

August 2016:

① - Let G group, $|G| = 140$, prove G has a cyclic normal subgroup of order 35.

$|G| = 140 = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7$, by the 3rd Sylow Theorem: $n_5 = 1, n_7 = 1$. } details

Since $\gcd(5, 7) = 1$, H_5 and H_7 cannot have nontrivial intersection: $H_5 \cap H_7 = \{e\}$. } details

$|H_5 \times H_7| = 35$, so we only need to prove $H_5 \times H_7 \cong G$, because:

$H_5 \times H_7 \cong \mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_7 \cong \mathbb{Z}_{35}$, so it is cyclic.

\uparrow
 $\gcd(5, 7) = 1$

Consider A a conjugate of $H_5 \times H_7$, then $|A| = 35$, so by the 1st Sylow Theorem we have $A_5, A_7 \leq A$ subgroups of A of orders 5 and 7.

Note: $A_5 \leq A \leq G$, so A_5, A_7 are subgroups of G of order 5, 7 respectively.
 $A_7 \leq A \leq G$

Since $n_5 = 1 = n_7$, we must have $A_5 = H_5, A_7 = H_7$. Now:

$H_5 \leq A$, since $H_5 \cong G$ then $H_5 \leq A$, so $H_5 \times H_7 \leq A$, so
 $H_7 \leq A$ $H_7 \cong G$ $H_7 \leq A$

by cardinality $H_5 \times H_7 = A$. So $H_5 \times H_7 \cong G$.

Alternatively: use elements and that since $H_5, H_7 \cong G$ then $H_5 H_7 = H_5 \times H_7$.

Claim: $H_5 H_7 \cong G$ by direct computation: let $g \in G$, then:

$$g(hk)g^{-1} = ghg^{-1}gk g^{-1} = h'k' \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} H_5 \times H_7 = H_5 H_7 \\ \text{since } H_5, H_7 \cong G \\ \text{and } H_5 \cap H_7 = \{e\} \end{array} \right)$$

$h \in H_5, k \in H_7$ $h' \in H_5, k' \in H_7$

② - $f: R \rightarrow S$ homo. of commutative rings, P prime ideal of S , M maximal ideal of S .

(2) - $f: R \rightarrow S$ homo. of commutative rings, P prime ideal of S , M maximal ideal of S .

(a) $f^{-1}(P)$ prime ideal of R .

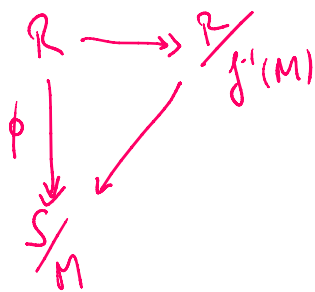
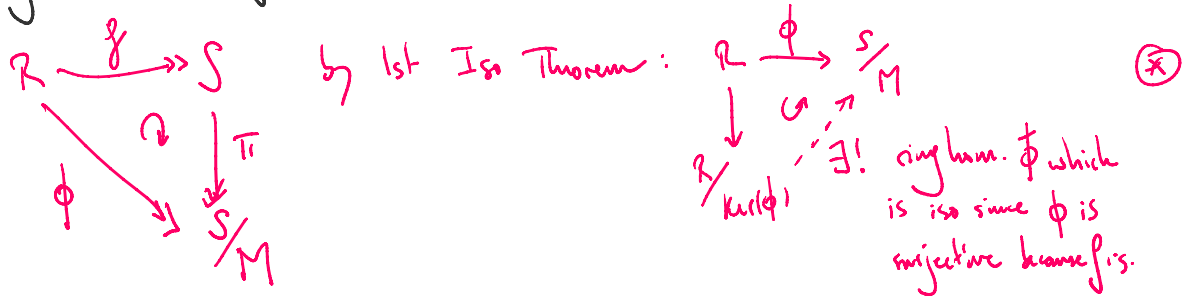
Pick $a, b \in R$ with $ab \in f^{-1}(P)$, then $f(ab) = f(a)f(b) \in P$, since P prime either $f(a)$ or $f(b) \in P$, then either $a \in f^{-1}(P)$ or $b \in f^{-1}(P)$.

Details: prove/claim $f^{-1}(P)$ is an ideal of R .

(b) If $R \subseteq S$ and f inclusion, use (a) to prove $P \cap R$ is a prime ideal of R .

Notice $f^{-1}(P) = P \cap R$, so it is an ideal. If $p \in P \cap R$ we have $p \in R$ so $f(p) = p$, so $p \in f^{-1}(P)$. If $r \in f^{-1}(P)$ then $r \in R$ and since $r = f(r) \in P$ we have $r \in P$, so $r \in P \cap R$.

(c) If f surjective, then $f^{-1}(M)$ is a maximal ideal of R .



$$0 \rightarrow f^{-1}(M) \rightarrow R \rightarrow R/f^{-1}(M) \rightarrow 0$$

is a short exact sequence.

\circlearrowleft $R/\ker(\phi) \cong S/M$, so $\ker(\phi)$ maximal field since M maximal

Claim: $\ker(\phi) = f^{-1}(M)$ $\phi = \pi \circ f$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ker(\phi) &= \{r \in R \mid \phi(r) \in M\} = \{r \in R \mid f(r) + M = M\} \\
 &= \{r \in R \mid f(r) \in M\} = \{r \in R \mid r \in f^{-1}(M)\} = f^{-1}(M).
 \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively: $f^{-1}(M)$ prime because M max. means M prime, use (a).
 Suppose $f^{-1}(M)$ is not maximal, get contradiction using

Suppose $f^{-1}(M)$ is not maximal, get contradiction using $f(R) = S$.

Alternatively: $\frac{R}{f^{-1}(M)} \longrightarrow \frac{S}{M}$ is an isomorphism.
 $(r + f^{-1}(M)) \longmapsto (f(r) + M)$

③ - R comm. ring, $I \subseteq R$ ideal, $J = \langle I \rangle_{R[x]}$

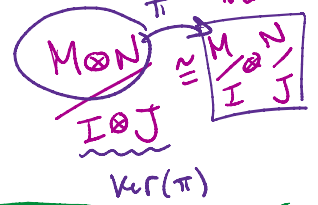
(a) $\frac{R[x]}{J} \cong \left(\frac{R}{I}\right)[x]$

linear combinations of elements in $R[x]$ with coefficients in I .

Idea: construct $\phi: R[x] \longrightarrow \left(\frac{R}{I}\right)[x]$, prove $\ker(\phi) = J$; use 1st. Iso. Thm.

Alternatively, construct $\psi: \frac{R[x]}{J} \xrightarrow{\cong} \left(\frac{R}{I}\right)[x]$, this is very long.

if these $x \longmapsto x$ and $r \longmapsto r + I =: \bar{r}$ are maps, then extension by linearity will be a map $\phi: R[x] \longrightarrow \left(\frac{R}{I}\right)[x]$, extend by linearity: $\phi(r_n x^n + \dots + r_0) := \bar{r}_n x^n + \dots + \bar{r}_0$.
 Standard trick. Proving ϕ is map just requires it to be proven on: $\phi(x^k + c) = \phi(x^k) + \phi(c)$.



This is surjective since any $\bar{r}_n x^n + \dots + \bar{r}_0 = \phi(r_n x^n + \dots + r_0)$.
 Prove $\ker(\phi) = J$: pick $f(x) \in J$, then $f(x) = a_1 f_1(x) + \dots + a_m f_m(x)$ for some $a_i \in I$, $f_i(x) \in R[x]$.
 $f_i(x) = r_{in} x^n + \dots + r_{i0}$ (we can assume n fixed by setting $r_{jn} = 0$ if necessary).

$\phi(a_i f_i(x)) = \bar{a}_i \bar{r}_{in} x^n + \dots + \bar{a}_i \bar{r}_{i0} = 0$, so $f(x) \in \ker(\phi)$.
 $a_i \in I$ means $\bar{a}_i \bar{r}_{in} \in I$ so $\bar{a}_i \bar{r}_{in} = 0$.

Let $g(x) \in \ker(\phi)$, so $g(x) = g_n x^n + \dots + g_0$ with $g_i \in R$; $\phi(g(x)) = 0$ so $\bar{g}_n x^n + \dots + \bar{g}_0 = \bar{0}$ so $\bar{g}_i = \bar{0}$ so $g_i \in I$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

So $g(x) \in J$.
 Composing coefficients

R u.s. 1st. Iso. Thm.: $\phi(R[x]) = \left(\frac{R}{I}\right)[x] \cong \frac{R[x]}{I \cdot J} = \frac{R[x]}{J}$.

do $g(x) \in \mathcal{J}$.
 By the 1st Iso. Thm.: $\phi(\mathbb{R}[x]) = \left(\frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}\right)[x] \cong \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{\ker(\phi)} = \frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{\mathcal{J}}$.

(b) \mathcal{I} prime implies \mathcal{J} prime.

$\frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}$ is integral domain because \mathcal{I} prime.

It is enough to check that $\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{\mathcal{J}}$ is integral domain. By (a), it is enough to check $\left(\frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}\right)[x]$ is integral domain.

Pick $f(x) = \bar{f}_n x^n + \dots + \bar{f}_0$, $g(x) = \bar{g}_m x^m + \dots + \bar{g}_0$ non-zero elements such that
 $\deg(f) = n$, $\deg(g) = m$, $\bar{f}_i, \bar{g}_i \in \frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}$,
 $\bar{f}_n \neq 0$, $\bar{g}_m \neq 0$. (So $f(x), g(x) \in \left(\frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}\right)[x]$).

and $f(x) \cdot g(x) = 0$. Then: $\deg(f(x) \cdot g(x)) = m+n$ and it has coefficient $\bar{f}_n \cdot \bar{g}_m \neq 0$ because $\frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathcal{I}}$ is integral domain. Either contradiction if we assumed $f(x) \cdot g(x) = 0$, or we find $f(x) \cdot g(x) \neq 0$ for all $f(x), g(x)$ non-zero.

④ - p_1, \dots, p_n distinct primes

(a) (i) Show $K_n = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n})$ is Galois over \mathbb{Q} .

Note: $\{x^2 - p_1, \dots, x^2 - p_n\}$ has as splitting field K_n , and this is a family of separable polynomials. **Hungerford 2.3.11.** Then K_n is Galois over \mathbb{Q} .

(ii) $\text{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z}/(2)$.

$\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1})/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/(2)$ because $[\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}):\mathbb{Q}] = 2$, and $\mathbb{Z}/(2)$ is the only group of order 2.

Induction hypothesis: $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_{n-1}})/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathbb{Z}/(2)$.

For n , notice: $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_{n-1}}) \neq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n})$ and $x^2 - p_n$ irreducible in this extension. Then this is a degree 2 extension: $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_{n-1}})(\sqrt{p_n}) \cong \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n})$.

this extension. Then this is a degree 2 extension: $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_{n-1}})(\sqrt{p_n}) \cong \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n})$.

Now: $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{x}{(2)} \subseteq \text{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$, and also $[K_n:K_{n-1}] = 2$.

just permute $\pm\sqrt{p_i} \leftrightarrow \pm\sqrt{p_j}$

Call $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(K_{n-1}/\mathbb{Q})$, then extend it to $\tilde{\sigma} \in \text{Gal}(K_n, \mathbb{Q})$

by giving it one of the choices: $\sqrt{p_n} \mapsto \sqrt{p_n}$
 $\sqrt{p_n} \mapsto -\sqrt{p_n}$

We then have 2^n total elements in $\text{Gal}(K_n, \mathbb{Q})$ so since every element in $\text{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$ has order 2:

$$\text{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x}{(2)}$$

Alternatively: $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(K_n)$, it permutes roots, but then $\sqrt{p_i} \mapsto \pm\sqrt{p_i}$.

Define: $\phi: \text{Aut}(K_n) \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x}{(2)}$, this is an iso.
 $\sigma \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \text{if } \sigma(\sqrt{p_j}) = \sqrt{p_j} \\ 1 & \text{if } \sigma(\sqrt{p_j}) = -\sqrt{p_j} \end{pmatrix}_{j=1}^n$

(iii) There are 2^{n-1} quadratic extensions of \mathbb{Q} contained in K_n . Determine explicitly.

The quadratic extensions of \mathbb{Q} inside $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_1}, \dots, \sqrt{p_n})$ are the splitting fields of $x^2 = p_{i_1} \dots p_{i_k}$ for $i_1, \dots, i_k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $i_s \neq i_t$ for all $s, t = 1, \dots, k$.

pick k different primes.

degree 2.

Such a splitting field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_{i_1} \dots p_{i_k}})$, and $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p_{i_1} \dots p_{i_k}}) \subseteq K_n$.

Claim: Since we are adjoining $\sqrt{p_i}$, the only thing we can recover in \mathbb{Q} when taking quadratic powers is $\sqrt{p_{i_1} \dots p_{i_k}}$.

By the Fundamental Galois Theorem says deg. 2. extensions correspond to subgroups of $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x}{(2)}$ of order 2^{n-1} . There are 2^{n-1} such

subgroups of $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{2^i}$ of order 2^{n-1} . There are $2^n - 1$ such subgroups (that's just the non-empty subsets of $\{1, \dots, n\}$).

For the same reason, p_i, \dots, p_k corresponds to a non-empty subset of $\{1, \dots, n\}$.

(5) Determine explicitly for $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5})$: 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 15, 30.

(5) - \mathbb{Z} generator of \mathbb{F}_{4^k} , $k \geq 1$. Prove that $x^{2^k} + x + z^{2^k} + z$ has exactly 2^k roots in \mathbb{F}_{4^k} .

\mathbb{F}_{4^k} has characteristic 2. (because it has 4^k elements, which is a power of 2).

$$x^{2^k} + x + z^{2^k} + z = (x^{2^k} + z^{2^k}) + (x + z) = (x + z)^{2^k} + (x + z) = (x + z)((x + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1).$$

Note $z \in \mathbb{F}_{4^k}$ is a root of $x + z$ (because \mathbb{F}_{4^k} has characteristic 2), and not a root of $(x + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1$. So we found one root, we only need to prove that $(x + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1$ factors into $2^k - 1$ distinct monomials in \mathbb{F}_{4^k} .

Recall: we sometimes used that translations preserve the number of roots:

Recurrent trick: $y \leftrightarrow y + 1$; $y^{-1} \leftrightarrow y$; $x \mapsto x + 1$

Claim: $y + z$ is a root of $(x + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1$ iff y is a root of $x^{2^k - 1} + 1$.

Then it will be good enough to show that $x^{2^k - 1} + 1$ splits into $2^k - 1$ factors in \mathbb{F}_{4^k} .

Suppose y is a root of $x^{2^k - 1} + 1$, then: $((y + z) + z) + 1 = y^{2^k - 1} + 1 = 0$.

Suppose $y + z$ is a root of $(x + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1$, then: $y^{2^k - 1} + 1 = (y + 0)^{2^k - 1} + 1 = ((y + z) + z)^{2^k - 1} + 1 = 0$.

Recall \mathbb{F}_{4^k} is the splitting field of $x^{4^k} + x$, so $x^{4^k - 1} + 1$ has $4^k - 1$ distinct roots. details

So if $x^{2^k - 1} + 1$ divides $x^{4^k - 1} + 1$, then it has $2^k - 1$ distinct roots. details

Note:

$$x^{4^k - 1} + 1 = (x^{2^k - 1} + 1)(x^{2^k - 1} + 1) \dots (x^{2^k - 1} + 1)$$

Trick: Problem 5(4), August 2015: Knowing $d | n$: $x^n - 1 = (x^d - 1)(x^{n-d} + x^{n-2d} + \dots + x^{n-(d-1)d} + 1)$

Trick: Problem 5(4), August 2015: Knowing $d|n$: $x^n - 1 = (x^{n/d} - 1)(x^{n/d-1} + x^{n/d-2} + \dots + x + 1)$

So indeed $x^{2^k} + 1$ divides $x^{4^k} + 1$.

$$x^{2^k} - 1 = (x^{2^{k-1}} - 1)(x^{2^{k-1}-1} + \dots + x + 1)$$

in our case $d = 2^k$,
 $n = 4^k$,

and $+1 = -1$ because
 $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}_{4^k}) = 2$.

6 - TBD.

7 - Show that \mathbb{Q} is not a projective \mathcal{R} -mod.

\mathcal{R} is a P.I.D. Hungerford Ex. 6.3. It suffices to show that \mathbb{Q} is not a free \mathcal{R} -mod.

Suppose it is: there is $\phi: \mathbb{Q} \xrightarrow{\cong} \sum_{i \in I} \mathcal{R}$ iso. of \mathcal{R} -mods, call $e_i := \begin{cases} 0 & j \neq i \\ 1 & j = i \end{cases}$.

Since ϕ is iso., there is $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $\phi(\gamma) = e_i$.

Since \mathbb{Q} is divisible (abelian group), there exists $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ with $2 \cdot x = \gamma$. Then:

$$2 \cdot \phi(x) = \phi(2x) = \phi(\gamma) = e_i, \text{ living in } \sum_{i \in I} \mathcal{R}.$$

However, no element $z \in \sum_{i \in I} \mathcal{R}$ satisfies $2 \cdot z = e_i$, contradiction. So \mathbb{Q} is not free.

Let D be an integral domain, \mathbb{Q} its field of fractions. Then \mathbb{Q} is not projective as D -mod.

Proof: If \mathbb{Q} is projective then for some other D -mod R we have:

$R + \mathbb{Q} \cong D^n$. This, by restriction, induces a homomorphism from $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow D^n$, which induces a homomorphism $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow D$.

However, no such homomorphism $\mathbb{Q} \rightarrow D$ exists. □

$$\mathbb{Q} \hookrightarrow R + \mathbb{Q} \cong D^n \longrightarrow D$$

8 - (a) For free group of rank $n \geq 2$, show that a nontrivial normal subgroup cannot be cyclic.

Proof by contrapositive: pick a cyclic subgroup of $F_n = \langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$, we show it is not normal.

Suppose first the cyclic subgroup is $\langle a_i \rangle$. Since $n \geq 2$, there is $a_j \neq a_i$ where $a_j a_i a_j^{-1}$ is a reduced word. However, all reduced words in $\langle a_i \rangle$ are of the form a_i^n , $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$,

...

a reduced word. However, all reduced words in $\langle ai \rangle$ are of the form $a_i^{-1} u_i^{-1} a_i$, so $a_j a_i a_j^{-1} \notin \langle ai \rangle$, so $\langle ai \rangle \neq F_m$.

Suppose we have $\langle g \rangle$ for some general $g \in F_m$. $g = a_{i_1}^{r_1} a_{i_2}^{r_2} \dots a_{i_k}^{r_k}$, where $i_j \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ and $i_j \neq i_{j+1}$ for $j = 1, \dots, k-1$.

m=3: pick $a_{i_1} \neq a_{i_j} \neq a_{i_k}$. Then $\langle g, a_j \rangle$ is a free group on more than one generator containing the cyclic subgroup $\langle g \rangle$, so by the above, $\langle g \rangle \neq \langle g, a_j \rangle$ so $\langle g \rangle \neq F_m$.

m=2: If $a_{i_1} = a_{i_k} =: a_1$, then $\langle g, a_2 \rangle$ is a free group on two generators, so as above $\langle g \rangle \neq F_m$.

If $a_{i_1} \neq a_{i_k}$, rename $a_{i_1} =: a_1$ if $r_1 > 0$, $a_{i_1} =: a_1^{-1}$ if $r_1 < 0$, similarly relabel $a_{i_k} =: a_2, a_2^{-1}$. Then:

$$g^n = \underbrace{a_1^{r_1} a_2^{-r_2} \dots a_1^{-r_1}}_1 \underbrace{a_2^{r_2} a_1^{-r_1} a_2^{-r_2} \dots a_1^{-r_1}}_2 \dots \underbrace{a_1^{r_1} a_2^{-r_2} \dots a_1^{-r_1}}_n$$

$$g^{-n} = a_2^{-r_2} a_1^{-r_1} a_2^{-r_2} a_1^{-r_1} \dots a_2^{-r_2} a_1^{-r_1} a_2^{-r_2} a_1^{-r_1}$$

$a_1 g a_1^{-1} = a_1^{r_1+1} a_2^{-r_2} \dots a_1^{-r_1-1} a_2^{-r_2} a_1^{-1}$ is not $g^{\pm n}$ for any $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, but it is not trivial. So $a_1 g a_1^{-1} \notin \langle g \rangle$, so $\langle g \rangle \neq F_2$.

(b) Show that a solvable group cannot contain F_2 as a subgroup.

if they have a non-finite number of generators, everything still follows.

We will use that subgroups of free groups are free (hint), and that subgroups of solvable groups are also solvable. **Hungerford II.7.11**. So it is enough to prove that F_2 is not solvable.

Def: A group G is solvable if its derived series:
 $G \supset G^{(1)} \supset G^{(2)} \supset \dots$ eventually has 1 in it.
 $G^{(i+1)} := [G^{(i)}, G^{(i)}]$.

A group G is solvable if it has a subnormal series whose quotient groups are abelian:
 $1 \leq G_0 \leq G_1 \leq \dots \leq G_k = G$ with $G_{j-1} \triangleleft G_j$ and G_j/G_{j-1} is abelian $i = 1, \dots, k$.

$\cup 1$
 $\langle e \rangle = G_0 < G_1 < \dots < G_k = G$ with $G_{j-1} \triangleleft G_j$ and G_j / G_{j-1} is abelian
 $j=1, \dots, k$ $j=1, \dots, k$.

Consider $[F_2, F_2] < F_2$, it is a normal subgroup. Since it is a subgroup of a free group, it must also be free. Since F_2 is not abelian, $[F_2, F_2] \neq \langle e \rangle$, and since $[F_2, F_2] \triangleleft F_2$ by part (a) it is not cyclic, so $[F_2, F_2] \neq F_1$. So $[F_2, F_2] \cong F_{m_1}$ for $m_1 \geq 2$.

Inductively, if F_{m_k} a free group on $m_k \geq 2$ generators, then $[F_{m_k}, F_{m_k}] \triangleleft F_{m_k}$ that is also a free group. By (a), it cannot be cyclic, then $[F_{m_k}, F_{m_k}] \cong F_{m_{k+1}}$.

Now:

$F_2 \triangleright F_{21}^{(1)} \triangleright F_{21}^{(2)} \triangleright \dots \triangleright F_{m_i}^{(i)} \triangleright \dots$ where $F_{m_i}^{(i)} \neq \langle e \rangle$, so the derived series will never have $\langle e \rangle$.

9 - $f(x) = x^5 + x + 1$

(a) Find $[K:\mathbb{Q}]$, K splitting field of $f(x)$ over \mathbb{Q} .

$x^5 + x + 1 = \underbrace{(x^2 + x + 1)}_{\text{both irreducible roots } \omega, \bar{\omega}} \underbrace{(x^3 - x^2 + 1)}_{\text{roots } \epsilon, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}}$, so $[K:\mathbb{Q}] = [K:K_3][K_3:\mathbb{Q}] = 2 \cdot 6 = 12$

roots $\omega, \bar{\omega}$ roots $\epsilon, \alpha, \bar{\alpha}$

splitting field of $x^3 - x^2 + 1$: $K_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\epsilon, \alpha)$, and we see:

$[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \epsilon) : \mathbb{Q}] = 6$.

splitting field of $x^2 + x + 1$: $K_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\epsilon, \alpha)(\omega) = \mathbb{Q}(\epsilon, \alpha, \omega)$
 (over K_3)

this is also: $K = K_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\epsilon, \alpha, \omega)$.

(b) $\text{Aut}_{\mathbb{Q}}(K)$ of $f(x)$.

Notice: $\text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \epsilon) / \mathbb{Q}) = S_3$

Hungerford II.4.7.

Hungerford I.4.7.

The discriminant of $x^3 - x^2 + 1$ is -23 , which is never a square in \mathbb{Q} .

Then by the Extension of Isomorphism Theorem:

$$\text{Gal}(K/\mathbb{Q}) = \frac{\mathbb{Z}}{(2)} \times S_3.$$