Notes on the book: *Jürgen Neukirch, Algebraic Number Theory*

Meng-Gen Tsai
plover@gmail.com

July 22, 2021

Contents

Chapter I: Algebraic Integers

I.1. The Gaussian Integers

Exercise I.1.1.

$\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a unit if and only if $N(\alpha) = 1$.

Proof.

(1) ($\Longrightarrow$) Since α is a unit, there is $\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ such that $\alpha\beta = 1$. So $N(\alpha\beta) = N(1)$, or $N(\alpha)N(\beta) = 1$. Since the image of N is nonnegative integers, $N(\alpha) = 1$.

(2) ($\Longleftarrow$) $N(\alpha) = \alpha\overline{\alpha}$, or $1 = \alpha\overline{\alpha}$ since $N(\alpha) = 1$. That is, $\overline{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ is the inverse of $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$. (Or we solve the equation $N(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2 = 1$, and show that all four solutions (± 1 and $\pm i$) are units.)

(3) Conclusion: a unit $\alpha = a + bi$ of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is satisfying the equation $N(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2 = 1$ by (1)(2). That is, the only unit of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ are ± 1 and $\pm i$.

$\square$

Exercise I.1.4.

Show that the ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ cannot be ordered.

Proof. Similar to the fact that i cannot be ordered in $\mathbb{C}$. Thus i cannot be ordered in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ either. $\square$

Exercise I.1.5.

Show that the only units of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-d}] = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{-d}$, for any rational integer $d > 1$, are ± 1.

Proof.

(1) Define the norm N on $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ by

$$N(x + y\sqrt{-d}) = (x + y\sqrt{-d})(x - y\sqrt{-d}) = x^2 + y^2 d,$$

i.e., by $N(z) = |z|^2$. It is multiplicative.

(2) Similar to Exercise I.1.1,

$$\begin{aligned} x+y\sqrt{-d}\in\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-d}] \text{ is a unit} &\Longleftrightarrow N(x+y\sqrt{-d}) = x^2+y^2d = 1 \\ &\Longleftrightarrow x^2 = 1 \text{ and } y = 0 \\ &\Longleftrightarrow x = \pm 1 \text{ and } y = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the only units of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-d}]$ are ± 1 ($d > 1$).

□

I.2. Integrality

Exercise I.2.1.

Is $\frac{3+2\sqrt{6}}{1-\sqrt{6}}$ *an algebraic integer?*

Proof.

(1) $\alpha := \frac{3+2\sqrt{6}}{1-\sqrt{6}} = -3-\sqrt{6}$. Since the set of all algebraic integers is a ring, α is an algebraic integer.

(2) Or show that α satisfies a monic equation $x^2+6x+3 = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

□

Exercise I.2.2.

Show that, if the integral domain A is integrally closed, then so is the polynomial ring $A[t]$.

Proof.

(1) *Suppose A is integrally closed in B. Show that $A[t]$ is integrally closed in $B[t]$.* Suppose $f \in B[t]$ is integral over $A[t]$. Write

$$f^n + g_1 f^{n-1} + \cdots + g_{n-1} f + g_n = 0$$

where $n > 0$ and $g_i \in A[t]$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} f^n + g_1 f^{n-1} + \cdots + g_{n-1} f &= -g_n \in A[t] \\ \Longrightarrow f(\underbrace{f^{n-1} + g_1 f^{n-1} + \cdots + g_{n-1}}_{:=g}) &\in A[t]. \end{aligned}$$

It is possible to show that $fg \in A[t]$ implies that $f \in A[t]$ and $g \in A[t]$ by using the fact that A is integrally closed in B.

(2) *Suppose f, g are monic polynomials in $B[t]$. Show that $fg \in A[t]$ implies that $f \in A[t]$ and $g \in A[t]$.* Write

$$f = \prod(t - \xi_i), \qquad g = \prod(t - \eta_j)$$

in some splitting field F of f and g containing the quotient field of B. Note that each ξ_i and each η_j is a root of a monic equation fg in $A[t]$. Since A is integrally closed in B, $\xi_i, \eta_j \in A$. Hence $f, g \in A[t]$.

(3) To apply part (2), we need to remedy leading coefficients of f and g. Take an integer $m > \max\{\deg(f), \deg(g_1), \ldots, \deg(g_n)\}$. Let $f_0 = t^m + f$ be a monic polynomial in $B[t]$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
&(f_0 - t^m)^n + g_1(f_0 - t^m)^{n-1} + \cdots + g_n = 0 \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f_0^n + h_1 f_0^{n-1} + \cdots + h_n = 0
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$h_n = t^{mn} + (-1)^{n-1} g_1 t^{m(n-1)} + \cdots + g_n \in A[t]$$

is also monic. So

$$\begin{aligned}
& f_0^n + h_1 f_0^{n-1} + \cdots + h_{n-1} f = -h_n \text{ is monic in } A[t] \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f_0(\underbrace{f_0^{n-1} + h_1 f^{n-1} + \cdots + h_{n-1}}_{:=h_0}) \in A[t] \text{ where} \\
& f_0 \text{ and } h_0 \text{ both are monic in } B[t].
\end{aligned}$$

Now we can apply part (2) safely.

(4) In part (1), we let B be the quotient field of A and thus the quotient field of $A[t]$ is $B(t)$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
& f \in B(t) \text{ integral over } A[t] \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f \in B(t) \text{ integral over } B[t] && (A[t] \subseteq B[t]) \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f \in B[t] && (B[t] \text{ is a UFD}) \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f \in B[t] \text{ integral over } A[t] \\
\Longrightarrow\ & f \in A[t]. && ((1))
\end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise I.2.3.

In the polynomial ring $A = \mathbb{Q}[x, y]$, consider the principal ideal $\mathfrak{p} = (x^2 - y^3)$. Show that $\mathfrak{p}$ is a prime ideal, but $A/\mathfrak{p}$ is not integrally closed.

Proof.

(1) It is easy to show that $x^2 - y^3$ is irreducible in A. Hence $\mathfrak{p} = (x^2 - y^3)$ is prime since A is a UFD.

(2) By substituting $x = t^3$, $y = t^2$, $A/\mathfrak{p} \cong \mathbb{Q}[t^3, t^2]$, with quotient field $\mathbb{Q}(t)$ (by noting $t = \frac{x}{y}$). Note that $\mathbb{Q}[t]$ is a UFD, thus is already integrally closed. So the integral closure will be $\mathbb{Q}[t] \supsetneq \mathbb{Q}[t^3, t^2]$. It suggests that $A/\mathfrak{p}$ might not be integrally closed.

(3) (Reductio ad absurdum) If not, then the element $\frac{x}{y}$ satisfies a monic equation $t^2 - y = 0 \in (A/\mathfrak{p})[t]$. So $\frac{x}{y} \in A/\mathfrak{p}$ or $t \in \mathbb{Q}[t^3, t^2]$, which is absurd.

$\square$

Note.

(1) Serre's criterion for normality.

(2) Hence smoothness is the same as normality for affine curves in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$. Note that $x^2 - y^3$ is an irreducible cubic with a cusp at the origin $(0, 0)$.

(3) There is an affine variety $X \in \mathbb{Q}[x, y, z]$ such that X is normal but not smooth. ($X = V(x^2 + y^2 - z^2)$ for example.)

Exercise I.2.4.

Let D be a squarefree rational integer $\neq 0, 1$ and d the discriminant of the quadratic number field $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$. Show that

$$d = \begin{cases} D & \text{if } D \equiv 1 \pmod 4, \\ 4D & \text{if } D \equiv 2, 3 \pmod 4. \end{cases}$$

and that an integral basis of K is given by $\{1, \sqrt{D}\}$ in the second case, by $\left\{1, \frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}\right\}$ in the first case, and by $\left\{1, \frac{d+\sqrt{d}}{2}\right\}$ in both case.

Proof.

(1) The Galois group of $K|\mathbb{Q}$ has two elements, the identity and an automorphism sending $\sqrt{D}$ to $-\sqrt{D}$.

(2) Note that $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ iff $\mathrm{Tr}_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha), N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$ (by noting that the equation $x^2 - \mathrm{Tr}_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)x + N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = 0$ has a root $x = \alpha$). So given $\alpha = x + y\sqrt{D} \in \mathcal{O}_K$, we have

$$\mathrm{Tr}_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = 2x \in \mathbb{Z},$$
$$N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = x^2 - Dy^2 \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

(3) So $4(x^2 - Dy^2) = (2x)^2 - D(2y)^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. So $D(2y)^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ since $2x \in \mathbb{Z}$. So $2y \in \mathbb{Z}$ since D is squarefree $\neq 0, 1$. Let $r = 2x, s = 2y$. Then $r^2 - Ds^2 \equiv 0 \pmod 4$. Note that a square $\equiv 0, 1 \pmod 4$.

(4) If $D \equiv 1 \pmod 4$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
&r^2 - Ds^2 \equiv r^2 - s^2 \pmod 4 \\
\Longrightarrow\, & r \text{ and } s \text{ has the same parity} \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \mathcal{O}_K = \left\{ \frac{r + s\sqrt{D}}{2} : r \equiv s \pmod 2 \right\} \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \mathcal{O}_K = \left\{ \frac{r - s}{2} + s \cdot \frac{1 + \sqrt{D}}{2} : r \equiv s \pmod 2 \right\} \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\frac{1 + \sqrt{D}}{2}.
\end{aligned}$$

So $\left\{1, \frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}\right\}$ is an integral basis of K. Hence

$$d = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1-\sqrt{D}}{2} \end{vmatrix}^2 = D.$$

(5) If $D \equiv 2, 3 \pmod 4$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
&r^2 - Ds^2 \equiv r^2 + 2s^2 \text{ or } r^2 + s^2 \pmod 4 \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \text{both } r \text{ and } s \text{ are even} \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \text{both } x \text{ and } y \text{ are rational integers} \\
\Longrightarrow\, & \mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{D}.
\end{aligned}$$

So $\{1, \sqrt{D}\}$ is an integral basis of K. Hence

$$d = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{D} \\ 1 & -\sqrt{D} \end{vmatrix}^2 = 4D.$$

(6) By (4)(5), $\left\{1, \frac{d+\sqrt{d}}{2}\right\}$ is an integral basis of K for any case.

□

Exercise I.2.7. (Stickelberger's discriminant relation)

The discriminant d_K of an algebraic number field K is always $\equiv 0 \pmod 4$ or $\equiv 1 \pmod 4$. (Hint: The discriminant $\det(\sigma_i\omega_j)$ of an integral basis ω_j

is a sum of terms, each prefixed by a positive or a negative sign. Writing P (resp. N) for the sum of the positive (resp. negative) terms, one find $d_K = (P-N)^2 = (P+N)^2 - 4PN$.)

Proof (Hint).

(1) Let S_n be the symmetric group of degree n, and A_n be the alternating group of degree n. So

$$\begin{aligned}\det(\sigma_i\omega_j) &= \sum_{\pi \in S_n}\left(\operatorname{sgn}(\pi)\prod_{i=1}^{n}\sigma_i\omega_{\pi(i)}\right)\\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{\pi\in A_n}\prod_{i=1}^{n}\sigma_i\omega_{\pi(i)}}_{:=P} - \underbrace{\sum_{\pi\in S_n - A_n}\prod_{i=1}^{n}\sigma_i\omega_{\pi(i)}}_{:=N}.\end{aligned}$$

(2) Note that $\sigma_i(P+N) = P+N$ and $\sigma_i(PN) = PN$ for all σ_i. Hence $P+N, PN \in \mathbb{Q}$. Therefore $P+N, PN \in \mathbb{Q}\cap\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}$.

(3) By (1)(2),

$$\begin{aligned}d_K &= \det(\sigma_i\omega_j)^2\\ &= (P-N)^2\\ &= (P+N)^2 - 4PN\\ &\equiv 0, 1 \pmod 4.\end{aligned}$$

□

I.3. Ideals

Exercise I.3.4.

A Dedekind domain with a finite number of prime ideals is a principal ideal domain. (Hint: If $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{\nu_1}\cdots\mathfrak{p}_r^{\nu_r} \neq 0$ is an ideal, then choose elements $\pi_i \in \mathfrak{p}_i \setminus \mathfrak{p}_i^2$ and apply the Chinese remainder theorem for the cosets $\pi_i^{\nu_i} \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_i^{\nu_i+1}}$.)

Proof.

(1) The hint gives all.

(2) The existence of π_i is guaranteed by Theorem I.3.3 (the unique prime factorization). The Chinese remainder theorem shows that there is one element $\pi \in \mathcal{O}$ such that $\pi = \pi_i^{\nu_i} \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_i^{\nu_i+1}}$ for each i.

(3) Hence $\mathfrak{p} = (\pi)$ since they have the same prime factorization.

$\square$

Exercise I.3.5.

The quotient ring $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a}$ of a Dedekind domain by an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0$ is a principal ideal domain. (Hint: For $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$ the only proper ideals of $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a}$ are given by $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$. Choose $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \smallsetminus \mathfrak{p}^2$ and show that $\mathfrak{p}^\nu = \mathcal{O}\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n$.)

Proof.

(1) By the Chinese remainder theorem, it suffices to show the case $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}^n$ where $\mathfrak{p}$ is prime.

(2) There is a natural correspondence between

$$\{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{ideals of } \mathcal{O} \text{ containing } \mathfrak{p}^n\}.$$

Hence the proper ideals of $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}^n$ are given by $\mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^n, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}^{n-1}/\mathfrak{p}^n$.

(3) Similar to Exercise I.3.4, choose $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \smallsetminus \mathfrak{p}^2$ and thus $\mathfrak{p}^\nu = \mathcal{O}\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n$ ($\nu = 1, \ldots, n-1$) since they have the same prime factorization. Hence $\mathfrak{p}^\nu/\mathfrak{p}^n = (\pi^\nu + \mathfrak{p}^n)$ is principal.

$\square$

Exercise I.3.6.

Every ideal of a Dedekind domain can be generated by two elements. (Hint: Use Exercise I.3.5.)

Proof.

(1) Given an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0$ of a Dedekind domain $\mathcal{O}$. (Nothing to do if $\mathfrak{a} = 0 = (0)$.) So $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{a}$ is a principal ideal domain (Exercise I.3.5).

(2) Take any $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a} \smallsetminus \{0\}$. So $(\alpha)/\mathfrak{a} = (\beta \pmod{\mathfrak{a}})$ is a principal ideal for some $\beta \in \mathcal{O}$. So $\mathfrak{a} = (\alpha, \beta)$ is generated by two elements.

$\square$

I.4. Lattices

Exercise I.4.1.

Show that a lattice Γ *in* $\mathbb{R}^n$ *is complete if and only if the quotient* $\mathbb{R}^n/\Gamma$ *is compact.*

Proof.

(1) ($\Longrightarrow$) Define a natural homeomorphism $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^n/\Gamma \to \mathbb{S}^1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{S}^1$ by sending $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ to $(x_1 \pmod 1), \ldots, x_n \pmod 1))$ (where $\mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is a unit circle). Note that $\mathbb{S}^1 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{S}^1$ is compact.

(2) ($\Longleftarrow$) Let V_0 be the linear subspace of V which is spanned by the set Γ. Since the vector space V/V_0 is contained in a compact set V/Γ,

$$\dim(V/V_0) = 0$$

(otherwise V/V_0 is unbounded). Hence $V_0 = V$ or Γ is complete.

$\square$

Exercise I.4.2.

Show that Minkowski's lattice point theorem cannot be improved, by giving an example of a centrally symmetric convex set $X \subset V$ *such that* $\mathrm{vol}(X) = 2^n\mathrm{vol}(\Gamma)$ *which does not contain any nonzero point of the lattice* Γ*. If* X *is compact, however, then the statement* $\mathrm{vol}(X) > 2^n\mathrm{vol}(\Gamma)$ *does remain true in the case of equality.*

Proof.

(1) Let $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}^n$ be a complete lattice in V, and $X = (-1, 1)^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a centrally symmetric convex set in V. Hence $\mathrm{vol}(X) = 2^n\mathrm{vol}(\Gamma)$ and X does not contain any nonzero point of Γ.

(2) Suppose X is compact. Consider $X_\nu = (1 + \frac{1}{m})X$ for each $\nu \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$. Thus X_ν is again a centrally symmetric convex set in V and

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{vol}(X_\nu) &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{\nu}\right)\mathrm{vol}(X)\\ &\geq \left(1 + \frac{1}{\nu}\right)2^n\mathrm{vol}(\Gamma)\\ &> 2^n\mathrm{vol}(\Gamma).\end{aligned}$$

Minkowski's lattice point theorem shows that there is one nonzero lattice point $\gamma_\nu \in \Gamma$ for $\nu = 1, 2, 3 \ldots$.

(3) By the compactness of X_1, there is a subsequence of $\{\gamma_\nu\}$ converging to $\gamma \in X_1$. Since Γ is discrete (Proposition I.4.2), there are infinitely many ν such that $\gamma = \gamma_\nu \in X_\nu$. (In particular, $\gamma \neq 0$.) Hence $\gamma \in X$ by the compactness of X.

$\square$

I.5. Minkowski Theory

Exercise I.5.2.

Show that the convex, centrally symmetric set

$$X = \left\{ (z_\tau) \in K_{\mathbb{R}} : \sum_\tau |z_\tau| < t \right\}$$

has volume $\mathrm{vol}(X) = 2^r \pi^s \frac{t^n}{n!}$.

Proof. It is the same as Lemma III.2.15. $\square$

Exercise I.5.3. (Minkowski bound)

Show that in every ideal $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0$ of $\mathcal{O}_K$ there exists an $a \neq 0$ such that

$$\left| N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(a) \right| \leq M(\mathcal{O}_K : \mathfrak{a}),$$

*where $M = \frac{n!}{n^n} \left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^s \sqrt{|d_K|}$ (the so-called **Minkowski bound**.)*

Proof.

(1) Let

$$X_t = \left\{ (z_\tau) \in K_{\mathbb{R}} : \sum_\tau |z_\tau| \leq t \right\}$$

be a convex, centrally symmetric set for any $t > 0$. Note that $\mathrm{vol}(X_t) = 2^r \pi^s \frac{t^n}{n!}$ (same as Exercise I.5.2).

(2) In particular, we take $t > 0$ so that

$$\mathrm{vol}(X_t) = 2^r \pi^s \frac{t^n}{n!} = 2^n \mathrm{vol}(\Gamma).$$

Thus the hypothesis of Minkowski's lattice point theorem in Exercise I.4.2 is satisfied. So there does indeed exist a lattice point $ja \in X_t$, $a \neq 0$, $a \in \mathfrak{a}$; in other words, $\sum_\tau |\tau a| \leq t$.

(3) Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(a)\right| &= \prod_{\tau} |\tau a| \\
&\le \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{\tau}|\tau a|\right)^{n} && \text{(AM-GM inequality)} \\
&\le \frac{t^n}{n^n} && (ja \in X_t) \\
&= \frac{1}{n^n}\frac{n!}{2^r\pi^s}2^n \operatorname{vol}(\Gamma) && \text{(Definition of } t^n\text{)} \\
&= \frac{1}{n^n}\frac{n!}{2^r\pi^s}2^n \sqrt{|d_K|}(\mathcal{O}_K : \mathfrak{a}) && \text{(Proposition I.5.2)} \\
&= \underbrace{\frac{n!}{n^n}\left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^{s}\sqrt{|d_K|}}_{:=M}(\mathcal{O}_K : \mathfrak{a}). && (n = r + 2s)
\end{aligned}
$$

□

I.6. The Class Number

Exercise I.6.3.

Show that in every ideal class of an algebraic number field K of degree n, there exists an integral ideal $\mathfrak{a}_1$ such that

$$\mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{a}_1) \le \frac{n!}{n^n}\left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^{s}\sqrt{|d_K|}$$

(Hint: Use Exercise I.3.5, proceed as in the proof of Theorem I.6.3.)

Proof.

(1) The hint gives all.

(2) Take an arbitrary representative $\mathfrak{a}$ of the class in the ideal class group, and a $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_K$, $\gamma \neq 0$, such that $\mathfrak{b} := \gamma\mathfrak{a}^{-1} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$. By Exercise I.3.5, there exists $\alpha \in \mathfrak{b}$, $\alpha \neq 0$, such that

$$\left|N_{K|\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)\right| \cdot \mathfrak{N}(\mathfrak{b})^{-1} = \mathfrak{N}((\alpha)\mathfrak{b}^{-1}) = \mathfrak{N}(\alpha\mathfrak{b}^{-1}) \le \frac{n!}{n^n}\left(\frac{4}{\pi}\right)^{s}\sqrt{|d_K|}.$$

The ideal

$$\mathfrak{a}_1 := \alpha\mathfrak{b}^{-1} = \alpha\gamma^{-1}\mathfrak{a} \in [\mathfrak{a}]$$

therefore has the required property.

(3) This exercise also shows that Cl_K is a finite group.

□

I.11. Localization

Exercise I.11.7. (Nakayama's lemma)

Let A be a local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$, let M be an A-module and $N \subseteq M$ a submodule such that M/N is finitely generated. Then one has the implication:

$$M = N + \mathfrak{m}M \Longrightarrow M = N.$$

Proof.

(1) Note that

$$M = N + \mathfrak{m}M \Longrightarrow M/N = (N + \mathfrak{m}M)/N = \mathfrak{m}(M/N).$$

So it suffices to show that $M' := M/N = 0$.

(2) (Reductio ad absurdum) If $M' \neq 0$, then there exists a minimal set of generators $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ for M'. Take $x_n \in M' = \mathfrak{m}(M')$. We have an equation of the form

$$\begin{aligned} & x_n = m_1 x_1 + \cdots + m_n x_n \\ \Longleftrightarrow\ & (1 - m_n) x_n = m_1 x_1 + \cdots + m_{n-1} x_{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

where $m_\nu \in \mathfrak{m}$ for all ν. Since $\mathfrak{m}$ is the maximal ideal of a local ring, $1 - m_n$ is a unit. So x_n is in the submodule of M' generated by $\{x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$, contrary to the minimality of n.

□

Chapter VII: Zeta Functions and L-series

VII.1. The Riemann Zeta Function

Exercise VII.1.4.

For the power sum

$$s_k(n) = 1^k + 2^k + 3^k + \cdots + n^k$$

one has

$$s_k(n) = \frac{1}{k+1}(B_{k+1}(n) - B_{k+1}(0)).$$

Proof. By Exercise VII.1.3,

$$x^k = \frac{1}{k+1}(B_{k+1}(x) - B_{k+1}(x-1)).$$

Hence the telescoping sum is

$$\begin{aligned} s_k(n) &= \sum_{x=1}^{n} x^k \\ &= \sum_{x=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k+1}(B_{k+1}(x) - B_{k+1}(x-1)) \\ &= \frac{1}{k+1}(B_{k+1}(n) - B_{k+1}(0)). \end{aligned}$$

□