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# EXTENSIONS HAVING REDUCED SUBEXTENSIONS

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#### Abstract

The concepts of reduced subextension and primitive subextension of a field extension, recently introduced in connection with fuzzy Galois theory, are investigated. We prove that every extension having a proper reduced subextension is algebraic (it was known that its transcendence degree is at most 1). The notion of reduced subgroup of a group is introduced as a natural group theoretic counterpart of the concept of reduced subextension. We determine all finite groups possesing a reduced subgroup. Consequently, the finite Galois and G-Cogalois extensions having a reduced intermediate field are determined. We also investigate some properties of the primitive extensions.

## 1 Reduced subextensions

Let F/K be a field extension and let  $\mathcal{I}(F/K) = \{L \mid L \text{ subfield of } F, K \subseteq L\}$  be the lattice of its intermediate fields (also called its subextensions). If F/K is a field extension and  $c \in F$  is algebraic over K, then we denote by  $\operatorname{Irr}(c, K) \in K[X]$  the minimal polynomial of c over K. We write  $A \subset B$  for  $A \subseteq B$  and  $A \neq B$ .

**1.1. Definition.** [2] Let  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ . Then L is said to be reduced in F over K if  $L \neq F$  and  $\forall c, d \in F \setminus L$ , L(c) = L(d) implies K(c) = K(d).

**1.2 Theorem.** ([2], Th. 1.2) Let  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ . Then L is reduced in F over K if and only if  $F \neq L$  and  $\forall c \in F \setminus L$ ,  $L \subseteq K(c)$ .

**Proof.** Suppose that L is reduced in F over K. Let  $c \in F \setminus L$  and let  $b \in L$ . Then L(c) = L(b+c) and so K(c) = K(b+c). Hence  $b \in K(c)$ . Thus  $L \subseteq K(c)$ .

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Conversely, suppose that  $L \neq F$  and  $\forall c \in F \ L, L \subseteq K(c)$ . Let  $c, d \in F \setminus L$ . Then K(c) = L(c) and K(d) = L(d). Hence L(c) = L(d) implies that K(c) = K(d). Thus L is reduced in F over K.

Here is a simpler characterization of the reduced subextensions of F/K, in terms of the lattice  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$ .

**1.3 Theorem.** Let  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ ,  $L \neq F$ . Then L is reduced in F over K if and only if,  $\forall M \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ ,  $M \subseteq L$  or  $L \subseteq M$ .

**Proof.** " $\Rightarrow$ " Let  $M \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$  with  $M \not\subseteq L$ . Then  $\exists c \in M \setminus L$ . By the proposition above,  $L \subseteq K(c)$ ; since  $K(c) \subseteq M$ ,  $L \subseteq M$ . " $\Leftarrow$ " Let  $c \in F \setminus L$ . Then  $K(c) \not\subseteq L$ , so  $L \subseteq K(c)$ .

So, if L is reduced in F over K,  $\mathcal{I}(F/K) = I(F/L) \cup I(L/K)$ . This is quite a strong condition on the lattice  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$ . The following two consequences are immediate from this characterization:

**1.4 Corollary.** The extension F/K has the property that every  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$  with  $L \neq F$  is reduced in F over K if and only if  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  is a chain (i.e., totally ordered with respect to inclusion).

**1.5 Corollary.** Let  $K \subseteq E \subseteq L \subseteq J \subseteq F$  be a chain of field extensions. If L is reduced in F over K, then L is reduced in J over E.

Let F/K be an extension possessing a reduced intermediate field  $L \neq K$ . Theorem 1.5 in [2] states that  $\operatorname{trdeg}(F/K) \leq 1$ , where trdeg denotes the transcendence degree. Also, Theorem 1.9 in [2] affirms that F/K is algebraic, provided char K = p > 0 and either L/K is algebraic or  $L = K(F^{p^e})$  for some positive integer e. It turns out that F/K is algebraic:

**1.6 Theorem.** Let F/K be an extension possessing a reduced intermediate field  $L \neq K$ . Then F/K is algebraic.

**Proof.** First, we prove that F/L is algebraic. Let  $y \in F \setminus L$ . If y is transcendental over K, then  $K \subset L \subset K(y)$  since L is reduced in F/K. By Lüroth's theorem, y is algebraic over L and L = K(x) for some  $x \in L$ , transcendental over K. If y is algebraic over K, it is also algebraic over L. So, anyway, y is algebraic over L. It is now enough to prove that L/K is algebraic. Suppose that L/K is not algebraic. If  $y \in F \setminus L$ , y is transcendental over K. Indeed, we have  $K \subset L \subset K(y)$ ; y algebraic over K would imply L/K algebraic, contradiction. So every  $y \in F \setminus L$  is transcendental over K and the argument above

shows that L = K(x) for some  $x \in F$ , transcendental over K, and F/L is algebraic. Pick  $y \in F \setminus L$ . We have therefore the situation:  $K \subset K(x) \subset K(y)$ , x transcendental over K, K(x) reduced in K(y) and y algebraic over K(x). Considering K(xy), we have either  $K(xy) \subseteq K(x)$  (but then  $y \in K(x)$ , contradiction), or  $K(x) \subseteq K(xy)$ , so  $x \in K(xy) \Rightarrow y \in K(xy) \Rightarrow K(y) = K(xy)$ . Thus,  $K \subset K(x) \subset K(y) = K(xy)$ .

We use the following elementary result: If  $K \subseteq K(t)$  is a simple transcendental extension and  $z = f(t)/g(t) \in K(t)$ , where  $f, g \in K[T]$ , gcd(f, g) = 1,  $f(t)g(t) \neq 0$ , then  $Irr(t, K(z)) = f(T) - zg(T) \in K(z)[T]$  and [K(t) : K(z)] = deg(f(T) - zg(T)) = max(deg f, deg g). [See for instance [5], Ex.1.17.]

Since  $x \in K(y)$ , there exist univariate nonzero polynomials  $a\alpha, \beta \in K[T]$ (where T is an indeterminate) such that:

$$s = \alpha(y)/\beta(y), \gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1, \ \alpha\beta \neq 0.$$
 (\*)

Then  $\operatorname{Irr}(y, K(x)) = \beta(T) - x\alpha(T) \in K(x)[T]$ . Also,  $K(x) \subset K(y)$  implies:

$$\deg \operatorname{Irr}(y, K(x)) = [K(y) : K(x)] = \max(\deg \alpha, \deg \beta) \ge 2.$$

We have  $y \in K(xy)$ , so there exist nonzero  $u, v \in K[T]$  such that:

$$y = u(xy)/v(xy), \gcd(u, v) = 1, uv \neq 0.$$

Since K(xy) = K(y) and Irr(xy, K(y)) = u(T) - yv(T) has degree max(deg u, deg v), equal to [K(xy) : K(y)] = 1, we have max(deg u, deg v) = 1. Using (\*), we obtain:

$$y \cdot v(y\alpha(y)/\beta(y)) = u(y\alpha(y)/\beta(y))$$

Since y is transcendental over K, we have the equality in K(T):

$$T \cdot v(T\alpha(T)/\beta(T)) = u(T\alpha(T)/\beta(T)) \tag{**}$$

Setting T = 0 in (\*\*), we get u(0) = 0, so  $u = T \cdot u'$ , with  $u' \in K[T]$ . But deg  $u \leq 1$ , so we may suppose u = T. Simplifying in (\*\*), and putting v(T) = cT + d, with  $c, d \in K$ , we have

$$cT\alpha(T) + d\beta(T) = \alpha(T) \qquad (***)$$

We get  $d\beta(T) = \alpha(T)(1-cT)$ , so  $\alpha$  divides  $d\beta$  in K[T]. But  $gcd(\alpha, \beta) = 1$ , so  $\alpha$  divides d, which means  $\deg \alpha = 0$ . We may as well suppose  $\alpha = 1$ , so  $d\beta(T) = 1 - cT$ , which implies  $\deg \beta = 1$ . This contradicts max $(\deg \alpha, \deg \beta) \ge 2$  and shows that F/K must be algebraic.

Let F/K be a finite Galois extension with Galois group G. Since there exists an order reversing bijection between  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  and the lattice of the subgroups of G, the following definition appears natural:

**1.7 Definition.** Let  $(G, \cdot)$  be a group and 1 its neutral element. Let  $S(G) = \{H \mid H \leq G\}$  be the lattice of subgroups of G. We call a subgroup  $R \leq G$  reduced in G if  $R \neq 1$ ,  $R \neq G$  and if  $\forall H, H \leq G$  implies  $H \leq R$  or  $R \leq H$ . If  $S \subseteq G$ , let  $\langle S \rangle$  denote the subgroup generated by S. For any set A, |A| denotes the cardinal of A.

So, a finite Galois extension F/K has a reduced intermediate field  $L \neq K$  if and only if  $\operatorname{Gal}(F/K)$  has a reduced subgroup. We determine now all finite groups having reduced subgroups.

**1.8 Theorem.** Let G be a finite group. There exists a reduced subgroup R in G if and only if G is of one of the following types:

- i) G is cyclic of order p<sup>n</sup> (where p is a prime number and n ∈ N\*). In this case S(G) is a chain (hence every proper subgroup of G is reduced).
- ii) G is isomorphic to a generalized quaternion group of order  $2^n$   $(n \ge 3)$ : G =< a, b >, with  $a^{2^{n-1}} = 1$ ,  $b^2 = a^{2^{n-2}}$ ,  $ba = a^{-1}b$ . In this case R is the unique minimal proper subgroup of G and |R| = 2.

Before proceeding to the proof we collect some useful results.

**1.9 Proposition.** Let G be a group and  $R \leq G$ ,  $R \neq G$ ,  $R \neq 1$ . Then R is a reduced subgroup of G if and only if for every  $x \in G \setminus R$ ,  $R \subset \langle x \rangle$ .

**Proof.** If R is reduced and  $x \in G \setminus R$ , then  $\langle x \rangle$  cannot be included in R, so  $R \subset \langle x \rangle$ .

Conversely, suppose R has the property that  $R \subset \langle x \rangle$  for every  $x \in G \setminus R$ . Let  $H \in \mathcal{S}(G)$ . If  $H \subseteq R$ , we are done; else there exists  $x \in H \setminus R$  and so  $R \subset \langle x \rangle \subseteq H$ .

- **1.10 Proposition.** Let G be a finite group. Then:
  - a) If R is a reduced subgroup of G, then R is a characteristic subgroup of G (hence R is normal in G).
  - b) If R is a reduced subgroup of G and H is a reduced subgroup of R, then H is a reduced subgroup of G.
  - c)  $\mathcal{S}(G)$  is a chain if and only if G is a cyclic p-group for some prime p.
  - d) If G is abelian and has a reduced subgroup then G is a cyclic p-group (so S(G) is a chain).

**Proof.** a) If  $\varphi$  is an automorphism of G, then  $|\varphi(R)| = |R|$ . Since  $R \subseteq \varphi(R)$  or  $\varphi(R) \subseteq R$ , we have  $R = \varphi(R)$ .

b) Let  $J \leq G$ . If J includes R, then J includes H and we are done. If R does not include R, then  $J \leq R$  since R is reduced. So  $J \leq H$  or  $H \leq J$  since H is reduced in R. We remark that the statement is true for any group G.

c) If G is cyclic of order  $p^n$ , with p prime, then  $\mathcal{S}(G)$  is clearly a chain. Suppose now that  $\mathcal{S}(G)$  is a chain and let p be a prime divisor of |G|. If |G| has another prime divisor q, then by Cauchy's Theorem there exist  $x, y \in G$  with ord x = p and ord y = q. Then  $\langle x \rangle \not\subseteq \rangle y \rangle$  and  $\langle y \rangle \not\subseteq \langle x \rangle$ , contradiction. So  $|G| = p^n$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We prove that G is cyclic. This is obvious for n = 1. Suppose now that n > 1. Then G has a subgroup H of order  $p^{n-1}$  ([4], Satz 7.2e)). If  $x \in G \setminus H$ , then  $\langle x \rangle$  is not included in H, so  $H \subset \langle x \rangle$  and so  $\langle x \rangle = G$ .

d) Because G is finite abelian, G is cyclic or a direct product of at least two cyclic subgroups. If G is the direct product of its proper subgroups  $G_1$ and  $G_2$ , then G cannot have a reduced subgroup R. Indeed, if  $R \subseteq G_1$  and  $R \subseteq G_2$  then  $R \subseteq G_1 \cap G_2 = 1$ ; if  $G_1 \subseteq R$  and  $R \subseteq G_2$  then  $G_1 \subseteq G_2$ ; if  $G_1 \subseteq R$  and  $G_2 \subseteq R$  then  $G = G_1G_2 \subseteq R$ . None of these conclusions is consistent with the hypotheses. So G is cyclic and, by the argument above, it cannot be written as a direct product of proper subgroups. This means that G is cyclic of order a power of a prime.

**Proof** of the Theorem 1.8. Assume that R is a reduced subgroup of G. We show first that R is a cyclic p-group (hence  $\mathcal{S}(R)$  is a chain). Since  $R \neq G$ and G is finite, there exists  $H \leq G$  with R < H and H is minimal including R (there are no subgroups between R and H). Then R is reduced in H (so  $H \lhd R$ ) and H/R has no proper subgroups. So H/R is cyclic of prime order p. If  $x \in H \setminus R$ , then < x > must include R, so < x >= H. Thus, H is cyclic and has a reduced subgroup. By d), H is a cyclic p-group and  $\mathcal{S}(H)$  is a chain. So R is also a cyclic p-group and  $\mathcal{S}(R)$  is a chain.

If q is a prime divisor of |G|, then there exists  $x \in G$ , ord x = q. If  $q \neq p$ , then  $\langle x \rangle \subseteq R$  implies ord x is a power of p, contradiction;  $R \subseteq \langle x \rangle$  implies |R| = q, contradiction. So |G| has only one prime divisor, namely p.

We have shown that G is a p-group. G has only one subgroup with p elements (the unique subgroup of R with p elements). Indeed, if  $J \leq R$  has p elements, then  $J \subseteq R$  (for  $R \subset J$  would imply R = 1, absurd) and S(R) is a chain, so it contains at most one subgroup of order p.

The claim of the theorem follows now from:

**Theorem** ([3], THEOREM 12.5.2, p. 189). A p-group which contains only one subgroup of order p is cyclic or a generalized quaternion group.

The case of a cyclic p-group is clear.

Suppose that G is a generalized quaternion group of order  $2^n$   $(n \ge 3)$ . It is easy to see that  $R = \langle a^{2^{n-2}} \rangle = \langle b^2 \rangle$  has 2 elements and is included in every proper subgroup of G. Also, R is the only reduced subgroup of G.  $\Box$ 

Theorem 1.8 and the Galois correspondence yield the following *classifica*tion of the extensions having a non-trivial reduced subextension:

**1.11 Theorem.** Let F/K be a finite Galois extension with Galois group G. Then there exists  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ ,  $K \neq L \neq F$ , such that L is reduced in F over K, if and only if G is of one of the following types:

- a) G is cyclic of order  $p^n$  (where p is a prime number and  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ). In this case  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  is a chain (hence every proper intermediate extension is reduced in F over K).
- b) G is isomorphic to a generalized quaternion group of order  $2^n$   $(n \ge 3)$ . In this case L is the unique maximal proper intermediate field of F/Kand [F:L] = 2.

**1.12 Remarks.** a) Any extension F/K of finite fields is Galois and the Galois group is cyclic. So F/K has a proper intermediate field reduced in F over  $K \Leftrightarrow$  the degree [F : K] is a power of a prime  $\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{I}(F/K)$  is a chain  $\Leftrightarrow$  every intermediate field of F/K is reduced.

b) A famous result of Safarevič [8] implies that for every finite solvable group G there exists a finite Galois extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$  with Galois group isomorphic to G. This ensures that for every type of extension described in Theorem 1.11 there exists an extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$  of that type. In particular, there exists a Galois extension  $F/\mathbb{Q}$  of degree 8, with Galois group the quaternion group. This extension admits a reduced intermediate field, but  $\mathcal{I}(F/\mathbb{Q})$  is not a chain. This is a "minimal" example of extension having a proper reduced intermediate field, but whose intermediate fields are not chained.

c) Let F/K be a separable finite extension and let N be the normal closure of F/K. Let G = Gal(N/K) and H = Gal(N/F). The lattice  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  is antiisomorphic to the lattice of the subgroups of G that include H. Thus, the problem of determining the separable finite extensions having a proper reduced intermediate field is translated via Galois theory into the following group theoretical problem:

Determine all pairs (G, H), where G is a finite group and  $H \leq G$ , such that there exists a subgroup R, H < R < G with the property: for any subgroup J,  $H \leq J \leq G$  implies  $J \leq R$  or  $R \leq J$ . There is another type of extensions F/K for which a bijective correspondence between  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  and the subgroups of a certain group is available, namely the *G*-Cogalois extensions. Consequently, we obtain a description of the *G*-Cogalois extensions possessing a reduced subextension. We briefly state the definitions and the results we need from [1], where a detailed account of the theory is given.

If F is a field, then  $F^*$  denotes the multiplicative group of the nonzero elements of F. We suppose all algebraic extensions of F are subfields of  $\Omega$ , an algebraic closure of F. For any field extension F/K, define the subgroup of  $F^*$ :

$$T(F/K) = \{ x \in F^* \mid \exists n \ge 1 \text{ with } x^n \in K^* \}.$$

**1.13 Definition.** Let F/K be a field extension. Let G be a group,  $K^* \leq G \leq T(F/K)$ . The extension F/K is called:

- *G*-radical if F = K(G).
- *G*-Kneser if it is finite, *G*-radical and  $|G/K^*| \leq [F:K]$ .

[[1], Prop. 2.4] says: If F/K is finite and G-radical, then: F/K is G-Kneser  $\Leftrightarrow |G/K^*| = [F:K]$  (there exists a set of representatives for  $G/K^*$  which is linearly independent over  $K \Leftrightarrow$  any set of representatives for  $G/K^*$  is a vector space basis of F over K.

For any subset S of a field F and  $n \ge 1$ , let  $\mu_n(S) = \{x \in S \mid x^n = 1\}$ . Then  $\mu_n(\Omega)$  is a cyclic subgroup of  $\Omega^*$ ; let  $\zeta_n$  denote a generator of  $\mu_n(\Omega)$ (a primitive *n*-th root of unity in  $\Omega$ ). The separable G-Kneser extensions are characterized as follows:

**1.14 Theorem** (Kneser's criterion) [[1], Theorem 2.6]. Let  $K \subseteq F$  be a finite separable *G*-radical extension with  $G/K^*$  finite. Then  $K \subseteq F$  is *G*-Kneser if and only if for any odd prime p,  $\mu_p(G) = \mu_p(K)$  and  $1 + \zeta_4 \in G$  implies  $\zeta_4 \in K$ .

In what follows, we fix an extension F/K and  $K^* \leq G \leq F^*$  and note:

$$\mathcal{G} = \{ H \mid K^* \le H \le G \}.$$

The behavior of G-Kneser extensions with respect to subextensions and subgroups is described by [[1], 3.1 and 3.2], summarized in the following:

**1.15 Proposition.** Let  $K \subseteq F$  be a separable G-Kneser extension.

a) For any  $H \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ , the extension  $K \subseteq K(H)$  is H-Kneser and  $K(H) \cap G = H$ .

- b) For any  $E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ , the following are equivalent:
  - (1)  $K \subseteq E$  is *H*-Kneser for some  $H \in \mathcal{G}$ .
  - (2)  $K \subseteq E$  is  $E^* \cap G$ -Kneser
  - (3)  $E \subseteq F$  is  $E^*G$ -Kneser.

A finite G-radical extension is said to be strongly G-Kneser if, for any  $E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ ,  $E \subseteq F$  is  $E^*G$ -Kneser. If F/K is an extension and  $K^* \leq G \leq F^*$ , define the following natural and inclusion preserving maps:

 $\begin{array}{l} \alpha: \mathcal{I}(F/K) \to \mathcal{G}, \ \alpha(E) = E \cap G, \ \forall E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K) \\ \beta: \mathcal{G} \to \mathcal{I}(F/K), \ \beta(H) = K(H), \ \forall H \in \mathcal{G}. \end{array}$ 

A characterization of G-Kneser extensions for which these maps are inverse to each other is given by [[1], Th. 3.7], in terms of *n*-purity: If  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ , the extension F/K is called *n*-pure if for any *p* dividing *n*, *p* odd prime or p = 4, one has  $\mu_p \subseteq K$ .

**1.16 Theorem.** The following assertions are equivalent for a finite separable G-radical extension  $K \subseteq F$  with  $G/K^*$  finite:

- (1)  $K \subseteq F$  is strongly G-Kneser (cf. 1.15).
- (2)  $K \subseteq F$  is G-Kneser and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are isomorphisms of lattices, inverse to each other.
- (3)  $K \subseteq F$  is n-pure, where  $n = \exp(G/K^*)$ .

(For a finite group  $\Gamma$  with neutral element e, the *exponent* of  $\Gamma$  is  $\exp(\Gamma) = \min\{n \ge 1 \mid x^n = e, \forall (x \in \Gamma\}).$ 

**1.17 Definition.** [[1], Def. 3.8] A field extension is called G-Cogalois if it is a separable strongly G-Kneser extension.

The lattice  $S(G/K^*)$  of subgroups of  $G/K^*$  is isomorphic to the lattice  $\mathcal{G} = \{H \mid K^* \leq H \leq G\}$ . From the previous theorem one obtains:

If F/K is a G-Cogalois extension, then  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  and  $\mathcal{S}(G/K^*)$  are lattice isomorphic.

Let  $\Gamma$  be a group. We say, following [1], that F/K is an extension with  $\Gamma$ -Cogalois correspondence if there is a lattice isomorphism between  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  and  $\mathcal{S}(\Gamma)$ . So, a *G*-Cogalois extension F/K is an extension with  $G/K^*$ -Cogalois correspondence.

From the theorem 1.8 we deduce:

**1.18 Theorem.** Let F/K be an extension with  $\Gamma$ -Cogalois correspondence for some abelian group  $\Gamma$  (for instance, a strongly G-Kneser separable extension, where  $K^* \leq G \leq T(F/K)$ ). The following conditions are equivalent:

- a) There exists  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ ,  $K \neq L \neq F$ , such that L is reduced in F over K.
- b) There exists a prime number p such that  $\Gamma$  is a cyclic p-group.
- c)  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  is a chain.
- d) Every proper intermediate extension is reduced in F over K.

**Proof.** There exists an intermediate field L reduced in F over  $K, K \neq L \neq F$ , if and only if  $\Gamma$  has a reduced subgroup. Since  $\Gamma$  is an abelian group, 1.8 shows that it must be a cyclic p-group.

**1.19 Remark.** This theorem is applicable to a wide class of finite extensions  $K \subseteq F$ , not necessarily Galois, including the following (see [1]):

- a) Kummer extensions with few roots of unity: there exists  $A \subseteq F$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$  such that  $a^n \in K$ ,  $\forall a \in A$ , K(A) = F and  $\mu_n(F) \subseteq \{-1, 1\}$ .
- b) Generalized neat presentations: there exist  $r \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $n_1, ..., n_r \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,  $a_1, ..., a_r \in K^*$  such that  $F = K(\sqrt[n_1]{a_1}, ..., \sqrt[n_r]{a_r})$ , e(K), n) = 1 and  $\mu_p(\Omega) \subseteq K$ , for any p dividing n (p odd prime or p = 4), where n is the least common multiple of  $n_1, ..., n_r$ . Here e(K) is the characteristic exponent of K: e(K) = char(K) if char(K) > 0; e(K) = 1 if char(K) = 0.

Next, we investigate some properties of inseparable extensions having reduced subextensions. If F/K is an algebraic extension, let S denote the separable closure of K in F and I the purely inseparable closure of F in K. It is known that: S and I are linearly disjoint,  $S \cap I = K$  and F/S is purely inseparable. The extension F/K is said to split if SI = F. Also, F/K splits if and only if F/I is separable [[7], Th. 14.16]. If F/K is normal, then F/K splits: SI = F [[5], Th. 4.23].

**1.20 Proposition.** Let F/K be algebraic and split (F = SI). If there exists  $L \neq K$  reduced in F over K, then either F/K is separable or F/K is purely inseparable.

**Proof.** There are the following four possibilities:

i)  $L \subseteq S$  and  $L \subseteq I$ . Then  $L \subseteq S \cap I = K$ , so L = K and this is excluded. ii)  $L \subseteq S$  and  $I \subseteq L$ . Then  $I \subseteq S$  and so I = K. Since F/K splits, F is separable over I = K.

iii)  $S \subseteq L$  and  $L \subseteq I$ . Then  $S \subseteq I$ , so S = K, which means F/K is purely inseparable.

iv)  $S \subseteq L$  and  $I \subseteq S$ . Then  $SI \subseteq L$ , so L = K, contradiction.

**1.21 Corollary.** If F/K is a normal algebraic extension and there exists an intermediate field  $L \neq K$  reduced in F over K, then F/K is either separable or purely inseparable.

So, if F/K is finite, normal and has a proper reduced intermediate field, then F/K is finite and Galois (and Th. 1.11 applies) or is purely inseparable.

# 2 Primitive extensions

In [2] the following definition is given:

- **2.1. Definition.** [[2], Definition 2.1] Let  $L \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ . Then L is said to be:
  - semi-primitive in F over K if  $\forall c, d \in L$ , Irr(c, K) = Irr(d, K) implies K(c) = K(d).
  - primitive in F over K if L is semi-primitive in F over K and  $\forall c, d \in F \setminus L$ ,  $\operatorname{Irr}(c, K) = \operatorname{Irr}(d, K)$  implies K(c) = K(d).

We remark that the condition "L is semi-primitive in F over K" depends only on L (and not on F) and is equivalent to "L is primitive in L over K". If this is the case, we say shortly L/K is primitive". We call c and d conjugate over K if c and d have the same minimal polynomial over K.

**2.2. Example.** a) Every purely inseparable extension F/K is primitive, because every  $c \in F$  is its only conjugate over K.

b) Every algebraic extension of a finite field is primitive: if c is algebraic over the finite field K, then K(c) is the splitting field of Irr(c, K) and hence is equal to K(d), for every conjugate d of c over K.

c) Every extension F/K that has  $\mathcal{I}(F/K)$  a chain is primitive: if  $c, d \in F$  have the same minimal polynomial g over K, then  $[K(c) : K] = [K(d) : K] = \deg g$  and this implies K(c) = K(d) since there is at most one extension of a given degree over K in the chain I(F/K). In particular, the extensions of prime degree are primitive.

#### **2.3. Proposition.** Let F/K be an extension of fields. Then:

a) F/K is primitive  $\Leftrightarrow E \in (F/K), E/K$  is primitive  $\Leftrightarrow \forall E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K), E$  is primitive in F over K.

b) If F/K is primitive and  $E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ , then F/E is primitive.

**Proof.** a) Suppose F/K is primitive and let  $E \in \mathcal{I}(F/K)$ , c, d elements in E (or in  $F \setminus E$ ). If c and d are conjugate over K, then K(c) = K(d), so E is primitive in F over K. The converse is evident.

b) Let  $c, d \in F$  with the same minimal polynomial g over E. We have to show that E(c) = E(d). Let  $\gamma = \operatorname{Irr}(c, K) \in K[X]$  and  $\delta = \operatorname{Irr}(d, K) \in K[X]$ . Obviously, g divides  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  (in E[X]), so  $\operatorname{gcd}(\gamma, \delta)$  is not a unit in E[X]. But the gcd of  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  is obtained by Euclid's algorithm and is the same in E[X] and K[X], so the irreducible monic polynomials  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  are equal since they have a nontrivial common factor. Since F/K is primitive, we have K(c) = K(d). So E(c) = E(K(c)) = E(K(d)) = E(d).

**2.4. Remark.** If in the chained extensions  $K \subseteq E \subseteq F$ , E/K is primitive and F/E is primitive, then F/K is not necessarily primitive. Take for instance  $K = \mathbb{Q}, E = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}), F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2}, \omega)$ , where  $\omega$  is a primitive third root of unity:  $\operatorname{Irr}(\omega, \mathbb{Q}) = X^2 + X + 1$ . Then  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  and  $\omega\sqrt[3]{2}$  are conjugate over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but generate different extensions, so F/K is not primitive. But E/K and F/E are primitive, having prime degrees. This example also shows that a finite extension having a square free degree is not automatically primitive, as claimed in [[2], Proposition 2.3].

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