



CONCURSO PARA PROFESSOR ADJUNTO A - IM
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② Teorema da Média e o Princípio do Máximo para funções harmônicas.

Def: $u: \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called harmonic if
open Ω

1) $u \in C^2(\Omega)$

2) $\Delta u = 0$, where Δ is Laplaciano:

$$\Delta := \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2}$$

Examples: 1) constante

2) $u = a + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i + \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} x_i x_j$

3) fundamental solution:

we look for $u = u(r)$ solution of $\Delta u = 0$

spherical coordinates $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^{n-1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = 0$

$$r^{n-1} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} = c_1$$

$$u = \begin{cases} c_1 \ln(r) + c_2, & n=2 \\ c_1 r^{2-n} + c_2, & n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

Def:

$$E(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln|x|, & n=2 \\ \frac{1}{(2-n)|S_1|} |x|^{2-n}, & n \geq 3 \end{cases}$$

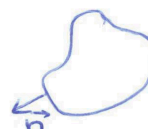
$|S_1|$ is the area of unit sphere in $\mathbb{R}^n$

4) real and imaginary part of complex analytic functions $(\varphi + i\psi)$ due to Cauchy-Riemann equalities

Useful formula: (Green) $\forall u, v \in C^2(\Omega)$, Ω -open, $\partial\Omega \in C^2$ (smooth enough to have normal)

$$\int_{\Omega} (\Delta u \cdot v - u \cdot \Delta v) dx = \int_{\partial\Omega} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial n} \cdot v - u \cdot \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} \right) dS(x)$$

Here $\frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = \nabla u \cdot n$ - normal derivative





! I know that I have somewhere error in signs ($\pm$), but do not have enough time to find where exactly it is. Please see modulo $\pm$.

Proposition 1: (representation of a C^2 -function in terms of potentials)

$$u \in C^2(\Omega), \quad x_0 \in \Omega$$

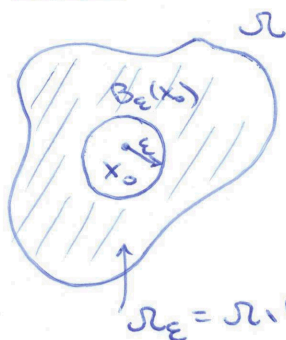
Then

$$u(x_0) = - \int_{\Omega} \Delta u(y) E(x_0 - y) dy + \int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) E(x_0 - y) dS(y) - \int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial E}{\partial n}(x_0 - y) u(y) dS(y)$$

Proof:

Idea: use Green formula for

u and $v = E$ - fundamental solution in $\Omega_{\varepsilon} = \Omega \setminus B_{\varepsilon}(x_0)$.



We need to exclude $B_{\varepsilon}(x_0)$ to use the fact that $\Delta E(x_0 - y) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega_{\varepsilon}} (\Delta u(y) E(x_0 - y) - u(y) \Delta_y E(x_0 - y)) dy &= \int_{\partial \Omega_{\varepsilon}} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) E(x_0 - y) dS(y) \\ &\quad - \int_{\partial \Omega_{\varepsilon}} u(y) \frac{\partial E}{\partial n}(x_0 - y) dS(y) \end{aligned}$$

First, we state, then prove:

1) $\Delta E = 0$ in Ω_{ε} [by def. of fund. solution]

2) $\int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \cdot E(x_0 - y) dS(y) \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} 0$

3) $\int_{\partial B_{\varepsilon}(x_0)} u(y) \frac{\partial E}{\partial n}(x_0 - y) dS(y) \rightarrow u(x_0)$

From these three statements the formula in Prop. 1 follows.

Proof of 2): $\int_{S_{\varepsilon}(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \cdot \frac{\text{const}}{|x_0 - y|^{n-2}} dS(y) =$ / change of variables /
to spherical
 $x_0 - y = x_0 - \varepsilon z$

$$\begin{aligned} S_{\varepsilon}(x_0) &= \partial B_{\varepsilon}(x_0) \\ &= \int_{S_1(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(\varepsilon z) \cdot \text{const} \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^{n-1}}{\varepsilon^{n-2}} dS(z) \sim c \cdot \varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as $|\frac{\partial u}{\partial n}| \leq M$ ($u \in C^2$)



Proof of 3): $\frac{\partial \varepsilon(x_0 - y)}{\partial n} = \frac{1}{|S_1| (2-n)} \left(\frac{1}{r^{n-2}} \right)' \Big|_{r=x_0-y} = \frac{1}{|S_1|} \frac{1}{|x_0-y|^{n-1}}$

$$\int_{S_\varepsilon(x_0)} u(y) \cdot \frac{1}{|S_1|} \underbrace{\frac{1}{|x_0-y|^{n-1}}}_{\varepsilon} dS(y) = \underbrace{\int_{S_\varepsilon(x_0)} u(y) dS(y)}_{\text{mean over a sphere } S_\varepsilon(x_0)} \xrightarrow{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} u(x_0) \text{ as } u \text{ is cont.}$$

Q.E.D.

Thm (mean-value theorem for harmonic functions):

$u: \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ - harmonic

Then $\forall x_0 \in \Omega$
 $\forall r > 0$

$$u(x_0) = \frac{1}{|B_r(x_0)|} \int_{B_r(x_0)} u(y) dy$$

(or equivalently $u(x_0) = \frac{1}{|S_r(x_0)|} \int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) dy$)

Comment: to check the equivalency just write

$$u(x_0) \cdot |B_r(x_0)| \cdot r^n = \int_{B_r(x_0)} u(y) dy = \int_0^r \int_{S_\rho(x_0)} \dots$$

and differentiate in r . The same for sphere but instead of differentiation integrate.

Proof:

Idea: use Prop. 1 for $\Omega = B_r(x_0)$. We have

$$u(x_0) = - \int_{B_r(x_0)} \Delta u(y) \varepsilon(x_0 - y) dy + \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \varepsilon(x_0 - y) dS(y) - \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial n}(x_0 - y) u(y) dS(y)$$

as u is harmonic

We have:

1) $\int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \varepsilon(x_0 - y) dy = 0$ and 2) $\int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial n}(x_0 - y) u(y) dy = \int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) dS(y)$



Proof of 1):

$$\int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{(2-n)|S_1|} \frac{1}{r^{n-2}}}_{\text{constant}} dS(y) = C_1 \cdot \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) dy$$

Again use Green formula for u and $v \equiv 1$. We obtain

$$\underbrace{\int_{B_r(x_0)} (\Delta u \cdot 1 - u \cdot \Delta 1) dy}_{=0} = \underbrace{\int_{S_r(x_0)} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \cdot 1 - u \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\partial 1}{\partial n}}_{=0} \right) dS(y)}_{=0} \Rightarrow \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} = 0$$

Proof of 2) $\int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) \cdot \frac{\partial \varepsilon(x_0 - y)}{\partial n} dS(y) = \int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) \cdot \frac{1}{|S_1|} \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} dS(y) =$

$$= \int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) dy \text{ by def.}$$

Q.E.D.

It turns out that the inverse statement is also true.

[Thm] (Inverse of mean-value theorem)

$\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ - open

Let $\forall x_0 \in \Omega \quad u(x_0) = \int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) dy \Rightarrow$

- 1) $u \in C^\infty(\Omega)$
- 2) $\Delta u = 0$

Proof:

Let us first prove 2). As we have already seen, the Green formula for u and $v \equiv \varepsilon$ for $\Omega = B_r(x_0)$ gives:

$$\underbrace{-u(x_0)}_{\text{circled}} = \int_{B_r(x_0)} \Delta u \cdot \varepsilon + \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \frac{1}{|S_1|(2-n)} \frac{1}{r^{n-2}} dS(y) - \underbrace{\int_{S_r(x_0)} u(y) dy}_{\text{circled}}$$

The terms in $\bigcirc$ coincide by assumption of the Theorem

Thus, we have (see next



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$$\int_{B_r(x_0)} \Delta u \cdot \varepsilon + \int_{S_r(x_0)} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(y) \frac{1}{|S_r|(2-n)} \frac{1}{r^{n-2}} dS(y) = 0$$

"

$$+ \frac{1}{|S_r|(2-n)r^{n-2}} \int_{B_r(x_0)} \Delta u(y) dy$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{B_r(x_0)} \Delta u \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{|x_0-y|^{n-2}} - \frac{1}{r^{n-2}}}_{\stackrel{!}{=} 0} \right) dS(y) \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{|S_r|(2-n)}}_{\text{constant}} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta u \equiv 0.$$

Proof of 1) Let us prove that $u \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$.

One can use mollifiers

$$\eta(x) = \text{graph of a bell-shaped curve centered at 0}$$

$$\eta \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \quad \text{supp } \eta = [-1, 1]$$

$$\eta_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^n} \eta\left(\frac{\|x\|}{\varepsilon}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$u_\varepsilon = u * \eta_\varepsilon \text{ is } C^\infty \text{ and } u_\varepsilon \rightarrow u$$

↑
convolution



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Thm (Maximum principle)

Let $u: \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be harmonic
 Ω - open, connected ($\forall x_1, x_2 \in \Omega \exists$ curve $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\gamma(a) = x_1, \gamma(b) = x_2, \gamma \subset \Omega$)



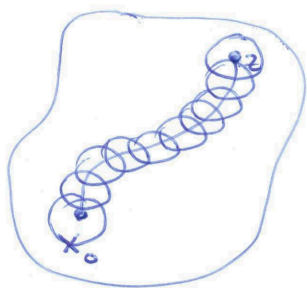
Let $\arg \max_{x \in \Omega} u = x_0 \in \text{Int}(\Omega) \Rightarrow u \equiv \text{const}$

Corollary: $\max_{x \in \bar{\Omega}} u(x) = \max_{x \in \partial \Omega} u(x)$. Maximum is attained at $\partial \Omega$
The same with minimum.

Proof: use mean-value theorem

$$u(x_0) = \int_{B_r(x_0)} u(y) dy \Leftrightarrow 0 = \int_{B_r(x_0)} (u(x_0) - u(y)) dy$$

$\Rightarrow u(y) \equiv u(x_0)$ for $y \in B_r(x_0)$.



Take any $z \in \Omega$ and a curve $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $\gamma(a) = x_0$
 $\gamma(b) = z$

Cover $\gamma[a, b]$ with finite number of balls (it is possible as $\gamma[a, b]$ is a compact set)

Then in all balls the value equals to $u(x_0)$

Thus $u(z) = u(x_0) \Rightarrow u \equiv u(x_0)$ constant



Q.E.D.



Applications:

Thm (uniqueness of solutions to Dirichlet problem) of Poisson equation

$\exists u \in C^2(\Omega)$:

$$\begin{cases} \Delta u = f & \text{in } \Omega \\ u|_{\partial\Omega} = g \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow$ If solution exists it is unique

Proof: Take u_1, u_2 - two solutions.

$$\text{Let } v = u_1 - u_2 \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{cases} \Delta v = 0 & \text{in } \Omega \\ v|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \min_{\bar{\Omega}} v = \max_{\bar{\Omega}} v = 0 \Rightarrow v \equiv 0 \Rightarrow u_1 \equiv u_2 \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

Max principle can be made more "strict"

Thm u - harmonic, $\partial\Omega$ is smooth enough

$$\exists x_0 = \arg\max_{x \in \bar{\Omega}} u(x) \in \partial\Omega$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}(x_0) > 0.$$

(without proof, but idea is to use barrier function)



⑤ Inverse function theorem, Implicit function theorem and applications.

$$\text{Let } \begin{cases} y_1 = f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ y_n = f_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

We would like to solve the inverse problem:

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = g_1(y_1, \dots, y_n) \\ \vdots \\ x_n = g_n(y_1, \dots, y_n) \end{cases}$$

When is it possible?

Idea: if we look at linear eqs $y = Ax$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$
A - matrix $n \times n$

then $x = A^{-1}y$ if A is invertible

($\exists A^{-1}$ or $\det A \neq 0$ or $\text{rank } A = n$)

In the vicinity of every point $(x^0, \dots, x_n^0)$ the relation (1) is approximated by a linear operator

$$y = DF(x^0) \cdot x, \text{ where } DF = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

So we guess that if

$DF(x^0) \neq 0$ then (at least locally) we have inverse

This is called inverse function theorem.

Thm

(Inverse Function Theorem)

$$f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$\uparrow$
open
 $x_0 \in U$

$$\Rightarrow \bullet f \in C^1(U)$$

$$\bullet DF(x_0) \text{ is invertible}$$

$$f(x_0) = y_0$$

Then: 1) $\exists U_1, V_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ - neighborhoods of x_0 and y_0 resp.
s.t. $f(U_1) = V_1$ and f is bijection

$$(\Rightarrow \exists f^{-1} =: g: V_1 \rightarrow U_1)$$

$$2) g \in C^1(V_1)$$

Remark:

condition $f \in C^1(U)$ is important.

Counterexample

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} + x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

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$f'(0) = \frac{1}{2}$, but f is not locally invertible



Proof:

Take $\lambda : 2\lambda \cdot \|A^{-1}\| = 1$

and $x \in \mathcal{U}$ s.t. $\|f'(x) - A\| < \lambda$

Let $\varphi(x) = x + A^{-1}(y - f(x))$ for some $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Note that $\varphi(x) = x \Leftrightarrow y = f(x)$

So if for any fixed y we prove that φ has a unique fixed point, we prove that $y = f(x)$ has unique solution x .

To prove it, we need the following auxiliary notions and statements:

Def: $\varphi: M \rightarrow M$ is a contraction if $\exists K < 1$
 $d(\varphi(x_1), \varphi(x_2)) \leq K d(x_1, x_2) \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in M$
for M being a complete metric space

Thm (Contraction point ~~the~~ maps theorem)
 $\varphi: M \rightarrow M$ - contraction $\Rightarrow \exists!$ fixed point $x \in M$.
 M - complete metric space $\varphi(x) = x$.

Continuation of the proof. Plan:

1. φ is a contraction

2. $\varphi: B_r(x_0) \rightarrow B_r(x_0)$
complete metric space

3. 1+2 $\Rightarrow \varphi$ has a unique fixed point by contraction maps theorem $\Rightarrow \exists f^{-1} =: g$

$\exists U, V$

3. $f(U) = V$, is open and $g: V \rightarrow U$ is well-defined

4. $g \in C^1(V)$



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• Proof of 1)

$$\Phi'(x) = I - A^{-1} f'(x) = A^{-1} A - A^{-1} f'(x) = A^{-1} (A - f'(x))$$

$$\|\Phi'(x)\| \leq \|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|A - f'(x)\| \leq \frac{1}{2\lambda} \cdot \lambda = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\Phi(x_1) - \Phi(x_2)\| \leq \|\Phi'(x)\| \cdot \|x_1 - x_2\| \leq \frac{1}{2} \|x_1 - x_2\|$$

• Proof of 2) Take $x \in B_r(x_0)$.

$$\|\Phi(x) - \Phi(x_0)\| \leq \underbrace{\|\Phi(x) - \Phi(x_0)\|}_{\frac{1}{2} \|x - x_0\|} + \underbrace{\|\Phi(x_0) - x_0\|}_{\|A^{-1}\| \cdot \|y - f(x_0)\|} \leq \|x - x_0\| \leq r$$

$$\frac{1}{2\lambda} \cdot \|x - x_0\| \cdot \lambda$$

$$\forall y \in B_{\lambda r}(f(x_0))$$

at least for $y \in B_{\lambda r}(f(x_0))$.

$$\exists! x:$$

$$\Phi(x) = x \Rightarrow \exists! x \in U: y = f(x)$$

Thus by contraction map theorem

• Take $V_1 = B_{\lambda r}(f(x_0)) \setminus S_{\lambda r}(f(x_0))$ - open ball

As we have seen above for all $y \in V_1$ $\exists! x \in U$

thus we can define $f^{-1} = g : x \mapsto y$

$$g : V_1 \rightarrow g(V_1)$$

clear that it is open

Proof of 4) To prove this we will prove that $\exists!$

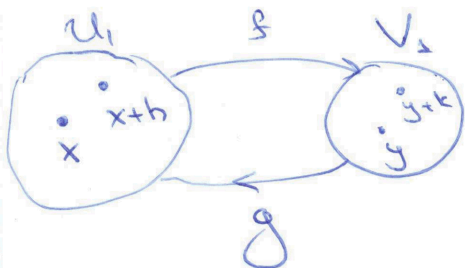
$$\frac{\|g(y+k) - g(y) - Tk\|}{\|k\|} \leq \text{const.}$$

$$\frac{\|f(x+h) - f(x) - Af(x) \cdot h\|}{\|h\|} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{as } \|h\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\text{LHS} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \|k\| \rightarrow 0}$$

$$\bullet \quad \|k\| \leq \frac{\|h\|}{\lambda}$$





Thm (Implicit Function Theorem)

$$F: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad F \in C^1$$

$$\exists F(x_0, y_0) = 0, \quad x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^k \\ y_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\exists \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) \text{ is invertible, then}$$

$$\exists W \subset \mathbb{R}^k \text{ and function } \varphi: W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m:$$

$$1) \varphi(x_0) = y_0$$

$$2) F(x, \varphi(x)) \equiv 0 \quad \forall x \in W.$$

Proof:

Consider a map: $G: \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k \times \mathbb{R}^m$
 $(x, y) \mapsto (x, F(x, y))$

For this function we can use Inverse Function Theorem. Indeed

$$DG|_{(x_0, y_0)} = \begin{pmatrix} I_k & 0 \\ 0 & D_y F \end{pmatrix} \Big|_{(x_0, y_0)} \Rightarrow \det DG|_{(x_0, y_0)} = \det D_y F \neq 0$$

So there exists an inverse function

$$(x, z) \mapsto (x, G(x, z))$$

The first coordinate does not change ($x \mapsto x$)

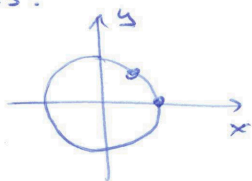
We are looking for $F(x_0, y_0) = 0$, thus the desired function $\varphi(x) := G(x, 0)$ Q.E.D.



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Applications:

example:



$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

At every point $(x_0, y_0) \neq (\pm 1, 0)$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = 2y_0 \neq 0$$

$$F(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists \overset{\text{inverse}}{y} = \sqrt{1 - x^2}, \text{ for } y > 0$$

$$y = -\sqrt{1 - x^2} \text{ for } y < 0.$$

For $(\pm 1, 0)$ there does not exist an inverse.



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③ Fundamental theorem of Galois and applications.
Galois theory was invented to answer the following questions: Sorry for unstructured text, only some ideas,
1) Can one solve polynomial eqs of type

$$X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_1X + a_0 = 0$$

using only "+", "-", ":", "x" and radicals?

We know explicit answers for $n=2,3,4$ (yes),
using radicals, may be $\sqrt{a \pm \sqrt{b \pm \sqrt{c}}}$

Galois theory can prove negative answer for $n=5$
and for any concrete eq. give an algorithm
how to understand the answer.

2) Classical geometric questions.

- Can one using only "a ruler" and "compass" (to draw circles) construct a ~~circle of the~~ square of the same area as a given circle? (No)
- The same question for "doubling of the edge of a cube in $\mathbb{R}^3$ " (No)
- The same question for constructing $\sqrt[3]{\frac{\alpha}{3}}$ for a given angle α . (No)

The main concepts are:

Def: K -field, E -extension of a field if E is a field and $K \subseteq E$

Galois study possible extensions of the fields K
constructing a sequence of extensions give one-to-one
 $K \subseteq E_1 \subseteq E_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq E_n$ and connect them

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correspondance
to some objects in group theory, namely group of auto-morphisms of extension and their subgroups



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K -field
 $K[x]$ - space of polynomials with coefficients in K
 $p \in K[x]$ of order n .

If $\exists d \in K: p(x) = d$, then $p(x) = (x-d) \cdot p_1(x)$, $p_1 \in K[x]$
We know that if K is algebraically closed then
 $p(x)$ can be decomposed in a product of
linear functions:

$$(i) \quad p(x) = (x-d_1)^{d_1} \cdots (x-d_k)^{d_k}, \quad d_1 + \dots + d_k = n.$$

~~But in general~~ This is an analogue of number
theory when $a \in \mathbb{R}$ can be presented as a
product of prime numbers.

The analogue of prime numbers is the
"primitive polynomials"

But if K is not algebraically closed, the
decomposition (i) will be with higher order
polynomials.

The idea is that we can extend the field
 K and include some roots.

Example: $p(x) = x^2 - 2$, $K = \mathbb{Q}$, $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$

But we can consider

$$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \{a + b\sqrt{2}, a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}$$

This is a field and in this

field $p(x) = (x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})$ can be
decomposed.

Def: ~~Let~~ let α be a root of some polynomial $p(x)$
Take $p(x)$ with minimal possible order.
 $K(\alpha) := K[x]/p(x)$ - simple extension of K .

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Note: $K(\alpha)$ is a vector space over K with and



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~~and~~ also is the minimal field that contains both α and K .

The fields of decomposition of irreducible polynomials (that can not be decomposed in K) play important role in Galois theory.

Another object is $\text{Aut}_K(E)$ - group of all automorphisms j of extension $K \subseteq E$ such that
 $j(x) = x \quad \forall x \in K$. (K is fixed)
not moving under j

Properties: 1. $j \in \text{Aut}_K(E)$

If α is a root of some polynomial, then $j(\alpha)$ is again a root of the same polynomial.

2. $|\text{Aut}_K(E)| \leq n!$ $\text{Aut}_K(E)$ is a subgroup of S_n (group of permutations)

$K \subseteq E$ - extension of K

Take $f \in \text{Aut}_K(E)$. Consider $E_1 = \{a \in E : f(a) = a\}$
(E_1 is not changing under f)

So there is a correspondence of

some extensions $E \leftrightarrow G \subseteq \text{Aut}_K(E)$ - subgroup of automorphisms that do not change E .

This correspondence is not always bijective
Galois characterized all situations when this is

bijective (homomorphisms - preserve operations too)



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$$K \subseteq E_1 \subseteq E, \quad K \subseteq E_2 \subseteq E$$

If E_1, E_2 are two extensions $E_1 \cap E_2$ is also an extension.

If G_1, G_2 are ~~two~~ subgroups of $\text{Aut}_K(E)$, then

$G_1 \cap G_2$ is also subgroup.

Moreover, the correspondance is still valid

$$E_1 \cap E_2 \leftrightarrow G_1 \cap G_2$$

Galois introduced the notion of extension of Galois
~~They correspond to~~ and proved that ~~every~~ ~~corres-~~
~~ponding subgroup~~ of $\text{Aut}_K(E)$ ~~should be~~ is
(*poznamenaniya*) ... sorry for Russian