Chapter 2

- 1. (a) Show every number field of degree 2 over $\mathbb Q$ is one of the quadratic fields. Let K be a number field of degree 2, and $f(x) = x^2 + px + q$ be its minimum polynomial over $\mathbb Q$. Since $p,q \in \mathbb Q$ we can multiply through to clear the denominators and give us a polynomial $g(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ over $\mathbb Z$ with the same roots as f(x). Therefore $K = \mathbb Q[\sqrt{b^2 4ac}]$ is a quadratic field for $m = b^2 4ac$.
- 1. (b) Suppose $K = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ contains \sqrt{n} for n a squarefree integer. Since K has the basis $\{1, \sqrt{m}\}$, so $\sqrt{n} = p + q\sqrt{m}$ for $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$. Therefore $n = p^2 + 2pq\sqrt{m} + q^2m$, so either p = 0 or q = 0.

If p = 0, then $\sqrt{n} = q\sqrt{m}$ and so $\sqrt{n}/\sqrt{m} = q$. This can only happen if q = 1, meaning m = n.

If q=0, then $\sqrt{n}=p$, which can only happen if p is also an integer, contradicting n squarefree.

Therefore the quadratic fields are each distinct.

2. Let I be the ideal generated by 2 and $1 + \sqrt{-3}$ in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$.

We have $I \neq (2)$ because $1 + \sqrt{-3}$ ($\in I$) does not have the form $2a + b\sqrt{-3}$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The ideal I^2 is generated by $(4, 2 + 2\sqrt{-3}, -2 + 2\sqrt{-3})$. The number $-2 + 2\sqrt{-3} = 2 + 2\sqrt{-3} - 4$ and so is redundant as a generator; therefore $I^2 = (4, 2 + 2\sqrt{-3}) = 2I$.

Since $I^2 = 2I$, prime factorization of ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$ must not hold; if we did then I would be invertible, meaning it could be cancelled from the right-hand-side of each equality, giving us I = (2) which is not true (from above).

Suppose P is a prime ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$ containing 2. Then $4 \in P$ also. Since $(1+\sqrt{-3})(1-\sqrt{-3})=4$ and P is a prime ideal, one of $1+\sqrt{-3}$ and $1-\sqrt{-3}$ are also in P. However, if $1-\sqrt{-3} \in P$ then $1+\sqrt{-3} \in P$ since $-1 \cdot (1-\sqrt{-3})+2=1+\sqrt{-3}$. Therefore any prime ideal containing (2) also contains I and I is the unique prime ideal that contains (2). Since I cannot be expressed as a product of prime ideals, neither can (2).

(We should expect this; $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$ is an order of conductor 2 in $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}]$ and I is not prime to the conductor, meaning it is not invertible.)

3 Complete the proof of Corollary 2, Theorem 1.

The statement of the text leaves off with α being an algebraic integer if and only if 2r and $r^2 - ms^2$ are both integers, where $r, s \in \mathbb{Q}$.

2r being an integer requires that $r = \frac{a}{2}$, where a is an integer. Substituting $r = \frac{a}{2}$ into the second equation, we see that $a^2 - 4ms^2$ is an integer divisible by 4. In order for the quantity to be an integer, $s = \frac{b}{2}$, where b is an

integer. Therefore α is an algebraic integer of the form $\frac{a+b\sqrt{m}}{2}$ if and only if $a^2-mb^2=0 \mod 4$.

We finish by considering $m \mod 4$ and seeing under which statements the given equation is solvable. The key is that integer squares are either equivalent to 0 or 1 modulo 4.

- $m \equiv 1$ (4): Let a be even then $a^2 \equiv 0 \mod 4$, and to satisfy the equality, $b^2 \equiv 0 \mod 4$ and so b must also be even. Similarly, if a is odd, then $a^2 \equiv 1 \mod 4$ to satisfy the equality, b must also be odd. Therefore $\alpha = \frac{a+b\sqrt{m}}{2}$ for all $a \equiv b$ (2) as required.
- $m \equiv 2,3 \mod 4$: For the equation to be solvable, both a and b must be equivalent to 0 or 2 modulo 4 (and so even), meaning $\alpha = c + d\sqrt{m}$ for $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ as required.
- 4 Suppose a_0, \ldots, a_{n_1} are algebraic integers and α is a complex number satisfying $\alpha^n + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\alpha + a_0 = 0$. Show the ring $\mathbb{Z}[a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}, \alpha]$ has a finitely generated additive group.

For each a_i let k_i be the degree of the algebraic integer a_i over \mathbb{Q} : therefore for any power $k >= k_i$, it can be written as a linear combination of powers of a_i less than k_i . Additionally any power of α^k where $k \geq n$ can be written as a linear combination of powers of α multiplied by each of the a_i . Therefore only a finite number of powers of $a_0^{m_0} \cdots a_n^{m_n} \alpha^m$ are needed; the a_i terms are capped to be lower than k_i and the α term is capped to be lower than n.

Since α is a member of a subring of $\mathbb C$ that is finitely generated, α is therefore an algebraic integer.

5 Let f be a polynomial over \mathbb{Z}_p where p is a prime. We prove $f(x^p) = (f(x))^p$ by induction on number of terms.

If $f(x) = kx^b$ where $k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, then $f(x^p) = kx^{pb} = k^px^{bp} = (kx^b)^p$ (since $k^p = k$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}_p$).

Next, let f(x) = g(x) + h(x) where g(x) and h(x) have fewer terms than f(x).

$$f(x)^{p} = (g(x) + h(x))^{p}$$

$$= g(x)^{p} + h(x)^{p} + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \binom{p}{k} g(x)^{k} h(x)^{p-k}$$

$$= g(x)^{p} + h(x)^{p}$$

$$= g(x^{p}) + h(x^{p}) \text{ (using the inductive hypothesis)}$$

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

This is the required result.

6 If f and g are polynomials over a field K and $f^2 \mid g$, then $g = f^2h$. Therefore $g' = f^2h' + 2hff'$, so $f \mid g'$. 7 Complete the proof of Corollary 2, Theorem 3.

Let ϕ_k be the automorphism of $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ sending ω to ω^k . Then $(\phi_a \circ \phi_b)(\omega) = (\omega^a)^b = \omega^{ab} = \phi_{ab}$, giving the required result that composition of automorphisms corresponds to multiplication modulo m.

8. (a) Let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/p}$ where p is an odd prime. Then

$$\operatorname{disc}(\omega) = \prod_{1 \le r < s \le n} (\alpha_r - \alpha_s)^2 = \pm p^{p-2}$$

Therefore

$$\Big| \prod_{1 \le r \le s \le n} (\alpha_r - \alpha_s) \Big| = \sqrt{\pm p^{p-2}} = p^{(p-3)/2} \sqrt{\pm p}$$

Let $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/3}$. Using the above we have the identity $(\zeta - \zeta^2) = \sqrt{-3}$.

Let
$$\zeta = e^{2\pi i/5}$$
. Note $\zeta^4 = -(\zeta^3 + \zeta^2 + \zeta + 1)$.

We expand the product:

$$(\zeta - \zeta^2)(\zeta - \zeta^3)(\zeta - z^4)(\zeta^2 - \zeta^3)(\zeta^2 - \zeta^4)(\zeta^3 - \zeta_4) = 10\zeta^3 + 10\zeta^2 + 1$$

Observing that this product is negative we flip the signs and divide by $5^{(5-3)/2} = 5$ to get the identity $\sqrt{5} = -2\zeta^3 - 2\zeta^2 - 1$.

- 8. (b) The 8th cyclotomic polynomial is x^4+1 , so the 8th cyclotomic field contains all the roots of this equation, which includes $\sqrt{i} = (1/\sqrt{2})(1+i)$ and its complex conjugate $(1/\sqrt{2})(1-i)$. Thus the 8th cyclotomic field also contains their sum $2/\sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2}$.
- 8. (c) Let m be a squarefree number. Then m can be written as 2^iq where $2 \nmid q$, and $i \in \{0,1\}$. We proceed by case analysis, showing for each that \sqrt{m} is contained in the dth cyclotomic field, where $d = \operatorname{disc}(\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}])$.

m = -1: $\sqrt{-1}$ is contained in the 4th cyclotomic field which contains the complex unit i (d = -4).

m = 2: $\sqrt{2}$ is contained in the 8th cyclotomic field by part (b) $(d = 4 \cdot 2 = 8)$.

m = -2: The 8th cyclotomic field contains i (since it contains the 4th cyclotomic field as a subfield) so it contains $\sqrt{-2} = i\sqrt{2}$ ($d = 4 \cdot -2 = -8$).

m=q where $q\equiv 1 \mod 4$: Because $q\equiv 1 \mod 4$, q has an even number of prime factors $\equiv 3 \mod 4$, meaning that \sqrt{q} must be contained in the q-th cyclotomic field $(d=q \text{ since } q\equiv 1 \mod 4)$.

m=q where $q \equiv 3 \mod 4$: The 4q-th cyclotomic field contains the q-th cyclotomic field (containing $\sqrt{-q}$) and the 4th cyclotomic field (containing $\sqrt{-1}$) (d=4q since $q\equiv 3 \mod 4$), and so contains \sqrt{q} .

m = 2q where q is a product of odd primes: Here d = 8q. By the above, \sqrt{q} is contained in either the q-th or 4q-th cyclotomic field, depending on its residue mod 4. Thus $\sqrt{2q}$ is contained in the 8q-th cyclotomic field.

This shows every quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ is contained within the d-th cyclotomic field.

9 Let θ be a primitive k-th root of unity, i.e. $\theta = e^{2\pi i/k}$. Let $\gcd(k, m) = d$. Using Euclid's extended algorithm we can find u, v such that uk + vm = d. Then we have

$$\omega^{u}\theta^{v} = e^{(2\pi i u)/m}e^{(2\pi i v)/k} = e^{2\pi i (uk+vm)/km} = e^{2\pi i d/km} = e^{2\pi i /r}$$

where $r = \operatorname{lcm}(k, m)$ ($\operatorname{lcm}(k, m) = km/\operatorname{gcd}(k, m)$).

10 Show if m is even, $m \mid r$, and $\phi(r) \leq \phi(m)$ then r = m.

If $m \mid r$ there is some k such that mk = r. Let $d = \gcd(k, m)$, so r = mdj with j satisfying $\gcd(j, m) = 1$. Therefore $\phi(r) = \phi(md)\phi(j)$. Since $d \mid m$, $\phi(md) = d \cdot \phi(m)$, so

$$\phi(r) = d \cdot \phi(m) \phi(j) \le \phi(m)$$

The inequality forces d = 1 and $\phi(j) = 1$. Because $2 \mid m \mid r$, $\phi(j) = 1$ implies j = 1. Therefore m = r.

11. (a) Suppose all the roots to a monic polynomial f have 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.

Factor f as $f = (x - \alpha_0) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$. Re-expanding f we see that the coefficient of x^r is equal to $\sum_{S \subseteq \{0, \dots, n\}, |S| = r} x^r \prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i$. By assumption $|\alpha_i| = 1$ for all i, so $|\prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i| = 1$. There are $\binom{n}{r}$ of these subsets of S.

Using the identity $|a + b| \le |a| + |b|$ we have:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \sum_{S \subseteq \{0,...,n\}, |S| = r} \prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i \end{vmatrix} \leq \sum_{S \subseteq \{0,...,n\}, |S| = r} |\prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i|$$

$$\leq \sum_{S \subseteq \{0,...,n\}, |S| = r} 1$$

$$\leq \binom{n}{r}$$

11. (b) We will consider all monic polynomials f of degree n and show that only a finite number of them can have a root α all of whose conjugates have absolute value 1.

By Theorem 1, if α is an algebraic integer, than the coefficients of f are integers. By (b), the absolute value of the coefficients of f are bounded above $\binom{n}{r}$, therefore there are at most $2\binom{n}{r}$ choices for each coefficient beyond the x^n th term. The constant term of the polynomial must be 1 (since α has absolute value 1) and the first term of the polynomial must also be 1 (since f is monic). This gives an upper bound of $\sum_{r=1}^{n-1} 2\binom{n}{r} = 2(2^n-2) = 4(2^{n-1}-1)$ on the number of algebraic integers satisfying the given condition.

- 11. (c) (TODO)
- 12. (a) Let u be a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/p}$. Show u/\overline{u} is a root of 1.

The field $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ has Galois group $\simeq \mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$, which has cardinality p-1 and so has an element of order 2 (complex conjugation). Therefore u has p-1 conjugates, which consist of (p-1)/2 elements along with their complex conjugates. Enumerate the conjugates of u as $a_1, \ldots, a_n, \overline{a_1}, \ldots, \overline{a_n}$.

Therefore, the conjugates of u/\overline{u} have the form $a_i/\overline{a_i}$ or $\overline{a_i}/a_i$. Multiplying over all conjugates of u/\overline{u} , we have $\prod_{i=0}^n a_i/\overline{a_i} \cdot \prod_{i=0}^n \overline{a_i}/a_i = 1$, and so u/\overline{u} and all its conjugates have absolute value 1. By 11 (c), u/\overline{u} is then a root of 1, and so has form $\pm \omega^k$.

- 12. (b) Suppose $u/\overline{u} = -\omega^k$. We derive a contradiction. Raising both sides to the p-th power we have $u^p/\overline{u^p} = -(\omega^k)^p = -(\omega^p)^k = -1$, and so $u^p = -\overline{u^p}$. By exercise 1.25, $u^p \equiv a$ (p) for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Applying exercise 1.23, we see $\overline{u^p} \equiv \overline{a} = a$ (p), and so $a \equiv -a$ (p). There a must be 0, and $u^p \equiv 0$ (p), so p divides u^p . This contradicts u^p being a unit, since if p divided u^p , p would also divide the absolute value of u^p , which is 1. Therefore $u/\overline{u} = \omega^k$.
 - 13 Show that 1 and -1 are the only units in the ring $A \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$, m squarefree and $m < 0, m \neq -1, -3$. What if m = -1, -3?

Let u be a unit in $A \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$. Then $u = a + b\sqrt{m}$ where $p, q \in A \cap \mathbb{Q}[sqrtm]$. Since N(u) = 1, then $(a + b\sqrt{m})(a - b\sqrt{m}) = a^2 - b^2m = 1$. We proceed by cases on whether $m \equiv 1$ (4).

If $m \not\equiv 1 \mod 4$, then a and b must be integers and so $a^2 - b^2 m = 1$ can only be satisfied if one of the terms is 1 and the other is 0. If $a^2 = 1$, then $b^2 m = 0$. This corresponds to the units 1 and -1 in $A \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$. If $-b^2 m = 1$, then $b^2 m = -1$ and so m = -1. This corresponds to the units i and -i in $A \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-1}]$.

If $m \equiv 1$ (4) then let a = r/2 and b = s/2. Therefore $r^2 - s^2 m = 4$. Since m is negative, both r^2 and $-s^2 m$ must be positive. r^2 must be either 0, 1, or 4.

If r^2 is 0 then $-s^2m=4$, so $s^2m=-4$, forcing m=-1 which is not \equiv mod 4. (We have considered this case already.)

If r^2 is 1 then $-s^2m = 3$ so $s^2m = -3$ and m = -3, $s = \pm 1$. This corresponds to the unit $\pm \frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{-3}}{2}$ in the ring $A \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-3}]$.

If r^2 is 4 then $-s^2m=0$, which corresponds to the unit ± 1 in the ring $A\cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$.

14 Show that $1 + \sqrt{2}$ is a unit in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$, but not a root of 1.

 $1 + \sqrt{2}$ is a unit, as $-(1 - \sqrt{2})$ is its inverse:

$$-(1+\sqrt{2})(1-\sqrt{2}) = -1 + (\sqrt{2})^2 = 1$$

If $1+\sqrt{2}$ were a root of 1, we would have $(1+\sqrt{2})^k = 1$ for some k. However by the Binomial Theorem, $(1+\sqrt{2})^k = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} (\sqrt{2})^i$, which will always contains a term $\sqrt{2}$ multiplied by a positive number. Therefore $1+\sqrt{2}$ is not a root of 1.

Let $(1+\sqrt{2})^k = a+b\sqrt{2}$. The inverse of this term is

$$((1+\sqrt{2})^k)^{-1} = ((1+\sqrt{2})^{-1})^k = (-1)^k (1-\sqrt{2})^k = (-1)^k (a-b\sqrt{2})^k$$

Therefore, $(a+b\sqrt{2})^k \cdot (a-b\sqrt{2})^k = \pm 1$ and so the powers of $1+\sqrt{2}$ give an infinite number of a,b such that $a^2-2b^2=\pm 1$.

- 15 (a) Let $a + b\sqrt{-5}$ be an element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$. Then the norm of $a + b\sqrt{-5}$ is $(a + b\sqrt{-5})(a b\sqrt{-5}) = a^2 + 5b^2$, where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since there are no integer solutions a, b such that $a^2 + 5b^2 = 2$ or $a^2 + 5b^2 = 3$, there can be no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ with a norm of 2 or 3.
 - (b) In $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, $6 = 2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 \sqrt{-5})$. If unique factorization held in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, there would be elements $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ such that $a \cdot b = 2$, $c \cdot d = 3$, $a \cdot d = 1 + \sqrt{-5}$, $b \cdot c = 1 \sqrt{-5}$. However by (a), 2 and 3 are irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, meaning they are irreducible elements, and so no a, b, c, d can exist.
- 16 We argue in the style of K. Conrad: Trace and Norm, Section 4. Suppose $\sqrt{3} \in \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$ where $\alpha = \sqrt[4]{2}$; therefore $\sqrt{3} = a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3$. We have the following traces:

$$Tr(\sqrt{3}) = \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{3} = 0$$

$$Tr(\alpha) = \alpha - \alpha + i\alpha - i\alpha = 0$$

$$Tr(\alpha^2) = \alpha^2 - \alpha^2 + i\alpha^2 - i\alpha^2 = 0$$

$$Tr(\alpha^3) = \alpha^3 - \alpha^3 + i\alpha^3 - i\alpha^3 = 0$$

Since $\sqrt{3} = a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3$,

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\sqrt{3}) = \operatorname{Tr}(a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3)$$

$$0 = a\operatorname{Tr}(1) + b\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha) + c\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha^2) + d\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha^3)$$

$$0 = 4a$$

Therefore a = 0, and we have $\sqrt{3} = b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3$. We have $\text{Tr}(\sqrt{3}\alpha) = \text{Tr}(\sqrt[4]{9/2}) = \sqrt[4]{9/2} - \sqrt[4]{9/2} + i\sqrt[4]{9/2} - i\sqrt[4]{9/2} = 0$, so $0 = b\text{Tr}(1) + c\text{Tr}(\alpha) + d\text{Tr}(\alpha)^2 = 4b$ and so b = 0.

Similarly $\text{Tr}(\sqrt{3}/\alpha^2) = \text{Tr}(\sqrt{3/2}) = 0$, and so c = 0.

From eliminating the coefficients a,b,c, we have $d\sqrt[4]{8} = \sqrt{3}$ and so $3 = d^2\sqrt{8} = 2d^2\sqrt{2}$. Therefore $\sqrt{2}$ is expressible as a rational number $3/d^2$, a contradiction. Therefore $\sqrt{3} \notin \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.

(Where would this argument break down for $\sqrt{2}$? $\sqrt{2} = \alpha^2$ so $\sqrt{2}/\alpha^2 = 1$ and so we would conclude that c = 1 rather than c = 0.)

- 17 (TODO)
- 18 (TODO)
- 19 (TODO)
- 20 Write $f(x) = (x \alpha)g(x)$. By the chain rule $f'(x) = (x \alpha)g'(x) + g(x)$, so $f'(\alpha) = g(\alpha) = \prod_{\beta \neq \alpha} (\alpha \beta)$.
- 21 Let f(x) = g(x)h(x), where g(x) is the minimum polynomial of α over \mathbb{Z} . Then f'(x) = g'(x)h(x) + g(x)h'(x) and $f'(\alpha) = g'(\alpha)h(\alpha)$. We have

$$N(f'(\alpha)) = N(g'(\alpha))N(h(\alpha))$$

. By Theorem 8, $N(g'(\alpha)) = \pm disc(\alpha)$, so

$$N(f'(\alpha)) = \pm disc(\alpha)N(h(\alpha))$$

Therefore $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$ divides $\operatorname{N}(f'(\alpha))$ as required.

23. (c) Let $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ be an integral basis for K $(n = [K : \mathbb{Q}))$ and let $\{\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m\}$ be an integral basis for L $(m = [L : \mathbb{Q}])$. Therefore

$$\{\alpha_i\beta_j \mid 1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m\}$$

is an integral basis for KL.

We have the tower of field extensions $KL : K : \mathbb{Q}$ where [KL : K] = m, $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. By the formula established in (b),

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_i\beta_j) = (\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_i))^m N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K \operatorname{disc}(\beta_j) = (\operatorname{disc} R)^m (\operatorname{disc} S)^n$$

Because disc S is an integer, its norm is the degree of K over \mathbb{Q} .

25 Let α be an algebraic number, so there is some $f \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. We convert this polynomial into a (non-monic) $g \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ by through multiplying by the GCD m for all of the denominators in the coefficients of f. Then $g = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$ and $g(\alpha) = 0$. Multiplying through by a_n^{n-1} gives the relationship $(a_n \alpha)^n + a_{n-1} a_n^{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} + \dots + a_n^{n-1} a_0 = 0$. This is a monic polynomial with integer coefficients, so $ma_n^n \alpha$ is an algebraic integer.

Given any finite set of algebraic numbers, $\{\alpha_0, \dots \alpha_n\}$ let m_i be such that $m_i\alpha_i$ is an algebraic integer. Therefore taking M to be the least common multiple of each m_i gives us a number M such that each $M\alpha_i$ is an algebraic integer.

28. (a) Taking the derivative of the polynomial, we have $f'(x) = 3x^2 + a$. We then have:

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

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

$$\alpha f'(\alpha) = -3(a\alpha + b) + a\alpha$$

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

$$f'(\alpha) = -(2a\alpha + 3b)/\alpha$$

28. (b) It is straightforward that $2a\alpha + 3b$ is a root of the polynomial $g(x) = (\frac{x-3b}{2a})^3 + a(\frac{x-3b}{2a}) + b$. To calculate the norm of $2a\alpha + 3b$ over $\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$, we thus divide the zero coefficient of g(x) by negative the initial coefficient of g(x) (negative since n = 3 is odd):

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

Reducing terms gives us

$$N(2a\alpha + 3b) = (3b)^3 + (2^2)a^3b = 27b^3 + 4a^3b$$

28. (c) By Theorem 8, disc(a) = $-N(f'(\alpha))$ (the negative sign holds since $n = 3 \neq 0, 1$ (4),).

Note that given the factoring of f(x) into $(x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3)$, $(-1)\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3 = -N(\alpha) = b$, $N(\alpha) = -b$.

We now compute the discriminant of α :

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -\operatorname{N}(f'(\alpha))$$

$$= -\operatorname{N}(-(2a\alpha + 3b)/\alpha)$$

$$= \frac{27b^3 + 4a^3b}{-b}$$

$$= -(27b^2 + 4a^3)$$

This is the required result.

28. (d) If $\alpha^3 = \alpha + 1$, then a = -1 and b = -1. By (c), $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -27 - 4 = -31$, which is squarefree. By 27 (c) the powers of α thus form an integral basis for $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.

Similarly if a = 1 and b = -1, then $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -27 + 4 = -23$ (squarefree) and so again by 27 (c) the powers of α form an integral basis for $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.

29. Let $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}, \sqrt{n}]$, where (m, n) = 1. Find an integral basis and the discriminant of this basis for (a): the case where $m, n \equiv 1$ (4) and (b) where $m \equiv 1$ (4), $n \not\equiv 1$ (4).

For both given scenarios, the ring of integers is a linear combination of the ring of integers of $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$, and so Theorem 12, Corollary 1 applies, and an integral basis can be found as a combination of the bases of the individual rings.

- 29. (a) $m, n \equiv 1$ (4): The corresponding rings of integers for $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$ are $\mathbb{Z}[(1+\sqrt{m})/2]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[(1+\sqrt{n})/2)]$ with discriminants m and n. By assumption, these discriminants are relatively prime, so Theorem 12, Corollary 1 applies. The field $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}, \sqrt{n}]$ thus has an integral basis $\{1, (\sqrt{m}+1)/2, (\sqrt{n}+1)/2, (1+\sqrt{m}+\sqrt{n}+\sqrt{nm})/4\}$. By Exercise 23 (c), the discriminant for this basis is m^2n^2 .
- 29. (b) The rings of integers for $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{n}]$ are $\mathbb{Z}[(1+\sqrt{m})/2]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{n}]$, with discriminants m and 4n. Since m was assumed to be square-free, (m,4n)=1, so Theorem 12, Corollary 1 applies again. The field $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m},\sqrt{n}]$ thus has an integral basis $\{1,(\sqrt{m}+1)/2,\sqrt{n},(\sqrt{mn}+\sqrt{n})/2\}$. By Exercise 23 (c), the discriminant for this basis is $m^2(4n)^2=16m^2n^2$.
- 30. (a) TODO (Write Up)
- 30. (b) Consider the four algebraic integers:

$$\alpha_1 = (1 + \sqrt{7})(1 + \sqrt{10})$$

$$\alpha_2 = (1 + \sqrt{7})(1 - \sqrt{10})$$

$$\alpha_3 = (1 - \sqrt{7})(1 + \sqrt{10})$$

$$\alpha_4 = (1 - \sqrt{7})(1 - \sqrt{10})$$

The conjugates of each α_i are the other α_j , and each product $\alpha_i \alpha_j$ is divisible by 3: $\alpha_1 \alpha_3$, $\alpha_2 \alpha_3$, $\alpha_1 \alpha_4$, and $\alpha_2 \alpha_4$ are divisible by -6, and $\alpha_1 \alpha_2$, $\alpha_1 \alpha_4$, $\alpha_2 \alpha_3$, and $\alpha_3 \alpha_4$ are divisible by -9.

We show that $\alpha_i^n/3$ is not an algebraic integer by considering its trace: $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_i^n/3) = \operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_i^n)/3$, so we compute $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_i^n)$. The conjugates of α_i^n are each of the other α_j^n , so $\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_i^n) = \alpha_1^n + \alpha_2^n + \alpha_3^n + \alpha_4^n$. Modulo 3, $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 + \alpha_4)^n \equiv \alpha_1^n + \alpha_2^n + \alpha_3^n + \alpha_4^n$ because any of the monomials with any nonzero powers is divisible by 3 and so cancel out mod 3. However $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 + \alpha_4)^n = 1^n = 1$. Since each α_i is conjugate to each of the α_j , their traces must be identical.

Therefore the trace of α_i^n is an integer $\equiv 1$ (3), and so $\text{Tr}(\alpha_i^n/3)$ cannot be an integer, and so by Corollary 2 to Theorem 4, $\alpha_i^n/3$ must not be an algebraic integer.

30. (c) Let α_i from (b) be defined by $f_i(\alpha)$ (for any fixed α). Because $\alpha_i\alpha_j$ is divisible by 3, by (a), $\bar{f} \mid \bar{f}_i\bar{f}_j$. However, $\bar{f} \not\mid \bar{f}_i{}^n$ for any power of n (or else 3 would $\bar{f}_i{}^n$ which is not the case by (b)), so $\bar{f}_i\bar{f}_j \neq \bar{f}_i{}^n$ for any n. Therefore, since $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$ is a UFD, \bar{f} has an irreducible factor that does not divide \bar{f}_i but does divide \bar{f}_j for all $j \neq i$.

- 30. (d) The result of (c) is that \bar{f} has at least 4 irreducible factors in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. However, \bar{f} is of degree at most 4, since $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{7}, \sqrt{10}]$. For there to be at least 4 irreducible factors of \bar{f} it would imply each are of degree 1, but there are only 3 monic polynomials of degree 1 in $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$: x, x-1, x-2. Therefore $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{7}, \sqrt{10}] \neq \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ for any α .
 - 31. Show that $\frac{\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{7}}{2}$ is an algebraic integer.

 $\frac{\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{7}}{2}$ is the root of the degree 4 polynomial $f(x) = x^4 - 5x^2 + 1$. This shows that the intersection of the ring of integers $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{7}]$ is not $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3},\sqrt{7}]$; neither original ring contains fractional elements. (Their discriminants are 12 and 28 respectively, sharing a factor of 4.)

- 32. (TODO) Find two fields of degree 3 over $\mathbb Q$ whose composition has degree 6.
- 33. Let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$, where $m \ge 3$. We know that $N(\omega) = \pm 1$ because ω is a unit. Show the + sign holds.

Write $e^{2\pi ik/m}$ as ω_k . The conjugates of ω have the form ω_k where (k,m) = 1. There are $\phi(m)$ of these, which is even for all $m \ge 3$. If ω_k is a conjugate, then ω_{m-k} is also a conjugate, since (k,m) = 1 implies there exist integers a, b such that ak+bm = 1, so -a(m-k)+(b+a)m = 1, and so (m-k,m) = 1.

For each conjugate ω_k , $\omega_k \neq \omega_{m-k}$; if this were the case, k = -k (m), so 2k = 0 (m) and so k would divide m, contradicting (k, m) = 1. Therefore all the conjugates are distinct.

Finally, for each conjugate ω_k , $\omega_k \cdot \omega_{m-k} = 1$, so in computing the norm of ω , all the conjugates cancel out and the norm of ω is seen to be 1.

- 35. (a) Let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/m}$ and $\theta = \omega + \omega^{-1}$. Then $\omega^2 (\omega + \omega^{-1})(\omega) + 1 = 0$ and so ω is a root of the polynomial $x^2 + \theta x + 1$. $\omega \notin \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$, therefore $\mathbb{Q}[\omega] : \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ has degree 2.
- 35. (b) Since $\theta = \omega + \omega^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, clearly $\mathbb{Q}[\theta] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\omega] \cap \mathbb{R}$. We therefore have the tower of field extensions $\mathbb{Q}[\theta] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\omega] \cap \mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{Q}[\omega]$. By (a), $[\mathbb{Q}[w] : \mathbb{Q}[\theta]] = 2$. By the Tower Law, $[\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega] : \mathbb{Q}[\theta]]$ must be a divisor of 2 by distinct from 2 (since $w \notin \mathbb{R}$). Therefore the degree must be 1 and so $\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega] = \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$.
- 35. (c) Let σ be the automorphism defined by $\sigma(\omega) = \omega^{-1}$. Then $\sigma(\theta) = \theta$, and so $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ is in the fixed field of the automorphism σ . As the degree of $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ over $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ is 2, there can be no distinct intermediate field between $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$. $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ is not in the fixed field of σ and so $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ must be the fixed field of this automorphism.
- 35. (d) Show that $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta] = \mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Z}[\theta]$.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta] &= \mathbb{A} \cap (\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega]) \\ &= (\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega]) \cap \mathbb{R} \\ &= \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \cap \mathbb{R} \end{split} \qquad \text{By associativity of intersection} \\ \text{By Theorem 12, Corollary 2} \end{split}$$

This is the required result.

35. (e) Let $n = \phi(m)/2$. The set $\{1, \omega, \omega^2, \dots, \omega^{n-1}, \omega^n, \omega^{n+1}, \dots, \omega^{m-1}\}$ is an integral basis for $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

Since $w^{n-k} = \omega^{-k}$, we can write this basis as $\{1, \omega, \omega^{-1}, \omega^2, \omega^{-2}, \dots, \omega^{-n}\}$ instead (note $\omega^n = \omega^{-n}$). We examine the set $\{1, \omega, \theta, \theta\omega, \theta^2, \theta^2\omega, \dots, \theta^n\}$. Now we pair up the expressions $\theta^k\omega$ with ω^{k+1} and θ^k with ω^{-k} :

$$\{1, \omega, \omega^{-1}, \omega^2, \omega^{-2}, \omega^3, \dots, \omega^n\}$$
 (1)

$$\{1, \omega, \theta, \theta\omega, \theta^2, \theta^2\omega, \dots, \theta^{n-1}\omega\}$$
 (2)

We evaluate the expression θ^k using the Binomial Theorem:

$$\theta^{k} = (\omega + \omega^{-1})^{k} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} {k \choose i} \omega^{i} \omega^{-(k-i)} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} {k \choose i} \omega^{2i-k}$$

Therefore

$$\theta^k \omega = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} \ \omega^{2i-k+1}$$

For θ^k , the power of ω ranges between -k and k for θ^k , and it uses 1 term of the power ω^{-k} and no power of ω with absolute value greater than k.

For $\theta^k \omega$, the power of ranges between -k+1 and k+1 for $\theta^k \omega$. It uses 1 power of ω^k and no other power of ω with absolute value of greater than or equal to k.

Therefore, there is a lower triangular translation matrix A between the basis (1) and (2). A has all 1s in the diagonal, and so A has determinant 1 and is invertible over \mathbb{Z} . Since (1) is an integral basis of $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, so is (2).

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \omega & \omega^{-1} & \omega^{2} & \omega^{-2} & \dots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

35. (f) Show that $\{1, \theta, \theta^2, \dots, \theta^{n-1}\}$ is an integral basis for $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$. By (d), $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta] = \mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Z}[\theta]$, and by (e), any member α of $\mathbb{Z}[\theta]$ is expressible in terms of the basis vectors $\{1, \omega, \theta, \theta\omega, \theta^2, \dots\}$:

$$\beta = a_0 + a_1\omega + a_2\theta + a_3\theta\omega + \ldots + a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1}$$

Since $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma(\beta) = \beta$ (where σ is complex conjugation). Therefore:

$$\beta = \sigma(a_0 + a_1\omega + a_2\theta + a_3\theta\omega + \dots + a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1})$$

$$= \sigma(a_0) + \sigma(a_1\omega) + \sigma(a_2\theta) + \sigma(a_3\theta\omega) + \dots + \sigma(a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1})$$

$$= a_0 + a_1\sigma(\omega) + a_2\sigma(\theta) + a_3\theta\sigma(\omega) + \dots + a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1}$$

$$= a_0 + a_1\omega^{-1} + a_2\theta + a_3\theta\sigma(\omega) + \dots + a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1}$$

Since the elements of basis are linearly independent, each odd a_i must be equal to 0, and so β must be expressible as $a_0 + a_2\theta + \ldots + a_{m-1}\theta^{m-1}$, and so $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ is an integral basis for $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$.

35. (g) Let p be an odd prime. Use exercise 23 to show that $\operatorname{disc}(\theta) = \pm p^{(p-3)/2}$. Show the plus sign must hold.

By Exercise 23,

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{disc}(1,\omega,\theta,\theta\omega,\dots,\theta^{n-1}) &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta)^2 \operatorname{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\theta]} \operatorname{disc}_{\mathbb{Q}[\theta]}^{\mathbb{Q}[\omega]}(\omega) \\ p^{p-2} &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta)^2 \operatorname{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\theta]}(2\omega - \theta) \\ &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta)^2 \operatorname{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\theta]}(\omega - \omega^{-1}) \\ &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta)^2 \operatorname{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^{\mathbb{Q}[\theta]}(\omega^{-1}(\omega + 1)(\omega - 1)) \\ &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta)^2 p \\ &\pm p^{(p-3)/2} &= \operatorname{disc}(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

As pointed out in the exercise, the square root of the discriminant is present in $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$. Since $\mathbb{Q}[\theta] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $\operatorname{disc}(\theta) = p^{(p-3)/2}$.

37. Let α be an algebraic integer of degree n over \mathbb{Q} and let f and g be polynomials over \mathbb{Q} , each of degree < n, such that $f(\alpha) = g(\alpha)$. Show f = g.

Let h(x) be the minimal polynomial for α . If $f(\alpha) = g(\alpha)$, then $(f - g)(\alpha) = 0$. Since h is the minimum polynomial for α , $h \mid f - g$. However, f - g has degree < n, and so f - g = 0. Therefore f = g.

40. (a) Show disc(α) = $(d_1d_2\cdots d_{n-1})^2$ disc(R).

We first show $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \operatorname{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha)).$

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \operatorname{disc}(1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1})$$

Since f_{n-1} is a monic polynomial with degree n-1 it is a linear combination of $\alpha, \ldots, \alpha^{n-1}$, and so generate the same additive subgroup of R_k . By Exercise 26.

$$\operatorname{disc}(1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^{n-1}) = \operatorname{disc}(1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^{n-2},f_{n-1}(\alpha))$$

Proceeding in this way we have

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \operatorname{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha), \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha))$$

Finally, we have

$$\operatorname{disc}(R) = \operatorname{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha)/d_1, \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha)/d_{n-1})$$

$$= \frac{1}{d_1^2 \cdots d_{n-1}^2} \operatorname{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha)/d_1, \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha)/d_{n-1})$$

$$= \frac{1}{(d_1 \cdots d_{n-1})^2} \operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$$

Multiplying both sides by $(d_1 \cdots d_{n-1})^2$ gives the required result.

40. (b) We show that $R_k/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ has order d_1,\ldots,d_k by induction on k. Since $R=R_{n-1}$ the result with follow by induction.

For the base case we see that $1/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ has order 1. Next let $R_k = R_{k-1} \oplus \frac{1}{d_k} f_k(\alpha) \mathbb{Z}$, so

$$R_k/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = R_{k-1}/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \oplus \frac{1}{d_k} f_k(\alpha)/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

By induction $R_{k-1}/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ has order $d_1 \cdots d_{k-1}$. f_k is a monic polynomial in α and so $f_k(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$, therefore $\frac{1}{d_k} f_k(\alpha)/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \frac{1}{d_k}$ which has order d_k , so the order of $R_k = d_1 \cdots d_k$.

40. (c) Show if i + j < n then $d_i d_j \mid d_{i+j}$.

Since $f_i(\alpha)/d_i$ and $f_j(\alpha)/d_j$ are members of the ring R, $f_i(\alpha)f_j(\alpha)/d_id_j$ must also be a member of the ring R. $f_i(\alpha)f_j(\alpha)$ has order i+j. Since this is < n, this element by be generated by the basis elements of order $\le i+j$. Let a_k be the integers that generate this element. Then

$$\frac{f_i(\alpha)f_j(\alpha)}{d_id_j} = a_{i+j}\frac{f_{i+j}(\alpha)}{d_{i+j}} + \sum_{k=0}^{i+j-1} a_k \frac{f_k(\alpha)}{d_k}$$
$$f_i(\alpha)f_j(\alpha) = a_{i+j}d_id_j \frac{f_{i+j}(\alpha)}{d_{i+j}} + \text{Lower terms}$$

We know $a_{i+j} \neq 0$. Since f_i , f_j , and f_{i+j} are each monic, the denominator must cancel with no remainder, giving $d_{i+j} = a_{i+j}d_id_j$. Therefore $d_id_j \mid d_{i+j}$.

40. (d) Take $\frac{f_1(\alpha)}{d_1}$ as the basis element of order 1, and raise this element to the i-th power. Each $(\frac{f_1(\alpha)}{d_1})^i$ is a polynomial of order i and so generated by the basis element $\frac{f_i(\alpha)}{d_i}$. By a similar argument as in 40. (c) (each of these terms is a monic polynomial and so the denominators must cancel with no remainder), $d_1^i \mid d_i$.

Let j_i be the remainder left when dividing d_i by d_1^i $(j_1 = 1)$. Then:

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = (d_1 \cdots d_{n-1})^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$$

$$= (d_1 d_1^2 \cdots d_1^{n-1} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$$

$$= (d_1^{n(n-1)/2})^2 (\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$$

$$= d_1^{n(n-1)} (\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$$

Therefore $d^{n(n-1)} \mid \operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$.

41. (a) Let m be a cubefree integer, $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{m}$, and write m as hk^2 with h, k relatively prime. Let $R = \mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$. (Therefore k^2 has any square factors of m.). Show $\mathrm{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2$ (the 2018 edition has a typo).

Let $f(x) = x^3 - m$; f(x) is the minimum polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} and has degree 3 (not $\equiv 0, 1$ (4)), so $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -\operatorname{N}(f'(\alpha))$. $f'(\alpha) = 3\alpha^2$ so $\alpha f'(\alpha) = 3m$ and $f'(\alpha) = 3m/\alpha$. Note $\operatorname{N}(\alpha) = m$ so $\operatorname{N}(\alpha^{-1}) = 1/m$. Therefore we have

$$N(3m/\alpha) = 27m^3N(\alpha^{-1}) = 27m^2$$
$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2$$

Using Exercise 40, we see $-27m^2 = (d_1d_2)^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$ and $d_1^2|d_2$, so writing $d_2 = d_1^2 j$, we have

$$-27m^2 = d_1^4 j^2 \operatorname{disc}(R)$$

Since d_1 has a sextic factor on the righthand-size, the only possibilities for d_1 are 1 or 3. If $d_1 = 3$ then $9 \mid m$.

41. (b) Show $d_1 = 1$ even when $9 \mid m$.

Suppose $9 \mid m$ and $d_1 = 3$. Then R has an integral basis with 1 and $(\alpha + a)/3$ as two of the three basis vectors.

Let $\beta = (\alpha + a)/3$ for some integer a. As suggested in the exercise hint we consider the trace of β^3 . First, we determine the trace of α and α^2 as these will be important to evaluate $\text{Tr}(\beta)$.

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha) = \alpha + \omega \alpha + \omega^2 \alpha = \alpha(\omega^2 + \omega + 1) = 0$$
$$\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha^2) = \alpha^2 + \omega^2 \alpha^2 + \omega \alpha^2 = \alpha^2(\omega^2 + \omega + 1) = 0$$

With these in hand we now have

$$\beta^3 = \frac{(\alpha + a)^3}{27} = \frac{m + 3\alpha^2 a + 3a^2 \alpha + a^3}{27}$$

By the additive linearity of trace, we have

$$Tr(\beta^{3}) = \frac{m}{9} + \frac{3a}{27}Tr(\alpha^{2}) + \frac{3a^{2}}{27}Tr(\alpha) + \frac{3a^{3}}{27}$$

$$= \frac{m}{9} + \frac{3a^{3}}{27}$$

$$= Integer + \frac{3a^{3}}{27}$$

Since β is an algebraic integer, β^3 is also an algebraic integer, and its trace must be a member of \mathbb{Z} . Therefore $\frac{3a^3}{27}$ must be an integer, and so 27 must divide $3a^3$, which means that 9 divides a^3 and so 3 divides a.

Since 3 divides a, $\frac{\alpha+a}{3}=\frac{\alpha}{3}+$ Integer. Therefore $\alpha/3$ is a member of R, so $(\alpha/3)^3=m/27\in R$. However, m is cubefree and so $m/27\notin \mathbb{Z}$. This contradicts Corollary 1 of Theorem 1 - the only members of \mathbb{Q} that are algebraic integers are members of \mathbb{Z} .

Therefore $d_1 = 1$ in all cases, and so R has a basis containing 1 and α . The third basis vector has yet to be determined.

- 41. (c) Write m as hk^2 . Then $(\alpha^2/k)^3 = m^2/k^3 = (h^2k^4)(k^3) = h^2k$, and so α^2/k is the root of the polynomial $f(x) = x^3 h^2k$, and so $\alpha^2/k \in \mathbb{R}$.
- 41. (d) Suppose $m \equiv \pm 1$ (9). Let $\beta = (\alpha \mp 1)^2/3$. Show that

$$\beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{1 \pm 2m}{3}\beta - \frac{(m \mp 1)^2}{27} = 0$$

As suggested we calculate $(\beta - 1/3)^3$ in two ways:

$$(\beta - 1/3)^3 = ((\alpha \mp 1)^2/3 - 1/3)^3$$

$$\beta^3 - \frac{3\beta^2}{3} + \frac{3\beta}{9} - \frac{1}{27} = \frac{(\alpha(\alpha \mp 2))^3}{27}$$

$$\beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{1}{27} = m\left(\frac{m \mp 6\alpha^2 + 12\alpha \mp 8}{27}\right)$$

$$\beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{m^2 \mp 2m + 1}{27} = m\left(\frac{\mp 6\alpha^2 + 12\alpha \mp 6}{27}\right)$$

$$\beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{(m \mp 1)^2}{27} = \mp \frac{2m}{3}\left(\frac{\alpha^2 \pm 2\alpha + 1}{3}\right) = \mp \frac{2m}{3}\beta$$

Moving the terms around, we have the required result:

$$\beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{1 \pm 2m}{3}\beta - \frac{(m \mp 1)^2}{27} = 0$$

Since $m \equiv \pm 1$ (9), $1 \pm 2m$ is divisible by 3, and $m \mp 1$ is divisible by 9, so $(m \mp 1)^2$ is divisible by 27. Therefore β is the root of a monic polynomial with integer coefficients and so $\beta \in R$.

41. (e) Using (c) and (d), show that if $m \equiv \pm 1$ (9) then

$$\frac{\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2}{3k} \in R$$

Since $\alpha^2/k \in R$, we can adding $k\alpha + k$ to the element to see that

$$\frac{\alpha^2 + k^2\alpha + k^2}{k} \in R$$

Next, observe that $k^2\equiv 1$ (3) - it cannot be 0 since $m\equiv \pm 1$ (9). Therefore $(k^2-1)/3$ and $(k^2+2)/3$ are integers. Taking $(\alpha^2\mp 2\alpha+1)/3$, we add $(k^2-1)/3$ to see that

$$\frac{\alpha^2 \mp 2\alpha + k^2}{3} \in R$$

Next we have

$$\frac{\alpha^2 \mp 2\alpha + k^2}{3} \pm \frac{\alpha(k^2 - 2)}{3} = \frac{\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2}{3} \in R$$

Since $3 \nmid k$ and 3 is a prime, there exist integers a,b such that 3a + bk = 1. Therefore

$$b\left(\frac{\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2}{3}\right) + a\left(\frac{\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2}{k}\right) = \frac{(kb + 3a)(\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2)}{3k}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha^2 \pm k^2 \alpha + k^2}{3k} \in R$$

This is the required result.

- 41. (f) We have $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2$. By Exercise 40(a), $d_2^2\operatorname{disc}(R) = \operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2 = -27h^2k^4$. We know $k \mid d_2$ so write $d_2 = jk$, thus $j^2k^2\operatorname{disc}(R) = -27h^2k^4$ and so $j^2\operatorname{disc}(R) = -27h^2k^2 = -27mh$. By assumption h is square-free, so $j^2 \mid -27m$, implying either $j \mid 3$ or $j \mid m$. Therefore $j \mid 3m$.
- 41. (g) Letting p be a prime such that $p \neq 3$, $p \mid m$, $p^2 \mid m$. Let $p \mid d_2$, and write $d_2 = pj$. Therefore if $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/d_2 \in R$, then

$$j(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/d_2 = (\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/p \in R$$

Since $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/p \in R$, its trace must be an integer; however $\text{Tr}(\alpha^2) = \text{Tr}(\alpha) = 0$, and so $3b/p \in \mathbb{Z}$. $p \neq 3$, therefore $p \mid b$. Therefore $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha)/p \in R$.

$$Tr(((\alpha^2 + a\alpha)/p)^3) = Tr((m^2 + a^3m)/p^3)$$

Therefore $p^3 \mid 3(m^2 + a^3 m)$. Since $p \neq 3$, $p^3 \mid m(m+a^3)$. m is cubefree and $p^2 \nmid m$, so $p^2 \mid m+a^3$. Therefore $a^3 \equiv 0$ (p), meaning $a \equiv 0$ (p). Considering the equation modulo p^2 we then have $m \equiv 0$ (p^2) , a contradiction. Therefore this case is impossible.

41. (h) Let $p \neq 3$ and $p^2 \mid m$. By the previous problem $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha)/p^2 \in R$ and so we consider the trace:

$$\operatorname{Tr}(((\alpha^2+a\alpha)/p^2)^3)=\operatorname{Tr}((m^2+a^3m)/p^6)$$

Therefore $p^6 \mid m(m+a^3)$. Since $p^2 \mid m, p^4 \mid m+a^3$. Considering the equation modulo p^2 , we must have $a^3 \equiv 0$ (p^2) , so $p^2 \mid a^3$. Therefore $p \mid a$ and so $p^3 \mid a^3$. Therefore $m+a^3 \equiv 0$ (p^3) and so $m \equiv 0$ (p^3) again contradicting m cubefree.

Together with (g) this shows that d_2 has no common prime factor with m that is not equal to 3.

41. (i) Take $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/d_2$.

$$\frac{(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)^2}{d_2^2} = \frac{m\alpha + 2am + 2\alpha^2b + a^2\alpha^2 + 2ab\alpha + b^2}{d_2^2}$$
$$= \frac{\alpha^2(a^2 + 2b) + \alpha(m + 2ab) + (2am + b^2)}{d_2^2}$$

Since this is an element of the ring and the basis element of order 2 has denominator d_2 , d_2 must divide each of $a^2 + 2b$, m + 2ab, and $2am + b^2$.

41. (j) We now consider what power of 3 divides d_2 . We know $d_2 \mid 3m$. If 3 + m, then $9 \nmid d_2$. Therefore, if $m \equiv \pm 1$ (9), $d_2 = 3k$; it cannot be any non-3 prime dividing m by (g) and (h), and 9 does not divide m.

We now consider the case where $m \not\equiv \pm 1$ (9) and $3 \nmid m$. We assume $3 \mid d_2$ (to show a contradiction).

We evaluate the congruences obtained in (i) modulo 3. Since $a^2 + 2b \equiv 0$ (3), $a^2 - b \equiv 0$ (3), and so $b \equiv a^2$ (3). Substituting b with a^2 in the equation $m + 2ab \equiv 0$ (3), we have $m + 2a^3 \equiv 0$ (3) and so $m - a^3 \equiv m - a \equiv 0$ (3), so therefore $a \equiv m$ (3). Substituting m for a in the equivalence $b^2 + 2am \equiv 0$ (3), we have $b^2 \equiv -2a^2 \equiv a^2$ (3). Therefore since $a^2 + 2b \equiv 0$ (3), we have $b(b+2) \equiv b(b-1) \equiv 0$ (3). $b \not\equiv 0$ (3) (as this would imply $m \equiv 0$ (3)) so we must have $b \equiv 1$ (3).

Therefore we can write the basis element of order 2 as $\frac{\alpha^2 + (m+3l)\alpha + (3j+1)}{3i}$ for some i, l, j, and so by multiplying through by i and subtracting the term $3l\alpha + 3j$ from the resulting fraction, we have:

$$\frac{\alpha^2 + m\alpha + 1}{3} \in R$$

We now proceed by case on m congruence to 3. (Almost there!)

Suppose $m \equiv 1$ (3). Then $\frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha + 1}{3} \in R$ and so by subtracing α , $\frac{\alpha^2 - 2\alpha + 1}{3} = \frac{(\alpha - 1)^2}{3} \in R$.

We raise this to the fourth power and take the trace. The only terms that contribute to the trace are those where α is raised to a power divisible by 3, so we have:

$$\operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{(\alpha-1)^8}{3^4}\right) = \frac{3}{3^4} \left(\binom{8}{6}\alpha^6(-1)^2 + \binom{8}{3}\alpha^3(-1)^5 + (-1)^8\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{27} \left(28m^2 - 56m + 1\right)$$

Therefore, 27 must divide $28m^2 - 56m + 1$. Congruent to 9, this equation reduces to $m^2 - 2m + 1 \equiv 0$ (9) so $(m+1)(m-1) \equiv 0$ (9). However this contradicts $m \not\equiv \pm 1$ (9). So m cannot be congruent to 1 mod 3.

Next, suppose $m \equiv 2$ (3). Threefore $\frac{\alpha^2 + 2\alpha + 1}{3} = \frac{(\alpha + 1)^2}{3} \in R$. Again we raise this to the fourth power and take the trace. (The equation is the same except for the negative terms.)

$$\operatorname{Tr}(\frac{(\alpha+1)^8}{3^4}) = \frac{1}{27}(28m^2 + 56m + 1)$$

Modulo 9 we have $m^2+2m+1\equiv 0$ (9) so $(m+1)^2\equiv 0$ (9) and so $m\equiv -1$ (9), again contradicting $m\neq \pm 1$ (9).

Therefore if $3 \nmid m$ and $m \not\equiv \pm 1$ (9), $3 \nmid d_2$.

41. (k) Suppose $3 \mid m$ but $9 \nmid m$. We assume $3 \mid d_2$ to show a contradiction. By (i), $a^2 + 2b \equiv 0$ (3), so $a^2 \equiv b$ (3) (*). Plugging this into $m + 2ab \equiv 0$ (3) we have $m - a^3 \equiv 0$ (3). Since $a^3 \equiv a$ (3), we thus have $m \equiv a$ (3) and so $a \equiv 0$ (3), and also $b \equiv 0$ (3) by (*).

Therefore we can write the basis element of order 2 as $\frac{\alpha^2+3i\alpha+3j}{3l}$, and by multiplying through by l and subtracting $i\alpha+j$, we have $\frac{\alpha^2}{3} \in R$. Cubing this element and taking the trace we must have $m^2/9 \in \mathbb{Z}$, contradicting $9 \nmid m$. Therefore $3 \nmid d_2$.

41. (l) Suppose $9 \mid m$. We show $9 \nmid d_2$. Assume $9 \mid d_2$ (to show a contradiction). By (i), $9 \mid ab$ and $9 \mid b^2$ so either $9 \mid b$ or $3 \mid b$. Assume $3 \mid b$, therefore since $a^2 + 2b \equiv 0$ (9), we must have $a^2 \equiv -6 \equiv 3$ (9). However, 3 is not the square of any element mod 9, so this equation is unsatisfiable. We must have $9 \mid b$.

Therefore, $(a^2 + a\alpha)/9 \in R$. Taking this to the third power and considering the trace, we must have $9^3 \mid 3(m^2 + ma^3)$ and $9^2 \mid m(m + a^3)$. Since m is cubefree and $9 \mid m$, therefore $27 \mid m + a^3$. Considering $m + a^3$ modulo 9, we

have $a^3 \equiv 0$ (9); therefore a must be congruent to 0, 3, or 6 modulo 9. In all these cases we have $a^2 \equiv 0$ (9). Since $9^2 \mid a^3$ and $9^2 \mid (m+a^3)$, $9^2 \mid m$, which contradicts m being cube-free. Therefore $9 \nmid d_2$.

43. (a) Let $f(x) = x^5 + ax + b$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and f irreducible over \mathbb{Q} . Let α be a root of f. Show $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = 4^4 a^5 + 5^5 b^4$.

We proceed in a similar fashion to Exercise 28: first, we determine $f'(\alpha)$, then we determine $N(f'(\alpha))$ by collecting the most and least significant the coefficients of its polynomial.

 $f'(x) = 5x^4 + a$, so $\alpha f'(x) = 5\alpha^5 + a = -5(a\alpha + b) + a = -4a\alpha - 5b$ and $f'(\alpha) = (-4a\alpha - 5b)/\alpha$. The expression $4a\alpha + 5b$ is a root of the polynomial $(\frac{x-5b}{4a})^5 + a(\frac{x-5b}{4a}) + b$. The norm N($4a\alpha + 5b$) is the negative of the x^0 coefficient divided by the x^5 coefficient (again, negative because 5 is odd), so we calculate those values.

The x^0 coefficient is $(\frac{-5b}{4a})^5 + a(\frac{-5b}{4a}) + b = (\frac{-5b}{4a})^5 + \frac{-b}{4}$, and the x^5 coefficient is $(\frac{1}{4a})^5$, so $N(4a\alpha + 5b) = 5^5b^5 + 4^4a^5b$.

Therefore,

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \operatorname{N}(-(4a\alpha + 5b)/\alpha) = -\frac{5^5b^5 + 4^4a^5b}{-b} = 5^5b^4 + 4^4a^5$$

This is the required result. (The plus sign for the discriminant holds because $5 \equiv 1$ (4))

43. (b) Suppose $\alpha^5 = \alpha + 1$. We are given that this polynomial is irreducible because it is irreducible modulo 3. (The options are 0, 1, and 2: $0^5 \not\equiv 0 + 1$ (3), $1^5 \not\equiv 1 + 1$ (3), and $2^5 = 2 \not\equiv 1 + 2 = 0$ (3).)

In this case a = -1 and b = -1 so the above formula gives $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = 5^5 - 4^4 = 125 \cdot 25 - 16 \cdot 16 = 2869 = 19 \cdot 151$. Since the discriminant is squarefree, $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$.

43. (c) Let a be squarefree and not equal to ± 1 . Let α be a root and d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 be as in Theorem 13. Prove that if $4^4a + 5^5$ is squarefree then $d_1 = d_2 = 1$ and $d_3d_4 \mid a^2$.

By exercise 40,

$$\mathrm{disc}(\alpha) = 5^5 a^4 + 4^4 a^5 = a^4 (5^5 + 4^4 a) = (d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4)^2 \mathrm{disc}(R)$$

Here $d_1d_2 \mid d_3$, $d_1d_2 \mid d_4$, and $d_1d_3 \mid d_4$. Therefore d_1 and d_2 both have 6 factors represented in the disc(α) expression which is impossible unless they are both 1. Since $5^5 + 4^4a$ is squarefree, $(d_3d_4)^2$ must divide a^4 and so $d_3d_4 \mid a^2$.

Verify that 4^4a+5^5 is squarefree when a = -2, -3, -6, -7, -10, -11, -13, and -15.

Experimenting a bit more with Sage, we can quickly test integers using the following code:

- 43. (d) Let α be as in part (c) (α is the root of a polynomial $f(x) = x^5 + ax + a$). Show $\alpha + 1$ is a unit.
 - We have $\alpha^5 = -a(\alpha+1)$, so we take the norm of both sides. $N(\alpha^5) = -a^5 = N(-a)N(\alpha+1) = -a^5N(\alpha+1)$, so $N(\alpha+1) = 1$. Therefore $\alpha+1$ is a unit in $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$.
- 44. (a) Let $f(x) = x^5 + ax^4 + b$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, and let α be a root of f. To determine the discriminant of α , we proceed as in exercise 28 and 43. The derivative of f(x) is $f'(x) = 5x^4 + 4ax^3$, so

$$f'(\alpha) = \alpha^3 (5\alpha + 4a)$$

 $N(a^3) = -b^3$ so determine the norm of $5\alpha + 4a$ by observing it is the root of the polynomial $(\frac{x-4a}{5})^5 + (\frac{x-4a}{5})^4 + b$. The x^0 term is $(\frac{-4a}{5})^5 + (\frac{-4a}{5})^4 + b$ while the x^5 term is $\frac{1}{5^5}$,

$$N(5\alpha + 4a) = (4a)^5 - 5a(4a)^4 - 5^5b = -(4a)^5 \cdot (-4+5) - 5^5b = -(4^5a^5 + 5^5b)$$

Therefore $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = (4^5a^5 + 5^5b)b^3$ as required (the discriminant is positive since $5 \equiv 1$ (4)).

44. (b) TODO

45. Let α be the root of the polynomial $f(x) = x^n + ax + b$. Find a formula for $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha)$.

We proceed in similar fashion to exercise 43. $f'(\alpha) = n\alpha^{n-1} + a$, so we have:

$$\alpha f'(\alpha) = n\alpha + a\alpha$$

$$= -n(a\alpha + b) + a\alpha$$

$$= -((n-1)a\alpha + bn)$$

$$f'(\alpha) = -((n-1)a\alpha + bn)/\alpha$$

We now calculate $N((n-1)a\alpha + bn)$. This is the root of the poylnomial

$$g(x) = \left(\frac{x - bn}{(n - 1)a}\right)^n + a\left(\frac{x - bn}{(n - 1)a}\right) + b$$

The norm is equal to $(-1)^n$ times the x_0 coordinate multiplied by the inverse of x_n coordinate. Therefore,

$$N((n-1)a\alpha + bn) = (bn)^n + (-1)^{n+1}a^nb(n-1)^{n-1}$$

The inverse of the x_n coordinate is seen to be $((n-1)a)^n$

The discriminant is then (with the \pm positive if $n \equiv 0, 1$ (4), negative otherwise):

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \frac{\pm (-1)^n \operatorname{N}((n-1)a\alpha + bn)}{b(-1)^n}$$
$$= \frac{\pm (bn)^n + (-1)^{n+1}a^nb(n-1)^{n-1}}{b}$$
$$= \pm [b^{n-1}n^n + (-1)^{n+1}a^n(n-1)^{n-1}]$$

Plugging values in gives:

$$n = 2 = -(2^{2}b - a^{2}) = a^{2} - 4b$$

$$n = 3 = -(27b^{2}) + a^{3}2^{2}) = -27b^{2} + 4a^{3}$$

$$n = 4 = b^{3}4^{4} - a^{4}3^{3} = 256b^{3} - 27a^{4}$$

$$n = 5 = b^{4}5^{5} + a^{5}4^{4}$$

These agree with the known values of these polynomials.