Analytic Number Theory III

Lecture notes

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LATEX version by Alex Dalist Howl Sennewald

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This script is not a substitute for Prof. Schindler's lecture notes and will not be reviewed by her again. Basically, these are just my personal notes, so I do not guarantee correctness or completeness and I might add further examples and notes if necessary. In general I will not include proofs (because this is no fun in LATEX).

If you have any corrections, you can write to me at Stud.IP or make a pull request directly at the GitHub repository (which is much more convenient for me than the way via Stud.IP).

glhf, Alex

1 Number fields

Example (Pell¹ equation): Let d > 1 be an integer, which is not a square, and find Lecture 1, all integer solutions to 24.10.2023

$$x^2 - dy^2 = 1. (1.1)$$

Write $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] = \{a + \sqrt{d}b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$ with its natural ring structure. If $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ is a solution to (1.1), then

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

and for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$(x + \sqrt{dy})^k (x - \sqrt{dy})^k = x_k^2 - dy_k^2 = 1,$$

with $x_k, y_k \in \mathbb{Z}$. I.e. if $(x, y) \neq (\pm 1, 0)$ we can generate new solutions as above. Define the norm map $N : \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] \to \mathbb{Z}$, $a + \sqrt{d}b \mapsto a^2 - db^2$. Then solutions to (1.1) can be described as units $x + \sqrt{d}y \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]^*$ in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ with $N(x + \sqrt{d}y) = 1$.

Example (Gaussian integers): The question is to find all primes p which can be written as a sum of two integer squares

$$p = a^2 + b^2.$$

I.e. we ask for primes p which factor as p = (a + ib)(a - ib) in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

1.1 Number fields and number rings, first definitions and examples

Definition (Number field)

A number field is a finite field extension of \mathbb{Q} .

Example: a) For $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, where d is not a square, the fields $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}] = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^2 - d)$

¹after John Pell (1611 - 1685), an English mathematician

are number fields (with degree 2 over \mathbb{Q}). We call $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$ a real quadratic field if d > 0 and an imaginary quadratic field if d < 0.

- b) $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d_1}, \sqrt{d_2}]$ are number fields for $d_1, d_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, usually called biquadratic fields.
- c) Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}}$. Then $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ is a number field, called the *m-th* cyclotomic field.
- ?) What could be an analogue of the integers in a general number field?

$$Z \subset \mathbb{Q}$$
 ? $\subset \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$? $\subset \mathbb{F}$

Definition (Algebraic integer)

A complex number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is called an *algebraic integer*, if there is a monic polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ with $P(\alpha) = 0$.

Example: • Every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ is an algebraic integer.

- \sqrt{d} for $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ is an algebraic integer (take $P(x) = x^2 d$).
- $e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}}$ is an algebraic integer for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$ (take $P(x) = x^m 1$).

Theorem 1.1

Let α be an algebraic integer and $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ a monic polynomial with f(x) = 0. If f(x) is of minimal degree with these properties, then f is irreducible.

Remark: Theorem 1.1 shows, that the minimal polynomial of an algebraic integer over \mathbb{Q} has coefficients in \mathbb{Z} .

Lemma 1.2

Let $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a monic polynomial and $g, k \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ monic polynomials with f = gh. Then, $g, k \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Corollary 1.3

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ is an algebraic integer, then $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.4 (Characterization of algebraic integers)

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (i) α is an algebraic integer.
- (ii) $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is a finitely generated group (under addition).
- (iii) There exists a subring $R \subset \mathbb{C}$ with $\alpha \in R$ and such that (R, +) is a finitely generated group.
- (iv) There is a non-trivial finitely generated subgroup (A, +) of \mathbb{C} , such that $\alpha A \subseteq A$.

Corollary 1.5

The set of algebraic integers in \mathbb{C} is a ring.

Lecture 2, 27.10.2023

Definition (Ring of algebraic integers)

Let K be a number field. Then we write \mathcal{O}_K for the set of algebraic integers contained in K and we call \mathcal{O}_K the ring of integers of K.

Example: $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{Z}$

Proposition 1.6

Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a squarefree integer.

- If $d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4$ then $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]} = \{a + \sqrt{db} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$
- If $d \equiv 1 \mod 4$, then $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]} = \left\{ \frac{a + \sqrt{d}b}{2} \mid a \equiv b \mod 2 \right\}$.

1.2 Embeddings, Norm and Trace

Recall: Let L/K be a finite field extension. If charK = 0, then L/K is separable. Let \bar{K} be an algebraic closure of K. If L/K is separable, them $[L:K] = \# \operatorname{Hom}_K(L,\bar{K})$.

Theorem

Let L/K be a finite separable field extension. Then there exists an element $\alpha \in L$ such that $L = K(\alpha)$. In particular, for number fields $Q \subseteq K \subseteq L$ we obtain the following:

- There exists $\alpha \in L$ such that $L = K(\alpha)$
- If there is an embedding $\hat{\iota}: K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$, then there exist [L:K] embeddings $L \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$, which extend $\hat{\iota}$. If g(x) is a minimal polynomial of α over K then

the embeddings are given by $\sigma_i : \alpha \mapsto \beta_i$, where $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_{[L:K]}$ are the [L:K] distinct conjugates of α .

Example: 1. Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be not a square. Then there are exactly two embeddings of $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$ into \mathbb{C} , namely $\sigma_1 : a + \sqrt{d}b \mapsto a + \sqrt{d}b$ and $\sigma_2 : a + \sqrt{d}b \mapsto a - \sqrt{d}b$.

2. We have $[\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}:\mathbb{Q}]]=3$ and the three embeddings are given by

$$\sigma_1(\sqrt[3]{2}) = \sqrt[3]{2}, \ \sigma_2(\sqrt[3]{2}) = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{3}}\sqrt[3]{2}, \ \sigma_3(\sqrt[3]{2}) = e^{\frac{4\pi i}{3}}\sqrt[3]{2}.$$

Note that $\sigma_1(\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}]) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, whereas σ_2 and σ_3 are "complex embeddings". $\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt[3]{2}]/\mathbb{Q}$ is not a normal extension.

Definition (Trace and norm)

Let K be a field and V an n-dimensional K-vector space. For $\varphi:V\to V$ a K-endomorphism, we define the characteristic polynomial

$$\chi_{\varphi}(x) = \det(xI_n - \varphi) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^{n-i}$$

for some $c_0, \ldots, c_n \in K$. We define the determinant and trace of φ by $\det \varphi = (-1)^n c_n$ and trace $\varphi = -c_1$

Note that if $\varphi, \psi : V \to V$ are both K-endomorphisms of V, then $\det(\varphi \circ \psi) = \det(\varphi) \det(\psi)$ and $\operatorname{trace}(a\varphi + b\psi) = a \operatorname{trace}(\varphi) + b \operatorname{trace}(\psi) \ \forall \ a, b \in K$.

Definition (Trace and norm of a number field)

Let $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq K \subseteq L$ be number fields and $\alpha \in L$. We write $\varphi_{\alpha} : L \to L$, $x \mapsto \alpha x$ and define the (relative) norm and trace of α by

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \det \varphi_{\alpha}, \quad \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \operatorname{trace}(\varphi_{\alpha}).$$

Remark: The map $N_{L/K}: L^* \to K^*$ is a grouphomomorphism as $N_{L/K}(\alpha\beta) = N_{L/K}(\alpha)N_{L/K}(\beta) \ \forall \alpha, \beta \in L \setminus \{0\}$. Similarly, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}: L \to K$ is a K-linear map, as

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(u\alpha + v\beta) = u \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) + v \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\beta) \ \forall u, v \in K, \ \alpha, \beta \in L.$$

Example: Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$, $L = \mathbb{Q}(i)$ and $\alpha = a + ib \in \mathbb{Q}(i)$. Then φ_{α} can be represented

with respect to the basis 1, i by

$$\varphi_{\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

and hence

$$N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a+ib) = a^2 + b^2$$
, $\text{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a+ib) = 2a$.

Lemma 1.7

Let L/K is an extension of number fields with [L:K] = n. For $a \in K$ we have

$$N_{L/K}(a) = a^n$$
, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K} = na$.

Lemma 1.8

Let L/K be an extension of number fields with $L = K(\alpha)$ and [L : K] = n. Let $f(x) = x^n + c_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_n$ be the minimal polynomial of α over K. Then

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = (-1)^n c_n$$
, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = -c_1$.

Lemma 1.9

Let L/K be a number field extension, $\alpha \in L$, $[L:K(\alpha)] = r$. Then we have

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = (N_{K(\alpha/K)}(\alpha))^r$$
, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = r \operatorname{Tr}_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha)$.

Corollary 1.10

Let L/K be number fields and $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$. Then $N_{L/K}(\alpha)$, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_K$. In particular $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$, $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.11

Let L/K be number fields, [L:K] = n and $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n : L \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the n distinct K-linear embeddings of L into \mathbb{C} . Then, for $\alpha \in L$, we have

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i(\alpha), \quad \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i(\alpha).$$

Corollary 1.12

Let L/K be a Galois extension of number fields. Then, for $\alpha \in L$ and $\sigma \in Gal(L/K)$,

we have

$$N_{L/K}(\sigma(\alpha)) = N_{L/K}(\alpha), \quad \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\sigma(\alpha)) = \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha).$$

Theorem 1.13

Let $K \subseteq L \subseteq M$ be a tower of number fields and $\alpha \in M$. Then

$$N_{M/K} = N_{L/K}(N_{M/L}(\alpha)), \quad \operatorname{Tr}_{M/K}(\alpha) = \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\operatorname{Tr}_{M/L}(\alpha)).$$

Lecture 3, 03.11.2023

An application of the norm map

Given a number field K with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K , how can we find \mathcal{O}_K^* , i.e. the units in \mathcal{O}_K ?

- If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$, $\alpha^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ and $1 = N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha \alpha^{-1}) = N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \cdot N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha^{-1})$. By Corollary 1.10, $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$, $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ $\in \mathbb{Z} \implies N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm 1$.
- If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ with $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm 1$, then $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$.

Example: Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, d squarefree. Then, for $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$, $N_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]/\mathbb{Q}}(a + \sqrt{d}b) = (a + b\sqrt{d})(a - b\sqrt{d}) = a^2 - db^2$. For $d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4$, we find that

$$\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]} = \left\{ a + b\sqrt{d} \,\middle|\, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a^2 - db^2 = \pm 1 \right\}.$$

The trace as a bilinear form

Let L/K be number fields. Then $Tr_{L/K}$ induces a bilinear form

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}: L \times L \to K, \ (x,y) \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(x \cdot y).$$
 (1.2)

Write L^* for the dual vector space of L, i.e. the set of all K-linear vector space homomorphisms.

Theorem 1.14

The bilinear form (1.2) induces an isomorphism of K-vector spaces

$$\psi: L \to L^*, \ x \to \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(x, \cdot).$$

Corollary 1.15

Let L/K be number fields and (v_1, \ldots, v_n) a K-basis with n = [L : K]. Then there exists a unique K-basis (w_1, \ldots, w_n) of L, such that $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(v_i w_j) = \delta_{ij}$, $1 \le i, j, \le n$.

1.3. Discriminant Lecture 3

1.3 Discriminant

Let K/\mathbb{Q} be a number field of degree $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$ and $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n : K \to \mathbb{C}$ its embeddings.

Definition (Discriminant)

For $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$, we define the discriminant as

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n) = \operatorname{det}\left((\sigma_i(\alpha_j))_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}\right)^2.$$

Theorem 1.16

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. Then $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent if and only if $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \neq 0$.

Lemma 1.17

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. Then

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n) = \operatorname{det}\left(\operatorname{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_i\alpha_j)\right)_{1 \leq i,j \leq n}$$

Corollary 1.18

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in K$. Then $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Q}$. If moreover $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$, then $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 1.19

Let α be algebraic over \mathbb{Q} with $\left[\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]:\mathbb{Q}\right]=n$, and α_1,\ldots,α_n the n different conjugates of α . Then

$$\operatorname{disc}\left(1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^{n-1}\right) = \prod_{1 \leq i,j \leq n} (a_i - a_j)^2.$$

If moreover f(x) is the minimal polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} , then

$$\operatorname{disc}\left(1,\alpha,\ldots,\alpha^{n-1}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} N_{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]/\mathbb{Q}}\left((f'(\alpha))\right).$$

Question: Let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K and of degree $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$. Then K is an n-dimensional \mathbb{Q} -vector space. How can we describe the structure of the group $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$?

Example: For $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ squarefree and $K = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{d}]$, the ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K is a free abelian group of rank 2, where a \mathbb{Z} -basis is given by $(1, \omega)$, with

$$\omega = \begin{cases} \sqrt{d} & d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4, \\ \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} & d \equiv 1 \mod 4. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 1.20

Let K/\mathbb{Q} be a number field of degree $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$. Then \mathcal{O}_K is a free abelian group of rank n, i.e. there exists $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$, such that every $\beta \in \mathcal{O}_K$ can be uniquely written in the form

$$\beta = m_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + m_n \alpha_n$$

with $m_1, \ldots, m_n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark: In the notation of Theorem 1.20, we call $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and integral basis of \mathcal{O}_K (over \mathbb{Z}).

Lecture 4, 07.11.2023

Lemma 1.21

Let K be a number field as above. Then there exists a \mathbb{Q} -basis of the number field, say $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$, with $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

Proposition 1.22

Let $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ be a \mathbb{Q} -basis of a number field K with $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$, $d = \operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Then there exist $m_1, \ldots, m_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that

$$\beta = \frac{m_1 \alpha_1 + \dots + m_n \alpha_n}{d}$$

and $d \mid m_i^2 \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n$.

Lemma 1.23

Let K be a number field with integral bases $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ and $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$. Then

$$\operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)=\operatorname{disc}(\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_n).$$

Definition (Discriminant of K)

Let K be a number field and $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ a \mathbb{Z} -basis for \mathcal{O}_K . We define the discriminant

disc(K) of K as

$$\operatorname{disc}(K) = \operatorname{disc}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n).$$

Example: Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be squarefree. Then

$$\operatorname{disc}\left(\left[\sqrt{d}\right]\right) = \begin{cases} 4d & d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4, \\ d & d \equiv 1 \mod 4. \end{cases}$$

1.4 Cyclotomic fields

Definition

For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ we call $\mathbb{Q}\left[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}}\right]$ the m-th cyclotomic field.

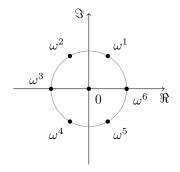
Example: • The first two cyclotomic fields are equal to \mathbb{Q} .

• Let m=6 and write $\omega=e^{\frac{2\pi i}{6}}$. Then $\omega^5=-\omega^2$, i.e. $\omega=-\omega^4$ and $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]=\mathbb{Q}[\omega^2]$. This means that the third and sixth cyclotomic fields are equal.

In the following let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and write $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}}$.

Theorem 1.24

The extension $\mathbb{Q}[\omega]$ over \mathbb{Q} is Galois with degree equal to $\varphi(m)$, where φ is Euler's totient function. Moreover, the Galois group is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^* = \{k \in \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \mid \gcd(k,m) = 1\}.$



For $k \in (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^*$ the corresponding automorphism is given by $\omega \mapsto \omega^k$.

Proposition 1.25

The conjugates of ω are exactly given by ω^k with gcd(m, k) = 1.

Corollary 1.26

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be even. Then the roots of unity contained in $\mathbb{Q}(e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}})$ are exactly the m-th roots of unity.

Corollary 1.27

The m-th cyclotomic fields, for m even, are all non-isomorphic.

Theorem 1.28

Let $m = p^r$ for some prime p and $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{m}}$. Then $\mathcal{O}_{Q[\omega]} = \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

Remark: More generally, $Z[\omega] = \mathcal{O}_{Q[\omega]}$ for *every* cyclotomic field.

Notation: We write $\operatorname{disc}(\alpha) = \operatorname{disc}(1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1})$.

Lemma 1.29

For $m \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $\operatorname{disc}(\omega) \mid m^{\varphi(m)}$.

Lecture 5, 10.11.2023

Lemma 1.30

For $m \geq 3$ we have $\operatorname{disc}(1 - \omega) = \operatorname{disc}(\omega)$.

Lemma 1.31

Let $m = p^r$ be a prime power, $r \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\prod_{\substack{1 \le k \le m \\ \gcd(k,m)=1}} \left(1 - \omega^k\right) = p.$$

Remark: In particular for $m = p^r$ we have $\frac{p}{(1-\omega)^{\varphi(m)}} \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$.

2 Prime ideal factorisation

2.1 Unique prime ideal factorisation

Motivation: If K is a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K , then we may not have a unique factorisation in \mathcal{O}_K into irreducible elements (up to units and ordering).

Example: Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$. In $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ we have $2 \cdot 3 = 6 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})$, where 2 and 3 are irreducible elements.

Our next goal is to replace factorisation into irreducible elements by prime *ideal* factorisation. Instead of number fields, we consider more generally *Dedekind domains*.

Definition (Integrally closed ring)

Let R be an integral domain and $K = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in R, \ b \neq 0 \right\}$ its field of fractions. We call R integrally closed, if every element $\frac{a}{b} \in K$, which is a zero of a monic polynomial with coefficients in R is contained in R.

Example: Let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . Then \mathcal{O}_K is integrally closed. Indeed let $\alpha \in K$ satisfy $\alpha^n + b_1\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + b_n = 0$, with $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Then $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, b_1, \ldots, b_n]$ is finitely generated as an additive group and we have $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

Definition (Noetherian¹ ring)

We call a commutative ring R noetherian if every ideal is finitely generated.

Remark: The following statements about a commutative ring R are equivalent:

- 1. R is noetherian.
- 2. Every increasing sequence of ideals is eventually constant, i.e. if $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq ...$, then there is some $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $I_n = I_{n_0}$ for every $n > n_0$.
- 3. Every non-empty set S of ideals has a maximal element, i.e. there is some $M \in S$, such that if $M' \in S$ with $M \subseteq M'$, then M = M'.

¹after Emmy Noether (1882 - 1935), a German mathematician

Example: Principal ideal domains and polynomial rings $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ or $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ for any field K are noetherian.

Definition (Dedekind² domain)

A *Dedekind domain* is a noetherian integrally closed domain, in which every non-zero prime ideal is maximal.

Theorem 2.1

Let K be a number field. Then its ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K is a Dedekind domain.

Example: Coordinate rings of irreducible smooth curves over an algebraically closed field, e.g. $\mathbb{C}[T]$ is a Dedekind domain.

First properties of Dedekind domains

Lemma 2.2

Let R be a Dedekind domain, which is not a field, and $0 \neq I \subseteq R$ an ideal. Then I contains a product of non-zero prime ideals $P_1 \cdots P_k \subseteq I$.

Lemma 2.3

Let R be a Dedekind domain with field of fractions K and $0 \neq I \subsetneq R$ a ideal. Then there exists $\alpha \in K \setminus R$ with $\alpha I \subseteq R$.

Lecture 6, 17.11.2023

Theorem 2.4

Let R be a Dedekind domain and $0 \neq I \subseteq R$ an ideal. Then there is an ideal $0 \neq J \subseteq R$, such that IJ is principal.

Example: Let $R = \mathbb{Z}\left[\sqrt{-5}\right]$ and $I = \left(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5}\right)$. Then I is not principal, but $\left(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5}\right)\left(2, 1 - \sqrt{-5}\right) = (2)$ is principal.

Observation: Note that $\alpha \in I$ implies that $J \subset A = \frac{1}{\alpha}IJ$. Hence $\gamma JI = \gamma \alpha \left(\frac{1}{\alpha}JI\right) = \alpha \gamma A \subseteq (\alpha)$. As $\gamma J \subseteq \gamma A \subseteq R$, we find that $\gamma J \subseteq J$.

²after Richard Dedekind (1831 - 1916), a German mathematician

The ideal class group

Definition (Equivalence of ideals)

Let R be an integral domain. We say that two non-zero ideals I, J are equivalent if and only if there exist $\alpha, \beta \in R \setminus \{0\}$ with $\alpha I = \beta J$.

Remark: 1. This really is an equivalence relation. We call the equivalence classes under this relation *ideal classes*.

- 2. We can define a multiplication on the set of ideal classes by multiplication of representatives, [I][J] = [IJ], with the neutral element [R].
- 3. All principal ideals form one ideal class.

Corollary 2.5

Let R be a Dedekind domain. Then the ideal classes form a group under multiplication.

Definition (Ideal class group)

We call the group given by ideal classes under multiplication in the Dedekind domain R the *ideal class group* of R, denoted by Cl(R).

Example: \mathbb{Z} is a principal ideal domain, hence $|Cl(\mathbb{Z})| = 1$.

Remark: There are only finitely many imaginary quadratic fields K with $|Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)| = 1$.

Question (Gauss): Do there exist as many real quadratic number fields K with $|Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)| = 1$?

Corollary 2.6

Let R be a Dedekind domain and A, B, C ideals with $A \neq 0$.

- 1. If AB = AC then B = C.
- 2. We have $B \mid A$, i.e. A = BJ for some ideal J, if and only if $A \subseteq B$.

Theorem 2.7 (Unique prime ideal factorisation)

Every ideal $I \neq 0$ in a Dedekind domain R can be written as a product $I = P_1 \cdots P_r$

with non-zero prime ideals P_1, \ldots, P_r and this representation is unique up to ordering of P_1, \ldots, P_r .

Example: In $\mathbb{Z}(\sqrt{-5})$ we don't have unique factorisation into reducible elements, e.g. $2 \cdot 3 = (1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5})$, but in terms of ideals we have $(2) = (2,1+\sqrt{-5})^2 = P_1^2$, $(3) = (3,1+\sqrt{-5})(3,1-\sqrt{-5}) = P_2 \cdot P_3$. Note that P_1, P_2, P_3 are all prime ideals as $|\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]/P_i| \in \{2,3\}$ for $1 \le i \le 3$. In the ideal class group we find that

$$(2) \cdot (3) = P_1^2 P_2 P_3$$

= $P_1 P_2 P_1 P_3$
= $\left(1 + \sqrt{-5}\right) \left(1 - \sqrt{-5}\right)$.

Definition (Greatest common divisor, least common multiple) Let R be a Dedekind domain and $I, J \neq 0$ ideals with prime factorisation

$$I = \prod_{i=1}^{r} P_1^{a_i}, \ J = \prod_{i=1}^{r} P_i^{b_i},$$

where P_1, \ldots, P_r are distinct prime ideals and $a_1, \ldots, a_r, b_1, \ldots, b_r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$. We define the greatest common divisor $\gcd(I, J)$ and least common multiple $\operatorname{lcm}(I, J)$ by

$$\gcd(I, J) = \prod_{i=1}^{r} P_i^{\min(a_i, b_i)}, \quad \operatorname{lcm}(I, J) = \prod_{i=1}^{r} P_i^{\max(a_i, b_i)}.$$

Exercise

Show that

$$gcd(I, J) = I + J, \quad lcm(I, J) = I \cap J.$$

Question: Given the ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K in a number field K, we know that every ideal is finitely generated. Can we say something about the numbers of generators we need? E.g. in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, the prime ideal $(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$ is not a principal idea, but generated by two elements.

Lecture 7, 21.11.2023

Remark: Chinese Remainder Theorem: Let R be a commutation ring with 1 and

 a_1, \ldots, a_n coprime ideals, i.e. $a_i + a_j = R \ \forall i \neq j$. Then there is an isomorphism

$$R/\bigcap_{i=1}^n a_i \to R/a_1 \times \cdots \times R/a_n.$$

Theorem 2.8

Let R be a Dedekind domain, $I \subseteq R$ a non-zero ideal and $\alpha \in I \setminus \{0\}$. Then there exists $\beta \in I$ with $I = (\alpha, \beta)$.

Corollary 2.9

A Dedekind domain is a unique factorisation domain (UFD) if and only if is is a principal ideal domain (PID).

Remark: In general, a PID is a UFD but the reverse implication does not hold. For example $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ is a UFD, but not a PID.

2.2 Splitting of primes

Let p be a (rational) prime number. Then (p) is a prime ideal in \mathbb{Z} , but the ideal $(p) = p\mathcal{O}_K$ need not be a prime ideal in \mathcal{O}_K . For example, let $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$, then in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ we have

$$(p) = (a+ib)(a-ib),$$
 (2.1)

where $a^2 + b^2 = p$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note that $N_{\mathbb{Q}[i]/\mathbb{Q}}(a+ib) = p$ and hence a+ib is a prime element in the PID $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, and (2.1) is the prime ideal factorisation of (p). Moreover, a+ib and a-ib do not differ by multiplication with one of the units $\pm 1, \pm i$, and hence

$$P_1 = (a+ib) \neq (a-ib) = P_2$$

in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. The ideal (2) splits in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ as $2 = (1+i)^2$, where (1+i) is a prime ideal. If $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$ is a rational prime, then (p) remains a prime ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. (check!)

Question: More generally, let $K \subseteq L$ be number fields with rings of integers $\mathcal{O}_K, \mathcal{O}_L$. Given a non-zero prime ideal P in \mathcal{O}_K , how does $P\mathcal{O}_L$ split into prime ideals in \mathcal{O}_L ?

Notation: In the following, we keep the notation $K \subseteq L$, $\mathcal{O}_K \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ as above.

Definition (Primes)

We say that $P \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ or $Q \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is a *prime* if P or respectively Q is a non-zero

prime ideal in \mathcal{O}_K or respectively \mathcal{O}_L . Moreover, we say that Q lies above P or P lies under Q if $Q \mid P\mathcal{O}_L$.

Lemma 2.10

Let P resp. Q be primes in \mathcal{O}_K resp. \mathcal{O}_L . Then Q lies above P if and only if one of the following equivalent conditions holds:

- 1. $P\mathcal{O}_L \subseteq Q$.
- 2. $P \subseteq Q$.
- 3. $Q \cap \mathcal{O}_K = P$.
- 4. $Q \cap K = P$.

Theorem 2.11

Every prime Q in \mathcal{O}_L lies above a unique prime P in \mathcal{O}_K and for every prime P in \mathcal{O}_K there is some prime Q in \mathcal{O}_L , which lies above P.

Lemma 2.12

Let Q be a prime in \mathcal{O}_L lying above P in \mathcal{O}_K . Then \mathcal{O}_L/Q and \mathcal{O}_K/P are finite fields with $\mathcal{O}_K/P \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_L/Q$.

Let P be a prime in \mathcal{O}_K and consider in \mathcal{O}_L the prime ideal factorisation

$$P\mathcal{O}_L = \prod_{i=1}^r Q_i^{e_i}$$

with distinct primes Q_1, \ldots, Q_r .

Definition (Ramification index, inertia degree)

We call

$$e_i = e(Q_i \mid P)$$

the ramification index of Q_i above P and

$$f_i = f(Q_i \mid P) = \left[\mathcal{O}_L/Q_i : \mathcal{O}_K/P \right]$$

the inertia degree of Q_i over P. Moreover, we call \mathcal{O}_L/Q_i and \mathcal{O}_K/P residue fields of Q_i or respectively P.

Remark: Let $K \subseteq L \subseteq M$ be number fields with primes $P \subseteq Q \subseteq R$. Then

$$e(R \mid P) = e(R \mid Q)e(Q \mid P), \quad f(R \mid P) = f(R \mid Q)f(Q \mid P).$$

Example: Let $K = \mathbb{Q}$, $L = \mathbb{Q}(i)$. If p is a rational prime with $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$, then $(p) = P_1 \cdot P_2$, $P_1 = (a + ib)$, $P_2 = (a - ib)$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. We have

$$e(P_i | (p)) = 1, \quad f(P_i | (p)) = 1.$$

For a rational prime $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$ we obtain

$$e\left(\underbrace{(p)}_{\subseteq \mathbb{Z}[i]} \mid \underbrace{(p)}_{\subseteq \mathbb{Z}}\right) = 1, \quad f((p) \mid (p)) = 2.$$

For p=2 note that $(2)=(1+i)^2$ and $|\mathbb{Z}[i]|(1+i)|=2$, hence

$$e((1+i) \mid (2)) = 2, \quad f((1+i) \mid (2)) = 1.$$

In this example, independent of the rational prime p we find that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i f_i = \left[\mathbb{Q}(i) : \mathbb{Q} \right].$$

Our goal now is to show the above statement for number fields $K \subseteq L$.

Lecture 8, 24.11.2023

Norms of ideals

Definition (Norm of an ideal)

Let K be a number field and $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ a non-zero ideal. Then we define the *norm* N(I) of the ideal I as

$$N(I) := |\mathcal{O}_K/I|$$
.

Lemma 2.13

Let $I, J \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ be non-zero ideals. Then

$$N(IJ) = N(I)N(J).$$

Proposition 2.14

Let K be a number field of degree $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$ and $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ a prime with prime ideal

factorisation

$$(p) = \prod_{i=1}^r P_i^{e_i}$$

in \mathcal{O}_K and $f_i = f(P_i \mid p)$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i f_i = n.$$

Next, we will look at general number field extensions $L \subseteq K$. We start with some preparations:

Lemma 2.15

Let $0 \neq B \subseteq A \subsetneq R$ be ideals in a Dedekind domain R. Then there exists $\alpha \in K = Quot(R)$, such that

$$\alpha B \subseteq R$$
, but $\alpha B \subseteq A$.

Lemma 2.16

Let $I \neq 0$ be an ideal in \mathcal{O}_K and n = [L:K]. Then

$$N(I\mathcal{O}_L) = N(I)^n$$
.

Example: For $K = \mathbb{Q}$ we have already used this identity above, in which case it reduces to

$$N((p)) = p^n,$$

with $(p) \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ and p a rational prime.

Theorem 2.17

Let P be a prime in \mathcal{O}_K and $P\mathcal{O}_L = \prod_{i=1}^r Q_i^{e_i}$ the prime ideal factorisation in \mathcal{O}_L with distinct ideals Q_1, \ldots, Q_r and inertia degrees $f_i = f(Q_i \mid P)$. Then

$$[L:K] = \sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i f_i.$$

Example: (a) Let p be a rational prime and $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p^r}}$ for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$. By Lemma 1.31 we have

$$p = \prod_{\substack{1 \le k \le m \\ \gcd(k,m)=1}} \left(1 - \omega^k\right).$$

We show on the exercise sheet that for $p \not\mid k$

$$(1 - \omega^k) = u_k (1 - \omega)$$

for some $u_k \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$. Hence in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ we have

$$(p) = (1 - \omega)^{\varphi(p^r)}.$$

By Theorem 2.17, we deduce that $(1 - \omega)$ is a prime ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ and

$$f((1-\omega) \mid (p)) = 1$$

(b) Let α be a root of $\alpha^3 = \alpha + 1$. Then $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}$ is an extension of degree 3. One can compute $\operatorname{disc}(1, \alpha, \alpha^2) = -23$. As 23 is square-free, we find that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)} = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ with integral basis $(1, \alpha, \alpha^2)$. Moreover, in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$, we have

$$23 \cdot \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = (23, \alpha - 10)^2 (23, \alpha - 3), \tag{2.2}$$

where $(23, \alpha - 10)$ and $(23, \alpha - 3)$ are coprime. Hence (2.2) is the prime ideal factorisation of (23) in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ and

$$f((23, \alpha - 10) \mid 23) = f((23, \alpha - 3) \mid 23) = 1.$$

Remark: In these examples we have found ramification indices e > 1, which however is not the "typical" case, as we will see below.

Definition (Ramified prime)

Let P be a prime in \mathcal{O}_K . We say that P is ramified in \mathcal{O}_L , if there is a prime Q in \mathcal{O}_L , lying above P, with

$$e(Q \mid P) > 1.$$

Theorem 2.18

Let p be a rational prime (i.e. a prime number in \mathbb{Z}), which is ramified in \mathcal{O}_K . Then

$$p \mid \operatorname{disc}(\mathcal{O}_K).$$

Remark: One can even show, that $p \mid \operatorname{disc}(\mathcal{O}_K)$ imlies that p is ramified in \mathcal{O}_K .

Corollary 2.19

There are only finitely many primes P in \mathcal{O}_K which are ramified in \mathcal{O}_L .

Lecture 9, 28.11.2023

Galois extensions

In the proof of Theorem 2.18 we noted that if L/\mathbb{Q} is a Galois extension and Q a prime in \mathcal{O}_L above $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, so is the ideal $\sigma(Q)$ for all $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$.

Theorem 2.20

Let L/K be Galois and Q a prime in \mathcal{O}_L lying above the prime P in \mathcal{O}_L . Then $\sigma(Q)$ is a prime above P for every $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$. Moreover, if Q' is another prime in \mathcal{O}_L over P, then there exists an automorphism $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$ with $\sigma(Q) = Q'$.

Example: $K = \mathbb{Q}$, $L = \mathbb{Q}(i)$, $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ a prime with $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$. Write $p = a^2 + b^2$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. In $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ we have (p) = (a + ib)(a - ib).

Corollary 2.21

Let L/K be a Galois extension, P a prime in \mathcal{O}_K and Q_1, Q_2 primes in \mathcal{O}_L lying above P. Then

$$e(Q_1 \mid P) = e(Q_2 \mid P), \quad f(Q_1 \mid P) = f(Q_2 \mid P).$$

Remark: In the notation above, we hence obtain

$$P\mathcal{O}_L = (Q_1 \cdots Q_r)^e$$
 with $f(Q_i \mid P) = f(Q_i \mid P)$.

Question: Let L/K be any number fields (not necessarily Galois) and P a prime in \mathcal{O}_K . Find explicitly the factorisation

$$P\mathcal{O}_L = \prod_{i=1}^r Q_i^{e_i}$$

with Q_1, \ldots, Q_r prime.

Example: Let $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{1\}$ be odd and square-free and let $K = \mathbb{Q}$, $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$. Consider an odd prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \not\mid m$. By Theorem 2.18, p is not ramified in \mathcal{O}_K as $\operatorname{disc}(K) \in \{m, 4m\}$. Hence we either have $p\mathcal{O}_L = Q_iQ_2$ with distinct primes

 Q_1, Q_2 and $f(Q_i \mid p) = 1$ for i = 1, 2, or $p\mathcal{O}_L$ is prime with $f(p\mathcal{O}_L \mid p) = 2$.

Let Q be a prime above p. Consider the polynomial $g(X) = X^2 - m$. Then g(X) has a zero in \mathcal{O}_L and hence a zero in \mathcal{O}_L/Q .

- 1. If m is not a square modulo p, then $X^2 m$ has no zero in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_L/Q$ is a non-trivial field extension, i.e. $f(Q \mid p) = 2$.
- 2. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a solution to $a^2 m \equiv 0 \mod p$. Then in \mathcal{O}_L we have the factorisation $(a \sqrt{m})(a + \sqrt{m}) \in p\mathcal{O}_L$ and in fact

$$(p, a - \sqrt{m})(p, a + \sqrt{m}) = p\mathcal{O}_L. \tag{2.3}$$

As neither of the factors $(p, a - \sqrt{m}), (p, a + \sqrt{m})$ contains 1, and $p\mathcal{O}_L$ factors into a product of at most two primes, we have already found in (2.3) the prime ideal factorisation of $p\mathcal{O}_L$ and

$$f((p, a \pm \sqrt{m}) \mid p) = 1.$$

More generally, let L/K be number fields, say of degree n = [L : K]. Fix an element $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, such that $L = K(\alpha)$. Note, that by Proposition 1.22 the quotient $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathcal{O}_K[\alpha]$ is finite. Let $g(X) \in \mathcal{O}_K[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of α over K.

Theorem 2.22

With notation as above, let P be a prime in \mathcal{O}_K and factor g(X) in $(\mathcal{O}_K/P)[X]$ as

$$g(X) \equiv g_1(X)^{e_1} \cdots g_r(X)^{e_r} \mod P[X],$$

where $g_1(X), \ldots, g_r(X) \in \mathcal{O}_K[X]$ are monic polynomials, pairwise distinct and irreducible in $(\mathcal{O}_K/P)[X]$. Let $(p) \in P \cap \mathbb{Z}$ and assume $p \not\mid |\mathcal{O}_L/\mathcal{O}_K[\alpha]|$. Then we have the factorisation

$$P\mathcal{O}_L = \prod_{i=1}^r Q_i^{i_i},$$

where $Q_i = (P, g_i(\alpha))$ is a prime and $f(Q_i \mid P) = \deg g_i$ for $1 \le i \le r$.

Lecture 10, 01.12.2023

Example: Let α be a root of $\alpha^3 - \alpha - 1 = 0$. We have from earlier that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]} = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ and $\operatorname{disc}(\mathbb{Q}[\alpha]) = -23$. Modulo 23 we find that

$$X^3 - X - 1 \equiv (X - 10)^2(X - 3)$$

and hence by Theorem 2.22

$$23\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = (23, \alpha - 10)^2(23, \alpha - 3).$$

3 Number fields - Dirichlet's unit theorem, class groups and lattices

3.1 Finiteness of the ideal class group

Let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . We will keep this notation throughout this chapter.

Recall: We call two non-zero ideals $I, J \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ equivalent, if $\exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_K \setminus \{0\}$, such that $\alpha I = \beta J$, and we write $Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)$ for the group of equivalence classes under multiplication.

Question: Is $Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)$ finite?

Theorem 3.1

For every number field K there is a constant C_K , such that every non-zero ideal I contains an element $\alpha \in I \setminus \{0\}$ with

$$|N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)| \le C_K N(I).$$

Corollary 3.2

Let K and C_K be as in Theorem 3.1. Then every ideal class $C \in Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)$ contains an ideal I with $N(I) \leq C_K$.

Corollary 3.3

For every number field K we have $|Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)| < \infty$.

Example: Let $K = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{2}]$, i.e. $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. As in the proof of Theorem 3.1, we can take $C_K = (1+\sqrt{2})^2$ (using the integral basis $(1,\sqrt{2})$). Note that $(1+\sqrt{2})^2 < 6$. We consider the prime ideals in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$, which lie above 2, 3, 5. Note that $2\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}] = (\sqrt{2})^2$ and that (3), (5) are prime ideals (see Theorem 2.22, noting that $X^2 - 2$ remains

irreducible modulo 3, 5). Hence $\left|Cl(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}])\right| = 1$.

Remark: In the example above and other examples, we would like to take C_K as small as possible.

Our next goal will be to find improvements for the value of C_K using results from the geometry of numbers.

Idea: Let K be a number field of degree $n, \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_r : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ its real embeddings and $\tau_1, \bar{\tau}_1, \tau_2, \bar{\tau}_2, \ldots, \tau_s, \bar{\tau}_s : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ its different complex embeddings, where we sort them into pairs $\tau_i, \bar{\tau}_i$, which differ by complex conjugations. Then n = r + 2s and we can define an injective map

$$\varphi: K \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \alpha \mapsto (\sigma_1(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_r(\alpha), \Re \tau_1(\alpha) \Im \tau_1(\alpha), \dots, \Re \tau_s(\alpha), \Im \tau_s(\alpha)).$$

Let $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$ be an integral basis of \mathcal{O}_K . Then we can view $\varphi(\mathcal{O}_K) = \mathbb{Z}\varphi(\alpha_1) + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\varphi(\alpha_n) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ as an additive group. Also, if $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ is a non-zero ideal, then I is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n, say with basis $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n)$. Then

$$\varphi(I) = \mathbb{Z}\varphi(\beta_1) + \dots + \mathbb{Z}\varphi(\beta_n) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

and we can interpret $\varphi(I)$ as a *lattice* in \mathbb{R}^n . In order to improve upon C_K in Theorem 3.1, we would like to find a "small" non-zero element in this lattice.

Lecture 11, 05.12.2023

3.2 Geometry of numbers

Motivation: Consider a lattice L, e.g. $\mathbb{Z}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and a "nice" subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, e.g. a ball of radius r. When does C contain a point in $L \setminus \{0\}$?

Definition (Lattice)

Let $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be linearly independent vectors (over \mathbb{R}). Then we call the group

$$L = \{z_1 v_1 + \dots + z_n v_n \mid z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

a (full) lattice in \mathbb{R}^n and v_1, \ldots, v_n a basis of L. We define the determinant d(L) of the lattice L as

$$d(L) = |\det(v_1, \dots, v_n)|.$$

Remark: As additive groups we have $L \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$. If $x \in L$ and v_1, \ldots, v_n as above, then there is exactly one way to write x as $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i v_i$ with $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Notation: We write $M_{n\times n}(\mathbb{Z})$ for the set of $n\times n$ matrices with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} . and $GL(n,\mathbb{Z}) = \{A \in M_{n\times n}(\mathbb{Z}) \mid \det(M) = \pm 1\}$ for the group of invertible matrices in $M_{n\times n}(\mathbb{Z})$.

Lemma 3.4

Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice and $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$, $\{w_1, \ldots, w_n\}$ bases of L. Then there exists a matrix $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{Z})$, say $A = (a_{i,j})_{1 \le i,j \le n}$, such that

$$w_i = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{i,j} v_j, \quad 1 \le i \le n.$$

Moreover,

$$|\det(v_1,\ldots,v_n)| = |\det(w_1,\ldots,w_n)|.$$

Remark: In particular, the determinant d(L) of a lattice $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is well-defined.

Next, we want to compare the relative "size" of two lattices $M \subseteq L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $L = \{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i v_i \mid z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and $M = \{\sum_{i=1}^n t_i w_i \mid t_1, \dots, t_n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ with $M \subseteq L$. Then $w_i \in L \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ and hence there exists an $a_{i,j} \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $w_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} v_j \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$. Let $A = (a_{i,j})_{1 \leq i,j \leq n} \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{Z})$.

Definition (Index of a sublattice)

In the notation above, we define the index [L:M] of M in L as

$$[L:M] = |\det(A)|.$$

Remark: 1. The index [L:M] does not depend on the choice of bases of L, M. By $w_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{i,j} v_j$, we have

$$\underbrace{|\det(w_1,\ldots,w_n)|}_{d(M)} = |\det(A)| \underbrace{|\det(v_1,\ldots,v_n)|}_{d(L)},$$

and hence $[L:M] = \frac{d(M)}{d(L)}$.

2. One can show that [L:M] = |L/M|, where L/M is the quotient group.

Example: Let e_1, \ldots, e_n be the unit vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , i.e. $e_i = (0, \ldots, 0, 1, 0, \ldots, 0)$.

- 1. $\mathbb{Z}^n = \{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i z_i \mid z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a lattice with $d(\mathbb{Z}^n) = 1$. Let $d_1, \dots, d_n \in \mathbb{N}$ and set $w_i = d_i e_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $M = \{\sum_{i=1}^n z_i w_i \mid z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{Z}\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$ is a sublattice with $d(M) = |\det(d_1 e_1, \dots, d_n e_n)| = d_1 \cdots d_n$ and $[\mathbb{Z}^n : M] = d_1 \cdots d_n$. Hence, as abelian groups, $\mathbb{Z}^n/M \cong \mathbb{Z}/d_1\mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}/d_n\mathbb{Z}$.
- 2. $L = \left\{ \frac{a_1}{2}e_1 + \dots + \frac{a_n}{2}e_n \,\middle|\, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a_1 \equiv \dots \equiv a_n \bmod 2 \right\}$ is a lattice in \mathbb{R}^n with basis $e_1, \dots, e_{n-1}, \frac{e_1 + \dots + e_n}{2}$.

Convex bodies

Definition (Convex set)

We call a subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ convex if for all $x, y \in C$ the line segment

$$\{tx + (1-t)y \mid 0 < t < 1\}$$

is contained in C as well.

Definition (Central symmetric convex body)

A subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *central symmetric convex body* if it has the following properties:

- (a) C is compact (i.e. closed and bounded) and convex. (convex body)
- (b) 0 is in the interior of C. (central)
- (c) If $x \in C$, then $-x \in C$. (symmetric)

Example: 1. Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a central symmetric convex body and $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ an invertible linear map. Then A(C) is a central symmetric convex body.

2. The norm $||x||_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ leads to the *n*-dimensional unit ball

$$B_n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x||_2 \le 1\}.$$

 $||x||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i|$ induces the *n*-dimensional unit cube

$$K_n = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \,\middle| \, \max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| \le 1 \right\}.$$

 $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ give the *n*-dimensional unit octahedron

$$O_n = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \left| \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \le 1 \right\} \right\}.$$

Lemma 3.5

Let $\|\cdot\|: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n_{\geq 0}$ be a norm. Then $B_{\|\cdot\|} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$ is a central symmetric convex body.

So far we have found that every norm on \mathbb{R}^n "produces" a central symmetric convex body in \mathbb{R}^n . Is there a one-to-one correspondence, i.e. are these all the different classes of central symmetric convex bodies?

Remark: Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a central symmetric convex body. For $\lambda \geq 0$, set $\lambda C = \{\lambda x \mid x \in C\}$. If $\lambda > 0$, then λC is again a central symmetric body. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define $\|x\|_C = \min\{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \mid x \in \lambda C\}$.

Lemma 3.6

Using the same notation as above, the following statements hold:

- 1. $\|\cdot\|_C$ is well-defined.
- 2. $\|\cdot\|_C$ defines a norm on \mathbb{R}^n .
- 3. $\lambda C = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x||_C < \lambda \} \text{ for } \lambda > 0.$

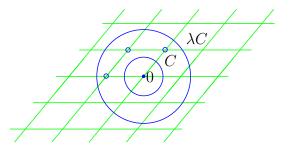
In particular, we recover C via $C = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ||x||_C \le 1\}.$

Minkowski's¹ first convex body theorem

Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice and $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a central symmetric convex body. When is $C \cap L \neq \{0\}$, i.e. when does C contain more lattice points than just 0?

Theorem 3.7 (Minkowski's first convex body theorem, 1896)

With the same notation as above, let $vol(C) \geq 2^n d(L)$. Then $C \cap L \neq \{0\}$, i.e. there exists a $x \in L \setminus \{0\}$ with $x \in C$.



¹after Hermann Minkowski (1864 - 1909), a German mathematician

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Notation: For a lattice $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with basis v_1, \ldots, v_n , we define

$$F = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i v_i \middle| 0 \le x_i \le 1 \ \forall 1 \le i > n \right\}$$

as the fundamental parallelepiped for L. This is the fundamental domain for \mathbb{R}^n/L . (see below)

Example: $[0,1)^n$ is the fundamental parallelepiped for \mathbb{Z}^n .

Remark: A fundamental parallelepiped depends on the choice of basis v_1, \ldots, v_n , but we have $vol(F) = |\det(v_1, \ldots, v_n)| = d(L)$.

Lemma 3.8

Using the notation as above and for $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we write $u + F = \{u + x \mid x \in F\}$. Then

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \bigcup_{u \in L} (u + F)$$

is a disjunction.

Remark: Recall Landau's O-notation: Let $f, g, h : \mathbb{R}_{\geq x_0} \to \mathbb{R}$ for some $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. We write f(x) = g(x) + g(x) = g(x) + g(x) if there exists $x_1 \geq x_0$ and $x_1 \geq x_0 = 0$, such that

$$|f(x) - g(x)| \le Ch(x) \quad \forall x > x_1.$$

Example: $x^{-1} = O(1), \ \lfloor x \rfloor = x + O(1), \ (x+a)^n = x^n + O(x^{n-1})$ for any $a \in \mathbb{R}, \ n \in \mathbb{N}, \ (x+1)^{\frac{1}{2}} = x^{\frac{1}{2}} + O(x^{-\frac{1}{2}})$

Lemma 3.9

Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice and $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a central symmetric convex body. Then, as $\lambda \to \infty$, we have

$$|\lambda C \cap L| = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(C)}{d(L)} \lambda^n + O(\lambda^{n-1}).$$

Question: Do we need C to be central symmetric or convex in Minkowski's theorem?

Minkowski's second convex body theorem

Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice and $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a central symmetric convex body. When is $L \cap C \neq \{0\}$?

Definition (Successive minima)

We let

$$\lambda_1 = \min \left\{ \lambda > 0 \, | \, \lambda C \cap L \neq \{0\} \right\}$$

and for $2 \le i \le n$ we define

 $\lambda_i = \min \{ \lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \mid \lambda C \cap L \text{ contains at least } i \text{ linearly independent points} \}.$

We call $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ the *successive minima* of L with respect to C.

Lemma 3.10

Let $L, C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be as above. The successive minima $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ of L with respect to C are well defined and we have $0 < \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \cdots \le \lambda_n < \infty$. Moreover, there exist linearly independent elements $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in L$ with $v_i \in \lambda_i C \ \forall \ 1 \le i \le n$.

Caveat: The vectors v_1, \ldots, v_n from Lemma 3.10 may not be a basis of L. Let

$$L = \left\{ \frac{x_1 e_1 + \dots + x_n e_n}{2} \,\middle|\, x_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \ x_1 \equiv \dots \equiv x_n \bmod 2 \right\}.$$

For n > 4 and $C = B_n$ the unit ball, we have

$$\left\| \frac{e_1 + \dots + e_n}{2} \right\| = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{n} > 1,$$

but $||e_1||_2 = \cdots = ||e_n||_2 = 1$.

Question: Is there a relation between d(L) and the product $\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n$?

Example: The lattice $L = \mathbb{Z}d_1e_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}d_ne_n$ with $0 < d_1 \leq \cdots \leq n_n$ has with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ the successive minima $d_1 \leq \cdots \leq d_n$ and $d_1 \cdots d_n = d(L)$.

Theorem 3.11 (Minkowski's second convex body theorem, 1910) Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice, $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a central symmetric convex body and $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ successive minima of L with respect to C. Then

$$\frac{1}{n!} \frac{2^n d(L)}{\operatorname{vol}(C)} \le \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n \le \frac{2^n d(L)}{\operatorname{vol}(C)}$$

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12.12.2023 **Remark:** The upper bound is sharp. Take for example $L = \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $C = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid ||x||_{\infty} \leq 1\}$, then $\operatorname{vol}(C) = 2^n$, d(L) = 1, $\lambda_1 = \cdots = \lambda_n = 1$. The following example shows that the lower bound is sharp as well.

Example: Let $0 < \lambda_1 \le \cdots \le \lambda_n$, $L = \mathbb{Z}^n$, $C = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i | x_i | \le 1\}$. Then L has successive minima $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ with respect to C and $\operatorname{vol}(C) = \frac{2^n}{n!} (\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n)^{-1}$.

Minkowski's second convex body theorem implies Minkowski's first convex body theorem. Let L, C be as above and assume that $\operatorname{vol}(C) \geq 2^n d(L)$. Then

$$\lambda_1^n \le \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n \le \frac{2^n d(L)}{\text{vol}(C)} \le 1$$
,

i.e. $\lambda_1 \leq 1$ and $C \cap L \neq \{0\}$.

Remark: Theorem 3.11 is invariant under linear transformation. Let $L, C, \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be as above and $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ a linear invertible map. Then $\phi(L)$ is a lattice, $\phi(C)$ is a central symmetric convex body and one can show that $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are the successive minima of $\phi(L)$ with respect to $\phi(C)$ as for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have $||x||_C = ||\phi(x)||_{\phi(C)}$. We note that

$$\frac{d(\phi(L))}{\operatorname{vol}(\phi(C))} = \frac{|\det \phi| d(L)}{|\det \phi| \operatorname{vol}(C)} = \frac{d(L)}{\operatorname{vol}(C)} \,.$$

This means it suffices to prove Theorem 3.11 for $L = \mathbb{Z}^n$.

Lemma 3.12

Let $v_1, \ldots, v_r \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then $S = \{\sum_{i=1}^r x_i v_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}, \sum_{i=1}^r |x_i| \leq 1\}$ is the smallest convex subset in \mathbb{R}^n that is symmetric about 0 and contains v_1, \ldots, v_r . I.e. S is symmetric about 0 and if $R \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex, symmetric about 0 and $v_1, \ldots, v_r \in R$, then $S \subseteq R$.

Theorem 3.13

Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice. Then there exist $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in L$, such that v_1, \ldots, v_n are a

basis of L and

$$||v_1||_2 \cdots ||v_n||_2 \le \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{4}} d(L).$$

Remark: This is a weaker version of the upper bound in Theorem 3.11. Our constant $\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{4}}$ is in general larger than 2^n (and is for large n actually pretty far off, as the exponent grows in n^2), and each successive minimum λ_i is bounded above by $||v_i||_2$, so they might be even smaller.

Corollary 3.14

Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be the successive minima of a lattice $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with respect to B_n . Then

$$\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n \le \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{4}} d(L).$$

Corollary 3.15

Let $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be an ellipsoid, symmetric about 0 and $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a lattice. Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be the successive minima of L with respect to E. Then

$$\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n \leq \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{4}} V(n) \frac{d(L)}{\operatorname{vol}(E)},$$

where we write $V(n) = \operatorname{vol}(B_n)$.

Theorem (Jordan's² theorem)

Let $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a central symmetric convex body. Then there exists and ellipsoid $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with

$$E \subseteq C \subseteq \sqrt{n}E$$
.

Corollary 3.16

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a constant c(N) > 0 with the following property: Let $L \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice, $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ a central symmetric convex body, and $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ the successive minima of L with respect to C. Then

$$\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_n \le c(n) \frac{d(L)}{\operatorname{vol}(C)}$$
.

²after M. E. Camille Jordan (1838 - 1922), a French mathematician

Let $v_1 \in L \setminus \{0\}$ be such that $||v_1||_2 = \lambda_1$, where λ_1 is the first successive minimum of L with respect to B_n . Fix an orthonormal basis $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n , such that $e_1 = \lambda_1^{-1}v_1$. Consider the projection $\rho : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \mapsto (x_2, \ldots, x_n)$. Let $L' = \rho(L)$, e.g. if $L = \mathbb{Z}d_1e_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}d_ne_n$, then $L' = \mathbb{Z}d_2e_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}d_ne_n$.

Lemma 3.17

Using the same notation as above, $L' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is a lattice and if v_1, \ldots, v_n is a basis of L then $\rho(v_2), \ldots, \rho(v_n)$ is a basis of L'.

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Lemma 3.18

Let $\{v_2', \ldots, v_n'\}$ be a basis of L' and $v_2, \ldots, v_n \in L$ with $\rho(v_i) = v_i'$ for $2 \le i \le n$. Then $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is a basis of L.

Lemma 3.19

$$d(L) = \lambda_1 d(L')$$
.

Lemma 3.20

Let $v' \in L'$. Then there exists $v \in L$, such that $\rho(v) = v'$ and

$$||v||_2^2 \le \frac{4}{3}||v'||_2^2.$$

Remark: We always have $\prod_{i=1}^{n} ||v_i||_2 \ge d(L)$.

3.3 Bounds for class numbers

For the rest of this section, let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K .

Question: Can we improve upon our earlier upper bounds on $|Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)|$?

Idea: We could interpret the non-zero ideal $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ as a lattice and apply Minkowski's first convex body theorem to find an element $\alpha \in I \setminus \{0\}$ of small norm.

More concretely, let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_r : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the real embeddings and $\tau_1, \bar{\tau}_1, \ldots, \tau_s, \bar{\tau}_s :$

 $K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the complex embeddings of K. Note that r+2s=n, where $n=[K:\mathbb{Q}]$. Define the map

$$\varphi: K \to \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \alpha \mapsto (\sigma_1(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_r(\alpha), \Re \tau_1(\alpha), \Im \tau_1(\alpha), \dots, \Re \tau_s(\alpha), \Im \tau_s(\alpha)).$$

Lemma 3.21

The image $\varphi(\mathcal{O}_K) =: \Lambda$ is a (full) lattice in \mathbb{R}^n with determinant

$$d(\Lambda) = \frac{1}{2^s} \sqrt{|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K|}.$$

Remark: If I is a non-zero ideal, then the same argument shows that $\varphi(I)$ is a sublattice of \mathcal{O}_K . More precisely, $d(\varphi(I)) = d(\varphi(\mathcal{O}_K)) \underbrace{|\varphi(\mathcal{O}_K)/\varphi(I)|}_{=|\mathcal{O}_K/I|}$, i.e.

$$d(\varphi(I)) = \frac{1}{2^s} \sqrt{|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K|} N(I).$$

Corollary 3.22

 $\varphi(K)$ is dense in \mathbb{R}^n .

Our next goal is for a non-zero ideal $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ to find a $\alpha \in I \setminus \{0\}$, such that $|N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)|$ is small. We write $\varphi(\alpha) = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = y_1 \cdot y_2 \cdots y_r \cdot (y_{r+1}^2 + y_{r+2}^2) \cdots (y_{n-1}^2 + y_n^2).$$

The problem here is that the function $N: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is not a norm on \mathbb{R}^n .

Idea: Construct a central symmetric convex body $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, such that $x \in A$ implies that $|N(x)| \leq 1$.

We define

$$A = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \,\middle|\, |x_1| + \dots + |x_r| + 2\left(\sqrt{x_{r+1}^2 + x_{r+2}^2} + \dots + \sqrt{x_{n-1}^2 + x_n^2}\right) \le n \right\}$$

Lemma 3.23

A is a central symmetric convex body with the property that $x \in A$ implies $|N(x)| \le 1$. Moreover,

$$\operatorname{vol}(A) = \frac{n^n}{n!} 2^r \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^s.$$

Theorem 3.24

Let $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ be a non-zero ideal. Then there exists an $\alpha \in I \setminus \{0\}$ with

$$|N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)| \le \frac{n!}{n^n} \left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^s \sqrt{|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K|} N(I).$$

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Corollary 3.25

Every ideal class $C \in Cl(\mathcal{O}_K)$ contains a representative I with

$$N(I) \le \frac{n!}{n^n} \left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^s \sqrt{|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K|}.$$

Corollary 3.26

If $K \neq \mathbb{Q}$ (i.e. $n \neq 1$), then

$$|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K| > 1$$
.

Example: We try to find the class group of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, i.e. we have $K = \mathbb{Q}[\sqrt{-5}]$, $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$, n = 2, s = 1. By Corollary 3.26 it is sufficient to consider ideals $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ with

$$N(I) \le \frac{2!}{4} \frac{4}{\pi} \underbrace{\sqrt{|\operatorname{disc}(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}])|}}_{=2\sqrt{5}} = \frac{4\sqrt{5}}{\pi} \le 3,$$

i.e. ideals lying above 2. Recall that

$$2\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] = (2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})^2$$

and $(2, 1 + \sqrt{-5})$ is not principal. Hence

$$|Cl(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}])| = 2.$$

3.4 Dirichlet's unit theorem

Let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . What can we say about the group of units \mathcal{O}_K^* ?

Example: • For $K = \mathbb{Q}$ we have $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{\pm 1\}$, for $K = \mathbb{Q}(i)$ we have $\mathbb{Z}[i]^* = \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$. In the exercises we have seen that \mathcal{O}_K^* is finite for all imaginary quadratic number fields K.

• If $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ with $d \in \mathbb{N}$ square-free, then the Pell equation $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$ has

a non-trivial solution (x_0, y_0) and $x_0 + \sqrt{d}y_0$ generates infinitely many units in \mathcal{O}_K

Let $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}], \sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\tau_1, \bar{\tau}_1, \dots, \tau_s, \bar{\tau}_s : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the real and complex embeddings of K. As in Section 3.3, let $\varphi : K \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be defined by

$$\alpha \mapsto (\sigma_1(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_r(\alpha), \Re \tau_1(\alpha), \Im \tau_1(\alpha), \dots, \Re \tau_s(\alpha), \Im \tau_s(\alpha)).$$

Definition

In the notation above we define the maps $\log : \varphi(K \setminus \{0\}) \to \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ as

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto \left(\log |x_1|, \dots, \log |x_r|, \log \left(x_{r+1}^2 + x_{r+2}^2\right), \dots, \log \left(x_{n-1}^2 + x_n^2\right)\right)$$

and $\psi : \mathbb{K} \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ as $\psi = \log \circ \varphi$.

First properties of ψ :

(a) For $\alpha, \beta \in K \setminus \{0\}$ we have

$$\psi(\alpha\beta) = \psi(\alpha)\psi(\beta).$$

(b) Let $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ be the hyperplane given by $y_1 + \cdots + y_{r+s} = 0$. Then we have $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*) \subseteq H$, because every $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$ satisfies

$$1 = |N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)| = |\sigma_1(\alpha)| \cdots |\sigma_r(\alpha)| |\tau_1(\alpha)|^2 \cdots |\tau_s(\alpha)|^2,$$

i.e.
$$0 = \log |\sigma_1(\alpha)| + \cdots + \log |\tau_s(\alpha)|^2$$
.

(c) Let $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ be a bounded subset. Then $\log^{-1}(B) \cap \varphi(\mathcal{O}_K \setminus \{0\})$ is finite.

Our next goal is to study the image $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*) \subseteq H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$. Note that by (a) above, $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*)$ is an (additive) subgroup of H.

Lemma 3.27

Let $G \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a subgroup, such that every bounded subset of G is finite. Then there exist over R linearly independent vectors $v_1, \dots, v_d \in \mathbb{R}^m$ for some $d \leq m$ such that

$$G = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i v_i \,\middle|\, x_1, \dots, x_d \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

Corollary 3.28

 $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*)$ is a lattice in some linear subspace of H.

Next we will show that $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*)$ spans H, i.e. $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*)$ is a lattice of full rank in H.

Lemma 3.29

Let $1 \le k \le r + s$ and $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K \setminus \{0\}$. Write $\psi(\alpha) = (a_1, \dots, a_{r+s})$. Then there exists $\beta \in \mathcal{O}_K \setminus \{0\}$ with

$$|N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta)| \le \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^2 \sqrt{|\operatorname{disc} \mathcal{O}_K|}$$

and with the property that if $\psi(\beta) = (b_1 \dots, b_{r+s})$, then $b_j < a_j$ for all $1 \le j \le r+s$, $j \ne k$

Lemma 3.30

There exist units $u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s} \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$ with the following property: If

$$\psi(u_l) = (u_{l,1}, \dots, u_{l,r+s}) ,$$

then $u_{l,j} < 0$ for all $j \neq l$.

Remark: If we construct a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \psi(u_1) \\ \vdots \\ \psi(u_l) \\ \vdots \\ \psi(u_{r+s}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1,1} & \dots & u_{1,l} & \dots & u_{1,r+s} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ u_{l,1} & \dots & u_{l,l} & \dots & u_{l,r+s} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{r+s,1} & \dots & u_{r+s,l} & \dots & u_{r+s,r+s} \end{pmatrix}$$

Lemma 3.30 tells us that the diagonals are positive while all other entries are negative.

Next we will let u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s} be units as in Lemma 3.30. We would lke to show Lecture 16, that $\psi(u_1), \ldots, \psi(u_{r+s})$ span H.

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Lemma 3.31

Let $A = (a_{ij})_{1 \leq i,j \leq m} \in Mat_{m \times m}(\mathbb{R})$ and assume the following properties:

(i)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{ij} = 0$$
 for all $1 \le i \le m$

(ii)
$$a_{ii} > 0$$
 for all $1 \le i \le m$

(iii)
$$a_{ij} < 0$$
 for $i \neq j$, $1 \leq i, j \leq m$

Then rank(A) = m - 1.

Corollary 3.32

The image $\psi(\mathcal{O}_K^*) \subseteq H$ is a lattice of rank r + s - 1.

Theorem 3.33 (Dirichlet's³ unit theorem)

Let K be a number field with r real and 2s complex embeddings and \mathcal{O}_K its ring of integers. Then there exist units $u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s-1} \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$, such that every unit $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$ can be written uniquely in the form

$$u = \mu \cdot u_1^{e_1} \cdot u_2^{e_2} \cdots u_{r+s-1}^{e_{r+s-1}}$$

with $\mu \in K$ a root of unity and $e_1, \ldots, e_{r+s-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark: We call u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s-1} as in Theorem 3.33 a fundamental system of units.

- **Example:** 1. If K is a cubic field with exactly one real embedding, then the only roots of unity in K are ± 1 (as they are the only roots on unity in \mathbb{R}). Hence there exists a fundamental unit $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$, such that $\mathcal{O}_K^* = \{\pm u^k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.
 - 2. The only number fields with a finite group of units \mathcal{O}_K^* are \mathbb{Q} and imaginary quadratic number fields.

³after Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet (1805 - 1859), a German mathematician

4 Diophantine Approximation

4.1 Introduction

Motivation: Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, how well can we approximate α with rational numbers of small denominator? Given $\varepsilon > 0$, what is the "smallest" fraction $\frac{x}{y}$ (i.e. y small), such that $\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| < \varepsilon$, $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $y \in \mathbb{N}$?

Theorem 4.1 (Dirichlet, 1842)

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $Q \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| \leq \frac{1}{yQ}$, $0 < y \leq Q$ and with $\gcd(x, y) = 1$.

Corollary 4.2

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. Then there exist infinitely many pairs $(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, such that y > 0, gcd(x,y) = 1 and $\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| \leq \frac{1}{y^2}$.

Theorem 4.3 (Dirichlet, 1842)

(a) Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. For all $Q \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a tuple $x_1, \ldots, x_n, y \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ with $0 \le y \le Q^n$, such that

$$|\alpha_i y - x_i| \le \frac{1}{Q} \quad \forall \, 1 \le i \le n \,.$$

(b) Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$, not all in \mathbb{Q} . Then there exist inifinitely many tuples $(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ with $gcd(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y) = 1$, y > 0, such that

$$\left|\alpha_i - \frac{x_i}{y}\right| \le \frac{1}{y^{1+\frac{1}{n}}} \quad \forall \, 1 \le i \le n \,.$$

Another application of Minkowski's convex body theorem: Rational points close to hyperplanes.

Theorem 4.4

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$, such that $1, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then

there exist infinitely many tuples $(x, y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ with $y_1, \dots, y_n) \neq (0, \dots, 0)$ and

 $\left|\alpha_1 y_1 + \dots + \alpha_n y_n - x\right| \le \left(\max_{1 \le i \le n} |y_i|\right)^{-n}.$

An open problem: Recall the notation $||y|| = \min_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} |y - m|$ for $y \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. By Dirichlet's theorem there exist infinitely many $y \in \mathbb{N}$ with $y||\alpha y|| \leq 1$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then there exist infinitely many $y \in \mathbb{N}$ with $y||\alpha y|| ||\beta y|| \leq 1$.

Conjecture (Littlewood¹ conjecture)

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\liminf_{y \to \infty} y \|\alpha y\| \|\beta y\| = 0.$$

Borel² showed in 1909 that the exceptional set has Lebesgue measure 0. Einsiedler³, Katok⁴ and Lindenstrauss⁵ showed in 2006 that the exceptional set also has Hausdorff dimension 0.

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Question: Can we do better than Corollary 4.2?

Example: Let $A > \sqrt{5}$ and $\alpha = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. Then the inequality $|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}| \le \frac{1}{Ay^2}$ has only finitely many solutions $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$.

For $\delta > 0$, consider the inequality

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| \le \frac{1}{y^{2+\delta}}\tag{4.1}$$

in x, y > 0, $\gcd(x, y) = 1$. For what α does (4.1) have inifinitely many solutions? Khinchin⁶ showed in 1927 that the set of such α has Lebesgue measure 0.

Example: Let $a \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 3}$ and set $\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{-a^{2n}}$. The claim is that there exist infinitely many $(x, y \in \mathbb{Z}^2)$ with y > 0 and gcd(x, y) = 1, such that

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| \le \frac{1}{y^a} \,.$$

¹after John Edensor Littlewood (1885 - 1977), a British mathematician

²Émile Borel (1871 - 1956), a French mathematician and politician

³Manfred Einsiedler (*1973), an Austrian mathematician

⁴Anatole Katok (1944-2018), an American mathematician

⁵Elon Lindenstrauss (*1970), an Israeli mathematician

⁶Aleksandr Khinchin (1894 - 1959), a Soviet mathematician

4.1. Introduction Lecture 17

Idea: To construct such well-appropriable numbers we pick α in the decimal expansion (or use any other base) with very few digits 1, which get more and more sparse, and set all other digits equal to zero.

Theorem (Roth⁷, 1955)

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ be an algebraic number and $\delta > 0$. Then there are only finitely many tuples $(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ with y > 0, $\gcd(x,y) = 1$ and

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{x}{y}\right| \le \frac{1}{y^{2+\delta}} \,.$$

Roth's theorem implies that $\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{-a^{2n}}$ for $a \geq 3$ is transcendental.

Definition (Linearly independent complex numbers)

We call a set $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} if the relation $x_1\alpha_1 + \cdots + x_n\alpha_n = 0$ with $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{Q}$ implies $x_1 = \cdots = x_n = 0$.

Theorem (Schmidt⁸, 1971)

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ algebraic such that $\{1, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Let $\delta > 0$. Then there exist only finitely many tuples $(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ with y > 0, $\gcd(x_1, \ldots, x_n, y) = 1$ and

$$\left|\alpha_i - \frac{x_i}{y}\right| \le y^{-1 - \frac{1}{n}} \quad \forall \, 1 \le i \le n \,.$$

Theorem (Subspace Theorem, Schmidt, 1972)

Let n > 2 and $L_i = \alpha_{i1}x_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{in}x_n$, $1 \le i \le n$, be n linearly independent linear forms with coefficients in $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. Let $C, \delta > 0$. Then the solution of the inequality

$$|L_1 \cdot L_2 \cdots L_n| \le C \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}^{-\delta}$$

with $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ are contained in a finite union of proper linear subspaces of \mathbb{Q}^n .

⁷Klaus Roth (1925 - 2015), a British mathematician

⁸Wolfgang M. Schmidt (*1933), an Austrian mathematician

Example: Let α be an algebraic number and consider the linear forms $ax_2 - x_1$, x_2 .

$$|ax_2 - x_1||x_2| \le \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|\}^{-\delta}$$

The application of the Subspace Theorem leads us back to Roth's theorem.

4.2 Transcendence

Definition (Algebraic and transcendental numbers)

We call $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ algebraic (over \mathbb{Q}) if there exists a non-zero polynomial $P(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $P(\alpha) = 0$. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is not algebraic, then we call it transcendental.

Notation: We write $\overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \{ \alpha \in \mathbb{C} \mid \alpha \text{ is algebraic} \}.$

Definition (Algebraically independent numbers)

We call $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{C}$ algebraically independent if there is no non-zero polynomial $P \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}[x_1, \ldots, x_r]$ with $P(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r) = 0$.

Example: 1. $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is transcendental if and only if α is algebraically independent.

- 2. e is transcendental.
- 3. $\alpha_1 = e$, $\alpha_2 = e^2$ are linearly independent over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ but not algebraically independent as $\alpha_1^2 \alpha_2 = 0$.

Definition (Transcendence degree, trancendence basis)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$. We define the transcendence degree of S as the maximal number $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ (or $t = \infty$), such that S contains t algebraically independent elements. We denote it by trdeg S. If $B \subseteq S$ is an algebraically independent subset with $|B| = \operatorname{trdeg} S$, then we call B a transcendence basis of S.

Example: 1. trdeg $\mathbb{Q}(e) = 1$ and $\{e\}$ and $\{e^2\}$ are examples of a transcendence basis for $\mathbb{Q}(e)$.

2. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ with transcendence basis $B = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r\}$. Then every $x \in S$ is algebraic over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r)$.

Lemma 4.5

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and assume that there exists a sequence of tuples of integers $(x_{n,n}) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, with $y_n > 0$, $\frac{x_n}{y_n} \neq \alpha \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and

$$|x_n - \alpha y_n| \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

Then $\alpha \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Theorem 4.6

 $e \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. Write $e = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}$. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ set $x_n = n! \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!}$ and $y_n = n!$. Then

$$0 < |x_n - ey_n| = n! \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)(n+2)} + \dots$$

$$< \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{q=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^q} = \frac{1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{n+1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \to 0 \text{ for } n \to \infty$$

Theorem 4.7

The number $\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 10^{-k!}$ is transcendental.

Transcendence of e

For $z \in \mathbb{C}$ we set $e^z = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$.

Theorem 4.8 (Hermite⁹, 1873)

e is transcendental.

For a polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ we define the integral transform $F(z) = \int_0^z e^{z-u} f(u) du$, where $z \in \mathbb{C}$, and we integrate over the line segment $\{tz \mid 0 \le t \le 1\}$, i.e.

$$F(z) = \int_0^1 e^{z(1-t)} f(tz) z dt.$$

⁹Charles Hermite (1822 - 1901), a French mathematician

Example: If f(u) = u, then

$$F(z) = \int_0^1 e^{z(1-z)} z^2 t dt = \left[\frac{1}{z} e^{z(1-t)} z^2 t \right]_0^1 + \int_0^1 \frac{1}{z} e^{z(1-t)} z^2 dt$$
$$= -z + \left[-e^{z(1-t)} \right]_0^1 = e^z - z - 1$$

Lemma 4.9

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be of degree m. Then

$$F(z) = e^z \left(\sum_{j=0}^m f^{(j)}(0) \right) - \sum_{j=0}^m f^{(j)}(z).$$

Lemma 4.10

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

$$|F(z)| \le |z|e^{|z|} \sup_{\substack{u \in \mathbb{C} \\ |u| \le |z|}} |f(u)|.$$

Now, assume that e is algebraic. Then there exists $q_0, \ldots, q_n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0, q_n \neq 0$, such that

$$q_0 + q_1 e + \dots + q_n e^n = 0 (4.2)$$

Lemma 4.11

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ be of degree n and q_0, \ldots, q_n as in (4.2). Then

$$\sum_{a=0}^{n} q_a F(a) = -\sum_{a=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m} q_a f^{(j)}(a).$$
(4.3)

Lecture 18, Our next step will be to construct a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, such that $|F(0)|, \ldots, |F(n)|$ 12.01.2024 are very small and the right-hand side of (4.3) is a non-zero integer.

Let p be a prime number to be chosen later. Define

$$f(X) = \frac{1}{(p-1)!} X^{p-1} ((X-1)(X-2) \dots (X_n))^{p}.$$

Lemma 4.12

Let f be as above. Then we have

(i)
$$f^{(p-1)}(0) = ((-1)^n n!)^p$$

(ii) $f^{(j)}(a)$ if either $a \in \{1, ..., n\}$ and $0 \le j \le p-1$ or a=0 and $0 \le j \le p-2$

4.2. Transcendence Lecture 18

(iii) Let $0 \le a \le n$ and $j \ge p$. Then $f^{(j)}(a) \equiv 0 \mod p$.

Lemma 4.13

Let $p > |q_0 n|$. Then

$$M := \sum_{a=0}^{n} q_a F(a) \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}.$$

Lemma 4.14

Let q_0, \ldots, q_n and M, p like above. Then $|M| \to 0$ for $p \to \infty$.

We summarise: If $q_0 + q_1 e + \cdots + q_n e^n = 0$ for $q_0, \ldots, q_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $q_0 \neq 0$, and $f(X) = \frac{1}{(p-1)!} X^{p-1} \left((X-1) \cdots (X-n) \right)^p$ for a sufficiently large prime p, then $M = \sum_{a=0}^n q_a F(a) \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ and $|M| < \frac{1}{2}$, which is a contradiction. Hence, e is transcendental.

Remark: In the proof of Theorem 4.8 we showd that for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the numbers $1, e, e^2, \dots, e^n$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} (and hence over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$).

Question: Let $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. Under which assumptions are the numbers $e^{\alpha_0}, \ldots, e^{\alpha_n}$ linearly dependent over \mathbb{Q} or $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$?

We certainly need the α_i to be distinct, as for example $1 \cdot e^{\alpha} + (-1) \cdot e^{\alpha} = 0$ for all $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

Theorem 4.15 (Baker¹⁰, Lindemann¹¹-Weierstraß¹²)

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume that $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are pairwise distinct and $\beta_1 \cdots \beta_n \neq 0$. Then

$$\beta_1 e^{\alpha_1} \cdots \beta_n^{\alpha_n} \neq 0$$
.

Remark: This implies that if $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ are pairwise distinct, then $e^{\alpha_1}, \ldots, e^{\alpha_n}$ are linearly independent over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

¹⁰Alan Baker (1939 - 2018), an English mathematician

¹¹after Ferdinand von Lindemann (1852-1939), a German mathematician,

¹²and Karl Weierstraß (1815-1879), a German mathematician

Corollary 4.16

Let $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$. Then e^{α} is transcendental.

Corollary 4.17

 π is transcendental.

Proof. Assume $\pi \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. Then $i\pi \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, but $e^{i\pi} = -1$ is not transcendental.

Corollary 4.18

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ be linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then $e^{\alpha_1}, \ldots, e^{\alpha_n}$ are algebraically independent.

Remark: Corollary 4.18 is in fact equivalent to Theorem 4.15.

Example: Imagine we try to show that

$$1 \cdot e^0 + 2 \cdot e^{\sqrt{3}} \neq 0.$$

For $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q})$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})$, set $\sigma(e^{\alpha}) = e^{\sigma(\alpha)}$. Then the non-trivial automorphism $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q})$ maps $1 + 2e^{\sqrt{3}}$ to $1 + 2e^{-\sqrt{3}}$. However,

$$(1 + e^{\sqrt{3}}) (1 + 2e^{-\sqrt{3}}) = 1 + 4 + 2e^{\sqrt{3}} + 2e^{-\sqrt{3}}$$

is invariant under $\operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3})/\mathbb{Q})$.

We can reduce Theorem 4.15 to the following result:

Theorem 4.19 ("Weak Lindemann-Weierstraß theorem")

Let $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq L \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ be a normal number field. Let $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_t, \delta_1, \ldots, \delta_t \in L$, such that $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_t$ are pairwise distinct and $\delta_1 \cdots \delta_t \neq 0$. Assume that each $\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ permutes the pairs $(\gamma_1, \delta_1), \ldots, (\gamma_t, \delta_t)$. Then

$$\delta_1 e^{\gamma_1} + \dots + \delta_t e^{\gamma_t} \neq 0.$$

Lecture 19, 16.01.2024 Let $l \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, such that $l\gamma_1, \ldots, l\gamma_t$ are algebraic integers. Let p be a prime. For

 $1 \le k \le t$ we define

$$f_K(X) = \frac{1}{(p-1)!} l^{pt} (X - \gamma_k)^{p-1} \prod_{\substack{i=1\\i \neq k}}^t (X - \gamma_i)^p.$$

Set $F_k(z) = \int_0^1 e^{z-u} f_k(u) du$ and $M_k = \delta_1 F_k(\gamma_1) + \dots + \delta_t F_k(\gamma_t)$.

Lemma 4.20

If $\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$, then $\tau(M_1) \in \{M_1, \dots, M_t\}$.

Notation: For $\alpha, \beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, $m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, we write $\alpha \equiv \beta \mod m$ if $\frac{\alpha - \beta}{m}$ is an algebraic integer.

Lemma 4.21

Let $1 \le m \le t$. Then

(i)
$$f_1^{(p-1)}(\gamma_1) = l^{pt} \left(\prod_{i=2}^t (\gamma_i - \gamma_1) \right)^p$$

- (ii) If either $2 \le m \le t$ and $0 \le j \le p-1$ or m = 1 and $0 \le j \le p-2$, then $f_1^{(j)}(\gamma_m) = 0$.
- (iii) $f_1^{(j)}(\gamma_m) \equiv 0 \mod p$ if $1 \le m \le t$ and $j \ge p$.

Lemma 4.22

If p is sufficiently large, then $M_1 \neq 0$ is an algebraic integer.

Lemma 4.23

Let $1 \le k \le t$. Then $|M_k| \to 0$ for $p \to \infty$.

4.3 More on transcendence results

Recall our definition $e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$ for $z \in \mathbb{C}$. For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ with $\alpha \neq 0$, we set $\alpha^b = e^{\beta \log \alpha}$, where $\log \alpha$ is some solution of the equation $\alpha = e^z$. I.e. if we fix one solution $\log \alpha$, then all possibilities for $e^{\beta \log \alpha}$ are given by $e^{\beta(\log \alpha + 2\pi i k)}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In Section 4.2 we have seen that if $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ are pairwise distinct, then $e^{\alpha_1}, \ldots, e^{\alpha_n}$ are linearly independent over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$. As a corollary: if $\beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$, then e^β is transcendental.

Theorem 4.24 (Gelfond¹³, Schneider¹⁴, 1934)

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ with $0 \neq \alpha \neq 1$ and $\beta \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Then $\alpha^{\beta} = e^{\beta \log \alpha}$ is transcendental for any solution $\log \alpha$.

Corollary 4.25

Let $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ with $\alpha \notin i\mathbb{Q}$. Then $e^{\pi\alpha}$ is transcendental.

Corollary 4.26

Let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$. Fix a choice of logarithms of $\log \alpha_1, \log \alpha_2$ and assume that $\log \alpha_1, \log \alpha_2$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then if $\beta_1, \beta_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$, we have $\beta_1 \log \alpha_1 + \beta_2 \log \alpha_2 \neq 0$.

Example: The real logarithms $\log 2$ and $\log 3$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} and $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

Question: How about elements $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ for $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$?

Theorem 4.27 (Baker, 1965)

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ and fix choices for $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$, such that $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Let $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$. Then $\beta_1 \log \alpha_1 + \cdots + \beta_n \log \alpha_n$ is transcendental.

Remark: Baker's theorem gives us the stronger conclusion that $1, \log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are linearly independent over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

Definition

Let $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ with primitive minimal polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, i.e. a minimal polynomial $f(X) = a_0 + a_1 X + \cdots + a_d X^d$ with a_0, \ldots, a_d and $\gcd(a_0, \ldots, a_d) = 1$. Then we set $H(\alpha) = \max_{0 \le i \le d} |a_i|$.

Theorem 4.28

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0,1\}, \ \gamma \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \ and \ \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}.$ Pick choices of

¹³Alexander Gelfond (1906-1968), a Soviet mathematician, who did his Ph. D with Khinchin ¹⁴Theodon Schmider (1911-1988), a Correspondent proteining who avoided in Cättingen until 1

¹⁴Theodor Schneider (1911-1988), a German mathematician, who worked in Göttingen until 1953 and later became the director of the MRI Oberwolfach

 $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ and assume that $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then

$$|\gamma + \beta_1 \log \alpha_1 + \dots + \beta_n \log \alpha_n| \ge (eB)^-c$$

with $B = \max (H(\gamma), H(\beta_1), \dots, H(\beta_n))$ and c > 0 an effectively computable constant depending on $n, H(\alpha_1), \dots, H(\alpha_n)$ and the choices for $\log \alpha_1, \dots, \log \alpha_n$.

Question: How can we recognise if $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent.

Assume that $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly dependent. Then there exist $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, not all zero, such that

$$b_1 \log \alpha_1 + \dots + b_n \log \alpha_n = 0,$$

i.e.

$$\alpha_1^{b_1}\alpha_2^{b_2}\cdots\alpha_n^{b_n}=0.$$

Definition (Multiplicative dependency)

We say that $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{C}$ are multiplicatively dependent if there exist $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, not all zero, such that

$$\alpha_1^{b_1}\alpha_2^{b_2}\cdots\alpha_n^{b_n}=0.$$

Remark: If $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$ are multiplicatively independent, then $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent.

Corollary 4.29

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, such that $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ are multiplicatively independent and $(\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n) \notin \mathbb{Q}^n$, then $\alpha_1^{\beta_1} \cdots \alpha_n^{\beta_n}$ is transcendental (for any choice of $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$).

Let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{C}$ be linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then

$$\operatorname{trdeg}\left(x_{1},\ldots,x_{n},e^{x_{1}},\ldots,e^{x_{n}}\right)\geq n.$$

Schanuel's conjecture implies the Lindemann-Weierstraß theorem. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in$

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 $^{^{15}}$ after Stephen Schanuel (1933 - 2014), an American mathematician

 $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ be linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then $\operatorname{trdeg}(\underbrace{\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n}_{\operatorname{trdeg}(e^{\alpha_1},\ldots,e^{\alpha_n})},e^{\alpha_1},\ldots,e^{\alpha_n}) \geq n$, i.e.

 $e^{\alpha_1}, \ldots, e^{\alpha_n}$ are algebraically independent. It also implies Baker's theorem. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0, 1\}$, such that $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} . Then $n \leq \operatorname{trdeg}(\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) = \operatorname{trdeg}(\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n)$. I.e. there is a non-trivial algebraic relation over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ of $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$, in particular if $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, not all zero, then $\beta \log \alpha_1 + \cdots + \beta_n \log \alpha_n \notin \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$.

What is known towards Schanuel's conjecture?

- n=1: If $x \in \mathbb{C}$ is transcendental, then $\operatorname{trdeg}(x,e^x) \geq 1$, if $x \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0\}$, then e^x is transcendental by Lindemann-Weierstraß.
- n=2: This is still open. For example, we don't know if $(\log 2)(\log 3)$ is transcendental (by Baker's theorem they are $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ -linearly independent). Schanuel's conjecture would imply that $\operatorname{trdeg}(\log 2, \log 3, 2, 3) = \operatorname{trdeg}(\log 2, \log 3) \geq 2$, i.e. $\log 2, \log 3$ are algebraically independent.

Conjecture 4.31

e and π are algebraically independent.

Conjecture 4.32

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0, 1\}$ and assume that $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent for some choices of $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$. Then $\log \alpha_1, \ldots, \log \alpha_n$ are algebraically independent.

Theorem 4.33

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \cap \mathbb{R}$ with $\alpha > 0$, $\alpha \neq 1$ and $\beta \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Let $\log \alpha$ be the real logarithm of α . Then $\alpha^{\beta} 0e^{\beta \log \alpha}$ is transcendental.

4.4 Siegel's lemma

Consider m linear equations in n variables, say

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

 \vdots
 $a_{n1}x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = 0$ (4.4)

Assume $m \in n$ and $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$. Then there exists a solution $x \in \mathbb{Q}^n \setminus \{0\}$ and hence also a solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{0\}$. What can we say about the size of a "smallest" solution?

Example: • Let m = 1, n = 2, $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. Then every solution $(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ to the equations $x_1 + a_x 2 = 0$ satisfies $x_1 \neq 0$ and $a \mid x_1$, i.e. $||x||_{\infty} \geq a$.

• Let $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, m arbitrary and n = m - 1. Consider the system1

$$x_1 + ax_2 = 0$$

$$x_2 + ax_3 = 0$$

$$x_{n-1} + ax_n = 0$$

Every non-trivial solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ satisfies $x_1 \cdots x_n \neq 0$ and $a^{n-1} \mid x_1$, i.e. $||x||_{\infty} \geq a^{n-1}$

Theorem 4.34 (Siegel's¹⁶ lemma)

Let n > m > 0, $A \ge 1$ and $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for $1 \le i \le m$, $1 \le j \le n$, such that $|a_{ij}| \le A \ \forall i, j$. Then there exists a solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{0\}$ to the system (4.4), such that

$$\max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| \le (nA)^{\frac{m}{n-m}}$$

An alternate point of view: Consider m=1. Let $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n)=1$ and define the hyperplane $H=\{x\in\mathbb{R}^n\mid \sum_{i=1}^n a_ix_i=0\}$ and the lattice $\Lambda=\{x\in\mathbb{Z}^n\mid \sum_{i=1}^n a_ix_i=0\}$. Then $\Lambda\subset H$ is a lattice of rank n-1.

Lemma 4.35

Assume that $gcd(a_1, ..., a_n) = 1$. Then $d(\Lambda) = ||a||_2$.

If $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ are successive minima of Λ with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$, then by Minkowski's second convex body theorem, $\lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{n-1} \ll d(\Lambda) = \|a\|_2$, i.e. $\lambda_1^{n-1} \leq \|a\|_2, \lambda_1 \ll \|a\|_2^{\frac{1}{n-1}}$.

Next, we want to solve (4.4) in $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, where the coefficients a_{ij} are elements in some number field.

Example: Let $d \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0,1\}$ be square-free and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. Set

$$\omega_d = \begin{cases} \sqrt{d}, & d \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4 \\ \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} & d \equiv 1 \mod 4 \end{cases}$$

 $^{^{16}}$ after Carl Ludwig Siegel (1896-1981), a German mathematician

Then $1, \omega_d$ is an integral basis. For n > 2m > 0, consider the system

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

 \vdots
 $a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = 0$ (4.5)

with $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Our goal is to find solutions $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{0\}$. Our first idea would be to write $a_{ij} = b_{ij} + c_{ij}\omega_d$. Then rewrite (4.5) as

$$(b_{11} + c_{ii}\omega_d)x_1 + \ldots + (b_{1n} + c_{1n}\omega_d)x_n = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$(b_{m1} + c_{m1}\omega_d)x_1 + \ldots + (b_{mn} + c_{mn}\omega_d)x_n = 0$$

This is equivalent to

$$b_{11}x_1 + \ldots + b_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$b_{m1}x_1 + \ldots + b_{mn}x_n = 0$$

$$c_{11}x_1 + \ldots + c_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$c_{m1}x_1 + \ldots + x_{mn}x_n = 0$$

If n > 2m, then this is a system as in Theorem 4.34 and it has a non-zero solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ with

$$\max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| \le (nA)^{\frac{2m}{n-2m}},$$

where $A = \max i, j\{|b_{ij}|, |c_{ij}|\}$.

Remark: Note that in this construction A depends on the choice of basis $1, \omega_d$. We will use a basis-independent approach below.

Our general set-up will be to let K be a number field of degree d with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . Let $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_d : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the d distinct embeddings, such that $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_r : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are the real embeddings and $\sigma_{r+1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r+s} : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ complex embeddings with r+2s=d and $\sigma_{r+s+1}=\overline{\sigma_{r+1}}, \ldots, \sigma_{r+2s}=\overline{\sigma_{r+s}}$. Define the map $\varphi: K \to \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$x \mapsto (\sigma_1(x), \dots, \sigma_r(x), \Re \sigma_{r+1}(x), \Im \sigma_{r+1}(x), \dots, \Re \sigma_{r+s}(x), \Im \sigma_{r+s}(x))$$

Definition (House)

Let $\alpha \in K$. We define the house of α as

$$\overline{|\alpha|} = \max(|\sigma_1(\alpha)|, \dots, |\sigma_d(\alpha)|).$$

Remark: The definition of $|\alpha|$ is independent of the field K with $\alpha \in K$. If $\alpha \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ has a minimal polynomial of degree m over Q and conjugates $\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(m)}$, then

$$\overline{|\alpha|} = \max(|\alpha^{(1)}|, \dots, |\alpha^{(m)}|).$$

Question: The rational integers $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}$ are discrete, in particular if $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, |m| < 1, then m = 0. Is there a similar statement for $\mathcal{O}_K \subset K$?

Observation: Let $\alpha \neq 0$ be an algebraic integer with conjugates $\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(m)}$. Then there is at least one index j with

$$|\alpha^{(j)}| \ge 1$$
.

Lecture 21, 23.01.2024

Lemma 4.36

Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ with $\|\varphi(\alpha)\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{2}{3}$, then $\alpha = 0$.

Theorem 4.37

Let K/\mathbb{Q} be as above, i.e. $[K:\mathbb{Q}]=d$. Let $m,n\in\mathbb{N}$ with n>dm and $A\in\mathbb{R}_{\geq 1}$. Suppose $a_{ij}\in\mathcal{O}_K$ with $\overline{|\alpha_{ij}|}\leq A$ for all $1\leq i\leq m,1\leq j\leq n$. Then the system

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n = 0$$

has a solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{0\}$ with

$$\max_{1 \le i \le n} |x_i| \le (3nA)^{\frac{dm}{n-dm}}.$$

4.5 Approaches towards the Gelfond-Schneider theorem

Theorem 4.38 (Weak version of Gelfond-Schneider theorem)

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \cap \mathbb{R}$ with $\alpha > 0$, $\alpha \neq 1$, and $\beta \notin \mathbb{Q}$. Let $\log \alpha$ be the real logarithm of α . Then $\alpha^{\beta} = e^{\beta \log \alpha}$ is transcendental.

We will give an outline to the proof. Assume that $\gamma = \alpha^{\beta} \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$, $d = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$. Choose $m \in \mathbb{N}$, such that $m\alpha, m\beta, m\gamma$ are all algebraic integers. Let $D_1, D_2, L \in \mathbb{N}$ be parameters to be chosen later.

Step 1: We construct a function

$$F(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{D_1 - 1} \sum_{j=0}^{D_2 - 1} a_{ij} z^i \alpha^{jz}$$

with the following properties:

- $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $0 \le i < D_1$, $0 \le j < D_2$, not all zero
- $F(a+b\beta) = 0$ for all $1 \le a, b \le L$
- there is a constant $c_1 > 0$ only depending on α, β, γ, d , such that

$$|a_{ij}| \le e^{c_1(D_1 \log L + D_2 L)}$$

for all $0 \le i < D_1, 0 \le j < D_2$.

Assume $D_1D_2 \geq 2dL^2$. Then such a function can be constructed using Siegel's lemma.

Next we choose D_1, D_2 , such that $D_1 = D_2 L$ and $D_1 D_2 = 2dL^2$, i.e. $D_1 = \sqrt{2d}L^{\frac{3}{2}}$, $D_2 = \sqrt{2d}L^{\frac{1}{2}}$. If $L = 2dM^2$ for some $M \in \mathbb{N}$, then D_1, D_2 are both integers, and $|a_{ij}| \leq e^{c_3 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L}$ for some c_3 .

Step 2: We show that F(z) has at most $D_1D_2=2dL^2$ zeros in \mathbb{R} . For this we view F(z) as an exponential polynomial, i.e. a function of the form

$$E(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{r} p_k(z)e^{\gamma_k z}$$
 (4.6)

with $p_k(z) \in \mathbb{R}[z] \setminus \{0\}$ and $\gamma_k \in \mathbb{R}$ distinct.

Lemma 4.39

Let E(z) be as in (4.6). Then E(z) has at most

$$\left(\sum_{k=1}^{r} (1 + \deg p_k)\right) - 1$$

zeros in \mathbb{R} .

Step 3: Let $c = 1 + \lfloor \sqrt{2d} \rfloor$. Using tools from complex analysis we show that $|F(a+b\beta)|$ is very small for $1 \le a, b \le cL$.

Lemma 4.40

Using the same notation as above, let $1 \le a, b \le cL$. Then we have the following estimates for some constants $c_4, c_5 > 0$:

(i)
$$|F(a+b\beta)| \le e^{c_4 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L - L^2}$$

(ii) if $\sigma: K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is some embedding, then

$$\left| \sigma \left(F(a + b\beta) \right) \right| \le e^{c_5 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L}$$

From Lemma 4.40 we deduce the following: Let $1 \le a, b \le cL$. Then there is a constant $c_6 > 0$ such that

$$\left| N_{K/\mathbb{Q}} \left(m^{D_1 + 2cLD_2} F(a + b\beta) \right) \right| = m^{d(D_1 + 2cLD_2)} \left| \prod_{\sigma: K \to \mathbb{C}} \sigma \left(F(a + b\beta) \right) \right| \\
\leq m^{d(D_1 + 2cLD_2)} e^{c_4 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L - L^2 + (d-1)c_5 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L} \\
< e^{c_6 L^{\frac{3}{2}} \log L - L^2}$$

Hence, for L sufficiently large, we find

$$\left| N_{K/\mathbb{Q}} \left(\underbrace{m^{D_1 + 2cLD_2} F(a + b\beta)}_{\in \mathcal{O}_K} \right) \right| < 1$$

and $F(a+b\beta) = 0$ for $1 \le a, b \le cL$. As $1, \beta$ are \mathbb{Q} -linearly independent, this implies that F has at least $c^2L^2 > 2dL^2 = D_1D_2$ real zeros, which is a contradiction to step 2.

5 Diophantine Approximations and applications to Diophantine problems

5.1 Linear forms in logarithms

Lecture 22, 26.01.2024

We recall

Theorem 5.1 (Baker, 1975)

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0, 1\}, \ \gamma, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \ and \ pick \ a \ choice \ of \ logarithms \ log \alpha_1, \ldots, log \alpha_n$. If $\gamma + \beta_1 \log \alpha_1 + \cdots + \beta_n \log \alpha_n \neq 0$, then

$$|\gamma + \beta_1 \log \alpha_1 + \dots + \beta_n \log \alpha_n| \ge (eB)^{-C},$$

where $B = \max(H(\gamma), H(\beta_1), \dots, H(\beta_n))$ and $C = C(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ is an effectively computable constant.

We move towards applications:

Corollary 5.2

Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \overline{\mathbb{Q}} \setminus \{0, 1\}, b_1, \ldots, b_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and assume that $\alpha_1^{b_1} \cdots \alpha_n^{b_n} \neq 1$. Then

$$\left|\alpha_1^{b_1}\cdots\alpha_n^{b_n}-1\right|\geq (eB)^{-\tilde{C}},$$

where $B = \max(|b_1|, \dots, |b_n|)$ and $\tilde{C} > 0$ is an effectively computable constant depending on n and $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$.

Corollary 5.3

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a, b \geq 2$. Then there exists an effectively computable constant $C_1 = C_1(a, b) > 0$, such that for every $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $a^m \neq b^n$, we have

$$|a^m - b^n| \ge \frac{\max(a^m, b^n)}{(e \max(m, n))^{C_1}}.$$

Remark: a) Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 0}$. Then there is a constant $C_2 > 0$, such that all solutions $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ to the equation $a^m - b^n = k$ satisfy

$$\max(|m|,|n|) \le C_2.$$

b) Using techniques from linear forms in logarithms, Tijdeman¹ (1976) even proved that there exists an effectively computable constant $C_3 > 0$, such that if $a^m - b^n = 1$ with $a, b, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$, then

$$a^m, b^n \leq C_3$$
.

Catalan's conjecture (1844), that the equation $a^m - b^n = 1$ with $a, b, m, n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ has only one solution, namely $3^2 - 2^3 = 1$, was proven by Mihăilescu² in 2002.

Corollary 5.4

Let p_1, \ldots, p_t be prime numbers and let $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be the monotonically increasing sequence of natural numbers, which are composed of the primes p_1, \ldots, p_t . Then there exist effectively computable constants C_4, C_5 only depending on t, p_1, \ldots, p_n , such that

$$a_n - a_{n-1} \ge \frac{a_n}{C_4(\log a_n)^{C_5}}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_{\ge 2}.$$

Example: For t = 1, $p_1 = 2$, we obtain the sequence 2^n , $n \ge 0$, and the stronger statement

$$a_n - a_{n-1} = 2^n - 2^{n-1} = \frac{1}{2}2^n = \frac{1}{2}a_n$$
.

Unit equations

Let K be a number field with ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . Let $\alpha, \beta \in K^*$. What can we say about solutions to the equation

$$\alpha x + \beta y = 1 \tag{5.1}$$

in $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$? For example, are there infinitely many units x, y, such that x = 1 - y?

Theorem 5.5 (Baker 1960s, Gyöny 1978)

For every number field K, (5.1) has at most finitely many solutions and they can be effectively determined.

¹Robert Tijdeman (*1943), a Dutch mathematician

²Preda Mihăilescu (*1955), a Romanian mathematician, who currently teaches in Göttingen

Remark: The finiteness statement, though ineffective, has already been proved by Siegel in 1921.

We first make some preparations for the proof of Theorem 5.5: Let $d = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$ and assume that K has r real embeddings $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_r : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma_{r+1}, \ldots, \sigma_{r+s} : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ complex embeddings with r + 2s = d and $\sigma_{r+s+1} = \overline{\sigma_{r+1}}, \ldots, \sigma_{r+2s} = \overline{\sigma_{r+s}}$. Let u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s-1} be a fundamental system of units.

Lemma 5.6

Let $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^*$ and write $u = \xi u_1^{b_1} \cdots u_{r+s-1}^{b_{r+s-1}}$ with $\xi \in K$ a root of unity and $b_1, \ldots, b_{r+s-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exists an effectively computable constant $C_6 > 0$ depending only on $K, u_1, \ldots, u_{r+s-1}$, such that

$$\max (|b_1|, \dots, |b_{r+s-1}|) \le C_6 \log \overline{|u|}.$$

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