

## Lecture 19 (13.1.)

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Finally:

### Proof of Thm 8.12

Existence of a factorization: Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the set of all ideals which do not have a factorization. Suppose,  $\mathcal{M} \neq \emptyset$ . Then by Zorn's Lemma,  $\mathcal{M}$  has a maximal element  $I$ . Since  $I \neq R$ , it is contained in a maximal ideal  $P$ . Since  $R \subseteq P^{-1}$ , we set:

$$I \subseteq IP^{-1} \subseteq PP^{-1} \subseteq R.$$

By Lemma 8.14,  $I \not\subseteq IP^{-1}$  and  $P \not\subseteq PP^{-1}$ . Since  $P$  is maximal and  $PP^{-1} \subseteq R$  is an ideal, we must have  $PP^{-1} = R$ . Since  $I \in \mathcal{M}$ , it cannot be a prime ideal, so  $I \not\subseteq P$ , hence  $IP^{-1} \neq PP^{-1} = R$ . Hence  $I \not\subseteq IP^{-1} \subsetneq R$ . By maximality of  $I$  in  $\mathcal{M}$ , we thus have  $IP^{-1} \notin \mathcal{M}$ , so  $IP^{-1} = P_1 \cdots P_r \Rightarrow I = IP^{-1}P = P_1 \cdots P_r \cdot P \Rightarrow I \notin \mathcal{M}$ .

Uniqueness of factorization: Let  $I = P_1 \cdots P_r = Q_1 \cdots Q_s$  be two factorizations.

Then  $Q_1 \cdots Q_s \subseteq P_1$ , so  $Q_i \subseteq P_1$  for some  $i$  (by general fact in proof of Lemma 8.14). Wlog  $i=1$ . Since  $R$  is one-dimensional,  $Q_1 = P_1$ . Moreover,  $P_1 \not\subseteq P_1 P_1^{-1} \subseteq R$  by Lemma 8.14, so  $P_1 P_1^{-1} = R$  since  $P_1$  is maximal. Multiplying the factorization by  $P_1^{-1}$  thus yields  $P_2 \cdots P_r = Q_2 \cdots Q_s$ . Inductively we deduce that  $r=s$  and  $Q_i = P_i$  for  $i$  (after reordering appropriately).  $\square$

Collecting equal prime ideals in a factorization, we see that any ideal  $I$  has a factorization  $I = P_1^{u_1} \cdots P_r^{u_r}$  with unique  $r$ , prime ideals  $P_i$ , and  $u_i > 0$ .

### Example 8.15

Recall that in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] \subset \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$  we have

$$21 = 3 \cdot 7 = (1+2\sqrt{-5})(1-2\sqrt{-5})$$

Let

$$P_1 := (3, 1+\sqrt{-5})$$

$$P_3 := (7, 3+\sqrt{-5})$$

$$P_2 := (3, 5+\sqrt{-5})$$

$$P_4 := (7, 4+\sqrt{-5})$$

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Exercise: The  $\mathcal{P}_i$  are prime ideals and

$$(3) = \mathcal{P}_1 \mathcal{P}_2, \quad (7) = \mathcal{P}_3 \mathcal{P}_4, \quad (1+2\sqrt{-5}) = \mathcal{P}_2 \mathcal{P}_4, \quad (1-2\sqrt{-5}) = \mathcal{P}_1 \mathcal{P}_3$$

$$\Rightarrow (21) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (3) \cdot (7) = \mathcal{P}_1 \mathcal{P}_2 \mathcal{P}_3 \mathcal{P}_4 \\ (1+2\sqrt{-5})(1-2\sqrt{-5}) = \mathcal{P}_2 \mathcal{P}_4 \mathcal{P}_1 \mathcal{P}_3 \end{array} \right\} \text{ same ideal factorization!}$$

### Thm 8.16

Every non-zero fractional ideal of  $R$  is invertible.

Proof:

If  $\mathcal{P}$  is a non-zero prime ideal, then  $\mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}^{-1} \subseteq R$  by Lemma 8.14, so  $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}^{-1} = R$  since  $\mathcal{P}$  is maximal. Hence,  $\mathcal{P}$  is invertible. Then, by Thm 8.12, every non-zero ideal is invertible. If  $\mathcal{I}$  is fractional, then  $r\mathcal{I} \subseteq R$  for some  $r \neq 0$ , hence  $(r\mathcal{I})$  is invertible. Have  $(r\mathcal{I})^{-1} = r^{-1}\mathcal{I}^{-1} \Rightarrow R = (r\mathcal{I})(r\mathcal{I})^{-1} = (r\mathcal{I})(r^{-1}\mathcal{I}^{-1}) = \mathcal{I}\mathcal{I}^{-1} \Rightarrow \mathcal{I}$  is invertible.  $\square$

### Corollary 8.17

Every fractional ideal  $\mathcal{I}$  has a factorization  $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{P}_1^{v_1} \cdots \mathcal{P}_r^{v_r}$  with unique  $r$ , prime ideals  $\mathcal{P}_i$ , and  $v_i \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .  $\square$

### Corollary 8.18

$\mathcal{I}_R$  is the free abelian group with basis the non-zero prime ideals of  $R$ .  $\square$

### Remark 8.19

Dedekind domains are precisely the integral domains in which every non-zero fractional ideal is invertible.

### Lemma 8.20

The following are equivalent ( $R$  a Dedekind domain):

- a)  $R$  is factorial
- b)  $R$  is a PID
- c)  $\text{Cl}_R$  is trivial (i.e.  $\mathcal{I}_R = \mathcal{P}_R$ )

Proof:

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$a \Rightarrow b$ : By factorization, it is sufficient to show that every prime ideal is principal.

Let  $P \neq 0$  be a prime ideal. Choose  $0 \neq p \in P$ . Then  $(p) \subseteq P$ . Since  $R$  is factorial,

$p = \varepsilon \cdot \pi_1^{u_1} \cdots \pi_r^{u_r}$  for prime elements  $\pi_i$  and a unit  $\varepsilon$ .  $\Rightarrow (p) = P_1^{u_1} \cdots P_r^{u_r} \subseteq P$  where

$P_i := (\pi_i)$ , a prime ideal  $\Rightarrow P_i \subseteq P$  for some  $i$  (by general fact in proof of Lemma 8.14),  $\Rightarrow P_i = P$  since  $R$  one-dimensional  $\Rightarrow P$  principal.

$b \Rightarrow a$ : Clear.

$b \Rightarrow c$ : Let  $I$  be an invertible fractional ideal  $\Rightarrow rI \subseteq R$  an ideal

$\Rightarrow rI = aR$  for some  $a \in R$  since  $R$  PID

$\Rightarrow I = \frac{a}{r}R$  is principal.

$c \Rightarrow b$ : Let  $I \subseteq R$  be a non-zero ideal

$\Rightarrow I$  is invertible by Thm 8.16

$\Rightarrow I \in \mathcal{I}_R$

Since  $Cl_R$  is trivial,  $\mathcal{I}_R = P_R \Rightarrow I = xR$  for some  $x \in K$ .

Since  $I \subseteq R \Rightarrow x \in R \Rightarrow I$  principal.  $\square$

Hence, the  $Cl_R$  measures how far a Dedekind domain is from being a PID.

$Cl_R$  can be arbitrarily complicated: every abelian group is the class group of some Dedekind domain!

### 8.3 Finiteness of the class group

Throughout,  $R$  is the ring of integers in a number field  $L$  (special case of Dedekind domain).

Here, the situation is much nicer: we will show that  $Cl_L := Cl_R$  is finite!

This will follow from Minkowski's theory.

Another important ingredient is the ideal norm: recall from Lemma 5.23 that a non-zero ideal  $I \subseteq R$  is a free  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module of the same dimension as  $R$ , hence

$[R : I] = |R/I|$  is finite.

### Def 8.21

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$N(I) := [R:I]$  is called the (ideal) norm of  $I$ .

### Remark 8.22

For a general Dedekind domain  $R$  it is not true that  $R/I$  is finite: take e.g.  $R = \mathbb{Q}[X]$  (a PID) and  $I = (X) \Rightarrow R/I \cong \mathbb{Q}$ .

The terminology "norm" is justified by the following property

### Lemma 8.23

If  $0 \neq a \in R$ , then  $|N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a)| = N((a))$ .

Proof:

Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  be a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis of  $R$ . Then  $a\alpha_1, \dots, a\alpha_n$  is a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis of  $(a)$ .

Write  $a\alpha_i = \sum_j a_{ij}\alpha_j$  and let  $A := (a_{ij})$ . Then  $\det(A) = N_{L/\mathbb{Q}}(a)$

by definition (see Def 2.28). Moreover,  $|\det(A)| = [R:(a)]$ .  $\square$

### Prop 8.24

The ideal norm is multiplicative:  $N(IJ) = N(I)N(J)$ .

Proof:

By ideal factorization ( $R$  is Dedekind), it suffices to show that if  $I = \mathfrak{P}_1^{e_1} \dots \mathfrak{P}_r^{e_r}$ , then  $N(I) = N(\mathfrak{P}_1)^{e_1} \dots N(\mathfrak{P}_r)^{e_r}$ .

By the Chinese Remainder Theorem we have

$$R/I \cong \prod_{i=1}^r R/\mathfrak{P}_i^{e_i}.$$

It is thus sufficient to show the claim for  $I = \mathfrak{P}^u$ .

We have a chain

$$\mathfrak{P} \supseteq \mathfrak{P}^2 \supseteq \dots$$

Note that  $\mathfrak{P}^i \neq \mathfrak{P}^{i+1}$  by uniqueness of factorization.

Each quotient  $\mathfrak{P}^i/\mathfrak{P}^{i+1}$  is an  $R/\mathfrak{p}$ -vector space.

Claim:  $\dim_{R/P} P^i/P^{i+1} = 1$  (general fact for Dedekind domains)

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Proof: Let  $x \in P^i \setminus P^{i+1}$ . Let  $J := (x) + P^{i+1}$ . Then  $P^{i+1} \subsetneq J \subseteq P^i$

$$\Rightarrow P = P^{-i} P^{i+1} \subsetneq P^{-i} J \Rightarrow P^{-i} J = R \text{ since } P \text{ maximal} \Rightarrow J = P^i$$

$$\Rightarrow x \text{ spans } P^i/P^{i+1}.$$

□

So,  $P^i/P^{i+1} \simeq R/P$  as  $R/P$ -vector spaces, hence

$$N(P^\nu) = [R : P^\nu] = [R : P][P : P^2] \cdots [P^{\nu-1} : P^\nu] = |R/P|^\nu = N(P)^\nu.$$

□

Multiplicativity allows us to extend the ideal norm to a group morphism

$$N: \mathbb{I}_R \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^*$$