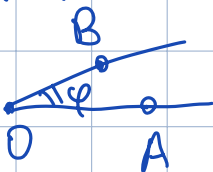


Construction for a heptadecagon Lecture 6

Def. (points constructible by ruler & compass)
 $P_0 = (0,0)$, $P_1 = (1,0)$. Suppose we have constructed $(P_0, \dots, P_n) := S_n$. Then P_{n+1} is one of the following

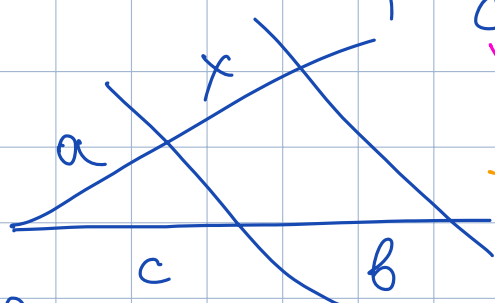
- 1) the intersection of 2 lines, each joining 2 points of S_n
- 2) $\longrightarrow \longrightarrow$ circles each with centre a point of S_n and radius the distance between 2 points of S_n
- 3) $\longrightarrow \longrightarrow$ circle & line $\longrightarrow \longrightarrow$

Similarly, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is constructible if \exists a constructible point on $x^2 = \alpha^2$, an angle is constructible:
 C s.t. $\angle COA = \varphi$  $\Rightarrow \exists$ a constructible

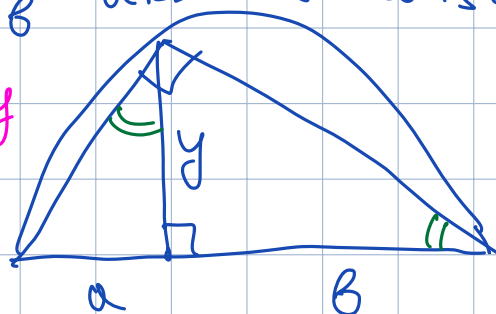
Euclid's Elements contains constructions for the regular triangle, square, pentagon, so $n = 3, 4, 5$ and 15. Also, clearly, having the regular n -gon we can construct the regular $2n$ -gon.

(or a polyquadratic numbers)

L. Let a, b, c be constructible numbers. Then $a \pm b$, $\frac{ab}{c}$, \sqrt{ab} are also constructible.



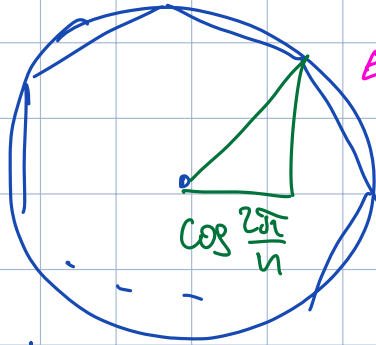
$$\frac{a}{x} = \frac{c}{b}$$



$$\frac{a}{y} = \frac{y}{b}$$

So, we have all arithmetic operations & $\sqrt{\quad}$

For example, we know that $\cos \frac{2\pi}{5} = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{4}$

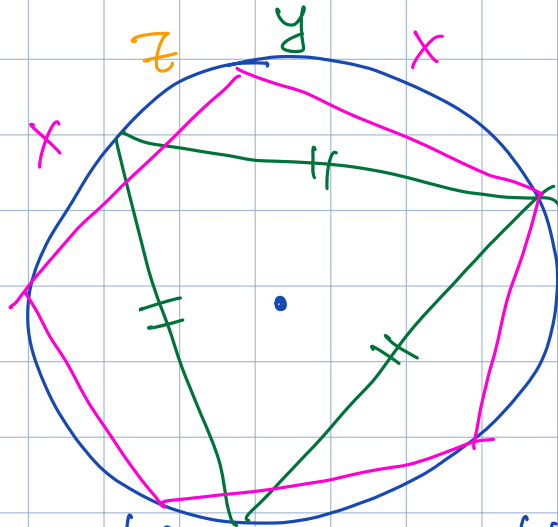


← the regular n -gon

this is a constructible number

we can construct the regular pentagon by ruler & compass.

Let $n=15$:



$$x = \frac{2\pi}{5}$$

$$y = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$z = \frac{2\pi}{5} \cdot 2 - \frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{2\pi}{15}$$

Similarly, if $\gcd(n, m) = 1$, then thanks to the Euclidean algorithm $\exists u, v$ s.t.

$$1 = un + vm \Rightarrow \frac{1}{mn} = \frac{u}{m} + \frac{v}{n}. \text{ Thus, if}$$

n -gon & m -gon are constructible and $\gcd(n, m) = 1 \Rightarrow$ the regular nm -gon is also constructible. Therefore, it is enough to construct p^k -gon, $p > 2$ is a prime number

Th (Gauss) One has

$$\cos \frac{2\pi}{17} = \frac{\sqrt{17}-1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} \sqrt{34-2\sqrt{17}} + \frac{1}{8} \sqrt{17+3\sqrt{17}} - \sqrt{170+38\sqrt{17}}$$

In particular, the regular 17-gon is constructible.

We can look at the constructible numbers as a field tower

$$\mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{2} K_1 \xrightarrow{2} K_2 \xrightarrow{2} \dots \xrightarrow{2} K_m$$

$K \xrightarrow{2} K(\sqrt{D})$, $D \in K$, $\sqrt{D} \notin K$ and, conversely, if $K \xrightarrow{2} L$, then $\forall \alpha \in L \setminus K \Rightarrow 1, \alpha, \alpha^2$ are dependent over $K \Rightarrow \exists s, t \in K$ s.t. $\alpha^2 = s\alpha + t$

Thus $(\alpha - \frac{s}{2})^2 = t + \frac{s^2}{4}$ and hence

$$L = K(\alpha) = K\left(\sqrt{t + \frac{s^2}{4}}\right).$$

In other direction \forall constructible point is polyquadratic since \forall circle and \forall line is defined by an equation of degree $\leq 2 \Rightarrow$ to find the required intersection we solve some quadratic equations (there is a subtlety here with the selection of random points).

Cor. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is constructible. Then $[\mathbb{Q}(a) : \mathbb{Q}] = 2^n$

Cor. The cube cannot be duplicated by any ruler and compass construction.

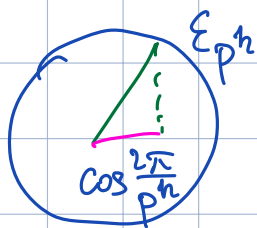
Cor. It is not possible to trisect any given angle.

Pf. Take $\alpha = \frac{\pi}{3} \Rightarrow \frac{\alpha}{3} = \frac{\pi}{9}$. Further, $\cos \alpha = \frac{1}{2}$ and hence as in the Vieta method we have

$4(\cos \alpha)^3 - 3 \cos \alpha - \frac{1}{2} = 0$ and $f(t) = t^3 - 3t - 1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q} \Rightarrow [\mathbb{Q}(\cos \alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = 3 \neq 2^n$ and this is a contradiction. \blacksquare

In particular, we have proved that it is not possible to construct the regular 9-gon.

To construct the regular p^k -gon it is more convenient to have deal with \mathbb{Q} (obviously, the whole theory remains true)



$$x^2 - 2 \cos \varphi x + 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \cos \varphi \pm i \sin \varphi$$

We know that $\deg \epsilon_p = p-1$ (since $x^{p-1} + \dots + 1$ is irreducible). Hence if p -gon is constructible, then $p = 1 + 2^s$ for a certain s

Exercise $M_{\epsilon_{p^k}}^{\mathbb{Q}}(x) = \frac{x^{p^k} - 1}{x^{p^{k-1}} - 1} = \Phi_p(x^{p^{k-1}})$. In particular, $\deg \epsilon_{p^k} = p^{k-1}(p-1)$.

Therefore, if p^k -gon is constructible, then $k=1$

We have $p = 1 + 2^s$. If s has an odd divisor, say, d , then $1 + 2^s = 1 + 2^{\frac{s}{d} \cdot d} = (1 + 2^{\frac{s}{d}})^d$ (e.g. $1 + 2^6 = 1 + 2^{2 \cdot 3} = (1 + 2^2)^3$).
Thus

$$p = 1 + 2^{2^t} \quad (\text{Fermat numbers})$$

Thm (Gauss-Wantzel) The regular n -gon is constructible by ruler and compass iff $n = 2^r p_1 \cdots p_s$, where p_i are Fermat primes, $r \in \mathbb{Z}$, $r \geq 0$.

\Leftarrow Gauss, \Rightarrow Wantzel.

Now let $n = 17$. We know that for $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_{17}$ one has $[\mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon) : \mathbb{Q}] = 16$. We want

$$\mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{2} K_1 \xrightarrow{2} K_2 \xrightarrow{2} K_3 \xrightarrow{2} K_4 = \mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon)$$

Exercise $\exists \alpha$, $\deg \alpha = 4$ but $\nexists K$ s.t.
 $\mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{2} K \xrightarrow{2} \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$

Put $K_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\cos \frac{2\pi}{17})$ (then $K_3 \xrightarrow{2} K_4$)

We know that $\deg \alpha = \# \text{ roots of } \mu_\alpha$
 $= \# \text{ conjugates of } \alpha$. The roots of μ_α are

$(1) \varepsilon, \varepsilon^2, \dots, \varepsilon^{16}$ and $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon)$ has the form
 $\alpha = \alpha(\varepsilon) = a_0 + a_1 \varepsilon + \dots + a_{15} \varepsilon^{15}$, where $a_j \in \mathbb{Q}$ (2)

If we replace ε to ε^j then we obtain all algebraic conjugates of α . Thus it is more convenient to use basis (1). Gauss' idea is to use geometric progression but not arithmetic. Namely, we know that \mathbb{Z}_{17}^\times is a cyclic group, e.g. $\mathbb{Z}_{17}^\times \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 3, 3^2, \dots, 3^{15}\}$. Thus, we can write

$$\forall \alpha_0 = a_0 \varepsilon + a_1 \varepsilon^3 + a_2 \varepsilon^{3^2} + \dots + a_{15} \varepsilon^{3^{15}}. \text{ Then}$$

$$\alpha_1 = a_0 \varepsilon^3 + a_1 \varepsilon^{3^2} + a_2 \varepsilon^{3^3} + \dots + a_{15} \varepsilon$$

$$\alpha_2 = a_0 \varepsilon^{3^2} + a_1 \varepsilon^{3^3} + a_2 \varepsilon^{3^4} + \dots + a_{15} \varepsilon^3$$

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For example, if $\alpha_0 = \alpha_1$, then $a_0 = \dots = a_{15} \Leftrightarrow \alpha_0 \in \mathbb{Q}$

Further $\alpha_0 = \alpha_2 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a_0 = a_2 = a_4 = \dots \\ a_1 = a_3 = a_5 = \dots \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \deg \alpha_0 \in \{1, 2\}$

$$\alpha_0 = \alpha_4 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a_0 = a_4 = \dots \\ a_1 = a_5 = \dots \\ a_2 = a_6 = \dots \\ a_3 = a_7 = \dots \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \deg \alpha_0 \in \{1, 2, 4\}$$

Gauss periods

$$\theta_0 = \theta_0(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon + \varepsilon^{3^2} + \dots + \varepsilon^{3^{14}}$$

$$\theta_1 = \theta_1(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon^3 + \varepsilon^{3^3} + \dots + \varepsilon^{3^{15}}$$

Clearly, $\theta_0(\varepsilon^3) = \theta_1(\varepsilon)$
 but, say, $\theta_0(\varepsilon^{3^2}) = \theta_0(\varepsilon)$
 $\Rightarrow \theta_0$ & θ_1 are roots of a quadratic equation (e.g. $\theta_0 + \theta_1 = -1$)

Thus we put $K_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \mathbb{Q}(\theta_0) = \mathbb{Q}(\theta_1)$

Further $\theta_{00} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon^{3^4} + \varepsilon^{3^8} + \varepsilon^{3^{12}}$ and so on.

E.g. $\theta_{00} + \theta_{01} = \theta_0$, $\theta_{10} + \theta_{11} = \theta_1$

Finally, $\theta_{000} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon^{3^{10}} = \varepsilon + \varepsilon^{-1} = 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{17}$

Put $K_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\theta_{00})$, $K_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\theta_{000})$

Unfortunately, it is not obvious that $K_1 \subseteq K_2 \subseteq K_3$
On the other hand, there are vector spaces

$$Q = V_1 : a_0 = \dots = a_{15}$$

$$V_2 : \begin{cases} a_0 = a_2 = a_4 = \dots \\ a_1 = a_3 = a_5 = \dots \end{cases}$$

$$V_4 : \begin{cases} a_0 = a_4 = \dots \\ a_1 = a_5 = \dots \\ a_2 = a_6 = \dots \\ a_3 = a_7 = \dots \end{cases}$$

and, similarly, V_8 and $V_{16} = \mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon)$
 \mathbb{Q} $\mathbb{Q}(\theta)$
" "

Now it is obvious that $V_1 \subset V_2 \subset V_4 \subset V_8 \subset V_{16}$
but V_j are vector spaces, not fields. It is enough to obtain:

L. $\forall d$, $\forall d$ -period θ one has $V_d = \mathbb{Q}(\theta)$.

Pf. We have $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}} V_d = d$ and $\dim_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{Q}(\theta) = \# \text{ conjugates of } \theta = d$. Also, we know that $V_d = \{ \alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon) \mid \deg \alpha \mid d \}$, $d = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16$.

Finally, $\mathbb{Q}(\theta) = \{h(\theta) \mid h \in \mathbb{Q}[x]\}$.

$\mathbb{Q} - \mathbb{Q}(f(\theta)) - \mathbb{Q}(\theta) \Rightarrow$ by the tower law one has

Thus $\mathbb{Q}(\theta) \stackrel{d}{\subseteq} V_d \Rightarrow \mathbb{Q}(\theta) = V_d$. $\deg f(\theta) \mid d$