

Back Mon!

- ▶ Reading for today: 16.1–16.3.
- ▶ Reading for ~~Wed Apr 13~~: 16.4–16.5.
- ▶ PS08 due in one week(-ish).

(PS07 yesterday) Mon Apr 18

Symmetric polynomials

R a ring of coefficients.

- ▶ S_n (symmetric group on $\{1, \dots, n\}$) acts on $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ by permuting indices, and therefore acts on $R[u_1, \dots, u_n]$.
- ▶ To say that $g \in R[u_1, \dots, u_n]$ is a **symmetric polynomial** means that g is fixed by the action of every $\sigma \in S_n$. Example:

NB: can get symm poly by taking rand poly & symm

$$g(u_1, u_2, u_3) = u_1^2 u_3 + u_2^2 u_1 + u_3^2 u_2 + u_1^2 u_2 + u_2^2 u_1 + u_3^2 u_3 \quad [n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$$

- ▶ Key examples: the **elementary symmetric polynomials**:

$$\binom{n}{1} s_1 = u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + \dots + u_n \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{terms correspond to subsets} \\ \text{of } [n] \text{ of size 1} \end{array}$$

$$\binom{n}{2} s_2 = u_1 u_2 + u_1 u_3 + \dots + u_{n-1} u_n \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{terms correspond to subsets} \\ \text{of } [n] \text{ of size 2} \end{array}$$

$$\binom{n}{n} s_n = u_1 u_2 \dots u_n \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{subsets of } [n] \text{ of size } n \end{array}$$

The point of the elementary symmetric polynomials

If

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x - u_1)(x - u_2) \cdots (x - u_n) \\ &= x^n - a_1 x^{n-1} + a_2 x^{n-2} - \cdots \pm a_{n-1} x \mp a_n, \end{aligned}$$

then:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= u_1 + u_2 + \cdots + u_n \\ &= s_1(u_1, \dots, u_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_2 &= \text{comes from picking } n-2 \text{ terms to have } x \text{ and } 2 \text{ terms to have } u_i \\ &= u_1 u_2 + u_1 u_3 + \cdots + u_{n-1} u_n \quad \binom{\binom{n}{2}}{2} \\ &= s_2(u_1, \dots, u_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$a_i = s_i(u_1, \dots, u_n)$$

Symmetric polynomials give formula for how coefficients of f are expressed in terms of the roots of f

The Symmetric Functions Theorem

SFT

Theorem

If $g \in R[u_1, \dots, u_n]$ is symmetric, then g is a polynomial function of the elementary symmetric functions s_1, \dots, s_n .

Methods:

1. Solve for undetermined coefficients by plugging in well-chosen values for u_1, \dots, u_n .
2. Inductively:
 - ▶ Let $g^\circ(u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) = g(u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}, 0)$.
 - ▶ Solve for g° in terms of the elementary symmetric functions of one fewer variable: $g^\circ = Q(s_1^\circ, \dots, s_{n-1}^\circ)$.
 - ▶ **FACT:** $g - Q(s_1, \dots, s_n) = s_n h$, where h is a symmetric polynomial of degree smaller than $\deg g$. Can then solve for h by induction.

s_{h-1}

Ex $g = u_1^2 u_2 + u_2^2 u_3 + u_3^2 u_1 + u_2^2 u_1 + u_3^2 u_2 + u_1^2 u_3$

$s_2 = u_1 u_2 + u_1 u_3 + u_2 u_3$

$g = a s_3 + b s_1 s_2 + c s_1^3$ ← all possible monomials of *weighted* degree 3 in s_i

$g(1, 0, 0) = 0 = a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 1 \cdot 0 + c \cdot 1 \quad c = 0$

$s_1(1, 0, 0) = 1 + 0 + 0 = 1 \quad s_3 = 0$

$s_2(1, 0, 0) = 0 + 0 + 0 = 0$

$g(1, 1, 0) = 2 \quad s_1(1, 1, 0) = 2 \quad s_2(1, 1, 0) = 1$
 $2 = a \cdot 0 + b \cdot 2 \quad \boxed{b = 1}$ $s_3 = 0$

$g(1, 1, 1) = 6, s_1(1, 1, 1) = 3, s_2(1, 1, 1) = 3, s_3(1, 1, 1) = 1$
 $\Rightarrow 6 = a + 9 \Rightarrow \boxed{a = -3}$



Method 2 $g = u_1^2 u_2 + u_2^2 u_3 + u_3^2 u_1$
 $+ u_2^2 u_1 + u_3^2 u_2 + u_1^2 u_3$

$$g^0 = u_1^2 u_2 + u_2^2 u_1 = (u_1 u_2)(u_1 + u_2)$$

$$g^0 = s_1^0 s_2^0$$

lift to n
variables

$$s_1^0 = u_1 + u_2$$

$$s_2^0 = u_1 u_2$$

9 terms

$$g - s_1 s_2 = g - (u_1 + u_2 + u_3)(u_1 u_2 + u_1 u_3 + u_2 u_3)$$

$$= g - (g + 3s_3) = -3s_3 \quad g = s_1 s_2 - 3s_3$$

Why do we care about this right now?

Theorem

For $f \in F[x]$, suppose

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= x^n - a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} - \cdots \pm a_{n-1}x \mp a_n \\ &= (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n). \end{aligned}$$

$\swarrow x'$
 $\alpha_i \in K/F$

If $g(u_1, \dots, u_n)$ is symmetric in n variables with coefficients in F , then $g(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in F$.

Proof:

By SFT, $g = Q(s_1, \dots, s_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} g(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) &= Q(s_1(\alpha) \dots s_n(\alpha)) \\ &= Q(a_1 \dots a_n) \in F. \end{aligned}$$



Note: If you like symmetric polynomials, this leads to a whole field, algebraic combinatorics; see Zhang

The discriminant

Galois gp

We will eventually describe the symmetries of the roots of a given cubic or quartic polynomial in terms of the values of various symmetric polynomials of those roots. Most prominently:

Definition

Suppose

invariants

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= x^n - s_1x^{n-1} + s_2x^{n-2} - \dots \pm s_{n-1}x \mp s_n \\ &= (x - u_1)(x - u_2) \cdots (x - u_n). \end{aligned}$$

The **discriminant** of P is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} D(u) &= \prod_{i < j} (u_i - u_j)^2 \\ &= (u_1 - u_2)^2 (u_1 - u_3)^2 \cdots (u_{n-1} - u_n)^2. \end{aligned}$$

$D(u)$ is symmetric because it's really defined only in terms of the subsets of $[n]$, and those subsets are preserved by S_n . So $D(u) = \text{poly fn of coeffs}$.

$\binom{n}{2}$ terms

Properties of the discriminant

- ▶ Since $D(u)$ is symmetric, by SFT, $D(u) = \Delta(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ for some polynomial $\Delta(z_1, \dots, z_n)$.
- ▶ Therefore, if f is a polynomial with coefficients in F , then discriminant of f is a function of coefficients of f (and in particular, has value in F).
- ▶ If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in K$, then $D(\alpha) = 0$ iff $\alpha_i = \alpha_j$ for some $i < j$.
- ▶ For $n = 2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} D(u_1, u_2) &= (u_1 - u_2)^2 & s_1 &= u_1 + u_2 \\ & & s_2 &= u_1 u_2 \\ &= u_1^2 - 2u_1 u_2 + u_2^2 \\ &= s_1^2 - 4s_2 & P &= x^2 - s_1 x + s_2 \\ &= b^2 - 4c & &= x^2 + b x + c \end{aligned}$$

Discriminant
from HS
algebra!

Discriminant of a cubic, special case

D = disc in terms of roots; Delta = disc in terms of coeffs of f

Formula for discriminant of cubics and quartics is much more complicated, but we can figure out the special cases we need.

Example: After a change of variables, every cubic looks like $f(x) = x^3 + px + q$, whose discriminant is

$$\Delta = -4p^3 - 27q^2.$$

So if $f(x) = x^3 + px + q$ has roots $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$, we have

$$\Delta = -4p^3 - 27q^2 = (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)^2(\alpha_1 - \alpha_3)^2(\alpha_2 - \alpha_3)^2.$$

Something analogous, but more complicated, happens in 4 variables.

Definition of splitting field

16.3

$f \in F[x]$. To say that K/F is a **splitting field** for f over F means:

- ▶ $f = (x - \alpha_1) \dots (x - \alpha_n)$ over K , and
- ▶ $K = F(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$.

Existence of splitting fields

- ▶ Every $f(x) \in F[x]$ has some splitting field K/F , with $[K : F] < \infty$.
- ▶ For any L/F , there exists some splitting field K/F such that $F \subseteq L \subseteq K$.

Splitting Theorem

Definition

To say that K/F is **normal** means that if $g(x)$ is irreducible in $F[x]$ and g has one root in K , then g splits completely in K .

Theorem

Suppose K/F is a splitting field of $f(x) \in F[x]$. Then K/F is normal; i.e., if an irreducible $g(x) \in F[x]$ has one root in K , then it splits completely in K .

Not every extension is normal:

The Galois group of an extension

Definition

An **F -isomorphism** $\sigma : K/F \rightarrow K'/F$ is an isomorphism that is the identity on F . If $K = K'$, then σ is an **F -automorphism**.

Definition

$\text{Gal}(K/F)$ is the group of all F -automorphisms of K/F .

Definition

For a finite extension K/F , to say that K/F is a **Galois extension** means that $\text{Gal}(K/F) = [K : F]$.

Examples: $\mathbf{C/R}$

$\mathbf{Q(\sqrt{2})/Q}$