

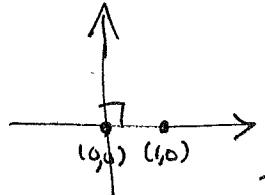
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proof of THEOREM: To show every $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}_{con}$ lies in some tower

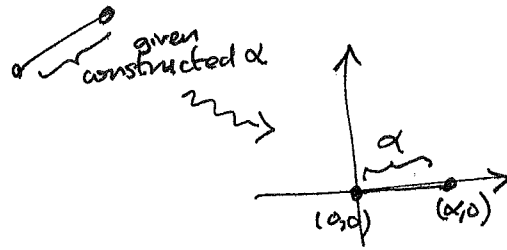
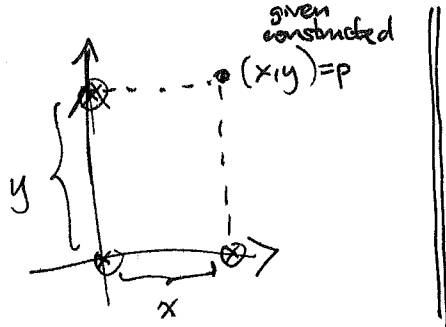
$$\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{K}_1 \subset \mathbb{K}_2 \subset \dots \subset \mathbb{K}_r \ni \alpha$$

$\mathbb{K}_0 \quad \mathbb{K}_0(\sqrt{\alpha_1}) \quad \mathbb{K}_1(\sqrt{\alpha_2}) \quad \mathbb{K}_{r-1}(\sqrt{\alpha_r})$

introduce coordinates in \mathbb{R}^2 using the original $(0,0), (1,0)$



and note that $\mathbb{K}_{con} = \{x \text{ or } y \text{ appearing in any constructed point } (x,y)\}$:



The theorem follows by induction on the number of construction steps used to reach $p = (x,y)$ if we can show these facts:

PROPOSITION: ^(a) If p_0, p_1 have coordinates in a field $\mathbb{K} \subset \mathbb{R}$,

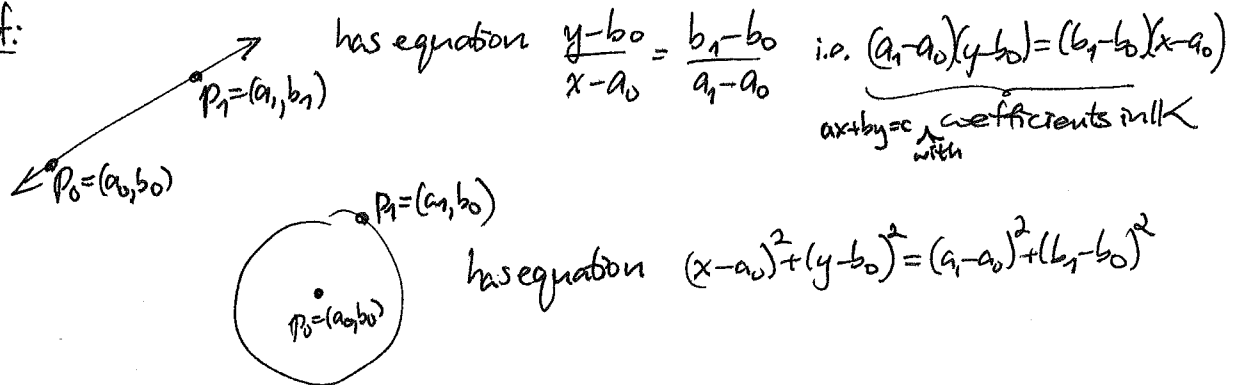
(K.5.5)

the line $\overleftrightarrow{p_0 p_1}$ has equation $ax + by = c$ with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{K}$

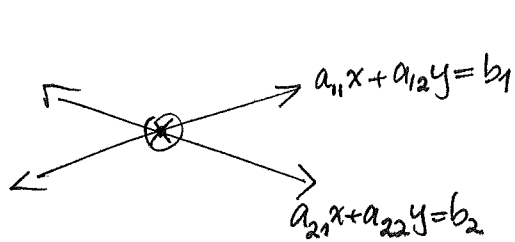
and circle centered at p_0 through p_1 has a quadratic equation with coefficients in \mathbb{K} .

^(b) Intersecting two such lines gives a point with coefficients in \mathbb{K} , and intersecting such a circle and line or two circles gives points whose coefficients lie in \mathbb{K} or some $\mathbb{K}(\sqrt{\alpha})$ where $\alpha \in \mathbb{K}$

proof:



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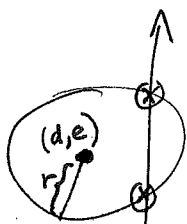
line intersection comes from ~~the~~ solution to

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

A

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{A^{-1}}_{\substack{\text{exists in } \mathbb{K} \text{ if } \\ \text{entries in } \mathbb{K}}} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$A \in \mathbb{K}^{2 \times 2}$



line-circle intersections come from solutions to

$$\begin{aligned} (x-d)^2 + (y-e)^2 &= r^2 \\ ax + by &= c \end{aligned}$$

Assuming $b \neq 0$ WLOG, write $y = \frac{c-ax}{b}$

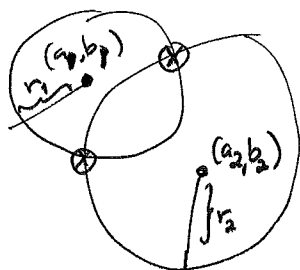
substitute $(x-d)^2 + \left(\frac{c-ax}{b} - e\right)^2 = r^2$

giving a quadratic equation for x of form

$$Ax^2 + Bx + C = 0 \text{ with } A, B, C \in \mathbb{K}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A} \in \mathbb{K}(\sqrt{B^2 - 4AC})$$

and then $y = \frac{c-ax}{b} \in \mathbb{K}(\sqrt{B^2 - 4AC})$



circle-circle intersections come from solutions to

$$\begin{cases} (x-a_1)^2 + (y-b_1)^2 = r_1^2 \\ (x-a_2)^2 + (y-b_2)^2 = r_2^2 \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} x^2 - 2a_1x + a_1^2 + y^2 - 2b_1y + b_1^2 = r_1^2 \\ x^2 - 2a_2x + a_2^2 + y^2 - 2b_2y + b_2^2 = r_2^2 \end{cases}$$

} subtract

$$2(a_2 - a_1)x + a_1^2 - a_2^2 + 2(b_2 - b_1)y + b_1^2 - b_2^2 = r_1^2 - r_2^2$$

linear, of form $Ax + By = C$ with $A, B, C \in \mathbb{K}$

Hence solutions to $(x-a_1)^2 + (y-b_1)^2 = r_1^2$
 $Ax + By = C$

again come from a quadratic equation on x , giving $x \in \mathbb{K}(\sqrt{\Delta})$
 $y \in \mathbb{K}(\sqrt{\Delta})$. \square

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§15.6 Adjoining roots

It's handy to be able to extend a field F to some (larger one) K where a given $f(x) \in F[x]$ has all its roots, i.e. $f(x) = c(x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_2)\dots(x-\alpha_n)$ with $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$

(e.g. when $F \subset \mathbb{C}$, like $F = \mathbb{Q}$ or \mathbb{R})
(we've used $K = \mathbb{C}$ like this before)

One can always find such a K (not surprising)

but one can also predict whether the roots $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$ will be distinct ahead of time via a calculation inside $F[x]$!

PROPOSITION: Given $f(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in F[x]$,

(15.6.3
15.6.6
15.6.7
15.6.8)

(a) \exists a field $K \supseteq F$ where $f(x)$ splits completely,
i.e. $f(x) = a_n(x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_2)\dots(x-\alpha_n)$ with $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$
in $K[x]$

(b) the $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are distinct in K

$$\iff \gcd_{K[x]}(f(x), f'(x)) = \gcd_{F[x]}(f(x), f'(x)) = 1$$

~~where~~

$$\text{where } f'(x) := n a_n x^{n-1} + (n-1) a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \dots + 2 a_2 x + a_1$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n i a_i x^{i-1}$$

(c) and in particular, if $f(x)$ is irreducible in $F[x]$

then the $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are distinct $\iff f'(x) \neq 0$,

which always happens if $\text{char}(F) = 0$

(and can only fail if $\text{char}(F) = p$ with $f(x) = g(x^p)$ for some $g(x) \in F[x]$)

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Before proving it, let's look at ...

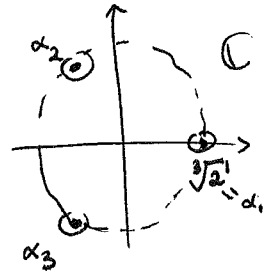
EXAMPLES:① $f(x) = x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ does not split completely in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{2})[x]$

$$= (x - \sqrt[3]{2})(x^2 + \sqrt[3]{2}x + (\sqrt[3]{2})^2)$$

but it does split completely in $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \sqrt[3]{2} & \omega \sqrt[3]{2} & \omega^2 \sqrt[3]{2} \\ \parallel & \parallel & \parallel \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \end{array}$$

$$\omega = e^{2\pi i/3}$$



$$\text{as } f(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3).$$

We could have guessed $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ were distinct ahead of time

$$\text{because } \gcd(f(x), f'(x)) = \gcd(x^3 - 2, 3x^2) = 1$$

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② On the other hand, $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$

$$\text{has } f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x = 3x(x-2)$$

which has $x-2$ dividing $\gcd(f(x), f'(x))$ since $f(2) = 8 - 3 \cdot 4 + 4 = 0$
 (in fact $x-2 = \gcd(f(x), f'(x))$).

Hence $f(x)$ must have repeated roots, and can check $f(x) = (x-2)^2(x+1)$ ③ $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \in \mathbb{F}_2[x]$ does not split completely in $\mathbb{F}_2[x]$ but it does in $\mathbb{F}_4[x]$ where $\mathbb{F}_4 = \mathbb{F}_2[\alpha]/(\alpha^2 + \alpha + 1)$

$$= \{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha + 1\}$$

$$\text{as } f(x) = (x + \alpha)(x + \alpha + 1) \quad (= (x - \alpha)(x - (\alpha + 1)))$$

It had distinct roots since $f'(x) = 2x + 1 = 1$ has $\gcd(f(x), f'(x)) = 1$

$$\text{But } g(x) = x^4 + x^2 + 1 = (x^2 + x + 1)^2 \text{ in } \mathbb{F}_2[x]$$

$$\text{does not have distinct roots in } \mathbb{F}_4[x] : g(x) = (x - \alpha)^2(x - (\alpha + 1))^2,$$

$$\text{which was predictable from } f'(x) = 4x^3 + 2x = 0$$

$$\text{so } \gcd(f(x), f'(x)) = f(x) = x^2 + x + 1 \neq 1.$$

(Note $g(x) = f(x^2)$ where $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$ from above)