# MATH 6122: Algebra II

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### Lecture 1

# Jan. 7 — Motivation for Algebraic Number Theory

#### 1.1 Motivation: Fermat's Last Theorem

**Theorem 1.1** (Fermat's last theorem<sup>1</sup>).  $x^n + y^n = z^n$  has no nonzero integer solutions when  $n \ge 3$ .

**Remark.** The n=3 case was likely solved by Fermat, and Euler and Gauss had work for n=4. So we will assume  $n \geq 5$ . We can also assume n is prime, since if n=pm, then we can instead consider

$$(x^m)^p + (y^m)^p = (z^m)^p.$$

Thus any nonzero solution to  $x^n + y^n = z^n$  also yields a nonzero solution to  $x^p + y^p = z^p$ . So let  $p \ge 5$  be prime, and let  $\zeta = \zeta_p$  be a primitive pth root of 1. Then consider

$$x^{p} + y^{p} = (x + y)(x + \zeta y)(x + \zeta^{2}y) \dots (x + \zeta^{p-1}y) = z^{p}.$$

Note that  $x + \zeta^j y \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . Let us pretend for the moment that  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a UFD.<sup>2</sup> One can check that

$$\gcd(x+\zeta^j y, x+\zeta^k y) = 1$$

whenever  $j \neq k$ . If  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  were a UFD, then we could conclude that

$$x + y\zeta = u\alpha^p$$

for some  $u \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]^{\times}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ . For the sake of illustration, suppose  $u = \pm \zeta^{j}$  for some j. Then

$$\alpha = a_0 + a_1 \zeta + \dots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{p-2}$$

for  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This gives

$$\alpha^p = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_{p-2} \pmod{p},$$

using Fermat's little theorem,  $\zeta^p = 1$ , and the binomial theorem. So  $\alpha^p = a \pmod{p}$  with  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and

$$x + y\zeta = \pm a\zeta^j \pmod{p}$$

for some  $0 \le j \le p-1$ . Note that  $\zeta^{p-1} = -(1+\zeta+\cdots+\zeta^{p-2})$ , and one can check as an exercise that this implies p|x or p|y. This would have proved the "first case" of Fermat's last theorem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This problem was finally resolved by Wiles-Taylor in 1995.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>It is far from it, and this is likely the mistake that Fermat originally made.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>In a UFD, if a product of relatively prime elements is a pth power, then each factor must itself be a pth power.

**Remark.** However, Kummer (c. 1850) observed that  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is rarely a UFD (in fact,  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a UFD if and only if  $p \leq 19$ ).<sup>4</sup> Also, when  $p \geq 5$ , the unit group of  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is always infinite (so that  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]^{\times} \neq \{\pm \zeta^{j}\}$ ).

**Theorem 1.2** (Kummer). Fermat's last theorem holds for all "regular" primes.<sup>5</sup>

**Remark.** The first irregular prime is 37, so Kummer's method works for  $3 \le n \le 36$ .

### 1.2 Algebraic Integers

**Remark.** To resolve these issues, Kummer realized that one can replace elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  by "ideal elements." Later on, Dedekind look at Kummer's work and introduced the modern notion of an ideal. We will be working towards the *unique factorization of ideals into prime ideals* in certain cases.

**Remark.** We will work at the level of generality of Dedekind rings (as opposed to just number rings). This is because there is an analogue of such a unique factorization of ideals for function fields of curves in algebraic geometry, and this framework is general enough to capture both cases.

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $K/\mathbb{Q}$  be a finite extension (i.e. a number field). Then  $\alpha \in K$  is an algebraic integer if there exists a monic polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ .

**Theorem 1.3.** Let  $A \subseteq B$  be rings and let  $b \in B$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- 1. b is integral over A (i.e. there exists a monic  $f \in A[x]$  such that f(b) = 0).
- 2. A[b] is a finitely generated A-module.<sup>6</sup>
- 3. A[b] is contained in a subring  $C \subseteq B$  which is finitely generated as an A-module.

*Proof.*  $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$  This direction is standard, one only needs powers up to deg f since f(b) = 0.

 $(2 \Rightarrow 3)$  This direction is clear since A[b] itself satisfies the desired conditions.

 $(3\Rightarrow 1)$  The idea is to argue via determinants and use the Cayley-Hamilton theorem for modules.  $\Box$ 

Corollary 1.3.1. Integrality is transitive, i.e. if B is integral over A and C is integral over B, then C is integral over A.

*Proof.* A finitely generated module over a finitely generated module is finitely generated.  $\Box$ 

Corollary 1.3.2. If  $\alpha, \beta$  are integral over A, then  $\alpha \pm \beta, \alpha\beta$  are also integral over A.

*Proof.* This is because  $\alpha \pm \beta$ ,  $\alpha\beta \subseteq C = A[\alpha][\beta]$ .

**Theorem 1.4.** The set of all algebraic integers in K (denoted  $\mathcal{O}_K$ ) forms a subring of K.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Kummer made the first real progress on Fermat's last theorem in a long time.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>A prime p is regular if p does not divide the order of the ideal class group of  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Here A[b] is the smallest subring of B containing A and b, so  $A[b] = \{a_0 + a_1b + a_2b^2 + \cdots + a_kb_k : a_i \in A\}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>We say that B is integral over A if every  $b \in B$  is integral over A.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>This theorem is not obvious: Given  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $g(\beta) = 0$ , one must find a polynomial h such that  $h(\alpha + \beta) = 0$ .