## Chapter 2: Number Fields and Number Rings

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## Exercise 2.1.

- (a) Show that every number field of degree 2 over  $\mathbb{Q}$  is one of the quadratic fields  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- (b) Show that the fields  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ , m squarefree, are pairwise distinct. (Hint: Consider the equation  $\sqrt{m} = a + b\sqrt{n}$ ); use this to show that they are in fact pairwise non-isomorphic.

*Proof of (a).* Let  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ ,  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$   $(a \neq 0)$  and assume f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\alpha$  be a root of f(x). So

$$\alpha = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{m}}{2a}$$

where  $m = b^2 - 4ac \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Q}\left[\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{m}}{2a}\right] = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}].$$

Proof of (b). Show that  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$  are not isomorphic as fields if m and n are squarefree and  $m \neq n$ . Reductio ad absurdum.

(1) If  $\varphi: \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}] \to \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$  were an isomorphism as fields, then  $\varphi$  is an identity map on  $\mathbb{Q}$ , and

$$\varphi(\sqrt{m}) = a + b\sqrt{n} \text{ for some } a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \varphi(\sqrt{m})\varphi(\sqrt{m}) = (a + b\sqrt{n})^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow \varphi(\sqrt{m}\sqrt{m}) = (a + b\sqrt{n})^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow \varphi(m) = a^2 + nb^2 + 2ab\sqrt{n}$$

$$\Longrightarrow m = a^2 + nb^2 + 2ab\sqrt{n}.$$

If  $2ab \neq 0$ , then  $\sqrt{n} = \frac{m-a^2-nb^2}{2ab} \in \mathbb{Q}$ , contrary to the assumption that n is squarefree. Hence 2ab = 0.

(2) a=0. Write  $b=\frac{r}{s}\in\mathbb{Q}$  where  $r,s\in\mathbb{Z}$  and (r,s)=1. So

$$ms^2 = nr^2$$
.

Hence

$$b \neq 0 \Longrightarrow s^2 > 0$$
 and  $r^2 > 0$   
 $\Longrightarrow m$  and  $n$  have the same sign  
 $\Longrightarrow (\exists \text{ prime } p \mid m, p \nmid n) \text{ or } (\exists \text{ prime } q \mid n, q \nmid m) \text{ since } m \neq n.$ 

(a) There is a prime  $p \mid m$  but  $p \nmid n$ .

$$p \mid m \Longrightarrow \text{Write } m = pm_1 \text{ for some } m_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Longrightarrow (pm_1)s^2 = nr^2 \qquad (ms^2 = nr^2)$$

$$\Longrightarrow p \mid nr^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow p \mid r \qquad (p \nmid n \text{ by assumption})$$

$$\Longrightarrow Write \ r = pr_1 \text{ for some } r_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Longrightarrow (pm_1)s^2 = n(pr_1)^2 \qquad (ms^2 = nr^2)$$

$$\Longrightarrow m_1s^2 = npr_1^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow p \mid m_1s^2$$

$$\Longrightarrow p \mid m_1 \qquad ((r,s) = 1 \text{ and } p \mid r)$$

$$\Longrightarrow \text{Write } m_1 = pm_2 \text{ for some } r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Longrightarrow m = p^2m_2,$$

contrary to the assumption that m is squarefree.

- (b) There is a prime  $q \mid n$  but  $q \nmid m$ . Similar to (a).
- (3) b=0.  $m=a^2$ . Write  $a=\frac{r}{s}\in\mathbb{Q}$  where  $r,s\in\mathbb{Z}$  and (r,s)=1. Hence  $ms^2=r^2$ . Similar to the argument in (2).
- (4) By (2)(3), no such isomorphism  $\varphi$ , that is,  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$  are not isomorphic as fields.

Supplement (Isomorphic as vector spaces). Show that  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$  and  $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$  are isomorphic as  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector spaces.

*Proof.*  $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]:\mathbb{Q}] = [\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]:\mathbb{Q}] = 2$ . There is a natural map  $\varphi:\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}] \to \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$  defined by  $\varphi(a+b\sqrt{m}) = a+b\sqrt{n}$ . Clearly  $\varphi$  is well-defined, linear, injective and surjective.  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.2.** Let I be the ideal generated by 2 and  $1 + \sqrt{-3}$  in the ring  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}] = \{a + b\sqrt{-3} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . Show that  $I \neq (2)$  but  $I^2 = 2I$ . Conclude that ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$  do not factor uniquely into prime ideals. Show moreover that

I is the unique prime ideal containing (2) and conclude that (2) is not a product of prime ideals.

Proof.

- (1) Show that  $I \neq (2)$ .
  - (a) Show that  $I \supseteq (2)$ .  $2 \in (2, 1 + \sqrt{-3}) = I$ .
  - (b) Show that  $I \nsubseteq (2)$ . Consider  $1 + \sqrt{-3} \in I$ . (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $1 + \sqrt{-3}$  were in (2), then there exists  $a + b\sqrt{-3}$  such that

$$1 + \sqrt{-3} = 2(a + b\sqrt{-3}) = 2a + 2b\sqrt{-3}.$$

Thus,  $a = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $b = \frac{1}{2}$ , which is absurd.

- (2) Show that  $I^2 = 2I$ .
  - (a) Show that  $I^2 \supseteq 2I$ . Since  $2 \in (2, 1 + \sqrt{-3}) = I$ ,  $2I \subseteq I^2$ .
  - (b) Show that  $I^2 \subseteq 2I$ . All elements of  $I^2$  are generated by

$$2 \cdot 2, 2(1 + \sqrt{-3})$$
 and  $(1 + \sqrt{-3})^2$ .

Clearly,  $2 \cdot 2$ ,  $2(1 + \sqrt{-3}) \in 2I$ . Besides,

$$(1+\sqrt{-3})^2 = -2 + 2\sqrt{-3} = 2(-(2) + (1+\sqrt{-3})) \in 2I.$$

Hence  $I^2 \subseteq 2I$ .

- (3) Show that ideals in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$  do not factor uniquely into prime ideals. TODO.
- (4) Show that I is the unique prime ideal containing (2). TODO.
- (5) Show that (2) is not a product of prime ideals. TODO.

**Exercise 2.4.** Suppose  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}$  are algebraic integers and  $\alpha$  is a complex number satisfying

$$\alpha^{n} + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}\alpha + a_{0} = 0.$$

Show that the ring  $\mathbb{Z}[a_0,\ldots,a_{n-1},\alpha]$  has a finitely generated additive group. (Hint: Consider the products  $a_0^{m_0}a_1^{m_1}\cdots a_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}}\alpha^m$  and show that only finitely many values of the exponents are needed.) Conclude that  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer.

*Proof.* Let  $V = \mathbb{Z}[a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, \alpha]$ . Let  $n_k$  be the degree of the algebraic integer  $a_k$  where  $0 \le k \le n-1$ .

(1) Show that V is finitely generated as an additive subgroup of  $\mathbb{C}$ . It suffices to show that V is generated by

$$a_0^{m_0}a_1^{m_1}\cdots a_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}}\alpha^m$$

where  $0 \le m_k < n_k$  and  $0 \le m < n$ . Given any  $x \in V$ , x is a finite sum of the product  $a_0^{m_0} a_1^{m_1} \cdots a_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}} \alpha^m$  with  $m_k \ge 0$  and  $m \ge 0$ .

If  $m \geq n$ , replace  $\alpha^m$  by

$$\alpha^{m} = \alpha^{m-n} \alpha^{n}$$

$$= \alpha^{m-n} (-a_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} - \dots - a_{1} \alpha - a_{0})$$

$$= -a_{n-1} \alpha^{m-1} - \dots - a_{1} \alpha^{m-n+1} - a_{0} \alpha^{m-n}.$$

Repeat this process to reduce the degree of  $\alpha^m$  less than n. Therefore, we can write x as a finite sum of the product  $a_0^{m'_0}a_1^{m'_1}\cdots a_{n-1}^{m'_{n-1}}\alpha^{m'}$  with  $m'_k\geq 0$  and  $0\leq m'< n$ .

Once the degree of  $\alpha^m$  is reduced, continue to reduce the degree of each  $a_k^{m_k'}$  without affecting other  $a_h$   $(h \neq k)$  and  $\alpha$ . Now replace  $a_k^{m_k'}$  by

$$a_k^{m_k'} = \sum_{i=0}^{n_k - 1} b_{k,i} a_k^i$$

where  $b_{k,i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Therefore, we can write x as a finite sum of the product  $a_0^{m_0''}a_1^{m_1''}\cdots a_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}''}\alpha^{m'}$  with  $0 \le m_k'' < n_k$  and  $0 \le m' < n$ .

(4) Show that  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer. Since  $\alpha \in V$ ,  $\alpha V \subseteq V$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer (Theorem 2.2).

**Exercise 2.5.** Show that if f is any polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  (p a prime) then  $f(x^p) = (f(x))^p$ . (Suggestion: Use induction on the number of terms.)

Proof.

(1) Let

$$\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!}$$

be a binomial coefficient. If  $1 \le k \le p-1$ , show that p divides  $\binom{p}{k}$ .

(a) If  $1 \le k \le p-1$ , then  $p \nmid k!$  and  $p \nmid (p-k)!$  since p is a prime.

(b) Write 
$$a = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} \in \mathbb{Z}$$
. Hence,

$$a = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} \iff p! = ak!(p-k)!$$
$$\implies p \mid p! \text{ or } p \mid ak!(p-k)!$$
$$\implies p \mid a \text{ by (a)}.$$

Hence p divides  $\binom{p}{k}$  if  $1 \le k \le p-1$ .

- (2) Note that  $a^p = a \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .
- (3) Write

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Induction on n.

(a) 
$$n = 0$$
. So  $f(x) = a_0$ , and thus  $f(x)^p = a_0^p = a_0$  by (2).

(b) 
$$n = 1$$
. By  $f(x) = a_1 x + a_0$ ,

$$f(x)^{p} = (a_{1}x + a_{0})^{p}$$

$$= a_{1}^{p}x^{p} + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} {p \choose k} (a_{1}x)^{k} a_{0}^{p-k} + a_{0}^{p} \quad \text{(Binomial theorem)}$$

$$= a_{1}^{p}x^{p} + a_{0}^{p} \qquad ((1))$$

$$= a_{1}x^{p} + a_{0} \qquad ((2))$$

$$= f(x^{p}).$$

(c) If the statement holds for n-1, then

$$f(x)^{p} = (a_{n}x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0})^{p}$$

$$= [a_{n}x^{n} + (a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0})]^{p}$$

$$= (a_{n}x^{n})^{p} + (a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0})^{p} \qquad \text{(Same as (b))}$$

$$= a_{n}(x^{p})^{n} + (a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0})^{p} \qquad \text{((2))}$$

$$= a_{n}(x^{p})^{n} + a_{n-1}(x^{p})^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x^{p} + a_{0} \qquad \text{(Induction hypothesis)}$$

$$= f(x^{p}).$$

The inductive step is established.

By induction,  $f(x)^p = f(x^p)$  holds for any  $n \ge 0$ .

**Exercise 2.6.** Show that if f and g are polynomials over a field K and  $f^2 \mid g$  in K[x], then  $f \mid g'$ . (Hint: Write  $g = f^2h$  and differentiate.)

*Proof (Hint).* Since  $f^2 \mid g$  in K[x], there exists  $h \in K[x]$  such  $g = f^2h$ . Differentiate to get  $g' = 2ff'h + f^2h' = f(2f'h + fh')$ , or  $f \mid g'$  in K[x].  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.10.** Complete the proof of Corollary 3 to Theorem 2.3, by showing if m is even,  $m \mid r$ , and  $\varphi(r) \leq \varphi(m)$ , then r = m.

Proof.

(1) Since m is even, write the unique factorization of m as

$$m = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$

where  $p_1 = 2$ , all  $\alpha_i \ge 1$   $(1 \le i \le k)$ , and all  $p_i$   $(1 \le i \le k)$  are distinct prime numbers.

(2) Since  $m \mid r$ , write  $r = mm_1$  for some  $m_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus we can write the unique factorization of r as

$$m = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k} q_1^{\gamma_1} \cdots q_h^{\gamma_h}$$

where all  $\beta_i \geq \alpha_i \geq 1$   $(1 \leq i \leq k)$  and all  $p_i$   $(1 \leq i \leq k)$  and  $q_j$   $(1 \leq j \leq h)$  are distinct prime numbers. Here h might be zero if  $m_1 = 1$ , and all  $q_j \mid m_1$  but  $q_j \nmid m$ .

(3) Thus,

$$\begin{split} \varphi(m) &= m \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ \varphi(r) &= m m_1 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_h}\right) \\ &= \varphi(m) m_1 \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_h}\right) \\ &\geq \varphi(m) (q_1 \cdots q_h) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{q_h}\right) \\ &\geq \varphi(m) (q_1 - 1) \cdots (q_h - 1). \end{split}$$

(4) Since all  $q_j \neq 2$   $(1 \leq j \leq h)$ ,  $q_j - 1 > 1$ . Hence by (3) and assumption that  $\varphi(r) \leq \varphi(m)$ , h = 0 or  $m_1 = 1$  or r = m.

## Exercise 2.11.

(a) Suppose all roots of a monic polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  has absolute value 1. Show that the coefficient of  $x^r$  has absolute value  $\leq \binom{n}{r}$ , where n is the degree of f and  $\binom{n}{r}$  is the binomial coefficient.

- (b) Show that there are only finitely many algebraic integers  $\alpha$  of fixed degree n, all of whose conjugates (including  $\alpha$ ) have absolute value 1. (Note: If you don't use Theorem 2.1, your proof is probably wrong.)
- (c) Show that  $\alpha$  must be a root of 1. (Show that its powers are restricted to a finite set.)

Proof of (a).

(1) Write  $f(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$  where  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $|\alpha_i| = 1$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

(2) So

$$f(x) = x^{n} - s_{1}x^{n-1} + s_{2}x^{n-2} + \dots + (-1)s_{n}$$

where

$$s_r = \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_r \le n} \alpha_{j_1} \cdots \alpha_{j_r} \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Let  $c_r = (-1)^r s_{n-r}$  be the coefficient of  $x^r$ .

(3)

$$|c_r| = |(-1)^r s_{n-r}|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_{n-r} \le n} \alpha_{j_1} \dots \alpha_{j_{n-r}} \right|$$

$$\le \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_{n-r} \le n} |\alpha_{j_1} \dots \alpha_{j_{n-r}}|$$

$$= \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_{n-r} \le n} |\alpha_{j_1}| \dots |\alpha_{j_{n-r}}|$$

$$= \sum_{1 \le j_1 < \dots < j_{n-r} \le n} 1$$

$$= \binom{n}{n-r}$$

$$= \binom{n}{r}.$$

Proof of (b).

(1) Let f be an irreducible monic polynomial over  $\mathbb{Z}$  of degree n such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . So f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  (Theorem 2.1), and thus all the conjugates of  $\alpha$  (including  $\alpha$ ) are roots of f.

- (2) By (a), all the coefficient of  $x^r$  has absolute value  $\leq \binom{n}{r}$ . Since all the coefficient of  $x^r$  are integers, there are finitely many irreducible monic polynomials  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$  with  $|\alpha| = 1$ .
- (3) For each such f, there are only finitely many roots. Therefore, there are only finitely many such algebraic integers  $\alpha$ .

Proof of (c).

- (1) If  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  are the roots of f of degree n over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then for every  $r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $\alpha_1^r, \ldots, \alpha_n^r$  are all the roots of some monic polynomial  $f_r$  of degree n over  $\mathbb{Q}$  (Fundamental theorem of symmetric polynomials).
- (2) Now we consider the powers of  $\alpha$ . All the powers of  $\alpha$  ( $\alpha^r$ ) are algebraic integers (Theorem 2.2), and of degree at most n. (Let  $g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha^r$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . By (1),  $f_r(\alpha^r) = 0$ , and thus  $g \mid f_r$ . Hence  $\deg(g) \leq \deg(f_r) = n$ .)
- (3) By (b), the powers of  $\alpha$  are restricted to a finite set, say  $\alpha^r = \alpha^s$  for some  $s > r \ge 1$ . So  $\alpha^{s-r} = 1$  with  $s r \ge 1$ . That is,  $\alpha$  is a root of unity.

**Exercise 2.12 (Kummer's Lemma).** Now we can prove Kummer's lemma on units in the p-th cyclotomic field, as stated before Exercise 1.26: Let  $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}$ , p an odd prime, and suppose u is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ .

- (a) Show that  $u/\overline{u}$  is a root of 1. (Use Exercise 2.11(c) above and observe that complex conjugation is a member of the Galois group of  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ .) Conclude that  $u/\overline{u} = \pm \omega^k$  for some k.
- (b) Show that the + sign holds: Assuming  $u/\overline{u} = -\omega^k$ , we have  $u^p = -\overline{u^p}$ ; show that this implies that  $u^p$  is divisible by p in  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ . (Use Exercise 1.23 and 1.25) But this is impossible since  $u^p$  is a unit.

Proof of (a). Write  $\alpha = u/\overline{u}$ . Then

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|\alpha|=1\Longrightarrow \alpha is a root of unity (Exercise 2.11)

\Longrightarrow \alpha is a 2p-th root of unity (Corollary 3 to Theorem 2.3)

\Longrightarrow \alpha=\pm\omega^k for some k\in\mathbb{Z}
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*Proof of (b).* (Reductio ad absurdum) Assume that  $u/\overline{u} = -\omega^k$ , then

$$\begin{split} u/\overline{u} &= -\omega^k \Longrightarrow (u/\overline{u})^p = (-\omega^k)^p \\ &\Longrightarrow u^p/\overline{u}^p = (-1)^p \omega^{pk} = -1 \\ &\Longrightarrow u^p = -\overline{u}^p = -\overline{u}^p \end{split} \tag{$p$ is odd)}$$

By Exercise 1.25,  $u^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . By Exercise 1.23,  $\overline{u^p} \equiv \overline{a} \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . Thus

$$u^p = -\overline{u^p} \Longrightarrow a \equiv -a \pmod{p}$$
  
 $\Longrightarrow 2a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$   
 $\Longrightarrow a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  (p is odd)

or  $u^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , contradicts the assumption that u is a unit. Hence  $u/\overline{u} = \omega^k$  for some k.  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.14.** Show that  $1 + \sqrt{2}$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ . Use the powers of  $1 + \sqrt{2}$  to generate infinitely many solutions to the diophantine equation  $a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$ . (It will be shown in Chapter 5 that all units in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  are of the form  $\pm (1 + \sqrt{2})^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .)

Might assume to find nonnegative solutions to the Pell's equation  $a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$ .

Proof.

(1) Show that  $1 + \sqrt{2}$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ . There is  $-1 + \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  such that  $(1 + \sqrt{2})(-1 + \sqrt{2}) = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ .

Hence  $1+\sqrt{2}$  is a unit.

(2)  $N(a+b\sqrt{2})=|a^2-2b^2|$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ . To prove this, use the same argument as Exercise 1.1 and note that

$$N(a + b\sqrt{2}) = |(a + b\sqrt{2})(a - b\sqrt{2})|.$$

(3) By (1)(2), all  $(1+\sqrt{2})^k$  with  $k \ge 0$  are distinct solutions to the diophantine equation  $a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$ . Explicitly, let

$$(a_0, b_0) = (1, 0),$$
  
 $(a_1, b_1) = (1, 1),$   
 $(a_2, b_2) = (3, 2),$   
 $(a_3, b_3) = (7, 5),$   
...  
 $(a_k, b_k) = (a_{k-1} + 2b_{k-1}, a_{k-1} + b_{k-1}),$ 

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Note that all  $(a_k, b_k)$  are distinct and satisfying  $a_k^2 - 2b_k^2 = \pm 1$ . Hence we get infinitely many solutions to the Pell's equation  $a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$ .

Note. Suppose that all units in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$  are of the form  $\pm (1+\sqrt{2})^k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Note that  $(1+\sqrt{2})^k = (-1+\sqrt{2})^{-k}$ . Thus we can find all nonnegative solutions to the Pell's equation  $a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$  are exactly the same as (3).  $\square$ 

## Exercise 2.15.

- (a) Show that  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$  contains no element whose norm is 2 or 3.
- (b) Verify that  $2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 \sqrt{-5})$  is an example of non-unique factorization in the number ring  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ .

*Proof of (a).* Since  $N(a+b\sqrt{-5})=a^2+5b^2\equiv a^2\equiv 0,1,4\pmod 5$ , there is no element whose norm is 2 or 3.  $\square$ 

Proof of (b).

(1) Show that  $2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$ .

$$2 \cdot 3 = 6$$
 and  $(1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$ .

(2) Show that 2 is irreducible. Suppose  $2 = \alpha \beta$  where  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ . Take norm to get

$$N(2) = N(\alpha)N(\beta) \Longrightarrow 4 = N(\alpha)N(\beta)$$
  
 $\Longrightarrow N(\alpha) = 1 \text{ or } N(\beta) = 1$   
 $\Longrightarrow \alpha \text{ is unit or } \beta \text{ is unit.}$  ((1))

- (3) Show that 3 is irreducible. Similar to (2).
- (4) Show that  $1 \pm \sqrt{-5}$  is irreducible. Since  $N(1 \pm \sqrt{-5}) = 2$  is prime,  $1 + \sqrt{-5}$  is irreducible.

Hence 6 has a non-unique factorization in the number ring  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ .  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.28.** Let  $f(x) = x^3 + ax + b$ , a and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and assume f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\alpha$  be a root of f.

- (a) Show that  $f'(\alpha) = -\frac{2a\alpha + 3b}{\alpha}$
- (b) Show that  $2a\alpha + 3b$  is a root of

$$\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right)^3 + a\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right) + b.$$

Use this to find  $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(2a\alpha+3b)$ .

- (c) Show that  $disc(\alpha) = -(4a^3 + 27b^2)$ .
- (d) Suppose  $\alpha^3 = \alpha + 1$ . Prove that  $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2\}$  is an integral basis for  $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ . (See Exercise 2.27(e).) Do the same if  $\alpha^3 + \alpha = 1$ .

Proof of (a).

- (1) Show that  $\alpha \neq 0$ . If  $\alpha$  were 0, then  $f(\alpha) = f(0) = b$ . So  $f(x) = x^3 + ax = x(x^2 + a)$  is reducible, contrary to the irreducibility of f.
- (2) Since  $\alpha$  be a root of f,  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , or  $\alpha^3 + a\alpha + b = 0$ , or  $\alpha^3 = -a\alpha b$ .

(3)

$$f'(x) = 3x^{2} + a \Longrightarrow f'(\alpha) = 3\alpha^{2} + a$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = 3\alpha^{3} + a\alpha \qquad (\alpha \neq 0)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = 3(-a\alpha - b) + a\alpha \qquad (\alpha^{3} = -a\alpha - b)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = -2a\alpha - 3b.$$

So 
$$f'(\alpha) = -\frac{2a\alpha + 3b}{\alpha}$$

Proof of (b).

(1) Since  $\alpha^3 + a\alpha + b = 0$ ,

$$\left(\frac{(2a\alpha+3b)-3b}{2a}\right)^3+a\left(\frac{(2a\alpha+3b)-3b}{2a}\right)+b=0.$$

That is,  $2a\alpha + 3b$  is a root of  $\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right)^3 + a\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right) + b$ .

(2)  $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(2a\alpha+3b)$  is the product of three roots of  $\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right)^3+a\left(\frac{x-3b}{2a}\right)+b$ . Hence,

$$\begin{split} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(2a\alpha + 3b) &= (2a)^3 \left[ \left( \frac{-3b}{2a} \right)^3 + a \cdot \frac{-3b}{2a} + b \right] \\ &= 8a^3 \left[ \frac{-27b^3}{8a^3} - \frac{b}{2} \right] \\ &= -27b^3 - 4a^3b. \end{split}$$

Proof of (c).

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{disc}(\alpha) &= (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(f'(\alpha)) & \text{(Theorem 2.8)} \\ &= -N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]} \left( -\frac{2a\alpha + 3b}{\alpha} \right) & \text{($n = 3$ and (a))} \\ &= \frac{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(2a\alpha + 3b)}{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\alpha)} \\ &= \frac{-27b^3 - 4a^3b}{b} & \text{((b))} \\ &= -27b^2 - 4a^3. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (d).

- (1) (a)  $\alpha^3 = \alpha + 1$ , or  $\alpha^3 \alpha 1 = 0$ .
  - (b)  $f(x) = x^3 x 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  since f(x) is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ .
  - (c)  $disc(\alpha) = -23$  (by (c)).
  - (d) Since  $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$  is squarefree, the result is established (Exercise 2.27(e)).
- (2) (a)  $\alpha^3 + \alpha = 1$ , or  $\alpha^3 + \alpha 1 = 0$ .
  - (b)  $f(x) = x^3 + x 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  since f(x) is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ .
  - (c)  $disc(\alpha) = -31$  (by (c)).
  - (d) Since  $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$  is squarefree, the result is established (Exercise 2.27(e)).

**Exercise 2.43.** Let  $f(x) = x^5 + ax + b$ , a and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and assume f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\alpha$  be a root of f.

- (a) Show that  $disc(\alpha) = 4^4a^5 + 5^4b^4$ . (Suggestion: See Exercise 2.28.)
- (b) Suppose  $\alpha^5 = \alpha + 1$ . Prove that  $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ .  $(x^5 x 1 \text{ is irreducible over } \mathbb{Q}; \text{ this can be shown by reducing } \pmod{3}$ .)
- (c) ...
- (d) ...

Proof of (a) (Exercise 2.28).

(1) Show that  $f'(\alpha) = -\frac{4a\alpha + 5b}{\alpha}$ .

- (a) Show that  $\alpha \neq 0$ . If  $\alpha$  were 0, then  $f(\alpha) = f(0) = b$ . So  $f(x) = x^5 + ax = x(x^4 + a)$  is reducible, contrary to the irreducibility of f.
- (b) Since  $\alpha$  be a root of f,  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , or  $\alpha^5 + a\alpha + b = 0$ , or  $\alpha^5 = -a\alpha b$ .

(c)

$$f'(x) = 5x^4 + a \Longrightarrow f'(\alpha) = 5\alpha^4 + a$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = 5\alpha^5 + a\alpha \qquad (\alpha \neq 0)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = 5(-a\alpha - b) + a\alpha \quad (\alpha^5 = -a\alpha - b)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = -4a\alpha - 5b.$$

So 
$$f'(\alpha) = -\frac{4a\alpha + 5b}{\alpha}$$
.

(2) Show that  $4a\alpha + 5b$  is a root of

$$\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right)^5 + a\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right) + b.$$

Use this to show that  $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(4a\alpha + 5b) = -4^4a^5b - 5^5b^5$ .

(a) Since  $\alpha^5 + a\alpha + b = 0$ ,

$$\left(\frac{(4a\alpha+5b)-5b}{4a}\right)^5+a\left(\frac{(4a\alpha+5b)-5b}{4a}\right)+b=0.$$

That is,  $4a\alpha + 5b$  is a root of  $\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right)^5 + a\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right) + b$ .

(b)  $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(4a\alpha + 5b)$  is the product of 5 roots of  $\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right)^5 + a\left(\frac{x-5b}{4a}\right) + b$ . Hence,

$$N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(4a\alpha + 5b) = (4a)^5 \left[ \left( \frac{-5b}{4a} \right)^5 + a \cdot \frac{-5b}{4a} + b \right]$$
$$= 4^5 a^5 \left[ \frac{-5^5 b^5}{4^5 a^5} - \frac{b}{4} \right]$$
$$= -5^5 b^5 - 4^4 a^5 b.$$

(3) Show that  $disc(\alpha) = 4^4 a^5 + 5^4 b^4$ .

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(f'(\alpha)) \qquad \text{(Theorem 2.8)}$$

$$= N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]} \left( -\frac{4a\alpha + 5b}{\alpha} \right) \qquad (n = 5 \text{ and } (1))$$

$$= -\frac{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(4a\alpha + 5b)}{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\alpha)}$$

$$= -\frac{-4^4 a^5 b - 5^5 b^5}{b}$$

$$= 4^4 a^5 + 5^4 b^4$$

Proof of (b)(Exercise 2.28).

- (1)  $\alpha^5 = \alpha + 1$ , or  $\alpha^5 \alpha 1 = 0$ .
- (2)  $f(x) = x^5 x 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$  since f(x) is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ .
- (3)  $disc(\alpha) = 881$  (by (a)).
- (4) Since  $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$  is squarefree (a prime number), the result is established (Exercise 2.27(e)).

**Exercise 2.44.** Let  $f(x) = x^5 + ax^4 + b$ , a and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and assume f is irreducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Let  $\alpha$  be a root of f and let  $d_1, d_2, d_3$  and  $d_4$  be as in Theorem 2.13.

- (a) Show that  $disc(\alpha) = b^3(4^4a^5 + 5^5b)$ .
- (b) ...
- (c) ...
- (d) ...

Proof of (a). TODO.  $\square$ 

**Exercise 2.45.** Obtain a formula for  $disc(\alpha)$  if  $\alpha$  is a root of an irreducible polynomial  $x^n + ax + b$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Do the same for  $x^n + ax^{n-1} + b$ .

Assume that  $n \geq 2$ .

Proof of  $x^n + ax + b$  (Exercise 2.28).

- (1) Show that  $f'(\alpha) = -\frac{(n-1)a\alpha + nb}{\alpha}$ .
  - (a) Show that  $\alpha \neq 0$ . If  $\alpha$  were 0, then  $f(\alpha) = f(0) = b$ . So  $f(x) = x^n + ax = x(x^{n-1} + a)$  is reducible, contrary to the irreducibility of f.
  - (b) Since  $\alpha$  be a root of f,  $f(\alpha) = 0$ , or  $\alpha^n + a\alpha + b = 0$ , or  $\alpha^n = -a\alpha b$ .
  - (c)

$$f'(x) = nx^{n-1} + a \Longrightarrow f'(\alpha) = n\alpha^{n-1} + a$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = n\alpha^n + a\alpha \qquad (\alpha \neq 0)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = n(-a\alpha - b) + a\alpha \qquad (\alpha^n = -a\alpha - b)$$

$$\iff \alpha f'(\alpha) = -(n-1)a\alpha - nb.$$

So 
$$f'(\alpha) = -\frac{(n-1)a\alpha + nb}{\alpha}$$
.

(2) Let  $\beta = (n-1)a\alpha + nb$ . Show that  $\beta$  is a root of

$$\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right)^n + a\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right) + b.$$

Use this to show that

$$N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\beta) = -(n-1)^{n-1}a^nb + (-1)^nn^nb^n.$$

(a) Since  $\alpha^n + a\alpha + b = 0$ ,

$$\left(\frac{\beta - nb}{(n-1)a}\right)^n + a\left(\frac{\beta - nb}{(n-1)a}\right) + b = 0.$$

That is,  $\beta$  is a root of  $\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right)^n + a\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right) + b$ .

(b)  $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\beta)$  is the product of n roots of  $\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right)^n + a\left(\frac{x-nb}{(n-1)a}\right) + b$ . Hence,

$$\begin{split} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\beta) &= ((n-1)a)^n \left[ \left( \frac{-nb}{(n-1)a} \right)^n + a \cdot \frac{-nb}{(n-1)a} + b \right] \\ &= (n-1)^n a^n \left[ \frac{(-1)^n n^n b^n}{(n-1)^n a^n} - \frac{b}{n-1} \right] \\ &= (-1)^n n^n b^n - (n-1)^{n-1} a^n b. \end{split}$$

(3) Show that  $disc(\alpha) = (-1)^{\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}} (n-1)^{n-1} a^n + (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} n^n b^{n-1}$ 

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{disc}(\alpha) &= (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(f'(\alpha)) & \text{(Theorem 2.8)} \\ &= (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]} \left( -\frac{(n-1)a\alpha + nb}{\alpha} \right) & \text{((1))} \\ &= (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (-1)^n \frac{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}((n-1)a\alpha + nb)}{N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]}(\alpha)} & \\ &= (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} (-1)^n \frac{-(n-1)^{n-1}a^nb + (-1)^n n^n b^n}{b} & \\ &= (-1)^{\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}} (n-1)^{n-1}a^n + (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} n^n b^{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of  $x^n + ax^{n-1} + b$ . TODO.  $\square$