# SAARLAND UNIVERSITY FACULTY OF MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTER SCIENCE DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

# ALGEBRAIC NUMBER THEORY I & II

## LECTURE NOTES

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# Part I. Algebraic number theory I

# 1. Small prefix

#### Recall:

- L numberfield:  $\iff L$  is a finite extension of  $\mathbb{Q}$ In particular:  $L/\mathbb{Q}$  is separable  $\Rightarrow L/\mathbb{Q}$  is primitive, i.e.  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha), \mathbb{Q}[X] \ni f_{\alpha} = \min$ minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  and  $[L:\mathbb{Q}] = \deg(f_{\alpha})$ .
- $\mathcal{O} := \{ \alpha \in L \mid f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[X] \}$  is called *ring of integers* (generalization of  $\mathbb{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$ ).  $\mathcal{O}$  is an integral domain.
- Goal: study the ring  $\mathcal{O}$
- Questions:
  - 1. What is  $\mathcal{O}^{\times}$ ? What is its structure?
  - 2. What are the prime ideals of  $\mathcal{O}$ ?
  - 3. Do we have a unique prime factorization, i.e. is  $\mathcal{O}$  a UFD?

#### 1.1. Motivation

Problem 1.1.1 (Fermat's conjecture,  $\sim 1640$ ). Show that the equation  $x^n + y^n = z^n$  has no nontrivial integer solutions, i.e. solutions (x, y, z) with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  for  $n \geq 3$ .

#### History:

- 1770: Euler found solution for n=3
- 1825: Dirichlet and Legendre using Germain
- Kummer showed it for many primes, he showed as well that his idea doesn't work for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$
- Conjecture was proved by Wiles in 1997

Remark 1.1.2. i) If Fermat's is true for n, then also for nk for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

- ii) It is sufficient to prove Fermat's conjecture for n=4 and all odd primes.
- *Proof.* i) Suppose (x, y, z) is a nontrivial solution of  $x^{nk} + y^{nk} = z^{nk} \Rightarrow (x^k, y^k, z^k)$  is a nontrivial solution to  $x^n + y^n = z^n$ .
  - ii) Follows from i).

**Proposition 1.1.3** (n=2). Suppose  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}, \gcd(x, y, z) = 1$ 

- i) x, y, z are pairwise coprime if  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$
- ii)  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \Rightarrow either x \text{ or } y \text{ is even}$
- iii)  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2 \iff \exists r, s \in \mathbb{N}_0, \gcd(r, s) = 1 \text{ s.t. } x = \pm 2rs, y = \pm (r^2 s^2), z = \pm (r^2 + s^2).$

*Proof.* i) clear  $\checkmark$ 

- ii) One of x, y, z has to be even, since  $odd + odd \neq odd$ . Suppose z is even. Then look at equation mod 4, this gives a contradiction. By i) only one of x and y is even.
- iii) " $\Leftarrow$ ": calculation " $\Rightarrow$ ": Wlog. assume  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , x even, y, z odd:  $\Rightarrow x = 2u, z + y = 2v, z - y = 2w, \gcd(w, v) = 1(y, z \text{ are coprime}), x^2 + y^2 = z^2$   $\Rightarrow 4u^2 = x^2 = z^2 - y^2 = (z - y)(z + y) = 4wv \Rightarrow u^2 = wv$   $\gcd(v, w) = 1$

$$\overset{\gcd(v,w)=1}{\Longrightarrow} v = r^2, w = s^2 \Rightarrow z = v + w = r^2 + s^2, y = v - w = r^2 - s^2$$
and  $x = 2u = 2\sqrt{vw} = 2rs$ 

Remark.  $(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$  with  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$  are called pythagorean triples.

**Proposition 1.1.4** (n = 4). The equation  $x^4 + y^4 = z^2$  (and  $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$ ) have no nontrivial integer solutions.

*Proof.* Suppose  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $x^4 + y^4 = z^2, xyz \neq 0$ . Wlog x, y, z > 0, x, y, z coprime,  $x = 2\tilde{x}$  for some  $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{N}$ . Choose z minimal with this conditions.

Prop. 1.2 
$$\Rightarrow \exists r, s \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } x^2 = 2rs, y^2 = r^2 - s^2, z = r^2 + s^2 \text{ and } \gcd(r, s) = 1$$
  
 $\Rightarrow y^2 + s^2 = r^2 \text{ with } y, s, r \text{ coprime.}$ 

Prop. 1.2 
$$\Rightarrow \exists a, b \in \mathbb{N}$$
 s.t.  $s = 2ab, y = a^2 - b^2, r = a^2 + b^2$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .  
plug in  $\Rightarrow x^2 = 4ab(a^2 + b^2)$   
 $\Rightarrow \tilde{x}^2 = ab(a^2 + b^2)$  and  $a, b, a^2 + b^2$  pairwise coprime

As in proof of Prop. 1.2 (they are coprime but a square number)

$$\Rightarrow \exists c, d, e \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } a = c^2, b = d^2, a^2 + b^2 = e^2$$
  
 $\Rightarrow c^4 + d^4 = a^2 + b^2 = e^2 \text{ and } e \le a^2 + b^2 = r < z$ 

f since z was chosen to be minimal.

From now on: n = p odd prime.

*Idea* 1.1.5 (by Germain). Distinguish 2 cases in Fermat's problem:

- 1. "First case": x, y, z with p does not divide xyz.
- 2. "Second case": exactly one of x, y, z is divided by p.

#### Some approach:

- Use primitive p-th root of unity  $\zeta = \zeta_p$ .
- Reminder:  $X^p 1 = (X 1)(X \zeta) \dots (X \zeta^{p-1})$
- Setting  $\tilde{y} = -y$  we get:

$$x^{p} + y^{p} = x^{p} - \tilde{y}^{p} = \tilde{y}^{p} \left( \left( \frac{x}{\tilde{y}} \right)^{p} - 1 \right)$$

$$= \tilde{y}^{p} \left( \frac{x}{\tilde{y}} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{x}{\tilde{y}} - \zeta \right) \dots \left( \frac{x}{\tilde{y}} - \zeta^{p-1} \right)$$

$$= (x - \tilde{y})(x - \tilde{y}\zeta) \dots (x - \tilde{y}\zeta^{p-1})$$

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

**Lemma 1.1.6.** For  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $x^p + y^p = z^p \iff (x+y)(x+y\zeta)\dots(x+y\zeta^{p-1}) = z^p$ 

<u>Idea:</u> Look at prime divisors in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

<u>Problem:</u> Would be good to have unique prime factorization. This will not be true in general.

# 1.2. The ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$

Suppose  $\zeta$  is a primitive *n*-th root of unity

Reminder 1.2.1. i)  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}$  is algebraic extension of degree  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}]=\varphi(n)$ 

- ii)  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}$  is a Galois extension. In particular:  $\operatorname{Hom}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}) \cong \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}) = \{\sigma_i \text{ with } \sigma_i(\zeta) = \zeta^i \mid i \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}\} \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$
- iii) Consider the norm map  $\mathcal{N}: \mathbb{Q}(\zeta) \to \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\alpha \mapsto \det(\gamma \mapsto \alpha \gamma)$ . We have for  $\alpha = r(\zeta)$   $(r \in \mathbb{Q}[X] \text{ polynomial})$  with min. polynomial  $f_{\alpha} = X^k + c_{k-1}X^{k-1} + \cdots + c_0$ :
  - If we have  $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ , then  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = (-1)^{\varphi(n)}c_0$
  - $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \prod_{\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q})} \sigma(\alpha) = \prod_{i \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} r(\zeta^{i})$
  - $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q} \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \alpha^{\varphi(n)}$

iv) 
$$X^{n-1} + X^{n-2} + \dots + 1 = \frac{X^{n-1}}{X-1} = (X - \zeta)(X - \zeta^2) \dots (X - \zeta^{n-1})$$
  
 $\stackrel{X=1}{\Rightarrow} n = (1 - \zeta)(1 - \zeta^2) \dots (1 - \zeta^{n-1})$ 

Reminder 1.2.2 (and preview). i)  $\mathcal{O} := \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] := \{r(\zeta) \mid r \in \mathbb{Z}[X]\}$ 

ii) 
$$\mathbb{Z}[\zeta] = \{\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta) \mid f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[X]\}$$
 (proof later)

- iii)  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a free  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module with basis  $\{1, \zeta, \dots, \zeta^{d-1}\}$  with  $d = \varphi(n)$  (proof later)
- iv)  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$  (proof later)
- v)  $\{\alpha \in \mathcal{O} \mid |\alpha| = 1\}$  is finite (proof later)

Reminder 1.2.3. Suppose R is an integral domain:

- i)  $\alpha \in R$  is irreducible:  $\iff$  If  $\alpha = \alpha_1 \alpha_2$  with  $\alpha_i \in R$ , then  $\alpha_1 \in R^{\times}$  or  $\alpha_2 \in R^{\times}$
- ii)  $\alpha, \alpha' \in R$  are associated to each other :  $\iff \exists \varepsilon \in R^{\times} : \alpha = \varepsilon \alpha'$
- iii) R is called  $factorial : \iff \text{each } \alpha \in R, \alpha \neq 0 \text{ can be written in a unique way as } \alpha = \varepsilon \pi_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot \pi_r \text{ with } \pi_i \text{ irreducible up to multiplication with } \varepsilon \in R^{\times}$
- iv)  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in R$  are called *coprime* :  $\iff$  If  $\alpha' \in R$  with  $\exists \beta_1, \beta_2 \in R : \alpha_1 = \alpha' \beta_1, \alpha_2 = \alpha' \beta_2$  then  $\alpha' \in R^{\times}$ .

Remark (and correction). 1. Recall:  $L/\mathbb{Q}$  field extensions:

$$\mathcal{O} := \{ \alpha \in L \mid f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[X] \}$$

!! Here:  $f_{\alpha}$  is by definition monic, i.e leading coefficient is 1.

Remark: 
$$\mathcal{O} = \{ \alpha \in L \mid \exists f \in \mathbb{Z}[X] \text{ with } f \text{ monic and } f(\alpha) = 0 \}$$

"⊆": clear

"⊇": Lemma of Gauss

2. Recall: Definition of field norm for L/K finite field extension How is norm defined?  $\mathcal{N}: L \to K$  defined as follows:

Suppose  $\alpha \in L \Rightarrow \varphi_{\alpha} : \beta \mapsto \alpha\beta$  is linear map over K. Then:

$$\mathcal{N}_{L/K}(\alpha) := \det(\phi_{\alpha})$$

#### Properties:

- a) If  $L = K(\alpha)$  and  $X^n + c_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + c_0$  is a minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$  over K, then  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(\alpha) = (-1)^n c_0$ .
- b)  $\mathcal{N}_{L/K}(\alpha) = (\prod_{i=1}^r \sigma_i(\alpha))^q$  with  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(L, \overline{K}) = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r\}$  and  $q = \operatorname{inseparable}$  ble degree, i.e.  $[L:K] = [L:K]_s \cdot q$ .
- c)  $\alpha \in K \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(\alpha) = \alpha^d$  with d = [L:K] (see Bosch "Algebra"4.7).

General reference: NEUKIRCH

This chapter: BOREVICH + SHAFEREVICH Chapter 3.1.

Recall: Goal: prove for p prime and odd

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

has no non-trivial solutions. Last time:

$$x^{p} + y^{p} = z^{p} = (x+y)(x+y\zeta)(x+y\zeta^{2})\dots(x+y\zeta^{p-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$$

From now on: p odd prime,  $\zeta = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}$  primitive p - th root of unity  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

**Proposition 1.2.4.** For the group of units  $\mathcal{O}^{\times}$  of  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  we have:

$$\mathcal{O}^{\times} = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{O} \mid \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \pm 1 \}$$

Notation:  $\mathcal{N} = \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}}$  in this chapter.

*Proof.* 
$$\subseteq$$
 " $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}^{\times} \Rightarrow \exists \beta \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $\alpha\beta = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = N(\alpha\beta) \stackrel{!}{=} \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(\alpha)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(\beta)}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} \Rightarrow \text{claim}$ 

 $,\supseteq$ ": Suppose  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \pm 1$ .

$$\Rightarrow \pm 1 = \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \prod_{\sigma \in Gal(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)|\mathbb{Q})} \sigma(\alpha)$$

Note: 
$$\alpha = a_0 + a_1 \zeta + \dots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{p-2} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \sigma(\alpha) = a_0 + a_1 \zeta^i + \dots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{i(p-2)}$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, p-1\} \Rightarrow \sigma(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$   
 $\Rightarrow \alpha$  is a divisor of 1 in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \Rightarrow \alpha \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ .

i)  $\mathcal{N}(1-\zeta^s)=p \text{ for } s\in\mathbb{Z} \text{ with } s\not\equiv 0 \mod p$ Lemma 1.2.5.

- ii)  $1 \zeta$  is irreducible in  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .
- iii)  $p = \varepsilon \cdot (1 \zeta)^{p-1}$  with some  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ .

Proof. i) 2.1. iv) 
$$\Rightarrow p = (1 - \zeta)(1 - \zeta^2) \dots (1 - \zeta^{p-1})$$
  
2.1. iii)  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(1 - \zeta^s) = \prod_{\sigma \in \text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q})} \sigma(1 - \zeta^s) = \prod_{i=1}^{p-1} (1 - \zeta^{si}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p-1} (1 - \zeta^j) = p$ 

- ii) We obtain from i) that  $1 \zeta \notin \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ . Suppose  $1 \zeta = \alpha \beta$  with  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}$  $\Rightarrow p = \mathcal{N}(1 - \zeta) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha)\mathcal{N}(\beta) \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \pm 1 \text{ or } \mathcal{N}(\beta) = \pm 1 \overset{\text{Prop } 2.4}{\Longrightarrow} \alpha \in \mathcal{O}^{\times} \text{ or }$  $\beta \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ .
- iii) Use:  $1 \zeta^s = (1 \zeta) \underbrace{(1 + \zeta + \zeta^2 + \dots + \zeta^{s-1})}_{\varepsilon_s} = (1 \zeta)\varepsilon_s$   $\Rightarrow p = \mathcal{N}(1 \zeta^s) = \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(1 \zeta)}_{=p} \cdot \mathcal{N}(\varepsilon_s) \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\varepsilon_s) = 1 \Rightarrow \varepsilon_s \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$

Hence 
$$p = \prod_{s=1}^{p-1} (1 - \zeta^s) = \prod_{s=1}^{p-1} \underbrace{\varepsilon_s}_{\in \mathcal{O}^{\times}} (1 - \zeta) = (1 - \zeta)^{p-1} \prod_{s=1}^{p-1} \varepsilon_s$$

Notation:  $\varepsilon_s = 1 + \zeta + \cdots + \zeta^s$ .

**Lemma 1.2.6.** i)  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $1 - \zeta$  divides a in  $\mathcal{O} \Rightarrow p$  divides a.

ii) An n-th root of unity lies in  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) \iff n$  divides 2p.

i)  $a = (1 - \zeta)\beta$  with  $\beta \in \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow a^{p-1} = \mathcal{N}(a) = p\mathcal{N}(\beta) \stackrel{(\mathcal{N}(\beta) \in \mathbb{Z})}{\Longrightarrow} p$  divides a. Proof.

ii) =:  $-1 \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$  and thus  $e^{\frac{2\pi i}{2p}} \in \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$  $,\Rightarrow$ ": Consider  $H:=\{\omega\in\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)\mid\omega\text{ is a root of unity}\}$ 

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- a)  $H \subseteq \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ : Suppose  $\omega \in H \Rightarrow \omega^n 1 = 0$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow f_\omega$  is a divisor of  $X^n 1 \Rightarrow f_\omega \in \mathbb{Z}[X] \stackrel{2.2ii}{\Longrightarrow} \omega \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .
- b)  $\tilde{\omega}$  some conjugate of  $\omega \Rightarrow \tilde{\omega}$  is a root of  $X^n 1 \Rightarrow |\tilde{\omega}| = 1 \stackrel{2.2v}{\Longrightarrow} H$  is finite  $\Rightarrow H$  is a cyclic subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)^{\times}$ . Choose some generator  $\omega_0$  of H and denote  $m := \operatorname{ord}(\omega_0)$ . Since  $\zeta \in H$  and  $\operatorname{ord}(\zeta) = p \Rightarrow p$  divides m. Decompose  $m = p^s \cdot m'$  with  $s \geq 1$  and  $\operatorname{gcd}(m', p) = 1$ . Consider the field extensions chain:

$$\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\omega_0) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$$

with degrees  $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}] = p-1 = \varphi(p)$  and  $[\mathbb{Q}(\omega_0):\mathbb{Q}] = \varphi(m) = p^{s-1}(p-1)\varphi(m') \leq p-1 \Rightarrow s=1$  and  $\varphi(m')=1$  and thus  $m'=1,2\Rightarrow \operatorname{ord}(\omega_0) \leq 2p$ .

#### Notation 1.2.7.

- 1. L/K field extension,  $\alpha \in L, \overline{K}$  given algebraic closure. The elements  $\sigma(\alpha)$  with  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Hom}_K(L, \overline{K})$  are called *conjugates of*  $\alpha$ . In particular: L/K normal  $\Rightarrow$  conjugates live in L.
- 2. R ring, I ideal in R,  $p:R\to R/I$  canonical projection. For  $\alpha,\beta\in R$  we denote  $\alpha\equiv\beta\mod I:\iff p(\alpha)=p(\beta).$  If I=<q> is a principal ideal, we denote  $\alpha\equiv\beta\mod q:\iff \alpha\equiv\beta\mod < q>$

Example 1.2.8. Consider  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q}$  with  $\zeta^p = 1, R = \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta], \alpha = a_0 + a_1\zeta + a_2\zeta^2 + \cdots + a_{p-2}\zeta^{p-2}$ 

- i) The conjugates of  $\alpha$  are:  $\alpha_h = a_0 + a_1 \zeta^h + a_2 \zeta^{2h} + \cdots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{h(p-2)}$  with  $h \in \{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ .
- ii) Consider  $\lambda = 1 \zeta$  and  $I = \langle \lambda \rangle$ .  $1 \equiv \zeta \mod \lambda$  and  $\alpha \equiv a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_{p-2} \mod \lambda (\in \mathbb{Z})$ .

iii) 
$$\alpha^p \equiv a_0^p + (a_1\zeta)^p + \dots + (a_{p-2}\zeta^{p-2})^p = \underbrace{a_0^p + a_1^p + \dots + a_{p-1}^p}_{\in \mathbb{Z}} \mod p$$

**Theorem 1** (Kummer's Lemma). If  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a unit, i.e.  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]^{\times}$ ,

$$\frac{\varepsilon}{\bar{\varepsilon}} = \zeta^a \quad \text{for some } a \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Here  $\bar{\varepsilon} = \tau(\varepsilon)$ , where  $\tau$  is the complex conjugation. Recall:  $\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)/\mathbb{Q})$ .

*Proof.* Denote  $\varepsilon = a_0 + a_1 \zeta + \dots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{p-2} = r(\zeta)$  with  $r(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{p-2} a_i X^i \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ . Observe:

1. 
$$\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times} \Rightarrow \exists \varepsilon' \in \mathcal{O} \text{ s.t. } \varepsilon \varepsilon' = 1 \Rightarrow \bar{\varepsilon} \bar{\varepsilon}' = 1 \Rightarrow \bar{\varepsilon} \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$$

2.  $\mu := \frac{\varepsilon}{\overline{\varepsilon}} = \frac{r(\zeta)}{r(\zeta^{-1})}$  and the conjugate  $\mu_k$  of  $\mu$  is  $\frac{r(\zeta^k)}{r(\zeta^{-k})} = \frac{r(\zeta^k)}{r(\zeta^k)}$ . In particular  $|\mu_k| = 1$ . It follows that  $\mu_k \in \{\alpha \in \mathcal{O}^\times \mid |\alpha| = 1\}$  which is by 2.2. v) a finite subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)^\times \Rightarrow \mu$  is a root of unity

Lemma  $2.6 \Rightarrow \mu = \pm \zeta^a$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Claim:  $\mu = \zeta^a$ 

<u>Proof of claim:</u> suppose  $\mu = -\zeta^a$ , i.e.  $\varepsilon = -\bar{\varepsilon}\zeta^a$  (\*)

<u>Idea:</u> calculation mod  $\lambda = 1 - \zeta$   $\varepsilon = a_0 + a_1 \zeta + \dots + a_{p-2} \zeta^{p-2}$ 

Ex. 2.8.ii) 
$$\Rightarrow \varepsilon \equiv \underbrace{a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_{p-2}}_{=:M \in \mathbb{Z}} \equiv \bar{\varepsilon} \mod \lambda$$

 $(\star) \Rightarrow \varepsilon \equiv -\bar{\varepsilon} \mod \lambda \Rightarrow M \equiv -M \mod \lambda \Rightarrow 2M \equiv 0 \mod \lambda \stackrel{\text{Lemma 2.6 i}}{\Longrightarrow} p \text{ divides } 2M \text{ in } \mathbb{Z} \stackrel{p \text{ odd}}{\Longrightarrow} p \text{ divides } M.$ 

 $\Rightarrow \lambda = 1 - \zeta$  divides M in O by Lemma 2.5.

 $\Rightarrow \varepsilon \equiv \bar{\varepsilon} \equiv M \equiv 0 \mod \lambda = 1 - \zeta \Rightarrow$ Contradiction to  $\varepsilon$  is unit and  $1 - \zeta$  is irreducible

Corollary 1.2.9.  $\varepsilon$  unit in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \Rightarrow \varepsilon = r\zeta^s$  with some  $r \in \mathbb{R}, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Prop  $2.9 \Rightarrow \exists \ a \in \mathbb{Z}, \varepsilon = \zeta^a \cdot \bar{\varepsilon}$ .

Choose  $s \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $2s \equiv a \mod p$ 

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\varepsilon}{\zeta^s} = \zeta^s \cdot \bar{\varepsilon} = \frac{\bar{\varepsilon}}{\zeta^{-s}} = \frac{\bar{\varepsilon}}{\zeta^s} = r \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \varepsilon = r \cdot \zeta^s.$$

**Lemma 1.2.10.** Suppose  $x, y, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \not\equiv n \mod p$ .  $x + y\zeta^n$  and  $x + y\zeta^m$  are relatively prime  $\iff$  (x and y are relatively prime) and (x + y not divisible by p)

Proof.  $,\Rightarrow$ ":

- d|x and  $d|y \Rightarrow d|x + \zeta^n y$  and  $d|x + \zeta^n y$
- "p|x + y" Recall:  $p = \varepsilon (1 \zeta)^{p-1}$  with  $\varepsilon \in O^{\times}$   $\Rightarrow x + \zeta^m y = \underbrace{x + y}_{\text{divisible by } p} + y \cdot \underbrace{(\zeta^m - 1)}_{(\zeta - 1)(1 + \zeta + \zeta^2 \cdots + \zeta^{m-1})} \equiv 0 \mod 1 - \zeta$ same way  $x + \zeta^n y \equiv 0 \mod 1 - \zeta$

 $, \Leftarrow$ ": <u>Idea:</u> show:  $\exists \alpha_0, \beta_0 \in \mathcal{O}$  with:

$$1 = \alpha_0(x + \zeta^m y) + \beta(x + \zeta^n y)$$

Consider:  $A := \{ \alpha(x + \zeta^m y) + \beta(x + \zeta^n y) \mid \alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O} \}$ 

A is an ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$ . We have:

1. 
$$(x + \zeta^m y) - (x + \zeta^n y) = \zeta^m (1 - \zeta^{n-m}) y = \underbrace{\zeta^n \varepsilon_{n-m}}_{\in \mathcal{O}^{\times}} (1 - \zeta) y \Rightarrow (1 - \zeta) y \in A$$

2. 
$$\zeta^n(x+\zeta^m y) - \zeta^m(x+\zeta^n y) = (\zeta^n - \zeta^m)x = \zeta^n \cdot (1-\zeta^{n-m})x = \underbrace{\zeta^n \varepsilon_{m-n}}_{\in \mathcal{O}^{\times}} \cdot (1-\zeta)x \Rightarrow (1-\zeta)x \in A.$$

3. 
$$gcd(x,y) = 1 \Rightarrow \exists \ a,b \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ with } 1 = ax + by \Rightarrow (1-\zeta)xa + (1-\zeta)yb = 1-\zeta \stackrel{1.\&2}{\Rightarrow} 1-\zeta \in A$$

4. 
$$x + y = \underbrace{x + \zeta^n y}_{\in A} + \underbrace{(1 - \zeta^n) y}_{\in A} \in A$$

5. 
$$\gcd(p, x + y) = 1 \Rightarrow \exists \bar{a}, \bar{b} \in \mathbb{Z} : 1 = \underbrace{\bar{a}p}_{\in A} + \bar{b}\underbrace{(x + y)}_{\in A} \in A.$$

 $\Rightarrow$  Hence  $x + \zeta^n y$  and  $x + \zeta^m y$  are coprime.

Remark 1.2.11. Suppose  $\alpha = a_0 + a_1\zeta + \cdots + a_{p-1}\zeta^{p-1} \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$  and at least one  $a_j = 0$ .

If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with n divides  $\alpha$  in  $\mathcal{O}$ , then n divides all  $a_i$ 

*Proof.* Recall from 2.2 (preview): 
$$1, \zeta, \zeta^2, \ldots, \zeta^{p-2}$$
 is a basis of  $\mathcal{O}$ .  
Furthermore:  $1 + \zeta + \cdots + \zeta^{p-1} = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \{1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{p-1}\} \setminus \{\zeta^j\}$  is a basis  $\Rightarrow$  claim.

# 1.3. First case of Fermat in case of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is a UFD (unique factorization domain)

Reference: BOREVICH + SHAFEREVIC + WASHINGTON Chapter 1 As before: p odd prime,  $\zeta = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}} p$ -th root of unity.

**Theorem 2.** Suppose that  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a UFD, then  $x^p + y^p = z^p$  has no non-trivial solutions (x, y, z), such that neither x, y nor z is divisible by p.

**Theorem 3** (p=3). Suppose  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $x^3 + y^3 = z^3 \mod 9 \Rightarrow 3$  divides x, y or z.

*Proof.* Recall: Little Fermat's theorem  $x^p \equiv x, y^p \equiv y, z^p \equiv z \mod p$ .

$$x^{3} + y^{3} = z^{3} \mod 3 \Rightarrow x + y \equiv z \mod 3$$

$$\Rightarrow z = x + y + 3u \text{ with } u \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{x^{3} + y^{3}} \equiv (x + y + 3u)^{3} \equiv \underline{x^{3} + y^{3}} + 3xy^{2} + 3x^{2}y \mod 9$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \equiv xy^{3} + x^{2}y \equiv xy(x + y) \equiv xyz \mod 3$$

$$\Rightarrow x, y \text{ or } z \text{ is divisible by } 3$$

**Lemma 1.3.1.** Let  $p \ge 5$ . Suppose  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $x^p + y^p = z^p$ . If  $x \equiv y \equiv -z \mod p$ , then p|z.

Proof. 
$$z \equiv z^p = x^p + y^p \equiv -2z^p \equiv -2z \mod p \Rightarrow 3z \equiv 0 \mod p \stackrel{p \neq 3}{\Longrightarrow} p|z.$$

Remark 1.3.2. It follows from Lemma 3.2 that in the first case of Fermat we may assume for  $p \ge 5$  that  $x \not\equiv y \mod p$  because we can replace  $x^p + y^p = z^p$  by  $x^p + (-z)^p = (-y)^p$  and  $x \not\equiv -z \mod p$ .

of Thm. 1.  $p = 3 \Rightarrow$  claim follows from Prop 3.1.

Now:  $p \ge 5$ . Suppose  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$  with p divides neither x, y nor z, x, y, z are pairwise coprime and  $x \not\equiv y \mod p$ . Suppose  $z^p = x^p + y^p = (x + y)(x + \zeta y) \dots (x + \zeta^{p-1}y)$ . Apply Lemma 2.11:

- gcd(x,y) = 1
- Little Fermat  $\Rightarrow x + y \equiv x^p + y^p \equiv z^p \not\equiv 0 \mod p$

 $\overset{2.11}{\Longrightarrow} x + y, x + \zeta y, \dots, x + \zeta^{p-1} y$  are pairwise coprime.  $\overset{\mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \text{ UFD}}{\Longrightarrow} , x + \zeta^i y$  have to be *p*-power" More precisely:  $x + \zeta y = \varepsilon \alpha^p$  with  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}, \alpha \in \mathcal{O},$  since they are coprime factors of a *p*-th power.

- 1. Cor.  $2.10 \Rightarrow \varepsilon = r\zeta^s$  with  $r \in \mathbb{R}, s \in \mathbb{Z}$
- 2. Example 2.8. iii)  $\Rightarrow \exists a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ with } \alpha^p \equiv a \mod p$ .

$$x + \zeta y = r\zeta^{s}\alpha^{p} \equiv r\zeta^{s}a \mod p$$

$$x + \zeta^{-1}y = \overline{x + \zeta y} \equiv r\zeta^{-s}a \mod p$$

$$\Rightarrow \zeta^{-s}(x + \zeta y) \equiv ra \equiv \zeta^{s}(x + \zeta^{-1}y) \mod p$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{x + \zeta y - \zeta^{2s}x - \zeta^{2s-1}y}_{=x \cdot 1 + y\zeta - x\zeta^{2s} - y\zeta^{2s-1}} \equiv 0 \mod p$$

Idea: Use Rem. 2.12

Case 1:  $1, \zeta, \zeta^{2s-1}, \zeta^{2s}$  are distinct  $\stackrel{p \geq 5, \text{ Rem } 2.12}{\Longrightarrow} p|x$  and p|y. Contradiction to first case.

Recall:  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ ,  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ , where  $\zeta$  is a p-th root of unity

#### Last time:

- (1)  $a_1 1 + a_2 \zeta + \dots + a_p \zeta^{p-1} = \alpha$  and at least one  $a_j = 0$ If  $\alpha$  is divided by  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  then all the  $a_i$  are divided by n.
- (2)  $x + y\zeta x\zeta^{2s} y\zeta^{2s-1} \equiv 0 \mod p$

Continuation of proof of Theorem 1. "Case 2"  $1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{2s}$  are not distinct. Observe:  $1 \neq \zeta$  and  $\zeta^{2s-1} \neq \zeta^{2s}$ 

"Case 2A" 
$$1 = \zeta^{2s} (\Leftrightarrow p|s)$$
.

(2) implies  $y\zeta - y\zeta^{2s-1} \equiv 0 \mod p$  such that Remark 2.12 yields the contradiction p|y.

"Case 2B" 
$$1 = \zeta^{2s-1} (\Leftrightarrow \zeta = \zeta^{2s}).$$

(2) implies  $(x - y)1 + (y - x)\zeta \equiv 0 \mod p$  such that Remark 2.12 yields p|y - x, which contradicts the assumption  $x \not\equiv y \mod p$ .

"Case 2C" 
$$\zeta = \zeta^{2s-1}$$
.

(2) implies  $x - x\zeta^2 \equiv 0 \mod p$  such that Remark 2.12 yields the contradiction p|x.  $\square$ 

#### Questions:

- (1) Under which assumption is  $\mathcal{O}$  a UFD?
- (2) What can we do if  $\mathcal{O}$  is not a UFD?
  - $\rightarrow$  Idea of Kummer: "calculate with ideals"

**Prospect:** Theorem (Montgomery, Uchida, 1971)  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$  is a UFD if and only if  $p \leq 19$ , p prime.

**Preview:** From Kummer's idea we obtain a better criterion for p called **regular**, which ensures that Fermat's conjecture holds for p.

Conjecture. There are infinitely many regular primes.

# 2. Ring of integers

In this chapter, all rings are assumed to be commutative with 1.

## 2.1. Integral ring extensions

**Definition 2.1.1** ("ganze Ringerweiterungen"). Let  $A \subset B$  be a ring extension.

- (i)  $b \in B$  is **integral** over A if there exists a monic polynomial  $f(X) = X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in A[X]$  with f(b) = 0.
- (ii) B is **integral** over A if all  $b \in B$  are integral over A.

**Proposition 2.1.2.** Let  $A \subset B$  be a ring extension and  $b_1, \ldots, b_n \in B$ . Then  $b_1, \ldots, b_n$  are integral over A if and only if

$$A[b_1,\ldots,b_n] = \{f(b_1,\ldots,b_n) \mid f \in A[X_1,\ldots,X_n]\}$$

is a finitely generated A-module.

Reminder 2.1.3 ("Adjunkte"). Let R be a ring and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ 

- (i)  $A^{\#} = (a_{i,j}^{\#})$  with  $a_{i,j}^{\#} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(A_{j,i})$ , where  $A_{j,i}$  is obtained from A by deleting the j-th row and i-th column of A.
- (ii) We have  $AA^{\#} = A^{\#}A = \det(A)I$ . In particular, Ax = 0 implies  $A^{\#}Ax = 0$  such that  $\det(A)x = 0$ .

Proof of Proposition 1.2. " $\Rightarrow$ " If n=1 and b is integral over A, then there is an  $f \in A[X]$  with f monic such that f(b)=0. Let  $g \in A[X]$  be arbitrary. Then

$$g(X) = q(X)f(X) + r(X)$$

with  $q, r \in A[X]$  and  $\deg r < \deg f = d$ . Hence g(b) = r(b) with  $\deg r < d$ . Thus  $\{1, b, \dots, b^{d-1}\}$  generate A[b] as an A-module. The case  $n \geq 2$  follows by induction.

" $\Leftarrow$ "  $A[b_1,\ldots,b_n]$  is finitely generated as an A-module by  $w_1,\ldots,w_r$ . If  $b\in A[b_1,\ldots,b_n]$  then

$$bw_i = \sum_{j=1}^r a_{j,i} w_j$$

such that

$$(bI - (a_{i,j})) w = 0.$$

Thus,  $\det(bI - (a_{i,j})) w = 0$  and hence

$$\det\left(bI - (a_{i,j})\right)w_i = 0$$

for all i = 1, ..., r. If we now use that

$$1 = c_1 w_1 + \dots + c_r w_r$$

we can infer det  $(bI - (a_{i,j}))$  1 = 0. Consider

$$M = bI - (a_{i,j}) = \begin{pmatrix} b - a_{1,1} & -a_{1,2} & \cdots & -a_{1,r} \\ -a_{2,1} & b - a_{2,2} & \cdots & -a_{2,r} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{r,1} & -a_{r,2} & \cdots & b - a_{r,r} \end{pmatrix}.$$

By the Leibniz formula we have

$$\det(M) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\sigma) \prod_{i=1}^n m_{\sigma(i),j}$$

which is a polynomial over b with leading coefficient 1. Hence b is integral over A.  $\Box$ 

Corollary 2.1.4 (And Definition). (i) If  $A \subset B$  is an extension of rings then

$$\overline{A} = \{b \in B \mid b \text{ is integral over } A\}$$

is a ring. It is called the **integral closure** of A in B. If  $\overline{A} = A$  then A is called **integrally closed** in B.

- (ii) We have transitivity, that is to say, if A, B, C are rings with  $A \subset B \subset C$  such that C is integral over B and B is integral over A then C is integral over A.
- (iii) The integral closure of A in B is integrally closed, i.e.,  $\overline{\overline{A}} = \overline{A}$ .

*Proof.* "(i)" If  $b_1, b_2 \in \overline{A}$  then  $A[b_1], A[b_2]$  are finitely generated A-modules. Hence  $A[b_1, b_2]$  is a finitely generated A-module. Thus, by Proposition 1.3,  $b_1 + b_2$  and  $b_1b_2$  are integral, i.e., elements of  $\overline{A}$ .

"(ii)" If  $c \in C$  then c is integral over B and hence there is a monic polynomial  $f = X^n + b_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + b_0 \in B[X]$  with f(b) = 0. This shows that c is integral over  $R = A[b_1, \ldots, b_{n-1}]$  such that Proposition 1.3 shows that R[c] is a finitely generated R-module. Furthermore,  $b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1}$  are integral over A such that another application of Proposition 1.3 shows that R is a finitely generated A-module. Hence, R[c] is a finitely generated A module such that c is integral over A by Proposition 1.3.

**Definition 2.1.5** ("ganzer Abschluss und normaler Ring"). If A is an integral domain we call its integral closure  $\overline{A}$  in  $K = \operatorname{Quot}(A)$  the **normalization** or the **integral closure** of A. We say A is **integrally closed** if A is integrally closed in K.

Remark 2.1.6. If A is a UFD then A is integrally closed.

*Proof.* Suppose  $b = \frac{a}{a'} \in \text{Quot}(A)$  with  $\gcd(a, a') = 1$  is integral over A. Then there exist  $a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1} \in A$  with

$$\left(\frac{a}{a'}\right)^n + a_{n-1} \left(\frac{a}{a'}\right)^{n-1} + a_{n-2} \left(\frac{a}{a'}\right)^{n-2} + \dots + a_0 = 0$$

such that

$$a^{n} + a_{n-1}a'a^{n-1} + a_{n-2}a'^{2}a^{n-2} + \dots + a_{0}a'^{n} = 0.$$

Let  $a' = \varepsilon \pi_1 \cdots \pi_r$  be the prime factorization of a' with  $\varepsilon \in A^{\times}$  and  $\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_r$  primes. Since  $\pi_i | a'$  the above equation shows that actually  $\pi_i | a^n$ . But this implies  $\pi_i | a$  which is a contradiction to  $\gcd(a, a') = 1$ . Hence we have  $a' = \varepsilon \in A^{\times}$  such that  $b \in A$ .

## 2.2. Integral closures in field extensions

#### Setting:

- $\bullet$  A is an integral domain.
- A is integrally closed.
- $K = \operatorname{Quot}(A)$ .
- L/K is a finite field extension with  $\overline{A}_K = A \subset K = \operatorname{Quot}(A) \hookrightarrow L \supset B = \overline{A}_L$ .
- B is the integral closure of A in L. Observe:  $B \cap K = A$

Remark 2.2.1. (i) B is integrally closed in L.

- (ii) If  $\beta \in L$  then there are  $b \in B$  and  $a \in A \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $\beta = \frac{b}{a}$ . In particular, L = Quot(B).
- (iii) For  $\beta \in L$  we have  $\beta \in B$  if and only if  $f_{\beta} \in A[X]$ , where  $f_{\beta}$  is the minimal polynomial of  $\beta$  over K.

*Proof.* "(i)" Follows from the transitivity in Corollary 1.4.

"(ii)" Choose  $a \in A$  with  $a^n f_{\beta}(X) = a^n X^n + a^{n-1} c_{n-1} X^{n-1} + \cdots + c_0 \in A[X]$ . Then we have

$$a^{n}\beta^{n} + c_{n-1}a^{n-1}\beta^{n-1} + \dots + c_{0} = 0$$

and hence

$$(a\beta)^n + c_{n-1}(a\beta)^{n-1} + \dots + c_0 = 0$$

such that  $a\beta$  is integral over A. Consequently,  $b = a\beta \in B$  and  $\beta = \frac{b}{a}$ .

"(iii)" " $\Leftarrow$ " Obvious. " $\Rightarrow$ " Let  $\beta$  be a zero of  $g(X) = \underline{X}^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in A[X]$ . Then  $f_{\beta}$  divides g. If  $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_n$  are the zeros of  $f_{\beta}$  in  $\overline{K}$  then they are also zeros of g and thus integral over A. Hence the coefficients of  $f_{\beta}$  are integral over A and are elements of K such that  $f_{\beta} \in A[X]$  as claimed.

Reminder 2.2.2 (Trace, Norm). Let  $K \subseteq L$  be a finite field extension. For  $\alpha$  in L consider the map  $T_{\alpha}: \beta \mapsto \alpha\beta$ . The following holds

- i)  $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \operatorname{Tr}(T_{\alpha})$  and  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(\alpha) = \det(T_{\alpha})$ ,
- ii) If  $L = K(\alpha)$  and  $f_{\alpha}(X) = X^n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i X^i$  then

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = -a_{n-1}$$
 and  $\mathcal{N}_{L/K}(\alpha) = (-1)^n \cdot a_0$ ,

iii) Since  $T_{\alpha+\beta} = T_{\alpha} + T_{\beta}$  and  $T_{\alpha\cdot\beta} = T_{\alpha} \circ T_{\beta}$ , we conclude that

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}: (L,+) \to (K,+) \text{ and } \mathcal{N}_{L/K}: (L^*,\cdot) \to (K^*,\cdot)$$

are group homomorphisms,

- iv) Suppose  $K \subseteq L$  is a seperable field extension with  $L = K(\alpha)$ . Further assume  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(L, \overline{K}) = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ . Then the following holds
  - $f_{\alpha} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X \sigma_i(\alpha)),$
  - $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i(\alpha),$
  - $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma_i(\alpha)$ ,
- v) Trace and norm are transitive, i.e., for field extensions  $K \subseteq L \subseteq M$  it holds
  - $\mathcal{N}_{L|K} \circ \mathcal{N}_{M/L} = \mathcal{N}_{M/K}$ ,
  - $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K} \circ \operatorname{Tr}_{M/L} = \mathcal{N}_{M/K}$ .

**Definition 2.2.3** (Discriminant). Let  $K \subseteq L$  be a seperable field extension and let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  be a K-basis of L. Further let  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(L, \overline{K}) = \{\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n\}$ . Consider the matrix

$$A := \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(\alpha_1) & \sigma_1(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_1(\alpha_n) \\ \sigma_2(\alpha_1) & \sigma_2(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_2(\alpha_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(\alpha_1) & \sigma_n(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \sigma_n(\alpha_n) \end{pmatrix} = (\sigma_i(\alpha_j))_{i,j} \in L^{n \times n}.$$

We call  $d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) := \det(A^2)$  the **discriminant** of L over K with respect to the basis  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ .

Remark 2.2.4. In the situation of Definition (2.2.3) the following holds.

- i) Consider the matrix  $B = (\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j))_{i,j}$  in  $K^{n \times n}$ . Then the discriminant is given by  $d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \det(B)$ . In particular, the discriminant  $d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$  lies in K.
- ii) Suppose we have  $\Theta$  in L such that  $1, \Theta, \dots, \Theta^{n-1}$  forms a basis of L. Then the following equality holds

$$d(1,\Theta,\ldots,\Theta^{n-1}) = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (\Theta_i - \Theta_j)^2.$$

Here  $\Theta_i$  denotes  $\sigma_i(\Theta)$ . If  $L = K(\Theta)$  then  $d(1, \Theta, \dots, \Theta^{n-1})$  coincides with the discriminant of the minimal polynomial  $f_{\Theta}$ . Note that we use the notion of discriminants for polynomials here.

*Proof.* We begin by proving statement i). One computes

$$\det(A)^2 = \det(A^t) \cdot \det(A) = \det(A^t \cdot A).$$

The following calculation proves the claim

$$A^{t} \cdot A = (\sigma_{j}(\alpha_{i}))_{i,j} \cdot (\sigma_{k}(\alpha_{\ell}))_{k,\ell}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j}(\alpha_{i}) \cdot \sigma_{j}(\alpha_{\ell})\right)_{i,\ell}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_{j}(\alpha_{i} \cdot \alpha_{\ell})\right)_{i,\ell}$$

$$= (\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_{i} \cdot \alpha_{\ell}))_{i,\ell}$$

$$= R$$

For statement ii), we will compute the determinant of the following Vondermonde matrix

$$\det(A) = \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \Theta_1 & \cdots & \Theta_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \Theta_2 & \cdots & \Theta_2^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \Theta_n(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \Theta_n^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} =: V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n).$$

By induction, we prove that  $V_n(\Theta_1, \ldots, \Theta_n)$  is nonzero and that the following equality holds

$$V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n) = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (\Theta_j - \Theta_i).$$

For n=2, we have

$$\det(A) = \det\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \Theta_1 \\ 1 & \Theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \Theta_2 - \Theta_1 \neq 0.$$

Hence the claim holds for n = 2. Now we assume that the claim holds for a  $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ . We want to prove that viewed as polynomials in Z the following equality holds

$$V_{n+1}(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n, Z) = V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n (Z - \Theta_i).$$
 (2.1)

This implies that

$$V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_{n+1}) = V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n (\Theta_{n+1} - \Theta_i) = \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (\Theta_j - \Theta_i).$$

To show equality (2.1), recall that

$$V_{n+1}(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n, Z) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \Theta_1 & \cdots & \Theta_1^n \\ 1 & \Theta_2 & \cdots & \Theta_2^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \Theta_n(\alpha_2) & \cdots & \Theta_n^n \\ 1 & Z & \cdots & Z^n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Ones sees that the polynomials on both sides of equality (2.1) have degree n. Moreover,  $\{\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n\}$  is the set of zeros for both polynomials. Since the leading coefficient in both cases is  $V_n(\Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_n)$ , the polynomials are equal. This proves the claim.

Example 2.2.5. Consider  $L=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$  for a square free integer D different from 0 and 1. Then the following holds

- $\mathfrak{B}_1 = \{1, \sqrt{D}\}$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -basis of L.
- Define  $\sigma_2: L \to \overline{\mathbb{Q}}, a + b\sqrt{D} \mapsto a b\sqrt{D}$ . Then we have

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}}(L,\overline{\mathbb{Q}}) = \{\sigma_1 = \operatorname{id}, \sigma_2\}.$$

- $\operatorname{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{O}}(a+b\sqrt{D})=a+b\sqrt{D}+a-b\sqrt{D}=2a.$
- $\mathcal{N}_{L/\mathbb{O}}(a+b\sqrt{D}) = (a+b\sqrt{D}) \cdot (a-b\sqrt{D}) = a^2 b^2 \cdot D.$
- $d(\mathfrak{B}_1) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{D} \\ 1 & -\sqrt{D} \end{pmatrix}^2 = (-2\sqrt{D}) = 4D.$
- We have

$$(\alpha_i \alpha_j)_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sqrt{D} \\ \sqrt{D} & D \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence we compute

$$\det((\operatorname{Tr}(\alpha_i \alpha_j))_{i,j}) = \det\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2D \end{pmatrix} = 4D.$$

• Consider the Q-basis of L given by  $\mathfrak{B}_2 = \{1 + \sqrt{D}, 1 - \sqrt{D}\}$ . Computing the discriminant for this basis yields

$$d(1 + \sqrt{D}, 1 - \sqrt{D}) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sqrt{D} & 1 - \sqrt{D} \\ 1 - \sqrt{D} & 1 + \sqrt{D} \end{pmatrix}^2 = 16D.$$

Hence we see that the discriminant depends on the basis we choose.

**Proposition 2.2.6.** Let  $K \subseteq L$  be a seperable field extension.

i) The bilinear map

$$h: L^2 \to K, \ (x,y) \mapsto \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(xy)$$

is non degenerate, i.e., h(x,y) = 0 for all  $y \in L$  implies that x = 0.

ii) If  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  forms a basis of L/K then  $d(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* For statement i), we choose a primitive element  $\Theta$ . Then  $1, \Theta, \dots, \Theta^{n-1}$  is a K-basis of L. Let B be the matrix representation of h with respect to this basis. We find

$$\det(B) \stackrel{(2.4)}{=} {}^{i} d(1, \Theta, \dots, \Theta^{n-1})$$

$$\stackrel{(2.4)}{=} \prod_{1 \le i < j \le n} (\Theta_i - \Theta_j)^2 \ne 0.$$

Here  $\Theta_i$  denotes  $\sigma_i(\Theta)$ . This shows that h is non degenerate. We now prove statement ii). Observe that the matrix  $M = (\text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j))_{i,j}$  is the matrix representation of h with respect to  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$ . By Remark (2.4), we conclude

$$d(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_n)=\det(M).$$

Now, i) implies that det(M) is nonzero.

Remark 2.2.7. Let  $A \subseteq B$  be an integral ring extension with  $B \subseteq L$  and  $A = B \cap K \subseteq K$ . Assuming that  $\operatorname{Hom}_K(L, \overline{K}) = \{ \operatorname{id} = \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \}$  the following holds

- i) If  $x \in B$  then  $\sigma_i(x) \in B$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$ .
- ii) For all  $x \in B$  the trace  $\text{Tr}_{L/K}(x)$  and the norm  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x)$  lie in A.
- iii) Let  $x \in B$ . Then x lies in  $B^*$  if and only if the norm  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x)$  lie in  $A^*$ .

*Proof.* We start by proving i). Let x in B. By Remark (2.1), we have that the minimal polynomial  $f_x$  lies in A[X]. Since  $\sigma(x)$  is also a zero of  $f_x$ , it is contained in B. This shows i). Now, statement ii) follows from i), Reminder (2.2) iv) and the fact that  $A = B \cap K$ . For iii), assume that x is a unit in B, i.e., we find y in B with xy = 1. Hence

$$\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x) \cdot \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(y) = \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(xy) = 1.$$

Using ii), we deduce that  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x)$  lies in  $A^*$ . This proves one direction. For the other direction, assume that  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x)$  lies in  $A^*$ , i.e., we find  $a \in A$  with

$$1 = a \cdot \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x)$$

$$= a \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i}(x)$$

$$= a \cdot x \cdot \prod_{i=2}^{n} \sigma_{i}(x).$$

$$\stackrel{}{=} a \cdot x \cdot \underbrace{\prod_{i=2}^{n} \sigma_{i}(x)}_{\in B, by i)}.$$

Hence x lies in  $B^*$ . This proves iii).

**Proposition 2.2.8.** Suppose  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in B$  forms a K-basis of L. Let d denote the discriminant  $d(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in A$ . Then  $d \cdot B$  is contained in  $A\alpha_1 + \cdots + A\alpha_n$ .

*Proof.* Suppose  $\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{n} c_j \alpha_i \in B$  for  $c_i \in K$ . We want to solve for  $(c_1, \ldots, c_n)$ . Applying the trace to the equalities

$$\alpha_i \alpha = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \alpha_i \alpha_j, \ 1 \le i \le n,$$

we obtain

$$\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_j \operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j), \ 1 \le i \le n.$$

Hence  $x = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$  is the solution of the linear system Mx = y, where

$$M = ((\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j)))_{i,j} \in A^{n \times n}, \ y = (\operatorname{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha))_i \in A^n.$$

By Reminder (1.3), we have

$$\det(M) \cdot x = M^{\#}Mx = M^{\#}y \in A^n.$$

Using Remark (2.4), we know  $\det(M) = d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) =: d$ . We conclude that  $dc_i$  lies in A for  $1 \le i \le n$ , which proves the claim.

**Definition 2.2.9** (Ganzheitsbasis). Suppose  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n \in B$  forms a basis of B over A, i.e., every  $\alpha \in B$  can be written in a unique way as an A-linear combination  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i \omega_i$ . Then  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n$  is called an **integral basis** of B over A.

Example 2.2.10. Same situation as in Ex. 2.5.  $\mathcal{B}_1 = \{1, \sqrt{D}\} \subseteq B$ . Consider:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{D}) \Rightarrow 2\alpha = 1 + \sqrt{D}$$
$$\Rightarrow (2\alpha - 1)^2 = D \Rightarrow 4\alpha^2 - 4\alpha + 1 = D$$
$$\Rightarrow f_{\alpha}(X) = X^2 - X + \frac{1 - D}{4}$$

Hence if  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4 \Rightarrow \alpha \in B$  and  $\mathcal{B}_1$  is not an integral basis.

**Proposition 2.2.11.** Let  $D \in \mathbb{Z}$ , D square-free,  $D \neq 0, 1, B := integral closure of <math>\mathbb{Z}$  in  $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D}) = L$ .

- i)  $D \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4 \Rightarrow \{1, \sqrt{D}\}\$ is an integral basis of  $B/\mathbb{Z}$  in particular  $B = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$ .
- ii)  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4 \Rightarrow \{1, \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{D}+1)\}$  is an integral basis of  $B/\mathbb{Z}$ . and  $B = \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{D})]$ .

Proof. Consider  $\alpha = a + b\sqrt{D} \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$  with  $a, b, \in \mathbb{Q}$ .  $\Rightarrow f_{\alpha} = X^2 - 2aX + a^2 - b^2D$ .

Rem 2.1:  $\alpha \in B \iff f_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{Z}[X] \iff 2a \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } a^2 - b^2D \in \mathbb{Z}.$ 

- (1) Show:  $\alpha \in B \Rightarrow 2b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $\alpha \in B \Rightarrow 4a^2 - 4b^2D = 4z$  with  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Write  $b = \frac{p}{q}$  with  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, \gcd(p, q) = 1$   $\Rightarrow 4p^2D = ((2a)^2 - 4z)q^2 \quad (\star)$  $\Rightarrow q = 1 \text{ or } 2$ .
- (2) Show:  $q = 2 \Rightarrow D \equiv 1 \mod 4$   $(\star) \Rightarrow p^2 D = (2a)^2 - 4z \equiv (2a)^2 \mod 4$   $p \text{ is odd, hence } p^2 \equiv 1 \mod 4 \Rightarrow (2a) \text{ is odd (i.e. } a = \frac{2n-1}{2} \in \mathbb{Q})$  $\Rightarrow (2a)^2 \equiv 1 \mod 4 \Rightarrow D \equiv 1 \mod 4.$
- (3) It follows from (2) if  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4$ :  $\alpha \in B \iff \alpha = a + b\sqrt{D}$  or  $\alpha = \frac{1}{2}(a + b\sqrt{D})$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence we obtain:

$$B = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}] & \text{, if } D \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4 \\ \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{D}] & \text{, if } D \equiv 1 \mod 4 \end{cases}$$

For the second case observe that  $\frac{a}{2} + \frac{b}{2}\sqrt{D} = \frac{a-b}{2} + \frac{b}{2}(1+\sqrt{D}) \in \mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{D})]$ . This implies the claim.

**Proposition 2.2.12.** Suppose L/K separable and A is a principal ideal domain. Let  $M \neq 0$  be a finitely generated B-submodule of  $L \Rightarrow M$  is a free A-module. In particular: B is a free A-module of rank n := [L : K].

Reminder 2.2.13. Suppose A is a principal ideal domain and  $M_0$  is a finitely generated free A-module.

- i) Any submodule M of  $M_0$  is free.
- ii)  $\operatorname{rank}(M_0) \ge \operatorname{rank}(M)$

of Prop 2.12. Let  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_r \in M \subseteq L$  be generators of M as B-module and let  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  be a basis of L/K in B and  $d := d(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \in A$ . Recall:  $L = \{ \frac{b}{a} \mid b \in B, a \in A \setminus \{0\} \}$ .

(1) Prop  $2.7 \Rightarrow dB \subseteq A\alpha_1 + \cdots + A\alpha_n$ 

(2)  $\exists a \in A : a\mu_1, \dots, a\mu_r \in B$ 

Hence:  $daM \subseteq dB \subseteq A\alpha_1 + \cdots + A\alpha_n =: M_0$ 

 $(M_0 \text{ is a free } A\text{-module, since } \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \text{ are basis of } L/K).$ 

Reminder  $2.13 \Rightarrow adM$  is a free A-module  $\Rightarrow M$  is a free A-module.

Furthermore:  $\operatorname{rank}(M) = \operatorname{rank}(adM) \stackrel{Rem.2.13}{\leq} \operatorname{rank}(M_0) = n$ .

Suppose that M = B. So far we got that B is a free A-module and rank $(B) \leq n$ .

Show:  $rank(B) \ge n$ .

Let  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_r$  be a basis of B as A-module. By  $L = \{\frac{b}{a} \mid b \in B, a \in A \setminus \{0\}\}$  we have that  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_r$  generate L over K.

Hence: if A is a principal ideal domain, then B has always an integral basis.

**Proposition 2.2.14.** Suppose we are in the following situation:

- L/K and L'/K are Galois extensions of degree n and m in some field E
- A a subring of K such that K = Quot(A) and B and B' are the integral closures of A in L and L'.
- $\{\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n\}$  and  $\{\omega'_1, \ldots, \omega'_m\}$  are integral basis for B/A and B'/A.
- $d := d(\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_n)$  and  $d' := d(\omega'_1, \ldots, \omega'_m) \in A$  with d and d' are coprime in A, i.e.  $\exists x, x' \in A$  with 1 = dx + d'x'.
- $K = L \cap L'$

Then we have:  $\{\omega_i \omega'_j \mid i \in \{1, ..., n\}, j \in \{1, ..., m\}\}$  is an integral basis and its discriminant is  $d^m(d')^n$ .

*Proof.* Recall:  $L \cap L' = K \Rightarrow [LL' : K] = nm$  and  $\{\omega_i \omega_j'\}$  is a basis of the field extension LL'/K.

 $\operatorname{Gal}(L/K) = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n\} \text{ and } \operatorname{Gal}(L'/K) = \{\sigma'_1, \dots, \sigma'_m\}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  obtain unique lifts  $\hat{\sigma}_i \in \operatorname{Gal}(LL'/L')$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_j' \in \operatorname{Gal}(LL'/L)$  and  $\operatorname{Gal}(LL'/K) = \{\hat{\sigma}_i\hat{\sigma}_j' \mid i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}, j \in \{1,\ldots,m\}\}.$ 

Consider:  $\alpha \in \tilde{B} := \text{integral closure of } A \text{ in } LL'.$ 

Write  $\alpha = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i,j} \omega_i \omega'_j = \sum_j \beta_j \omega'_j$  with  $\alpha_{i,j} \in K$  and  $\beta_j = \sum_i \alpha_{i,j} \omega_i \in L$ .

- $\Rightarrow \hat{\sigma}'_i(\alpha) = \sum_j \beta_j \tilde{\sigma}'_i(\omega'_j), \text{ since } \hat{\sigma}'_i \in \text{Gal}(LL'/L).$
- $\Rightarrow$  We have a linear system:

$$a = Tb \text{ with } a = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_1'(\alpha) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\sigma}_m'(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \in \tilde{B}^m \ , \ b = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_m \end{pmatrix} \in L^m \ , \ T = (\hat{\sigma}_i'(\omega_j'))_{(i,j)} \in \tilde{B}^{m \times m}$$

Observe:  $det(T)^2 = d'$ 

$$\Rightarrow \det(T)b = T^{\#}Tb = T^{\#}a \in \tilde{B}^{m} \qquad \Rightarrow d'b \in \tilde{B}^{m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \forall j : d'\beta_{j} = \sum_{i} d'\alpha_{i,j}\omega_{i} \in \tilde{B} \cap L = B$$

$$\Rightarrow d'\alpha_{i,j} \in A, \text{ since } \{\omega_{1}, \dots, \omega_{n}\} \text{ is an integral basis.}$$

$$\Rightarrow d\alpha_{i,j} \in A \text{ in the same way}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{i,j} = (x'd' + xd)\alpha_{i,j} = x'd'\alpha_{i,j} + xd\alpha_{i,j} \in A.$$

Hence:  $\{\omega_i \omega_i' \mid (i,j) \in \{(1,1),\ldots,(n,m)\}\}\$  is an integral basis of  $\tilde{B}/A$ . For calculating the discrimant consider the matrix  $M = (\hat{\sigma}_k \circ \hat{\sigma}'_l(\omega_i \omega'_i))_{(k,l),(i,j)} = (\hat{\sigma}_k(\omega_i)\hat{\sigma}'_l(\omega'_i))$ . Consider  $Q = (\hat{\sigma}_k(\omega_i))$ 

$$\Rightarrow M = \begin{pmatrix} Q & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & Q \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} I \cdot \hat{\sigma}'_1(\omega'_1) & \cdots & I \cdot & \hat{\sigma}'_1(\omega'_1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ I \cdot \hat{\sigma}'_1(\omega'_m) & \cdots & I \cdot & \hat{\sigma}'_m(\omega'_m) \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe:

(1) 
$$\det(Q)^2 = d(\omega_1, \omega_n) = d$$

(2) The second matrix can be transformed by switching rows and columns to  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ with  $Q' = (\sigma'_l(\omega'_i))$  and  $\det(Q') = d'$  $\Rightarrow \det(M)^2 = \det(Q)^{2m} \cdot \det(Q')^{2n} = d^m d'^n$ 

Remark 2.2.15 (and Definition). Suppose  $K = \mathbb{Q}, A = \mathbb{Z}, L$  a number field and  $B = \mathcal{O}_k$ .

- (i) There is always an integral basis  $w_1, \ldots, w_n$ .
- (ii) The **discriminant**  $d_k = d_k(\mathcal{O}_k) = d(w_1, \dots, w_n)$  does not depend on the choice of integral basis.

*Proof.* "(i)" Proposition 2.12 "(ii)" Let  $w'_1, \ldots, w'_n$  be another integral basis. Then there exists a base change matrix  $T \in GL_n(\mathbb{Z})$  with

$$\begin{pmatrix} w_1' \\ \vdots \\ w_n' \end{pmatrix} = T \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma(w_1') \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(w_n') \end{pmatrix} = T \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(w_1) \\ \vdots \\ \sigma(w_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

such that

$$d(w'_1, \dots, w'_n) = \underbrace{\det T}_{\in \{1, -1\}}^2 d(w_1, \dots, w_n) = d_k.$$

Example 2.2.16. Let  $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$  with  $D \in \mathbb{Z}$  square-free. By Proposition 2.14 we have:

(i)  $\mathcal{O}_k = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$  and  $\{1, \sqrt{D}\}$  is an integral basis for  $D \equiv 2, 3 \mod 4$  and  $d_k = 4D$ .

(ii)  $\mathcal{O}_k = \mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}\right]$  and  $\left\{1, \frac{1+\sqrt{D}}{2}\right\}$  is an integral basis for  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4$  and  $d_k = D$ .

In particular, this holds for D = -1, i.e., the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

#### 2.3. Ideals

Let R be a commutative ring with 1.

**Problem:**  $O_k$  is not a UFD in many cases, e.g. in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$  we have

$$(1+\sqrt{-5})(1-\sqrt{-5}) = 1+5=6=2\cdot 3,$$

that is, two different ways to factor 6 in irreducible elements.

#### Idea:

(1) Maybe we have too few elements, i.e.,

$$1 + \sqrt{-5} = p_1 p_2, 1 - \sqrt{-5} = p_3 p_4$$
 and  $2 = p_2 p_3, 3 = p_1 p_4$ 

for some primes  $p_i$ .

(2) An element is determined (up to units) by the set of elements it divides, e.g.

$$p_i \longleftrightarrow \{x \in \mathcal{O}_k; p_i | x\} = p_i \mathcal{O}_k \text{ (this is an ideal)}.$$

**Notation 2.3.1.** Let  $I, J \subset R$  be ideals. We define

- $I + J = \{a + b; a \in I, b \in J\},\$
- $IJ = \{ \sum_{i} a_i b_i; a_i \in I, b_i \in J \}.$

**Definition 2.3.2** (and Reminder). Let  $I \subsetneq R$  be an ideal.

- (a) I is called **prime** if for all  $a, b \in R$  with  $ab \in I$  we already have  $a \in I$  or  $b \in I$ .  $\Leftrightarrow$  For all ideals  $A, B \subset R$  with  $AB \subset I$  we have  $A \subset I$  or  $B \subset I$ .
- (b) I is called **maximal** if for any ideal  $I \subset J \subset R$  we have J = I or J = R.  $\Leftrightarrow R/I$  is a field.
- (c) R is called **Noetherian** if every ascending chain of ideals

$$I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \cdots$$

becomes stationary, i.e., if there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $I_n = I_N$  for alls  $n \geq N$ .  $\Leftrightarrow$  Every ideal in R is finitely generated.

- (d) R is called a **Dedekind domain** if
  - R is an integral domain,
  - R is integrally closed,
  - $\bullet$  R is Noetherian, and
  - $\bullet$  every prime ideal in R is maximal.

**Proposition 2.3.3.** *If*  $\mathcal{O}$  *is the integral closure of*  $\mathbb{Z}$  *in a number field then*  $\mathcal{O}$  *is a Dedekind domain.* 

*Proof.* It is clear that  $\mathcal{O}$  is an integral domain and integrally closed. Furthermore, by Proposition 2.12 each  $\mathbb{Z}$ -submodule is finitely generated as a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module, thus also as an  $\mathcal{O}$ -module. Hence  $\mathcal{O}$  is Noetherian.

Now, let  $I \subset \mathcal{O}$  be a prime ideal. Then  $I \cap \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Z}$  is a prime ideal such that  $\mathbb{Z}/(I \cap \mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{F}_p$ . Using  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[w_1, \dots, w_n]$  we conclude

$$\mathcal{O}/I = \mathbb{Z}/(I \cap \mathbb{Z})[w_1', \dots, w_n'] = \mathbb{F}_p[w_1', \dots, w_n'] = \mathbb{F}_p(w_1', \dots, w_n'),$$

where  $w_i' \equiv w_i \mod I$ . Thus  $\mathcal{O}/I$  is a field ad hence I maximal.

From now on: Let  $\mathcal{O}$  denote a Dedekind domain.

**Theorem 4.** Every ideal  $0 \neq I \subset \mathcal{O}$  has a unique factorization

$$I = P_1 \cdots P_n$$

into prime ideals  $P_i \subset \mathcal{O}$ .

**Lemma 2.3.4.** For every ideal  $0 \neq I \subset \mathcal{O}$  there exist nonzero prime ideals  $P_i \subset \mathcal{O}$  such that

$$P_1 \cdots P_n \subset I$$
.

Proof. Set  $M = \{0 \neq I \subset \mathcal{O} \text{ ideal}; I \text{ does not have such } P_i\}$  and suppose  $M \neq \emptyset$ . Then M is partially ordered by inclusion and since  $\mathcal{O}$  is Noetherian, every chain in M has an upper bound. Thus, the Lemma of Zorn yields a maximal element  $I_0 \in M$ . Since  $I_0$  cannot be prime there are  $a, b \in \mathcal{O}$  such that  $ab \in I_0$  but  $a, b \notin I_0$ . Consider the ideals  $I_1 = (a) + I_0$  and  $I_2 = (b) + I_0$  which satisfy  $I_0 \subsetneq I_1$ ,  $I_0 \subsetneq I_2$  and  $I_1I_2 \subset I_0$ . Since  $I_0$  is a maximal ideal in M, we have  $I_{1,2} \notin M$  hence we find prime ideals  $P_1, \ldots, P_n, P'_1, \ldots, P'_m \subset \mathcal{O}$  with

$$P_1 \dots P_n \subset I_1$$
 and  $P'_1 \dots P'_m \subset I_2$ .

Finally, we conclude  $P_1 \dots P_n P_1' \dots P_m' = I_1 I_2 \subset I_0 \Rightarrow I_0 \notin M \not\in M = \emptyset$ .

**Lemma 2.3.5.** Let  $0 \neq P \subset \mathcal{O}$  be a prime ideal,  $I \subset \mathcal{O}$  an ideal and  $K = \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ . Then:

(i) 
$$P^{-1} := \{x \in K; xP \subset \mathcal{O}\} \supseteq \mathcal{O}$$

(ii) 
$$I \subsetneq P^{-1}I := \{ \sum_i a_i x_i; a_i \in I, x_i \in P^{-1} \}$$

*Proof.* "(i)" Let  $0 \neq a \in P$ ,  $P_1 \cdots P_n \subset (a) \subset P$  as in Lemma 3.5 with n minimal.

**Claim:** Without loss of generality we can assume that  $P_1 = P$ .

**Proof of the claim:** Since  $P_1 \cdots P_n \subset P$  and P is prime, there is an index i such that  $P_i \subset P$ , by reindexing we may assume that i = 1. However, we assumed  $\mathcal{O}$  to be Dedekind, hence  $P_1$  is a maximal ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$ . Thus,  $P_1 \subset P \subsetneq \mathcal{O}$  implies that  $P_1 = P$  as claimed.

Now, since n was chosen minimal we have  $P_2 \cdots P_n \not\subset (a)$ , i.e, there exists an element  $b \in (a) \backslash P_2 \cdots P_n$ . On the one hand we thus have

$$a^{-1}b \notin \mathcal{O}$$

and on the other hand  $bP \subset (a)$  such that  $a^{-1}bP \subset \mathcal{O}$  and hence

$$a^{-1}b \in P^{-1}.$$

Both of this together shows that  $P^{-1} \supseteq \mathcal{O}$ .

"(ii)" Assume there is an ideal  $I \subset \mathcal{O}$  such that  $P^{-1}I \subset I$ . Let  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \subset I$  be a generating set and choose  $x \in P^{-1} \setminus \mathcal{O}$ . Then,

$$x\alpha_i = \sum_j a_{ij}\alpha_j$$

for some  $a_{ij} \in \mathcal{O}$ . Consider the matrix  $A = xE_n - (a_{ij})_{i,j}$ , which satisfies

$$A \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Since  $A^{\#}A = \det A$  we conclude  $\det A = 0$  such that x is a zero of the monic polynomial  $\det \left(XE_n - (a_{ij})_{i,j}\right)$  over  $\mathcal{O}$ . But since  $\mathcal{O}$  is integrally closed this implies  $x \in \mathcal{O}$ , a contradiction.

Proof of Theorem 3.4. Existence of a factorization: Let

$$M = \{0 \neq I \subset \mathcal{O} \text{ ideal}; I \text{ has no factorization}\}$$

and assume that  $M \neq \emptyset$ . As in Lemma 3.5, let  $I_0 \in M$  be a maximal element and let  $P \supset I_0$  be a maximal ideal containing  $I_0$ . Since  $I_0$  is not prime we have  $I_0 \neq P$  such that by Lemma 3.6,

$$I_0 \subsetneq P^{-1}I_0 \subset P^{-1}P = \mathcal{O}.$$

Note that  $I_0 = I_0 \mathcal{O} = I_0 P^{-1} P$  and  $I_0 \neq P$  imply  $P^{-1} I_0 \subsetneq \mathcal{O}$ . Since  $I_0$  was maximal in M we thus have  $P^{-1} I_0 \not\in M$ , i.e., there are prime ideals  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \subset \mathcal{O}$  with  $P^{-1} I = P_1 \cdots P_n$ . This leads to the contradiction  $I = P P_1 \cdots P_n$ .

Uniqueness of the factorization: Suppose that

$$I = P_1 \cdots P_n = Q_1 \cdots Q_m$$

are two prime factorizations. Then  $P_1 \supset I = Q_1 \cdots Q_m$ , hence without loss of generality we can assume that  $Q_1 \subset P_1$ . Since  $\mathcal{O}$  is Dedekind we conclude  $Q_1 = P_1$  such that

$$P_2 \cdots P_n = P_1^{-1} I = Q_2 \cdots Q_m$$
.

The claim follows by induction.

**Definition 2.3.6.** We call two ideals  $0 \neq I, J \subset \mathcal{O}$  coprime : $\Leftrightarrow I + J = \mathcal{O}$ . For example, one could take two distinct prime ideals in a Dedekind ring.

Remark 2.3.7. Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \subset \mathcal{O}$  be pairwise coprime. Then  $P_1$  and  $P_2 \cdots P_n$  are coprime and we have  $\prod_{i=1}^n P_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$ .

*Proof.* Induction on n: The case n=2 is clear. Let n>2. Since  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are coprime,  $\exists p_1 \in P_1, p_2 \in P_2$ , such that we can write  $1=p_1+p_2$ . By induction hypothesis,  $\exists p_1' \in P_1, p_2 \in P_3 \cdots P_n$ , such that  $1=p_1'+p$ . It follows

$$1 = p_1 + p_2 \cdot (p'_1 + p) = \underbrace{p_1 + p_2 p'_1}_{\in P_1} + \underbrace{p_2 p}_{\in P_2 \cdots P_n},$$

which yields the first claim.

For the second claim, first note that  $\prod P_i \subset \bigcap P_i$  is clear.

For the converse, let  $a \in \bigcap P_i$ , which of course implies that  $a \in P_i$  for all i. As above, we write  $1 = p_1 + p$ ,  $p_1 \in P_1$ ,  $p \in P_2 \cdots P_n$ . We get  $a = ap_1 + ap$ , which implies that  $a \in aP_1 + P_1 \cdot \prod_{i=2}^n P_i$  for all i and by induction hypothesis, we get  $a \in \prod P_i$ .

**Theorem 5** (Chinese Remainder Theorem). Let  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \subset \mathcal{O}$  bet pairwise coprime ideals,  $I = \bigcap_{i=1}^n P_i$ . Then we have

$$\mathcal{O}/I \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathcal{O}/P_i$$

*Proof.* Consider the map

$$\phi: \mathcal{O} \longrightarrow \bigoplus_{i} \mathcal{O}/P_i, \quad a \mapsto \bigoplus_{i} a \mod P_i.$$

Obviously,  $\ker(\phi) = I$ . It remains to show, that  $\phi$  is surjective. Let first n = 2: For  $p_1 \in P_1$ ,  $p_2 \in P_2$  let  $1 = p_1 + p_2$  and for any  $a_1$ ,  $a_2 \in \mathcal{O}$  write  $a = a_2p_1 + a_1p_2$ . Then  $\phi(a) = a_1 \oplus a_2 \in \mathcal{O}/P_1 \oplus \mathcal{O}/P_2$ .

In general, by **3.8**, we know that  $\exists y_i \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $y_i \equiv 1 \mod P_i$  and  $y_i \equiv 0 \mod \bigcap_{j \neq i} P_i$ . Hence the element  $a = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i y_i$  is mapped to  $\bigoplus_{i=1}^n a_i \mod P_i$ 

**Definition 2.3.8.** A fractional ideal of K is a finitely generated  $\mathcal{O}$ -module  $0 \neq I$  of K. Since  $\mathcal{O}$  is noetherian, this is equivalent to:  $\exists c \in \mathcal{O}$ , such that  $c \cdot I \subset \mathcal{O}$  is an ideal (since every submodule of  $\mathcal{O}$  is finitely generated). The product of two fractional ideals is denoted in the same way as introduced in **3.3**. Ideals in  $\mathcal{O}$  are called **integral ideals**.

**Theorem 6.** The fractional ideals of K, together with the product, form an abelian group, which we denote by  $\mathcal{J}_K$ .

*Proof.* Commutativity and associativity are clear. The unit in  $\mathcal{J}_K$  is given by  $\mathcal{O}$ . We define  $I^{-1} := \{x \in K \mid x \cdot I \subset K\}$  and show, that this defines an inverse for all  $I \in \mathcal{J}_K$ .

For a prime ideal  $P \subset \mathcal{O}$ , we have already seen in **3.4** that  $P^{-1}P = \mathcal{O}$  and for an integral ideal  $I = P_1 \cdots P_n$ , we have  $J = P_1^{-1} \cdots P_n^{-1}$  as an inverse:

 $J \subset I^{-1}$  is clear. For the converse, let  $x \in I^{-1}$ , we then have  $x \cdot IJ \subset \mathcal{O}$ , with  $x \cdot I \subset \mathcal{O}$  and  $IJ = \mathcal{O}$ , therefore  $x \cdot 1 \in J$  and  $I^{-1} \subset J$  follows.

Let now I be fractional. Then  $\exists c \in \mathcal{O}$ , such that cI is integral. But then  $(cI)^{-1} = c^{-1}I^{-1}$  and hence  $II^{-1} = (cI)(c^{-1}I^{-1}) = \mathcal{O}$ 

**Corollary 2.3.9.** Every fractional ideal I has a unique factorization  $I = \prod P_i^{n_i}$ , with  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $P_i \subset \mathcal{O}$  distinct prime ideals and only finitely many  $n_i \neq 0$ . In particular,  $\mathcal{J}_K$  is a free abelian group on the prime ideals of  $\mathcal{O}$ .

*Proof.* By **3.11**, every element  $I \in \mathcal{J}_K$  can be written as  $I = AB^{-1}$  for some integral ideals  $A, B \subset \mathcal{O}$ . Therefore, by **3.4**, we get  $I = \prod P_i^{n_i}$  and by multiplying denominators, we see that this presentation is unique.

**Definition 2.3.10.** The principle ideals generate a subgroup  $\mathcal{P}_K$  of  $\mathcal{J}_K$ . We call the quotient group  $\operatorname{Cl}_K := \mathcal{J}_K/\mathcal{P}_K$  the **ideal class group**. We have an exact sequence of groups

$$1 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}^{\times} \longrightarrow K^{\times} \stackrel{a \mapsto a\mathcal{O}}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{J}_{K} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Cl}_{K} \longrightarrow 1.$$

#### 2.4. Lattices and Minkowski

**Definition 2.4.1.** Let V be an n-dimensional  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space. A lattice  $\Lambda \subset V$  is a subgroup of the form  $\mathbb{Z}v_1 + \ldots \mathbb{Z}v_m$ , where  $v_1, \ldots, v_m$  are linearly independent over V. We call  $(v_1, \ldots, v_m)$  a basis of  $\Lambda$  and  $\phi := \{x_1v_1 + \ldots x_mv_m \mid x_i \in [0, 1)\}$  a fundamental domain of  $\Lambda$ . We call  $\Lambda$  complete, if n = m.

CAUTION: For many people, lattices are always complete!

Example 2.4.2. (a) 
$$\mathbb{Z}\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\end{pmatrix} + \mathbb{Z}\begin{pmatrix}0\\1\end{pmatrix} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$$
 is a complete lattice

- (b)  $\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{2} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is not a lattice, since 1 and  $\sqrt{2}$  are not linearly independent.
- (c)  $\mathbb{Z}\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  is a non-complete lattice.

**Proposition 2.4.3.** A subgroup  $\Lambda \subset V$  is a lattice  $\Leftrightarrow \Lambda$  is a discrete subgroup of V.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ ": Take  $\{\lambda + x_1v_1 + \cdots + x_nv_n + \text{rest of basis } | |x_n| < 1\}$  as a neighbourhood for  $\lambda \in \Lambda$ .

" $\Leftarrow$ ": Let  $V_0 = \langle \Lambda \rangle_{\mathbb{R}}$ . Then we can choose a basis  $v_1, \ldots, v_m$  of  $V_0$  in  $\Lambda$ , such that  $\Lambda_0 := \mathbb{Z}v_1 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}v_m$  is a lattice in  $V_0$ .

**Claim:** The index  $[\Lambda : \Lambda_0]$  is finite.

**Proof of the claim:** Since  $\Lambda_0$  is complete,  $V = \bigsqcup_{\lambda \in \Lambda_0} \phi_0 + \lambda$ . Since  $\Lambda$  is discrete and  $\phi_0$  bounded,  $\Lambda \cap \phi_0$  is finite. Hence we have only finitely many residue classes  $\lambda + \Lambda_0$  of  $\Lambda$  and therefore  $[\Lambda : \Lambda_0] =: d < \infty$ .

From this follows, that  $\Lambda \subset \frac{1}{d}\Lambda_0 = \mathbb{Z}(\frac{1}{d}v_1) + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}(\frac{1}{d}v_m)$ . Therefore,  $\Lambda$  has a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis  $w_1 = v_1 n_1, \ldots, w_r = v_r n_r$  for some  $n_i \in \frac{1}{d}\mathbb{N}$  and since  $\Lambda$  spans  $V_0$ , we get r = m and they are linearly independent.

Let  $\Gamma = v_1 \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + v_n \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a complete lattice. We define

$$\operatorname{vol} \Gamma = \operatorname{vol} \phi = |\det(v_1, \dots, v_n)|$$
.

Note that this definition is independent of the chosen basis since for a transformation

$$A(v_1,\ldots,v_n)=(v_1',\ldots,v_n')$$

between two bases we have  $\det A = \pm 1$ .

**Theorem 7** (Minkowski). Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex, symmetric central (i.e.,  $x \in X$  implies  $-x \in X$ ) subset and let  $\Gamma \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a complete lattice. If

$$\operatorname{vol} X > 2^n \operatorname{vol} \Gamma$$

then there exists some  $\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $\gamma \in X$ .

*Proof.* Claim: It suffices to show that there are  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \Gamma, \gamma_1 \neq \gamma_2$ , such that

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}X + \gamma_1\right) \cap \left(\frac{1}{2}X + \gamma_2\right) \neq \emptyset.$$

**Proof of claim:** Let  $x = \frac{1}{2}x_1 + \gamma_1 = \frac{1}{2}x_2 + \gamma_2$  with some  $x_1, x_2 \in X$ . Then

$$y = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 - x_2) = \gamma_2 - \gamma_1 \in \Gamma \setminus \{0\}$$

with  $y \in X$  since X is symmetrical central.

Now let us assume that the family  $(\frac{1}{2}X + \gamma)_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$  is pairwise disjoint. Then

$$\left(\left[\frac{1}{2}X+\gamma\right]\cap\phi\right)_{\gamma\in\Gamma}$$

also consists of pairwise disjoint sets such that we obtain the contradiction

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{vol} \Gamma &= \operatorname{vol} \phi \geq \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \operatorname{vol} \left( \left[ \frac{1}{2} X + \gamma \right] \cap \phi \right) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \operatorname{vol} \left( \frac{1}{2} X \cap [\phi - \gamma] \right) \\ &= \operatorname{vol} \left( \frac{1}{2} X \right) = \frac{1}{2^n} \operatorname{vol} X. \end{aligned}$$

# 2.5. Minkowski theory

Let  $[K : \mathbb{Q}] = n$  be a field extension,  $\tau_i : K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$  different embeddings and consider the embedding

$$j: K \hookrightarrow K_{\mathbb{C}} = \prod_{\tau_i} \mathbb{C}, \ a \mapsto (\tau_1(a), \dots, \tau_n(a)).$$

Define a hermitian scalar product on  $K_{\mathbb{C}}$  by

$$\langle (x_{\tau_i}), (y_{\tau_i}) \rangle = \sum_{\tau_i} x_{\tau_i} \overline{y_{\tau_i}}$$

and consider the complex conjugation  $F \in \operatorname{Gal}(\mathbb{C}/\mathbb{R})$  given by  $\mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}, z \mapsto \overline{z}$ . Let

$$F(\tau) = \overline{\tau} \colon a \mapsto \overline{\tau(a)}$$

and extend it to  $K_{\mathbb{C}}$  by

$$F: K_{\mathbb{C}} \to K_{\mathbb{C}}, (x_{\tau}) \mapsto (\overline{x}_{\overline{\tau}}).$$

Example. Let D > 0 be square-free. Consider

$$\mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D}\right) \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}\left(\sqrt{D}\right)_{\mathbb{C}} = \prod_{\tau_i} \mathbb{C}$$

with

$$\tau_1\left(a+b\sqrt{D}\right) = a+b\sqrt{D}$$
 and  $\tau_2\left(a+b\sqrt{D}\right) = a-b\sqrt{D}$ .

Then

$$j\left(a+b\sqrt{D}\right) = \left(a+b\sqrt{D}, a-b\sqrt{D}\right)$$

and  $F(\tau_1) = \tau_1, F(\tau_2) = \tau_2$  such that

$$F\left(x_{\tau_1}, x_{\tau_1}\right) = \left(\overline{x}_{\tau_1}, \overline{x}_{\tau_2}\right).$$

Remark. •  $F(\langle x, y \rangle) = \langle F(x), F(y) \rangle$ 

• Tr:  $K_{\mathbb{C}} \to \mathbb{C}$ ,  $(x_{\tau}) \mapsto \sum_{\tau} x_{\tau}$  such that  $(\operatorname{Tr} \circ j)(a) = \operatorname{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a)$ 

Now define the F-invariant  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space

$$K_{\mathbb{R}} = K_{\mathbb{C}}^+ = \{ x \in K_{\mathbb{C}} \mid F(x) = x \} = \{ x \in K_{\mathbb{C}} \mid x_{\overline{\tau}} = \overline{x_{\tau}} \text{ for all } \tau \}.$$

Since  $\overline{\tau}(a) = \overline{\tau(a)}$  for all  $a \in K$  and all  $\tau$ , we have  $j(K) \subset K_{\mathbb{R}}$ . We call  $K_{\mathbb{R}}$  the **Minkowski** space and  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle |_{K_{\mathbb{R}}}$  the **canonical metric**.

*Remark.* Note that  $j: K \to K_{\mathbb{R}} \cong K \otimes_{\mathbb{Q}} \mathbb{R}$ , where the isomorphism is given by  $a \otimes x \mapsto j(a)x$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Explicit description of**  $K_{\mathbb{R}}$ : Let n = r + 2s, where r and s are the number of embeddings

$$\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_r \colon K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

and

$$\sigma_1, \overline{\sigma_1}, \ldots, \sigma_s, \overline{\sigma_s} \colon K \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C},$$

respectively. Notice that  $F(\varphi_i) = \varphi_i$  and  $F(\sigma_j) = \overline{\sigma_j}$ . Then elements of  $K_{\mathbb{C}}$  are of the form

$$x = (x_{\varphi(1)}, \dots, x_{\varphi(r)}, x_{\sigma_1}, x_{\overline{\sigma_1}}, \dots, x_{\sigma_s}, x_{\overline{\sigma_s}})$$

with

$$F(x) = (\overline{x_{\varphi_1}}, \dots, \overline{x_{\varphi_r}}, \overline{x_{\overline{\sigma_1}}}, \overline{x_{\sigma_1}}, \dots, \overline{x_{\overline{\sigma_s}}}, \overline{x_{\sigma_s}}).$$

Hence we have

$$K_{\mathbb{R}} = \left\{ x \in K_{\mathbb{C}} \mid x_{\varphi_i} \in \mathbb{R}, x_{\overline{\sigma_j}} = \overline{x_{\sigma_j}} \right\}.$$

Proposition 2.5.1. The map

$$f \colon K_{\mathbb{R}} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{R}^{r+2s} = \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R},$$
$$x \mapsto (x_{\varphi_1}, \dots, x_{\varphi_r}, \operatorname{Re} x_{\sigma_1}, \operatorname{Im} x_{\sigma_1}, \dots, \operatorname{Re} x_{\sigma_s}, \operatorname{Im} x_{\sigma_s}.)$$

is an isomorphism. It transforms the canonical metric into the scalar product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{\tau} \alpha_{\tau} x_{\tau} y_{\tau},$$

where

$$\alpha_{\tau} = \begin{cases} 1, & \tau = \varphi_i \text{ for some } i, \\ 2, & \tau = \sigma_j \text{ for some } j. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* Obviously, f is an isomorphism. For  $x=(x_{\tau}),y=(y_{\tau})\in K_{\mathbb{R}}$  we have

$$\langle x, y \rangle \big|_{K_{\mathbb{R}}} = \sum_{\tau} x_{\tau} \overline{y_{\tau}}$$

$$= \sum_{\varphi_{i}} x_{\varphi_{i}} y_{\varphi_{i}} + \sum_{\sigma_{j}} x_{\sigma_{j}} \overline{y_{\sigma_{j}}} + \sum_{\overline{\sigma_{j}}} \overline{(x_{\sigma_{j}} \overline{y_{\sigma_{j}}})}$$

$$= \cdots = (f(x), f(y)).$$

*Remark.* • The canonical metric induces a volume vol<sub>can</sub> on  $K_{\mathbb{R}}$  and thus on  $\mathbb{R}^{r+2s}$ .

• If we denote the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^{r+2s}$  by  $\operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{Leb}}$  then, for  $X \subset K_{\mathbb{R}}$ ,

$$2^s \operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{Leb}} f(X) = \operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{can}} X.$$

• We will thus consider  $K \supset U \xrightarrow{j} j(U) \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}^{r+2s}$ .

Example. Let  $e_j = (0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0)$ . Note that we have  $\langle e_{\varphi_i}, e_{\varphi_i} \rangle = 1$  and  $\langle e_{\sigma_j}, e_{\varphi_j} \rangle = 2$ , such that  $\langle \frac{e_{\sigma_j}}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{e_{\sigma_j}}{\sqrt{2}} \rangle = 1$ . Hence

$$\left\{e_{\varphi_1}, \dots, e_{\varphi_r}, \frac{e_{\sigma_1}}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{e_{\overline{\sigma_1}}}{\sqrt{2}}, \dots\right\}$$

is an orthonormal basis. Using the correspondence

$$X \subset K_{\mathbb{R}} \leftrightarrow f(X) \subset \mathbb{R}^{r+2s}$$

we thus define

$$\operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{can}} X = \operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{can}} f(X) = 2^{s} \operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{Leb}} f(X).$$

**Proposition 2.5.2.** If  $I \neq 0$  is an  $\mathcal{O}_k$ -ideal then  $\Gamma = j(I)$  is a complete lattice in  $K_{\mathbb{R}}$ . Its fundamental domain has volume

$$\operatorname{vol} \Gamma = \operatorname{vol} \phi = \sqrt{|d_k|} \cdot [\mathcal{O}_k \colon I].$$

*Proof.* Choose  $\alpha_i$  such that  $I = \alpha_1 \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + \alpha_n \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\Gamma = j(I) = j(\alpha_1) \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + j(\alpha_n) \mathbb{Z}$ . Define

$$A = (j(\alpha_1), \dots, j(\alpha_n))^T = \begin{pmatrix} \tau_1(\alpha_1) & \cdots & \tau_n(\alpha_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \tau_1(\alpha_n) & \cdots & \tau_n(\alpha_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

such that

$$\operatorname{vol} \phi = |\det A| = \sqrt{|d_k|} \cdot [\mathcal{O}_k \colon I].$$

Furthermore,

$$d(I) = d(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = |\det A|^2 = d(\mathcal{O}_k) \cdot [\mathcal{O}_k \colon I]^2,$$

with  $[\mathcal{O}_k: I] = |\det M|$  for the change of basis M from  $\mathcal{O}_k$  to I.

**Theorem 8.** Let  $I \neq 0$  be an ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_k$ . Let  $(c_{\tau})_{\tau}$  be a collection of real number such that  $c_{\tau} > 0$ ,  $c_{\tau} = c_{\overline{\tau}}$  and

$$\prod_{\tau} c_{\tau} > \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{s} \sqrt{|d_{k}|} \cdot [\mathcal{O}_{k} \colon a].$$

Then there exists  $a \in I \setminus \{0\}$  such that

$$|\tau(a)| < c_{\tau}$$

for all  $\tau \in \text{Hom}(K, \mathbb{C})$ .

*Proof.* Consider the convex, central symmetric set

$$X = \{(x_{\tau}) \in K_{\mathbb{R}} \mid |x_{\tau}| < c_{\tau} \text{ for all } \tau \}$$

and let  $f: K_{\mathbb{R}} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ , n = r + 2s, as in Proposition 5.1. Notice that for  $x \in X$  we have  $f(x) = (x_{\varphi_1}, \dots, x_{\varphi_r}, a_1, b_1, \dots, a_s, b_s)$  with  $|x_{\varphi_i}| < c_{\varphi_i}$  and  $a_j^2 + b_j^2 < c_{\sigma_j}^2$ . Hence

$$\operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{can}} X = 2^{s} \operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{Leb}} f(X) = 2^{s} \left( \prod_{i=1}^{r} 2c_{\varphi_{i}} \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^{s} \pi c_{\sigma_{j}}^{2} \right) = 2^{r+s} \pi^{s} \prod_{\tau} c_{\tau},$$

and thus, by Proposition 5.2,

$$2^{n} \operatorname{vol} \Gamma = 2^{r+2s} \sqrt{|d_{k}|} \cdot [\mathcal{O}_{k} : I]$$

$$= 2^{r+s} \pi^{s} \left[ \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{s} \sqrt{|d_{k}|} \cdot [\mathcal{O}_{k} : a] \right]$$

$$< 2^{r+s} \pi^{s} \prod_{\tau} c_{\tau}$$

$$\operatorname{vol}_{\operatorname{can}} X.$$

Consequently, by Minkowski's theorem, there exists  $j(a) \in \Gamma \setminus \{0\}$  with  $j(a) \in X$  and  $|\tau(a)| < c_{\tau}$  for all  $\tau$ .

# Multiplicative Minkowsky theory

Define

$$j \colon K^* \hookrightarrow K_{\mathbb{C}}^* = \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{C}^*, \ a \mapsto (\tau(a))_{\tau}$$

and

$$\mathcal{N} \colon K_{\mathbb{C}}^* \to \mathbb{C}^*, \ (x_{\tau}) \mapsto \prod_{\tau} x_{\tau}.$$

Denote the composition of these maps by  $\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}} = N \circ j$ . Furthermore, consider

$$l: \mathbb{C}^* \to \mathbb{R}, z \mapsto \log|z|$$

and its extension

$$l \colon K_{\mathbb{C}}^* \to \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}, (x_{\tau}) \mapsto (\log |x_{\tau_1}|, \dots, \log |x_{\tau_n}|).$$

All in all, we have

$$K^* \stackrel{j}{\longleftarrow} K_{\mathbb{C}}^* \stackrel{l}{\longrightarrow} \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}$$

$$\downarrow^{\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}} \qquad \downarrow^{\mathcal{N}} \qquad \downarrow^{Tr}$$

$$\mathbb{Q}^* \stackrel{i}{\longleftarrow} \mathbb{C}^* \stackrel{l}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{R}$$

with

$$\left[\prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}\right]^{+} = \prod_{\varphi_{i}} \mathbb{R} \times \prod_{\sigma_{i}} \left[\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}\right]^{+} \xrightarrow{\cong} R^{r+s},$$

where the isomorphism is given by

$$(x_{\varphi_1},\ldots,x_{\varphi_r},x_{\sigma_1},x_{\overline{\sigma_1}},\ldots,x_{\sigma_s},x_{\overline{\sigma_s}}) \mapsto (x_{\varphi_1},\ldots,x_{\varphi_r},2x_{\sigma_1},\ldots,2x_{\sigma_s}),$$

and we have

$$K_{\mathbb{R}} \to \mathbb{R}^{r+s}, (x_{\tau}) \mapsto (\log |x_{\varphi_1}|, \dots, \log |x_{\varphi_r}|, \log |x_{\sigma_1}|^2, \dots, \log |x_{\sigma_s}|^2).$$

#### 2.6. The class number

Let  $n = [K : \mathbb{Q}]$ , denote by  $J_K$  the group of fractional ideals of K, by  $P_k$  its subgroup of principal ideals and by  $\operatorname{Cl}_k = J_k/P_k$  the ideal class group. Define the **absolute norm** of an ideal  $I \subset \mathcal{O}_k$  by

$$n(I) = [\mathcal{O}_k : I].$$

For  $I = (\alpha)$ , we have  $n(I) = \mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)$ . If  $O_k = w_1 \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + w_n \mathbb{Z}$  and  $I = \alpha w_1 \mathbb{Z} + \cdots + \alpha w_n \mathbb{Z}$  we have

$$\alpha w_i = \sum_j a_{ij} w_j$$

for some matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$  such that  $\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = |\det A| = [\mathcal{O}_k : I]$ .

**Proposition 2.6.1.** If  $I = P_1^{\nu_1} \cdots P_r^{\nu_r}$  then  $n(I) = n(P_1)^{\nu_1} \cdots n(P_r)^{\nu_r}$ .

*Proof.* By the Chinese remainder theorem,

$$\mathcal{O}_k/I \cong (\mathcal{O}_k/P_1^{\nu_1}) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathcal{O}_k/P_r^{\nu_r}),$$

such that

$$n(I) = [\mathcal{O}_k : I] = \prod_j \left[ \mathcal{O}_k : P_j^{\nu_j} \right] = \prod_j n(P_j)^{\nu_j}.$$

Claim:  $P \supseteq P^2 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq P^{\nu}$  and  $P^i/P^{i+1}$  is a  $(\mathcal{O}_k/P)$ -vector space of dimension 1 **Proof of Claim:** Let  $a \in P^i/P^{i+1}$ . Then we have

$$P^i \supset J = (a) + P^{i+1} \supseteq P^{i+1}$$

and

$$\mathcal{O}_k \supset J' = JP^{-i} \supseteq P = P^{i+1}P^{-i}.$$

Since J'|P we have  $J=P^i$  and thus  $[a] \in P^i/P^{i+1}$  is a basis.

Now, the Claim yields

$$n(P^{\nu}) = [\mathcal{O}_k \colon P^{\nu}] = [\mathcal{O}_k \colon P] [P \colon P^2] \cdots [P^{\nu-1} \colon P^{\nu}] n(P)^{\nu}.$$

In particular, for integral ideals I, J we have n(IJ) = n(I)n(J) such that we can extend n to  $J_k$  by

$$n: J_k \to \mathbb{R}_+^*, I = P_1^{\nu_1} \cdots P_r^{\nu_r} \mapsto n(I) = n(P_1)^{\nu_1} \cdots n(P_r)^{\nu_r}.$$

Reminder 2.6.2.  $\mathcal{J}_K$  = group of fractional ideals = abelian group enerated by all prime ideals

 $\mathcal{P}_K = \text{group of all principal fractional ideals.}$ 

 $\mathrm{Cl}_K := \mathcal{J}_K/\mathcal{P}_K$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  obtain following exact sequence:

$$1 \to \underbrace{\mathcal{O}_{K}^{\times}}_{\text{How big?}} \to K^{\times} \to \mathcal{J}_{K} \to \underbrace{\text{Cl}_{K}}_{\text{How big?}} \to 1$$
$$a \mapsto (a) = a\mathcal{O}_{K}$$

Last Time:  $\alpha$  ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ ,  $\alpha \neq 0$ .

•  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = (\mathcal{O}_K : \alpha)$  absolute norm.

In particular:  $\mathcal{N}((a)) := |\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{O}}(a)|$ .

•  $u = \mathcal{P}_1^{\nu_1} \dots \mathcal{P}_r^{\nu_r}$  decomposition into primes  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(u) = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}_1)^{\nu_1} \dots \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}_r)^{\nu_r}$ 

In particular:  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha_1\alpha_2) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha_1)\mathcal{N}(\alpha_2)$ .

• Hence  $\mathcal{N}$  can be extended to fractional ideals:  $\mathcal{N}: \mathcal{J}_K \to \mathbb{R}_+^{\times}$ .

Goal: Show that  $Cl_K$  is finite.

<u>Idea:</u>

- Find in each integral ideal  $\alpha$  an element  $a \neq 0$  of norm bounded by  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha)$ .
- Show: For M > 0 there are only finitely many integral ideals  $\alpha$  with  $N(\alpha) \leq M$ .
- Show: Each class  $[u] \in \operatorname{Cl}_K$  contains an integral ideal  $u_1$  s.t.  $\mathcal{N}(u_1) \leq M_0 = (\frac{2}{\pi})^s \sqrt{|d_K|}$ .

Recall:  $s = \text{number of not-real embeddings of } K \text{ into } \mathbb{C}.$ 

**Lemma 2.6.3.** Suppose:  $\alpha \neq 0$  is an integral ideal  $\Rightarrow \exists a \in \alpha, a \neq 0$  s.t.  $|\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a)| \leq (\frac{2}{\pi})^s \sqrt{|d_K|} \mathcal{N}(\alpha)$ .

Proof.  $M_0 := \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^s \sqrt{|d_K|}$ 

Idea: Use "Thm. 5.3"

given:  $c_{\tau} \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}(\tau \in \text{Hom}(K,\mathbb{C}))$  with  $c_{\tau} = c_{\overline{\tau}}$  and  $\prod_{\tau} c_{\tau} > M_0 \mathcal{N}(\alpha)$ 

 $\Rightarrow \exists a \in \alpha, a \neq 0 \text{ with } |\tau(a)| < c_{\tau} \text{ for all } \tau.$ 

For each  $\varepsilon > 0$  choose a sequence  $c_{\tau} \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  with  $c_{\tau} = c_{\overline{\tau}}$  and  $\prod_{\tau} c_{\tau} = M_0 \mathcal{N}(\alpha) + \varepsilon$ 

 $\stackrel{\text{Thm 5.3}}{\Rightarrow}$  Find  $a_{\varepsilon} \neq 0$  in  $\alpha$  with

$$|\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a)| = \prod_{\tau} |\tau(a)| < M_0 \mathcal{N}(a) + \varepsilon$$

Since left side is integer, we obtain:  $\exists a \neq 0 \text{ in } \alpha \text{ with } |\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(a)| \leq M_0 \mathcal{N}(\alpha).$ 

**Lemma 2.6.4.** Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ . There are only finitely many integral ideals  $\alpha$  with  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) \leq M$ .

*Proof.* (1) Consider first only prime ideals  $\mathcal{P} \neq 0$ : Suppose  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}) < M$ 

Recall:  $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z} = p\mathbb{Z}$  with p prime number (Prop. 3.3)

 $\Rightarrow$  obtain embedding  $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_K/\mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}) = (\mathcal{O}_K : \mathcal{P}) = \#\mathcal{O}_K/\mathcal{P} = p^f$ 

Hence:  $p^f \leq M$ . In particular P is bounded.

Furthermore: There are only finitely many prime ideals  $\mathcal{P}$  with  $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z} = p\mathbb{Z}$ .

Since  $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathbb{Z} = p\mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow p \in \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow (p) \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  But there are only finitely many prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_K$  which divide (p).

(2) Suppose now  $\alpha$  is an arbitrary integral ideal,  $\alpha \neq 0$ :

 $\Rightarrow a = \mathcal{P}_1^{\nu_1} \cdot \dots \cdot \mathcal{P}_r^{\nu_r}$  with  $\mathcal{P}_i$  prime ideal and  $\nu_i \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathcal{N}(a) = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}_1)^{\nu_1} \cdot \dots \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{P}_r)^{\nu_r}$ . Now the claim follows from (1).

**Theorem 9** (Finiteness of  $Cl_K$ ). The ideal class group of  $Cl_K = \mathcal{J}_K/\mathcal{P}_K$  is finite.

*Proof.* Let  $M_0 := (\frac{2}{\pi})^s \sqrt{|d_K|}$ 

Show that each class  $[a] \in Cl_K$  contains an integral ideal  $a_1$  with  $\mathcal{N}(a_1) \leq M_0$ . Then the

claim follows from Lemma 6.3.

Let  $[\alpha] \in \operatorname{Cl}_K$ . Choose  $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_K, \gamma \neq 0$  with  $\gamma \alpha^{-1}$  is integral.

Lemma 6.2 
$$\Rightarrow \exists b \in \mathcal{b} := \gamma a^{-1} \text{ with } b \neq 0 \text{ and } |\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(b)| \leq M_0 \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{b})$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}((b)\mathcal{b}^{-1}) = \mathcal{N}((b)) \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{b}^{-1}) \leq M_0$ 

Observe: The factorial ideal  $(b) \delta^{-1} = (b) \gamma^{-1} a \in [a]$ , hence  $a_1 := b \gamma^{-1} a$  does the job.  $a_1$  is an integral ideal, since  $(b) \subseteq \gamma a^{-1}$ 

**Definition 2.6.5** ("Klassenzahl").  $h_K := \# \operatorname{Cl}_K := (\mathcal{J}_K : \mathcal{P}_K)$  is called the <u>class number</u> of K.

**Proposition 2.6.6.** Suppose R is a Dedekind domain.

R is a UFD  $\iff$  R is a PID (principal ideal domain).

*Proof.*  $,\Leftarrow$  ": true for general domains.

 $,\Rightarrow$ ": Suppose R is a UFD.

Step 1: Every prime ideal is principal.

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a prime ideal,  $\mathcal{P} \neq 0$ . Choose  $a \in \mathcal{P}, a \neq 0$ . Let  $a = p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$  be its prime factor decomposition.  $\mathcal{P}$  prime  $\Rightarrow p_i \in \mathcal{P}$  for one of the i's  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{P} \supseteq (p_i) \Rightarrow \mathcal{P} = (p_i)$ , since  $(p_i)$  is a prime ideal and R is a Dedekinddomain.

Step 2: a arbitrary ideal.

 $\Rightarrow u = \mathcal{P}_1 \cdot \dots \mathcal{P}_n$  is a product of prime ideals

 $\Rightarrow \alpha$  is principal, since each  $\mathcal{P}_i$  is.

Corollary 2.6.7. We have for a number field K:

 $h_K = 1 \iff \mathcal{O}_K \text{ is a prinicpal domain } \iff \mathcal{O}_K \text{ is a UFD.}$ 

## 2.7. The theorem of Dirichlet

Goal: Describe  $\mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ 

Recall:

- $\mathcal{O}^{\times} = \{ \varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K \mid \mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\varepsilon) = \pm 1 \}$
- $\mu(K) := \{x \in \mathcal{O}_K \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } x^n = 1\} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \text{ is a finite subgroup.}$

Idea: Use multiplicative Minkowsky theory:

- $\operatorname{Hom}(K, \mathbb{C}) = \{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_r, \tau_{r+1}, \overline{\tau_{r+1}}, \tau_{r+s}, \overline{\tau_{r+s}}\}$
- $j: K^{\times} \hookrightarrow K_{\mathbb{R}}^{\times} = \{x \in \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{C}^{\times} \mid x_{\overline{\tau}} = \overline{x_{\tau}}\}, a \mapsto (\tau(a))_{\tau}$
- $l: K_{\mathbb{R}}^{\times} \to [\prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}]^{+} := \{ z \in \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R} \mid z_{\overline{\tau}} = z_{\tau} \}, x = (x_{\tau}) \mapsto (\log |x_{\tau}|)_{\tau}$

 $\Rightarrow$  commutative diagramm:

$$\mathcal{O}_{K}^{\times} \qquad S \qquad H$$

$$\downarrow \cap \qquad \qquad \cap \qquad \qquad \cap \qquad \qquad \cap$$

$$K^{\times} \stackrel{j}{\longleftrightarrow} K_{\mathbb{R}}^{\times} \stackrel{l}{\longrightarrow} [\prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}]^{+}$$

$$\downarrow \mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}} \qquad \downarrow \mathcal{N} \qquad \qquad \downarrow \operatorname{Tr}$$

$$\mathbb{Q}^{\times} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \stackrel{\log |\cdot|}{\longrightarrow} \mathbb{R}$$
with 
$$\mathcal{N}(x) = \prod_{\tau} x_{\tau} , \operatorname{Tr}(z) = \sum_{\tau} z_{\tau}.$$

Consider the three groups:

Consider the three groups:

(1) 
$$\mathcal{O}_K^{\times} = \{ \varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K \mid \mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\varepsilon) = \pm 1 \}$$

(2) 
$$S := \{x \in K_{\mathbb{R}}^{\times} \mid \mathcal{N}(x) = \pm 1\}$$
 "Norm 1 hyper surface"

(3) 
$$H := \{z \in [\prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}]^+ \mid \operatorname{Tr}(z) = 0\}$$
 "Trace 0 hypersurface"

 $\Rightarrow$  Morphisms restrict to

$$\mathcal{O}_{\kappa}^{\times} \xrightarrow{j} S \xrightarrow{l} H.$$

Define  $\Gamma := l \circ j(\mathcal{O}_K^{\times}) = \text{image of } l \circ j.$ 

Recall from additive Minkowski-Theory:  $j(\mathcal{O}_K)$  is a complete lattice in  $K_{\mathbb{R}}$ 

Proposition 2.7.1. The sequence

$$1 \to \mu(K) \to \mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \stackrel{l \circ j}{\to} \Gamma \to 1$$

is an exact sequence.

*Proof.*  $\lambda := l \circ j$ 

We have to show:  $\ker(\lambda) = \mu(K)$ .

Observe:  $a \in \ker(\lambda) \iff \forall \tau \in \operatorname{Hom}(K, \mathbb{C}) : \log |\tau(a)| = 0 \iff |\tau(a)| = 1$ 

Hence:  $\ker(\lambda) = \{ a \in \mathcal{O}^{\times} \mid |\tau(a)| = 1 \}.$ 

"⊇": ✓

" $\subseteq$ ":  $j(\ker(\lambda))$  is bounded as subset of  $K_{\mathbb{R}}^{\times}$ . Furthermore:  $j(\ker(\lambda)) \subseteq j(\mathcal{O})$  which is a lattice in  $K_{\mathbb{R}} \Rightarrow j(\ker(\lambda))$  is finite and thus also  $\ker(\lambda)$ .

Altogether:  $\ker(\lambda)$  is a finite subgroup of  $K^{\times} \Rightarrow$  every element in  $\ker(\lambda)$  has finite order  $\Rightarrow$  every element is a root of unity.

Goal: Describe  $\Gamma$ 

<u>Recall:</u>  $\alpha, \alpha' \in \mathcal{O}_K$  are associated:  $\iff \exists, \varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \text{ s.t. } \alpha' = \alpha \cdot \varepsilon.$ 

**Proposition 2.7.2.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . There are at most  $(\mathcal{O}_K : a\mathcal{O}_K) = \mathcal{N}((a))$  elements  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$  up to associates with  $\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm a$ .

*Proof.* Suppose w.l.o.g.: a > 1.

Consider the cosets of  $\mathcal{O}_K$  modulo the subgroup  $a\mathcal{O}_K$ . Show that each coset contains at most one such  $\alpha$  up to associatives.

Suppose:  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) = \pm a$  and suppose  $\beta = \alpha + a\gamma$  with  $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_K$  also satisfies  $\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta) = \pm a \Rightarrow \frac{\beta}{\alpha} = 1 \pm \frac{\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)}{\alpha}\gamma$ .

Recall:  $\frac{\mathcal{N}(\alpha)}{\alpha} \in \mathcal{O}_K \Rightarrow \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ .

Obtain in the same way  $\frac{\alpha}{\beta} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . Hence  $\frac{\alpha}{\beta}$  and  $\frac{\beta}{\alpha}$  are in  $\mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \Rightarrow \alpha$  and  $\beta$  are associated.  $\square$ 

**Lemma 2.7.3.** Let V be an  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space of dimension n,  $\Gamma$  a lattice in V.

 $\Gamma$  is complete  $\iff \exists M \subseteq V \text{ with } M \text{ bounded s.t. } \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} M + \gamma = V.$ 

*Proof.*  $\Rightarrow$  ":  $\Gamma = \mathbb{Z}v_1 + \cdots + \mathbb{Z}v_n \Rightarrow M := \phi := \{r_1v_1 + \cdots + r_nv_n \mid 0 \leq r_i < 1\}$  does it.  $\Rightarrow$  ": Consider:  $V_0 := \mathbb{R}$ -vector space generated by  $\Gamma$ . Have to show:  $V_0 = V$ .

Let  $v \in V$ . Consider the sequence  $kv(k \in \mathbb{N})$ .

Precondition  $\Rightarrow \forall k \exists a_k \in M \text{ and } \gamma_k \in \Gamma \text{ with } kv = a_k + \gamma_k$ 

M bounded  $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{k}a_k \to 0 \Rightarrow v = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{k}a_k + \frac{1}{k}\gamma_k = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{k}\gamma_k \Rightarrow v \in V_0$ , since  $V_0$  is closed.

**Theorem 10.** The group  $\Gamma$  is a complete lattice in  $H = \{x \in [\prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R}]^+ \mid \operatorname{Tr}(x) = 0\} \cong \mathbb{R}^{r+s-1}$ . Hence  $\Gamma$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}^{r+s-1}$ .

*Proof.* Step 1: Show that  $\Gamma$  is a lattice, i.e. show that  $\Gamma$  is a discrete subgroup of H. More precisely: show that  $\forall c > 0$ :

$$\Gamma \cap \{(z_{\tau})_{\tau} \in \prod_{\tau} \mathbb{R} \mid |z_{\tau}| \le c\} =: Q_c$$

is finite.

Observe:  $l^{-1}(Q_c) = \{(x_\tau)_\tau \in \prod_\tau \mathbb{C}^\times \mid e^{-c} \le |x_\tau| \le e^c\}$  since  $l((x_\tau)_\tau) = (log|x_\tau|)_\tau$ .  $\Rightarrow l^{-1}(Q_c) \cap j(\mathcal{O}_K^\circ)$  is finite, since  $j(\mathcal{O}_K)$  is a lattice in  $K_\mathbb{R}$ . This shows the claim.

Step 2: Show that  $\Gamma$  is complete.

Idea: Use Lemma 7.3.

Hence: find  $M \subseteq H$  as required in the lemma.

Equivalently: find  $T \subseteq S$ , s.t.  $S = \bigcup_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}} T \cdot j(\varepsilon)$  and T is bounded.

Then we have for  $M := l(T) : H = \bigcup_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}} M + l(j(\varepsilon)) = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} M + \gamma$ .

Furthermore: T bounded  $\Rightarrow \exists C > 0 : \forall x \in T : \forall \tau : |x_{\tau}| < C$ .

Since  $\prod_{\tau} |x_{\tau}| = 1 \Rightarrow \exists c > 0 : \forall x \in T : \forall \tau : |x_{\tau}| > c \Rightarrow M = l(T)$  is bounded in H.

Step 3: Definition of T

- Choose sequence  $(c_{\tau})$  with  $c_{\tau} > 0$ ,  $c_{\bar{\tau}} = c_{\tau}$  and  $C := \prod c_{\tau} > M_0 = (\frac{2}{\pi})^s \sqrt{d_K}$  and define  $X := \{(x_{\tau})_{\tau} \mid |x_{\tau}| < c_{\tau}\}.$
- Choose  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_N \in \mathcal{O}_K$  s.t. each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K, \alpha \neq 0$  with  $|\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)| \leq C$  is associated to one  $\alpha_i$  (by Prop 7.2. possible).

Define  $T := S \cap \bigcup_{i=1}^n X \cdot j(\alpha_i)^{-1}$ . Step 4: T does the job:

- (1) X is bounded  $\Rightarrow Xj(\alpha_i)^{-1}$  is bounded  $\Rightarrow T$  is bounded.
- (2) Observe:  $y = (y_{\tau}) \in S \Rightarrow Xy = \{(x_{\tau}) \in K_{\mathbb{R}} \mid |x_{\tau}| < c'_{\tau}\} \text{ with } c'_{\tau} = c_{\tau} \cdot |y_{\tau}| \Rightarrow c'_{\tau} = c'_{\overline{\tau}} \text{ and } \prod_{\tau} c'_{\tau} = \prod_{\tau} c_{\tau} \underbrace{\prod_{j \in S} |y_{\tau}|}_{=1(y \in S)} = C.$   $\Rightarrow \exists \alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{K} \text{ with } |\tau(\alpha)| < c'_{\tau} \forall \tau \Rightarrow j(\alpha) \in Xy$
- (3) Show that:  $S = \bigcup_{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_{\kappa}^{\times}} Tj(\varepsilon)$

Suppose  $y \in S \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow} \exists \alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K \setminus \{0\}$  with  $j(\alpha) \in Xy^{-1} \Rightarrow j(\alpha) = xy^{-1}$  for some  $x \in X$ . Furthermore:  $|\mathcal{N}_{K/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)| = |\mathcal{N}(xy^{-1})| = |\mathcal{N}(x)| < \prod_{\tau} c_{\tau} = C$ .  $\Rightarrow \alpha$  is associated to some  $\alpha_i$ , hence  $\alpha_i = \varepsilon \alpha$  with  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ .

 $\Rightarrow y = xj(\alpha)^{-1} = xj(\alpha_i^{-1}\varepsilon).$ 

Finally: y and  $j(\varepsilon) \in S \Rightarrow xj(\alpha_i)^{-1} \in S \cap Xj(\alpha_i)^{-1} \subseteq T \Rightarrow y \in Tj(\varepsilon)$ .

Corollary 2.7.4.  $\mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \cong \mathbb{Z}^{r+s-1} \times \mu(K)$ .

*Proof.* We have the exact sequence

$$1 \to \mu(K) \to \mathcal{O}_K^{\times} \xrightarrow{l} \Gamma \cong \mathbb{Z}^{r+s-1} \to 1$$

Fix a basis  $v_1, \ldots, v_t(t := r + s - 1)$  of  $\Gamma$  and preimages  $\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_t$  in  $\mathcal{O}_k^{\times}$ . Let  $A := < \varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_t > \subseteq \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ .

Then  $\lambda_{|A}$  is an isomorphism and thus  $A \cap \mu(K) = \{1\}$ . In particular every  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$  decomposes in a unique way as  $\alpha = \nu \cdot \mu$  with  $\nu \in A$  and  $\mu \in \mu(K)$ .

## 2.8. Prime ideals in $\mathcal{O}_K$

**Question:** Describe the prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}_K$  that "live above a prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ ". Consider the following, more general situation: Let

- O be a Dedekind domain,
- $K = \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ ,
- $L \mid K$  a finite and separable field extension,
- $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  the integral closure of  $\mathcal{O}$  in L.

**Definition 2.8.1.** In the setting above, we say that a prime ideal  $\hat{\mathfrak{p}} \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  lies above a prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p} \in \mathcal{O} :\Leftrightarrow \hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}$ .

**Proposition 2.8.2.**  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is a Dedekind domain.

*Proof.* (1)  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is an integral domain and is integrally closed (see **Remark 2.1**).

(2) We show, that every prime ideal  $0 \neq \hat{\mathfrak{p}} \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is maximal: We know that  $\mathfrak{p} := \hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \mathcal{O}$  is a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$ .

(Claim:)  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0$ . Choose  $0 \neq x \in \hat{\mathfrak{p}}$ . Since  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is integrally closed,  $\exists a_0, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ , such that

$$x^{n} + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{1}x + a_{0} = 0.$$

We may assume that the equation is minimal, i.e  $a_0 \neq 0$ . Then we have

$$0 \neq a_0 = -a_1 x - \dots - a_{n-1} x^{n-1} - x^n \in \hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}.$$

Since  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal of  $\mathcal{O}$ , it is also maximal, i.e  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$  is a field. Hence  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a finite extension of  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$  as an  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$ -algebra. Therefore  $\mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$  a field  $\Rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a field  $\Rightarrow \hat{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a maximal ideal.

(3)  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is Noetherian: Choose a basis  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  of  $L \mid K$  with  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . Let  $d := d(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n) \neq 0$  (**Proposition 2.6**). Recall that  $d \cdot \hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset \mathcal{O}\alpha_1 + \cdots + \mathcal{O}\alpha_n$  (**Proposition 2.8**) and that therefore  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset \mathcal{O}\frac{\alpha_1}{d} + \cdots + \mathcal{O}\frac{\alpha_n}{d}$ . Hence every ideal  $I \subset \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  can be regarded as a submodule of the  $\mathcal{O}$ -module  $\mathcal{O}\frac{\alpha_1}{d} + \cdots + \mathcal{O}\frac{\alpha_n}{d}$ . But since this module is finitely generated and  $\mathcal{O}$  is Noetherian, I must be finitely generated as well.

**Proposition 2.8.3.** Let  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathcal{O}$  be a prime ideal. Then  $\mathfrak{p} \cdot \hat{\mathcal{O}} \subsetneq \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .

*Proof.* We may assume  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0$ .

- (1) Choose  $\pi \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \mathfrak{p}^2$ . Then we can write  $\pi \cdot \mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p} \cdot \mathfrak{u}$  with  $\mathfrak{p}$ ,  $\mathfrak{u}$  coprime, i.e  $\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p} + \mathfrak{u} \Rightarrow \exists s \in \mathfrak{u}, t \in \mathfrak{p} : 1 = s + t$ . In particular,  $s \notin \mathfrak{p}$  since  $1 \notin \mathfrak{p}$  and  $s \cdot \mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{u} \cdot \mathfrak{p} = \pi \cdot \mathcal{O}$ .
- (2) Suppose  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . Then  $s \cdot \hat{\mathcal{O}} = s\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset \pi\hat{\mathcal{O}} \Rightarrow s = \pi x$  with some  $x \in \hat{\mathcal{O}} \cap K = \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow s \in \pi \mathcal{O} \subset \mathfrak{p}$ , a contradiction.

Remark 2.8.4. Let  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0$  be a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$ . Then:

- (i)  $\mathfrak{p} \cdot \hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdot \dots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$  with  $e_1, \dots, e_r \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r$  prime ideals in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .
- (ii) A prime ideal  $\hat{\mathfrak{p}}$  in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  satisfies:  $\hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p} \Leftrightarrow \hat{\mathfrak{p}} = \mathfrak{p}_i$  for some i.

*Proof.* (i) follows from **Proposition 8.2+8.3**.

(ii) " $\Leftarrow$ ":  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdot \dots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r} \Rightarrow \mathfrak{p}\mathcal{O} \subset \mathfrak{p}_i \Rightarrow \mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{p}_i \cap \mathcal{O}$ . We have  $\mathfrak{p}_i \cap \mathcal{O} \neq 0$ ,  $1 \notin \mathfrak{p}_i \cap \mathcal{O}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal, hence  $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{p}_i \cap \mathcal{O}$ .

" $\Rightarrow$ ":  $\hat{\mathfrak{p}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset \hat{\mathfrak{p}} \Rightarrow \hat{\mathfrak{p}}$  divides  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .

**Definition 2.8.5.** Let  $0 \neq \mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$  the decomposition into prime ideals.

- (i)  $e_i$  is called **ramification index of**  $\mathfrak{p}_i$ .
  - $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is called **unramified** : $\Leftrightarrow e_i = 1$ .
  - $\mathfrak{p}$  is called unramified, if all  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  are unramified.
  - $\mathfrak{p}$  is called **totally ramified** : $\Leftrightarrow r = 1$ .
- (ii)  $f_i := \dim_K \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i$  with  $K := \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$  is called **local degree** or **relative degree** of  $\mathfrak{p}_i$ .

**Theorem 11.** In the situation of **Definition 8.5**, we have the fundamental equation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i \cdot f_i = n \quad with \ n = [L : K]$$

*Proof.* We can write

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}=igoplus_{i=1}^r\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i}$$

by the Chinese Remainder Theorem. Let  $k = \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$ 

- Step 1: We show, that  $\dim_k \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = n$ . Choose a basis  $\bar{\omega}_1, \ldots, \bar{\omega}_m$  of  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  over k and choose preimages  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_m$  in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . We will show, that  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_m$  is a basis of  $L \mid K$ , i.e m = n, from which the claim follows.
  - (1) Suppose  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_m$  are linearly dependant, i.e  $\exists \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m \in K$ , not all zero and such that

$$\alpha_1 \omega_1 + \dots + \alpha_m \omega_m = 0. \tag{*}$$

Since  $K = \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ , we may choose  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m \in \mathcal{O}$ , since we can just clear denominators. Consider the ideal  $\alpha := \langle \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_m \rangle \subset \mathcal{O}$ .  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha^{-1}\mathfrak{p} \subsetneq \alpha^{-1}$ . Choose some  $\alpha \in \alpha^{-1} \setminus \alpha^{-1}\mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow \alpha \cdot \alpha \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow \alpha\alpha_1, \ldots \alpha\alpha_m \in \mathcal{O}$ , but not all lie in  $\mathfrak{p}$ .

 $\stackrel{(*)}{\Longrightarrow} \alpha \alpha_1 \omega_1 + \dots + \alpha \alpha_m \omega_m = 0 \mod \mathfrak{p}$  with at least one of the  $\alpha \alpha_i \notin \mathfrak{p}$ . Hence  $\alpha \alpha_1 \bar{\omega}_1 + \dots + \alpha \alpha_m \bar{\omega}_m = 0$  with at least one  $\alpha \alpha_i \neq 0$ , which contradicts the assumption that  $\bar{\omega}_1, \dots, \bar{\omega}_m$  is a basis.

(2) Consider  $M := \mathcal{O}\omega_1 + \cdots + \mathcal{O}\omega_m$  and  $N := \hat{\mathcal{O}}/M$ . Since  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = K\bar{\omega}_1 + \cdots + K\bar{\omega}_m$ , we have  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} = M + \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \stackrel{\text{mod }M}{\Longrightarrow} N = \mathfrak{p}N$ . The proof of **Proposition 8.2** implies, that  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and N are finitely generated as  $\mathcal{O}$ -modules. Choose generators  $\bar{\alpha}_1, \ldots, \bar{\alpha}_s$  of N.  $N = \mathfrak{p}N \Rightarrow \exists \alpha_{i,j} \in \mathfrak{p}$  with  $\bar{\alpha}_i = \sum_{i=1}^s \alpha_{i,j}\bar{\alpha}_j$ . Consider  $A = (\alpha_{i,j})_{i,j=1}^s - I$ . Then

$$A \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\alpha}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{\alpha}_s \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Furthermore,  $d := \det(A) = (-1)^s \mod \mathfrak{p} \Rightarrow d \neq 0$ . We now see

$$0 = A^{\#} A \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\alpha}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{\alpha}_s \end{pmatrix} = d \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\alpha}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{\alpha}_s \end{pmatrix} \Longrightarrow d \cdot N = 0,$$

hence  $d \cdot \hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset M = \mathcal{O}\omega_1 + \dots + \mathcal{O}\omega_m$ . Now, for some  $\beta \in L$ , we have  $\beta = d \underbrace{\beta'}_{\in L} = d \underbrace{\beta'}_{\in L}$ 

 $d \cdot \frac{b}{a} = \frac{1}{a}db$ , with  $b \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and  $a \in \mathcal{O}$ . Hence  $\beta \in K\omega_1 + \cdots + K\omega_m \Rightarrow m = n$  and  $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_m$  generate  $L \mid K$ .

Step 2: We show, that  $\dim_K \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} = e_i f_i$ . Consider the chain

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_i/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i-1}/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} \supseteq 0$$

as a chain of K-vector spaces. Choose an  $\alpha \in \mathfrak{p}_i^j \setminus \mathfrak{p}_i^{j+1}$  and consider the homomorphism

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}} \longrightarrow \mathfrak{p}_i^j/\mathfrak{p}_i^{j+1} 
a \longmapsto \alpha \cdot a,$$

which is surjective with kernel  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  (since  $\mathfrak{p}_i^{j+1}$  is coprime to  $\alpha \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ ). Therefore  $\mathfrak{p}_i^j/\mathfrak{p}_i^{j+1} \cong \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i$  and we have

$$\dim_K \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} = \sum_{j=0}^{e_i-1} \dim_K \mathfrak{p}_i^j/\mathfrak{p}_i^{j+1} = e_i \cdot f_i$$

Next, we will examine the example of the Gaussian integers  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . By **Proposition 2.10**,  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is the ring of integers  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  of the field extension  $\mathbb{Q}[i] \mid \mathbb{Q}$ .

Reminder 2.8.6. (i)  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is an euclidean ring  $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a PID  $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is an UFD

(ii) In particular, all prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p}=\langle\pi\rangle$  with  $\pi$  prime.

Remark 2.8.7. Let R be a domain,  $a, b \in R$ . Then  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle \Leftrightarrow a$  and b are associated.

Proof. " $\Rightarrow$ ":  $\langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle \Rightarrow \exists r, r' \in R : b = ra \text{ and } a = r'b \Rightarrow b = rr'b \Rightarrow (1 - rr')b = 0 \stackrel{R \text{ domain}}{\Rightarrow} r, r' \in R^{\times}.$ 

"
$$\Leftarrow$$
":  $a = \epsilon b$  with  $\epsilon \in R^{\times} \Rightarrow b = \epsilon^{-1} a \Rightarrow \langle a \rangle = \langle b \rangle$ .

Remark 2.8.8. For  $L = \mathbb{Q}[i]$  and  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ , we have

- (i) Gal  $L \mid K = \{ id, (a + bi \mapsto a bi) \}$
- (ii)  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(a+bi) = (a+bi) \cdot (a-bi) = a^2 + b^2$ .
- (iii) Since  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a UFD, an element is prime  $\Leftrightarrow$  it is irreducible.
- (iv)  $\mathbb{Z}[i]^{\times} = \{ \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[i] \mid \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(\alpha) = 1 \} = \{1, -1, i, -i\}.$
- (v) For  $\alpha = a + bi$ , its associated elements are -a bi, ai b, -ai + b.

**Proposition 2.8.9** (Theorem of Wilson). Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  be a prime nuber. Then:

- (i)  $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \mod p$ .
- (ii) If p = 4n + 1 with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $(2n)!^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$

*Proof.* (i) Since the statement is obvious for p=2, let p>2. Consider  $X^{p-1}-1\in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$  Then  $1,\ldots,p-1$  are all zeroes and

$$X^{p-1} - 1 = (x-1) \cdot (x-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (x-(p-1)) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X].$$

When we look at the constant term, we see that  $-1 = (-1)^{p-1} \cdot (p-1)! = (p-1)!$ 

(ii)  $(-1) \equiv (p-1)! \equiv (4n)! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot 2n \cdot (p-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (p-2n) \equiv (2n)! \cdot (-1)^{2n} \cdot (2n)! \equiv (2n)!^2 \mod p.$ 

**Proposition 2.8.10.** If p is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$  with  $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$ , then p is not a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

*Proof.* Write p = 4n + 1. By the Theorem of Wilson, we have  $X^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$  for x = (2n)!. Then  $p|X^2 + 1 = (x+i)(x-i) \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ , but  $\frac{x \pm i}{n} \notin \mathbb{Z}[i]$ .

**Proposition 2.8.11.** Each prime element  $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is associated to one of the following prime elements of  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ :

- (1)  $\pi = 1 + i$ .
- (2)  $\pi = a + bi$ , with  $a^2 + b^2 = p$  prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$ .
- (3)  $\pi = p \text{ prime in } \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } p \equiv 3 \mod 4.$

*Proof.* We proof the proposition in 3 steps.

- Step 1: If  $\pi$  is as in (1) or (2), then  $\pi$  is prime. Suppose  $\pi = \alpha\beta$ . Then  $p = \mathcal{N}(\pi) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\beta) \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so either  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = 1$  or  $\mathcal{N}(\beta) = 1$ , i.e  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  is a unit.
- Step 2: If  $\pi$  is as in (3), then  $\pi$  is a prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $\pi = \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ . Then  $p^2 = \mathcal{N}(\pi) = \mathcal{N}(\alpha) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\beta)$ . If  $\alpha, \beta \notin \mathbb{Z}[i]^{\times}$ , then  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\beta) = p$ . Write  $\alpha = a + bi$ . Then  $p = \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2 \not\equiv 3 \mod 4$ , since it is always  $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 0, 1 \mod 4$ , a contradiction.
- Step 3: We have now shown, that the elements (1) (3) are prime. Let now  $\pi_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  be a prime element. We wil show, that  $\pi_0$  is associated to one of the three elements above. Look at  $\mathcal{N}(\pi_0) = p_1 \cdot \cdots \cdot p_r$  with  $p_1, \ldots, p_r$  primes in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $\pi_0$  is prime, it divides  $p := p_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le r \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\pi_0)$  divides  $\mathcal{N}(p) = p^2$ , i.e  $\mathcal{N}(\pi_0) = p$  or  $p^2$ .
  - Case 1:  $\mathcal{N}(\pi_0) = p$ . if p = 2, then  $\pi_0 \in \{1 + i, 1 i, -1 + i, -1 1\}$ , i.e  $\pi_0$  is associated to 1 + i. If p > 2, then  $p = \mathcal{N}(\pi_0) = a^2 + b^2 \equiv 1 \mod 4 \Rightarrow \pi_0$  is associated to an element as in (2).
  - Cbse 2:  $\mathcal{N}(\pi_0) = p^2 \Rightarrow \pi_0|p^2 \Rightarrow \pi_0|p \Rightarrow \frac{p}{\pi_0} \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  and  $\mathcal{N}(\frac{p}{\pi_0}) = \frac{\mathcal{N}(p)}{\mathcal{N}(\pi_0)} = \frac{p^2}{p^2} = 1$ , i.e  $\frac{p}{\pi_0}$  is a unit, hence  $\pi_0$  is associated to p. By **Proposition 8.10**,  $p \not\equiv 1 \mod 4$ . Also  $p \not\equiv 2$ , since 2 = (1+i)(1-i) is not prime in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ . Hence  $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$  and  $\pi_0$  is associated to an element as in (3).

Corollary 2.8.12 (Fermat). (i) If p is prime then  $p = a^2 + b^2 \Leftrightarrow p \not\equiv 3 \mod 4$ 

- (ii)  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : n = a^2 + b^2 \Leftrightarrow \nu_p(n)$  is even for all primes  $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$  ( $\nu_p(n) = exponent \ of \ p \ in \ prime \ factorization \ of \ n \ over \mathbb{Z}$ ).
- Proof. (i) " $\Rightarrow$ ": Same as in Step 2 of **8.11**" $\Leftarrow$ ": If p = 2, then 2 = 1 + 1. If  $p \equiv \mod 4$ , then by **Proposition 8.10**,  $p = \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$  with  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\beta) = p$ . Write  $\alpha = a + bi$  and get  $p = \mathcal{N}(\alpha) = a^2 + b^2$ .
- (ii) " $\Rightarrow$ ":  $n = a^2 + b^2 \Rightarrow n = \mathcal{N}(\alpha)$  with  $\alpha = a + bi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ . Write  $\alpha = \epsilon \cdot \pi_1 \cdot \dots \cdot \pi_r \cdot \pi_r \cdot \dots \cdot \pi_{r+1} \cdot \dots \cdot \pi_{r+s}$  with  $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_r$  as in (3) and  $\pi_{r+1}, \dots, \pi_{r+s}$  as in (1) or (2). Then  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^r \mathcal{N}(\pi_i) = p_1^2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^2 \cdot p_{r+1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{r+s}$  with  $p_1, \dots, p_r \equiv 3 \mod 4$  and  $p_{r+1}, \dots, p_{r+s} \not\equiv 3 \mod 4$ .

  " $\Leftarrow$ ":  $n = p_1^2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^2 \cdot p_{r+1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{r+s}$  as above. By (i),  $p_j \not\equiv 3 \mod 4$  and hence  $p_j = a_j^2 + b_j^2$  for  $r+1 \le j \le r+s$ . Define  $\alpha := p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r \cdot (a_{r+1} + ib_{r+1}) \cdot \dots \cdot (a_{r+s} + ib_{r+s})$ . Then  $\mathcal{N}(\alpha) = n$ .

Corollary 2.8.13. The prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  in  $\mathbb{Z}[i]$  that lie over a prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p} = \langle p \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  are obtained as follows:

(i)  $p=2 \Rightarrow \langle 2 \rangle \mathbb{Z}[i] = \langle 1+i \rangle \langle 1-i \rangle = \langle 1+i \rangle^2$ . Hence r=1,  $e_1=2$ ,  $f_1=1$ .

(ii) 
$$p \equiv 1 \mod 4 \stackrel{p=a^2+b^2}{\Longrightarrow} \langle p \rangle \mathbb{Z}[i] = \langle a+bi \rangle \langle a-bi \rangle$$
. Hence  $r=2$ ,  $e_1=e_2=1$ ,  $f_1=f_2=1$ .

(iii)  $p \equiv 3 \mod 4 \Rightarrow \langle p \rangle \mathbb{Z}[i]$  is a prime ideal. Hence r = 1,  $e_1 = 1$ ,  $f_1 = 2$ .

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**GOAL:** Describe prime ideals explicitely for all simple extensions  $L = K[\Theta]$  with  $\Theta \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . **Caution:** Before, we had  $\mathbb{Z}[i] = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . In general, we might have  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}' := \mathcal{O}[\Theta] \subsetneq \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . **Idea:** Take the largest ideal of  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  which also lies in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}'$ .

**Definition 2.8.14.** The set  $\mathcal{F} := \left\{ \alpha \in \hat{\mathcal{O}} \mid \alpha \hat{\mathcal{O}} \subset \hat{\mathcal{O}}' \right\}$  is called **conductor**.

Example 2.8.15. If  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathbb{Z}[i]$  and  $\Theta = i$ , then  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}' = \mathcal{O}[\Theta] \Rightarrow \mathcal{F} = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .

**Proposition 2.8.16.** In the situation above, let  $f(X) := f_{\Theta}(X)$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\Theta$ . Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$  and  $K := \mathcal{O}/\mathfrak{p}$ . consider the image  $\bar{f}$  of f in K[X] and let  $\bar{f} = \bar{f}_1^{e_1} \cdot \cdots \cdot \bar{f}_f^{e_r}$  be the prime factorization in K[X]. Choose preimages  $f_1, \ldots, f_r \in \mathcal{O}[X]$ . Then:

If  $\mathfrak{p}$  is coprime to  $\mathcal{F}$ , i.e  $\mathfrak{p} + \mathcal{F} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}$ , then the ideals in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  which lie over  $\mathfrak{p}$  are given as follows:  $\mathfrak{p}_i := \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} + f_i(\Theta)\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq r$  and the local degree of  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is equal to  $\deg(\bar{f}_i)$ .

**Proposition 2.8.17.** Let R and S be rings and  $\varphi \colon R \to S$  a ring homomorphism.

- (i) If  $\mathfrak{q}$  is a prime ideal in S then  $\varphi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$  is a prime ideal in R.
- (ii) If  $\varphi$  is surjective and  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal in R with  $\ker \varphi \subset \mathfrak{p}$  then  $\varphi(\mathfrak{p})$  is a prime ideal in S.

*Proof.* "(i)" Preimages of ideals are ideals. Suppose  $ab \in \varphi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$ . Then  $\varphi(a)\varphi(b) \in \mathfrak{q}$  such that, without loss of generality,  $\varphi(a) \in \mathfrak{q}$  and hence  $a \in \varphi^{-1}(\mathfrak{q})$ .

"(ii)" Images of ideals under surjective homomorphisms are ideals. Let  $\overline{a}\overline{b} \in \varphi(\mathfrak{p})$ . Since  $\varphi$  is surjective there are  $a, b \in R$  with  $\varphi(a) = \overline{a}, \varphi(b) = \overline{b}$  and there is  $c \in \mathfrak{p}$  with  $\varphi(c) = \overline{a}\overline{b}$ . Hence

$$ab - c \in \ker \varphi \subset \mathfrak{p}$$

such that  $ab \in \mathfrak{p}$ . We may assume that  $a \in \mathfrak{p}$  and conclude  $\overline{a} = \varphi(a) \in \varphi(\mathfrak{p})$ .

**Definition 2.8.18.** In the situation of Proposition 2.8.17 we define:

- (i)  $\operatorname{Spec}(R) = \{ \mathfrak{p} \subset R \mid \mathfrak{p} \text{ is a prime ideal} \}$
- (ii)  $\operatorname{Spec}_S(R) = \{ \mathfrak{p} \subset \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \mathfrak{p} \supset \ker \varphi \}$

Corollary 2.8.19. In the situation of Proposition 2.8.17 we have:

(i) If  $\varphi \colon R \to S$  is a homomorphism of rings then  $\varphi$  induces a map

$$\varphi^* \colon \operatorname{Spec}(S) \to \operatorname{Spec}_S(R), \, \mathfrak{p} \mapsto \varphi^{-1}(\mathfrak{p}).$$

(ii) If  $\varphi$  is surjective then  $\varphi^*$  is a bijection with inverse map

$$\varphi_* \colon \operatorname{Spec}_S(R) \to \operatorname{Spec}(S), \, \mathfrak{p} \mapsto \varphi(\mathfrak{p}).$$

Reminder 2.8.20. For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and p prime in  $\mathbb{Z}$  the **Legendre symbol** is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0, & p \text{ divides } a, \\ 1, & \text{there is an } x \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } x^2 \equiv a \mod p, \\ -1, & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

Example 2.8.21. Apply Proposition 8.15 for quadratic number fields, D square-free:

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathbb{Z}[\theta] \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$$

$$\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}$$

Reminder 2.8.22. If  $D \not\equiv 1 \mod 4$  then we can choose  $\theta = \sqrt{D}$  and obtain  $f = f_{\theta} = X^2 - D$  and  $d(f_{\theta}) = 4D$ .

If  $D \equiv 1 \mod 4$  then we can choose  $\theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{D})$  and obtain  $f = f_{\theta} = X^2 - X - \frac{D-1}{4}$  and  $d(f_{\theta}) = D$ .

Consider  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  prime and define  $\overline{f} = \overline{f}_{\theta}$  as the image of f in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X]$ .

**Observe:**  $\overline{f}$  has two equal zeroes in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  iff d(f) = 0 in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  iff

$$\begin{cases} \left(\frac{4D}{p}\right) = 0, & D \not\equiv 1 \mod 4, \\ \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 0, & D \equiv 1 \mod 4. \end{cases}$$

 $\overline{f}$  has two different zeroes in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  iff d(f) is a non-zero square in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  iff

$$\begin{cases} \left(\frac{4D}{p}\right) = 1, & D \not\equiv 1 \mod 4, \\ \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1, & D \equiv 1 \mod 4 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = 1.$$

 $\overline{f}$  has no zeroes in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  iff  $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) = -1$ .

Proposition 8.15 then implies in the first case that  $p\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1^2$  with

$$\mathcal{P}_1 = \begin{cases} p\hat{\mathcal{O}} + \theta\hat{\mathcal{O}}, & D \not\equiv 1 \mod 4, \\ p\hat{\mathcal{O}} + \left(\theta - \frac{1}{2}\right)\hat{\mathcal{O}}, & D \equiv 1 \mod 4, \end{cases}$$

In the second case we obtain  $p\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1\hat{\mathcal{P}}_2$  with  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_{1,2} = p\hat{\mathcal{O}} + (\theta \pm x)\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ , where  $x^2 \equiv D \mod p$ .

In the third case  $p\hat{P}$  is a prime ideal.

Example. Let  $D \not\equiv 1 \mod p$ ,  $\left(\frac{4D}{p}\right) = 0$  and  $p \neq 2$ . Consider the map  $\pi \colon \hat{\mathcal{O}} \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  with  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$  and  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \left\{a + b\sqrt{D} \mid p|a \text{ and } p|b\right\}$  and thus

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}} \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X])/(X^2 - D),$$

$$\theta \leftrightarrow \qquad \left(0, \sqrt{D}\right) \leftrightarrow \qquad \overline{X}.$$

We have

$$\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 = \pi^{-1}((\overline{\theta})) = \left\{ a + b\sqrt{D} \mid p \text{ divides } a \right\}.$$

Example. Let  $D \not\equiv 1 \mod p$  and  $\left(\frac{4D}{p}\right) = 1$ . Then there exists  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $x^2 \equiv D \mod p$  and  $p \not\mid x$ . Here,  $\pi : \hat{\mathcal{O}} \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  is the map

$$\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}] \to \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{D}]$$

$$\cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X])/(X-x)(X+x)$$

$$\cong (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X])/(X-x) \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X])/(X+x)$$

given by

$$a + b\sqrt{D} \mapsto \overline{a} + \overline{b}\sqrt{D} \cong \overline{a} + \overline{b}X \cong (\overline{a} + \overline{b}x, \overline{a} - \overline{b}x).$$

Recall that  $\overline{f}(X) = (X - x)(X + x) = \overline{f}_1 \overline{f}_2$  with  $\overline{f}_1, \overline{f}_2 \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  and

$$f_1(\theta) = \theta - x = \sqrt{D} - x = -x + \sqrt{D}$$

with  $\pi(f_1(\theta)) \leftrightarrow (0, -2\overline{x})$ . Observe that for  $\overline{x} \in \mathbb{F}_p^x$  we have the correspondence

$$(\pi(f_1(\theta))) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{O} \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[X])/(X+p) \cong \mathcal{O} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$$

and hence  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 = \pi^{-1}(\mathcal{O} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$ .

*Proof of Prop. 8.16.* Consider the map  $\pi: \hat{\mathcal{O}} \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . By Corollary 8.19 we have a bijection

$$\left\{\hat{\mathcal{P}}\,|\,\hat{\mathcal{P}}\text{ prime ideal in }\hat{\mathcal{O}}\text{ with }\hat{\mathcal{P}}\cap\mathcal{O}=\mathfrak{p}\right\}\leftrightarrow\left\{\mathfrak{q}\,|\,\mathfrak{q}\text{ prime ideal in }\hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}}\right\}.$$

We show:

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}} \cong \hat{\mathcal{O}}'/p\hat{\mathcal{O}}' \cong k[X]/(\overline{f}),$$

where  $k = \hat{\mathcal{O}}/p\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}' = \mathcal{O}[\theta]$ .

Step 1:  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \cong \hat{\mathcal{O}}'/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}'$ 

Consider the homomorphism  $\varphi \colon \hat{\mathcal{O}}' \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  induced by the inclusion  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}' \hookrightarrow \hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .

"(1)"  $\varphi$  is surjective: If  $\mathfrak{p} + (\mathbb{F} \cap \mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}$  then  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} + \mathbb{F} = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and hence  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} + \hat{\mathcal{O}}' = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$  (multiply both sides of first equation with  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ ).

"(2)"  $\ker \varphi = \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}'$ : "\( \tau\)" Clear. "\( \tau\)" We have  $\ker \varphi = \hat{\mathcal{O}}' \cap \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . Use  $\mathfrak{p} + (\mathbb{F} \cap \mathcal{O}) = \mathcal{O}$  and write 1 = p + a with  $p \in \mathfrak{p}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{F} \cap \mathcal{O}$ . For  $x \in \hat{\mathcal{O}}' \cap \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  we have:

$$x = 1 \cdot x = (p+a)x = px + ax \in \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}'.$$

Step 2:  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}'/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}' \cong k[X]/(\overline{f})$ 

Recall that  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}' = \mathcal{O}[\theta] \cong \mathcal{O}[X]/(f)$ . Consider  $\Psi \colon \mathcal{O}[X] \to k[X]/(\overline{f})$ , which is surjective. It holds that  $\ker \Psi = (\mathfrak{p}, f)$  and hence  $\Psi$  induces an isomorphism  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}'/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}' \to k[X]/(\overline{f})$ .

**Step 3:** Consider now  $R = k[X]/(\overline{f})$  and determine  $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$ .

"(1)" Recall the prime decomposition  $\overline{f} = \overline{f}_1^{e_1} \cdots \overline{f}_r^{e_r}$  in k[X] and consider the projection  $k[X] \twoheadrightarrow k[X]/(\overline{f})$ . By Corollary 8.19 we have the correspondence

$$\operatorname{Spec}(R) \leftrightarrow \{\mathfrak{p} \text{ prime ideal in } k[X] \mid \overline{f} \in \mathfrak{p}\}\$$

and hence  $\operatorname{Spec}(R) = \{(\overline{f}_i) \mid i = 1, \dots, r\}.$ 

"(2)" Notice that

$$R/\left(\overline{f}_i\right) = \left(k[X]/(\overline{f})\right)\left(\overline{f}_i\right) \cong k[X]/(\overline{f}_i)$$

is a k-vector space of dimension  $deg(\overline{f_i})$  such that

$$[R/(\overline{f_i}):k] = \deg(\overline{f_i}).$$

"(3)" In R we have

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{r} \left(\overline{f}_i\right)^{e_i} = \left(\overline{f}\right) = 0.$$

Step 4: Use the isomorphism

$$k[X]/(\overline{f}) \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}, g \mapsto g(\theta)$$

and obtain from Step 3 with  $\mathcal{P}_i = (f_i(\theta))$  that:

(i) Spec 
$$(\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}) = \{\mathcal{P}_i \mid i = 1, \dots, r\}$$

(ii) 
$$\left[ \left( \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \right)/\mathcal{P}_i \colon k \right] = \deg(\overline{f_i})$$

(iii) 
$$\bigcap_{i=1}^r \mathcal{P}_i^{e_i} = 0$$

**Step 5:** Take preimages in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  via  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} \to \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and observe that (iii) implies  $\bigcap_{i=1}^r \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i^{e_i} \subset \mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  such that  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  divides  $\bigcap_{i=1}^r \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i^{e_i}$ . Furthermore,

$$[L:K] = n = \deg(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i f_i$$

such that by Theorem 11,  $\mathfrak{p}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \prod_{i=1}^r \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i^{e_i}$ .

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}\mathcal{P} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdot \dots \cdot \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{r}^{e_{r}} \qquad \begin{array}{cccc} \hat{\mathcal{P}} & \subseteq & \hat{\mathcal{O}} & \subseteq & L \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathcal{P} & \subseteq & \mathcal{O} & \subseteq & K \end{array}$$

**Proposition 2.8.23.** There are only finitely many prime ideals  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  which are ramified over  $\mathcal{P} = \hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap \mathcal{O}$ .

Proof. Choose primitive element  $\theta$  of L|K in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ . Let  $f_{\theta} \in \mathcal{O}[X]$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\theta$  and  $d := \operatorname{discr}(f_{\theta}) = \operatorname{discr}(1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1}) = \prod_{i < j} (\theta_i - \theta_j)^2 \in \mathcal{O}$ . Here  $\theta_i, \theta_j$  are the zeroes of  $f_{\theta}$  in the algebraic closure. Claim: If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$  s.t.

- $\mathcal{P}$  is coprime to (d) and
- $\mathcal{P}$  is coprime to  $\mathbb{F} \cap \mathcal{O}$

then  $\mathcal{P}$  is unramified, i.e. all  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  lying above  $\mathcal{P}$  are unramified.

From the claim we obtain that there are only finitely many  $\mathcal{P}$  which allow ramification. Proof of the claim: Write  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}\mathcal{P} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1^{e_1} \cdot \cdots \cdot \hat{\mathcal{P}}_r^{e_r}$ . Consider  $\bar{f}_{\theta} \in \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P}[X]$ . As in Prop. 8.15

$$\bar{f}_{\theta} = \bar{f}_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \bar{f}_r^{e_r} \quad (\star)$$

a prime decomposition. (d) and  $\mathcal{P}$  are coprime  $\Rightarrow \bar{d} = \text{image of } d \text{ in } \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P} \neq 0 \Rightarrow \bar{f}_{\theta}$  has only single zeroes in an algebraic closure of  $\mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P} \stackrel{(\star)}{\Rightarrow} e_1 = \cdots = e_r = 1$ 

#### Definition 2.8.24.

- $\mathcal{P}$  is said to split completly or to be totally split:  $\iff e_i = f_i = 1 \ \forall i \in \underline{r}$ .
- $\mathcal{P}$  is said to be indecomposed, nonsplit or totally ramified:  $\iff r = 1$ .

## 2.9. Hilbert's theorem of ramification

<u>Idea:</u> Consider Galois extensions  $L|K \to \text{life}$  becomes much nicer. Same setting as in 8. Suppose further that L|K normal and consider G = Gal(L|K).

Remark 2.9.1. i)  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  prime ideals in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  with  $\mathcal{P} := \hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap \mathcal{O}$ . For  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$  we have  $\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$  is a prime ideal in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  above  $\mathcal{P}$ .

ii)  $\operatorname{Gal}(L|K)$  acts transitively on the set of prime ideals  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  over  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Proof. i) Recall from Rem 2.1 iii) that 
$$\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{O}}) = \hat{\mathcal{O}}$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$  is again a prime ideal in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ .  
 $\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) \cap \mathcal{O} = \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap \mathcal{O}) = \sigma(\mathcal{P}) = \mathcal{P}$   
 $\Rightarrow \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$  lies above  $\mathcal{P}$ .

ii) follows from i) that we have such an action. Let  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}'$  be prime ideals above  $\mathcal{P} = \hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}' \cap \mathcal{O}$ . Assume that  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}'$  are not in the same G-orbit. Hence  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}'$  and  $\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$  are coprime for each  $\sigma \in G$ .

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{P}}'$$
 is coprime to  $\sigma_1(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) \cdot \ldots \cdot \sigma_n(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$ , where  $G = {\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n}$ .

 $\operatorname{CRT} \Rightarrow \exists x \in \hat{\mathcal{O}} \text{ with } x \equiv 0 \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}' \text{ and } x \equiv 1 \mod \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) \text{ for all } \sigma \in G.$ 

In particular:  $\mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x) = \prod_{\sigma \in G} \sigma(x) \in \hat{\mathcal{P}}' \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{P}$ 

Also:  $\forall \sigma \in G : x \notin \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) \Rightarrow \forall \sigma \in G : \sigma(x) \notin \mathcal{P}$ 

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}_{L|K}(x) = \prod_{\sigma \in G} \hat{\sigma(x)} \notin \hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{P}$$

**Definition 2.9.2.** Let  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  be a prime ideal of  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  above  $\mathcal{P}$ .

- i)  $G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} := \operatorname{Stab}_{G}(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) = \{ \sigma \in G \mid \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) = \hat{\mathcal{P}} \}$  is called <u>decomposition group</u> ("Zerlegungsgruppe")
- ii)  $Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} := \{x \in L \mid \sigma(x) = x \text{ for all } \sigma \in G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}\}$  is called <u>decomposition field</u> ("Zerlegungskörper")

Remark 2.9.3. Let  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0$  be a prime ideal which lies above  $\mathcal{P}$ .

i) 
$$G/G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} := \{ gG_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} \mid g \in G \} \stackrel{\text{1:1}}{\leftrightarrow} \{ \hat{\mathcal{P}} \mid \hat{\mathcal{P}} \text{ lies above } \mathcal{P} \}$$

ii) 
$$G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = \{1\} \iff [G:G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}] = [L:K] = n$$
  $(r = [G:G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}]) \iff Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = L$ 

iii) 
$$G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = G \iff [G:G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}] = 1 \iff \mathcal{P}$$
 is nonsplit  $\iff Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = K$ 

iv) 
$$G_{\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0)} = \sigma \circ G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} \circ \sigma^{-1}$$

*Proof.* Follows from Prop 9.1 + definitions + group actions.

Remark 2.9.4. Suppose  $\mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1^{e_1} \cdot \dots \cdot \hat{\mathcal{P}}_r^{e_r}$  with local degrees  $f_i = [\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i : \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P}]$ Then  $e_1 = \dots = e_r$  and  $f_1 = \dots = f_r$ .

Proof. Prop. 
$$9.1 \Rightarrow \exists \sigma_i \in G \text{ s.t. } \sigma_i(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1) = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$$
  
 $\Rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 \cong \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$ ,  $a \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 \mapsto \sigma_i(a) \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$  as  $k = \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P}$ -vectorspaces  $\Rightarrow f_1 = f_i$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i^k \supseteq \mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}} \iff \hat{\mathcal{P}}_i^k = (\sigma_i(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1))^k \supseteq \mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \sigma_i(\mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}}) \Rightarrow e_i = e_1$ .

Consider the field extensions  $K \subseteq Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \subseteq L$ . We have:

Observe  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} \cap Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$  is the integral closure of  $\mathcal{O}$  in  $Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$ .

**Proposition 2.9.5.** Suppose  $\mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = (\prod_{\sigma} \sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}))^e$  with local degree f.

- i)  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z$  is non-split in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ , i.e.  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  is the only prime ideal above  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z$ .
- ii)  $\hat{P}/\hat{P}_Z$  has ramification index e and local degree f.
- iii)  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z/\mathcal{P}$  has ramification index 1 and local degree 1, i.e.  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z/\mathcal{P}$  is totally split.

*Proof.* i)  $Z_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}} = L^{G_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}} \Rightarrow \operatorname{Gal}(L/Z_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}) = G_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}$ . Now statement follows from 9.3 iii)

ii)+iii) Let  $e' = \text{ramification index of } \hat{\mathcal{P}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z \text{ and } e'' = \text{ramification index of } \hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z/\mathcal{P}$ Let  $f' = \text{local degree of } \hat{\mathcal{P}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z \text{ and } f'' = \text{local degree of } \hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z/\mathcal{P}.$ Hence:  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z\hat{\mathcal{O}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}^{e'} \text{ and } \mathcal{P}(\hat{\mathcal{O}} \cap Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}) = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z^{e''} \cdot \ldots \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}\hat{\mathcal{O}} = (\hat{\mathcal{P}}^{e'})^{e''} \cdot \ldots$  $\Rightarrow e = e' \cdot e''$  (\*).

Also we have for the field extensions

$$\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}} \underbrace{\supseteq}_{f'} \hat{\mathcal{O}} \cap Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z \underbrace{\supseteq}_{f''} \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P}$$

 $\Rightarrow f = f' \cdot f'' \tag{**}.$ 

Thm. 11  $\Rightarrow$  1) For  $L|K: n = [L:K] = e \cdot f \cdot r$  with  $r = [G:G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}] \quad (n = |G|)$ .

2) For  $L|Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}: |G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}| = \frac{n}{r} \stackrel{Thm.11}{=} e' \cdot f' \cdot \underbrace{r'}_{=1(\text{by i})} \stackrel{1)}{=} e \cdot f \Rightarrow e' = e, f' = f \text{ and}$ 

 $e'' = 1 = f'' \Rightarrow \text{Claim}.$ 

**Definition 2.9.6.** In our general setting we call  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) := \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  the <u>residue class field</u> ("Restklassenkörper").

Remark 2.9.7. Prop 9.5 iii)  $\Rightarrow [\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z) : \kappa(\mathcal{P})] = 1$  hence,  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z) = \kappa(\mathcal{P}) = \mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P} =: k$ .

**Proposition 2.9.8.** If  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}/\mathcal{P}$  is non-split, i.e.  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  is the only prime ideal over  $\mathcal{P}$ , then we obtain the following surjective group homomorphism:  $\varphi : G = \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \to \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P}))$ .

*Proof.* Step 1:  $\varphi$  is well-defined:

Since  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}/\mathcal{P}$  is totally split, we have  $\sigma(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) = \hat{\mathcal{P}}$ . Therefore  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K)$  induces an automorphism of  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$ .

Step 2:  $\kappa(\hat{P})/\kappa(P)$  is a normal extension:

Denote  $k := \kappa(\mathcal{P})$  and  $\kappa := \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$ . Consider  $\bar{\theta} \in \kappa$  and let  $\bar{g} \in k[X]$  be its minimal polynomial over k. Have to show that  $\bar{g}$  decomposes into linear factors over  $\kappa$ . Let  $\theta$  be a preimage of  $\bar{\theta}$  in  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$  and  $f \in \mathcal{O}[X]$  its minimal polynomial  $\Rightarrow f(\bar{\theta}) = 0$ . Let  $\bar{f}$  be the image of f in k[X], hence  $\bar{f}(\bar{\theta}) = 0$  and thus  $\bar{g}$  divides  $\bar{f}$ .

Furthermore: L/K is normal  $\Rightarrow f$  decomposes into linear factors overs  $L \Rightarrow$  also over  $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ , since Galois-Automorphisms preserve  $\hat{\mathcal{O}} \Rightarrow \bar{f}$  decomposes into linear factors over  $\kappa = \hat{\mathcal{O}}/\mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \bar{g}$  does so.

Step 3:  $\varphi$  is surjective:

Let 
$$\bar{\sigma} \in \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa/k)$$
. Consider the field extension:  $k \subseteq E \subseteq \kappa$  (\*)

purely inseparable  $\Rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa/E) = \{1\}$ 

with E is the maximal separable field extension.

- $\Rightarrow \exists \bar{\theta} \in E \text{ with } E = k(\bar{\theta}) \text{ and } \theta \in \hat{\mathcal{O}} \text{ a preimage. Let again } \bar{g} \in k[X] \text{ be the minimal}$ polynomial of  $\bar{\theta}$  and  $f, \bar{f}$  as in Step 2.
- $\Rightarrow \bar{\sigma}(\bar{\theta})$  is a zero of  $\bar{g}$ , hence  $(X \bar{\sigma}(\bar{\theta}))$  divides  $\bar{g}$  and hence  $\bar{f}$  since  $\bar{g}$ , f and  $\bar{f}$  decompose into linear factors.
- $\Rightarrow \exists \theta' \in \hat{\mathcal{O}} \text{ with } \theta' \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}} = \bar{\sigma}(\bar{\theta}) \text{ and } \theta' \text{ is a zero of } f \text{ (there is a linear factor } (X \theta')$ of f which is send to the factor  $(X - \bar{\sigma}(\bar{\theta}))$  of  $\bar{f}$
- $\Rightarrow \exists \sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(L/K) \text{ with } \sigma(\theta) = \theta' \text{ and thus } \sigma(\theta) \equiv \theta' \equiv \bar{\sigma}(\bar{\theta}) \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}.$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(\sigma)|_{E} = \bar{\sigma}|_{E} \stackrel{(\star)}{\Rightarrow} \varphi(\sigma) = \bar{\sigma}$$

Remark 2.9.9. Observe that for Step 2 we did not need that  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}/\mathcal{P}$  is non-split. Hence we have in the general situation of this section:

$$L/K$$
 normal  $\Rightarrow \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})$  is normal.

**Proposition 2.9.10.** In general, we obtain the following surjective grouphomom.:

$$G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \to \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})) , \ \sigma \mapsto (a \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}} \mapsto \sigma(a) \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}})$$

*Proof.* Idea: Consider  $K \subseteq Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \subseteq L$ . Remark  $9.7 \Rightarrow \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z) = k := \kappa(\mathcal{P})$ 

Lemma 9.8 
$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\operatorname{Gal}(L/Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}})}_{=G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z))} \Rightarrow \operatorname{Claim}.$$

**Definition 2.9.11** ("Trägheitsgruppe"/"Trägheitskörper"). Let  $\varphi : G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \to \operatorname{Gal}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P}))$ be the surjective group homom. from Prop. 9.10.

- i)  $I_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}} := \ker(\varphi)$  is called inertia group.
- ii)  $T_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}} := \{x \in L \mid \sigma(x) = x \ \forall \sigma \in I_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}} \}$  is called inertia field.

Remark 2.9.12. i) We obtain the following chain of field extensions:

$$K \subseteq Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \subseteq T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \subseteq L$$

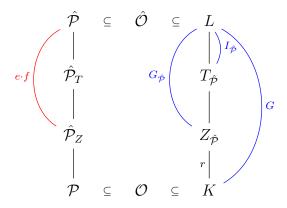
ii) We have the following short exact sequence:

$$1 \to I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \to G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \to \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})) \to 1$$

**Proposition 2.9.13.** In the situation of 9.12 we have:

- i)  $T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}/Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$  is normal and  $\operatorname{Gal}(T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}/Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}) \cong \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P}))$ . Furthermore:  $Gal(L/T_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}) \cong I_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}$ .
- ii) If  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})$  is separable, then:  $\#I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} = [L:T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}] = e$  and  $[G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}:I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}] = [T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}:Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}] = f$

- iii) If  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})$  is separable and  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T := \hat{\mathcal{P}} \cap T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$ , then we have
  - The ramification index of  $\hat{P}$  over  $\hat{P}_T$  is e and the local degree is 1.
  - The ramification index of  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T$  over  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_Z$  is 1 and the local degree is f.



*Proof.* i) •  $I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$  is normal in  $G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$ .

- $\operatorname{Gal}(T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}/Z_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}) \cong G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}/I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} \stackrel{Rem9.12}{\cong} \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P}))$
- $T_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}$  is the fixed field of  $I_{\hat{\mathcal{D}}}$

ii) 
$$\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})$$
 is separable  $\Rightarrow \#\operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\mathcal{P})) = \underbrace{[\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})}_{\hat{\mathcal{O}}/\hat{\mathcal{P}}} : \underbrace{\kappa(\mathcal{P})}_{\mathcal{O}/\mathcal{P}} \stackrel{9.12}{=} \underbrace{\#G_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}}_{e\cdot f} / \#I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} = f$ 

- iii) We will show below hat  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T) = \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$  This implies:
  - local degree of  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T/\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  is 1
  - ramification index of  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T/\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  is e since  $[L/T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}] = \#I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} = e$
  - multiplicativity of e and  $f \Rightarrow \operatorname{rest} \checkmark$

Show that  $\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T) = \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})$ :

Use Lemma  $9.8 \Rightarrow$  Obtain surjective group homomorphism

$$I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}} = \operatorname{Gal}(L/T_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}) \stackrel{\varphi}{\twoheadrightarrow} \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T))$$

By definition of  $I_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}$  the image of this homomorphism is trivial.

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}})/\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T)) = \{1\} \stackrel{\text{normal+separable}}{\Longrightarrow} [\kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}) : \kappa(\hat{\mathcal{P}}_T)] = 1.$$

## 2.10. Cyclotomic Fields

In this section, we have

•  $\zeta = \zeta_n$  =primitive n-th root of unity

- $L = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$
- $\mathcal{O} = \text{ring of integers in } L$
- $d = \varphi(n) = [L : \mathbb{Q}].$

#### GOAL:

- (1) Show, that  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$
- (2) Describe the prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}$

**Lemma 2.10.1.** Suppose  $n = l^k$  with l prime and hence  $d = \varphi(n) = l^k - l^{k-1} = l^{k-1}(l-1)$ .

- (i) The minimal polynomial  $\phi(X)$  of  $\zeta$  is  $\phi(X) = X^{(l-1)l^{k-1}} + X^{(l-2)l^{k-1}} + \cdots + X^{l^{k-1}} + 1$ .
- (ii) We have  $l = \prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} (1 \zeta^g)$ .
- (iii)  $1 \zeta^g = \epsilon_q (1 \zeta)$  with  $\epsilon_q \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  for  $g \not\equiv 0 \mod l$ .
- (iv)  $l = \epsilon (1 \zeta)^d$  with  $\epsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ .
- (v)  $\mathcal{N}_{L^{\mid \mathbb{O}}}(1-\zeta)=l$ .

Proof. (i)

$$\phi(x) = \prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} (X - \zeta^g) = \frac{\prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})} (X - \zeta^g)}{\prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/l^{k-1}\mathbb{Z})} (X - \zeta^{gl})} = \frac{X^{l^k} - 1}{X^{l^{k-1}} - 1}$$
$$= X^{(l-1)l^{k-1}} + X^{(l-2)l^{k-1}} + \dots + X^{l^{k-1}} + 1$$

- (ii) Follows from (i) with X = 1.
- (iii) Observe

$$\epsilon_g := \frac{1 - \zeta^g}{1 - \zeta} = 1 + \zeta + \dots + \zeta^{g-1} \in \mathcal{O}$$

and

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_q} = \frac{1 - \zeta}{1 - \zeta^g}$$

Since  $g \not\equiv 0 \mod l$ , we can choose some  $g' \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $gg' \equiv 1 \mod l^k$ . Hence

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_a} = \frac{1 - \zeta^{gg'}}{1 - \zeta^g} = 1 + \zeta^g + \dots + (\zeta^g)^{g'-1} \in \mathcal{O}.$$

(iv) Follows from (ii) and (iii) with  $\epsilon := \prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} \epsilon_g$ .

(v) Follows from (ii).

**Proposition 2.10.2.** Suppose again that  $n = l^k$  with l prime. Set  $\lambda := 1 - \zeta$ . Then

- (i)  $\Pi := (\lambda)$  is a prime ideal of local degree 1.
- (ii)  $l \cdot \mathcal{O} = \Pi^d$ . In particular,  $l\mathcal{O}$  is non-split.

*Proof.* 10.1 (iv)  $\Rightarrow l\mathcal{O} = (\lambda)^d$ . Let  $l\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdot \cdots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$  be the decomposition into prime ideals. By Theorem 11,  $d = e_1 f_1 + \cdots + e_r f_r$ , where  $f_i = \text{local degree of } \mathfrak{p}_i$ , hence the above is already the prime decomposition and the local degree is 1.

Remark 2.10.3. 10.1 and 10.2 generalize Lemma I.25.

**Proposition 2.10.4.** Let  $n = l^k$ , l prime. The basis  $1, \zeta, \zeta^2, \ldots, \zeta^{d-1}$  of  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)|\mathbb{Q}$  has the discriminant  $d(1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{d-1}) = (-1)^a l^s$  with  $s = l^{k-1}(kl - k - 1)$  and  $a \in \{0, 1\}$ .

*Proof.* Step 1: Show  $d(1, \ldots, \zeta^{d-1}) = \pm \mathcal{N}(\phi'(\zeta))$ . Let  $\zeta = \overline{\zeta_1, \zeta_2, \ldots, \zeta_d}$  be the conjugates of  $\zeta$ .

Remark 
$$2.4 \Rightarrow d(1, \dots \zeta^{d-1}) = d(\phi) = \prod_{\substack{1 \le i < j \le d}} (\zeta_i - \zeta_j) = \pm \prod_{\substack{i,j=1 \ i \ne j}}^d (\zeta_i - \zeta_j).$$

Observe

$$\phi(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} (X - \zeta_i) \Rightarrow \phi'(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{d} \prod_{\substack{i=1\\i \neq m}}^{d} (X - \zeta_i)$$

and therefore

$$\phi'(\zeta_j) = \prod_{\substack{i=1\\i\neq j}}^d (\zeta_j - \zeta_i).$$

Hence we have  $d(1, \ldots \zeta^{d-1}) = \pm \prod_{j=1}^d \phi'(\zeta_j) = \pm \mathcal{N}(\phi'(\zeta)).$ 

Step 2: Calculate  $\mathcal{N}(\phi'(\zeta))$  partially.

Observe:  $(X^{l^{k-1}}-1)\phi(X)=X^{l^k}-1$ . Differentiating yields  $(X^{l^{k-1}}-1)\phi'(X)+\phi(X)(\ldots)=l^kX^{l^k-1}$ . Plugging in  $X=\zeta$  gives  $(\zeta^{l^{k-1}}-1)\phi'(\zeta)=l^k\zeta^{l^k-1}=l^k\zeta^{-1}$ . Set  $\xi:=\zeta^{l^{k-1}}$ . Then  $\xi$  is a root of unity of order l and we have  $\mathcal{N}(\phi'(\zeta))=\frac{(l^k)^d}{\mathcal{N}(\xi-1)}$ .

Step 3: Calculate  $\mathcal{N}(\xi - 1)$ .

Lemma 
$$10.1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{Q}(\xi)|\mathbb{Q}}(\xi - 1) = l$$
. Hence  $\mathcal{N}_{L|\mathbb{Q}}(\xi - 1) = \left(\mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{Q}(\xi)|\mathbb{Q}}(\xi - 1)\right)^{l^{k-1}} = l^{l^{k-1}}$ . Now combining all 3 steps yields:  $d(1, \dots, \zeta^{d-1}) = \pm \frac{l^{k^d}}{l^{l^{k-1}}} = \pm l^s$ .

**Proposition 2.10.5.** Let n be some natural number. Then  $1, \zeta, \ldots \zeta^{d-1}$  is an integral basis of  $\mathcal{O}$ .

*Proof.* Step 1: Show the claim for  $n = l^k$  with l prime.

- (1) Proposition  $2.7 \Rightarrow \pm l^s = d(1, \dots, \zeta^{d-1}) \Rightarrow l^s \cdot \mathcal{O} \subset \mathbb{Z} + \dots + \mathbb{Z}\zeta^{d-1} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] \subset \mathcal{O}.$
- (2) Consider  $\lambda := (1 \zeta)$ . Proposition 10.2  $\Rightarrow$  local degree of  $(\lambda)$  is  $1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}/(\lambda) = \mathbb{Z}/(l)$   $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z} + \lambda \mathcal{O}$  (every element of  $\mathcal{O} \mod (\lambda)$  has an representant in  $\mathbb{Z}$ )  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + \lambda \mathcal{O}$  (\*).

Multiplying with  $\lambda$  yields  $\lambda \mathcal{O} = \lambda \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + \lambda^2 \mathcal{O} \stackrel{(*)}{\Rightarrow} \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + \lambda^2 \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow \dots$  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + \lambda^t \mathcal{O} \ \forall t \geq 1.$ 

(3) Plug in  $t = s\varphi(l^k)$  and by Proposition 10.2  $l\mathcal{O} = \lambda^{\varphi(l^k)}\mathcal{O}$ :  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + \lambda^{s\varphi(l^k)}\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] + l^s\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

Step 2: Generalize to arbitrary  $n = l_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot l_r^{k_r}$ .

Consider  $\zeta_i := \zeta^{n_i}$  with  $n_i := \frac{n}{l_i^{k_i}}$ , a primitive  $l_i^{k_i}$ -th root of unity. Then  $\operatorname{ord}(\zeta_1), \ldots, \operatorname{ord}(\zeta_r)$  are relatively prime. Hence:

- (1)  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_r)$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{i-1}) \cap \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_i) = \mathbb{Q}.$
- (3) Apply Proposition 2.13 to  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_r)$  successively. We obtain, that

$$\{\zeta_1^{j_1}, \dots, \zeta_r^{j_r} \mid 0 \le j_i \le d_i - 1\}$$

with  $d_i = \varphi(l_i^{k_i})$  is an integral basis of  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_r) = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ . Hence  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta] = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\zeta + \dots + \mathbb{Z}\zeta^{d-1}$ , since all  $\zeta_i$ 's are powers of  $\zeta$ .

**Lemma 2.10.6.** Let p be a prime which does not divide n. Then we have in  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ :

$$p\mathcal{O} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot \hat{\mathcal{P}}_r$$

with  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$  different prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}$  and the local degree of each  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$  is  $f = \min(\{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid p^k \equiv 1 \mod n\}).$ 

*Proof.* Idea: Use Proposition 8.15.

Observe: Since  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ , Proposition 8.15 can be applied to all prime ideals of  $\mathcal{O}$ .

- Consider  $f(X) = \phi_n(X)$ .
- Take the image  $h(X) := f(X) \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$  and decompose it as  $h(X) = h_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot h_r^{e_r}$  into irreducible factors over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Then we have:  $p\mathcal{O} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$  with prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  of local degree  $f_i := \deg h_i$ .

Step 1: Show  $e_1 = \cdots = e_r = 1$ .

Consider  $q(X) := X^n - 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$ . Since  $p \not| n, q'(X) = nX^{n-1}$  and q have no common zeroes in  $\mathbb{F}_p \Rightarrow q(X)$  has no multiple zeroes in  $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p \Rightarrow$  The same must be true for  $h(x) \Rightarrow e_1 = \cdots = e_r = 1$ .

Step 2: Show:  $f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_r = k_0 := \min\{k \mid p^k \equiv 1 \mod n\}$ 

Recall:  $f(X) = \phi_n(X), h(X) := \text{image in } \mathbb{F}_p[X] = h_1^{l_1}(X) \cdot \ldots \cdot h_r^{l_r}(X)$ 

Consider the field  $L := \mathbb{F}_{p^{k_0}}$  with  $p^{k_0}$  elements as field extension of  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Write  $p^{k_0} - 1 = nw$  with  $w \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Observe:  $L^{\times} = \langle a \rangle$  with  $\operatorname{ord}(a) = nw \Rightarrow \bar{\zeta} = a^w$  is a primitive *n*-th root of unity and *h* decomposes into linear factors over *L*.

Furthermore:  $L = \mathbb{F}_p(\bar{\zeta})$  by minimality of  $k_0$ , since  $\#\mathbb{F}_p[\bar{\zeta}] = p^M$  for some M and  $\operatorname{ord}(\bar{\zeta}) = n$  divides  $p^M - 1 \Rightarrow k_0 = M$ .

Let  $\bar{f}_1(X)$  be the minimal polynomial of  $\bar{\zeta}$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p \Rightarrow$ 

- $\bar{f}_1$  is an irreducible divisor of  $h(X) \Rightarrow$ w.l.o.g. $\bar{f}_1 = h_1$
- $f_1 = \deg(h_1) = \deg(\bar{f}_1) = [L : \mathbb{F}_p] = k_0 \Rightarrow f_1 = k_0$

**Proposition 2.10.7** (CHARACTERISATION OF PRIME IDEALS). Let  $n = p_1^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{k_r}$  be the prime decomposition of n and p some arbitrary prime number.

Then  $p\mathcal{O} = (\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 \cdots \hat{\mathcal{P}}_r)^{e_p}$  with  $e_p = \varphi(p^{k_p})$  is the factorisation into prime ideals and each prime ideal  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_i$  is of local degree  $f_p := \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid p^k \equiv 1 \mod \frac{n}{n^{k_p}}\}$ 

*Proof.* Again: Use Prop. 8.15 which applies to <u>all</u> prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}$ 

 $\Rightarrow \phi_n(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  min. polynomial of  $\zeta \Rightarrow \bar{\phi}_n(X) \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$  image in  $\mathbb{F}_p[X]$ .

Denote  $n = mp^a$  with gcd(p, m) = 1, i.e.  $a = k_p$ .

Remember  $U_m^{\times} = \{ \text{primitive } m - th \text{ roots of unity } \} \cong ((\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^{\times}, \cdot) \quad (\zeta^k \leftrightarrow k).$ 

Use the isomorphism:

$$\Rightarrow \phi_n(X) = \prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} (X - \zeta^g) = \prod_{\substack{\xi \in U_m^{\times}, \\ \eta \in U_{p^a}^{\times}}} (X - \xi \eta)$$

Step 1: Show that  $\phi_n(X) \equiv \phi_m(X)^{\varphi(p^a)} \mod p$ 

(1) Observe:  $X^{p^a} - 1 \equiv (X - 1)^{p^a} \mod p$ . For prime ideal  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  over (p):

$$X^{p^a} - 1 \equiv (X - 1)^{p^a} \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}$$

Let  $\eta_1, \ldots, \eta_{\varphi(p^a)}$  be the primitve  $p^a$ -th roots of unity.  $0 = \eta_j^{p^a} - 1 \equiv (\eta_j - 1)^{p^a} \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}} \Rightarrow \eta_j \equiv 1 \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}.$ 

$$\phi_n(X) = \prod_{\substack{\xi \in U_m^{\times}, \\ \eta \in U_{p^a}^{\times}}} (X - \xi \eta) = \prod_{g \in (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^{\times}} (X - \xi)^{\varphi(p^a)} = \phi_m^{\varphi(p^a)} \mod \hat{\mathcal{P}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \phi_n(X) \equiv \phi_m(X)^{\varphi(p^a)} \mod p$$

#### Step 2: Use Lemma 10.5:

Proof of Lemma 10.5  $\Rightarrow$  exponents of  $\phi_m(X) \mod p$  are all 1  $\Rightarrow$  all exponents of  $\phi_n(X) \mod p$  are  $\varphi(p^a)$ . The local degree of the prime factors are by Lemma 10.5  $f = \min\{k \in \mathbb{N} \mid p^k \equiv 1 \mod \underbrace{m}_{=n/p^a}\}$ .

Corollary 2.10.8. i) p is ramified in  $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta) \iff n \equiv 0 \mod p$  and we have  $\underline{not}$   $p = 2 = \gcd(4, n)$ .

ii)  $p \neq 2$ . Then p is totally split  $\iff p \equiv 1 \mod n$ .

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{Proof.} & \text{i) Prop. } 10.6 \Rightarrow p \text{ is unramified} \iff e = 1 \stackrel{\textit{Prop10.6}}{\iff} \varphi(p^{k_p}) = 1 \iff k_p = 0 \text{ or } \\ p^{k_p} - p^{k_p-1} = p^{k_p-1}(p-1) = 1 \iff k_p = 0 \text{ or } (p=2 \text{ and } 2 = \gcd(4,n)). \end{array}$ 

ii) 
$$p \neq 2 : e = 1 \iff k_p = 0 \iff p \not | n$$
  
 $f = 1 \iff \min\{k \mid p^k \equiv 1 \mod \frac{n}{p^k}\} = 1 \iff p \equiv 1 \mod n.$ 

Remark 2.10.9. We have now in particular proved I.2.2.

# Fermat's theorem for regular primes

## 3.1. The proof using a lemma of Kummer

Setting: K-number field,  $\mathcal{O} = \text{ring of integers}$ Recall:  $\mathcal{J}_K := \text{group of fractional ideals}$ ,  $\mathcal{P}_K = \text{subgroup of principal ideals}$ ,  $\operatorname{Cl}_K = \mathcal{J}_K/\mathcal{P}_K$ ,  $h_K = \#\operatorname{Cl}_K$ 

**Definition 3.1.1.** A prime  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  is  $\underline{\text{regular}} : \iff h_K$  is not divisible by p where  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$ .

Remark 3.1.2. Suppose p regular. Then we have for each ideal I in  $\mathcal{O} = \text{ring of integers}$  in K:

If  $I^p$  is a principal ideal, then I is a principal ideal.

*Proof.*  $p \nmid h_K \Rightarrow \text{No element of } Cl_K \text{ has order } p.$ 

Recall: (Lemma I.2.11)  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, \gcd(x, y) = 1, x + y \not\equiv 0 \mod p$  $\Rightarrow x + \zeta^i y$  and  $x + \zeta^j y$  are coprime, if  $i \not\equiv j \mod p$ .

**Theorem 12.** If p is a regular prime, then Fermat's theorem holds, i.e.

$$x^p + y^p = z^p \text{ in } \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow xyz = 0.$$

Recall:

(1) 
$$x^p + y^p = (x + y)(x + \zeta y) \cdot \dots \cdot (x + \zeta^{p-1} y)$$
 in  $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

- (2)  $\lambda = 1 \zeta$  is prime in  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$
- (3)  $1 \zeta \sim 1 \zeta^g$  for all  $g \not\equiv 0 \mod p$

**Lemma 3.1.3.** Suppose that  $x, y \in \mathcal{O}$  with x, y are coprime and p does not divide y. Then we have: either the ideals  $(x + \zeta^i y)$  (with  $i \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ ) are relatively prime or they all have  $(1 - \zeta)$  as a common factor and the ideals  $(\frac{x + \zeta \cdot y}{1 - \zeta})$  (with  $i \in \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ ) are relatively prime.

*Proof.* Use from the proof of Lemma I.2.11: Let  $0 \le j < i \le p-1$ .  $A := (x + \zeta \cdot y, x + \zeta^j \cdot y) \Rightarrow$ 

$$(1) \ (1-\zeta) \cdot y \in A$$

- (2)  $(1-\zeta)\cdot x\in A$
- (3)  $1 \zeta \in A$  and thus  $p \in A$
- $(4) x + y \in A$

Suppose q is a prime ideal with  $q|(x+\zeta^i\cdot y)$  and  $q|(x+\zeta^j\cdot y)$ .

Hence  $q \supseteq A \stackrel{(3)}{\ni} 1 - \zeta \stackrel{\text{1-}\zeta \text{ prime}}{\Longrightarrow} q = (1 - \zeta).$ 

Hence  $q = (1 - \zeta)$  is the only prime ideal which possibly divides  $(x + \zeta^i \cdot y), (x + \zeta^j \cdot y)$ .

Show: If  $q = (1 - \zeta)$  divides  $(x + \zeta^i \cdot y)$ , then it divides  $(x + \zeta^{i+1} \cdot y)$ .

This follows from the following calculation:  $x + \zeta^{i+1} \cdot y = x + \zeta^i \cdot y + \zeta^i(\zeta - 1) \cdot y$ 

Finally show: If  $(1 - \zeta)$  divides  $x + \zeta^i \cdot y$ , then the  $(\frac{x + \zeta^i \cdot y}{1 - \zeta})$  and  $(\frac{x + \zeta^j \cdot y}{1 - \zeta})$  are coprime for  $0 \le j < i \le p - 1$ .

Recall:  $p \not| y \Rightarrow 1 - \zeta \not| y$ 

Proof:  $x + \zeta^i \cdot y - (x + \zeta^j \cdot y) = \zeta^j \cdot y \underbrace{(\zeta^{i-j} - 1)}_{\sim (\zeta - 1)} \Rightarrow \frac{x + \zeta^i \cdot y}{1 - \zeta} - \frac{x + \zeta^h \cdot y}{1 - \zeta} \sim y.$ 

But  $(1 - \zeta) / y \Rightarrow \text{Claim}$ .

**Proposition 3.1.4** ("First Case"). Suppose p is a regular prime with  $p \geq 5$  such that  $x^p + y^p = z^p$  and  $p \nmid xyz$  with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then xyz = 0.

*Proof.* Without loss of generality we may assume that x, y, z are coprime. Proceed as in the proof of Theorem 1:

- $z^p = x^p + y^p = (x+y)(x+\zeta y)\cdots(x+\zeta^{p-1}y)$
- Since  $p \not\mid z$  we have  $x + y \equiv x^p + y^p = z^p \equiv z \not\equiv 0 \mod p$  by little Fermat's theorem such that  $p \not\mid x + y$ .
- Lemma 2.11 implies that  $(x+y), (x+\zeta y), \ldots, (x+\zeta^{p-1}y)$  are pairwise coprime such that the first bullet point together with the regularity of p and Remark 1.2 yields  $(x+\zeta^i y)=(\alpha_i)^p$  for some  $\alpha_i\in\mathcal{O}$ . Thus  $x+\zeta^i y=\varepsilon_i\alpha_i^p$  with  $\varepsilon_i\in\mathcal{O}^\times$ .

Now continue as in the proof of Theorem 1.

Recall (Example 1.2.8). If  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$  then  $\alpha = a_0 + a_1\zeta + \cdots + a_{p-2}\zeta^{p-2}$  such that

$$\alpha^p \equiv \underbrace{a_0^p + a_1^p + \dots + a_{p-2}^p}_{=a \in \mathbb{Z}} \mod p.$$

**Lemma 3.1.5** (Kummer's Lemma II). Suppose p is a regular prime. If  $u \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  such that  $u \equiv a \mod p$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  then there is an  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  such that  $u = \alpha^p$ .

The proof is hard and needs more theory.

Remark 3.1.6.  $1, 1 - \zeta, \dots, (1 - \zeta)^{p-2}$  is an integral basis of  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ .

*Proof.*  $1, \zeta, \ldots, \zeta^{p-2}$  is an integral basis by Proposition 2.10.4. Furthermore,

$$\zeta^{i} = (1 - (1 - \zeta))^{i} = \sum_{k=0}^{i} {k \choose i} (-1)^{i-k} (1 - \zeta)^{i-k}$$

and  $1-\zeta$  has minimal polynomial of degree lesser equal than p-1.

**Lemma 3.1.7.** If  $\alpha \in \mathcal{O} \setminus (1 - \zeta)$  then there exist  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$  such that

$$\zeta^l \alpha \equiv a \mod (1 - \zeta)^2$$
.

*Proof.* We do the proof in multiple steps:

(1) Since  $1, 1 - \zeta, \dots, (1 - \zeta)^{p-2}$  is an integral basis of  $\mathcal{O}$  we have

$$\alpha \equiv a_0 1 + a_1 (1 - \zeta) \mod (1 - \zeta)^2$$

with  $a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- (2) Since  $1 \zeta \not | \alpha$  we have  $1 \zeta \not | a_0$  such that  $p \not | a_0$  and hence there is  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a_0 l \equiv a_1 \mod p$ .
- (3) Since  $\zeta = 1 (1 \zeta)$  we have

$$\zeta^l \equiv 1 - l(1 - \zeta) \mod (1 - \zeta)^2$$
.

(4) By (1), (2) and (3) we conclude

$$\zeta^{l} \alpha \equiv (1 - l(1 - \zeta)) (a_0 + a_1(1 - \zeta))$$

$$\equiv a_0 + (a_1 - la_0) (1 - \zeta)$$

$$\equiv a_0 \mod (1 - \zeta)^2.$$

**Proposition 3.1.8** ("Second case"). Suppose p is a regular prime with  $p \ge 5$  such that  $x^p + y^p = z^p$  and  $p \mid xyz$  with  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then xyz = 0.

*Proof.* Without loss of generality x, y, z are pairwise coprime. By changing the role of x, y and z and possibly replacing x by -x, y by -y and z by -z we can furthermore assume that p|z,  $p \not|x$  and  $p \not|y$ . Then, by 2.10.1,

$$z = p^m z_0 = \varepsilon (1 - \zeta)^{(p-1)m} z_0$$

with  $z_0 \in \mathbb{Z}, m \geq 1$ ,  $\gcd(z_0, p) = 1$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  such that

$$x^{p} + y^{p} = \varepsilon^{p} (1 - \zeta)^{(p-1)mp} z_{0}^{p}.$$

By assumption:

- x, y and  $z_0$  are pairwise coprime since x, y and z are pairwise coprime.
- $1 \zeta$  and  $z_0$  are coprime since p and z are coprime.
- x and  $1-\zeta$  are coprime since  $p \not| x$ . The same holds for y and  $1-\zeta$ .

Hence the following Lemma 1.9 yields  $xyz_0 = 0$  such that xyz = 0 as claimed.

**Lemma 3.1.9.** Suppose p is a regular prime with  $p \geq 5$ ,  $x, y, z_0 \in \mathcal{O}$ ,  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  and  $x, y, z_0, 1 - \zeta$  are pairwise coprime. If  $x^p + y^p = \varepsilon(1 - \zeta)^{kp} z_0^p$  with  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $xyz_0 = 0$ .

*Proof.* Assume that there are  $x, y, z_0$  as in the lemma with  $xyz_0 \neq 0$ . We may assume that k is minimal.

"Step 1:" Show that  $(1 - \zeta)^2 | x + y$ .

(1) By assumption we have

$$\varepsilon(1-\zeta)^{kp}z_0^p = (x+y)(x+\zeta y)\cdots(x+\zeta^{p-1}y) \tag{*}$$

such that, since  $1-\zeta$  is prime, there is  $i \in \{0, \ldots, p-1\}$  with  $1-\zeta|x+\zeta^i y$ . Hence  $1-\zeta$  divides all  $x+\zeta^i y$  by Lemma 1.3, in particular x+y.

(2) By Lemma 1.7 there are  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $l, j \in \mathbb{N}_0$  such that

$$\zeta^l x \equiv a \mod (1 - \zeta)^2$$
 and  $\zeta^j y \equiv b \mod (1 - \zeta)^2$ .

- (3) We may replace x by  $x\zeta^l$  and y by  $y\zeta^j$  and thus can assume that  $x \equiv a, y \equiv b \mod (1-\zeta)^2$  with  $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- (4)  $1 \zeta | x + y$  implies  $1 \zeta | a + b$  such that  $(1 \zeta)^{p-1} | a + b$  (since  $a + b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have also p | a + b) and hence  $(1 \zeta)^2 | x + y$ . In particular,  $k \ge 2$ .

"Step 2:" Show that  $(1 - \zeta)^{(k-1)p+1}|x + y$ .

Since the quotients  $\frac{x+\zeta^i y}{1-\zeta}$  are pairwise coprime, all "extra powers" of  $1-\zeta$  have to divide x+y. Thus,

$$(1-\zeta)^{kp-(p-1)}|x+y.$$

Furthermore:

$$1-\zeta \not | \frac{x+y}{(1-\zeta)^{kp-(p-1)}}$$

"Step 3:" Show that  $\frac{x+\zeta^i y}{1-\zeta}$  is associated to a *p*-power. From (\*) we obtain

$$((1-\zeta)^{k-1}z_0)^p = \prod_{i=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{x+\zeta^i y}{1-\zeta}\right).$$

Since the ideals on the right side are pairwise coprime,  $\left(\frac{x+\zeta^i y}{1-\zeta}\right)$  is a *p*-th power. Thus Remark 1.2 yields

$$\frac{x + \zeta^i y}{1 - \zeta} = \varepsilon_i \alpha_i^p$$

with  $\alpha_i \in \mathcal{O}$  and  $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$ . Furthermore, the  $\alpha_i$  are pairwise coprime.

"Step 4:" Find  $\varepsilon', \eta \in \mathcal{O}^{\times}$  and  $\beta \in \mathcal{O}$  with  $\varepsilon'(1-\zeta)^{(k-1)p}\beta^p = -\alpha_1^p + \eta \alpha_{-1}^p$ . By Step 2,  $(1-\zeta)^{k-1}$  divides  $\alpha_0$ . More precisely,  $\alpha_0 = (1-\zeta)^{k-1}\beta$  with  $\beta \in \mathcal{O}$  and  $1-\zeta, \beta$  coprime. Do some ugly calculation:

$$y = \frac{x + y - (x + \zeta y)}{1 - \zeta} = \varepsilon_0 \alpha_0^p - \varepsilon_1 \alpha_1^p = \varepsilon_0 (1 - \zeta)^{(k-1)p} \beta^p - \varepsilon_1 \alpha_1^p$$
(A)

$$y = \frac{(x + \zeta^{-1}y) - (x + y)}{\zeta^{-1}(1 - \zeta)} = \zeta \varepsilon_{-1}\alpha_{-1}^p - \zeta \varepsilon_0 \alpha_0^p = \zeta \varepsilon_{-1}\alpha_{-1}^p - \zeta \varepsilon_0 (1 - \zeta)^{(k-1)p}\beta^p$$
 (B)

Then (B) - (A) yields

$$0 = \zeta \varepsilon_{-1} \alpha_{-1}^p + \varepsilon_1 \alpha_1^p + \varepsilon_0 (1 - \zeta)^{p(k-1)} \beta^p (-\zeta - 1).$$

Now define

$$\varepsilon' = \frac{(1+\zeta)\varepsilon_0}{-\varepsilon_1}$$
 and  $\eta = \frac{\zeta\varepsilon_{-1}}{-\varepsilon_1}$ 

to obtain

$$\varepsilon'(1-\zeta)^{p(k-1)}\beta^p = \eta \alpha_{-1}^p - \alpha_1^p. \tag{**}$$

"Step 5:" Show that  $\eta$  is a p-th power.

By (\*\*) we have  $0 \equiv \eta \alpha_{-1}^p - \alpha_1^p \mod p$  such that Example 1.2.8 ascertains the existence of  $a_{-1}, a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a_{-1}^p \equiv a_1, \alpha_1^p \equiv a_1 \mod p$ .

"Step 6:" Find a smaller solution to  $(\star)$ :

$$x' := \alpha_{-1}, y' := v\eta_1, z_0 := \beta.$$

With  $(\star\star)$ :  $\varepsilon'(1-\zeta)^{p(k-1)}\cdot z_0^p=y'^p+x'^p$  is a smaller solution, a contradiction.

## 4. Geometric aspects

### 4.1. Localisation

Recall: Here all rings are commutative with 1.

Reminder 4.1.1. (i) Let R be a ring and  $S \subseteq R \setminus \{0\}$  be a multiplicative system, i.e.

- (1)  $a, b \in S \Rightarrow a \cdot b \in S$  and
- $(2) 1 \in S.$

$$R\cdot S^{-1}:=\{(a,s)\mid a\in R, s\in S\}/\sim$$

with  $(a, s) \sim (a', s')$  if there is  $t \in S : t(as' - a's) = 0$ .

Denote  $\frac{a}{s} := [(a, s)] / \sim$  equivalence class of (a, s).

 $RS^{-1}$  becomes a ring with

$$\frac{a_1}{s_1} + \frac{a_2}{s_2} = \frac{a_1 s_2 + a_2 s_1}{s_1 s_2},$$
$$\frac{a_1}{s_1} \cdot \frac{a_2}{s_2} = \frac{a_1 a_2}{s_1 s_2}$$

 $RS^{-1}$  is called localisation of R by S.

(ii) The map

$$j_S: R \to RS^{-1} , r \mapsto \frac{r}{1}$$

is a ring homomorphism with  $j_S(S) \subseteq (RS^{-1})^{\times}$ .  $\ker(j_S) = \{r \in R \mid \exists a \in S \text{ with } ar = 0\}$ . In particular: R is an integral domain  $\Rightarrow j_S$  is an embedding an  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{a'}{b'}$  is equivalent to ab' = a'b.

Furthermore: R is an integral domain  $\Rightarrow RS^{-1} \subseteq \text{Quot}(R)$ ,  $\frac{a}{b} \mapsto \frac{a}{b}$ .

(iii) Localisation has the following universal property:  $f: R \mapsto R'$  a ring homomorphism with  $f(S) \subseteq (R')^{\times}$  then there exists a unique ringhomomorphism  $g: RS^{-1} \to R'$  with  $f = g \circ j_S$ 

$$R \xrightarrow{j_S} RS^{-1}$$

$$R \xrightarrow{f} \exists !g$$

Example 4.1.2. (i) R integral domain,  $S = R \setminus 0 \Rightarrow RS^{-1} = \text{Quot}(R)$ 

(ii) p prime ideal in  $R, S := R \setminus p \Rightarrow R_p := RS^{-1}$ .

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**Proposition 4.1.3** (Description of prime ideals in localisations). We have the following bijection:

$$\{p \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid p \subseteq R \setminus S\} \leftrightarrow \{q \in \operatorname{Spec}(RS^{-1})\}$$
$$\phi : p \mapsto pS^{-1} = \{\frac{a}{s} \mid a \in p, s \in S\}$$
$$j_S^{-1}(q) \leftrightarrow q : \psi$$

Proof. (1) 
$$\frac{a}{s} = \frac{a'}{s'}$$
, then  $a \in p \iff a' \in P$ :  
Suppose  $a \in p, a' \in R, s, s' \in S$  and  $\frac{a}{s} = \frac{a'}{s'} \Rightarrow \exists t \in S : \underbrace{t}_{\not\in p} (as' - a's) = 0 \in p$   
So  $as' - a's \in p$ , hence  $a's \in p$  and  $a' \in p$ .

- (2)  $\phi$  is well defined, i.e.  $pS^{-1}$  is a prime ideal: clear.
- (3)  $\psi$  is well-defined by Prop. II.8.16.

(4) 
$$\psi \circ \phi(p) = j_S^{-1}(pS^{-1}) = p$$
:  
 $r \in j_S^{-1}(pS^{-1}) \iff j_S(r) \in pS^{-1} \iff \frac{r}{1} \in pS^{-1} \iff r \in p$ 

(5) 
$$\phi \circ \psi(q) = \psi(j_S^{-1}(q)) = j_S^{-1}(q)S^{-1} = q :$$
  
 $\frac{r}{s} \in j_S^{-1}(q)S^{-1} \iff r \in j_S^{-1}(q) \iff j_S(r) \in q \iff \frac{r}{1} \in q \iff \frac{r}{s} \in q$ 

**Definition 4.1.4** (and Prop., lokaler Ring). A ring is a  $\underline{local\ ring}$  if R has one of the following equivalent properties:

- (i) R has a unique maximal ideal m.
- (ii)  $R \setminus R^{\times}$  is an ideal.
- (iii)  $\forall x \in R : x \in R^{\times} \text{ or } 1 x \in R^{\times}.$

In particular we have: If R is a local ring then  $m = R \setminus R^{\times}$  is the unique maximal ideal of R.

*Proof.*  $(i) \Rightarrow (ii)$ : Show that  $R = R^{\times} \dot{\cup} m$ :

- (1)  $R = R^{\times} \cup m : a \in R \setminus m$ . Hence (a) is not contained in m. So (a) = R and hence  $a \in R^{\times}$ .
- (2)  $R^{\times} \cap m = \emptyset : a \in R^{\times}$ , so  $a \notin m$  since  $m \neq R = (a)$ . It follows that  $m = R \setminus R^{\times}$  and thus  $R \setminus R^{\times}$  is an ideal.
- $(ii) \Rightarrow (iii)$ : Suppose x and  $1 x \in R \setminus R^{\times}$ . Hence  $1 = x + (1 x) \in R \setminus R^{\times}E$ .
- $(iii) \Rightarrow (i)$ : Suppose that m and m' are two different maximal ideals. Let  $a \in m' \setminus m$ . Since m is maximal we have  $(m, a) = R \Rightarrow \exists b \in m, r \in R$  with 1 = b + ra. We know  $ra \in m'$ , hence  $ra \notin R^{\times}$  and by assumption  $(iii) \Rightarrow b = 1 ra \in R^{\times}E$  to  $b \in m$ .

**Proposition 4.1.5** (localisations by prime ideals are local). Let R be a ring and  $p \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ . Then  $R_p$  is a local ring with maximal ideal  $pS^{-1}$  where  $S = R \setminus p$ .

*Proof.* We show that  $R_p = R_p^{\times} \dot{\cup} pS^{-1}$ . Hence  $R_p \setminus R_p^{\times} = pS^{-1}$  is an ideal. Thus  $R_p$  is a local ring.

- (1)  $R_p = pS^{-1} \cup Rp^{\times}$ : Let  $a \in R, s \in S = R \setminus p$ . Suppose  $\frac{a}{s} \notin pS^{-1}$ , i.e  $a \notin p$ . So  $\frac{s}{a} \in R_p$  and  $\frac{a}{s} \frac{s}{a} = 1$ Hence  $\frac{a}{s} \in R_p^{\times}$ .
- (2)  $pS^{-1} \cap R_p^{\times} = \emptyset$ : Suppose that  $\frac{a}{s} \in R_p^{\times}$  (with  $a \in R, s \in S$ )  $\Rightarrow \exists a' \in R, s' \in S : \frac{a}{s} \frac{a'}{s'} = 1 \Rightarrow \exists t \in S$  with  $t(aa' - ss') = 0 \in p$  Since  $t \notin p$  we have  $aa' - \underbrace{ss'}_{\notin p} \in p$ , so  $aa' \notin p$ . Since  $a \notin p$  it follows  $\frac{a}{s} \notin pS^{-1}$ .

**Proposition 4.1.6** (being Dedekind is stable under localisation). Let  $\mathcal{O}$  be a Dedekind domain,  $S \subseteq \mathcal{O} \setminus \{0\}$  multiplicative system, then  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is a Dedekind domain.

*Proof.*  $\mathcal{O}$  is an integral domain, so  $\mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathcal{O}S^{-1} \subseteq \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ .

- (1)  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is an integral domain, since  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1} \subseteq \text{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ .
- (2) Show that  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is Noetherian, i.e. each ideal is finitely generated: Let q be an ideal in  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  and  $p:=j_S^{-1}(q)$ . Prop 1.3 says that  $q=pS^{-1}$ .  $\mathcal{O}$  is a Dedekind domain, hence p is finitely generated i.e.  $p=(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\Rightarrow q=pS^{-1}=\left(\frac{a_1}{1},\ldots,\frac{a_n}{1}\right)$  is finitely generated.
- (3) Show that  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is integrally closed: Suppose  $x \in \text{Quot}(\mathcal{O}S^{-1}) = \text{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$  with  $x^n + \frac{r_{n-1}}{s_{n-1}}x^{n-1} + \cdots + \frac{r_0}{s_0} = 0$  and  $r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} \in \mathcal{O}, s_0, \ldots, s_{n-1} \in S$ . Let  $s := s_0 \cdot \ldots \cdot s_{n-1} \in S$ , then

$$(sx)^n + \underbrace{s\frac{r_{n-1}}{s_{n-1}}}_{\in \mathcal{O}}(sx)^{n-1} + \dots + \underbrace{s^n\frac{r_0}{s_0}}_{\in \mathcal{O}} = 0$$

 $\Rightarrow sx$  is integral over  $\mathcal{O}$  and  $\hat{x} = sx \in \mathcal{O}$ , since  $\mathcal{O}$  is integrally closed.  $\Rightarrow x = \frac{\hat{x}}{s} \in \mathcal{O}S^{-1}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is integrally closed.

(4) Prop 1.3 implies that every prime ideal  $q \neq 0$  in  $\mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  is maximal.

**Definition 4.1.7** ("diskreter Bewertungsring"). A ring is called  $\underline{\textit{discrete valuation ring}}$  (DVR) if

- $\bullet$  R is a principal ideal domain and
- R has a (unique) maximal ideal  $m = (\pi) \neq 0$ .

In particular

- R is an integral domain
- $\bullet$  R is not a field.

Remark 4.1.8. Let R be a DVR with maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m} = (\pi)$ .

- (i)  $\pi$  is prime and any prime  $\pi'$  is associated to  $\pi$ .
- (ii) Any  $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$  can be written as  $r = \varepsilon \pi^k$  with  $\varepsilon \in R^{\times}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  depending only on r.

*Proof.* "(i)" Since R is a PID it is also a UFD. Since  $\pi$  is prime, if  $\pi = ab$  with  $a, b \in R$  then  $(\pi) \subset (a)$  such that (a) = R or  $(a) = (\pi)$ . Hence  $a \in R^{\times}$  or  $a = \varepsilon \pi$  with  $\varepsilon \in R^{\times}$ . Thus one of a, b must be a unit such that  $\pi$  is prime as a irreducible element of a UFD.

If  $\pi'$  is another prime, then  $(\pi') \subset (\pi)$  and we can write  $\pi' = a\pi$  with  $a \in R$ . Since  $\pi'$  is prime, a must be a unit and  $\pi' \sim \pi$  follows as claimed.

"(ii)" Since r has a unique prime factorization (up to a unit) the claim follows from (i).  $\square$ 

**Proposition 4.1.9.** R is a DVR if and only if R is a local Dedekind domain and not a field.

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ " R is local since it is a DVR, noetherian since it is a PID and integrally closed since it is a UFD. Furthermore, by Remark 1.8 every prime ideal is maximal. Also, since for the maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m} = (\pi)$  we have  $\mathfrak{m} \neq 0$ , R is not a field.

" $\Leftarrow$ " R has a unique maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  since it is a local ring and  $\mathfrak{m} \neq 0$  since R is not a field. We need to show that R is a PID:

- (1) Show that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is a principal ideal: Since R is a Dedekind domain it holds that  $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$ . Let  $\pi \in \mathfrak{m} \backslash \mathfrak{m}^2$  and observe that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is the only non-zero prime ideal. Thus,  $(\pi) = \mathfrak{m}^k$  and k = 1 since  $\pi \notin \mathfrak{m}^2$ .
- (2) Any ideal  $\alpha$  is a principal ideal since  $\alpha = \mathfrak{m}^k = (\pi^k)$ .

**Definition 4.1.10.** Let K be a field. A function  $v: K \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  is called **discrete** valuation if for all  $x, y \in K$  the following conditions hold:

- (i) v(xy) = v(x) + v(y)
- (ii)  $v(x+y) \ge \min\{v(x), v(y)\}\$

- (iii)  $v(x) = \infty$  if and only if x = 0
- (iv)  $v \not\equiv 0$  and  $v \not\equiv \infty$

Example 4.1.11. Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  be prime and  $K = \mathbb{Q}$ . Define  $v_p : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  by:

- (1) If  $z \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  with  $z = p^k b$ , where gcd(p, b) = 1, then  $v_p(z) = k$ .
- (2) If  $x \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$  with  $x = \frac{a}{b}$ , where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $v_p(x) = v_p(a) v_p(b)$ .

Then  $v_p$  is a discrete valuation.

**Proposition 4.1.12.** (i) Let  $v: K \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  be a discrete valuation. Then:

- v(1) = v(-1) = 0
- $v\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = v(a) v(b)$
- $\mathcal{O}_K = \{x \in K; v(x) \ge 0\}$  is a ring with units  $\mathcal{O}_K^{\times} = \{x \in K; v(x) = 0\}$
- (ii) The ring  $\mathcal{O}_K$  from (i) is a DVR.
- (iii) Conversely, if R is a discrete valuation ring, then there exists a discrete valuation  $v: K \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  with  $K = \operatorname{Quot}(R)$  such that  $R = \mathcal{O}_K$  for this valuation.

Proof. "(i)" We have

$$v(1) = v(1 \cdot 1) = v(1) + v(1)$$

such that v(1) = 0. Furthermore,

$$0 = v(1) = v((-1)(-1)) = 2v(-1)$$

and hence also v(-1) = 0. Next,

$$v(a) = v\left(\frac{a}{b} \cdot b\right) = v\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) + v(b)$$

such that  $v\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = v(a) - v(b)$ . Now, if v(x) = 0 then  $v\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = v(1) - v(x) = -v(x) = 0$  and hence  $\frac{1}{x} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ , i.e.,  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$ . Finally, if  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$  then there is a  $y \in \mathcal{O}_K$  with xy = 1 such that

$$0 = v(1) = v(xy) = \underbrace{v(x)}_{\geq 0} + \underbrace{v(y)}_{\geq 0}$$

and thus v(x) = 0.

"(ii)"

- $\mathcal{O}_K$  is an integral domain since  $\mathcal{O}_K \subset K$ .
- Show that  $\mathcal{O}_K$  is a PID:

Let  $\alpha$  be an ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ . Choose  $a \in \alpha$  with v(a) minimal. For  $b \in \alpha$  we have  $v(b) \geq v(a)$  and hence  $v\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) \geq 0$  such that  $\frac{b}{a} \in \mathcal{O}_K$ . Thus,  $b = \frac{b}{a} \cdot a$  with  $\frac{b}{a} \in \mathcal{O}_K$  such that  $b \in (a)$  and hence  $\alpha = (a)$ .

- Show that  $O_K$  has a unique maximal ideal: Define  $\mathfrak{m} = \{a \in \mathcal{O}_K; v(a) > 0\}$ . Observe that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is an ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_K$  and  $\mathfrak{m} = \mathcal{O}_K \setminus \mathcal{O}_K^{\times}$  such that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is a unique maximal ideal in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ .
- $\mathcal{O}_K$  is not a field since the valuation V is not allowed to be 0 everywhere on  $K^{\times}$ .

"(iii)"

- (1) Use Remark 1.8 to define  $v: R\setminus\{0\} \to \mathbb{N}_0$ ,  $r = \varepsilon \pi^k \mapsto k$ . Observe that v(ab) = v(a) + v(b),  $v(a+b) \ge \min\{v(a), v(b)\}$  and define  $v(0) = \infty$ .
- (2) Define  $v: K = \operatorname{Quot}(R) \to \mathbb{Z}$  by  $v\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = v(a) v(b)$  if  $a \neq 0$  and  $v(0) = \infty$  to obtain a discrete valuation v.
- (3) By definition we have  $R \subset \mathcal{O}_K$ . Show that  $\mathcal{O}_K \subset R$ : Let  $\frac{a}{b} \neq 0$  be in  $\mathcal{O}_K$ , i.e.,  $v\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \geq 0$ . Then we have  $v(a) \geq v(b)$ . Let  $\mathfrak{m} = (\pi) \neq 0$  be the unique maximal ideal of R. Then  $a = \varepsilon_1 \pi^{k_1}$  and  $b = \varepsilon_2 \pi^{k_2}$  with  $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2 \in R^{\times}$ ,  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and  $k_1 \geq k_2$  such that

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_2} \pi^{k_1 - k_2} \in R.$$

**Proposition 4.1.13.** Let R be an integral domain. Recall that for  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$  we have  $R \subset R_{\mathfrak{p}} \subset \operatorname{Quot}(R)$ . In this situation,

$$R = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R} R_{\mathfrak{p}}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\frac{a}{b} \in \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R} R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ . Consider  $\mathfrak{u} = \{x \in R; xa \in bR\}$  and observe that  $\mathfrak{u}$  is an ideal. We show that  $a \not\subset \mathfrak{p}$  for any  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R$ :

Since  $\frac{a}{b} \in R_{\mathfrak{p}}$  there are  $c \in R, s \in R \backslash \mathfrak{p}$  with  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{s}$ . Then we have as = cb, which implies  $s \in a$  and  $s \notin \mathfrak{p}$ .

It follows that  $\alpha = R$ , i.e.,  $1 \in \alpha$  such that  $1 \cdot a \in bR$  and thus  $\frac{a}{b} \in R$ .

**Theorem 13.** Let  $\mathcal{O}$  be a noetherian integral domain. Then  $\mathcal{O}$  is a Dedekind domain if and only if  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a DVR for all  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O}) \setminus \{0\}$ .

*Proof.* " $\Rightarrow$ " By Proposition 1.6,  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a Dedekind domain and by Proposition 1.5,  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is local. Since  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0$  we have  $\mathfrak{p}S^{-1} \neq 0$  and hence  $\mathcal{O}_p$  is not a field. Hence,  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is a DVR by Proposition 1.9.

" $\Leftarrow$ " By Proposition 1.11 we have  $\mathcal{O} = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} \mathcal{O}} \mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$ . Furthermore, Proposition 1.9 implies that  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{p}}$  is integrally closed for any  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{O})$  and hence the same holds true for  $\mathcal{O}$ .

Show: Every prime ideal  $\mathfrak{p} \neq 0$  in  $\mathcal{O}$  is maximal.

Consider  $\mathfrak{p} \subset \mathfrak{m}$  for some maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Consider the localisation  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{m}} = \mathcal{O}S^{-1}$  with  $S = \mathcal{O} \setminus \mathfrak{m}$ . Then we obtain  $\mathfrak{p}S^{-1} \subset \mathfrak{m}S^{-1}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}S^{-1}, \mathfrak{m}S^{-1}$  both are prime ideals by Proposition 1.3. Since  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{m}}$  is a DVR, Proposition 1.9 implies that  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathfrak{m}}$  is a Dedekind domain, whence  $\mathfrak{p}S^{-1} = \mathfrak{m}S^{-1}$ , such that by Proposition 1.3 we may finally conclude  $\mathfrak{p}=\mathfrak{m}$ .

Reminder:  $v_p: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z} \ni z = p^k \cdot b \mapsto k$ 

**Proposition 4.1.14.** The discrete valuations in Ex. 1.10 are up to scaling the only discrete valuations on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $v: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  be a discrete valuation. Observe for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $v(n) = v(1 + \cdots + 1) \ge v(1) = 0$ . For  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $v(z) \ge 0$ , since v(-1) = 0.

- 1) Show that  $\exists p$  prime with v(p) < 0: Suppose v(p) = 0 for all primes p.  $\Rightarrow v(n) = 0 \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$  $\Rightarrow v(x) = 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{Q}Ev \not\equiv 0$
- 2) Observe  $\alpha := \{a \in \mathbb{Z} \mid v(a) > 0\}$  is an ideal in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Use that v(z) > 0 for all  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- 3) Let p be prime with v(p) > 0. Such a prime exists by 1). Observe u = (p), since  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  and (p) is maximal in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Let c := v(p) > 0. Denote  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  as  $z = p^k \cdot b$  with  $gcd(b, p) = 1. \Rightarrow v(z) = k \cdot v(p) + v(b) = k \cdot c \text{ since } v(b) = 0, b \notin (p) = a.$
- 4) Obtain the result for  $x \in \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$ .

Example 4.1.15. Let  $K/\mathbb{Q}$  be a number field,  $\mathcal{O}$  its ring of integers,  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0$  a prime ideal in  $\mathcal{O}$ above (p).

Thm.  $12 \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}$  is a discrete valuation ring.

What is the corresponding discrete valuation on  $K = \text{Quot}(\mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}) = \text{Quot}(\mathcal{O})$ 

$$v_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}: K \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$$
?

Let  $x \in K^{\times} \Rightarrow \underbrace{x \cdot \mathcal{O}}_{\text{fractional ideal}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdot \dots \cdot \dot{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}_{n}^{e_{n}} = \prod \hat{\mathcal{P}} \in \text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}) \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}^{e}(\star) \text{ with } \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{1}, \dots, \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{n} \text{ are } \dot{\mathcal{P}}_{n}^{e_{n}} = \prod_{i \neq j} \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{i} \in \text{Spec}(\mathcal{O}) \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}}^{e}(\star) \text{ with } \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{1}, \dots, \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{n} \text{ are } \dot{\mathcal{P}}_{n}^{e_{n}} = \prod_{i \neq j} \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{n}^{e_{n}} = \prod_{i \neq j} \hat{\mathcal{P}}_{n}^{e_$ 

prime ideals in  $\mathcal{O}$  and  $e_1, \ldots, e_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

<u>Claim:</u>  $v_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}(x) = e_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}$ . <u>Proof:</u> Consider the localisation  $\mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}$ :

For  $\hat{\mathcal{P}} \neq \hat{\mathcal{P}}_0$  we have  $\hat{\mathcal{P}} \cdot \mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = \mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}$ .

 $\underbrace{x\cdot\mathcal{O}}_{\text{fractional ideal for }\mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}} = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_0^{e_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}^{',0}} \cdot \mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} \overset{r_0}{=} m^{e_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}}, \text{ where } m \text{ is the maximal ideal of } \mathcal{O}_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} \Rightarrow v_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} = m^{e_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0}}$ 

Observe:  $v_{\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0} | \mathbb{Q} = e \cdot v_p$  where e is the ramification index of  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_0$ .

Example 4.1.16 (Why "local ring"?).  $\mathcal{O} = \mathbb{C}[X] \Rightarrow$ 

- $\mathcal{O}$  is noetherian  $\checkmark$
- $\mathcal{O}$  is a UFD  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}$  is integrally closed  $\checkmark$
- $\mathcal{O}$  is a PID  $\Rightarrow$  every prime ideal  $\neq 0$  is maximal

 $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}$  is a Dedekind domain.

 $\Rightarrow$ 

- $K := \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O}) = \mathbb{C}(C)$
- Spec( $\mathcal{O}$ ) = { $(X_z) \mid z \in \mathbb{C}$ }  $\cup$  {(0)}
- $\mathcal{O}_{(X-z)} = \{ \frac{f}{g} \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g \notin (X-z) \}$   $= \{ \frac{f}{g} \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g(z) \neq 0 \}$   $= \{ \frac{f}{g} \mid \frac{f}{g} \text{ is definied in } z \}$ is a discrete valuation ring, in particular it is a local ring
- maximal ideal  $m_{(X-z)} = \{\frac{f}{g} \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X] \text{ with } f(z) = 0, g(z) \neq 0\} = \{\frac{f}{g} \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid \text{ s.t. } \frac{f}{g} \text{ has a zero } inz\}$  The corresponding discrete valuation  $v : \mathbb{C}(X) \to \mathbb{Z} \cup \{\infty\}$  is induced by  $v : \mathbb{C}[X9 \setminus \{0\} \to \mathbb{Z}, f \mapsto \text{ord}_z(f) = \text{oder of zero of } f \text{ in } z = \max\{k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \mid (X-z)^k \text{ divides f.} \}$

# 4.2. Affine Schemes (Perspective

<u>Idea:</u> Link geomtreic objects to algebraic objects Geometry Algebra

affine varietes V Spec(R) + +functions on V R

## 4.2.1. Classical affine varieties

**Definition 4.2.1.** Let k be a field and denote  $\mathbb{A}^n(k) = k^n$  ("affine space")  $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n(k)$  is an <u>affine variety</u> :  $\iff \exists S \subseteq k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \text{ s.t. } V = V(S) = \{z \in \mathbb{A}^n(k) \mid \forall f \in S : f(z) = 0\}.$ 

Remark 4.2.2. i)  $S_1 \subseteq S_2 \Rightarrow V(S_1) \supseteq V(S_2)$ 

- ii) Let (S) be the ideal generated by S in  $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ , then V(s) = V((S)).
- iii) Denote for  $f_1, \ldots, f_r : V(f_1, \ldots, f_r) = V(\{f_1, \ldots, f_r\})$ . Every affine variety V is equal to  $V(f_1, \ldots, f_r)$  for finitely many polynomial  $f_1, \ldots, f_r$  since  $K[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$  is noetherian.

Example 4.2.3. i)  $S = \emptyset \Rightarrow V(S) = \mathbb{A}^n(k)$ 

ii) 
$$S = k[X_1, ..., X_n] \Rightarrow V(S) = V(1) = \emptyset$$

iii) 
$$V(X^2 + Y^2 - 1) =$$

iv) 
$$V(X \cdot Y) =$$

v) 
$$V(Y^2 - X^3 + X)(\leftrightarrow Y^2 = X^3 - X = X(X - 1)(X + 1)) =$$

vi) 
$$a, b \in k \Rightarrow V(X - a, Y - b) = \{(a, b)\}\$$

Example 4.2.4. What are the affine varieties in  $\mathbb{A}^1(k)$ ?

- Rem 2.2 ii)  $\Rightarrow$  sufficient to consider ideals I in k[X]
- Recall: Every ideal is a principal ideal, hence I = (f) with  $f \in k[X]$ .

$$\Rightarrow V(I) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{A}^1(k), & \text{if } f = 0 \iff \deg(f) = -\infty \\ \emptyset, & \text{if } \deg(f) = 0 \\ \{z_1, \dots, z_k \mid z_i \text{ zero of } f\}, & \text{if } \deg(f) \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

Classical goal: Study geometry of affine varieties.

<u>Idea:</u> Consider "good"classes of funtions on them.

Consider: (1)  $k[X_1, ..., X_n]$  as set of regular functions on  $\mathbb{A}^n(k) = k^n$  and

(2)  $k(X_1, ..., X_n)$  as set of rational functions on  $\mathbb{A}^n(k)$ .

Observe:  $f_1, f_2 \in k[X_1, \dots, \overline{X_n}], V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n(k), f_1 \equiv f_2 \text{ on } V \iff f_1 - f_2 \equiv 0 \text{ on } V.$ 

**Definition 4.2.5.** i)  $I(V) := \{ f \in k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \mid \forall z \in V : f(z) = 0 \}$  is called vanishing ideal of V

ii)  $A(V) := k[V] := k[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I(V)$  is called the k-algebra of regular functions of V

Example 4.2.6. i) 
$$V = \emptyset \Rightarrow I(V) = k[X_1, \dots, X_n] \Rightarrow k[V] = 0$$

ii) 
$$V = \{z\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^1(k) \Rightarrow I(V) = (X-z) \Rightarrow k[V] = k[X]/(X-z)$$

iii) 
$$V = \mathbb{A}^1(k), k \text{ infinite } \Rightarrow I(V) = (0) \Rightarrow k[V] \cong k[X]$$

iv) 
$$V = \mathbb{A}^1(k), k = \mathbb{F}_p \text{ finite } \Rightarrow I(V) = (X \cdot (X-1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (X-(p-1)))$$

Remark 4.2.7. Suppose  $V \subseteq \mathbb{A}^n(k)$ 

i) I(V) is a radical ideal, i.e.  $f^e \in I(V) \Rightarrow f \in I(V)$ 

- ii)  $V(I(V)) \supseteq V$  and  $I(V(I)) \supseteq I$ .
- iii)  $\bar{V} := V(I(V))$  is the smallest affine variety containing V. In particular, if V is already an affine variety, then V(I(V)) = V.
- iv) For affine varieties  $V_1 = V(I_1)$  and  $V_2 = V(I_2)$ :  $V_1 \subseteq V_2 \iff I(V_1) \supseteq I(V_2)$ . In particular  $V_1 = V_2 \iff I(V_1) = I(V_2)$
- v)  $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \Rightarrow V(I_1) \supseteq V(I_2)$

Proof. i) ✓

- ii) ✓
- iii) Consider affine variety  $V(J) \supseteq V \Rightarrow J \subseteq I(V) \Rightarrow V(J) \supseteq V(I(V))$
- iv) " $\Rightarrow$ ": Suppose  $f \in I(V_2) \Rightarrow \forall x \in V_1 \subseteq V_2 : f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow f \in I(V_2)$ . " $\Leftarrow$  ":  $I_2 \subseteq I(V(I_2)) = I(V_2) \subseteq I(V_1)$  Hence:  $x \in V_1, f \in I_2 \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$ . Thus  $x \in V_2 = V(I_2)$ .
- v) 🗸

### Hilberts Nullstellensatz (without proof)

k is algebraically closed, I ideal in  $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n]$ . Then  $I(V(I)) = \sqrt{I} := \{ f \in k[X_1, \ldots, X_n] \mid \exists l \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } f^e \in I \}.$ 

Idea: Define a topology on  $\mathbb{A}^n(k)$ .

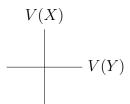
Remark and Definition 4.2.8. The affine varieties define the closed sets of a topology called Zariski topology.

Proof. •  $\mathbb{A}^n(k) = V((0))$  and  $\emptyset = V((1))$ .

- $V_1 = V(I_1)$  and  $V_2 = V(I_2)$  affine varieties  $\Rightarrow V_1 \cup V_2 \stackrel{(!)}{=} V(I_1 \cdot I_2) \stackrel{(!)}{=} V(I_1 \cap I_2)$
- $V_j = V(I_j)$  family of affine varieties with  $j \in J \Rightarrow \bigcap_{j \in J} V_j \stackrel{\text{(!)}}{=} V(\sum_{j \in J} I_j)$ .

Example 4.2.9. In  $\mathbb{A}^1(k)$  a subset is closed  $\iff$  it is finite or  $\emptyset$  or  $\mathbb{A}^1(k)$ .

**Definition 4.2.10.** A topological space X is called <u>irreducible</u>:  $\iff X = A \cup B$  with A, B closed implies X = A or X = B. Otherwise X is called <u>reducible</u>



Example 4.2.11.  $V = V(X \cdot Y) = V(X) \cup V(Y)$  is reducible.

**Proposition 4.2.12.** An affine variety V is irreducible  $\iff I(V)$  is a prime ideal.

*Proof.* ,, $\Rightarrow$ ": Consider  $f, g \in k[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  with  $f, g \in I(V)$ .

Suppose:  $f \notin I(V)$ . Show that  $g \in I(V)$ .

 $f \notin I(V) \Rightarrow \exists f(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow V \not\subseteq V(f)(\star)$ 

$$f \notin I(V) \Rightarrow \exists f(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow V \nsubseteq V(f)(\star)$$
  
Observe:  $V \subseteq V(f \cdot g) = V(f) \cup V(g) \Rightarrow V = \underbrace{(V(f) \cap V)}_{\text{closed}} \cup \underbrace{(V(g) \cap V)}_{\text{closed}}$ 

$$\stackrel{(\star)}{\Rightarrow} V(g) \cap V = V \Rightarrow V \subseteq V(g) \Rightarrow g \in I(V).$$

 $\overset{(\star)}{\Rightarrow} V(g) \cap V = V \Rightarrow V \subseteq V(g) \Rightarrow g \in I(V).$ ,,\(\neq^\*:\) Suppose  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  with  $V_1 = V(I_1)$  and  $V_2 = V(I_2)$ .

Hence:  $V = V(I_1) \cup V(I_2) = V(I_1I_2)$  and thus  $I_1 \cdot I_2 \stackrel{2.7}{\subseteq} I(V(I_1 \cdot I_2)) = I(V)$ . Suppose:  $V_1 \neq V \Rightarrow \exists x \in V : f \in I_1 \text{ with } f(x) \neq 0$ .

Hence 
$$f \notin I(V) \forall g \in I_2 : f \cdot g \in I_1 I_2 \subseteq I(V) \stackrel{I(V) \text{ prime}}{\Longrightarrow} g \in I(V)$$
.  
Hence  $I_2 \subseteq I(V) \Rightarrow V_2 = V(I_2) \supseteq V(I(V)) \supseteq V \Rightarrow V_2 = V$ .

Hence 
$$I_2 \subset I(V) \Rightarrow V_2 = V(I_2) \supset V(I(V)) \supset V \Rightarrow V_2 = V$$
.

Remark 4.2.13. An affine variety V is irreducible  $\iff k[V] = k[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I(V)$  is an integral domain.

From now on k is always algebraically closed and all affine varieties are irreducible.

Example 4.2.14. 
$$V = \mathbb{A}^{1}(k), I(V) = (0), k[V] = k[X]$$

**Definition 4.2.15.** Let  $U \subseteq V$  be an open subset of V. Define

$$\mathcal{O}(U) := \{ \varphi : U \to k \mid \forall z \in U \; \exists \; \text{open neighbourhood} \; U_z \ni z \stackrel{\text{open}}{\subseteq} V, \; \exists f, g, \in k[V] \\ \text{with} \; \forall x \in U_z : g(x) \neq 0 \; \text{and} \; \varphi(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \}$$

as the set of regular functions on U.

Remark.  $\mathcal{O}$  defines a sheaf on V.

**Definition 4.2.16.** For  $z \in V$  we define the *local ring*  $\mathcal{O}_z$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{O}_z := \{(U, f) \mid U \text{ open neighbourhood of } z, f \in \mathcal{O}(U)\}/\sim$$

with 
$$(U_1, f_1) \sim (U_2, f_2) \iff f_1|_{U_1 \cap U_2} = f_2|_{U_1 \cap U_2}$$
.

•  $\mathcal{O}_z$  is the stalk of the sheaf  $\mathcal{O}$  in z. Remark.

• 
$$\mathcal{O}_z = k[V]_{m_z}$$
 here  $m_z = \{ f \in k[V] \mid f(z) = 0 \}$ 

Remark 4.2.17.  $m_z$  as defined above is a maximal ideal in k[V].

Proof.  $\varphi_u: k[V] = k[X_1, \dots, X_n]/I(V) \rightarrow k$ ,  $f \mapsto f(z)$  is a k-algebra homomorphism, which is surjective. Hence  $m_z = \ker(\varphi_z)$  is a maximal ideal.

Remark 4.2.18. In particular  $\mathcal{O}_z$  is a local ring.

**Definition 4.2.19.** The field of rational functions Rat(V):

$$\operatorname{Rat}(V) := \{(U, f) \mid U \text{ open in } V, f \in \mathcal{O}(U)\}/\sim$$

with 
$$(U_1, f_1) \sim (U_2, f_2) \iff f_1|_{U_1 \cap U_2} = f_2|_{U_1 \cap U_2}$$
.

Remark (without proof). Rat(V) = Quot(k[V])

Conclusion 4.2.20. Still assume k is algebraically closed, V affine variety. Then we have the following correspondences:

closed subsets of 
$$V \stackrel{\text{1:1}}{\leftrightarrow} radical ideals in k[V]$$
  
$$V' \mapsto I(V')$$

irreducible closed subsets of  $V \stackrel{1:1}{\leftrightarrow} prime ideals$   $points \stackrel{1:1}{\leftrightarrow} maximal ideals in k[V]$   $x \mapsto I(\{x\}) = m_x$ 

Furthermore we have:

- $V_1, V_2$  closed subsets of  $V: V_1 \subseteq V_2 \iff I(V_1) \supseteq I(V_2)$ In particular:  $x \in V_1 \iff m_x \supseteq I(V_1)$ .
- $\alpha$  ideal in k[V]:  $V(\alpha) = \{z \in V \mid \forall f \in \alpha : f(z) = 0\}$   $= \{z \in V \mid \forall f \in \alpha : f \in m_z\} = \{z \in V \mid \alpha \subseteq m_z\}$
- $S \subseteq V : I(S) = \{ f \in k[V] \mid \forall s \in S : f(s) = 0 \} = \bigcap_{s \in S} m_s$ .

Example 4.2.21. Let  $k = \mathbb{C}$ ,  $I = (Y^2 - X(X - 1)(X - \lambda))$  with  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  and V = V(I). Observe that I is a prime ideal since  $f_{\lambda}$  is irreducible (use Eisenstein criterion). In particular, I = I(V). Hence V is irreducible and

$$K[V] = k[X, Y]/I.$$

Graph for  $\lambda = -1$ :

**Definition 4.2.22.** (i) Let X be a topological space. The **Krull dimension**  $\dim(X)$  of X is defined as

$$\dim(X) = \sup\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{there are closed, irreducible subsets } X_i \subset X \text{ with } \emptyset \neq X_0 \subsetneq X_1 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq X_n\}.$$

(ii) Let R be an arbitrary commutative noetherian ring. Then

$$\dim(R) = \sup\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{there are } \mathfrak{p}_i \in \operatorname{Spec} R \text{ with } \mathfrak{p}_0 \supsetneq \mathfrak{p}_1 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq \mathfrak{p}_n\}.$$

is called the **dimension** of R.

Remark 4.2.23. By Conclusion 2.20 we have dim  $V = \dim k[V]$ .

Fact 4.2.24. dim  $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n] = n$  and hence dim  $\mathbb{A}^n(k) = n$ .

Observe.  $(X_1, \ldots, X_n) \supseteq (X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}) \supseteq \cdots \supseteq (X_1) \supseteq (0)$  is a chain of prime ideals of length n, hence dim  $k[X_1, \ldots, X_n] \ge n$ .

But you have to do some work to show that there is not a longer one.

Example 4.2.25. Let  $V = V((f_{\lambda}))$  with  $f_{\lambda} = Y^2 - X(X - 1)(X - \lambda)$  and observe that  $\mathfrak{p}_0 = (X, Y) \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_1 = (f_{\lambda}) = I$  in k[X, Y] induces  $\overline{\mathfrak{p}}_0 \supseteq \overline{\mathfrak{p}}_1$  in k[V] = k[X, Y]/I, where  $\overline{\mathfrak{p}}_i$  is the image of  $p_i$  in the quotient. Hence dim  $k[V] \ge 1$ .

But any chain of prime ideals  $\overline{\mathfrak{p}}_0 \supseteq \overline{\mathfrak{p}}_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \overline{\mathfrak{p}}_n = (0)$  of length n in k[V] induces a chain of prime ideals  $\mathfrak{p}_0 \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_1 \supseteq \cdots \supseteq \mathfrak{p}_n \supseteq (0)$  of length N+1, where  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is the preimage of  $\overline{\mathfrak{p}}_i$ . Hence, by Fact 2.24, dim k[V] = 1.

**Definition 4.2.26.** An **affine curve** over k is an irreducible affine variety V over k of dimension 1.

**Definition 4.2.27.** Let  $V \subset \mathbb{A}^n(k)$  be an irreducible affine variety of dimension d with  $V = V(f_1, \ldots, f_r)$ . For  $z \in V$  consider the Jacobian matrix

$$J = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(z)\right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(z) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(z) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_1}(z) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_r}{\partial x_n}(z) \end{pmatrix}.$$

In this case,

- $z \in V$  is called **singular** if rank J < n d,
- $z \in V$  is called **non-singular** or **regular** if rank J = n d,
- $\bullet$  V is called **regular** if all points in V are regular points.

Fact 4.2.28 (without proof). We always have rank  $J \leq n - d$ .

Example 4.2.29. For  $V = V((f_{\lambda}))$  with

$$f_{\lambda} = Y^2 - X(X - 1)(X - \lambda) = Y^2 - (X^3 - (1 + \lambda)X^2 + \lambda X)$$

we have

$$J(x,y) = \begin{pmatrix} d - 3x^2 + 2(1+\lambda)x - \lambda & 2y \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence  $(x,y) \in V$  is singular iff rank J(x,y) < 2-1 = 1 iff rank J(x,y) = 0 such that (x,y) has to satisfy the following relations:

$$y^2 = x(x-1)(x-\lambda) \tag{1}$$

$$-3x^2 + 2(1+\lambda)x - \lambda = 0 \tag{2}$$

$$2y = 0 (3)$$

Now, (3) implies y = 0 and hence  $x \in \{0, 1, \lambda\}$  by (1).

### **Conclusion:**

- $\lambda \notin \{0,1\}$ : V is a regular curve
- $\lambda = 0$ : (0,0) is a singularity
- $\lambda = 1$ : (1,0) is a singularity

Fact 4.2.30 (without proof). Let V be an affine curve. Then x is a regular point of V if and only if  $\mathcal{O}_x = k[V]_{\mathfrak{m}_x}$  is a discrete valuation ring.

Remark 4.2.31. Let V be an affine variety. Then V is a regular affine curve if and only if k[V] is a Dedekind domain.

Proof. " $\Rightarrow$ "

- $k[V] = k[X_1, \dots, X_n]I$  is noetherian.
- k[V] is a domain since I is a prime ideal. This is because V is irreducible by the definition of a curve.
- By Theorem 12 and Fact 2.30, k[V] is a Dedekind domain.

"⇐"

- Since k[V] is a domain, V is irreducible.
- Every prime ideal is maximal, hence  $\dim k[V] = \dim V = 1$ .
- By Theorem 12 and Fact 2.30, V is regular.

# 4.3. Affine schemes and Dedekind domains

Conclusion 2.20 motivates the following definition:

**Definition 4.3.1.** Let R be a ring and  $X = \operatorname{Spec} R$ .

- (i) For an ideal  $\alpha$  in R define its vanishing locus by  $V(\alpha) = \{ \mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Spec} R \mid \alpha \subset \mathfrak{p} \}.$
- (ii) For a subset  $S \subset X$  define its vanishing ideal by  $I(S) = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in S} \mathfrak{p}$ .

Remark and Definition 4.3.2. Suppose  $R = k[X_1, ..., X_n]$ 

Note: In contrast to the geometric situation we consider all irreducible subsets of  $\mathbb{A}^n(k)$  as points in Spec R.

The maximal ideals in Spec R are sometimes called geometric points or closed points.

Remark 4.3.3. The sets V(u) with u an ideal in R form the closed subsets of a topology on Spec R called the **Zariski topology**.

*Proof.* Check the axioms, similarly to Remark 2.8.

Remark 4.3.4. If  $S \subset \operatorname{Spec} R$  then  $\overline{S} = V(\alpha)$  with  $\alpha = \bigcap_{\mathfrak{p} \in S} \mathfrak{p}$ . In particular,

$$\overline{\{\mathfrak{p}\}} = V(\mathfrak{p}) = \{ \alpha \in \operatorname{Spec} R \, | \, \alpha \supset \mathfrak{p} \}.$$

Hence  $\{\mathfrak{p}\}$  is closed if and only if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal.

Question. How can we understand the elements of R as functions on Spec R?

Example 4.3.5. Let V be an affine variety and R = k[V]. If  $f \in R$  then

$$f: V \to k, z \mapsto f(z).$$

Recall. The evaluation map  $\Phi_z \colon k[V] \to k$ ,  $f \mapsto f(z)$  defines an isomorphism  $k[V]/\mathfrak{m}_z \cong k$  with  $f(z) = f \mod \mathfrak{m}_z$ .

Remark 4.3.6. R now an arbitrary ring.

The elements of R define functions on Spec(R) as follows:

$$f: p \mapsto f \mod p \in R_p/p =: \underbrace{\kappa(p)}_{residue \ field \ of \ p}$$

Example 4.3.7.  $R = \mathbb{Z}, X = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(p) \mid p \text{ prime } \} \cup \{(0)\}.$  Observe:

- The (p) are closed points.
- $\{(0=)\} = \operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{Z})$

**Definition 4.3.8.** Let  $U \subseteq \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  be an open subset. Define

$$\mathcal{O}(U) := \{ s = (s_p)_{s \in U} \in \prod_{p \in U} R_p \mid \forall p \; \exists U_p \text{ open nbhd. of } p \text{ and } f, g \in R \text{ with } : \}$$

$$\forall q \in U_p : \underbrace{g(q)}_{=g \mod q} \underset{\varphi \neq q}{\underbrace{\neq 0}} \text{ and } s_q = \frac{f}{g} \text{ in } R_q$$

Observe:  $\mathcal{O}$  is a sheaf.

**Definition 4.3.9.** The pair (Spec R,  $\mathcal{O}$ ) is called an *affine scheme*.

It is called <u>noetherian</u>  $\iff$  R is noetherian.

Its  $\underline{dimension}$  is the dimension of R.

Example 4.3.10. i) R = k[V] for some affine variety V with k is algebraically closed  $\Rightarrow V \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  as set of closed points.

- ii) R = K field  $\Rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(K) = \{(0)\} : \mathcal{O}(\{0\}) = K$ /!\Spec(K) as affine scheme depends on K.
- iii) R discrete valuation ring with maximal ideal  $m \Rightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(R) = \{(0), m\}$ Closed subsets:  $\emptyset, \{m\}, \operatorname{Spec}(R)$ Open subsets:  $\operatorname{Spec}(R), \{0\}, \emptyset$  $\mathcal{O}(\{0\}) = \operatorname{Quot}(R), \mathcal{O}(\operatorname{Spec}(R)) = R_m = R$

**Definition 4.3.11.** For a one-dimensional (!) noetherian domain R we say that the associated affine scheme (Spec  $R\mathcal{O}$ ) is  $\underline{regular}$ :  $\iff$  All local rings  $R_p(p)$  prime in  $R, p \neq (0)$ ) are discrete valuation rings.

Observation 4.3.12. For a domain R we have: (Spec R,  $\mathcal{O}$ ) is a noetherian, one-dimensional, regular affine scheme  $\iff R$  is a Dedekind domain.

# 4.4. A "general"example

Example 4.4.1. Consider  $V_1 := V(f_{\lambda}) \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2(\mathbb{C})$  with  $f_{\lambda} = Y^2 - X(X - 1)(X - \lambda)$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, 1\}, V_2 : \mathbb{A}^1(\mathbb{C}), f : V_1 \to V_2$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto x$ 



Remark 4.4.2. i)  $x \in \mathbb{A}^1(\mathbb{C})$  has two preimages  $\iff x \notin \{0,1,\lambda\}$ 

ii)  $x \in \mathbb{A}^1(\mathbb{C})$  has one preimage  $\iff x \in \{0, 1, \lambda\}$ , namely (x, 0).

Remark 4.4.3. Recall:  $\mathcal{O}_1 := \mathbb{C}[V_1] = \mathbb{C}[X,Y]/(f_{\lambda}), \mathcal{O}_2 := \mathbb{C}[V_2] = \mathbb{C}[X]$ The map f induces:

- i) a morphism of k-algebras:  $f^*: \mathbb{C}[V_2] \to \mathbb{C}[V_1]$ ,  $h \mapsto h \circ f$
- ii) a morphism of fields:  $f^* : \operatorname{Rat}(V_2) = \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O}_2) \hookrightarrow \operatorname{Rat}(V_1) = \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O}_1)$  induced by  $f^*$  in i).

Conclusion 4.4.4. Hence we have the following setting:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\mathcal{O}_1 & & & & V_1 = \mathbb{C} \\
\downarrow^{f^*} & & & \uparrow^* & & \downarrow^{f} \\
\mathcal{O}_2 & & & & & & & & \downarrow^{f} \\
\mathcal{O}_2 & & & & & & & & & \downarrow^{f} \\
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
V_1 & = \mathbb{C} \\
\downarrow^{f} & & \downarrow^{f} \\
V_2 & = \mathbb{A}^1 & \xrightarrow{h} \mathbb{C}$$

- $\mathcal{O}_1$  and  $\mathcal{O}_2$  are Dedekind domains
- Quot $(\mathcal{O}_2) = \text{Quot}(\mathbb{C}[X]) = \mathbb{C}(X)$ Quot $(\mathcal{O}_1) = \text{Quot}(\mathbb{C}[X,Y]/(f_{\lambda})) = \mathbb{C}(X)(\alpha)$  with  $\alpha$  has minimal polynomial  $Y^2 - X(X-1)(X-\lambda) \in \mathbb{C}(X)[Y]$
- $[K_1:K_2]=2$

Recall: points in  $V_1$  resp.  $V_2 \leftrightarrow \text{mmaximal ideals in } \mathcal{O}_1$  resp.  $\mathcal{O}_2$   $f(a) = b \iff f^*(m_b) \subseteq m_a \iff m_a \text{ lies above } m_b$ .

$$\mathbb{C}[X][\alpha) = \mathbb{C}[X,Y]/(f_{\lambda}) = \mathcal{O}_{1} \longleftrightarrow \operatorname{Quot}(\mathcal{O}_{1}) =: K_{1} = \mathbb{C}(X)(\alpha)$$

$$f^{\star} \int f^{\star} \int f^{\star}$$

Remark 4.4.5. Consider the prime ideal (X - b) for  $b \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Apply Prop. II.8.15: Observe  $\mathcal{O}_1 = \mathcal{O}_2[\alpha], f_{\alpha}(Y) = Y^2 - X(X-1)(X-\lambda) \in \mathcal{O}_2[Y]$ 

Consider image  $\bar{f}_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{O}_2/(X-b)[Y] \stackrel{\text{evaluation map}}{\cong} \mathbb{C}[Y]$ Hence  $\bar{f}_{\alpha} = Y^2 - b(b-1)(b-\lambda) \in \mathbb{C}[Y] = (Y - \sqrt{b(b-1)(b-\lambda)})(Y + \sqrt{b(b-1)(b-\lambda)}).$ Prop. II.8.15.  $\Rightarrow$ :

- If  $b \notin \{0, 1, \lambda\} : o\mathcal{O}_1 = \hat{\mathcal{P}}_1 \cdot \hat{\mathcal{P}}_2$ . Hence we have two prime ideals  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_1$  and  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}_2$  lying above p := (X - b) and the ramification indices are  $e_1 = e_2 = 1$ . Degree forumula:  $2 = e_1 f_1 + e_2 f_2 \Rightarrow f_1 = f_2 = 1$ .
- If  $b \in \{0, 1, \lambda\} : p\mathcal{O}_1 = \hat{\mathcal{P}}^2$ . Hence we have one prime ideal  $\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  over p with ramification index 2 and f = 1.

Remark 4.4.6. Why is f in the example = 1?

Recall:  $f = \dim_{\mathcal{O}_2/\mathbb{P}} \mathcal{O}_1/\hat{\mathcal{P}}$  Here:  $\mathcal{O}_2 = k[V_2], p = \text{maximal ideal corresp. to a point } b. \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}_2/p \cong \mathbb{C}$ . Same way:  $\mathcal{O}_1/\hat{\mathcal{P}} \cong \mathbb{C}$ .

# Part II. Algebraic number theory II

 $\operatorname{test}$