

# A topological proof of the insolvability of the quintic

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# Introduction

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In middle school, we learned the solutions of the quadratic equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

where  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{C}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , are given by the quadratic formula

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

which only used field operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $/$  and the square root  $\sqrt{\cdot}$ .

For the cubic and quartic equations

$$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$$

$$ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0$$

where  $a, b, c, d, e \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $a \neq 0$ , there are cubic and quartic formulas using only field operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $/$  and radicals  $\sqrt{\cdot}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{\cdot}$ , and  $\sqrt[4]{\cdot}$ , albeit much more complicated than the quadratic formula.

The solution to  $ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$  is given by

$$x = \sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{-b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right) + \sqrt{\left(\frac{-b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c}{3a} - \frac{b^2}{9a^2}\right)^3}} \\ + \sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{-b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right) - \sqrt{\left(\frac{-b^3}{27a^3} + \frac{bc}{6a^2} - \frac{d}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c}{3a} - \frac{b^2}{9a^2}\right)^3}} - \frac{b}{3a}.$$

The solution to  $ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0$  is an even longer formula.

### **Theorem 1.1 (Fundamental theorem of algebra)**

*For  $n > 0$ , the equation*

$$z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + a_{n-2}z^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$$

*where all  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$ , has exactly  $n$  solutions in  $\mathbb{C}$  counting multiplicity.*

Question: For  $n \geq 5$ , is there a general formula for

$$z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + a_{n-2}z^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$$

on  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$  using only (a finite number of)  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $/$  and  $\sqrt{\cdot}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{\cdot}$ ,  $\dots$ ?



## Theorem 1.2 (Abel–Ruffini)

*For  $n \geq 5$ , there is no general formula for*

$$z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + a_{n-2}z^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$$

*on  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$  using only (a finite number of)  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $/$  and  $\sqrt{\cdot}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{\cdot}$ ,  $\dots$*

The typical proof of this theorem uses heavy machinery from Galois theory, but there is in fact a far more elementary but much less well known proof due to V.I. Arnold, using nothing but basic knowledge of complex numbers and topology.

Reasons I prefer Arnold's proof over the classical Galois theory proof.

- (i) It is more elementary,
- (ii) It is more visual,
- (iii) It is a stronger result in some sense,
- (iv) It helps you to **really** understand the classical Galois theory proof.

## Toy examples

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Question: Can we distinguish between  $i$  and  $-i$  canonically?

Remember there are two square roots of  $-1$ , either can be defined as  $i$ .

Way too often, we use notation  $\mathbb{C}$  to mean “ $\mathbb{C}$  with a choice of  $i$ ”. This is an abuse of notation that goes unnoticed due to its subtlety.

There is no “nice” or “canonical” order of roots for  $z^2 = -1$  or any algebraic equation  $z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + a_{n-2}z^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$ .

We pick an order for the roots of  $z^2 = -1$ , say  $\lambda_1 = i$  and  $\lambda_2 = -i$ .

Consider the roots of  $z^2 = e^{i\theta}$ . Observe how they change as  $\theta$  goes from  $\pi$  to  $3\pi$  continuously. Note that  $e^{i\pi} = e^{i(3\pi)} = -1$ .

We see that  $e^{i\theta}$  moves along a loop based at  $-1$ . A **loop** based at  $p \in \mathbb{C}$  is just a continuous function  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  s.t.  $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1) = p$ .

What happened? The roots swap places!

In general, for  $z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$ , pick an order of its roots  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , then a permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  of  $\lambda_i$  is induced by moving each coefficient  $a_i$  along some loop based at  $a_i$ .

In this example of  $z^2 = -1$ , we moved  $a_0$  along the loop  $-e^{i\theta}$  with  $\theta$  from  $\pi$  to  $3\pi$ , inducing  $(1\ 2)$  on the roots  $\lambda_1 = i$  and  $\lambda_2 = -i$ .



This proves there is no quadratic formula only using  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $\times$ ,  $/$ . (Why?)

In the previous example, the loop  $e^{i\theta}$  for  $\theta$  from  $\pi$  to  $3\pi$  is no longer a loop under  $\sqrt{\cdot}$ , since it induces a nontrivial permutation (1 2).

Question: What are the loops that **remain loops under radicals**, i.e., the permutation they induce on  $\sqrt[k]{\cdot}$  is the identity for each  $k$ ?

Let  $\gamma$  a loop, then let  $\gamma^{-1}$  denote its **inverse loop**, i.e. the same loop but going backwards. Let  $\tau$  be a loop based at the same point as  $\gamma$ , then let  $\gamma \cdot \tau$  denote their **concatenated loop**, i.e. the loop that goes along  $\gamma$  and then goes along  $\tau$ .

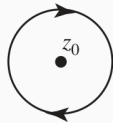
Question: Suppose that  $\gamma$  does not pass through 0, do you see why the loop  $\gamma \cdot \gamma^{-1}$  remains a loop under radicals?

Let  $\gamma$  be a loop not passing through 0. Its **winding index** about 0 is an integer: the number of times it wraps around the anticlockwise direction about 0 subtracted by that of clockwise ones.

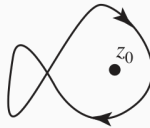
For experts: the winding index of  $\gamma$  about 0 is given by

$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_\gamma \frac{dz}{z}$$

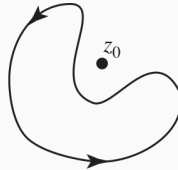
It's straightforward to see that  $\gamma$  remains a loop under radicals if it has winding index 0 about 0, and  $\gamma \cdot \gamma^{-1}$  has winding index 0 about 0.



$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(z_0) = -1$$



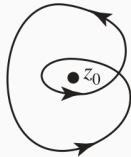
$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(z_0) = -1$$



$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(z_0) = 0$$



$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(z_0) = +1$$



$$\text{Ind}_\gamma(z_0) = +2$$

**Figure 1:** Winding index

### Theorem 2.3 (Vieta's formulas)

If  $z^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$  has solutions  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , then

$$a_{n-k} = (-1)^k \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < \cdots < i_k \leq n} \left( \prod_{j=1}^k \lambda_{i_j} \right)$$

for  $k = 1, \dots, n$ .

For any permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  of roots  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ , we can move the roots continuously so that they end up at the positions after the permutation. By Vieta's formulas, this produces loops of coefficients that induces  $\sigma$ , and we can always make it so that the loops avoid passing through 0.

Using these ideas, we show that any cubic formula must use **nested radicals**, i.e. radicals inside radicals, such as  $\sqrt[3]{a_0 + \sqrt{a_0^2 + a_1}}$ .

Question: Assume that  $a_0, a_1, a_2 \neq 0$  and the equation has no repeated solutions. If we could find three loops based at  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  not passing through 0 that remain loops under radicals but induces a nontrivial permutation on the roots  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ , what would that imply?



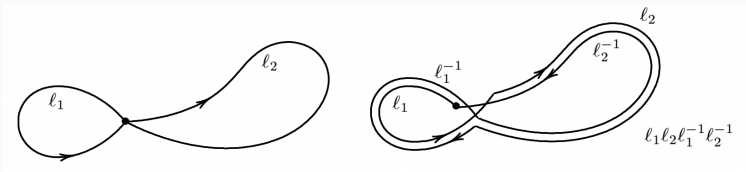
Pick loops  $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2$  and loops  $\tau_0, \tau_1, \tau_2$  based at  $a_0, a_1, a_2$  respectively, such that none of  $\gamma_i$  or  $\tau_i$  pass through 0 and  $\gamma_i$  and  $\tau_i$  induce  $(1\ 2\ 3)$  and  $(1\ 2)$  respectively on the roots. Define the **commutator loop**

$$[\gamma_i, \tau_i] = \gamma_i \cdot \tau_i \cdot \gamma_i^{-1} \cdot \tau_i^{-1}$$

for each  $i$ . The commutators have winding index 0 about 0, so they remain loops under radicals, but they induce a nontrivial permutation

$$[(1\ 2), (1\ 2\ 3)] = (1\ 2)^{-1}(1\ 2\ 3)^{-1}(1\ 2)(1\ 2\ 3) = (2\ 1\ 3)$$

which is the **commutator permutation** of  $(1\ 2)$  and  $(1\ 2\ 3)$ .



**Figure 2:** Commutator of loops  $l_1$  and  $l_2$

## The proof

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Assume for sake of contradiction that there is a quintic formula.

Question: For some values  $a_i \neq 0$  for each  $i$  such that the equation has no repeated roots, can we find loops based at each  $a_i$  that remain loops under the quintic formula, but induce a nontrivial permutation on the roots  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \lambda_4, \lambda_5$ ?

One would naturally think about taking commutators, commutators of commutators, commutators of commutators of commutators, and so on.

### Fact 3.4

<i>degree</i>	<i># perm.</i>	<i># comm.</i>	<i># comm. of comm.</i>	<i># comm. of comm. of comm.</i>
$n = 1$	1	1	1	1
$n = 2$	2	1	1	1
$n = 3$	6	3	1	1
$n = 4$	24	12	4	1
$n = 5$	120	60	60	60

*In degree 5, there are 60 permutations that are commutators of other permutations, and the commutators of these elements are themselves.*

Finally, for the pièce de résistance, if the quintic formula has  $n$  levels of nested radicals, we can always pick a nontrivial permutation expressed by  $n$  levels of commutators by **Fact 3.4**. Using these permutations, we can induce loops which remain loops under the formula (Why?). This means that the quintic formula must have an infinite level of nested radicals,

$$\sqrt[k_1]{f_1 + \sqrt[k_2]{f_2 + \sqrt[k_3]{f_3 + \sqrt[k_4]{\dots}}}}$$

which is a contradiction!

As an exercise, show that there is no general formula for any algebraic equation of degree  $\geq 5$  using only field operations, radicals, or any continuous complex function (e.g.  $\sin z$ ,  $\cos z$ ,  $e^z$ ).



## **Rigorous formulation**

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Technical obstacles in the proof

- (i) How do we rigorously define a general formula?
- (ii) How do we rigorously define induced permutation on roots?

A **general formula** for  $E \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$  is an ordered list of rational functions (over  $\mathbb{Q}$ )  $f_1, \dots, f_m$  of  $n, n+1, \dots, n+m-1$  variables resp. and an ordered list of  $k_1, \dots, k_m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  s.t. for all  $(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}) \in E$ , if  $\lambda$  is a root of  $a^n + a_{n-1}z^{n-1} + \dots + a_1z + a_0 = 0$ , then there exists some  $z_1, \dots, z_m \in \mathbb{C}$  such that  $z_m = \lambda$  and

$$z_1^{k_1} = f_1(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1})$$

$$z_2^{k_2} = f_2(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, z_1)$$

$$z_3^{k_3} = f_3(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, z_1, z_2)$$

$\vdots$

$$z_m^{k_m} = f_m(a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, z_1, \dots, z_{m-1})$$

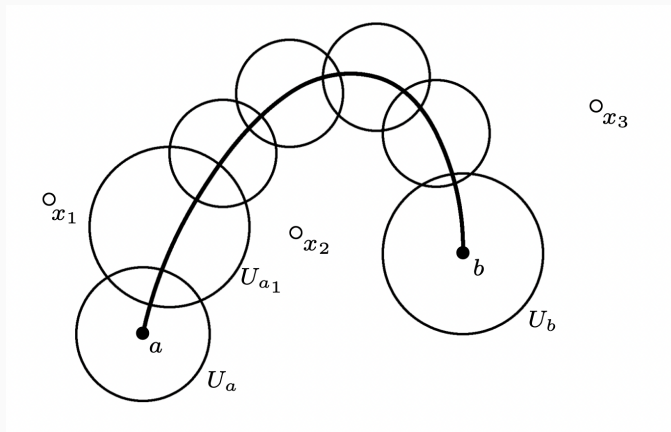
We say  $E$  is **solvable by radicals** if it has a general formula.

An **algebraic function**  $y = f(x)$  is defined by

$$F(x, y) = y^n + g_{n-1}(x)y^{n-1} + \cdots + g_0(x) = 0$$

where  $g_i$  are polynomials. Pick  $x = a$  such that  $F(a, y)$  has distinct roots  $y = z_1, \dots, z_n$ . By implicit function theorem, exists open nbhd  $U_a$  of  $a$  s.t.  $F(x, y) = 0$  has distinct roots for  $x \in U_a$ , which defines functions  $f_{a,1}(x), \dots, f_{a,n}(x)$  on  $U_a$ . WLOG, we can choose  $U_a$  as the common convergence disc of the Taylor expansions of  $f_{a,i}(x)$ . A pair  $(f_{a,i}, U_a)$  is called a **chart** or an **analytic element**.

Given  $(f_a, U_a)$  where  $f_a$  defined on  $U_a$  has convergent Taylor series at  $a$ . We prolong  $(f_a, U_a)$  along a path  $\gamma$  (not passing through any singular points), covered by finite number of  $U_{a_i}$  where  $a_i \in \gamma$  which agree on intersections, to obtain a chart  $(f_b, U_b)$  at the end. This is called the **analytic continuation** of  $(f_a, U_a)$  along  $\gamma$ .



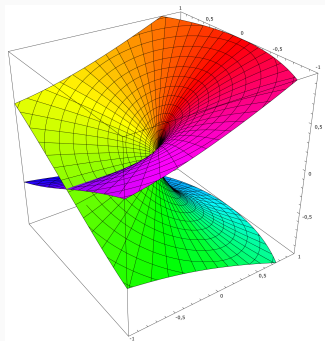
**Figure 3:** Analytic continuation along a path

### **Theorem 4.5 (Monodromy theorem)**

*If the paths  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  (starting from a point  $a$  and ending at a point  $b$ ) are homotopic (we can continuously deform them to each other), then the analytic continuation of  $(f_a, U_a)$  along  $\gamma_1$  is the same as the analytic continuation of  $(f_a, U_a)$  along  $\gamma_2$ .*

This guarantees the uniqueness of the analytic continuation.

The union of all charts and all analytic continuations of them along all possible paths is called the the **Riemann surface** of  $f$ , which is a natural covering space of the complex plane minus the singular points.



**Figure 4:** Riemann surface of  $\sqrt{x}$



If  $\gamma$  is a loop in  $\mathbb{C}$  (not passing through singular points), then the analytic continuation of  $(f_{a,i}, U_a)$  along  $\gamma$  leads to some  $(f_{a,j}, U_a)$ . The permutation that arises this way is the induced permutation.

These permutations form the **monodromy group** of  $f$ , denoted  $\text{Mon}(f)$ , which can be identified as the image of the natural map

$$\pi_1(\mathbb{C} \setminus \{\textit{singular pts}\}, a) \rightarrow S_{\{z_1, \dots, z_n\}}$$

known as the **monodromy representation**, where  $\pi_1(X, a)$  is the group of loops in  $X$  at  $a$  up to homotopy, called the **fundamental group**.

### Definition 4.6 (Commutator subgroup)

The **commutator subgroup** of a group  $G$  is

$$[G, G] = \langle [g, h] : g, h \in G \rangle$$

with the operation inherited from  $G$ .

### Definition 4.7 (Solvable groups)

A group  $G$  is **solvable** if the **derived series** of subgroups

$$G = G^{(0)} \supseteq G^{(1)} \supseteq G^{(2)} \supseteq \dots$$

where  $G^{(k)} = [G^{(k-1)}, G^{(k-1)}]$ , terminates in the trivial group.

The monodromy group of a typical algebraic function is  $S_n$  where  $n$  is the degree, which is not solvable for  $n \geq 5$ , since the derived series

$$S_5 \supseteq A_5 \supseteq A_5 \supseteq A_5 \supseteq A_5 \cdots$$

contradicting the fact that a monodromy group of an algebraic function expressed in radicals is solvable.

In fact  $\text{Mon}(f)$  is isomorphic to a certain Galois group.

## Further topics

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Galois theory and topology are related to each other in numerous ways.

- (i) Each Galois group is naturally a topological group with the **Krull topology**, which is discrete for finite Galois groups, and given by

$$\text{Gal}(K/k) = \varprojlim_{\substack{K/L/k \\ L/k \text{ finite Galois}}} \text{Gal}(L/k)$$

for infinite ones. This topology is Hausdorff and compact.

- (ii) The **fundamental theorem of covering spaces** gives an order preserving correspondence between subgroups of fundamental groups (up to conjugacy) and covering spaces, which is uncannily similar to the **fundamental theorem of Galois theory**.

Some further connections between Galois theory and topology:

- (i) Topological Galois theory: Arnold's idea was explored further by A. Khovanskii and other mathematicians on problems regarding solvability of differential equations, integrals, etc.
- (ii) Grothendieck's Galois theory: Inspired by the similarity of Galois groups and fundamental groups, Grothendieck developed an analogue of them called the étale fundamental group of schemes.
- (iii) Grothendieck–Teichmüller theory: The Grothendieck–Teichmüller conjecture states that the Grothendieck–Teichmüller group is isomorphic to  $\text{Gal}(\overline{\mathbb{Q}}/\mathbb{Q})$ . Grothendieck wanted “a purely topological characterization of the Galois group, a purely arithmetical object.” This relates to ideas like Belyi pairs and dessin d'enfant.

Thank you for listening!

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