

₁ ALGEBRAIC NUMBER THEORY,
₂ A COMPUTATIONAL APPROACH

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Chapter 1

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

In this chapter, we prove the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) for arbitrary commutative rings, then apply CRT to prove that every ideal in a Dedekind domain R is generated by at most two elements. We also prove that $\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ is (noncanonically) isomorphic to R/\mathfrak{p} as an R -module, for any nonzero prime ideal \mathfrak{p} of R . The tools we develop in this chapter will be used frequently to prove other results later.

1.1 The Chinese Remainder Theorem

1.1.1 CRT in the Integers

The classical CRT asserts that if n_1, \dots, n_r are integers that are coprime in pairs, and a_1, \dots, a_r are integers, then there exists an integer a such that $a \equiv a_i \pmod{n_i}$ for each $i = 1, \dots, r$. Here “coprime in pairs” means that $\gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1$ whenever $i \neq j$; it does *not* mean that $\gcd(n_1, \dots, n_r) = 1$, though it implies this. In terms of rings, CRT asserts that the natural map

$$\mathbb{Z}/(n_1 \cdots n_r)\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n_r\mathbb{Z}) \quad (1.1)$$

that sends $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ to its reduction modulo each n_i , is an isomorphism.

This map is *never* an isomorphism if the n_i are not coprime. Indeed, the cardinality of the image of the left hand side of (1.1) is $\text{lcm}(n_1, \dots, n_r)$, since it is the image of a cyclic group and $\text{lcm}(n_1, \dots, n_r)$ is the largest order of an element of the right hand side, whereas the cardinality of the right hand side is $n_1 \cdots n_r$.

The isomorphism (1.1) can alternatively be viewed as asserting that any system of linear congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}, \quad x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}, \quad \dots, \quad x \equiv a_r \pmod{n_r}$$

with pairwise coprime moduli has a unique solution modulo $n_1 \cdots n_r$.

Before proving the CRT in more generality, we prove (1.1). There is a natural map

$$\phi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n_r\mathbb{Z})$$

given by projection onto each factor. Its kernel is

$$n_1\mathbb{Z} \cap \cdots \cap n_r\mathbb{Z}.$$

If n and m are integers, then $n\mathbb{Z} \cap m\mathbb{Z}$ is the set of multiples of both n and m , so $n\mathbb{Z} \cap m\mathbb{Z} = \text{lcm}(n, m)\mathbb{Z}$. Since the n_i are coprime,

$$n_1\mathbb{Z} \cap \cdots \cap n_r\mathbb{Z} = n_1 \cdots n_r\mathbb{Z}.$$

Thus we have proved there is an inclusion

$$i : \mathbb{Z}/(n_1 \cdots n_r)\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/n_1\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \cdots \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n_r\mathbb{Z}). \quad (1.2)$$

This is half of the CRT; the other half is to prove that this map is surjective. In this case, it is clear that i is also surjective, because i is an injective map between finite sets of the same cardinality. We will, however, give a proof of surjectivity that doesn't use finiteness of the above two sets.

To prove surjectivity of i , note that since the n_i are coprime in pairs,

$$\gcd(n_1, n_2 \cdots n_r) = 1,$$

so there exists integers x, y such that

$$xn_1 + yn_2 \cdots n_r = 1.$$

To complete the proof, observe that $yn_2 \cdots n_r = 1 - xn_1$ is congruent to 1 modulo n_1 and 0 modulo $n_2 \cdots n_r$. Thus $(1, 0, \dots, 0) = i(yn_2 \cdots n_r)$ is in the image of i . By a similar argument, we see that $(0, 1, \dots, 0)$ and the other similar elements are all in the image of i , so i is surjective, which proves CRT.

1.1.2 CRT in General

Recall that *all rings in this book are commutative with unity*. Let R be such a ring.

Definition 1.1.1 (Coprime). Ideals I and J of R are *coprime* if $I + J = (1)$.

Exercise 1.1.2. Let $a_1 = 1 + i$, $a_2 = 3 + 2i$, and $a_3 = 3 + 4i$ as elements of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

1. Prove that the ideals $I_1 = (a_1)$, $I_2 = (a_2)$, and $I_3 = (a_3)$ are coprime in pairs.
2. Compute the cardinality of $\mathbb{Z}[i]/(I_1 I_2 I_3)$.
3. Find a single element in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ that is congruent to n modulo I_n , for each $n \leq 3$.

For example, if I and J are nonzero ideals in a Dedekind domain, then they are coprime precisely when the prime ideals that appear in their two (unique) factorizations are disjoint.

Lemma 1.1.3. *If I and J are coprime ideals in a ring R , then $I \cap J = IJ$.*

Proof. Choose $x \in I$ and $y \in J$ such that $x + y = 1$. If $c \in I \cap J$ then

$$c = c \cdot 1 = c \cdot (x + y) = cx + cy \in IJ + IJ = IJ,$$

so $I \cap J \subset IJ$. The other inclusion is obvious by the definition of an ideal. \square

Lemma 1.1.4. *Suppose I_1, \dots, I_s are pairwise coprime ideals. Then I_1 is coprime to the product $I_2 \cdots I_s$.*

Proof. In the special case of a Dedekind domain, we could easily prove this lemma using unique factorization of ideals as products of primes (Theorem ??); instead, we give a direct general argument.

It suffices to prove the lemma in the case $s = 3$, since the general case then follows from induction. By assumption, there are $x_1 \in I_1, y_2 \in I_2$ and $a_1 \in I_1, b_3 \in I_3$ such

$$x_1 + y_2 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad a_1 + b_3 = 1.$$

Multiplying these two relations yields

$$x_1 a_1 + x_1 b_3 + y_2 a_1 + y_2 b_3 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1.$$

The first three terms are in I_1 and the last term is in $I_2 I_3 = I_2 \cap I_3$ (by Lemma 1.1.3), so I_1 is coprime to $I_2 I_3$. \square

Next we prove the general Chinese Remainder Theorem. We will apply this result with $R = \mathcal{O}_K$ in the rest of this chapter.

Theorem 1.1.5 (Chinese Remainder Theorem). *Suppose I_1, \dots, I_r are nonzero ideals of a ring R such I_m and I_n are coprime for any $m \neq n$. Then the natural homomorphism $R \rightarrow \bigoplus_{n=1}^r R/I_n$ induces an isomorphism*

$$\psi : R / \prod_{n=1}^r I_n \rightarrow \bigoplus_{n=1}^r R/I_n.$$

Thus given any $a_n \in R$, for $n = 1, \dots, r$, there exists some $a \in R$ such that $a \equiv a_n \pmod{I_n}$ for $n = 1, \dots, r$; moreover, a is unique modulo $\prod_{n=1}^r I_n$.

Proof. Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow \bigoplus_{n=1}^r R/I_n$ be the natural map induced by reduction modulo the I_n . An inductive application of Lemma 1.1.3 implies that the kernel $\cap_{n=1}^r I_n$ of φ is equal to $\prod_{n=1}^r I_n$, so the map ψ of the theorem is injective.

Each projection $R \rightarrow R/I_n$ is surjective, so to prove that ψ is surjective, it suffices to show that $(1, 0, \dots, 0)$ is in the image of φ , and similarly for the other factors. By Lemma 1.1.4, $J = \prod_{n=2}^r I_n$ is coprime to I_1 , so there exists $x \in I_1$ and $y \in J$ such that $x + y = 1$. Then $y = 1 - x$ maps to 1 in R/I_1 and to 0 in R/J , hence to 0 in R/I_n for each $n \geq 2$, since $J \subset I_n$. \square

1.2 Structural Applications of the CRT

Let \mathcal{O}_K be the ring of integers of some number field K , and suppose I is a nonzero ideal of \mathcal{O}_K . As an abelian group \mathcal{O}_K is free of rank $[K : \mathbb{Q}]$, and I is of finite index in \mathcal{O}_K , so I is generated by $[K : \mathbb{Q}]$ generators as an abelian group, so as an R -ideal I requires at most $[K : \mathbb{Q}]$ generators. The main result of this section asserts something better, namely that I can be generated *as an ideal* by at most two elements. Moreover, our result is more general, since it applies to an arbitrary Dedekind domain R . Thus, for the rest of this section, R is any Dedekind domain, e.g., the ring of integers of either a number field or function field. We use CRT to prove that every ideal of R can be generated by two elements.

Warning 1.2.1. If we replace R by an order in a Dedekind domain, i.e., by a subring of finite index, then there may be ideals that require far more than 2 generators.

Suppose that I is a nonzero integral ideal of R . If $a \in I$, then $(a) \subset I$, so I divides (a) and the quotient $(a)I^{-1}$ is an integral ideal. The following

90 lemma asserts that (a) can be chosen so the quotient $(a)I^{-1}$ is coprime to
 91 any given ideal.

92 **Lemma 1.2.2.** *If I and J are nonzero integral ideals in R , then there exists*
 93 *an $a \in I$ such that the integral ideal $(a)I^{-1}$ is coprime to J .*

94 Before we give the proof in general, note that the lemma is trivial when
 95 I is principal, since if $I = (b)$, just take $a = b$, and then $(a)I^{-1} = (a)(a^{-1}) =$
 96 (1) is coprime to every ideal.

Proof. Let $\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r$ be the prime divisors of J . For each n , let v_n be the largest power of \mathfrak{p}_n that divides I . Since $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n} \neq \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$, we can choose an element $a_n \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$ that is not in $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$. By Theorem 1.1.5 applied to the $r+1$ coprime integral ideals

$$\mathfrak{p}_1^{v_1+1}, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r^{v_r+1}, I \cdot \left(\prod \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n} \right)^{-1},$$

there exists $a \in R$ such that

$$a \equiv a_n \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}}$$

for all $n = 1, \dots, r$ and also

$$a \equiv 0 \pmod{I \cdot \left(\prod \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n} \right)^{-1}}.$$

97 To complete the proof we show that $(a)I^{-1}$ is not divisible by any \mathfrak{p}_n ,
 98 or equivalently, that each $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$ exactly divides (a) . First we show that $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$
 99 divides (a) . Because $a \equiv a_n \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}}$, there exists $b \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$ such that
 100 $a = a_n + b$. Since $a_n \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$ and $b \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1} \subset \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$, it follows that $a \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$, so
 101 $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n}$ divides (a) . Now assume for the sake of contradiction that $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$ divides
 102 (a) ; then $a_n = a - b \in \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$, which contradicts that we chose $a_n \notin \mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$.
 103 Thus $\mathfrak{p}_n^{v_n+1}$ does not divide (a) , as claimed. \square

104 **Proposition 1.2.3.** *Suppose I is a fractional ideal in a Dedekind domain*
 105 *R . Then there exist $a, b \in K$ such that $I = (a, b) = \{\alpha a + \beta b : \alpha, \beta \in R\}$.*

106 *Proof.* If $I = (0)$, then I is generated by 1 element and we are done. If I is
 107 not an integral ideal, then there is an $x \in K$ such that xI is an integral ideal,
 108 and the number of generators of xI is the same as the number of generators
 109 of I , so we may assume that I is an integral ideal.

110 Let a be any nonzero element of the integral ideal I . We will show that
 111 there is some $b \in I$ such that $I = (a, b)$. Let $J = (a)$. By Lemma 1.2.2,

there exists $b \in I$ such that $(b)I^{-1}$ is coprime to (a) . Since $a, b \in I$, we have $I \mid (a)$ and $I \mid (b)$, so $I \mid (a, b)$. Suppose $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (a, b)$ with \mathfrak{p} prime and $n \geq 1$. Then $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (a)$ and $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (b)$, so $\mathfrak{p} \nmid (b)I^{-1}$, since $(b)I^{-1}$ is coprime to (a) . We have $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (b) = I \cdot (b)I^{-1}$ and $\mathfrak{p} \nmid (b)I^{-1}$, so $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid I$. Thus by unique factorization of ideals in R we have that $(a, b) \mid I$. Since $I \mid (a, b)$ we conclude that $I = (a, b)$, as claimed. \square

We can also use Theorem 1.1.5 to determine the R -module structure of $\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$.

Proposition 1.2.4. *Let \mathfrak{p} be a nonzero prime ideal of R , and let $n \geq 0$ be an integer. Then $\mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} \cong R/\mathfrak{p}$ as R -modules.*

*Proof*¹. Since $\mathfrak{p}^n \neq \mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$, by unique factorization, there is an element $b \in \mathfrak{p}^n$ such that $b \notin \mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$. Let $\varphi : R \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$ be the R -module morphism defined by $\varphi(a) = ab$. The kernel of φ is \mathfrak{p} since clearly $\varphi(\mathfrak{p}) = 0$ and if $\varphi(a) = 0$ then $ab \in \mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$, so $\mathfrak{p}^{n+1} \mid (a)(b)$, so $\mathfrak{p} \mid (a)$, since \mathfrak{p}^{n+1} does not divide (b) . Thus φ induces an injective R -module homomorphism $R/\mathfrak{p} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{p}^n/\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}$.

It remains to show that φ is surjective, and this is where we will use Theorem 1.1.5. Suppose $c \in \mathfrak{p}^n$. By Theorem 1.1.5 there exists $d \in R$ such that

$$d \equiv c \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}} \quad \text{and} \quad d \equiv 0 \pmod{(b)/\mathfrak{p}^n}.$$

We have $\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (d)$ since $d \in \mathfrak{p}^n$ and $(b)/\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (d)$ by the second displayed condition, so since $\mathfrak{p} \nmid (b)/\mathfrak{p}^n$, we have $(b) = \mathfrak{p}^n \cdot (b)/\mathfrak{p}^n \mid (d)$, hence $d/b \in R$. Finally

$$\varphi\left(\frac{d}{b}\right) \equiv \frac{d}{b} \cdot b \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}} \equiv d \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}} \equiv c \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{n+1}},$$

so φ is surjective. \square

Exercise 1.2.5. (See [Mar77, Thm. 22(a)]) Let R be a Dedekind domain and \mathfrak{p} a nonzero prime ideal in R . Show that $\#(R/\mathfrak{p}^m) = \#(R/\mathfrak{p})^m$.

Note: $\#(R/\mathfrak{p})$ is not finite in general! For example, The ring of formal power series $k[[t]]$ for some field k is a Dedekind domain and the residue field at the prime (t) is k .

[Hint: Consider the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{p}/\mathfrak{p}^m \rightarrow R/\mathfrak{p}^m \rightarrow R/\mathfrak{p}^{m-1} \rightarrow 0$$

and the chain

$$\mathfrak{p}^m \subseteq \mathfrak{p}^{m-1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathfrak{p}^2 \subseteq \mathfrak{p}.$$

]

137 *Remark 1.2.6.* There is one special case of the previous exercise that you
 138 probably have seen before: the size of $\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}$ is the same as $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^2$. In fact
 139 you might have seen a proof of the fact that $\mathbb{Z}/n^m\mathbb{Z}$ has the same cardinality
 140 as $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^m$ in a standard group theory or abstract algebra course.

141 1.3 Computing Using the CRT

In order to explicitly compute an a as given by Theorem 1.1.5, usually one first precomputes elements $v_1, \dots, v_r \in R$ such that $v_1 \mapsto (1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $v_2 \mapsto (0, 1, \dots, 0)$, etc. Then given any $a_n \in R$, for $n = 1, \dots, r$, we obtain an $a \in R$ with $a_n \equiv a \pmod{I_n}$ by taking

$$a = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_r v_r.$$

142 How to compute the v_i depends on the ring R . It reduces to the following
 143 problem: Given coprime ideals $I, J \subset R$, find $x \in I$ and $y \in J$ such that
 144 $x + y = 1$. If R is torsion free and of finite rank as a \mathbb{Z} -module, so $R \approx \mathbb{Z}^n$,
 145 then I, J can be represented by giving a basis in terms of a basis for R ,
 146 and finding x, y such that $x + y = 1$ can then be reduced to a problem in
 147 linear algebra over \mathbb{Z} . More precisely, let A be the matrix whose columns
 148 are the concatenation of a basis for I with a basis for J . Suppose $v \in \mathbb{Z}^n$
 149 corresponds to $1 \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. Then finding x, y such that $x + y = 1$ is equivalent
 150 to finding a solution $z \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ to the matrix equation $Az = v$. This latter
 151 linear algebra problem can be solved using or (see [Coh93, §4.7.1]), which is
 152 a generalization over \mathbb{Z} of reduced row echelon form.

153 Next we give an explicit example of a CRT computation using Sage. Let
 154 $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1})$ and $R = \mathcal{O}_K$. We will set $I = (1 + i)$ and $J = (3)$.

```

K.<i> = QuadraticField(-1)
d = K.degree()
155 I = K.ideal(1 + i)
J = K.ideal(3)

```

156 Number fields in Sage come with a \mathbb{Q} -vector space isomorphism $K \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^d$,
 157 where $d = \deg K$. To turn an element $\alpha \in K$ into a vector, we use the
 158 `vector()` method. We can build the matrix A described above as follows.

```

rows = [x.vector() for x in I.basis() + J.basis()]
159 A = Matrix(ZZ, rows).transpose()

```

160 Next we compute the Smith normal form S of A , along with matrices T, U
 161 such that $S = TAU$.

```

162 S,T,U = A.smith_form(transformation=True)

```

We have the following chain of \mathbb{Z} -linear maps

$$\mathbb{Z}^{2d} \xrightarrow{U} \mathbb{Z}^{2d} \xrightarrow{A} \mathbb{Z}^d \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{Z}^d.$$

163 The matrix S represents the composition. The cokernel of matrix A is trivial
 164 since $\mathcal{O}_K/(I+J) = 0$. Therefore S is of the form $\begin{pmatrix} I_d & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ (see Section ??).
 165 In particular, $SS^t = I_d$. So we can find a solution to $Az = v$ for any $v \in \mathbb{Z}^d$
 166 by computing $z = US^tTv$. Then $Az = AUS^tTv = T^{-1}SU^{-1}US^tTv = v$.

167 Next we find the solution z for the equation $Az = v$ where the vector v
 168 is the vector corresponding to 1.

```

169 v = K(1).vector()
    z = T*S.transpose()*U*K(1)

```

170 Recall that the first half of the columns of A represent a basis for I , and the
 171 second half represents a basis for J . Using the entries of z as coefficients,
 172 we can find elements $x \in I$ and $y \in J$ such that $x + y = 1$.

```

    x = sum(z[i]*I.basis()[i] for i in range(d))
    y = sum(z[d+i]*J.basis()[i] for i in range(d))
    print x + y

```

```

1 | 1

```

174 Our value of x and y can be used to solve for $a \in \mathcal{O}_K$ such that $a \equiv a_1$
 175 (mod I) and $a \equiv a_2$ (mod J) for any given a_1, a_2 . We demonstrate this
 176 with $a_1 = 17 + i$ and $a_2 = 2 + 11i$.

```

    a1 = 17 + i
    a2 = 2 + 11*i
    a = x*a2 + y*a1
    print (a - a1 in I) and (a - a2 in J)

```

```

1 | True

```

check transpose syn-
tax

Bibliography

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