

# Dedekind Domains

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Aim: Give small overview of Dedekind domains (DDs)  
(note: in a sense DDs are a global version of DVRs, hence is useful to consider them as the integer rings of global/local fields respectively!)

**Definition 1** A ring  $A$  is a DD if

1.  $A$  is a noetherian integral domain
2.  $A$  is integrally closed in its field of fractions
3. All nonzero prime ideals of  $A$  are maximal.

So, an obvious example of a DD is a PID, my favourite is  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

One may ask the questions:

- **Q:** Why do we care about DDs?  
**A:** The rings of integers  $\mathcal{O}_K$  of number fields are Dedekind domains (we shall prove this soon enough). Hence if we can prove things about Dedekind domains and inclusions  $A \subset B$  of DDs, then we can prove things about rings of integers!
- **Q:** What nice properties do DDs have?  
**A:** Many, I think most important one is that any non-zero ideal of a DD has unique factorisation into prime ideals.

With this in mind, our current aims are:

- (a) Prove that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a DD for  $K$  a number field,
- (b) Prove that we have unique factorisation into primes.

Lets begin with (a), we prove something more general:

**Proposition 1** Suppose that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a DD with  $\text{Frac}(\mathcal{O}_K) = K$ , and let  $L/K$  be a finite separable extension of fields. Then the integral closure  $\mathcal{O}_L$  of  $\mathcal{O}_K$  in  $L$  is also a DD.

So by taking  $K = \mathbb{Q}$  and  $L$  any number field, we find that  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is indeed a DD.

Proving the proposition is basically an exercise in commutative algebra, which we break down into proving the conditions 1,2,3 for a ring to be a DD.

**Aim 1:** Show that  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is integrally closed in  $L$

First, we'll quote some facts that shall be useful

**Fact:** Let  $A \subset B$  be an extensions of rings, then  $B$  is a finitely generated  $A$  module if and only if  $B$  is a finitely generated  $A$ -algebra, and  $B$  is integral over  $A$ .

We say  $B$  is *finite* over  $A$  if  $B$  is finitely generated as an  $A$ -module.

*Proof.* The proof of this is not difficult, the  $\Leftarrow$  direction is quite easy, the other direction involves being somewhat clever with matrices, by taking determinants to give a monic polynomial in  $A[X]$  that vanishes at some specific element  $\alpha \in B$ .  $\square$

This fact is very useful. In particular it implies:

**Lemma 2** 'Being integral is a transitive property'

ie. if  $A \subset B \subset C$  are rings with  $C$  integral over  $B$ , and  $B$  is integral over  $A$ , then  $C$  is integral over  $A$ .

How do we show this? Well, clearly being a finite extension of rings is a transitive property. So our idea is to reduce proving that *integrality* is transitive, to showing that *finiteness* is transitive.<sup>1</sup>

Let  $x \in C$ , then  $x$  is integral over  $B$ , hence there is a monic  $f \in B[X]$  such that  $f(x) = 0$ . Say  $f(X) = X^n + b_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + b_0$ , then we also have  $f(X) \in B_0[X]$ , where  $B_0 := A[b_0, \dots, b_{n-1}]$ .

Notice what we've done here, we've reduced to the case of *finitely generated* rings over  $A$ , so that we can use the **Fact** above!

Indeed, invoking the **Fact**, we deduce that  $B_0$  is a finite extension of  $A$ , and  $B_0[x]$  is a finite extension of  $B_0$ . Then because 'finiteness' is transitive we have  $B_0[x]$  is finite over  $A$ , which in turn implies that  $x$  is integral over  $A$ .

The discussion above also implies that algebraic closures are in fact rings. We have  $x, y \in B$  are both integral over  $A$  if and only if  $A[x]$  and  $A[y]$  are finite  $A$ -modules, which holds if and only if  $A[x, y]$  is a finite  $A$ -module, and thus integral. Hence  $x \pm y, xy$  are integral over  $A$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Compare this to field theory where one shows that being algebraic is transitive, integrality is a refinement of 'algebraic'.

OK! From Lemma 2 we deduce that algebraic closures are themselves algebraically closed.

**Corollary 3** Let  $A \subset B$  be an extension of fields, and  $\bar{A}$  the integral closure of  $A$  in  $B$ . Then  $\bar{A}$  is integrally closed in  $B$ .

*Proof.* We have  $\bar{A}$  is integral over  $A$  by its definition. Suppose  $x \in B$  is integral over  $\bar{A}$ , then by transitivity of integrality we have  $x$  integral over  $A$ , so  $x \in \bar{A}$ .  $\square$

Therefore we have proven Proposition 1 -  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is integrally closed in  $L$   $\checkmark$ .

**Aim 2:**  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is a Noetherian integral domain.

Well,  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is clearly an integral domain as is contained in  $L$ , and to prove that it is Noetherian we show that it is a finitely generated  $\mathcal{O}_K$  module - and use Hilbert's Basis theorem.

**Interlude:** Trace form and non-degeneracy

Define  $L/K$  as above, then the trace form is the symmetric bilinear pairing

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : L \times L \rightarrow K \text{ given by } (x, y) = \text{Tr}_{L/K}(xy)$$

This is non-degenerate if and only if  $L/K$  is separable. For the  $\Leftarrow$  direction of this statement, we can use the primitive element theorem, the other direction is a bit more involved.

I thought I should quickly note the meaning of non-degeneracy of a bilinear form.

Consider  $K$  a field and  $V$  a  $K$  finite dimensional vector space. A symmetric bilinear form  $\phi$  is non-degenerate if we have  $e : V \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, K) =$  such that  $e(x) = \phi(x, -)$  is injective.

For symmetric bilinear forms we can think about diagonalizing them, then non-degeneracy holds if and only if this diagonalisation has no zeros.

This becomes of use in the following proposition:

**Proposition 4**  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is finitely generated over  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .

*Proof.* Let  $e_i$  be a  $K$ -basis of  $L$ , by scaling we may assume that  $e_i$  are all in  $\mathcal{O}_L$ . Let  $f_i \in L$  be the dual basis with respect to the trace bilinear form, note that this requires non-degeneracy of the trace form! By definition we have  $(e_i, f_j) = \delta_{ij}$ .

Let  $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$ , we can write  $x = \sum \lambda_i f_i$ . Then consider that  $e_i x \in \mathcal{O}_L$ , hence  $(e_i, x) \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , and expanding out we find that  $(e_i, x) = \lambda_i$ .

Hence  $\mathcal{O}_L \subset f_1\mathcal{O}_K + \dots + f_n\mathcal{O}_K = A$ . Clearly  $A$  is a finitely generated  $\mathcal{O}_K$  module - hence  $A$  is a Noetherian  $\mathcal{O}_K$  module - and  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is an  $\mathcal{O}_K$  submodule, hence is also Noetherian.  $\square$

(Note to self: this is a similar argument to how to prove that the inverse different is a fractional ideal of  $L$ ) So, the conditions 1,2 of DD's has been proven, all that remains is

**Proposition 5** All non-zero prime ideals of  $\mathcal{O}_L$  are maximal.

*Proof.* Let  $A \subset B$  be an integral extension of integral domains, then  $A$  is a field if and only if  $B$  is a field. A corollary of this is then that if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is prime in  $B$  and  $\mathfrak{q} = A \cap \mathfrak{p}$ , then  $\frac{A}{\mathfrak{q}} \subset \frac{B}{\mathfrak{p}}$  is an integral extension of integral domains. So  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal if and only if  $\mathfrak{q}$  is maximal. But  $\mathfrak{q}$  is a non-zero prime of  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , which is a DD, so  $\mathfrak{q}$  is indeed maximal. Therefore we conclude that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal also.  $\square$

Cool, so we have proven that  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is indeed a Dedekind domain!

Our next result is something that is rather useful for Number fields. We would like to know about the structure of  $\mathcal{O}_K$  as an Abelian group. For example, an obvious question is whether  $\mathcal{O}_K$  has a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis.

**Proposition 6** Let  $L$  be a number field of degree  $n$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the integer ring  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is a free abelian group of rank  $n$ .

*Proof.* Recall from our proof of Proposition 4 that  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is contained in a free Abelian group  $A = \bigoplus f_i\mathbb{Z}$  (the sum is direct because  $f_i$  are linearly independent over  $\mathbb{Q}$ ). The structure theorem then implies that  $\mathcal{O}_L = \bigoplus x_i\mathbb{Z}$  some  $x_i$  in  $\mathcal{O}_L$  where  $i$  ranges from 1 to  $m$ , some  $m \leq n$ . Then note that this equality implies that  $x_i$  are a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -basis for  $L$ , hence  $m = n$  and we're done.  $\square$

**Remark:** A  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis of  $\mathcal{O}_L$  is called an integral basis, and is one that minimises the absolute value of  $|\Delta(x_i)|$ , where  $\Delta(x_i) = \det \text{Tr}(x_i x_j)$ . Moreover we can generalise the Proposition to  $L/K$  where  $K$  is a number field with  $\mathcal{O}_K$  a PID.

### Unique Factorisation in Dedekind Domains

There are multiple paths to this result, one involves looking fractional ideals to show that for ideals  $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$  in  $A$  (a DD), we have  $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b}$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{b} \subset \mathfrak{a}$ . Here we follow a more theoretical approach.

Two auxiliary lemmas;

**Lemma 7** Let  $R$  be a Noetherian ring and  $I$  a non-zero ideal of  $R$ . Then there are non-zero prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  such that  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \dots \mathfrak{p}_r \subset I$

*Proof.* Suppose this is false, then Noetherian-ness of  $R$  implies that there exists a maximal counterexample  $I$  to the statement which, in particular, cannot be prime. Then we have  $x, y \in R$  such that  $xy \in I$ , but  $x \notin I$  and  $y \notin I$ . Then the ideals  $I + (x)$  and  $I + (y)$  contain products of primes by maximality of  $I$ , so

$$(I + (x))(I + (y)) = I^2 + (x)I + y(I) + (xy) \subset I$$

contains a product of primes, which is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Lemma 8** Let  $R$  be an integral domain which is integrally closed in  $K = \text{Frac}(R)$ , and  $I$  a non-zero finitely generated ideal of  $R$ , and  $x \in K$ . Then  $xI \subset I$  implies  $x \in R$

*Proof.* Consider  $I = (f_1, \dots, f_n)$ , then we have  $xf_i = \sum a_{ij}f_j$ , so  $(xI - A)\mathbf{f} = 0$  where  $\mathbf{f}$  is just the vector  $(f_i)$ . Multiplying by the adjugate gives  $\det(xI - A)\mathbf{f} = 0$ , and  $R$  an integral domain so  $\det(xI - A) = 0$ . Therefore  $x$  is integral over  $R$ , and so is contained in  $R$  by integrally closed-ness.  $\square$

These two combine to prove:

**Theorem 9**  $R$  is a discrete valuation ring (dvr) if and only if  $R$  is a DD with exactly one non-zero prime ideal.

*Proof.*  $\implies$  is clear

For the other direction,  $R$  is clearly local so just need to show that its a PID. Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be the unique nonzero prime (hence maximal) ideal. First we show that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is principal.

My initial thought was to just choose  $x$  in  $\mathfrak{m} \setminus \mathfrak{m}^2$  - however would have to prove that this is non-empty first.<sup>2</sup>

Instead consider -  $0 \neq x \in \mathfrak{m}$ , we have by Lemma 7 some minimal  $n$  such that  $\mathfrak{m}^n \subset (x)$  and  $\mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \not\subset (x)$ . So we may choose  $y \in \mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \setminus (x)$ , and let  $\pi = \frac{x}{y}$ . We want to show that  $(\pi) = \mathfrak{m}$ .

Note that  $\pi^{-1} \notin R$  since  $y \notin (x)$ , and we have  $y\mathfrak{m} \subset \mathfrak{m}^n \subset (x)$ , hence  $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m} \subset R$ . If this is not equality, then  $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m}$  is a proper subset of  $R$  hence contained in  $\mathfrak{m}$  and so Lemma 8 implies  $\pi^{-1} \in R$ . Contradiction! Hence  $\pi^{-1}\mathfrak{m} = R$  and were done (this also shows that  $\pi$  must be in  $R$ ).

To complete the proof, we must show that all ideals of  $R$  are principal (in fact they must be some power of  $\mathfrak{m}$ ).

Given a proper ideal  $I \subset R$ , consider the fractional ideals  $\pi^{-n}I$ . These are strictly increasing, hence (by Noetherian-ness of  $R$ ) this sequence must eventually leave  $R$ . Taking the minimal  $n + 1$  such that this happens we have

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<sup>2</sup>We can actually do this by noting if  $\mathfrak{m}$  is not principal, have  $x \in \mathfrak{m}$  then lemma 7 says  $\mathfrak{m}^n \subset (x) \subsetneq \mathfrak{m}$  so  $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^n$  some  $n > 1$ , thus  $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$ .

$\pi^{-n}I \subset R$ , while  $\pi^{-n-1}I \not\subset R$ . Suppose that  $\pi^{-n} \neq R$ , then it must be contained within  $\mathfrak{m} = \pi$ , so  $\pi^{-n-1}I \subset R$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore  $\pi^{-n-1}I$ .  $\square$

In particular, consider that

**Lemma 10** Given  $R$  a Dedekind domain, any non-zero localisation of  $R$  is also a DD.

*Proof.* We can just check the conditions one by one. For example, localisations of Noetherian IDs are Noetherian IDs (though being Noetherian is not a local property and being an ID isn't a local property! ), integral closures commute with taking localisations - and the maximal ideals part is clear because the set of primes in  $S^{-1}R$  biject with the primes of  $R$  that don't intersect  $S$ .  $\square$

Combining these two results we deduce that

**Corollary 11** If  $R$  is a DD, then for all  $\mathfrak{p}$  nonzero primes in  $R$  we have  $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  DVR.

By definition the DVR  $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is the valuation ring of the  $\mathfrak{p}$ -adic absolute value on  $\text{Frac}R$ . We call the valuation  $v_{\mathfrak{p}}$ .

At last, we come to unique factorisation;

**Theorem 12** Let  $R$  be a Dedekind Domain and  $I \subset R$  a proper non-zero ideal. Then  $I$  factors into a product of prime ideals.

*Proof.* Begin by noting the following properties of localisation:

- (i) If  $I \subsetneq J$  then  $IR_{\mathfrak{p}} \subsetneq JR_{\mathfrak{p}}$ .
- (ii)  $I = J$  if and only if  $IR_{\mathfrak{p}} = JR_{\mathfrak{p}}$  for all primes  $\mathfrak{p}$

Proving (i) is rather simple, for (ii) the  $\implies$  direction is trivial, so consider the converse.

We have  $I \subset I + J$ , and this is equality if and only if  $J$  is contained in  $I$ . Now, localisation respects sums (this is clear, since the ideal in the localisation is just the ideal in the localised ring generated by the elements of the ideal.) so we have  $I_{\mathfrak{p}} + J_{\mathfrak{p}} = I_{\mathfrak{p}} + I_{\mathfrak{p}} = I_{\mathfrak{p}}$ . Next, note that taking localisations and taking quotients commute, ie. if  $A$  is a ring and  $M$  is an  $A$ -module with  $N$  an  $A$ -submodule. Then for any multiplicative  $S$  in  $A$  we have

$$S^{-1} \left( \frac{M}{N} \right) \cong \frac{S^{-1}M}{S^{-1}N}$$

as  $S^{-1}A$  modules. In particular if  $I, J$  are ideals in  $R$  (hence  $R$  modules), we have

$$\left( \frac{I + J}{I} \right)_{\mathfrak{p}} \cong \frac{I_{\mathfrak{p}} + J_{\mathfrak{p}}}{I_{\mathfrak{p}}}$$

and since we have shown that  $I_{\mathfrak{p}} + J_{\mathfrak{p}} = I_{\mathfrak{p}}$ , for all prime  $\mathfrak{p}$  this implies that  $(I + J/I)_{\mathfrak{p}} = 0$  for all primes. But being zero is a local property, hence we deduce that  $I + J/I = 0$ , ie  $J \subset I$ . This argument is completely symmetric in  $I, J$ , hence we have  $I = J$ .

Now we prove the existence of prime factorisation: Let  $I$  be an ideal in  $R$ , by Lemma 7 above, it contains in some product of primes say

$$I \supset \mathfrak{p}_1^{\beta_1} \dots \mathfrak{p}_n^{\beta_n} = J$$

with all  $\beta_i > 0$ . Then localising at some prime  $\mathfrak{p}$  we have  $J_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  for  $\mathfrak{p}$  not in the set of  $\mathfrak{p}_i$ .

To see this, observe that any two distinct (non-zero) primes are coprime (by maximality) and so  $\mathfrak{q}_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  for  $\mathfrak{q} \neq \mathfrak{p}$ . Then simply noting that localisation respects products we have the result. Hence we must have  $I_{\mathfrak{p}} = R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  for  $\mathfrak{p}$  not in the  $\mathfrak{p}_i$ 's.

Next localise at  $\mathfrak{p}_i$ , we find let  $I_{\mathfrak{p}_i} = \mathfrak{p} R_{\mathfrak{p}}^{\alpha_i}$  for some  $\alpha_i \geq 0$ . Then by localising at every prime of  $R$ , we deduce by (ii)  $I = \mathfrak{p}_1^{\alpha_1} \dots \mathfrak{p}_n^{\alpha_n}$ .  $\square$

Uniqueness of such a prime factorisation is simple, in fact one only has to look at the proof for uniqueness in the natural numbers and essentially copy it.