

PMATH 441 COURSE NOTES

ALGEBRAIC NUMBER THEORY

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1 Algebraic Integers

1.1 Motivation

At its most elementary, number theory is the study of integers. Some of the topics typically discussed in a first-year number theory course include primes, divisibility, the Euclidean algorithm, and prime factorization. Our goal in this course is to generalize these topics using commutative algebra.

One naive approach would be to consider unique factorization domains, or UFDs. However, a classic example of an integral domain that is not a UFD is $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$, which is far too integer-like to be disqualified from our discussion.

Let's do some investigation. Consider $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$. We have $(2\alpha - 1)^2 = 5$, and expanding gives us $4\alpha^2 - 4\alpha - 4 = 0$. In particular, we see that

$$\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1.$$

Next, let's consider the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \{f(\alpha) : f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]\}$. Since $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$, we have that

$$\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\},$$

since there are no need for terms α^n with $n \geq 2$. What made this simplification work?

- (a) We needed a monic polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$.
- (b) Moreover, notice that $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, so we could nicely divide all the terms by 4 in the equation $4\alpha^2 - 4\alpha - 4 = 0$.

More generally, why do we want to work with $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\alpha + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\alpha^{n-1}$? This is because it allows us to do finite-dimensional “linear algebra” over \mathbb{Z} (which is actually module theory, as we'll see soon).

1.2 Algebraic Integers

Inspired by our toy example above, let's introduce the algebraic integers.

DEFINITION 1.1

We call $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ an **algebraic integer** if there exists a monic polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$.

Note that in the above definition, we do not insist that $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is irreducible.

It is not hard to see that n and \sqrt{n} are algebraic integers for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. By our previous work, we see that $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$ is an algebraic integer. It can also be shown that i , $1 + i$ and $\zeta_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$ are all algebraic integers.

We can ignore all transcendental numbers here, because they are certainly not algebraic integers. But how do we tell if an algebraic number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ (i.e. α is algebraic over \mathbb{Q}) is an algebraic integer? The following theorem gives us a simple test to do so.

THEOREM 1.2

An algebraic number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is an algebraic integer if and only if its minimal polynomial over \mathbb{Q} has integer coefficients.

An easy corollary we can obtain is that the only algebraic integers in \mathbb{Q} are the ordinary integers. Indeed, the minimal polynomial of a rational number $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ is $m(x) = x - q$, which is in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ if and only if $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

For another example, let us consider $\beta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{3})$ (noting that $3 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ here). Performing the same manipulations as before, we deduce that $4\beta^2 - 4\beta - 2 = 0$ and hence $\beta^2 - \beta - 1/2 = 0$. In fact, $m(x) = x^2 - x - 1/2$ is the minimal polynomial for β over \mathbb{Q} . Indeed, $m(x)$ is monic by performing the eyeball test, and it is irreducible since we know the roots are $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \sqrt{3})$, which are not in \mathbb{Q} . By applying Theorem 1.2, it follows that β is *not* an algebraic integer.

A concern one might have is that $\beta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{3})$ also seems to be integer-like, and so we shouldn't dismiss it. However, we shouldn't expect it to work that nicely because it behaves more like a rational; we were more lucky with $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$ because it happened to be the case that $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, as we observed earlier.

With these examples out of the way, let's jump into the proof of the theorem. Recall that for a polynomial $f(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, the **content** of $f(x)$ is

$$\text{Content}(f(x)) = \gcd(a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0).$$

We say that $f(x)$ is **primitive** if $\text{Content}(f(x)) = 1$. Moreover, an equivalent formulation of Gauss' lemma states that if $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ are primitive, then $f(x)g(x)$ is also primitive.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.2.

(\Leftarrow) This is immediate by considering the minimal polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} , say $m(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, which is monic and satisfies $m(\alpha) = 0$.

(\Rightarrow) Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be an algebraic integer and let $m(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be its minimal polynomial. Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be monic such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Then by the properties of a minimal polynomial, we have $m(x) \mid f(x)$. That is, we can write $f(x) = m(x)g(x)$ for some $g(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Let $N_1, N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ be minimal such that $N_1 m(x), N_2 g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Note that if p is a prime dividing all coefficients of $N_1 m(x)$, then $(N_1/p)m(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, and in fact, we also have $N_1/p \in \mathbb{Z}$ since $m(x)$ is monic. This contradicts the minimality of N_1 , so $N_1 m(x)$ must be primitive. Similarly, $N_2 g(x)$ is primitive by the same argument, noting that $g(x)$ is monic since $f(x)$ and $m(x)$ are.

Now, observe that $N_1 N_2 f(x) = (N_1 m(x))(N_2 g(x))$ is primitive by Gauss' lemma. Again, we note that $f(x)$ is monic, so equating contents gives us $N_1 N_2 = 1$. It follows that $N_1 = N_2 = 1$, and in particular, we have $m(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ as desired. \square

1.3 Rings of Integers

We now work through an example which is considered a rite of passage through algebraic number theory. Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be square-free where $d \neq 1$. Recall that being square-free means that there is no multiplicity in its prime factorization. Consider the field extension

$$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) = \{a + b\sqrt{d} : a, b \in \mathbb{Q}\}.$$

In particular, K/\mathbb{Q} is a finite extension and hence algebraic. We wish to find all the algebraic integers in K .

Suppose that $\alpha = a + b\sqrt{d}$ is an algebraic integer, and let $\bar{\alpha} = a - b\sqrt{d}$ be its complex conjugate. Using some Galois theory, the minimal polynomial of α is

$$m(x) = (x - \alpha)(x - \bar{\alpha}) = x^2 - 2ax + a^2 - db^2.$$

We know that $m(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ by Theorem 1.2, so we must have $2a, a^2 - db^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Next, we have

$$4(a^2 - db^2) = (2a)^2 - d(2b)^2 \in \mathbb{Z},$$

so $d(2b)^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then by a denominator argument, we find that $2b \in \mathbb{Z}$ as well since d is square-free.

Write $u = 2a$ and $v = 2b$ so that $a = u/2$ and $b = v/2$. We obtain

$$a^2 - db^2 = \left(\frac{u}{2}\right)^2 - d\left(\frac{v}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{u^2 - dv^2}{4} \in \mathbb{Z},$$

so $u^2 - dv^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. We now consider what form α can take under a few cases. Note that the $d \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ case is impossible since d is square-free.

Case 1. If $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $u^2 \equiv v^2 \pmod{4}$. Recall that the square of an even number is $0 \pmod{4}$ and the square of an odd number is $1 \pmod{4}$, so this is equivalent to $u \equiv v \pmod{2}$. That is, we have $\alpha = a + b\sqrt{d} = (u/2) + (v/2)\sqrt{d}$ for u and v with the same parity.

Case 2. If $d \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ or $d \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then it can be shown that $u^2 - dv^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ is equivalent to having $u \equiv v \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. This means that $\alpha = a' + b'\sqrt{d}$ for some $a', b' \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We leave it as an exercise to check that these conditions are also sufficient, which can be done by reversing the arguments above.

More generally, given a finite field extension K/\mathbb{Q} , we want to describe all the algebraic integers in K . This leads us to the following definitions.

DEFINITION 1.3

We call a finite field extension K of \mathbb{Q} a **number field**. For a number field K , we call

$$\mathcal{O}_K = \{\alpha \in K : \alpha \text{ an algebraic integer}\}$$

the **ring of integers** of K .

Obviously, we'll need to prove that \mathcal{O}_K is indeed a ring (namely, a subring of \mathbb{C}). To do this, we'll define

$$\mathbb{A} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z \text{ an algebraic integer}\}$$

and show that \mathbb{A} is a ring, which will imply that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{A} \cap K$ is a ring too.

Before that, let's move on to some more definitions. Recall that in Section 1.1, we wanted to work with

$$\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\alpha + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\alpha^{n-1}$$

where $\alpha \in \mathbb{A}$ in order to do “linear algebra” over \mathbb{Z} . But \mathbb{Z} is not a field, so we'll need something more general.

DEFINITION 1.4

Let R be a ring. An **R -module** is an abelian group $(M, +)$ together with an operation $\cdot : R \times M \rightarrow M$ such that

- (i) for all $m \in M$, we have $1m = m$;
- (ii) for all $r_1, r_2 \in R$ and $m \in M$, we have $(r_1 + r_2)m = r_1m + r_2m$;
- (iii) for all $r \in R$ and $m_1, m_2 \in M$, we have $r(m_1 + m_2) = rm_1 + rm_2$;
- (iv) for all $r_1, r_2 \in R$ and $m \in M$, we have $(r_1r_2)m = r_1(r_2m)$.

We can think of the operation $\cdot : R \times M \rightarrow M$ as the “ R -action on M ”. Note that if R is a field, then an R -module is the same as an R -vector space, so this definition indeed captures the essence of doing linear algebra. Let's go over a few examples of R -modules.

- (1) Every ring R is an R -module over itself with operation $r \cdot m = rm$.
- (2) If S is a subring of R , then R is an S -module with operation $s \cdot r = sr$.
- (3) Thinking in the linear algebra setting, we can view \mathbb{R}^n as an R -module for every ring R with operation $r \cdot [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T = [rx_1, \dots, rx_n]^T$.

(4) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and let $(M, +)$ be an R -module. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} n \cdot m &= (1 + \cdots + 1) \cdot m \\ &= 1 \cdot m + \cdots + 1 \cdot m \\ &= m + \cdots + m \\ &= nm. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we can show that $(-n) \cdot m = -(n \cdot m) = -nm$. Therefore, the only possible \mathbb{Z} -action on M is the one we expect, namely that of repeated addition. In particular, the \mathbb{Z} -module structure does not impose anything on M ; it is just an abelian group.

We now do a quick crash course in module theory and list more definitions.

DEFINITION 1.5

Let R be a ring, and let M be an R -module.

- (1) We say that $N \subseteq M$ is an **R -submodule** of M if N is an R -module under the same operations as M . That is, N is an additive subgroup of M closed under the R -action.
- (2) Let M_1 and M_2 be R -modules. Then $f : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ is a **homomorphism** if
 - (i) $f(m_1 + m_2) = f(m_1) + f(m_2)$ for all $m_1, m_2 \in M_1$;
 - (ii) $f(rm) = rf(m)$ for all $r \in R$ and $m \in M_1$.

If f is also bijective, then we call it an **isomorphism**.

- (3) We say that M is **finitely generated** if there exists $m_1, \dots, m_n \in M$ such that

$$M = Rm_1 + \cdots + Rm_n := \{r_1m_1 + \cdots + r_nm_n : r_1, \dots, r_n \in R\}.$$

For example, if we view R as an R -module over itself, then the R -submodules are precisely the ideals of R . Indeed, by definition, ideals are additive subgroups that are closed under multiplication by R . In this course, there is no need to specify left or right ideals because we assume that every ring is commutative and unital.

Let's move back to number theory! We give a definition that takes the idea of algebraic integers and generalizes it to arbitrary rings. Note that in this course, the notation $R \subseteq S$ means that R is a subring of S under the same operations.

DEFINITION 1.6

Let $R \subseteq S$ be integral domains. We say that $\alpha \in S$ is **integral** over R if there exists a monic polynomial $f(x) \in R[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$.

If we take $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $S = \mathbb{C}$, then being integral is the same as being an algebraic integer. All of these definitions are handy to know for a course in commutative algebra, but why are we moving in this direction? The following theorem gives us a nice characterization of being integral, which allows us to apply it to our number theory setting for algebraic integers.

THEOREM 1.7

Let $R \subseteq S$ be integral domains. Then $\alpha \in S$ is integral over R if and only if $R[\alpha] = \{f(\alpha) : f(x) \in R[x]\}$ is finitely generated as an R -module.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.7.

(\Rightarrow) Let $\alpha \in S$ be integral over R . Then we can write

$$\alpha^n + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1\alpha + a_0 = 0$$

for some $a_i \in R$, as α is the root of some monic polynomial over R . In particular, we have

$$\alpha^n = -a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} - \cdots - a_1\alpha - a_0,$$

so every element in $R[\alpha]$ can be written as a linear combination of elements from $\{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$. In other words, $R[\alpha] = R + R\alpha + \cdots + R\alpha^{n-1}$ is finitely generated.

(\Leftarrow) Since R is finitely generated, we can write it in the form

$$R[\alpha] = Rf_1(\alpha) + \cdots + Rf_n(\alpha)$$

for some polynomials $f_i(x) \in R[x]$. Take $N = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{\deg f_i(x)\}$. Note that $\alpha^{N+1} \in R[\alpha]$, so we have

$$\alpha^{N+1} = r_1f_1(\alpha) + \cdots + r_nf_n(\alpha)$$

for some $r_i \in R$. Next, consider the polynomial

$$g(x) = x^{N+1} - r_1f_1(x) - \cdots - r_nf_n(x) \in R[x].$$

Note that $g(\alpha) = 0$ and $g(x)$ is monic by our choice of N , so we conclude that α is integral over R . \square

As we have seen in a course in Galois theory, finding a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ which has α as a root is generally a difficult task. Showing that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is finitely generated is often easier than doing this!

For a number field K , we still haven't shown that \mathcal{O}_K is a ring. We mentioned our approach before, which is to show that $\mathbb{A} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z \text{ an algebraic integer}\}$ is a subring of \mathbb{C} , which implies that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{A} \cap K$ is also a ring. Let's try to do this now with the machinery we have.

THEOREM 1.8

The algebraic integers \mathbb{A} form a subring of \mathbb{C} .

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.8.

Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{A}$. By the subring test, it suffices to show that $\alpha - \beta$ and $\alpha\beta$ are elements of \mathbb{A} . By Theorem 1.7, we just need to show that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha - \beta]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha\beta]$ are finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -modules.

We know that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\beta]$ are finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -modules again by Theorem 1.7, so we can write $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z}\alpha_1 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\alpha_n$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\beta] = \mathbb{Z}\beta_1 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}\beta_m$ for some $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ and $\beta_j \in \mathbb{Z}[\beta]$. Then

$$\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta] = \{f(\alpha, \beta) : f(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]\}$$

is also finitely generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by $\{\alpha_i\beta_j : 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$. We have that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha - \beta]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha\beta]$ are \mathbb{Z} -submodules of the finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta]$. \square

In our attempted argument above, we may have lost track of the goal. We see that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta]$ is an extremely large \mathbb{Z} -module, and in fact, it is not true in general that a submodule of a finitely generated R -module is also finitely generated!

For example, take $R = \mathbb{Z}[x_1, x_2, \dots]$. Then R is a finitely generated R -module since $R = R1$. However, consider the ideal $I = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots \rangle$, which is a submodule of R as we discussed before. Then I is not finitely generated because any possible generating set would only give us finitely many indeterminates.

To get out of this mess, we need a new definition.

DEFINITION 1.9

Let R be a ring. We say that R is **Noetherian** if every submodule (ideal) of R (as an R -module) is finitely generated.

Now, the submodules of \mathbb{Z} are the most finitely generated we could possibly get since \mathbb{Z} is a PID (namely, every submodule is generated by a single element), so \mathbb{Z} is Noetherian. In particular, the following theorem is enough to rescue our proof of Theorem 1.8, so \mathbb{A} is a ring and so is \mathcal{O}_K for a number field K .

THEOREM 1.10

Let R be a Noetherian ring, and let M be a finitely generated R -module. Then every submodule of M is also finitely generated.

We first make a reduction. Suppose that M is a finitely generated R -module with $M = R\alpha_1 + \cdots + R\alpha_n$ for some $\alpha_i \in M$. This can be “relabelled” with a surjective homomorphism $f : R^n \rightarrow M$ defined by $(r_1, \dots, r_n) \mapsto r_1\alpha_1 + \cdots + r_n\alpha_n$. In particular, if $N \subseteq M$ is a submodule, then $f^{-1}(N) \subseteq R^n$. Moreover, provided that $f^{-1}(N)$ is finitely generated, say $f^{-1}(N) = R\beta_1 + \cdots + R\beta_n$ for some $\beta_i \in N$, then $N = Rf(\beta_1) + \cdots + Rf(\beta_n)$ is also finitely generated.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.10.

Due to the above reduction, we may assume that $M = R^n$. If $n = 1$, then since R is Noetherian, every submodule is finitely generated by definition. Next, assume the result holds for n and consider $M = R^{n+1}$.

Consider the projection homomorphism $\pi : R^{n+1} \rightarrow R$ given by

$$\pi(r_1, \dots, r_{n+1}) = r_{n+1}.$$

Let N be a submodule of M , and consider the submodule

$$N_1 = \{(r_1, \dots, r_{n+1}) \in N : r_{n+1} = 0\}.$$

This is isomorphic to a submodule of R^n by simply ignoring the last element, so N_1 is finitely generated by the inductive hypothesis. Moreover, $N_2 = \pi(N)$ is a submodule of R , which is finitely generated because R is Noetherian. Thus, we can write $N_1 = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_p$ for some $x_i \in N_1$ and $N_2 = R\pi(y_1) + \cdots + R\pi(y_q)$ for some $y_j \in N$.

Let $x \in N$. Then by applying π to x , we have

$$\pi(x) = r_1\pi(y_1) + \cdots + r_q\pi(y_q)$$

for some $r_1, \dots, r_q \in R$. But π is a homomorphism, so

$$\pi(x - r_1y_1 - \cdots - r_qy_q) = 0.$$

This means that $x - r_1y_1 - \cdots - r_qy_q \in N_1$, so we can find $\tilde{r}_1, \dots, \tilde{r}_p \in R$ such that

$$x - r_1y_1 - \cdots - r_qy_q = \tilde{r}_1x_1 + \cdots + \tilde{r}_px_p.$$

In particular, rearranging this gives us

$$x = r_1y_1 + \cdots + r_qy_q + \tilde{r}_1x_1 + \cdots + \tilde{r}_px_p,$$

so we deduce that $N = Ry_1 + \cdots + Ry_q + Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_p$ is finitely generated. \square

1.4 Additive Structure

Let K be a number field so that $[K : \mathbb{Q}] < \infty$. So far, it has been very useful to consider \mathcal{O}_K as a \mathbb{Z} -module. Let's investigate the \mathbb{Z} -module $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$, throwing away the multiplicative structure.

DEFINITION 1.11

Let R be a ring and M be an R -module.

- (1) We say $B \subseteq M$ is **linearly independent** if for all $m_1, \dots, m_n \in B$, the dependence relation $r_1 m_1 + \dots + r_n m_n = 0$ implies that $r_1 = \dots = r_n = 0$.
- (2) We say $B \subseteq M$ **spans** M if for all $x \in M$, there exist $b_1, \dots, b_n \in B$ and $r_1, \dots, r_n \in R$ such that

$$x = r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_n b_n.$$

- (3) We say $B \subseteq M$ is a **basis** for M if B is a linearly independent set that spans M .
- (4) If M has a basis, we call it a **free** R -module. The (unique) size of a basis for M is called the **rank** of M , denoted $\text{rank}(M)$.

Note that $B \subseteq M$ is a basis for M if and only if every $x \in M$ can be uniquely written as $x = r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_n b_n$ for some $r_i \in R$ and $b_i \in B$. In particular, M is free with $\text{rank}(M) = n < \infty$ if and only if $M \cong R^n$ via the mapping $(r_1, \dots, r_n) \mapsto r_1 b_1 + \dots + r_n b_n$, where $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ is a basis. We give some examples below.

- (1) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then M has basis $B = \{1, x, x^2, \dots\}$, so M is free but not finitely generated.
- (2) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z}_2$. Note that $2 \cdot 1 = 0$, but $2 \neq 0$ in R . This means that the only linearly independent set is \emptyset , and since this is the only candidate for a basis, it follows that M is not free (but it is certainly finitely generated).
- (3) **Warning!** Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$, $M = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$, and $N = \mathbb{Z} \times 2\mathbb{Z}$. Note that M is free with basis $B_1 = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and has $\text{rank}(M) = 2$. Similarly, N is free with basis $B_2 = \{(1, 0), (0, 2)\}$ and has $\text{rank}(N) = 2$. However, we have $M \neq N$! So unlike the linear algebra over fields we saw in previous courses where every linearly independent set with size equal to the rank will also span, this is not the case here.

We now steal some facts from commutative algebra without proof.

PROPOSITION 1.12

Let R be a PID. Let M be a free R -module with $\text{rank}(M) = n < \infty$.

- (1) Let $N \subseteq M$ be a submodule. Then N is free with $\text{rank}(N) \leq n$.
- (2) Any maximal linearly independent subset of M has n elements.

However, as we saw from the example above, being a maximal linearly independent subset of M does not imply that it must span M .

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Our goal is to find an embedding (injective ring homomorphism) $\varphi : \mathcal{O}_K \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that $\text{rank}(\varphi(\mathcal{O}_K)) = n$. This will tell us that $\mathcal{O}_K \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules. In particular, $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$ is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n . This leads us to the following definition.

DEFINITION 1.13

Let M be a free \mathbb{Z} -module. A basis for M is called an **integral basis**.

In other words, an integral basis is just a basis in the case that $R = \mathbb{Z}$.

We now give the tools of the trade for algebraic number theory. These are not the usual definitions given in the literature, but we do it this way to motivate why they are called norms and traces.

DEFINITION 1.14

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Let $\alpha \in K$ and let $T_\alpha : K \rightarrow K$ defined by $T_\alpha(x) = \alpha x$ (which is viewed as a \mathbb{Q} -linear transformation).

- (1) The **trace** of α relative to K/\mathbb{Q} is defined to be $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) := \text{Tr}(T_\alpha)$.
- (2) The **norm** of α relative to K/\mathbb{Q} is defined to be $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) := \det(T_\alpha)$.

Since T_α is a \mathbb{Q} -linear operator, the entries of any matrix representation must be rational. In particular, we have $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha), N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Investigation 1. Let K be a number field of degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $\alpha \in K$. Let's see if we can find some properties of the trace and norm in the special case that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$.

Let β be a basis for K/\mathbb{Q} and let $A = [T_\alpha]_\beta$, the matrix of T_α relative to β . Let

$$f(x) = \det(xI - A) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$$

be the characteristic polynomial of A , and let $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of A . That is, $p(x)$ is the unique monic irreducible generating the ideal

$$\langle p(x) \rangle = \{g(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x] : g(T_\alpha) = 0\}.$$

Note that if $g(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ and $v \in K$, then

$$g(T_\alpha)(v) = g(\alpha)v$$

since $T_\alpha^m(v) = \alpha^m v$ for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, we have $g(T_\alpha) = 0$ if and only if $g(\alpha) = 0$, so $p(x)$ is also the minimal polynomial for α over \mathbb{Q} . Recall that Cayley-Hamilton states that an operator makes its characteristic polynomial vanish, so $f(\alpha) = f(T_\alpha) = 0$ and hence $p(x) \mid f(x)$.

Now, we have $\deg f(x) = [K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ and $\deg p(x) = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ since $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Since $f(x)$ and $p(x)$ are both monic, it turns out that $f(x) = p(x)$ in this special case. With this in mind, we are now equipped with several different ways to compute the trace and norm of α relative to K/\mathbb{Q} .

Let $\alpha = \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the conjugates of α (that is, the roots of $p(x)$ in \mathbb{C}). Recall that the roots of the characteristic polynomial of an operator are the eigenvalues λ_i (with multiplicity). Since $f(x) = p(x)$, we have $\lambda_i = \alpha_i$ and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i, \\ N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \prod_{i=1}^n \alpha_i. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, if we explicitly expand out the terms in $p(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$, then we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = -[x^{n-1}]p(x), \\ N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = (-1)^n [x^0]p(x) = (-1)^n p(0), \end{aligned}$$

where $[x^i]p(x)$ denotes the coefficient corresponding to the x^i term in $p(x)$.

Finally, recall from Galois theory that the embeddings of $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ into \mathbb{C} must fix \mathbb{Q} and are completely determined by their action on α , which must be sent to another conjugate of α . Writing the embeddings as $\sigma_i(\alpha) = \alpha_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, we also see that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(\alpha), \\ N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(\alpha).\end{aligned}$$

The condition that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ was very restrictive because this does not hold for every $\alpha \in K$. Let's now try to compute the trace and norm in the general case without this assumption. We will use the following lemma, whose proof is quite technical.

LEMMA 1.15

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $\alpha \in K$ be such that $[K : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)] = m$. Consider the map $T_\alpha : K \rightarrow K$ given by

$$T_\alpha(x) = \alpha x.$$

Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the characteristic polynomial of T_α and let $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of α . Then we have $f(x) = p(x)^m$.

Note that by our investigation above, we can also view $p(x)$ as the minimal polynomial of T_α restricted to $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Moreover, when $m = 1$, we have $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and we recover our special case.

PROOF OF LEMMA 1.15.

Let $\beta = \{y_1, \dots, y_d\}$ be a basis for $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ over \mathbb{Q} , and let $\beta' = \{z_1, \dots, z_m\}$ be a basis for K over $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. By the tower theorem, which states that algebraic field extensions are transitive, we have that $\{y_i z_j : 1 \leq i \leq d, 1 \leq j \leq m\}$ is a basis for K over \mathbb{Q} .

Let $A = [T_\alpha]_\beta \in M_d(\mathbb{Q})$, where we consider the restriction $T_\alpha : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Then we have

$$\alpha y_i = T_\alpha(y_i) = A[y_i]_\beta \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_d \end{bmatrix} = A e_i \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_d \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{k=1}^d a_{ki} y_k.$$

This implies that

$$\alpha y_i z_j = \sum_{k=1}^d a_{ki} y_k z_j.$$

Consider now the ordered basis

$$\gamma = (y_1 z_1, \dots, y_d z_1, y_1 z_2, \dots, y_d z_2, \dots, y_1 z_m, \dots, y_d z_m).$$

We leave it as an exercise to verify that

$$[T_\alpha]_\gamma = \mathrm{diag}(A, A, \dots, A) = \begin{bmatrix} A & & & \\ & A & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & A \end{bmatrix}.$$

It follows from our investigation that $f(x) = \det(xI - A)^m = p(x)^m$. □

Investigation 2. Equipped with this lemma, let's look at the general case. Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $\alpha \in K$ satisfy $[K : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)] = m$. Let λ_i denote the eigenvalues of $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, the characteristic polynomial of T_α . When $p(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is the minimal polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} , we know by Lemma 1.15 that $f(x) = p(x)^m$, so the eigenvalues of $f(x)$ are the eigenvalues of $p(x)$ each repeated m times. Thus, we obtain

$$\mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \mathrm{Tr}(T_\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = m(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_{n/m}),$$

where $n/m = [\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}]$ by the tower theorem. Similarly, we have

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = (\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_{n/m})^m.$$

As before, let $\alpha = \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n/m}$ be the conjugates of α , which are the roots of $p(x)$ in \mathbb{C} . The embeddings of $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ into \mathbb{C} are given by $\sigma_i(\alpha) = \alpha_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n/m$. Then by A1-4, each σ_i extends to exactly $m = [K : \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)]$ embeddings of K into \mathbb{C} . If ρ_1, \dots, ρ_n are the embeddings of K into \mathbb{C} , then

$$\mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = m(\sigma_1(\alpha) + \cdots + \sigma_{n/m}(\alpha)) = \rho_1(\alpha) + \cdots + \rho_n(\alpha),$$

since for each $i = 1, \dots, n/m$, exactly m of the ρ_i are extensions of σ_i . Similarly, we have

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \rho_1(\alpha) \cdots \rho_n(\alpha) = (\sigma_1(\alpha) \cdots \sigma_{n/m}(\alpha))^m.$$

Let's investigate some more properties of norm and trace. Suppose that $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in K$ and $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. We'll do a reset of notation and let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ be the embeddings of K in \mathbb{C} .

(1) Looking at trace, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(q\alpha + \beta) &= \sigma_1(q\alpha + \beta) + \cdots + \sigma_n(q\alpha + \beta) \\ &= q\sigma_1(\alpha) + \sigma_1(\beta) + \cdots + q\sigma_n(\alpha) + \sigma_n(\beta) \\ &= q \mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) + \mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta), \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality is because the embeddings fix \mathbb{Q} . In particular, trace is a \mathbb{Q} -linear map!

(2) We also have that

$$N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(q\alpha\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(q\alpha\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n q\sigma_i(\alpha)\sigma_i(\beta) = q^n N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta).$$

So norm doesn't behave too well with respect to scalar multiplication, but it is a multiplicative map.

(3) Finally, suppose that $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Note that the $\sigma_i(\alpha)$ are also roots of the minimal polynomial $p(x)$ of α . In particular, we have $\sigma_i(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_K$, and hence

$$\mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_K \cap \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}.$$

Similarly, we see that $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

To end our discussion on traces and norms, let's compute them on a simple example. Consider $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ where $d \neq 1$ is square-free. Let $\alpha = a + b\sqrt{d}$ with $b \neq 0$. Then α has the conjugate $a - b\sqrt{d}$, so we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= (a + b\sqrt{d}) + (a - b\sqrt{d}) = 2a, \\ N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) &= (a + b\sqrt{d})(a - b\sqrt{d}) = a^2 - db^2. \end{aligned}$$

Recall from ring theory that an element $a + b\sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$ is a unit if and only if $a^2 - db^2 = \pm 1$. In fact, we can prove something more general. Let K be a number field, let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers, and let $\alpha \in R$. We leave it as an exercise to show that $\alpha \in R^\times$ if and only if $N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm 1$, where R^\times denotes the group of units.

Let's not lose track of why we moved towards discussing traces and norms. Recall that we were discussing the additive structure of \mathcal{O}_K for a number field K with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Our aim was to prove that $(\mathcal{O}_K, +) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules so that $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$ is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n . Trace turns out to be the star of the show here!

THEOREM 1.16

Let K be a number field with degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Then $(\mathcal{O}_K, +) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules. In particular, $(\mathcal{O}_K, +)$ is a free \mathbb{Z} -module of rank n .

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.16.

Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a \mathbb{Q} -basis for K . By part (b) of **A1-1**, we may assume without loss of generality that $x_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Define a map $\varphi : K \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^n$ by

$$\varphi(x) = (\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(xx_1), \dots, \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(xx_n)).$$

Note that φ is \mathbb{Q} -linear because we showed earlier that $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}$ is a \mathbb{Q} -linear map.

Let's look for the kernel of φ . Note that if $\varphi(x) = (0, \dots, 0)$, then $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(xx_i) = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$. But this implies that $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(xy) = 0$ for all $y \in K$ since the x_i form a \mathbb{Q} -basis for K . Moreover, if $x \neq 0$, then

$$\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(xx^{-1}) = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(1) = n \neq 0.$$

Thus, $\ker \varphi = \{0\}$ and φ is an injective linear transformation.

Next, we see that $\mathcal{O}_K \cong \varphi(\mathcal{O}_K) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$ because we showed before that the trace of an algebraic integer was in \mathbb{Z} . So \mathcal{O}_K is isomorphic to a \mathbb{Z} -submodule of \mathbb{Z}^n . By Proposition 1.12, it follows that \mathcal{O}_K is free with $\text{rank}(\mathcal{O}_K) \leq n$. But $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} and hence linearly independent over \mathbb{Z} as well. This gives us $\text{rank}(\mathcal{O}_K) \geq n$ and thus $\text{rank}(\mathcal{O}_K) = n$, as desired. \square

This gives us the existence of an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . The existence of this integral basis allows us to prove an avalanche of corollaries which we'll be able to make use of later.

Warning! Note that for a number field K , a \mathbb{Q} -basis consisting only of algebraic integers is not necessarily an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . For example, let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$. Then $\{1, \sqrt{5}\} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ is a \mathbb{Q} -basis of algebraic integers for $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, but is not an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K since $\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5}) \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

COROLLARY 1.17

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers. If I is a nonzero ideal of R , then $(I, +) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$.

PROOF OF COROLLARY 1.17.

Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be an integral basis for $R = \mathcal{O}_K$, which exists due to Theorem 1.16. Take $a \in I$ such that $a \neq 0$. We leave it as an exercise to show that $\{ax_1, \dots, ax_n\} \subseteq I$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Z} , so $\text{rank}(I) \geq n$. Then by Proposition 1.12, we have $\text{rank}(I) \leq n$ and thus $\text{rank}(I) = n$. \square

We steal one more fact from commutative algebra. This is a consequence of the structure theorem of finitely generated modules over PIDs, and we know that \mathbb{Z} is a PID.

PROPOSITION 1.18

If M is a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module, then $M \cong \mathbb{Z}^k \times T$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules, where T is finite. (We call \mathbb{Z}^k the free part and T the torsion part.)

We make use this fact to prove the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1.19

Let K be a number field with degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers. If I is a nonzero ideal of R , then R/I is finite.

PROOF OF COROLLARY 1.19.

By Proposition 1.18, we have $R/I \cong \mathbb{Z}^k \times T$ as \mathbb{Z} -modules, where T is finite. It is enough to show that R/I has no elements of infinite order, as this will imply that $R/I \cong T$ is finite. Suppose otherwise, and let $\bar{x} = x + I \in R/I$ be an element of infinite order. Let $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be an integral basis for I , which exists by Corollary 1.17. Note that $x \notin I$ for otherwise $\bar{x} = \bar{0}$, which has finite order. In particular, we see that x is distinct from the x_i . We claim that $\{x, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Z} . Consider the relation

$$cx + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i = 0.$$

for some $c, c_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i \in I$, this gives us $c\bar{x} = \bar{0}$, and thus $c = 0$ since \bar{x} has infinite order. Then the linear independence of $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ over \mathbb{Z} implies that $c_1 = \dots = c_n = 0$, so $\{x, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is linearly independent over \mathbb{Z} . But this contradicts the fact that R has rank n , so the result follows. \square

We prove two more easy but important corollaries.

COROLLARY 1.20

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Every nonzero prime ideal of R is maximal.

PROOF OF COROLLARY 1.20.

Let P be a prime ideal. Then R/P is an integral domain, and by Corollary 1.19, it is finite. A finite integral domain is a field, which implies that P must be maximal. \square

COROLLARY 1.21

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Then R is Noetherian.

PROOF OF COROLLARY 1.21.

Let I be an ideal of R . Then I is a free \mathbb{Z} -module with finite rank n by Corollary 1.17, so I is a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module by using the integral basis as a generating set. Since $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq R$, it follows that I is also a finitely generated R -module. \square

2 Discriminants

2.1 Elementary Properties

Let K be a number with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ and consider its ring of integers $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Given $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq R$, we want to find a way to discriminate whether or not $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is an integral basis for R . This leads us to the notion of the discriminant.

DEFINITION 2.1

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n$ be the embeddings of K into \mathbb{C} . The **discriminant** of $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \subseteq K$ is

$$\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \det[\sigma_i(a_j)]^2.$$

In the matrix $[\sigma_i(a_j)]$ above, the rows are encoded by the embeddings σ_i and the columns are encoded by the elements a_j . Now, let's investigate some properties of the discriminant.

- (1) The discriminant is independent of the choice of ordering for both the embeddings σ_i and the elements a_j . This is because squaring the determinant kills any negatives obtained by flipping rows or columns.
- (2) Let $B = [\sigma_i(a_j)]$ and $A = [\sigma_j(a_i)] = B^T$. Taking the transpose leaves the determinant unchanged, so

$$\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \det(AB).$$

Now, observe that the (i, j) -th entry of AB is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1(a_i) \\ \sigma_2(a_i) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_i) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1(a_j) \\ \sigma_2(a_j) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_n(a_j) \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma_k(a_i a_j) = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a_i a_j).$$

Thus, we obtain an equivalent definition of the discriminant seen in some texts, which is given by

$$\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \det[\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a_i a_j)] \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Moreover, if we also assume that $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathcal{O}_K$, then

$$\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Q} \cap \mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}.$$

- (3) Let $v, w \in K^n$ and $A \in M_n(\mathbb{Q})$ be such that $Av = w$. Observe that

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_i(v_1) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_i(v_n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_i(a_{11}v_1 + \dots + a_{1n}v_n) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_i(a_{n1}v_1 + \dots + a_{nn}v_n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_i(w_1) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma_i(w_n) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore, we deduce that

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1(v_1) & \cdots & \sigma_n(v_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_1(v_n) & \cdots & \sigma_n(v_n) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1(w_1) & \cdots & \sigma_n(w_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_1(w_n) & \cdots & \sigma_n(w_n) \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrices above are the transposes of the matrices in the definition of the discriminant, since the columns encode the embeddings and the rows encode the elements this time. Taking squared determinants gives the nice relationship

$$(\det A)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w).$$

- (4) Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ be an integral basis. Suppose that $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$. Then for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, there must exist some $c_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$w_i = c_{i1}v_1 + \dots + c_{in}v_n.$$

Then we can write $w = Cv$ where $C = [c_{ij}]$, which yields

$$\text{disc}(w) = (\det C)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v).$$

Denoting the integral basis by $\beta = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and defining the map $T : \mathcal{O}_K \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_K$ by $T(v_i) = w_i$ (which is a \mathbb{Z} -linear homomorphism), we obtain

$$[T]_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} [T(v_1)]_\beta & \dots & [T(v_n)]_\beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [w_1]_\beta & \dots & [w_n]_\beta \end{bmatrix} = C^T.$$

- (5) Let $A \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$. If A is invertible, then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \text{adj}(A),$$

where $\text{adj}(A)$ denotes the adjugate of A . In particular, we have $\text{adj}(A) \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$, so $A^{-1} \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$ if and only if $\det(A) \in \{\pm 1\}$.

- (6) Let $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \subseteq K$ and consider the dependence relation

$$c_1a_1 + \dots + c_na_n = 0$$

for some $c_i \in \mathbb{Q}$ which are not all zero. Then we have

$$c_1\sigma_i(a_1) + \dots + c_n\sigma_i(a_n) = 0$$

for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, which implies that the columns of $[\sigma_i(a_j)]$ are linearly dependent. Hence, we obtain

$$\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \det[\sigma_i(a_j)]^2 = 0.$$

We leave it as an exercise to verify that the converse holds. That is, $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \subseteq K$ is linearly dependent if and only if $\text{disc}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$.

- (7) Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$. If $\text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w)$ and $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is an integral basis, then we have $Cv = w$ for some $C \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$ by (4). Then we have

$$(\det C)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w),$$

which implies that $(\det C)^2 = 1$ since $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is an integral basis and hence $\text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w) \neq 0$. By (5), it follows that C is invertible with $C^{-1} \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$. Then C^T is also invertible with integer inverse, which implies that the map $T : \mathcal{O}_K \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_K$ given by $T(v_i) = w_i$ is an invertible \mathbb{Z} -linear map; in other words, it is an isomorphism! Hence, $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ is also an integral basis.

Conversely, if $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}, \{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ are both integral bases, then $Av = w$ and $Bw = v$ for some $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$. Then we have

$$(\det A)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w),$$

$$(\det B)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(w) = \text{disc}(v),$$

which gives us $\text{disc}(w) \mid \text{disc}(v)$ and $\text{disc}(v) \mid \text{disc}(w)$ since $\det(A), \det(B) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Moreover, they have the same sign, so $\text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w)$.

In summary, given an integral basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$, another subset $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K if and only if $\text{disc}(v) = \text{disc}(w)$.

2.2 Discriminant of a Number Field

Let K be a number field with degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Due to (7) above, every integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K has the same discriminant. This motivates the following definition.

DEFINITION 2.2

Let K be a number field with degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . The **discriminant** of K is

$$\text{disc}(K) := \text{disc}(v_1, \dots, v_n).$$

Let's take a number field we've already worked with before. Let $d \neq 1$ be squarefree and consider $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. We saw in the beginning of Section 1.3 that the algebraic integers in K took different forms depending on the choice of d .

(1) If $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $\{1, \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2}\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . The discriminant of K is

$$\text{disc}(K) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1-\sqrt{d}}{2} \end{bmatrix}^2 = \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{d}}{2} - \frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} \right)^2 = (-\sqrt{d})^2 = d.$$

(2) If $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\{1, \sqrt{d}\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . The discriminant of K is

$$\text{disc}(K) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{d} \\ 1 & -\sqrt{d} \end{bmatrix}^2 = 4d.$$

2.3 Computational Considerations

The reason why we could compute the discriminant so easily in the above example is because we already knew what an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K was. However, finding an integral basis in general is a difficult task. Therefore, we should consider alternative ways of computing the discriminant.

DEFINITION 2.3

Let $p(x) = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2) \cdots (x - \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$. The **discriminant** of $p(x)$ is

$$\text{disc}(p(x)) = \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2.$$

It is not hard to verify that the discriminant of a monic quadratic is

$$\text{disc}(x^2 + bx + c) = b^2 - 4c,$$

and the discriminant of a depressed cubic is

$$\text{disc}(x^3 + bx + c) = -4b^3 - 27c^2.$$

Note that a general monic cubic $x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$ can be converted into a depressed cubic by making the substitution $x \mapsto x - \frac{a}{3}$ to eliminate the x^2 term. The discriminant remains unchanged because the linear shifts are cancelled out by the $\alpha_i - \alpha_j$ terms.

We give another definition of the discriminant for simple extensions.

DEFINITION 2.4

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Then the **discriminant** of α is

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) := \text{disc}(1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}).$$

Let's jump into another investigation, this one much shorter than the last.

- (1) Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ with $[\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Then $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is an integral basis for $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. This particular basis is often called a **power basis**.
- (2) Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Set $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and suppose that $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Then we have

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 & \cdots & \alpha_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 & \cdots & \alpha_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \alpha_n & \alpha_n^2 & \cdots & \alpha_n^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}^2 = \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2 = \text{disc}(p(x)),$$

where $p(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of α . Here, we got a Vandermonde matrix squared!

- (3) Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$. Set $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ and suppose that $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . Then for some $A \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha \\ \vdots \\ \alpha^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = A \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Then we deduce that

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = (\det A)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(K) = [\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]]^2 \cdot \text{disc}(K).$$

The last equality follows from **A2-4**, noting that $\mathcal{O}_K \cong \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is a submodule of \mathcal{O}_K of rank n . In particular, if $\text{disc}(\alpha)$ is squarefree, then we must have $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$.

Suppose that $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of $p(x) = x^3 + x + 1$, which is irreducible by the rational roots theorem. Then

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = -4 - 27 = -31$$

is squarefree, so if $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, then $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \{a + b\alpha + c\alpha^2 : a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

In this spirit of this course, let's do some more investigation. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, and suppose that $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Let $p(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} , and let $\alpha = \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the conjugates. Then we have $p(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$, and its derivative is

$$p'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_{i-1})(x - \alpha_{i+1}) \cdots (x - \alpha_n).$$

Substituting $x = \alpha_i$ gives

$$p'(\alpha_i) = (\alpha_i - \alpha_1) \cdots (\alpha_i - \alpha_{i-1})(\alpha_i - \alpha_{i+1}) \cdots (\alpha_i - \alpha_n)$$

because all terms with $x - \alpha_i$ vanish. Looking at the norm of $p'(\alpha)$ (which is legal because $\alpha \in K$), we have

$$\begin{aligned} N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(p'(\alpha)) &= \prod_{r=1}^n \sigma_r(p'(\alpha)) = \prod_{r=1}^n p'(\sigma_r(\alpha)) = \prod_{r=1}^n p'(\alpha_r) \\ &= \prod_{i \neq j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j) = (-1)^{\binom{n}{2}} \prod_{i < j} (\alpha_i - \alpha_j)^2 = (-1)^{n(n-1)/2} \text{disc}(p(x)) = (-1)^{n(n-1)/2} \text{disc}(\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

The second equality follows because the embeddings σ_i permute the roots and fix \mathbb{Q} . The fourth equality follows from our equation for $p'(\alpha_i)$ above, and the fifth equality comes from considering the pairs in the order $i > j$ and pulling out a -1 from each of them. Thus, one other way to compute the discriminant of α is

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = (-1)^{n(n-1)/2} N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(p'(\alpha)).$$

If all else fails, we give one more way of computing discriminants.

DEFINITION 2.5

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ and $g(x) = b_m x^m + \cdots + b_1 x + b_0$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. The **resultant** of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is defined to be

$$\text{Res}(f(x), g(x)) := \det \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} a_n & a_{n-1} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_n & a_{n-1} & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_n & a_{n-1} & \cdots \\ \hline b_m & b_{m-1} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b_m & b_{m-1} & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b_m & b_{m-1} & \cdots \end{array} \right] \left. \begin{array}{l} \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{ } \end{array} \right\} m \text{ rows} \\ \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{ } \end{array} \right\} n \text{ rows} \end{array} \right\}$$

where we add zeroes at the end of each row if we run out of coefficients, and we ensure that the matrix is $(n+m) \times (n+m)$.

For a concrete example, we have

$$\text{Res}(x^3 + x + 2, x^2 + 4x - 1) = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Here, we have $n = 3$ and $m = 2$. The first two rows correspond to the coefficients of $x^3 + x + 2$ and the last three rows correspond to the coefficients of $x^2 + 4x - 1$.

The following proposition relates the resultant to discriminants. We didn't prove it in class, but [this video](#) by Professor Yuly Billig provides a nice proof of it.

PROPOSITION 2.6

Let K be a number field with degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Suppose that $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ is such that $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, and let $p(x)$ be the minimal polynomial of α . Then we have

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = (-1)^{n(n-1)/2} \text{Res}(p(x), p'(x)).$$

We give one example of this. Suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of $p(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 1$, and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Notice that $p(x)$ is irreducible by the rational roots theorem and so $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = 3$. Then $p'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x$ and hence

$$\text{disc}(\alpha) = (-1)^{3(3-1)/2} \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & -1 \\ 3 & -2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -31,$$

which shows that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ since -31 is squarefree.

3 Prime Factorization

3.1 Ring Theory

Let K be a number field and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers. Recall that in Section 1.4, we uncovered some purely ring theoretic facts about R . We'll restate them here as they'll be very useful to us soon. Note that when we speak about rings in this course, they are always commutative and unital.

- (1) Corollary 1.19: If I is a nonzero ideal of R , then R/I is finite.
- (2) Corollary 1.20: Every nonzero prime ideal of R is maximal.
- (3) Corollary 1.21: R is Noetherian.

We now give a few characterizations of being a Noetherian ring.

PROPOSITION 3.1

Let R be a ring. The following are equivalent:

- (1) R is Noetherian.
- (2) If $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ is an ascending chain of ideals of R , then there exists some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $I_k = I_N$ for all $k \geq N$; that is, the chain terminates.
- (3) Every nonempty set of ideals of R has a maximal element (with respect to \subseteq).

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.1.

(1) \Rightarrow (2): Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ be an ascending chain of ideals in R . Let $I = \bigcup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} I_j$, and note that I is an ideal of R . Since R is Noetherian, we see that I is finitely generated, say by a_1, \dots, a_s . Then for each $i = 1, \dots, s$, there exists some $N_i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_i \in I_{N_i}$. Taking $N = \max\{N_1, \dots, N_s\}$, we have $a_i \in I_N$ for all $i = 1, \dots, s$ and thus $I \subseteq I_N$. But $I_N \subseteq I$ by definition, so equality follows. In particular, we have $I_k = I_N$ for all $k \geq N$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3): Suppose \mathcal{I} is a nonempty set of ideals of R , and let $I_1 \in \mathcal{I}$ (which exists because \mathcal{I} is nonempty). If I_1 is maximal, we're done. Otherwise, $\mathcal{I} \setminus \{I_1\}$ must be nonempty; we can find I_2 from this collection such that $I_1 \subseteq I_2$ (else I_1 was maximal). If I_2 is not maximal, pick $I_3 \in \mathcal{I} \setminus \{I_1, I_2\}$ such that $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq I_3$. But by assumption, this process terminates; for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $I_k = I_N$ for all $k \geq N$, and I_N is our desired maximal element in \mathcal{I} .

(3) \Rightarrow (1): Let I be an ideal of R . Let \mathcal{I} denote the collection of all finitely generated ideals of R contained in I , which is nonempty because $\langle 0 \rangle \in \mathcal{I}$. By assumption, \mathcal{I} has a maximal element J . If $J \neq I$, then we can find some $a \in I \setminus J$. Then $\langle J, a \rangle$ is also finitely generated and contained in \mathcal{I} , contradicting maximality. It follows that $J = I$ and so I is finitely generated. \square

Note that the rings that we work with in this course are not generally UFDs, so we do not have the classical prime factorization from first year number theory. However, the following proposition gives us the idea to consider the factorization of proper ideals into prime ideals. The reason why we are only considering proper ideals here is because taking $I = R$ fails condition (1); every prime ideal of R is proper by definition.

PROPOSITION 3.2

Let R be Noetherian and let $I \neq R$ be an ideal. There exist prime ideals P_1, \dots, P_n of R such that

- (1) $I \subseteq P_i$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$; and
- (2) $P_1 P_2 \cdots P_n \subseteq I$.

Note that the prime ideals P_i above are not necessarily distinct. To prove this proposition, we will use an extremely common tactic in commutative algebra: we assume that the set of objects that does not satisfy the property is nonempty, take a maximal element, and derive a contradiction.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.2.

Let X be the set of proper ideals of R not having this property. By contradiction, assume that $X \neq \emptyset$. Let $I \in X$ be a maximal element (with respect to \subseteq). Then I itself is not prime (otherwise we can simply take $P_1 = I$), so we can find $a, b \in R$ such that $ab \in I$ but $a, b \notin I$. By the maximality of I , we have $I + \langle a \rangle, I + \langle b \rangle \notin X$.

Note that $(I + \langle a \rangle)(I + \langle b \rangle) \subseteq I$ since $I^2, \langle a \rangle I, \langle b \rangle I$, and $\langle ab \rangle$ are all subsets of I . In particular, we have $I + \langle a \rangle \neq R$ and $I + \langle b \rangle \neq R$ since multiplying by R does not change an ideal.

Therefore, we can find prime ideals $P_1, \dots, P_n, Q_1, \dots, Q_m$ of R such that

- (1) $I + \langle a \rangle \subseteq P_i$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $I + \langle b \rangle \subseteq Q_j$ for all $j = 1, \dots, m$;
- (2) $P_1 P_2 \cdots P_n \subseteq I + \langle a \rangle$ and $Q_1 Q_2 \cdots Q_m \subseteq I + \langle b \rangle$.

But then we have $I \subseteq I + \langle a \rangle \subseteq P_i$ and $I \subseteq I + \langle b \rangle \subseteq Q_j$. Moreover, we see that

$$P_1 \cdots P_n Q_1 \cdots Q_m \subseteq (I + \langle a \rangle)(I + \langle b \rangle) \subseteq I.$$

Here, we find that $I \notin X$, which is a contradiction. \square

We now introduce some familiar ring theory from PMATH 347, namely the notion of coprime ideals and the (generalized) Chinese remainder theorem.

DEFINITION 3.3

Let R be a ring, and let I and J be proper ideals of R . We say that I and J are **coprime** if $I + J = R$.

The term coprime is used interchangeably with comaximal, but being a number theory course, it feels more appropriate to say coprime. The following proposition tells us that powers of coprime ideals are also coprime.

PROPOSITION 3.4

Let R be a ring. Let I and J be proper ideals such that $I + J = R$. Then for all $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $I^n + J^m = R$.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.4.

Suppose that $I^n + J^m \neq R$. Then we have $I^n + J^m \subseteq M$ for some maximal ideal M . This gives us $I^n \subseteq M$ and $J^m \subseteq M$ as well. But maximal ideals are prime. In particular, if $a \in I$, then $a^n \in M$, but since M is prime, we also have $a \in M$. Thus, we have $I \subseteq M$, and by an identical argument, we obtain $J \subseteq M$. (This result also follows from another characterization of prime ideals.) It follows that $I + J \subseteq M$, which is a contradiction since maximal ideals are proper by definition. \square

This leads us to the following famous theorem that we all know and love.

THEOREM 3.5: CHINESE REMAINDER THEOREM

Let R be a ring and let I and J be coprime ideals of R . Then

$$R/IJ \cong R/I \times R/J.$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.5.

Define the map $\varphi : R \rightarrow R/I \times R/J$ by $\varphi(x) = (x+I, x+J)$. Then we have $\ker \varphi = I \cap J$. But $IJ \subseteq I + J$ always holds and since I and J are coprime, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} I \cap J &= (I \cap J)R \\ &= (I \cap J)(I + J) \\ &= (I \cap J)I + (I \cap J)J \subseteq IJ \end{aligned}$$

since $I \cap J \subseteq I$, $I \cap J \subseteq J$, and R is commutative. Thus, we have $\ker \varphi = I \cap J = IJ$. To see that φ is surjective, let $a \in I$ and $b \in J$ such that $a + b = 1$ (which exist because I and J are coprime). Then for $x, y \in R$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(ax + by) &= (ax + by + I, ax + by + J) \\ &= (by + I, ax + J) \\ &= (b + I, a + J)(y + I, x + J) \\ &= (1 + I, 1 + J)(y + I, x + J) \\ &= (y + I, x + J), \end{aligned}$$

where the second last equality follows from looking at b modulo I and a modulo J . So φ is surjective, and it follows from the first isomorphism theorem that $R/IJ \cong R/I \times R/J$. \square

The generalized Chinese remainder theorem then follows from a straightforward induction.

THEOREM 3.6: GENERALIZED CHINESE REMAINDER THEOREM

Let R be a ring, and let I_1, \dots, I_n be pairwise coprime ideals (i.e. $I_i + I_j = R$ when $i \neq j$). Then

$$R/I_1 \cdots I_n \cong R/I_1 \times \cdots \times R/I_n.$$

We end this section on ring theory with a property of finite rings.

PROPOSITION 3.7

Let R be a finite ring. There exist distinct prime ideals P_1, \dots, P_m of R and $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$R \cong R/P_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times R/P_m^{n_m}.$$

Note that if R is an integral domain, then this proposition tells us almost nothing as we can simply take $P_1 = \{0\}$. This is much more interesting when we are not working with integral domains.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.7.

We can find prime ideals Q_1, \dots, Q_k of R such that $Q_1 Q_2 \cdots Q_k = \{0\}$ by using Proposition 3.2 with $I = \{0\}$ and noting that finite rings are Noetherian. Grouping the Q_i 's with multiplicity, we can write

$$P_1^{n_1} \cdots P_m^{n_m} = \{0\}$$

where $P_i \neq P_j$ for $i \neq j$. Note that each P_i is prime, so R/P_i is a finite integral domain and hence a field. This means that P_i is also maximal. So we have $P_i + P_j = R$ for $i \neq j$ because these are each independently maximal and distinct, and hence any bigger ideal must be the whole ring. By Proposition 3.4, we obtain $P_i^{n_i} + P_j^{n_j} = R$, and the generalized Chinese remainder theorem (Theorem 3.6) gives

$$R \cong R/P_1^{n_1} \cdots P_m^{n_m} \cong R/P_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times R/P_m^{n_m}. \quad \square$$

3.2 Prime Ideals of the Ring of Integers

Let K be a number field of degree $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$, and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. Let I be a nonzero proper ideal of R . We know the following facts:

- (1) Corollary 1.19: R/I is finite, which allows us to apply Proposition 3.7.
- (2) Corollary 1.21: R is Noetherian, so we can apply Proposition 3.2.
- (3) **Correspondence theorem for rings.** There is a one-to-one correspondence between the ideals of R that contain I and the ideals of the quotient ring R/I . In other words, every ideal \bar{J} of R/I is of the form $\bar{J} = J/I$, where $J \subseteq R$ is an ideal such that $I \subseteq J$. Moreover, \bar{J} is prime if and only if J is prime.
- (4) Since R/I is finite, we have by (3), Proposition 3.7, and the third isomorphism theorem that

$$\begin{aligned} R/I &\cong (R/I)/(P_1^{n_1}/I) \times \cdots \times (R/I)/(P_m^{n_m}/I) \\ &\cong R/P_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times R/P_m^{n_m} \end{aligned}$$

where each $P_i \subseteq R$ is prime and $I \subseteq P_i$.

Therefore, to understand the ideal I , we study the prime ideals $P \supseteq I$. It turns out that $P \supseteq I$ if and only if P is a “prime factor” of I , as we’ll see later in the course.

For now, we’ll introduce a couple of big ideas. Note that by the correspondence theorem, the prime ideals of R/I are precisely P/I where $P \supseteq I$ is a prime ideal. Moreover, for a prime ideal $P \supseteq I$, we know that R/P is a finite field, so its cardinality is $|R/P| = p^m$ for some prime number $p \in \mathbb{N}$. This tells us that

$$p^m + P = p^m(1 + P) = 0 + P$$

where the last equality is by Lagrange. Then $p^m \in P$. Since P is a prime ideal, we get $p \in P$ and so $\langle p \rangle \subseteq P$.

Next, we go through a computational example. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. Let’s try to find all the prime ideals P such that $\langle 5 \rangle \subseteq P$ (or equivalently, $5 \in P$). We have the isomorphisms

$$R/\langle 5 \rangle = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]/\langle 5 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^2 - 2, 5 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_5[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle.$$

Note that $x^2 - 2$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ because it has no roots. So $\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle$ is a maximal ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ and hence $R/\langle 5 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_5[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle$ is a field. This tells us that $\langle 5 \rangle \subseteq R$ is maximal, so the only prime ideal P of R sitting above $\langle 5 \rangle$ is $P = \langle 5 \rangle$ itself.

That was rather simple, so let’s keep going. Take $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and $R = \mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ as before. Now, let’s try to find the prime ideals such that $\langle 7 \rangle \subseteq P$. We have the isomorphisms

$$R/\langle 7 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^2 - 2, 7 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle,$$

but this time, we have $x^2 - 2 = (x + 3)(x + 4)$ over $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$. Then the Chinese remainder theorem implies that

$$\mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 3 \rangle \times \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 4 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_7 \times \mathbb{Z}_7,$$

where the last isomorphism is obtained by sending x to -3 and -4 respectively (or we can formally justify this using the first isomorphism theorem if we’d like).

The prime ideals of $\mathbb{Z}_7 \times \mathbb{Z}_7$ are $P_1 = \langle (1, 0) \rangle$ and $P_2 = \langle (0, 1) \rangle$. Our goal now is to retrace our isomorphisms backwards. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (1, 0) &\in \mathbb{Z}_7 \times \mathbb{Z}_7 \mapsto (1 + \langle x + 3 \rangle, 0 + \langle x + 4 \rangle) \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 3 \rangle \times \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 4 \rangle \\ &\mapsto x + 4 + \langle x^2 - 2 \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle \\ &\mapsto x + 4 + \langle x^2 - 2, 7 \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^2 - 2, 7 \rangle \\ &\mapsto \sqrt{2} + 4 + \langle 7 \rangle \in R/\langle 7 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The trickiest one to reverse here is the second one: we needed to reverse the map from the Chinese remainder theorem. We needed to find a polynomial that was congruent to 1 mod $x + 3$ and congruent to 0 mod $x + 4$, and $x + 4$ happened to do the trick. Similarly, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (0, 1) &\in \mathbb{Z}_7 \times \mathbb{Z}_7 \mapsto (0 + \langle x + 3 \rangle, 1 + \langle x + 4 \rangle) \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 3 \rangle \times \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x + 4 \rangle \\ &\mapsto -x - 3 + \langle x^2 + 2 \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]/\langle x^2 - 2 \rangle \\ &\mapsto -x - 3 + \langle x^2 - 2, 7 \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^2 - 2, 7 \rangle \\ &\mapsto -\sqrt{2} - 3 + \langle 7 \rangle \in R/\langle 7 \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

where $-x - 3$ is congruent to 0 mod $x + 3$ and congruent to 1 mod $x + 4$. Thus, the prime ideals in R containing 7 are $Q_1 = \langle \sqrt{2} + 4, 7 \rangle$ and $Q_2 = \langle -\sqrt{2} - 3, 7 \rangle = \langle 2 + \sqrt{3}, 7 \rangle$, keeping in mind that we are looking for the prime ideals of R and not those of $R/\langle 7 \rangle$. Note that we have $(\sqrt{2} + 3)(\sqrt{2} - 3) = -7$ so we in fact have $Q_2 = \langle 2 + \sqrt{3} \rangle$. However, it doesn't hurt to include the 7 to ensure that it is actually living above $\langle 7 \rangle$.

The main takeaways of this computation were as follows:

- (1) The minimal polynomial $x^2 - 2$ factored as $(x + 3)(x + 4)$ over \mathbb{Z}_7 .
- (2) We have $(\sqrt{2} + 3)(\sqrt{2} + 4) = 14 + 7\sqrt{2}$; the coefficients are both divisible by 7.
- (3) By (2), we have $Q_1 Q_2 \subseteq \langle 7 \rangle$. It can be checked that $Q_1 Q_2 = \langle 7 \rangle$ is the prime factorization of $\langle 7 \rangle$.

We'll do one more example. This time, we find the prime ideals such that $P \supseteq \langle 2 \rangle$. We have the isomorphisms

$$R/\langle 2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}[x]/\langle x^2 - 2, 2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/\langle x^2 \rangle.$$

Since this quotient ring only consists of 4 elements, let's just look at the elements explicitly. Let P be a prime ideal of $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/\langle x^2 \rangle$. Being an ideal, we must have $0 + \langle x^2 \rangle \in P$. But P is proper, so $1 + \langle x^2 \rangle \notin P$. Since $(x + 1 + \langle x^2 \rangle)^2 = 1 + \langle x^2 \rangle \notin P$, we must have $x + 1 + \langle x^2 \rangle \notin P$ for otherwise P would not be closed under multiplication by $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/\langle x^2 \rangle$. Also, note that P cannot be the zero ideal $\{0 + \langle x^2 \rangle\}$ since $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/\langle x^2 \rangle$ is not an integral domain. Therefore, we must have

$$P = \langle x + \langle x^2 \rangle \rangle = \{0 + \langle x^2 \rangle, x + \langle x^2 \rangle\}.$$

Retracing isomorphisms, we have $x + \langle x^2 \rangle \mapsto x + \langle x^2 - 2, 2 \rangle \mapsto \sqrt{2} + \langle 2 \rangle$. It follows that $Q = \langle \sqrt{2}, 2 \rangle = \langle \sqrt{2} \rangle$ is the only prime ideal of R such that $2 \in Q$. Note that $\langle 2 \rangle = \langle \sqrt{2} \rangle^2$ here.

One observation here is that $\text{disc}(K) = 8$ and $p \mid 8$ if and only if $p = 2$. As we'll see later, the primes that divide the discriminant are the only ones with multiplicity in their ideal prime factorization.

We state a fact relating the minimal polynomial of α and the ideal prime factorization of $\langle p \rangle$ where p is prime, under the strong assumption that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. We'll prove this later, but we require a lot of machinery first.

THEOREM 3.8

Let K be a number field with $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$ where $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. Assume that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. Let $m(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial for α . If $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is prime and $m(x)$ factors over $\mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ as

$$\bar{m}(x) = q_1(x)^{n_1} \cdots q_k(x)^{n_k} \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$$

where $q_i(x) \neq q_j(x)$ for $i \neq j$ and each $q_i(x)$ is irreducible, then

- (1) the prime ideals $P \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ such that $p \in P$ are exactly $P = \langle q_i(\alpha), p \rangle$; and
- (2) we have $\langle p \rangle = \langle q_1(\alpha), p \rangle^{n_1} \cdots \langle q_k(\alpha), p \rangle^{n_k}$.

In particular, this fact gives us all the prime ideals as well as how to do the ideal prime factorization!

For example, suppose that $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ satisfies $\alpha^2 + \alpha + 1 = 0$. Note that $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)} = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ because $\text{disc}(x^2 + x + 1) = -3$ is squarefree. The minimal polynomial of α is $m(x) = x^2 + x + 1$. Over $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]$, this factors as

$$\bar{m}(x) = (x + 2)(x + 2) \in \mathbb{Z}_3[x],$$

so by Theorem 3.8, we have $\langle 3 \rangle = \langle \alpha + 2, 3 \rangle^2$ and that $\langle \alpha + 2, 3 \rangle$ is a prime ideal of \mathcal{O}_K . On the other hand, $x^2 + x + 1$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]$ and so the prime factorization of $\langle 2 \rangle$ is just itself since $\langle \alpha^2 + \alpha + 1, 2 \rangle = \langle 2 \rangle$.

3.3 Dedekind Domains

Dedekind domains are the rings where ideal prime factorization happens! Before we give the definition, we'll give some motivation for the desired properties.

Let $R \subseteq S$ be integral domains.

- (1) Recall that $\alpha \in S$ is **integral** over R (see Definition 1.6) if there exists a monic polynomial $f(x) \in R[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. By Theorem 1.7, this is equivalent to $R[\alpha]$ being finitely generated as an R -module.
- (2) We say that S is **integral** over R if all elements of S are integral over R .

We now introduce a few more related definitions.

DEFINITION 3.9

Let $R \subseteq S$ be integral domains.

- (1) The **integral closure** of R in S is $\{\alpha \in S : \alpha \text{ is integral over } R\}$.
- (2) We say that R is **integrally closed** if the integral closure of R in its field of fractions is R itself.

For example, we see that \mathbb{Z} is integrally closed because its field of fractions is \mathbb{Q} , and the only algebraic integers in \mathbb{Q} are the ordinary integers.

Consider a number field K and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers. Let F be the field of fractions of R . Note that if $x \in K$, there exists $0 \neq N \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $Nx \in R$ by part (a) of A1-1. This means that $x \in F$, and thus $K = F$. So the field of fractions of the ring of integers is precisely the number field.

PROPOSITION 3.10

Let K be a number field. Then \mathcal{O}_K is integrally closed.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.10.

We give a sketch of the proof up to writing down some generating sets. Suppose that $\alpha \in K$ is in the integral closure of \mathcal{O}_K , so there exists some monic polynomial

$$f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathcal{O}_K[x]$$

with $f(\alpha) = 0$. Since $a_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$ (i.e. a_i is integral over \mathbb{Z}), it follows from Theorem 1.7 that $\mathbb{Z}[a_i]$ is a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module. This implies that $\mathbb{Z}[a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_0]$ is also finitely generated. But we can write

$$\alpha^n = -a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} - \cdots - a_1\alpha - a_0,$$

so $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0]$ is also finitely generated. Note that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\alpha, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0]$. Since \mathbb{Z} is Noetherian, we have by Theorem 1.10 that $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is also finitely generated, so $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ by Theorem 1.7. \square

With this result, we are now ready to state the definition of a Dedekind domain.

DEFINITION 3.11

Let R be an integral domain. We say that R is a **Dedekind domain** if

- (1) R is Noetherian;
- (2) R is integrally closed; and
- (3) every nonzero prime ideal of R is maximal.

In particular, we see that \mathcal{O}_K satisfies all three of these properties (by Corollary 1.21, Proposition 3.10, and Corollary 1.20 respectively).

Why is this definition of a Dedekind domain the right one for prime factorization?

- (1) Being Noetherian gives us the existence of prime factorization by using the classic Noetherian contradiction proof technique.
- (2) Because every nonzero prime is maximal, primes can't be factored further.
- (3) It turns out that being integrally closed will give us the uniqueness of prime factorization!

Now, our goal is to explore the connection between being integrally closed and prime factorization. The following lemma will be a useful “contradiction getter” soon. In particular, if $\lambda \in F \setminus R$ is a root of a monic polynomial with coefficients in R , this will contradict the fact that R is integrally closed.

LEMMA 3.12

Let R be a Dedekind domain, let I be a nonzero proper ideal, and let F be the field of fractions of R . Then there exists $\lambda \in F \setminus R$ such that $\lambda I \subseteq R$.

PROOF OF LEMMA 3.12.

Let $0 \neq a \in I$. Note that R is Noetherian since it is a Dedekind domain, so by Proposition 3.2, we can find nonzero prime ideals P_1, \dots, P_r of R such that $P_1 P_2 \cdots P_r \subseteq \langle a \rangle$. Moreover, assume that r is minimal (i.e. pick the smallest number of prime ideals possible). Let M be a maximal ideal such that $I \subseteq M$.

Since $P_1 P_2 \cdots P_r \subseteq I \subseteq M$ and M is prime, it follows by the ideal-wise characterization of a prime ideal that there is some $i \in \{1, \dots, r\}$ with $P_i \subseteq M$. Without loss of generality, assume that $P_1 \subseteq M$. Note that P_1 is prime and hence maximal since R is a Dedekind domain, so $P_1 = M$.

Case 1. If $r = 1$, then $P_1 \subseteq \langle a \rangle \subseteq I \subseteq M = P_1$ and we get equality throughout. This gives us $I = \langle a \rangle$, so we can take $\lambda = 1/a \in F \setminus R$ (where we know a is not a unit for otherwise $I = R$).

Case 2. If $r > 1$, then by the minimality of r , there exists some element $b \in P_2 \cdots P_r \setminus \langle a \rangle$. Then we have $b P_1 \subseteq P_1 P_2 \cdots P_r \subseteq \langle a \rangle$. Moreover, we see that $b I \subseteq b M = b P_1 \subseteq \langle a \rangle$, so we may take $\lambda = b/a$. Note that this works because if $x \in I$, then $\lambda x = \frac{b}{a} x$. But $b x \in I \subseteq \langle a \rangle$, so we can write $b x = a r$ for some $r \in R$, giving us $\lambda x = \frac{a r}{a} = r \in R$. Also, since $b \notin \langle a \rangle$, we have $\lambda \notin R$ as well. \square

Equipped with this “contradiction getter”, we can prove an extremely useful result using the integrally closed property of a Dedekind domain.

PROPOSITION 3.13

Let R be a Dedekind domain, and let I be a nonzero proper ideal. Then there exists a nonzero ideal J of R such that IJ is principal.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.13.

Let $0 \neq a \in I$ and consider the nonzero ideal

$$J = \{x \in R : xI \subseteq \langle a \rangle\}.$$

We already know it is nonzero because $a \in J$, so just verify the ideal properties.

Note that $IJ \subseteq \langle a \rangle$. Consider the “fractional ideal” $A = \frac{1}{a}IJ \subseteq R$ (this trick will come up a lot). If $A = R$, then $IJ = aR = \langle a \rangle$ and we are already done.

Now suppose that $A \neq R$. We’ll show that this case is actually impossible. We leave it as an exercise that A is a nonzero ideal of R . Then by Lemma 3.12, there exists $\lambda \in F \setminus R$ such that $\lambda A \subseteq R$, where F is the field of fractions of R .

Notice that $J = \frac{1}{a}aJ \subseteq A$ since $a \in I$, and so $\lambda J \subseteq \lambda A \subseteq R$. Moreover, if we write $\lambda A = \frac{\lambda}{a}IJ \subseteq R$, then multiplying both sides by a gives us $\lambda IJ \subseteq aR = \langle a \rangle$. In particular, we can regroup λIJ as $(\lambda J)I$ by commutativity with $(\lambda J)I \subseteq \langle a \rangle$, and we see by the definition of J that $\lambda J \subseteq J$.

Since R is Noetherian, J is finitely generated, say by $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$. We can find $B \in M_m(R)$ such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda\alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda\alpha_m \end{bmatrix} = B \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_m \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)^T$ is nonzero and rearranging the above gives us

$$(\lambda I - B) \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_m \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

This means that $\lambda I - B$ is not invertible, and so $\det(\lambda I - B) = 0$. But $\det(xI - B)$ is the characteristic polynomial of B ; in particular, it is a monic polynomial with coefficients in R having λ as a root. This is a contradiction because $\lambda \notin R$ and R is integrally closed. \square

By Proposition 3.13 and what we proved in A2-3, it now makes sense to make the following definition. We won’t be using this immediately, but it will come up later in the course.

DEFINITION 3.14

Let R be a Dedekind domain and let X be the set of nonzero ideals of R . Put an equivalence relation on X by $I \sim J$ if and only if there exist $\alpha, \beta \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $\alpha I = \beta J$. Then

$$G := \{[I] : I \in X\}$$

is a group under the operation $[I][J] = [IJ]$, called the **ideal class group** of R . The identity is the equivalence class of principal ideals.

The following result, which we will call cancellation of ideals, is our best friend for proving the uniqueness of prime factorization! It allows us to inductively chop off ideals.

PROPOSITION 3.15: CANCELLATION OF IDEALS

Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let A , B , and C be nonzero ideals. If $AB = AC$, then $B = C$.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.15.

By Proposition 3.13, we can find a nonzero ideal J such that $JA = \langle a \rangle$ for some $0 \neq a \in R$. We have $AB = AC$, and multiplying by J gives us $\langle a \rangle B = JAB = JAC = \langle a \rangle C$. Then $aB = aC$, and hence $B = C$ since R is an integral domain. \square

The following definition is a very natural one to make.

DEFINITION 3.16

Let R be a ring and let A and B be ideals of R . We say that A **divides** B , written $A \mid B$, if there exists an ideal C such that $B = AC$.

The next result tells us that in a Dedekind domain, the factors of an ideal are precisely the ideals living above.

PROPOSITION 3.17

Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let A and B be nonzero proper ideals of R . Then $A \mid B$ if and only if $B \subseteq A$.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.17.

(\Rightarrow) If $A \mid B$, then $B = AC$ for some ideal C and $AC \subseteq A$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $B \subseteq A$. By Proposition 3.13, we can find a nonzero ideal J such that $JA = \langle a \rangle$ for some $0 \neq a \in R$. Note that $JB \subseteq JA = \langle a \rangle$. Consider the fractional ideal $C = \frac{1}{a}JB$ (verify that this is indeed an ideal of R). Note that $JAC = \langle a \rangle \frac{1}{a}JB = JB$, so by ideal cancellation (Proposition 3.15), we have $AC = B$ and thus $A \mid B$. \square

We are ready to prove the golden result that every nonzero proper ideal of a Dedekind domain can be uniquely factored into primes. Note that $\{0\}$ is prime but cannot be uniquely factored, while R does not have a prime factorization because no primes can live above it.

THEOREM 3.18

Let R be a Dedekind domain and let I be a nonzero proper ideal. Then I can be written uniquely (up to reordering) as a product of prime ideals.

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.18.

Existence. We use the Noetherian contradiction method we alluded to before. Let X be the set of proper nonzero ideals of R which cannot be written as a product of prime ideals. Suppose that $X \neq \emptyset$. Let $I \in X$ be maximal (with respect to \subseteq). Then I is not a prime ideal and hence not a maximal ideal (since being prime is the same as being maximal in a Dedekind domain). Let P be a maximal ideal such that $I \subsetneq P$. By Proposition 3.17, we have $P \mid I$, so there exists an ideal J such that $I = PJ$.

Note that $I = PJ \subseteq J$. If $I = J$, then $I = IR = IP$. Cancellation of ideals (Proposition 3.15) implies that $P = R$, which is a contradiction since prime ideals are proper. Therefore, we must have $I \subsetneq J$. By the maximality of I in X , we have $J \notin X$, so J can be written as a product of primes. Then $I = PJ$ is also a product of primes, which is a contradiction! So $X = \emptyset$ and every nonzero proper ideal of R can be written as a product of prime ideals.

Uniqueness. Suppose that $I = P_1P_2 \cdots P_n = Q_1Q_2 \cdots Q_m$ where P_i and Q_j are prime ideals. Note that

$$Q_1Q_2 \cdots Q_m = P_1P_2 \cdots P_n \subseteq P_1.$$

Since P_1 is prime, we have (without loss of generality) that $Q_1 \subseteq P_1$. But Q_1 is prime and hence maximal, so $Q_1 = P_1$. Then by ideal cancellation, we obtain

$$P_2 \cdots P_n = Q_2 \cdots Q_m.$$

Continuing inductively, we find that $P_i = Q_i$ (up to reordering) and $n = m$. \square

3.4 Ideal Norm

In the previous section, we proved that every nonzero proper ideal of a Dedekind domain has a unique prime factorization, which is great. But *how* do we actually find such a prime factorization?

Let's start by proposing a potential tool we could use.

DEFINITION 3.19

Let K be a number field and let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ be its ring of integers. The **norm** of a nonzero ideal I is

$$N(I) := |R/I|.$$

Note that this is always finite because R/I is finite by Corollary 1.19.

Assume for now that the ideal norm is multiplicative; that is, $N(IJ) = N(I)N(J)$ for nonzero ideals I and J . Suppose that $n = N(I) = |R/I|$. We know from Theorem 3.18 that I has a unique prime factorization $I = P_1^{n_1} \cdots P_k^{n_k}$. Using our assumption that the ideal norm is multiplicative, we have

$$N(I) = N(P_1)^{n_1} \cdots N(P_k)^{n_k}.$$

But we previously saw that $N(P_i) = |R/P_i| = p_i^{m_i}$ where $p_i \in \mathbb{N}$ is prime with $p_i \in P_i$. For a prime $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p \mid n$, it must be the case that $p = p_i$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. Then $p \in P_i$ implies that $\langle p \rangle \subseteq P_i$, so $P_i \mid \langle p \rangle$ by Proposition 3.17. So if we could factor each $\langle p_i \rangle$, then we could find candidates for the P_i 's and factor I . The value of $N(I)$ could help us to find the n_i 's as well.

Therefore, we have two goals in mind:

- (1) Prove that the ideal norm is multiplicative.
- (2) Show that $\langle p \rangle$ is easily factored for “almost all” primes $p \in \mathbb{N}$ (namely, we get something similar to Theorem 3.8 in most cases).

Let's work towards the first goal. Suppose that $I = P_1^{n_1} \cdots P_k^{n_k}$ where P_i are distinct prime ideals (so P_i and P_j are pairwise coprime for $i \neq j$). Then the Chinese remainder theorem (Theorem 3.6) gives us

$$R/I \cong R/P_1^{n_1} \times \cdots \times R/P_k^{n_k},$$

and thus $N(I) = N(P_1^{n_1}) \cdots N(P_k^{n_k})$. Therefore, to prove that the ideal norm is multiplicative, it is enough to show that $N(P_i^{n_i}) = N(P_i)^{n_i}$. This innocent looking result requires a lot of machinery, namely localization, local rings, and discrete valuation rings.

To end this section, we prove a useful relationship between the ideal norm of a principal ideal and the field norm. Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be an integral basis for $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ and recall that a nonzero ideal I of R has an integral basis $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$ because of Corollary 1.17. By taking $M = R$ and $N = I$ in A2-4, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \text{disc}(w_1, \dots, w_n) &= [R : I]^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v_1, \dots, v_n) \\ &= N(I)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(v_1, \dots, v_n). \end{aligned}$$

If $I = \langle \alpha \rangle$ where $\alpha \neq 0$, then $w_i = \alpha v_i$ is an integral basis for I . (Linear independence comes from R being an integral domain, and spanning comes from the fact that $I = \alpha R$.) Our calculation above shows that

$$\text{disc}(\alpha v_1, \dots, \alpha v_n) = N(I)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(K).$$

On the other hand, we can also see that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{disc}(\alpha v_1, \dots, \alpha v_n) &= \det [\sigma_i(\alpha v_j)]^2 \\ &= \det [\sigma_i(\alpha) \sigma_i(v_j)]^2 \\ &= (\sigma_1(\alpha) \cdots \sigma_n(\alpha))^2 \cdot \det [\sigma_i(v_j)]^2 \\ &= N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)^2 \cdot \text{disc}(K). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, we have $N(I)^2 = N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)^2$ and thus

$$N(\langle \alpha \rangle) = |N_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)|.$$

3.5 Localization

We introduce local rings, which will lead us to the notion of localization.

DEFINITION 3.20

A **local ring** is a ring which has a unique maximal ideal.

The following is a useful characterization of a local ring.

PROPOSITION 3.21

A ring R is local if and only if $I = R \setminus R^\times$ is an ideal of R . In this case, I is the unique maximal ideal.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.21.

(\Rightarrow) Let R be a local ring and M be a maximal ideal of R . Note that $M \subseteq I$ because maximal ideals are proper and cannot contain units. Conversely, if $\alpha \in I$, we see that $\langle \alpha \rangle$ is proper. But M is the unique maximal ideal, so $\langle \alpha \rangle \subseteq M$ and thus $I \subseteq M$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $I = R \setminus R^\times$ is an ideal of R . Then for all maximal ideals M , we have $M \subseteq I$. But M being maximal means that $M = I$. \square

Every field F is a local ring because the units are $F^\times = F \setminus \{0\}$, and $F \setminus F^\times = \{0\}$ is the only maximal ideal.

Another example of a local ring is \mathbb{Z}_{p^n} where $n > 1$. Indeed, observe that $x \notin \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}^\times$ if and only if $\gcd(x, p^n) \neq 1$. In particular, the non-units are the multiples of p , which form an ideal.

However, this is not the type of example that we want. How can we construct local integral domains? The answer is localization!

DEFINITION 3.22

Let R be an integral domain, let K be the field of fractions of R , and let P be a prime ideal of R . The **localization** of R at P is defined to be

$$R_P = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \in K : b \notin P \right\}.$$

Let's make a few remarks about the localization by a prime ideal.

- (1) Note that we are using lazy notation here; it is possible to have $\frac{a}{b} \in R_P$ where $b \in P$. We only require the existence of elements $c, d \in R$ such that $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ where $d \notin P$. For a simple example, take $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $P = \langle 2 \rangle$. Observe that we have $\frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\langle 2 \rangle}$ even though $6 \in \langle 2 \rangle$.
- (2) Let $\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{d} \in K$ where $b, d \notin P$. Note that $bd \notin P$ since P is a prime ideal, so $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd} \in R_P$ and $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd} \in R_P$. In particular, R_P is a subring of K .
- (3) It is clear that PR_P is an ideal of R . We show that $PR_P = R_P \setminus R_P^\times$ and so R_P is a local ring by Proposition 3.21. (It better be if we're going to call it the localization!)

First, we show that every element of $R_P \setminus PR_P$ is a unit. Let $\frac{a}{b} \in R_P$ where $b \notin P$, and suppose that $\frac{a}{b} \notin PR_P$. Note that $a \notin P$ for otherwise $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a}{1} \frac{1}{b} \in PR_P$ by definition. This implies that $\frac{b}{a} \in R_P$ and so $\frac{a}{b}$ is a unit.

On the other hand, every element of PR_P is not a unit. Let $\frac{a}{b} \in P$ where $a \in P$ and $b \notin P$, and let $\frac{c}{d} \in R_P$ where $c \in R$ and $d \notin P$. Suppose by way of contradiction that $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{1}{1}$. Then there must exist some $u \notin P$ such that $uac = ubd$. But this is a contradiction because $uac \in P$, but $ubd \notin P$.

We denote the unique maximal ideal PR_P by $P_P = \{\frac{a}{b} : a \in P, b \notin P\}$.

We have now shown that if R is an integral domain, then R_P is a local ring. But what if R is a Dedekind domain? Then R_P is of course local, but as we might expect, there is much more!

3.6 Discrete Valuation Rings

We mentioned discrete valuation rings as another tool we needed to prove the multiplicativity of the ideal norm. We now give the definition.

DEFINITION 3.23

A **discrete valuation ring (DVR)** is an integral domain R such that

- (1) R is not a field;
- (2) R is Noetherian;
- (3) R is a local ring;
- (4) the unique maximal ideal M of R is principal.

If $M = \langle \pi \rangle$, we call π a **uniformizer**.

Our goal is to show that if R is a Dedekind domain and P is a nonzero prime ideal, then R_P is a DVR! Note that we are excluding the case where $P = \{0\}$ because we would then have $R_P = K$, which is a field and hence not a DVR.

We first prove Nakayama's lemma, which will allow us to prove an important property of a DVR.

LEMMA 3.24: NAKAYAMA

Let R be a ring. Let I be a nonzero proper ideal of R and M be a finitely generated R -module such that $IM = M$. There exists $a \in R$ such that

- (1) $a + I = 1 + I$; and
- (2) $aM = \{0\}$ (that is, a annihilates the module).

PROOF OF LEMMA 3.24.

Since M is a finitely generated R -module, we can write $M = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$ for some $x_i \in M = IM$. In particular, each x_i can be written in the form

$$x_i = a_{i1}x_1 + \cdots + a_{in}x_n$$

where $a_{ij} \in I$. Let $A = [a_{ij}] \in M_n(I)$ and $v = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T$ so that $Av = v$. Consider the characteristic polynomial $f(x) = \det(xI_n - A)$ of A . Note that Cayley-Hamilton holds for commutative rings with unity, so $f(A) = 0$. Writing $f(x) = x^n + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1x + c_0$ where $c_i \in I$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= f(A)v = (A^n + c_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1A + c_0I_n)v \\ &= v + c_{n-1}v + \cdots + c_1v + c_0v \\ &= f(1)v, \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality follows from the fact that $Av = v$. Letting $a = f(1)$, we have $av = 0$, which implies that $ax_i = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$. But $M = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$, so $aM = \{0\}$. Finally, since $c_i \in I$, we have $a = f(1) = 1 + c_{n-1} + \cdots + c_1 + c_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{I}$. \square

PROPOSITION 3.25

Let R be a DVR and let $M = \langle \pi \rangle$ be its unique maximal ideal. If I is a nonzero proper ideal, then $I = M^n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.25.

Consider the fractional ideal $J = \frac{1}{\pi}R$. (This doesn't live in R , but in the field of fractions.) Note that $MJ = R$. Denoting $I_1 = IJ$, we see that $I = IR = IJM = I_1M \subseteq I_1$.

Suppose that $I = I_1$. Then we see that $I = IM$, so by Nakayama's lemma (Lemma 3.24), there exists $a \in R$ such that $a - 1 \in M$ and $aI = \{0\}$. (Note that the roles of I and M are switched; we had some unfortunate notation here.) But R is an integral domain, so the only thing that can kill a nonzero ideal is $a = 0$. This implies that $-1 \in M$ and so $M = R$, which is a contradiction! Therefore, we have $I \subsetneq I_1$.

If $I_1 = R$, then $I = I_1M = RM = M$ and we are done. Otherwise, we have $I_1 \neq R$. Denoting $I_2 = I_1J$, we see that $I_1 = I_1R = I_1JM = I_2M \subseteq I_2$. An identical argument shows that $I_1 \subsetneq I_2$, and if $I_2 = R$, then $I_1 = M$ and so $I = I_1M = M^2$. Repeating this process gives us an ascending chain of ideals

$$I \subsetneq I_1 \subsetneq I_2 \subsetneq \cdots$$

and since DVRs are Noetherian, this process must terminate. \square

Let's take a look at some useful consequences of this proposition. Let R be a DVR and as usual, let $M = \langle \pi \rangle$ be its unique maximal ideal.

- (1) Note that if I is a nonzero proper ideal of R , then $I = M^n = \langle \pi^n \rangle$. Therefore, being a DVR is equivalent to being a local PID that is not a field.
- (2) Let $0 \neq x \in R$. There are two possibilities: either $x = u \in R^\times$ or $x \notin R^\times$. In the latter case, we have that $\langle x \rangle$ is a nonzero proper ideal of R , so $\langle x \rangle = \langle \pi^n \rangle$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then we can write $x = u\pi^n$ for some $u \in R^\times$. Since everything in the ring is a unit multiple of a power of π , it now makes sense why we call π a uniformizer.

The next proposition tells us that the localization of a Noetherian integral domain is still Noetherian.

PROPOSITION 3.26

Let R be a Noetherian integral domain and P is a nonzero prime ideal, then R_P is Noetherian.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.26.

Let $I \subseteq R_P$ be an ideal. Our goal is to show that I is a finitely generated R_P -module. Note that $J = I \cap R$ is an ideal of R . Since R is Noetherian, we can write $J = Rx_1 + \cdots + Rx_n$ where $x_i \in J$.

Let $x = \frac{a}{b} \in I$ where $a, b \in R$ and $b \notin P$. Then $a = bx \in I \cap R = J$, so we can write $a = r_1x_1 + \cdots + r_nx_n$ for some $r_i \in R$. In particular, we have

$$x = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{r_1}{b}x_1 + \cdots + \frac{r_n}{b}x_n$$

where $\frac{r_i}{b} \in R_P$ and $x_i \in J \subseteq I$, so $I = R_Px_1 + \cdots + R_Px_n$ is finitely generated as desired. \square

We are now ready to prove our goal that the localization of a Dedekind domain by a prime ideal is a DVR.

THEOREM 3.27

Let R be a Dedekind domain and let P be a nonzero prime ideal. Then R_P is a DVR.

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.27.

Since P is nonzero, we know that R_P is not a field. Proposition 3.26 tells us that R_P is Noetherian, and we have shown that R_P is local (it's a localization for goodness' sake). It suffices to prove that P_P , the unique maximal ideal of R_P , is principal.

Since R is a Dedekind domain, we know by Proposition 3.13 that there exists an ideal I of R such that $IP = \langle \alpha \rangle$ for some $0 \neq \alpha \in P$. Consider the fractional ideal $J = \frac{1}{\alpha}I$ and note that $JP = R$. Then we can write $1 = a_1b_1 + \cdots + a_nb_n$ where $a_i \in J$ and $b_i \in P$. Choose i such that $a_ib_i \notin P$. (Such an i must exist because if $a_ib_i \in P$ for all i , then $1 \in P$.) We see that $\frac{1}{a_ib_i} \in R_P$.

Now, let $x \in P_P$. We have $x = a_ib_i \cdot \frac{1}{a_ib_i}x$. Letting $y = \frac{1}{a_ib_i}x$, we have $y \in P_P$ since P_P is an ideal of R_P . Then we can write $y = \frac{u}{v}$ where $u, v \in R$ with $u \in P$ and $v \notin P$. This yields

$$x = b_i \frac{a_i u}{v}.$$

Since $a_i \in J$ and $u \in P$, we get $a_i u \in JP = R$, so $x \in \langle \frac{b_i}{1} \rangle \subseteq R_P$. This holds for all $x \in P_P$, so $P_P \subseteq \langle \frac{b_i}{1} \rangle$. The reverse containment follows because $b_i \in P$ and $1 \notin P$, so $P_P = \langle \frac{b_i}{1} \rangle$. \square

3.7 Multiplicativity of the Ideal Norm

Equipped with all the tools, let's start proving that the ideal norm is multiplicative.

PROPOSITION 3.28

Let R be an integral domain and P be a nonzero prime ideal of R . For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$R/P^n \cong R_P/P_P^n.$$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.28.

We leave it as an exercise to check that the map $r + P^n \mapsto \frac{r}{1} + P_P^n$ is a well-defined isomorphism between these quotient spaces. \square

Recall that in Section 3.4, we showed that the Chinese remainder theorem reduces the problem to proving that $N(P^n) = N(P)^n$. The next result is the key to this fact.

PROPOSITION 3.29

Let R be a DVR and let P be its maximal ideal. If R/P is finite, then for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$|R/P^n| = |R/P|^n.$$

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.29.

We proceed by induction. The base case is obvious. Suppose that $|R/P^n| = |R/P|^n$ for some $n \geq 1$. Consider the map $\varphi : R/P^{n+1} \rightarrow R/P^n$ defined by

$$\varphi(r + P^{n+1}) = r + P^n.$$

Since $P^{n+1} \subseteq P^n$, we see that φ is well-defined. It is easily verified that φ is a surjective homomorphism. Moreover, the kernel of φ consists of the elements already living in P^n , namely $\ker \varphi = P^n/P^{n+1}$. By the first isomorphism theorem, we get

$$(R/P^{n+1})/(P^n/P^{n+1}) \cong R/P^n.$$

Therefore, we have $|R/P^{n+1}| = |P^n/P^{n+1}| \cdot |R/P^n|$ by the inductive hypothesis. (Note that we could've used the third isomorphism theorem to get this isomorphism as well, but modding out by P^{n+1} would seemingly come out of nowhere.) To finish off the proof, it is enough to show that $|P^n/P^{n+1}| = |R/P|$. We'll do this using linear algebra. Consider the field $F = R/P$, and let $V = P^n/P^{n+1}$ be an F -vector space where scalar multiplication is defined by

$$(r + P)(a + P^{n+1}) = ra + P^{n+1}.$$

(Check that this is well-defined.) Write $P = \langle \pi \rangle$ and let $x \in V$. Then $x = a + P^{n+1}$ for some $a \in P^n$. But then $a \in \langle \pi^n \rangle$ and so $a = c\pi^n$ for some $c \in R$. This gives us

$$x = c\pi^n + P^{n+1} = (c + P)(\pi^n + P^{n+1}).$$

In particular, we see that V is spanned by $\pi^n + P^{n+1}$, which shows that $\dim_F(V) = 1$ and $V \cong F$. From this, we deduce that $|R/P| = |F| = |V| = |P^n/P^{n+1}|$. \square

We finally have the multiplicativity of the ideal norm, whose usefulness has been greatly motivated by our work on the assignments.

THEOREM 3.30

Let $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. If I and J are nonzero ideals of R , then

$$N(IJ) = N(I)N(J).$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 3.30.

Let P be a nonzero prime ideal. It suffices to show that $N(P^n) = N(P)^n$. Observe that

$$N(P^n) = |R/P^n| = |R_P/P_P^n| = |R_P/P_P|^n = |R/P|^n = N(P)^n$$

where the second and fourth equalities follow from Proposition 3.28, and the third equality follows from Proposition 3.29. \square

A Assignment Problems

Sometimes, we'll use facts that we cover on the assignments, so we list the problems here for reference.

Assignment 1.

A1-1 Let K be a number field.

(a) Let $\alpha \in K$. Suppose that α is a root of

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x].$$

Prove that $a_n \alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

(b) Prove that there exists a basis for K over \mathbb{Q} consisting entirely of algebraic integers.

A1-2 Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{7})$ and let

$$\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{7}] = \{a + b\sqrt{3} + c\sqrt{7} + d\sqrt{21} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Prove that $\mathcal{O}_K \neq \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{7}]$.

A1-3 Let R and S be integral domains, where R is a subring of S . Suppose S is integral over R . That is, assume that every element of S is integral over R .

(a) Prove that R is a field if and only if S is a field.

(b) Let Q be a prime ideal of S and let $P = Q \cap R$. Prove that P is a prime ideal of R , and that P is maximal if and only if Q is maximal.

A1-4 Let L/K be a finite extension of number fields. Prove that every embedding (injective ring homomorphism) $\varphi : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ can be extended to exactly $[L : K]$ embeddings $\psi : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

Assignment 2.

A2-1 Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$.

(a) Suppose that $\{a, b\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K . Prove that we must have

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & \bar{a} \\ b & \bar{b} \end{bmatrix}^2 = -20.$$

Here, we mean $\overline{x + y\sqrt{-5}} = x - y\sqrt{-5}$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$.

(b) Suppose that $a, b \in \mathcal{O}_K$ satisfy

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} a & \bar{a} \\ b & \bar{b} \end{bmatrix}^2 = -20.$$

Prove that $\{a, b\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K .

A2-2 Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\alpha^4 + 3\alpha^2 + 6\alpha - 3 = 0$.

(a) Compute $\text{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$.

(b) Compute $\text{Tr}_{\mathbb{Q}(\alpha)/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha^4 + \alpha + 2)$.

A2-3 Let R be an integral domain and let I and J be ideals of R . Recall that

$$IJ := \{a_1 b_1 + \cdots + a_n b_n : n \in \mathbb{N}, a_i \in I, b_i \in J\}$$

is also an ideal of R . Now, let X be the set of nonzero ideals of R .

(a) Put a relation \sim on X by $I \sim J$ if and only if $\langle \alpha \rangle I = \langle \beta \rangle J$ for some nonzero $\alpha, \beta \in R$. Prove that \sim is an equivalence relation on X .

- (b) Prove that $I, J \in X$ are isomorphic as R -modules if and only if $I \sim J$.
- (c) Prove that if $I \in X$ and there exists a nonzero $\alpha \in R$ such that $\langle \alpha \rangle I$ is principal, then I itself is principal. What does this tell you about the principal ideals of R relative to \sim ?
- (d) Prove that the set of ideal classes (with respect to \sim) form a group under the operation $[I][J] = [IJ]$ if and only if for all $I \in X$, there exists $J \in X$ such that IJ is principal.

A2-4 Let $M = \mathbb{Z}^n$ and let N be a submodule of M such that $\text{rank}(N) = n$.

- (a) Prove that M/N is finite.
- (b) Read Theorem 2.10 of Keith Conrad's notes, which also requires Definition 2.8. If $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ is the standard integral basis for M , this guarantees the existence of a basis $\{d_1 e_1, \dots, d_n e_n\}$ for N , where $d_i \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (c) Prove that $M/N \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_n}$.
- (d) Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be an integral basis for N . Since $N \subseteq M$, we can find $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} e_j$. Use this to construct the matrix $A = [a_{ij}] \in M_n(\mathbb{Z})$. Prove that $[M : N] = |\det(A)|$, where $[M : N]$ is the index of the subgroup N in M .

Assignment 3.

A3-1 Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of $f(x) = x^4 - x^3 + 2x^2 - x + 2$, and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Prove that $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. Note that $f(x)$ is irreducible by the rational roots theorem.

A3-2 Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of $f(x) = x^3 + 18x - 26$, and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Note that $f(x)$ is irreducible by Eisenstein with $p = 2$.

- (a) Prove that $\beta = \frac{\alpha^2 - \alpha + 1}{3} \in \mathcal{O}_K$.
- (b) Compute $\text{disc}(1, \alpha, \beta)$.
- (c) Prove that $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]] \in \{3, 6\}$.

A3-3 Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x - 8$, and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Note that $f(x)$ is irreducible by the rational roots theorem.

- (a) Prove that $\beta = \frac{4}{\alpha} \in \mathcal{O}_K$.
- (b) Compute $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$, $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta)$, $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha^2)$, $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta^2)$, and $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha\beta)$.
- (c) Compute $\text{disc}(1, \alpha, \beta)$.
- (d) Prove that $\{1, \alpha, \beta\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K .

A3-4 Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x - 8$ as before, and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$. Prove that there does not exist $\theta \in \mathcal{O}_K$ such that $\{1, \theta, \theta^2\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K .

Hint: By **A3-3**, we know that $\{1, \alpha, \beta\}$ is an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_K , so we have $\theta = a + b\alpha + c\beta$ and $\theta^2 = A + B\alpha + C\beta$ for some $a, b, c, A, B, C \in \mathbb{Z}$. Try to write A, B, C in terms of a, b, c .