

## Integral bases and translation

We wish to investigate the effect of a change of variable  $x \mapsto x - r$  on a basis of algebraic integers. That is, in an algebraic number field  $K = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$  of degree  $d$ , if the primitive element  $\alpha$  is an algebraic integer, then we have paid particular attention to the basis  $B = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{d-1}\}$  of algebraic integers. One word of caution: when we refer to *a basis of algebraic integers*, we are referring to a basis of the  $\mathbb{Q}$ -vector space  $K$  whose elements are algebraic integers. On the other hand, somewhat confusingly, the name *integral basis* is reserved for a basis of algebraic integers that is furthermore a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -basis of the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -module  $\mathcal{O}_K$ . That is, a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -basis  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_d\}$  of  $K$  is an integral basis if the  $b_i \in \mathcal{O}_K$  and any  $x \in \mathcal{O}_K$  can be written

$$\sum n_i b_i$$

for  $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ . (Note that the uniqueness of the  $n_i$  follows from the fact that the  $b_i$  form a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -basis for  $K$ .)

For examples where many significant computations in the number field can be done readily by hand, it is important to produce situations where  $B$  as above is an integral basis. Recall that this happens if and only if the discriminant  $\Delta(B)$  is minimal among discriminants of integral basis. We are interested in the effect of the translation  $\alpha \mapsto \beta = \alpha + r$  for an  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Put  $B' = \{1, \beta, \beta^2, \dots, \beta^{d-1}\}$ . Using theorem 102, it was shown in Corollary 105 that

$$\Delta(B) = \Delta(B')$$

Here is a more informative way to see this equality (which has been suggested in the Practical Summary). We examine the change of basis matrix from  $B$  to  $B'$ . Then the formula

$$\beta^i = \alpha^i + i\alpha^{i-1}r + \binom{i}{2}\alpha^{i-2}r^2 + \dots + i\alpha r^{i-1} + r^i$$

for each  $i$  shows that the matrix has the form

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * & * & \cdots & * \\ 0 & 1 & * & & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & & \\ \cdots & & & & \end{pmatrix}$$

that is, upper triangular with 1's on the diagonal. In particular, it is an integral matrix with determinant 1. Since

$$\Delta(B') = \det(P)^2 \Delta(B)$$

this clearly implies the equality of discriminants. But more importantly, its inverse  $P^{-1}$  is also integral. That is to say,

(\*) *we can also write the  $\alpha^i$  as a linear combination of the  $\beta^i$  with integral coefficients.*

This is a direct proof that  *$B$  is an integral basis if and only if  $B'$  is an integral basis.* There are further consequences. Suppose  $x \in K$ . We examine the coefficients with respect to the two bases:

$$x = \sum c_i \alpha^i = \sum c'_i \beta^i$$

Now suppose the coefficients  $\{c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{d-1}\}$  with respect to the basis  $B$  have the properties:

- (1) for all  $i$ ,  $c_i = a_i/p$  with  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ ;
- (2) some  $a_i/p \notin \mathbb{Z}$ .

Then the coefficients  $\{c'_0, c'_1, \dots, c'_{d-1}\}$  with respect to the basis  $B'$  have the same two properties.

Property (1) is obvious from property (\*). Similarly, if all  $c'_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then all  $c_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , again by property (\*), establishing (2) for  $B'$ . These observations can be very useful for finding integral bases.

Consider the case of  $K = \mathbb{Q}[\alpha]$  where  $\alpha$  is a root of the irreducible polynomial  $f(x) = x^4 - p$  for  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . The discriminant is easily computed to be

$$\Delta(B) = N(f'(\alpha)) = N(4\alpha^3) = 4^4(-p)^3$$

As usual, to see if  $B$  is an integral basis, we need to check for the possibility of algebraic integers among

$$\sum c_i \alpha^i$$

where the  $c_i = k/l$  for  $l$  a prime such that  $l^2 | \Delta(B)$  and  $0 \leq k < l$ . The possible  $l$ 's are of course  $l = 2$  and  $l = p$ . The possibility of  $l = p$  is easily dispensed with using the convenient theorem 107. But the possibility of  $l = 2$  should give us pause. This we handle as follows: Consider  $\beta = \alpha - 1$ . Then the minimal polynomial for  $\beta$  is

$$g(x) = (x + 1)^4 - p = x^4 + 4x^3 + 6x^2 + 4x + 1 - p$$

Now, the assumption  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  is easily seen to imply that  $g(x)$  is Eisenstein for the prime 2.

Suppose there were an algebraic integer of the form

$$c_0 + c_1\alpha + c_2\alpha^2 + c_3\alpha^3$$

with  $c_i = k/2$ ,  $k = 0$  or  $k = 1$  and some  $k \neq 0$ . There would be an algebraic integer of the form

$$c'_0 + c'_1\beta + c'_2\beta^2 + c'_3\beta^3$$

with the  $c'_i$  having the same properties. This is impossible by theorem 107. Therefore, the prime 2 is also ruled out and  $B = \{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3\}$  is an integral basis.