Number Fields

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-1 Miscellaneous

Book: Number Fields, Marcus

Course notes: www.dpmms.ac.uk/ jat58/nfl2018

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Motivation 0

Theorem. If p is an odd prime, then $p = a^2 + b^2$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \iff p \equiv 1$

Proof. If $p = a^2 + b^2$, then $p \equiv 0, 1, 2 \pmod{4}$. So this condition on p is

Suppose instead $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$. Thus $\exists a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, or $p|a^2 + 1$. We can factor $a^2 + 1 = (a+i)(a-i)$ in the ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]$. Here we introduce a notation: if $R \subseteq S$ are rings and $\alpha \in S$, then

$$R[\alpha] = \{ \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \alpha^i \in S | a_i \in R \}$$

, the smallest subring of S containing both R and α .

We know from IB GRM that $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is a UFD. Now p|(a+i)(a-i). If p is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ then p|a+i or p|a-i, contradiction. Thus p is reducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, hence $p = z_1 z_2$ with $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$. If $z_1 = A + Bi$, $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $A^2 + B^2 = p$.

Another example is when p is an odd prime. Does the equation

$$x^p + y^p = z^p$$

have solutions with $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $xyz \neq 0$?

Theorem. (Kummer, 1850)

If $\mathbb{Z}[e^{2\pi i/p}]$ is a UFD, then there are no solutions. Strategy: factor $x^p + y^p = \prod_{j=0}^{p-1} (x + e^{2\pi i j/p}y)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[e^{2\pi i/p}]$.

However, we now know $\mathbb{Z}[e^{2\pi i/p}]$ is a UFD $\iff p \leq 19$.

Theorem. (Kummer, 1850)

If p is a regular prime, then there are no solutions.

If p < 100, then p is regular $\iff p \neq 37, 59, 67$.

We have seen various examples such as $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$, $\mathbb{Z}[i] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[i]$, $\mathbb{Z}[e^{2\pi i/p}] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[e^{2\pi i/p}]$, or in general, $\mathcal{O}_L \subseteq L$, where a ring of "integers" lies in a number field.

1 Ring of integers

Recall: A field extension L/K is an inclusion $K \leq L$ of fields. The degree of L/K is $[L:K] = \dim_K L$. We say L/K is finite if $[L:K] < \infty$.

Definition. (1.1)

A number field is a finite extension L/\mathbb{Q} . Here are two ways to construct number fields:

- (1) Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ be an algebraic number. Then $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ is a number field;
- (2) Let K be a number field, and let $f(X) \in K[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial. Then L = K[X]/(f(X)) is a number field.

(Recall Tower Law: $[L:Q] = [L:K][K:Q] < \infty$).

Definition. (1.2)

- (1) Let L/K be a field extension. Then we say $\alpha \in L$ is algebraic over K if there exists a monic $f(X) \in K[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$;
- (2) Let L/\mathbb{Q} be a field extension. Then we say $\alpha \in L$ is an algebraic integer if there exists a monic $f(X) \in Z[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$.

Definition. (1.3)

Let L/K be a field extension, and let $\alpha \in L$ be algebraic over K. We call the minimal polynomial of α over K the monic polynomial $f_{\alpha}(X) \in K[X]$ of least degree such that $f_{\alpha}(\alpha) = 0$.

We recall why $f_{\alpha}(X)$ is well-defined: there exists some monic $f(X) \in K[X]$ with $f(\alpha) = 0$ as α is algebraic. If $f_{\alpha}(\alpha), f'_{\alpha}(\alpha) \in K[X]$ both satisfy the definition of minimal polynomial, then we apply the polynomial division algorithm to write

$$f_{\alpha}(X) = p(X)f'_{\alpha}(X) + r(X)$$

where $p(X), r(X) \in K[X]$, and $\deg r < \deg f'_{\alpha}$. Evaluate at $X = \alpha$, we have $0 = f_{\alpha}(\alpha) = p(\alpha)f'_{\alpha}(\alpha) + r(\alpha) = r(\alpha)$. By minimality of $\deg f'_{\alpha}$, we must have r = 0. Then $\deg f_{\alpha} = \deg f'_{\alpha}$, and $f_{\alpha}(X), f'(\alpha)$ are both monic, i.e. p(X) = 1 and $f_{\alpha}(X) = f'_{\alpha}(X)$.

Lemma. (1.4)

Let L/\mathbb{Q} be a field extension, and let $\alpha \in L$ be an algebraic integer. Then:

- (1) The minimal polynomial $f_{\alpha}(X)$ of α over \mathbb{Q} lies in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$;
- (2) If $g(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ satisfies $g(\alpha) = 0$, then there exists $q(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $g(X) = f_{\alpha}(X)q(X)$;
- (3) The kernel of the ring homomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[X] \to L$ by $f(X) \to f(\alpha)$ equals $(f_{\alpha}(X))$, the ideal generated by $f_{\alpha}(X)$.

Proof. (1) Recall that if $f(X) = a_n X^n + ... + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, then we define from GRM, the content $c(f) = \gcd(a_n, ..., a_0)$. Recall Gauss' Lemma: If $f(X), g(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, then c(fg) = c(f)c(g). Since $\alpha \in L$ is an algebraic integer, there exists monic $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$, i.e. c(f) = 1. Apply polynomial division in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ to get $f(X) = p(X)f_{\alpha}(X) + r(X)$, where $p(X), r(X) \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$, $\deg r < \deg f_{\alpha}$. The definition of $f_{\alpha}(X)$ implies that r(X) = 0, hence $f(X) = p(X)f_{\alpha}(X)$. Now choose integers $n, m \geq 1$ such that $np(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, c(np) = 1, and $mf_{\alpha}(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$.

 $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, $c(mf_{\alpha}) = 1$. Then $nmf(x) = (np(x))(mf_{\alpha}(x)) \implies c(nmf(x)) = nm = 1$. So n = m = 1, hence $f_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$.

(2) Let $g(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be such that $g(\alpha) = 0$. WLOG $g(x) \neq 0$ and c(g) = 1. Now apply polynomial division to write $g(x) = q(x)f_{\alpha}(x) + s(x)$ where $q(x), s(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, deg $s < \deg f_{\alpha}$. Again by definition we have s(x) = 0. Choose an integer $k \geq 1$ such that $kq(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ and c(kq) = 1. Then $kg(x) = kq(x)f_{\alpha}(x) \implies k = c(kg) = c(kq)c(f_{\alpha}) = 1$. So k = 1, hence $q(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Let L/\mathbb{Q} be a field extension. Last time we said $\alpha \in L$ is an algebraic integer if \exists monic polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. We proved that if $\alpha \in L$ is an algebraic integer and $f_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is the minimal polynomial of α over \mathbb{Q} , then $f_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. However there is a small problem, so we'll prove again.

Proof. Choose $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ monic with $f(\alpha) = 0$, and write

$$f(x) = q(x)f_{\alpha}(x) + r(x)$$

where $q(x), r(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\deg r < \deg f_{\alpha}$. Then $r(\alpha) = 0 \implies r(x) = 0$, by minimality of $\deg f_{\alpha}$. I said that we can find integer $n, m \geq 1$ s.t. $nf_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $c(nf_{\alpha}) = 1$, $mq(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, c(mq) = 1. However we need to explain why do they exist. Note $f_{\alpha}(x)$ and q(x) are both monic. Choose integers $N, M \geq 1$ such that $Nf_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, $Mq(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Then $c(Nf_{\alpha})|N$, c(Mq)|M as those are the leading term of the polynomial. Now let $N/c(Nf_{\alpha}) = n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $M/c(Mq) = m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now $nmf(x) = (nf_{\alpha}(x))(mq(x))$, so $c(nmf(x)) = nm = 1 \implies n = m = 1$. \square

Corollary. (1.5)

If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$, then α is an algebraic integer $\iff \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. By lemma 1.4, α is an algebraic integer $\iff f_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. But if $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $f_{\alpha}(x) = x - \alpha$, and the first needs to divide the second polynomial. \square

Notation. If L/\mathbb{Q} is any field extension, we write $\mathcal{O}_L = \{\alpha \in L | \alpha \text{ is an algebraic integer}\}.$

Now we proceed to the first non-trivial result of the course:

Proposition. (1.6)

If L/\mathbb{Q} is a field extension, \mathcal{O}_L is a ring.

Proof. Clearly $0, 1 \in \mathcal{O}_L$. Now if $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $f_{-\alpha}(x) = (-1)^{\deg f_{\alpha}} f_{\alpha}(-x) \implies -\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

The hard part is to show that if $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\alpha + \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ and $\alpha\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$. Observe that if $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \subseteq L$ is a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module. By definition, $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ is generated by $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \ldots$. Let $f_{\alpha}(x) = x^d + a_1 x^{d-1} + \ldots + ad$, $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\alpha^d = -(a_1 \alpha^{d-1} + \ldots + ad)$, so $\alpha^d \in \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \mathbb{Z}\alpha^i$. By induction, we see that $\alpha^n \in \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \mathbb{Z}\alpha^i$ for all $n \geq d$. Hence $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} \mathbb{Z}\alpha^i$. Now take $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ and let $d = \deg f_{\alpha}$, $e = \deg f_{\beta}$.

By definition, $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha][\beta]$ is generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by $\{\alpha^i\beta^j\}_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}$. The same argument show that in fact this ring is generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by $\{\alpha^i\beta^j\}_{i,j\in\mathbb{N}}$. The same argument show that in fact this ring is generated as a \mathbb{Z} -module by $\{\alpha^i\beta^j\}$ for $0 \le i \le d-1, 0 \le j \le e-1$. So $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta]$ is finitely generated. From GRM we know the classification of finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -modules implies that there's an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] \cong \mathbb{Z}^r \oplus T$ for some $r \ge 1$ and finite abelian group T. In fact, T=0: if $\gamma \in T$, then $|T|\gamma=0$, by Lagrange's theorem. But $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] \subseteq L$, a \mathbb{Q} -vector space, so this forces $\gamma=0$. Now we can therefore fix an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] \cong \mathbb{Z}^r$ ($r \ge 1$. There's an endomorphism $m_{\alpha\beta}: \mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] \to \mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta]$ by $\gamma \to \alpha\beta\gamma$ (as a \mathbb{Z} -module). $m_{\alpha\beta}$ corredponds to an $r \times r$ matrix $A_{\alpha\beta} \in M_{r \times r}(\mathbb{Z})$. Let $F_{\alpha\beta}(x) = \det(x \cdot 1_r - A_{\alpha\beta}) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, a monic polynomial. By the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, $F_{\alpha\beta}(m_{\alpha\beta}) = 0$ as endomorphisms of $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta]$. Write $F_{\alpha\beta}(x) = x^r + b_1 x^{r-1} + \ldots + b_r$ for $b_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus $m_{\alpha\beta}^r + b_1 m_{\alpha\beta}^{r-1} + \ldots + b_r \cdot 1_r = 0$ as endomorphisms of $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta]$.

Now the image of 1 is $(\alpha\beta)^r + b_1(\alpha\beta)^{r-1} + ... + b_r = F_{\alpha\beta}(\alpha\beta) = 0$. So $\alpha\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$. The argument to show $\alpha + \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ is identical, replacing $m_{\alpha\beta}$ by $m_{\alpha+\beta} : \mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta] \to \mathbb{Z}[\alpha,\beta]$ by $\gamma \to (\alpha+\beta)\gamma$. The detail is omitted here.

We call \mathcal{O}_L the ring of algebraic integers of L.

Lemma. (1.7)

Let L/\mathbb{Q} be a number field, and let $\alpha \in L$. Then $\exists n \geq 1$ an integer such that $n\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

Proof. Let $f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be a monic polynomial such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. Then $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 1$ such that $g(x) = n^{\deg f} f(x/n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is monic. But then $g(n\alpha) = n^{\deg f} f(\alpha) = 0$. So $n\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

2 Complex embeddings

Let L be a number field.

Definition. (2.1)

A complex embedding of L is a field homomorphism $\sigma: L \to \mathbb{C}$. Note: in this case, σ is injective, and $\sigma|_{\mathbb{Q}}$ is the usual embedding $\mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{C}$.

Proposition. (2.2)

Let L/K be an extension of number fields, and let $\sigma_0: K \to \mathbb{C}$ be a complex embedding. Then there exist exactly [L:K] embeddings $\sigma: L \to \mathbb{C}$ which extends σ_0 ($\sigma|_K = \sigma_0$).

Proof. Induction on [L:K]. If [L:K]=1, then L=K, so σ_0 determines σ . In general, choose $\alpha\in L-K$ and consider $L/K(\alpha)/K$. By the Tower law, $[L:K]=[L:K(\alpha)][K(\alpha):K]$ and $[K(\alpha):K]>1$. By induction, it's enough to show there are exactly $[K(\alpha):K]$ embeddings $\sigma:K(\alpha)\to\mathbb{C}$ extending σ_0 . Let $f_\alpha(x)\in K[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of α over K. Observe there's an isomorphism $K[x]/(f_\alpha(x))\to K(\alpha)$ by sending $x\to\alpha$. To give a complex embedding $\sigma:K(\alpha)\to\mathbb{C}$ extending σ_0 , it's equivalent to give a root β of $(\sigma_0f)(x)$ in \mathbb{C} $(\sigma_0f(x)\in\mathbb{C}[x]$ means apply σ_0 to the coefficients of f(x)). Dictionary: $\sigma\to\beta=\sigma(\alpha)$. We have $[K(\alpha):K]=\deg f_\alpha=\deg \sigma_0f_\alpha$. It's enough to show σ_0f_α has distinct roots in \mathbb{C} . The polynomial $f_\alpha(x)\in K[x]$ is irreducible, so is prime to its derivative $f'_\alpha(x)$ (char K=0). So α is separable over K.

Recall from last lecture, let L be a number field, a complex embedding is a field homomorphism $\sigma: L \to \mathbb{C}$. The number of such embeddings is $[L:\mathbb{Q}]$. If $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, and $f_{\alpha}(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is the minimal polynomial, then there is a bijection $\{\sigma: L \to \mathbb{C}\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{ roots } \beta \in \mathbb{C} \text{ of } f_{\alpha}(x)\}$ by sending $\sigma \to \beta = \sigma(alpha)$.

Notation: if $\sigma: L \to \mathbb{C}$ is a complex embedding, then $\bar{\sigma}: L \to \mathbb{C}$ is also a complex embedding, where $\bar{\sigma}(\alpha) = \overline{\sigma(\alpha)}$ (complex conjugation). If $\sigma = \bar{\sigma}$, then $\sigma(L) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Otherwise $\sigma \neq \bar{\sigma}$ and $\sigma(L) \not\subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

We write r for the number of complex embedding σ such that $\sigma = \bar{\sigma}$, s for the number of pairs of embeddings $\{\sigma, \bar{\sigma}\}$ where $\sigma \neq \bar{\sigma}$. Then $r + 2s = [L : \mathbb{Q}]$.

Example. Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be square-free, $d \neq 0, 1$. Let $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^2 - d)$. If d > 0, then r = 2, s = 0 (real quadratic field). If d < 0, then r = 0, s = 1 (imaginary quadratic field).

Example. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ cube-free, $m \neq 0, 1, -1$. Let $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{m}) = \mathbb{Q}[x]/(x^3 - m)$. Then r = 1, s = 1, since $x^3 - m$ has one real and two complex roots.

Definition. (2.3)

Let L/K be an extension of number fields, and let $\alpha \in L$. Let $m_{\alpha} : L \to L$ be the K-linear map defined by $m_{\alpha}(\beta) = \alpha\beta$. Then we define

$$\operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \operatorname{tr} m_{\alpha} \in K$$

 $N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \det m_{\alpha} \in K$

the trace and norm of α respectively.

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Lemma. (2.4)

If L/K is an extension of number fields and $\alpha \in L$, then

$$\operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = [L:K(\alpha)]\operatorname{tr}_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha)$$
$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = N_{K(\alpha)/K}(\alpha)^{[L:K(\alpha)]}$$

Proof. There's an isomorphism $L \cong K(\alpha)^{[L:K(\alpha)]}$ of $K(\alpha)$ -vector spaces(?). \square

Lemma. (2.5)

Let L/K be an extension of number fields and let $\alpha \in L$. Let $\sigma_0 : K \to \mathbb{C}$ be a complex embedding, and let $\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n : L \to \mathbb{C}$ be the embeddings of L extending σ_0 .

Then

$$\sigma_0(\operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha)) = \sigma_1(\alpha) + \dots + \sigma_n(\alpha)$$

$$\sigma_0(N_{L/K}(\alpha)) = \sigma_1(\alpha) \dots \sigma_n(\alpha).$$

Proof. WLOG let $L = K(\alpha)$. Let $f_{\alpha}(x) \in K[x]$ be the minimal polynomial of α over K. Then

$$(\sigma_0 f_\alpha)(x) = (x - \sigma_1(\alpha))(x - \sigma_2(\alpha))...(x - \sigma_n(\alpha))$$

If $f(\alpha) = x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + ... + a_n$, then $\sigma_0(a_1) = -(\sigma_1(\alpha) + ... + \sigma_n(\alpha))$, $\sigma_0(a_n) = (-1)^n \sigma_1(\alpha) ... \sigma_n(\alpha)$.

Let $g(x) \in K[x]$ be the characteristic polynomial of m_{α} . If $g(x) = x^n + b_1 x^{n-1} + ... + b_n$, then $b_1 = -\operatorname{tr} m_{\alpha} = -\operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha)$, $b_n = (-1)^n \det m_{\alpha} = (-1)^n N_{L/K}(\alpha)$. By Cayley-Hamilton, $g(m_{\alpha}) = 0 \implies g(\alpha) = 0 \implies f_{\alpha}(x) = g(x)$.

Corollary. (2.6)

If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha)$, $N_{L/K}(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

Proof. If $\beta \in K$ then $\beta \in \mathcal{O}_K \iff \sigma_0(\beta) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}}$ (as $\forall f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x], f(\beta) = 0 \iff f(\sigma_0(\beta)) = 0$).

By the lemma, $\sigma_0 \operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \sigma_1(\alpha) + ... + \sigma_n(\alpha)$. If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\sigma_1(\alpha), ..., \sigma_n(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}} \implies \sigma_1(\alpha) + ... + \sigma_n(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}} \implies \sigma_0 \operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}} \implies \operatorname{tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_K$.

The same argument works for the norm.

Proposition. (2.7)

Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be squarefree, $d \neq 0, 1$, and let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_L = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] & d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \\ \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2} & d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Proof. If $\alpha \in L$, then $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ if and only if both trace and norm (over L/\mathbb{Q}) of α is in \mathbb{Z} . Why? Forward direction is the previous corollary; if $\alpha \in L$, then $f(\alpha) = 0$, where $f(x) = (x - \sigma_1(\alpha))(x - \sigma_2(\alpha)) = x^2 - \operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)x + N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$, where σ_1, σ_2 are complex embeddings of L. So backward holds too.

Let $\alpha \in L$. Write $\alpha = \frac{u}{2} + \frac{v}{2}\sqrt{d}$ where $u, v \in \mathbb{Q}$. If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = u \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{4}(u + \sqrt{d}v)(u - \sqrt{d}v) = \frac{1}{4}(u^2 - dv^2) \in \mathbb{Z} \implies u^2 - dv^2 \in 4\mathbb{Z}$ $\implies dv^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Write $v = \frac{r}{s}$ where $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}, s \neq 0, (r, s) = 1$. Then we get $dr^2 \in s^2\mathbb{Z} \implies s^2|dr^2$. If p is a prime and p|s then $p^2|d$. But we assumed d is square-free. So s = 1, so $v \in \mathbb{Z}$.

We've shown if $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\alpha = \frac{u}{2} + \frac{v}{2}\sqrt{d}$ where $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $u^2 \equiv d^2 \pmod{4}$.

Case 1: $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$. Then $u^2, v^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$. Considering the congruence $u^2 \equiv dv^2 \pmod{4}$ shows that both $u, v \in 2\mathbb{Z}$. Hence $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] = \{a + b\sqrt{d} | a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, and $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$.

Case 2: $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Hence $u^2 \equiv v^2 \pmod{4}$, so $u \equiv v \pmod{2}$. Hence $\mathcal{O}_L \subseteq \{\frac{u}{2} + \frac{v}{2}\sqrt{d}|u,v \in \mathbb{Z}, u \equiv 1 \pmod{2}\} = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}(\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2})$. It remains to show that $\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2}$ is an algebraic integer.

We have
$$\operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2}) = 1$$
, $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\frac{1+\sqrt{d}}{2}) = \frac{1-d}{4} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Recall that if R is a ring, then a unit in R is an element $u \in R$ such that there exists $v \in R$ such that uv = 1.

The set $\mathbb{R}^* = \{u \in R | u \text{ is a unit}\}\$ forms a group under multiplication.

Lemma. (2.8)

If L is a number field, then the units in \mathcal{O}_L are $\mathcal{O}_L^* = \{\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L | N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm 1\}.$

Proof. next time.

It's next time now! Let's prove this lemma.

 $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha\beta) = N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta)$ for any $\alpha, \beta \in L$.

If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L^*$, then $\exists \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $\alpha\beta = 1 \implies N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta) = 1$. Since $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha), N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta) \in \mathbb{Z}$, we get $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \{\pm 1\}$.

Conversely, suppose $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ and $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm 1$. Then $\alpha^{-1} \in L$. Let $\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n : L \to \mathbb{C}$ be the distinct complex embeddings of L. Then

$$N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \sigma_1(\alpha)...\sigma_n(\alpha) = \pm 1$$

$$\implies \sigma_1(\alpha^{-1}) = \pm \sigma_2(\alpha)...\sigma_n(\alpha) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}}$$

$$\implies \alpha^{-1} \in \mathcal{O}_L$$

Remark. We'll prove later in the course that \mathcal{O}_L^* is a finite group \iff either $L = \mathbb{Q}$ or L is an imaginary quadratic field.

3 Discriminants and integral bases

Let L be a number field, $n = [L : \mathbb{Q}], \sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n : L \to \mathbb{C}$ be distinct complex embeddings.

Definition. (3.1)

Let $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in L$. Then their discriminant is $disc(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n) = \det(D)^2$, where $D = M_{n \times n}(F)$ is $D_{ij} = \sigma_i(\alpha_j)$. Note: this is independent of the choice of ordering of $\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_n$ and $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$, as that's just permuting the rows or columns, hence changing only possibly signs; but we took a square in the definition.

Lemma. (3.2)

Let $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n \in L$. Then $disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) = \det(T)$, where $T \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{Q})$ is $T_{ij} = \operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha_i \alpha_j)$.

Proof.
$$T_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \sigma_k(\alpha_i \alpha_j) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} D_{ki} D_{kj} = (D^T D)_{ij}.$$

Corollary. (3.3)

 $disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Q}$. If $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. $disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) = \det(T)$, and entries of T is trace of some elements of L (over \mathbb{Q}) so is in the base field \mathbb{Q} (think a bit). So this must be rational. If $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\forall i,j,\ D_{ij} \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}} \implies disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) \in \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{C}} \cap \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}$. \square

Proposition. (3.4)

Let $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n \in L$. Then $disc(\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n) \neq 0 \iff \alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$ form a basis of L as \mathbb{Q} -vector space.

Proof. First suppose $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ are linearly dependent. Then the columns of the matrix $D_{ij} = \sigma_i(\alpha_j)$ are linearly dependent $\implies disc(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n) = 0$ (determinant is 0).

Now suppose $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ are linearly independent. Then $disc(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n) \neq 0$ $\iff \det(T) \neq 0 \iff$ the symmetric bilinear form $\phi: L \times L \to \mathbb{Q}$ by $\phi(\alpha, \beta) = \operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha\beta)$ is non-degenerate, i.e. $\forall \alpha \in L^*, \exists \beta \in L$ such that $\phi(\alpha, \beta) \neq 0$. If $\alpha \in L^*$, then $\phi(\alpha, \alpha^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(1) = n \neq 0$.

Definition. (3.5)

We say elements $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in L$ form an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_L , if:

- (i) $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_L$;
- (ii) $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ generate \mathcal{O}_L as a \mathbb{Z} -module.

Lemma. (3.6)

If $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n$ form an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_L , then the function

$$f: \mathbb{Z}^n \to \mathcal{O}_L$$

$$(m_1, ..., m_n) \to \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \alpha_i$$

is an isomorphism of \mathbb{Z} -module.

Proof. f is a homomorphism, we must show it's bijective. Observe that $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$ form a basis of L as \mathbb{Q} -vector space. We know that if $\beta \in L$, then $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $N\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ (I think (1.7)). So we can write $N\beta = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \alpha_i$ for some $m_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \implies \beta = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{m_i}{N} \alpha_i$. Hence $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$ span L, so they form a basis of L.

If $f(m_1,...,m_n)=0$, then $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \alpha_i=0 \implies (m_1,...,m_n)=(0,...,0)$, as $\alpha_1,...,\alpha_n$ are independent over \mathbb{Q} . This shows f is injective. It's surjective by definition.

Lemma. (3.7, sandwich lemma)

- (i) If $H \leq G$ are groups and $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$ for some $a \geq 0$, then $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^b$ for some $b \leq a$.
- (ii) If $K \leq H \leq G$ are groups and $K \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$ for some $a \geq 0$, then $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$.
- (iii) If $H \leq G$ are groups and $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$ for some $a \geq 0$, then G/H is finite.

Proof. (i) $H \leq G$, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$. Then G/H is f.g abelian group. By the classification, there's an isomorphism $G/H \cong \mathbb{Z}^N \oplus A$, A finite abelian group. Choose p prime, $p \mid / \mid A \mid$. Then the map $f: G/H \to G/H$ by $x + H \to px + H$ is injective, so $f': H/pH \to G/pG$ by $x + pH \to x + pG$ is injective – why? If $x \in H, x \in pG$, then x = py for some $y \in G$; then $y + H \in \ker(f) = H$. Hence $x \in pH$. So indeed f' is injective. By the classification, $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^b$. f' injective $\Longrightarrow |H/pH| \leq |G/pG|$, i.e. $p^b \leq p^a$ so $b \leq a$.

- (ii) Apply (i) to $K \leq H$ and $H \leq G$ to get $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^b$ where $a \leq b \leq a$.
- (iii) $H \leq G$, $H \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}^a$. Again G/H is finitely generated, so by the classification $G/H \cong \mathbb{Z}^N \oplus A$ where A is a finite abelian group.

Let p be a prime, $p \mid / \mid A \mid$. same proof as in (i) shows that $f': H/pH \to G/pG$ is injective. Since $|H/pH| = |G/pG| = p^a$, f' is a group isomorphism $G/H + pG \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^N$. There's a surjective homomorphism $G/pG \to G/H + pG$ which has kernel containing the image of f'. Hence $G/pG \to G/H + pG$ is surjective with kernel G/pG. This forces N = 0.