dedicated to Francesco de Giovanni on the occasion of his 60th birthday

Multiplicative ideal theory: Dedekind's and Kronecker's approaches compared

Marco Fontana

Dipartimento di Matematica e Fisica Università degli Studi "Roma Tre"



Napoli, Ottobre 2015

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

 in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the Académie des Sciences a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^{p} + Y^{p} = Z^{p}$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

Note that

The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;
 p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;

▶ p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

▶ §1 ◀	► §2 ◀	► §3 ◀	►

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

• in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the *Académie des Sciences* a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

Note that

The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;
 p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;

▶ p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

▶ §1 ◀	▶ §2 ◀	▶ §3 ◀	► §4 ◄
ed .			

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

• in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the *Académie des Sciences* a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

Note that

The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;
 p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;

p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

▶ §1 ◀	▶ §2 ◀	► §3 ◀	► §4 ◄
od T I I			

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

• in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the *Académie des Sciences* a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

Note that

▶ The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;

p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;

▶ p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

▶ §1 ◀	▶ §2 ◄	► §3 ◄	► §4 ◄
04 -			

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

• in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the *Académie des Sciences* a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

Note that

The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;
 p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;

▶ p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

▶ §1 ◀	▶ §2 ◄	► §3 ◄	► §4 ◄
04 -			

This story starts around 1850. More precisely,

• in 1847, Gabriel Lamé in Paris, submits to the *Académie des Sciences* a short note on a "new approach" to the problem of the solution of Fermat's Diophantine Equation :

(FLT) $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$ where p is a prime integer $p \ge 3$.

At that time G. Lamé was a well-known mathematician: among other results, in 1839 he gave a positive solution to the Fermat's equation in case p = 7.

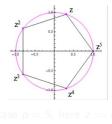
Note that

► The case of exponent 4 was solved by P. Fermat himself in 1637 (using the technique of *infinite descent*), reconducting his general conjecture to the case of prime exponents;

- p = 3 was solved by Leonhard Euler in 1753;
- ▶ p = 5 was solved independently by Peter Gustav Lejeune Dirichlet and Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1825.

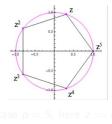
This new setting is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ the ring of cyclotomic integers (of exponent p), where ζ_p is a primitive p-th root of the unity, i.e., it is a nontrivial solution of the polynomial equation:

$$X^{p} - 1 = (X - 1)(X^{p-1} + X^{p-2} + \dots + X + 1) = 0,$$



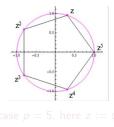
This new setting is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ the ring of cyclotomic integers (of exponent p), where ζ_p is a primitive p-th root of the unity, i.e., it is a nontrivial solution of the polynomial equation:

$$X^{p} - 1 = (X - 1)(X^{p-1} + X^{p-2} + \dots + X + 1) = 0,$$



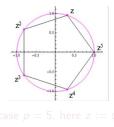
This new setting is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ the ring of cyclotomic integers (of exponent *p*), where ζ_p is a primitive *p*-th root of the unity, i.e., it is a nontrivial solution of the polynomial equation:

$$X^{p}-1 = (X-1)(X^{p-1}+X^{p-2}+\cdots+X+1) = 0$$
,



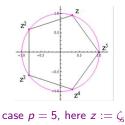
This new setting is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ the ring of cyclotomic integers (of exponent *p*), where ζ_p is a primitive *p*-th root of the unity, i.e., it is a nontrivial solution of the polynomial equation:

$$X^{p}-1 = (X-1)(X^{p-1}+X^{p-2}+\cdots+X+1) = 0$$
,



This new setting is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ the ring of cyclotomic integers (of exponent *p*), where ζ_p is a primitive *p*-th root of the unity, i.e., it is a nontrivial solution of the polynomial equation:

$$X^{p}-1 = (X-1)(X^{p-1}+X^{p-2}+\cdots+X+1) = 0$$
,



The key fact of the "new idea" is that, when we are in the ring of p-cyclotomic integers, instead of \mathbb{Z} , we have:

in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{\rho}]$, Fermat's polynomial "factorizes" as follows:

 $X^p+Y^p=(X+Y)(X+\zeta Y)(X+\zeta^2 Y)\cdots(X+\zeta^{p-2}Y)(X+\zeta^{p-1}Y)=Z^p.$

Assuming that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD, after proving that the factors of the previous factorization are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ (when evaluated in a non trivial solution of the **(FLT)**), one deduces by basic properties of the unique factorization that each of such factors is a *p*-th power of some element in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

Using this observation and some clever computation (but of elementary nature), Lamé reaches a contradiction.

The key fact of the "new idea" is that, when we are in the ring of p-cyclotomic integers, instead of \mathbb{Z} , we have:

in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{\rho}]$, Fermat's polynomial "factorizes" as follows:

 $X^p+Y^p=(X+Y)(X+\zeta Y)(X+\zeta^2 Y)\cdots(X+\zeta^{p-2}Y)(X+\zeta^{p-1}Y)=Z^p.$

Assuming that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD, after proving that the factors of the previous factorization are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ (when evaluated in a non trivial solution of the **(FLT)**), one deduces by basic properties of the unique factorization that each of such factors is a *p*-th power of some element in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

Using this observation and some clever computation (but of elementary nature), Lamé reaches a contradiction.

The key fact of the "new idea" is that, when we are in the ring of p-cyclotomic integers, instead of \mathbb{Z} , we have:

in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{\rho}]$, Fermat's polynomial "factorizes" as follows:

 $X^{p} + Y^{p} = (X + Y)(X + \zeta Y)(X + \zeta^{2}Y) \cdots (X + \zeta^{p-2}Y)(X + \zeta^{p-1}Y) = Z^{p}.$

Assuming that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD, after proving that the factors of the previous factorization are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ (when evaluated in a non trivial solution of the **(FLT)**), one deduces by basic properties of the unique factorization that each of such factors is a *p*-th power of some element in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

Using this observation and some clever computation (but of elementary nature), Lamé reaches a contradiction.

At that time, Joseph Liouville was a member of the Académie des Sciences and he raised immediately some doubts on the Lamé's proof, and, in particular, on the (implicit) assumption that the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD for each prime integer p, even if the evidence of the first few cases $(3 \le p \le 20)$ seemed to confirm this assumption.

Few months later, Liouville was informed by Dirichlet, a friend of Liouville from the times of his studies in Paris, that Ernst Kummer in Berlin proved in 1843 that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$ was not a UFD.

Ernst Kummer and Gabriel Lamé were working independently with a similar approach to **(FLT)** and each one unaware of the work of the other.

At that time, Joseph Liouville was a member of the Académie des Sciences and he raised immediately some doubts on the Lamé's proof, and, in particular, on the (implicit) assumption that the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD for each prime integer p, even if the evidence of the first few cases $(3 \le p \le 20)$ seemed to confirm this assumption.

Few months later, Liouville was informed by Dirichlet, a friend of Liouville from the times of his studies in Paris, that Ernst Kummer in Berlin proved in 1843 that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$ was not a UFD.

Ernst Kummer and Gabriel Lamé were working independently with a similar approach to **(FLT)** and each one unaware of the work of the other.

At that time, Joseph Liouville was a member of the Académie des Sciences and he raised immediately some doubts on the Lamé's proof, and, in particular, on the (implicit) assumption that the ring $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is an UFD for each prime integer p, even if the evidence of the first few cases $(3 \le p \le 20)$ seemed to confirm this assumption.

Few months later, Liouville was informed by Dirichlet, a friend of Liouville from the times of his studies in Paris, that Ernst Kummer in Berlin proved in 1843 that $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$ was not a UFD.

Ernst Kummer and Gabriel Lamé were working independently with a similar approach to **(FLT)** and each one unaware of the work of the other.

In order to show the previous fact, Kummer "pulled a very special element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$ out of a hat".

He considered the element:

$\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad \text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that $\mathbb{N}(\mu) = 47 \cdot 139$ and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have). • μ is an irreducible element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]$.

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu
angle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad \text{ where } \zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that N(μ) = 47 · 139 and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have).
μ is an irreducible element of Z[ζ₂₃].

that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu
angle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad\text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that N(μ) = 47 · 139 and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have). • μ is an irreducible element of Z[ζ₂₃].

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu \rangle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad\text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that $N(\mu) = 47 \cdot 139$ and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have).

• μ is an irreducible element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}]$

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu
angle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad\text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that $N(\mu) = 47 \cdot 139$ and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have).

• μ is an irreducible element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$.

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu
angle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad\text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that $\mathbb{N}(\mu) = 47 \cdot 139$ and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have).

• μ is an irreducible element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$.

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu
angle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

 $\mu:=1-\zeta+\zeta^{21}\in\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\,,\quad\text{ where }\zeta:=\zeta_{\scriptscriptstyle 23}\,.$

• μ is not a prime element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$,

since for its norm we have that $\mathbb{N}(\mu) = 47 \cdot 139$ and so μ is not a power of a prime integer (as each prime element in a ring of algebraic numbers must have).

• μ is an irreducible element of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}]$.

He proved this second statement, by introducing a new important tool that he called *ideal-number factorization*.

First he observed that

$$\langle \mu \rangle = \mu \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{23}] = P \cdot Q$$

After this result, Kummer obtained an important positive result on (FLT). He introduced the notion of class group for rings of cyclotomic integers $Cl(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]) := \frac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])},$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the **(FLT)** holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

After this result, Kummer obtained an important positive result on **(FLT)**. He introduced the notion of *class group for rings of cyclotomic integers* $Cl(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n]) := \frac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_n])}$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the (FLT) holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

After this result, Kummer obtained an important positive result on (FLT). He introduced the notion of *class group for rings of cyclotomic integers* $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\mathcal{L}])$

$$\mathbb{Cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]) := rac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}\,,$$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the (FLT) holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

$$\mathtt{Cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]) := rac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}\,,$$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the (FLT) holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

$$\mathbb{Cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{_{\mathcal{P}}}]) := rac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{_{\mathcal{P}}}])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_{_{\mathcal{P}}}])}\,,$$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the (FLT) holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

$$\operatorname{Cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]) := rac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}\,,$$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

 $h_p = 1$ if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the **(FLT)** holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

$$\mathtt{Cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]) := rac{\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}{\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p])}\,,$$

proving that

this group is always a finite group with order denoted by h_p , called the class number of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

This number h_p misures the distance of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ from being UFD: more precisely,

$$h_p = 1$$
 if and only if $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ is UFD.

Kummer in 1851 proved that,

if p is a regular prime, i.e., if $p \nmid h_p$, the **(FLT)** holds for $X^p + Y^p = Z^p$.

all the prime integer p < 100, except three (i.e., 37, 59, and 67) are regular primes.

In particular, all the primes p < 23 have $h_p = 1$ (while $h_{23} = 3$).

Note also that $h_{37} = \underline{37}, \ h_{59} = 3 \cdot \underline{59} \cdot 233, \ \text{and} \ h_{67} = \underline{67} \cdot 12739.$

In 1993-95 **(FLT)** has became Theorem of A. Wiles and R. Taylor and so there is less interest in studying regular primes and their properties.

all the prime integer p < 100, except three (i.e., 37, 59, and 67) are regular primes.

In particular, all the primes p < 23 have $h_p = 1$ (while $h_{23} = 3$).

Note also that $h_{37} = \underline{37}, \ h_{59} = 3 \cdot \underline{59} \cdot 233, \ {
m and} \ h_{67} = \underline{67} \cdot 12739.$

In 1993-95 **(FLT)** has became Theorem of A. Wiles and R. Taylor and so there is less interest in studying regular primes and their properties.

all the prime integer p < 100, except three (i.e., 37, 59, and 67) are regular primes.

In particular, all the primes p < 23 have $h_p = 1$ (while $h_{23} = 3$).

Note also that $h_{37} = \underline{37}$, $h_{59} = 3 \cdot \underline{59} \cdot 233$, and $h_{67} = \underline{67} \cdot 12739$.

In 1993-95 **(FLT)** has became Theorem of A. Wiles and R. Taylor and so there is less interest in studying regular primes and their properties.

all the prime integer p < 100, except three (i.e., 37, 59, and 67) are regular primes.

In particular, all the primes p < 23 have $h_p = 1$ (while $h_{23} = 3$).

Note also that $h_{37} = \underline{37}$, $h_{59} = 3 \cdot \underline{59} \cdot 233$, and $h_{67} = \underline{67} \cdot 12739$.

In 1993-95 (FLT) has became Theorem of A. Wiles and R. Taylor and so there is less interest in studying regular primes and their properties.

The importance of this result resides in the fact that

all the prime integer p < 100, except three (i.e., 37, 59, and 67) are regular primes.

In particular, all the primes p < 23 have $h_p = 1$ (while $h_{23} = 3$).

Note also that $h_{37} = \underline{37}$, $h_{59} = 3 \cdot \underline{59} \cdot 233$, and $h_{67} = \underline{67} \cdot 12739$.

In 1993-95 (FLT) has became Theorem of A. Wiles and R. Taylor and so there is less interest in studying regular primes and their properties.

Note that one of the winner of the first edition (2015) of the (3-Million) Breakthrough Prize in Mathematics (founding sponsors Sergey Brin, Anne Wojcicki, Mark Zuckerberg and Yuri Milner) was R. Taylor (with Simon Donaldson, Maxim Kontsevich, Jacob Lurie and Terence Tao).

§2. Dedekind's point of view: Ideals

Kummer's work opened a new general way in factorization theory (at least for the case of cyclotomic integers), passing from the element-wise factorization to the prime ideal factorization, that might exist even if the element-wise factorization fails.

Richard Dedekind, last Gauss' student, started to collaborate around 1855 with Dirichlet in Göttingen, when Dirichlet moved from Berlin to Göttingen to hold Gauss' Chair.

As Dedekind said to his collaborators in that period, *the goal* of Number Theory was to do for the general ring of integers of an algebraic number field (i.e., a finite algebraic extension of \mathbb{Q}) what Kummer did for the particular case of cyclotomic integers.

§2. Dedekind's point of view: Ideals

Kummer's work opened a new general way in factorization theory (at least for the case of cyclotomic integers), passing from the element-wise factorization to the prime ideal factorization, that might exist even if the element-wise factorization fails.

Richard Dedekind, last Gauss' student, started to collaborate around 1855 with Dirichlet in Göttingen, when Dirichlet moved from Berlin to Göttingen to hold Gauss' Chair.

As Dedekind said to his collaborators in that period, *the goal* of Number Theory was to do for the general ring of integers of an algebraic number field (i.e., a finite algebraic extension of \mathbb{Q}) what Kummer did for the particular case of cyclotomic integers.

§2. Dedekind's point of view: Ideals

Kummer's work opened a new general way in factorization theory (at least for the case of cyclotomic integers), passing from the element-wise factorization to the prime ideal factorization, that might exist even if the element-wise factorization fails.

Richard Dedekind, last Gauss' student, started to collaborate around 1855 with Dirichlet in Göttingen, when Dirichlet moved from Berlin to Göttingen to hold Gauss' Chair.

As Dedekind said to his collaborators in that period, *the goal* of Number Theory was to do for the general ring of integers of an algebraic number field (i.e., a finite algebraic extension of \mathbb{Q}) what Kummer did for the particular case of cyclotomic integers.

What we call now Dedekind theory appeared as XI Supplement to *"Vorlesungen über Zhalentheorie"* (*"Lectures in Number Theory"*) by Dirichlet (this volume appeared several years after Dirichlet's death, 1859).

One of the main result of Dedekind's theory can be stated as follows:

What we call now Dedekind theory appeared as XI Supplement to "Vorlesungen über Zhalentheorie" ("Lectures in Number Theory") by Dirichlet (this volume appeared several years after Dirichlet's death, 1859).

One of the main result of Dedekind's theory can be stated as follows:

What we call now Dedekind theory appeared as XI Supplement to "Vorlesungen über Zhalentheorie" ("Lectures in Number Theory") by Dirichlet (this volume appeared several years after Dirichlet's death, 1859).

One of the main result of Dedekind's theory can be stated as follows:

What we call now Dedekind theory appeared as XI Supplement to "Vorlesungen über Zhalentheorie" ("Lectures in Number Theory") by Dirichlet (this volume appeared several years after Dirichlet's death, 1859).

One of the main result of Dedekind's theory can be stated as follows:

At the beginning of the XX-th century, with the development of the Modern (Abstract) Algebra, after David Hilbert, Amalie Emmy Noether and their students, the ideal factorization was studied under an axiomatic approach.

In this period, the rings satisfying the Dedekind's factorization property were characterized in full generality.

I collect in the following theorem several contributions to this problem given by E. Noether and by several Japanese mathematicians.

At the beginning of the XX-th century, with the development of the Modern (Abstract) Algebra, after David Hilbert, Amalie Emmy Noether and their students, the ideal factorization was studied under an axiomatic approach.

In this period, the rings satisfying the Dedekind's factorization property were characterized in full generality.

I collect in the following theorem several contributions to this problem given by E. Noether and by several Japanese mathematicians.

At the beginning of the XX-th century, with the development of the Modern (Abstract) Algebra, after David Hilbert, Amalie Emmy Noether and their students, the ideal factorization was studied under an axiomatic approach.

In this period, the rings satisfying the Dedekind's factorization property were characterized in full generality.

I collect in the following theorem several contributions to this problem given by E. Noether and by several Japanese mathematicians.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

- (i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.
- (ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.
- (iii) $I=Q_1^{g_1}Q_2^{g_2}\cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k\in {
 m Spec}(D)$ and $g_k\geq 1$
- (iv) (a) D is Noetherian.
 -) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
 - c) $D = \overline{D}$ is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita ~ 1940) Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent. (i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$. (ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in Spec(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$. (iii) $I = Q_1^{e_1} Q_2^{e_2} \cdots Q_t^{e_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k \in Spec(D)$ and $g_k \ge 1$. (iv) (a) D is Noetherian. (b) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita ~ 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.

(ii) $I = P_1^{t_1} P_2^{t_2} \cdots P_s^{t_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.

(iii) $I = Q_1^{g_1}Q_2^{g_2}\cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $g_k \geq 1$

iv) (a) D is Noetherian.

) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.

c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

▶ §2 <

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.

(ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.

iii) $I=Q_1^{g_1}Q_2^{g_2}\cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k\in { t Spec}(D)$ and $g_k\geq 1$.

- **v) (a)** D is Noetherian.
 -) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
 - c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.

(ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.

(iii) $I = Q_1^{g_1} Q_2^{g_2} \cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $g_k \geq 1$.

(a) D is Noetherian.

Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.

c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.

(ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.

(iii) $I = Q_1^{g_1} Q_2^{g_2} \cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $g_k \geq 1$.

(iv) (a) D is Noetherian.
(b) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
(c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) $I = M_1^{e_1} M_2^{e_2} \cdots M_r^{e_r}$, with $M_i \in Max(D)$ and $e_i \ge 1$.

(ii) $I = P_1^{f_1} P_2^{f_2} \cdots P_s^{f_s}$, with $P_j \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $f_j \ge 1$.

(iii) $I = Q_1^{g_1} Q_2^{g_2} \cdots Q_t^{g_t}$ in a unique way, with $Q_k \in \operatorname{Spec}(D)$ and $g_k \geq 1$.

(iv) (a) D is Noetherian.
(b) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
(c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (**iv)** are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) I = M₁^{e₁}M₂^{e₂} ··· M_r^{e_r}, with M_i ∈ Max(D) and e_i ≥ 1.
(ii) I = P₁^{f₁}P₂^{f₂} ··· P_s^{f_s}, with P_j ∈ Spec(D) and f_j ≥ 1.
(iii) I = Q₁^{g₁}Q₂^{g₂} ··· Q_t^{g_t} in a unique way, with Q_k ∈ Spec(D) and g_k ≥ 1.
(iv) (a) D is Noetherian.
(b) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
(c) D = D is integrally closed.

The properties in (iv) are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

► §2 ◄

Theorem (E. Noether 1927, S. Mori, K. Kubo, K. Matusita \sim 1940)

Let D be an integral domain (not a field) and I a proper ideal of D. The following are equivalent.

(i) I = M₁^{e₁}M₂^{e₂} ··· M_r^{e_r}, with M_i ∈ Max(D) and e_i ≥ 1.
(ii) I = P₁^{f₁}P₂<sup>f₂</sub> ··· P_s^{f_s}, with P_j ∈ Spec(D) and f_j ≥ 1.
(iii) I = Q₁^{g₁}Q₂^{g₂} ··· Q_t^{g_t} in a unique way, with Q_k ∈ Spec(D) and g_k ≥ 1.
(iv) (a) D is Noetherian.
(b) Every nonzero prime ideal is maximal, i.e., dim(D) = 1.
(c) D = D is integrally closed.
</sup>

The properties in (iv) are called the *Noether's Axioms* and they define what are now called *Dedekind domains*.

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$. In this case the ring of algebraic integers (i.e., the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$) is given by $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] := \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD (nor a PID)

It is not hard to show that the equalities

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

provide two different factorizations of 6 into irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ (since there is no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ having norm equal to 2 or 3, after noting that $\mathbb{N}(2) = 4$, $\mathbb{N}(3) = 9$, $\mathbb{N}(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathbb{N}(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$).

Moreover,

From the previous equalities, it follow also that the irreducible elements 2, 3, $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are *not primes*.

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$. In this case the ring of algebraic integers (i.e., the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$) is given by $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] := \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

 $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD (nor a PID)

It is not hard to show that the equalities

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

provide two different factorizations of 6 into irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ (since there is no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ having norm equal to 2 or 3, after noting that $\mathbb{N}(2) = 4$, $\mathbb{N}(3) = 9$, $\mathbb{N}(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathbb{N}(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$).

Moreover,

From the previous equalities, it follow also that the irreducible elements 2, 3, $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are *not primes*.

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$. In this case the ring of algebraic integers (i.e., the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$) is given by $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] := \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD (nor a PID)

It is not hard to show that the equalities

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

provide two different factorizations of 6 into irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ (since there is no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ having norm equal to 2 or 3, after noting that $\mathbb{N}(2) = 4$, $\mathbb{N}(3) = 9$, $\mathbb{N}(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathbb{N}(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$).

Moreover,

From the previous equalities, it follow also that the irreducible elements 2, 3, $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are *not primes*.

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$. In this case the ring of algebraic integers (i.e., the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$) is given by $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] := \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD (nor a PID)

It is not hard to show that the equalities

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

provide two different factorizations of 6 into irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ (since there is no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ having norm equal to 2 or 3, after noting that $\mathbb{N}(2) = 4$, $\mathbb{N}(3) = 9$, $\mathbb{N}(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathbb{N}(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$).

Moreover,

From the previous equalities, it follow also that the irreducible elements 2, 3, $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are *not primes*.

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$. In this case the ring of algebraic integers (i.e., the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$) is given by $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}] := \{a + b\sqrt{-5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD (nor a PID)

It is not hard to show that the equalities

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

provide two different factorizations of 6 into irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ (since there is no element of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ having norm equal to 2 or 3, after noting that $\mathbb{N}(2) = 4$, $\mathbb{N}(3) = 9$, $\mathbb{N}(1 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathbb{N}(1 - \sqrt{-5}) = 6$).

Moreover,

From the previous equalities, it follow also that the irreducible elements 2, 3, $1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are *not primes*.

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain (by Noeher's Axioms).

We provide an explicit example of the fact that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain, by giving a unique ideal-theoretic factorization of $\langle 6 \rangle$.

 $\begin{array}{rcl} P := & \langle 2, 1 + \sqrt{-5} \rangle \; \bigl(= \langle 2, 1 - \sqrt{-5} \rangle \bigr) \\ Q' := & \langle 3, 1 + \sqrt{-5} \rangle \, , \qquad Q'' := \langle 3, 1 - \sqrt{-5} \rangle \end{array}$

then it is not hard to see that $P, Q', Q'' \in Max(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}])$.

Moreover, the factorizations into maximal (or, prime) ideals of the following principal ideals are unique

$$\langle 2
angle = {\it P}^2\,, \quad \langle 3
angle = {\it Q}' \cdot {\it Q}''\,, \quad \langle 6
angle = {\it P}^2 \cdot {\it Q}' \cdot {\it Q}''$$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain (by Noeher's Axioms).

We provide an explicit example of the fact that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain, by giving a unique ideal-theoretic factorization of $\langle 6 \rangle$. Let

$$egin{array}{lll} P &:= & \langle 2,1+\sqrt{-5}
angle \left(=\langle 2,1-\sqrt{-5}
angle
ight) \ Q' &:= & \langle 3,1+\sqrt{-5}
angle \,, \qquad Q'' := \langle 3,1-\sqrt{-5}
angle \,, \end{array}$$

then it is not hard to see that $P, Q', Q'' \in Max(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}])$.

Moreover, the factorizations into maximal (or, prime) ideals of the following principal ideals are unique

$$\langle 2
angle = {\it P}^2\,, \quad \langle 3
angle = {\it Q}' \cdot {\it Q}''\,, \quad \langle 6
angle = {\it P}^2 \cdot {\it Q}' \cdot {\it Q}''$$

• $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain (by Noeher's Axioms).

We provide an explicit example of the fact that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is a Dedekind domain, by giving a unique ideal-theoretic factorization of $\langle 6 \rangle$. Let

$$egin{array}{lll} P := & \langle 2,1+\sqrt{-5}
angle \left(=\langle 2,1-\sqrt{-5}
angle
ight) \ Q' := & \langle 3,1+\sqrt{-5}
angle \,, \qquad Q'':=\langle 3,1-\sqrt{-5}
angle \,, \end{array}$$

then it is not hard to see that $P, Q', Q'' \in Max(\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}])$.

Moreover, the factorizations into maximal (or, prime) ideals of the following principal ideals are unique

$$\langle 2
angle = P^2 \,, \quad \langle 3
angle = Q' \cdot Q'' \,, \quad \langle 6
angle = P^2 \cdot Q' \cdot Q''$$

If you are interested in recent developments of the ideal factorization, you might like to look at the following recent volume:

• M. Fontana, E. Houston, and T. Lucas, *Factoring Ideals in Integral Domains*, UMI Lecture Notes, Springer, Berlin 2013.

$\S3.$ Kronecker's point of view: Divisors

Leopold Kronecker was a Kummer's student in high school (Gymnasium; at that time, Kummer was very young).

Later, he received his PhD in Berlin in 1845, having as advisor Dirichlet.

He also was interested, like Dedekind in Göttingen, to recover a "good" theory of divisibility, for integral domains for which the classical theory fails.

$\S 3.$ Kronecker's point of view: Divisors

Leopold Kronecker was a Kummer's student in high school (Gymnasium; at that time, Kummer was very young). Later, he received his PhD in Berlin in 1845, having as advisor Dirichlet.

He also was interested, like Dedekind in Göttingen, to recover a "good" theory of divisibility, for integral domains for which the classical theory fails.

§3. Kronecker's point of view: Divisors

Leopold Kronecker was a Kummer's student in high school (Gymnasium; at that time, Kummer was very young).

Later, he received his PhD in Berlin in 1845, having as advisor Dirichlet.

He also was interested, like Dedekind in Göttingen, to recover a "good" theory of divisibility, for integral domains for which the classical theory fails.

§3. Kronecker's point of view: Divisors

Leopold Kronecker was a Kummer's student in high school (Gymnasium; at that time, Kummer was very young).

Later, he received his PhD in Berlin in 1845, having as advisor Dirichlet.

He also was interested, like Dedekind in Göttingen, to recover a "good" theory of divisibility, for integral domains for which the classical theory fails.

§3. Kronecker's point of view: Divisors

Leopold Kronecker was a Kummer's student in high school (Gymnasium; at that time, Kummer was very young).

Later, he received his PhD in Berlin in 1845, having as advisor Dirichlet.

He also was interested, like Dedekind in Göttingen, to recover a "good" theory of divisibility, for integral domains for which the classical theory fails.

Instead of recovering a "good" factorization theory (as Dedekind did), L. Kronecker was interested in recovering a "good" theory of divisibility, in order to obtain the existence of a GCD for each finite family of elements and to express the GCD with a Bézout Identity.

Initially, immediately after the publication of his paper, which appeared in the Proceedings of a Conference in Kummer's honor (1880), Kronecker theory was not very successful essentially and roughly speaking for two reasons:

• The paper appeared many years after the very elegant Dedekind's theory, that was a very successful theory, widely adopted by Number Theorists.

• Kronecker's style was very involved, often obscure and not easy to read and the notation was very personal and often unclear.

Instead of recovering a "good" factorization theory (as Dedekind did), L. Kronecker was interested in recovering a "good" theory of divisibility, in order to obtain the existence of a GCD for each finite family of elements and to express the GCD with a Bézout Identity.

Initially, immediately after the publication of his paper, which appeared in the Proceedings of a Conference in Kummer's honor (1880), Kronecker theory was not very successful essentially and roughly speaking for two reasons:

• The paper appeared many years after the very elegant Dedekind's theory, that was a very successful theory, widely adopted by Number Theorists.

• Kronecker's style was very involved, often obscure and not easy to read and the notation was very personal and often unclear.

Instead of recovering a "good" factorization theory (as Dedekind did), L. Kronecker was interested in recovering a "good" theory of divisibility, in order to obtain the existence of a GCD for each finite family of elements and to express the GCD with a Bézout Identity.

Initially, immediately after the publication of his paper, which appeared in the Proceedings of a Conference in Kummer's honor (1880), Kronecker theory was not very successful essentially and roughly speaking for two reasons:

• The paper appeared many years after the very elegant Dedekind's theory, that was a very successful theory, widely adopted by Number Theorists.

• Kronecker's style was very involved, often obscure and not easy to read and the notation was very personal and often unclear.

Instead of recovering a "good" factorization theory (as Dedekind did), L. Kronecker was interested in recovering a "good" theory of divisibility, in order to obtain the existence of a GCD for each finite family of elements and to express the GCD with a Bézout Identity.

Initially, immediately after the publication of his paper, which appeared in the Proceedings of a Conference in Kummer's honor (1880), Kronecker theory was not very successful essentially and roughly speaking for two reasons:

- The paper appeared many years after the very elegant Dedekind's theory, that was a very successful theory, widely adopted by Number Theorists.
- Kronecker's style was very involved, often obscure and not easy to read and the notation was very personal and often unclear.

- W. Krull in 1936;
- H. Weyl in 1940 (dedicated to this subject a Chapter of his "Algebraic Theory of Numbers", published by Princeton University Press);
- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

• W. Krull in 1936;

- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

- W. Krull in 1936;
- H. Weyl in 1940 (dedicated to this subject a Chapter of his "Algebraic Theory of Numbers", published by Princeton University Press);
- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

• W. Krull in 1936;

- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

• W. Krull in 1936;

- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

• W. Krull in 1936;

- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

• W. Krull in 1936;

- M. Nagata in 1956 and 1962 (in his book "Local Rings");
- R. Gilmer in 1968 (in his book "Multiplicative Ideal Theory");
- H.M. Edwards in 1990 (in his book "Divisor Theory");
- F. Halter-Koch in 1998 (in his book "Ideal Systems").

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance,

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/2]$.

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance,

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/2]$.

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance, • if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$. • if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/(1 + \sqrt{5})]$.

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance,

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.

• if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/2]$.

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance,

- if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.
- if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/2]$.

More precisely, Kronecker functions rings –whose elements represent the Kronecker's divisors– can be introduced in the following general setting:

• Let D_0 be a PID (=Principal Ideal Domain) and let K_0 be its field of quotients (e.g., $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$, $K_0 = \mathbb{Q}$).

• Let K be a finite (algebraic) extension of K_0 and let $D := \overline{D_0}$ be the integral closure of D_0 in K (i.e., $D = \{\alpha \in K \mid \text{there exists a nonzero monic polynomial } f \in D_0[X]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0\}$).

For instance,

- if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.
- if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[(1 + \sqrt{5})/2]$.
- if $D_0 = \mathbb{Z}$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_p)$, then $D = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$.

$$egin{aligned} & \operatorname{Kr}(D) := \left\{ rac{f}{g} \mid f,g \in D[X] ext{ and } oldsymbol{c}(f) \subseteq oldsymbol{c}(g)
ight\} \ &= \left\{ rac{f'}{g'} \mid f',g' \in D[X] ext{ and } oldsymbol{c}(g') = D
ight\}, \end{aligned}$$

(where c(h) denotes *the content* of a polynomial $h \in D[X]$, i.e., the ideal of D generated by the coefficients of h).

Note that the previous equality holds since we are assuming that D is a Dedekind domain (since it is the integral closure of a PID D_0 in a finite field extension K of the quotient field K_0 of D_0).

$$egin{aligned} & \operatorname{Kr}(D) := \left\{ rac{f}{g} \mid f,g \in D[X] \ ext{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(f) \subseteq oldsymbol{c}(g)
ight\} \ &= \left\{ rac{f'}{g'} \mid f',g' \in D[X] \ ext{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(g') = D
ight\}, \end{aligned}$$

(where c(h) denotes *the content* of a polynomial $h \in D[X]$, i.e., the ideal of *D* generated by the coefficients of *h*).

Note that the previous equality holds since we are assuming that D is a Dedekind domain (since it is the integral closure of a PID D_0 in a finite field extension K of the quotient field K_0 of D_0).

$$egin{aligned} & \operatorname{Kr}(D) := \left\{ rac{f}{g} \mid f,g \in D[X] \ \text{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(f) \subseteq oldsymbol{c}(g)
ight\} \ &= \left\{ rac{f'}{g'} \mid f',g' \in D[X] \ \text{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(g') = D
ight\}, \end{aligned}$$

(where c(h) denotes *the content* of a polynomial $h \in D[X]$, i.e., the ideal of D generated by the coefficients of h).

Note that the previous equality holds since we are assuming that D is a Dedekind domain (since it is the integral closure of a PID D_0 in a finite field extension K of the quotient field K_0 of D_0).

$$egin{aligned} & \operatorname{Kr}(D) := \left\{ rac{f}{g} \mid f,g \in D[X] \ ext{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(f) \subseteq oldsymbol{c}(g)
ight\} \ &= \left\{ rac{f'}{g'} \mid f',g' \in D[X] \ ext{and} \ oldsymbol{c}(g') = D
ight\}, \end{aligned}$$

(where c(h) denotes *the content* of a polynomial $h \in D[X]$, i.e., the ideal of D generated by the coefficients of h).

Note that the previous equality holds since we are assuming that D is a Dedekind domain (since it is the integral closure of a PID D_0 in a finite field extension K of the quotient field K_0 of D_0).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let *D* the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

(1) $\operatorname{Kr}(D)$ is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and $D[X] \subseteq \operatorname{Kr}(D) \subseteq K(X)$ (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of $\operatorname{Kr}(D)$).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f$)

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) D = c(f) D$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

(1) $\operatorname{Kr}(D)$ is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and $D[X] \subseteq \operatorname{Kr}(D) \subseteq K(X)$ (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of $\operatorname{Kr}(D)$).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f$)

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) D = c(f) D$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

- (1) Kr(D) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D)).
- (2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:
 - $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) = f$)

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) D = c(f) D$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

Kr(D) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) = f$)

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) D = c(f) D$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

(1) Kr(D) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) = f$)

• $fKr(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D = c(f)D$ (hence, $Kr(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

(1) Kr(D) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) = f$)

• $fKr(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D = c(f)D$ (hence, $Kr(D) \cap K = D$).

Theorem (L. Kronecker, 1880)

Let D the integral closure of a PID in a finite extension of its field of fractions.

Kr(D) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(D) = f \operatorname{Kr}(D)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(D)(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n) = f$)

• $fKr(D) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D = c(f)D$ (hence, $Kr(D) \cap K = D$).

One of the difficulties encountered by Krull for extending Kronecker's theory is related to the problem of extending the Gauss' content formula:

If D is a Dedekind domain (or, more generally, a Prüfer domain), and $f,g \in D[X]$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)$.

Note that, in general, if $f, g \in D[X]$ and D is an arbitrary integral domain, the following relation holds:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot \boldsymbol{g}) \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{g})$.

One of the difficulties encountered by Krull for extending Kronecker's theory is related to the problem of extending the Gauss' content formula:

If D is a Dedekind domain (or, more generally, a Prüfer domain), and $f, g \in D[X]$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(t \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(t) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g) \, .$

Note that, in general, if $f, g \in D[X]$ and D is an arbitrary integral domain, the following relation holds:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot \boldsymbol{g}) \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{g})$.

One of the difficulties encountered by Krull for extending Kronecker's theory is related to the problem of extending the Gauss' content formula:

If D is a Dedekind domain (or, more generally, a Prüfer domain), and $f, g \in D[X]$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g) \, .$

Note that, in general, if $f, g \in D[X]$ and D is an arbitrary integral domain, the following relation holds:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot \boldsymbol{g}) \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{g})$.

One of the difficulties encountered by Krull for extending Kronecker's theory is related to the problem of extending the Gauss' content formula:

If D is a Dedekind domain (or, more generally, a Prüfer domain), and $f, g \in D[X]$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g) \, .$

Note that, in general, if $f, g \in D[X]$ and D is an arbitrary integral domain, the following relation holds:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)$.

One of the difficulties encountered by Krull for extending Kronecker's theory is related to the problem of extending the Gauss' content formula:

If D is a Dedekind domain (or, more generally, a Prüfer domain), and $f, g \in D[X]$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g) \, .$

Note that, in general, if $f, g \in D[X]$ and D is an arbitrary integral domain, the following relation holds:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(f) \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)$.

An important "correction" to the failure of an equality in the previous relation between content of polynomials was given –independently– by R. Dedekind and F. Mertens.

Marco Fontana ("Roma Tre")

Let D be an integral domain, $f, g \in D[X]$, and let $m := \deg(g)$, then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f)^m \boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g) \, .$

Krull's idea is based to the possibility of applying a "cancellative closure operation" *, defined on finitely generated ideals, to the Dedekind-Mertens Formula, in order to obtain a "weaker" form of the Gauss' Content Formula:

$$(\mathbf{c}(f)^m \mathbf{c}(f \cdot g))^* = (\mathbf{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(g))^* \Rightarrow$$

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot\boldsymbol{g})^*=\boldsymbol{c}(f)^*\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{g})^*$.

Let D be an integral domain, $f, g \in D[X]$, and let m := deg(g), then:

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f)^m \boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)$.

Krull's idea is based to the possibility of applying a "cancellative closure operation" *, defined on finitely generated ideals, to the Dedekind-Mertens Formula, in order to obtain a "weaker" form of the Gauss' Content Formula:

$$(\mathbf{c}(f)^m \mathbf{c}(f \cdot g))^* = (\mathbf{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(g))^* \Rightarrow$$

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot \boldsymbol{g})^* = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^* \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{g})^*.$

Let D be an integral domain, $f, g \in D[X]$, and let $m := \deg(g)$, then:

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m}\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1}\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(g).$$

Krull's idea is based to the possibility of applying a "cancellative closure operation" *, defined on finitely generated ideals, to the Dedekind-Mertens Formula, in order to obtain a "weaker" form of the Gauss' Content Formula:

$$(\mathbf{c}(f)^m \mathbf{c}(f \cdot g))^* = (\mathbf{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(g))^* \Rightarrow$$

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot\boldsymbol{g})^* = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^*\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(g)^*$.

Let D be an integral domain, $f, g \in D[X]$, and let $m := \deg(g)$, then:

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m}\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1}\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(g).$$

Krull's idea is based to the possibility of applying a "cancellative closure operation" *, defined on finitely generated ideals, to the Dedekind-Mertens Formula, in order to obtain a "weaker" form of the Gauss' Content Formula:

 $(\mathbf{c}(f)^m \mathbf{c}(f \cdot g))^* = (\mathbf{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \mathbf{c}(g))^* \Rightarrow$

 $oldsymbol{c}(f \cdot oldsymbol{g})^* = oldsymbol{c}(f)^* \cdot oldsymbol{c}(g)^*$.

Let D be an integral domain, $f, g \in D[X]$, and let $m := \deg(g)$, then:

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m}\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g) = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1}\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(g).$$

Krull's idea is based to the possibility of applying a "cancellative closure operation" *, defined on finitely generated ideals, to the Dedekind-Mertens Formula, in order to obtain a "weaker" form of the Gauss' Content Formula:

$$(\boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m}\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g))^{*} = (\boldsymbol{c}(f)^{m+1} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g))^{*} \Rightarrow$$

 $\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g)^* = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^* \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^*.$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K. For each nonzero fractional ideal E of \overline{D} , set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the *b*-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g)^{b} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{b} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{b}.$$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K. For each nonzero fractional ideal \overline{E} of \overline{D} set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the *b*-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g)^{b} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{b}\cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{b}.$$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K.

For each nonzero fractional ideal E of D, set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the *b*-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot\boldsymbol{g})^{\boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}}\cdot\boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}}.$$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K. For each nonzero fractional ideal E of \overline{D} , set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the *b*-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}}\cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}}.$$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K. For each nonzero fractional ideal E of \overline{D} , set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the b-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f\cdot g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}}\cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}}.$$

Let D be an integral domain with quotient field K and let \overline{D} be the integral closure of D in K. For each nonzero fractional ideal E of \overline{D} , set:

 $E^b := \bigcap \{ EV \mid V \text{ is a valuation overring of } \overline{D} \}.$

• Note that the b-operation (or, completion) coincides with the integral closure of ideals (when restricted to the integer ideals, i.e., fractional ideals inside \overline{D}).

$$\boldsymbol{c}(f \cdot g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} = \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \cdot \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}}.$$

[Krull, 1936] introduced on \overline{D} the following extension of the classical Kronecker function ring:

• the Kronecker function ring of \overline{D} with respect to the *b*-operation is defined as follows:

 $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D},b) := \{f/g \in K(X) \mid f, g \in D[X], \ \boldsymbol{c}(f)^b \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(g)^b\}.$

Note that, using the properties of the *b*-operation, it can be shown that $Kr(\overline{D}, b)$ is a ring.

[Krull, 1936] introduced on \overline{D} the following extension of the classical Kronecker function ring:

• the Kronecker function ring of \overline{D} with respect to the *b*-operation is defined as follows:

 $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) := \{ f/g \in K(X) \mid f, g \in D[X], \ \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \}.$

Note that, using the properties of the *b*-operation, it can be shown that $Kr(\overline{D}, b)$ is a ring.

[Krull, 1936] introduced on \overline{D} the following extension of the classical Kronecker function ring:

• the Kronecker function ring of \overline{D} with respect to the *b*-operation is defined as follows:

 $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) := \{ f/g \in K(X) \mid f, g \in D[X], \ \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \}.$

Note that, using the properties of the *b*-operation, it can be shown that $Kr(\overline{D}, b)$ is a ring.

[Krull, 1936] introduced on \overline{D} the following extension of the classical Kronecker function ring:

• the Kronecker function ring of \overline{D} with respect to the *b*-operation is defined as follows:

 $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) := \{ f/g \in K(X) \mid f, g \in D[X], \ \boldsymbol{c}(f)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \subseteq \boldsymbol{c}(g)^{\boldsymbol{b}} \}.$

Note that, using the properties of the *b*-operation, it can be shown that $Kr(\overline{D}, b)$ is a ring.

Theorem (W. Krull (1936) and R. Gilmer (1968))

(1) $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$ is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and $D[X] \subseteq \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \subseteq K(X)$ (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) = f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$$

(thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f$),

•
$$f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)\overline{D})^b = c(f)^b$$

(hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = D^b = \overline{D}$).

Theorem (W. Krull (1936) and R. Gilmer (1968))

- (1) Kr(D, b) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D, b) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D, b)).
- (2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) = f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = f)$,

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)\overline{D})^b = c(f)^b$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = D^b = \overline{D}$).

Theorem (W. Krull (1936) and R. Gilmer (1968))

(1) Kr(D, b) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D, b) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D, b)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) = f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$ $(thus, GCD_{\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)}(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f),$

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)\overline{D})^b = c(f)^b$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = D^b = \overline{D})$.

Theorem (W. Krull (1936) and R. Gilmer (1968))

- Kr(D, b) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D, b) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D, b)).
- (2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) = f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$ (thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f)$,

• $f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = (a_b, a_1, \dots, a_n)\overline{D})^b = c(f)^b$ (hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = D^b = \overline{D})$.

Theorem (W. Krull (1936) and R. Gilmer (1968))

Kr(D, b) is a Bézout domain (i.e., each finite set of elements has a GCD and the GCD can be expressed as linear combination of these elements) and D[X] ⊆ Kr(D, b) ⊆ K(X) (in particular, the field of rational functions K(X) is the quotient field of Kr(D, b)).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) = f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)$$

(thus, GCD $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b)(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f)$,

•
$$f \operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)\overline{D})^b = c(f)^b$$

(hence, $\operatorname{Kr}(\overline{D}, b) \cap K = D^b = \overline{D}$).

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in \boldsymbol{U}(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

• The Gaussian extension of a valuation $D(X) (= D[X]_{(X)})$, where D is a valuation domain;

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

Marco Fontana ("Rom<u>a Tre")</u>

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in \boldsymbol{U}(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

• The Gaussian extension of a valuation $D(X) (= D[X]_{(X)})$, where D is a valuation domain;

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

Marco Fontana ("Rom<u>a Tre")</u>

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then *R* is called *a K-function ring of D*.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of *K*-function rings of *D*, after Halter-Koch:

• The Gaussian extension of a valuation $D(X) (= D[X]_{(X)})$, where D is a valuation domain;

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

Marco Fontana ("Roma Tre")

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of K-function rings of D, after Halter-Koch:

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of K-function rings of D, after Halter-Koch:

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of K-function rings of D, after Halter-Koch:

• The Gaussian extension of a valuation $D(X) (= D[X]_{(X)})$, where D is a valuation domain;

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

Marco Fontana ("Roma Tre")

In particular, Halter-Koch's generalization is based on an axiomatic approach.

Let K be a field, X an indeterminate over K, R a subring of K(X) and $D := R \cap K$. If

- $X \in U(R)$ (i.e., X is a unit in R);
- $f(0) \in f \cdot R$ for each $f \in K[X]$;

then R is called a K-function ring of D.

It is not difficult to show that the following are examples of K-function rings of D, after Halter-Koch:

• The Gaussian extension of a valuation $D(X) (= D[X]_{(X)})$, where D is a valuation domain;

- Kr(D, b), when D is integrally closed and, in particular,
- Kr(D), when D is a Dedekind domain.

Marco Fontana ("Rom<u>a Tre")</u>

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)R = fR$$

(thus, $GCD_R(a_1, ..., a_n) = f$),

•
$$fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$$
,

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)R = fR$ (thus, $GCD_R(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f$),

• $fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + \ldots + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

• $(a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n)R = fR$ (thus, $GCD_R(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = f$),

• $fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)R = fR$$

(thus, $GCD_R(a_1, ..., a_n) = f$),

• $fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$,

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)R = fR$$

(thus, $GCD_R(a_1, ..., a_n) = f$),

•
$$fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$$
,

Theorem, Halter-Koch 2003

Let R be a K-function ring of $D = R \cap K$, then:

(1) R is a Bézout domain with quotient field K(X).

(2) Let $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n \in D$ and set $f := a_0 + a_1X + ... + a_nX^n \in D[X]$, then:

•
$$(a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)R = fR$$

(thus, $GCD_R(a_1, ..., a_n) = f$),

•
$$fR \cap K = ((a_0, a_1, ..., a_n)D)^{b(R)} = c(f)^{b(R)}$$
,

In the recent years, the Kronecker function rings have been used for studying Riemann-Zariski Spaces of valuation domains.

For stating some of the results that show this surprising and effective application of the Kronecker function rings, I need to recall briefly the following notions:

• spectral spaces (after M. Hochster);

In the recent years, the Kronecker function rings have been used for studying Riemann-Zariski Spaces of valuation domains.

For stating some of the results that show this surprising and effective application of the Kronecker function rings, I need to recall briefly the following notions:

• spectral spaces (after M. Hochster);

In the recent years, the Kronecker function rings have been used for studying Riemann-Zariski Spaces of valuation domains.

For stating some of the results that show this surprising and effective application of the Kronecker function rings, I need to recall briefly the following notions:

• *spectral spaces* (after M. Hochster);

In the recent years, the Kronecker function rings have been used for studying Riemann-Zariski Spaces of valuation domains.

For stating some of the results that show this surprising and effective application of the Kronecker function rings, I need to recall briefly the following notions:

• spectral spaces (after M. Hochster);

In the recent years, the Kronecker function rings have been used for studying Riemann-Zariski Spaces of valuation domains.

For stating some of the results that show this surprising and effective application of the Kronecker function rings, I need to recall briefly the following notions:

• spectral spaces (after M. Hochster);

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

a topological space X is spectral if and only if

 X is T₀ (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
 quasi-compact.

 admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

a topological space X is spectral if and only if

X is T₀ (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
 quasi-compact,

 admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

a topological space X is spectral if and only if

X is T₀ (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
 quasi-compact,

 admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

- a topological space X is spectral if and only if
- X is T_0 (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
- quasi-compact,

• admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

- a topological space X is spectral if and only if
- X is T₀ (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
 quasi-compact,

• admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

- a topological space X is spectral if and only if
- X is T_0 (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
- quasi-compact,

• admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and

Spectral spaces were characterized by Hochster in a purely topological way:

- a topological space X is spectral if and only if
- X is T_0 (this means that for every pair of distinct points of X, at least one of them has an open neighborhood not containing the other),
- quasi-compact,
- admits a basis of quasi-compact open subspaces that is closed under finite intersections, and
- every irreducible closed subspace C of X has a (unique) generic point (i.e., there exists one point $x_C \in C$ such that C coincides with the closure of this point).

Examples of valuation domains, • in Q, for each prime *p*,

 $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}:=\{a/b\in\mathbb{Q}\mid a,b\in\mathbb{Z},p
mid b\}$;

• in $\mathbb{C}(X)$, for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

 $\mathbb{C}[X]_{(X-z)} := \{f/g \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g(z) \neq 0\}.$

Examples of valuation domains,

• in \mathbb{Q} , for each prime p,

 $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}:=\{a/b\in\mathbb{Q}\mid a,b\in\mathbb{Z},p
mid b\}$;

• in $\mathbb{C}(X)$, for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

 $\mathbb{C}[X]_{(X-z)} := \{f/g \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g(z) \neq 0\}.$

Examples of valuation domains,

• in \mathbb{Q} , for each prime p,

 $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} := \{a/b \in \mathbb{Q} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, p \nmid b\};$

• in $\mathbb{C}(X)$, for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

 $\mathbb{C}[X]_{(X-z)} := \{f/g \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f, g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g(z) \neq 0\}.$

Examples of valuation domains,

• in \mathbb{Q} , for each prime p,

$$\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}:=\{a/b\in\mathbb{Q}\mid a,b\in\mathbb{Z},p
mid b\}$$
 ;

• in $\mathbb{C}(X)$, for each $z \in \mathbb{C}$,

 $\mathbb{C}[X]_{(X-z)} := \{f/g \in \mathbb{C}(X) \mid f,g \in \mathbb{C}[X], g(z) \neq 0\}.$

 from Zariski's work for the reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface and, more generally, for establishing new foundations of algebraic geometry by algebraic means (see [Zariski, 1939], [Zariski, 1944] and [Zariski-Samuel, 1960]),

 from rigid algebraic geometry started by J. Tate [Tate, 1971] (see [Fresnel-van der Put, 1981] and [Fujiwara-Kato, 2014]) and

 from real algebraic geometry (see [Schwartz, 1990] and [Huber, 1993]).

• from Zariski's work for the reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface and, more generally, for establishing new foundations of algebraic geometry by algebraic means (see [Zariski, 1939], [Zariski, 1944] and [Zariski-Samuel, 1960]),

 from rigid algebraic geometry started by J. Tate [Tate, 1971] (see [Fresnel-van der Put, 1981] and [Fujiwara-Kato, 2014]) and

 from real algebraic geometry (see [Schwartz, 1990] and [Huber, 1993]).

• from Zariski's work for the reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface and, more generally, for establishing new foundations of algebraic geometry by algebraic means (see [Zariski, 1939], [Zariski, 1944] and [Zariski-Samuel, 1960]),

• from rigid algebraic geometry started by J. Tate [Tate, 1971] (see [Fresnel-van der Put, 1981] and [Fujiwara-Kato, 2014]) and

 from real algebraic geometry (see [Schwartz, 1990] and [Huber, 1993]).

• from Zariski's work for the reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface and, more generally, for establishing new foundations of algebraic geometry by algebraic means (see [Zariski, 1939], [Zariski, 1944] and [Zariski-Samuel, 1960]),

• from rigid algebraic geometry started by J. Tate [Tate, 1971] (see [Fresnel-van der Put, 1981] and [Fujiwara-Kato, 2014]) and

• from real algebraic geometry (see [Schwartz, 1990] and [Huber, 1993]).

• from Zariski's work for the reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface and, more generally, for establishing new foundations of algebraic geometry by algebraic means (see [Zariski, 1939], [Zariski, 1944] and [Zariski-Samuel, 1960]),

• from rigid algebraic geometry started by J. Tate [Tate, 1971] (see [Fresnel-van der Put, 1981] and [Fujiwara-Kato, 2014]) and

• from real algebraic geometry (see [Schwartz, 1990] and [Huber, 1993]).

Let K be a field and A a subring (possibly, a subfield) of K
Let

 $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) := \{V \mid V \text{ valuation domain with } A \subseteq V \subseteq K = \operatorname{qf}(V)\}.$

- In case A is the prime subring of K, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ includes all valuation domains with K as quotient field and we denote it by simply $\operatorname{Zar}(K)$.
- In case A is an integral domain with quotient field K, $A \neq K$, then Zar(K|A) is the set of all valuation overrings of A and we simply denote it by Zar(A).

- Let K be a field and A a subring (possibly, a subfield) of K
- Let

 $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) := \{V \mid V \text{ valuation domain with } A \subseteq V \subseteq K = \operatorname{qf}(V)\}.$

• In case A is the prime subring of K, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ includes all valuation domains with K as quotient field and we denote it by simply $\operatorname{Zar}(K)$.

• In case A is an integral domain with quotient field K, $A \neq K$, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ is the set of all valuation overrings of A and we simply denote it by $\operatorname{Zar}(A)$.

- Let *K* be a field and *A* a subring (*possibly, a subfield*) of *K*
- Let

 $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) := \{V \mid V \text{ valuation domain with } A \subseteq V \subseteq K = \operatorname{qf}(V)\}.$

• In case A is the prime subring of K, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ includes all valuation domains with K as quotient field and we denote it by simply $\operatorname{Zar}(K)$.

• In case A is an integral domain with quotient field K, $A \neq K$, then Zar(K|A) is the set of all valuation overrings of A and we simply denote it by Zar(A).

- Let K be a field and A a subring (possibly, a subfield) of K
- Let

 $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) := \{V \mid V \text{ valuation domain with } A \subseteq V \subseteq K = \operatorname{qf}(V)\}.$

• In case A is the prime subring of K, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ includes all valuation domains with K as quotient field and we denote it by simply $\operatorname{Zar}(K)$.

• In case A is an integral domain with quotient field K, $A \neq K$, then $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ is the set of all valuation overrings of A and we simply denote it by $\operatorname{Zar}(A)$.

The topological structure on $Z := \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)$ is defined by taking, as a basis for the open sets, the subsets $\mathcal{U}_F := \{V \in Z \mid V \supseteq F\}$ for F varying in the finite subsets of K, i.e., if $F := \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$, with $x_i \in K$, then

$$\mathcal{U}_{F} = \operatorname{Zar}(K|A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]).$$

 The space Z = Zar(K|A), equipped with this topology, is usually called the Riemann-Zariski space of K over A.

The topological structure on Z := Zar(K|A) is defined by taking, as a basis for the open sets, the subsets $U_F := \{V \in Z \mid V \supseteq F\}$ for F varying in the finite subsets of K, i.e., if $F := \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$, with $x_i \in K$, then

$$\mathcal{U}_{F} = \operatorname{Zar}(K|A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]).$$

• The space Z = Zar(K|A), equipped with this topology, is usually called *the Riemann-Zariski space* of K over A.

The topological structure on Z := Zar(K|A) is defined by taking, as a basis for the open sets, the subsets $U_F := \{V \in Z \mid V \supseteq F\}$ for F varying in the finite subsets of K, i.e., if $F := \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$, with $x_i \in K$, then

$$\mathcal{U}_F = \operatorname{Zar}(K|A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]).$$

• The space Z = Zar(K|A), equipped with this topology, is usually called *the Riemann-Zariski space* of K over A.

The topological structure on Z := Zar(K|A) is defined by taking, as a basis for the open sets, the subsets $U_F := \{V \in Z \mid V \supseteq F\}$ for F varying in the finite subsets of K, i.e., if $F := \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$, with $x_i \in K$, then

$$\mathcal{U}_F = \operatorname{Zar}(K|A[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]).$$

• The space Z = Zar(K|A), equipped with this topology, is usually called *the Riemann-Zariski space* of K over A.

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

• in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;

 in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

• in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;

 in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

• in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;

 in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

• in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;

• in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;

• in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• First we proved, using a purely topological approach that: If K is the quotient field of A then Zar(A), endowed with the Zariski topology, is a spectral space in the sense of [Hochster, 1969] (see [Dobbs-Fedder-Fontana, 1987]).

This result was later re-proved by several authors with a variety of different techniques:

- in [Kuhlmann, 2004, Appendix], using a model-theoretic approach;
- in [Finocchiaro, 2013, Corollary 3.3] using new topological methods (e.g., ultrafilter topology);

• Immediately after the first paper, in collaboration with David Dobbs, we proved a more precise result, exhibiting explicitly an integral domain \mathcal{A} with a canonical map $\varphi : \operatorname{Zar}(\mathcal{A}) \to \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{A})$ realizing a topological homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Dobbs-Fontana, 1986]

Let A be an integral domain with quotient field K, and let $\mathcal{A}:= ext{Kr}(\overline{A},b).$ The canonical map

$arphi: \operatorname{Zar}(A) ightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{A}), \; (V,M) \; \mapsto \; M(X) \cap \mathcal{A}$

is a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

• Immediately after the first paper, in collaboration with David Dobbs, we proved a more precise result, exhibiting explicitly an integral domain \mathcal{A} with a canonical map $\varphi : \operatorname{Zar}(\mathcal{A}) \to \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{A})$ realizing a topological homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Dobbs-Fontana, 1986]

Let A be an integral domain with quotient field K, and let $A := \text{Kr}(\overline{A}, b)$. The canonical map

 $arphi: \operatorname{Zar}(\mathcal{A})
ightarrow \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{A}), \ (V, M) \ \mapsto \ M(X) \cap \mathcal{A}$

is a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Note that the previous theorem, stated for the space Zar(A), did not include the more general space Zar(K|A).

Note, for instance, that if \boldsymbol{k} is an algebraically closed field, then $\operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}[X]) := \operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}(X)|\boldsymbol{k}[X]) = \{\boldsymbol{k}[X]_{(X-\alpha)} \mid \alpha \in \boldsymbol{k}\}, \text{ and}$ $\operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}(X)|\boldsymbol{k}) = \operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}[X]) \cup \{\boldsymbol{k}[1/X]_{(1/X)}\}.$

A result including the case of Zar(K|A) was possible many years later, only after appropriate generalizations of the Kronecker function ring were introduced and studied. Note that the previous theorem, stated for the space Zar(A), did not include the more general space Zar(K|A).

Note, for instance, that if \boldsymbol{k} is an algebraically closed field, then $\operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}[X]) := \operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}(X)|\boldsymbol{k}[X]) = \{\boldsymbol{k}[X]_{(X-\alpha)} \mid \alpha \in \boldsymbol{k}\}, \text{ and}$ $\operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}(X)|\boldsymbol{k}) = \operatorname{Zar}(\boldsymbol{k}[X]) \cup \{\boldsymbol{k}[1/X]_{(1/X)}\}.$

A result including the case of Zar(K|A) was possible many years later, only after appropriate generalizations of the Kronecker function ring were introduced and studied.

Theorem [Finocchiaro-Fontana-Loper, 2013b]

Let A be any subring of K, and let

 $\operatorname{Kr}(K|A) := \bigcap \{V(X) \mid V \in \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)\}.$

• Then $\mathcal{A} := \operatorname{Kr}(K|A)$ is a K-function ring (after Halter-Koch).

• The canonical map σ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \to \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|\mathcal{A}), V \mapsto V(X)$ is an homeomorphism.

• The canonical map φ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \cong \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A) \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be the map sending a valuation overring of A into its center on A, composed with the homeomorphism σ , establishes a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Finocchiaro-Fontana-Loper, 2013b]

Let A be any subring of K, and let

 $\operatorname{Kr}(K|A) := \bigcap \{V(X) \mid V \in \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)\}.$

- Then A := Kr(K|A) is a K-function ring (after Halter-Koch).
- The canonical map σ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \to \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|\mathcal{A}), V \mapsto V(X)$ is an homeomorphism.

• The canonical map φ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \cong \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A) \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be the map sending a valuation overring of A into its center on A, composed with the homeomorphism σ , establishes a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Finocchiaro-Fontana-Loper, 2013b]

Let A be any subring of K, and let

 $\operatorname{Kr}(K|A) := \bigcap \{V(X) \mid V \in \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)\}.$

• Then $\mathcal{A} := \operatorname{Kr}(K|A)$ is a K-function ring (after Halter-Koch).

• The canonical map σ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \to \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|\mathcal{A}), V \mapsto V(X)$ is an homeomorphism.

• The canonical map φ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \cong \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A) \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be the map sending a valuation overring of A into its center on A, composed with the homeomorphism σ , establishes a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Finocchiaro-Fontana-Loper, 2013b]

Let A be any subring of K, and let

 $\operatorname{Kr}(K|A) := \bigcap \{V(X) \mid V \in \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)\}.$

- Then $\mathcal{A} := \operatorname{Kr}(K|A)$ is a K-function ring (after Halter-Koch).
- The canonical map σ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \to \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A)$, $V \mapsto V(X)$ is an homeomorphism.

• The canonical map φ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \cong \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|\mathcal{A}) \to \operatorname{Spec}(\mathcal{A})$ be the map sending a valuation overring of \mathcal{A} into its center on \mathcal{A} , composed with the homeomorphism σ , establishes a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

Theorem [Finocchiaro-Fontana-Loper, 2013b]

Let A be any subring of K, and let

 $\operatorname{Kr}(K|A) := \bigcap \{V(X) \mid V \in \operatorname{Zar}(K|A)\}.$

• Then $\mathcal{A} := \operatorname{Kr}(K|A)$ is a K-function ring (after Halter-Koch).

• The canonical map σ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \to \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A)$, $V \mapsto V(X)$ is an homeomorphism.

• The canonical map φ : $\operatorname{Zar}(K|A) \cong \operatorname{Zar}(K(X)|A) \to \operatorname{Spec}(A)$ be the map sending a valuation overring of A into its center on A, composed with the homeomorphism σ , establishes a homeomorphism (with respect to the Zariski topologies).

With all good wishes to Francesco

and ... thanks for your attention!

REFERENCES

- David E. Dobbs, Richard Fedder, and Marco Fontana, Abstract Riemann surfaces of integral domains and spectral spaces. *Ann. Mat. Pura Appl.* **148** (1987), 101–115.
- David E. Dobbs and Marco Fontana, Kronecker Function Rings and Abstract Riemann Surfaces, *J. Algebra* **99** (1986), 263–274.
- C. Finocchiaro, Spectral spaces and ultrafilters, *Comm. Algebra* (2014, to appear).
 - C. Finocchiaro, M. Fontana and K. A. Loper, Ultrafilter and constructible topologies on spaces of valuation domains, *Comm. Algebra* 41 (2013), 1825–1835.
 - C. Finocchiaro, M. Fontana and K. A. Loper, The constructible topology on the spaces of valuation domains, *Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.* **65** (2013), 6199–6216.
 - Marco Fontana and James Huckaba, Localizing systems and semistar operations, in *"Non-Noetherian commutative ring theory"*, 169–197, *Math. Appl.* **520**, Kluwer Acad. Publ., Dordrecht, 2000.
 - M. Fontana and K. A. Loper, Kronecker function rings: a general approach, in *Ideal theoretic methods in commutative algebra* (Columbia, MO, 1999), 189–205, Lecture Notes in Pure and Appl. Math., **220**, Dekker, New York, 2001.

M. Fontana and K. A. Loper, Nagata rings, Kronecker function rings and related semistar operations, *Comm. Algebra* **31** (2003), 4775–4805.

Marco Fontana ("Roma Tre")

Multiplicative ideal theory

- Marco Fontana and K. Alan Loper, The patch topology and the ultrafilter topology on the prime spectrum of a commutative ring, *Comm. Algebra* 36 (2008), 2917–2922.
- J. Fresnel and M. van der Put, *Géométrie analytique rigide et applications*, Progress in Mathematics **18**, Birkhäuser , Basel, 1981.



Kazuhiro Fujiwara and Fumiharu Kato, *Foundations of Rigid Geometry I*, arXiv:1308.4734, 2014.



- Alexander Grothendieck et Jean Dieudonné, Éléments de Géométrie Algébrique I, IHES 1960; Springer, Berlin, 1970.
- Melvin Hochster, Prime ideal structure in commutative rings, *Trans. Amer. Math. Soc.* **142** (1969), 43–60.



Franz Halter-Koch, Kronecker function rings and generalized Integral closures. *Comm. Algebra* **31** (2003), 45–59.



- Olivier Kwegna-Heubo, Kronecker function rings of transcendental field extensions, *Comm. Algebra* **38** (2010), 2701–2719.
- W. Krull, Beiträge zur Arithmetik kommutativer Integritätsbereiche, I II. *Math. Z.* **41** (1936), 545–577; 665–679.

Roland Huber, *Bewertungsspektrum und rigide Geometrie, Regensburger Mathematische Schriften*, vol. 23, Universität Regensburg, Fachbereich Mathematik, Regensburg, 1993.

Roland Huber and Manfred Knebusch, On valuation spectra, in *"Recent advances in real algebraic geometry and quadratic forms: proceedings of the RAGSQUAD year"*, Berkeley, 1990-1991, *Contemp. Math.* **155**, Amer. Math. Soc. Providence RI, 1994].



- Franz-Viktor Kuhlmann, Places of algebraic fields in arbitrary characteristic, *Advances Math.* **188** (2004), 399–424.
- B. Olberding, Noetherian spaces of integrally closed rings with an application to intersections of valuation rings, *Comm. Algebra* **38** (2010), 3318–3332.



- Niels Schwartz, Compactification of varieties, Ark. Mat. 28 (1990), 333-370.
- Niels Schwartz, Sheaves of Abelian *I*-groups, *Order*, **30** (2013), 497–526.



- Niels Schwartz and Marcus Tressl, Elementary properties of minimal and maximal points in Zariski spectra, *J. Algebra* **323** (2010), 698–728.
- John Tate, Rigid analytic spaces, Invent. Math. 12 (1971), 257–269.

- Oscar Zariski, The reduction of singularities of an algebraic surface, *Ann. Math.* **40** (1939), 639–689.
- Oscar Zariski, The compactness of the Riemann manifold of an abstract field of algebraic functions, *Bull. Amer. Math. Soc.* **50** (1944), 683–691.

Oscar Zariski, *Reduction of the singularities of algebraic three dimensional varieties*, Ann. Math. **45** (1944), 472–542.



Oscar Zariski and Pierre Samuel, *Commutative Algebra, Volume 2*, Springer Verlag, Graduate Texts in Mathematics **29**, New York, 1975 (First Edition, Van Nostrand, Princeton, 1960).