

Today: Impossible Constructions.

Wed: Gauss-Wantzel Theorem.

Recall:

• A point $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is constructible if it can be obtained from $(0, 0)$ & $(1, 0)$ via (Euclidean) compass & straightedge.

• Let \mathbb{Q}_{sgt} be set of real numbers obtainable from 0 & 1 by repeated operations of the form $+$, $-$, \times , \div , $\sqrt{\quad}$.

This is a field $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sgt}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

e.g. $2 + \sqrt{\frac{1 + \sqrt{3 + \sqrt{5}}}{2}} \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sgt}}$.

Theorem (Descartes, officially: Wantzel 1837):
1637

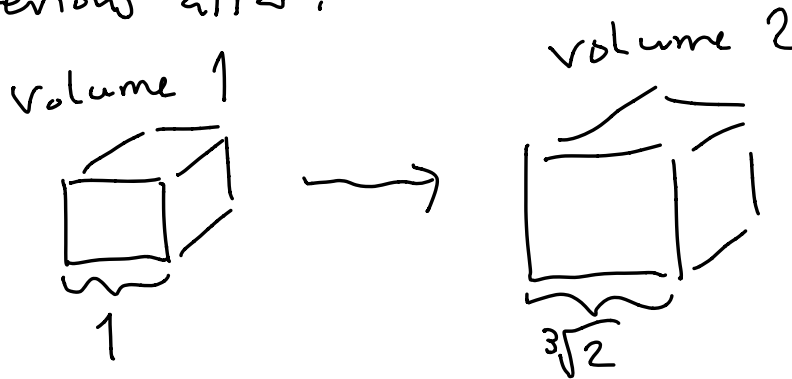
point (a, b)
constructible $\iff a, b \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sgt}}$.

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Today we will use this to prove the impossibility of 3 classical problems:

① The "Delian Problem."

Oracle at Delos: To stop the plague construct new altar of twice size of previous altar.



Required to use straightedge & compass.

Modern Translation:

Given points $(0,0)$ & $(1,0)$ construct the point $(\sqrt[3]{2}, 0)$, i.e.,

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}} ?$$

② Angle Trisection.

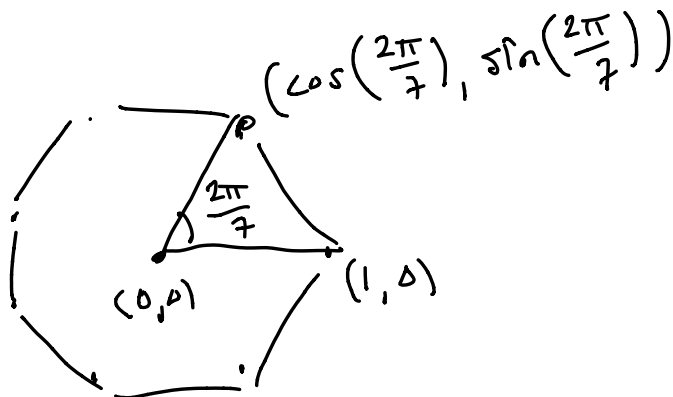
Given angle θ , construct angle $\theta/3$:



Algebraically:

$$\cos \theta \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}} \stackrel{?}{\implies} \cos \frac{\theta}{3} \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}}.$$

③ Construct Regular Heptagon.



$$\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{7}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}} \quad ?$$

[Note: $\cos \theta \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}} \iff \sin \theta \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqrt}}$.]

We will prove that (1), (2), (3) are impossible by showing that

$$(1) \quad \sqrt[3]{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}$$

$$(2) \quad \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}$$

$$\text{BUT } \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{9}\right) \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}.$$

$$(3) \quad \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{7}\right) \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}.$$

Amazingly, we can prove all 3 at the same time with the following result.

Theorem: Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ have degree 3. Then

$f(x)$ has a root
in $\mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}$

\implies

$f(x)$ has a
root in \mathbb{Q} .

Equivalently,

$f(x)$ has no
root in \mathbb{Q}

\implies

$f(x)$ has no
root in $\mathbb{Q}_{\text{sqr t}}$.

Before proving this let's see how to use it.

① Let $f(x) = x^3 - 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$
and $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{2} \in \mathbb{R}$.

Note $f(\alpha) = 0$. But $f(x)$ has no root in \mathbb{Q} , hence has no root in $\mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}$, hence $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}$.

② Let $\alpha = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{9}\right)$. Triple angle identity:

$$4 \cos^3 \frac{\theta}{3} - 3 \cos \frac{\theta}{3} - \cos \theta = 0.$$

Let $\theta = 2\pi/3$:

$$4 \cos^3\left(\frac{2\pi}{9}\right) - 3 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{9}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = 0$$

$$4\alpha^3 - 3\alpha + \frac{1}{2} = 0.$$

$$8\alpha^3 - 6\alpha + 1 = 0.$$

Let $f(x) = 8x^3 - 6x + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Since $f(\alpha) = 0$ and $f(x)$ has no root in \mathbb{Q} (check), we see that

$$\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}.$$

(3) Let $\alpha = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{7}\right)$. You showed on HW4 that

$$(2\alpha)^3 + (2\alpha)^2 - 2(2\alpha) - 1 = 0$$

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

has no root in \mathbb{Q} , we conclude

that $2\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}$, which implies

$$\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}.$$

[because $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}} \Rightarrow 2\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{split}}$.]

DONE ✓

So let's prove the theorem.

Proof: Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$
have degree 3,

and suppose that $f(\alpha) = 0$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_{\text{sgt}}$. We will show that f has some root in \mathbb{Q} .

By definition of \mathbb{Q}_{sgt} , there exists a chain of "quadratic field extensions":

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_k \supseteq \mathbb{F}_{k-1} \supseteq \dots \supseteq \mathbb{F}_2 \supseteq \mathbb{F}_1 \supseteq \mathbb{Q}$$

where \mathbb{F}_k is obtained from \mathbb{F}_{k-1} by "adjoining" the square root of some number, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{F}_k = \mathbb{F}_{k-1}(L_k) \text{ where}$$

$$L_k \in \mathbb{F}_k - \mathbb{F}_{k-1} \text{ \& } L_k^2 \in \mathbb{F}_{k-1}.$$

[Example: To get $\alpha = 1 + \sqrt{\frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{3}}$,

$$\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})\left(\sqrt{\frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{3}}\right)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & \frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{3} & 1 + \sqrt{\frac{1+\sqrt{2}}{3}} \end{array} \right]$$

That's it.

Discussion :

Do you like this proof?

What would the Greeks think?

This doesn't even look like geometry!

Sometimes we can only make progress
in mathematics by

changing the rules.



But this proof only works for
polynomials of degree 3.

More generally: Suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
satisfies $p(\alpha) = 0$ for some
prime polynomial $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Then it is true that

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}^{\text{split}} \iff \deg(p) \text{ is a power of } 2$$

But this is much harder to prove.

This (and related problems) led to a complete transformation of "algebra" in the years 1830–1930.

I will give a brief survey on Wednesday. [See my book "Algebra: 1830–1930" for the full story. Coming Soon!]