MATH 6122: Algebra II

Frank Qiang Instructor: Matthew Baker

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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 theorem¹). $x^n + y^n = z^n$ 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. Thus we will assume $n \ge 5$. We can also assume n is prime, since if n=pm, then we can equivalently consider

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

So let $p \geq 5$ be prime. 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.² 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 $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$.³ 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 $\zeta^p = -(1+\zeta+\cdots+\zeta^{p-2})$, 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.

¹This problem was finally resolved by Wiles-Taylor in 1995.

²It is far from it, and this is likely the mistake that Fermat originally made.

 $^{^{3}}$ 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 $p \leq 19$).⁴ 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.⁵

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.⁶
- 3. A[b] is contained in a subring $C \subseteq B$ which is finitely generated as an A-module.

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

 $(2 \Rightarrow 3)$ This implication 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.

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 α, β 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.

⁴Kummer made the first real progress on Fermat's last theorem in quite a while.

⁵A prime p is regular if p does not divide the order of the ideal class group of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$.

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

⁷We say that B is integral over A if every $b \in B$ is integral over A.

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