

**29.6**

Note that

$$\alpha = \sqrt{3 - \sqrt{6}} \implies \alpha^2 - 3 = -\sqrt{6} \implies \alpha^4 - 6\alpha^2 + 3 = 0$$

meaning  $\alpha$  is a zero of  $f(x) = x^4 - 6x^2 + 3$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . Since the Eisenstein criterion holds for  $p = 3$ ,  $f(x)$  is irreducible. Therefore  $\text{irr}(\alpha, \mathbb{Q}) = f(x)$  and  $\deg(\alpha, \mathbb{Q}) = 4$

**29.8**

Note that

$$\alpha = \sqrt{2} + i \implies \alpha^2 = 2 + 2\sqrt{2}i - 1 \implies \alpha^4 - 2\alpha^2 + 9 = 0$$

meaning  $\alpha$  is a zero of  $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2 + 9$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . If  $f$  was reducible over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , then it must have a zero in  $\mathbb{Z}$  that divides 9. Checking  $\pm 1, \pm 3$  gives no such zero, hence  $f$  is irreducible. Therefore  $\text{irr}(\alpha, \mathbb{Q}) = f(x)$  and  $\deg(\alpha, \mathbb{Q}) = 4$ .

**29.12**

Since  $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\sqrt{\pi} \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore it is algebraic in  $\mathbb{R}$  with  $\deg(\sqrt{\pi}, \mathbb{R}) = 1$  since it is a zero of the linear polynomial  $f(x) = x - \sqrt{\pi}$ .

**29.16**

Since  $(\pi^2)^3 - (\pi^3)^2 = 0$ , then  $\pi^2$  is a zero of the polynomial  $f(x) = x^3 - \pi^6 \in \mathbb{Q}(\pi^3)$ . This polynomial is irreducible hence  $\pi^2$  is algebraic in  $\mathbb{Q}(\pi^3)$  with  $\deg(\pi^2, \mathbb{Q}(\pi^3)) = 3$ .

**29.18****Part A**

**Proof.** Note that

$$x = 0 \implies 0^2 + 1 = 1 \neq 0$$

$$x = 1 \implies 1^2 + 1 = 2 \neq 0$$

$$x = 2 \implies 2^2 + 1 = 5 \neq 0$$

Therefore  $f(x)$  has no zero in  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  and hence is irreducible. ■

**Part B**

+	0	1	2	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$
0	0	1	2	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$
1	1	2	0	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$
2	2	0	1	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$
$\alpha$	$\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2\alpha$	0	$1+2\alpha$	1	$2+2\alpha$	2
$2\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	0	$\alpha$	1	$1+\alpha$	2	$2+\alpha$
$1+\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	1	$2+2\alpha$	2	$2\alpha$	0
$1+2\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$2\alpha$	1	$1+\alpha$	2	$2+\alpha$	0	$\alpha$
$2+\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	2	$2\alpha$	0	$1+2\alpha$	1
$2+2\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	2	$2+\alpha$	0	$\alpha$	1	$1+\alpha$

$\cdot$	0	1	2	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$
2	0	2	1	$2\alpha$	$\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$
$\alpha$	0	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	2	1	$2+\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$
$2\alpha$	0	$2\alpha$	$\alpha$	1	2	$1+2\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+\alpha$
$1+\alpha$	0	$1+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2\alpha$	2	1	$\alpha$
$1+2\alpha$	0	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	2	$\alpha$	$2\alpha$	1
$2+\alpha$	0	$2+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	1	$2\alpha$	$\alpha$	2
$2+2\alpha$	0	$2+2\alpha$	$1+\alpha$	$1+2\alpha$	$2+\alpha$	$\alpha$	1	2	$2\alpha$

## 29.25

## Part A

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$ . Since  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f(-1) = 1$ ,  $f$  has no zeroes in  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  and is hence irreducible. ■

## Part B

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \textcircled{1} \quad \begin{array}{r}
 x^2 + (1+\alpha)x + (\alpha^2+\alpha) \\
 x-\alpha \overline{) x^3 + x^2 + 1} \\
 \underline{-(x^3 - \alpha x^2)} \\
 (1+\alpha)x^2 \\
 \underline{-(1+\alpha)x^2 - (\alpha^2+\alpha)x} \\
 (\alpha^2+\alpha)x + 1 \\
 \underline{-(\alpha^2+\alpha)x - (\alpha^3+\alpha^2)} \\
 1 - (\alpha^3+\alpha^2) \\
 \hline 0
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \alpha^3 = \alpha^2 + 1 \\
 \downarrow \\
 \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 = 1
 \end{array}$$

Part (1) shows that  $x - \alpha$  is a linear factor of  $f(x)$ . Checking  $\alpha^2$  shows that is a zero of the remainder, hence doing another long division as demonstrated in (2) gives another factor of  $x - \alpha^2$ . Therefore

$$\begin{array}{l}
 x^3 + x^2 + 1 = (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha^2)(x + 1 + \alpha + \alpha^2) \\
 \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha).
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \textcircled{2} \quad \begin{array}{r}
 x + (1+\alpha+\alpha^2) \\
 x-\alpha^2 \overline{) x^2 + (1+\alpha)x + (\alpha^2+\alpha)} \\
 \underline{x^2 - \alpha^2 x} \\
 (1+\alpha+\alpha^2)x \\
 \underline{(1+\alpha+\alpha^2)x - \alpha^2(1+\alpha+\alpha^2)} \\
 \alpha^2 + \alpha + \alpha^2 + \alpha^3 + \alpha^4 = 0
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

## 29.26

Since  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha), + \rangle$  is abelian of order 8 and  $a + a = 0$  for all  $a$  in it, it is isomorphic to just  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ . Furthermore, since  $\langle \mathbb{Z}_2(\alpha), \cdot \rangle$  is abelian of order 7, and 7 is prime, then it must be isomorphic to just  $\mathbb{Z}_7$ .

## 29.29

**Proof.** Since  $\alpha$  is algebraic in  $F(\beta)$ , there is a polynomial  $f(x)$  with coefficients in  $F(\beta)$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . The coefficients of  $f$  have the form of a ratio of two polynomials in  $F[x]$ . By multiplying all the denominators together, a polynomial is achieved such that when multiplied with  $f$ ,  $f$  still remains 0 but with coefficients in  $\beta$ . Since indeterminates are order-free, it follows  $\beta$  is algebraic in  $F(\beta)$ . ■

**29.30**

**Proof.** Note that every element of  $F(\alpha)$  can be expressed as

$$b_0 + b_1\alpha + \dots + b_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1}.$$

for  $b_i \in F$ . Since  $F$  contains  $q$  elements, there are  $q$  choices for each coefficient that give each a unique element in  $F(\alpha)$ . Since there are  $n$  coefficients, there are then  $n$  choices meaning  $q^n$  elements in  $F(\alpha)$ . ■