## 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 solved by Euler, and the n=4 case was solved by Fermat. So we will assume  $n \ge 5$ . 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It is far from it, and this is likely the mistake that Fermat originally made.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>8</sup>

**Remark.** This theorem is not obvious: Given  $f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $g(\beta) = 0$ , one must find a polynomial h such that  $h(\alpha + \beta) = 0$ . It is not immediately obvious how to do this.

<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>The ring of algebraic integers  $\mathcal{O}_K$  of a number field K is called a number ring.

## Lecture 2

# Jan. 9 — Algebraic Integers and Dedekind Domains

#### 2.1 More on Algebraic Integers

**Proposition 2.1.** Suppose  $\alpha, \beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Z}} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\alpha + \beta, \alpha\beta \in \overline{\mathbb{Z}}$ .

*Proof.* First, note that every algebraic integer is an eigenvalue of some integer matrix (e.g. take the companion matrix for the minimal polynomial). So take linear maps  $T_{\alpha}: V_{\alpha} \ toV_{\alpha}$  and  $T_{\beta}: V_{\beta} \to V_{\beta}$  which have  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  as eigenvalues, respectively. Then one can check that the map on the direct sum

$$T_{\alpha} \oplus T_{\beta} : V_{\alpha} \oplus V_{\beta} \to V_{\alpha} \oplus V_{\beta}$$

has  $\alpha + \beta$  as an eigenvalue. Similarly, by looking at the map on the tensor product

$$T_{\alpha} \otimes T_{\beta} : V_{\alpha} \otimes V_{\beta} \to V_{\alpha} \otimes V_{\beta}$$

has  $\alpha\beta$  as an eigenvalue. Hence we see that  $\alpha+\beta, \alpha\beta\in\overline{\mathbb{Z}}$  as well.

**Remark.** This is a constructive proof of what we showed via finitely generated modules last time.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let  $\alpha \in K$  be an algebraic number. Then  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer, i.e.  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , if and only if the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$ , call it  $f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ , has integer coefficients.

*Proof.*  $(\Leftarrow)$  This direction is clear by the definition of an algebraic integer.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) We need to show that if  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , then  $f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . By assumption, there exists some monic integer polynomial  $h \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  such that  $h(\alpha) = 0$ . From this, we know that  $f_{\alpha}|h$  in  $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ . Let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  be the roots of  $f_{\alpha}$  with  $\alpha_1 = \alpha$ . Since  $f_{\alpha}|h$ , we know that  $h(\alpha_i) = 0$  for every i, so  $h \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$  implies that  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  for each i. Thus the coefficients of  $f_{\alpha}$  are elementary symmetric functions of the  $\alpha_i$ , so

$$f_{\alpha} \in (\overline{\mathbb{Z}} \cap \mathbb{Q})[x].$$

Thus it suffices to show that  $\overline{\mathbb{Z}} \cap \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}$  to conclude the result. For this, suppose  $r/s \in \mathbb{Q}$  is the root of

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Here  $\overline{\mathbb{Z}}$  is the set of algebraic integers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note that it suffices to show that  $f_{\alpha}|h$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ , so alternatively, a suitable version of Gauss's lemma immediately implies the desired result.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>These operations preserve the notion of being an algebraic integer.

We can assume (r, s) = 1 without loss of generality.<sup>4</sup> Plugging in, we obtain

$$(r/s)^n + a_{n-1}(r/s)^{n-1} + \dots + a_1(r/s) + a_0 = 0.$$

Clearly denominators by multiplying by  $s^n$ , we obtain

$$r^{n} + a_{n-1}sr^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}s^{n-1}r + a_{0}s^{n} = 0$$

The right-hand side is divisible by s and every term on the left-hand side except  $r^n$  is divisible by s, so we must have  $s|r^n$ . Since (r,s)=1, this implies that  $s=\pm 1$ , i.e.  $r/s\in\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 2.0.1.** For  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ , we have  $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}$ . This follows from the previous lemma since the minimal polynomial of  $a \in \mathbb{Q}$  is x - a, which has integer coefficients precisely when  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Example 2.0.2.** Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ , i.e. K is quadratic number field. Clearly  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ , but this is not always an equality. For example,

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \notin \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}],$$

but  $x^2 - x - 1$  has  $\phi$  as a root.

**Exercise 2.1.** Let d be a square-free integer and  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ . Show that

$$\mathcal{O}_K = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] & \text{if } d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}, \\ \mathbb{Z}[(1+\sqrt{d})/2] & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 2.1.** Let S be a ring. If  $R \subseteq S$  is a subring, then we say that R is *integrally closed* in S if whenever  $\alpha \in S$  is integral over R, then  $\alpha \in R$ .

**Remark.** Recall that for a domain R, its field of fractions K is the localization

$$K = S^{-1}R$$

where  $S = R \setminus \{0\}$ . There is a natural embedding of R into K via  $r \mapsto r/1$ .

**Lemma 2.2.** The fraction field of  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is K. More precisely, for every  $\alpha \in K$ , there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \neq 0$ , such that  $m\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\alpha$  is algebraic, there exists some monic polynomial  $f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$  such that  $f_{\alpha}(\alpha)$ . By clearing denominators, there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $mf_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ . So we have

$$m\alpha^{n} + b_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \dots + b_{1}\alpha + b_{0} = 0,$$

and multiplying by  $m^{n-1}$  on both sides, we obtain

$$m^n \alpha^n + m^{n-1} b_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1} + \dots + m^{n-1} b_1 \alpha + m^{n-1} b_0 = 0,$$

which implies

$$(m\alpha)^n + b_{n-1}(m\alpha)^{n-1} + \dots + m^{n-2}b_1(m\alpha) + m^{n-1}b_0 = 0.$$

This shows that  $m\alpha$  is integral, i.e.  $m\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Here we write (r, s) to denote gcd(r, s).

**Theorem 2.1.** The ring of integers  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is integrally closed (in its fraction field).

*Proof.* Transitivity of integrality implies that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is integrally closed in K. The theorem then follows from the fact that K is the fraction field of  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .

**Remark.** The theorem says that (it implies the second equality)

 $\mathcal{O}_K = \{ \alpha \in K \mid \alpha \text{ is integral over } \mathbb{Z} \} = \{ \alpha \in K \mid \alpha \text{ is integral over } \mathcal{O}_K \}.$ 

#### 2.2 Dedekind Domains

**Definition 2.2.** A *Dedekind domain* is a Noetherian integrally closed domain of dimension 1.

**Remark.** Recall that all rings in this class are commutative and have a 1. A dimension 1 domain is a domain which is not a field and in which every nonzero prime ideal is maximal. In general, the dimension of a ring R is the maximum length of a chain of prime ideals of the form

$$\mathfrak{p}_0 \subsetneq \mathfrak{p}_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq \mathfrak{p}_n.$$

In dimension 1, this corresponds to  $(0) \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$  being the maximum chain for every nonzero prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$ , which is equivalent to the other definition.

**Remark.** Our goal for now will be to show that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a Dedekind domain.

**Definition 2.3.** Let k be either  $\mathbb{Q}$  or  $\mathbb{R}$  and V be a finite-dimensional k-vector space. A complete lattice in V is a discrete additive subgroup  $\Lambda$  of V which spans V, where discrete means that any bounded subset of  $\Lambda$  is finite (equivalent to being discrete in the sense of topology).

**Proposition 2.2.** Let V be as above (dimension n over k) and  $\Lambda \subseteq V$  an additive subgroup which spans V. Then the following are equivalent:

- 1.  $\Lambda$  is discrete.
- 2.  $\Lambda$  is generated by n elements.
- 3.  $\Lambda \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$  as  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules.

*Proof.*  $(2 \Leftrightarrow 3)$  This follows by the structure theorem ( $\Lambda$  is torsion-free since  $\Lambda \subseteq V$ ).

 $(1 \Rightarrow 2)$  Suppose  $\Lambda$  is discrete, and let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \Lambda$  be a basis for V. Let  $\Lambda_0$  be the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module which is spanned by  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . We claim that  $\Lambda/\Lambda_0$  is finite, which implies that  $\Lambda$  is also generated by n elements (exercise). To see the claim, we note that there exists an integer M > 0 such that if  $x = \sum \lambda_i x_i \in \Lambda$  with  $\lambda_i \in k$  and all  $|\lambda_i| < 1/M$ , then x = 0. This is standard and follows from all norms being equivalent in a finite-dimensional vector space and the assumption that  $\Lambda$  is discrete.

Now let  $y_1, y_2, ...$  be coset representatives for  $\Lambda/\Lambda_0$ . Without loss of generality (by translating in the coset), assume each  $y_i \in C$ , where C is the unit cube. Cover C by  $M^n$  boxes of the form

$$\frac{m_i}{M} \le \lambda_i < \frac{m_i + 1}{M}$$

with  $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $0 \le m_i < M$ . We must have  $|\Lambda/\Lambda_0| \le M^n$ , since otherwise we end up with two  $y_i \ne y_j$  in the same box by the pigeonhole principle, and  $y_i - y_j \in C[1/M] \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$  leads to a contradiction.

 $(2 \Rightarrow 1)$  This proof is to be finished next class.

**Theorem 2.2.** If I is a nonzero ideal in a number ring  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , then  $\mathcal{O}_K/I$  is finite.

*Proof.* The strategy is to show that if  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ , then  $\mathcal{O}_K \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$  and  $I \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$  as  $\mathbb{Z}$ -modules. This will imply that  $\mathcal{O}_K/I$  is finite, which follows from the proof of the structure theorem. In fact, we will show the that I and  $\mathcal{O}_K$  are lattices in  $K \cong \mathbb{Q}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Note that it suffices to show that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a lattice, since it immediately follows that  $I \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$  is also discrete, hence also a lattice as I is an additive subgroup.

The proof is to be finished next class.

Corollary 2.2.1. A number ring  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is Noetherian.

*Proof.* Suppose that we have an ascending chain of ideals

$$I = I_0 \subseteq I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \dots$$

Suppose without loss of generality that  $I_0 \neq 0$ . Since  $\mathcal{O}_K/I$  is finite, by an isomorphism theorem we see that there are only finitely many ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_K$  containing I. This implies that the chain must eventually stabilize, i.e. that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is Noetherian.

Corollary 2.2.2. A number ring  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is 1-dimensional.

*Proof.* Verify as an exercise that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is not a field. Now let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a nonzero prime ideal, so that  $\mathcal{O}_K/\mathfrak{p}$  is a finite domain, hence a field. This implies that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal, so  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is 1-dimensional.

**Theorem 2.3.** A number ring  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a Dedekind domain.