# Two classes of ideals determined by integer-valued polynomials 

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Riassunto: Sia dato un dominio $D$ con campo dei quozienti $K$, e sia $\operatorname{Int}(D)=$ $\{f(X) \in K[X] \mid f(d) \in D \forall d \in D\}$ l'anello dei polinomi a valori interi su $D$. $\grave{E}$ noto che i polinomi binomiali $\binom{X}{n}=\frac{X(X-1) \ldots(X-n+1)}{n!}$ formano una base di $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z}) e$ che per ogni numero primo $p$, il polinomio di Fermat $f_{p}(X)=\frac{1}{p}\left(X^{p}-X\right)$ appartiene ad $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$. Se il dominio $D$ contiene $\mathbb{Z}$, poniamo, per ogni intero non negativo $n$, $C(n)=\left\{\alpha \in K \left\lvert\, \alpha \cdot\binom{X}{n} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right.\right\}$, e per ogni numero primo $p, E(p)=\{\alpha \in$ $\left.K \mid \alpha \cdot f_{p}(X) \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right\} . C(n)$ e $E(p)$ sono ideali di $D$, essi vengono determinati esplicitamente nel caso in cui $D$ sia un dominio di Dedekind.

Abstract: If $D$ is a domain with quotient field $K$, let $\operatorname{Int}(D)=\{f(X) \in K[X] \mid$ $f(d) \in D$ for every $d \in D\}$ be the ring of integer-valued polynomials over $D$. It is well known that the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}=\frac{X(X-1) \ldots(X-n+1)}{n!}$ form a basis of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ as a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module and that for every prime integer $p$, the Fermat polynomials $f_{p}(X)=\frac{1}{p}\left(X^{p}-X\right)$ are in $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$. If the domain $D$ contains $\mathbb{Z}$, for each nonnegative integer $n$, set $C(n)=\left\{\alpha \in K \left\lvert\, \alpha \cdot\binom{X}{n} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right.\right\}$, and for every prime integer $p$, set $E(p)=\left\{\alpha \in K \mid \alpha \cdot f_{p}(X) \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right\}$. Each $C(n)$ and $E(p)$ is an ideal of $D$ which we explicitly determine when $D$ is a Dedekind domain.

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## - Introduction

Let $D$ be a domain with quotient field $K$ and set

$$
\operatorname{Int}(D)=\{f(X) \in K[X] \mid f(d) \in D \quad \text { for every } \quad d \in D\}
$$

to be the ring of integer-valued polynomials over $D$. In [8], PóLya showed that the binomial polynomials, defined by

$$
\binom{X}{0}=1, \quad \text { and } \quad\binom{X}{n}=\frac{X(X-1) \ldots(X-(n-1))}{n!}, \quad \text { for } \quad n \geq 1
$$

form a basis of $\operatorname{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ as a free $\mathbb{Z}$-module. In a later paper, Pólya asked which rings of algebraic integers $D$ possess similar bases for $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ as a $D$-module (i.e. a free basis $\left\{g_{i}(X)\right\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$ where each $g_{i}(X)$ is a degree $i$ polynomial) and solved this question for a quadratic number ring [9]. His argument centered on the fractional ideals of $D$ of the form

$$
A(n)=\{0\} \bigcup\left\{\alpha \in K \mid \exists f \in \operatorname{Int}(D), \operatorname{deg}(f)=n, f=\alpha X_{n}+\ldots\right\}
$$

where $n$ is a nonnegative integer. Such a free basis exists if and only if these ideals are principal. Ostrowski [7] generalized Pólya's result to other rings of integers and CAHEN [1] offered a complete description of the ideals $A(n)$ in the Dedekind case. Zantema [10] described a cohomological solution to Pólya's original problem.

Some recent papers have explored a topic related to the discussion above. If $D$ is a domain of characteristic 0 (and thus containing $\mathbb{Z}$ ) they asked whether the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}$ serve themselves as a free basis of $\operatorname{Int}(D)$. By [3, Proposition 1] $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ is contained in the $D$-module generated by the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}$. Hence, these polynomials form a basis of $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ if and only if they are contained in $\operatorname{Int}(D)$. Chabert and Gerboud [2] have given various other characterizations in the case of a ring of algebraic integers $D$ and HALTER-Koch and NARKIEWICZ [5] considered the case of an arbitrary domain of characteristic 0. One characterization is that the polynomials of the form $f_{p}(X)=\frac{1}{p}\left(X^{p}-X\right)$, where $p$ is a prime integer (known as the Fermat polynomials), are contained in $\operatorname{Int}(D)$. Another is that, for any nonnegative integer $n, n!A(n)=D$.

In this paper, we let
and

$$
C(n)=\left\{\alpha \in K \left\lvert\, \alpha \cdot\binom{X}{n} \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right.\right\}
$$

$$
E(p)=\left\{\alpha \in K \mid \alpha \cdot f_{p}(X) \in \operatorname{Int}(D)\right\}
$$

We completely determine these ideals for a Dedekind domain $D$ (of characterisitic 0$)$. We note that $C(n)$ is contained in $n!A(n)$. By definition, $C(n)=D$ if and only if $\binom{X}{n}$ belongs to $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ (and $E(p)=D$ if and only if $f_{p}(X)$ belongs to $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ ), hence $C(n)=D$ for all $n$ if and only if $n!A(n)=D$ for all $n$ (and also if and only if $E(p)=D$ for all $p$ ). However, we show that when this fails then eventually the inclusion of $C(n)$ in $n!A(n)$ is proper for some $n$.

Since any ideal of a Dedekind domain can uniquely be written as a product of maximal ideals, we determine the ideal $C(n)$ by computing the exponent of each maximal ideal $P$ of $D$ in such a decomposition. We show this exponent to be trivial unless $P$ contains a prime integer $p$ of $\mathbb{Z}$. We then proceed similarly for the ideals $E(p)$. Lastly, we conclude by an application to quadratic number rings giving some explicit examples.

Throughout, $\mathbb{Z}$ represents the integers, $\mathbb{N}$ the nonnegative integers, and $\mathbb{Q}$ the rationals. If $D$ is a Dedekind domain of characteristic 0 and $P$ a maximal ideal of $D$, let $v_{P}$ be the normalized valuation (i.e., its value group is $\mathbb{Z}$ ) associated to $P$. If $P$ contains a prime integer $p$, the valuation $v_{P}$ extends the $p$-adic valuation of $\mathbb{Q}$ and we say that $P$ is above $p$. Throughout, we let $e_{P}$ be the ramification index of this extension (thus $e_{P}=v_{P}(p)$ ), and $f_{P}$ be its residual degree. Hence $f_{P}=$ $[D / P: \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}]$. We observe that $e_{P}$ is always finite, but that $f_{P}$ may be infinite (whenever the residue field $D / P$ is infinite). We say that $v_{P}$ is an immediate extension of the $p$-adic valuation if $e_{P}=f_{P}=1$. If $\frac{a}{b}$ is in $\mathbb{Q}$ we let $\left[\frac{a}{b}\right]$ represent the greatest integer less than or equal to $\frac{a}{b}$. We use the symbol " $\subseteq$ " to represent set containment, and " $\subset$ " to represent proper set containment. For any other notation, the interested reader is referred to [6].

## 1 - Computation of the ideals $C(n)$

We open with some elementary observations concerning the ideals $C(n)$ and $A(n)$ for any domain $D$ of characteristic 0 .

Proposition 1.1. Let $D$ be a domain of characteristic 0 .

1. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}, C(n) \subseteq n!A(n) \subseteq D$.
2. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}, C(n) \subseteq C(n-1)$.
3. $C(0)=C(1)=D$.

Proof. 1. From the definition of $C(n)$, if $\alpha \in C(n)$ then $\frac{\alpha}{n!}$ is the leading coefficient of the degree $n$ polynomial $\alpha\binom{X}{n}$, hence $C(n) \subseteq n!A(n)$. The inclusion of $n!A(n)$ in $D$ follows from [3, Proposition 1].
2. Recall the well known binomial recursion

$$
\binom{X}{n}=\binom{X-1}{n-1}+\binom{X-1}{n}
$$

If $\alpha \in C(n)$, then both $\alpha\binom{X}{n}$ and $\alpha\binom{X-1}{n}$ are $\operatorname{in} \operatorname{Int}(D)$. Thus, so is $\alpha\binom{X-1}{n-1}$. Therefore $\alpha \in C(n-1)$.
3. This is obvious, since $\binom{X}{0}=1$ and $\binom{X}{1}=X$.

From here on we let $D$ be a Dedekind domain of characteristic 0 . The computation of the ideal $C(n)$ will center around the polynomial

$$
f_{n}(X)=X(X-1) \ldots(X-n+1)=n!\binom{X}{n}
$$

We denote by $f_{n}(D)$ the ideal generated by the elements $f_{n}(d)$ for every $d \in D$. By definition, the ideal $C(n)$ is the conductor in $D$ of the ideal $\left(\frac{1}{n!}\right) f_{n}(D)$. With these hypotheses and notations, we immediately have the following.

Lemma 1.2. 1. $C(n)=(n!)\left(f_{n}(D)\right)^{-1}$.
2. If $P$ is a prime ideal of $D$, then the exponent $c_{P}(n)$ of $P$ in the decomposition of $C(n)$ is equal to

$$
c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)-\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)\right\}
$$

To compute $c_{P}(n)$, we then first determine the integers

$$
i_{P}(n)=\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)\right\}
$$

We restrict ourselves to a prime ideal $P$ above a prime integer $p$ (otherwise, we shall see below that $c_{P}(n)=0$ ). The valuation $v_{P}$ associated
to $P$ is thus an extension of the $p$-adic valuation. Let $e_{P}=v_{P}(p)$ and $f_{P}=[D / P: \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}]$ be respectively the ramification index and the residual degree of this extension.

Lemma 1.3. Let $P$ be a prime ideal of $D$ above a prime integer $p$.

1. If $f_{P}>1$, then $i_{P}(n)=0$.
2. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}>1$, then $i_{P}(n)=\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]$.
3. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}=1$, then $i_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)$.

Proof. 1. Clearly $i_{P}(n) \geq 0$, since the coefficients of $f_{n}$ are in $D$ (in fact in $\mathbb{Z}$ ). On the other hand, by definition of the residual degree, if $f_{P}>1$, then $D / P$ strictly contains $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. Hence there exists $x_{0} \in D$ such that, $\forall i \in \mathbb{Z},\left(x_{0}-i\right) \notin P$. Therefore

$$
i_{P}(n) \leq v_{P}\left(f_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{P}\left(x_{0}-i\right)=0
$$

2. If $f_{P}=1$, then $D / P \simeq \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ and, for each $x \in D$, there exists $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(x-d) \in P$. Hence, for $0 \leq i \leq n-1, x-i \equiv d-i(\bmod P)$. Since $d, d-1, \ldots, d-n+1$ are $n$ consecutive integers, exactly $\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]$ are divisible by $p$ (or equivalently are in $P$ ). Therefore

$$
v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{P}(x-i) \geq\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]
$$

On the other hand, if $e_{P}>1$ and if $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, either $v_{P}(i)=0$ or $v_{P}(i)>1$ (equivalently $i \notin P$ or $i \in P^{2}$ ). Choosing $x_{0}$ in $P$ such that $v_{P}\left(x_{0}\right)=1$, then $v_{P}\left(x_{0}-i\right)=0$, if $i$ is not divisible by $p$, and $v_{P}\left(x_{0}-i\right)=1$, if $i$ is divisible by $p$. Hence

$$
v_{P}\left(f_{n}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{P}\left(x_{0}-i\right)=\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]
$$

3. If $e_{P}=f_{P}=1$, then $P=p D$ and the cardinality of $D / P$ is $p$. We could quote [2, Theorem 2.5] to conclude that the binomial polynomial $\binom{X}{n}$ is in $\operatorname{Int}\left(D_{P}\right)$, and hence that the exponent $c_{P}(n)$ of the decomposition of $C(n)$ is trivial (and thus that $i_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)$ ). But we give a direct proof. Since $n \in D$ and $f_{n}(n)=n!$, it is first clear that

$$
i_{P}(n) \leq v_{P}(n!)
$$

On the other hand, if $x$ is a root of $f_{n}(X)$, then $v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=\infty>v_{P}(n!)$. So suppose that $x$ is not a root of $f_{n}(X)$ and let $r=v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)+1$. The map

$$
\varphi_{r}: \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow D_{P} / p^{r} D_{P}
$$

is surjective, because its kernel is $\mathbb{Z} / p^{r} \mathbb{Z}$ and there are $p^{r}$ elements in both $\mathbb{Z} / p^{r} \mathbb{Z}$ and $D_{P} / p^{r} D_{P}$. Hence there is $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v_{P}(x-d)=r$. Since we have

$$
v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{P}(x-i)
$$

it is clear that, for $0 \leq i \leq n-1, v_{P}(x-i)<r$. Hence $v_{P}(x-i)=v_{P}(d-i)$ and therefore

$$
v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} v_{P}(d-i)=v_{P}\left(f_{n}(d)\right)
$$

Now the binomial polynomial $\binom{X}{n}=\frac{1}{n!} f_{n}(X)$ is integer-valued on $\mathbb{Z}$, thus $f_{n}(d)$ is divisible by $n!$ in $\mathbb{Z}$ and a fortiori in $D$. Therefore

$$
i_{P}(n) \geq v_{P}\left(f_{n}(x)\right)=v_{P}\left(f_{n}(d)\right) \geq v_{P}(n!)
$$

We are now ready for the main result of the section.

Proposition 1.4. Let $D$ be a Dedekind domain of characteristic 0 and $n$ be a nonnegative integer. The ideal $C(n)$ is a product of maximal ideals of $D$, with any such maximal ideal $P$ being above a prime integer $p \leq n$. Moreover, the exponent $c_{P}(n)$ of $P$ is given by the following formulae:

1. If $f_{P}>1$, then $c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)$.
2. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}>1$, then $c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)-\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]$.
3. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}=1$, then $c_{P}(n)=0$.

Proof. Since $C(n)$ is an ideal of $D$, then clearly $c_{P}(n) \geq 0$. Hence, if $v_{P}(n!)=0$, it results from Lemma 1.2 that $c_{P}(n)=0$. This is the case if $P \cap \mathbb{Z}=(0)$, since the valuation $v_{P}$ is then trivial on any integer, and also if $P$ is above a prime integer $p>n$. Lastly the formulae are a direct consequence of Lemma 1.2 and Lemma 1.3.

REMARK 1.5. It is obvious that $c_{P}(n)>0$ in the first case $\left(f_{P}>1\right)$. In fact, the same holds in the second case $\left(f_{P}=1\right.$ and $\left.e_{P}>1\right)$. Indeed, from Legendre's well known formula, denoting by $v_{p}$ the $p$-adic valuation, then

$$
v_{p}(n!)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k}}\right]
$$

and thus

$$
c_{P}(n)=\left(e_{P}-1\right)\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]+e_{P} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k}}\right]>0
$$

On the other hand it is clear from the definition that the ideals $C(n)$ are trivial if and only if the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}$ belong to $\operatorname{Int}(D)$. We thus recover one of the characterizations given by Chabert and Gerboud of the Dedekind domains $D$ such that the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}$ form a basis of $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ [2, Theorem 2.5]: each maximal ideal $P$ of $D$ above a prime integer $p$ is such that the valuation $v_{P}$ is an immediate extension of the $p$-adic valuation (see also Remark 2.2 below).

From Proposition 1.1, if $C(n)=D$, then $C(n)=n!A(n)$. However, if some ideal $C(n)$ is not trivial, i.e. there is a maximal ideal $P$ in $D$ above a prime integer $p$ such that the valuation $v_{P}$ is not an immediate extension of the $p$-adic valuation, it results from next proposition that eventually $C(n) \subset n!A(n)$. This is in particular always the case for the ring of integers of an algebraic number field.

Proposition 1.6. Let $D$ be a Dedekind domain containing $\mathbb{Z}$, $n$ be a nonnegative integer and $B(n)$ be the ideal such that $C(n)=B(n)$. $n!A(n)$. Then $B(n)$ is a product of maximal ideals of $D$, with any such maximal ideal $P$ being above a prime integer $p \leq n$. Moreover, the exponent $b_{P}(n)$ of $P$ is given by the following formulae:

1. If $f_{P}>1$, then $b_{P}(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k f_{P}}}\right]$.
2. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}>1$, then $b_{P}(n)=\sum_{k=2}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k}}\right]$.
3. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}=1$, then $b_{P}(n)=0$.

Proof. Clearly, $b_{P}(n)=c_{P}(n)-a_{P}(n)$, where $a_{P}(n)$ is the exponent of $P$ in the decomposition of $n!A(n)$. Now, the results of [1, Section 2] yield that

$$
A(n)=\prod P^{-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{N(P)^{k}}\right]}
$$

where $N(P)=p f_{P}$ is the norm of $P$ (i.e. the cardinality of $\left.D / P\right)$, hence

$$
a_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k f_{P}}}\right]
$$

From the previous proposition we thus get the following.

1. If $f_{P}>1$, then $c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)$, hence

$$
b_{P}(n)=c_{P}(n)-a_{P}(n)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k f_{P}}}\right]
$$

2. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}>1$, then

$$
c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)-\left[\frac{n}{p}\right]
$$

and

$$
a_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)-\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k}}\right]
$$

hence

$$
b_{P}(n)=c_{P}(n)-a_{P}(n)=\sum_{k=2}^{\infty}\left[\frac{n}{p^{k}}\right]
$$

3. If $f_{P}=1$ and $e_{P}=1$, then both $C(n)$ and $n!A(n)$ are trivial. Hence, so is $B(n)$.

## 2 - Computation of the ideals $E(p)$

We present now a computation of the ideals $E(p)$, perfectly similar in spirit to that of the last section. We state the main result.

Proposition 2.1. Let $D$ be a Dedekind domain of characteristic 0 and $p$ be a prime number. The ideal $E(p)$ is a product of maximal ideals of $D$ above $p$ and the exponent $h_{P}(p)$ of such a maximal ideal $P$ is given by the following formulae:

1. If $f_{P}>1$, then $h_{P}(p)=e_{P}$.
2. If $f_{P}=1$, then $h_{P}(p)=e_{P}-1$.

Proof. By definition, the ideal $E(p)$ is the conductor in $D$ of the ideal generated by the values of the Fermat polynomial $f_{p}(X)=\frac{1}{p}\left(X^{p}-\right.$
$X)$. In a manner similar to Lemma 1.2 , we thus have

$$
h_{P}(p)=v_{P}(p)-\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(x^{p}-x\right)\right\}
$$

Since $E(p)$ is an ideal, then $0 \leq h_{P}(p) \leq v_{P}(p)$. Hence, if $v_{P}(p)=0$, then $h_{P}(p)=0$. This is clearly the case if $P$ is not above $p$. Since $v_{P}(p)=e_{P}$, the formulae will result from the computation of $\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(x^{p}-x\right)\right\}$ :

1. If $f_{P}>1$, the cardinality of the field $D / P$ is greater than $p$ and there exists some element $x_{0} \in D$ such that $\left(x_{0}^{p}-x_{0}\right) \notin P$. Therefore

$$
\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(x^{p}-x\right)\right\}=v_{P}\left(x_{0}^{p}-x_{0}\right)=0
$$

2. If $f_{P}=1$, then $D / P \simeq \mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ and $\forall x \in D, v_{P}\left(x^{p}-x\right) \geq 1$. On the other hand, if $x_{0} \in D$ is such that $v_{P}\left(x_{0}\right)=1$, then $v_{P}\left(x_{0}^{p}\right)=p$. Thus $v_{P}\left(x_{0}^{p}-x_{0}\right)=1$ and

$$
\operatorname{Inf}_{x \in D}\left\{v_{P}\left(x^{p}-x\right)\right\}=v_{P}\left(x_{0}^{p}-x_{0}\right)=1
$$

REMARK 2.2. It clearly results from this proposition that the ideals $E(p)$ are trivial if and only if, for any maximal ideal $P$ of $D$ above a nonzero prime $p$, the valuation $v_{P}$ is an immediate extension of the $p$-adic valuation. We thus recover another characterization given by Chabert and Gerboud of the Dedekind domains $D$ such that the binomial polynomials $\binom{X}{n}$ form a basis of $\operatorname{Int}(D)$ [2, Theorem 2.5].

## 3 - Application to quadratic fields

We now interpret Proposition 1.4 in the case of the ring of integers of a quadratic number field.

Proposition 3.1. Let $D$ be the ring of integers of the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ where $d$ is a square free integer. Let $n$ be a positive integer and write

$$
n!=p_{1}^{b_{1}} \ldots p_{j}^{b_{j}} q_{1}^{c_{1}} \ldots q_{k}^{c_{k}} r_{1}^{a_{1}} \ldots r_{i}^{a_{i}}
$$

where $p_{t}$ is a prime in $\mathbb{Z}$ which is inert in $D$, for $1 \leq t \leq j, q_{t}$ is a prime which splits, for $1 \leq t \leq k$ and $r_{t}$ is a prime in $\mathbb{Z}$ which ramifies in $D$,
for $1 \leq t \leq i$. Then, letting $r_{t} D=R_{t}^{2}$,

$$
C(n)=p_{1}^{b_{1}} \ldots p_{j}^{b_{j}} R_{1}^{2 a_{1}-\left[\frac{n}{r_{1}}\right]} \ldots R_{i}^{2 a_{i}-\left[\frac{n}{r_{i}}\right]}
$$

Proof. This is a direct application of the formulae given by Proposition 1.4.

1. If $p$ is inert, then $P=p D$ is a maximal ideal of $D$ such that $e_{P}=1$ and $f_{P}=2$. In this case $c_{P}(n)=v_{P}(n!)=v_{p}(n)$ is the exponent of $p$ in the decomposition of $n$ !.
2. If $q$ splits in $D$, the maximal ideals above $q$ in $D$ do not appear in the decomposition of $C(n)$.
3. If $r$ ramifies, that is if $r D=R^{2}$, then $R$ is a maximal ideal of $D$ such that $e_{R}=2$ and $f_{R}=1$. In this case $c_{R}(n)=v_{R}(n!)-\left[\frac{n}{r}\right]$, where $v_{R}(n!)=2 v_{r}(n!)$ is twice the exponent of $r$ in the decomposition of $n!$

We illustrate the result 3.1 with two examples.
Example 3.2. In the following chart, we list the prime factorization of the first 12 values of $n$ !, followed by the prime factorizations of the ideals $C(n)$ and $n!A(n)$ when $D=\mathbb{Z}[i]$. Note that $D$ is a principal ideal domain, $(2)=(1+i)^{2}$ is the only ramified prime, and a prime $p$ is inert in $D$ if and only if $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)($ see $[6])$.

| $n$ | $n!$ | $C(n)$ | $(n!) A(n)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ | $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ |
| 1 | 1 | $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ | $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ |
| 2 | 2 | $(1+i)$ | $(1+i)$ |
| 3 | $2 \cdot 3$ | $(1+i)(3)$ | $(1+i)(3)$ |
| 4 | $2^{3} \cdot 3$ | $(1+i)^{4}(3)$ | $(1+i)^{3}(3)$ |
| 5 | $2^{3} \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ | $(1+i)^{5}(3)$ | $(1+i)^{2}(3)$ |
| 6 | $2^{4} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5$ | $(1+i)^{4}(3)^{2}$ |  |
| 7 | $2^{4} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $(1+i)^{5}(3)^{2}(7)$ | $(1+i)^{4}(3)^{2}(7)$ |
| 8 | $2^{7} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $(1+i)^{10}(3)^{2}(7)$ | $(1+i)^{7}(3)^{2}(7)$ |
| 9 | $2^{7} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $(1+i)^{10}(3)^{4}(7)$ | $(1+i)^{7}(3)^{3}(7)$ |
| 10 | $2^{8} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7$ | $(1+i)^{11}(3)^{4}(7)$ | $(1+i)^{8}(3)^{3}(7)$ |
| 11 | $2^{8} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7 \cdot 11$ | $(1+i)^{11}(3)^{4}(7)(11)$ | $(1+i)^{8}(3)^{3}(7)(11)$ |

Example 3.3. We repeat the chart of the previous example, this time with $D=\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$. Here $D$ is not a principal ideal domain and $(2)=(2,1+\sqrt{-5})^{2}$ and $(5)=(\sqrt{-5})^{2}$ are the only ramified primes. We let $P=(2,1+\sqrt{-5})$.

| $n$ | $n!$ | $C(n)$ | $(n!) A(n)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ | $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ |
| 1 | 1 | $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ | $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ |
| 2 | 2 | $P$ | $P$ |
| 3 | $2 \cdot 3$ | $P$ | $P$ |
| 4 | $2^{3} \cdot 3$ | $P^{4}$ | $P^{3}$ |
| 5 | $2^{3} \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ | $P^{4}(\sqrt{-5})$ | $P^{3}(\sqrt{-5})$ |
| 6 | $2^{4} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5$ | $P^{5}(\sqrt{-5})$ | $P^{4}(\sqrt{-5})$ |
| 7 | $2^{4} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $P^{5}(\sqrt{-5})$ | $P^{4}(\sqrt{-5})$ |
| 8 | $2^{7} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $P^{10}(\sqrt{-5})$ | $P^{7}(\sqrt{-5})$ |
| 9 | $2^{7} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5 \cdot 7$ | $P^{10}(\sqrt{-5})$ | $P^{7}(\sqrt{-5})$ |
| 10 | $2^{8} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7$ | $P^{11}(\sqrt{-5})^{2}$ | $P^{8}(\sqrt{-5})^{2}$ |
| 11 | $2^{8} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7 \cdot 11$ | $P^{11}(\sqrt{-5})^{2}(11)$ | $P^{8}(\sqrt{-5})^{2}(11)$. |

In both examples we note that for some $\mathrm{N}, C(n) \subset n!A(n)$ for $n \geq N$, as required by Proposition 1.6.

For the ideals $E(p)$, we similarly derive immediately the following from Proposition 2.1.

Proposition 3.4. Let $D$ be the ring of integers of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ where $d$ is a square free integer, and $p$ be a prime in $\mathbb{Z}$.

1. If $p$ splits in $D$, then $E(p)=D$.
2. If $p$ ramifies and $p D=R^{2}$, then $E(p)=R$.
3. If $p$ is inert, then $E(p)=p D$.

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Lavoro pervenuto alla redazione il 19 febbraio 1996 ed accettato per la pubblicazione il 11 luglio 1996. Bozze licenziate il 4 ottobre 1996

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[^0]:    Key Words and Phrases: Integer-valued polynomial - Dedekind domain A.M.S. Classification: 13B25-11S05-12Y05-13G05

    The first author is supported by The C.N.R.S. U.R.A. 225. Part of this work was completed while the second author was on leave at Terza Università degli studi di Roma under a grant from the Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, and Karl-FranzensUniversität in Graz, Austria on a Fulbright Fellowship.

