

Number fields

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1 Integrality

1.1 Number fields and rings of integers

Definition 1.1 (number field)

A number field L is a finite extension of \mathbb{Q} .

Definition 1.2 (algebraic integer)

If L is a number field, we say that $\alpha \in L$ is an algebraic integer if there exists $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ monic such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. The set of ring of integers in L is written as \mathcal{O}_L .

Definition 1.3 (integral)

Suppose $R \leq S$ rings. Then $\alpha \in S$ is integral over R if there exists $f \in R[x]$ monic such that $f(\alpha) = 0$. We say that S is integral over R if all $\alpha \in S$ are integral over R .

Definition 1.4 (finitely generated over)

Suppose $R \leq S$ rings, then S is finitely generated over R if there exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in S$ such that every element of S is an R -linear combination of the $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$. That is, S is a finitely generated R -module.

Proposition 1.5.

1. if $S = R[s]$, with s integral over R , then S is finitely generated over R ,
2. if $S = R[s_1, \dots, s_n]$ with each s_i integral over R , then S is finitely generated over R .

Proof. (i) As an R -module, S is spanned by $1, s, s^2, \dots$. But as s is integral over R , we have that

$$s^n + a_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 = 0$$

for some $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in R$. So $1, s, \dots, s^{n-1}$ generate S .

(ii) Let $S_i = R[s_1, \dots, s_{i-1}]$, so $S_{i+1} = S_i[s_i]$. s_i is integral over R , so it is integral over S_i . Hence S_{i+1} is finitely generated over S_i . Hence by induction, S_{i+1} is finitely generated over R . Hence $S = S_{n+1}$ is finitely generated over R . \square

Theorem 1.6. Suppose S is finitely generated over R . Then S is integral over R .

Proof. Let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ generate S as an R -module. Without loss of generality, $\alpha_1 = 1$. Let $s \in S$, and consider $m_s : S \rightarrow S$, given by $x \mapsto sx$. Then

$$s\alpha_i = \sum_j b_{ij}\alpha_j$$

for some $b_{ij} \in R$. Let B be the matrix (b_{ij}) . By definition, we have that

$$(sI - B) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \cdot s \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

Multiplying this by $\text{adj}(sI - B)$, we get that

$$\det(sI - B) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \cdot s \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

But $\alpha_1 = 1$, so $\det(sI - B) = 0$. Define $f(t) = \det(tI - B) \in R[t]$. This is a monic polynomial with coefficients in R , and with $f(s) = 0$. So s is integral over R . \square

Corollary 1.7. If L is a number field, the \mathcal{O}_L is a ring.

Proof. If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta]$ is finitely generated over \mathbb{Z} , so it is integral over \mathbb{Z} . Hence $\alpha \pm \beta, \alpha\beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\alpha, \beta]$, so $\alpha \pm \beta, \alpha\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$. \square

Corollary 1.8. If $A \leq B \leq C$ rings, B integral over A , C integral over B , then C is integral over A .

Proof. If $c \in C$, let $f(x) = x^n + b_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0$ be a monic polynomial over $B[x]$ such that $f(c) = 0$. Set $B_0 = A[b_0, \dots, b_{n-1}]$, and $C_0 = B_0[c]$. Then B_0 is finitely generated over A , C_0 is finitely generated over B_0 as c is integral over B_0 . Hence C_0 is finitely generated over A , qso C_0 is integral over A . \square

Proposition 1.9. Let L be a number field. Then $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ if and only if the minimal polynomial $p_\alpha(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ for α is in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Proof. (\Leftarrow) is true by definition. For the converse, let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$, with minimal polynomial p_α . Let M/L be a splitting field for p_α , so $p_\alpha(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$ in $M[x]$. Let $h(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be a monic polynomial such that $h(\alpha) = 0$. Then $p_\alpha \mid h$ so each $\alpha_i \in M$ is an algebraic integer. But \mathcal{O}_L is a ring, so the coefficients of p_α are in \mathcal{O}_L . Finally, the result follows by $\mathbb{Q} \cap \mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}$. \square

Lemma 1.10. If $\alpha \in L$, then there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus 0$ such that $n\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

Proof. Let $g \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ be the minimal polynomial for α . Then by clearing denominators, we have $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus 0$ such that $h(x) = n^{\deg(g)} g(x/n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is monic. Now notice that $h(n\alpha) = n^{\deg(g)} g(\alpha) = 0$, so $n\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$. \square

1.2 Trace and norm

Recall from Galois theory that if L/K is a field extension, $\alpha \in L$, let $m_\alpha(x) = \alpha x$. Then we have the norm and the trace of α ,

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \det(m_\alpha) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = \text{tr}(m_\alpha)$$

If $p_\alpha(x)$ is the minimal polynomial of α over K , then the characteristic polynomial of m_α is $\det(xI - m_\alpha) = p_\alpha^{[L:K(\alpha)]}$. Furthermore, if M is a splitting field for p_α , with $p_\alpha(x) = (x - \alpha_1) \cdots (x - \alpha_n)$, then

$$N_{K(\alpha)/K} = \prod_i \alpha_i \quad \text{and} \quad \text{tr}_{K(\alpha)/K} = \sum_i \alpha_i$$

By the tower law of norm and trace, we then have that

$$N_{L/K}(\alpha) = \left(\prod_i \alpha_i \right)^{[L:K(\alpha)]} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha) = [L:K(\alpha)] \sum_i \alpha_i$$

Proposition 1.11. Let L be a number field, $\alpha \in L$. Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$,
- (ii) $p_\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$,
- (iii) the characteristic polynomial of m_α is in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$.

Therefore, $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha), \text{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

1.3 Integral basis, discriminant

Definition 1.12 (integral basis)

Let L be a number field. A basis $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ of L/\mathbb{Q} is called an integral basis if

$$\mathcal{O}_L = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \alpha_i \mid m_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Z} \alpha_i$$

Recall from Galois:

- (i) L/\mathbb{Q} is a finite separable extension, as $\text{char}(\mathbb{Q}) = 0$, so by the primitive element theorem, $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in L$.

$$\mathbb{Q}(\alpha) \simeq \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x]}{(p_\alpha)}$$

L is a field, so (p_α) is a maximal ideal in a PID, so p_α is irreducible.

Let $\deg(p_\alpha) = n$. Then L/\mathbb{Q} has basis $1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}$.

(ii) The number of field embeddings $L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is n . Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the distinct embeddings. Then for $\beta \in L$,

$$\text{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta) = \sum_i \sigma_i(\beta) \quad \text{and} \quad N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\beta) = \prod_i \sigma_i(\beta)$$

Definition 1.13 (r, s)

Let L be as above. Define r to be the number of real roots of $p_\alpha(x)$, or equivalently the number of field embeddings $L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, s to be the number of complex conjugate pairs of roots of $p_\alpha(x)$. So $r + 2s = n$.

Proposition 1.14. r, s are independent of α .

Proof. Since r is the number of field embeddings $L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. □

Proposition 1.15. Let L/K be a finite separable extension. Then the K -bilinear form

$$(x, y) \mapsto \text{Tr}_{L/K}(xy)$$

is nondegenerate. We call it the trace form. Equivalently, if $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ is a basis for L/K , the matrix

$$\left(\text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j) \right)_{i,j}$$

has nonzero determinant. We write

$$\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \det \left(\text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j) \right)$$

Proof. Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n : L \rightarrow \overline{K}$ be the n distinct K -linear field embeddings, let

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1(\alpha_1) & \dots & \sigma_1(\alpha_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_n(\alpha_1) & \dots & \sigma_n(\alpha_n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Then we have that

$$(S^T S)_{ij} = \sum_k \sigma_k(\alpha_i) \sigma_k(\alpha_j) = \sum_k \sigma_k(\alpha_i \alpha_j) = \text{Tr}_{L/K}(\alpha_i \alpha_j)$$

which means that $\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \det(S^T S) = (\det(S))^2$. Now by the primitive element theorem, there exists $\theta \in L$ such that $L = K(\theta)$, so $1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1}$ are a basis for L/K . In this case, we have that

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \sigma_1(\theta) & \dots & \sigma_1(\theta)^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \sigma_n(\theta) & \dots & \sigma_n(\theta)^{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

which is a Vandermonde matrix, so we find that

$$\det(S)^2 = \prod_{i < j} (\sigma_i(\theta) - \sigma_j(\theta))^2 = \Delta(1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1})$$

which is nonzero since $L = K(\theta)$ and the σ_i are distinct. Finally, if $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ is any basis for L/K , $\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n$ is any other basis, then

$$\Delta(\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n) = (\det(A))^2 \Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

where $\alpha_i = \sum_j a_{ij} \alpha'_j$, so it is nonzero for any basis. □

Proposition 1.16. Let $L = K(\theta)$, where the minimal polynomial of θ is

$$p_\theta(t) = \prod_i (t - \sigma_i(\theta))$$

Then we have that

$$\text{Disc}(p_\theta) = \prod_{i < j} (\sigma_i(\theta) - \sigma_j(\theta))^2 = \Delta(1, \theta, \dots, \theta^{n-1})$$

Unfortunately in Galois, we have that $\text{Disc} = \Delta^2$, but not much we can do about that..

Proposition 1.17. If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in L$ is a basis of L/\mathbb{Q} , with $\alpha_i \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then $\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. $\text{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha\beta) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$. □

Theorem 1.18. Let L/\mathbb{Q} be a number field. Then there exists an integral basis for L .

Proof. Let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be any basis of L/\mathbb{Q} . Since we have $m_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ nonzero such that $m_i\alpha_i \in \mathcal{O}_L$, wlog we may assume $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_L$. So $\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$. Choose $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that $|\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)|$ is minimal.

Now let $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$, $x = \sum_i \lambda_i \alpha_i$, with $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{Q}$. Suppose for contradiction $\lambda_1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$. Write $\lambda_1 = n_1 + \varepsilon_1$, with $0 < \varepsilon_1 < 1$ and $n_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let $\alpha'_1 = x - n_1\alpha_1 = \varepsilon_1\alpha_1 + \lambda_2\alpha_2 + \dots + \lambda_n\alpha_n \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

Then $\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n$ is still a basis for L/\mathbb{Q} , with

$$\Delta(\alpha'_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n) = \varepsilon_1^2 \Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

Contradicting minimality. □

Corollary 1.19. If $\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n$ is any other integral basis, then

$$\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = \Delta(\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n)$$

Proof. We have a change of basis matrix $g \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ with $g(\alpha'_i) = \alpha_i$. Then $\det(g) = \pm 1$, so $\det(g)^2 = 1$. □

Definition 1.20 (discriminant)

The discriminant of a number field L is

$$D_L = \Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$$

for any integral basis $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$.

2 Ideals in number fields

Lemma 2.1. Let $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$. Then x is a unit if and only if $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(x) = \pm 1$.

Proof. (\implies) follows by the fact that $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(ab) = N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a)N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(b)$ for all $a, b \in L$, and $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

For the converse, let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the distinct field embeddings. Since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, we can assume wlog that $L \leq \mathbb{C}$, and σ_1 is the inclusion map. If $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$, then

$$N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(x) = x\sigma_2(x) \cdots \sigma_n(x)$$

so if $N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(x) = \pm 1$, we get that

$$\frac{1}{x} = \pm \prod_{i=2}^n \sigma_i(x) \in \mathcal{O}_L$$

as the right hand side is a product of algebraic integers. □

2.1 Ideal operations

Definition 2.2 (product)

Let $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \trianglelefteq R$ be ideals, then we define their product to be

$$\mathfrak{ab} = \left\{ \sum a_i b_i \mid a_i \in \mathfrak{a}, b_i \in \mathfrak{b} \right\}$$

Proposition 2.3.

- (i) \mathfrak{ab} is an ideal in R ,
- (ii) $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle \langle b_1, \dots, b_m \rangle = \langle a_i b_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m \rangle$,
- (iii) $(\mathfrak{ab})\mathfrak{c} = \mathfrak{a}(\mathfrak{bc})$

Proof. Easy checks. □

Definition 2.4 (divides)

We say that \mathfrak{b} divides \mathfrak{a} , written $\mathfrak{b} \mid \mathfrak{a}$, if there exists \mathfrak{c} such that $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{bc}$.

Lemma 2.5. If $\mathfrak{a} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is a nonzero ideal, then $\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathbb{Z} \neq \{0\}$, and $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}$ is a finite abelian group.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$ be nonzero, and let $p_\alpha(x) = x^m + a_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be its minimal polynomial. As p_α is irreducible, $a_0 \neq 0$. Then we have that

$$a_0 = -\alpha(\alpha^{m-1} + a_{m-1}\alpha^{m-2} + \dots + a_2\alpha + a_1) \in \mathfrak{a}$$

so $a_0 \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathbb{Z}$. Hence $a_0\mathcal{O}_L \leq \mathfrak{a}$, so we have a map $\mathcal{O}_L/\langle a_0 \rangle \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}$, which is a surjection. But for any $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have that $\mathcal{O}_L/\langle d \rangle = \mathbb{Z}^n/d\mathbb{Z}^n = (\mathbb{Z}/d\mathbb{Z})^n$ which is a finite abelian group, so $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}$ is also a finite abelian group. □

Proposition 2.6. Let L be a number field. Then

- (i) \mathcal{O}_L is an integral domain,
- (ii) \mathcal{O}_L is a Noetherian ring,
- (iii) \mathcal{O}_L is integrally closed in L , i.e. if $\alpha \in L$ is integral over \mathcal{O}_L , then $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$,
- (iv) every nonzero prime ideal in \mathcal{O}_L is maximal.

That is, L is a Dedekind domain.

Proof. (i) is immediate since \mathcal{O}_L is a subring of a field.

For (ii), we have shown that $\mathcal{O}_L \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$ as abelian groups, so if \mathfrak{a} is an ideal in \mathcal{O}_L , then \mathfrak{a} is isomorphic to a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^n , so it is finitely generated as an abelian group, hence it is finitely generated as an ideal.

For (iii), if $\alpha \in L$ is integral over \mathcal{O}_L , as \mathcal{O}_L is integral over \mathbb{Z} , α is integral over \mathbb{Z} . But this means that $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

For (iv), if $\mathfrak{p} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is a nonzero prime ideal, then by the previous lemma, $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{p}$ is a finite integral domain, so it is a field. Hence \mathfrak{p} is maximal. \square

Corollary 2.7. If \mathfrak{a} is a nonzero ideal, then $\mathfrak{a} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$ as abelian groups.

Lemma 2.8. Let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal in R , $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \trianglelefteq R$. Then $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} \leq \mathfrak{p}$ implies that $\mathfrak{a} \leq \mathfrak{p}$ or $\mathfrak{b} \leq \mathfrak{p}$.

Proof. Easy proof by contradiction. \square

Lemma 2.9. If $\mathfrak{a} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is a nonzero ideal, then \mathfrak{a} contains a product of prime ideals.

Proof. Suppose not. Then as \mathcal{O}_L is Noetherian, there exists an ideal \mathfrak{a} such that if \mathfrak{b} is any ideal with $\mathfrak{a} < \mathfrak{b}$, then \mathfrak{b} contains a product of prime ideals. In particular, \mathfrak{a} cannot be prime. Choose $x, y \in \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $x, y \notin \mathfrak{a}$, $xy \in \mathfrak{a}$. Since $\mathfrak{a} < \mathfrak{a} + \langle x \rangle$ and $\mathfrak{a} < \mathfrak{a} + \langle y \rangle$, there exists prime ideals $\mathfrak{p}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_r, \mathfrak{q}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_s$ such that $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r \subseteq \mathfrak{a} + \langle x \rangle$, and $\mathfrak{q}_1 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_s \subseteq \mathfrak{a} + \langle y \rangle$. Then we have that

$$\mathfrak{p}_1 \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r \mathfrak{q}_1 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_s \leq (\mathfrak{a} + \langle x \rangle)(\mathfrak{a} + \langle y \rangle) \leq \mathfrak{a}$$

Contradiction. \square

Lemma 2.10. Let $\mathfrak{a} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{O}_L$ be a nonzero ideal, $x \in L$ such that $x\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}$. Then $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$.

Proof. Since \mathfrak{a} is a finitely generated abelian group, choose a \mathbb{Z} -basis $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ for \mathfrak{a} . Then consider the map $m_x : \mathfrak{a} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a}$, $\alpha \mapsto x\alpha$. Writing $x\alpha_i = \sum_j a_{ij}\alpha_j$, with $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}$, and letting $A = (a_{ij})$, we find that

$$(xI - A) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

which means that $\det(xI - A) = 0$, so x is integral over \mathbb{Z} , hence $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$. \square

2.2 Fractional ideals and unique factorisation of ideals

Lemma 2.11. Let $\mathfrak{a} \trianglelefteq \mathcal{O}_L$, with $\mathfrak{a} \neq 0, \mathcal{O}_L$. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_L \not\subseteq \{y \in L \mid y\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L\}$$

Proof. First of all, note that if this is true for an ideal \mathfrak{a} , then it is true for all $\mathfrak{b} \leq \mathfrak{a}$. So wlog we can assume that \mathfrak{a} i.e. $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}$ prime.

Let $\alpha \in \mathfrak{p}$ be nonzero. Then we have prime ideals $\mathfrak{q}_1, \dots, \mathfrak{q}_r$ such that $\mathfrak{q}_1 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_r \leq \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$. Suppose r is minimal. Then as \mathfrak{p} is prime, there exists i such that $\mathfrak{q}_i \leq \mathfrak{p}$. wlog $i = 1$. As \mathfrak{q}_1 is prime, it is maximal. So $\mathfrak{q}_1 = \mathfrak{p}$. By minimality of r , we must have that $\mathfrak{q}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_r \not\subseteq \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$. Choose $\beta \in \mathfrak{q}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_r \setminus \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$. Then $\beta\mathfrak{p} \leq \mathfrak{p}(\mathfrak{q}_2 \cdots \mathfrak{q}_r) \leq \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$, but $\beta \notin \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$. Dividing by α , we get that

$$\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\mathfrak{p} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \notin \mathcal{O}_L$$

\square

Definition 2.12 (fractional ideal)

A fractional ideal in L is a finitely generated \mathcal{O}_L submodule of L .

Lemma 2.13. $\mathfrak{q} \subseteq L$ is a fractional ideal if and only if there exists $c \in L$ such that $c\mathfrak{q} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is an ideal.

Proof. For (\Leftarrow) notice that $c\mathfrak{q} \simeq \mathfrak{q}$ as \mathcal{O}_L modules. Conversely, let x_1, \dots, x_r generate \mathfrak{q} as an \mathcal{O}_L module. Then $x_i = y_i/n_i$, where $y_i \in \mathcal{O}_L$ and $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let $c = \text{lcm}(n_1, \dots, n_r)$. Then $c\mathfrak{q} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ and is an \mathcal{O}_L submodule. So it is an ideal. \square

Corollary 2.14. If \mathfrak{q} is a fractional ideal, then $\mathfrak{q} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$ as abelian groups, where $n = [L : \mathbb{Q}]$.

We define multiplication of fractional ideals in the same way we defined multiplication of ideals.

Definition 2.15 (invertible)

A fractional ideal \mathfrak{q} is invertible if there exists a fractional ideal \mathfrak{r} such that $\mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{r} = \mathcal{O}_L$.

Proposition 2.16. Every nonzero fractional \mathfrak{q} is invertible with

$$\mathfrak{q}^{-1} = \{x \in L \mid x\mathfrak{q} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L\}$$

Equivalently, for every $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$, there exists an ideal $\mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$ is principal.

Proof. First we show the equivalence. If $\mathfrak{q}, \mathfrak{r}$ are fractional ideals, then we have $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$, $m, n \in L^\times$, such that $\mathfrak{q} = \frac{1}{m}\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{r} = \frac{1}{n}\mathfrak{b}$. Then

$$\mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{r} = \mathcal{O}_L \iff \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} = mn\mathcal{O}_L$$

Now notice that \mathfrak{q} is invertible if and only if \mathfrak{a} is, so wlog we can assume $\mathfrak{q} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$. Hence if the result is false, it is false for some ideal \mathfrak{a} in \mathcal{O}_L . As \mathcal{O}_L is Noetherian, we can assume that if $\mathfrak{a} < \mathfrak{a}'$, then \mathfrak{a}' is invertible.

Let $\mathfrak{b} = \{x \in L \mid x\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L\}$. Then \mathfrak{b} is a fractional ideal, with $\mathcal{O}_L \subsetneq \mathfrak{b}$. Hence we have that $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$. Again this inclusion is strict, since if $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{a}$, then for all $x \in \mathfrak{b}$, $x\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}$, so $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$. But $\mathfrak{b} \not\subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$. Hence $\mathfrak{a} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$, so $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$ is invertible. Let \mathfrak{c} be the inverse of $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}$. Then $\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c}$ is the inverse to \mathfrak{a} . But we assumed \mathfrak{a} was not invertible. Contradiction.

Hence we must have that all fractional ideals are invertible. Finally, let $\mathfrak{c} = \{x \in L \mid x\mathfrak{q} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L\}$. Then by definition, we have that $\mathfrak{q}^{-1} \subseteq \mathfrak{c}$, and

$$\mathcal{O}_L = \mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{q}^{-1} \subseteq \mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{c} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$$

so we must have that $\mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{c} = \mathcal{O}_L$, so $\mathfrak{c} = \mathfrak{q}^{-1}$. \square

Corollary 2.17. Let $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}, \mathfrak{c} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$, with $\mathfrak{c} \neq 0$. Then

$$(i) \quad \mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{a} \iff \mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{c},$$

$$(ii) \quad \mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b} \iff \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{c} \mid \mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c},$$

$$(iii) \quad \mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b} \iff \mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}.$$

Proof. For (i) and (ii), (\implies) follows by multiplying by \mathfrak{c} , and (\impliedby) follows by multiplying by \mathfrak{c}^{-1} .

For (iii), (\implies) is clear by definition of \mid and ideal multiplication. For the converse, there exists α such that $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{c} = \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$ principal. Then by (i) and (ii), we see that $\mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathfrak{a} \iff \mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c} \subseteq \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$, and $\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{b} \iff \alpha\mathcal{O}_L \mid \mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c}$. But if $\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c} = \langle \beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \rangle$, then $\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c} \subseteq \alpha\mathcal{O}_L$ implies that we can write $\beta_i = \gamma_i\alpha$, where $\gamma_i \in \mathcal{O}_L$. So we have that

$$\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c} = \langle \beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \rangle = \langle \beta_1, \dots, \beta_r \rangle \cdot \alpha \mathcal{O}_L$$

□

Theorem 2.18. Let \mathfrak{a} be a nonzero ideal. Then \mathfrak{a} can be written uniquely as a product of prime ideals.

Proof. Existence: If \mathfrak{a} is not prime, then it is not maximal. So there exists a proper ideal $\mathfrak{b} \triangleleft \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $\mathfrak{a} < \mathfrak{b}$. So $\mathfrak{b} \mid \mathfrak{a}$, and we have that $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{c}$ for some \mathfrak{c} . So $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{c}$, and as ascending chains of ideals are finite, this must terminate.

Uniqueness: The same proof as in the integers works.

□

2.3 Class group

Corollary 2.19. The nonzero fractional ideals form a group under multiplication, which we will denote I_L . It is the free abelian group generated by the prime ideals $\mathfrak{p} \triangleleft \mathcal{O}_L$.

That is, any $\mathfrak{q} \in I_L$ can be written uniquely as $\mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$, and \mathfrak{q} is an ideal if and only if all $e_i \geq 0$.

Proposition 2.20. The map $L^\times \rightarrow I_L$, given by $\alpha \mapsto \alpha \mathcal{O}_L$ defines a group homomorphism, with kernel \mathcal{O}_L^\times , and image the principal ideals. We denote the set of principal ideals in I_L by P_L .

Definition 2.21 (class group)

The class group of a number field L is

$$\text{Cl}(L) = \frac{I_L}{P_L}$$

for $\mathfrak{a} \in I_L$, we write $[\mathfrak{a}]$ for its class in $\text{Cl}(L)$. So $[\mathfrak{a}] = [\mathfrak{b}]$ if and only if $\gamma \in L^\times$ such that $\gamma\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}$.

Theorem 2.22. The following are equivalent.

- (i) \mathcal{O}_L is a PID,
- (ii) \mathcal{O}_L is a UFD,
- (iii) $\text{Cl}(L) = 1$

Proof. (i) \iff (iii) is true by definition, and (i) \implies (ii) follow from GRM. Now suppose (ii) holds. Let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal, $x \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus 0$. Then $x = \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_r$, where each $\alpha_i \in \mathcal{O}_L$ is irreducible. As \mathfrak{p} is prime, some $\alpha_i \in \mathfrak{p}$, so $\langle \alpha_i \rangle \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$. As \mathcal{O}_L is a UFD, α_i irreducible, $\langle \alpha_i \rangle$ is prime. So $\langle \alpha_i \rangle$ is maximal, and $\mathfrak{p} = \langle \alpha_i \rangle$ is principal. □

Proposition 2.23. We have an exact sequence

$$1 \longrightarrow \mathcal{O}_L^\times \longleftarrow L^\times \xrightarrow{x \mapsto x\mathcal{O}_L} I_L \longrightarrow \text{Cl}(L) \longrightarrow 1$$

Proof. The class group is precisely the cokernel. □

2.4 Ideal norm

Definition 2.24 (ideal norm)

Let L be a number field, $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ nonzero, then define

$$N(\mathfrak{a}) = \left| \frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{\mathfrak{a}} \right|$$

which is finite.

Proposition 2.25. $N(\mathfrak{a}) \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. By Lagrange's theorem $N(\mathfrak{a}) \cdot 1 = 0$ in $\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}$. □

Proposition 2.26. Let $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$, then $N(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) = N(\mathfrak{a})N(\mathfrak{b})$.

Proof. Step 1: Reduction and definition of ϕ By prime factorisation of ideals, it suffices to show the result for $\mathfrak{b} = \mathfrak{p}$ prime. By unique factorisation, $\mathfrak{a} \neq \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$, so choose $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a} \setminus \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$. Then we can define a map $\phi : \mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{p} \rightarrow \mathfrak{a}/\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$ by $\phi(x \bmod \mathfrak{p}) = \alpha x \bmod \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$.

Step 2: ϕ is well defined. First of all, as $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$, and \mathfrak{a} is an ideal, $\alpha x \in \mathfrak{a}$. Next, if $x \bmod \mathfrak{p} = y \bmod \mathfrak{p}$, then there exists $p \in \mathfrak{p}$ such that $x = y + p$. Then $\alpha x \bmod \mathfrak{p} = (\alpha y + \alpha p) \bmod \mathfrak{p} = \alpha y \bmod \mathfrak{p}$, since $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}, p \in \mathfrak{p}$. So ϕ is well defined.

Step 3: ϕ is injective. As $\langle \alpha \rangle \leq \mathfrak{a}$, $\langle \alpha \rangle = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{c}$ for some ideal \mathfrak{c} . Now suppose x is such that $\alpha x \in \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$, i.e. $x \bmod \mathfrak{p} \in \ker(\phi)$. Then we have that $\langle x\alpha \rangle = x\langle \alpha \rangle = x\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{c} \leq \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$, so $x\mathfrak{c} \leq \mathfrak{p}$. But \mathfrak{p} is prime, so either $\mathfrak{c} \leq \mathfrak{p}$, or $x \in \mathfrak{p}$. But $\mathfrak{c} \leq \mathfrak{p}$ implies that $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}$. Contradiction. So $x \in \mathfrak{p}$, so $x \bmod \mathfrak{p} = 0 \bmod \mathfrak{p}$. Hence $\ker(\phi) = 0$, so ϕ is injective.

Step 4: ϕ is surjective. We have that $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p} \subsetneq \langle \alpha \rangle + \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}$. Multiplying by \mathfrak{a}^{-1} , we get that $\mathfrak{p} \subsetneq \mathfrak{a}^{-1}\langle \alpha \rangle + \mathfrak{p} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$. But \mathfrak{p} is prime, so it is maximal. Hence we must have that $\langle \alpha \rangle + \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{a}$. So ϕ is surjective.

Step 5: Conclusion. By the third isomorphism theorem, we have that

$$N(\mathfrak{a}) = \left| \frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{\mathfrak{a}} \right| = \left| \frac{\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}}{\mathfrak{a}/\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}} \right| = \frac{N(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p})}{N(\mathfrak{p})}$$

since ϕ is an isomorphism, so $|\mathfrak{a}/\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{p}| = |\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{p}|$. □

Lemma 2.27. Let $M \leq \mathbb{Z}^n$ be a subgroup. Then $M \simeq \mathbb{Z}^r$ for some $0 \leq r \leq n$. Moreover, if $r = n$, then there exists a basis v_1, \dots, v_n of M , such that if $v_j = \sum_i a_{ij}e_i$, with e_1, \dots, e_n the standard basis of \mathbb{Z}^n , then $A = (a_{ij})$ is upper triangular. In particular, $|\mathbb{Z}^n/M| = |a_{11} \cdots a_{nn}| = |\det(A)|$.

Proof. See GRM for most of it. To see that we can choose A upper triangular, notice that if we use an algorithm like Smith normal form, but only use row operations, then we can write $A = LU$, where U is upper triangular, L is invertible. So L corresponds to a change of basis for M . □

Lemma 2.28. Let $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ be a nonzero ideal, $n = [L : \mathbb{Q}]$, then

(i) there exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that

$$\mathfrak{a} = \left\{ \sum r_i \alpha_i \mid r_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} = \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}\alpha_i$$

and $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ is a basis of L/\mathbb{Q} .

(ii) for any such $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathfrak{a}$,

$$\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = N(\mathfrak{a})^2 D_L$$

Proof. (i) We've shown \mathcal{O}_L has an integral basis. Choose $d \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathbb{Z}$, for example $d = N(\mathfrak{a})$. Thne $d\mathcal{O}_L \leq \mathfrak{a} \leq \mathcal{O}_L$, so as abelian groups, we have

$$(d\mathbb{Z})^n \leq \mathfrak{a} \leq \mathbb{Z}^n$$

so $\mathfrak{a} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^n$ as a submodule of a free module is free, and so (i) follows.

(ii) Now let $\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n$ be an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_L , and A be the matrix expressing the basis $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ for \mathfrak{a} in terms of the α'_i . Then we have that

$$\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = (\det(A))^2 \Delta(\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n)$$

But the previous lemma gives us that $|\det(A)| = |\mathcal{O}_L/\mathfrak{a}|^1$, and $D_L = \Delta(\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n)$ by definition. \square

Corollary 2.29. If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ is a basis for \mathfrak{a} such that $\Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ is squarefree, then $\mathfrak{a} = \mathcal{O}_L$ and D_L is squarefree.

Corollary 2.30. Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha)$, $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ with minimal polynomial p_α over \mathbb{Q} . Let d be the largest integer such that $d^2 \mid \text{Disc}(p_\alpha) = \Delta(1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1})$. Then

$$|\mathcal{O}_L/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]| \mid d \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \leq \mathcal{O}_L \leq \frac{1}{d}\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

Proof. Omitted. \square

Lemma 2.31. If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ is nonzero, then $N(\langle \alpha \rangle) = |N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)|$.

Proof. Let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ be an integral basis for \mathcal{O}_L , so $\alpha\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha\alpha_n$ is an integral basis for $\langle \alpha \rangle$. Then

$$\Delta(\alpha\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha\alpha_n) = \det(\sigma_i(\alpha\alpha_j))^2 = \det(\sigma_i(\alpha)\sigma_i(\alpha_j))^2 = \left(\prod_i \sigma_i(\alpha) \right)^2 \Delta(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) = N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)^2 D_L$$

\square

2.5 Dedekind's Criterion

Lemma 2.32. Given $\mathfrak{p} \leq \mathcal{O}_L$ a nonzero prime ideal, then there exists a unique prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\mathfrak{p} \mid p\mathcal{O}_L$. Moreover, $N(\mathfrak{p}) = p^f$ for some $1 \leq f \leq n = [L : \mathbb{Q}]$.

Proof. $\mathfrak{p} \cap \mathbb{Z}$ is an ideal in \mathbb{Z} , so it is principal. Say $\mathfrak{p} \cap \mathbb{Z} = p\mathbb{Z}$. We will show p is prime. If $p = ab$, then as $p \in \mathfrak{p}$, either $a \in \mathfrak{p}$ or $b \in \mathfrak{p}$. So $a \in p\mathbb{Z}$ or $b \in p\mathbb{Z}$. So p is prime. Now write $\langle p \rangle = \mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{a}$ by ideal factorisation, and we find that

$$p^n = N(\langle p \rangle) = N(\mathfrak{p})N\mathfrak{a} \implies N(\mathfrak{p}) = p^f$$

\square

Definition 2.33 (ramification indices)

For a prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, write $\langle p \rangle = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$, with the \mathfrak{p}_i distinct prime ideals. We call the e_1, \dots, e_r the ramification indices of p .

¹In the previous lemma, we have that $A = LU$ so we could assume A was upper triangular. But $L \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$, so $|\det(L)| = 1$, and the result holds for *any* basis for M and the corresponding change of basis matrix A .

Definition 2.34 (ramifies, inert, splits (completely))

Let $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ be prime, with

$$\langle p \rangle = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$$

Then we say that

- (i) p ramifies in L if there exists i with $e_i > 1$,
- (ii) p is inert in L if $\langle p \rangle$ is prime,
- (iii) p splits (completely) in L if $r = n$, $e_1 = \cdots = e_n = 1$.

Theorem 2.35 (Dedekind's criterion). Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ with minimal polynomial $g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$. Suppose $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \leq \mathcal{O}_L$ has finite index coprime to p . Then let $\bar{g}(x) = g(x) \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$. Say

$$\bar{g}(x) = \bar{\phi}_1^{e_1} \cdots \bar{\phi}_r^{e_r}$$

be the factorisation of \bar{g} into irreducibles in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$. Then

$$\langle p \rangle = p\mathcal{O}_L = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$$

where $\mathfrak{p}_i = \langle p, \phi_i(\alpha) \rangle$, where $\phi_i(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is such that $\phi_i \pmod{p} = \bar{\phi}_i$. Moreover, the \mathfrak{p}_i are distinct.

Proof. Part 1: Each ϕ_i defines a prime ideal in $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ containing p . Consider the following diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{Z}[x] & \xrightarrow{e} & \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \mathbb{Z}[x]/g\mathbb{Z}[x] \\ \downarrow m & & \downarrow m' \\ \mathbb{F}_p[x] & \xrightarrow{e'} & \mathbb{F}_p[x]/\bar{\phi}_i\mathbb{F}_p[x] \end{array}$$

where e, e' are the quotient maps, m is the map given by reduction \pmod{p} , and $m'(f \pmod{g}) = \bar{f} \pmod{\bar{\phi}_i}$. Note that m' is well defined since $\bar{\phi}_i \mid \bar{g}$.

Step 1: $\ker(e' \circ m) = p\mathbb{Z}[x] + \phi_i\mathbb{Z}[x]$. \supseteq is clear. Now suppose $f \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$, with $e'(m(f)) = 0$. That is, $\bar{f} \pmod{\bar{\phi}_i} = 0$. So $\bar{f} = h\bar{\phi}_i$ for some $h \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$. But then this means that $f = h\phi_i + p \cdot (\text{stuff})$. So \subseteq holds.

Step 2: $\ker(m') = p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] + \phi_i(\alpha)\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. As e is a surjection, we have that

$$\ker(m') = e(e^{-1}(\ker(m'))) = e(\ker(m' \circ e)) = e(\ker(e' \circ m)) = e(p\mathbb{Z}[x] + \phi_i\mathbb{Z}[x]) = p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] + \phi_i(\alpha)\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$$

Step 3: Defining the prime ideal. Let $\mathfrak{q}_i = p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] + \phi_i(\alpha)\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] = \ker(m')$. Then by the isomorphism theorem, we have that

$$\frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}{\mathfrak{q}_i} \simeq \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[x]}{\bar{\phi}_i\mathbb{F}_p[x]}$$

But $\bar{\phi}_i$ is irreducible, so $\mathbb{F}_p[x]/\bar{\phi}_i\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ is a field. Hence \mathfrak{q}_i is a prime ideal. Furthermore, $\mathbb{F}_p[x]/\bar{\phi}_i\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ is a characteristic p finite field, so $|\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/\mathfrak{q}_i| = p^{f_i}$, where $f_i = \deg(\bar{\phi}_i)$.

Part 2: Using the correspondence theorem to define a ideals in \mathcal{O}_L .

Step 1: The inclusion map induces an isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]/p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_L/p\mathcal{O}_L$. Since $p \nmid |\mathcal{O}_L/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]|$, the map $m_p : \mathcal{O}_L/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_L/p\mathcal{O}_L$, given by $m_p(x) = px$ is an injective homomorphism (of additive groups), so it is an isomorphism. But

$$\ker \left(\frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}{p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]} \rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{p\mathcal{O}_L} \right) = \frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \cap p\mathcal{O}_L}{p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]} = \ker(m_p)$$

and

$$\frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}{p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]} \rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{p\mathcal{O}_L} \text{ surjective} \iff \mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] + p\mathcal{O}_L \iff m_p \text{ is surjective.}$$

Step 2: Correspondence theorem. Now consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \left\{ \text{ideals in } \frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}{p\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]} \right\} & \longleftrightarrow & \left\{ \text{ideals in } \frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{p\mathcal{O}_L} \right\} \\ \updownarrow & & \updownarrow \\ \left\{ \text{ideals in } \mathbb{Z}[\alpha] \text{ containing } p \right\} & \xrightarrow{\Psi} & \left\{ \text{ideals in } \mathcal{O}_L \text{ containing } p \right\} \end{array}$$

where the vertical bijections are induced by the correspondence theorem, and the top bijection is induced by the isomorphism from step 1. In particular, note that the composite bijection gives $\Psi(\mathfrak{q}) = \mathfrak{q}\mathcal{O}_L$, and $\Psi^{-1}(\mathfrak{p}) = \mathfrak{p} \cap \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$. Furthermore, this bijection takes prime ideals to prime ideals. Finally,

$$\frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{\mathfrak{p}} \simeq \frac{\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}{\mathfrak{p} \cap \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]}$$

which means that if we define $\mathfrak{p}_i = \mathfrak{q}_i\mathcal{O}_L$, then $N(\mathfrak{p}_i) = p^{f_i}$ as required.

Part 3: $p\mathcal{O}_L = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$, and the \mathfrak{p}_i are distinct.

First notice that $\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} = \langle p, \phi_i(\alpha) \rangle^{e_i} \leq \langle p, \phi_i(\alpha)^{e_i} \rangle$, so we have that

$$\mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r} \leq \langle p, \phi_1(\alpha)^{e_1} \cdots \phi_r(\alpha)^{e_r} \rangle = \langle p, g(\alpha) \rangle$$

since $\phi_1^{e_1} \cdots \phi_r^{e_r} \equiv g \pmod{p}$. But $g(\alpha) = 0$, so $\mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r} \leq \langle p \rangle$. Taking norms, and using the fact that $\sum e_i f_i = n$, we get that equality holds.

Finally, if i, j distinct, then $\overline{\phi_i}, \overline{\phi_j}$ are coprime in $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$, so $\mathfrak{p}_i + \mathfrak{p}_j = \langle p, \phi_i(\alpha), \phi_j(\alpha) \rangle \neq \mathfrak{p}_i$, so the \mathfrak{p}_i are distinct. \square

Corollary 2.36. If p is prime, $p < n = [L : \mathbb{Q}]$, $|\mathcal{O}_L/\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]|$ coprime to p , then p does not split completely.

Proof. Let g be the minimal polynomial of α . But $\deg(g) = n > p$, so \overline{g} can't have distinct roots. \square

Finally, two theorems which we do not prove.

Theorem 2.37. With the notation as in (the proof for) Dedekind's criterion, we find that

$$\frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{\mathfrak{p}_i} \simeq \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[x]}{\overline{\phi_i}} \simeq \mathbb{F}_p^{f_i}$$

and

$$\frac{\mathcal{O}_L}{p\mathcal{O}_L} = \bigoplus_{i=1}^r \frac{\mathbb{F}_p[x]}{\overline{\phi_i}^{e_i}} \simeq \bigoplus_{i=1}^r \frac{\mathbb{F}_p^{f_i}[t]}{(t^{e_i})}$$

Theorem 2.38. p ramifies in \mathcal{O}_L if and only if $p \mid D_L$.

3 Geometry of numbers

3.1 Minkowski's lemma

Proposition 3.1. Let $\Lambda \leq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a subgroup. Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) Λ is a discrete subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n ,
- (ii) for any $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ compact, $K \cap \Lambda$ is finite,
- (iii) there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B_\varepsilon(0) \cap \Lambda = \{0\}$,
- (iv)

$$\Lambda = \bigoplus_{i=1}^m \mathbb{Z}x_i$$

where the x_i are \mathbb{R} -linearly independent.

Proof. (i) \implies (iii) follows from the definition of discrete, and (iii) \implies (i) follows from the fact that for every $x \in \Lambda$,

$$B_\varepsilon(x) \cap \Lambda = B_\varepsilon(0) \cap \Lambda + x = \{x\} \quad (*)$$

as Λ is a subgroup.

For (iii) \implies (ii), notice that by compactness,

$$K \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in K} B_{\varepsilon/2}(x) \implies K \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r B_{\varepsilon/2}(x_i)$$

and each $B_{\varepsilon/2}(x_i)$ contains at most one element of Λ , by (*). Therefore $K \cap \Lambda$ is finite. Now suppose (iii) doesn't hold. Then we can choose $(x_n) \subseteq \Lambda$ such that $|x_1| < 1$, and $|x_{n+1}| < |x_n|$. So $\overline{B_1(0)} \cap \Lambda$ is finite. Contradiction.

Now suppose (iv) holds. Notice that properties (i)-(v) are all preserved under the action of $g \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$. So we can assume without loss of generality that $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}^m \times 0 \leq \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^{n-m}$, which is clearly discrete.

Finally, suppose (ii) holds. Choose a maximal \mathbb{R} -linearly independent subset y_1, \dots, y_m of Λ . Clearly $m \leq n$, and

$$V = \text{span}\{y_1, \dots, y_m\} = \text{span}\{\Lambda\}$$

Now let $X = \{\sum_i \lambda_i y_i \mid \lambda_i \in [0, 1]\}$, which is a closed bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n , so it is compact. Hence $\Lambda \cap X$ is finite. But we have that $\Lambda \subseteq \bigoplus \mathbb{Z}y_i + X \cap \Lambda$, which means that $|\Lambda / \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}y_i| \leq |X \cap \Lambda| < \infty$.

Therefore, if $d = |\Lambda / \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}y_i|$, then $d\Lambda \subseteq \bigoplus \mathbb{Z}y_i$ by Lagrange's theorem, so $\Lambda \subseteq \frac{1}{d} \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}y_i$. But then this means that

$$\bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}y_i \leq \Lambda \leq \frac{1}{d} \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}y_i$$

So by the structure theorem for abelian groups, there exists $x_1, \dots, x_m \in \Lambda$ with $\Lambda = \bigoplus_i \mathbb{Z}x_i$. □

Definition 3.2 (lattice)

A subgroup $\Lambda \leq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a lattice of $m = n$ in (iv) above.

Definition 3.3 (fundamental domain, covolume)

Let $\Lambda \leq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice with basis x_1, \dots, x_n . Define

- (i) the fundamental domain

$$P = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i \mid \lambda_i \in [0, 1] \right\}$$

(ii) the covolume of Λ is

$$\text{covol}(\Lambda) = \text{vol}(P) = |\det(A)|$$

where $x_i = \sum_j a_{ij} e_j$, $A = (a_{ij})$.

Proposition 3.4. $\text{covol}(\Lambda)$ is independent of the choice of basis.

Proof. For any $g \in \text{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$, $|\det(g)| = 1$. □

Theorem 3.5 (Minkowski's lemma). Let $\Lambda \leq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a lattice, P a fundamental domain, $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be measurable. Then

- (i) suppose $\text{vol}(S) > \text{covol}(\Lambda)$. Then there exists distinct $x, y \in S$ such that $x - y \in \Lambda$,
- (ii) suppose S is symmetric about zero, convex, and either
 - (a) $\text{vol}(S) > 2^n \text{covol}(\Lambda)$,
 - (b) or $\text{vol}(S) \geq 2^n \text{covol}(\Lambda)$ and S is closed,

Then there exists an element $\gamma \in S \cap \Lambda$ with $\gamma \neq 0$.

Proof. (i) We have that $\text{vol}(S) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Lambda} \text{vol}(S \cap (P + \gamma))$ as P is a fundamental domain and volume (i.e. Lebesgue measure) is countably additive, and in the intersections, $\text{vol}(\partial P) = 0$. Since the Lebesgue measure is translation invariant, $\text{vol}(S \cap (P + \gamma)) = \text{vol}((S - \gamma) \cap P)$.

Suppose for contradiction that the sets $(S - \gamma) \cap P$ are pairwise disjoint. Then

$$\text{vol}(P) \geq \sum_{\gamma \in \Lambda} \text{vol}((S - \gamma) \cap P) = \sum_{\gamma \in \Lambda} \text{vol}(S \cap (P + \gamma)) = \text{vol}(S)$$

Contradiction. Therefore, there exists $\lambda, \mu \in \Lambda$ distinct such that $(S - \lambda) \cap (S - \mu) \cap P \neq \emptyset$. That is, there exists $x, y \in S$ such that $x - \lambda = y - \mu$, so $x - y = \lambda - \mu \in \Lambda$.

(ii) (a) Suppose $\text{vol}(S) > 2^n \text{covol}(\Lambda)$. Let $S' = \frac{1}{2}S$, so $\text{vol}(S') > \text{covol}(\Lambda)$. Hence by (i), there exists $y, z \in S'$ with $y - z \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}$. But $2y, 2z \in S$, so $-2z \in S$ as S is symmetric about 0. Now convexity implies that $y - z = \frac{1}{2}(2y - 2z) \in S$.

(b) Now suppose $\text{vol}(S) \geq 2^n \text{covol}(\Lambda)$, and S is closed. Define $S_m = (1 + \frac{1}{m})S$ for $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Now we have that $\gamma_m \in S_m \cap \Lambda$ with $\gamma_m \neq 0$ by (a). Convexity implies that $S_m \subseteq S_1$, so $\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots \in S_1 \cap \Lambda$, which is a finite set since S_1 is bounded². Hence there exists γ such that $\gamma_m = \gamma$ for infinitely many m . Then

$$\gamma \in \bigcap_m S_m = S$$

as S is closed and bounded. □

3.2 Finiteness of the class group

Let L be a number field, $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = n$. Then we have real embeddings $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r : L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and complex embeddings $\sigma_{r+1}, \dots, \sigma_{r+s}, \overline{\sigma_{r+1}}, \dots, \overline{\sigma_{r+s}} : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Define

$$\sigma = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r, \sigma_{r+1}, \dots, \sigma_{r+s}) : L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{C}^s \simeq \mathbb{R}^{r+2s} = \mathbb{R}^n$$

where we use the isomorphism $\mathbb{C} \simeq \mathbb{R}^2$ as \mathbb{R} -vector spaces, given by $z \mapsto (\text{Re}(z), \text{Im}(z))$.

Lemma 3.6. If $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is an ideal, then $\sigma(\mathfrak{a})$ is a lattice with

²Which we can assume, since $0 < \text{vol}(S) < \infty$ implies that S is bounded.

$$\text{covol}(\sigma(\mathfrak{a})) = 2^{-s} |D_L|^{1/2} N(\mathfrak{a})$$

Proof. Recall that \mathfrak{a} has an integral basis, say $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$, and that $\Delta(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n) = \det(\sigma_i(\gamma_j))^2 = N(\mathfrak{a})D_L$, so $|\det(\sigma_i(\gamma_j))| = N(\mathfrak{a})|D_L|^{1/2}$. The covolume is given by

$$\text{covol}(\sigma(\mathfrak{a})) = \det \begin{pmatrix} \vdots & \vdots \\ \sigma(\gamma_1) & \sigma(\gamma_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

which has the same rows 1 to r as $(\sigma_i(\gamma_j))$, but for the $r+1, \dots, r+2s$ rows, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{Re}(\sigma_{r+i}(\gamma_j)) \\ \text{Im}(\sigma_{r+i}(\gamma_j)) \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{r+i}(\gamma_j) \\ \sigma_{r+i}(\gamma_j) \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence the change of basis matrix has absolute value of the determinant being 2^{-s} . \square

Corollary 3.7. $\sigma(\mathcal{O}_L)$ is a lattice in \mathbb{R}^n with $\text{covol}(\sigma(\mathcal{O}_L)) = 2^{-s} |D_L|^{1/2}$.

Proposition 3.8 (Minkowski bound). Suppose $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ is a nonzero ideal. Then there exists $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$ nonzero, with $|N(\alpha)| < C_L N(\mathfrak{a})$, where

$$C_L = \left(\frac{4}{\pi} \right)^s \frac{n!}{n^n} |D_L|^{1/2}$$

is called the Minkowski bound.

Proof. Let

$$B_{r,s}(t) = \left\{ (y_1, \dots, y_r, z_1, \dots, z_s) \in \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{C}^s \mid \sum |y_i| + 2 \sum |z_j| < t \right\}$$

Then $B_{r,s}(t)$ is closed, bounded, measurable, with

$$\text{vol}(B_{r,s}(t)) = 2^r \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \right)^s \frac{t^n}{n!}$$

Choose t such that $\text{vol}(B_{r,s}(t)) = 2^n \text{covol}(\sigma(\mathfrak{a}))$. Then by Minkowski's lemma, we have $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}$ nonzero, such that $\sigma(\alpha) \in B_{r,s}(t)$. Write $\sigma(\alpha) = (y_1, \dots, y_r, z_1, \dots, z_s)$. Then by the AM-GM inequality, we have that

$$|N(\alpha)|^{1/n} = |y_1 \cdots y_r z_1 \bar{z}_1 \cdots z_s \bar{z}_s| \leq \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum |y_i| + 2 \sum |z_j| \right) \leq \frac{t}{n}$$

Which means that

$$|N(\alpha)| \leq \frac{t^n}{n} = C_L N(\mathfrak{a})$$

\square

Corollary 3.9. Every $[\mathfrak{a}] \in \text{Cl}(L)$ has a representative $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$, with $N(\mathfrak{a}) \leq C_L$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in \mathfrak{a}^{-1}$ be such that $|N(\alpha)| \leq C_L N(\mathfrak{a}^{-1})$. Then $\mathfrak{a}^{-1} \mid (\alpha)$, so we must have $\mathfrak{a}^{-1} \mathfrak{b} = (\alpha)$, for some ideal \mathfrak{b} . Taking norms, we find

$$N(\mathfrak{a}^{-1})N(\mathfrak{b}) = |N(\alpha)| \leq C_L N(\mathfrak{a}^{-1})$$

so $N(\mathfrak{b}) \leq C_L$. Furthermore, in the class group, we have that $[\mathfrak{b}] = [\mathfrak{a}]$. \square

Theorem 3.10. $\text{Cl}(L)$ is a finite group, and it is generated by $[\mathfrak{p}]$, where the \mathfrak{p} are prime ideals with $N(\mathfrak{p}) \leq C_L$.

Proof. By the previous corollary, let $[\mathfrak{a}] \in \text{Cl}(L)$, with $N(\mathfrak{a}) \leq C_L$. Then if we factor $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{p}_r^{e_r}$, then each $N(\mathfrak{p}_i) \leq C_L$. \square

Corollary 3.11. $\text{Cl}(L)$ is generated by the prime factors of $p\mathcal{O}_L$, for primes $p \leq C_L$.

Theorem 3.12 (Hermite, Minkowski). If $n \geq 2$, then

$$|D_L| \geq \frac{\pi}{3} \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right)^{n-1} > 1$$

So there are primes which ramify in L .

Proof. Consider the class $[\mathcal{O}_L] \in \text{Cl}(L)$. Then we have an ideal $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $1 \leq N(\mathfrak{a}) \leq C_L$. This implies $C_L \geq 1$, so

$$|D_L|^{1/2} \geq \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right)^s \frac{n^n}{n!} \geq \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right)^{n/2} \frac{n^n}{n!} =: a_n^{1/2}$$

The result follows by induction as

$$a_2 = \frac{\pi^2}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{\pi}{4} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{2n} > \frac{\pi}{4} (1+2) = \frac{3\pi}{4}$$

by the binomial theorem. \square

3.3 Dirichlet's unit theorem

The final result in the course is Dirichlet's unit theorem.

Theorem 3.13 (Dirichlet's unit theorem).

$$\mathcal{O}_L^\times \simeq \mu_L \times \mathbb{Z}^{r+s-1}$$

as abelian groups, where

$$\mu_L = \{ \alpha \in L \mid \alpha^m = 1 \text{ for some } m > 0 \}$$

is the group of roots of unity in L , which is a finite cyclic group.

Let $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r : L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the real embeddings, and $\sigma_{r+1}, \dots, \sigma_{r+s}, \overline{\sigma_{r+1}}, \dots, \overline{\sigma_{r+s}} : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be the complex embeddings, as before. Define $\ell : \mathcal{O}_L^\times \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ by

$$\ell(\alpha) = (\log |\sigma_1(\alpha)|, \dots, \log |\sigma_r(\alpha)|, 2 \log |\sigma_{r+1}(\alpha)|, \dots, 2 \log |\sigma_{r+s}(\alpha)|)$$

Lemma 3.14.

(i) $\text{im}(\ell) \leq \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$ is a discrete subgroup,

(ii) $\ker(\ell) = \mu_L$ is a finite group.

Proof. (i) As $\log |ab| = \log |a| + \log |b|$, ℓ is a group homomorphism, and so its image is a subgroup of \mathbb{R}^{r+s} . We want to show that it is discrete. Equivalently, it suffices to show that for every $R > 0$, $\text{im}(\ell) \cap [-R, R]^{r+s}$ is finite. But we have that $\ell = j \circ \sigma$,

$$\mathcal{O}_L^\times \hookrightarrow \mathcal{O}_L \xrightarrow{\sigma} \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{C}^s \xrightarrow{j} \mathbb{R}^{r+s}$$

where $j(y_1, \dots, y_r, z_1, \dots, z_s) = (\log |y_1|, \dots, \log |y_r|, 2 \log |z_1|, \dots, 2 \log |z_s|)$. We have that

$$j^{-1}([-R, R]^{r+s}) = \{(y_i, z_j) \mid e^{-R} \leq y_i \leq e^R, e^{-R} \leq 2|z_j| \leq e^R\}$$

which is compact. But $\sigma(\mathcal{O}_L)$ is a lattice, so $\sigma(\mathcal{O}_L) \cap j^{-1}([-R, R]^{r+s})$ is finite.

(ii) Note that if $\alpha \in \ker(\ell)$, then $\sigma(\alpha) \in \sigma(\mathcal{O}_L) \cap j^{-1}([-R, R]^{r+s})$ for all $R > 0$. In particular, as σ is injective, $\ker(\ell)$ is a finite group. So each element has finite order, hence it is a root of unity. Thus, $\ker(\ell) = \mu_L$. \square

Lemma 3.15.

$$\text{im}(\ell) \leq \left\{ (y_1, \dots, y_{r+s}) \mid \sum y_i = 0 \right\}$$

Proof. If $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L^\times$, then

$$0 = \log |N(\alpha)| = \sum_{i=1}^r \log |\sigma_i(\alpha)| + 2 \sum_{i=r+1}^{r+s} |\sigma_i(\alpha)|$$

\square

Corollary 3.16. $\text{im}(\ell)$ is isomorphic to a discrete subgroup of \mathbb{R}^{r+s-1} , so it must be \mathbb{Z}^a for some $0 \leq a \leq r + s - 1$.

Lemma 3.17. Fix k with $1 \leq k \leq r + s$, $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ nonzero. Write $\ell(\alpha) = (a_1, \dots, a_{r+s})$. Then there exists $\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ nonzero with

$$(i) |N(\beta)| \leq \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^s |D_L|^{1/2},$$

(ii) if we write $\ell(\beta) = (b_1, \dots, b_{r+s})$, then $b_i < a_i$ for every $i \neq k$.

Proof. Let

$$S = \left\{ (y_1, \dots, y_r, z_1, \dots, z_s) \in \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{C}^s \mid |y_i| \leq c_i, |z_j|^2 \leq c_{r+j} \right\}$$

for soem constants c_1, \dots, c_{r+s} . Then S is closed, convex and symmetric around zero, with $\text{vol}(S) = 2^r \pi^s c_1 \cdots c_{r+s}$. If we choose c_i such that $0 < c_i < e^{a_i}$ for all $i \neq k$, and c_k such that

$$\text{vol}(S) = 2^n \text{covol}(\sigma(\mathcal{O}_L))$$

by Minkowski's lemma, there exists $\beta \in \sigma(\mathcal{O}_L) \cap S$. \square

Lemma 3.18. If $\alpha = \beta + m\gamma$, with $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{O}_L$, and $N(\alpha) = N(\beta) = m$, then $\alpha/\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L^\times$.

Proof. Notice that $N(\beta)/\beta \in L$ is a product of algebraic elements, since

$$N(\beta) = \prod_i \sigma_i(\beta)$$

so $N(\beta)/\beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$. \square

Lemma 3.19. Let $A \in M_m(\mathbb{R})$ be such that $a_{ii} > 0$ for all i , $a_{ij} < 0$ for $i \neq j$, $\sum_j a_{ij} \geq 0$ for all i . Then $\text{rank}(A) \geq m - 1$.

Proof. Some basic linear algebra. Any $m - 1$ columns of A are linearly independent. \square

Lemma 3.20. The short exact sequence

$$0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z}^m \longrightarrow 0$$

of abelian groups splits. That is, $B \simeq A \oplus \mathbb{Z}^m$, with the map $B \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^m$ being the projection map.

Proof. Easy homological algebra. \square

Proof of Dirichlet's unit theorem. Fix $1 \leq k \leq r + s$. Then we have a sequence $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots$ such that $N(\alpha_t)$ bounded, and for $i \neq k$, the i -th coordinate of $\ell(\alpha_1), \ell(\alpha_2), \dots$ is a strictly decreasing sequence. Now by the Pigeonhole principle, there exists $t < t'$ such that

1. $N(\alpha_t) = N(\alpha_{t'}) = m$,
2. $\alpha_t \equiv \alpha_{t'} \pmod{m\mathcal{O}_L}$

Then $u_k = \alpha_t / \alpha_{t'} \in \mathcal{O}_L^\times$. Furthermore, we have that

$$\ell(u_k) = \ell(\alpha_t) - \ell(\alpha_{t'}) = (y_1, \dots, y_{r+s})$$

and we have that $y_i < 0$ if $i \neq k$, $y_1 + \dots + y_{r+s} = 0$, and $y_k > 0$. But then this means that u_1, \dots, u_{r+s-1} are linearly independent, so the rank of $\ell(\mathcal{O}_L^\times)$ is $r + s - 1$. \square

4 Quadratic number fields

In this section, we collect the implications of the theorems in this course for quadratic number fields. That is, $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 2$. By some basic field theory, we can see that all such L must be of the form $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$, where we can assume wlog that d is squarefree, $d \neq 0, 1$. Throughout, assume $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$.

Integral basis and discriminant

Lemma 4.1.

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

Proof. L/\mathbb{Q} has basis $1, \sqrt{d}$. So if $\alpha = x + y\sqrt{d}$, then the matrix of m_α in this basis is

$$\begin{pmatrix} x & dy \\ y & x \end{pmatrix}$$

which has minimal polynomial $t^2 - 2x + (x^2 - dy^2)$. Hence $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L$ if and only if $2x, x^2 - dy^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. Notice that this implies that $4dy^2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $y = r/s \in \mathbb{Q}$, with r, s coprime, then $s^2 \mid 4d$. But d is squarefree, so $s^2 \mid 4$, so $s = \pm 1$ or ± 2 . Hence we have that

$$x = \frac{u}{2}, y = \frac{v}{2}, u, v \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{with} \quad u^2 \equiv dv^2 \pmod{4}$$

Now the quadratic residues mod 4 are 0, 1, so if $d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then the equation has a solution if and only if $u^2, dv^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. That is, u, v are even. So $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is, $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$.

On the other hand, if $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then the equation implies that u, v have the same parity, so we can write α as a \mathbb{Z} linear combination of $1, (1 + \sqrt{d})/2$. \square

Note that the minimal polynomials are

- $t^2 - t + (1 - d)/4$ for $(1 + \sqrt{d})/2$
- $t^2 - d$ for \sqrt{d}

Corollary 4.2. L has integral basis

$$\begin{cases} 1, (1 + \sqrt{d})/2 & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 1, \sqrt{d} & \text{if } d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Corollary 4.3. L has discriminant

$$\begin{cases} d & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 4d & \text{if } d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Ideals

Lemma 4.4. Let $\mathfrak{a} \leq \mathcal{O}_L$ be an ideal, then there exists $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\mathfrak{a} = \langle \alpha, b \rangle$.

Proof. Since $\mathfrak{a} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^2$ as abelian groups, we can choose $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O}_L$ such that $\mathfrak{a} = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$. We will handle the $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ cases together. We can write

$$\alpha = \frac{u + v\sqrt{d}}{2}, \beta = \frac{x + y\sqrt{d}}{2}$$

where $u, v, x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $u \equiv v \pmod{2}$ and $x \equiv y \pmod{2}$. Let $\ell = \gcd(y, v) = mv + ny$, and we have that

$$\beta' = \beta - \frac{y(m\alpha + n\beta)}{\ell} = \frac{m}{\ell} \left(\frac{vx - uy}{2} \right)$$

But $vx - uy \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, so $\beta' \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is easy to see that $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha, \beta' \rangle$, so we are done. \square

Proposition 4.5. Let $\mathfrak{a} = \langle \alpha, b \rangle$ with $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_L, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\mathfrak{a}\bar{\mathfrak{a}} = \langle b, \alpha \rangle \langle b, \bar{\alpha} \rangle$$

is principal.

Proof.

$$\mathfrak{a}\bar{\mathfrak{a}} = \langle b^2, b\alpha, b\bar{\alpha}, \alpha\bar{\alpha} \rangle = \langle b^2, b\alpha, b\text{Tr}(\alpha), N(\alpha) \rangle$$

Let $c = \gcd(b^2, b\text{Tr}(\alpha), N(\alpha))$. Then $\mathfrak{a}\bar{\mathfrak{a}} = \langle b\alpha, c \rangle$. Let $x = b\alpha/c$. Then $\text{Tr}(x), N(x) \in \mathbb{Z}$, so $x \in \mathcal{O}_L$, and so $c \mid b\alpha$ in \mathcal{O}_L . Thus $\mathfrak{a}\bar{\mathfrak{a}} = \langle c \rangle$ is principal. \square

Dedekind and primes

First of all, we consider the behaviour of odd primes. Let p be an odd prime, then $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}] \leq \mathcal{O}_L$ has index 1 or 2, which is coprime to p . Hence by Dedekind's criterion, we must factor $x^2 - d \pmod{p}$. We have three possibilities.

- if $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$, then there are two distinct roots modulo p , so p splits completely.
- if $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 0$, i.e. $p \mid d$, then p ramifies.
- if $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = -1$, then $x^2 - d$ is irreducible, so p is inert.

Lemma 4.6.

$$2 \begin{cases} \text{splits completely} & \iff d \equiv 1 \pmod{8} \\ \text{is inert} & \iff d \equiv 5 \pmod{8} \\ \text{ramifies} & \iff d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Proof. First we handle the case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. In this case, $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$, where $\alpha = (1 + \sqrt{d})/2$ has minimal polynomial $g = x^2 - x + (1 - d)/4$. So if $d \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, then $\bar{g} = x^2 + x = x(x + 1)$, so 2 splits by Dedekind. If $d \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, then $\bar{g} = x^2 + x + 1$, which is irreducible.

Finally, if $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\mathcal{O}_L = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{d}]$, and $g(x) = x^2 - d$ is the minimal polynomial. Modulo 2 this is x^2 or $x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)^2$, so 2 ramifies. \square

Minkowski bound

For imaginary quadratic fields, that is, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ with $d < 0$ squarefree, we have that $n = 2, r = 0, s = 1$, so the Minkowski bound is

$$C_L = \frac{2}{\pi} |D_L|^{1/2}$$

and for real quadratic fields, we have $n = 2, r = 2, s = 0$, so the Minkowski bound is

$$C_L = \frac{1}{2} |D_L|^{1/2}$$

Dirichlet's unit theorem

For a real quadratic number field, $\mu_L = \{\pm 1\}$, $n = 2, r = 2, s = 0$, so we have that

$$\mathcal{O}_L^\times \simeq \{\pm 1\} \times \mathbb{Z}$$

More concretely, we have

Corollary 4.7 (Dirichlet's unit theorem for real quadratic number fields).

$$\mathcal{O}_L^\times = \{\pm \varepsilon_0^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

for some $\varepsilon_0 \in \mathcal{O}_L^\times$, called a fundamental unit.

Proof. Choose $\varepsilon_0 \in \mathcal{O}_L^\times$, with $1 < |\sigma_1(\varepsilon_0)|$ minimal. Then ε_0 is a fundamental unit. \square

For an imaginary quadratic number field, $n = 2, r = 0, s = 1$, so $r + s - 1 = 0$. Hence by Dirichlet's unit theorem, $\mathcal{O}_L^\times = \mu_L$ is a finite group. In particular,

Lemma 4.8.

1. if $d = -1$, then $\mathbb{Z}[i]^\times = \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$,
2. if $d = -3$, $\omega = (1 + \sqrt{-3})/2$, $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]^\times = \{1, \omega, \dots, \omega^5\}$,
3. for all other $d < 0$, $\mathcal{O}_L^\times = \{\pm 1\}$.

Proof. Just solve $N(x + y\sqrt{d}) = x^2 - dy^2 = \pm 1$. \square