

# Math 250A Lecture 17 Notes

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## 1 Symmetric Functions and Polynomial Invariants

### 1.1 Symmetric functions and Newton's identities

Last time, we saw that any symmetric polynomial  $f$  is a polynomial in the elementary symmetric functions. We took the monomial  $x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots$  in  $f$  which is largest, and subtracted

$$(x_1 + \cdots + x_n)^{n_1 - n_2} \cdots .$$

The key point was that since  $f$  is symmetric,  $n_1 - n_2$ ,  $n_2 - n_3$  and other terms are positive; if  $f$  has a term with  $x_i^{n_i} x_j^{n_j}$  with  $n_j < n_i$ , then  $f$  also has  $x_i^{n_j} x_j^{n_i}$ .

#### 1.1.1 Newton's identities

What is  $x_1^4 + x_2^4 + x_3^4 + \cdots$ ? Look at

$$f(x) = (x - x_1)(x - x_2) \cdots (x - x_n) = x^n - e_1 x^{n-1} + e_2 x^{n-2} + \cdots .$$

Take the logarithmic derivative,  $\frac{d}{dx} \log f(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$ . The log derivative of  $fg$  is the log derivative of  $f$  plus the log derivative of  $g$ .

So the log derivative of  $x - x_1$  is

$$\frac{1}{x - x_1} = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{x_1}{x^2} + \frac{x_1}{x^3} + \cdots .$$

And we get that the log derivative of  $f$  is

$$\frac{n}{x} + \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots}{x^2} + \frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots}{x^3} = \frac{p_0}{x} + \frac{p_1}{x^2} + \cdots$$

So  $f(\sum p_m/x^{m+1}) = f'$  gives us that

$$(x^n - e_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots) \left( \frac{p_0}{x} + \frac{p_1}{x^2} \right) = n x^{n-1} - (n-1) e_1 x^{n-2} + \cdots .$$

Equating the powers of  $x$ , we have

$$p_0 = n, \quad p_1 - e_1 p_0 = -(n-1) e_1, \quad p_2 - e_1 p_1 + e_2 p_0 = (n-2) e_2$$

**Example 1.1.** Let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be the roots of  $z^3 + z + 1$ . What is  $\alpha^5 + \beta^5 + \gamma^5$ ? We have

$$p_0 = 3, \quad p_1 = 0, \quad p_2 + p_0 = 1, \quad p_2 = -1, \quad p_3 = -3, p_4 = 2.$$

and  $p_5 + p_3 + p_2 = 0$ . These are the coefficients of the polynomial.<sup>1</sup>

## 1.2 The discriminant

What about polynomials in  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  invariant under the alternating group,  $A_n$ ?

**Definition 1.1.** A polynomial  $f$  in variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is *antisymmetric* if it changes sign under elements  $\sigma \notin A_n$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** Suppose  $f$  is invariant under  $A_n$ . Then  $f = g + h$ , where  $g$  is symmetric and  $h$  is antisymmetric.

*Proof.* Set

$$g = \frac{f + \sigma f}{2}, \quad h = \frac{f - \sigma f}{2}. \quad \square$$

The polynomial  $h$  changes sign if we switch  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , so  $h$  is divisible by the polynomial  $(x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_3) \cdots$ . So let

$$\Delta = \prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j).$$

The invariant functions of  $A_n$  are generated by the symmetric functions  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  and  $\Delta$ . Note that  $\Delta^2$  is symmetric, so  $\Delta^2$  is some polynomial in  $e_1, \dots, e_n$ . This is called *syzygy*.<sup>2</sup>

**Definition 1.2.** The *discriminant*<sup>3</sup> of  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$  is  $a_n^{2n-2} \Delta^2$ .

The discriminant vanishes iff  $f$  has multiple roots.

**Proposition 1.2.** A polynomial  $f$  has a multiple root iff  $f$  and  $f'$  have a common factor.

*Proof.* If  $f = (x - x_1)^2 \cdots$ , then  $f' = 2(x - x_1) \cdots + (x - x_1)^2 \cdots$ , so  $x - x_1$  is a common factor. The converse is an exercise.  $\square$

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<sup>1</sup>In the 19th century, undergraduate students were expected to be able to calculate things like this involving symmetric functions.

<sup>2</sup>This comes from *syn*, which means together, and *zygon*, which means yoke. This is not the longest word in the English language with no vowels; that honor goes to the word *rhythms*.

<sup>3</sup>Invariants tend to end with -ant. For example, we have the *determinant*, the *resultant*, and the *catalecticant*. Professor Borchers is glad the last of these has fallen out of usage.

When do  $f(x), g(x)$  have a common factor?

$$f(x) = a_mx^n + \dots + a_0$$

$$g(x) = b_nx^n + \dots + b_0$$

If  $f, g$  have a common factor, then  $f(x)p(x) - g(x)q(x) = 0$  for some  $p, q$  with  $\deg(p) < n$  and  $\deg(q) < m$  (set  $p = g/(x - \alpha)$  and  $q = -f/(x - \alpha)$ ).

This is a set of linear equations for coefficients of  $p, q$ . This has a nonzero solution if some determinant vanishes. So the coefficients of linear equations are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_m & a_{m-1} & \dots & a_0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_m & \dots & a_1 & a_0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & a_n & \dots & a_2 & a_1 & a_0 \\ b_n & b_{n-1} & \dots & b_0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b_n & \dots & b_1 & b_0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & b_n & \dots & b_2 & b_1 & b_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix with  $n + m$  rows is called the *Sylvester matrix*.

**Definition 1.3.** The *resultant* is the determinant of the Sylvester matrix.

Say  $f, g$  have a common root at  $\infty$  if  $a_m = b_m = 0$ . The resultant equals 0 iff  $f$  and  $g$  have a common factor, possibly at  $\infty$ . This is the same as saying in geometry that the projective line is complete.

**Example 1.2.** The polynomial  $f(x) = x^n - e_1x^{n-1} + \dots$  has a multiple root if the resultant of  $f, f' = 0$ .  $\Delta = 0$  iff  $f$  has take multiple root, so  $\Delta$  should be a constant times the resultant.

**Example 1.3.** When is the cubic curve  $y^2 = x^3 + bx + c$  nonsingular? Curve  $f(x, y)$  is nonsingular if  $g(x, y) = 0 = f_x(x, y) = f_y(x, y)$  has no solutions, where  $f_x$  is the partial derivative with respect to  $x$ . These are the conditions that  $2y = 0$  (so  $y = 0$ ) and  $3x^2 + b = 0$  (so  $g(x) = x^3bx + c = 0$ ); then we need to check if  $g, g'$  have a common root  $x$ .

The resultant of  $x^3 + bx + c$  and  $3x^2 + b$ , is

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & b & c & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & b & c \\ 3 & 0 & b & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

which is  $4b^3 + 27c^2$  (up to a sign).

### 1.3 The ring of invariants, revisited

Suppose a finite group  $G$  acts on a complex vector space  $V$  spanned by  $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Recall that the ring of invariant polynomials is the set of polynomials in  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  invariant under the action of  $G$ . Is this ring finitely generated (over  $\mathbb{C}$ )?

**Example 1.4.** If  $G = A_n$  and  $V = \mathbb{C}^n$ , then the ring is generated by  $e_1, \dots, e_n, \Delta$ .

In general this can be “mindbogglingly difficult.”<sup>4</sup> Hilbert showed that the ring of invariants is finitely generated over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 1.4.** The *Reynolds operator*<sup>5</sup>  $\rho$  is the average of the group elements,

$$\rho = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{g \in G} g.$$

The Reynolds operator takes polynomials in  $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  to invariants.

**Example 1.5.** Let  $G = S_n$ . Then if  $f = x_1$ ,  $\rho(f) = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$ .

**Proposition 1.3.** *The Reynolds operator has the following properties:*

1.  $\rho(f + g) = \rho(f) + \rho(g)$
2.  $\rho(1) = 1$
3.  $\rho(fg) = \rho(f)\rho(g)$  if  $f = \rho(f)$

*Proof.* Exercise. □

**Theorem 1.1** (Hilbert). *If  $G$  is finite, the ring of invariants is always finitely generated over  $\mathbb{C}$ .*

*Proof.* Look at the ring  $\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ . This is graded by degree, where  $\deg(x_i) = 1$ . Let  $I$  be the ring of invariants. Then  $I = \mathbb{C} \oplus I_1 \oplus I_2 \oplus \dots$ , where  $I_m$  is the set of invariants homogeneous of degree  $m$ . Look at the ideal generated by  $I_1 \oplus I_2 \oplus I_3 \oplus \dots$ . By Hilbert’s theorem, this ideal is finitely generated. Pick generators  $i_1, \dots, i_k$  of this ideal. We show that they generate the ring  $I$ .

Suppose they generate  $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_k$ . We want to show that they generate  $I_{k+1}$ . Pick  $f \in I_{k+1}$ . Then  $f$  is in an ideal  $J$ , so  $f = a_1 i_1 + a_2 i_2 + \dots + a_n i_n$  for some  $a_n \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$  with  $\deg(a_i) > 0$ .

Apply the Reynolds operator. Then

$$\rho(f) = \rho(a_1) i_1 + \rho(a_2) i_2 + \dots + \rho(a_n) i_n$$

because  $f$  is invariant. So  $\deg(\rho(a_n)) < K$  as  $\deg(i_n) > 0$ , so  $\rho(a_n)$  is a polynomial in  $i_1, \dots, i_n$  by induction. So  $f$  is a polynomial in  $i_1, \dots, i_m$ . □

<sup>4</sup>Professor Borcherds showed us an invariant where the first generator took 13 pages to write out. Someone in the 19th century had a lot of spare time.

<sup>5</sup>Reynolds actually studied fluid dynamics. He showed that fluid flow averaged over time was a group.

The following example illustrates the reason we need to be careful about showing that  $i_1, \dots, i_k$  generate  $I$ .

**Example 1.6.** Let  $R = \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ , and take the subring containing the ideal generated by  $x$  and 1. This subring is not finitely generated as a ring.

**Example 1.7.** Let  $G = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  act on  $\mathbb{C}[x, y]$ . Suppose that  $G$  is generated by  $\sigma$ , where  $\sigma^n = 1$ . Let  $\sigma(x) = \zeta x$  and  $\sigma(y) = \zeta y$ , where  $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/n}$ . The ring of invariants is the polynomials with all terms of degree  $0, n, 2n, \dots$ . A set of  $n+1$  generators is  $x^n, x^{n-1}y, x^{n-2}y^2, \dots, y^n$ . If we call these  $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0$  respectively, there are many relations between the  $a_i$ . For example,  $a_n a_{n-2} = a_{n-1}^2$ .

Are the collection of syzygies finitely generated? Yes. The ring of invariants is given by a polynomial ring in generators  $a_0, \dots, a_n$  mod the ideal of syzygies. So the ideal of syzygies is finitely generated by Hilbert's theorem.