\right)$.
Remark 1.18.17. In fact, $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}$ is a topological ring, namely a ring with continuous substraction and multiplication, and $\hat{\mathbb{Z}}^{\times}$is the group of units of $\widehat{\mathbb{Z}}$, equipped with the subspace topology. (In general, for a topological ring $R, R^{\times}$equipped with the subspace topology is not a topological group.)

Kummer theory extends to infinite extensions as follows. Given topological abelian groups $A$ and $B, \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {cont }}(A, B)$ denotes the set of continuous homomorphisms $A \rightarrow B$.

Theorem 1.18.18. Let $n \geq 1$ be an integer and let $F$ be a field containing $a$ primitive $n$-th root of unity. Let $F^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure of $F$. Then we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{F^{\mathrm{sep}} / E / F: E / F \text { abelian of exponent } \mid n\right\} & \leftrightarrow\left\{F^{\times n}<\Delta<F^{\times}\right\} \\
E & \mapsto E^{\times n} \cap F^{\times} \\
F(\sqrt[n]{\Delta}) & \leftrightarrow \Delta .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $F(\sqrt[n]{\Delta}) \subseteq F^{\text {sep }}$ denotes the splitting field over $F$ of $\left\{X^{n}-y \mid y \in \Delta\right\}$. Moreover, for $E \leftrightarrow \Delta$ under the above bijection, the pairing

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \times \Delta / F^{\times n} & \rightarrow \mu_{n}(F) \\
(\sigma, \bar{y}) & \mapsto \sqrt[n]{y} / \sqrt[n]{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

induces an isomorphism of topological groups $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Delta / F^{\times n}, \mu_{n}(F)\right)$ and an isomorphism of groups $\Delta / F^{\times n} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {cont }}\left(\operatorname{Gal}(E / F), \mu_{n}(F)\right)$. Here $y \in \Delta$, $\bar{y}$ denotes its class in $\Delta / F^{\times n}, \sqrt[n]{y} \in E$ denotes an $n$-th root of $y, \mu_{n}(F)$ is equipped with the discrete topology, and the topology on $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Delta / F^{\times n}, \mu_{n}(F)\right)$ is induced from the product topology on $\operatorname{Map}\left(\Delta / F^{\times n}, \mu_{n}(F)\right)=\prod_{\bar{y} \in \Delta / F^{\times n}} \mu_{n}(F)$.

Proof. For $E$ and $\Delta$ as in the theorem, we have $E=\bigcup E_{0}$ and $\Delta=\bigcup \Delta_{0}$, where $E_{0}$ runs through finite subextensions of $E / F$ and $\Delta_{0}$ runs through subgroups satisfying $F^{\times n}<\Delta_{0}<\Delta$ and $\left(\Delta_{0}: F^{\times n}\right)<\infty$. The assertions then follow from the finite case (Theorem I.J.56).

Example 1.18.19. We have $\mathbb{Q}^{\times} \simeq\{ \pm 1\} \oplus \oplus_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Q}^{\times} / \mathbb{Q}^{\times 2} \simeq\{ \pm 1\} \oplus \oplus_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$, where $\mathcal{P}$ denotes the set of prime numbers. Thus

$$
\operatorname{Gal}\left(\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{\mathbb{Q}^{\times}}\right) / \mathbb{Q}\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\times} / \mathbb{Q}^{\times 2},\{ \pm 1\}\right) \simeq\{ \pm 1\}^{\mathcal{P} \cup\{-1\}}
$$

The isomorphism carries $\sigma$ to $(\sigma \sqrt{p} / \sqrt{p})_{p \in \mathcal{P} \cup\{-1\}}$. The underlying topological space is homeomorphic to the Cantor set.

Similarly, Artin-Schreier theory extends to infinite extensions as follows.

Theorem 1.18.20. Let $F$ be a field of characteristic $p>1$ and let $F^{\text {sep }}$ be a separable closure of $F$. Then we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{F^{\text {sep }} / E / F: E / F \text { abelian of exponent } \mid p\right\} & \leftrightarrow\{P(F)<\Delta<F\} \\
E & \mapsto P(E) \cap F \\
F\left(P^{-1}(\Delta)\right) & \leftrightarrow \Delta,
\end{aligned}
$$

where, $P(X)=X^{p}-X, F\left(P^{-1}(\Delta)\right) \subseteq F^{\text {sep }}$ denotes the splitting field over $F$ of $\left\{X^{p}-X-y \mid y \in \Delta\right\}$. Moreover, for $E \nrightarrow \Delta$ under the above bijection, the pairing $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \times \Delta / P(F) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{p}$ carrying $(\sigma, \overline{P(x)})$ to $\sigma x-x$ induces an isomorphism of topological groups $\operatorname{Gal}(E / F) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}\left(\Delta / P(F), \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and an isomorphism of groups $\Delta / P(F) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{\text {cont }}\left(\operatorname{Gal}(E / F), \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Here $x \in E, \overline{P(x)}$ denotes the class of $P(x)$ in $\Delta / P(F), \mathbb{F}_{p}$ is equipped with the discrete topology, and the topology on $\operatorname{Hom}\left(\Delta / P(F), \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is induced from the product topology on $\operatorname{Map}\left(\Delta / P(F), \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)=$ $\prod_{\bar{y} \in \Delta / P(F)} \mathbb{F}_{p}$.

Remark 1.18.21. Similarly to Remark [.8.76], one can show that for any profinite group $G$ and any field $F$, there exists an extension $E / F$ and a Galois extension $K / E$ such that $G \simeq \operatorname{Gal}(K / E)$ (exercise, observed by Waterhouse). On the other hand, Theorem $[.[8.23]$ below shows that not every profinite group is an absolute Galois group.

Definition 1.18.22. We say that a field is real closed if -1 is not a sum of squares in $F$ (which implies that $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$ ) and $F(\sqrt{-1})$ is algebraically closed.

A real closed field $F$ satisfies $\# G_{F}=2$. The standard example of a real closed field is the field of real numbers $\mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 1.18.23 (Artin-Schreier). Let $F$ be a field such that $G_{F}$ is finite. Then $\# G_{F}$ is 1 or 2 . More precisely, $F$ is either separably closed or real closed.

For a proof, see [ $[1, \S 11.7]$ (combined with the easy fact that $G_{F} \simeq G_{F^{\text {perf }}}$ ).
Corollary 1.18.24. Let $F$ be a field. Then every torsion element $\sigma$ of $G_{F}$ has order 1 or 2.

Proof. This follows from the theorem applied to $\left(F^{\text {alg }}\right)^{\langle\sigma\rangle}$.
It is an open problem to characterize profinite groups isomorphic to $G_{F}$.
Warning 1.18.25. Let $K$ be a field and let $G<\operatorname{Aut}(K)$ be a group of automorphisms. Then $K / K^{G}$ is not necessarily algebraic. For example, if $K=F\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and $G=\mathbb{Z}$ acts by translation on the indices, then $K^{G}=F$. Another example was given in Warning [.8.8. However, we have the following generalization of the Fixed Field Theorem.

Proposition 1.18.26. Let $K$ be a field and let $G<\operatorname{Aut}(K)$ be a group of automorphisms. Then
(1) $x \in K$ is algebraic over $K^{G}$ if and only if the orbit $G x$ is finite.
(2) If $K / K^{G}$ is algebraic, then $K / K^{G}$ is a Galois extension and $G<\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{G}\right)$ is dense.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Theorem L.8.4.
(1) Let $O=G x \subseteq K$. If $x$ is algebraic over $K^{G}$, then every $y \in O$ is a root of the minimal polynomial of $x$ over $K^{G}$, which implies that $O$ is finite. Conversely, if $O$ is finite, then $x$ is a root of the separable polynomial $P(X)=\prod_{y \in O}(X-y) \in K^{G}[X]$ and hence algebraic over $K^{G}$.
(2) Assume $K / K^{G}$ algebraic. Then $K / K^{G}$ is a Galois extension by the above. The density follows from Lemma 1.18 .1 .

Corollary 1.18.27. Let $K / F$ be an algebraic extension and let $G=\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K)$. Then $K / K^{G}$ is a Galois extension with Galois group $G$.

Proof. Since $K^{G} \supseteq F, K / K^{G}$ is algebraic and the proposition applies. Moreover, $G \subseteq \operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{G}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K)$, which implies $G=\operatorname{Gal}\left(K / K^{G}\right)$.

We deduce the following result on the structure of normal extensions.
Corollary 1.18.28. Let $K / F$ be a normal extension and let $K_{\text {sep }}$ (resp. $K_{\text {insep }}$ ) be the subfield of separable (resp. purely inseparable) elements over $F$. Then $K=$ $K_{\text {sep }} K_{\text {insep }}, K_{\text {insep }}=K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K)}$, and $K / K_{\text {insep }}$ is a Galois extension.

Proof. For $x \in K$, the restriction map $\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(F(x), K)$ is surjective by Proposition [.5.J4, so that $x \in K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K)}$ if and only if $[F(x): F]_{\text {sep }}=1$. In other words, $K_{\text {insep }}=K^{\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(K)}$. Thus, by Corollary [.I8.2], $K / K_{\text {insep }}$ is a Galois extension. The extension $K / K_{\text {sep }} K_{\text {insep }}$ is separable and purely inseparable, and hence trivial. In other words, $K=K_{\text {sep }} K_{\text {insep }}$.

### 1.19 Galois categories

## Categories

Definition 1.19.1. A category $\mathcal{C}$ consists of a set of objects $\operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$, a set of morphisms $\operatorname{Hom}(X, Y)$ for every pair of objects $(X, Y)$ of $\mathcal{C}$, and a composition law, namely a map

$$
\operatorname{Hom}(X, Y) \times \operatorname{Hom}(Y, Z) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}(X, Z)
$$

denoted by $(f, g) \mapsto g f$ (or $g \circ f$ ), for every triple of objects $(X, Y, Z)$ of $\mathcal{C}$. These data are subject to the following axioms:

- (associativity) Given morphisms $X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z \xrightarrow{h} W$, we have $h(g f)=(h g) f$.
- (unit law) For every object $X$ of $\mathcal{C}$, there exists an identity morphism $\operatorname{id}_{X} \in$ $\operatorname{End}(X):=\operatorname{Hom}(X, X)$ such that $f \operatorname{id}_{X}=f, \operatorname{id}_{X} g=g$ for all $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(X, Y)$, $g \in \operatorname{Hom}(Y, X)$.

The morphism $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ is clearly unique.
Remark 1.19.2. For convenience we usually assume that the Hom sets are disjoint. In other words, every morphism $f \in \operatorname{Hom}(X, Y)$ has a unique source $X$ and a unique target $Y$.

Remark 1.19.3. Russell's paradox shows that not every collection is a set. Indeed, the collection $R$ of sets $S$ such that $S \notin S$ cannot be a set, for otherwise $R \in R$ if and only if $R \notin R$. To avoid the paradox, the conventional ZFC (Zermelo-Fraenkel + axiom of choice) set theory does not allow the existence of a set containing all sets or unrestricted comprehension. In category theory, however, it is convenient to introduce a collection of all sets in some sense. In NBG (von Neumann-Bernays-Gödel) set theory, which is an extension of ZFC set theory, one distinguishes between sets and proper classes. Another approach, which we adopt, is to assume the existence of an uncountable Grothendieck universe $\mathcal{U}$. ${ }^{\text {『 }}$ A set in bijection with an element of $\mathcal{U}$ is called a small set. The following table loosely summarizes the basic terminological differences of the two approaches.

| NBG | class | set | proper class |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ZFC $+\mathcal{U}$ | set | small set | large set |

We will mostly be interested in categories whose Hom sets are small, which are sometimes called locally small categories. A category $\mathcal{C}$ is called small if it is locally small and $\operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ is small.

Example 1.19.4. (1) Let $F$ be a field and $G$ a group.

| category | objects (in $\mathcal{U})$ | morphisms |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Set | sets | maps |
| Top | topological spaces | continuous maps |
| Grp | groups | homomorphisms of groups |
| Ab | abelian groups | homomorphisms of groups |
| Vect $_{F}$ | $F$-vector spaces | $F$-linear maps |
| Field | field extensions of $F$ | $F$-embeddings |
| $G$-Set | $G$-sets <br> (namely, sets equipped with a $G$-action) | $G$-equivariant maps |

In all of the above examples, composition is given by composition of maps.
(2) The opposite category $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}$ of a category $\mathcal{C}$ is defined by $\mathrm{Ob}\left(\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{op}}\right)=\mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C} \text { ор }}(X, Y)=\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(Y, X)$.

Definition 1.19.5. A morphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$ in $\mathcal{C}$ is called an isomorphism if there exists a morphism $g: Y \rightarrow X$ such that $g f=\operatorname{id}_{X}$ and $f g=\operatorname{id}_{Y}$. The morphism $g$ is unique and is called the inverse of $f$, denoted by $f^{-1}$.

Remark 1.19.6. The identity map $\mathrm{id}_{X}$ is an isomorphism. Isomorphisms are stable under composition. In particular, $\operatorname{Aut}(X)$ is a group.

Example 1.19.7. An isomorphism in Set is a bijection. An isomorphism in Top is a homeomorphism.

[^2]
## Functors and natural transformations

Definition 1.19.8. Let $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{D}$ be categories. A functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ consists of a map $\operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$ and, for every pair of objects $(X, Y)$ of $\mathcal{C}$, a map $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{D}}(F X, F Y)$, compatible with composition and identity: $F\left(\mathrm{id}_{X}\right)=$ $\operatorname{id}_{F X}$ for all $X \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ and $F(g f)=F(g) F(f)$ for all morphisms $X \xrightarrow{f} Y \xrightarrow{g} Z$.

Example 1.19.9. (1) We have forgetful functors Top $\rightarrow$ Set and

$$
\text { Field }_{/ F} \rightarrow \text { Vect }_{F} \rightarrow \mathbf{A b} \rightarrow \text { Grp } \rightarrow \text { Set. }
$$

(2) We have a functor $D:$ Vect $_{F}^{\mathrm{op}} \rightarrow \operatorname{Vect}_{F}$ carrying $V$ to $V^{\vee}=\operatorname{Hom}(V, F)$.

Remark 1.19.10. Given functors $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ and $G: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$, we have the composite functor $G F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$. For any category $\mathcal{C}$, we have the identity functor $\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{C}}$. We can thus organize small categories and functors into a category Cat.
Definition 1.19.11. Let $F, G: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be functors. A natural transformation $\alpha: F \rightarrow G$ consists of morphisms $\alpha_{X}: F X \rightarrow G X$ in $\mathcal{D}$ for all objects $X$ of $\mathcal{C}$, such that for every morphism $f: X \rightarrow Y$ of $\mathcal{C}$, the following diagram commutes


Example 1.19.12. We have a natural transformation ev: $\operatorname{id}_{\text {vect }_{F}} \rightarrow D D^{\mathrm{op}}$ with $\mathrm{ev}_{V}: V \rightarrow V^{\vee \vee}$ carrying $v$ to $f \mapsto f(v)$. Here we have identified (Vect $\left.{ }_{F}^{\mathrm{op}}\right)^{\mathrm{op}}$ with $\operatorname{Vect}_{F}$.

Remark 1.19.13. Given functors $F, G, H: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ and natural transformations $\alpha: F \rightarrow G$ and $\beta: G \rightarrow H$, we have the (vertically) composite natural transformation $\beta \alpha: F \rightarrow H$. Functors $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ and natural transformations form a category $\operatorname{Fun}(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{D})$. Isomorphisms in this category are called natural isomorphisms ${ }^{[\sqrt{1}}$. A natural transformation $\alpha$ is a natural isomorphism if and only if $\alpha_{X}$ is an isomorphism for every object $X$ of $\mathcal{C}$.

There is also a horizontal composition of natural transformations: Given a natural transformation $\alpha: F \rightarrow G$ between functors $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ and a natural transformation $\alpha^{\prime}: F^{\prime} \rightarrow G^{\prime}$ between functors $\mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$, we have $\alpha^{\prime} \alpha: F^{\prime} F \rightarrow G^{\prime} G$ between functors $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$. This composition satisfies various compatibilities. Small categories, functors, and natural transformations, together with horizontal and vertical compositions, form a "2-category".

There is an obvious notion of isomorphism of categories. A more useful notion is the following.
Definition 1.19.14. An equivalence of categories is a functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ such that there exists a functor $G: \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ and natural isomorphisms $\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{C}} \simeq G F$ and $F G \simeq \operatorname{id}_{\mathcal{D}}{ }^{[6]}$ The functors $F$ and $G$ are then called quasi-inverses of each other.

[^3]Quasi-inverses of a functor $F$ are unique up to natural isomorphisms.
Remark 1.19.15. Given a composable pair of functors $\mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{F} \mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{G} \mathcal{E}$, if two of $F$, $G$, and $G F$ are equivalences of categories, then so is the third one. If $F \rightarrow F^{\prime}$ is a natural isomorphism of functors, then $F$ is an equivalence of categories if and only if $F^{\prime}$ is.

## Faithful functors, full functors

Definition 1.19.16. A functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is faithful (resp. full, resp. fully faithful) if the map $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}(X, Y) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{D}}(F X, F Y)$ is an injection (resp. surjection, resp. bijection) for all $X, Y \in \operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$.

Lemma 1.19.17. Let $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is fully faithful functor.
(1) Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a morphism of $\mathcal{C}$ such that $F f$ is an isomorphism. Then $f$ is an isomorphism.
(2) Let $X$ and $Y$ be objects of $\mathcal{C}$ such that $F X \simeq F Y$. Then $X \simeq Y$.

Proof. (1) Let $g^{\prime}$ be an inverse of $F f$ and let $g: Y \rightarrow X$ be such that $F g=g^{\prime}$. Then $g$ is an inverse of $f$.
(2) Let $f^{\prime}: F X \rightarrow F Y$ be an isomorphism and let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be such that $F f=f^{\prime}$. By (1), $f$ is an isomorphism.

Remark 1.19.18. There is an obvious notion of subcategory. For a subcategory of a category, the inclusion functor is faithful. A full subcategory is a subcategory such that the inclusion functor is fully faithful.

Example 1.19.19. The category $\mathbf{A b}$ is a full subcategory of Grp. The forgetful functor $\mathbf{G r p} \rightarrow$ Set is faithful, but not fully faithful.

Definition 1.19.20. A functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is essentially surjective if for every object $Y$ of $\mathcal{D}$, there exists an object $X$ of $\mathcal{C}$ and an isomorphism $F X \simeq Y$.

Proposition 1.19.21. A functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ is an equivalence of categories if and only if it is fully faithful and essentially surjective.

Corollary 1.19.22. Let $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be a fully faithful functor. Then $F$ induces an equivalence of categories $\mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_{0}$, where $\mathcal{D}_{0}$ is the full subcategory of $\mathcal{D}$ spanned by the image of $F$.

Lemma 1.19.23. For any category $\mathcal{C}$, there exists a full subcategory $\mathcal{C}_{0}$ such that the inclusion functor $\mathcal{C}_{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ is an equivalence of categories and isomorphic objects in $\mathcal{C}_{0}$ are equal.

Proof. By the axiom of choice, we can pick a representative in each isomorphism class of objects $\mathcal{C}$. For every object $X$, pick an isomorphism $\alpha_{X}: X \xrightarrow{\sim} R_{X}$, where $R_{X}$ is the representative of the class of $X$. Let $\mathcal{C}_{0}$ be the full subcategory of $\mathcal{C}$ spanned by the representatives. Consider the functor $F: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}_{0}$ carrying $X$ to $R_{X}$ and $f: X \rightarrow Y$ to $\alpha_{Y} f \alpha_{X}^{-1}: R_{X} \rightarrow R_{Y}$. Let $i: \mathcal{C}_{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ be the inclusion functor. Then $\alpha_{X}$ defines natural isomorphisms id $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{C}_{0}} \xrightarrow{\sim} F i$ and id $\xrightarrow{\sim} i F$.

Proof of Proposition $[.19 .27$. Let $F$ be an equivalence of categories and let $G$ be a quasi-inverse. Since $F G \simeq$ id, $F$ is essentially surjective. Since $G F \simeq \mathrm{id}, G$ is essentially surjective. For objects $X, X^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{C}$, since the composition

$$
(G F)_{X, X^{\prime}}: \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(X, X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{F_{X, X^{\prime}}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{D}}\left(F X, F X^{\prime}\right) \xrightarrow{G_{F X, F X^{\prime}}} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathcal{C}}\left(G F X, G F X^{\prime}\right)
$$

is an isomorphism, $F_{X, X^{\prime}}$ is an injection. Similarly, for objects $Y, Y^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{D}, F_{G Y, G Y^{\prime}}$ is a surjection. Since $G$ is essentially surjective, it follows that $F_{X, X^{\prime}}$ is a surjection.

Now let $F$ be a fully faithful and essentially surjective functor. We apply the lemma to $\mathcal{C}$ and to $\mathcal{D}$. Let $i: \mathcal{C}_{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ be the inclusion functor and choose a quasiinverse $j^{\prime}$ of the inclusion functor $i^{\prime}: \mathcal{D}_{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$. Then $j^{\prime} F i: \mathcal{C}_{0} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_{0}$ is fully faithful and essentially surjective, thus a surjection on objects. By Lemma LI9.] (2), $j^{\prime} F i$ is also an injection an objects. Thus $j^{\prime} F i$ is an isomorphism of categories. Since $j^{\prime}$ and $i$ are equivalences of categories, it follows that $F$ is an equivalence of categories.

## Galois categories

Let $F$ be a field. We let Field $d_{F F}^{\text {fin.sep }}$ denote the category of separable field extensions of $F$. The objects are separable field extensions of $F$ and the morphisms are $F$ embedding.

Let $G$ be a profinite group. We let $G$-Set ${ }^{\text {fin }}$ denote the category of finite $G$ sets. The objects are finite $G$-sets (namely, discrete sets equipped with a continuous action of $G$ ) and the morphisms are $G$-equivariant maps.

Given a finite separable extension $E / F$ and a separable closure $F^{\text {sep }} / F, \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\text {sep }}\right)$ is equipped with an action of $G_{F}=\operatorname{Gal}\left(F^{\text {sep }} / F\right)$ by composition. The action is continuous. In fact, it factors through the quotient $\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$, where $K$ is a Galois closure of $E$ in $F^{\text {sep }}$.

## Theorem 1.19.24. The functor

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\text { Field }_{/ F}^{\text {fin.sep }}\right)^{\mathrm{op}} & \rightarrow G_{F} \text {-Set }{ }^{\text {fin }} \\
E & \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\text {sep }}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is fully faithful. Moreover, a finite $G_{F}$-set $S$ is isomorphic to an object in the image of the functor if and only if the action of $G_{F}$ on $S$ is transitive.

Proof. Let $E$ be a finite separable extension of $F$ and let $\iota, \iota^{\prime}: E \rightarrow F^{\text {sep }}$ be $F$ embedding. Then $\iota$ and $\iota^{\prime}$ extend to $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$ in $G_{F}$, respectively. Then $\iota^{\prime}=\left(\sigma^{\prime} \sigma^{-1}\right) \iota$. Thus the action of $G_{F}$ on $S_{F}=\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E, F^{\text {sep }}\right)$ is transitive. For a transitive finite $G_{F}$-set $S$, we have $G_{F} / H \simeq S$ carrying $\sigma$ to $\sigma s$, where $H$ is the stabilizer of $s \in S$ and is an open subgroup of $G_{F}$. Thus $G_{F} / H \simeq S_{\left(F^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)^{H}}$.

It remains to show the full faithfulness. For finite separable extensions $E / F$ and $K / F$, we construct an inverse of the map $\alpha: \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(E, K) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{G_{F}}\left(S_{K}, S_{E}\right)$ as follows. For $\iota \in S_{K}, \iota(K)=\left(F^{\text {sep }}\right)^{G_{\iota}}$, where $G_{\iota}$ is the stabilizer of $\iota$. Let $f: S_{K} \rightarrow S_{E}$ be a $G$-equivariant map. Then $G_{\iota}<G_{f(\iota)}$. Thus $\iota(K) \supseteq f(\iota)(E)$. It follows that there exists a unique embedding $\phi: E \rightarrow K$ such that $\iota \phi=f(\iota)$. Since $G$ acts transitively on $S_{K}, \phi$ does not depend on the choice of $\iota$. It is easy to check that $f \mapsto \phi$ is an inverse of $\alpha$.

Definition 1.19.25. A finite product of finite separable field extensions of $F$ is called a finite étale commutative $F$-algebra.

We let $\mathbf{C A l g}{ }_{F}^{\text {fin.ét }}$ denote the category of finite étale commutative $F$-algebra. The objects are finite étale commutative $F$-algebras and the morphisms are homomorphisms of $F$-algebras (namely, ring homomorphisms that are $F$-linear). For a finite étale commutative $F$-algebra $A=\prod_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}$ and any field extension $K / F$, we have $\amalg_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E_{i}, K\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(A, K)$. Indeed, $A \rightarrow K$ factors through the projection $A \rightarrow E_{i}$ for a unique $i$. In particular, $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A, F^{\text {sep }}\right) \simeq \coprod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E_{i}, F^{\text {sep }}\right)$ is a finite $G_{F}$-set.
Corollary 1.19.26. The functor

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\mathbf{C A l g}_{F}^{\mathrm{fin} . e \mathrm{et}}\right)^{\mathrm{op}} & \rightarrow G_{F}-\mathbf{S e t}^{\mathrm{fin}} \\
A & \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A, F^{\mathrm{sep}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

is an equivalence of categories.
Proof. Again we write $S_{A}$ for $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A, F^{\text {sep }}\right)$. Every finite $G_{F^{-}}$-set disjoint union of $G_{F}$-orbits. The essential surjectivity of the functor then follows the theorem.

For $B=\prod_{j=1}^{m} K_{j}, \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(A, B) \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(A, K_{j}\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(S_{B}, S_{A}\right) \simeq$ $\prod_{i=j}^{m} \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(S_{K_{j}}, S_{A}\right)$. Thus, to show the full faithfulness, we may assume that $B=K$ is a field. Then, for $A=\prod_{i=1}^{n} E_{i}, \operatorname{Hom}_{F}(A, K) \simeq \coprod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(E_{i}, K\right)$ and $\operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(S_{K}, S_{A}\right) \simeq \coprod_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Hom}_{G}\left(S_{K}, S_{E_{i}}\right)$, so that we are reduced to the known case where $A=E$ is also a field.

## Remark 1.19.27.

(1) Given a group $G$, one can recover $G$ from the category $G$-Set and the forgetful functor $\Phi: G$-Set $\rightarrow$ Set. More precisely, the map $\phi: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\Phi)$ with $\phi(g)_{S}: S \rightarrow S$ given by the action of $g$ is an isomorphism of groups, with inverse given by $\psi(\alpha)=\alpha_{G}(e)$, where $e \in G$ denotes the identity element. In fact, it is clear that $\psi \phi=$ id. Let us check $\phi \psi=$ id. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Aut}(\Phi)$. For every $G$-set $S$ and every $m \in M$, consider the map $f: G \rightarrow S$ carrying $g$ to $g s$. Then $\alpha_{S}(s)=\alpha_{S}(f(e))=\alpha_{G}(e) s=\phi \psi(\alpha)_{S}(s)$.
(2) Similarly, given a profinite group $G$, one can recover $G$ from the category $G$-Set ${ }^{\text {fin }}$ and the forgetful functor $\Phi: G$-Set ${ }^{\text {fin }} \rightarrow$ Set $^{\text {fin }}$. In fact, one can show that the map $\phi: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\Phi)$ with $\phi(g)_{S}: S \rightarrow S$ given by the action of $g$ is a group isomorphism. Moreover, $\left\{g \in G \mid \phi(g)_{S}=\mathrm{id}_{S}\right\}$ for varying $S$ form a fundamental system of neighborhoods of $e \in G$.
A Galois category is a category equivalent to $G$-Set ${ }^{\text {fin }}$ for some profinite group $G$. Grothendieck gave a characterization of Galois categories [SGA1, §V.4] and use it to extend Corollary $[] .26$.$] to the case where F$ is a commutative ring with 0 and 1 as the only idempotents [SGA1, §V.7].

### 1.20 Derivations and the Jacobson correspondence

Definition 1.20.1. Let $A$ be a ring. A derivation of $A$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups $D: A \rightarrow A$ satisfying the Leibnitz rule

$$
D(a b)=D(a) b+a D(b)
$$

for all $a, b \in A$.
We let $\operatorname{Der}(A)$ denote the abelian group of derivations of $A$. It is equipped with the following additional structures:
(1) Lie bracket: $\left[D, D^{\prime}\right]:=D D^{\prime}-D^{\prime} D \in \operatorname{Der}(A)$ for $D, D^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Der}(A)$. This follows from

$$
\left(D D^{\prime}\right)(a b)=\left(D D^{\prime}\right)(a)+\left(D D^{\prime}\right)(b)+D(a) D^{\prime}(b)+D^{\prime}(a) D(b)
$$

$\operatorname{Der}(A)$ is thus a Lie algebra over $\mathbb{Z}$.
(2) If $A$ has prime characteristic $p$, then $D^{p} \in \operatorname{Der}(A)$ for $D \in \operatorname{Der}(A)$. Indeed,

$$
D^{p}(a b)=\sum_{i=0}^{p}\binom{p}{i} D^{i}(a) D^{p-i}(b)=D^{p}(a) b+a D^{p}(b)
$$

Equipped with (1) and $(2), \operatorname{Der}(A)$ is a restricted Lie algebra over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, a notion introduced by Jacobson.
(3) If $A$ is commutative, then $\operatorname{Der}(A)$ is an $A$-module: $(c D)(a)=c D(a)$. (Note that even for commutative $A$, the Lie bracket in $\operatorname{Der}(A)$ is not $A$-bilinear in general.)
Definition 1.20.2. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and let $A$ be an $R$-algebra (Definition [.L.1). An $R$-derivation of $A$ is a derivation of $A$ that vanishes on $R$ (or, equivalently, that is $R$-linear).

We let $\operatorname{Der}_{R}(A) \subseteq \operatorname{Der}(A)$ denote the abelian subgroup of $R$-derivations of $A$. It is stable under Lie brackets (making it a Lie algebra over $R$ ) and $D \mapsto D^{p}$ (if $A$ has prime characteristic $p$ ). It is an $A$-submodule if $A$ is commutative.

We have $\operatorname{Der}_{\mathbb{Z}}(A)=\operatorname{Der}(A)$.
Lemma 1.20.3. (1) Let $A$ be a commutative ring of prime characteristic $p$. Then $\operatorname{Der}_{A^{p}}(A)=\operatorname{Der}(A)$. Here $A^{p}$ denotes $\left\{a^{p} \mid a \in A\right\}$.
(2) Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions with $E / F$ separable. Then $\operatorname{Der}_{E}(K)=$ $\operatorname{Der}_{F}(K)$. In particular, $\operatorname{Der}_{F}(E)=0$.
Proof. (1) For $D \in \operatorname{Der}(A), D\left(a^{p}\right)=p a^{p-1} D(a)=0$.
(2) Let $D \in \operatorname{Der}_{F}(K)$ and $\alpha \in E$. Let $P(X)$ be the minimal polynomial of $\alpha$ over $F$. Then $0=D(P(\alpha))=P^{\prime}(\alpha) D(\alpha)$. Since $P$ is separable, $P^{\prime}(\alpha) \neq 0$. It follows that $D(\alpha)=0$.
Theorem 1.20.4 (Jacobson). Let $E$ be a field of characteristic $p>0$. We have an order-reversing bijection

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\left\{E / F / E^{p} \mid[E: F]<\infty\right\} \leftrightarrow & \{\text { E-linear subspace } \mathfrak{h} \subseteq \operatorname{Der}(E) \\
& \text { stable under } \left.[,] \text { and } D \mapsto D^{p} \mid \operatorname{dim}_{E} \mathfrak{h}<\infty\right\} \\
F & \mapsto \operatorname{Der}_{F}(E) \\
\{\alpha \in E \mid D(\alpha)=0, \forall D \in \mathfrak{h}\} & \leftrightarrow \mathfrak{h}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

See [B2], §V.3, Théorème 3] for a proof.
A field extension $E / F$ satisfying $F \supseteq E^{p}$ is said to be purely inseparable of height (or exponent) $\leq 1$.

### 1.21 Transcendental extensions

Let $E / F$ be a field extension. The following definition extends the notion of algebraic elements.

Definition 1.21.1. Let $A \subseteq E$ be a subset. We say that $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$ if the homomorphism $F\left[X_{a}\right]_{a \in A} \rightarrow E$ carrying $X_{a}$ to $a$ is injective. (Here $F\left[X_{a}\right]_{a \in A}$ denotes the polynomial ring over $F$ in the indeterminates $X_{a}$, $a \in A$.) Otherwise we say that $A$ is algebraically dependent over $F$.

Remark 1.21.2. (1) $\{a\}$ is algebraically independent over $F$ if and only if $a$ is transcendental over $F$.
(2) $A$ is algebraically dependent over $F$ if there exist distinct elements $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in$ $A$ and a polynomial $P\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right) \in F\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ such that $F\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=$ 0 . Thus $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$ if and only if every finite subset of $A$ is.
(3) $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$ if and only if the homomorphism in Defi-
 $\operatorname{Frac}\left(F\left[X_{a}\right]_{a \in A}\right)$ is the field of rational functions over $F$ in the indeterminates $X_{a}, a \in A$.

Example 1.21.3. Nesterenko proved that $\left\{\pi, e^{\pi}\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is algebraically independent over $\mathbb{Q}$. It is conjectured that the same holds for $\{\pi, e\}$, which is a special case of Schanuel's conjecture.

Definition 1.21.4. A field extension $E / F$ generated by a subset $A \subseteq E$ algebraically independent over $F$ is said to be purely transcendental.

Lemma 1.21.5. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. $A$ subset $A \amalg B \subseteq E$ is algebraically independent over $F$ if and only if $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$ and $B$ is algebraically independent over $F(A)$.

Proof. If $A \amalg B$ is algebraically independent over $F$, then clearly $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$ and, by Remark $[.2 .2(3), B$ is algebraically independent over $F(A)$. Conversely, if $A$ algebraically independent over $F$ and $B$ is algebraically independent over $F(A)$, then we have injections

$$
F\left[X_{c}\right]_{c \in A} \amalg_{B} \xrightarrow{X_{a} \mapsto a} F(A)\left[X_{b}\right]_{b \in B} \xrightarrow[\phi]{X_{b} \mapsto b} E,
$$

so that $A \amalg B$ is algebraically independent over $F$.
Proposition 1.21.6. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and let $A \subseteq C \subseteq E$ be subsets such that $A$ is algebraically independent over $F$. Then there exists a maximal $B \subseteq C$ containing $A$ such that $B$ is algebraically independent over $F$.

By the lemma, the maximality is equivalent to the condition that every $c \in C$ is algebraic over $F(B)$.

Proof. This follows immediately from Zorn's lemma. Every chain $\left(B_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ admits an upper bound $\bigcup_{i \in I} B_{i}$.

Definition 1.21.7. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. A maximal subset $B \subseteq E$ that is algebraically independent over $F$ is called a transcendence basis of $E / F$.

In other words, a transcendence basis of $E / F$ is a subset $B \subseteq E$ algebraically independent over $F$ such that $E / F(B)$ is algebraic. By the proposition applied to $A=\emptyset$ and $C=E$, a transcendence basis exists.

Remark 1.21.8. (1) Thus any extension $E / F$ can be factorized as a purely transcendental extension $F(B) / F$ and an algebraic extension $E / F(B)$. Such factorizations are not unique. For example, $F(X) / F\left(X^{2}\right)$ is an algebraic extension and $F\left(X^{2}\right) / F$ is a purely transcendental extension. In general there does not exist a maximal purely transcendental subextension $F(B) / F$ of $E / F$. For example, any purely transcendental subextension of $E=\bigcup_{n \geq 1} F\left(X^{1 / n}\right) / F$ is a simple extension of $F$, by Theorem $[2\rfloor .10$ below, and hence contained in some $F\left(X^{1 / n}\right)$.
(2) Given a tower of extensions $K / E / F$. If $K / E$ and $E / F$ are purely transcendental, then $K / F$ is purely transcendental. However, the above example shows that $K / F$ purely transcendental does not imply $K / E$ purely transcendental.

Warning 1.21.9. Let $E / F$ be a field extension and let $E_{\text {alg }} \subseteq E$ be the algebraic closure of $F$ in $E$. Then $E / E_{\text {alg }}$ is not purely transcendental in general. For example, it follows from Theorem $[.21 .0]$ below that $E=\bigcup_{n \geq 1} F\left(X^{1 / n}\right)$ is not purely transcendental over $F$ and one can show $E_{\text {alg }}=F$ (see Corollary $\mathbb{L}$. .1. below or take $F$ to be algebraically closed). There are finitely generated examples as well, such as $K=\operatorname{Frac}\left(F[X, Y] /\left(X^{n}+Y^{n}+1\right)\right)$ with $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq n$ and $n \geq 3$. It follows from the theory of algebraic curves that $K$ is not purely transcendental over $K_{\mathrm{alg}}=F$.
Theorem 1.21.10. Let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be transcendence bases of a field extension $E / F$. Then $\operatorname{card}(B)=\operatorname{card}\left(B^{\prime}\right)$.

Lemma 1.21.11 (Exchange property). Let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be transcendence bases of $E / F$. Then, for every $b \in B \backslash B^{\prime}$, there exists $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime} \backslash B$ such that $(B \backslash\{b\}) \cup\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is a transcendence basis.

Proof. Write $A=B \backslash\{b\}$. If $A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is algebraically dependent over $F$ for all $b^{\prime} \in$ $B^{\prime} \backslash B$, then $E / F(A)$ is algebraic and $A$ is a transcendence basis, contradicting the assumption that $B$ is a transcendence basis. Thus there exists $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime} \backslash B$ such that $A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is algebraically independent over $F$. Since $B$ is a transcendence basis, $A \amalg\left\{b, b^{\prime}\right\}$ is algebraically dependent over $F$. It follows that $b$ is algebraic over $F\left(A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ and $E / F\left(A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}\right)$ is algebraic.
Proof of Theorem 2.210 . Case where $B$ is finite. By the exchange property applied successively to elements of $B \backslash B^{\prime}$, there exists a subset $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq B^{\prime}$ such that $\# B=\# B^{\prime \prime}$ and that $B^{\prime \prime}$ is a transcendence basis for $E / F$. Thus $B^{\prime}=B^{\prime \prime}$ and consequently $\# B=\# B^{\prime}$.

Case where $B$ is infinite. By symmetry, it suffices to show that if $B^{\prime}$ is infinite, then $\operatorname{card}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \leq \operatorname{card}(B)$. For each $b \in B$, there exists a finite subset $A_{b} \subseteq B^{\prime}$ such that $b$ is algebraic over $F\left(A_{b}\right)$. Let $B^{\prime \prime}=\bigcup_{b \in B} A_{b} \subseteq B^{\prime}$. Then $E$ is algebraic over $B^{\prime \prime}$, so that $B^{\prime \prime}=B^{\prime}$. Thus $B$ is infinite and $\operatorname{card}\left(B^{\prime}\right) \leq \operatorname{card}(B) \cdot \aleph_{0}=\operatorname{card}(B)$.

Definition 1.21.12. The transcendence degree of a field extension $E / F$, denoted by $\operatorname{tr} . \operatorname{deg}(E / F)$, is the cardinality of a transcendence basis of $E / F$.

Proposition 1.21.13. Let $K / E / F$ be field extensions. Let $B$ be a transcendence basis of $E / F$ and let $B^{\prime}$ be a transcendence basis of $K / E$. Then $B \amalg B^{\prime}$ is a transcendence basis of $K / F$. In particular,

$$
\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(K / F)=\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(K / E)+\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(E / F)
$$

Proof. We have $B \cap B^{\prime} \subseteq B^{\prime} \cap E=\emptyset$. We have a tower of algebraic extensions $K / E\left(B^{\prime}\right) / F\left(B \amalg B^{\prime}\right)$. Moreover, $B^{\prime}$ is algebraically independent over $E$ and hence over $F(B)$. Thus $B \amalg B^{\prime}$ is algebraically independent over $F$.

Proposition 1.21.14. Let $F$ be a field and let $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ be algebraically closed extensions of $F$ with $\operatorname{tr} . \operatorname{deg}(E / F)=\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(E^{\prime} / F\right)$. Then there exists a (noncanonical) F-isomorphism $E \xrightarrow{\sim} E^{\prime}$.

Proof. Let $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ be transcendence bases of $E / F$ and $E^{\prime} / F$, respectively. By the assumption on transcendence degree, there exists a bijection $B \xrightarrow{\sim} B^{\prime}$, which extends uniquely to an $F$-isomorphism $\phi: F(B) \xrightarrow{\sim} F\left(B^{\prime}\right)$. Since $E$ is an algebraic closure of $F(B)$ and $E^{\prime}$ is an algebraic closure of $F\left(B^{\prime}\right), \phi$ extends to $E \xrightarrow{\sim} E^{\prime}$.

Proposition 1.21.15. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. Then
$\max \left(\operatorname{card}(F), \operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(E / F), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(E), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(F), \operatorname{deg}(E / F), \aleph_{0}\right)$.

## Lemma 1.21.16.

(1) Let $M$ be a nonzero monoid and I a nonempty set. Then

$$
\max \left(\operatorname{card}\left(M^{\oplus I}\right), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(M), \operatorname{card}(I), \aleph_{0}\right)
$$

(2) Let $R$ be a nonzero ring and I a set. Then

$$
\max \left(\operatorname{card}\left(R\left[X_{i}\right]_{i \in I}\right), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(R), \operatorname{card}(I), \aleph_{0}\right)
$$

(3) Let $R$ be an infinite commutative domain. Then $\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{Frac}(R))=\operatorname{card}(R)$.

Proof. (1) Obviously $\operatorname{card}\left(M^{\oplus I}\right) \geq \max (\operatorname{card}(M), \operatorname{card}(I)$. For the equality, the case where $I$ is finite being clear, we may assume that $I$ is infinite. For $J \subseteq I$, let $N_{J}=M^{\oplus J}$. We have $N_{I}=\bigcup_{J \in \mathcal{P}} N_{J}$, where $\mathcal{P}$ is the set of finite subsets of $I$. Note that there is an obvious surjection $\amalg_{n \geq 0} I^{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ so that $\operatorname{card}(\mathcal{P})=\operatorname{card}(I)$. Thus
$\operatorname{card}\left(N_{I}\right) \leq \operatorname{card}(\mathcal{P}) \cdot \operatorname{card}(M)=\operatorname{card}(I) \cdot \operatorname{card}(M)=\max (\operatorname{card}(M), \operatorname{card}(I))$.
(2) The underlying abelian group of $R\left[X_{i}\right]_{i \in I}$ is $\bigoplus_{s \in S} R s$, where $S \simeq\left(\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}\right)^{\oplus I}$ is the monoid of monomials in $\left(X_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$. Applying (1) twice, we get

$$
\max \left(\operatorname{card}\left(R\left[X_{i}\right]_{i \in I}\right), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(R), \operatorname{card}(S), \aleph_{0}\right)=\max \left(\operatorname{card}(R), \operatorname{card}(I), \aleph_{0}\right)
$$

(3) We have $R \subseteq \operatorname{Frac}(R)$. Conversely, we have a surjection $R \times(R \backslash\{0\}) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ carrying $(a, b)$ to $a / b$.

Proof of Proposition [.21.15. The first equality is a case of Lemma 4.21 .16 (1).
For the second equality, we may assume that $F$ or $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(E / F)$ is infinite. Let $B$ be a transcendence basis of $E / F$. By Lemma [.2.16, $\operatorname{card}(F(B))=\operatorname{card}(F[B])=$ $\max (\operatorname{card}(F), \operatorname{card}(B))$. It remains to show that for an algebraic extension $E / E_{0}$ with $E_{0}$ infinite, we have $\operatorname{card}(E)=\operatorname{card}\left(E_{0}\right)$. The map $\phi: E \rightarrow E_{0}[X]$ carrying $x$ to its minimal polynomial has finite fibers. Thus $\operatorname{card}(E)=\operatorname{card}(\operatorname{im}(\phi)) \leq$ $\operatorname{card}\left(E_{0}[X]\right)=\operatorname{card}\left(E_{0}\right)$.
Example 1.21.17. (1) $\operatorname{tr} . \operatorname{deg}(\mathbb{C} / \mathbb{Q})=\operatorname{card}(\mathbb{C})$ is the continuum.
(2) Let $p$ be a prime number. We let $\mathbb{Q}_{p}=\operatorname{Frac}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}\right)$ denote the field of $p$-adic numbers, where $\mathbb{Z}_{p}=\lim _{{ }^{n}} \mathbb{Z} / p^{n} \mathbb{Z}$ (where the transition maps are given by projection). Let $\overline{\mathbb{Q}_{p}}$ be an algebraic closure of $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(\overline{\mathbb{Q}_{p}} / \mathbb{Q}\right)=\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p} / \mathbb{Q}\right)=\operatorname{card}\left(\mathbb{Q}_{p}\right)=\operatorname{card}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}\right)
$$

is the continuum.
It follows then from Proposition $[.21 .14$ that there exists a (noncanonical) field isomorphism $\overline{\mathbb{Q}_{p}} \simeq \mathbb{C}$. Both fields are equipped with natural topologies, but the two topological spaces are very different.

Proposition 1.21.18. Let $K / E / F$ be field extensions with $E / F$ algebraic. Let $A \subseteq K$ be algebraically independent over $F$. Then $A$ is algebraically independent over $E$. Moreover, if $S \subseteq E$ is $F$-linearly independent, then $S$ is $F(A)$-linearly independent.

Proof. Since $E(A) / F(A)$ is algebraic, $A$ is a transcendence basis for $E(A) / F$. There exists $B \subseteq A$ such that $B$ is a transcendence basis for $E(A) / E$. Then $B$ is a transcendence basis for $E(A) / F$. It follows that $B=A$.

Assume there exists a nontrivial linear relation $\sum_{s \in S} c_{s} s=0$ with $c_{s} \in F(A)$. We may assume $c_{s} \in F[A]$ for all $s \in S$, so that the linear relation is an identity in $E[A]$. Since $A$ is algebraically independent over $E$, taking coefficients in $E$ produces a nontrivial $F$-linear relation of $S$.

Corollary 1.21.19. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of extensions with $K / F$ purely transcendental and $E / F$ algebraic. Then $E=F$.

Proof. Let $S$ be a linear basis of $E / F$. By the proposition, $S$ is $K$-linearly independent. Thus $\# S=1$.

We state the following generalized Lüroth's theorem, due to Gordon in characteristic 0 and to Igusa in general.

Theorem 1.21.20. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of extensions with $K / F$ purely transcendental with $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(K / F)$ finite and $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(E / F)=1$. Then $E / F$ is purely transcendental.

There are examples of towers of extensions $K / E / F$ with $K / F$ purely transcendental, $\operatorname{tr} \cdot \operatorname{deg}(K / F)=\operatorname{tr} . \operatorname{deg}(E / F)=3$, and $E / F$ not purely transcendental. See [B1] for references.

We end this section with a few results whose statements could have been given earlier but whose proofs rely on transcendence bases.

Proposition 1.21.21. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions. Then $K / F$ is a finitely generated field extension if and only if $K / E$ and $E / F$ are finitely generated field extensions.

Proof. The only nontrivial part is that if $K / F$ finitely generated, then $E / F$ is finitely generated. We have $\operatorname{tr} . \operatorname{deg}(K / F)<\infty$. Let $B$ be a transcendence basis of $E / F$. Then $B$ is finite. Up to replacing $F$ by $F(B)$, we may assume that $E / F$ is algebraic. Let $B^{\prime}$ be a transcendence basis of $K / E$. Then $B^{\prime}$ is also a transcendence basis of $K / F$. By Proposition $\left[21.18,[E: F] \leq\left[E\left(B^{\prime}\right): F\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right] \leq\left[K: F\left(B^{\prime}\right)\right]<\infty\right.$.

Proposition 1.21.22. Let $E / F$ be a field extension with $E$ algebraically closed. Then $x \in E$ is transcendental over $F$ if and only if the orbit of $x$ under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(E)$ is finite. In this case, the orbit consists of all transcendental elements of $E$ over $F$.

Proof. Let $O$ be the orbit of $x$. If $x$ is algebraic over $F$, then every element of $O$ is a root of the minimal polynomial of $x$. If $x$ is transcendental over $F$, then $O$ is the set of transcendental elements of $E$ over $F$ by the following lemma. In particular, $O$ contains $x^{n}$ for all $n \geq 1$ and is infinite.

Lemma 1.21.23. Let $E / F$ be a field extension with $E$ algebraically closed. Let $x \in E$ and $x^{\prime} \in E$ be transcendental over $F$. Then there exists an $F$-automorphism of $E$ carrying $x$ to $x^{\prime}$.

Proof. We extend $\{x\}$ into a transcendence basis $B$ of $K / F$ and $\left\{x^{\prime}\right\}$ into a transcendence basis $B^{\prime}$ of $K / F$. There exists a bijection $B \xrightarrow{\sim} B^{\prime}$ carrying $x$ to $x^{\prime}$, which extends uniquely to an $F$-isomorphism $F(B) \simeq F\left(B^{\prime}\right)$. The latter extends in turn to an $F$-automorphism of $E$.

Proposition 1.21.24. Let $K / E / F$ be a tower of field extensions with $K$ algebraically closed and $K / E$ nontrivial. Then $E / F$ is normal if and only if for every $F$-automorphism $\phi: K \xrightarrow{\sim} K$, we have $\phi(E) \subseteq E$.

Proof. The "only if" part follows from the definition of normality. Let us show the "if" part. We will first show that $E / F$ is algebraic. Assume the contrary, namely the existence of $b \in E$ transcendental over $F$. Let $x \in K$ with $x \notin E$. If $x$ is transcendental over $F$, let $b^{\prime}=x$. Otherwise let $b^{\prime}=x+b$. Then $b^{\prime}$ is transcendental over $F$ and $b^{\prime} \notin E$. By the lemma, there exists an $F$-automorphism $\phi: K \xrightarrow{\sim} K$ satisfying $\phi(b)=b^{\prime}$, contradicting the assumption $\phi(E) \subseteq E$.

Let $F^{\text {alg }}$ be the algebraic closure of $F$ in $K$. Every $F$-endomorphism $\iota: F^{\text {alg }} \rightarrow$ $F^{\text {alg }}$ is an $F$-automorphism by Proposition [.4.31, and thus extends to an $F$-automorphism $K \xrightarrow{\sim} K$ by Proposition $\mathbb{L . 2 \rfloor . \ 4 .}$. Therefore, $\iota(E) \subseteq E$.

## Chapter 2

## Modules

### 2.1 Modules and homomorphisms

Let $R$ be a ring.
Definition 2.1.1. A left $R$-module is an abelian group $(M,+)$ equipped with a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
R \times M & \rightarrow M \\
(r, m) & \mapsto r m,
\end{aligned}
$$

called scalar multiplication, satisfying
(1) $r(m+n)=r m+r n$,
(2) $r(s m)=(r s) m$,
(3) $(r+s) m=r m+s m$,
(4) $1 \cdot m=m$
for all $r, s \in R$ and $m, n \in M$.
In other words, a left $R$-module is an abelian group ( $M,+$ ) equipped with a ring homomorphism $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}(M,+)$.

Remark 2.1.2. Dually, we have an obvious notion of a right $R$-module, which is the same as a left $R^{\text {op }}$-module. We sometimes write ${ }_{R} M$ for a left $R$-module $M$ and $M_{R}$ for a right $R$-module $M$. For $R$ commutative, there is no difference between left $R$-modules and right $R$-modules.

A left $R$-submodule of a left $R$-module $M$ is an abelian subgroup $N$ stable under scalar multiplication by $R$.

Example 2.1.3. (1) The ring $R$ itself is a left $R$-module, called the left regular module. The submodules are called left ideals of $R$.
(2) For $R=\mathbb{Z}$, a $\mathbb{Z}$-module is an abelian group.
(3) For $R=F$ a field, an $F$-module is an $F$-vector space.
(4) For $S=M_{n}(R)$ the ring of $n \times n$ matrices in $R, R^{n}$, viewed as the collection of column vectors, is a left $S$-module by matrix multiplication.

Definition 2.1.4. Let $M$ and $N$ be left $R$-modules. A homomorphism of left $R$ modules is a homomorphism of abelian groups $\phi: M \rightarrow N$ satisfying $\phi(r m)=r \phi(m)$ for all $r \in R$ and $m \in M$.

Example 2.1.5. An $R[X]$-module $M$ is an $R$-module $M$ equipped with an endomorphism of $R$-modules $X \cdot: M \rightarrow M$.

Example 2.1.6. An $R\left[X, X^{-1}\right]$-module $M$ is an $R$-module $M$ equipped with an isomorphism of $R$-modules $X \cdot: M \xrightarrow{\sim} M$.

Given a submodule $N$ of a left $R$-module $M, M / N$ is a left $R$-module and the projection map $M \rightarrow M / N$ is a homomorphism of $R$-modules. We have the following usual properties of homomorphisms, which can be deduced from the corresponding properties of homomorphisms of abelian groups.

Proposition 2.1.7. (1) Let $\phi: M \rightarrow N$ be a homomorphism of left $R$-modules. Then $\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$ and $\operatorname{im}(\phi)$ are left $R$-modules and $\phi$ induces an isomorphism of left $R$-modules $M / \operatorname{ker}(\phi) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im}(\phi)$. In particular, for $\phi$ surjective, we have $M / \operatorname{ker}(\phi) \simeq N$.
(2) Let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be submodules of a left $R$-module $M$. Then the inclusion induces an isomorphism of $R$-modules

$$
M_{1} /\left(M_{1} \cap M_{2}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right) / M_{2} .
$$

(3) Let $\phi: M \rightarrow N$ be a surjective homomorphism of left $R$-modules. Then there is a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { submodules of } M \text { containing } \operatorname{ker}(\phi)\} & \leftrightarrow\{\text { submodules of } N\} \\
M^{\prime} & \mapsto \phi\left(M^{\prime}\right) \\
\phi^{-1}\left(N^{\prime}\right) & \leftrightarrow N^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $M^{\prime}$ and $N^{\prime}$ under this bijection, $\phi$ induces an isomorphism of $R$-modules $M / M^{\prime} \simeq N / N^{\prime}$.

Given a homomorphism $\phi: M \rightarrow N$ of left $R$-modules, $\operatorname{coker}(\phi)=N / \operatorname{im}(\phi)$ is an $R$-module. The snake lemma holds for $R$-modules.

We let $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(M, N)$ denote the abelian group of homomorphisms of left $R$ modules. The abelian group structure is defined by $(\phi+\psi)(m)=\phi m+\psi m$. It is in fact a $Z(R)$-module with $(r \phi)(m)=r \phi(m)$ for $r \in Z(R)$. Here

$$
Z(R)=\{r \in R \mid r s=s r \forall s \in S\}
$$

denotes the center of $R$, which is a subring of $R$. Composition of homomorphisms is bi-additive:

$$
\phi\left(\psi_{1}+\psi_{2}\right)=\phi \psi_{1}+\phi \psi_{2}, \quad\left(\phi_{1}+\phi_{2}\right) \psi=\phi_{1} \psi+\phi_{2} \psi .
$$

In particular, $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a ring.

### 2.2 Products and direct sums

Let $\left(M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of left $R$-modules. Then the product $\prod_{i \in I} M_{i}$ is a left $R$ module: $r\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}=\left(r m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$. The left $R$-submodule $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ consisting of $\left(m_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ such that $m_{i}=0$ for all but finitely many $i$ is called the direct sum (or coproduct).

For each $i$, we have a projection $p_{i}: \prod_{i \in I} M_{i} \rightarrow M_{i}$. Up to isomorphism, the product is characterized by the following universal property: for every left $R$-module $N$ and every family of morphisms $\left(f_{i}: N \rightarrow M_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$, there exists a unique morphism $f=\left(f_{i}\right)_{i \in I}: N \rightarrow \prod_{i \in I} M_{i}$ such that $p_{i} f=f_{i}$. This provides an isomorphism of abelian groups

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \prod_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \simeq \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, M_{i}\right) .
$$

Similarly, we have

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}, N\right) \simeq \prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M_{i}, N\right)
$$

## Free modules

Some of the following notions and results are similar to those for transcendental bases (Section ㄷ2ㄴ).

Definition 2.2.1. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module and let $A \subseteq M$. We say that $A$ is linearly independent (resp. generating, resp. a basis) if the homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{\oplus A} & \rightarrow M \\
\left(r_{a}\right)_{a \in A} & \mapsto \sum_{a \in A} r_{a} a
\end{aligned}
$$

is injective (resp. surjective, resp. bijective). We say that $M$ is free if it admits a basis (or equivalently, if it is isomorphic to a direct sum $R^{\oplus I}$ of copies of $R$ ).

We let $\sum_{a \in A} R a$ denote the submodule generated by $a \in A$. We say that $A$ is linearly dependent if it is not linearly independent.

Remark 2.2.2. (1) Every left $R$-module $M$ is a quotient of a free module. Indeed, for any generating subset $A \subseteq M$ (for example, $M$ ), the map $R^{\oplus A} \rightarrow M$ is a surjection.
(2) $\{a\}$ is linear dependent if and only if $a$ is a torsion element (namely, there exists nonzero $r \in R$ such that $r a=0$ ). We say that $M$ is torsion if every $m \in M$ is torsion. We say $M$ is torsionfree if there is no nonzero torsion elements.
(3) $A$ is linearly independent if and only if every finite subset of $A$ is.
(4) $A \amalg B \subseteq M$ is linearly independent if and only if $A \subseteq M$ is linearly independent and the map $B \rightarrow M / \sum_{a \in A} R a$ is injective with linearly independent image.

Proposition 2.2.3. Let $A \subseteq C \subseteq M$ be such that $A$ is linearly independent. Then there exists a maximal $B \subseteq C$ containing $A$ such that $B$ is linearly independent.

By the preceding remark, the maximality is equivalent to the condition that the image of every $c \in C$ in $M / \sum_{b \in B} R b$ is torsion.

Proof. This follows immediately from Zorn's lemma. Every chain $\left(B_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ admits an upper bound $\bigcup_{i \in I} B_{i}$.

Remark 2.2.4. Thus for any $R$-module $M$, there exists a free $R$-submodule $N$ such that $M / N$ is torsion. In general, such an $N$ is not unique. Moreover, a maximal free submodule does not necessarily exist. For example, the free $\mathbb{Z}$-submodules of $\mathbb{Q}$ are of the form $r \mathbb{Z}$ for some $r \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Definition 2.2.5. A nonzero ring is called a division ring if every nonzero element admits an inverse.

Corollary 2.2.6. Let $D$ be a division ring. Every left $D$-module is free.
A left $D$-module is also called a left $D$-vector space.
Proof. This follows immediately from the preceding remark since every torsion left $D$-module is zero.

For $R$ nonzero, a basis of an $R$-module is a maximal linearly independent subset. The converse holds if $R$ is a division ring.

Proposition 2.2.7. Let $M=\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ with I infinite, where each $M_{i}$ is a nonzero left $R$-module. Then every generating subset $S \subseteq M$ satisfies $\operatorname{card}(S) \geq \operatorname{card}(I)$.

Proof. For each $s \in S$, there exists a finite subset $J_{s} \subseteq I$ such that $s \in \sum_{j \in J_{s}} M_{j}$. Let $J=\bigcup_{s \in S} J_{s}$. Then $S \subseteq \sum_{j \in J} M_{j}$. It follows that $J=I$. Thus $S$ is infinite and $\operatorname{card}(I) \leq \operatorname{card}(S) \cdot \aleph_{0}=\operatorname{card}(S)$.

Corollary 2.2.8. Let $R$ be a nonzero ring and let $A$ and $B$ be bases of a left $R$ module $M$ with $A$ infinite. Then $\operatorname{card}(A)=\operatorname{card}(B)$.

Proof. We have $\operatorname{card}(B) \geq \operatorname{card}(A)$. In particular, $B$ is infinite. By symmetry, we have $\operatorname{card}(A) \geq \operatorname{card}(B)$.

The corollary does not extend to the case where both $A$ and $B$ are finite.
Example 2.2.9. Let $F$ be a field and let $I$ be an infinite set. Let $V=F^{\oplus I}$ and let $R=\operatorname{End}_{F}(V)$. Then any bijection $I \simeq I \amalg I$ induces an $F$-linear isomorphism $V \simeq V \oplus V$. Applying $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(-, V)$, we get an isomorphism of left $R$-modules $R \simeq R \oplus R$.

Definition 2.2.10. We say that a ring $R$ has IBN (Invariant Basis Number) if $R^{m} \simeq R^{n}$ as left $R$-modules implies $m=n$. In this case, for $M \simeq R^{\oplus I}$, we call $\operatorname{card}(I)$ the rank of $M$ and denote it by $\operatorname{rk}_{R}(M)$.

Remark 2.2.11. (1) A homomorphism $R^{m} \rightarrow R^{n}$ of left $R$-modules is given by an $n \times m$ matrix. Thus $R$ has (left) IBN if and only if every invertible matrix is a square matrix. The same holds for right IBN. Thus having left IBN is equivalent to having right IBN.
(2) If $R \rightarrow S$ is a ring homomorphism with $S$ having IBN. Then $R$ has IBN. Indeed, a nonsquare invertible matrix over $R$ would give rise to a nonsquare invertible matrix over $S$.

Example 2.2.12. Nonzero finite rings have IBN. This is clear by comparing cardinalities.

Proposition 2.2.13. Division rings have $I B N$.
Proof. Let $D$ be a division ring and $M$ a left $D$-module. If $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are finite bases of $M$, then by the exchange property below, there exists $B^{\prime \prime} \subseteq B^{\prime}$ with $\# B=\# B^{\prime \prime}$ such that $B^{\prime \prime}$ is a basis. Thus $B^{\prime}=B^{\prime \prime}$.

Lemma 2.2.14 (Exchange property). Let $D$ be a division ring and $M$ a left $D$ module. Let $B$ be $B^{\prime}$ be bases of $M$. Then, for every $b \in B \backslash B^{\prime}$, there exists $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime} \backslash B$ such that $(B \backslash\{b\}) \cup\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is a basis.

Proof. Write $A=B \backslash\{b\}$. If $A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is linearly dependent for all $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime} \backslash B$, then $A$ is generating and hence is a basis, contradicting the assumption that $B$ is a basis. Thus there exists $b^{\prime} \in B^{\prime} \backslash B$ such that $A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is linearly independent. Since $B$ is a basis, $A \amalg\left\{b, b^{\prime}\right\}$ is linearly dependent. It follows that $b \in \sum_{a \in A} D a+D b^{\prime}$ and $A \amalg\left\{b^{\prime}\right\}$ is generating.

Corollary 2.2.15. Nonzero commutative rings $R$ have IBN.
Proof. Let $\mathfrak{m}$ be a maximal ideal of $R$. Then the field $R / \mathfrak{m}$ has IBN and we conclude by Remark [2.2.] (2).

## Finitely generated modules

Definition 2.2.16. A left $R$-module is finitely generated if it admits a finite generating set. A left $R$-module is cyclic if it admits one generator.

Remark 2.2.17. A left $R$-module is cyclic if and only if it is isomorphic to $R / I$ for some left ideal $I \subseteq R$. Indeed, if $M=R m$, then the homomorphism $R \rightarrow M$ given by $r \mapsto r m$ induces an isomorphism $R / \operatorname{ann}_{R}(m) \xrightarrow{\sim} M$, where $\operatorname{ann}_{R}(m)=\{r \in R \mid$ $r m=0\}$ is the annihilator of $m$, which is a left ideal of $R$.

Remark 2.2.18. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module and $\left(N_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ a family of left $R$-modules. The homomorphism of abelian groups

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bigoplus_{i \in I} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, N_{i}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(M, \bigoplus_{i \in I} N_{i}\right) \tag{2.2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

is injective and the image consists of homomorphisms of left $R$-modules $M \rightarrow$ $\oplus_{i \in I} N_{i}$ that factorizes through $\bigoplus_{j \in J} N_{j}$ for some finite subset $J \subseteq I$. If $M$ is finitely generated, then such a factorization always exists. In other words, (2.2.1) is an isomorphism in this case.

## Modules over a finite product of rings

Proposition 2.2.19. Let $R=\prod_{i \in I} R_{i}$ be a finite product of rings. For each $i \in I$, consider the bilateral ideal $\mathfrak{a}_{i}=\prod_{j \in I \backslash\{i\}} R_{j}$ and the element $e_{i}=\left(\delta_{i, j}\right)_{j \in I} \in R$, where

$$
\delta_{i, j}= \begin{cases}1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Let $M$ be a left $R$-module and let $M_{i}=M\left[\mathfrak{a}_{i}\right]$. Then we have a decomposition

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i} & \sim
\end{array}\right] .
$$

For a right ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of a ring $R$ and a left $R$-module $M, M[\mathfrak{a}]:=\{m \in M \mid \mathfrak{a} m=0\}$ is a submodule of $M$, called the $\mathfrak{a}$-torsion submodule of $M$. If $\mathfrak{a}$ is a bilateral ideal, then $M[\mathfrak{a}]$ is a $(R / \mathfrak{a})$-module. In particular, $M_{i}$ above is an $R_{i}$-module.

Proof. Indeed, $\sum_{i \in I} e_{i}=1$ and $e_{i} m_{j}=0$ for $i \neq j$. It follows that $e_{j} m_{j}=m_{j}$.
We will often abbreviate bilateral ideals to ideals.

### 2.3 Modules over a PID

Remark 2.3.1. Let $R$ be a commutative domain. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then the subset $M_{\text {tor }} \subseteq M$ of torsion elements is an $R$-submodule. Indeed, if $a m=0$ and $b n=0$ for $a, b \in R$ nonzero and $m, n \in M$, then $a b(m+n)=b a m+a b n=0$ and $a c m=c a m=0$ for all $c \in R$. The quotient module $M_{\mathrm{tf}}=M / M_{\text {tor }}$ is torsionfree, and is called the torsionfree quotient of $M$.

Next we discuss the relationship between torsionfree modules and free modules.
Definition 2.3.2. A domain is a nonzero ring $R$ with no zero-divisors, namely, for all $r, s \in R$, $r s=0$ implies $r=0$ or $s=0$. A Principal Left Ideal Domain (PLID) is a domain $R$ of which every left ideal is principal, namely, of the form Rr for some $r \in R$. A Principal Right Ideal Domain (PRID) is a domain $R$ of which every right ideal is of the form $r R$ for some $r \in R$. A Principal Ideal Domain (PID) is a commutative PLID.

In other words, a domain is a nonzero ring for which the left regular module is torsionfree. A commutative ring is a PID if and only if every ideal is free. Indeed, a free ideal of a commutative ring $R$ is principal (since every pair of elements of $R$ is linearly dependent).

Remark 2.3.3. A free left module over a domain is torsionfree. The converse does not hold even over a PID: The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Q}$ is not free. We will see however that finitely generated torsionfree modules over a PID is free (Corollary [2.3.8).

## Example 2.3.4.

(1) The ring of rational integers $\mathbb{Z}$ and the ring of Gaussian integers $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{ }-1]$ are PIDs.
(2) $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a PID. $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ is not a PID.
(3) For a division ring $D$, the polynomial ring $D[X]$ is a PLID and a PRID.
(4) Let $F$ be a field (or a division ring) equipped with an endomorphism $\sigma$ that is not an isomorphism. The twisted polynomial ring $F[X ; \sigma]=\left\{\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_{i} X^{i} \mid\right.$ $\left.a_{i} \in F\right\}$, which is a (left) $F$-vector space in the usual way, with multiplication defined by $X a=\sigma(a) X$, is a PLID but not a PRID [LL2, Example 1.25].
Proposition 2.3.5. Let $R$ be a PLID. Let $M$ be a free left $R$-module. Then every left $R$-submodule $N$ of $M$ is free and for every basis $B$ of $R$, there exists a basis $C$ of $N$ satisfying $\operatorname{card}(C) \leq \operatorname{card}(B)$.

Thus if $R$ has IBN (for example if $R$ is a PID), we have $\operatorname{rk}_{R}(N) \leq \operatorname{rk}_{R}(M)$.
Proof. Consider the set $P$ of triples $(A, C, f)$ where $A \subseteq B$ is a subset such that $N_{A}:=N \cap \sum_{a \in A} R a$ is free, $C \subseteq N_{A}$ is a basis of $N_{A}$, and $f: C \rightarrow A$ is an injection. We equip the set with the following partial order: $(A, C, f) \leq\left(A^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, f^{\prime}\right)$ if and only if $A \subseteq A^{\prime}, C \subseteq C^{\prime}$, and $\left.f^{\prime}\right|_{C}=f$. Then every chain $\left(A_{i}, C_{i}, f_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ in $P$ has an upper bound $\left(\cup_{i} A_{i}, \bigcup_{i} C_{i}, f\right)$, where $\left.f\right|_{C_{i}}=f_{i}$. By Zorn's lemma, there exists a maximal element $(A, C, f)$ of $P$. It suffices to show that $A=B$, so that $C$ is a basis of $N_{B}=N$ and $\operatorname{card}(C) \leq \operatorname{card}(B)$.

Assume that $A \neq B$. It suffices to show that there exists $\left(A^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, f^{\prime}\right) \in P$ with $(A, C, f) \lesseqgtr\left(A^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, f^{\prime}\right)$. Let $b \in B \backslash A$ and let $A^{\prime}=A \amalg\{b\}$. Consider the ideal $I \subseteq R$ of elements $r \in R$ such that $N \cap\left(r b+\sum_{a \in A} R a\right) \neq \emptyset$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{A^{\prime}} \subseteq N \cap\left(I b+\sum_{a \in A} R a\right) . \tag{2.3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $I=0$, then $N_{A^{\prime}}=N_{A}$ and we conclude by taking $C^{\prime}=C$ and $f^{\prime}: C \xrightarrow{f} A \subseteq A^{\prime}$. Assume $I \neq 0$. Since $R$ is a PLID, we have $I=R s$ with $s \neq 0$. Let $m \in$ $N \cap\left(s b+\sum_{a \in A} R a\right)$. Then $N_{A^{\prime}}=R m+N_{A}$ by (2.3.1). Since $R m \cap N_{A}=0$, $N_{A^{\prime}}=R m \oplus N_{A}$ is free of basis $C^{\prime}=A \amalg\{m\}$. We define $f^{\prime}: C^{\prime} \rightarrow A^{\prime}$ by $\left.f^{\prime}\right|_{C}=f$ and $f^{\prime}(m)=b$.

Remark 2.3.6. (1) The union of a chain of free modules is not free in general. For example, for $R=\mathbb{Z}$ and $a \geq 2$ an integer, $\mathbb{Q}=\bigcup_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{a^{n}} \mathbb{Z}$ is not free.
(2) A maximal linearly independent subset of a free module is not a basis in general. For example, $\{2\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is not a basis.
(3) If we only need the freeness of $N$, it suffices to apply Zorn's lemma to the partially ordered set of pairs $(A, C)$ such that $C \subseteq N_{A}$ is basis.
Corollary 2.3.7. Let $R$ be a PID. Let $M$ be an $R$-module such that $M_{\mathrm{tf}}$ is finitely generated. Then there exists a free submodule of finite rank $L \subseteq M$ such that $M=M_{\text {tor }} \oplus L$.

Proof. Let $A \subseteq M_{\mathrm{tf}}$ be a finite generating subset and let $B \subseteq A$ be a maximal linearly independent subset. For every $a \in A \backslash B, B \amalg\{a\}$ is linearly dependent. In other words, there exists a nonzero $r_{a} \in R$ such that $r_{a} a \in \sum_{b \in B} R b$. Let $r=\prod_{a \in A \backslash B} r_{a}$. Then multiplication by $r$ gives an injective homomorphism $M_{\mathrm{tf}} \rightarrow$ $\oplus_{b \in B} R b$. By Proposition [2.3.3, $M_{\mathrm{tf}}$ is a free module of finite rank. Let $C$ be a basis of $M_{\mathrm{tf}}$. For each $c \in C$, let $\tilde{c} \in M$ be a lifting. Then it suffices to take $L=\sum_{c \in C} R \tilde{c}$.
Corollary 2.3.8. Every finitely generated torsionfree module over a PID is free.

## Finitely generated modules over a PID

We will give a structure theorem for homomorphisms between finitely generated free modules over a PID. Under chosen bases, such a homomorphism is given by a matrix, with change of bases corresponding to left and right multiplication by invertible matrices.

Definition 2.3.9. Let $R$ be a ring. Two matrices $A$ and $B$ with entries in $R$ are said to be equivalent if there exist invertible matrices $P$ and $Q$ with entries in $R$ such that $B=P A Q$.

Theorem 2.3.10. Let $A$ be an $n \times m$ matrix with entries in a PID $R$. Then $A$ is equivalent to a matrix of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\alpha_{1} & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0  \tag{2.3.2}\\
0 & \alpha_{2} & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & \alpha_{r} & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $\alpha_{1}\left|\alpha_{2}\right| \cdots \mid \alpha_{r}$.
The matrix (2.3.2) is called a Smith normal form of $A$. Note that the $\alpha_{i}$ 's are unique up to multiplication by a unit. Indeed, adopting the convention $\alpha_{r} \neq 0, \alpha_{i}$ is an associate of $d_{i}(A) / d_{i-1}(A)$ and $r$ is the smallest integer $i$ such that $d_{i+1}(A)=0$. Here $d_{i}(A)$ denotes a greatest common divisor of all $i \times i$ minors of $A$ with the conventions $d_{0}(A)=1$ and $d_{m+1}(A)=d_{n+1}(A)=0$. The principal ideals $R \alpha_{1} \supseteq$ $R \alpha_{2} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq R \alpha_{r}$ (or the elements $\alpha_{1}\left|\alpha_{2}\right| \cdots \mid \alpha_{r}$ ) are called the invariant factors of $A$.

A row operation is left multiplication by an invertible matrix. Here are some examples:
(1) Switching two rows;
(2) Adding a multiple of one row to another row;
(3) Multiplying one row by a unit in $R$ (on the left).

Unlike the case over a field, these three kinds of row operations do not generate all row operations. We also need the following generalization of (1), (2), (3): given an invertible matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha & \beta \\
\gamma & \delta
\end{array}\right)
$$

and row indices $i \neq j$, replacing row $i$ by $\alpha$ times row $i$ plus $\beta$ times row $j$, and replacing row $j$ by $\gamma$ times row $i$ plus $\delta$ times row $j$.

Proof of Theorem 2.3 .10 . We proceed by induction on $n$. For $n=0$ the claim is trivial. Assume $m>0$. We may assume that $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ is not zero. By row switching and column switching, we may assume $a_{11} \neq 0$.

We proceed then by induction on the number $\delta(A)$ of prime factors of $a_{11} / d_{1}(A)$, counting multiplicities. If $\delta(A)=0$, then by adding multiples of the first row to other rows and multiples of the first column to other columns, we may assume that $A$ is of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{11} & 0 \\
0 & B
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $B$ is a $(n-1) \times(m-1)$ matrix with all entries divisible by $a_{11}$. It suffices then to apply the induction hypothesis to $B$.

Assume $\delta(A)>0$. We distinguish three cases.
(1) Some entry of the first column, say $a_{i 1}$, is not divisible by $a_{11}$. Let $d$ be a greatest common divisor $a_{11}$ and $a_{i 1}$. Then there exist $\alpha, \beta \in R$ satisfying Bézout's identity: $\alpha a_{11}+\beta a_{i 1}=d$. Applying the row operation given by the invertible matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
-a_{i 1} / d & a_{11} / d
\end{array}\right)
$$

to the rows 1 and $i$, we obtain a matrix $M=\left(m_{i, j}\right)$ with $m_{11}=d$ and hence $\delta(M)<\delta(A)$. It suffices to apply the induction hypothesis to $M$.
(2) Some entry of the first row is not divisible by $a_{11}$. This case can be handled similarly to case (1) using column operations.
(3) All entries of the first column and the first row are divisible by $a_{11}$. Then some $a_{i j}$ is not divisible by $a_{11}$ for $i, j>1$. By adding a multiple of the first column to the $j$-th column, we may assume that $a_{1 j}=0$. By adding the $j$-th column to the first column, we reduce to the case where $a_{i 1}$ is not divisible by $a_{11}$, which is case (1).

Our proof gives an algorithm to find the Smith normal form.
Remark 2.3.11. A commutative ring $R$ of which every finitely generated ideal is principal is called a Bézout ring. In other words, greatest common divisors exist in $R$ and satisfy Bézout's identity. This is a necessary condition for the existence of Smith normal forms for all matrices over $R$.

Examples of Bézout domains include PIDs, valuation rings (see exercises), and subrings of $F[X]$ of the form $R+X F[X]$, where $R$ is a Bézout domain (such as a PID) and $F=\operatorname{Frac}(R)$. It is not known whether every matrix over a Bézout domain has a Smith normal form.

Corollary 2.3.12. Let $R$ be a PID. Let $F$ be a free $R$-module of rank $n$ and let $M \subseteq F$ be a submodule. Then there exist a basis $\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$ of $F$ and ideals $I_{1} \supseteq I_{2} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq I_{n}$ of $R$ such that $M=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} I_{i} e_{i}$. The ideals $I_{1} \supseteq I_{2} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq I_{n}$ are uniquely determined by $F$ and $M$.

Let $I_{i}=R d_{i}$. The nonzero elements in the family $\left(d_{i} e_{i}\right)$ form a basis of $M$. The ideals $I_{i}$ (or the elements $d_{i}$ ) are called the invariant factors of $M \subseteq F$.

Proof 1. By Proposition [2.3.5, $M$ is a finitely generated free module. We apply the theorem to the inclusion $M \hookrightarrow N$.

Proof 2. Alternatively, since $R$ is Noetherian (Example [2.4.3 (1)), $M$ is finitely generated by Proposition [2.4.8]. We then choose a finite set of generators and apply the theorem to the resulting homomorphism $R^{m} \rightarrow F$. This gives another proof of Proposition $[.3 .5$ for finitely generated free modules over a PID.

One can also prove Theorem 2.3 .0$]$ using Proposition 2.3 .5 .
Alternative proof of Theorem 2.3 .1$]$. Let $F=R^{n}$ and let $M$ be the image of the $R$-linear map $\phi: R^{m} \rightarrow R^{n}$ given by $A$. By Proposition [2.3.5, $\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$ and $M$ are free. A basis of $\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$ combined with a lifting of a basis of $M$ gives a basis of $R^{m}$ (see Lemma [2.6.16). Thus it suffices to prove Corollary [2.3.12].

We proceed by induction on $n$. Since $R$ satisfies the ACC for ideals (Example [2.4.3] (1)), the family $(f(M))_{f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, R)}$ of ideals admits a maximal element, $I_{1}=$ $f_{1}(M)$ by Remark [2.4.2. If $I_{1}=0$, then $M=0$ and the existence is clear.

Assume that $I_{1}=d_{1} R \neq 0$. There exists $x_{1} \in M$ such that $f_{1}\left(x_{1}\right)=d_{1}$. For every $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(F, R)$, write $R f\left(x_{1}\right)+I_{1}=\left(R f+R f_{1}\right)\left(x_{1}\right)$ as $R d \supseteq I_{1}$. There exists $u, v \in R$ such that $\left(u f+v f_{1}\right)\left(x_{1}\right)=r$. By the maximality of $I_{1}$, we have $R d=I_{1}$, so that $f\left(x_{1}\right) \in I_{1}$. Thus the coefficients of $x_{1}$ under any basis of $F$ are in $I_{1}$. It follows that there exists $e_{1} \in F$ such that $x_{1}=d_{1} e_{1}$.

By Proposition [2.3.5, $F^{\prime}=\operatorname{ker}\left(f_{1}\right)$ is free. Since $f_{1}\left(e_{1}\right)=1$, every $e \in F$ can be written as $e=f_{1}(e) e_{1}+\left(e-f_{1}(e) e_{1}\right)$ with $e-f_{1}(e) e_{1} \in F^{\prime}$ and $F^{\prime} \cap R e_{1}=0$. Thus $F=R e_{1} \oplus F^{\prime}$. For $m \in M, f_{1}(m) e_{1} \in\left(R d_{1}\right) e_{1}=R x_{1} \subseteq M$. Thus $M=I_{1} e_{1} \oplus M^{\prime}$, where $M^{\prime}=M \cap F^{\prime}$. By induction hypothesis, we obtain a basis $\left\{e_{2}, \ldots, e_{n}\right\}$ of $F^{\prime}$ and a chain of ideals $I_{2} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq I_{n}$ such that $M^{\prime}=\bigoplus_{i=2}^{n} I_{i} e_{i}$.

It remains to show $I_{1} \supseteq I_{2}$. Let $I_{2}=R d_{2}$ and $I_{1}+I_{2}=R d$. There exist $u$ and $v$ such that $u d_{1}+v d_{2}=r$. Let $\left(f_{i}\right)$ be a dual basis of $\left(e_{i}\right)$ :

$$
f_{i}\left(e_{j}\right)=\delta_{i j}= \begin{cases}1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Then $\left(u f_{1}+v f_{2}\right)\left(d_{1} e_{1}+e_{2} d_{2}\right)=d$. By the maximality of $I_{1}$, we have $R d=I_{1}$. In other words, $I_{2} \subseteq I_{1}$.

We easily deduce the following structure theorem.
Theorem 2.3.13. Every finitely generated module $N$ over a PID $R$ is isomorphic to a module of the form $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R / I_{i}$, where $I_{1} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq I_{n}$ is a chain of proper ideals. The chain is uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of $N$.

The ideals $I_{i}$ are called the invariant factors of $N$.
Proof. We write $N=F / M$, where $F$ is a finitely generated free $R$-module, and apply Corollary [2.3.2.2. For the uniqueness, note that $N_{\text {tor }} \simeq \oplus_{I_{i} \neq 0, R} R / I_{i}, N_{\mathrm{tf}} \simeq R^{k}$, where $k$ is the number of zero ideals among $\left(I_{i}\right)$. Thus, we may assume that $I_{i} \neq 0$ for all $i$. For $I=R \prod_{p} p^{a_{p}}$, where $p$ runs through a set of representatives of the equivalence classes of irreducible elements of $R$ and $a_{p}=0$ for all but finitely many $p$, we have

$$
\frac{p^{a}(R / I)}{p^{a+1}(R / I)} \simeq \frac{p^{a} R+I}{p^{a+1} R+I} \simeq \begin{cases}R / p R & a_{p}>a \\ 0 & a_{p} \leq a\end{cases}
$$

Thus, writing $I_{i}=R \prod_{p} p^{a_{p, i}}$, we have $\#\left\{i \mid a_{p, i}>a\right\}=\operatorname{dim}_{R / p R}\left(p^{a} N / p^{a+1} N\right)$.

This gives another proof of Corollary [2.3.8 (provided that we use the second proof of Corollary [2.3.J2).
Corollary 2.3.14. Every finitely generated module $N$ over a PID $R$ is isomorphic to a module of the form $\oplus_{i=1}^{n} R / J_{i}$, where $J_{i}=0$ or $J_{i}$ is generated by a positive power of an irreducible element of $R$. Up to reordering the ideals $J_{i}$ are uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of $N$.

The ideals $J_{i}$ are called the elementary divisors of $N$.
Proof. This is obtained by further decomposing the $R / I_{i}$ appearing in the structure theorem. For $I=R \prod_{j=1}^{m} p_{j}^{a_{j}}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are pairwise nonassociate irreducible elements of $R$, we have $R / I \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} R / p_{j}^{a_{j}} R$ by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

We end this section with a couple of applications.
Corollary 2.3.15. Every finitely generated abelian group $A$ is isomorphic to an abelian group of the form $\oplus_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{Z} / d_{i} \mathbb{Z}$, where $1 \neq d_{1}\left|d_{2}\right| \cdots \mid d_{n}$ are nonnegative integers, uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of $A$.

Corollary 2.3.16. Let $F$ be a field and $V$ an $F[X]$-module with $\operatorname{dim}_{F}(V)<\infty$. Then

$$
V \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} F[X] /\left(f_{i}\right)
$$

where $f_{1}\left|f_{2}\right| \cdots \mid f_{n}$ are monic polynomials of degree $\geq 1$ in $F[X]$, uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of $V$.

In terms of matrices, Corollary [2.3.16 can be rephrased as follows: For any square matrix $A$ with entries in $F$ is similar to a matrix of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
M_{f_{1}} & \ldots & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
0 & \ldots & M_{f_{n}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $f_{i}$ as above. This is called the rational normal form of $A$. Here for $f=$ $X^{d}+a_{d-1} X^{d-1} \cdots+a_{0}, M_{f}$ denotes the block

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & \ldots & 0 & -a_{0} \\
1 & \ldots & 0 & -a_{1} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & \ldots & 1 & -a_{d-1}
\end{array}\right),
$$

which is the matrix of $X$ on $F[X] /(f)$ under the basis $\left(1, X, \ldots, X^{d-1}\right)$. One can also replace the invariant factors by the elementary divisors, which are positive powers of monic irreducible polynomials.

In the case where $F$ is an algebraically closed field, the elementary divisors are of the form $f=(X-\lambda)^{d}$, and it is convenient to use instead of $M_{f}$ the Jordan block

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
\lambda & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
1 & \lambda & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ddots & \lambda & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 & \lambda
\end{array}\right),
$$

which is the matrix of $X$ on $F[X] /\left((X-\lambda)^{d}\right)$ under the basis

$$
\left(1, X-\lambda, \ldots,(X-\lambda)^{d-1}\right)
$$

We obtain thus the Jordan normal form.

### 2.4 Chain conditions

Definition 2.4.1. We say that a module $M$ is Noetherian if it satisfies the Ascending Chain Condition (ACC): for every ascending chain of submodules $M_{1} \subseteq M_{2} \subseteq \ldots$, there exists $m$ such that $M_{n}=M_{m}$ for all $n \geq m$. We say that a module $M$ is Artinian if it satisfies the Descending Chain Condition: for every descending chain of submodules $M_{1} \supseteq M_{2} \supseteq \ldots$, there exists $m$ such that $M_{n}=M_{m}$ for all $n \geq m$.

We say that a ring is left Noetherian (resp. left Artinian) if the regular left $R$ module $R$ is Noetherian (resp. Artinian). We say that a ring is right Noetherian (resp. right Artinian) if the regular right $R$-module $R$ is Noetherian (resp. Artinian). We say that a ring is Noetherian (resp. Artinian) if it is both left and right Noetherian (resp. Artinian).

Remark 2.4.2. $M$ is Noetherian (resp. Artinian) if and only if every set of submodules of $M$ admits a maximal (resp. minimal) element.

## Example 2.4.3.

(1) Every PLID $R$ is left Noetherian. Indeed, for an ascending chain of left ideals $I_{1} \subseteq I_{2} \subseteq \ldots$, we have $I=\bigcup_{i} I_{i}=R r$ and $r \in I_{m}$ for some $m$, so that $I=I_{m}$.
(2) The twisted polynomial ring $R=F[X ; \sigma]$ of Example ए.3.4 (4) is a PLID (and hence left Noetherian) but not right Noetherian. In fact, for any $b \in F \backslash \sigma(F)$, we have the ascending chain of right ideals [L2, Example 1.25]

$$
b X R \subsetneq b X R+X b X R \subsetneq b X R+X b X R+X^{2} b X R \subsetneq \ldots
$$

(3) Every division ring $D$ is Noetherian and Artinian. For a left $D$-module $V$, we have

$$
V \text { is Noetherian } \Leftrightarrow V \text { is Artinian } \Leftrightarrow V \text { has finite rank. }
$$

(4) Every module of finite cardinality is Noetherian and Artinian.
(5) Let $p$ be a prime number. The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}\left[p^{-1}\right] / \mathbb{Z}$ is Artinian but not Noetherian. In fact, the ascending chain of submodules

$$
\mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq p^{-1} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq p^{-2} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq \ldots
$$

does not stabilize. On the other hand, every proper submodule has the form $\frac{1}{p^{n}} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \cup\{\infty\}$, so that every descending chain of submodules has the form

$$
p^{-n_{1}} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \supseteq p^{-n_{2}} \mathbb{Z} / \mathbb{Z} \supseteq \ldots
$$

where $n_{1} \geq n_{2} \geq \ldots$ stabilizes. However, we will see later that left Artinian rings are left Noetherian.
(6) Let $E / F$ be an infinite field extension. One can show that the ring

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
E & E \\
0 & F
\end{array}\right)=\left\{\left.\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
0 & d
\end{array}\right) \right\rvert\, a, b \in E, d \in F\right\} \subseteq M_{2}(E)
$$

is left Noetherian and left Artinian, but neither right Noetherian nor right Artinian [LL2, Corollary 1.24].
(7) Let $R$ be a domain that is not a division ring. Then $R$ is not left or right Artinian. Indeed, for any nonunit $x \in R \backslash\{0\}$, we have the descending chain of left ideals

$$
R \supsetneq R x \supsetneq R x^{2} \supseteq \ldots
$$

(8) Let $R$ be a nonzero ring. Then the polynomial ring $S=R[X]$ is not left or right Artinian. Indeed, we have the descending chain of ideals

$$
S X \supsetneq S X^{2} \supsetneq S X^{3} \subsetneq \ldots
$$

(9) Let $R$ be a nonzero ring and let $S=\bigcup_{n \geq 1} R\left[X^{1 / n}\right]$. Then $S$ is not left or right Noetherian (or Artinian). Indeed, we have the ascending chain of ideals

$$
S X \subsetneq S X^{1 / 2} \subsetneq S X^{1 / 3} \subsetneq \ldots .
$$

(10) Let $R$ be a nonzero ring and let $S=R\left[X_{i}\right]_{i \in I}$, where $I$ is an infinite set. Then $S$ is not left or right Noetherian (or Artinian). Indeed, for any sequence $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots$ of elements of $I$, we have the ascending chain of ideals

$$
S X_{i_{1}} \subsetneq S X_{i_{1}}+S X_{i_{2}} \subsetneq \ldots
$$

Proposition 2.4.4. Let $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of modules. Then $M$ is Noetherian (resp. Artinian) if and only if $L$ and $N$ are.

Proof. The "only if" part is clear. To show the "if" part, let $\left(M_{i}\right)$ be an ascending (resp. descending) chain of submodules of $M$. Let $L_{i}=L \cap M_{i}$ and $N_{i}=\left(L+M_{i}\right) / L$. Then $\left(L_{i}\right)$ and $\left(N_{i}\right)$ stabilize. We have a commutative diagram in the Noetherian case

and a similar diagram with vertical arrows reversed in the Artinian case. We conclude by the snake lemma.

Corollary 2.4.5. Let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be submodules of $M$. If both $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are Noetherian (resp. Artinian), then so is $M_{1}+M_{2}$.

Proof. Indeed, we have a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow M_{1} \rightarrow M_{1}+M_{2} \rightarrow\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right) / M_{1} \rightarrow 0
$$

with $\left(M_{1}+M_{2}\right) / M_{1} \simeq M_{2} /\left(M_{1} \cap M_{2}\right)$.

Corollary 2.4.6. Let $R$ be a left Noetherian (resp. Artinian) ring and let $M$ be a finitely-generated left $R$-module. Then $M$ is Noetherian (resp. Artinian).

Proof. Indeed, $M$ is a quotient of $R^{n}$ for some $n \geq 0$.
Remark 2.4.7. Let $R$ be a ring an $I$ an ideal. A left $R / I$-module $M$ is left Noetherian (resp. Artinian) if and only if $M$ is left Noetherian (resp. Artinian) as an $M$-module. Indeed, the $R / I$-submodules of $M$ are precisely the $R$-submodules of $M$. Thus if $R$ is a left Noetherian (resp. Artinian) ring, then so is $R / I$.

Proposition 2.4.8. A module $M$ is Noetherian if and only if every submodule of $M$ is finitely generated.

Proof. "Only if": Let $N \subseteq M$ be a submodule. There exists a maximal finitelygenerated submodule $N^{\prime} \subseteq N$. For every $m \in N, N+R m$ is finitely generated, and $N^{\prime}+R m=N^{\prime}$ by the maximality of $N^{\prime}$. Thus $N^{\prime}=N$.
"If": Let $\left(M_{i}\right)$ be an ascending chain. Then $N=\bigcup_{i} M_{i}$ admits a finite generating subset $S$. There exists $n$ such that $S \subseteq M_{n}$. Then $M=M_{n}$.

Corollary 2.4.9. Let $R$ be a left Noetherian ring. Then a left $R$-module $M$ is Noetherian if and only if it is finitely generated.

Theorem 2.4.10 (Hilbert basis theorem). $A$ ring $R$ is left Noetherian if and only if the polynomial ring $R[X]$ is left Noetherian.

Given a nonzero polynomial $P \in R[X]$, we let $\operatorname{in}(P)$ denote the leading (or initial) coefficient of $P$. For an additive subgroup $I \subseteq R[X]$, we write $\operatorname{in}_{d}(I)=$ $\{\operatorname{in}(P) \mid P \in I, \operatorname{deg}(P)=d\} \cup\{0\}$. In other words, $\operatorname{in}_{d}(I)$ is the image of the group homomorphism $I_{\leq d} \rightarrow R$ carrying $P$ to its coefficient of $X^{d}$, where $I_{\leq d} \subseteq I$ is the subgroup consisting of polynomials of degree $\leq d$. In particular, if $I \subseteq R[X]$ is a left ideal, then $\mathrm{in}_{0}(I) \subseteq \mathrm{in}_{1}(I) \subseteq \ldots$ is an ascending chain of left ideals of $R$.

Lemma 2.4.11. For additive subgroups $J \subseteq I$ of $R[X]$ such that $\mathrm{in}_{d}(I)=\mathrm{in}_{d}(J)$ for all $d \geq 0$, we have $J=I$.

Proof. Let $P \in I$ be a polynomial of degree $d$. We proceed by induction on $d$ to show that $P \in J$. The case $d<0$ is trivial. Assume $d \geq 0$. Then there exists $Q \in J$ of degree $d$ such that $P$ and $Q$ have the same leading coefficients. Then $P-Q \in I$ has degree $<d$, and hence belongs to $J$ by induction hypothesis. It follows that $P \in J$.

Proof of Theorem 2.4.10. Since $R \simeq R[X] /(X)$, the "if" part is clear (Remark [2.4.7). For the "only if" part, let $I$ be a left ideal of $R[X]$. Since $R$ is left Noetherian, there exists $n$ such that $\operatorname{in}_{d}(I)=\operatorname{in}_{n}(I)$ for $d \geq n$. For each $0 \leq d \leq n$, choose $P_{d, 1}, \ldots, P_{d, m_{d}} \in I$ of degree $d$ such that $\left\{\operatorname{in}\left(P_{d, j}\right)\right\}_{1 \leq j \leq m_{d}}$ generates $\operatorname{in}_{d}(I)$. Let $J \subseteq R[X]$ be the left ideal generated by the finite set $\left\{P_{d, j}\right\}_{0 \leq d \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m_{d}}$. Then $J \subseteq I$ and $\operatorname{in}_{d}(J)=\operatorname{in}_{d}(I)$ for $d \leq n$. The same holds for $d \geq n$. Indeed, for $d \geq n$, $\mathrm{in}_{d}(J) \supseteq \mathrm{in}_{n}(J)=\mathrm{in}_{n}(I)=\mathrm{in}_{d}(I)$. We conclude by the lemma.

Corollary 2.4.12. Let $R$ be a left Noetherian ring. Then so is the polynomial ring $R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$.

Let $R$ be a commutative ring. A commutative $R$-algebra isomorphic to a quotient of $R\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ for some $n$ is called a finitely generated commutative $R$-algebra. A finitely-generated commutative algebra over a Noetherian ring is Noetherian by Corollary [2.4.]2 and Remark [2.4.7.

Remark 2.4.13. The analogue of the Hilbert basis theorem also holds for the ring of formal power series $R[[X]]$ : A ring $R$ is left Noetherian if and only if $R[[X]]$ is left Noetherian. Indeed, in the above proof it suffices to replace $\operatorname{deg}(P)$ and in $(P)$ by $v(f)=m$ and $\operatorname{in}(f)=a_{m}$, respectively, where $f=\sum_{n \geq m} a_{n} X^{n}$ with $a_{m} \neq 0$.

## Jordan-Hölder Theorem

Definition 2.4.14. We say that a module $M$ is simple (or irreducible) if it is nonzero and the only submodules are 0 and $M$.

The definitions of simple modules and cyclic modules are quite different from those for simple field extensions and cyclic field extensions.

Remark 2.4.15. If $M$ is a simple module, then any nonzero $m \in M$ is a generator. In particular, simple modules are cyclic, and hence isomorphic to $R / I$, where $I \subseteq R$ is a maximal left ideal. By a maximal left ideal, we mean a maximal element of the set of proper left ideals. On the other hand, cyclic modules are not simple in general. For example, the $\mathbb{Z}$-modules $\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z} / 4 \mathbb{Z}$ are not simple.

Definition 2.4.16. Let $M$ be a module. An (increasing) filtration of $M$ of length $n$ is a sequence of inclusions of submodules $0=M_{0} \subseteq M_{1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M_{n}=M$. The graded pieces of the filtration are $M_{i} / M_{i-1}, 1 \leq i \leq n$. We say that two filtrations are equivalent if the graded pieces coincide up to permutation and isomorphism. A filtration of $M$ is called a composition series if the graded pieces are simple.

Proposition 2.4.17. A module admits a composition series if and only if it is both Noetherian and Artinian.

Proof. Since simple modules are Noetherian and Artinian, the same holds for modules admitting a composition series. Conversely, let $M$ be a Noetherian and Artinian module. If $M=0$, there exists a unique composition series. Assume $M \neq 0$. Since $M$ is Artinian, there exists a minimal nonzero submodule $M_{1}$ of $M$. Then $M_{1}$ is simple. If $M_{1}=M$, we get a composition series of $M$. If not, we repeat the above argument for $M / M_{1}$. This process must stop at some point, providing a composition series of $M$. Indeed, otherwise we would get an ascending chain of submodules of $M$, contradicting the assumption that $M$ is Noetherian.

Corollary 2.4.18. Let $M$ be a Noetherian and Artinian module. Then every filtration of $M$ without repetition can be refined to a composition series.

Proof. Let $\left(M_{i}\right)$ be a filtration without repetition. It suffices to apply the proposition to every subquotient $M_{i} / M_{i-1}$ and take the preimages in $M_{i}$.

Theorem 2.4.19 (Jordan-Hölder). Let $M$ be a module. Any pair of composition series of $M$ are equivalent and hence have the same length.

Note that any refinement of a composition series is necessarily obtained by repetition. Thus, the Jordan-Hölder theorem follows from the following result.

Theorem 2.4.20 (Schreier refinement theorem). Any pair of filtrations of a module $M$ have equivalent refinements.

Proof. We may assume $M \neq 0$. Let $0=M_{0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M_{r}=M$ and $0=N_{0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq$ $N_{s}=M$ be filtrations. For $1 \leq i \leq r$ and $0 \leq j \leq s$, let $M_{i, j}=M_{i-1}+M_{i} \cap N_{j}$. For $0 \leq i \leq r$ and $1 \leq j \leq s$, let $N_{i, j}=N_{j-1}+M_{i} \cap N_{j}$. Then $0=M_{1,0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq$ $M_{1, s}=M_{2,0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M_{r-1, s}=M_{r, 0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M_{r, s}=M$ is a refinement of $\left(M_{i}\right)$. Similarly, $\left(N_{i, j}\right)$ is a refinement of $\left(N_{i}\right)$. For $1 \leq i \leq r$ and $1 \leq j \leq s$, we have $M_{i, j} / M_{i, j-1} \simeq N_{i, j} / N_{i-1, j}$ by the following lemma.

Lemma 2.4.21 (Zassenhaus). Let $M^{\prime} \subseteq M$ and $N^{\prime} \subseteq N$ be submodules of a module $L$. Then we have an isomorphism

$$
\frac{M^{\prime}+M \cap N}{M^{\prime}+M \cap N^{\prime}} \simeq \frac{N^{\prime}+M \cap N}{N^{\prime}+M^{\prime} \cap N} .
$$

Proof. The relevant modules fit into the diagram


We have $M^{\prime}+M \cap N=\left(M^{\prime}+M \cap N^{\prime}\right)+(M \cap N)$ and $\left(M^{\prime}+M \cap N^{\prime}\right) \cap(M \cap N)=$ $\left(M^{\prime} \cap N\right)+\left(M \cap N^{\prime}\right)$. Here in the second equality we used Lemma $2.4: 22$ below. Thus

$$
\frac{M^{\prime}+M \cap N}{M^{\prime}+M \cap N^{\prime}} \simeq \frac{M \cap N}{M^{\prime} \cap N+M \cap N^{\prime}} .
$$

Similarly,

$$
\frac{N^{\prime}+M \cap N}{N^{\prime}+M^{\prime} \cap N} \simeq \frac{M \cap N}{M^{\prime} \cap N+M \cap N^{\prime}}
$$

Lemma 2.4.22. Let $A \subseteq C \subseteq M$ and $A^{\prime} \subseteq M$ be submodules. Then $\left(A+A^{\prime}\right) \cap C=$ $A+A^{\prime} \cap C$.

Proof. Clearly $\left(A+A^{\prime}\right) \cap C \supseteq A+A^{\prime} \cap C$. Conversely, every $c \in\left(A+A^{\prime}\right) \cap C$ can be written as $c=a+b$ with $a \in A$ and $b \in A^{\prime}$. Then $b=c-a \in C$. Thus $b \in A^{\prime} \cap C$.

Definition 2.4.23. A Noetherian and Artinian module $M$ is said to be of finite length. The length of a composition series of $M$ is called the length of $M$ and denoted by $\lg (M)$. The graded pieces of a composition series are called the JordanHölder factors (or composition factors) of $M$. We let $\mathrm{JH}(M)$ denote the multiset of isomorphism classes of Jordan-Hölder factors of $M$.

Proposition 2.4.24. Let $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow M \rightarrow N \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of modules of finite length. Then $\mathrm{JH}(M)=\mathrm{JH}(L) \cup \mathrm{JH}(N)$. In particular, $\lg (M)=$ $\lg (L)+\lg (N)$.

Proof. A composition series of $L$ and the preimage of a composition series of $N$ concatenate into a composition series of $M$.

Remark 2.4.25. Let $f: M \rightarrow N$ be a homomorphism of modules of finite length such that $\mathrm{JH}(M) \cap \mathrm{JH}(N)=\emptyset$. Then $f=0$. Indeed, $\mathrm{JH}(\operatorname{im}(f)) \subseteq \mathrm{JH}(M) \cap \mathrm{JH}(N)=$ $\emptyset$.

### 2.5 Semisimple modules

Let $R$ be a ring.
Proposition 2.5.1. For a module $M$ the following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $M$ is a sum of simple submodules: $M=\sum_{i \in I} M_{i}$;
(2) $M$ is a direct sum of simple submodules: $M=\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$;
(3) Every submodule $N$ of $M$ is a direct summand: there exists a submodule $N^{\prime}$ of $M$ such that $M=N \oplus N^{\prime}$.
Moreover, under condition (1), there exists a subset $J \subseteq I$ such that $M=\bigoplus_{j \in J} M_{j}$.
For $M=N \oplus N^{\prime}$, we call $N^{\prime}$ a direct sum complement of $N$ in $M$.
Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow(2)$. Let $S$ be the set of $J \subseteq I$ such that $M_{J}=\sum_{j \in J} M_{j}$ is a direct sum. For any chain $\left(J_{k}\right)$ in $S, \cup_{k} J_{k}$ is an upper bound. Indeed, $\sum_{j \in J} M_{j}$ is a direct sum if and only if $M_{j} \cap M_{J \backslash\{j\}}=0$ for all $j \in J$, which can be checked on finite subsets of $J$. By Zorn's lemma, $S$ admits a maximal element $J$. Suppose some $M_{i}$, $i \in I$ is not contained in $M_{J}$. Since $M_{i}$ is simple, $M_{i} \cap M_{J}=0$ and $J \cup\{i\} \in S$, contradicting the maximality of $J$. Thus every $M_{i}$ is contained in $M_{J}$ and $M=M_{J}$.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. For $J \subseteq I$, we write $M_{J}=\bigoplus_{j \in J} M_{j}$. Let $S$ be the set of $J \subseteq I$ such that $N \cap M_{J}=0$. Every chain $\left(J_{k}\right)$ of $S$ has an upper bound $\bigcup_{k} J_{k}$. By Zorn's lemma, there exists a maximal $J \subseteq I$. It remains to show that $M=N \oplus M_{J}$. Let $P=N \oplus M_{J}$. For each $i \in I$, if $M_{i} \cap P=0$, then $N+M_{J \cup\{i\}}$ is a direct sum, contradicting the maximality of $J$. Thus, since $M_{i}$ is simple, $M_{i} \cap P=M_{i}$. It follows that $P=M$.
$(3) \Rightarrow(1)$. Let $N$ be the sum of all simple submodules of $M$. Then $M=N \oplus N^{\prime}$. Assume that $N^{\prime} \neq 0$. Let $C$ be a nonzero cyclic submodule of $N^{\prime}$. By Lemma [2.5.2] below (or Remark [2.4.5.5), there exists a maximal proper submodule $A \subseteq C$ with $C / A$ simple. By Lemma 2.5 .3 below, we have $C=A \oplus B$. Then $B \simeq C / A$ is simple and thus $B \subseteq N$, contradicting the assumption $N \cap N^{\prime}=0$. Therefore, $N^{\prime}=0$ and $M=N$.

Lemma 2.5.2. Every nonzero finitely generated module $M$ admits a simple quotient.
Proof. Let $S$ be set of proper submodules of $M$. Every chain $\left(N_{i}\right)$ of $S$ admits an upper bound $\bigcup_{i} N_{i}$. Indeed, if $M=\bigcup_{i} N_{i}$, then $M=\sum_{j=1}^{n} R x_{j}$ with $x_{j} \in N_{i_{j}}$, so that $M=N_{i_{k}}$ where $k=\max \left\{i_{j}\right\}_{j}$, contradicting the assumption that each $N_{i}$ is proper. By Zorn's lemma, $S$ admits a maximal element $N$. Then $M / N$ is simple.

Lemma 2.5.3. Let $M=A \oplus A^{\prime}$ and let $A \subseteq C \subseteq M$. Then $C=A \oplus\left(A^{\prime} \cap C\right)$.
Proof. Clearly $A \cap\left(A^{\prime} \cap C\right)=0$. Moreover, by Lemma [2.4.22], $C=\left(A+A^{\prime}\right) \cap C=$ $A+\left(A^{\prime} \cap C\right)$.

Definition 2.5.4. A module satisfying the above conditions is said to be semisimple.
Remark 2.5.5. There are ways to associate semisimple modules to more general modules:
(1) For a module $M$ of finite length, the semisimplification of $M, M_{\mathrm{ss}}$, is the direct sum of the Jordan-Hölder factors (with multiplicities) of $M$.
(2) For any module $M$, the socle of $M$, $\operatorname{soc}(M)$, is the sum of simple submodules of $M$, namely the largest semisimple submodule of $M$. This provides a functor soc from the category of modules to the category of semisimple modules.

Dually, the largest quotient of a module $M$, if it exists, is called the cosocle of $M$. Cosocles do not exist in general. See Warning [2.5.7 (2) for an example for which the cosocle does not exist.

Corollary 2.5.6. Let $M=\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}$ with $M_{i}$ simple and let $N \subseteq M$ be a submodule. Then there exists $J \subseteq I$ such that $M=N \oplus M_{J}$, where $M_{J}=\oplus_{j \in J} M_{j}$. In particular, both $N \simeq M_{I \backslash J}$ and $M / N \simeq M_{J}$ are semisimple.

Proof. The first assertion follows from the proof of Part $(2) \Rightarrow(3)$ of the proposition. The second assertion is clear.

## Warning 2.5.7.

(1) In the corollary, $N$ is not equal to a direct sum of $M_{i}$ in general. For example, if $M=F^{\oplus 2}$ over a field $F$ and $M_{i}=F e_{i}$, where $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}\right)$ is the standard basis, then $F v$ is not equal to $M_{i}$ for any $v \notin F e_{1} \cup F e_{2}$.
(2) An infinite product of simple modules is not semisimple in general. For example, we have an injection $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow A=\prod_{p} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$, where $p$ runs through prime numbers. Since $\mathbb{Z}$ is not a semisimple $\mathbb{Z}$-module, neither is $A$.

## Schur's lemma

Lemma 2.5.8 (Schur). Let $M$ and $N$ be simple left $R$-modules and $f: M \rightarrow N$ a homomorphism. Then either $f=0$ or $f$ is an isomorphism. In other words, $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a division ring.

Proof. If $f \neq 0$, then $\operatorname{ker}(f) \neq M$ and $\operatorname{im}(f) \neq 0$. Thus $\operatorname{ker}(f)=0$ and $\operatorname{im}(f)=$ $N$.

Proposition 2.5.9. Let $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ be pairwise nonisomorphic simple left $R$-modules and let $M=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{i}^{\oplus n_{i}}$. Then $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M) \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$, where $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M_{i}\right)$.

We will study rings of the form $\prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$ in Section [3.2].
Proof. This follows immediately from Schur's lemma.

Remark 2.5.10. Let $M$ be a semisimple left $R$-module. Then $M=\oplus_{V} M_{V}$, where $V$ runs through isomorphism classes of simple left $R$-modules, $M_{V}$ is the image of the map $\operatorname{Hom}_{R}(V, M) \otimes_{D_{V}} V \rightarrow M$ given by $f \otimes v \mapsto f(v)$, and $D_{V}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(V)$, which is a division ring by Schur's lemma. See Section [2.8 for the definition of the tensor product. Here $M_{V}$ is called the $V$-isotypic component of $M$. The multiplicity of $V$ in $M$ is $\mathrm{rk}_{D_{V}} \operatorname{Hom}_{R}(V, M)$.

### 2.6 Indecomposable modules

Definition 2.6.1. An element $e$ of a ring $S$ is called an idempotent if $e^{2}=e$. We denote the set of idempotents in $R$ by $\operatorname{Idem}(S)$.

If $e$ is an idempotent, then $(1-e)^{2}=1-2 e+e^{2}=1-e$ and $e(1-e)=0=(1-e) e$.
Let $R$ be a ring.
Proposition 2.6.2. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module. We have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Idem}\left(\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)\right) & \xrightarrow{\sim}\left\{\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right) \mid M=M_{1} \oplus M_{2}\right\} \\
e & \mapsto(e M,(1-e) M) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Clearly $M=e M+(1-e) M$. If $e x=(1-e) y \in e M \cap(1-e) M$, then $x=e^{2} x=e(1-e) y=0$. Thus $M=e M \oplus(1-e) M$. The inverse carries $\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)$ to the composition $M \xrightarrow{p_{1}} M_{1} \xrightarrow{i_{1}} M$, where $p_{1}$ is the projection and $i_{1}$ is the inclusion.

Note that $(1-e) M=\operatorname{ker}(e)$.
Definition 2.6.3. A left $R$-module is called indecomposable if it is nonzero and is not the direct sum of two nonzero submodules.

Corollary 2.6.4. A left $R$-module $M$ is indecomposable if and only $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ contains exactly two idempotents: 0 and 1.

Remark 2.6.5. Proposition $[2.6 .2]$ generalizes easily to finite direct sums as follows. A sequence of elements $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n} \in S$ is called a complete system of orthogonal idempotents if $e_{i} e_{j}=\delta_{i j} e_{i}$, where $\delta_{i j}$ is Kronecker delta. Then $\left(e_{i}\right) \mapsto\left(e_{i} M\right)$ gives a one-to-one correspondence between complete systems of $n$ orthogonal idempotents and decompositions $M=M_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus M_{n}$.

Proposition 2.6.6. Let $M$ be Noetherian or Artinian module. Then $M$ is a finite direct sum of indecomposable submodules.

Proof. Assume the contrary. Since $M$ is decomposable, $M=M_{1} \oplus M_{1}^{\prime}$ with $M_{1} \neq 0$ and $M_{1}^{\prime} \neq 0$. Either $M_{1}$ or $M_{1}^{\prime}$ is not a direct sum of indecomposable modules. We may assume that $M_{1}^{\prime}$ is not. Repeating the argument for $M_{1}^{\prime}$, we obtain $M_{i}^{\prime}=$ $M_{i+1} \oplus M_{i+1}^{\prime}$ with $M_{i} \neq 0$. In particular, we obtain a descending chain ( $M_{i}^{\prime}$ ) and an ascending chain $\left(M_{1}+\cdots+M_{i}\right)$ that do not stabilize, contradicting the assumption that $M$ is Noetherian or Artinian.

Example 2.6.7. Let $I$ be an infinite set. The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}^{I}$ is not a direct sum of indecomposable submodules. In fact, it is not a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module by a result of Baer and every indecomposable submodule is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}$.

To prove the last statement, let $M$ be an indecomposable submodule of $\mathbb{Z}^{I}$. Then there exists $i \in I$ such that the $i$-th projection induces a nonzero homomorphism $M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and thus induces an surjective homomorphism $\phi: M \rightarrow n \mathbb{Z} \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \neq 0$. Any section of $\phi$ induces an isomorphism from $\mathbb{Z}$ onto a direct summand of $M$ (by Lemma [2.6.]6] below). Thus $M \simeq \mathbb{Z}$.

## Strongly indecomposable modules

Definition 2.6.8. A ring $S$ is called local if the set of nonunits is an ideal. A left $R$-module is called strongly indecomposable if $\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is a local ring.

A local ring $S$ is nonzero and the ideal of nonunits $I$ is both a maximal left ideal and a maximal right ideal. The quotient $S / I$ is a division ring. (Thus $S$ has IBN by Proposition [2.2.]3] and Remark [2.2.] (2).)

Remark 2.6.9. (1) A local ring contains exactly two idempotents: 0 and 1. Indeed, an idempotent $e \neq 1$ is a nonunit, because $e(1-e)=0$. Thus if $e$ is an idempotent and $e \notin\{0,1\}$, then $1=e+(1-e)$ is a sum of nonunits.
(2) A division ring is a local ring.

Thus for a module $M$,

$$
M \text { simple } \Longrightarrow M \text { strongly indecomposable } \Longrightarrow M \text { indecomposable. }
$$

Here in the first implication we used Schur's lemma.
Example 2.6.10. Let $R$ be a PID that is not a field.
(1) A simple $R$-module is isomorphic to $R / p R$, where $p$ is an irreducible element.
(2) A finitely generated indecomposable $R$-module is isomorphic to $R$ or $R / p^{a} R$, where $p$ is an irreducible element and $a \geq 1$ is an integer.
(3) $R / p^{a} R$ is strongly indecomposable. $R$ is strongly indecomposable if and only if $R$ is local, namely $R$ has a unique maximal ideal.
The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Q}$ is strongly indecomposable but not finitely generated or Artinian. Moreover, the converse of Schur's lemma does not hold: $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(\mathbb{Q}) \simeq \mathbb{Q}$ is a field, but $\mathbb{Q}$ is not a simple $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

Theorem 2.6.11. Let $M$ be an indecomposable module of finite length. Then every endomorphism of $M$ is either nilpotent or an isomorphism. Moreover, $M$ is strongly indecomposable.

The two assertions follow from the two lemmas below.
Lemma 2.6.12 (Fitting). Let $M$ be a module of finite length and let $f: M \rightarrow M$ be an endomorphism. Then there exists a decomposition $M=\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right) \oplus \operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right)$ such that $\left.f\right|_{\operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right)}: \operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right)$ is an isomorphism and $\left.f\right|_{\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right)}: \operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right)$ is nilpotent.

Proof. By the chain conditions, there exists $n$ such that $\operatorname{im}\left(f^{m}\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)$ and $\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{m}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$ for all $m \geq n$. We write $\operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)$ and $\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right)=$ $\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$.

Let $x=f^{n}(y)$. If $f^{n}(x)=0$, then $y \in \operatorname{ker}\left(f^{2 n}\right)=\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$ and $x=0$. Thus $\operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right) \cap \operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right)=0$.

For any $x \in M, f^{n}(x) \in \operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(f^{2 n}\right)$, so that there exists $y \in M$ such that $f^{n}(x)=f^{2 n}(y)$. Then $x=\left(x-f^{n}(y)\right)+f^{n}(y) \in \operatorname{ker}\left(f^{\infty}\right)+\operatorname{im}\left(f^{\infty}\right)$.

We have $\left.f\right|_{\operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)}: \operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{im}\left(f^{n+1}\right)=\operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)$ is surjective. Moreover, $\operatorname{ker}(f) \subseteq$ $\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$ has zero intersection with $\operatorname{im}\left(f^{n}\right)$. It follows that $\left.f\right|_{\mathrm{im}\left(f^{n}\right)}$ is an isomorphism. Moreover, $f\left(\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)\right) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)$ and $\left.f^{n}\right|_{\operatorname{ker}\left(f^{n}\right)}=0$.

Lemma 2.6.13. Let $R$ be a nonzero ring such that every $r \in R$ is either nilpotent or invertible. Then $R$ is a local ring.

Note that an element of a nonzero ring cannot be both nilpotent and invertible.
Proof. We need to show that the set $N$ of nilpotent elements of $R$ is an ideal. Let $x \in N$ and $r \in R$. There exists $n \geq 1$ such that $x^{n}=0$ but $x^{n-1} \neq 0$. Then $r x\left(x^{n-1}\right)=0=\left(x^{n-1}\right) x r$. Thus neither $r x$ nor $x r$ is invertible. It follows that they are nilpotent.

Let $x, y \in N$ and $s=x+y$. If $s \notin N$, then $s$ is invertible and $x=s-y=$ $s\left(1-s^{-1} y\right)$ is invertible. Indeed, $\left(1-s^{-1} y\right)^{-1}=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(s^{-1} y\right)^{i}$, which is a finite sum, because $s^{-1} y$ is nilpotent. Contradiction.

Remark 2.6.14. The set of nilpotent elements in any commutative ring $R$ is obviously an ideal, called the nilradical of $R$ and denoted by nil $(R)$. A commutative ring is said to be reduced if $\operatorname{nil}(R)=0$.

Decompositions into indecomposable modules are not always unique. However, we have the following result.

Theorem 2.6.15 (Krull-Schmidt-Azumaya). Let $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} M_{i} \simeq \bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} N_{j}$ be an isomorphism with $M_{i}$ strongly indecomposable and $N_{j}$ indecomposable. Then $m=n$ and up to reordering $M_{i} \simeq N_{i}$.

Proof. We may assume $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} M_{i}=\bigoplus_{j=1}^{n} N_{j}$. Let $M$ be the direct sum. We proceed by induction on $m$. The case $m=0$ is clear. Assume $m \geq 1$. Consider the morphisms

$$
f_{j}: M_{1} \hookrightarrow M \xrightarrow{q_{j}} N_{j} \quad g_{j}: N_{j} \hookrightarrow M \xrightarrow{p_{1}} M_{1},
$$

where $q_{j}$ and $p_{1}$ are the projections. Then $\sum_{j=1}^{m} g_{j} f_{j}=\operatorname{id}_{M_{1}}$. Since $\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M_{1}\right)$ is local, at least one $g_{j} f_{j}$ is an isomorphism. Then $f_{j}$ is an injective homomorphism and, by Lemma [.6.16 below, its image is a direct summand of $N_{j}$. Since $N_{j}$ is indecomposable, $f_{j}: M_{1} \xrightarrow{\sim} N_{j}$ is an isomorphism. Up to reordering, we may assume $j=1$. By Lemma [..6.]6, $M=M_{1} \oplus \operatorname{ker}\left(q_{1}\right)$. Thus $\oplus_{i=2}^{m} M_{i} \simeq M / M_{1} \simeq \operatorname{ker}\left(q_{1}\right)=$ $\oplus_{j=2}^{n} N_{j}$ and we conclude by induction hypothesis.

Lemma 2.6.16. Let $p: M \rightarrow N$ and $s: N \rightarrow M$ be morphisms of modules such that $p s$ is an isomorphism. Then $M=\operatorname{ker}(p) \oplus \operatorname{im}(s)$ and $s: N \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{im}(s)$.

Proof. The last assertion follows from the fact that $s$ is an injection. The decomposition is given by the idempotent $e=s(p s)^{-1} p: \operatorname{im}(s)=e M$ and $\operatorname{ker}(p)=\operatorname{ker}(e)$.

Corollary 2.6.17. Let $M$ be a module of finite length. Then $M$ admits a decomposition $M \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} M_{i}$ with $M_{i}$ indecomposable. Moreover, the $M_{i}$ are unique up to permutation and isomorphism.

Proof. We have shown the existence in Proposition [2.6.6]. The uniqueness follows from Theorems 2.6.11 and 2.6.1.0.

### 2.7 Modules over a full matrix ring

Let $R$ be a ring and $n \geq 1$. Let $S=M_{n}(R)$. We view $R^{n}$ as a collection of column vectors. It is equipped with a left $S$-module structure given by matrix multiplication. We have an isomorphism ${ }_{S} S \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R^{n}$ of left $S$-modules carrying a matrix $A$ to its columns. More generally, for any left $R$-module $M, M^{n}$, viewed as a collection of column vectors, is a left $S$-module by matrix multiplication.

Remark 2.7.1. Viewing $R^{n}$ as a right $R$-module by right scalar multiplication, we have an isomorphism of rings $S=M_{n}(R) \simeq \operatorname{End}_{R^{\mathrm{op}}}\left(R^{n}\right)$ given by $A \mapsto(x \mapsto A x)$.

Proposition 2.7.2. Let $R$ be a ring and $n \geq 1$. We have an equivalence of categories

$$
\begin{aligned}
R-\operatorname{Mod} & \rightarrow M_{n}(R)-\mathrm{Mod} \\
M & \mapsto M^{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. A quasi-inverse given by $N \mapsto p_{1} N$, where $p_{1} \in M_{n}(R)$ is the matrix with $(1,1)$-entry 1 and all other entries 0 . We have natural isomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M \xrightarrow{\sim} p_{1}\left(M^{n}\right) \phi: N \xrightarrow{\sim}\left(p_{1} N\right)^{n} \\
& m \mapsto\left(\begin{array}{c}
m \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0
\end{array}\right), \\
& \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

where $t_{1 i}$ is the permutation matrix given by transposition of 1 and $i$. The inverse of $\phi$ is $\left(x_{i}\right) \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{1 i} x_{i}$. Indeed, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{1 i} p_{1} t_{1 i}$ is the identity matrix and $p_{1} t_{1 j} \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{1 i} p_{1} y_{i}=y_{j}$.

Corollary 2.7.3. Let $M$ be a left $R$-module. Then we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{\text { left } R \text {-submodules of } M\} & \xrightarrow{\sim} \rightarrow\left\{\text { left } S \text {-submodules of } M^{n}\right\} \\
M^{\prime} & \mapsto M^{\prime n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is easy to give a direct proof of Corollary [2.T.3.
Corollary 2.7.4. Let $n \geq 1$. Then a ring $R$ is left Noetherian (resp. Artinian) if and only if $S=M_{n}(R)$ is left Noetherian (resp. Artinian).

Proof. Since left $S$-submodules of $R^{n}$ are of the form $I^{n}$, where $I$ is a left ideal of $S$, $R$ is left Noetherian if and only if the left $S$-module $R^{n}$ is Noetherian. We conclude by the isomorphism ${ }_{S} S \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R^{n}$.
Example 2.7.5. Let $D$ be a division ring. By Proposition [2.T.2, $D^{n}$ is the unique simple left $M_{n}(D)$-module up to isomorphism. For the uniqueness, we can also argue as follows. Let $S=M_{n}(D)$. We have ${ }_{S} S \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} D^{n}$, so that $D^{n}$ is the only Jordan-Hölder factor of ${ }_{S} S$. Every simple left $S$-module is a quotient of ${ }_{S} S$, and hence is isomorphic to $D^{n}$.

### 2.8 Tensor products of modules

Let $R$ be a ring.
Definition 2.8.1. Let $M$ be a right $R$-module and $N$ a left $R$-module. Let ( $A,+$ ) be an abelian group. A map $\phi: M \times N \rightarrow A$ is called a balanced product if it satisfies
(1) $\phi\left(x+x^{\prime}, y\right)=\phi(x, y)+\phi\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$;
(2) $\phi\left(x, y+y^{\prime}\right)=\phi(x, y)+\phi\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$;
(3) $\phi(x r, y)=\phi(x, r y)$
for all $x, x^{\prime} \in M, y, y^{\prime} \in N, r \in R$.
Warning 2.8.2. $M \times N$ is an abelian group, but $\phi$ is not a homomorphism of abelian groups unless $2 \phi=0$. In fact, $\phi(2 x, 2 y)=4 \phi(x, y)$.
Remark 2.8.3. A balanced product can be viewed as an element of

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, A)\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\mathrm{op}}}\left(M, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(N, A)\right) .
$$

Proposition 2.8.4. There exist an abelian group $M \otimes_{R} N$ and a balanced product $\otimes: M \times N \rightarrow M \otimes_{R} N$ satisfying the following universal property: for every abelian group $A$ and every balanced product $\phi: M \times N \rightarrow_{\tilde{\phi}} A$, there exists a unique group homomorphism $\tilde{\phi}: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow A$ such that $\phi=\tilde{\phi} \circ \otimes$. Moreover, $\left(M \otimes_{R} N, \otimes\right)$ is unique up to unique isomorphism: if $\left(M \otimes_{R}^{\prime} N, \otimes^{\prime}\right)$ also satisfies the universal property, then there exists a unique isomorphism $f: M \otimes_{R} N \xrightarrow{\sim} M \otimes_{R}^{\prime} N$ such that $\otimes^{\prime}=f \circ \otimes$.

We call $M \otimes_{R} N$ the tensor product of $M$ and $N$ over $R$. The universal property provides natural isomorphisms

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(M \otimes_{R} N, A\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R^{\mathrm{op}}}\left(M, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(N, A)\right) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M, A)\right) .
$$

Proof. The uniqueness is clear by the universal property. For the existence, we define $M \otimes_{R} N=F / L$, where $F$ is the free abelian group with basis $M \times N$ and $L$ is the subgroup generated by the elements

$$
\left(x+x^{\prime}, y\right)-(x, y)-\left(x^{\prime}, y\right), \quad\left(x, y+y^{\prime}\right)-(x, y)-\left(x, y^{\prime}\right), \quad(x r, y)-(x, r y)
$$

We let $x \otimes y$ denote the image of $(x, y)$ in $M \otimes_{R} N$. The map $\otimes: M \times N \rightarrow$ $M \otimes_{R} N$ sending $(x, y)$ to $x \otimes y$ is clearly a balanced product. For a balanced product $\phi: M \times N \rightarrow A$, the induced homomorphism $F \rightarrow A$ carrying $(x, y) \mapsto \phi(x, y)$ factors through $F / I$ to give $\tilde{\phi}$. The uniqueness of $\tilde{\phi}$ is clear as $x \otimes y$ generate $M \otimes_{R} N$.

Remark 2.8.5. It follows from the construction that every element of $M \otimes_{R} N$ can be written noncanonically as a finite sum $\sum_{i} x_{i} \otimes y_{i}$ with $x_{i} \in M$ and $y_{i} \in N$.

The universal property implies the functoriality of tensor product: given homomorphisms $f: M_{R} \rightarrow M_{R}^{\prime}$ and $g:{ }_{R} N \rightarrow{ }_{R} N^{\prime}$, there exists a unique homomorphism of abelian groups $f \otimes_{R} g: M \otimes_{R} N \rightarrow M^{\prime} \otimes_{R} N^{\prime}$ such that $\left(f \otimes_{R} g\right)(x \otimes y)=f(x) \otimes g(y)$.

Let $R$ and $S$ be rings.
Definition 2.8.6. An $(R, S)$-bimodule is an abelian group $(M,+)$ equipped with a left $R$-module structure and a right $S$-module structure satisfying $r(m s)=(r m) s$ for all $r \in R, s \in S, m \in M$.

We sometimes write ${ }_{R} M_{S}$ for an $(R, S)$-bimodule $M$. A homomorphism of bimodules is a homomorphism of left and right modules at the same time.

Example 2.8.7. (1) Given a left $R$-module $M$, we equip it with the right $A$ module structure by $m a=a(m)$, where $a \in A=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)^{\text {op }}$. Then $M$ becomes an $(R, A)$.
(2) Let $R$ be a commutative ring. An $R$-module $M$ can be regarded as an $(R, R)$ module by rxs $:=r s x$.

Proposition 2.8.8. Let $R, S$, and $T$ be rings. Let $M$ be an $(R, S)$-bimodule and $N$ an $(S, T)$-bimodule. Then there exists a unique $(R, T)$-bimodule structure on $M \otimes_{S} N$ such that $r(x \otimes y)=(r x) \otimes y$ and $(x \otimes y) t=x \otimes(y t)$ for all $x \in M, y \in N, r \in R$, and $t \in T$.

Proof. Indeed, $x \mapsto r x$ is a homomorphism of right $S$-modules and $y \mapsto y t$ is a homomorphism of left $S$-module. By the functoriality of tensor product, we obtain a group homomorphism $M \otimes_{S} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{S} N$ carrying $x \otimes y$ to $r x \otimes y t$.

Remark 2.8.9. Let $R$ be a commutative ring and let $M$ and $N$ be $R$-modules, regarded as $(R, R)$-bimodules. Then the $(R, R)$-bimodule structure on $M \otimes_{R} N$ comes from an $R$-bimodule structure. In fact, $r(x \otimes y) s=r x \otimes y s=r x \otimes s y=$ $s r x \otimes y=r s(x \otimes y)$.

Remark 2.8.10. Let $R, S, T$ be rings and let ${ }_{R} M_{S},{ }_{S} N_{T},{ }_{R} P_{T}$ be bimodules. We have isomorphisms of abelian groups

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{(R, T)-\operatorname{Mod}}\left(M \otimes_{S} N, P\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{(R, S)-\operatorname{Mod}}\left(M, \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Mod}-T}(N, P)\right), \\
& \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{(S, T)-\operatorname{Mod}}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{R-\operatorname{Mod}}(M, P)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

The following properties follow easily from the universal property.
Proposition 2.8.11. Let $Q, R, S, T$ be rings and let ${ }_{Q} L_{R},{ }_{R} M_{S},{ }_{S} N_{T}$ be bimodules.
(1) We have $R \otimes_{R} M \simeq M \simeq M \otimes_{S} S$ as $(R, S)$-bimodules.
(2) We have $\left(L \otimes_{R} M\right) \otimes_{S} N \simeq L \otimes_{R}\left(M \otimes_{S} N\right)$ as $(Q, T)$-bimodules.
(3) We have $M \otimes_{S} N \simeq N \otimes_{S^{\text {op }}} M$ as $(R, T)$-bimodules.

In (3) we have regarded ( $\left.T^{\mathrm{op}}, R^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$-bimodules as $(R, T)$-bimodules.
Proposition 2.8.12. Tensor products preserve direct sums and cokernels as follows.
(1) We have $\left(\oplus_{i \in I} M_{i}\right) \otimes_{S} N \simeq \oplus_{i \in I} M_{i} \otimes_{S} N$ and $M \otimes_{S}\left(\oplus_{i \in I} N_{i}\right) \simeq \oplus_{i \in I} M \otimes_{S} N_{i}$.
(2) Exact sequences $M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ and $N^{\prime} \rightarrow N \rightarrow N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ induce exact sequences

$$
\begin{align*}
& M^{\prime} \otimes_{S} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{S} N \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \otimes_{S} N \rightarrow 0  \tag{2.8.1}\\
& M \otimes_{S} N^{\prime} \rightarrow M \otimes_{S} N \rightarrow M \otimes_{S} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0 \tag{2.8.2}
\end{align*}
$$

This follows from the universal properties of tensor product, direct sum, and cokernel. Let us spell out the universal property of cokernel.

Lemma 2.8.13. Let $N^{\prime} \xrightarrow{f} N \xrightarrow{g} N^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a sequence of left $S$-modules satisfying $g f=0$. Then the sequence is exact if and only if for every left $S$-module $P$, the induced sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N^{\prime \prime}, P\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(N, P) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N^{\prime}, P\right)
$$

is exact.
To show that (2.8.2) is exact, it suffices to show that for every abelian group $A$,

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M \otimes_{S} N^{\prime \prime}, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M \otimes_{S} N, A\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}\left(M \otimes_{S} N^{\prime}, A\right)
$$

is exact. This can be identified with the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N^{\prime \prime}, P\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(N, P) \rightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(N^{\prime}, P\right)
$$

where $P=\operatorname{Hom}(M, A)$.
Remark 2.8.14. The above properties allow us to compute the left $R$-module $M \otimes_{S}$ $N$ as follows. Choosing generators and generating relations of the left $R$-module $N$, we get $N=\operatorname{coker}\left({ }_{S} S^{\oplus J} \xrightarrow{f}{ }_{S} S^{\oplus I}\right)$. Then $M \otimes_{S} N \simeq \operatorname{coker}\left(M^{\oplus J} \xrightarrow{f_{M}} M^{\oplus I}\right)$, where $f_{M}$ is induced from $M$. In particular, for a left ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq R, M \otimes_{R} R / \mathfrak{a} \simeq M / \mathfrak{a} M$, where $\mathfrak{a} M \subseteq$ denote the left $R$-submodule generated by $a m$ for $a \in \mathfrak{a}$ and $m \in M$.

Warning 2.8.15. (1) Tensor product does not preserve infinite products in general. For example, $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}=0$, but $\mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \prod_{p} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ is not zero. In fact, one can show that $\mathbb{Q} \simeq \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \prod_{p} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ (because $\mathbb{Q}$ is a flat $\mathbb{Z}$-module, see below).
(2) Tensor product does not preserve kernels. For example, $\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\times p} \mathbb{Z}$ is injective, but after tensoring with $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ we get $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$, which is not injective.

Definition 2.8.16. We say that a left $S$-module $N$ is flat if $-\otimes_{S} N$ preserves kernels.

## Chapter 3

## Rings and algebras

### 3.1 Algebras and tensor products

Let $R$ be a commutative ring.
Definition 3.1.1. An $R$-algebra is a ring $A$ equipped with a ring homomorphism $R \rightarrow Z(A)$, where $Z(A)$ denotes the center of $A$.

Some authors, notably Bourbaki [B2, III], use the term algebra for a more general notion without an identity element.

An $R$-algebra $A$ is equipped with the structure of an $R$-module. Multiplication in an $R$-algebra $A$ provides a homomorphism of $R$-modules $m: A \otimes_{R} A \rightarrow A$ carrying $a \otimes b$ to $a b$.

A homomorphism of $R$-algebras is a ring homomorphism $A \rightarrow B$ that is $R$-linear.

## Tensor product of $R$-algebras

Let $A$ and $B$ be $R$-algebras. Then $A \otimes_{R} B$ is equipped with the structure of an $R$-algebra satisfying $(a \otimes b)\left(a^{\prime} \otimes b^{\prime}\right)=a a^{\prime} \otimes b b^{\prime}$.

Proposition 3.1.2. Let $\iota_{A}: A \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} B$ and $\iota_{B}: B \rightarrow A \otimes_{R} B$ carrying a to $a \otimes 1$ and $b$ to $1 \otimes b$ respectively. Then $\iota_{A}(A)$ and $\iota_{B}(B)$ commute and the triple $\left(A \otimes B, \iota_{A}, \iota_{B}\right)$ satisfies the following universal property: For every triple $\left(C, f_{A}, f_{B}\right)$, where $C$ is an $R$-algebra and $f_{A}: A \rightarrow C$ and $f_{B}: B \rightarrow C$ are homomorphism of $R$ algebras such that $f_{A}(A)$ and $f_{B}(B)$ commute, there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-algebras $\phi: A \otimes_{R} B \rightarrow C$ such that $\phi \iota_{A}=f_{A}$ and $\phi \iota_{B}=f_{B}$.

Proof. The first assertion is clear. For the second assertion, $\phi$ is induced by the balanced product $(a, b) \mapsto f_{A}(a) f_{B}(b)$.

Remark 3.1.3. The homomorphism of $R$-modules $m: A \otimes_{R} A \rightarrow A$ is a homomorphism of $R$-algebras if and only if $A$ is commutative (that is, multiplication in $R$ is commutative). Indeed, $m\left((a \otimes b)\left(a^{\prime} \otimes b^{\prime}\right)\right)=a a^{\prime} b b^{\prime}$ and $m(a \otimes b) m\left(a^{\prime} \otimes b^{\prime}\right)=a b a^{\prime} b^{\prime}$.

Remark 3.1.4. The universal property provides a bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{R}}\left(A \otimes_{R} B, C\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{R}}(A, C) \times \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{R}}(B, C)
$$

for every commutative $R$-algebra $C$. If $A$ and $B$ are commutative $R$-algebras, then so is $A \otimes_{R} B$. In this case, $A \otimes_{R} B$ is the coproduct of $A$ and $B$ in the category $\mathrm{CAlg}_{R}$.

Remark 3.1.5. If $B$ is a commutative $R$-algebra, then $A \otimes_{R} B$ is a $B$-algebra via $\iota_{B}$.

Remark 3.1.6. Let $S$ and $T$ be rings. An $(S, T)$-bimodule is the same as an $\left(S \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} T\right)$-module.

Let $\left(A_{i}\right)_{i \in I}$ be a family of $R$-algebras. We define $A_{I}=\otimes_{i \in I} A_{i}$ by $\lim _{\vec{J}} \otimes_{j \in J} A_{j}$, where $j$ runs though finite subsets of $I$. An element of $A_{I}$ is a equivalent class of $\left(J, a_{J}\right)$, where $a_{J} \in A_{J}=\bigotimes_{j \in J} A_{j}$. Two pairs $\left(J, a_{J}\right)$ and $\left(J^{\prime}, a_{J^{\prime}}\right)$ are equivalent if and only if there exists $K \supseteq J \cup J^{\prime}$ such that $\iota_{J K}\left(a_{J}\right)=\iota_{J^{\prime} K}\left(a_{J^{\prime}}\right)$. Here $\iota_{J}: A_{J} \rightarrow A_{K}$ and $\iota_{J^{\prime}}: A_{J^{\prime}} \rightarrow A_{K}$ are induced by the identity elements. Let $\iota_{J I}: A_{J} \rightarrow A_{I}$ be the induced homomorphism. We write $\iota_{J I}\left(\otimes_{j \in J} a_{j}\right)=\bigotimes_{i \in I} a_{i}$, where $a_{i}=1$ for $i \notin J$.

Remark 3.1.7. If $A_{i}$ is free as an $R$-module with basis $S_{i} \ni 1$, then $\bigotimes_{i \in I} e_{i}$, with $e_{i} \in S_{i}$ for all $i \in I$ and $e_{i}=1$ for all but finitely many $i \in I$, form a basis of the $R$-module $A_{I}$. In particular, if each $A_{i}$ is nonzero and free as an $R$-module, then so is $A_{I}$. We have used this in Lemma 4.5 .5 .

## Linear disjointness

Let $E / F$ and $K / F$ be subextensions of a field extension $L / F$.
Definition 3.1.8. We say that $E$ and $K$ are linearly disjoint over $F$ if the map $m: E \otimes_{F} K \rightarrow E K$ is an injection.

Remark 3.1.9. The image of $m$ is the subring generated by $E$ and $K$. Thus $E K$ is the fraction field of the commutative domain $\operatorname{im}(m)$. If $E / F$ or $K / F$ is algebraic, then the image of $m$ is $E K$. (Indeed, we may assume $E=F[x]$, so that $\operatorname{im}(m)=K[x]=E K$.) In this case, $E$ and $K$ are linearly disjoint if and only if $E \otimes_{F} K$ is a field. Note that the last condition is independent of the choice of $L$.

Remark 3.1.10. If $E$ and $K$ are linearly disjoint over $F$, then $E K$ is the fraction field of $E \otimes_{F} K$, and thus is independent of $L$ (or the embeddings $E \subseteq L$ and $K \subseteq L$ ) up to isomorphisms.

## Proposition 3.1.11. The following conditions are equivalent:

(1) $E$ and $K$ are linearly disjoint over $F$.
(2) Every subset $S$ of $E$ that is $F$-linearly independent is $K$-linearly independent.
(3) Every subset $T$ of $K$ that is $F$-linearly independent is $E$-linearly independent.

Proof. By symmetry it suffices to show (1) $\Leftrightarrow(2)$. Let $V=\oplus_{s \in S} E s$. Consider the map $K^{\oplus S} \simeq V \otimes_{F} K \xrightarrow{i} E \otimes_{F} K \xrightarrow{m} E K$ carrying $\left(a_{s}\right)_{s \in S}$ to $\sum_{s \in S} a_{s} s$. Since $V$ is a direct summand of $E, i$ is a injection. Thus if $m$ is an injection, then the composite is an injection. Conversely, taking $S$ to be a basis of $E$, then the injectivity of the composite implies the injectivity of $m$.

Example 3.1.12. If $E / F$ is algebraic and $K / F$ is purely transcendental, then they are linearly disjoint by Proposition [.21.18.

Example 3.1.13. If $E / F$ is separable and $K / F$ is purely inseparable, then they are linearly disjoint. Indeed, we may assume that $E / F$ and $K / F$ are finite. Then $[E K: F]_{\text {sep }} \geq[E: F]_{\text {sep }}=[E: F]$ and $[E K: F]_{\text {insep }} \geq[K: F]_{\text {insep }}=[K: F]$. The map $m: E \otimes_{F} K \rightarrow E K$ is surjective with $\operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(E \otimes_{F} K\right) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{F}(E K)$. It follows that $m$ is an isomorphism.

## Tensor algebra

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. For $n \geq 0$, we write $T^{n}(M)=M^{\otimes_{R} n}=M \otimes_{R} \cdots \otimes_{R} M$ (where $M$ is repeated $n$ times). By convention $T^{0}(M)=R$. We have canonical isomorphisms $m_{i, j}: T^{i}(M) \otimes_{R} T^{j}(M) \xrightarrow{\sim} T^{i+j}(M)$ carrying $\left(x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{i}\right) \otimes\left(y_{1} \otimes\right.$ $\cdots \otimes y_{j}$ ) to $x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{i} \otimes y_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes y_{j}$.
Definition 3.1.14. We call $T(M)=\oplus_{n=0}^{\infty} T^{n}(M)$ the tensor algebra of the $R$ module $M$. The multiplication is induced by $m_{i, j}$ and the identity element is $1 \in$ $R=T^{0}(M)$.

Let $i: M=T^{1}(M) \hookrightarrow T(M)$ be the inclusion.
Proposition 3.1.15 (Universal property for the tensor algebra). For every $R$ algebra $A$ equipped with a homomorphism of $R$-modules $f: M \rightarrow A$, there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-algebras $T(M) \rightarrow A$ such that $f=\phi i$.

We have a natural isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{R}}(T M, A) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R-\operatorname{Mod}}(M, U A)$, where $U: \operatorname{Alg}_{R} \rightarrow R$-Mod denotes the forgetful functor. In other words, $T$ is a left adjoint to the forgetful functor $U$.

Proof. Indeed, $\left.\phi\right|_{T^{n}(M)}$ is given by the $R$-multilinear map $M^{n} \rightarrow A$ carrying $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ to $f\left(x_{1}\right) \cdots f\left(x_{n}\right)$.

Definition 3.1.16. Let $I_{\mathrm{Sym}}(M)$ denote the ideal of $T(M)$ generated by $x \otimes y-y \otimes x$, $x, y \in M$ and let $I_{\wedge}(M)$ denote the ideal of $T(M)$ generated by $x \otimes x, x \in M$. We call $\operatorname{Sym}(M)=T(M) / I_{\mathrm{Sym}}(M)$ the symmetric algebra of the $R$-module $M$ and $\wedge(M)=T(M) / I_{\wedge}(M)$ the exterior algebra of the $R$-module $M$.

Since both ideals are generated by homogeneous elements, we have

$$
I_{\mathrm{Sym}}(M)=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} I_{\mathrm{Sym}}^{n}(M), \quad I_{\wedge}(M)=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} I_{\wedge}^{n}(M)
$$

where $I_{\mathrm{Sym}}^{n}(M)=I_{\mathrm{Sym}}(M) \cap T^{n}(M)$ and $I_{\wedge}^{n}(M)=I_{\wedge}(M) \cap T^{n}(M)$. It follows that

$$
\operatorname{Sym}(M)=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M), \quad \bigwedge(M)=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \bigwedge(M)
$$

where $\operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M)\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\wedge^{n}(M)\right)$ is the image of $T^{n}(M)$ in $\operatorname{Sym}(M)($ resp. $\Lambda(M))$.
We denote the product in $\operatorname{Sym}(M)$ by $(x, y) \mapsto x y$ and the product in $\wedge(M)$ by $(x, y) \mapsto x \wedge y$. It is easy to see that $\operatorname{Sym}(M)$ is a commutative algebra. For $x, y \in M$,
$(x+y) \otimes(x+y)-x \otimes x-y \otimes y=x \otimes y+y \otimes x \in I_{\wedge}(M)$, so that $x \wedge y=y \wedge x$. It follows that $\Lambda(M)$ satisfies the Koszul sign convention: For $x \in \wedge^{i}(M), y \in \Lambda^{j}(M)$, we have $x \wedge y=(-1)^{i j} y \wedge x$.

We have $\operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M)=T^{n}(M)$ and $\wedge^{n}(M)=T^{n}(M)$ for $n \leq 1$. The universal property for the tensor algebra implies the following.

Proposition 3.1.17 (Universal properties). (1) For every commutative $R$-algebra $A$ and every homomorphism of $R$-modules $f: M \rightarrow A$, there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-algebras $\phi: \operatorname{Sym}(M) \rightarrow A$ such that $f=\phi i$, where $i: M=\operatorname{Sym}^{1}(M) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Sym}(M)$ is the inclusion.
(2) For every $R$-algebra $A$ and every homomorphism of $R$-modules $f: M \rightarrow A$ such that $f(x)^{2}=0$ for every $x \in M$, there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-algebras $\phi: \Lambda(M) \rightarrow A$ such that $f=\phi i$, where $i: M=\Lambda^{1}(M) \hookrightarrow \Lambda(M)$ is the inclusion.
$\operatorname{By}(1)$, we have a natural isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{C A l g}_{R}}(\operatorname{Sym}(M), A) \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R-\operatorname{Mod}}(M, U A)$, where $U: \mathbf{C A l g}_{R} \rightarrow R$-Mod denotes the forgetful functor.

The universal properties for the tensor product of modules $T^{n}(M)$ induces the following universal properties for the $R$-modules $\operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M)$ and $\bigwedge^{n}(M)$. We say that an $R$-multilinear map $\phi: M^{n} \rightarrow N$ is symmetric (resp. alternating) if $\phi(\ldots, x, y, \ldots)=$ $\phi(\ldots, y, x, \ldots)($ resp. $\phi(\ldots, x, x, \ldots)=0)$ for $x, y \in M$.

Proposition 3.1.18. (1) Let $N$ be an $R$-module and $\phi: M^{n} \rightarrow N$ a symmetric $R$-multilinear map. Then there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-modules $\tilde{\phi}: \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M) \rightarrow N$ such that $\phi=\tilde{\phi} p$, where $p: M^{n} \rightarrow \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M)$ is the map carrying $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ to $x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$.
(2) Let $N$ be an $R$-module and $\phi: M^{n} \rightarrow N$ an alternating $R$-multilinear map. Then there exists a unique homomorphism of $R$-modules $\tilde{\phi}: \Lambda^{n}(M) \rightarrow N$ such that $\phi=\tilde{\phi} p$, where $p: M^{n} \rightarrow \Lambda^{n}(M)$ is the map carrying $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ to $x_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{n}$.

Example 3.1.19. Let $M$ be a free $R$-module of basis $S$. Then $T(M)=R\langle S\rangle$ is the free $R$-algebra generated by $S$ and $\operatorname{Sym}(M)=R[S]$ is the polynomial $R$-algebra on $S$. For any total order on $S, \wedge^{n}(M)$ is a free $R$-module with basis $x_{1} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{n}$, where $x_{1}<\cdots<x_{n}$ in $S$.

The symmetric group $\Sigma_{n}$ acts on $T^{n}(M)$ by $\sigma\left(x_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes x_{n}\right)=x_{\sigma^{-1}(1)} \otimes \cdots \otimes$ $x_{\sigma^{-1}(n)}$. For every group homomorphism $\chi: \Sigma_{n} \rightarrow\{ \pm 1\}$, we define $T_{\chi}^{n}(M)=\{x \in$ $\left.T^{n}(M) \mid \sigma(x)=\chi(\sigma) x, \forall \sigma \in \Sigma_{n}\right\}$ and let $T_{\chi}(M)=\bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} T_{\chi}^{n}(M)$. We call elements of $T_{\mathrm{Sym}}(M):=T_{1}(M)$ symmetric tensors and elements of $T_{\wedge}(M):=T_{\mathrm{sgn}}(M)$ skewsymmetric tensors.

Consider the compositions

$$
\phi_{1}: T_{\mathrm{Sym}}^{n}(M) \hookrightarrow T^{n}(M) \xrightarrow{q_{1}} \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M), \quad \phi_{\mathrm{sgn}}: T_{\wedge}^{n}(M) \hookrightarrow T^{n}(M) \xrightarrow{q_{\mathrm{sgn}}} \bigwedge^{n}(M) .
$$

Let $p_{\chi}=\sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{n}} \chi(\sigma) \sigma: T^{n}(M) \rightarrow T^{n}(M)$. Then $\tau p_{\chi}=p_{\chi} \tau=\chi(\tau) p_{\chi}$. Thus $\operatorname{im}\left(p_{\chi}\right) \subseteq T_{\chi}^{n}(M)$.

We have $I_{\text {Sym }}^{n}(M) \subseteq \sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{n}} \operatorname{im}(\sigma-1) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(p_{1}\right)$, so that $p_{1}$ factorizes through a unique homomorphism $\psi_{1}: \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M) \rightarrow T_{\mathrm{Sym}}^{n}(M)$. We have $\psi_{1} \phi_{1}=n!$ • id and $\phi_{1} \psi_{1}=n!\cdot \mathrm{id}$.

If 2 is invertible in $R$, then $I_{\wedge}^{n}(M) \subseteq \sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{n}} \operatorname{im}(\sigma-\operatorname{sgn}(\sigma)) \subseteq \operatorname{ker}\left(p_{\operatorname{sgn}}\right)$, so that $p_{\text {sgn }}$ factorizes through a unique homomorphism $\psi_{\text {sgn }}: \Lambda^{n}(M) \rightarrow T_{\wedge}^{n}(M)$. We have $\psi_{\mathrm{sgn}} \phi_{\mathrm{sgn}}=n!\cdot \mathrm{id}$ and $\phi_{\mathrm{sgn}} \psi_{\mathrm{sgn}}=n!\cdot \mathrm{id}$.

Proposition 3.1.20. Assume that $n!$ is invertible in $R$. Then $\phi_{\chi}$ is an isomorphism and we have $T^{n}(M)=T_{\text {Sym }}^{n}(M) \oplus I_{\text {Sym }}^{n}(M)=T_{\wedge}^{n}(M) \oplus I_{\wedge}^{n}(M)$. In particular, we have canonical isomorphisms of $R$-modules $T_{\mathrm{Sym}}^{n}(M) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Sym}^{n}(M)$ and $T_{\wedge}^{n}(M) \xrightarrow{\sim} \Lambda^{n} M$.

Proof. We may assume $n \geq 2$. Then 2 is invertible in $R$. It is clear that $\phi_{\chi}$ is an isomorphism. Since $\phi_{\chi} \psi_{\chi}=q_{\chi}\left(i_{\chi} \psi_{\chi}\right)$ is an isomorphism, where $i_{\chi}: T_{\chi}^{n}(M) \hookrightarrow T^{n}(M)$ is the inclusion, we have $T^{n}(M)=\operatorname{ker}\left(q_{\chi}\right) \oplus \operatorname{im}\left(\psi_{\chi}\right)$. Since $\psi_{\chi}$ is an isomorphism, $\operatorname{im}\left(\psi_{\chi}\right)=T_{\chi}^{n}(M)$.

Remark 3.1.21. If 2 is invertible in $R$, then we have an isomorphism $T^{2}(M) \xrightarrow{\sim}$ $\operatorname{Sym}^{2}(M) \oplus \bigwedge^{2}(M)$ carrying $x \otimes y$ to $(x y, x \wedge y)$.

Remark 3.1.22. The $R$-submodule $T_{\text {Sym }}(M) \subseteq T(M)$ is not closed under multiplication in general. However, we can equip $T_{\text {Sym }}(M)$ with the structure of a commutative $R$-algebra by $x y=\sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{i+j} / \Sigma_{i} \times \Sigma_{j}} \sigma(x \otimes y)$ for $x \in T_{\text {Sym }}^{i}(M)$ and $y \in T_{\text {Sym }}^{j}(M)$. The map $\psi: \operatorname{Sym}(M) \rightarrow T_{\text {Sym }}(M)$ is a homomorphism of $R$-algebras.

### 3.2 Semisimple rings

Theorem 3.2.1 (Wedderburn-Artin). Let $R$ be a ring. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) ${ }_{R} R$ is a semisimple module.
(2) $R_{R}$ is a semisimple module.
(3) $R \simeq M_{n_{1}}\left(D_{1}\right) \times \cdots \times M_{n_{r}}\left(D_{r}\right)$, where the $D_{i}$ are division rings.

Definition 3.2.2. A ring satisfying the above conditions is said to be semisimple.
Proof. Since transposition provides an isomorphism $M_{n}(D)^{\mathrm{op}} \simeq M_{n}\left(D^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$, it suffices to show (2) $\Leftrightarrow$ (3).
(3) $\Rightarrow(2)$. We have $R_{R} \simeq\left(D_{1}^{n_{1}}\right)^{\oplus n_{1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus\left(D_{r}^{n_{r}}\right)^{\oplus n_{r}}$, where each $D_{i}^{n_{i}}$ is a simple right $R$-module.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. We have $R_{R}=\bigoplus_{i \in I} \mathfrak{a}_{i}$, where each $\mathfrak{a}_{i}$ is a minimal right ideal of $R$. There exists a finite subset $J \subseteq I$ such that $1=\sum_{j \in J} x_{j}$ for $x_{j} \in I_{j}$. It follows that $I=J$ is finite. We have $R_{R} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{i}^{\oplus n_{i}}$, where each $M_{i}$ are pairwise nonisomorphic simple right $R$-module. By Schur's lemma $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}\left(\left(M_{i}\right)_{R}\right)$ is a division algebra. We have an isomorphism $\operatorname{End}\left(R_{R}\right) \xrightarrow{\sim} R$ carrying $f$ to $f(1)$, with inverse carrying $a$ to $x \mapsto a x$. Thus $R \simeq \operatorname{End}\left(R_{R}\right) \simeq \oplus_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{End}\left(\left(M_{i}^{\oplus n_{i}}\right)_{R}\right) \simeq$ $\oplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$.

Remark 3.2.3. By the Jordan-Hölder theorem, the pairs $\left(n_{i}, D_{i}\right)$ are uniquely determined by the isomorphism class of $R$ up to permutation and isomorphism.

## Corollary 3.2.4. A semisimple ring is Noetherian and Artinian.

Proposition 3.2.5. Let $R$ be a semisimple ring. Then every left (or right) $R$-module $M$ is semisimple.

Proof. Indeed, $M$ is a quotient of a free module $R^{\oplus I}$, which is semisimple.

### 3.3 Simple rings

Definition 3.3.1. A ring $R$ is said to be simple if it has exactly two ideals: 0 and $R$.

For any ring $R$ and any maximal ideal $I, R / I$ is a simple ring.
A commutative ring is simple if and only if it is a field.
Lemma 3.3.2. Let $R$ be a ring. The ideals of $M_{n}(R)$ are of the form $M_{n}(I)$, where $I$ is an ideal of $R$.

Proof. Let $J \subseteq M_{n}(R)$ be an ideal. Let $f: R \rightarrow M_{n}(R)$ be the embedding carrying $r$ to the matrix with entry $r$ at the upperleft corner and 0 elsewhere. Let $I=f^{-1}(J)$. Then it is easy to see that $J=M_{n}(I)$.

Warning 3.3.3. (1) $R=M_{n}(D)$, where $D$ is a division ring, is a simple ring. For $n \geq 2$, neither ${ }_{R} R$ nor $R_{R}$ is simple.
(2) A simple ring is not semisimple in general. Let $F$ be a field, $V=F^{\oplus \mathbb{N}}$, and let $R=\operatorname{End}_{F}(V)$. Then the subset $I \subseteq R$ consisting of linear operators of finite rank is a maximal ideal (that is, a maximal element of the set of proper ideals), so that $S=R / I$ is a simple ring. Since $R$ does not satisfy IBN, nor does $S$. It follows that $S_{S}$ does not have finite length, by the Jordan-Hölder theorem. Thus $S$ is not a semisimple ring.

We make a brief digression on the double centralizer property.
Definition 3.3.4. Let $E$ be a ring. The centralizer of a subring $A \subseteq E$ is

$$
Z_{E}(A):=\{z \in E \mid a z=z a \forall a \in A\} .
$$

We have $Z_{E}(A) \subseteq E$ is a subring and $Z_{E}\left(Z_{E}(A)\right) \supseteq A$. If equality holds, we say that $A \subseteq E$ satisfies the double centralizer property.

Let $M$ be a left $R$-module. We apply the above to $E=\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)$ and the image $A$ of $R$ in $E$. We say $M$ is balanced if $A \subseteq E$ satisfies the double centralizer property. Note that $Z_{E}(A)=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ and $Z_{E}\left(Z_{E}(A)\right)=\operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(M)$, where $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. Thus $M$ is balanced if and only if the canonical homomorphism $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(M)$ is surjective. We say $M$ is faithful if $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)$ is injective.

Theorem 3.3.5 (Rieffel). Let $R$ be a simple ring and $I$ a nonzero left ideal of $R$. Let $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(I)$ and let $R^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(I)$. Then the canonical homomorphism $\lambda: R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}$ is an isomorphism.

In other words, $I$ is balanced and faithful.

Proof. Since $\operatorname{ker}(\lambda)$ is a proper ideal of $R$, we have $\operatorname{ker}(\lambda)=0$. Since $I R$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$, we have $I R=R$ and $\lambda(I) \lambda(R)=\lambda(R)$. For $h \in R^{\prime \prime}$ and $a \in I$, $h \cdot \lambda(a)=\lambda(h(a))$. Indeed, for $x \in I$,

$$
h(\lambda(a)(x))=h(a x)=h\left(\rho_{x} a\right)=\rho_{x} h(a)=h(a) x=\lambda(h(a))(x),
$$

where $\rho_{x} \in R^{\prime}$ is the right multiplication by $x$. Thus $\lambda(I)$ is a left ideal of $R^{\prime \prime}$, and

$$
R^{\prime \prime}=R^{\prime \prime} \lambda(R)=R^{\prime \prime} \lambda(I) \lambda(R)=\lambda(I) \lambda(R)=\lambda(R) .
$$

Corollary 3.3.6. Let $R$ be a simple ring. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $R$ is semisimple;
(2) $R$ is left Artinian;
(3) $R$ has a minimal left ideal;
(4) $R \simeq M_{n}(D)$ for some $n \geq 1$ and some division ring $D$.

By a minimal left ideal, we mean a minimal element of the set of nonzero ideals.
Proof. (4) $\Rightarrow(1) \Rightarrow(2)$. We have seen these in the last section.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. Clear.
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4). Let $I \subseteq R$ be a minimal left ideal. Then $D=\operatorname{End}_{R}(I)$ is a division ring. By the theorem, $R \simeq \operatorname{End}_{D}(I)$. Let $J \subseteq \operatorname{End}_{D}(I)$ be the ideal of $D$-linear maps $I \rightarrow I$ of finite rank. Then $J$ is a nonzero ideal, so that $J=\operatorname{End}_{D}(I)$. It follows that $\operatorname{rk}_{D}(I)=n<\infty$. Then $R \simeq \operatorname{End}_{D}\left(D^{\oplus n}\right) \simeq M_{n}\left(D^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$.

### 3.4 Jacobson radicals

Let $R$ be a ring.
Definition 3.4.1. The intersection of the maximal left ideals of $R$ is called the Jacobson radical of $R$ and denoted by $\operatorname{rad}(R)$.

Proposition 3.4.2. For $y \in R$. Then following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $y \in \operatorname{rad}(R)$;
(2) $y M=0$ for every simple left $R$-module $M$;
(3) $1-x y$ has a left inverse for every $x \in R$;
(4) $1-x y z$ has an inverse for every $x, z \in R$.

Proof. (2) $\Rightarrow$ (1). Let $I \subseteq R$ be a maximal left ideal. Then $R / I$ is a simple left $R$-module. By (2), $y(R / I)=0$. Thus $y \in \operatorname{rad}(R)$.
$(3) \Rightarrow(2)$. If $y m \neq 0$ for $m \in M$, then $M=$ Rym by the simplicity of $M$. In particular, there exists $x \in R$ such that $m=x y m$. In other words, $(1-x y) m=0$, which implies $m=0$.
$(4) \Rightarrow(3)$. Take $z=1$.
$(1) \Rightarrow(3)$. Otherwise, by Zorn's lemma, $1-x y$ is contained in a maximal left ideal $I$ of $R$ and $y \in I$, which implies $1 \in I$. Contradiction.
$(1) \Rightarrow(4)$. We have already seen $(1) \Rightarrow(2)$. For every simple left $R$-module $M$, $y z M \subseteq y M=0$. Thus $y z \in \operatorname{rad}(R)$. By (1) $\Rightarrow(3), 1-x y z$ admits a left inverse, say $u$. Then $u(1-x y z)=1$, so that $u=1+u x y z$ has a left inverse by (1) $\Rightarrow(3)$. It follows that $u$ and $1-x y z$ are invertible.

For a subset $S$ of a left $R$-module $M$, we define the annihilator of $S$ to be the left ideal $\operatorname{ann}_{R}(S)=\{r \in R \mid r s=0 \forall s \in S\}$. The equivalence (1) $\Leftrightarrow(2)$ above (which is trivial) implies the following.

Corollary 3.4.3. We have $\operatorname{rad}(R)=\bigcap_{M} \operatorname{ann}_{R}(M)$, where $M$ runs through simple left $R$-modules.

Note that in (4) remains the same if we replace $R$ by $R^{\text {op }}$. Thus the equivalence $(1) \Leftrightarrow(4)$ above implies the following.

Corollary 3.4.4. $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is also the intersection of the maximal right ideals of $R$. In particular, $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is an ideal of $R$.

Example 3.4.5. (1) Let $R$ be a PID. Let $P$ be a system of representatives of the associate classes of irreducible elements of $R$. Then

$$
\operatorname{rad}(R)= \begin{cases}R \prod_{p \in P} p & P \text { finite } \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

(2) Let $R$ be a PID and $r=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}$ are pairwise nonassociate irreducible elements of $R$ and $a_{i} \geq 1$. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R / r R)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} R / r R$.
(3) Let $R$ be a local ring. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is the maximal ideal of $R$. In this case, $R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is a division ring.
(4) Let $F$ be a field, $V=F^{\oplus \mathbb{N}}, R=\operatorname{End}_{F}(V)$. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$. Indeed, for every one-dimensional subspace $L$ of $V$, the endomorphisms of $V$ vanishing on $L$ form a maximal left ideal of $R$. However, $R$ has a unique maximal ideal, which is nonzero. In particular, $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is not the intersection of the maximal ideals of $R$.

Lemma 3.4.6 (Nakayama). Let $M$ be a finitely-generated left $R$-module such that $\operatorname{rad}(R) M=M$. Then $M=0$.

Proof. Assume that $M$ is nonzero. By the lemma below, there exists a submodule $N \subseteq M$ such that $M / N$ is simple. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R)(M / N)=0$. It follows that $\operatorname{rad}(R) M \subseteq N$. Contradiction.

Lemma 3.4.7. Let $M$ be a nonzero finitely-generated left $R$-module. Then $M$ has a simple quotient.

Proof. Let $M=\sum_{i=1}^{n} R m_{i}$ and $M_{k}=\sum_{i=1}^{k} R m_{i}$. There exists $k \geq 1$ such that $M=M_{k} \supsetneq M_{k-1}$. Then $M=M_{k-1}+R m_{k}$ and $M / M_{k-1} \simeq R / I$ is cyclic, where $I$ is a proper left ideal. Let $J$ be a maximal ideal containing $I$. Then the simple module $R / J$ is a quotient of $M$.

Definition 3.4.8. Let $I \subseteq R$ be a left ideal. We say that $I$ is nil if every $x \in I$ is nilpotent. We say that $I$ is nilpotent if there exists $n \geq 1$ such that $I^{n}=0$.

Nilpotent ideals are nil.
Lemma 3.4.9. Let $I \subseteq R$ be a nil left ideal. Then $I \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(R)$.
In particular, if $R$ is commutative, then $\operatorname{nil}(R) \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(R)$.
Proof. Let $y \in I$ and $x \in R$. Then $(1-x y)^{-1}=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}(x y)^{i}$.
Proposition 3.4.10. Let $R$ be a left Artinian ring. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is nilpotent. Moreover, it is the largest nil left ideal and the largest nil right ideal.

Proof. The second assertion follows from the lemma. Let $I=\operatorname{rad}(R)$. We have a descending chain $I \supseteq I^{2} \supseteq \ldots$. There exists $n \geq 0$ such that $I^{m}=I^{n}$ for all $m \geq n$. Assume $I^{n} \neq 0$. Then there exists a minimal element $J_{0}$ in the set of left ideals $J$ such that $I^{n} J \neq 0$. Let $a \in J_{0}$ such that $I^{n} a \neq 0$. Then $I^{n}\left(I^{n} a\right)=I^{n} a \neq 0$, so that $I^{n} a=J_{0}$ by the minimality of $J_{0}$. In particular, there exists $y \in I^{n}$ such that $y a=a$. Since $1-y \in R^{\times}$, we have $a=0$. Contradiction.

Corollary 3.4.11. Let $R$ be a left Artinian ring. Then every nil left or right ideal is nilpotent.

### 3.5 Semiprimitive and semiprimary rings

Definition 3.5.1. A ring $R$ is said to be semiprimitive if $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$.
For an ideal $I$ of a ring $R$ contained in $\operatorname{rad}(R)$, we have $\operatorname{rad}(R / I)=\operatorname{rad}(R) / I$. In particular, for any ring $R, R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is semiprimitive.

Proposition 3.5.2. $A$ ring $R$ is semiprimitive if and only if there exists a semisimple faithful left $R$-module $M$.

Proof. Assume that there exists a semisimple faithful left $R$-module $M$. Then $\operatorname{rad}(R) M=0$ by the semisimplicity. It follows that $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$ by the faithfulness.

For the converse, assume that $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$. Let $M$ be the direct sum of all simple quotients of ${ }_{R} R$. Then $\operatorname{ker}\left(R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)\right)=\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$.

Remark 3.5.3. In a semiprimitive ring $R$, every minimal left ideal $I$ is a direct summand of ${ }_{R} R$. Indeed, since $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$, there exists a maximal left ideal $J$ such that $J \nsupseteq I$. Then $J+I=R$ by the maximality of $J$ and $J \cap I=0$ by the minimality of $I$. Thus ${ }_{R} R=I \oplus J$.

Proposition 3.5.4. $A$ ring $R$ is semisimple if and only if is semiprimitive and left Artinian.

Proof. Assume $R$ semisimple. We have seen that $R$ is left Artinian. Write ${ }_{R} R=$ $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}$ with $I_{i}$ simple. Then for each $j, \bigoplus_{j \neq i} I_{j}$ is a maximal left ideal of $R$ and their intersection is zero. It follows that $\operatorname{rad}(R)=0$.

Conversely, assume that $R$ is semiprimitive and left Artinian. Since $R$ is left Artinian, every nonzero left ideal contains a minimal left ideal. To show that $R$ is a
semisimple, we may assume $R \neq 0$. Let $J_{0}={ }_{R} R$. Take a minimal left ideal $I_{1} \subseteq J_{0}$. Then $I=I_{1} \oplus J_{1}$. If $J_{1}=0$, we are done. Otherwise, there exists a minimal left ideal $I_{2} \subseteq J_{1}$. Since $I_{2}$ is a direct summand in ${ }_{R} R$, it is a direct summand in any left ideal containing $I_{2}$. In particular, $J_{1}=I_{2} \oplus J_{2}$. Continuing in this way, get a descending chain ${ }_{R} R=J_{0} \supsetneq J_{1} \supsetneq \ldots$ and minimal left ideals $I_{i}$ such that $I_{i} \oplus J_{i}=J_{i-1}$. Since $R$ is left Artinian, the process must stop after a finitely many, say $n$, steps. Then ${ }_{R} R=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}$.

Remark 3.5.5. In the proof each $J_{i}$ is a cyclic left $R$-module, hence a principal left ideal. Thus we have in fact proved that $R$ is semisimple if and only if $R$ is semiprimitive and satisfies the descending chain condition for principal left ideals.

Example 3.5.6. A PID is semiprimitive if and only if it has infinitely many maximal ideals is semiprimitive. In particular, $\mathbb{Z}$ is semiprimitive. By contrast, a PID is not semisimple unless it is a field.

Definition 3.5.7. We say that a ring $R$ is semilocal if $R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is left Artinian. We say that $R$ is semiprimary if $R$ is semilocal and $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is nilpotent.

A ring $R$ is semilocal if and only if $R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is semisimple.
Example 3.5.8. (1) A local ring is semilocal.
(2) A left Artinian ring $R$ is semiprimary. Indeed, $R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is clearly left Artinian, and $\operatorname{rad}(R)$ is nilpotent by Proposition [3.4.10].

Theorem 3.5.9 (Hopkins-Levitzki). Let $R$ be a semiprimary ring and $M$ a left $R$-module. Then $M$ is a Noetherian module if and only if $M$ is an Artinian module.

Proof. It suffices to show that if $M$ is Noetherian or Artinian, then $M$ has finite length. Let $J=\operatorname{rad}(R)$. We have $J^{n}=0$ for some $n$. Consider the sequence $M=J^{0} M \supseteq J M \supseteq \cdots \supseteq J^{n} M=0$. Let $N_{i}=J^{i-1} M / J^{i} M$, which is an $R / J$ module. Since $R / J$ is a semisimple ring, $N_{i}$ is a semisimple module. If $M$ is Noetherian or Artinian, then so is each $N_{i}$, and it follows that each $N_{i}$ has finite lengths, which imply that $M$ has finite length.

Corollary 3.5.10. $A$ ring $R$ is left Artinian if and only if $R$ is semiprimary and left Noetherian.

We summarize some properties of rings as follows.


### 3.6 Jacobson density theorem

Let $R$ be a ring, $M$ a left $R$-module, and $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. We considered the canonical homomorphism $R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(M)$ in Section [3.3].

Example 3.6.1. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}, M=\oplus_{p} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$, where $p$ runs through prime numbers. Then $R^{\prime}=R^{\prime \prime} \simeq \prod_{p} \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. The homomorphism $R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}$ is not surjective. However, for every $f \in R^{\prime \prime}$ and every finite subset $S \subseteq M$, there exists $r \in R$ such that $r x=f x$ for every $x \in S$.

Definition 3.6.2. We say that $R$ acts densely on ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$, if for every $f \in R^{\prime \prime}=$ $\operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(M)$ and every finite subset $S \subseteq M$, there exists $r \in R$ such that $r x=f(x)$ for all $x \in S$.

Remark 3.6.3. (1) If we equip $M$ with the discrete topology and $R^{\prime \prime}$ with the coarsest topology such that the action $R^{\prime \prime} \times M \rightarrow M$ is continuous, then $R$ acts densely on ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ if and only if the image of $R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}$ is dense.
(2) If $R$ acts densely on ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ and ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ is finitely generated, then $M$ is balanced. Indeed, it suffices to take $S$ to be the a generating subset of ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$.

Theorem 3.6.4 (Jacobson density). Let $M$ be a semisimple left $R$-module and $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. Then $R$ acts densely on $R^{\prime} M$.

Lemma 3.6.5. Let $M$ be a semisimple left $R$-module. Then every $R$-submodule $N \subseteq M$ is an $R^{\prime \prime}$-submodule.

Proof. By semisimplicity we have $M=N \oplus P$ as left $R$-module. Let $e=\operatorname{id}_{N} \oplus$ $0_{P}: M \rightarrow M$. Then $e \in R^{\prime}$. For every $f \in R^{\prime \prime}, f(N)=f(e M)=e f(M) \subseteq N$.

Proof of Theorem 3.6.4. Let $f \in R^{\prime \prime}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \in M$. Let $R_{n}^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M^{\oplus n}\right)=$ $M_{n}\left(R^{\prime}\right)$. Then $f^{\oplus n} \in \operatorname{End}_{R_{n}^{\prime}}\left(M^{\oplus n}\right)$. Indeed, for $a=\left(a_{i, j}\right) \in M_{n}\left(R^{\prime}\right)$ and $m=$ $\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{n}\right)^{T} \in M^{\oplus n}$, we have

$$
f^{\oplus n} a m=\left(f\left(\sum_{j} a_{i, j} m_{j}\right)\right)_{i}=\sum_{j} a_{i, j} f\left(m_{j}\right)=a f^{\oplus n} m
$$

By the lemma, $N=R\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T} \subseteq M^{\oplus n}$ is stable under $f^{\oplus n}$. Thus, there exists $r \in R$ such that $f^{\oplus n}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T}=r\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)^{T}$, that is, $f\left(x_{i}\right)=r x_{i}$ for all $i$.

Proposition 3.6.6. Let $M$ be a semisimple left $R$-module. Then ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ is semisimple.
Proof. Note that every element in $M$ is a finite sum of elements $x$ such that ${ }_{R} R x$ is simple. It suffices to show that for ${ }_{R} R x$ simple, ${ }_{R^{\prime}} R^{\prime} x$ is simple. Let $a \in R^{\prime}$ such that $a x \neq 0$. It suffices to show that $R^{\prime} a x=R^{\prime} x$. Note that $a$ induces an isomorphism $a_{0}: R x \xrightarrow{\sim} R a x$. Choose a decomposition $M=\operatorname{Rax} \oplus N$ as left $R$-module and let $b: M \xrightarrow{p} \operatorname{Rax} \xrightarrow{a_{0}^{-1}} R x \hookrightarrow M$, where $p$ is the projection. Then bax $=x$, so that $R^{\prime} a x=R^{\prime} x$.

Corollary 3.6.7. Let $R$ be a left Artinian ring and $M$ a semisimple left $R$-module. Then ${ }_{R} M$ is balanced and ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ is finitely generated.

Proof. Since $R$ is left Artinian, the set $\left\{\operatorname{ann}_{R}(S)\right\}$, where $S$ runs through finite subsets of $M$, admits a minimal element $I=\operatorname{ann}_{R}(S)$. For every $x \in M$, the minimality of $I$ implies that $\operatorname{ann}_{R}(S \cup\{x\})=I \cap \operatorname{ann}_{R}(x)$ equals $I$, that is, $I \subseteq$ $\operatorname{ann}_{R}(x)$. Let $R^{\prime} S=\sum_{s \in S} R^{\prime} s$. Since ${ }_{R^{\prime}} M$ is semisimple, we have a decomposition $M=R^{\prime} S \oplus N$ as left $R^{\prime}$-module. Let $e=0_{R^{\prime} S} \oplus \operatorname{id}_{N} \in R^{\prime \prime}$. For every $x \in N$, by Jacobson density theorem applied to $S \cup\{x\}$, there exists $r \in R$ such that $r S=0$ but $r x=x$, which implies $r \in I$ and $x=r x=0$. Therefore, $M=R^{\prime} S$ is finitely generated. It then follows from Jacobson density theorem applied to $S$ that ${ }_{R} M$ is balanced.

The following are examples where the conclusion of the Jacobson density theorem was already known.

Example 3.6.8. Let $R=D$ be a division ring, $M=D^{n}$. Then $R^{\prime}=M_{n}\left(D^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$. The homomorphism $D \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{M_{n}\left(D^{\text {op })}\right.}\left(D^{n}\right)$ is an isomorphism.
Example 3.6.9. Let $R$ be a semilocal ring. Then $\bar{R}:=R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ is a semisimple ring. Simple $R$-modules are the same as simple $\bar{R}$-modules. By the WedderburnArtin theorem, there are simple $R$-modules $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ satisfying $M_{i} \not \approx M_{j}$ for $i \neq j$, such that $\bar{R} \rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{End}_{D_{i}}\left(M_{i}\right)$ is an isomorphism of rings. Here $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M_{i}\right)$, which is division ring by Schur's lemma. This map composed with $R \rightarrow R / \operatorname{rad}(R)$ can be identified with $R \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(M)$, where $M=\oplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{i}$ and $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{End}_{R}(M)=$ $\prod_{i=1}^{r} D_{i}$.

We have ${ }_{R} \bar{R} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{i}^{\oplus n_{i}}$, where $n_{i}=\mathrm{rk}_{D_{i}}\left(M_{i}\right)$. Every simple $R$-module is a quotient of ${ }_{R} \bar{R}$ and thus is isomorphic to some $M_{i}$ by the Jordan-Hölder theorem.

The following is an important special case.
Theorem 3.6.10 (Burnside). Let $F$ be an algebraically closed field and $R$ a finitedimensional $F$-algebra.
(1) For every simple left $R$-module $M$, the canonical map $F \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$ is an isomorphism.
(2) We have $\bar{R}:=R / \operatorname{rad}(R) \xrightarrow{\sim} \prod_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{End}_{F}\left(M_{i}\right)$, where $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ is a system of representatives of isomorphism classes of simple $R$-modules. In particular, $\operatorname{dim}_{F} \bar{R}=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left(\operatorname{dim}_{F} M_{i}\right)^{2}$.

It remains to prove (1).
Let $F$ be a field and $R$ a nonzero $F$-algebra. Then the structural homomorphism $F \rightarrow R$ is an injection. We regard $F$ as a subfield of $R$.

Lemma 3.6.11. Let $F$ be a field and $D$ a finite-dimensional $F$-algebra without zerodivisors. Then $D$ is a division ring and $D$ is the union of maximal subfields of $D$ containing $F$. In particular, if $F$ is algebraically closed, then $D=F$.

An $F$-algebra that is a division ring is called a division $F$-algebra.
Proof. Let $x \in D$. The kernel of the homomorphism $F[X] \rightarrow D$ carrying $P$ to $P(x)$ is of the form $(P)$. Since $\operatorname{dim}_{F} D<\infty, P(X) \neq 0$. If $P=Q R$, then $Q(x)=0$ or $R(x)=0$, so that $P \mid Q$ or $P \mid R$. Thus $P$ is irreducible. Then $F[x] \simeq F[X] /(P)$ is a field extension of $F$. Thus $D=\bigcup_{x \in D} F[x]$ is a union of subfields of $D$ containing
$F$. Each subfield of $D$ containing $F$ is contained in a maximal subfield. The first assertion follows. For the last assertion, note that every subfield of $D$ containing $F$ is an algebraic extension of $F$, and hence is $F$ if $F$ is algebraically closed.

### 3.7 Central simple algebras

Any ring $A$ is a $Z(A)$-algebra.
Remark 3.7.1. Let $A$ be a simple ring. Then $Z(A)$ is a field. Indeed, for nonzero $a \in Z(A), R a=a R$ is a nonzero ideal of $R$, and hence equals to $R$. In other words, $a$ is invertible in $R$. It follows that $a^{-1} \in Z(A)$, and $a \in Z(A)^{\times}$.

In the sequel let $F$ be a field.
Definition 3.7.2. Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra. We say that $A$ is central if $Z(A)=F$. We say that $A$ is central simple if it is a central $F$-algebra and a simple ring.
Remark 3.7.3. A finite-dimensional central simple $F$-algebra is Noetherian and Artinian, and hence isomorphic to $M_{n}(D)$ for some division ring $D$ and some $n \geq 1$. Then $F \simeq Z\left(M_{n}(D)\right)=Z(D)$ and $D$ is a central division $F$-algebra.

Example 3.7.4. (1) (Dickson) Let $E / F$ be a finite cyclic extension with Galois group $\langle\sigma\rangle$ of order $n$. Fix $a \in F^{\times}$. Let $A=A(E / F, \sigma, a)=E \oplus E x \oplus$ $\cdots \oplus E x^{n-1}$ with $x^{n}=a$ and $x b=\sigma(b) x$ for $b \in E$. We call $A$ the cyclic $F$-algebra associated to $E / F, \sigma$, and $a$. One can check that $A$ is a central simple $F$-algebra of dimension $n^{2}$ [L2], Theorem 14.6].
(2) Assume that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$ and let $a, b \in F^{\times}$. We define $(a, b)_{\zeta}$ to be the $F$-algebra generated by $x$ and $y$ subject to the relations $x^{n}=a, y^{n}=b$, and $x y=\zeta y x$. One can check that $A$ is a central simple $F$-algebra of dimension $n^{2}$. In the case where $[F(\sqrt[n]{b}): F]=n$, we have $(a, b)_{\zeta} \simeq A(F(\sqrt[n]{b}) / F, \sigma, a)$, where $\sigma$ is given by $\sigma(\sqrt[n]{b})=\zeta \sqrt[n]{b}$.
(3) Hamilton's quaternion algebra $\mathbb{H}=(-1,-1)_{-1}=\mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R} i \oplus \mathbb{R} j \oplus \mathbb{R} k$ with $i^{2}=j^{2}=k^{2}=i j k=-1$ is a division $\mathbb{R}$-algebra. Indeed, $(a+b i+c j+d k)(a-$ $b i-c j-d k)=a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}$ for $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$.
One can show that over a field $F$ of characteristic $\neq 2$, a 4 -dimensional central simple $F$-algebra is isomorphic to some $(a, b)_{-1}$.

We are interested in tensor products of central simple algebras.
Definition 3.7.5. Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra. We call $A^{e}:=A \otimes_{F} A^{\text {op }}$ the enveloping algebra of $A$.

If $A \subseteq B$ is an $F$-subalgebra, we regard $B$ as a left $A^{e}$-module by $\left(a \otimes a^{\prime}\right) b=a b a^{\prime}$. In particular, $A$ is a left $A^{e}$-module. Left $A^{e}$-submodules of $A$ are precisely ideals of A.

Lemma 3.7.6. The homomorphism

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, B) \rightarrow Z_{B}(A) \\
f \mapsto f(1)
\end{gathered}
$$

is an isomorphism.

Note that $f(1) \in Z_{B}(A)$ since $f(a)=a f(1)=f(1) a$.
Proof. The inverse carries $c$ to $a \mapsto c a=a c$.
In particular, we have $\operatorname{End}_{A^{e}}(A) \xrightarrow{\sim} Z(A)$ carrying $f$ to $f(1)$.
Lemma 3.7.7. Let $A$ be a finite-dimensional central $F$-algebra. Then $A$ is simple if and only if the homomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lambda: A \otimes_{F} A^{\mathrm{op}} & \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(A) \\
a \otimes b & \mapsto(x \mapsto a x b)
\end{aligned}
$$

is surjective. In this case, $\lambda$ is an isomorphism.
Proof. Suppose $A$ is not simple and $0 \neq I \subsetneq A$ is an ideal, then for all $a, b \in A$, $\lambda(a \otimes b)$ stabilizes $I$. Thus $\lambda$ is not surjective.

Conversely, assume that $A$ is simple. Then $A$ is a simple left $A^{e}$-module. Moreover, $\operatorname{End}_{A^{e}}(A) \simeq Z(A)=F$. By Jacobson density theorem, $\lambda: A^{e} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(A)$ is surjective. Counting dimensions, we see that $\lambda$ is an isomorphism.

Proposition 3.7.8. Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra and let $E / F$ be a field extension. Then $Z\left(A \otimes_{F} E\right) \simeq Z(A) \otimes_{F} E$. In particular, $A$ is a central $F$-algebra if and only if $A \otimes_{F} E$ is a central $E$-algebra. Moreover, if $A$ is finite dimensional, then $A$ is central simple if and only if $A \otimes_{F} E$ is central simple.

Proof. The first assertion follows from the fact that $Z(A)$ is the space of solutions of the $F$-linear equations $x a-a x=0$, where $a$ runs through an $F$-linear basis of $A$. The last assertion follows from Lemma [3.7.7.

Example 3.7.9. $\mathbb{H} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C} \simeq M_{2}(\mathbb{C})$.
Let $A$ and $C$ be $F$-algebras. We regard $A$ as a subalgebra of $A \otimes_{F} C$ via the homomorphism $A \rightarrow A \otimes_{F} C$ carrying $a$ to $a \otimes 1$ and we regard $C$ as a subalgebra of $A \otimes_{F} C$ via the homomorphism $C \rightarrow A \otimes_{F} C$ carrying $c$ to $1 \otimes c$.

Proposition 3.7.10. Assume that $A$ is a central $F$-algebra. Then $Z_{A \otimes_{F} C}(A)=C$.
Proof. It is clear that $C \subseteq Z_{B}(A)$. Let $\left(c_{i}\right)$ be an $F$-linear basis of $C$. Then every $b \in B$ can be written uniquely as $b=\sum_{i} a_{i} \otimes c_{i}$, where $a_{i} \in A$. Assume $b \in Z_{B}(A)$. For all $a \in A, \sum_{i} a a_{i} \otimes c_{i}=a b=b a=\sum_{i} a_{i} a \otimes c_{i}$, which implies $a a_{i}=a_{i} a$ for all $i$. Thus $a_{i} \in Z(A)=F$ for all $i$ and $b \in C$.

In the case where $A$ is simple and finite-dimensional, the proposition admits the following converse.

Theorem 3.7.11. Let $B$ be an $F$-algebra. Let $A \subseteq B$ be a finite-dimensional $F$-subalgebra which is central simple. Let $C=Z_{B}(A)$. Then the homomorphism $\theta: A \otimes_{F} C \rightarrow B$ carrying $a \otimes c$ to ac is an isomorphism and we have a bijection

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { \{ideals of } C\} & \leftrightarrow\{\text { ideals of } B\} \\
I & \mapsto A I=\theta\left(A \otimes_{F} I\right) \\
J \cap C & \leftrightarrow J .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, $Z(B)=Z(C)$.

Lemma 3.7.12. Let $V$ and $W$ be $F$-vectors spaces. Let $W_{0} \subseteq W$ be an $F$-vector subspace and let $0 \neq v \in V$. Then the set of $w \in W$ such that $v \otimes w \in V \otimes_{F} W_{0}$ is precisely $W_{0}$.

Proof. We extend $v$ to an $F$-linear basis $\left(v_{i}\right)$ of $W$. Every element of $V \otimes_{F} W$ can be written uniquely as $\sum_{i} v_{i} \otimes w_{i}$ with $w_{i} \in W$. We conclude by applying the existence to $v \otimes w \in V \otimes_{F} W_{0}$ and the uniqueness to $V \otimes_{F} W$.

Lemma 3.7.13. Let $V$ be an $F$-vector spaces and let $E=\operatorname{End}_{F}(V)$.
(1) Let $W$ be an $F$-vector space. Every left $E$-submodule of $V \otimes_{F} W$ has the form $V \otimes_{F} W_{0}$ for some $F$-linear subspace $W_{0} \subseteq W$.
(2) Let $M$ be a left E-module. The homomorphism of E-modules

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta: V \otimes_{F} \operatorname{Hom}_{E}(V, M) & \rightarrow M, \\
a \otimes f & \mapsto f(a)
\end{aligned}
$$

is an injection. If, moreover, $V$ is finite dimensional, then $\theta$ is an isomorphism.

Proof. (1) Let $X \subseteq V \otimes_{F} W$ be an $E$-submodule. Let $W_{0} \subseteq W$ be the $F$-vector subspace of $w$ such that $v \otimes w \in X$. Then $V \otimes_{F} W_{0} \subseteq X$. Conversely, let $x \in X$. Choose a basis $\left(v_{i}\right)$ of $V$ and write $x=\sum_{i} v_{i} \otimes w_{i}$. For each $j$, there exists $\phi_{i j} \in E$ such that $\phi_{i, j}\left(v_{i}\right)=v_{j}$ and $\phi_{i, j}\left(v_{i^{\prime}}\right)=0$ for all $i^{\prime} \neq i$. Then $\phi_{i, j} x \in X$ for all $j$ implies $w_{i} \in W_{0}$. Thus $x \in V \otimes_{F} W_{0}$.
(2) Let $\operatorname{ker}(\theta)=V \otimes_{F} W_{0}$. For each $f \in W_{0}, f(V)=0$. Thus $\operatorname{ker}(\theta)=0$. Assume that $n=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V<\infty$. Then $E \simeq M_{n}(F)$ is semisimple and every simple left $E$-module is isomorphic to $V$. Thus $M=V^{\oplus S}$. The composite $V \otimes_{F} F^{\oplus S} \rightarrow$ $V \otimes_{F} \operatorname{Hom}_{E}\left(V, V^{\oplus S}\right) \xrightarrow{\theta} V^{\oplus S}$ is an isomorphism. It follows that $\theta$ is a surjection.

Proof of Theorem [.7.7]. Via Lemma [.7.6, $\theta$ can be identified with the homomorphism $\theta: A \otimes_{F} \operatorname{Hom}_{A^{e}}(A, B) \rightarrow B$ given by $a \otimes f \mapsto f(a)$. By Lemma B....., $A^{e} \simeq \operatorname{End}_{F}(A)$. Thus $\theta$ is an isomorphism by Lemma [3.7.]3].

By Lemma [3.JT2 and Lemma [3.T]3 (1), the maps are bijections between $F$ vector subspaces $I \subseteq C$ and $A$-submodules $J \subseteq B$. Both maps preserve ideals.

We have $Z(B) \subseteq Z_{B}(A)=C$. Thus $Z(B) \subseteq Z(C)$. Conversely, every $x \in Z(C)$ centralizes both $A$ and $C$, and hence we have $x \in Z(B)$.

Corollary 3.7.14. Let $A$ be a finite-dimensional central simple $F$-algebra and let $C$ be an $F$-algebra. Then $C$ is simple if and only if $A \otimes_{F} C$ is. Moreover, $C$ is central if and only if $A \otimes_{F} C$ is.

Combining this with the Wedderburn-Artin theorem, we obtain the following.
Corollary 3.7.15. Let $A$ be a finite-dimensional central simple $F$-algebra and let $C$ be a finite-dimensional semisimple $F$-algebra. Then $A \otimes_{F} C$ is a semisimple $F$-algebra.

Example 3.7.16. Let $A$ and $B$ be $F$-algebras. Then Kronecker product gives an isomorphism $M_{m}(A) \otimes_{F} M_{n}(B) \simeq M_{m n}\left(A \otimes_{F} B\right)$ of $F$-algebras.

Theorem 3.7.17. Let $B$ be a finite-dimensional central simple $F$-algebra and let $A$ be a semisimple $F$-subalgebra.
(1) We have $Z_{B}\left(Z_{B}(A)\right)=A$.
(2) If $A$ is simple, then $Z_{B}(A)$ is simple. Moreover, in this case, $\operatorname{dim}_{F} B=$ $\operatorname{dim}_{F} A \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{F} Z_{B}(A)$.

The following is a variant of Lemma [3.T.6.
Lemma 3.7.18. Let $A$ be an $F$-subalgebra of an $F$-algebra $B$. Then we have an isomorphism of $F$-algebras

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{End}_{A \otimes_{F} B^{\circ \mathrm{p}}}(B) & \rightarrow Z_{B}(A) \\
f & \mapsto f(1) \\
(b \mapsto c b) & \leftrightarrow c .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is clear. Note that $f(1) \in Z_{B}(A)$ since $a f(1)=f(a)=f(1) a$. Moreover, $b \mapsto c b$ is a homomorphism of left $A$-modules since $c a b=a c b$. The map from right to left is clearly a homomorphism of $F$-algebras.

Proof of Theorem [3.7.1才. Let $R=A \otimes_{F} B^{\mathrm{op}}$, which is semisimple, and let $R^{\prime}=$ $\operatorname{End}_{R}(B) \simeq Z_{B}(A)$.
(1) By Jacobson density theorem, the (injective) homomorphism $R \rightarrow R^{\prime \prime}=$ $\operatorname{End}_{R^{\prime}}(B)$ deduced from $\lambda: B \otimes_{F} B^{\mathrm{op}} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{End}_{F}(B)$ is surjective. Let $x \in Z_{B}\left(Z_{B}(A)\right)$. Then the endomorphism $b \mapsto x b$ of $B$ belongs to $R^{\prime \prime}$. Thus $x \otimes 1 \in A \otimes_{F} B^{\mathrm{op}}$, which implies $x \in A$ by Lemma [.....2. This proves $Z_{B}\left(Z_{B}(A)\right) \subseteq A$. The inverse inclusion is obvious.
(2) Assume $A$ simple. Then $R$ is simple. Then $R \simeq M_{n}\left(D^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$ for some division $F$-algebra $D$ and some $n \geq 1$. Let $M=D^{\oplus n}$ be the simple $R$-module. We have $D \simeq \operatorname{End}_{R}(M)$. Then ${ }_{R} B \simeq M^{\oplus r}$ for some $r \geq 1$ and $Z_{B}(A) \simeq R^{\prime} \simeq M_{r}(D)$ is simple. Finally,

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{F} B=r n \operatorname{dim}_{F} D, \quad \operatorname{dim}_{F} R=n^{2} \operatorname{dim}_{F} D, \quad \operatorname{dim}_{F} Z_{B}(A)=r^{2} \operatorname{dim}_{F} D,
$$

which implies $\left(\operatorname{dim}_{F} B\right)^{2}=\operatorname{dim}_{F} R \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{F} Z_{B}(A)=\operatorname{dim}_{F} A \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{F} B \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{F} Z_{B}(A)$.
Assumption 3.7.19. In the rest of this section, $F$-algebras are assumed to be finite-dimensional.

Corollary 3.7.20. Let $D$ be a central division $F$-algebra and let $K \subseteq D$ be a maximal subfield containing $F$. Then $Z_{D}(K)=K$ and $\left(\operatorname{dim}_{F} K\right)^{2}=\operatorname{dim}_{F} D$.

Proof. Indeed, $Z_{D}(K)$ is a division $K$-algebra and $Z_{D}(K)=K$ by Lemma B...].

It follows from this (or from the fact that $A \otimes_{F} F^{\text {alg }} \simeq M_{d}\left(F^{\text {alg }}\right)$ ) that the dimension of a central simple $F$-algebra $A$ is a square $d^{2}$. We call $d$ the degree of $A$.

Example 3.7.21. In $\mathbb{H}, \mathbb{R}[i], \mathbb{R}[j]$, and $\mathbb{R}[k]$ are maximal subfields. All three are isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}$.

## Skolem-Noether Theorem

Let $B$ be an $F$-algebra. For every $y \in B^{\times}, b \mapsto y b y^{-1}$ is an automorphism of the $F$-algebra $B$. Such automorphisms are called inner.

Theorem 3.7.22. Let $B$ be a central simple $F$-algebra and $A$ a simple $F$-subalgebra of $B$. Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of $F$-algebras. Then there exists $y \in B^{\times}$ such that $f(a)=y a y^{-1}$ for all $a \in A$.

In other words, $f$ extends to an inner automorphism of $B$.
Proof. Let $R=A \otimes_{F} B^{\text {op }}$, which is a simple $F$-algebra by B.7.7. Since $R$-modules are semisimple and simple $R$-modules are also isomorphic, $R$-modules of the same dimension over $F$ are isomorphic.

We consider two $R$-modules structures on $B:(a \otimes b) x=a x b$ and $(a \otimes b) x=$ $f(a) x b$. There exists $g \in \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(B)$ such that $g(a x b)=f(a) g(x) b$ for all $a \in A$, $b, x \in B$. Let $y=g(1)$. Then $f(a) y=g(a)=y a$.

Corollary 3.7.23 (Skolem-Noether). Automorphisms of central simple F-algebras are inner.

Corollary 3.7.24. Let $B$ be a central simple $F$-algebra. If $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are simple subalgebras and there exists an $F$-isomorphism $A \simeq A^{\prime}$, then $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are conjugate to each other. That is, there exists $b \in B^{\times}$such that $A^{\prime}=b A b^{-1}$.

Proof. This follows from the theorem applied to $A \simeq A^{\prime} \hookrightarrow B$.
Theorem 3.7.25 (Wedderburn's Little Theorem). Every finite division ring $D$ is a field.

Proof. Let $F=Z(D)$, which is a finite field. Then maximal subfields of $D$ containing $F$ are of degree $n=\sqrt{\operatorname{dim}_{F} D}$ over $F$, and hence are isomorphic to each other as extensions of $F$. By Corollary B.T.24, they are conjugate to each other. Let $K$ be a maximal subfield of $D$ containing $F$. Then $D^{\times}=\bigcup_{a \in D^{\times}} a K^{\times} a^{-1}$. By the lemma below, this forces $D^{\times}=K^{\times}$. Thus $D=K$.

Lemma 3.7.26. Let $G$ be a finite group and $H<G$ a subgroup such that $G=$ $\bigcup_{g \in G} g H^{-1}$. Then $G=H$.
Proof. Note that $g H^{-1}$ depends only on the class of $g$ in $G / H$. Moreover, $\#\left(g H g^{-1}\right)=$ $\# H$. Since $\# G=(G: H) \# H$, the union is disjoint. However, $1 \in g H g^{-1}$ for all $g$. Thus $(G: H)=1$.

Corollary 3.7.27. Let $D$ be a division ring of characteristic $p>0$. Then any finite subgroup $G$ of $D^{\times}$is cyclic.

Proof. Let $R=\mathbb{F}_{p}[G] \subseteq D$. Then $R$ is a finite ring. For every nonzero $x \in R$, $x^{i}=x^{j}$ for some $i \neq j$. Thus $R$ is a finite division ring and hence a finite field. Therefore, $G<R^{\times}$is cyclic.

Warning 3.7.28. Unlike the case of fields, finite subgroups of the multiplicative group of a division ring of characteristic 0 are not cyclic in general. For example, in $\mathbb{H}^{\times},\{ \pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ is not cyclic.

Theorem 3.7.29 (Frobenius). Every finite-dimensional division $\mathbb{R}$-algebra $D$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$, or $\mathbb{H}$.

Proof. If $[Z(D): \mathbb{R}]>1$, then $Z(D) \simeq \mathbb{C}$ and $D \simeq \mathbb{C}$. Assume $Z(D)=\mathbb{R}$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} D=n^{2}>1$. Let $K$ be a maximal subfield of $D$ containing $\mathbb{R}$. Then $[K: \mathbb{R}]=n>1$, so that $K \simeq \mathbb{C}$ as field extensions of $\mathbb{R}$. It follows that $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{R}} D=4$. Let $i \in K$ be a square root of -1 . By Theorem 5.7 .22 applied to the homomorphism $K \rightarrow D$ of $\mathbb{R}$-algebras carrying $i$ to $-i$, there exists $j \in D^{\times}$such that $j i j^{-1}=-i$. That is, $i j i^{-1}=-j$. Let $K^{\prime}=\mathbb{R}[j]$. Then $K^{\prime} \simeq \mathbb{C}$ as field extensions of $\mathbb{R}$. Consider $\sigma: K^{\prime} \rightarrow K^{\prime}$ carrying $x$ to $i x i^{-1}$. This is a nontrivial element of $\operatorname{Gal}\left(K^{\prime} / \mathbb{R}\right)$, and hence corresponds to complex conjugation. Thus $\sigma(j)=-j$ implies $r:=-j^{2} \in$ $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Up to replacing $j$ by $j / \sqrt{r}$, we may assume $j^{2}=-1$. Let $k=i j$. Then $k^{2}=i j k=-1$. Thus $\mathbb{R}[i, j, k] \simeq \mathbb{H}$. By dimension count, $\mathbb{R}[i, j, k]=D$.

## Splitting fields

Definition 3.7.30. Let $A$ be a central simple $F$-algebra. We say that $A$ is split over $F$ if $A \simeq M_{n}(F)$ for some $n \geq 1$. Let $K / F$ be a field extension. We say that $K$ is a splitting field of $A$, or that $A$ splits over $K$, if $A \otimes_{F} K$ is a split central simple $K$-algebra.

Remark 3.7.31. If $K$ is a splitting field of $A$ and $B$, then it is also a splitting field of $A \otimes_{F} B$ and $A^{\mathrm{op}}$.

Proposition 3.7.32. Let $A=M_{n}(B)$ with $B$ a central simple $F$-algebra and $n \geq 1$. Then $K$ is a splitting field of $A$ if and only if $K$ is a splitting field of $B$.

Proof. If $B \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{m}(K)$, then $M_{n}(B) \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{n}\left(B \otimes_{F} K\right) \simeq M_{m n}(B)$. Conversely, if $M_{n}(B) \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{r}(K)$ and if $B \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{m}(E)$ for a division $F$-algebra $E$, then $M_{m n}(E) \simeq M_{r}(K)$ and hence $E \simeq K$ by Remark [3.2.3].

Lemma 3.7.33. Let $A$ be a central simple $F$-algebra and let $K \subseteq A$ be a subfield containing $F$. Let $C=Z_{A}(K)$. Then there exist $m, n \geq 1$ such that $M_{m}\left(A \otimes_{F} K\right) \simeq$ $M_{n}(C)$ as $K$-algebras.

Note that $A \otimes_{F} K$ and $C$ are central simple $K$-algebras. (That $C$ is a central simple $K$-algebra follows either from Theorem $[. . .17$ or the lemma.)

Proof. Let $A_{K}:=A \otimes_{F} K$. We have $A_{K}^{\mathrm{op}} \simeq K \otimes_{F} A^{\mathrm{op}}$. By Lemma B.T.]8, $\operatorname{End}_{A_{K}^{\text {op }}}(A) \simeq C$. We have $A_{K} \simeq M_{n}(D)$, for a division $K$-algebra $D$. Let $M$ be the unique simple right $A_{K}$-module. Then $\operatorname{End}_{A_{K}^{\text {op }}}(M) \simeq D$. We have $A_{A_{K}} \simeq M_{A_{K}}^{\oplus m}$. It follows that $C \simeq M_{m}(D)$.

Proposition 3.7.34. Let $D$ be a central division $F$-algebra. Then every maximal subfield $K$ of $D$ containing $F$ is a splitting field of $D$.

Proof. By Corollary [3.7.201, $Z_{D}(K)=K$. Thus, by the lemma, $M_{m}\left(D \otimes_{F} K\right) \simeq$ $M_{n}(K)$ as $K$-algebras for some $m, n \geq 1$. It follows then from Remark [.2.3] that $D \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{r}(K)$ for some $r \geq 1$.

The maximal subfields $K$ of $D$ containing $F$ are minimal splitting fields of $D$ by the following.

Proposition 3.7.35. Let $D$ be a central division $F$-algebra of degree $d$. Let $K$ be a splitting field of $D$ with $K / F$ finite. Then $d \mid[K: F]$.

Proof. We have $D \otimes_{F} K \simeq M_{d}(K)$, which admits a simple module $M$ with $\operatorname{dim}_{K} M=$ $d$. Since $M$ is a left $D$-module, $d^{2} \mid d[K: F]$ by counting $F$-dimensions.

Theorem 3.7.36. Every central division $F$-algebra $D$ contains a separable extension $K$ of $F$ that is maximal among subfields of $D$.

Warning 3.7.37. Subfields of a central division $F$-algebra containing $F$ are not always separable. There are examples of central division $F$-algebras containing purely inseparable extensions of $F$.

Proof of Theorem [3.7.36. Let $K$ be a maximal separable subfield of $D$ containing $F$. We need to show that $K$ is a maximal subfield. Let $C=Z_{D}(K)$, which is a central division $K$-algebra. If $K$ is not maximal, then $C \neq K$. The following lemma then contradicts the maximality of $K$.

Lemma 3.7.38. Let $D$ be a central division $F$-algebra with $D \neq F$. Then $D$ contains a separable extension $K \supsetneq F$.

Proof. (Artin) Assume the contrary. Then $F$ is not a perfect field and $\operatorname{char}(F)=$ $p>0$. For every $x \in D, F[x] / F$ is a purely inseparable extension, so that $x^{p^{k}} \in F$, where $p^{k}=[F[x]: F] \mid d=\sqrt{\operatorname{dim}_{F} D}$. Let $q$ be the highest power of $x$ dividing $d$. Then $x^{q} \in F$ for all $x \in D$. Choose an $F$-linear basis $1=x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d^{2}}$ of $D$. There are polynomials $f_{i} \in F\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d^{2}}\right]$ such that $\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} x_{i}\right)^{q}=\sum_{i} f_{i}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d^{2}}\right) x_{i}$ for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d^{2}} \in F$. Thus $f_{i}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d^{2}}\right)=0$ for all $i \geq 2$ and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{d^{2}} \in F$. It follows from the lemma below that $f_{i}=0$ for all $i \geq 2$. It follows that for every field extension $K / F$ and every $y \in D \otimes_{F} K$, we have $y^{q} \in K$. Take $K$ to be a splitting field of $F$ and take $y$ to correspond to $\operatorname{diag}(1,0, \ldots, 0) \in M_{d}(K)$ for example, we get a contradiction.

Lemma 3.7.39. Let $F$ be an infinite field and let $f \in F\left[X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right]$ such that $f\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=0$ for all $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in F$. Then $f=0$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $n$. The case $n=0$ is trivial. Let $n \geq 1$. By induction hypothesis, $f\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n-1}, a\right)=0$ for all $a \in F$. Let $f\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=$ $\sum_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n} \geq 0} c_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}} X_{1}^{i_{1}} \ldots X_{n}^{i^{n}}$, where $c_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n}} \in F$. Fix $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n-1}$ and let $c_{j}=c_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{n-1}, j}$. Then $a$ is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{j \geq 0} c_{j} X^{j}$ for all $a \in F$. Since $F$ is infinite, $c_{j}=0$ for all $j$.

Corollary 3.7.40. Every central simple $F$-algebra splits over a finite separable extension of $F$.

## Brauer groups

Definition 3.7.41. We say that central simple $F$-algebras $A$ and $B$ are similar, written $A \sim B$, if there exist $m, n \geq 1$ such that $M_{m}(A) \simeq M_{n}(B)$ as $F$-algebras. We let $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$ denote the set of similarity classes of central simple $F$-algebras. We write $[A]$ for the class of $A$.

Note that if $A \sim A^{\prime}$ and $B \sim B^{\prime}$, then $A \otimes_{F} B \sim A^{\prime} \otimes_{F} B^{\prime}$. Thus tensor product induces a binary operation on $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$, which is commutative (since $A \otimes_{F} B \simeq B \otimes_{F} A$ ) and associative, with $[F]$ being the identity element. Moreover, $A \otimes_{F} A^{\mathrm{op}} \sim F$, so that $\left[A^{\mathrm{op}}\right]$ is an inverse of $[A]$. Thus $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$ is an abelian group, called the Brauer group of $F$.

Note that $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$ is also the set of isomorphism classes of central division $F$-algebras.
Example 3.7.42. (1) If $F$ is a separably closed field, then $\operatorname{Br}_{F}$ is trivial.
(2) If $F$ is a finite field, then $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$ is trivial by Wedderburn's little theorem.
(3) If $F=k(X)$ for an algebraically closed field $k$, then $\operatorname{Br}_{F}$ is trivial by a theorem of Tsen.
(4) $\mathrm{Br}_{\mathbb{R}}=\{[\mathbb{R}],[\mathbb{H}]\} \simeq \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ by Frobenius' theorem.
(5) $\mathrm{Br}_{\mathbb{Q}_{p}} \simeq \mathbb{Q} / \mathbb{Z}$. This fact is crucial in local class field theory.

Algebraically closed fields and examples (2) and (3) are special cases of $C_{1}$-fields (also called quasi algebraically closed fields), which all have trivial Brauer groups.

For a field extension $K / F$, we have a homomorphism $\mathrm{Br}_{F} \rightarrow \mathrm{Br}_{K}$ given by $[A] \mapsto\left[A \otimes_{F} K\right]$. We let $\operatorname{Br}(K / F)$ denote the kernel. We have $\operatorname{Br}_{F}=\bigcup_{K} \operatorname{Br}(K / F)$, where $K$ runs through finite Galois extensions of $F$.

Remark 3.7.43. Assume that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$. Then $(a, b) \mapsto(a, b)_{\zeta}$ (Example B.T.4 (2)) induces a biadditive map $F^{\times} / F^{\times n} \times F^{\times} / F^{\times n} \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{Br}_{F}$, called the Galois symbol (or norm residue symbol). By a theorem of MerkurjevSuslin (1982), the image of the Galois symbol generates $\mathrm{Br}_{F}[n]$. (For an abelian group, $A[n]:=\operatorname{ker}(A \xrightarrow{\times n} A)$ denotes the $n$-torsion of $A$.)

### 3.8 Galois descent

Let $K / F$ be a Galois field extension with Galois group $G$. Given a $K$-vector space $W$, an action of $G$ on the additive group $W$ is called a Galois action if the following conditions are satisfied:
(1) $\sigma(a x)=\sigma(a) \sigma(x)$ for all $\sigma \in G, a \in K$, and $x \in W$;
(2) $W=\bigcup_{H} W^{H}$, where $H$ runs through open subgroups of $G$.

Note that (1) implies that the action is $F$-linear. Moreover, (2) is automatic if $K / F$ is finite. We let $\operatorname{Vect}_{K, G}$ denote the category whose objects are $K$-vector spaces with Galois actions and whose morphisms are $G$-equivariant $K$-linear maps. The $G$-equivariance of a map $f$ means $f \circ \sigma=\sigma \circ f$ for all $\sigma \in G$.

For any $F$-vector space $V, V \otimes_{F} K$ is equipped with the obvious Galois action. We have $\left(V \otimes_{F} K\right)^{G} \simeq V \otimes_{F} K^{G} \simeq V$.

Theorem 3.8.1. The functor $\operatorname{Vect}_{F} \rightarrow$ Vect $_{K, G}$ given by $V \mapsto V \otimes_{F} K$ is an equivalence of categories. A quasi-inverse is given by $W \mapsto W^{G}$.

Proof. We have already seen the isomorphism $\left(V \otimes_{F} K\right)^{G} \simeq V$, natural in $V$. Let $W$ be an object of $\operatorname{Vect}_{K, G}$. It suffices to show that the natural morphism $\phi: W^{G} \otimes_{F}$ $K \rightarrow W$ in $\operatorname{Vect}_{K, G}$ is an isomorphism. For this, it suffices to show that $\phi$ is a bijection.

Let $w \in W$. Then $w \in W^{H}$ for some open subgroup $H$. We may assume that $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$. Let $E=K^{H}$ and $G / H=\operatorname{Gal}(K / E)=\left\{1=\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{n}\right\}$. Let $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ be an $F$-linear basis of $E$. By the linear independence of characters (Lemma [.14.6), $\left(\sigma_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)_{i, j}$ is an invertible matrix. Thus there exists $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n} \in K^{n}$ such that $\sum_{i} b_{i} \sigma_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)=\delta_{1, j}$ (Kronecker delta). Then

$$
w=\sum_{j} \delta_{1, j} \sigma_{j}(w)=\sum_{i} b_{i} \sum_{j} \sigma_{j}\left(a_{i} w\right) .
$$

Note that $\sum_{j} \sigma_{j}\left(a_{i} w\right) \in\left(W^{H}\right)^{G / H}=W^{G}$. Thus $w$ belongs to the image of $\phi$. This proves the surjectivity of $\phi$.

Applying this to the $K$-vector space $W_{0}=\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$, we get a surjection $W_{0}^{G} \otimes_{F}$ $K \rightarrow W_{0}$. Since $W_{0}^{G}=0$, we have $W_{0}=0$. This proves the injectivity of $\phi$.
(One can also prove the injectivity of $\phi$ directly. Let $\left(v_{i}\right)$ be an $F$-linear basis of $W^{G}$. Let $w=\sum_{i} a_{i} v_{i} \in \operatorname{ker}(\phi), a_{i} \in K$ be a nonzero element with the least number of $i$ such that $a_{i} \neq 0$. We may assume that $a_{i_{1}}=1$. Note that $W^{G} \cap \operatorname{ker}(\phi)=$ 0 . Thus there exists $a_{i_{2}} \notin F$. There exists $\sigma \in G$ such that $\sigma a_{i_{2}} \neq a_{i_{2}}$. Then $\sigma(w)-w \in \operatorname{ker}(\phi)$ has a shorter expression in the basis $\left(v_{i}\right)$. Contradiction. This proves the injectivity of $\phi$.)

Example 3.8.2. Let $E / F$ be a finite separable field extension and let $K / F$ be a Galois extension containing $E$. The image of $E$ under the above functor can be described as follows: we have an isomorphism $E \otimes_{F} K \xrightarrow{\sim} \prod_{\sigma} K$ in Vect $_{K, G}$ carrying $a \otimes 1$ to $(\sigma(a))_{\sigma}$. Here $\sigma$ runs through $F$-embedding $E \rightarrow K$, and $G=\operatorname{Gal}(K / F)$ acts on the product by $\tau\left(b_{\sigma}\right)=\left(\tau b_{\tau^{-1} \sigma}\right)_{\sigma}$. The $G$-equivariance is clear. To see that the map is an isomorphism, note that, by the primitive element theorem, $E=$ $F(x) \simeq F[X] /(P(X))$, where $P(X)=\prod_{\sigma}(X-\sigma x)$.

## Central simple algebras and Galois cohomology

Let $K / F$ be a finite Galois field extension with group $G$ and let $A$ be a central simple $F$-algebra of degree $n$ that splits over $K$. Choose an isomorphism of $K$-algebras $f: A \otimes_{F} K \rightarrow M_{n}(K)$. This is not $G$-equivariant in general: if it is, then $A \simeq M_{n}(k)$. Let $G L_{n}(K)=M_{n}(K)^{\times}$. The adjoint action $\operatorname{Ad}(g): b \mapsto g b g^{-1}$ of $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(K)$ on $M_{n}(K)$ factors through a faithful action of $\mathrm{PGL}_{n}(K):=\mathrm{GL}_{n}(K) / K^{\times}$. By the Skolem-Noether theorem, for each $\sigma \in G$, there exists a unique $c_{\sigma} \in P G L_{n}(K)$ such that $\operatorname{Ad}\left(c_{\sigma}\right) \circ \sigma \circ f=f \circ \sigma$. For $\sigma, \tau \in G$, we have $c_{\sigma \tau}=c_{\sigma} \sigma\left(c_{\tau}\right)$. This leads to the following nonabelian generalization of the first group cohomology.

Definition 3.8.3. Let $G$ be a group and let $H$ be a group equipped with an action of $G$. A map $c: G \rightarrow H$ (written $\sigma \mapsto c_{\sigma}$ ) is called a crossed homomorphism if $c_{\sigma \tau}=$ $c_{\sigma} \sigma\left(c_{\tau}\right)$ for all $\sigma, \tau \in G$. We let $Z^{1}(G, H)$ denote the set of crossed homomorphisms $G \rightarrow H$. Note that $H$ acts on this set by $(h c)_{\sigma}=h c_{\sigma} \sigma\left(h^{-1}\right)$ for $h \in H, \sigma \in G$. We let $H^{1}(G, H)$ denote the set of orbits of this action. This is a pointed set, with the
orbit of $\sigma \mapsto e_{H}$ being the distinguished element. (Crossed homomorphisms in this orbit are of the form $\sigma \mapsto h \sigma\left(h^{-1}\right)$ and are called principal.)
Theorem 3.8.4. Let $K / F$ be a finite Galois field extension with group $G$ and let $\mathrm{CSA}_{n}(K / F)$ be the isomorphism classes of central simple $F$-algebras of degree $n$ that splits over $K$. The above construction gives an bijection $\Phi_{n}: \operatorname{CSA}_{n}(K / F) \xrightarrow{\sim}$ $H^{1}\left(G, \mathrm{PGL}_{n}(K)\right)$, carrying the class of $M_{n}(F)$ to the distinguished element of $H^{1}$.

The inverse of the map is given as follows. Given a crossed homomorphism $c: G \rightarrow \mathrm{PGL}_{n}(K)$, one applies Galois descent to $M_{n}(K)$ equipped with the Galois action given by $\sigma \mapsto \operatorname{Ad}\left(c_{\sigma}\right) \circ \sigma$ and get the central simple $F$-algebra

$$
A=\left\{b \in M_{n}(K) \mid \operatorname{Ad}\left(c_{\sigma}\right)(\sigma(b))=b, \forall \sigma \in G\right\} .
$$

The details are left to the reader.
Let $H$ be a group equipped with an action of a group $G$ and let $H^{\prime}$ be a normal subgroup of $H$ stable under the action of $G$. Let $H^{\prime \prime}=H / H^{\prime}$. Let $c: G \rightarrow H^{\prime \prime}$ be a crossed homomorphism. Choose a lifting of $c$ to a map $\tilde{c}: G \rightarrow H$. The map

$$
\begin{aligned}
G^{2} & \rightarrow H^{\prime} \\
(\sigma, \tau) & \mapsto \sigma\left(\tilde{c}_{\tau}\right) \tilde{c}_{\sigma \tau}^{-1} \tilde{c}_{\sigma}
\end{aligned}
$$

measures the failure of $c$ be a crossed homomorphism. Assume that $H^{\prime}<Z(H)$. Then the map is a 2 -cocycle in the following sense.

Definition 3.8.5. Let $M$ be an abelian group equipped with an action of $G$. A map $f: G^{2} \rightarrow M$ is called a 2 -cocycle (or factor system) if

$$
\rho f(\sigma, \tau)-f(\rho \sigma, \tau)+f(\rho, \sigma \tau)+f(\rho, \sigma)=0
$$

for all $\rho, \sigma, \tau \in G$. A 2-coboundary is a cocycle given by $(\sigma, \tau) \mapsto \sigma\left(c_{\tau}\right)-c_{\sigma \tau}+c_{\sigma}$ for some map $c: G \rightarrow M$. We define the second cohomology group of $G$ with coefficient in $M$ by $H^{2}(G, M):=Z^{2}(G, M) / B^{2}(G, M)$, where $Z^{2}(G, M)$ and $B^{2}(G, M)$ denote the abelian groups of 2-cocycles and 2-coboundaries, respectively.

The above construction gives rise to a homomorphism $\delta: H^{1}\left(G, H^{\prime \prime}\right) \rightarrow H^{2}\left(G, H^{\prime}\right)$. Moreover, $\delta^{-1}(0)$ is the image of $H^{1}(G, H) \rightarrow H^{1}\left(G, H^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

For $K / F$ finite Galois of group $G$, we have $\delta_{n}: H^{1}\left(G, \mathrm{PGL}_{n}(K)\right) \rightarrow H^{2}\left(G, K^{\times}\right)$. (In fact, $H^{1}\left(G, \mathrm{GL}_{n}(K)\right)$ is trivial and $\delta_{n}$ is an injection.) The map $\mathrm{CSA}_{n}(K / F) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{Br}(K / F)$ carrying the class of $A$ to $[A]$ is clearly an injection. Moreover, $\operatorname{Br}(K / F)$ is the union of the images of $\mathrm{CSA}_{n}(K / F)$. It follows from the constructions that the maps $\delta_{n} \circ \Phi_{n}$ induce a map $\operatorname{Br}(K / F) \rightarrow H^{2}\left(G, K^{\times}\right)$, which is a group homomorphism.
Theorem 3.8.6. The group homomorphism $\operatorname{Br}(K / F) \rightarrow H^{2}\left(G, K^{\times}\right)$is an isomorphism.
Remark 3.8.7. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{Br}_{F}$. The order of $\alpha$ is called the period of $\alpha$ and denoted $\operatorname{per}(\alpha)$. The degree of a central division $F$-algebra in the class $\alpha$ is called the (Schur) index of $\alpha$ and denoted ind $(\alpha)$. Using the cohomological interpretation, one can show that $\operatorname{per}(\alpha) \mid \operatorname{ind}(\alpha)$ and they have the same prime factors.

We refer to [GS] for a proof of the theorem and a more complete exposition on finite-dimensional central simple algebras.

## Chapter 4

## Representations of finite groups

### 4.1 Group representations and modules

Let $F$ be a field and let $G$ be a group.
Definition 4.1.1. A (linear) representation of $G$ over $F$ is a pair $(V, \rho)$, where $V$ is an $F$-vector space and $\rho: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(V)$ is a group homomorphism. A morphism (or intertwining operator) from one representation $(\rho, V)$ to another $\left(\rho^{\prime}, V^{\prime}\right)$ is an $F$-linear map $f: V \rightarrow V^{\prime}$ such that the diagram

commutes.
We will often abbreviate $(V, \rho)$ to $V$ or $\rho$. Representations of $G$ over $F$ form a category $\operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G)$.

Our focus is on finite-dimensional representations. If $V$ is one-dimensional, we have a canonical isomorphism $F^{\times} \simeq \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(V)$, and $\rho$ is given by a homomorphism $G \rightarrow F^{\times}$. If $V$ is $n$-dimensional, choosing a basis $F^{\oplus n} \simeq V$ induces $\operatorname{Aut}_{F}(V) \simeq$ $\mathrm{GL}_{n}(F)$, under which $\rho$ becomes a homomorphism $G \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{n}(F)$.
Example 4.1.2. (1) The trivial representation of $G$ is $F$ equipped with the trivial action.
(2) Let $X$ be a set equipped with an action of $G$ and let $V=F^{\oplus X}$ be the free $F$-vector space with basis $X$. The action of $G$ on $X$ induces a representation of $G$ on $V$, called a permutation representation. In the case where $G$ acts on $X=G$ by left translation, this is called the regular representation.

Definition 4.1.3. The group $F$-algebra of $G, F[G]$, is the free $F$-vector space with basis $G$, and with multiplication extending the multiplication on $G$. The identity element is $1 \in G$.

Example 4.1.4. If $G=\langle g\rangle$ is a cyclic group of order $n$, we have

$$
F[G] \xrightarrow{\sim} F[X] /\left(X^{n}-1\right)
$$

carrying $g$ to the image $X$.

The group algebra is characterized by the following universal property. For every $F$-algebra, the inclusion $G \rightarrow F[G]$ induces a bijection

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{F}}(F[G], A) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Hom}_{\operatorname{Grp}}\left(G, A^{\times}\right) .
$$

Indeed, every homomorphism $\rho: G \rightarrow A^{\times}$extends uniquely to a homomorphism $F[G] \rightarrow A$ of $F$-algebras by linearity.

Applying the bijection to $A=\operatorname{End}_{F}(V)$, we get $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{A l g}_{F}}\left(F[G], \operatorname{End}_{F}(V)\right) \xrightarrow{\sim}$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{G r p}}\left(G, \operatorname{Aut}_{F}(V)\right)$. Thus an $F$-linear representation of $G$ on $V$ is the same as a (left) $F[G]$-module structure on $V$. Moreover, morphisms of representations are the same as morphisms of $F[G]$-modules. Thus, we have an isomorphism of categories $F[G]-\operatorname{Mod} \simeq \operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G)$.

The regular representation corresponds to the regular $F[G]$-module.
A subrepresentation is a $F[G]$-submodule. A quotient representation is a quotient $F[G]$-module. We say that a representation is irreducible if the corresponding $F[G]$ module is simple. They appear as quotients of the regular representation. Schur's lemma applies: $\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)$ is a division $F$-algebra for $V$ irreducible. The JordanHölder theorem applies to finite-dimensional representations. If $G$ is a finite group, there are only finitely many isomorphism classes of irreducible representations: they are the Jordan-Hölder factors of the regular representation. The Wedderdurn-Artin theorem, in the form of Example [3.6.9], is a powerful tool for studying them.

Direct sums of representations correspond to direct sums of $F[G]$-modules. We say that a representation is semisimple (or completely reducible) if the corresponding $F[G]$-module is semisimple. We say that a representation is indecomposable if the $F[G]$-module is. The Krull-Schmidt-Azumaya theorem applies to finite-dimensional representations: a finite-dimensional representation is a direct sum of indecomposable representations and the indecomposable factors are unique up to permutation and isomorphism (Corollary [2.6.17).

We have the following constructions.
Field extension Let $(V, \rho)$ be a representation of $G$ over $F$ and $E / F$ a field extension. Then $E \otimes_{F} V$, with $G$ acting trivially on $E$ and by $\rho$ on $V$, is a representation of $G$ over $E$. In terms of modules, $E \otimes_{F} V$ is a module over $E \otimes_{F} F[G] \simeq E[G]$.
Pullback Let $\phi: H \rightarrow G$ be a group homomorphism and $(V, \rho)$ be a representation of $G$ over $F$. Then $(V, \rho \circ \phi)$ is a representation of $H$ over $F$. In terms of modules, this corresponds to restriction of scalars via the homomorphism of $F$-algebras $F[\phi]: F[H] \rightarrow F[G]$. We $\phi$ is an inclusion (resp. quotient map), the pullback is called the restriction (resp. inflation) from $G$ to $H$.
Subspace of invariants Let $(V, \rho)$ be a representation of $G$ over $F$. Then $V^{G}=$ $\{v \in V \mid \rho(g) v=v, \forall g \in G\}$ is an $F$-vector subspace. We have $V^{G}=$ $\operatorname{Hom}_{F[G]}(F, V)$, where $F$ denotes the trivial representation of $G$. This is a kind of pushforward via $G \rightarrow 1$, which will be studied in more generality later. The constructions below use the following isomorphism of $F$-algebras

$$
\begin{aligned}
F\left[G_{1}\right] \otimes_{F} F\left[G_{2}\right] & \xrightarrow{\sim} F\left[G_{1} \times G_{2}\right] \\
g_{1} \otimes g_{2} & \mapsto\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

External tensor product Let $\left(V_{i}, \rho_{i}\right)$ be a representation of $G_{i}$ over $F, i=1,2$. Then $\left(V_{1} \otimes_{F} V_{2}, \rho_{1} \boxtimes_{F} \rho_{2}\right)$ is a representation of $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ over $F$, where $\left(\rho_{1} \boxtimes\right.$ $\left.\rho_{2}\right)\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)=\rho_{1}\left(g_{1}\right) \otimes \rho_{2}\left(g_{2}\right)$. In terms of modules, $V_{1} \otimes_{F} V_{2}$ is a module over $F\left[G_{1}\right] \otimes_{F} F\left[G_{2}\right] \simeq F\left[G_{1} \times G_{2}\right]$.
Tensor product Let $\left(V_{i}, \rho_{i}\right)$ be a representation of $G$ over $F, i=1,2$. Then $\left(V_{1} \otimes_{F} V_{2}, \rho_{1} \otimes \rho_{2}\right)$, obtained from $\rho_{1} \boxtimes \rho_{2}$ by restriction via the diagonal $G \rightarrow G \times G$, is a representation of $G$ over $V$. More explicitly, $\left(\rho_{1} \otimes \rho_{2}\right)(g)=$ $\rho_{1}(g) \otimes \rho_{2}(g)$. In terms of modules, this corresponds to restriction of scalars via the homomorphism $F[G] \rightarrow F[G \times G] \simeq F[G] \otimes_{F} F[G]$ given by $g \mapsto g \otimes g$. This is not to be confused with tensor product over the ring $F[G]$.
The following construction uses the isomorphism $G \xrightarrow{\sim} G^{\text {op }}$ given by $g \mapsto g^{-1}$, which induces an isomorphism $F[G] \simeq F\left[G^{\mathrm{op}}\right] \simeq F[G]^{\mathrm{op}}$.
Hom-space Let $(V, \rho)$ and $\left(V^{\prime}, \rho^{\prime}\right)$ be representations of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$ over $F, i=1,2$. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)$ is a representation of $G \times G^{\prime}:\left(g, g^{\prime}\right) \in G \times G^{\prime}$ acts by $f \mapsto \rho^{\prime}\left(g^{\prime}\right) \circ f \circ \rho(g)^{-1}$. In terms of modules, $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)$ is a module over $F[G]^{\mathrm{op}} \otimes_{F} F\left[G^{\prime}\right] \simeq F\left[G \times G^{\prime}\right]$.

- In the case where $G^{\prime}=1$ and $V^{\prime}=F, \operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(V_{1}, F\right)$ is a representation of $G$ over $F$, called the dual or contragredient of $(V, \rho)$ and denotes $(\check{V}, \check{\rho})$.
- In the case $G=G^{\prime}$, we can restrict further restrict via the diagonal $G \rightarrow G \times G$ and regard $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)$ as a representation of $G: g \in G$ acts by $\rho^{\prime}(g) \circ f \circ \rho(g)^{-1}$. We have $\operatorname{Hom}_{F[G]}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(V, V^{\prime}\right)^{G}$.

Remark 4.1.5. Except for the isomorphism $G \simeq G^{\mathrm{op}}$ and the last bullet point, all of the above apply to representations of monoids modulo suitable changes. The contragredient of a representation of a monoid $G$ is a representation of $G^{\mathrm{op}}$. Moreover, some of the above also holds with $F$ replaced by a commutative ring. (In fact, we have already encountered representations over $\mathbb{Z}$ in the definition of group cohomology.)

Theorem 4.1.6 (Maschke). Let $G$ be a finite group. Then $F[G]$ is semisimple if and only if $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$.

Proof. Assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$. Let $V$ be an $F[G]$-module and $W$ an $F[G]$-submodule. We have $V=W \oplus W^{\prime}$ for some $F$-vector subspace. Let $e: V \rightarrow W \hookrightarrow V$ be the idempotent and let $e^{\prime}=\frac{1}{\# G} \sum_{g \in G} g \circ \pi \circ g^{-1}$. Then $e^{\prime} \in \operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V),\left.e^{\prime}\right|_{W}=\operatorname{id}_{W}$, and $\operatorname{im}\left(e^{\prime}\right)=W$. Thus $V=W \oplus \operatorname{ker}\left(e^{\prime}\right)$ as $F[G]$-modules. Therefore, $F[G]$ is semisimple.

Conversely, assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \mid \# G$. Let $s=\sum_{g \in G} g$. We have $g s=s g=s$ for all $g \in G$, so that $s \in Z(F[G])$ and $s^{2}=\sum_{g \in G} g s=\# G \cdot s=0$. Thus $F s$ is a nilpotent ideal of $F[G]$, and $\operatorname{rad}(F[G]) \supseteq F s \neq 0$.

The study of representations of finite groups can be divided into

- Ordinary representation theory for the case char $(F) \nmid \# G$; and
- Modular representation theory for the case char $(F) \mid \# G$.

We will focus on the ordinary case and refer the reader to [S22, Part III] and [CR, Chapter XII] for the modular case, which is more involved.

### 4.2 Absolutely simple modules

Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra. For a field extension $E / F$, we write $A_{E}:=A \otimes_{F} E$. For an $A$-module $M$, we write $M_{E}:=M \otimes_{F} E$, which is an $A_{E}$-module.

Remark 4.2.1. If $M_{E}$ is a simple $A_{E}$-module, then $M$ is a simple $A$-module. In fact, if $0 \neq N \subsetneq M$ is an $A$-submodule, then $N_{E}$ can be identified with a nonzero proper $A_{E}$-submodule of $M_{E}$.

Definition 4.2.2. We say that $M$ is an absolutely simple $A$-module if $M_{E}$ is a simple $A_{E}$-module for every field extension $E / F$. In the case where $A=F[G]$, we say that the corresponding representation is absolutely irreducible.

Theorem 4.2.3. Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra and $M$ an $A$-module with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M<\infty$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $M$ is absolutely simple;
(2) $M_{\bar{F}}$ is simple for an algebraic closure $\bar{F}$ of $F$;
(3) $M_{E}$ is simple for every finite field extension $E / F$;
(4) $M$ is semisimple and $\operatorname{End}_{A}(M)=F$;
(5) The homomorphism $A \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(M)$ is surjective.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). Trivial.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. This follows from Remark 1.2 .2 .1 .
(3) $\Rightarrow$ (4). Let $\phi \in \operatorname{End}_{A}(M)$. Choose an eigenvalue $\lambda$ of $\phi$ as an $F$-linear endomorphism and let $E=F(\lambda)$. Let $\phi_{E}:=\phi \otimes \operatorname{id}_{E} \in \operatorname{End}_{A_{E}}\left(M_{E}\right)=D$. Since $M_{E}$ is simple, $D$ is a division ring by Schur's lemma. Since $\phi_{E}-\lambda$ is not invertible, we have $\phi_{E}=\lambda$ is a scalar. Thus $\phi$ is a scalar.
$(4) \Rightarrow(5)$. This follows from the Jacobson density theorem.
$(5) \Rightarrow(1)$. For every field extension, $A_{E} \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{E}\left(M_{E}\right)$ is surjective. The simplicity of $M_{E}$ follows.

Corollary 4.2.4. Let $A$ be a commutative $F$-algebra and let $M$ be an absolutely simple $A$-module with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M<\infty$. Then $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M=1$.

In particular, any absolutely irreducible finite-dimensional representation of a commutative group is one-dimensional.

Proof. By (5), $\operatorname{End}_{F}(M)$ is commutative, which implies $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M \leq 1$.
Corollary 4.2.5. Let $A$ and $B$ be $F$-algebras. Let $M$ be an absolutely simple $A$ module, $N$ an absolutely simple $B$-module, with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M<\infty, \operatorname{dim}_{F} N<\infty$. Then $M \otimes_{F} N$ is an absolutely simple $A \otimes_{F} B$-module.

We leave it to the reader to state the corresponding result for group representations.

Proof. Indeed, the surjectivity of $A \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(M)$ and $B \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(N)$ implies the surjectivity of $A \otimes_{F} B \rightarrow \operatorname{End}_{F}(M) \otimes_{F} \operatorname{End}_{F}(N) \simeq \operatorname{End}_{F}\left(M \otimes_{F} N\right)$.

Proposition 4.2.6. Let $A$ be a finite-dimensional $F$-algebra, $E / F$ a field extension, $N$ a simple $A_{E}$-module. Then there exists a simple $A$-module $M$ such that $N$ is a Jordan-Hölder factor of $M_{E}$.

Proof. Choose a composition series $0=P_{0} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq P_{n}={ }_{A} A$ with each $M_{i}:=$ $P_{i} / P_{i-1}$ a simple $A$-module. Then $\left(\left(P_{i}\right)_{E}\right)$ is a filtration of ${ }_{A_{E}}\left(A_{E}\right)$. By Schreier's refinement theorem, this can be refined into a composition series of $A_{E}\left(A_{E}\right)$. Since $N$ is a Jordan-Hölder factor of ${ }_{A_{E}}\left(A_{E}\right)$, it appears as a Jordan-Hölder factor of some $\left(M_{i}\right)_{E}$.

Definition 4.2.7. We say that a finite-dimensional $F$-algebra $A$ splits if every simple left $A$-module is absolutely simple. For a field extension $E / F$, we say that $A$ splits over $E$ if the $E$-algebra $A_{E}$ splits. (In the case where $A=F[G]$, we say that $G$ splits over $E$.)

Proposition 4.2.8. Let $A$ be a finite-dimensional $F$-algebra.
(1) A splits if and only if $A / \operatorname{rad}(A) \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}(F)$ for integers $r \geq 0, n_{i} \geq 1$.
(2) If $A$ splits, then $A$ splits over every field extension $E / F$.
(3) If $A$ splits over an algebraic extension $K / F$, then $A$ splits over $E \subseteq K$ finite over $F$. In particular, any finite-dimensional $A$-algebra splits over a finite extension of $F$.

It follows from (1) that the above definition is compatible with the definition of split central simple algebras. Moreover, a finite-dimensional simple $F$-algebra is split if and only if it is isomorphic to $M_{n}(F)$ for some $n \geq 1$.

Proof. (1) This follows from the Wedderburn-Artin theorem in the form of Example [3.6.9, together with condition (4) of Theorem 4.2 .3$]$.
(2) Let $N$ be a simple $A_{E}$-module. By Proposition 4.2 .6 , there exists a simple $A$-module $M$ such that $N$ is a Jordan-Hölder factor of $M_{E}$. Since $M$ is absolutely simple, $M_{E}$ is simple and $N \simeq M_{E}$. For every field extension, $K / E, N \otimes_{E} K \simeq M_{K}$ is simple.
(3) The second assertion follows from the first one applied to an algebraic closure of $F$. Let $M_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, M_{r}^{\prime}$ be a system of representatives of isomorphism classes of simple $A_{K}$-modules. Choose an $F$-linear bases $\left(a_{\ell}\right)$ and $\left(m_{i}^{(k)}\right)$ of $A$ and $\left(M_{k}^{\prime}\right)_{K}$ and write $a_{\ell} m_{i}^{(k)}=\sum_{j} c_{\ell, i, j}^{(\ell)} m_{j}^{(k)}$ with $c_{\ell, i, j}^{(k)} \in \bar{F}$. Let $E$ be the subextension of $K / F$ generated by $c_{\ell, i, j}^{(\ell)}$. Then $E / F$ is finite and we get $A_{E}$-modules $M_{k}$ with $M_{k} \otimes_{E} \bar{F} \simeq M_{k}^{\prime}$. Then $M_{k}$ is absolutely simple. Let $M$ be a simple $A_{E}$-module. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{A_{E}}\left(M, M_{k}\right) \otimes_{E} K \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{A_{K}}\left(M \otimes_{E} K,\left(M_{k}\right) \otimes_{E} K\right)$ is nonzero for some $k$. It follows that $M \simeq M_{k}$ as $A_{E}$-module.

Proposition 4.2.9. Let $A$ and $B$ be split finite-dimensional $F$-algebras. Then $A \otimes_{F}$ $B$ is split over $F$ and every simple $A \otimes_{F} B$-module is isomorphic to $M \otimes_{F} N$, where $M$ is a simple $A$-module and $N$ is a simple $B$-module.

In particular, if $G$ and $H$ are finite group split over $F$, then $G \times H$ is split over $F$ and every irreducible representations of $G \times H$ over $F$ is of the form $\rho \boxtimes \sigma$, where $\rho$ and $\sigma$ are irreducible representations of $G$ and $H$ over $F$, respectively.

Proof. Every simple $A \otimes_{F} B$-module $P$ is a Jordan-Hölder factor of ${ }_{A \otimes_{F} B} A \otimes_{F} B$, and hence a Jordan-Hölder factor of $M \otimes_{F} N$ for some simple $A$-module $M$ and some simple $B$-module $N$. By Corollary $4.2 .5, M \otimes_{F} N$ is absolutely simple. Thus $P$ is isomorphic to $M \otimes_{F} N$ for some $M$ and $N$ as above.

## Semisimplicity and field extensions

Proposition 4.2.10. Let $M$ be a semisimple $A$-module with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M<\infty$ and let $E / F$ be a separable extension. Then $M_{E}$ is a semisimple $A_{E}$-module.

Proof. Let $B$ be the image of $A$ in $\operatorname{End}_{F}(M) . \quad$ Then $\operatorname{dim}_{F} B<\infty$ and $B$ is a semisimple $F$-algebra by Propositions [3.5.2] and [3.5.4]. Then $M_{E}$ is a semisimple $B_{E^{-}}$ module by case (b) of Proposition 4.2 .1 d below. It follows that $M_{E}$ is a semisimple $A_{E}$-module.

Proposition 4.2.11. Let $A \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$ be a finite-dimensional semisimple $F$-algebra, where each $D_{i}$ is a division $F$-algebra. Let $E / F$ be a field extension. Assume that (a) each $Z\left(D_{i}\right) / F$ is separable or (b) $E / F$ is separable. Then $A_{E}$ is a semisimple E-algebra.

Proof. We have $A_{E} \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(\left(D_{i}\right)_{E}\right)$. Thus we may assume that $A=D$ is a division $F$-algebra. Then $D \otimes_{F} E \simeq D \otimes_{Z(D)} Z(D) \otimes_{F} E$. By the lemma below $Z(D) \otimes_{F} E \simeq \bigoplus_{j=1}^{m} L_{j}$, where each $L_{j}$ is a field. Then $D \otimes_{F} E \simeq \bigoplus_{j=1}^{m} D \otimes_{Z(D)} L_{j}$, where each $D \otimes_{Z(D)} L_{j}$ is a central simple $L_{j}$-algebra by Proposition [3.T.8].

Remark 4.2.12. It follows from the proof that if $A$ is a central simple $Z(A)$ algebra of degree $d$ with $[Z(A): F]<\infty$ and satisfying (a) or (b) above, then $A \otimes_{F} E \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} B_{j}$, where each $B_{j}$ is a central simple $Z\left(B_{j}\right)$-algebra of degree $d$. If, moreover, $E$ is a splitting field of $A$, then $A \otimes_{F} E \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} M_{d}(E)$. In this case, we have $m=[Z(A): F]$ by dimension count.

Lemma 4.2.13. Let $E / F$ and $K / F$ be field extensions with $E / F$ separable. Assume that (a) $E / F$ is finite or (b) $K / F$ is finite. Then $E \otimes_{F} K \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} L_{j}$ with each $L_{j}$ a separable field extension of $K$.

Proof. (a) We have $E=F(x) \simeq F[X] /(P(X))$ (either by the primitive element theorem or by reduction to the case of a simple extension), where $P(X) \in F[X]$ is a separable polynomial. Let $P(X)=\prod_{j=1}^{m} Q_{j}(X)$ with $Q_{j}(X) \in E[X]$ irreducible. Then $E \otimes_{F} K \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} K[X] /\left(Q_{j}(X)\right)$.
(b) We reduce easily to two cases: $K / F$ separable or purely inseparable. If $K / F$ is separable, then applying (a), we get $E \otimes_{F} K \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{m} L_{j}$ with $L_{j}$ separable over $F$. If $E / F$ is purely inseparable, then $E / F$ and $K / F$ are linearly disjoint (Example [3.L.3) and $E \otimes_{F} K$ is a field separable over $K$ by Remark [3...9.

Remark 4.2.14. By case (a), for any finite étale commutative $F$-algebra $A$ (Definition I.L.2.51), $A_{E}$ is a finite étale commutative $E$-algebra.

Proposition 4.2.15. Let $A$ be a finite dimensional $F$-algebra. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) For every field extension $E / F, A_{E}$ is semisimple.
(2) For an algebraic closure $\bar{F}$ of $F, A_{\bar{F}}$ is semisimple.
(3) $A \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$, where each $D_{i}$ is a division $F$-algebra with $Z\left(D_{i}\right) / F$ separable.
Under Condition (3), A splits over any Galois extension of $E / F$ containing all $Z\left(D_{i}\right)$, and, in particular, over a finite separable extension of $F$.

Proof. (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2). Trivial.
$(2) \Rightarrow(3)$. By the Wedderburn-Artin theorem, we have $A \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}\right)$. Moreover, $Z\left(\left(D_{i}\right)_{\bar{F}}\right) \simeq Z\left(D_{i}\right) \otimes_{F} \bar{F}$ by Proposition [3.T. 8 , so that $Z\left(A_{\bar{F}}\right) \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} Z\left(D_{i}\right) \otimes_{F}$ $\bar{F}$. If $Z\left(D_{i}\right) / F$ is not separable, then $Z\left(D_{i}\right) \otimes_{F} \bar{F}$ is not reduced (exercise), and we get a nonzero nilpotent element $x \in Z\left(A_{\bar{F}}\right)$. Then $A x \subseteq \operatorname{rad}\left(A_{\bar{F}}\right)$, contradicting the semisimplicity of $A_{\bar{F}}$.
$(3) \Rightarrow(1)$. This is case (a) of Proposition 4.2 .1 .
For the last two assertions, note that, in the proof of Proposition 4.2.] $Z(D) \otimes_{F}$ $E$ is a finite product of $E$ by Example $[.8 .2$ under the assumption that $Z(D) \subseteq E$ and $E / F$ Galois. Thus we may assume that $Z\left(D_{i}\right)=F$ for all $i$. Then it suffices to take $E / F$ to be a finite separable extension containing a maximal subfield of $D_{i}$ containing $F$ for each $i$.

Combined with Maschke's theorem, we obtain the following result.
Corollary 4.2.16. Let $G$ be a finite group satisfying $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$. Then $G$ splits over a finite separable extension of $F$.

## Linear independence of matrix coefficients

Theorem 4.2.17 (Frobenius-Schur). Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra, $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ absolutely simple left $A$-modules such that $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M_{k}<\infty$ for all $k$ and $M_{k} \not 千 M_{\ell}$ for $k \neq \ell$. Choose F-linear bases $\left(m_{i}^{(k)}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n_{k}}$ of $M_{k}$ and $\left(\check{m}_{j}^{(k)}\right)_{1 \leq j \leq n_{k}}$ of $\check{M}_{k}:=\operatorname{Hom}_{F}\left(M_{k}, F\right)$. Then the functions

$$
c_{i, j}^{(k)}: A \rightarrow F \quad a \mapsto \check{m}_{j}^{(k)}\left(a m_{i}^{(k)}\right),
$$

where $1 \leq k \leq r, 1 \leq i, j \leq n_{k}$ are $F$-linearly independent.
Proof. Let $M=\oplus_{k=1}^{r} M_{k}$. Let $B$ be the image of $A \operatorname{in} \operatorname{End}_{F}(M)$. Then $B$ is a finite-dimensional semisimple $F$-algebra by Propositions [3.5.2] and 3.5 .4 and $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ are pairwise nonisomorphic absolutely simple $B$-modules. By Theorem 4.2.3, $\operatorname{End}_{B}(M)=F^{r}$. By the Jacobson density theorem, $\lambda: B \rightarrow \prod_{k=1}^{r} \operatorname{End}_{F}\left(M_{k}\right)$ is a surjection. By the definition of $B, \lambda$ is an injection. Thus $\lambda$ is an isomorphism. (One can also deduce this from the Wedderburn-Artin theorem.) The functions $c_{i, j}^{(k)}$ factor through $B$ and form a basis of $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(B, F)$.

Corollary 4.2.18. Let $G$ be a group, $\left(V_{1}, \rho_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(V_{r}, \rho_{r}\right)$ absolutely irreducible finite-dimensional representations of $G$ over $F$. Choose $F$-linear bases $\left(v_{i}^{(k)}\right)_{1 \leq i \leq n_{k}}$ of $V_{k}$ and $\left(\check{v}_{j}^{(k)}\right)_{1 \leq j \leq n_{k}}$ of $\check{V}_{k}$. Then the functions

$$
c_{i, j}^{(k)}: G \rightarrow F \quad g \mapsto \check{v}_{j}^{(k)}\left(\rho_{k}(g) v_{i}^{(k)}\right),
$$

where $1 \leq k \leq r, 1 \leq i, j \leq n_{k}$ are $F$-linearly independent.
The corollary holds in fact for monoids and generalize the linear independence of degree one characters (Lemma L.I4.6).

## Characters

Definition 4.2.19. Let $A$ be an $F$-algebra and $M$ a left $A$-module with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M<$ $\infty$. We call the $F$-linear map

$$
\chi_{M}: A \rightarrow F \quad a \mapsto \operatorname{tr}(a, M)
$$

the character of $M$.
Remark 4.2.20. (1) Let $0 \rightarrow M^{\prime} \rightarrow M \rightarrow M^{\prime \prime} \rightarrow 0$ be a short exact sequence of $A$-modules. Then $\chi_{M}=\chi_{M^{\prime}}+\chi_{M^{\prime \prime}}$. In particular, $\chi_{M}$ depends only on the isomorphism class of $M$. Moreover, $\chi_{M}$ vanishes on $\operatorname{rad}(A)$, since the same holds for $\chi_{N}$ with $N$ simple.
(2) Let $[A, A] \subseteq A$ be the additive subgroup generated by elements of the form $a b-b a, a, b \in A$, which is an $F$-linear subspace (but not an ideal in general). Then $\chi_{M}$ vanishes on $[A, A]$.
Corollary 4.2.21 (Linearly independence of characters). The characters of the isomorphism classes of absolutely simple left $A$-modules $M_{k}$ with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M_{k}<\infty$ are $F$-linearly independent.

In particular, for absolutely simple left $A$-modules $M$ and $M^{\prime}, \chi_{M}=\chi_{M^{\prime}}$ if and only if $M \simeq M^{\prime}$.
Proof. In Theorem 4.2 .1$]$, we take $\left(\check{m}_{i}^{(k)}\right)$ to be a dual basis of $\left(m_{i}^{(k)}\right)$. Then $\chi_{M_{k}}=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n_{k}} c_{i, i}^{(k)}$.

The corollary has the following variant.
Proposition 4.2.22. Assume that $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$. The characters of the isomorphism classes of simple left $A$-modules $M_{k}$ with $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M_{k}<\infty$ are $F$-linearly independent. In particular, for left $A$-modules $M$ and $M^{\prime}, \chi_{M}=\chi_{M^{\prime}}$ if and only if $\mathrm{JH}(M)=$ $\mathrm{JH}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. It suffices to prove the first assertion. As in Theorem 4.2 .1 , we may assume that $\operatorname{dim}_{F} A<\infty$. By the Wedderburn-Artin theorem, $A=\oplus_{i=1}^{r} A_{k}$, where $A_{k}=\operatorname{End}_{D_{k}}\left(M_{k}\right), D_{k}=\operatorname{End}_{A}\left(M_{k}\right), M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ is a system of representatives of isomorphism classes of simple $A$-modules. Let $e_{k} \in A$ be the idempotent corresponding to $A_{k}$, so that $\left.e_{k}\right|_{M_{\ell}}=\delta_{k, \ell}$. Then $\chi_{M_{k}}\left(e_{\ell}\right)=0$ for $k \neq \ell$ and $\chi_{M_{k}}\left(e_{k}\right)=$ $\operatorname{dim}_{F} M_{k} \neq 0$.

Definition 4.2.23. Let $G$ be a group and $(V, \rho)$ a finite-dimensional linear representation of $G$ over $F$. We call the function

$$
\chi_{(V, \rho)}: G \rightarrow F \quad g \mapsto \operatorname{tr}(\rho(g))
$$

the character of $(V, \rho)$.
If $\chi=\chi_{(V, \rho)}$, then $\chi\left(h g h^{-1}\right)=\chi(g)$. In other words, it is constant on conjugacy classes of $G$. A function $G \rightarrow F$ satisfying this condition is called a class function (or central function) on $G$. We let ClassFunct $(G, F)$ denote the $F$-vector space of class functions $G \rightarrow F$. For $A=F[G]$, restriction via the embedding $G \hookrightarrow F[G]$ induces an isomorphism $\operatorname{Hom}_{F}(A /[A, A], F) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{ClassFunct}(G, F)$.

Warning 4.2.24. $\chi_{(V, \rho)}$ is in general nonconstant on the commutator subgroup $[G, G]$.

Remark 4.2.25. (1) If $\operatorname{dim}_{F} V=1$, then $\chi_{(V, \rho)}=\rho$.
(2) $\chi_{V}(1)=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V$. This is called the dimension (or degree) of $\chi_{V}$.
(3) $\chi_{\rho \otimes \rho^{\prime}}(g)=\chi_{\rho}(g) \chi_{\rho^{\prime}}(g)$.
(4) $\chi_{\check{\rho}}(g)=\chi_{\rho}\left(g^{-1}\right)$.
(5) Assume that $G$ is finite. Then $\chi_{\rho}(g)$ is a sum of roots of unity (in a separable closure of $F)$. Moreover, for $F=\mathbb{C}$, $\chi_{\rho}\left(g^{-1}\right)$ is the complex conjugate of $\chi_{\rho}(g)$.

Example 4.2.26. If $G$ is a finite group and reg denotes the regular representation of $G$, then $\chi_{\mathrm{reg}}(g)= \begin{cases}\# G & g=1 \\ 0 & g \neq 1 .\end{cases}$

Corollary 4.2 .21 and Proposition 4.2 .22 apply to characters as follows. The character of an (absolutely) irreducible representation is said to be (absolutely) irreducible.

Corollary 4.2.27. Let $G$ be a group. The absolutely irreducible characters of $G$ over $F$ are $F$-linearly independent. If $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$, then the irreducible characters of $G$ over $F$ are $F$-linearly independent and finite-dimensional representations $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ satisfy $\chi_{V}=\chi_{V^{\prime}}$ if and only $\mathrm{JH}(V) \simeq \mathrm{JH}\left(V^{\prime}\right)$.

### 4.3 Characters of finite groups

Let $G$ be a finite group and $F$ a field.
Assumption 4.3.1. In this section, we assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$. By Maschke's theorem, this is equivalent to assuming that $F[G]$ is semisimple.

Proposition 4.3.2. Let $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$ be a system of representatives of irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$. Let $K / F$ be a field extension such that $K$ is a splitting field of $G$. Then $\left(V_{i}\right)_{K} \simeq \bigoplus_{j=1}^{t_{i}} W_{i, j}^{\oplus d_{i}}$, where $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}\left(V_{i}\right), t_{i}=\left[Z\left(D_{i}\right): F\right]$, $d_{i}^{2}=\operatorname{dim}_{Z\left(D_{i}\right)}\left(D_{i}\right)$, and $W_{i, j}, 1 \leq i \leq r, 1 \leq j \leq t_{i}$, form a system of representatives of irreducible representations of $G$ over $K$. Moreover, if $K / F$ is finite, then $t_{i} d_{i} \mid[K: F]$ for every $i$.

The number $d_{i}$ is called the Schur index of $V_{i}$.
Proof. By the Wedderburn-Artin theorem, $F[G] \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} A_{i}$, where $A_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{D_{i}}\left(V_{i}\right) \simeq$ $M_{n_{i}}\left(D_{i}^{\mathrm{op}}\right)$. Note that $A_{i}$ is a central simple $Z\left(D_{i}\right)$-algebra of degree $n_{i} d_{i}$. By Proposition [.2.5, $Z\left(D_{i}\right) / F$ is separable. Thus, by Remark [.2.].2, $\left(A_{i}\right)_{K} \simeq \prod_{j=1}^{t_{i}} M_{n_{i} d_{i}}(K)$. By Proposition [.7.35, $d_{i} \left\lvert\,\left[K: Z\left(D_{i}\right)\right]=\frac{[K: F]}{t_{i}}\right.$, where $Z\left(D_{i}\right)$ is regarded as a subfield of $K$ via the $j$-th embedding.

If $n_{i}$ denotes the multiplicity of $V_{i}$ in the regular representation of $G$ over $F$, then the regular representation of $G$ over $K$ takes the form $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} \bigoplus_{j=1}^{t_{i}} W_{i, j}^{\oplus n_{i} d_{i}}$, so that $\operatorname{dim}_{K} W_{i, j}=d_{i} n_{i}$, and $\# G=\sum_{i=1}^{r} t_{i}\left(d_{i} n_{i}\right)^{2}$.

Corollary 4.3.3. $\chi_{V_{1}}, \ldots, \chi_{V_{r}}$ are $F$-linearly independent. Moreover, $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid d_{i}$.
In particular, for irreducible representations $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ of $G$ over $F, \chi_{V}=\chi_{V^{\prime}}$ if and only if $V \simeq V^{\prime}$. We have already seen some special cases in the previous section.

Proof. We have $\chi_{V_{i}}=d_{i} \sum_{j=1}^{t_{i}} \chi_{W_{i, j}}$. Since $\chi_{V_{i}} \neq 0, \operatorname{char}(F) \nmid d_{i}$. Since $W_{i, j}$ are absolutely irreducible, $\chi_{W_{i, j}}$ are linearly independent.

Let $K / F$ be a field extension. We say that a representation $W$ of $G$ over $K$ can be realized over $F$ if there exists a representation $V$ of $G$ over $F$ such that $V_{K} \simeq W$.

Corollary 4.3.4. Let $K / F$ be a field extension such that $K$ is a splitting field of $G$. Then $F$ is a splitting field of $G$ if and only if every irreducible representation of $G$ over $K$ is realizable over $F$.

Proof. The "only if" part follows from Proposition 4.2 .6 . For the "if" part, there exist representations $V_{i, j}$ of $G$ over $F$ such that $\left(V_{i, j}\right)_{K} \simeq W_{i, j}$. Then $V_{i, j}$ is absolutely irreducible. Since $\chi_{V_{i, j}}=\chi_{W_{i, j}}$, we have $\chi_{V_{i}}=d_{i} \sum_{j=1}^{t_{i}} \chi_{V_{i, j}}$. By the previous lemma, $t_{i}=1$ and $V_{i} \simeq V_{i, 1}$. Thus $V_{i}$ is absolutely irreducible.

Next we strengthen the independence of characters. Let $\chi, \chi^{\prime}: G \rightarrow F$ be functions. We define

$$
\left\langle\chi, \chi^{\prime}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\# G} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g) \chi^{\prime}\left(g^{-1}\right) \in F
$$

This is a symmetric and $F$-bilinear form.
Theorem 4.3.5 (First orthogonality relation for characters). Let $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ be irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$. Then

$$
\left\langle\chi_{V}, \chi_{V^{\prime}}\right\rangle= \begin{cases}\operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)\right) & V \simeq V^{\prime} \\ 0 & V \npreceq V^{\prime} .\end{cases}
$$

Let $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$ be a system of representatives of the isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$. Then, by the Wedderburn-Artin theorem,

$$
\begin{equation*}
F[G] \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{End}_{D_{i}}\left(V_{i}\right) \tag{4.3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}\left(V_{i}\right)$. Then $1=\sum_{i} e_{i}$ with $\left.e_{i} \in \operatorname{End}_{D_{i}}\left(V_{i}\right) e_{i}\right|_{V_{j}}=\delta_{i, j}$.
Lemma 4.3.6. Let $V$ be an irreducible representation of $V$ and let $e_{V}$ be the corresponding idempotent element in the above decomposition. Let $n_{V}$ be the multiplicity of $V$ in the regular representation. Then

$$
e_{V}=\frac{n_{V}}{\# G} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{V}\left(g^{-1}\right) g
$$

In particular, $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n_{V}$.

Proof. Let $\chi_{\text {reg }}$ be the character of ${ }_{F[G]} F[G]$. Write $e_{V}=\sum_{h \in G} a_{h} h$. Then

$$
\chi_{\mathrm{reg}}\left(e_{V} g^{-1}\right)=\sum_{h \in G} a_{h} \chi_{\mathrm{reg}}\left(h g^{-1}\right)=a_{g} \# G .
$$

On the other hand, $\chi_{\mathrm{reg}}\left(e_{V} c\right)=n_{V} \chi_{V}(c)$. In particular, $\chi_{\mathrm{reg}}\left(e_{V} g^{-1}\right)=n_{V} \chi_{V}\left(g^{-1}\right)$. Thus $a_{g}=\frac{n_{V}}{\# G} \chi_{V}\left(g^{-1}\right)$. The last assertion follows from the fact that $e_{V} \neq 0$.

Proof of Theorem 4.3.5. By the lemma, $\left\langle\chi_{V}, \chi_{V^{\prime}}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{n_{V}} \chi_{V^{\prime}}\left(e_{V}\right)$. For $V \not \approx V^{\prime}$, $\chi_{V^{\prime}}\left(e_{V}\right)=0$. For $V \simeq V^{\prime}, \chi_{V^{\prime}}\left(e_{V}\right)=\chi_{V^{\prime}}(1)=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V$. Finally, $\operatorname{dim}_{F} V=$ $n_{V} \operatorname{dim}_{F} D$, where $D=\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)$.

Corollary 4.3.7. Let $W$ and $W^{\prime}$ be finite-dimensional representations of $G$ over $F$. Then $\left\langle\chi_{W}, \chi_{W^{\prime}}\right\rangle=\operatorname{dim}_{F} \operatorname{Hom}_{F[G]}\left(W, W^{\prime}\right)$.
Proof. Since $W$ and $W^{\prime}$ are semisimple, we may assume that they are irreducible. In this case, the equality is the first orthogonality relation.

Corollary 4.3.8. Assume char $(F)=0$.
(1) For finite-dimensional representations $W$ and $W^{\prime}, \chi_{W}=\chi_{W^{\prime}}$ if and only if $W \simeq W^{\prime}$.
(2) For $\chi=\sum_{V} m_{V} \chi_{V}$, where $\chi_{V}$ runs through irreducible characters and $m_{V} \in$ $F$, we have $m_{V}=\left\langle\chi, \chi_{V}\right\rangle / \operatorname{dim}_{F}\left(\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)\right)$.
(3) A finite-dimensional representation $W$ is absolutely irreducible if and only if $\left\langle\chi_{W}, \chi_{W}\right\rangle=1$.
Proof. (1) This follows from Corollary 1.2 .27.
(2) This follows from the theorem.
(3) This follows from Corollary 1.3 .7 .

Next we study the space of class functions.
Lemma 4.3.9. Let $H$ be a group. For each finite conjugacy class $C$ of $H$, let $s_{C}:=\sum_{g \in C} g \in F[H]$. Then the $s_{C}$ form an F-linear basis of $Z(F[H])$.

In other words, the map

$$
Z(F[H]) \rightarrow \operatorname{Map}(H, F) \quad \sum_{g} a_{g} g \mapsto\left(g \mapsto a_{g}\right)
$$

identifies $Z(F[H])$ with class functions with finite support.
Proof. Let $c=\sum_{g} a_{g} g \in F[H]$. Then $c \in Z(F[H])$ if and only if $c h=h c$ for all $h \in H$. Note that $h c h^{-1}=\sum_{g} a_{g} h g h^{-1}$. Thus $c \in Z(F[H])$ if and only if $a_{h g h^{-1}}=a_{g}$ for all $g, h \in H$. In other words, $c \in Z(F[H])$ if and only if $a_{g}$ is constant on every conjugacy class of $H$.

By ( 0.3 .1$), Z(F[G]) \simeq \prod_{i=1}^{r} Z\left(D_{i}\right)$. Let $s$ be the number of conjugacy classes of $G$, which is also $\operatorname{dim}_{F} \operatorname{ClassFunct}(G, F)$. It follows then from the lemma that

$$
s=\sum_{i=1}^{r}\left[Z\left(D_{i}\right): F\right] .
$$

We have proved the following.

Theorem 4.3.10. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $Z\left(D_{i}\right)=F$;
(2) $r=s$;
(3) The irreducible characters form an $F$-linear basis of $\operatorname{ClassFunct}(G, F)$.

These conditions are satisfied if $G$ splits over $F$.
For each conjugacy class $C$ of $G$, we let $\mathbf{1}_{C}$ denote the indicator function of $C \subseteq G$. Then $\left(\mathbf{1}_{C}\right)_{C}$ form a basis of ClassFunct $(G, F)$. For $G$ split over $F$, the transition matrix between the from the basis $\left(\chi_{V}\right)_{V}$ to the basis $\left(\mathbf{1}_{C}\right)_{C}$ can be given as follows.

Theorem 4.3.11 (Second orthogonality relation for characters). Assume that $G$ is split over $F$. Then for $g, h \in G$,

$$
\sum_{V} \chi_{V}(g) \chi_{V}\left(h^{-1}\right)= \begin{cases}\frac{\# G}{\# C} & \text { if } g, h \text { belong to the same conjugacy class } C  \tag{4.3.2}\\ 0 & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Here $V$ runs through isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$.

In other words,

$$
\sum_{V} \chi_{V}(g) \chi_{V}\left(h^{-1}\right)=\sum_{C} \frac{\# G}{\# C} \mathbf{1}_{C}(g) \mathbf{1}_{C}(h)=\frac{\# G}{\# C_{h}} \mathbf{1}_{C_{h}}(g)
$$

where $C$ runs through conjugacy classes of $G$, and $C_{h}$ denotes the conjugacy class of $h$. Moreover, $\# G / \# C_{h}=\# Z_{G}(h)$, where $Z_{G}(h)=\{g \in G \mid g h=h g\}$ denotes the centralizer of $h$ in $G$.

One way to prove the second orthogonality is via the following bimodule version of the Wedderburn-Artin theorem.

Theorem 4.3.12. Let $R$ be a semisimple ring. Then ${ }_{R} R_{R} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^{r} M_{i} \otimes_{D_{i}}^{\text {op }} M_{i}^{\prime}$, where $M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r}$ is a system of representatives of the isomorphism classes of simple left $R$-modules, $D_{i}=\operatorname{End}_{R}\left(M_{i}\right), M_{i}^{\prime}=\operatorname{Hom}_{D_{i}}\left(M_{i}, D_{i}\right)$.

Corollary 4.3.13. Assume that $G$ is split over $F$. Let $G \times G$ act on $F[G]$ by $\rho(g, h): x \mapsto g x h^{-1}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(F[G], \rho) \simeq \bigoplus_{V} V \boxtimes \check{V} \tag{4.3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V$ runs through isomorphism classes of irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$.

Proof of Theorem 4.3.11. This follows from evaluating the traces of $(g, h)$ on both sides of ( 4.3 .3$)$. Note that $\rho(g, h)$ permutes the basis $G$ of $F[G]$, so that $\operatorname{tr}(\rho(g, h))$ equals the cardinality of the fixed point set $\left\{x \in G \mid g x h^{-1}=x\right\}$, which equals the righthand side of (4.3.2).

Let us summarize some character formulas for $G$ split over $F$ : we have $r=s$, $n_{i}=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V_{i}, \# G=\sum_{i=1}^{r} n_{i}^{2}, \chi_{\text {reg }}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} n_{i} \chi_{i}$, and $\chi_{i}(1)=n_{i}$ (in $\left.F\right)$. Moreover, $\left\langle\chi_{i}, \chi_{j}\right\rangle=\delta_{i, j}$.

Example 4.3.14. Let $G=\Sigma_{3}$ with $\# \Sigma_{3}=6$. There are three conjugacy classes:

$$
\{e\}, \quad\{(12),(13),(23)\}, \quad\{(123),(132)\} .
$$

There are two obvious characters of dimension 1: $\chi_{0}=\mathbf{1}$ and $\chi_{1}=\operatorname{sgn}$. We denote the remaining irreducible character by $\theta$. Assume that $G$ is split over $F$. Then $6=1^{2}+1^{2}+n_{\theta}^{2}$, so that $n_{\theta}=2$. We deduce $\theta$ from $\chi_{\text {reg }}=\chi_{0}+\chi_{1}+2 \theta$. Here is the table of irreducible characters of $\Sigma_{4}$.

| $g$ | $e$ | $(12),(13),(23)$ | $(123),(132)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\# C_{g}$ | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| $\chi_{0}(g)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\chi_{1}(g)$ | 1 | -1 | 1 |
| $\theta(g)$ | 2 | 0 | -1 |

The character $\theta$ is the character of the obvious representation of $\Sigma_{3}$ on $V=\operatorname{ker}\left(F^{3} \xrightarrow{\Sigma}\right.$ $F$ ), called the standard representation of $\Sigma_{3}$, which must be irreducible. It follows that $\Sigma_{3}$ splits over any field of characteristic $\neq 2,3$.

The first orthogonality is the orthogonality of the rows of the character table, weighted by $\# C$. The second orthogonality is the orthogonality of the columns.

We have $V \otimes V \simeq\left(F, \chi_{0}\right) \oplus\left(F, \chi_{1}\right) \oplus V$. Indeed, if $V \otimes V \simeq\left(F, \chi_{0}\right)^{\oplus m_{0}} \oplus$ $\left(F, \chi_{1}\right)^{\oplus m_{1}} \oplus V^{\oplus m_{V}}$, then $\chi_{V}^{2}=m_{0} \chi_{0}+m_{1} \chi_{1}+m_{V} \theta$, which implies $m_{0} \equiv m_{1} \equiv 1$ $(\bmod \operatorname{char}(F))$ and $m_{V} \equiv 1(\bmod \operatorname{char}(F))$. We conclude by $m_{0}, m_{1}, 2 m_{V} \leq 4=$ $\operatorname{dim}_{F} V$ and $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2,3$.

Example 4.3.15. Let $G=A_{4}$ be the alternating group with $\# A_{4}=12$. There are four conjugacy classes:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{e\}, \quad C=\{(12)(34), & (13)(24),(14)(23)\}, \\
& \{(123),(134),(142),(243)\}, \quad\{(132),(124),(143),(234)\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume that $F$ contains a primitive cube root of unity $\omega$. Recall that $V=\{e\} \cup C$ is a normal subgroup of $A_{4}$. The quotient $A_{4} / V$ is cyclic of order 3 , and thus has three characters of dimension 1 . Inflation gives us three characters $\chi_{0}=\mathbf{1}, \chi_{1}, \chi_{2}$ of $A_{4}$ of dimension 1. Assume that $G$ is split over $F$. We denote the remaining irreducible character by $\theta$. Then $12=1^{2}+1^{2}+1^{2}+n_{\theta}^{2}$, so that $n_{\theta}=3$. We deduce $\theta$ from $\chi_{\mathrm{reg}}=\chi_{0}+\chi_{1}+\chi_{2}+3 \theta$. Here is the character table of $A_{4}$ :

| $g$ | $e$ | $(12)(34)$ | $(123)$ | $(132)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\# C_{g}$ | 1 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| $\chi_{0}(g)$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\chi_{1}(g)$ | 1 | 1 | $\omega$ | $\omega^{2}$ |
| $\chi_{2}(g)$ | 1 | 1 | $\omega^{2}$ | $\omega$ |
| $\theta(g)$ | 3 | -1 | 0 | 0 |

The character $\theta$ is the character of the obvious representation of $A_{4}$ on $V=\operatorname{ker}\left(F^{4} \xrightarrow{\Sigma}\right.$ $F$ ), which must be irreducible. It follows that $A_{4}$ splits over a field of characteristic $\neq 2,3$ if and only if it contains a primitive cube root of unity.

Example 4.3.16. Let $G=D_{n}$ be the dihedral group of order $2 n$. We have $D_{n}=$ $\langle r, s| r^{n}=1, s^{2}=1$, srs $\left.=r^{-1}\right\rangle$. Every element of $D_{n}$ is of the form $r^{k}$ or $s r^{k}$, for $0 \leq k \leq n-1$. Assume that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$. Then, for $h \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have representations $\rho_{h}: D_{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}_{2}(F)$ given by

$$
\rho_{h}\left(r^{k}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\zeta^{h k} & 0 \\
0 & \zeta^{-h k}
\end{array}\right), \quad \rho_{h}\left(s r^{k}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \zeta^{-h k} \\
\zeta^{h k} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

For $0<h<n / 2, \zeta^{h} \neq \zeta^{-h}$, so that the only lines stabilized by $\rho_{h}(r)$ are the coordinate axes, which are not stabilized by $\rho^{h}(s)$. Thus, for such $h, \rho_{h}$ is (absolutely) irreducible. We let $\chi_{h}$ denotes the character of $\rho_{h}$. The $\chi_{h}$ for $0<h<n / 2$ are distinct. In fact, if $a=\zeta^{h}+\zeta^{-h}$, then $\zeta^{h}$ and $\zeta^{-h}$ are the only roots of $X^{2}-a X+1$. There are two characters of dimension $1, \psi_{1}$ and $\psi_{2}$.

For $n$ odd, these exhaust all the irreducible representations up to isomorphism: $2 \times 1^{2}+\frac{n-1}{2} \times 2^{2}=2 n$. For $n$ even, there are two more characters of dimension 1 , $\psi_{3}$ and $\psi_{4}: 4 \times 1^{2}+\left(\frac{n}{2}-1\right) \times 2^{2}=2 n$. Here is the character table for $D_{n}$ :

| $g$ | $r^{k}$ | $s r^{k}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\psi_{1}(g)$ | 1 |
|  | $\psi_{2}(g)$ | 1 |
| $(n$ even $)$ | $\psi_{3}(g)$ | $(-1)^{k}$ |
| $(n$ even $)$ | $\psi_{4}(g)$ | $(-1)^{k}$ |
|  | $\chi_{h}(g)$ | $\zeta^{k h}+\zeta^{k}$ |
|  | $(-1)^{k+1}$ | 0 |

We have $\left(F^{2}, \rho_{0}\right) \simeq\left(F, \psi_{1}\right) \oplus\left(F, \psi_{2}\right)$ and, if $n$ is even, $\left(F^{2}, \rho_{n / 2}\right) \simeq\left(F, \psi_{3}\right) \oplus\left(F, \psi_{4}\right)$.
Some other useful forms of $\rho_{h}$ are (assuming $\zeta^{h} \neq \pm 1$ for $\rho_{h}^{\prime \prime}$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rho_{h}^{\prime}\left(r^{k}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \frac{2 h k \pi}{\sin \frac{2 h k \pi}{n}} & -\operatorname{cin} \frac{2 h k \pi}{2 h k \pi}
\end{array}\right), & \rho_{h}^{\prime}\left(s r^{k}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \frac{2 h k \pi}{n} & -\sin \frac{2 h k \pi}{2 h} \\
-\sin \frac{2 h k \pi}{n} & -\cos \frac{2 h k \pi}{n}
\end{array}\right) ; \\
\rho_{h}^{\prime \prime}(r) & =\left(\begin{array}{lll}
0 & -1 & \zeta^{h} \\
1 & \zeta^{-h}+\zeta^{-h}
\end{array}\right), & \rho_{h}^{\prime \prime}(s) & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $\cos \frac{2 \pi}{n}=\frac{\zeta+\zeta^{-1}}{2}$ and $\sin \frac{2 \pi}{n}=\frac{\zeta-\zeta^{-1}}{2 i}$. We have

$$
\rho_{h}^{\prime \prime}(g)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -\zeta^{h} \\
-\zeta^{h} & 1
\end{array}\right) \rho_{h}(g)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -\zeta^{h} \\
-\zeta^{h} & 1
\end{array}\right)^{-1}
$$

for $g \in D_{n}$. It follows that a field of characteristic $\nmid 2 n$ splits $D_{n}$ if and only if it contains $\zeta+\zeta^{-1}$. In particular, $D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{4}$ split over any field of characteristic $\neq 2$ and $D_{3}, D_{6}$ split over any field of characteristic $\neq 2,3$.

### 4.4 Induced representations

Remark 4.4.1. Let $f: S \rightarrow R$ be a morphism of rings. Restriction of scalars gives a functor $f^{*}: R$-Mod $\rightarrow S$-Mod, which admits a left adjoint

$$
f_{!}: S \text {-Mod } \rightarrow R \text {-Mod, } \quad{ }_{S} M \mapsto R \otimes_{S} M
$$

and a right adjoint

$$
f_{*}: S \text {-Mod } \rightarrow R \text {-Mod, } \quad{ }_{S} M \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(R, M)
$$

For ${ }_{S} M$ and ${ }_{R} N$, we have isomorphisms, special cases of Remark [2.8.1]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(R \otimes_{S} M, N\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(M, f^{*} N\right) \\
\alpha & \mapsto(m \mapsto \alpha(1 \otimes m)) \\
(r \otimes m \mapsto r \beta(m)) & \leftrightarrow \beta \\
\operatorname{Hom}_{S}\left(f^{*} N, M\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{R}\left(N, \operatorname{Hom}_{S}(R, M)\right) \\
\alpha & \mapsto(n \mapsto(r \mapsto \alpha(r n)) \\
(n \mapsto \beta(n)(1)) & \leftrightarrow \beta .
\end{aligned}
$$

We fix a field $F$. Let $\phi: H \rightarrow G$ be a homomorphism of groups, inducing a homomorphism of $F$-algebras $F[\phi]: F[H] \rightarrow F[G]$. Translating the above into the language of representations, the pullback functor $\phi^{*}: \boldsymbol{\operatorname { R e p }}_{F}(G) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { R e p }}_{F}(H)$ admits a left adjoint

$$
\phi_{!}: \operatorname{Rep}_{F}(H) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { R e p }}_{F}(G), \quad V \mapsto F[G] \otimes_{F[H]} V
$$

and a right adjoint

$$
\phi_{*}: \boldsymbol{\operatorname { R e p }}_{F}(H) \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\operatorname { R e p }}_{F}(G), \quad V \mapsto \operatorname{Hom}_{F[H]}(F[G], V)
$$

Proposition 4.4.2 (Frobenius reciprocity). Let $V$ and $W$ be representations of $H$ and $G$ over $F$, respectively. Then we have canonical isomorphisms

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Hom}_{F[G]}\left(\phi_{!} V, W\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{F[H]}\left(V, \phi^{*} W\right), \\
\operatorname{Hom}_{F[H]}\left(\phi^{*} W, V\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{F[G]}\left(W, \phi_{*} V\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

These functors are transitive in the following sense: For a sequence $P \xrightarrow{\psi} H \xrightarrow{\phi} G$ be homomorphisms of groups, we have $(\phi \psi)^{*}=\psi^{*} \phi^{*}$ by definition. Moreover, we have canonical isomorphisms $(\phi \psi)_{*} \simeq \phi_{*} \psi_{*}$ and $(\phi \psi)_{!} \simeq \phi_{!} \psi_{!}$.

Restriction via the inclusion $G \hookrightarrow F[G]$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\phi_{*}(V, \rho) \xrightarrow{\sim}\{f: G \rightarrow V \mid f(\phi(h) g)=\rho(h) f(g), \forall h \in H, g \in H\} .
$$

$G$ acts on the righthand side by right translation: $(g f)\left(g^{\prime}\right)=f\left(g^{\prime} g\right)$. In the sequel we will identify $\phi_{*}(V, \rho)$ with the righthand side.

Every $\phi$ can be decomposed into a surjective homomorphism, followed by an inclusion.

Remark 4.4.3. Assume that $\phi: H \rightarrow G$ is a surjective homomorphism. Let $K=$ $\operatorname{ker}(\phi)$. Then we have an isomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi_{*}(V, \rho) & \simeq V^{K} \\
f & \mapsto f(1) \\
(h \mapsto \rho(h) v) & \leftarrow v .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $V^{K} \subseteq V$ denotes the subspace of $K$-invariants. On the other hand, $F[G] \simeq$ $F[H] / I$, where $I$ is the ideal generated by $k-1, k \in K$. Thus $\phi_{!}(V, \rho) \simeq V_{K}:=V / I V$, which is called the space of $K$-coinvariants. Here $I V \subseteq V$ is the $F$-linear subspace generated by $\rho(k) v-v$ for $k \in K, v \in V$.

In the sequel we assume that $H$ is a subgroup of $G$ and that $\phi: H \hookrightarrow G$ is the inclusion.

Definition 4.4.4. We write $\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G}$ for $\phi^{*}, \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}$ for $\phi_{*}$, and $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}$ for $\phi_{!}$. We call $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ the induced representation and $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ the compactly induced representation. ${ }^{\text {( }}$

The terminology and notation is somewhat explained by the following.
Proposition 4.4.5. The homomorphism of representations of $G$

$$
\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \quad g \otimes v \mapsto\left(g^{\prime} \mapsto\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
g^{\prime} g v & g^{\prime} g \in H \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right)\right.
$$

is an injection and its image consists precisely of those maps $f: G \rightarrow V$ in $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ that are supported on the union of finitely many right cosets of $H$. In particular, if $H$ has finite index in $G$, then $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$.

Proof. The inverse from the subspace of maps finitely supported modulo $H$ to $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ is given by $f \mapsto \sum_{\bar{g} \in G / H} g \otimes f\left(g^{-1}\right)$, where $g$ is a representative of the coset $\bar{g}$.

Remark 4.4.6. Let $S$ be a set of representatives of $H \backslash G$. As $F$-vector spaces $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \simeq \operatorname{Map}(S, V)=V^{S}$ and $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \simeq V^{\oplus S}$. In particular, $\operatorname{dim}_{F} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)=$ $(G: H) \operatorname{dim}_{F}(V)$.

Example 4.4.7. $\operatorname{ind}_{\{1\}}^{H}(\mathbf{1}) \simeq F[H]$ is the regular representation. For every character $\chi$ of $H$ of dimension 1, we have a surjective homomorphism of $F$-algebras $F[H] \rightarrow F$ carrying $h$ to $\chi(h)$, whose kernel is the ideal generated by $h-\chi(h)$. This gives a morphism $\phi: \operatorname{ind}_{\{1\}}^{H}(1) \rightarrow(F, \chi)$ of representations of $H$, corresponding to the identity map $\mathbf{1} \simeq \operatorname{res}_{\{1\}}^{H} \chi$ by Frobenius reciprocity. The morphism $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\phi): \operatorname{ind}_{\{1\}}^{G}(\mathbf{1}) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi)$ can be identified the projection $F[G] \rightarrow F[G] / \sum_{h \in H} F[G](h-\chi(h))$. In particular, for $\chi=1, \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\mathbf{1}) \simeq F[G] / \sum_{h \in H} F[G](h-1)$ is the permutation representation associated to the action of $G$ on $G / H$.

Dually the identity map $\operatorname{res}_{\{1\}}^{H} \chi \simeq 1$ induces by Frobenius reciprocity a morphism of representations $\psi:(F, \chi) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ind}_{\{1\}}^{H} \chi$. Assume that $H$ is finite. Identifying $\operatorname{Ind}_{\{1\}}^{H} \chi$ with $F[H]$, we have $e_{\chi}:=\psi(1)=\sum_{h \in H} \chi\left(h^{-1}\right) h \in F[H]$. We have $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi) \simeq$ $F[G] e_{\chi}$ carrying $g \otimes 1$ to $g e_{\chi}$, and the $\operatorname{morphism~}_{\operatorname{ind}}^{H} G(\psi): \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi) \rightarrow \operatorname{ind}_{\{1\}}^{G}(\mathbf{1})$ can be identified with the inclusion $F[G] e_{\chi} \hookrightarrow F[G]$. The composition $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi) \rightarrow$ $F[G] \rightarrow \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\chi)$ is multiplication by $\# H$.

Proposition 4.4.8. Let $W$ be an irreducible representation of $G$ and $V$ a subrepresentation (resp. quotient) of $\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G}(W)$. Then $W$ is a quotient of $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ (resp. a subrepresentation of $\left.\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)\right)$.

[^4]Proof. If $V$ is a subrepresentation of $\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G}(W)$, then, by Frobenius reciprocity, we have a nonzero homomorphism $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \rightarrow W$, which must be surjective by the irreducibility of $W$. On the other hand, if $V$ is a quotient of $\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G}(W)$, then, by Frobenius reciprocity, we have a nonzero homomorphism $W \rightarrow \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$, which must be an injection.

Corollary 4.4.9. Assume that $H$ is an abelian subgroup of $G$ with $(G: H)=$ $d<\infty$ and $F$ is a splitting field for $H$. Then every finite-dimensional irreducible representation $W$ of $G$ over $F$ has dimension $\leq d$.

Proof. Let $V$ be an irreducible subrepresentation of $\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G}(W)$. Then $\operatorname{dim}_{F} V=1$ by Corollary 4.2 .4 and $\operatorname{dim}_{F} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)=d$. By the proposition, $W$ is a quotient of $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$, so that $\operatorname{dim}_{F} W \leq \operatorname{dim}_{F} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)=d$.

We described the restrictions of the induced representations to $\{1\}$ in Remark 4.4.6). Next we describe the restriction of the induced representation to more general subgroups. It is convenient to introduce the following.

Notation 4.4.10. For $g \in G$, let $c_{g}: H^{g}:=g^{-1} H g \rightarrow H$ be the homomorphism given by $h \mapsto g h g^{-1}$. For a representation ( $\left.V, \rho\right)$ of $H$, we let $\left(V^{g}, \rho^{g}\right)$ denote $c_{g}^{*}(V, \rho)$.

Theorem 4.4.11 (Mackey). Let $H$ and $K$ be subgroups of $G$ and let $(V, \rho)$ be a representation of $H$ over $F$. Then we have isomorphisms of representations of $K$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{res}_{K}^{G} \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V) & \sim \\
\operatorname{res}_{K}^{G} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) & \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} \prod_{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G / K} \operatorname{Tnd}_{H^{g} \cap K}^{K} \operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap K}^{H^{g}}\left(V^{g}\right), \\
f & \mapsto\left(f_{g}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $g \in G$ is any representative of the double coset $\bar{g}$, and $f_{g}: K \rightarrow V$ is given by $k \mapsto f(g k)$.

Proof. The inverse sends $\left(f_{g}\right)$ to $f: G \rightarrow V$ with $f(h g k)=\rho(h) f_{g}(k)$ for $h \in H$, $K \in K$.

Remark 4.4.12. To a group $G$, we associate a category $\mathbf{B} G$ with one object $*$ and with $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbf{B} G}(*)=G$. The category $\operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G)$ can be identified with $\operatorname{Fun}\left(\mathbf{B} G, \operatorname{Vect}_{F}\right)$. For a homomorphism of groups $H \rightarrow G, \phi^{*}$ corresponds to composition with the functor $\mathbf{B} \phi: \mathbf{B} H \rightarrow \mathbf{B} G$. Moreover, $\phi_{!}$and $\phi_{*}$ correspond respectively to left and right Kan extensions of functors in category theory.

For functors $F_{1}: \mathcal{C}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ and $F_{2}: \mathcal{C}_{2} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$, we let $\mathcal{C}_{1} \times{ }_{\mathcal{C}}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathcal{C}_{2}$ denote the homotopy fiber product: the objects are triples ( $\left.X_{1}, X_{2}, \alpha\right)$, where $X_{i}$ is an object of $\mathcal{C}_{i}$ and $\alpha: F_{1} X_{1} \xrightarrow{\sim} F_{2} X_{2}$ is an isomorphism in $\mathcal{C}$; a morphism $\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \alpha\right) \rightarrow\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \beta\right)$ is an pair $\left(f_{1}, f_{2}\right)$ with $f_{i}: X_{i} \rightarrow Y_{i}$ in $\mathcal{C}_{i}$ such that $\beta F_{1}\left(f_{1}\right)=F_{2}\left(f_{2}\right) \alpha$. Then $\mathbf{B} K \times{ }_{\mathbf{B}}$ 角 $\mathbf{B} H$ is a groupoid, namely, a category in which all morphisms are isomorphisms. We have an equivalence of categories $\coprod_{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G / K} \mathbf{B}\left(H^{g} \cap K\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{B} K \times{ }_{\mathbf{B} G}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathbf{B} H$ with the
component at $\bar{g}$ carrying $*$ to $(*, *, g)$ and $k \in H^{g} \cap K$ to $\left(k, g k g^{-1}\right)$. Consider the square

commutative up to a natural isomorphism. We can rephrase Mackey's theorem in the following way: the natural transformations

$$
\psi^{*} \phi_{*} \rightarrow \phi_{*}^{\prime} \psi^{\prime *}, \quad \psi^{*} \phi_{!} \leftarrow \phi_{!}^{\prime} \psi^{\prime *},
$$

induced from the natural isomorphism $\psi^{\prime *} \phi^{*} \simeq \phi^{\prime *} \psi^{*}$ by adjunction, are natural isomorphisms. Such statements about adjoint functors are sometimes referred to as the Beck-Chevalley condition.

Corollary 4.4.13. Let $H$ be a normal subgroup of $G$. Then

$$
\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G} \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \simeq \prod_{\bar{g} \in G / H} V^{g}, \quad \operatorname{res}_{H}^{G} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \simeq \bigoplus_{\bar{g} \in G / H} V^{g} .
$$

Corollary 4.4.14. Let $G$ be a finite group with $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$ and let $H$ be a subgroup. Let $V$ be an absolutely irreducible representation of $H$ over $F$. Then $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ is absolutely irreducible if and only if for every $g \in G, g \notin H$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[H^{g} \cap H\right]}\left(\operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H^{g}}\left(V^{g}\right), \operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H}(V)\right)=0 .
$$

Proof. By Maschke's theorem and Theorem $\sqrt[L .2 .3]{ }$, $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ is absolutely irreducible if and only if $\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}\left(\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)\right)=F$. By Frobenius reciprocity,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}\left(\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)\right) & \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{F[H]}\left(\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V), V\right) \\
& \simeq \operatorname{Hom}_{F[H]}\left(\bigoplus_{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G / H} \operatorname{ind}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H} \operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H^{g}}\left(V^{g}\right), V\right) \\
& \simeq \prod_{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G / H} \operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[H^{g} \cap H\right]}\left(\operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H^{g}}\left(V^{g}\right), \operatorname{res}_{H^{g} \cap H}^{H}(V)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used Mackey's theorem. For $\bar{g} \in H \backslash G / H$, the factor is $\operatorname{End}_{F[H]}(V)=F$. Thus $\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}\left(\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)\right)=F$ if and only if all the other factors are zero.

Proposition 4.4.15. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$ of finite index and let $(V, \rho)$ be a finite-dimensional representation of $H$ over $F$. Then, for all $x \in G$,

$$
\chi_{\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)}(x)=\sum_{\substack{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G \\ \bar{g}=\bar{g} x}} \chi_{V}\left(g x g^{-1}\right)=\sum_{\substack{\bar{g} \in G / H \\ \bar{g}=\overline{\bar{g}}}} \chi_{V}\left(g^{-1} x g\right),
$$

where $g \in G$ is any representative of the coset $\bar{g}$.
Note that $\bar{g} x=\bar{g}$ if and only if $x \in H^{g}$. Moreover, $\chi_{V}\left(g x g^{-1}\right)=\chi_{V^{g}}(x)$. If $x$ is not conjugate to an element of $H$, then $\chi_{\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)}(x)=0$.

Proof. We have an isomorphism

$$
\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V) \xrightarrow{\sim} \prod_{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G} \operatorname{Map}_{H}(H g, V),
$$

where $\operatorname{Map}_{H}(H g, V):=\{f: H g \rightarrow V \mid f(h g)=\rho(h) f(g)\}$. Since $x$ permutes the factors, we have

$$
\chi_{\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)}(x)=\sum_{\substack{\bar{g} \in H \backslash G \\ \bar{g}=\bar{g} x}} \operatorname{tr}\left(x, \operatorname{Map}_{H}(H g, V)\right) .
$$

Moreover, we have an isomorphism of $H^{g}$-representations

$$
\operatorname{Map}_{H}(H g, V) \xrightarrow{\sim} V^{g} \quad f \mapsto f(g) .
$$

Indeed, for $x \in H^{g},(x f)(g)=f(g x)=f\left(g x g^{-1} g\right)=\rho\left(g x g^{-1}\right) f(g)$. This finishes the proof of the first equality. The second one is obtained by taking $g \mapsto g^{-1}$.

Remark 4.4.16. Dually we can also prove the character formula using the tensor product description of $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$. We have an isomorphism

$$
F[G] \otimes_{F[H]} V \simeq \bigoplus_{\bar{g} \in G / H} \bar{g} F[H] \otimes_{F[H]} V .
$$

Since $x$ permutes the summands, we have

$$
\chi_{\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)}=\sum_{\substack{\bar{g} \in G / H \\ x \bar{g}=\bar{g}}} \operatorname{tr}\left(x, \bar{g} F[H] \otimes_{F[H]} V\right) .
$$

Finally, we have an isomorphism of $g \mathrm{Hg}^{-1}$-representations

$$
V \xrightarrow{\sim} \bar{g} F[H] \otimes_{F[H]} V \quad v \mapsto g \otimes v .
$$

Indeed, for $x \in g H g^{-1}$, we have $x(g \otimes v)=g g^{-1} x g \otimes v=g \otimes\left(g^{-1} x g\right) v$.
Definition 4.4.17. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $G$ of finite index. For a class function $\chi: H \rightarrow V$, we define the induced class function $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G} \chi: G \rightarrow V$ by $x \mapsto$ $\sum_{\substack{\bar{g} \in G / H \\ x \bar{g}=\bar{g}}} \chi\left(g^{-1} x g\right)$.

The character formula for induced representations can be stated as $\chi_{\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)}=$ $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G} \chi$. We leave it to the reader to state and directly verify a version of Mackey's theorem for class functions.

Corollary 4.4.18. Let $G$ be a finite group with $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$ and let $H$ be $a$ subgroup of $G$. Let $\chi: H \rightarrow F$ and $\theta: G \rightarrow F$ be class functions. Then

$$
\left\langle\theta, \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G} \chi\right\rangle_{G}=\left\langle\operatorname{res}_{H}^{G} \theta, \chi\right\rangle_{H} .
$$

Proof. Up to replacing $F$ by an extension, we may assume that $F$ is a splitting field for $G$ and $H$. Then $\chi$ and $\theta$ are $F$-linear combinations of characters by Theorem $\boxed{0.3 .10}$ and we are reduced to the case of characters. We conclude by Frobenius reciprocity and Corollary $1+3.7$.

Example 4.4.19. Let $G=A_{4}, H=V$. Assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2,3$ and let $\chi$ be a nontrivial character of $V \simeq(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{2}$ of dimension 1 . Then $\operatorname{ind}_{V}^{A_{4}} \chi$ equals the character $\theta$ of Example 4.3.5.

Example 4.4.20. Let $G=D_{n}, H=\langle r\rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. Assume $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid 2 n$ and that $F$ contains a primitive $n$-th root of unity $\zeta$. Let $\phi_{h}$ be the character of $\langle r\rangle$ of dimensional 1 given by $\phi_{h}\left(r^{k}\right)=\zeta^{h k}$. Then $\operatorname{ind}_{\langle r\rangle}^{D_{n}} \phi_{h}$ equals the character $\chi_{h}$ of Example [4.3.]6. We note however that $\chi_{h}$ is the character of a representation that can be realized over the smaller field $F_{0}\left(\zeta+\zeta^{-1}\right)$, where $F_{0}$ denotes the prime field of $F$.

### 4.5 Representations of the symmetric group

Recall that any permutation $g \in \Sigma_{n}$ is a product of disjoint cycles. Up to adding cycles of length 1 , we may assume that every integer in $1, \ldots, n$ appears in one of the cycles. The cycle type of $g$ is the collection of lengths of the cycles, which is a partition of $n$ in the following sense.

Definition 4.5.1. A partition $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{r}\right)$ of $n$ is a collection of positive integers such that $\lambda_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{r}=n$. In this case, we write $\lambda \vdash n$.

Two permutations are conjugate in $\Sigma_{n}$ if and only if they have the same cycle type. Thus the conjugacy classes of $\Sigma_{n}$ are in bijection with partitions of $n$.

A partition $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{r}\right)$ can be visualized as a Young diagram with $\lambda_{i}$ boxes on the $i$-th row. For example, the Young diagram of $\lambda=(3 \geq 2)$ is ${ }^{\text {D }}$


A Young tableau of shape $\lambda \vdash n$ is the Young diagram corresponding to $\lambda$, with $1, \ldots, n$ filled in without repetition. For example the Young diagram (4.5.1) can be filled into the Young tableau

| 4 | 5 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 | 1 |  |
|  |  |  |

The group $\Sigma_{n}$ acts freely and transitively on the set of Young tableaux of shape $\lambda \vdash n$ by permuting the integers.

Two Young tableaux $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ are said to be row equivalent if for each $i$, the $i$-th row of $t$ and the $i$-th row of $t^{\prime}$ have the same set of integers. The row stabilizer subgroup of $t$ is $R_{t}<\Sigma_{n}$ consisting of elements $g \in \Sigma_{t}$ such that $t$ and $g t$ are row equivalent. Similarly, we can define column equivalence and column stabilizers. The latter is denoted by $C_{t}$. For the Young tableau $t$ in (4.5.2), $R_{t}=\Sigma_{\{2,4,5\}} \times \Sigma_{\{1,3\}}$ and $C_{t}=\Sigma_{\{3,4\}} \times \Sigma_{\{1,5\}}$.

Let $F$ be a field.

[^5]Definition 4.5.2. For a Young tableau $t$, we define the Specht module $S^{t}$ to be the image of the canonical morphism (Example 4.4.7)

$$
\operatorname{ind}_{C_{t}}^{\Sigma_{n}}(\operatorname{sgn}) \rightarrow F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right] \rightarrow \operatorname{ind}_{R_{t}}^{\Sigma_{n}}(\mathbf{1})
$$

of representations of $\Sigma_{n}$ over $F$.
Remark 4.5.3. Unwinding the definition, $S^{t}$ can be identified with $F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right] c_{t}$, where $c_{t}=e_{\operatorname{sgn}_{C_{t}}} e_{1_{R_{t}}}=\sum_{g \in R_{t}} \sum_{h \in C_{t}} \operatorname{sgn}(h) h g \in F[G]$. This element is called the Young symmetrizer.

For $t$ of shape $(n), c_{t}=\sum_{g \in \Sigma_{n}} g$ and for $t$ of shape $(1 \geq \cdots \geq 1), c_{t}=$ $\sum_{g \in \Sigma_{n}} \operatorname{sgn}(g) g$. For any $F$-vector space $V$, we discussed the effects of these two symmetrizers on the representation $V^{\otimes n}$ of $\Sigma_{n}$ above Proposition [3.L.20].

Theorem 4.5.4. Assume that $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n!$. Then each $S^{t}$ is absolutely irreducible and every irreducible representation of $\Sigma_{n}$ over $F$ is isomorphic to some $S^{t}$. Moreover, $S^{t} \simeq S^{t^{\prime}}$ if and only if $t$ and $t^{\prime}$ have the same shape. In particular, shape $(t) \mapsto\left[S^{t}\right]$ gives a one-to-one correspondence between partitions of $n$ and isomorphism classes of representations of $\Sigma_{n}$ over $F$.

Corollary 4.5.5. $\Sigma_{n}$ splits over any field of characteristic $\nmid n!$.
It is convenient to define a canonical representative of the isomorphism class corresponding to a partition $\lambda$ as follows. A row equivalence class of Young tableaux is called a tabloid. We denote the tabloid containing a tableau $t$ by $\{t\}$ and we visualize it by removing the vertical edges in the tableau. For example, for the tableau $t$ in (4.5.2), the tabloid $\{t\}$ is visualized as

| 4 | 5 | 2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 | 1 |  |

The group $\Sigma_{n}$ acts transitively on the set of Young tabloids of shape $\lambda \vdash n$ by $g\{t\}=\{g t\}$, with $R_{t}$ being the stabilizer of $\{t\}$. We let $M^{\lambda}$ denote the corresponding permutation representation. We have an isomorphism

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ind}_{R_{t}}^{\Sigma_{n}}(1) \xrightarrow{\sim} M^{\lambda}, \quad g \otimes 1 \mapsto g\{t\} . \tag{4.5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We define $e_{t}:=e_{\mathrm{sgn}_{C_{t}}}=\sum_{h \in C_{t}} \operatorname{sgn}(h) h \in F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right], v_{t}=e_{t}\{t\} \in M^{\lambda}$ for $t$ of shape $\lambda$, and $S^{\lambda}=\sum_{\text {shape }(t)=\lambda} F v_{t}$.
Lemma 4.5.6. For every $g \in G$, we have

$$
R_{g t}=g R_{t} g^{-1}, \quad C_{g t}=g C_{t} g^{-1}, \quad e_{g t}=g e_{t} g^{-1}, \quad v_{g t}=g v_{t} .
$$

Proof. The first (resp. second) equality follow from the fact that $h t$ is row (resp. column) equivalent to $t$ if and only if $g h t=\left(g h g^{-1}\right)(g t)$ is row (resp. column) equivalent to $g t$. It follows that $e_{g t}=\sum_{h \in C_{t}} \operatorname{sgn}\left(g^{-1} h g\right) g^{-1} h g=e_{t}$. Finally, $v_{g t}=$ $g e_{t} g^{-1}\{g t\}=g v_{t}$.

It follows that for any $t$ of shape $\lambda, S^{\lambda}=\sum_{g \in G} F v_{g t}=F[G] v_{t}$.

Proposition 4.5.7. The isomorphism ( 4.5 .53 ) induces an isomorphism $S^{t} \xrightarrow{\sim} S^{\lambda}$.
We call $S^{\lambda}$ the Specht module of shape $\lambda$.
Proof. By Example 4.4.7, $S^{t}=F[G]\left(e_{t} \otimes 1\right)$. Thus the image of $S^{t}$ under (4.5.3) is $F[G] v_{t}=S^{\lambda}$.

Example 4.5.8. For $\lambda=(n), S^{\lambda}=M^{\lambda}=1$. For $\lambda=(1 \geq \cdots \geq 1), M^{\lambda}$ is the regular representation, $C_{t}=\Sigma_{n}$ for any tableau $t$ of shape $\lambda$, and $S^{\lambda}=\operatorname{sgn}$.

For $\lambda=(n-1 \geq 1)$, we have a bijection from the set of tabloids of shape $\lambda$ to $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ carrying $\{t\}$ to its value on the second row. We denote the Young tabloid mapping to $i$ by $m_{i}$. Then $M^{\lambda}=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} F m_{i}$ with obvious action of $\Sigma_{n}$, and $S^{\lambda}$ is spanned by $m_{i}-m_{j}$. In other words, $S^{\lambda}$ can be identified with $\operatorname{ker}\left(F^{n} \xrightarrow{\Sigma} F\right)$, which is called the standard representation of $\Sigma_{n}$ and denoted by std if $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n!$. Note that $\chi_{M^{\lambda}}(g)$ equals the number of fixed points of $g$ on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$, and $\chi_{S^{\lambda}}(g)=$ $\chi_{M^{\lambda}}(g)-1$.

In general, $\chi_{M^{\lambda}}(g)$ is the number Young tabloids of shape $\lambda$ fixed by $g$.
Remark 4.5.9. If $\lambda \vdash n$ and $\lambda^{\prime}$ denotes the transpose (or conjugate) partition of $\lambda$ corresponding to the transposed Young diagram, then $S^{\lambda^{\prime}} \simeq \operatorname{sgn} \otimes\left(S^{\lambda}\right)^{\vee}$. Indeed, for any finite group $G$ and $c=\sum_{g \in G} a_{g} g \in F[G]$, we have a commutative diagram

where $f(g)=g^{\vee},\left(g^{\vee}\right)_{g \in G}$ is a dual basis of $G, c^{*}=\sum_{g \in G} a_{g} g^{-1}$, and $\phi_{c}$ is right multiplication by $c$. Thus $\operatorname{im}\left(\phi_{c^{*}}\right) \simeq \operatorname{im}\left(\phi_{c}^{\vee}\right)$. Moreover, for $G=\Sigma_{n}, \operatorname{im}\left(\phi_{c^{-}}\right) \simeq$ $\operatorname{sgn} \otimes \operatorname{im}\left(\phi_{c}\right)$, where $c^{-}=\sum_{g \in \Sigma_{n}} \operatorname{sgn}(g) a_{g} g$. If $t$ is a tableau and $t^{\prime}$ denotes its transpose, then $c^{t^{\prime}}=\left(c_{t}^{*}\right)^{-}$.

Since every $g \in \Sigma_{n}$ is conjugate to $g^{-1}$, we have $\left(S^{\lambda}\right)^{\vee} \simeq S^{\lambda}$ if $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid n$ ! (exercise).

Example 4.5.10. Here is the character table of $\Sigma_{4}$ (assuming $\left.\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2,3\right)$.

|  | $g$ | $e$ | (12) | (123) | (1234) | (12)(34) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\# C_{g}$ | 1 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 3 |
| $\ldots$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 目 | sgn | 1 | -1 | 1 | -1 | 1 |
| $\pm$ | $\chi_{\text {std }}$ | 3 | 1 | 0 | -1 | -1 |
|  | $\operatorname{sgn} \cdot \chi_{\text {std }}$ | 3 | -1 | 0 | 1 | -1 |
|  | $\chi$ | 2 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 2 |

Here $\chi$ is obtained by inflation from the standard representation of $\Sigma_{3}$ via $\Sigma_{4} \rightarrow$ $\Sigma_{4} / V \simeq \Sigma_{3}$.

We will first prove the absolute irreducibility of $S^{\lambda}$.

Lemma 4.5.11. Let $t$ be a tableau with $n$ boxes. For every transposition $h \in C_{t}$, $e_{t} \in F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right](1-h)$. If $h \in C_{t} \cap R_{s}$ is a transposition for a tableau s with $n$ boxes, then $e_{t}\{s\}=0$.

Proof. Let $\left(h_{i}\right)$ be a system of representatives of $C_{t} /\langle h\rangle$. Then

$$
e_{t}=\sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}\left(h_{i}\right) h_{i}-\sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}\left(h_{i}\right) h_{i} h=\sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}\left(h_{i}\right) h_{i}(1-h) .
$$

For $h \in R_{s},(1-h)\{s\}=0$.
Lemma 4.5.12. Let $t$ be a tableau of shape $\lambda$. Then $e_{t} M^{\lambda}=F v_{t}$. Moreover, if $s$ is a tableau of shape $\lambda$ satisfying $e_{t}\{s\} \neq 0$, then $e_{t}\{s\}= \pm v_{t}$.

Proof. By the previous lemma, the integers in the first row of $s$ lie in different columns of $t$. Thus there exists $h \in C_{t}$ that carries these integers to the first row of $t$. Then the first rows of $\{h t\}$ and $\{s\}$ coincides. Proceeding row by row, we can find $g \in C_{t}$ such that $g\{t\}=\{s\}$. Then

$$
e_{t}\{s\}=\sum_{h \in C_{t}} \operatorname{sgn}(h) h g\{t\}=\operatorname{sgn}(g) e_{t}\{t\}= \pm v_{t} .
$$

This implies $e_{t} M^{\lambda} \subseteq F v_{t}$. The inclusion in the other direction is trivial: $e_{t}\{t\}=$ $v_{t}$.

Proposition 4.5.13. Let $\lambda \vdash n$. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\lambda}\right)=F \cdot \mathrm{id}$.
Proof. Let $t$ be a tableau of shape $\lambda$. For any $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\lambda}\right), \phi\left(v_{t}\right)=$ $e_{t} \phi(\{t\})=c v_{t}$ for some $c \in F$ by the previous lemma. We conclude by the fact that $S^{\lambda}=F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right] v_{t}$.

Corollary 4.5.14. Assume char $(F) \nmid n!$. Then $S^{\lambda}$ is absolutely irreducible.
Proof. We have $\operatorname{End}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\lambda}\right)=F \cdot$ id, and thus is either $F \cdot$ id or 0 . It remains to show that $S^{\lambda}$ is nonzero. Let $t$ be a tableau of shape $\lambda$ such that for every $i<j$, the integers on the $i$-th row are all smaller than the integers on the $j$-th row. Then the only element $h \in C_{t}$ satisfying $h\{t\}=\{t\}$ is $h=e$. It follows that the coefficient of $\{t\}$ in $v_{t}$ is 1 . In particular, $0 \neq v_{t} \in S^{\lambda}$.

To finish the proof of the theorem, we need a bit more combinatorial preliminaries.

Definition 4.5.15. For $\lambda, \mu \vdash n$ with $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{r}\right)$ and $\mu=\left(\mu_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{s}\right)$, we say that $\lambda$ dominates $\mu$ and we write $\lambda \triangleright \mu$, if $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} \geq \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mu_{i}$ for all $k \geq 1$. Here we convene that $\lambda_{i}=0$ for $i>r$ and $\mu_{i}=0$ for $i>s$.

The dominance relation on partitions of $n$ is a partial order. There is no dominance between $(4 \geq 1 \geq 1)$ and $(3 \geq 3)$.

Lemma 4.5.16. Let $\lambda, \mu \vdash n$ and let $t$ and $s$ be tableaux of shapes $\lambda$ and $\mu$, respectively. Assume that the integers in each row of slie in different columns of $t$. Then $\lambda \triangleright \mu$.

Proof. The first row of $s$ has $\mu_{1}$ integers, which are in different columns of $t$. Up to replacing $t$ by $h t$ with $h \in C_{t}$, we may assume that these numbers are in the first row of $t$. Thus $\lambda_{1} \geq \mu_{1}$.

The second row of $s$ has $\mu_{2}$ integers, which are in different columns of $t$. Up to replacing $t$ by $h t$ with $h \in C_{t}$, we may assume, without modifying the integers of the previous step, that these integers are in the first two rows of $t$. Then $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2} \geq \mu_{1}+\mu_{2}$. We continue in this way and conclude by induction.

It follows from Lemmas $4.5 . \square$ and 4.5.$\rfloor 6$ that if $e_{t} M^{\mu} \neq 0$, then $\lambda \triangleright \mu$.
Proposition 4.5.17. Let $\lambda, \mu \vdash n$ such that $\operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\mu}\right) \neq 0$. Then $\lambda \triangleright \mu$.
Proof. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\mu}\right)$. For every tableau of shape $\lambda, \phi\left(v_{t}\right)=e_{t} \phi(\{t\})$, which is zero unless $\lambda \triangleright \mu$.

Proof of Theorem 4.5.4. We have already seen that $S^{\lambda}$ is absolutely irreducible. Assume $S^{\lambda} \simeq S^{\mu}$. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{F\left[\Sigma_{n}\right]}\left(S^{\lambda}, M^{\mu}\right) \neq 0$. By the proposition, $\lambda \triangleright \mu$. By symmetry, $\mu \triangleright \lambda$. Thus $\mu=\lambda$.

It follows that the $S^{\lambda}$ represent $p(n)$ isomorphism classes of irreducible representations, where $p(n)$ denotes the number of partitions of $n$. The number of isomorphism classes of irreducible representations is less than or equal to the number of conjugacy classes, which equals $p(n)$. Thus the $S^{\lambda}$ exhaust all isomorphism classes of irreducible representations.

In the rest of this section we assume char $(F) \nmid n!$.
Corollary 4.5.18. Let $\mu \vdash n$. Then $M^{\mu} \simeq \bigoplus_{\lambda \triangleright \mu}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)^{\oplus m_{\lambda, \mu}}$ with $m_{\mu, \mu}=1$.
Proof. We have $M^{\mu} \simeq \oplus_{\lambda \vdash n}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)^{\oplus m_{\lambda, \mu}}$. By Proposition $4.5 . \rrbracket 1, \mu_{\lambda, \mu}=0$ unless $\lambda \triangleright \mu$. Moreover, $\mu_{\mu, \mu}=1$ by Proposition 4.5.1.3.

Young's rule says that $m_{\lambda, \mu}$ equals the Kostka number, the number of semistandard tableaux of shape $\lambda$ and type $\mu$. Given $\lambda, \mu \vdash n$, a generalized tableau of shape $\lambda$ and type $\mu$ is the Young diagram for $\lambda$ filled with integers, with the integer $i$ repeated $\mu_{i}$ times. ${ }^{[3]}$ A semistandard tableau of type $\mu$ is a generalized tableau of which each row is nondecreasing and each column is increasing.

For $\mu=(1 \geq \cdots \geq 1), M^{\mu}$ is the regular representation and $\operatorname{dim}_{F} S^{\lambda}=m_{\lambda, \mu}$ is the number of standard Young tableaux of shape $\lambda$. A standard Young tableau is a Young tableau with increasing rows and columns, namely a semistandard tableau of type $(1 \geq \cdots \geq 1)$. In fact, $v_{\lambda}, \lambda$ running through standard Young tableaux of shape $\lambda$, form an $F$-linear basis of $S^{\lambda}$. Another description of the dimension of $S^{\lambda}$ is the hook length formula (Frame-Robinson-Thrall):

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{F} S^{\lambda}=\frac{n!}{\prod_{x} h(x)}
$$

where $x$ runs through boxes of the Young diagram for $\lambda$ and $h(x)$ denotes the length of the hook with corner $x$, namely the number of boxes directly below or directly to the right of $x$, including $x$ itself.

We refer to [ST] for a proof of these facts and more on the symmetric group.

[^6]Example 4.5.19. Here is the character table of $\Sigma_{5}$ (assuming $\left.\operatorname{char}(F) \neq 2,3,5\right)$.

|  | $g$ | $e$ | (12) | (123) | (1234) | (12345) | (12)(34) | (123)(45) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\# C_{g}$ | 1 | 10 | 20 | 30 | 24 | 15 | 20 |
| mm | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 目 | sgn | 1 | -1 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 1 | -1 |
| Pm | $\chi_{\text {std }}$ | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | -1 |
|  | $\operatorname{sgn} \cdot \chi_{\text {std }}$ | 4 | -2 | 1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 1 |
|  | $\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}$ | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | -2 | 0 |
|  | $\chi_{V}$ | 5 | 1 | -1 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| \# | $\operatorname{sgn} \cdot \chi_{V}$ | 5 | -1 | -1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | -1 |

To obtain the last three lines, we use the formulas (exercise)

$$
\chi_{\mathrm{Sym}^{2} V}(g)=\frac{\chi_{V}(g)^{2}+\chi_{V}\left(g^{2}\right)}{2}, \quad \chi_{\wedge^{2} V}(g)=\frac{\chi_{V}(g)^{2}-\chi_{V}\left(g^{2}\right)}{2} .
$$

to compute $\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}$ and $\chi_{\text {Sym }^{2} \text { std }}=(10,4,1,0,0,2,1)$. Then

$$
\left\langle\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}, \chi_{\wedge^{2} \operatorname{std}}\right\rangle=1,\left\langle\chi_{\mathrm{Sym}^{2} \operatorname{std}}, \chi_{\mathrm{Sym}^{2} \mathrm{std}}\right\rangle=3,\left\langle\chi_{\mathrm{Sym}^{2} \text { std }}, 1\right\rangle=1,\left\langle\chi_{\mathrm{Sym}^{2} \text { std }}, \mathrm{std}\right\rangle=1 .
$$

Thus $\operatorname{Sym}^{2}$ std $\simeq \mathbf{1} \oplus \operatorname{std} \oplus V$ for a representation $V$ of dimension 5. The character $\chi_{V}=\chi_{\text {Sym }}{ }^{2}$ std $-1-\chi_{\text {std }}$ satisfies $\left\langle\chi_{V}, \chi_{V}\right\rangle=1$. Let us check that $\wedge^{2}$ std and $V$ are irreducible representations. This is clear if $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$. For $\operatorname{char}(F)=p$, writing $V \simeq \oplus_{i} V_{i}^{\oplus m_{i}}$ with $V_{i}$ irreducible, we get $\sum_{i} m_{i} n_{i}=5$ and $\sum_{i} m_{i}^{2} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, where $n_{i}=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V_{i}$. The only solution is $m_{i}=1$ for exactly one $i$ and $m_{i}=0$ for all other $i$. For $\wedge^{2}$ std, note that the only representations of dimension 1 are $\mathbf{1}$ and $\operatorname{sgn}$ (which follows for example from the fact the Jordan-Hölder factors of $\Sigma_{5}$ are $A_{5}$ and $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$, and $\left\langle\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}, \mathbf{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}\right.$, sgn $\rangle=0$. It follows that $\wedge^{2} \operatorname{std} \simeq \bigoplus_{i} V_{i}^{m_{i}^{\prime}}$ with $V_{i}$ irreducible and $n_{i}=\operatorname{dim}_{F} V_{i} \geq 2$. Then $\sum_{i} m_{i}^{\prime} n_{i}=6$ and $\sum_{i} m_{i}^{\prime 2} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, and the only solution is $m_{i}^{\prime}=1$ for exactly one $i$ and $m_{i}^{\prime}=0$ for all other $i$.

Since $\chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}=\operatorname{sgn} \cdot \chi_{\wedge^{2} \text { std }}$, it is the character of $S^{\lambda}$ for the only partition $\lambda=(3 \geq$ $1 \geq 1) \vdash 5$ satisfying $\lambda^{\prime}=\lambda$. Finally, we need to identify $\chi_{S^{(3 \geq 2)}}$ and $\chi_{S^{(2 \geq 2 \geq 1)}}$. One checks that $\chi_{M^{(3 \geq 2)}}$ equals $\chi_{\text {Sym }^{2} \text { std }}$. Indeed, the Young tabloids of shape $(3 \geq 2)$
fixed by $g$ are as follows.

| $e$ | (12) | (123) | (1234) | (12345) | (12)(34) | (123)(45) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| all 10 | $\begin{array}{lll} \hline 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 4 & 5 & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 4 \\ \hline 3 & 5 & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline 1 & 2 & 5 \\ \hline 3 & 4 & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{lll} \hline 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 4 & 5 & \end{array}$ | (none) | (none) | $\begin{array}{lll} \hline 1 & 2 & 5 \\ \hline 3 & 4 & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline 3 & 4 & 5 \\ \hline 1 & 2 & \end{array}$ | 1 2 3 <br> 4 5  |

Then $\chi_{M^{(3 \geq 2)}}=1+\chi_{\text {std }}+\chi$. It follows that $\chi_{S^{(3 \geq 2)}}=\chi_{V}$ and $\chi_{S^{(2 \geq 2 \geq 1)}}=\operatorname{sgn} \cdot \chi_{V}$.
Consider $V=M^{n-1 \geq 1}=\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} F m_{i}=\mathbf{1} \oplus$ std and $V^{\otimes n}$ (where $\Sigma_{n}$ acts on each copy of $V$ but does not permute the copies). Then $V^{\otimes n}$ contains the regular representation of $\Sigma_{n}$. Indeed, the map $F[G] \rightarrow V^{\otimes n}$ given by $a \mapsto a\left(m_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes m_{n}\right)$ is injective. It follows that every irreducible representation of $\Sigma_{n}$ is a factor of $\operatorname{std}^{\otimes k}$ for some $0 \leq k \leq n$.

One can show that $S^{(n-k \geq 1 \geq \cdots \geq 1)} \simeq \bigwedge^{k}$ std.
There are several other approaches to the representation theory of the symmetric group, of which we mention the recent one of Vershik and Okounkov based on the chain $\Sigma_{1}<\cdots<\Sigma_{n-1}<\Sigma_{n}[\mathrm{VO}]$.

### 4.6 Induction theorems

Definition 4.6.1. We say that a group $G$ is supersolvable if there exists an ascending chain of subgroups $\{1\}=G_{0}<\cdots<G_{n}=G$ of normal subgroups of $G$ such that $G_{i} / G_{i-1}$ is cyclic for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. We say that a group $G$ is nilpotent if there exists a finite central series: an ascending chain of subgroups $\{1\}=G_{0}<\cdots<G_{n}=G$ of normal subgroups of $G$ such that $G_{i} / G_{i-1} \subseteq Z\left(G / G_{i-1}\right)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Remark 4.6.2. (1) A supersolvable group is clearly solvable.
(2) A central extension of a supersolvable group by a finite abelian group is supersolvable. It follows that a finite nilpotent group is supersolvable.

Example 4.6.3. (1) Any abelian group is nilpotent.
(2) Any $p$-group is nilpotent. For this, it suffices to show that for every nontrivial $p$-group $G$ has nontrivial center. Consider the conjugation action of $G$ on $G$. The cardinality of each orbit is a power of $p$. Thus the cardinality of the fixed point set $Z(G)$ is congruent to $\# G$ modulo $p$. In other words, $p \mid \# Z(G)$.
(3) $D_{n}$ is supersolvable: $\langle r\rangle<D_{n}$. However, $D_{3}$ is not nilpotent: $Z\left(D_{3}\right)=\{1\}$.
(4) $A_{4}$ is solvable but not supersolvable.

Theorem 4.6.4. Let $G$ be a finite supersolvable group. let $F$ be a field $\operatorname{char}(F) \neq$ $\# G$, splitting all subgroups of $G$. Then every irreducible representation of $G$ over $F$ is induced from a 1-dimensional representation of some subgroup.

Lemma 4.6.5. Let $G$ be a nonabelian supersolvable group. There exists a normal abelian subgroup $N$ of $G$ such that $N \supsetneq Z(G)$.

Proof. The quotient $\bar{G}=G / Z(G)$ is supersolvable. Let $1=\bar{G}_{0} \lesseqgtr \cdots \lesseqgtr \bar{G}_{n}=\bar{G}$ be a sequence of normal subgroups of $\bar{G}$ with $\bar{G}_{i} / \bar{G}_{i-1}$ cyclic for all $i$. In particular, $\bar{G}_{1}=\langle g\rangle$ is cyclic. Then it suffices to take $N$ to be the inverse image of $\bar{G}_{1}$ in $G$. Note that $N$ is abelian since it is generated by $Z(G)$ and any $g \in G$ of image $\bar{g}$.

Lemma 4.6.6 (Clifford). Let $G$ be a group and $N \triangleleft G$ a normal subgroup. Let ( $V, \rho$ ) be an irreducible representation of $G$ over $F$. Then

$$
\operatorname{res}_{N}^{G}(V) \simeq \bigoplus_{i \in I}\left(W_{i}\right)^{\oplus J}
$$

where the $W_{i}$ are irreducible representations of $N$ satisfying $W_{i} \not \neq W_{i^{\prime}}$ for $i \neq i^{\prime}$. Moreover, for every $i \in I$, we have $V \simeq \operatorname{ind}_{H_{i}}^{G}\left(W_{i}^{\oplus J}\right)$, where $H_{i}<G$ is the stabilizer of $W_{i}^{\oplus J}$, and $\left(G: H_{i}\right)=\# I$.

Proof. Choose an irreducible subrepresentation $W$ of $\operatorname{res}_{N}^{G}(V)$. Since $V$ is irreducible, we have $\operatorname{res}_{N}^{G}(V)=\sum_{\bar{g} \in G / N} \rho(g) W$. We have $\rho(g) W \simeq W^{g^{-1}}$. Let $H=$ $\left\{g \in G \mid W^{g^{-1}} \simeq W\right\}$. Then $W^{\prime}:=\sum_{\bar{h} \in H / N} \rho(h) W \simeq W^{\oplus J}$ for some $J$. Moreover,

$$
\operatorname{res}_{N}^{G}(V)=\sum_{\bar{g} \in G / H} \rho(g) W^{\prime} \simeq \sum_{\bar{g} \in G / H}\left(W^{\oplus m}\right)^{g^{-1}} .
$$

The sum is a direct sum decomposition into isotypic components. Thus $G$ permutes the isotypic components and $H$ is the stabilizer of $W^{\oplus J}$. Finally, we have

$$
\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}\left(W^{\prime}\right)=F[G] \otimes_{F[H]} W^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \bigoplus_{\bar{g} \in G / H} \rho(g) W^{\prime}=V
$$

given by $g \otimes v \mapsto \rho(g) v$.
Remark 4.6.7. Let $\phi: G \rightarrow \bar{G}$ be a surjective homomorphism, $\bar{H}<\bar{G}$ a subgroup and $H=\phi^{-1}(\bar{H})$. For any representation $V$ of $\bar{G}$, composition with $\phi$ induces $\phi^{*} \operatorname{Ind}_{\bar{H}}^{\bar{G}} \xrightarrow{\sim} \operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}\left(\phi_{H}^{*} V\right)$, where $\phi_{H}: H \rightarrow \bar{H}$ is the restriction of $\phi$.

Proof of Theorem 4.6.4. We proceed by induction on $\# G$. Let $(V, \rho)$ be an irreducible representation of $G$. Then $(V, \rho)$ is the inflation of a representation of $\bar{G}=G / \operatorname{ker}(\rho)$. By the previous remark, we may assume that $(V, \rho)$ is a faith-


[^7]$\operatorname{dim}_{F} V=1$ by Corollary 4.2.4. Otherwise, by Lemma 4.6.5, there exists a normal abelian subgroup $N \triangleleft G$ that is not contained in $Z(G)$. We apply Lemma 4.6.6. Since $F$ splits $N$, we have $\operatorname{dim}_{F} W_{i}=1$. If $n=1$, then every $g \in N$ acts by scalar multiplication by $\chi_{W_{1}}(g)$ on $V$, so that $\rho(N) \subseteq Z(\rho(G))$, which contradicts the assumption that $N$ is not contained in $Z(G)$. Thus $H \subsetneq G$ and $V \simeq \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(W)$, where $W$ is a representation of $H$. Since $V$ is irreducible, so is $W$. We conclude by induction hypothesis.

Remark 4.6.8. The assumption that $F$ splits subgroups of $G$ cannot be dropped. For example, for $G=\mathbb{Z} / 3 \mathbb{Z}$, the simple $\mathbb{R}[G]$-module of dimension 2 is not induced from a representation of dimension 1.

A representation induced from a 1-dimensional representation is called monomial. A finite group such that all irreducible representations over $\mathbb{C}$ are monomial is called an M-group (or monomial group). Thus supersolvable groups are M-groups. Taketa showed that M-groups are solvable.

Example 4.6.9. (1) We have seen that $A_{4}$ is an M-group, but not supersolvable.
(2) Let $G<\mathbb{H}^{\times}$be the union of $H=\{ \pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\}$ and the 16 elements $\frac{ \pm 1 \pm i \pm j \pm k}{2}$. Then $H$ is solvable: $\{1\}<\{ \pm 1\}<H<G$ is a composition series. However, $G$ is not an M-group. The map $G \rightarrow \mathbb{H} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{C} \simeq M_{2}(\mathbb{C})$ carrying $g$ to $g \otimes 1$ gives a 2-dimensional representation of $G$ over $\mathbb{C}$, which is not monomial, because $G$ has no subgroup of order 2. (As a side note, $G \simeq \mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{3}\right):=\operatorname{ker}\left(\operatorname{det}: \mathrm{GL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{3}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{3}^{\times}\right)$)

Definition 4.6.10. For a prime number $p$, a product of a $p$-group with a cyclic group of order prime to $p$ is called a $p$-elementary group. A group is said to be elementary if it is $p$-elementary for some prime $p$.

Elementary groups are clearly supersolvable.
Theorem 4.6.11. Let $G$ be a finite group and $F$ a field with $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$.
(1) (Artin) Every character $\chi$ of $G$ is a $\mathbb{Q}$-linear combination of characters induced from characters of cyclic subgroups. More precisely, there are integers $a_{H} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\chi=\sum_{H} \frac{a_{H}}{\left(N_{G}(H): H\right)} \operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(\mathbf{1})$, where $H$ runs through cyclic subgroups of $G$.
(2) (Brauer) Assume that $F$ splits $G$. Then every character of $G$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of characters induced from characters of elementary subgroups. In particular, every character of $G$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-linear combination of monomial characters.

For a proof we refer to $[S 2, \S \S 9,10]$ and $[\square], \S 5.12]$.
Brauer's theorem is very useful in reducing problems about representations to the special case of 1-dimensional representations. Brauer used it to prove that Artin $L$-functions are meromorphic. Here is another application.

Corollary 4.6.12. Let $G$ be a finite group of exponent $m$ and let $F$ be a field with $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$ and containing a primitive $m$-th root of unity. Then $F$ is a splitting field of $G$.

Proof. Let $K / F$ be a splitting field of $G$. By Corollary 4.3.4, it suffices to show that every representation $W$ of $G$ over $K$ can be realized over $F$. By Brauer's theorem, $\chi_{W}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} \operatorname{ind}_{H_{i}}^{G}\left(\lambda_{i}\right)$, where for each $i, a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, H_{i}<G$ is a subgroup and $\lambda_{i}: H_{i} \rightarrow K$ is a character of dimension 1. For every $g \in H_{i}, \lambda_{i}(g)^{m}=\lambda_{i}\left(g^{m}\right)=1$, so that $\lambda_{i}(g) \in F$. Note that $\operatorname{ind}_{H_{i}}^{G}\left(F, \lambda_{i}\right)$ is a representation of $G$ over $F$. It follows that $\chi_{W}=\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{i} \chi_{V_{i}}$, where $c_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$ are irreducible representations of $G$ over $F$ with $V_{i} \not 千 V_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Then $\left(V_{i}\right)_{K}$ and $\left(V_{j}\right)_{K}$ have no common irreducible factor. It follows that $W \simeq\left(V_{i}\right)_{K}$ for some $i$.

Corollary 4.6.13. Let $G$ be a finite group of exponent $m$ and let $F$ be a field with $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$. Let $V$ be an irreducible representation of $G$ over $F$ and let $D=\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)$. Let $t=[Z(D): F]$ and $d^{2}=\operatorname{dim}_{Z(D)}(D)$. Then $t d \mid \varphi(m)$, where $\varphi$ is Euler's totient function.

Proof. Let $\zeta_{m}$ be a primitive $m$-th root of unity. Then $F\left(\zeta_{m}\right)$ is a splitting field of $G$. By Proposition [..3.2], $t d\left|\left[F\left(\zeta_{m}\right): F\right]\right| \varphi(m)$.

We end this section with some miscellaneous results. Given a field extension $K$ and a function $\chi: G \rightarrow K$, we let $F(\chi)$ denote the subfield of $K$ generated by $F$ and $\chi(g), g \in G$.

Proposition 4.6.14. Let $G$ be a finite group and $F$ a field with $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$. Let $K / F$ be an extension splitting $G$. Let $V$ be an irreducible representation of $G$ and let $W$ be an irreducible factor of $V_{K}$. Let $D=\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)$. Then there exists an $F$-isomorphism $Z(D) \simeq F\left(\chi_{W}\right)$.

For a representation $(W, \pi)$ over a field $K$ and $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(K)$, we let $\left(W^{\sigma}, \pi^{\sigma}\right)$ denote the representation of $G$ over $K$ where $W^{\sigma}$ is $W$ equipped with the structure of $K$-vector space given by $c \cdot W^{\sigma} w=\sigma(c) \cdot W w$, for $c \in K$ and $w \in W$. If $\sigma: K[G] \rightarrow K[G]$ denotes the ring homomorphism induced by $\sigma$, we have $W^{\sigma}=\sigma^{*} W$ as $F[G]$-module. Under a chosen $K$-linear basis of $W, \pi^{\sigma}(g)$ is obtained from $\pi(g)$ by applying $\sigma^{-1}$. It follows that $\chi_{W^{\sigma}}=\sigma^{-1} \chi_{W}$.

Proof. We may assume that $K / F$ is a finite Galois extension of group $\Gamma$. We have $D \otimes_{F} K \simeq \Pi_{\iota} D \otimes_{Z(D)} K$, where $\iota$ runs through $F$-embeddings $Z(D) \rightarrow K$. The factors correspond to isomorphism classes of irreducible factors of $V_{K}$, with compatible action of $\Gamma$. Let $\iota$ be the embedding corresponding to $W$. Let $H$ be the stabilizer of $\iota$, which is also the stabilizer of $\chi_{W}$. Then $\iota(Z(D))=K^{H}$. Moreover, $\sigma \in \Gamma$ stabilizes $\chi_{W}$ if and only if $\sigma$ fixes $F\left(\chi_{W}\right)$. Thus $F\left(\chi_{W}\right)=K^{H}$.

Proposition 4.6.15. Let $G$ be a finite group and let $F$ be a field of characteristic $p>0$ satisfying $p \nmid \# G$.
(1) Let $V$ be an irreducible representation of $G$ over $F$. Then $V$ is realizable over $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\chi_{V}\right)$ and $\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)$ is a field. In particular, the Schur index of $V$ equals 1.
(2) Let $\chi_{1}, \ldots, \chi_{r}$ be the irreducible characters of $G$ over a splitting field of $G$ of characteristic $p$. Then $\mathbb{F}_{p}\left(\chi_{1}, \ldots, \chi_{r}\right)$ is a splitting field of $G$.

Note that for $G$ of exponent $m$, every $\chi(g)$ is a sum of $m$-th roots of unity. Thus Corollary 4.6 .12 holds with the condition $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$ replaced by the weaker condition that $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$.

Proof. (1) Let $F_{0}=F\left(\chi_{V}\right)$. Let $U$ be an irreducible representation of $G$ over $F_{0}$ such that $V$ is an irreducible factor of $U_{F}$. By Wedderburn's little theorem, $\operatorname{End}_{F_{0}[G]}(U)$ is a field. Let $K_{0} / F_{0}$ be a finite abelian extension of group $\Gamma$ such that $K_{0}$ is a splitting field of $G$. The multiplicities of the irreducible factors of $V_{K_{0}}$ are 1 . Let $W$ be one of them. Then $U_{K_{0}} \simeq \oplus_{\bar{\sigma} \in \Gamma / H} W^{\sigma^{-1}}$, where $H$ is the stabilizer of $W$. Moreover, $V_{F K_{0}} \simeq \oplus_{\bar{\sigma} \in\left(\Gamma_{0}+H\right) / H} W^{\sigma^{-1}}$, where $\Gamma_{0}=\operatorname{im}\left(\operatorname{Gal}\left(F K_{0} / F\right) \rightarrow \Gamma\right)$. Then the stabilizer of $\chi_{V}$ in $\Gamma$ is $\Gamma_{0}+H$. However, $F\left(\chi_{V}\right)=F_{0}=K_{0}^{\Gamma}$. Thus $\Gamma=\Gamma_{0}+H$ and $V \simeq U_{F}$. It follows that $\operatorname{End}_{F[G]}(V)=\operatorname{End}_{F_{0}[G]}(U) \otimes_{F} K$ is commutative.
(2) This follows from (1) and Corollary 4.3.4.

We state without proof the following partial improvement of Corollary 4.4 .9 .
Proposition 4.6.16. Let $G$ be a finite group and $H$ a normal abelian subgroup. Let $F$ be a splitting field of $G$ with $\operatorname{char}(F) \nmid \# G$. Then for every irreducible representation $V$ of $G, \operatorname{dim}_{F}(V) \mid(G: H)$.

In the case $\operatorname{char}(F)=0$, the proof uses algebraic integers [S2, §8.1]. For $\operatorname{char}(F)>0$, one lifts to characteristic zero [S2, §15.5].

### 4.7 Tannaka duality

Let $F$ be a field and $G$ a group. Let $\Phi: \operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G) \rightarrow \operatorname{Vect}_{F}$ be the forgetful functor carrying $(V, \rho)$ to $V$. We let $\operatorname{Aut}^{\otimes}(\Phi)<\operatorname{Aut}(\Phi)$ denote the subgroup consisting of natural automorphisms $\phi: \Phi \xrightarrow{\sim} \Phi$ such that for each pair of objects $V$ and $W$ in $\operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G), \phi_{V \otimes W}=\phi_{V} \otimes \phi_{W}$.

Theorem 4.7.1 (Tannaka). The map $T: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}^{\otimes}(\Phi)$ given by $T(g)_{(V, \rho)}=$ $\rho(g): V \rightarrow V$ is a group isomorphism.

This is a linear analogue of Remark $\mathbb{L . 1 9 . 2 7 .}$
Proposition 4.7.2. Let $R$ be a ring and $\Phi: R$ - Mod $\rightarrow \mathbf{A b}$ the forgetful functor. Then we have an isomorphism of rings

$$
R \simeq \operatorname{End}(\Phi), \quad r \mapsto T(r), \quad S(\phi):=\phi_{R}(1) \hookleftarrow \phi,
$$

where $T(r)_{M}: M \rightarrow M$ is given by $r$.
Proof. It is clear that $S T=\mathrm{id}$. Let us check $T S=\mathrm{id}$. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{End}(\Phi)$. For every object $M$ of $R$-Mod and every $m \in M$, let $f: R \rightarrow M$ be the homomorphism carrying 1 to $m$. Then $\phi_{M}(m)=\phi_{M}(f(1))=\phi_{R}(1) m=T S(\phi)_{M}(m)$.

Lemma 4.7.3. Let $\Delta: F[G] \rightarrow F[G] \otimes_{F} F[G]$ be the $F$-linear map given by $g$ to $g \otimes g$ for $g \in G$. Let $x \in F[G]$ be such that $\Delta(x)=x \otimes x$. Then $x=0$ or $x \in G$.

Proof. Let $x=\sum_{g \in G} a_{g} g$. Then $\sum_{g \in G} a_{g} g \otimes g=\Delta(x)=x \otimes x=\sum_{g, h \in G} a_{g} a_{h} g \otimes h$. Then $a_{g}=a_{g}^{2} a_{g} a_{h}=0$ for $g \neq h$. Thus $a_{g}=0$ or 1 and there exists at most one $g$ with $a_{g} \neq 0$.

Proof of Theorem [4.7.1. Let $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}^{\otimes}(\Phi)$. Note that $\Delta:$ reg $\rightarrow$ reg $\otimes$ reg is a morphism in $\operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G)$. Thus

$$
\Delta\left(\phi_{\mathrm{reg}}(1)\right)=\phi_{\mathrm{reg} \otimes \mathrm{reg}}(\Delta(1))=\left(\phi_{\mathrm{reg}} \otimes \phi_{\mathrm{reg}}\right)(1 \otimes 1)=\phi_{\mathrm{reg}}(1) \otimes \phi_{\mathrm{reg}}(1) .
$$

By the lemma, it follows that $\phi_{\text {reg }}(1) \in G$. We claim that $S: \phi \mapsto \phi_{\text {reg }}(1)$ is an inverse of $T$. It is clear that $S T=\operatorname{id}_{G}$. That $T S=\mathrm{id}$ follows from Proposition 4.7 .2.

Remark 4.7.4. (1) For $F$ separably closed and $G$ finite, one can show that $\operatorname{Rep}_{F}(G)$, regarded as a symmetric monoidal category, determines $G$ up to isomorphism [DM, Theorem 3.2].
(2) The $F$-algebra $F[G]$ does not determine $G$. For example, for $G$ finite abelian, one can only recover $\# G$ from the $\mathbb{C}$-algebra $\mathbb{C}[G] \simeq \mathbb{C} \# G$.
(3) The category $R$-Mod does not determine the ring $R$. Two rings $R$ and $S$ are said to be Morita equivalent if the categories $R$-Mod and $S$-Mod are equivalent. For example, $R$ and $M_{n}(R)$ are Morita equivalent. Morita gave criteria for such equivalences of categories. See [LD], §18].

## Bibliography

［AM］M．F．Atiyah and I．G．Macdonald，Introduction to commutative algebra，Addison－Wesley Publishing Co．，Reading，Mass．－London－Don Mills，Ont．，1969．$\uparrow$ 囬
［B1］V．Bavula，Lüroth field extensions，J．Pure Appl．Algebra 199 （2005），no．1－3，1－10，DOI 10．1016／j．jpaa．2004．11．003．个可
［B2］N．Bourbaki，Éléments de mathématique．Algèbre，Springer－Verlag， 2007 （French）．个［4］，52， 8.5
［CR］C．W．Curtis and I．Reiner，Representation theory of finite groups and associative algebras， AMS Chelsea Publishing，Providence，RI，2006．Reprint of the 1962 original．$\uparrow \mathbf{1 0}$
［DM］P．Deligne and J．S．Milne，Tannakian categories，Hodge cycles，motives，and Shimura varieties，Lecture Notes in Mathematics，vol．900，Springer－Verlag，Berlin－New York，1982， pp．101－228．$\uparrow[37$
［GS］P．Gille and T．Szamuely，Central simple algebras and Galois cohomology，Cambridge Studies in Advanced Mathematics，vol．165，Cambridge University Press，Cambridge， 2017. Second edition of［MR2266528］．个106］
［H1］D．Hilbert，Die Theorie der algebraischen Zahlkörper，Jahresber．der Deutsch．Math．－ Verein． 4 （1894），175－535．个［］
［H2］Y．Hu，Lectures on Algebra I，2019．$\uparrow \bar{\square}$
［J］N．Jacobson，Basic algebra．II，2nd ed．，W．H．Freeman and Company，New York， 1989.个4．5，［134
［LF］黎景辉（K．F．Lai），冯绪宁（X．N．Feng），拓扑群引论，第二版，北京：科学出版社， 2014. $\uparrow$ 个
［L1］T．Y．Lam，Lectures on modules and rings，Graduate Texts in Mathematics，vol．189， Springer－Verlag，New York，1999．$\uparrow[37$
［L2］＿，A first course in noncommutative rings，2nd ed．，Graduate Texts in Mathematics，

［L3］W．－W．Li，Yanqi Lake Lectures on Algebra，Part 1，2015．available at http：／／www．wwli． url．tw／downloads／YAlg1．pdf．$\uparrow$ ■
［L4］李文威（W．－W．Li），代数学方法（第一卷）：基础架构，现代数学基础，vol．67．1，北京：高等教育出版社，2019．个［29， 3 J
［S1］B．E．Sagan，The symmetric group，2nd ed．，Graduate Texts in Mathematics，vol．203， Springer－Verlag，New York，2001．Representations，combinatorial algorithms，and sym－ metric functions．$\uparrow$［J］
［S2］J．－P．Serre，Linear representations of finite groups，Springer－Verlag，New York－Heidelberg， 1977．Translated from the second French edition by Leonard L．Scott；Graduate Texts in Mathematics，Vol．42．个世09，［3］，［36］
[VO] A. M. Vershik and A. Yu. Okun'kov, A new approach to representation theory of symmetric groups. II, Zap. Nauchn. Sem. S.-Peterburg. Otdel. Mat. Inst. Steklov. (POMI) 307 (2004), no. Teor. Predst. Din. Sist. Komb. i Algoritm. Metody. 10, 57-98, 281, DOI 10.1007/s10958-005-0421-7 (Russian, with English and Russian summaries); English transl., J. Math. Sci. (N.Y.) 131 (2005), no. 2, 5471-5494. 个[32
[SGA1] Revêtements étales et groupe fondamental (SGA 1), Documents Mathématiques (Paris) [Mathematical Documents (Paris)], vol. 3, Société Mathématique de France, Paris, 2003 (French). Séminaire de géométrie algébrique du Bois Marie 1960-61. [Algebraic Geometry Seminar of Bois Marie 1960-61]; Directed by A. Grothendieck; With two papers by M. Raynaud; Updated and annotated reprint of the 1971 original [Lecture Notes in Math., 224, Springer, Berlin; MR0354651 (50 \#7129)].


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ In French, (1) is algébriquement fermé while (2) is algébriquement clos.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ In these notes, separable extensions are assumed to be algebraic. We will not discuss the notion of separability for transcendental extensions here.
    ${ }^{3}$ French has a word for "purely inseparable" - radiciel.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ A Grothendieck universe $\mathcal{U}$ is a set satisfying the following conditions: $y \in x \in \mathcal{U}$ implies $y \in \mathcal{U} ; x, y \in \mathcal{U}$ implies $\{x, y\} \in \mathcal{U} ; x \in \mathcal{U}$ implies $P(x) \in \mathcal{U}$ where $P(x)$ is the power set of $x ; x_{i} \in \mathcal{U}, i \in I \in \mathcal{U}$ implies $\bigcup_{i \in I} x_{i} \in \mathcal{U}$. TG (Tarski-Grothendieck) set theory is obtained from ZFC by adding Tarski's axiom, which states that for every set $x$, there exists a Grothendieck universe $\mathcal{U} \ni x$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ Some authors call them natural equivalences.
    ${ }^{6}$ Some authors write $\simeq$ for equivalences and $\cong$ for isomorphisms. We will write $\simeq$ for isomorphisms and state equivalences verbally.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ In older literature, $\operatorname{ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ is called the induced representation and $\operatorname{Ind}_{H}^{G}(V)$ the coinduced representation.

[^5]:    ${ }^{2}$ We adopt the English notation. In the French notation, the diagram is upside down: 毌•

[^6]:    ${ }^{3} \mathrm{~A}$ Young tableau is a generalized tableau of type $(1 \geq \cdots \geq 1)$.

[^7]:    ${ }^{4}$ A faithful $F[G]$-module is a faithful representation of $G$ over $F$, but the converse does not hold in general.

