

**Solution 1.** We already know  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q}$  is Galois with its Galois group isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  generated by  $\phi$  and  $\psi$ , where  $\phi(\sqrt{2}) = -\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\phi(\sqrt{3}) = \sqrt{3}$  and  $\psi(\sqrt{2}) = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $\psi(\sqrt{3}) = -\sqrt{3}$ .

- (a). Suppose  $a = c^2$  for some  $c \in F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$ . Then  $\psi(a) = \psi((2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})) = (2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})$ . Consider the Galois extension  $F/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ , whose Galois group is  $\{1, \psi\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} N_{F/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})}(a) &= a\phi(a) = (2 + \sqrt{2})(2 + \sqrt{3})(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3}) = 6(2 + \sqrt{2})^2 \\ &= N_{F/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})}(c^2) = (N_{F/\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})}(c))^2. \end{aligned}$$

This implies  $6(2 + \sqrt{2})^2$ , and hence 6, is a square in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ , namely,

$$6 = (a + b\sqrt{2})^2 = a^2 + 2b^2 + 2ab\sqrt{2}$$

for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ . But this cannot be true: if  $a = 0$ , then  $6 = 2b^2$  or  $b^2 = 3$ , which is not possible for any  $b \in \mathbb{Q}$ ; if  $b = 0$ , then  $6 = a^2$ , which is not possible for any  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  either; if  $a \neq 0 \neq b$ , then it implies  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational, which is also not possible. Hence,  $a$  cannot be a square in  $F$ .

- (b). Since  $a$  is not a square in  $F$  but  $a \in F$ , it is easily seen that  $[F(\sqrt{a} = \alpha) : F] = 2$  since the minimal polynomial of  $\sqrt{a} = \alpha$  over  $F$  is  $x^2 - a \in F[x]$ . Hence

$$[F(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = [F(\alpha) : F][F : \mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 4 = 8.$$

Apparently,  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \subset F(\alpha)$ . For the reverse inclusion, note that

$$a = \alpha^2 = (2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3}) = 6 + 3\sqrt{2} + 2\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{6} \in E$$

and so  $b = 3\sqrt{2} + 2\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{6} = a - 6 \in E$  and then  $c = (b^2 - 36)/12 = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{6} \in E$  and then  $d = b - 2c = \sqrt{2} - \sqrt{6} \in E$  and then  $e = (8 - d^2)/4 = \sqrt{3} \in E$  and then  $\sqrt{2} = (c + d - 2) \in E$ . And so  $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}) \subset E$  and  $F(\alpha) \subset E$ . Therefore,  $E = F(\alpha)$  and  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = 8$ . Keep squaring  $\alpha$  and removing rationals, we get a polynomial rational  $\alpha^8 - 24\alpha^6 + 133\alpha^4 - 288\alpha^2 + 144 = 0$ . Since  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] = \deg$  of the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the minimal polynomial must be  $f(x) = x^8 - 24x^6 + 144 - 288x^2 + 144 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ .  $f(x)$  is irreducible and has 8 roots which can be checked directly that they are  $\pm\sqrt{(2 \pm \sqrt{2})(3 \pm \sqrt{3})}$ .

- (c). Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is perfect, all finite extensions are separable and so we need to check  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  is normal, which can be done via checking that all the roots of  $f(x)$  lie in  $E$  and  $E$  is a splitting field of  $f(x)$  and so is normal. This is straightforward.

$$\alpha\sqrt{(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})} = \sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})} = (3 + \sqrt{3})\sqrt{2} \in E$$

and therefore,  $\sqrt{(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})} = (3 + \sqrt{3})\sqrt{2}/\alpha \in E$ . Similarly,

$$\alpha\sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = \sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = (2 + \sqrt{2})\sqrt{6} \in E$$

and therefore,  $\sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = (2 + \sqrt{2})\sqrt{6}/\alpha \in E$ . Finally,

$$\alpha\sqrt{(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = \sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = 2\sqrt{3} \in E$$

and therefore,  $\sqrt{(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})} = 2\sqrt{3}/\alpha \in E$ . The rest of them are the negatives of these four and hence also are in  $E$ . So indeed,  $E$  is a splitting field of  $f(x)$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and normal.

- (d). Since  $E = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ , an element in the Galois group is entirely determined by its action on  $\alpha$ . For convenience, we write  $\beta = \sqrt{(2 - \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})}$  and  $\gamma = \sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3})}$ . Then from part (c), we see that  $\alpha\beta = \sqrt{2}(3 + \sqrt{3})$  and  $\alpha\gamma = \sqrt{6}(2 + \sqrt{2})$ . Now  $\sigma(\alpha^2) = \beta^2$ , namely,

$$\sigma(\alpha^2) = \sigma((2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})) = (2 - \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3}).$$

Note that  $\alpha^2 = a \in F$  and  $\sigma|_F \in \text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q}) = \langle \phi, \psi \rangle$ . So we must have  $\sigma|_F = \phi$ . More precisely, consider the canonical surjection from the fundamental theorem on Galois theory

$$\pi : \text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q}) \rightarrow \text{Gal}(F/\mathbb{Q}), \tau \mapsto \tau|_L.$$

Then  $\ker(\pi) = \text{Gal}(E/F)$  and  $\pi(\sigma) = \phi$ . And so

$$\sigma(\alpha\beta) = \sigma(\sqrt{2}(3 + \sqrt{3})) = -\sqrt{2}(3 + \sqrt{3}) = -\alpha\beta.$$

It follows immediately that  $\sigma(\beta) = -\alpha$  and so  $\sigma$  is of order 4.

- (e). Similar arguments apply on  $\tau$ . We see that  $\tau(\alpha^2) = \gamma^2$ , namely,

$$\tau(\alpha^2) = \tau((2 + \sqrt{2})(3 + \sqrt{3})) = \gamma^2 = (2 + \sqrt{2})(3 - \sqrt{3}).$$

Hence  $\pi(\tau) = \psi$ . And then

$$\tau(\alpha\gamma) = \tau(\sqrt{6}(2 + \sqrt{2})) = -\sqrt{6}(2 + \sqrt{2}) = -\alpha\gamma.$$

Therefore,  $\tau(\gamma) = -\alpha$  and  $\tau$  is of order 4. If  $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is cyclic, it cannot have two elements of order 4. Thus  $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is not cyclic. Now consider  $\langle \sigma \rangle$ , which is a cyclic group of order 4. We note that  $\sigma^2(\alpha) = -\alpha$  and  $\sigma^3(\alpha) = -\beta$ . Since  $\langle \sigma \rangle$  is of index 2 and  $\tau \notin \langle \sigma \rangle$ ,  $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  is partitioned by  $\langle \sigma \rangle$  and  $\tau\langle \sigma \rangle$ . Hence,  $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q}) = \langle \sigma, \tau \rangle$ . Note that  $\sigma^2(\alpha) = -\alpha = \tau^2(\alpha)$ , so  $\sigma^2 = \tau^2$ . Note that

$$\sigma\tau(\gamma) = \sigma(-\alpha) = -\sigma(\alpha) = -\beta$$

and

$$\tau\sigma^3(\beta) = \tau\sigma^2(-\alpha) = \tau(\alpha) = \gamma.$$

By a similar argument as part (d), we then see that  $\tau\sigma^3(\gamma) = -\beta = \sigma\tau(\gamma)$ . And hence  $\sigma\tau = \tau\sigma^3$ , or equivalently,  $\tau\sigma = \sigma^{-1}\tau$  by the conjugation of  $\sigma^{-1}$ .

One of the standard presentation (as per Wikipedia) of  $Q_8$  is

$$\langle a, b | a^4 = e, a^2 = b^2, ba = a^{-1}b \rangle.$$

The isomorphism between  $\text{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  and  $Q_8$  is then trivially by  $\sigma \mapsto a$  and  $\tau \mapsto b$ .

**Solution 2.** By Eisenstein's Criterion,  $f(x) = x^4 + px + p \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  is irreducible for any prime  $p$ . So we can safely apply the classification about the Galois groups of quartics. The resolvent of  $f(x)$  is then

$$r(x) = x^3 - 4px - p^2 \in \mathbb{Q}[x].$$

And the discriminant is

$$\Delta = -4(-4p)^3 - 27(-p^2)^2 = p^3(256 - 27p).$$

Note that if  $p$  is odd, then  $p^3 \mid \Delta$  but  $p^4 \nmid \Delta$  since  $p \nmid (256 - 27p)$ . So  $\Delta$  is never a square in  $\mathbb{Q}$  when  $p$  is an odd prime. If  $p = 2$ , then  $\Delta = 2^3(256 - 27 \cdot 2) = 1616$  is not a square in  $\mathbb{Q}$  either. Therefore,  $\Delta$  is never a square in  $\mathbb{Q}$  whatever the prime  $p$  is.

The thing left is to determine the irreducibility of  $r(x)$ . If  $r(x)$  is reducible, then it has a rational root as being a cubic. By the rational root test, if the rational root is  $a/b$  in the lowest form, then  $b \mid 1$  and  $a \mid -p^2$ . And so the only possible roots are  $\pm 1, \pm p, \pm p^2$ . But  $r(1) = 1 - 4p - p^2 < 0$ , so 1 is never a root. And  $r(-1) = 1 + 4p - p^2 = 5 - (p - 2)^2$  can never be 0 since 5 is not a square. Now

$$r(p^2) = p^6 - 4p^3 - p^2 > p^2(p^4 - 4p - 1) > p^2(8p - 4p - 1) > 3p^3 > 0.$$

And

$$r(-p^2) = -p^6 + 4px^3 - p^2 = -p^2(p^4 - 4p + 1) < -p^2(p^4 - p^2 + (p - 2)^2) < -p^2 < 0.$$

And so  $\pm p^2$  can never be roots of  $r(x)$ . Thus we only to check whether  $\pm p$  are roots of  $r(x)$ . Note that

$$r(p) = p^3 - 4p^2 - p^2 = p^2(p - 5)$$

has roots  $p = 0, 5$  and

$$r(-p) = -p^3 + 4p^2 - p^2 = (3 - p)p^2$$

has roots  $p = 0, 3$ .

Therefore, when  $p \neq 3, 5$ ,  $r(x)$  is irreducible. Combining the fact that  $\Delta$  is never a square, we see that the Galois group  $G_f \cong S_5$ .

If  $p = 3$ , then  $r(x) = x^3 - 12x - 9 = (x+3)(x^2 - 3x - 3)$ . The roots of  $r(x)$  are  $-3, (3 \pm \sqrt{21})/2$ . So the splitting field of  $r(x)$  is  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{21})$ . The polynomial to be tested to determine the Galois

group is  $h(x) = (x^2 + 3x + 3)(x^2 + 3)$ . We see that  $\sqrt{i\sqrt{3}}$  does not lie in  $L$  and so  $h(x)$  does not split over  $L$  and so  $G_f \cong D_4$ .

If  $p = 5$ , then  $r(x) = x^3 - 20x - 25 = (x - 5)(x^2 + 5x + 5)$  with roots  $5, (-5 + \sqrt{5})/2$ . SO the splitting field of  $r(x)$  is  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ . The polynomial to be tested to determine the Galois group is  $h(x) = (x^2 + 5x + 5)(x^2 - 5)$ , which has roots  $\pm\sqrt{5}, (-5 \pm \sqrt{5})/2$  all in  $L$ . So  $h(x)$  splits over  $L$ . Therefore, the Galois group  $G_f \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution 3.** Let  $a$  be a real root of  $f$  and  $b \neq 0$  a complex root. Since complex roots appear in pair by conjugation, we see  $\bar{b}$  is also a root. Let  $L$  be the splitting field of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and we further require  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Then  $L \subset \mathbb{C}$ . Denote the complex conjugation on  $\mathbb{C}$  by  $\phi : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, x \mapsto \bar{x}$ . Then  $\phi|_L$  is a homomorphism from  $L$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  fixing  $\mathbb{Q}$ . But  $L$  as the splitting field is normal and so indeed we have  $\phi|_L \in \text{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q}) = G_f$ . Since  $f$  is irreducible, the Galois group  $G_f$  is transitive and so we can find an element  $\tau \in G_f$  such that  $\tau(a) = b$ . But then  $\phi|_L$  and  $\tau$  do not commute in the sense that

$$\tau\phi|_L(a) = \tau(a) = b \neq \phi|_L\tau(a) = \phi|_L(b) = \bar{b}.$$

Therefore,  $G_f$  is not an abelian group.

We cannot drop the assumption that  $f$  is irreducible since we need the transitivity of  $G_f$ . As a counter example,  $f(x) = (x - 1)(x^2 + 1)$  and  $f(x)$  has the obvious Galois group  $G_f \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$  consisting of the identity map and the complex conjugation map.

**Solution 4.** I think this is a problem on the lower bound of the Euler function  $\varphi(n)$ .

Claim:  $\varphi(n) \geq \sqrt{n/2}$ .

With this claim, suppose  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  is a finite extension. Then we can find a positive integer  $n$  such that  $[E : \mathbb{Q}] < \sqrt{n/2}$ . Then  $E$  cannot contain any primitive  $m$ -th root for any  $m > n$ . Otherwise,

$$[E : \mathbb{Q}] \geq [\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_m) : \mathbb{Q}] = \varphi(m) \geq \sqrt{m/2} > \sqrt{n/2} > [E : \mathbb{Q}],$$

which is a contradiction. But there are only finitely many  $q$ -th primitive root of unity for  $q \leq n$ .

Proof of Claim: Let  $n = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_k^{e_k}$ , where  $p_i$  are distinct primes and  $e_i \geq 1$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n)^2 &= \left(n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right)\right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i-1} (p_i - 1)\right) \\ &= n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) p_i^{e_i-1} (p_i - 1) \\ &\geq n \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{(p_i - 1)^2}{p_i} \\ &\geq \frac{n}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

because if  $p_i = 2$ , then  $(p_i - 1)^2/p_i = 1/2$  and if  $p_i \geq 3$ , then  $(p_i - 1)^2/p_i \geq 1$ . Therefore, we have the desired inequality.

**Solution 5.** One direction shall be easy, suppose  $n$  is not square free, say  $n = p^2q$  for some prime  $p$ . Let  $\zeta_n$  be a primitive  $n$ -th root. Then  $\zeta_n^{pq}$  is a primitive  $p$ -th root of unity. Hence

$$\Phi_p(\zeta_n^{pq}) = 1 + \zeta_n^{pq} + (\zeta_n^{pq})^2 + \cdots + (\zeta_n^{pq})^{p-1} = 0.$$

Multiplying both sides by  $\zeta_n$ , we get

$$\zeta_n + \zeta_n^{pq+1} + \zeta_n^{2pq+1} + \cdots + \zeta_n^{(p-1)pq+1} = 0.$$

Note that  $\gcd(p^2q, ipq + 1) = 1$ , so each element  $\zeta_n^{pq+1}$  is also a primitive  $n$ -th root. Hence we get a nontrivial linear dependence relation between the  $n$ -th primitive roots. So they cannot form a basis.

For the other direction, I did not really find a way to apply the normal basis theorem. Maybe you can explain to me after the presentation.

**Solution 6.** One direction is clear. Let  $\{\sigma(a) : \sigma \in G\}$  be a normal basis for some  $a \in L$ . Then we claim that  $\{a\}$  is a basis of  $L$  as a  $KG$ -module and so  $L$  is a cyclic hence free  $KG$ -module. We only need to prove the claim. Since  $\{\sigma(a) : \sigma \in G\}$  is a  $K$ -basis for  $L$ , any element  $x \in L$  can be expressed as  $x = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma(a)$ , where  $k_\sigma \in K$ . But then take the element  $s_x = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma \in KG$ . We see that  $s_x a = (\sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma) a = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma(a) = x$ . So  $\{a\}$  is a spanning set. To see  $\{a\}$  is linearly independent, we assume there is a linear dependence relation

$$0 = \left( \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma \right) a = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma(a).$$

But  $\{\sigma(a) : \sigma \in G\}$  is a  $K$ -basis, then we must have  $k_\sigma = 0$  for all  $\sigma \in G$  and so  $(\sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma) = 0$ .

For the other direction, suppose  $L$  is a free  $KG$ -module, namely,  $L = \langle a_1 \rangle \oplus \cdots \oplus \langle a_k \rangle$ , where  $\langle a_i \rangle \cong KG$  for each direct summand. Note that  $KG$ , hence  $\langle a_i \rangle$ , has a  $K$ -vector space structure with  $\dim_K(KG) = |G| = [L : K]$ . So by counting the dimension,  $L$  is necessarily a cyclic  $KG$ -module, say,  $L = \langle a \rangle$ . Then  $\{\sigma(a) : \sigma \in G\}$  is a normal basis. Again by counting dimension, we only need to show it is a spanning set. Now since  $L = \langle a \rangle$ , for any  $x \in L$  we can find  $s_x = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma \in KG$ , where  $k_\sigma \in K$ , such that  $x = (\sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma) a = \sum_{\sigma \in G} k_\sigma \sigma(a)$ . In other words,  $x$  is a  $K$ -linear combination of  $\{\sigma(a) : \sigma \in G\}$ .

**Solution 7.** Let  $[L : K] = m$ . Then  $L = \mathbb{F}_{q^m}$  (up to isomorphism), where  $q = p^n$ , and the Galois group is cyclic and generated by the Frobenius map  $\phi : L \rightarrow L, x \mapsto x^q$ . By Hilbert 90,  $N_{L/K}(\alpha) = 1$  if and only if we can find  $a \in L$  such that  $\alpha = \phi(a)/a$ . Hence

$$\ker(N_{L/K}) = \{\phi(a)/a : a \in L\}.$$

To find the cardinality of  $\{\phi(a)/a : a \in L\}$ , we need to eliminate the duplicity. Now consider the map

$$f : L^* \rightarrow L^*, x \mapsto \phi(x)/x = x^p/x.$$

Since both  $\phi$  and inverse map are group homomorphisms, so is  $f$ . Hence by group isomorphism theorem, we have

$$L^* / \ker(f) \cong \text{im}(f) = \{\phi(a)/a : a \in L\}.$$

Now  $x \in \ker(f)$  if and only if  $\phi(x) = x$ , namely,  $x$  is fixed by  $\phi$  and then by the Galois group, so if and only if  $x \in K^*$ . And hence

$$|\ker(N_{L/K})| = |L^* / \ker(f)| = |L^*|/|K^*| = (q^m - 1)/(q - 1),$$

where  $m = [L : K]$  and  $q = p^n$ .