

## 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  $\alpha$  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  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer of the form  $\frac{a+b\sqrt{m}}{2}$  if and only if  $a^2 - mb^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ .

We finish by considering  $m \pmod{4}$  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.

- $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ : Let  $a$  be even - then  $a^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , and to satisfy the equality,  $b^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$  and so  $b$  must also be even. Similarly, if  $a$  is odd, then  $a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  - to satisfy the equality,  $b$  must also be odd. Therefore  $\alpha = \frac{a+b\sqrt{m}}{2}$  for all  $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$  as required.
- $m \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ : 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  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}$  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 the ring  $\mathbb{Z}[a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}, \alpha]$  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  $k \geq k_i$ , it can be written as a linear combination of powers of  $a_i$  less than  $k_i$ . Additionally any power of  $\alpha^k$  where  $k \geq n$  can be written as a linear combination of powers of  $\alpha$  multiplied by each of the  $a_i$ . Therefore only a finite number of powers of  $a_0^{m_0} \dots a_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}} \alpha^m$  are needed; the  $a_i$  terms are capped to be lower than  $k_i$  and the  $\alpha$  term is capped to be lower than  $n$ .

Since  $\alpha$  is a member of a subring of  $\mathbb{C}$  that is finitely generated,  $\alpha$  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  $f(x^p) = kx^{pb} = k^p x^{bp} = (kx^b)^p$  (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  $f(x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(x)^p &= (g(x) + h(x))^p \\ &= g(x)^p + h(x)^p + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{k} g(x)^k h(x)^{p-k} \\ &= g(x)^p + h(x)^p \\ &= g(x^p) + h(x^p) \text{ (using the inductive hypothesis)} \\ &= f(x^p) \end{aligned}$$

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  $g' = f^2h' + 2fhf'$ , so  $f \mid g'$ .

7 Complete the proof of Corollary 2, Theorem 3.

Let  $\phi_k$  be the automorphism of  $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$  sending  $\omega$  to  $\omega^k$ . 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

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

Therefore

$$\left| \prod_{1 \leq r < s \leq n} (\alpha_r - \alpha_s) \right| = \sqrt{\pm p^{p-2}} = p^{(p-3)/2} \sqrt{\pm p}$$

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:

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

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  $2^i q$  where  $2 \nmid q$ , and  $i \in \{0, 1\}$ . We proceed by case analysis, showing for each that  $\sqrt{m}$  is contained in the  $d$ th cyclotomic field, where  $d = \text{disc}(\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{m}])$ .

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

$m = q$  where  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ : 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  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ ), 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  $\theta$  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  $r = \text{lcm}(k, m)$  ( $\text{lcm}(k, m) = km/\gcd(k, m)$ ).

- 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

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

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  $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$  we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{S \subseteq \{0, \dots, n\}, |S|=r} \prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i \right| &\leq \sum_{S \subseteq \{0, \dots, n\}, |S|=r} \left| \prod_{i \in S} \alpha_i \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{S \subseteq \{0, \dots, n\}, |S|=r} 1 \\ &\leq \binom{n}{r} \end{aligned}$$

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  $\alpha$  all of whose conjugates have absolute value 1.

By Theorem 1, if  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer, then 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  $\alpha$  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  $u/\bar{u}$  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  $a_1, \dots, a_n, \bar{a}_1, \dots, \bar{a}_n$ .

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

12. (b) Suppose  $u/\bar{u} = -\omega^k$ . We derive a contradiction. Raising both sides to the  $p$ -th power we have  $u^p/\bar{u}^p = -(\omega^k)^p = -(\omega^p)^k = -1$ , and so  $u^p = -\bar{u}^p$ . By exercise 1.25,  $u^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Applying exercise 1.23, we see  $\bar{u}^p \equiv \bar{a} \pmod{p}$ , and so  $a \equiv -\bar{a} \pmod{p}$ . There  $a$  must be 0, and  $u^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , 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  $u/\bar{u} = \omega^k$ .

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

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

If  $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  then let  $a = r/2$  and  $b = s/2$ . Therefore  $r^2 - s^2m = 4$ . Since  $m$  is negative, both  $r^2$  and  $-s^2m$  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  $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . (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  $\pm 1$  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:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\sqrt{3}) &= \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{3} = 0 \\ \text{Tr}(\alpha) &= \alpha - \alpha + i\alpha - i\alpha = 0 \\ \text{Tr}(\alpha^2) &= \alpha^2 - \alpha^2 + i\alpha^2 - i\alpha^2 = 0 \\ \text{Tr}(\alpha^3) &= \alpha^3 - \alpha^3 + i\alpha^3 - i\alpha^3 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\sqrt{3}) &= \text{Tr}(a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 + d\alpha^3) \\ 0 &= a\text{Tr}(1) + b\text{Tr}(\alpha) + c\text{Tr}(\alpha^2) + d\text{Tr}(\alpha^3) \\ 0 &= 4a \end{aligned}$$

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  $\alpha$  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,  $N(g'(\alpha)) = \pm \text{disc}(\alpha)$ , so

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

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

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

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

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),

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

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

25 Let  $\alpha$  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:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(\alpha) &= 3\alpha^2 + a \\ \alpha f'(\alpha) &= 3\alpha^3 + a\alpha \\ \alpha f'(\alpha) &= -3(a\alpha + b) + a\alpha \\ \alpha f'(\alpha) &= -2a\alpha - 3b \\ f'(\alpha) &= -(2a\alpha + 3b)/\alpha \end{aligned}$$

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,  $\text{disc}(a) = -N(f'(\alpha))$  (the negative sign holds since  $n = 3 \neq 0, 1 \pmod{4}$ ).

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  $\alpha$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{disc}(\alpha) &= -N(f'(\alpha)) \\ &= -N(-(2a\alpha + 3b)/\alpha) \\ &= \frac{27b^3 + 4a^3b}{-b} \\ &= -(27b^2 + 4a^3) \end{aligned}$$

This is the required result.

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

Similarly if  $a = 1$  and  $b = -1$ , then  $\text{disc}(\alpha) = -27 + 4 = -23$  (squarefree) and so again by 27 (c) the powers of  $\alpha$  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  $m, n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and (b) where  $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $n \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .



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)  $m, n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ : 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  $m^2 n^2$ .
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  $m^2 (4n)^2 = 16m^2 n^2$ .
30. (a) TODO (Write Up)
30. (b) Consider the four algebraic integers:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_1 &= (1 + \sqrt{7})(1 + \sqrt{10}) \\ \alpha_2 &= (1 + \sqrt{7})(1 - \sqrt{10}) \\ \alpha_3 &= (1 - \sqrt{7})(1 + \sqrt{10}) \\ \alpha_4 &= (1 - \sqrt{7})(1 - \sqrt{10})\end{aligned}$$

The conjugates of each  $\alpha_i$  are the other  $\alpha_j$ , 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:  $\text{Tr}(\alpha_i^n/3) = \text{Tr}(\alpha_i^n)/3$ , so we compute  $\text{Tr}(\alpha_i^n)$ . The conjugates of  $\alpha_i^n$  are each of the other  $\alpha_j^n$ , so  $\text{Tr}(\alpha_i^n) = \alpha_1^n + \alpha_2^n + \alpha_3^n + \alpha_4^n$ . 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  $\alpha_i$  is conjugate to each of the  $\alpha_j$ , their traces must be identical.

Therefore the trace of  $\alpha_i^n$  is an integer  $\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , 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  $\alpha_i$  from (b) be defined by  $f_i(\alpha)$  (for any fixed  $\alpha$ ). Because  $\alpha_i \alpha_j$  is divisible by 3, by (a),  $\bar{f} \mid \bar{f}_i \bar{f}_j$ . However,  $\bar{f} \nmid \bar{f}_i^n$  for any power of  $n$  (or else 3 would divide  $\bar{f}_i^n$  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  $\alpha$ .
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  $m \geq 3$ . We know that  $N(\omega) = \pm 1$  because  $\omega$  is a unit. Show the + sign holds.  
 Write  $e^{2\pi i k/m}$  as  $\omega_k$ . The conjugates of  $\omega$  have the form  $\omega_k$  where  $(k, m) = 1$ . There are  $\phi(m)$  of these, which is even for all  $m \geq 3$ . If  $\omega_k$  is a conjugate, then  $\omega_{m-k}$  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  $\omega_k$ ,  $\omega_k \neq \omega_{m-k}$ ; if this were the case,  $k = -k \pmod{m}$ , so  $2k = 0 \pmod{m}$  and so  $k$  would divide  $m$ , contradicting  $(k, m) = 1$ . Therefore all the conjugates are distinct.  
 Finally, for each conjugate  $\omega_k$ ,  $\omega_k \cdot \omega_{m-k} = 1$ , so in computing the norm of  $\omega$ , all the conjugates cancel out and the norm of  $\omega$  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  $\omega$  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),  $[\mathbb{Q}[\omega] : \mathbb{Q}[\theta]] = 2$ . By the Tower Law,  $[\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega] : \mathbb{Q}[\theta]]$  must be a divisor of 2 by distinct from 2 (since  $\omega \notin \mathbb{R}$ ). Therefore the degree must be 1 and so  $\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega] = \mathbb{Q}[\theta]$ .
35. (c) Let  $\sigma$  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  $\sigma$ . 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  $\sigma$  and so  $\mathbb{Q}[\theta]$  must be the fixed field of this automorphism.
35. (d) Show that  $\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta] = \mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Z}[\theta]$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\theta] &= \mathbb{A} \cap (\mathbb{R} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega]) && \text{By 35 (b).} \\
&= (\mathbb{A} \cap \mathbb{Q}[\omega]) \cap \mathbb{R} && \text{By associativity of intersection} \\
&= \mathbb{Z}[\omega] \cap \mathbb{R} && \text{By Theorem 12, Corollary 2}
\end{aligned}$$

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  $\omega^{n-k} = \omega^{-k}$ , 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  $\omega^{k+1}$  and  $\theta^k$  with  $\omega^{-k}$ :

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

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

We evaluate the expression  $\theta^k$  using the Binomial Theorem:

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

Therefore

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

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

For  $\theta^k\omega$ , the power of  $\omega$  ranges between  $-k+1$  and  $k+1$  for  $\theta^k\omega$ . It uses 1 power of  $\omega^k$  and no other power of  $\omega$  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 discriminant 1, and so is invertible over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Since (1) is an integral basis of  $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ , so is (2).

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

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  $\alpha$  of  $\mathbb{Z}[\theta]$  is expressible in terms of the basis vectors  $\{1, \omega, \theta, \theta\omega, \theta^2, \dots\}$ :

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

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

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

Since the elements of basis are linearly independent, each odd  $a_i$  must be equal to 0, and so  $\beta$  must be expressible as  $a_0 + a_2\theta + \dots + a_{m-1}\theta^{n-1}$ , 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  $\text{disc}(\theta) = \pm p^{(p-3)/2}$ . Show the plus sign must hold.

By Exercise 23,

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

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

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

40. (a) Show  $\text{disc}(\alpha) = (d_1 d_2 \dots d_{n-1})^2 \text{disc}(R)$ .

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

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

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

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

Proceeding in this way we have

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

Finally, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{disc}(R) &= \text{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha)/d_1, \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha)/d_{n-1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{d_1^2 \cdots d_{n-1}^2} \text{disc}(1, f_1(\alpha)/d_1, \dots, f_{n-1}(\alpha)/d_{n-1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{(d_1 \cdots d_{n-1})^2} \text{disc}(\alpha) \end{aligned}$$

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  $d_1, \dots, d_k$  by induction on  $k$ . Since  $R = R_{n-1}$  the result will 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  $\alpha$  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  $R$ ,  $f_i(\alpha)f_j(\alpha)/d_i d_j$  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 must be generated by the basis elements of order  $\leq i + j$ . Let  $a_k$  be the integers that generate this element. Then

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

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  $d_{i+j} = a_{i+j} d_i d_j$ . Therefore  $d_i d_j \mid d_{i+j}$ .

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:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{disc}(\alpha) &= (d_1 \cdots d_{n-1})^2 \text{disc}(R) \\ &= (d_1 d_1^2 \cdots d_1^{n-1} \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \text{disc}(R) \\ &= (d_1^{n(n-1)/2})^2 (\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \text{disc}(R) \\ &= d_1^{n(n-1)} (\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} j_i)^2 \text{disc}(R) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $d_1^{n(n-1)} \mid \text{disc}(\alpha)$ .

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  $\text{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2$  (the 2018 edition has a typo).

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

$$\begin{aligned} N(3m/\alpha) &= 27m^3 N(\alpha^{-1}) = 27m^2 \\ \text{disc}(\alpha) &= -27m^2 \end{aligned}$$

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

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

Since  $d_1$  has a sextic factor on the righthand-side, 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  $\beta^3$ . First, we determine the trace of  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha^2$  as these will be important to evaluate  $\text{Tr}(\beta)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\alpha) &= \alpha + \omega\alpha + \omega^2\alpha = \alpha(\omega^2 + \omega + 1) = 0 \\ \text{Tr}(\alpha^2) &= \alpha^2 + \omega^2\alpha^2 + \omega\alpha^2 = \alpha^2(\omega^2 + \omega + 1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\beta^3) &= \frac{m}{9} + \frac{3a}{27}\text{Tr}(\alpha^2) + \frac{3a^2}{27}\text{Tr}(\alpha) + \frac{3a^3}{27} \\ &= \frac{m}{9} + \frac{3a^3}{27} \\ &= \text{Integer} + \frac{3a^3}{27} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\beta$  is an algebraic integer,  $\beta^3$  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  $a$ ,  $\frac{\alpha+a}{3} = \frac{\alpha}{3} + \text{Integer}$ . 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  $\alpha$ . 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  $\alpha^2/k$  is the root of the polynomial  $f(x) = x^3 - h^2k$ , and so  $\alpha^2/k \in R$ .
41. (d) Suppose  $m \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$ . 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:

$$\begin{aligned} (\beta - 1/3)^3 &= ((\alpha \mp 1)^2/3 - 1/3)^3 \\ \beta^3 - \frac{3\beta^2}{3} + \frac{3\beta}{9} - \frac{1}{27} &= \frac{(\alpha(\alpha \mp 2))^3}{27} \\ \beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{1}{27} &= m \left( \frac{m \mp 6\alpha^2 + 12\alpha \mp 8}{27} \right) \\ \beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{m^2 \mp 2m + 1}{27} &= m \left( \frac{\mp 6\alpha^2 + 12\alpha \mp 6}{27} \right) \\ \beta^3 - \beta^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} - \frac{(m \mp 1)^2}{27} &= \mp \frac{2m}{3} \left( \frac{\alpha^2 \pm 2\alpha + 1}{3} \right) = \mp \frac{2m}{3}\beta \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

Next, observe that  $k^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  - it cannot be 0 since  $m \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$ . 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

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

This is the required result.

41. (f) We have  $\text{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2$ . By Exercise 40(a),  $d_2^2 \text{disc}(R) = \text{disc}(\alpha) = -27m^2 = -27h^2k^4$ . We know  $k \mid d_2$  so write  $d_2 = jk$ , thus  $j^2k^2 \text{disc}(R) = -27h^2k^4$  and so  $j^2 \text{disc}(R) = -27h^2k^2 = -27mh$ . 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  $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha)/p \in R$ .

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



Therefore  $p^3 \mid 3(m^2 + a^3m)$ . 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  $a^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , meaning  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Considering the equation modulo  $p^2$  we then have  $m \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ , 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:

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

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  $a^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$ , so  $p^2 \mid a^3$ . Therefore  $p \mid a$  and so  $p^3 \mid a^3$ . Therefore  $m + a^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{p^3}$  and so  $m \equiv 0 \pmod{p^3}$  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  $(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)/d_2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(\alpha^2 + a\alpha + b)^2}{d_2^2} &= \frac{m\alpha + 2am + 2\alpha^2b + a^2\alpha^2 + 2aba + b^2}{d_2^2} \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2(a^2 + 2b) + \alpha(m + 2ab) + (2am + b^2)}{d_2^2} \end{aligned}$$

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  $3 \nmid m$ , then  $9 \nmid d_2$ . Therefore, if  $m \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$ ,  $d_2 = 3k$ ; 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  $m \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$  and  $3 \nmid m$ . We assume  $3 \mid d_2$  (to show a contradiction).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Modulo 9 we have  $m^2 + 2m + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$  so  $(m+1)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$  and so  $m \equiv -1 \pmod{9}$ , again contradicting  $m \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$ .

Therefore if  $3 \nmid m$  and  $m \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}$ ,  $3 \nmid d_2$ .

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

Therefore we can write the basis element of order 2 as  $\frac{\alpha^2+3i\alpha+3j}{3^l}$ , 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  $a^2 + 2b \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$ , we must have  $a^2 \equiv -6 \equiv 3 \pmod{9}$ . 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  $9^2 3 \mid m(m + a^3)$ . Since  $m$  is cubefree and  $9 \mid m$ , therefore  $27 \mid m + a^3$ . Considering  $m + a^3$  modulo 9, we

have  $a^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$ ; therefore  $a$  must be congruent to 0, 3, or 6 modulo 9. In all these cases we have  $a^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{9}$ . 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  $\alpha$  be a root of  $f$ . Show  $\text{disc}(\alpha) = 4^4 a^5 + 5^5 b^4$ .

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  $\alpha f'(\alpha) = 5\alpha^5 + a = -5(a\alpha + b) + a = -4a\alpha - 5b$  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  $N(4a\alpha + 5b) = 5^5 b^5 + 4^4 a^5 b$ .

Therefore,

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

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

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:  $0^5 \not\equiv 0 + 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $1^5 \not\equiv 1 + 1 \pmod{3}$ , and  $2^5 = 2 \not\equiv 1 + 2 = 0 \pmod{3}$ .)

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

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

By exercise 40,

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

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

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

```

sage: [(factor(x), is_squarefree(x)) for x in
      map(lambda a: 5^5 + 4^4 *a,
          [-2, -3, -6, -7, -10, -11, -13, -15])]

[(3 * 13 * 67, True),
 (2357, True),
 (7 * 227, True),
 (31 * 43, True),
 (5 * 113, True),
 (3 * 103, True),
 (-1 * 7 * 29, True),
 (-1 * 5 * 11 * 13, True)]

```

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

```

sage: def test_poly_degree_5(a):
.....:     return (is_squarefree(5^5 + 4^4 *a) and
.....:             is_squarefree(a))
.....:
sage: filter(lambda x: test_poly_degree_5(x),
.....:         range(2, 30))
[2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 26, 29]
sage: filter(lambda x: test_poly_degree_5(x),
.....:         range(-2, -30, -1))
[-2, -3, -6, -7, -10, -11, -13, -15, -17, -19, -21,
 -22, -26, -29]

```

43. (d) Let  $\alpha$  be as in part (c) ( $\alpha$  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  $\alpha$  be a root of  $f$ . To determine the discriminant of  $\alpha$ , we proceed as in exercise 28 and 43. The derivative of  $f(x)$  is  $f'(x) = 5x^4 + 4ax^3$ , so

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

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

44. (b) TODO

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha f'(\alpha) &= n\alpha + a\alpha \\ &= -n(a\alpha + b) + a\alpha \\ &= -((n-1)a\alpha + bn) \\ f'(\alpha) &= -((n-1)a\alpha + bn)/\alpha\end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{disc}(\alpha) &= \frac{\pm(-1)^n N((n-1)a\alpha + bn)}{b(-1)^n} \\ &= \frac{\pm(bn)^n + (-1)^{n+1} a^n b (n-1)^{n-1}}{b} \\ &= \pm[b^{n-1} n^n + (-1)^{n+1} a^n (n-1)^{n-1}]\end{aligned}$$

Plugging values in gives:

$$\begin{aligned}n = 2 &= -(2^2 b - a^2) = a^2 - 4b \\ n = 3 &= -(27b^2) + a^3 2^2 = -27b^2 + 4a^3 \\ n = 4 &= b^3 4^4 - a^4 3^3 = 256b^3 - 27a^4 \\ n = 5 &= b^4 5^5 + a^5 4^4\end{aligned}$$

These agree with the known values of these polynomials.