MATH 215A Notes

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Preliminaries

This document is the notes based on Dr. Chengxi Wang's teaching at UCLA's 215A in fall 2022. The recommended textbook is Atuyah-MacDonald's *Introduction to Commutative Algebra* and David Eisenbud's *Commutative Algebra: with a View Toward Algebraic Geometry*.

1 Rings and Ideals

The study of commutative algebra started from commutative rings. We start from here and review a list of concepts that were built upon that.

Definition 1.1 ((Commutative) Ring)**.** A ring A is a set with two binary operations, usually called addition and multiplication, such that

- A is an Abelian group with respect to addition.
- The multiplication is associative and distributive over addition. (That is, A is a monoid with respect to multiplication.

We only think of rings that are commutative, that is, $xy = yx$ for all $x, y \in A$.

In this whole chapter, we think of rings to be commutative and with a multiplicative identity 1.

Remark 1.2. We say R is a trivial ring if and only if $1 = 0$, if and only if $R = 0$.

Example 1.3. Some examples include basic number rings like $\mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Q}$, and $\mathbb{R}$, polynomial rings $R[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ constructed from a ring R, and $C^\infty(M)$ where M is a manifold.

Definition 1.4 (Ring Homomorphism)**.** A ring homomorphism is a map f between rings A and B such that f respects addition, multiplication, and the identity element 1, i.e. $f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y)$, $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$, and $f(1) = 1$.

Definition 1.5 (Subring)**.** A subset S of a ring A is a subring of A if A is a ring with respect to the operations' of A. Alternatively, S should be closed under addition, multiplication, and contains the identity element of A.

The commutative rings and the ring homomorphisms between them form a category **CRing**, the category of commutative rings.

Definition 1.6 (Ideal)**.** An ideal I of a ring A is a subset of A which is an additive subgroup and is such that $AI \subseteq I$.

Remark 1.7. The kernel of a ring homomorphism is always an ideal. The image of a ring homomorphism is always a subring. Ideals are usually not subrings.

The ring and the trivial subring are always ideals.

The quotient structure of a ring over an ideal is automatically a quotient group. The quotient structure then inherits a uniquely-defined multiplication from the ring and by the construction we have a ring structure. Therefore, the quotient structure is called a quotient ring. There is a natural surjective ring homomorphism from the ring into the quotient structure. The most important result on quotient ring structures is the following correspondence theorem.

Theorem 1.8 (Correspondence Theorem)**.** Given a ring R and an ideal I of R, there is a correspondence between ideals of R/I and the ideals of R that contain I.

Definition 1.9 (Zero-divisor, Integral Domain)**.** A zero-divisor x of a ring R is an element $x \in R$ such that there exists a non-zero $y \in R$ such that $xy = 0$.

A ring R is called an integral domain if R have no zero-divisors.

Remark 1.10. $\mathbb{Z}$ is an integral domain.

Definition 1.11 (Nilpotent, Reduced)**.** An element x in a ring R is called nilpotent if $x^n = 0$ for some $n > 0$. We say R is reduced if R have no nilpotent elements.

Remark 1.12. A nilpotent element is a zero-divisor whenever A is not the trivial ring.

Definition 1.13 (Divide, Unit, Inverse)**.** In a ring R, we say an element x divides another element x' if there exists some $y \in R$ such that $x' = xy$.

An element $x \in R$ is called a unit if x divides 1, that is, $xy = 1$ for some y. In this case, y is called the multiplicative inverse of x, denoted x^{-1}. Analogously, y is called the additive inverse of x if $x + y = 0$, and we denote $y = -x$.

The units of R form a multiplicative Abelian group, denoted $R^\times$.

Definition 1.14 (Principal Ideal)**.** The ideal consisting multiples rx of an element $x \in R$ is called principal, denoted (x) or Rx.

Remark 1.15. x is a unit if and only if $R = (x)$.

Definition 1.16. We say a ring R is a field if $1 \neq 0$ and every non-zero element is a unit.

Remark 1.17. Every field is an integral domain.

Remark 1.18. In **CRing**, $\mathbb{Z}$ is the initial object (zero object), the zero ring is the terminal object.

Proposition 1.19. Let R be a non-trivial ring. The following are equivalent:

1. R is a field.
2. The only ideals of R are 0 and R.
3. Every homomorphism of R into a non-zero ring S is injective.

Definition 1.20. An ideal I of a ring R is prime if $I \neq R$ and whenever $xy \in I$ we have either $x \in I$ or $y \in I$.

An ideal I of a ring R is maximal if $I \neq R$ and there is no other ideal J such that $I \subsetneq J \subsetneq R$.

An ideal I of a ring R is radical if for every $x \in R$ such that $x^n \in I$ for some n, we must have $x \in I$.

Remark 1.21. An ideal I is prime if and only if R/I is a domain.

An ideal I is maximal if and only if R/I is a field.

An ideal I is radical if and only if R/I is reduced.

Geometrically speaking, maximal ideals of a ring corresponds to (closed) points in Zariski topological space, and prime ideals of a ring corresponds to irreducible closed subsets (varieties), which relates a ring to its spectrum. We will talk about these ideas later.

Example 1.22. Every ideal of $\mathbb{Z}$ is a principal ideal, therefore of the form (m) for some $m \geq 0$. The prime ideals of $\mathbb{Z}$ are of the form (m) where m is either 0 or a prime number. The maximal ideals of $\mathbb{Z}$ are of the form (m) where m is a prime number. The radical ideals of $\mathbb{Z}$ are the principal ideals generated by the integers, i.e. (m) for any integer m.

Alternatively, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a field if and only if n is prime; it is a domain if and only if n is prime or 0; it is reduced if and only if n is a product of distinct primes.

Example 1.23. For a field K, we consider $K[x]$. The maximal ideals of $K[x]$ are of the form $(f(x))$ where f is an irreducible polynomial, and the prime ideals of $K[x]$ are (0) and the maximal ideals.

Example 1.24. In $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, the prime ideals are generated by 0 and primes, and linear combinations of x and the integers. The quotient in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ satisfies properties like $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(7) \cong \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}[x]$ and $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x-3) \cong \mathbb{Z}$.

In general, for any ring R, $a \in R$, and $R[x]/(x-a) \cong R$.

Example 1.25. Consider a field K, a set S and fix an arbitrary point $s \in S$. A ring of K-valued fucntions on S, including the constants in K, then maximal ideals are of the form $I = \{f \in A : f(s) = 0\}$, set of functions that vanishes at some $s \in S$.

Lemma 1.26. Let $f : A \to B$ be a ring homomorphism with prime ideal $P \subseteq B$, then $f^{-1}(P)$ is prime in A.

Remark 1.27. This is not true for maximal ideals. For example, if $f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$ is the inclusion map, then $f^{-1}((0)) = (0) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is not maximal.

Theorem 1.28. Every nonzero ring A has a maximal ideal.

Proof. Appeal to Zorn's lemma. □

Corollary 1.29. For every proper ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ of ring A, there exists a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ of A that contains $\mathfrak{a}$.

Corollary 1.30. Every non-unit element of A is contained in some maximal ideal of A.

Definition 1.31 (Local Ring, Residue Field)**.** A ring A with exactly one maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$ is called a local ring. In particular, we call $A/\mathfrak{m}$ the residue field of A (with respect to $\mathfrak{m}$).

Definition 1.32 (Principal Ideal Domain)**.** A principal ideal domain (PID) is an integral domain in which every ideal is principal.

Proposition 1.33. In a PID, every non-zero prime ideal is maximal.

Definition 1.34 (Radical)**.** The radical of an ideal I in a ring R is $\sqrt{I} = \{x \in R : \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, x^n \in I\}$.

Remark 1.35. The radical of an ideal I in R is also an ideal in R. Moreover, the radical of I is the intersection of all prime ideals of R that contains I.

Example 1.36. If $f_1, \cdots, f_r$ are polynomials in $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$, let $V(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$ be the set of points of K^n consisting of the common vanishing set of these polynomials.

The ideal generated by the f_i's certainly also vanishes on $V(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$.

In good cases, the set of functions vanishing on $V(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$ will be exactly the ideal $(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$.

The ring $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/\sqrt{(f_1, \cdots, f_r)}$ consists of polynomial functions on $V(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$. Therefore, if different polynomials agree on $V(f_1, \cdots, f_r)$, then their differences vanishes in the radical ideal $\sqrt{(f_1, \cdots, f_r)}$.

Example 1.37. Consider $K[x, y]/(y, y - x^2)$. The set $V(y, y - x^2)$ is now just the parabola $y = x^2$ intersect by the set x-axis, which is the set $\{(0, 0)\}$. Note that the two curves do not intersect transversely.

Note that $K[x, y]/(y, y - x^2) = K[x]/(x^2)$. Therefore, we have a nilpotent element x. The vanishing point is now $x = 0$, and this is a fat point since it has multiplicity 2.

Definition 1.38 (Nilradical)**.** The nilradical of A is the set η of nilpotent elements in A, which is also an ideal in A.

Proposition 1.39. The nilradical is precisely the radical of the zero ideal, i.e., sometimes denoted $\sqrt{0}$, and is also precisely the intersection of all prime ideals.

Proof. $\eta \subseteq \bigcap_{P \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)} P$: if $x^m = 0$, since $0 \in P$, so $x \in P$.

$\bigcap_{P \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)} P \subseteq \eta$: let $x \in R$ be not nilpotent. Consider the set S of ideals I in R such that $x^n \notin I$ for all $n \geq 1$. It is not empty since the zero ideal is in it. For any totally ordered subset $T \subseteq S$, let $J = \bigcup_{I \in T} I$. This is also an ideal in S. By Zorn's Lemma, S has a maximal element K. It does not contain x.

Claim 1.40. K is prime.

Subproof. Suppose $a \notin K$, $b \notin K$, we want to show that $ab \notin K$. By maximality, $(a) + K$ is not in S. Therefore, $x^n \in (a) + K$ for some n. Similarly, $x^m \in (b) + K$. But now $x^{n+m} \in (ab) + K$, so $(ab) + K \notin S$, and so $ab \notin K$. ■

□

Definition 1.41. The Jacobson radical of a ring A is the intersection of all maximal ideals of the ring.

Proposition 1.42. The Jacobson ideal is precisely the set of elements $x \in A$ such that $1 - xy$ is a unit in A for all $y \in A$.

2 Zariski Topology and Spectrum

Definition 2.1 (Zariski Topology, Spectrum)**.** Let A be a ring and let X be the set of prime ideals of A. For each subset E of A, denote $V(E)$ as the set of all prime ideals of A which contain E. Note that $V(E)$ behaves like the closed sets in a topology, in particular

- Suppose $\mathfrak{a}$ is the ideal generated by E, then $V(E) = V(\mathfrak{a}) = V(r(\mathfrak{a}))$, where $r(\mathfrak{a})$ is the radical of $\mathfrak{a}$.
- $V(0) = X$ and $V(1) = \varnothing$.
- $V(\bigcup\limits_{i \in I} E_i) = \bigcap\limits_{i \in I} V(E_i)$ for any family of subsets $(E_i)_{i \in I}$ in A.
- $V(\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}) = V(\mathfrak{a}) \cup V(\mathfrak{b})$ for any ideal $\mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b}$ of A.

Therefore, we call the corresponding topology on X the Zariski topology. In particular, X is called the prime spectrum, denoted $\mathbf{Spec}(A)$.

Theorem 2.2. $\mathbf{Spec}(A)$ is a topological space for any commutative ring A.

Proof. Left as an exercise. □

Example 2.3. Consider a structure $A = K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$, with a given $(a_1, \cdots, a_n)$. Note that points are like maximal ideals, and ring of functions vanishing at a point are maximal ideals $(x_1 - a_1, \cdots, x_n - a_n)$. Therefore, points are in one-to-one correspondence with the homomorphisms from A to K.

All prime ideals of A arise as $f^{-1}(0)$ for some map from A to K a field.

There are a few common operations defined on ideals. We can see how these operations interact on the spectrum.

Example 2.4 (Operations on Ideals)**.**

- For any ideals I, J, $I + J$ is the smallest ideal containing I and J. It contains the sum of elements of I and J.

  Let S be a set of ideals in R, then $\sum\limits_{I \in S} I$ is the smallest ideal that contains every ideal in S. It consists of finite sum of elements of the ideals in S.

- IJ is the ideal generated by elements of the form xy where $x \in I$ and $y \in J$. It is essentially the set of finite sums of elements of this form.
- $I \cap J$ is the set-theoretic intersection of I and J.

Geometrically, the vanishing set of $I + J$ is the intersection of the vanishing set of I and the vanishing set of J. A smaller vanishing set corresponds to a larger ideal. In particular, taking products and intersections of ideals corresponds to taking the union of vanishing sets.

Example 2.5.

- $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$.
- Obviously IJ is not always equal to $I \cap J$. Take $I = J$ for example. One can also find examples where $IJ \neq I \cap J$ and $I \neq J$.
- Show that if $I + J = R$, then $IJ = I \cap J$.
- Show that if $I_1, \cdots, I_n$ is a set of distinct ideals with $I_j + I_j = R$ for all $i \neq j$, then the map $R \to \prod_{i=1}^{n} R/I_i$ is surjective.

Lemma 2.6. $\sqrt{IJ} = \sqrt{I \cap J}$.

Proof. Since $IJ \subseteq I \cap J$, then $\sqrt{IJ} \subseteq \sqrt{I \cap J}$. For the other inclusion, we see that if $x^n \in I \cap J$, then x^{2n} is in IJ. □

Lemma 2.7. If $\sqrt{I} = \sqrt{J}$, then any prime ideal containing I also contains J.

Proof. Take an prime ideal P that contains I, then $\sqrt{I} \subseteq P$. Indeed, if $I \subseteq P$, then for $x \in \sqrt{I}$, $x^n \in I \subseteq P$, and so $x \in P$. Therefore, $\sqrt{J} \subseteq P$, therefore we know $J \subseteq P$. □

Definition 2.8 (Scheme)**.** A scheme is a functor $F : \mathbf{Ring} \to \mathbf{Set}$ satisfying certain conditions. It is covered by the corresponding functors $\mathbf{Hom}_{Ring}(R, -)$ and that these functors glue together to give F.

Alternatively, a scheme is a locally ringed space, locally isomorphic to an affine scheme.

An affine scheme is a topological space that comes with a sheaf of rings cooked up out of a ring.

Definition 2.9 (Affine Algebraic Variety)**.** Let K be an algebraically closed field and let $f_\alpha(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = 0$ be a set of polynomial equations in n variables with coefficients in K. The set X of all points $x = (x_1, \cdots, x_n) \in K^n$ which satisfy these equations is an affine algebraic variety.

Consider the set of all polynomials $g \in K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ with the property that $g(x) = 0$ for all $x \in X$. This set is an ideal $I(X)$ in the polynomial ring, and is called the ideal of the variety X. The quotient ring $P(X) = K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/I(X)$ is the ring of polynomial functions on X, because two polynomials g, h define the same polynomial function on X if and only if $g - h$ vanishes at every point of X, that is, if and only if $g - h \in I(X)$.

Example 2.10. Recall that $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(0), (2), (3), (5), (7), \cdots\}$.

Evaluating the "function" n at the different "points" in $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{Z})$ means taking the image of n in $\mathbb{Z}/(p)$, so just have a map $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}/(p)$ that sends n to $\bar{n}$. The vanishing set of such functions are closed in the topology. For example, take $n = 12$, then 12 vanishes at (2) and (3) in the spectrum.

(0) is the generic point, in the sense that it is "near" every point.

Example 2.11. $\mathbf{Spec}(0) = \varnothing$ and $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(0)\}$, i.e. a single point. Also, $\mathbf{Spec}\mathbb{C}[x]$ is the set of ideals of the form $(x - a)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{C}$.

Example 2.12.

1. $\mathbf{Spec}(K)$ is a point for a field K.
2. $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x])$ is a cofinite topology on $\mathbb{C}$ with a generic point.
3. $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{R}[x])$ has real points and points corresponding to complex conjugate numbers.
4. $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x, y]/(xy))$ is two copies of $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x])$ glued at the origin.

We usually write points of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ as x, y, with corresponding prime ideals P_x, P_y.

Proposition 2.13. For $x \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, then $\overline{\{x\}} = V(P_x)$.

Proof. We need to show that $V(P_x)$ is contained in any closed set containing x. Suppose $y \in V(P_x)$ and $x \in V(I)$. Then $I \subseteq P_x \subseteq P_y$. □

For a point x, the singleton $\{x\}$ is just its own closure. The closed points of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ are given by maximal ideals.

Spec satisfies functoriality.

Lemma 2.14. For $f : R \to S$ a morphism of rings, the preimage of an ideal is an ideal.

Proof. IF I is ideal in S, $f^{-1}(I)$ is the kernel of $R \to S \to S/I$. If I is prime, then S/I is a domain. □

Theorem 2.15. Let $f : R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism, then $f^{\#} : \mathbf{Spec}(S) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ given by $I \mapsto f^{-1}(I)$. Then

1. $f^{\#}$ is continuous.

2. For an ideal I in R, $\mathbf{Spec}(R/I) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is homeomorphism onto the closed subset $V(I)$.

Proof. 1. It suffices to show that the preimage of a closed set is closed. Indeed, we know $(f^{\#})^{-1}(V(I)) = V((f(I)))$, where $(f(I))$ is an ideal in S generated by $f(I)$. Now $y \in (f^{\#})^{-1}(V(I))$ if and only if $f^{\#}(y) \in V(I)$ if and only if $I \subseteq f^{-1}(P_y)$. Therefore, $f(I) \subseteq P_y$, and so $y \in V((f(I)))$. Also, if $y \in V((f(I)))$, then $(f(I)) \subseteq P_y$, but $I \subseteq f^{-1}(f(I)) \subseteq f^{-1}(P_y)$, and so $y \in (f^{\#})^{-1}(V(I))$.

2. $\mathbf{Spec}(R/I) \cong V(I) \subseteq \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, where the isomorphism is given by $R \to R/I$. The inverse is continuous. Show image of closed set in $\mathbf{Spec}(R/I)$ is still closed in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$. We want to show $\pi^{\#}(V(J)) = V(\pi^{-1}(J))$. Note that for $x \in V(J)$, we know $J \subseteq P_x$, so $\pi^{-1}J \subseteq \pi^{-1}P_x$, i.e. $\pi^{\#}x \in V(\pi^{-1}J)$. Therefore, we have $\pi^{\#}(V(J)) \subseteq V(\pi^{-1}(J))$. On the other hand, for $y \in V(\pi^{-1}J)$, then $\pi^{-1}J \subseteq P_y$, and as $I \subseteq \pi(P_y)$ is a prime ideal in P/I, so $y \in \pi^{\#}(V(I))$.

□

Corollary 2.16. For a ring R, $R \to R/\sqrt{0}$ induces a homeomorphism $\mathbf{Spec}(R/\sqrt{0}) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$.

Definition 2.17. A nonempty space X is irreducible if X is not the union of two proper closed subsets of X. (Equivalently, every pair of non-empty open sets in X intersect, or we can say every non-empty open set is dense in X.)

Proposition 2.18. $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is irreducible if and only if the nilradical of R is prime.

Proof. Suppose that $\sqrt{0}$ is prime and suppose that $\mathbf{Spec}(R) = V(I) = \cup V(J)$. Moreover, suppose that $\mathbf{Spec}(R) \neq V(I)$. It suffices to show that $\mathbf{Spec}(R) = V(J)$, and it suffices to show that $J \subseteq \sqrt{0}$, which is the intersection of all prime ideals of R. Note that $\mathbf{Spec}(R) \neq V(I)$ and there is some $x \in I$ that is not contained in every prime ideal. Let $j \in J$ and $V(IJ) = \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, then this implies that $xj \in IJ$ is contained in every prime ideal. Therefore, $xj \in \sqrt{0}$. But x is not contained in every prime ideal, so $x \notin \sqrt{0}$, and so $J \subseteq \sqrt{0}$. Therefore, $V(J) = \mathbf{Spec}(R)$.

In the other direction, suppose $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is irreducible. Now if $V(I) \cup V(J) = \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, then $V(I)$ or $V(J)$ is all of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$. Suppose $xy \in \sqrt{0}$, and x is not nilpotent. Then $0 \subseteq (x)(y) \subseteq \sqrt{0}$, so $V((x)(y)) = \mathbf{Spec}(R)$. Therefore, $\mathbf{Spec}(R) = V(x) \cup V(y)$. Now $V(x) \neq \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, otherwise x is contained in every prime ideal and therefore nilpotent. Therefore, $\mathbf{Spec}(R) = V(y)$, and so y is in every prime ideal, so y is nilpotent. Therefore, the nilradical of R is prime. □

Remark 2.19. The closure of an irreducible is irreducible.

Every irreducible closed subset of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is of the form $V(P)$.

Every prime ideal contains a minimal prime ideal.

If n is a minimal prime, then $V(n)$ is a maximal irreducible set of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$. In particular, if prime ideals satisfy $P_1 \subseteq P_2$, then $V(P_1) \supseteq V(P_2)$.

Definition 2.20. A maximal irreducible subset of a space X is called a component of X.

Remark 2.21. Note that the nilradical is the intersection of all the elements in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$, then $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is the union of its maximal irreducible subsets.

In a ring R, a closed subset in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is irreducible if and only if it is the closure of a point.

Let $S \subseteq \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ be an irreducible closed subset. Now we have $S = V(I)$ for some unique radical ideal $I \subseteq R$, then we want to show that I is prime if S is irreducible. Suppose $I \neq R$, let $a, b \in R$ such that $ab \in I$. Consider $V(I + (a)), V(I + (b)) \subseteq V(I) \subseteq \mathbf{Spec}(R)$. Suppose $a, b \notin I$. Since I is radical and $I + (a)$ and $I + (b)$ are strictly larger , then $V(I + (a))$ and $V(I+(b))$ are strictly closed subset of S. Now $V(I+(a)) \cup V(I+(b)) = V((I+(a))(I+(b))) = V(I + (ab))$, and so $V(I)$ is not irreducible, contradiction. Therefore, I is prime.

3 Modules

Definition 3.1 (Module)**.** Let A be a ring. An A-module is $(M, \mu : A \times M \to M)$ where is an Abelian group and on which A acts linearly, i.e. μ linearizes rings. That is to say, μ satisfies

- $a(x + y) = ax + ay$,
- $(a + b)x = ax + bx$,
- $(ab)x = a(bx)$,
- $1x = x$

for all $a, b \in A$ and $x, y \in M$. Equivalently, M is an Abelian group with a ring homomorphism $A \to \mathbf{End}(M)$.

A mapping $f : M \to N$ is called an A-module homomorphism (or A-linear) if M, N are A-modules and $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$ and $f(ax) = a \cdot f(x)$ for all $x, y \in M$ and $a \in A$.

Essentially, an R-module linearizes rings.

Remark 3.2. The set of R-module homomorphisms form an Abelian group. In particular, for a commutative ring R, $\mathbf{Hom}_R(M, N)$ is an R-module. This can be done by defining operations $f + g$ and af elementwise.

Example 3.3.

1. For a field K, a K-module is a K-vector space.
2. Free R-modules: $R = \mathbb{Z}$, the structure $\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}$.
3. A $\mathbb{Z}$-module is just an Abelian group.
4. An ideal I in commutative ring R is an R-module, and R/I is an R-module.
5. A $K[x]$-module M is equivalent to a K-vector space M together with a K-linear map $M \to M$. This can be extended to $K[x_,1 \cdots, x_n]$.
6. For a topological space X, a vector bundle is a surjective map $\pi : E \to X$. The set of sections of π is a $C(X)$-module.
7. For any group G and any field K, a group ring is defined as KG. A representation of G over K is exactly a KG-module.

Definition 3.4 (Annihilator)**.** The annihilator of an A-module M is $\mathbf{Ann}_A(M) = \{a \in A : am = 0 \in M \; \forall m \in M\}$. The annihilator is an ideal of A.

Definition 3.5 (Faithful)**.** We say an A-module M is faithful if $\mathbf{Ann}_A(M) = 0$. Moreover, if $\mathbf{Ann}_A(M) = \mathfrak{a}$, then M is faithful as an $A/\mathfrak{a}$-module.

Definition 3.6. For any subset S of R-modules M, the R-module of M generated by S is

1. Intersection of all R-submodule of M containing S, or alternatively
2. Finite R-linear combinations of elements of S.

Definition 3.7 (Free Module)**.** A free A-module is a module isomorphic to an A-module of the form $\bigoplus_{i \in I} M_i$ where each $M_i \cong A$ as an A-module. Therefore, a finitely-generated free A-module is isomorphic to $A^{\oplus n} \cong A^n$. In particular, let I be a set and R is a ring. The free R-module over I, $R^{\otimes I}$ is the set of functions $f : I \to R$ such that $\{x \in I : f(x) \neq 0\}$ is finite.

General direct sum and product are usual categorical notions. Every R-module is a quotient of a free module.

Proposition 3.8. M is a finitely-generated A-module if and only if M is isomorphic to a quotient of A^n for some integer $n > 0$.

Lemma 3.9 (Nakayama)**.** Let M be a finitely-generated A-module and $\mathfrak{a}$ an ideal of A contained in the Jacobson radical of A. Then $\mathfrak{a}M = M$ implies $M = 0$.

Let A be a local ring, $\mathfrak{m}$ its maximal ideal, $K = A/\mathfrak{m}$ its residue field. Let M be a finitely-generated A-module. $M/\mathfrak{m}M$ is annihilated by $\mathfrak{m}$, hence is naturally an $A/\mathfrak{m}$-module, i.e., a K-vector space, and as such is finite-dimensional.

Proposition 3.10. Let $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ be elements of M whose images in $M/\mathfrak{m}M$ form a basis of this vector space, then $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ generate M.

Exact sequences are sometimes used for the presentation of modules.

Proposition 3.11. Suppose we have a sequence of A-modules

$$M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_2 \xrightarrow{g} M_3 \to 0,$$

then the sequence is exact if and only if the following sequence is exact for every A-module N:

$$0 \to \mathbf{Hom}(M_3, N) \xrightarrow{f} \mathbf{Hom}(M_2, N) \xrightarrow{g} \mathbf{Hom}(M_1, N)$$

Alternatively, suppose we have a sequence of A-modules

$$0 \to M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_2 \xrightarrow{g} M_3,$$

then the sequence is exact if and only if the following sequence is exact for every A-module N:

$$0 \to \mathbf{Hom}(N, M_1) \xrightarrow{f} \mathbf{Hom}(N, M_2) \xrightarrow{g} \mathbf{Hom}(N, M_3)$$

Definition 3.12 (Free Presentation)**.** A free presentation of an R-module is an exact sequence

$$R^{\otimes J} \longrightarrow R^{\otimes I} \longrightarrow M \longrightarrow 0$$

That is, M is generated by I elements $e_i \in M$ for $i \in I$. The exactness implies that $M \cong R^{\otimes I}/\mathbf{im}(R^{\otimes J})$. In particular, if I is finite, then M is a finitely-generated module. If I and J are finite sets, then the presentation is called a finite presentation; a module is called finitely presented if it admits a finite presentation.

Lemma 3.13. Every R-module has a presentation.

Proof. Consider R-module M and choose a set of generators of M, namely I. Now there is an exact sequence

$$\ker(f) \longrightarrow R^{\otimes I} \xrightarrow{f} M \longrightarrow 0$$

Then choose generators f_j for $\ker(f)$, where $j \in J$. We now extend the sequence to

$$R^{\otimes J} \longrightarrow R^{\otimes I} \xrightarrow{f} M \longrightarrow 0$$

Note that the kernel might not be free. □

Example 3.14. Let M be the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}\langle e_1, e_2 \mid 2e_1 = 2e_2 \rangle$, which is the cokernel of $\mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}^2$ that sends $1 \mapsto (2, -2)$.

One can show that $M \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 3.15 (Projective)**.** An R-module is projective if it is a direct summand of a free module.

Example 3.16.

1. A free R-module is projective.
2. For field K, every K-module is free, and therefore projective.
3. A module M over a PID is projective if and only if it is free.

Note that $\mathbb{Q}$ is not projective over $\mathbb{Z}$ because it is not free.

Lemma 3.17. Let M be a R-module. The following are equivalent:

1. M is projective.
2. Any exact sequence $0 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow B \underset{\curvearrowleft\, \exists s}{\xrightarrow{f}} M \longrightarrow 0$ splits.
3. For any exact diagram $\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & A & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & C & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & & & & \nwarrow & \uparrow & & \\ & & & & & & M & & \end{array}$ such that $M \to C$ is R-linear, we have a lift to the map $M \to B$.

Proof. (2) $\Rightarrow$ (1): Let $R^{\otimes I} \to M \to 0$ be a set of generators for M. Let $A = \ker(f)$, then $0 \to A \to R^{\otimes I} \to M \to 0$ is exact. By (2), it splits, so $R^{\otimes I} = A \otimes M$, so M is projective.

(3) $\Rightarrow$ (2): The lift gives a splitting as desired.

(1) $\Rightarrow$ (3): exercise. □

Example 3.18. Let E be a real vector bundle over a paracompact Hausdorff space X. This space X is neither compact nor finite-dimension. Note that we can always find another vector bundle F such that $E \oplus F \cong \mathbb{R}_X^N$, which is the trivial bundle of rank N. The module of sections of the vector bundle E is projective, since $M_E \oplus M_F \cong C(X)^{\oplus N}$.

Lemma 3.19 (Snake Lemma)**.**

4 Tensor Product

Definition 4.1. An R-linear map $M \times N \to P$ of R-modules is a R-linear map in each variable.

The tensor product of R-modules is an R-module $A \otimes_R B$ equipped with a bilinear map $\otimes : A \times B \to A \times_R B$. This map satisfies the universal property. For every R-bilinear map $f : A \times B \to M$, there is a unique linear map $g : A \otimes_R B \to M$ such that $g \circ \otimes = f$.

The following lemma says that the tensor product can be obtained by quotienting certain equivalence relations out of the usual categorical product.

Lemma 4.2. The tensor product of any two R-modules A, B exists. Let M be the quotient of the free $R^{\oplus(A\times B)}$ by the submodule generated by $(a_1 + a_2) \otimes b - a_2 \otimes b - a_1 \otimes b$, $a \otimes (b_1 + b_2) - a \otimes b_1 - a \otimes b_2$, $r(a \otimes b) - ra \otimes b$, and $r(a \otimes b) - a \otimes (rb)$ for all $r \in R$, $a, a_1, a_2 \in A$, $b, b_1, b_2 \in B$.

In other words, the tensor product has the property that the A-bilinear mappings $M \times N \to P$ are in a natural one-to-one correspondence with the A-linear mappings $T \to P$, for all A-modules P. More precisely:

Proposition 4.3. Let M, N be A-modules. Then there exists a pair (T, g) consisting of an A-module T and an A-bilinear mapping $g : M \times N \to T$, with the following property:

Given any A-module P and any A-bilinear mapping $f : M \times N \to P$, there exists a unique A-linear mapping $f' : T \to P$ such that $f = f' \circ g$, i.e. every bilinear function on $M \times N$ factors through T. Moreover, if (T, g) and (T', g') are two pairs with this property, then there exists a unique isomorphism $j : T \to T'$ such that $j \circ g = g'$.

Remark 4.4. Every element of $M \otimes_R N$ is a finite sum $\sum_{i=1}^{N} r_i(m_i \otimes n_i)$, this also equals $\sum_{i=1}^{r} (rm_i) \otimes n_i$, so everything is just a sum of basis elements (not unique).

It is not true that every element is of form $m \otimes n$.

It may not be clear whether an element is zero or not in this structure.

For a noncommutative ring R, can define a tensor product of a right R-module M and a left R-module N. Now $M \otimes_R N$ is not an R-module, but it is an Abelian group.

Tensor products is a functor in each variable.

Lemma 4.5. Let $x_i \in M, y_i \in N$ such that $\sum x_i \otimes y_i = 0$ in $M \otimes N$. Then there exists finitely generated submodules M_0 of M and N_0 of N such that $\sum x_i \otimes y_i = 0$ in $M_0 \otimes N_0$.

Proof. $\sum x_i \otimes y_i = 0$ in $M \otimes N$. Now $\sum(x_i, y_i) \in D$ indicates the sum is a finite sum of generators in D. Let $M_0 \subseteq M$ generated by x_i and elements of M occurs as first coordinates in the generator of D. Similarly for N_0. Now $\sum x_i \otimes y_i = 0$ as an element of $M_0 \otimes N_0$. □

Remark 4.6. Inductively, there is a multi-tensor product.

Proposition 4.7. Let M, N, P be R-modules. Then there exists unique isomorphisms that are also canonical:

- $M \otimes N \to N \otimes M$,
- $(M \otimes N) \otimes P \to M \otimes (N \otimes P) \to M \otimes N \otimes P$,
- $(M \oplus N) \otimes P \to (M \otimes P) \oplus (N \otimes P)$,
- $A \otimes M \to M$.

Lemma 4.8. Tensor product preserves right exact sequences. For an exact sequence

$$A \to B \to C \to 0$$

of R-modules,

$$A \otimes_R M \to B \otimes_R M \to C \otimes_R M \to 0$$

is exact.

Example 4.9. For any element $f \in R$, apply lemma to $R \xrightarrow{\cdot f} R \to R/(f) \to 0$. Get that for any R-module M, $M \xrightarrow{\cdot f} M \to M \otimes_R R/(f) \to 0$ is exact. Now $M \otimes_R R/(f) = M/(f)$.

For example, $(\mathbb{Z} \otimes \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} (\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}) = (\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}) \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}) = \mathbb{Z} \oplus 0$.

Example 4.10. Given a ring R and R-modules M and N with a presentation for each, i.e.

$$R^{\oplus I_1} \to R^{\oplus I_0} \to M \to 0$$

and

$$R^{\oplus J_1} \to R^{\oplus J_0} \to M \to 0$$

are exact. By the result of exactness of tensor product with M, we get an exact sequence

$$M^{\oplus J_1} \to M^{\oplus J_0} \to M \otimes_R N \to 0$$

We can turn this into a presentation of $M \otimes_R N$ by considering $M \otimes_R N$ $M \otimes_R N$ as generated by $e_i \otimes f_j$ for generators e_i of M and f_j of N. The rational r_i in M produce relation $r_i \otimes f_i$ in $M \otimes_R N$. For example, $R/(a_1) \otimes R/(a_2) \cong R/(a_1. \cdots, a_2)$.

Definition 4.11. Let $f : A \to B$ be a homomorphism of rings and let N be a B-module. Then N has an A-module structure defined as follows: if $a \in A$ and $x \in N$, then ax is defined to be $f(a)x$. This A-module is said to be obtained from N by restriction of scalars. In particular, f defines in this way an A-module structure on B.

Proposition 4.12. Suppose N is finitely-generated as a B-module and that B is finitely-generated as an A-module, then N is finitely-generated as an A-module.

Note that the tensor product and the hom functor commutes well, and gives the tensor-hom adjunction.

Remark 4.13. There is a canonical isomorphism given by

$$\mathbf{Hom}(M \otimes N, P) \cong \mathbf{Hom}(M, \mathbf{Hom}(N, P)).$$

Definition 4.14. An R-module M is flat if the functor $- \otimes_R M$ is exact.

Example 4.15. $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ not flat as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

Any free module is flat. Moreoverally, any projective module is flat, since the summand of flat modules is flat.

Example 4.16. $\mathbb{Q}$ as $\mathbb{Z}$-module is flat but not projective. We can prove flatness by applying the following lemma.

Lemma 4.17. For an R-module M, the following are equivalent:

1. M is flat.
2. The functor $- \otimes N$ preserves exact sequences of R-modules.
3. If $f : N' \to N$ is injective, then $f \otimes 1 : N' \otimes M \to N \otimes M$ is injective.
4. If $f : N' \to N$ is injective for finitely-generated R-modules N and N', then $f \otimes 1$ is injective.

Example 4.18. For a domain R, a flat R-module is torsion-free.

For a PID R, M is flat if and only if M is torsion-free.

5 Algebra

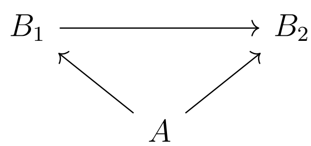
Definition 5.1. For commutative ring A, an A-algebra is a commutative ring B with a ring homomorphism $A \to B$.

Alternatively, let $f : A \to B$ be a ring homomorphism. If $a \in A$ and $b \in B$, define a product $a \cdot b = f(a)b$, then this makes B into an A-module according to the restriction of scalars. Therefore, B has an A-module structure as well as a ring structure. The structure on B is now called an A-algebra, and therefore gives the definition above.

Example 5.2. $K[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is a K-algebra. Any ring is a $\mathbb{Z}$-algebra in a unique way.

$M_n(K)$ is a K-algebra, and KG as group ring is a K-algebra.

Definition 5.3. An A-algebra homomorphism is a given commutative diagram



For a ring A and $n \geq 0$, the polynomial ring $A[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ has the following universal property in the category of commutative A-algebras. That is, for any A-algebra B, we have an isomorphism between the hom set from $A[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ to B and the functions from $\{1, \cdots, n\}$ to B.

Definition 5.4. A finitely-generated A-algebra is an A-algebra such that there exists a finite set of elements $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ in B such that every element of B can be written as a polynomial in $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ with coefficients in $f(A)$. Equivalently, there exists $a_1, \cdots, a_n \in A$ such that the evaluation homomorphism at $(a_1, \cdots, a_n)$ given by $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \to A$ is a surjection.

We sometimes also say such algebra is an A-algebra of finite type. In particular, we see that an A-algebra is of finite type if it is finitely-generated as an A-algebra, that is, $B \cong A[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/I$ for some ideal I.

An affine variety over a field K means $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$, where R is a domain of finite type over K. Note that since R is a domain, then the spectrum is irreducible.

If B is an A-algebra, then there is a functor from the category of B-modules to the category of A-modules, given by $M \mapsto M$, namely the restriction of scalars. (If $f : A \to B$ is the structure homomorphism given by $aM = f(a) \cdot M$.) Using the tensor product, we can define the extension of scalars as a functor from A-modules to B-modules, given by $M \mapsto M \otimes_A B$. Now B is an A-module by multiplication. $M \otimes_A B$ has the module structure, and given by $b_1(m \otimes b_2) = m \otimes (b_1 b_2)$.

Example 5.5. Note that $A^{\oplus I} \otimes_A B \cong B^{\oplus I}$. More generally, the extension of scalars with given presentation to the B-module with same presentation.

Example 5.6. If $M \cong \langle e_1, e_2 \mid 2e_1 = 2e_2 \rangle$, then $M \cong \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$, then we know $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} \cong \mathbb{Q} \langle e_1, e_2 \mid 2e_1 = 2e_2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Q}e_1$, it is a one-dimensional $\mathbb{Q}$-vector space, i.e. can solve for e_2 over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Also, $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \langle e_1, e_2 \mid 2e_1 = 2e_2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 5.7. An A-algebra B is flat if B is flat as an A-module.

An R-module determines vector spaces over all fields. We have $\text{Frac}(R/p)$ via tensor product for prime p in R.

Example 5.8. $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$ has dimension 1 in most places, dimension 2 at $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$, "like a one-dimensional bundle everywhere except 7".

6 Rings and Modules of Fractions

Definition 6.1. Let A be a commutative ring, S be a multiplicatively closed subset (i.e., $1 \in S$, and closed under multiplication). We get a localization $A[S^{-1}]$, sometimes denoted $S^{-1}A$, in which the elements of A are invertible.

Theorem 6.2. We can define $A[S^{-1}]$ such that there is an $f : A \to A[S^{-1}]$ such that

1. For each $s \in S$, $f(s)$ is invertible.
2. $A[S^{-1}]$ is universal with the property: for any $g : A \to B$ with $g(s)$ invertible for all $s \in S$, then there is a unique map $h : A[S^{-1}] \to B$ such that $h \circ f = g$.

Example 6.3. For a domain A, $S = A \backslash \{0\}$ is multiplicatively closed $A[S^{-1}]$ is the fractional field of A.

For a domain A and S a multiplicative set without 0, then there is a map from A to $A[S^{-1}]$, and so $A \subseteq A[S^{-1}] \subseteq \text{Frac}(A)$.

If $0 \in S$, then $A[S^{-1}]$ is the zero ring.

For any ring A, if $f \in A$, then $A[\frac{1}{f}]$ is the localization with $S = \{1, f, f^2, \cdots\}$. This is the set of regular functions on the open set $\{f \neq 0\} \subseteq \textbf{Spec}(A)$.

The ring $S^{-1}A$ is sometimes called the ring of fractions of A with respect to S, and satisfies the following universal property.

Proposition 6.4. Let $g : A \to B$ be a ring homomorphism such that $g(s)$ is a unit for all $s \in S$. Then there exists a unique ring homomorphism $h : S^{-1}A \to B$ such that $g = h \circ f$.

The ring $S^{-1}A$ and the homomorphism $f : A \to S^{-1}A$ have the following properties:

1. $s \in S$ implies $f(s)$ is a unit in $S^{-1}A$.
2. $f(a) = 0$ implies $as = 0$ for some $s \in S$.
3. Every element of $S^{-1}A$ is of the form $f(a)f(s)^{-1}$ for some $a \in A$ and some $s \in S$.

Conversely, these three conditions determine the ring $S^{-1}A$ up to isomorphism.

Corollary 6.5. If $g; A \to B$ is a ring homomorphism such that

1. $s \in S$ implies $g(s)$ is a unit in B.
2. $g(a) = 0$ implies $as = 0$ for some $s \in S$.
3. Every element of B is of the form $g(a)g(s)^{-1}$, then there existsa unique isomorphism $h : S^{-1}A \to B$ such that $g = h \circ f$.

Example 6.6. $\mathbf{Spec}\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{5}] = V(5)^c$ in the spectrum. Now $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{5}]$ has maps to $\mathbb{Z}/2, \mathbb{Z}/3, \mathbb{Q}$, but not $\mathbb{Z}/5$.

Remark 6.7. Let p be a prime ideal of A, we define $A_p = A[S^{-1}]$ where $S = R\backslash p$. Here S is multiplicatively closed when p is prime. This is the localization of A at p.

Example 6.8. For example $\mathbb{Z}_{(5)}$ is the set of rationals where $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod 5$. This is essentially the germs of regular functions at 5.

$K[x, x^{-1}] = K[x][\frac{1}{x}]$ is the set of elements of the form $\frac{f}{x^r}$ with $f \in R[x]$ and $r \geq 0$. This is the ring of Laurent polynomials over K. Note that this is not a field. Moreover, this is the set of functions on affine line minus the origin.

$\mathbb{C}[x]_{(x)}$ is the set of rational functions defined at the origin.

Theorem 6.9. Let S be a multiplicative closed set of a ring A. Then the prime ideals in $A[S^{-1}]$ are in one-to-one correspondence with prime ideals $p \subseteq A$ such that $p \cap S = \varnothing$.

Proposition 6.10. S^{-1} as an operation is exact.

Example 6.11.
1. $\mathbf{Spec}(A[\frac{1}{f}]) = \{p \in \mathbf{Spec}(A) \mid f \notin p\}$, here $S = \{1, f, \cdots\}$ and $S \cap P = \varnothing$.
2. $\mathbf{Spec}(A_p) = \{q \in \mathbf{Spec}(A) \mid q \subseteq p\}$. They are in one-to-one correspondence with irreducible closed subsets of $\mathbf{Spec}(A)$ containing $V(p)$. Here $S = A\backslash p$ and $S \cap p = \varnothing$.

Proposition 6.12. Let M be an A-module. Then $S^{-1}A$-modules $S^{-1}M$ and $S^{-1}A \otimes_A M$ are isomorphic. More precisely, there exists a unique isomorphism $f : S^{-1}A \otimes_A M \to S^{-1}M$ given by $f(\frac{a}{s} \otimes m) = \frac{am}{s}$ for all $a \in A, m \in M, s \in S$.

Corollary 6.13. $S^{-1}A$ is a flat A-module.

Definition 6.14. A ring A is local if it has exactly one maximal ideal m. For a local ring A, the field A/m is called the residue field of A.

Example 6.15. A field is local.

Lemma 6.16. A ring A is local if and only if the non-units of A form an ideal of A.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Let A be a local ring with maximal ideal m, then the elements in m are not units. If $a \notin m$, a must be a unit. If not, $(a) \neq R$, so (a) is contained in a maximal ideal, so $(a) \subseteq m$, and so $a \in m$, which means a is not a unit, contradiction.

($\Leftarrow$): Let A be any ring where non-units form an ideal I. Obviously $1 \in I$ and if $I \subsetneq J$, then J contains a unit, then $J = A$, and I is maximal.

We now show that I is the unique maximal ideal. If K is another maximal ideal, then $K \not\subseteq I$, but then K would have a unit, contradiction. □

Example 6.17. The power series ring $A = K[[x_1, \cdots, x_n]]$ is local since the non-units are exactly the elements with constant term 0, and forms an ideal. Moreover, $A/m = K$ in this case.

Theorem 6.18. For p a prime ideal in A, then A_p is local.

Proof. The unique maximal ideal is $m = pA_p$, corresponding to p. □

Remark 6.19. The residue field of A_p is $\mathrm{Frac}(A/p)$. For example, $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ has residue field $\mathbb{Z}/p$.

$\mathbb{C}[x]_{(x)}$ is a local ring with residue field $\mathbb{C}$.

Example 6.20. Consider $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(x)}$, a local ring. The residue field is $\mathrm{Frac}(\mathbb{C}[y]) = \mathbb{C}(y)$.

A rational function f on $\mathbb{C}^2$ is in $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(x)}$ if it is of the form $\frac{g}{h}$ where $g, h \in \mathbb{C}[x, y]$, and $h \notin (x)$, which means h is not identically zero on y-axis. Therefore, f is defined on most of y-axis.

For example, $\frac{1}{1+y}$ has pole at $(0, -1)$, but it is still in $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(x)}$. Now there is a map $\mathbb{C}[x, y]_{(x)} \to \mathbb{C}(y)$ means restriction to the y-axis.

Proposition 6.21. Let M be an A-module, then the following are equivalent:

1. $M = 0$,

2. $M_p = 0$ for all prime ideals p of A,

3. $M_m = 0$ for all maximal ideals m of A.

Proposition 6.22. Let $\varphi : M \to N$ be an A-module homomorphism, then the following are equivalent:

1. φ is injective,

2. $\varphi_p : M_p \to N_p$ is injective for all prime ideals p,

3. $\varphi_p : M_m \to N_m$ is injective for all maximal ideals m.

Remark 6.23. Similar results hold on surjective maps.

Proposition 6.24. Let M be an A-module, then the following are equivalent:

1. M is a flat A-module,

2. M_p is a flat A_p-module for all prime ideals p.

3. M_m is a flat A_m-module for all maximal ideals m.

For a prime ideal $p \subseteq R$, the field $\mathrm{Frac}(R/p)$ is called the residue field of the ring R at p.

For an R-module M, we have an isomorphism $M_p \cong M \otimes_R R_p$, and call this the stalk of M at p, and $M \otimes_R \mathrm{Frac}(R/p)$ is called the fiber of M at p.

Remark 6.25. For an R-module M and ideal $I \subseteq R$, $M \otimes R/I \cong M/IM$. In other words,

$$(0 \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0) \otimes_R M$$

is exact, i.e.

$$0 \to I \otimes_R M \to M \to M \otimes_R (R/I) \to 0$$

is exact, and so $M \otimes R/I \cong M/IM$.

Note that for $M = 0$, it is sufficient to show that $M_p = 0$ for all prime ideal p. Note that this is only true for stalks but not fibers.

Example 6.26. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$, then there are R-modules M with $M \neq 0$ but such that $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}/p = 0$.

Similarly, we have $R = \mathbb{Q}$ as an example.

Note that there is a $\mathbb{Z}$-module $M \neq 0$ but all its fibers at prime ideals are 0, so $M/pM = 0$ and $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} = 0$, as every element in $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}$ is torsion: $M \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} = M_{(0)}$.

Also consider $M = \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ identifiable with group of roots of unity.

Lemma 6.27 (Nakayama)**.** If R is a local ring, and M is a finitely-generated R-module, and m is a maximal ideal of R. If $M \otimes_R R/m = 0$, then $M = 0$.

Proof. We have $M \otimes_R R/m \cong M/mM$, so if $M \otimes_R R/m = 0$, then $M = mM$. Let $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ be a (minimal) finite set of elements generating M.

Suppose $M \neq 0$, then $x_n \in M = mM$, so we have $x_n = a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_n x_n$ for $a_i \in m$, and now

$$(1 - a_n)x_n = a_1 x_+ \cdots + a_{n-1}x_{n-1},$$

but $1 - a_n$ is a unit, and because it maps to 1 in R/m so $1 - a_n$ is not in m, and R is a local ring, so x_n is the linear combination of $x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1}$. But now we have a contradiction because $n - 1$ elements can also generate the same set. □

Proposition 6.28. For any commutative ring R (not necessarily local), if M is a finitely-generated R-module, then $M = 0$ if and only if $M \otimes R/m = 0$ for every maximal ideal $m \in R$, if and only if $M_m = 0$ for every maximal ideal m.

Corollary 6.29. Let M be a finitely-generated module over a local ring R, then elements $x_1, \cdots, x_n \in M$ generate M as an R-module if and only if the images of $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ in $M \otimes_R R/m$ span the vector space.

Proof. If $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ generate M as an R-module, then the map $R^{\oplus n} \to M$ is onto, so the associated map $(R/m)^{\otimes n} \to M \otimes_R R/m$ is onto.

Conversely, suppose $x_1, \cdots, x_n \in M$ span $M \otimes_R R/m = M/mM$. Define Q as the cokernel of $R^{\oplus n} \to M \to Q \to 0$, the surjection $M \to Q \to 0$ gives a surjection $M/mM \to Q/mQ$ by tensoring R/m since $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ map to zero, then they map to zero in Q/mQ. We know $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ span M/mM, so they span Q/mQ, and $Q/mQ = 0$, then $Q = 0$ by Nakayama Lemma. □

Example 6.30. Q is a module over local ring $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ and $Q/2Q = 0$ but $Q \neq 0$. Note that Nakayama lemma doesn't work because the module M is not finitely-generated.

7 Noetherian Rings

Noetherian rings is a large category of rings, including all finitely-generated algebras over a field.

Definition 7.1. A ring R is Noetherian if every increasing sequence of ideals eventually terminates, known as the ascending chain condition.

A ring R is Artinian if it satisfies the descending chain condition, i.e. every decreasing sequence of ideals eventually terminates.

Lemma 7.2. For any ring R, the following are equivalent:

1. R is Noetherian.

2. Every ideal in R is finitely-generated.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Suppose R satisfies ACC, $I \subseteq R$ is a non-finitely-generated ideal, then $I \neq 0$ so we can pick $x_1 \in I$ and $(x_1 \subsetneq I$, and $x_2 \in i \backslash (x_1)$, and so on, then we get an ascending chain $(x_1) \subsetneq (x_1, x_2) \subsetneq (x_1, x_2, x_3) \subsetneq \cdots$.

($\Leftarrow$): Suppose all ideals are finitely-generated and consider $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$, then $J = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_n$ is an ideal, and J is finitely-generated, then $I_N = J$, so ACC condition satisfies. □

Example 7.3. 1. Fields are Noetherian and Artinian.

2. $\mathbb{Z}$ is Neotherian but not Artinian.

3. Every Artinian ring is Noetherian.

Note that if R is domain, then the fractional field of R is Noetherian. But a subring of a Noetherian ring need not be Noetherian.

Lemma 7.4. Any quotient ring R/I of a Noetherian ring R is Noetherian. Similar fact holds for Artinian rings.

Proof. Follows from the correspondence of ideals in R/I with those in R containing I. □

Definition 7.5. An R-module M satisfies ACC for R-submofules if every increasing sequence of R-submodules terminates. In particular, R is Noetherian if and only if R as an R-module satisfies ACC for R-submodules.

Lemma 7.6. A short exact sequence of R-modules $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ has B satisfies ACC for R-submodules if and only if A and C satisfies ACC for R-submodules.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Note that submodules of A are also submodules of B, and similarly submodules of C are also submodules of B.

($\Leftarrow$): Let $M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \cdots$ be any sequence of submodules of B. Now the intersections $M_1 \cap A \subseteq M_2 \cap A \subseteq \cdots$ terminates, and so there exists s such that $M_s \cap A = M_{s+1} \cap A$ by the ACC condition for A, and now we know that $M_1/M_1 \cap A \subseteq M_2/M_2 \cap A \subseteq \cdots$ terminates at some t by the ascending chain condition. Let N be the maximal of s and t, then we know the chain terminates at such t. □

Theorem 7.7. Let M be a finitely-generated module over Noetherian ring R. Then every R-submodule of M is finitely-generated and M satisfies ACC.

Proof. Let us show M satisfies ACC, then finitely-generated follows from the same argument as for ideals. Since M is finitely-generated as an R-module, then there is $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $R^{\oplus n} \twoheadrightarrow M$. It is enough to show that $R^{\oplus n}$ satisfies ACC, which holds by building it through exact sequences by induction from R itself, which satisfies ACC as a R-module. □

Lemma 7.8. The localization of a Noetherian ring is Noetherian.

Proof. Any ideal $I \subseteq R[S^{-1}]$ can be written as $JR[S^{-1}]$ for some ideal J in R, note that J does not have to be unique. □

Theorem 7.9 (Hilbert Basis Theorem)**.** If R is Noetherian, $R[x]$ is also Noetherian.

Proof. We will show that every $I \subseteq R[x]$ is finitely-generated. For each $j \geq 0$, define $I_j = \{a \in R : \text{ there exists an element of } I \text{ with degree at most } j\}$. Now I_j is an ideal. Moreover, $I_0 \subseteq I_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq R$ with multiplication by x, then this process terminates, so there exists some N such that $I_N = I_{N+1} = \cdots$, and since R is Noetherian, then each I_j is finitely-generated, so $I_j = (\{f_{j,k}\})$ for $j = 0, \cdots, N$. By definition of I_j, can choose $g_{j,k} \in I$ with degree of $g_{j,k}$ at most j, and the coefficients of x^j in $g_{j,k}$ is $f_{j,k}$. It suffices to prove the following claim:

Claim 7.10. These elements generate I in $R[x]$.

We can use induction to prove this, on degree of elements in I, so it suffices to show that for any $h \in I$ of degree d, we can find a $R[x]$-linear combination of $g_{j,k}$'s such that h subtracting the linear combination has degree less than d. This means we can eventually get down to zero. Just look at the leading coefficient a of h, it is in I_d, so if $0 \leq d \leq N$, then a is a R-linear combination of $f_{j,k}$, so it form the corresponding linear combination of $g_{j,k}$. If $d > N$, then $a \in I_d = I_N$ so a is a R-linear combination of $f_{N,k}$, then $h - x^{d-N} \times$ corresponding linear combination of $g_{N,k}$ is of lower degree. □

Corollary 7.11. $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ is Noetherian.

Remark 7.12. Every ideal in $K[x]$ is a principal ideal, but there is no upper bound for the number of generators required in $K[x, y]/$.

Corollary 7.13. Let R be a Noetherian ring, and A is an R-algebra of finite type. Then A is Notherian. In particular, $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/I$ is Noetherian.

Example 7.14.

1. $K[x]_{(x)}$, being a localization of $K[x]$, is Noetherian. But if K is infinite, then $K[x]_{(x)}$ is not finitely-generated over $K[x]$ as an algebra.
2. If R is Noetherian, so is $R[[x]]$.

3. Let $U(D)$ be the set of holomorphic functions f on open disk $D \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is not Noetherian, despite being a subring of $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$.

   Indeed, pick infinite set of points in D, given by $\{z_1, z_2, \cdots\}$, and consider the ideals of functions vanishing on $\{z_1, \cdots\}$, $\{z_2, \cdots\}$, $\{z_3, \cdots\}$, $\cdots$.

4. $\mathbb{Z}$ is Noetherian, not an algebra over a field.

8 Primary Decomposition

Recall that commutative rings do not always admit a unique factorization of ideals, only UFDs do. We now look at a generalized form of unique factorization of ideals.

Definition 8.1. An ideal p in a ring A is primary if $p \neq A$ and $xy \in p$ implies either $x \in p$ or $y^n \in p$ for some $n > 0$.

Equivalently, p is primary if and only if $A/p \neq 0$ and every zero-divisor in A/p is nilpotent.

Remark 8.2. A prime ideal in a ring A is in some sense a generalization of a prime number. The corresponding generalization of a power of a prime number is a primary ideal.

Obviously, every prime ideal is primary.

Proposition 8.3. Let p be a primary ideal in ring A, then $\text{rad}(p)$ is the smallest prime ideal containing p.

Proposition 8.4. If $\text{rad}(a)$ is a maximal ideal, then a is a primary ideal. In particular, the powers of a maximal ideal m are m-primary.

We try to study presentations of an ideal as an intersection of primary ideals.

Lemma 8.5. The intersection of finitely many p-primary ideals is p-primary.

Lemma 8.6. Let q be p-primary, and $x \in A$. Then

1. if $x \in q$, then $q/(x) = (1)$.

2. if $x \notin q$, then $q/(x)$ is p-primary, and therefore $\text{rad}(q/(x)) = p$.

3. if $x \notin p$, then $q/(x) = q$.

Definition 8.7. A primary decomposition of an ideal a in A is an expression of a as a finite intersection of primary ideals, i.e., $a = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$. If moreover we have $\text{rad}(q_i)$ are all distinct and that $q_i \not\supseteq \bigcap_{j \neq i} q_j$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, then the primary decomposition given above is said to be minimal.

We say a is decomposable if it has a primary decomposition.

Theorem 8.8 (First Uniqueness Theorem)**.** Let a be decomposable and let $a = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$ be a minimal primary decomposition. Let $p_i = \text{rad}(q_i)$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, then p_i's are precisely the prime ideals which occur in the set of ideals $\text{rad}(a/(x))$ for $x \in A$, and hence are independent of the particular decomposition of a.

Remark 8.9. The prime ideals p_i's are said to be associated with a. Therefore, a is primary if and only if it has a unique associated prime ideal.

The minimal elements of $\{p_1, \cdots, p_n\}$ are called minimal prime ideals belonging to a.

Proposition 8.10. Let a be a decomposable ideal, then any prime ideal $p \supseteq a$ contains a minimal prime ideal belonging to a, and thus the minimal prime ideals of a are precisely the minimal elements in the set of all prime ideals containing a.

Proposition 8.11. Let a be decomposable, and suppose $a = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$ is a minimal prime decomposition, and define $p_i = \text{rad}(q_i)$. Now $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} p_i = \{x \in A : a/(x) \neq a\}$.

Theorem 8.12 (Second Uniqueness Theorem)**.** Let a be decomposable and suppose $a = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} q_i$ is a minimal prime decomposition, let $\{p_{i_1}, \cdots, p_{i_n}\}$ be a minimal set of prime ideals of a, then $q_{i_1}, \cdots, q_{i_m}$ is independent of the decomposition.

Corollary 8.13. The minimal prime components (i.e., the primary components corresponding to minimal prime ideals) are uniquely determined by a.

We now study the decomposition of $\textbf{Spec}(R)$ in particular.

Theorem 8.14. Let R be Noetherian, then $X = \textbf{Spec}(R)$ can be written as $X = x_1 \cup \cdots \cup x_m$ with each x_i an irreducible subset, and no $x_i \subseteq x_j$ for $i \neq j$. Moreover, this decomposition is unique up to ordering of x_i's.

Proof. Any closed set in $\textbf{Spec}(R)$ is of the form $V(I)$. There is an one-to-one correspondence: $V(I)$ sends maximal ideals to closed points, sends prime ideals to irreducible closed subsets, and send radical ideals to closed subsets.

The correspondence makes the above equivalent to the following theorem. □

Theorem 8.15. Let I be an ideal of a Noetherian ring. Then I satisfies $\textbf{rad}(I) = P_1 \cap \cdots P_m$ such that P_i contains I and $P_i \subsetneq P_j$ if $i \neq j$. This decomposition is unique up to reordering of ideals.

Proof. Existence: since A is Noetherian, there is no infinite strictly descending chain of closed subsets of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$. If X cannot be written as in the theorem, $X \neq \varnothing$ and X is not irreducible, so we can write $X = X_1 \cup Y_1$ and by induction we get an infinite chain of closed subsets, contradiction. Thus, $X = X_1 \cup \cdots \cup X_m$.

Each of the X_i's is called an irreducible component of X. □

Any subset of $\mathbb{C}^n$ defined by any collection of polynomials f_i's has only finitely many irreducible components. Note that this does not work for analytic functions, like trigonometric functions.

$\mathbb{C}^n$ is the set of closed points in $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{C}[x_1, \cdots, x_n])$. In a Noetherian ring R, a radical ideal I is the intersection $I = P_1 \cap \cdots \cap P_r$ of finitely many prime ideals with the corresponding irreducible closed sets $V(I) = V(P_1) \cup \cdots \cup V(P_r)$.

Example 8.16. We can prove that every prime ideal has a minimal prime ideal containing in it. That means for $I \subseteq P$, we have $V(I) \supseteq V(P)$ is an irreducible component of $V(I)$.

Example 8.17. What are the ideals $I \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x, y]$ whose radical is (x, y)? We will have $I \subseteq (x, y)$. We can show that $(x, y)^N \subseteq I \subseteq (x, y)$. Here $(x, y)^N = (x^N, x^{N-1}y, \cdots, xy^{N-1}, y^N$.

Example 8.18. Let $N \geq 1$, and let V be a $\mathbb{C}$-linear subspace of $\mathbb{C}\{x^N, x^{N-1}y, \cdots, y^N\} \cong \mathbb{C}^{N+1}$ and let $I = V + (x, y)^{N+1}$, then I is an ideal with $rad(I) = (x, y)$ but for distinct V's we get distinct I's.

Theorem 8.19. For any ideal I in a Noetherian ring, there is an N such that $rad(I)^N \subseteq I \subseteq rad(I)$.

Proof. It suffices to show the first inclusion. For any $x \in rad(I)$ there is a positive integer N with $x^n \in I$ and since R is Noetherian, then $rad(I) = (x_1, \cdots, x_m)$. We can choose N_0 such that $x_i^{N_0} \in I$ for $i = 1, \cdots, m$. Take $N = mN_0$ so any product of N of the generators of $rad(I)$ (with repetition allowed) is in I, because $rad(I)^N$ is generated by such products. □

Lemma 8.20. Let M be a nonzero module over a Noetherian ring, then there is an element $x \in M$ with $x \neq 0$ and $Ann_R(x)$ as a prime ideal.

Proof. Consider the poset of all ideals in R of the form $Ann_R(x)$ for $x \in M$ and $x \neq 0$. By Zorn's lemma, we can show that S has a maximal element. Note that $S \neq \varnothing$ since there is some $x \neq 0$in M. For a nonempty totally ordered set $C \neq \varnothing$, we can show that there is an upper bound, which is contained in the set. If not, we can choose $I_1 \subsetneq I_2 \subsetneq \cdots$ in C, contradiction. By Zorn's lemma, poset has maximal $I = Ann_R(x_0)$ with $0 \neq x_0 \in M$. We claim that I is prime. Note that $1 \notin I$ since $1 \cdot x_0 = x_0 \neq 0$. Suppose $a, b \in R$ with $ab \in I$

and $a, b \notin I$. Then $abx_0 = 0$ but $ax_0 \neq 0$, so $J = Ann_R(ax_0)$ contains the strictly smaller ideal I (since $b \in J$), contradicting the maximality of I. □

Theorem 8.21. Let M be a finitely-generated module over a Noetherian ring R, then there is a finite sequence of R-submodules

$$0 = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq M_r = M$$

such that each quotient $M_i/M_{i-1} \cong R/p_i$, for $p_i \subseteq R$ prime ideals.

Proof. If $M = 0$ then we are done.

If $M \neq 0$, find x as in the lemma above, so $Ann_R(x) = p_1$ prime, then $M_1 = R \cdot x \subseteq M$ satisfies $M_1 \cong R/p_1$. If this quotient is not 0, then we can repeat the process and find p_2, p_3, and so on, that satisfies the isomorphism relation. If this process do not stop, we have a contradiction because we then have infinite ascending submodule chain. □

Example 8.22. This decomposition is not unique. Take $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and let $M = \mathbb{Z}$, then $\mathbb{Z}$ is already $\mathbb{Z}/(0)$ or $0 = M_0 \subseteq M_1 \subseteq M_2 = M$ for $M_1 = 2\mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 8.23. The support of R/p is the set $\{I \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid (R/p)_I \neq 0\}$, which is equivalent to the set $V(P) \subseteq \mathbf{Spec}(R)$.

Also, if $0 \to A \to B \to C \to 0$ is an exact sequence of R-modules, then the support of B is the union of support of A and of C over R. This is because the localization is exact.

Example 8.24. Suppose $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z}$. M is of the form $\binom{\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}}{\mathbb{Z}}$ where the notation means M is an extension, i.e. there is an exact sequence $0 \to \mathbb{Z} \to M \to \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} \to 0$. However, this extension is not unique.

The support of M over $\mathbb{Z}$ is just $\mathbf{Spec}(\mathbb{Z})$.

9 Homological Algebra

Definition 9.1 (Chain Homotopy)**.** A chain homotopy F between two chains $f, g : M. \to N.$ is a collection of maps $F : M_i \to N_{i+1}$ such that $dF + Fd = g - f$. If such homotopy exists, we write $f \sim g$.

Note that if $f \sim g$, then $f. = g.$ as two maps between homology groups: $H_i(M.) \to H_i(N.)$.

Definition 9.2. Suppose $f : M. \to N.$ is a chain map for which $g : N_* \to M_*$ exists such that $fg \sim 1_{M_*}$ and $gf \sim 1_{N_*}$. Then we say f and g is a chain homotopy equivalence, and induces an isomorphism on homology groups.

Remark 9.3. Every R-module has a (non-unique) resolution in fact a free module.

Example 9.4. For any ring R, any non-zero-divisor $f \in R$, the R-module $R/(f)$ has a projective resolution of length 1, i.e.

$$0 \to R \xrightarrow{f} R \to R/(f) \to 0$$

and given by

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} \cdots & \longrightarrow & P_2 & \longrightarrow & P_1 & \longrightarrow & P_0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 \longrightarrow \cdots \\ & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ \cdots & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & M0 & \longrightarrow & 0 & \longrightarrow & \cdots \end{array}$$

This chain map induces a homology, but not a chain homotopy equivalence unless M is projective.

Lemma 9.5. Any two projective resolution $P.$ and $Q.$ are chain homotopy equivalent.

Definition 9.6 (Derived Functor)**.** Let $F : R\text{-}\mathbf{Mod} \to S\text{-}\mathbf{Mod}$ be a right exact additive functor (for example, the tensor functor $M \mapsto M \otimes_R S$ given by a ring homomorphism $R \to S$).

The (left) derived functors of F are a sequence of functors $F_i : R\text{-}\mathbf{Mod} \to S\text{-}\mathbf{Mod}$ given an R-module M. Choose $P. \to M$. Let $F_i(M) = H_i(F(P.))$ for $i \geq 0$. Note that $F_0(M) = F(M)$.

This gives a correspondence between R-modules $\cdots \to P_2 \to P_1 \to P_0 \to 0$ and S-modules $F(P_2) \to F(P_1) \to F(P_0) \to 0$.

For commutative ring R, and M and N are R-modules.

$\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M, N)$ is the ith derived functor of $M \mapsto M \otimes_R N$ for a fixed R-module N (for commutative rings $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M, N) = \mathrm{Tor}_i^R(N, M)$.

If $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$ is an exact sequence of R-modules, then there is a corresponding long exact sequence

$$\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(M_1, N) \to \mathbf{Tor}_1^R(M_2, N) \to \mathbf{Tor}_1^R(M_3, N) \to M_1 \otimes_R N \to M_2 \otimes_R N \to M_3 \otimes_R N \to 0$$

Note that**Tor** is a homology type functor, which is why it has the subscript.

To show that the left derived functors are well-defined, use the fact that any two resolutions $P.$ and $Q.$ of M are chain homotopy equivalent and the fact that chain homotopies are preserved by additive functors. Therefore, we have a chain homotopy equivalence $F(P.) \to F(Q.)$.

Example 9.7 (Computations with **Tor**)**.** As for any derived functor, $\mathbf{Tor}_0^R(M,N) \cong M \otimes_R N$.

1. If M is projective, $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M,N) = 0$ for $i > 0$.
2. If N is flat, $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M, N = 0$ for $i > 0$.
3. For $f \in R$ not a zero divisor, then

$$\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(R/(f), N) = \begin{cases} 0, & i > 1 \\ N/fN, & i = 0 \\ N[f] = \{x \in N, fx = 0\}, & i = 1 \end{cases}$$

Use complex $0 \to R \xrightarrow{f}\to R \to R/(f) \to 0$ and the tensor functor $- \otimes_R N$ on $0 \to N \xrightarrow{f} N \to 0$. Therefore, **Tor** is related to torsion.

Example 9.8. **Ext** is a cohomology-like functor, hence superscript.

$\mathbf{Ext}_R^i(M,N)$ are the derived functors $\mathbf{Hom}_R(\cdot, N) : R\mathbf{Mod} \to (R\text{-}\mathbf{Mod})^{\mathrm{op}}$, a contravariant functor.

To compute, let $P. \to M$ be a projective resolution, the $\mathbf{Ext}_R^*(M,N)$ is the cohomology of the cochain complex

$$0 \to \mathbf{Hom}_R(P_0, N) \to \mathbf{Hom}_R(P_1, N) \to \cdots$$

We say this is a cochain because the numbering is ascending.

By computation, we always have $\mathbf{Ext}_R^0(M,N) \cong \mathbf{Hom}_R(M,N)$.

1. If M is projective, $\mathbf{Ext}_R^i(M,N) = \mathbf{Hom}_R(M,N)$ with $i = 0$ and 0 if $i > 0$.
2. For $f \in R$, a non-zero-divisor, then using $0 \to R \xrightarrow{f} R \to 0$ and $0 \to N \xrightarrow{f} N \to 0$, we have

$$\mathbf{Ext}_R^i(R/(f), N) = \begin{cases} 0, & i > 1 \\ N[f], & i = 0 \\ N/fN, & i = 1 \end{cases}$$

where $N[f] = \{x \in N fx = 0\}$. Therefore, this is analogous to Poincare duality. We have $H_i(S^{-1} \cong H^{i-1}(S^1)$.

Remark 9.9 (General result on derived functor)**.** Given right exact $F : (R\text{-}\mathbf{Mod}) \to (S\text{-}\mathbf{Mod})$ and additigve. If $0 \to A \to B \to C$ is exact, we get a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \to F_2C \to F_1A \to F_1B \to F_1C \to F_0A \to F_0B \to F_0C \to 0$$

which follows from snake lemma.

Example 9.10. If $0 \to M_1 \to M_2 \to M_3 \to 0$ is a short exact sequence, get long exact sequences

$$\cdots \to \mathbf{Tor}^R(M_2, N) \to \mathbf{Tor}_1^R(M_3, N) \to M_1 \otimes_R N \to M_2 \otimes_R N \to M_3 \otimes_R N \to 0$$

and

$$0 \to \mathbf{Hom}_R(M_3, N) \to \mathbf{Hom}_R(M_2, N) \to \mathbf{Hom}_R(M_1, N) \to \mathbf{Ext}_R(M_3, N) \to 0.$$

Remark 9.11. **Ext** is related to extensions of a R-modules. Given any R-modules M, N, $\mathbf{Ext}_R^1(M, N)$ is isomorphic set of "extensions" $0 \to N \to X \to M \to 0$ of R-modules up to isomorphism. Two extensions are isomorphic if there is a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & N & \longrightarrow & x_1 & \longrightarrow & M & \longrightarrow & 0 \\ & & \downarrow{\cong} & & \downarrow{\cong} & & \downarrow{\cong} & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & N & \longrightarrow & x_2 & \longrightarrow & M & \longrightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

Higher **Ext** groups, do something related to classifying exact sequence.

$$0 \to N \to X_y \to \cdots \to X_2 \to X_1 \to M \to 0$$

Theorem 9.12. For a commutative ring R, $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M, N)$ can be computed using instead projective resolutions of N, in fact flat resolutions of N, that is,

$$\cdots \to F_1 \to F_0 \to N \to 0$$

is exact with F_i flat.

$\mathbf{Tor}^R(M, N)$ are the homology of the complex

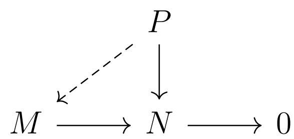
$$\cdots \to M \otimes_R F_1 \to M \otimes_R F_0 \to 0$$

Corollary 9.13.

1. $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(M, N) \cong \mathbf{Tor}_i^R(N, M)$ uses $M \otimes_R N = N \otimes M$.
2. Could use flat resolution of M as well get long exact sequence too.

Lemma 9.14. Free modules and projective modules are flat.

Proof. Suppose F is free, so $F \cong R^I$ for some I. Consider $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$. Then $L \otimes_R F \to M \otimes F \to N \otimes F \to 0$ is isomorphic to $0 \to L^I \to M^I \to N^I \to 0$, since the tensor product commutes with the coproducts and that $N \otimes_R R \cong N$. Now, suppose P is projective, being projective means that in the diagram



with bottom row exact, the map $P \to N$ has a factorization through M. If we take $N = P$ and M as a free module, we can see that P is therefore a retraction of a free module. Therefore, we conclude that projectives are summands of free modules. The converse is true as well.

Therefore, $P \to F \to P$ is the identity, so $- \otimes F \cong (- \otimes P) \oplus (- \otimes P')$ and tensoring with P is exact. □

Given a short exact sequence $L \to M \to N \to 0$, we have a right exact sequence $L \otimes X \to M \otimes X \to N \otimes X \to 0$. We would like to continue the sequence to the left, i.e. exactness at $L \otimes X$. Therefore, we want a functor $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(-, X)$ so that we have a long exact sequence

$$\cdots \longrightarrow \mathbf{Tor}_1^R(L, X) \longrightarrow \mathbf{Tor}_1^R(M, X) \longrightarrow L \otimes X \longrightarrow M \otimes X \longrightarrow N \otimes X \longrightarrow 0$$

If X is flat we could make this exact sequence just by declaring that all the higher Tors are zero, so we declare that this is so.

We want to compute $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(N, X)$, we can choose generators for N to get an exact sequence $0 \to K \to R^n \to N \to 0$. Using the long exact sequence, we see $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(N, X) = \ker(R^{\oplus} \otimes X \to K \otimes X)$ and for $i > 1$ that $\mathbf{Tor}_i^R(N, X) = \mathbf{Tor}_{i-1}^R(K, X)$.

Lemma 9.15. Suppose that $0 \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0$ is an exact sequence and that $0 \to I \otimes_R X \to X \otimes X/2X \to 0$ is exact. Then $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(R/I, X) = 0$.

Proof. Take the long exact sequence. □

Theorem 9.16. Let X be an R-module. The following are equivalent:

1. X is flat.

2. For any R-modules $N' \subseteq N$ and exact sequence $0 \to N' \to N$, the map $N' \otimes_R X \to N \otimes_R X$ is injective.

3. For any finitely-generated R-modules $N' \subseteq N$, the map $N' \otimes_R X \to N \otimes_R X$ is injective.

4. For any ideal $I \subseteq R$, the map $I \otimes_R X \to R \otimes RX$ is injective.

5. For any finitely-generated ideal $I \subseteq R$, the map $I \otimes_R X \to X$ is injective.

Proof. We have (1) $\iff$ (2), (2) $\Rightarrow$ (3), (2) $\Rightarrow$ (4), (2) $\Rightarrow$ (5), (3) $\Rightarrow$ (5) and (4) $\Rightarrow$ (5).

We need to show (3) implies (2) and (5) implies (4), which were proved in the lemma above. If something is in the kernel of the map $N' \otimes_R X \to N \otimes_R X$, we can check it is zero by looking at finitely-generated submodules.

We can also show that (4) $\Rightarrow$ (3). Note that N is finitely-generated, and therefore $N_0 = N' \subseteq N_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq N_k = N$ where $N_i/N_{i-1} \cong R/I_i$. We can assume that for some $j \leq k$, we have $N_j = N_k$. The map $N' \otimes_R X \to N \otimes_R X$ is injective if and only if for every i we have $N_i \otimes_R X \to N_{i+1} \otimes_R X$ is injective.

Let us consider the exact sequence $N_{i-1} \to N_i \to R/I$ and part of the Tor exact sequence $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(R/I, X) \to N_{i-1} \otimes X \to N_i \otimes X \to R/I \otimes X \to 0$, so since $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(R/I, X) = 0$, we have that $N_{i-1} \otimes X \to N_i \otimes_X$ injective and X is flat. □

Proposition 9.17. An R-module M is flat if and only if for all finitely-generated ideals I of R, we have that $\mathbf{Tor}_1^R(R/I, M) = 0$.

Proposition 9.18 (The equational criterion for flatness)**.** An R-module X is flat if and only if for every relation $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i$ with $r_i \in R$ and $x_i \in X$, there exists $y_1, \cdots, y_k \in X$ and $a_{ij} \in R$ with $x_i = \sum_{j=1}^r a_{ij} y_j$ for all i and for all j, we have $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i a_{ij} = 0$.

Proof. Suppose that X is flat and that $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i = 0$. Consider the ideal $I = (r_1, \cdots, r_n)$ and the map $0 \to K \to R^n \to I \to 0$. Consider also the exact sequence $0 \to I \to R \to R/I \to 0$. Then we have $\sum_[i = 1]^n r_i \otimes y_i$ is in the kernel of $I \otimes_R X \to R \otimes_R X$. But this tells us there is some $k \in K \otimes_R X$ with k hitting $\sum_{i=1}^n e_i \otimes x_i$, we can write k as $k = \sum_j k_j \otimes y_j$ and $k_j = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} e_i$.

For the other direction, let I be a finitely-generated ideal and suppose that $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i \otimes x_i$ is in the kernel of $I \otimes_R X \to R \otimes_R X$. We want to show that the kernel is trivial. As $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i = 0$ in M, we have

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \otimes x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (r_i \otimes (\sum_{j=1}^k a_{ij} y_j)) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=1}^n f_i a_{ij} \otimes y_j = 0.$$

□

We can therefore conclude that $\mathbb{Q}$ is flat as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

If A is any torsion group and D is any divisible group, then $A \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} D = 0$. The argument just needs every element of D to have finite order, so we can in fact see that $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} = 0$, and therefore $\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$ is not flat.

Corollary 9.19. A R-module X is flat if and only if for any map $f : R^n \to X$ and $x \in \ker(f)$, there is a commuting diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R^n & \xrightarrow{f} & M \\ {\scriptstyle h}\downarrow & \nearrow & \\ R^k & & \end{array}$$

with $x \in \ker(h)$.

Proof. This is just the equational criteria for flatness. An element $x \in \ker(f)$ gives a relation $\sum_{i=1}^{n} r_i x_i = 0$. The $y_1, \cdots, y_k$ gives us a map $R^k \to X$. The map $h : R^n \to R^k$ is given by the matrix $A = (a_{ij})$, where $x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{ij} y_j$. This equation tells us that the diagram commutes. □

By the universal property of $\otimes_R$, $\mathbf{Hom}_R(A \otimes_R B, C) \cong \mathbf{Hom}_R(A, \mathbf{Hom}_R(B, C))$ gives the tensor-hom adjunction.

Here $- \otimes_R B$ is the functor within the category of R-modules, and the hom functor $\mathbf{Hom}_R(B, -)$ is the usual hom functor.

Recall that left adjoints preserve all colimits in the domain category, and the right adjoints preserve all limits.

Example 9.20. $- \otimes_R B$ preserves all direct sums, direct limits, and right exact sequences.

A fact is that homology commutes with direct limits of chain complexes. Therefore, we now know that **Tor** commutes with direct limits in each variable.

10 Integral Extensions

Definition 10.1. Let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring, we say $x \in B$ is integral over A if it satisfies a monic polynomial with coefficients in A, i.e. $x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 = 0$ for $a_i \in A$.

Example 10.2. For a number field K, i.e. a finite extension of $\mathbb{Q}$, the set of elements in K integral over $\mathbb{Z}$ is called the ring of algebraic integers $\mathcal{O}_K \subseteq K$.

In particular, for $K = \mathbb{Q}$, we have $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}$.

Lemma 10.3. The following are equivalent.

1. $x \in B$ is integral over A.
2. The A-subalgebra C of B generated by x is finite over A, i.e. finitely-generated as A-module.
3. The A-subalgebra C of B generated by x is contained in some finite A-algebra $D \subseteq B$.
4. There is a faithful C-module M which is finitely-generated as an A-module.

Proof. Note that (1) $\Rightarrow$ (2) and (2) $\Rightarrow$ (3) are obvious.

(3) $\Rightarrow$ (2) is true as we view D as a C-module. It is faithful because $1 \in D$.

(1) $\Rightarrow$ (4): Given C, M as above, M is finitely generated by $m_1, \cdots, m_n$ as an A-module. We can choose $a_{ij} \in A$ with $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ such that $xm_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}m_j \in M$. Then the matrix $Y = (y_{ij})$ with coefficients in C given by $Y = x \cdot I - (a_{ij})$ satisfies

$$Y \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ \vdots \\ m_n \end{pmatrix} = 0 \in M^{\oplus n}$$

For a matrix Y over any commutative ring, the adjugate matrix $\mathbf{adj}(A)$ satisfies $\mathbf{adj}(Y) \cdot Y = Y(\mathbf{adj}(Y)) = \det(Y)$. We multiply equation above by $\mathbf{adj}(Y)$, then we see $\det(Y) \in C$ satisfies $\det(Y) \cdot m = 0$, so $\det(Y)$ annihilates M and so $\det(Y) = 0$, otherwise M is not faithful. But $\det(Y)$ is a monic polynomial in X with coefficients over A, so $x \in B$ is integral over A. $\square$

This lemma will imply if $x, y \in B$ integral over A, then $-x, x+y, xy$ are also integral over A. Hence, the set of elements in B integral over A is called the integral closure of A in B, which is a subring of B containing A.

Lemma 10.4. Let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring. Then the integral closure C of A in B is a subring.

Proof. Clearly $A \subseteq C$ and $0, 1 \in C$. Consider A-submodule D generated by x and y. We claim that D is finite over A. This is true because D is generated by $x^i y^j$ for $0 \leq i \leq m-1$ and $0 \leq j \leq n-1$ for monic polynomials of degree m and n, respectively. Therefore, since $-x, x+y, xy \in D$, the lemma above gives that they are all in C. $\square$

Corollary 10.5. The integral closure of C in B is C, i.e. integral closures are integrally closed.

Proof. Suppose $x \in B$ is integral over C, then x satisfies some monic polynomial. Therefore, x is integral over A-subalgebra generated by $c_0, \cdots, c_{n-1}$ and each c_i is finitely-generated, so x is contained in an A-subalgebra finite over A. Hence, $x \in C$. □

Remark 10.6. An integral algebra of finite type is a finite algebra.

Corollary 10.7. For rings $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$ and suppose B is integral over A and C is integral over B, then C is integral over A.

Corollary 10.8. Let $A \subseteq B$ be rings and let C be the integral closure of A in B, then C is integrally closed in B.

Remark 10.9. Localization preserves the integral property.

Definition 10.10. A domain R is normal if it is integrally closed in the field of fractions of R.

Example 10.11. For any number field K, $\mathcal{O}_K$ is normal.

Example 10.12. A UFD is normal. Therefore, $\mathbb{Z}$ and polynomial rings over K are normal.

Remark 10.13. In geometric terms, an algebraic variety X is normal if every finite birational morphism

$$Y \to X$$

is an isomorphism for variety Y. There is a corresponding map from the regular functions $\mathcal{O}(X)$ to regular functions $\mathcal{O}(Y)$. There is an isomorphism between their fractional fields.

Remark 10.14. Suppose $f : R \to S$ is a map of rings. Then $\otimes_R S$ as map from R-modules to S-modules is left adjoint to f^*, the map from S-modules to R-modules.

Proof. For an R-module A and an S-module B, we have $\mathbf{Hom}_S(A \otimes_R S, B) \cong \mathbf{Hom}_R(A, f^*B)$. □

Suppose R is a ring and M is flat, then $M \otimes_R S$ is flat.

Definition 10.15. A number is algebraic over $\mathbb{Q}$ if it satisfies a polynomial with coefficients in $\mathbb{Q}$. Since Q is a field, we we can make this polynomial monic.

Any power of a can be written in terms of lower power of a and its inverse can be written as a $\mathbb{Q}$-linear combination of powers of a.

Note that we have $\mathbb{Q}(a) = \mathbb{Q}[a]$.

Definition 10.16. Suppose $R \subseteq S$ is an inclusion of rings, and $x \in S$ is integral over R is x satisfies a monic polynomial with coefficients in R.

Definition 10.17. We say $R \subseteq S$ is an integral extension if every element of S is integral over R.

Note that field extensions are integral.

Proposition 10.18. Suppose we have rings $R \subseteq S$ and $x \in S$. The following are equivalent:

1. $x \in S$ is integral over R.
2. $R[x]$ is finitely-generated R-module.
3. $R[x]$ is contained in a subring T of S that is finitely-generated as an R-module.
4. There is a faithful $R[x]$-module M (annihilator of M is 0) that is finitely-generated as an R-module.

Definition 10.19. $R \to S$ is finite if S is finitely-generated as an R-module.

$R \to S$ is finite type if S is finitely-generated as an R-algebra.

Corollary 10.20. Suppose $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ are elements of S and $R \subseteq S$. Suppose $x_1, \cdots, x_n$ are integral over R, then $R \to R[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ is finite.

Proof. By induction on n. □

Corollary 10.21. Let $R \to S$ be an extension, then the set of elements that are integral over R form a subring.

Proof. If x, y are integral over R, then any element in $R[x, y]$ is integral over R. □

If the integral closure of R in S is S, then S is integral over R and we say $R \subseteq S$ is an integral extension.

A map $f : R \to S$ is integral if S is integral over $f(R)$.

Corollary 10.22. $f : R \to S$ is finite if and only if it is finite type and integral.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Obvious.

($\Leftarrow$): Suppose $f(R) \subseteq S$ is an integral extension of finite type. Note that x_i's are integral over $f(R)$, and $S \cong f(R)[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$. Therefore, $f(R) \subseteq S$. □

Corollary 10.23. If $R \xrightarrow{f} S \xrightarrow{g} T$ is a composition of ring maps and f and g are integral, so $g \circ f$ is integral.

Corollary 10.24. Consider $R \subseteq S$ and T be the integral closure of R in S. Then T is integrally closed in S.

Proof. Look at $R \to T \to T[x]$ for any $x \in S$ that is integral over T. □

Lemma 10.25. Suppose $R \to S$ is an integral extension. Then if $I \subseteq R$ and $J = I \cap S$, then $R/J \to S/I$ is integral, and $(R\backslash J)^{-1}R \to (S\backslash I)^{-1}S$ is also integral.

Proof. Take $x \in R$, we write $x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 = 0$.

Consider $x/s \in S^{-1}R$. □

Corollary 10.26. $f : A \to B$ is finite if and only if B if finitely-generated A-module over $f(A)$. f is integral and of finite type if and only if B is finitely-generated A-algebra over $f(A)$. Note that the two terms themselves are also equivalent.

Lemma 10.27. Let C be integral closure of A in B. Let S be a multiplicatively closed subset of A. Then $C[S^{-1}]$ is the integral closure of $S^{-1}A$ in $S^{-1}B$.

Corollary 10.28. Let A be a domain. Then the following are equivalent:

1. A is normal.
2. A_p is normal for every prime ideal $p \subseteq A$.
3. A_m is normal for maximal ideal $m \subseteq A$.

Proof. Note that all these rings have the same fractional field.

(1) $\Rightarrow$ (2) $\Rightarrow$ (3) follows from the lemma above.

(3) $\Rightarrow$ (1): suppose A_m is normal for $m \subseteq A$. Obviously $A \hookrightarrow C$ where C is the integral closure of A. This is surjective because $A_m \hookrightarrow C_m$ is surjective for $m \subseteq A$. □

Example 10.29. For a number field $\mathcal{O}_K$, $\mathcal{O}_K$ is not a UFD in general. But localization of $\mathcal{O}_K$ at maximal ideals are DVR, therefore, PID, UFD, and normal.

Lemma 10.30. Let $A \subseteq B$ be an integral extensions and let $q \in \mathbf{Spec}(B)$. Denote $p = q \cap A \in \mathbf{Spec}(A)$, then q is maximal if and only if p is maximal.

Proof. By the previous lemma, B/q is integral over A/p. Then we want to show if $A \subseteq B$ are domains, and B is integral over A, then we know B is a field if and only if A is a field.

Suppose A is a field, let $y \in B$ be nonzero, then since B is integral over A, then the element satisfies a monic polynomial in $A[x]$. Choose $n > 0$ be minimal such that $a_0 \neq 0$.

Suppose B is a field, let $x \in A\backslash\{0\}$, then $\frac{1}{x} \in B$, so $\frac{1}{x}$ satisfies a monic polynomial over A. In particular, $x^{-1} \in A$. □

Note that for an integral ring homomorphism $f : A \to B$, $q \in \mathbf{Spec}(B)$, let $p = f^{-1}(q)$ be in the spectral of A, then q is maximal if and only if p is maximal. Therefore, integral morphisms of affine schemes send closed points to closed points.

Definition 10.31. For an affine scheme X with data X and R. We write $\mathcal{O}(X) = R$, the ring of regular functions on X. Morphism of affine schemes correspond to ring homomorphsim in the other direction. That is, $X \to Y$ corresponds to $\mathcal{O}(Y) \to \mathcal{O}(X)$.

Example 10.32. $K \hookrightarrow K[x]$ is not finite, and the spectral map $\mathbf{Spec}(K[x]) \to \mathbf{Spec}(K)$ sends generic points to closed point of R. Similarly this works on $\mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$.

Corollary 10.33. If $A \subseteq B$ is an integral extension with $q \subseteq q'$ prime in B such that $q \cap A = q' \cap A$ in the spectral of A, then $q = q'$ in the spectrum of B.

Proof. Let $p = q \cap A = q' \cap A$, since $A \subseteq B$ is integral, then $A_p \subseteq B_p$ is integral. Let $m = pA_p$, the maximal ideal of the local ring A_p, then define $n = q \cdot B_p$, $n' = q'B_p$. Clearly $n \subseteq n'$. Moreover, $n \cap A_p = n' \cap A_p = m$. By the previous lemma, both n and n' are maximal in B_p. Therefore, $n = n'$. By the correspondence theorem, $q = q'$. □

Theorem 10.34. Let $A \subseteq B$ be integral and p be integral in A. Then there is a prime $q \in B$ with $q \cap A = p$. Therefore, the map $\mathbf{Spec}(B) \to \mathbf{Spec}(A)$ is an onto map that sends q to $q \cap A$.

Example 10.35. Consider ring homomorphism $k[t] \to k[t, t^{-1}]$. Therefore is a correspondence between $\mathbf{Spec}(k[t, t^{-1}])$ and $\mathbf{Spec}(k[t])$. But this is not a surjective map since $k[t, t^{-1}]$ is not integral over $k[t]$, but its image is dense.

Proof. Since $A \subseteq B$ is integral, then the localization satisfies $A_p \subseteq B_p$ and is integral. We now have a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \hookrightarrow & B \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ A_p & \hookrightarrow & B_p \end{array}$$

and this is injective because localization is exact. A_p is local so $A_p \neq 0$, and so $B_p \neq 0$. Therefore, there is a maximal ideal n inside B_p whose pullback $m = n \cap A_p$ must be maximal by the lemma. Therefore, $m = pA_p$. The one-to-one correspondence gives prime ideal in B that pulls back to p. □

Corollary 10.36. Suppose that $f : R \to S$ is an integral map, then the induced map on spectra is closed.

Proof. We can reduce to the case that f is an integral extension. We claim that for $V(I) \subseteq$ $\mathbf{Spec}(C)$, we have $f^*(V(I)) = V(f^{-1}I)$. We always have that $f^*(V(I)) \subseteq V(f^{-1}(I))$. For the other inclusion, suppose $p \in V(f^{-1}I)$, then $f^{-1}I \subseteq p$, and we need to find some $q \in$ $\mathbf{Spec}(S)$ such that $q \in V(I)$ and $f^{-1}(q) = p$. Consider the integral extension $R/f^{-1}I \to S/I$, there is a $q \in \mathbf{Spec}(S)$ with $I \subseteq q$ and $f^{-1}(q) = p$. ☐

We can reduce the case of going up to having $p_0 \subseteq p_1 \in \text{Spec}(R)$, and a q_0 in $\mathbf{Spec}(S)$ with $q_0 \cap R = p_0$. We want to find a q_1 containing q_0 and $q_1 \cap R = p_1$. Consider the integral extension $R/p_0 \to S/p_0$. Applying results above, the map gives a prime ideal q_1 containing q_0 and pull back to p_1.

Proposition 10.37. Suppose B is integral over A, then B is a field if and only if A is a field.

Theorem 10.38. Let B/A be an integral extension and let p be a prime ideal of A. Then there exists a prime ideal q of B such that $q \cap A = p$.

Theorem 10.39 (Going-up Theorem)**.** Suppose B/A is integral, and let $p_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq p_n$ be a chain of prime ideals of A, and $q_1 \subseteq q_m$ $(m < n)$ be a chain of prime ideals of B such that $q_i \cap A = p_i$, then the chain of q_i's can be extended to a chain $q_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq q_n$ such that $q_i \cap A = p_i$ for all i.

Definition 10.40. A ring map $f : R \to S$ has the going up property if for any prime ideals $p_0 \subseteq p_1 \subseteq R$ and $q_0 \subseteq S$ with $f^{-1}q_0 = p_0$, then there is a q_1 containing q_0 such that $f^{-1}q_1 = p_1$.

Remark 10.41. The going up property is equivalent to the following. For any chain of primes $p_0 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq p_n$ in R and chain $q_0 \subseteq q_m$ with $0 \leq m < n$ with $f^{-1}q_i = p_i$ for $0 \leq i \leq m$, it can be extended to a chain of length n with $f^{-1}q_i = p_i$ for all $0 \leq i \leq n$.

Remark 10.42. Going up is stable under composition.

Definition 10.43. For a topological space X, a point $x \in X$ is a specialization of $x' \in X$ and x' is a generalization of x if $x \in \overline{\{x'\}}$.

Therefore, for $x, x' \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$, we have that x is a specialization of x' if $x \in V(p_{x'})$, i.e. $p_{x'} \subseteq p_x$.

A subset $Y \subseteq X$ is called specialization closed if all specializations of elements of Y are also in Y, i.e. if $y \in Y$, then $\bar{y} \subseteq Y$ as well. Correspondingly, we define the term generalization closed. Therefore, closed subsets are specialization closed and open subsets are generalization closed.

Definition 10.44. A map $f : X \to Y$ is specializing if for any y a specialization of $y' \in Y$ and $x' \in X$ with $f(x') = y'$, there is a specialization x of x' with $f(x) = y$. (If f has the corresponding property for generalizations, the map is generalizing.)

Proposition 10.45. Suppose that $f : X \to Y$ is a closed map of topological spaces. Then f is specializing.

Proof. Suppose that y is a specialization of y' and $f(x') = y'$ where $x' \in X$. Since f is closed, then $f(\overline{x'})$ is closed, and $\overline{y'} \subseteq f(\overline{x'})$. Since $y \in \overline{y'}$, there is some $x \in X$ with $f(x) = y$. □

Proposition 10.46. A map $f : R \to S$ satisfies going up if and only if the induce map $f : \mathbf{Spec}(S) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is specializing.

Lemma 10.47. Suppose that $f : R \to S$ is a map of rings. Then the image of $\mathbf{Spec}(S)$ in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is specialization closed if and only if the map itself is closed.

Proof. Clearly closed implies specialization closed. Suppose that the image is specialization closed. Replace $R \to S$ by $R/I \hookrightarrow S$, so we can assume that the map f is injective. We claim that the map $\mathbf{Spec}(S) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ hits every minimal prime of R. If $p \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is minimal, consider $R_p \to S_p$. Since p is minimal and so R_p is field. It is enough to show that S_p is not zero, according to the exactness of localization. Therefore, if the image of $\mathbf{Spec}(S)$ in $\mathbf{Spec(R)}$ is specializing, the image contains every minimal prime of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$, therefore closed. □

Theorem 10.48. Let $f : R \to S$ be a ring map. The following are equivalent:

1. $\mathbf{Spec}(S) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is closed.
2. f has the going up property.
3. For any $q \in \mathbf{Spec}(S)$ and $f^{-1}(q) = p$ in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$, the map $\mathbf{Spec}(B/q) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R/p)$ is surjective.

Proof. (2) implies (1): consider $V(I) \subseteq \mathbf{Spec}(S)$. We want to show that the image of $V(I)$ is closed in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$. Consider $R \xrightarrow{f} S \to S/I$, it is enough to show that the image of $\mathbf{Spec}(S/I) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is closed. Note that $R \to S/I$ satisfies going up. We only need to show that the image of $\mathbf{Spec}(S/I)$ in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is specialization closed. Since $\mathbf{Spec}(S/I)$ is specialization closed and the map $\mathbf{Spec}(S/I) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is specialization, so its image is also specialization closed. □

Definition 10.49. A domain is normal or integrally closed if it is integrally closed in its field of fractions. The normalization of a domain is its integral closure in its field of fractions.

Example 10.50. We have seen that $\mathbb{Z}$ is normal. For K is a field, $K[x]$ is normal. UFDs are normal. $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{5}]$ is not normal.

Consider $k[x,y]/(y^2-x^3)$, then this is isomorphic to $k[t^2,t^3]$ where $y\mapsto t^3$ and $x\mapsto t^2$. The field of fractions is $k(t)=k[t]$ since t is integral over $k[t^2,t^3]$, we see that the normalization of $k[x,y]/(y^2-x^3)$ is $k[\frac{y}{x}]$.

This corresponds to $\mathbb{A}^1_k \to \mathbf{Spec}(K[t^2,t^3])$ and resolve the cusp.

Proposition 10.51. For $R\subseteq S$ set T be the integral closure of R in S. Then for any multiplicatively closed subset M of S, we have that $M^{-1}T$ is in the integral closure of $M^{-1}R$ in $M^{-1}S$.

Proof. We have $M^{-1R}\to M^{-1}T$ is integral. If $\frac{s}{m}\in M^{-1}S$ is integral over $M^{-1}R$, consider the equation $(\frac{s}{m})^k+\frac{r_1}{m_1}(\frac{s}{m})^{k-1}+\cdots+\frac{r_k}{s_k}=0$. Multiply by $(mm_1\cdots m_k)^k$ to get that $sm_1\cdots m_k$ is integral over R. This implies $sm_1\cdots m_k\in T$ and $\frac{s}{m}\in M^{-1}T$. □

Proposition 10.52. Let R be an integral domain. Then the following are equivalent.

1. R is normal.
2. A_p is normal for all $p\in\mathbf{Spec}(R)$.
3. A_m is normal for all maximal ideal m.

Proof. Let S be the normalization of R in $R_{(0)}$. Moreover, note that the field of fractions of any of the localizations of R is just $R_{(0)}$ again. So we are trying to show that $R\to S$ is a surjective. By the previous theorem, we have that S_p is the normalization of R_p for every p. So we can use the fact that a map of rings is surjective if and only if it is locally surjective. □

Lemma 10.53. Let T be the integral closure of R in S and let I be an ideal in R and $J=IT$. Then the set of all elements of S satisfying an monic polynomial with coefficients in I is $\sqrt{J}$. We call this property of satisfying a monic polynomial with coefficients in I as being integral over I.

Proof. If $x^n+j_1x^{n-1}+\cdots+j_n=0$ with the j_i's in I, we see that $x^n\in J$, so $x\in\sqrt{J}$. For the other direction, if $x^n=\sum_{i=1}^k j_ix_i$ for $j_i\in I$ and $x_i\in T$, we see that $x^n\in R[x_1,\cdots,x_k]$, which is a finitely-generated R-module and we see that $x^nR[x_1,\cdots,x_n]\subseteq IR[x_1,\cdots,x_n]$. By Cayley-Hamilton theorem, x^n satisfies a monic polynomial with coefficients in I, so x does as well. □

Recall that $K \subseteq L$ an extension of fields, we say that $l \in L$ is algebraic over K is it is integral over K. Any such algebraic element satisfies a unique minimal polynomial, that is a monic polynomial of minimal degree.

Proposition 10.54. Suppose that $R \subseteq S$ are domains with R normal and suppose that $x \in S$ integral over $I \subseteq R$. Then x is algebraic over the fractional field of R, and the minimal polynomial over K has all coefficients in $\sqrt{I}$.

Proof. Since x is algebraic over K, the fractional field of R is immediate. For the other claim, consider some extension of L that has all the roots of the minimal polynomial of x, i.e. the minimal polynomial of x splits in L as $\prod_{i=1}^{n}(t - x_i)$. Each of the x_i's is integral over I, since the coefficients of the minimal polynomial of x are polynomials in x_i's. We see that these are all integral over I, so the coefficients in $\sqrt{I}$. □

Lemma 10.55. If $R \to S$ is an inclusion of rings then $p \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is in the image of $\mathbf{Spec}(S)$ if and only if $R \cap pS = p$.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Obvious.

($\Leftarrow$): Suppose $R \cap pS = p$ and let $T = R \backslash p$ in S, then pS does not intersect T, so looking at $R_p \to S_p$, we know pS_p is contained in some maximal ideal of S_p. Taking the pullback of this map, we get back to a prime in S, and it contains pS and it does not intersect with T. This pulls back p. □

Theorem 10.56 (Going Down)**.** Let $R \subseteq S$ be an integral extension of domains where R is normal. The map $\mathbf{Spec}(S) \to \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ is generalizing, in other words if there is $p_0 \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$ of the form $q_0 \cap R$ and p_0 is a generalization of p_1, i.e. $p_0 \in \bar{p}_1$, or $p_0 \supseteq p_1$, then there exists a $q_1 \in \mathbf{Spec}(S)$ with $q_1 \cap R = p_1$.

Proof. Consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R & \longrightarrow & S \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ R_{p_0} & \longrightarrow & S_{q_0} \end{array}$$

we need to show that p_1 is the pullback of a prime in S_q. It is enough to show that the pullback of $p_1 S_{q_0}$ to R is p_1. Every $x \in p_1 S_{q_0}$ is of the form $\frac{y}{t}$, where $y \in p_1 S$ and $t \notin q$. This y must be integral over p_1 by the lemmas above. Therefore, we know that the minimal polynomial of y must have the form $y^r + u_1 y_{r-1} + \cdots + u_n$ with u_i's in p_1. Therefore, for $x \in R \cap p_1 S_{q_0}$, we have that $t = \frac{y}{x}$ and the minimal polynomial for t over K is obtained by dividing the above minimal polynomial by x^n, we get that $t^n + v_1 t^{r-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$, where $v_i = \frac{u_i}{x_i}$. We see that $x^i v_i \in p_1$. Since t is integral over R, each v_i is in R by the previous lemma. If $x \notin p_1$, then each $v_i \in p_1$, so $t^n \in p_1 R \subseteq p_0 R \subseteq q_0$ and $t \in q_0$. This is a contradiction. □

11 Valuation Ring

Definition 11.1. For R an integral domain with field of fractions K, we say that R is a valuation ring of K if for each nonzero $x \in K$, either x or x^{-1} are in R.

Example 11.2. Any field is a valuation ring. More interestingly, $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ is a valuation ring.

Proposition 11.3. Let R be a valuation ring of K. Then

1. R is a local ring.
2. If $R \subseteq R' \subseteq K$, then R' is a valuation ring.
3. R is normal.

Proof. 1. Let m be the set of non-units in R, so for $x \in m$ either $x = 0$ or $x^{-1} \in R$. For $r \in R$ and $x \in m$, we have $rx \in m$, otherwise $(rx)^{-1} \in R$ and $r(rx)^{-1} = x^{-1} \in R$. For x, y nonzero elements of m, either xy^{-1} or $x^{-1}y$ is in R. Without loss of generality, suppose that $xy^{-1} \in R$. Then $(1 + xy^{-1})y \in m$, so $x + y \in m$. We conclude that m is an ideal, so R is therefore local.

2. By definition.

3. Suppose that $x \in K$ is integral over R, so $x^n + r_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + r_n = 0$. If $x \in R$, then we are done. If not, then $x^{-1} \in R$. Divide the equation by x^{n-1}, then $x \in R$.

□

Remark 11.4 (Construction)**.** For K a field and Ω algebraically closed field, let Σ be the set of all pairs (R, f) where R is a subring of K, and $f : R \to \Omega$ is a ring homomorphism. Put a partial order on Σ by inclusion and that the maps are compatible. Using Zorn's lemma, we know there is a maximal element S of Σ. We want to show that S with $g : S \to \Omega$ is a valuation ring.

Lemma 11.5. S is local with maximal ideal $m = \ker(g)$.

Proof. Clearly $\ker(g)$ is prime. Extend g to a map $S_m \to \Omega$ by sending $\frac{s}{t} \mapsto \frac{g(s)}{g(t)}$. By maximality, it follows that $S_m = S$, and so S is local. □

Lemma 11.6. For $0 \neq x \in K$, let $m[x] = mS[x]$, then either $m[x] \neq S[x]$ or $m[x^{-1}] \neq S[x^{-1}]$.

Proof. Suppose the two equalities hold. Then we have that $u_0 + u_1x + \cdots + u_mx^m = 1$, and $v_0 + v_1x^{-1} + \cdots + v_nx^{-n} = 1$. Without loss of generality, suppose that m and n are as small as possible. Suppose $m \geq n$ and multiply the equation by x^n. This gives $(1-v_0)x^n = v_1x^{n-1} + \cdots + v_n$. Since $v_0 \in m$, we conclude that $1-v_0$ is a unit. Therefore, we can write this equation as $x^n = w_1x^{n-1} + \cdots + w_n$ with $w_i \in m$. Therefore, we can rewrite the first equation using terms of lower degrees. This gives a contradiction. □

Theorem 11.7. S is a valuation ring of K.

Proof. Given a nonzero $x \in K$, we need to show that either $x \in S$ or $s^{-1} \in S$. Assume $m[x]$ is not all of $S[x] = s'$, then it must be contained in a maximal ideal m', and $s \cap m' = m$. Therefore, $K = S/m \hookrightarrow S'/m' = K'$. Note that $K' = K[x]$, and it is a field. Therefore, x is algebraic over K, and K' is a finite extension of x. There is an embedding of R/m into Ω. Therefore, we can extend this into an embedding of K' into Ω, since Ω is algebraically closed. Then we can get a map $S' \to \Omega$ extending that $S \to \Omega$, so we have $S = S'$ and $x \in S$. □

Corollary 11.8. For R a domain the normalization of $R = \bar{R}$ is the intersection of all valuation rings of K that contain R.

Proof. Any valuation ring contains the normalization since the valuation rings are integrally closed. Take some $x \notin \bar{R}$, then $\bar{x} \notin R[x^{-1}]$ otherwise x would be integral over R, so x^{-1} is not a unit in $R[x^{-1}]$, and is therefore contained in some maximal ideal m'. Take Ω to be the algebraic closure of $R[x^{-1}]/,'$, the restricting R to $R[x^{-1}] \to R[x^{-1}]/m' \to \Omega$ gives a nonzero homomorphism of R into Ω. We can extend this to some valuation ring S containing R and $R[x^{-1}]$ since x^{-1} maps to zero in Ω, so x is not contained in S. □

Lemma 11.9. Let R be a field and let f be a nonzero element of $R[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$, then there is an isomorphism $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \xrightarrow{\cong} k[y_1, \cdots, y_n]$ of k-algebras that f becomes a nonzero constant times a monic polynomial in $y_1, \cdots, y_n$. That is, for some $d \geq 0$, $f = cy_n^d + \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} f(y_1, \cdots, y_{n-1})$.

Remark 11.10. Geometrically, given an hypersurface $\{f = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}_k^n$ and we can change coordinates so that the projection $\mathbb{A}_k^n \to \mathbb{A}_k^{n-1}$ given by $(y_1, \cdots, y_n) \mapsto (y_1, \cdots, y_{n-1})$ becomes a finite morphism.

Example 11.11. Let $f = x_1x_2 - 1$, then we have a morphism between affine spaces $k[x] \to k[x_1, x_2]/(x_1x_2 - 1)$ sending $\{f = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{A}^2 \to \mathbb{A}^1$ from (x_1, x_2) to x_1. This is not finite, but the lemma tells us we can change the coordinates by taking $x_1 = y_1 + y_2$ and $x_2 = y_1 - y_2$. f then becomes $y_1 - y_2^2 - 1$.

Lemma 11.12 (Noether Normalization Lemma)**.** Let R be a nonzero finitely-generated algebra over k. Then there is a natural number n and inclusion $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \hookrightarrow R$ such that R is finite over $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$.

Proof. There is a surjection $k[x_1, \cdots, x_N] \twoheadrightarrow R$. Suppose N is minimal with this property, we can prove by induction on N.

The base case is when $N = 0$, then we have $k \twoheadrightarrow R$, so either $R = 0$ or $R = k$, either case the ring is finite over the polynomial ring.

To prove the inductive step. Let $I = \ker(k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) \twoheadrightarrow R)$. If $I = 0$, then we are done. Otherwise, we pick nonzero element f of I. By the previous lemma, we change the coordinates of our N generators, can assume $f = c(x_N^d + \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_i(x_1, \cdots, x_{N-1})x_N^i$ for $c \neq 0$. Note $d > 0$ or else f is a unit.

Remove c, the elements are still in I. It follows that R is finite over subalgebra $S = \mathbf{Im}(k[x_1, \cdots, x_{N-1}]) \subseteq R$. By induction, S is finite over a polynomial ring $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \subseteq S$. Therefore, R is also finite over $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$. □

Remark 11.13 (Geometric Translation)**.** If X is a nonempty affine scheme of finite type over k, there is an n and a finite morphism of affine schemes $X \to \mathbb{A}_k^n$ that is surjective.

We already showed that $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \hookrightarrow R$ is finite, and with a corresponding map $\mathbf{Spec}(R) \twoheadrightarrow \mathbf{Spec}(k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) = \mathbb{A}_R^n$.

An affine scheme over a commutative ring A means an affine scheme X with a map $\mathbf{Spec}(B) = X \to \mathbf{Spec}(A)$, which corresponds to a ring homomorphism $A \to B$.

Corollary 11.14 (Weak Hilbert's Nullstellensatz)**.** Let R be an algebra of finite type over K. If R is a field and R is finite over K (so R has finite dimension as a K-vector space).

Proof. By Noether Normalization Lemma, there is an inclusion $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \hookrightarrow R$ with R finite over $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ since R is a field. Note $(0) \subseteq R$ is a maximal ideal so its preimage is maximal, so $K \hookrightarrow R$, and therefore R is a finite k-algebra. □

Corollary 11.15. If K is an algebraically closed field, and any maximal ideal in $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ is of the form $(x_1 - c_1, \cdots, x_n - c_n)$ for some $c_1, \cdots, c_n \in K$. Therefore, the set of all closed points are K^n.

Proof. Take $m \subseteq k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ maximal. Then $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/m$ is a field, which is a k-algebra of finite type, hence finite over k. Thus, $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/m = k$. Therefore, $x_i \mapsto c_i \in R$ gives the map $k[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \to k[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/m = k$. We then have $m = (x_1 - c_1, \cdots, x_n - c_n)$. □

Remark 11.16. This corollary is not true for fields in general. For example, $k^n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{A}_k^n$ mapping to closed points, but there are other closed points, e.g. $(x^2+1) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$.

Definition 11.17 (Jacobson Radical)**.** The Jacobson radical of a commutative ring R is the intersection of all maximal ideals in R. We showed that intersection of all prime ideals in R is nilradical. In general, Jacobson radical may be bigger, e.g. in most local rings.

Example 11.18. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}_{(2)}$ is a domain, so the nilradical ideal is 0. But (2) is the only maximal ideal.

Lemma 11.19. Let R be an algebra of finite type over a field K. Then the Jacobson radical of R is the nilradical of R.

Proof. Clearly, the nilradical is contained in the Jacobson radical. Suppose f is in the Jacobson radical R. We want to show f belongs to every prime p. If we replace R by R/p, which is still algebra of finite type over a domain. Clearly f is contained in the nilradical ideal of the new R as it is still a domain. Suppose $f \neq 0$, $R[\frac{1}{f}] =\subseteq \mathbf{Frac}(R)$ is still of finite type. Now $R[\frac{1}{f}] \neq 0$ because it contains a maximal ideal.

By the weak Nullstellensatz, $R[\frac{1}{f}]/m$ is a field that is finite over K. Let n be the kernel of $R \to R[\frac{1}{f}] \to R[\frac{1}{f}]/m$, denoted g. The image of g is a domain, hence a field. Therefore, n is maximal with $f \notin n$, contradiction, so $f = 0$. □

Definition 11.20. Let R be a commutative ring. The codimension of $I \subseteq R$ is the supremum of length of all chains of primes contained in I: $P_0 \subsetneq P_1 \subsetneq P_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq I$. Geometrically, this is counting chains of irreducible closed subsets starting at $V(p)$.

Lemma 11.21. The codimension of p is the dimension of R_p.

Example 11.22. If R is a domain, (0) is a prime ideal of codimension 0. In this case, $R_{(0)}$ is a field. Therefore, the dimension of $R_{(0)} = 0$.

If R is Noetherian normal domain and $p \subseteq R$ is a codimension 1 prime ideal, then $\dim(R_p) = 1$, so R_p is a DVR.

Example 11.23. Let R be a UFD and f be an irreducible element, then (f) has codimension 1, i.e. ($0 \subsetneq (f)$ is maximal chain) and $R_{(f)}$ is a DVR.

This induces the discrete valuation.

Recall for a local Noether domain R of dimension 1, R is a DVR if and only if R is normal if and only if $\dim(m/m^2) = 1$. This structure m/m^2 is called the Zariski cotangent space of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ at m.

Example 11.24. Denote $R = K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$, $m = (x_1, \cdots, x_n)$. Then m/m^2 is a K-vector space with basis $x_1, \cdots, x_n \cong K^n$. This is a cotangent space because elements of R are like functions, we modulo out by those that vanish in order 2.

Consider $R = \mathbb{C}[x, y]/(x^2 - y^3)$. Then $m = (x, y)$. Now $\dim(m/m^2) = 1$ for ring not normal. One can check that $m/m^2 = (x, y)/(x^2, xy, y^2) \cong K^2$.

Remark 11.25 (Dimension of a Polynomial Ring)**.** We want to show that for a field K and $n \geq 0$, $\dim(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) = n$. Consider a finite extension $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n] \subseteq R$, we showed that $\mathbf{Spec}(R) \to \mathbf{Spec}(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n])$ is finite and surjective. If we know $\dim(\mathbb{A}_k^n) = n$, then $\dim(R) \geq n$.

We now prove this statement. Look at chain of $p_i = (x_1, \cdots, x_i) \subseteq K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$, lift these to R using surjection. First lift $p.$ to $q.$ in R. Then $A/p_0 \subseteq R/q_0$ and this inclusion is finite. Therefore, we get prime R/q_0, q_1/q_0 mapping to p_1/p_0, and we can continue getting a chain of n ideals in R. If we have $\dim(R) = n$, then suppose there is a longer chain, then the inclusions remain strict in $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ by a previous lemma. Therefore, the chain has length at most n.

Theorem 11.26. For a field K and $n \geq 0$, $\dim(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) = n$.

Proof. We use induction on n. We already know that $\dim(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) \geq 0$ and $\dim(K) = 0$, and $\dim(K[x]) = 1$.

Consider $P_0 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_r$ of length r in $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ with $r \leq n$. Here $P_1 \neq 0$, so we can pick $f \neq 0$ in P_1. By the previous lemma, we can change variable so that f has highest order term to be ax_n^d for some $a \in K$, $a \neq 0$. Then $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/(f)$ is free on $\{1, x_n, \cdots, x_n^{d-1}\}$ as a module over $K[x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1}]$. So $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/P_1$ is finite over $K[x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1}]$. By the proof of Noether normalization, we know $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/P_1$ is finite over some subring of $K[x_1, \cdots, x_s]$ for $s \leq n-1$ so $\dim(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]/P_1) = s \leq n-1$. By induction, we know $\dim(K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]) \leq n$. □

Corollary 11.27. For R a domain of finite type over a field K, $\dim(R) = \text{trdeg}(\mathbf{Frac}(R)/K)$.

Definition 11.28. Given $F \subseteq E$ a finite extension and $\mathbf{trdeg}(E/F)$ is $|I|$ where $F \subseteq F(x_i) \subseteq E$ where $i \in I$, and the inclusion in E is algebraic.

Note that this is well-defined, as we can see by expressing R as finite extension of $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ and then take the fraction field.

Proposition 11.29. Let R be a UFD and f be irreducible in R. Then (f) is a codimension-1 prime ideal.

Proof. (f) is always prime for f irreducible in a UFD, and $\mathbf{codim}(f) \geq 1$ since $(0) \subsetneq (f)$ has codimension 1. If not, get $(0) \subsetneq q \subsetneq (f)$ where $f \notin q$. For $g \in q$, $g = fh$ for some $h \in R$ since q is prime, so $h \in q$, then $q = fq = f^2q = f^3q = \cdots$. Therefore, if $g \in q$ is a multiple of f^r for any ≥ 0, by the property of UFD, then $g = 0$, so $q = 0$, contradiction. ☐

Theorem 11.30 (Krull's Principal Ideal Theorem)**.** Let R be Noetherian and $x \in R$. Then every minimal prime ideal containing (x) has codimension at most 1.

Geometrically, for $x \in R$, the minimal primes containing (x) corresponds to irreducible components of $\{x = 0\}$. Therefore, the theorem says that all of the components have codimension at most 1.

Remark 11.31. This is not true for polynomial functions in $\mathbb{R}^n$. For example, $\{x^2 + y^2 = 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathbb{A}_{\mathbb{R}^2}$ has codimension 2.

Proof. First reduce via localization. Let P be the minimal prime in R containing (x). We want to show that the codimension of P is at most 1, or equivalently, that $S = R_P$ has dimension at most 1. Here S is local, Noetherian, and $x \in S$, and $m = pR_p \subseteq S$ is a minimal prime ideal containing (x). In fact, this is the only one because m is maximal.

Equivalently, $\sqrt{(x)} = m \subseteq S$. If $q \subsetneq m$ is prime, we need to show the codimension of q is 0. Note that if there is so such q, then we are done. We have $\mathbf{Spec}(S/(x)) = \mathbf{Spec}(S/m)$, $S/(x)$ is Noetherian has dimension 0, and therefore is Artinian. Therefore, the chain of descending ideals in $S/(x)$ terminates: $q(S/x))^{(1)} \supseteq q(S/x)^{(2)} \supseteq \cdots$. Therefore, consider in S, we have $(x) + q^{(1)} \supseteq (x) + q^{(2)} \supseteq \cdots$ terminates. Therefore, for some $n \geq 1$, we have $q^{(n)} + (x) = q^{(n+1)} + (x)$.

We now need to form sequence of symobolic power of q. For a prime ideal q, the nth symbolic power $q^{(n)}$ of q is the inverse image under $S \to S_q$ of q^nS_q. That is, $f \in q^{(n)}$ if and only if f vanishes to order at least n at generic point of $V(q)$.

Recall $\sqrt{(x)} = m$ which is strictly bigger than q, so $x \notin q$, so x maps to a unit in R_q. Thus, for any $f \in q^{(n)}$, $f = ax + g$, $a \in S$, and $g \in g^{(n+1)}$, therefore $ax \in q^{(n)}$, so $ax \in q^nS_q$, where x is a unit. Therefore, $a \in q^nS_q$, i.e. $a \in q^{(n)} \subseteq S$.

Since $x \in m$, this means $q^{(n)}/(q^{(n+1)} + mq^{(n)}) = 0$, i.e. $[q^{(n)}/q^{(n+1)}] \otimes SS/m = 0$. By Nakayama Lemma, $q^{(n)}/q^{(n+1)} = 0$, so $q^{(n)} = q^{(n+1)}$. Any ideal in S_q is generated as an ideal by intersection with S, so we know that $q^nS_q = q^{n+1}S_q$. Taking the tensor product gives $q^nS_q \otimes_{S_q} (S_q/qS_q) = 0$ and $q^nS_q = 0$, according to Nakayama Lemma. The last expression is the condition for a local Noetherian ring to be Artinian. Hence, the dimension and codimension of S_q are both 0, as desired. □

Corollary 11.32. Let R be Noetherian ring with $x_1, \cdots, x_n \in R$. Then every minimal prime ideal containing $(x_1, \cdots, x_n)$ has codimension at most n.

Proof. Do induction. □

Remark 11.33. For any commutative ring R, the dimension of R is the supremum of dimension of R_m for maximal ideals m of R, and this is equivalent to the supremum of codimension of m over all maximal ideals m.

Each $\dim(R_m)$ is finite, but it could happen that $\dim(R) = \infty$.

Example 11.34. There are Noetherian rings of infinite dimension.

Definition 11.35. A commutative ring R is catenary if for any prime ideals $p \subseteq q \subseteq R$, there is a maximal chain $p \subsetneq P_1 \subsetneq P_2 \subsetneq \cdots \subseteq P_r = q$, and the number r is unique.

Remark 11.36. All algebras of finite type over a field are catenary.

Remark 11.37. There are non-catenary Noetherian local rings due to the example above.

Corollary 11.38. Let R be a domain of finite type over a field. Then for any $p \subseteq R$, we have $\dim(R) = \operatorname{codim}(p) + \dim(R/p)$.

Remark 11.39. Use the fact that for a domain R of finite type over a field K, for any m, $\dim(R) = \dim(R_m)$.

Remark 11.40. The corollary fails if R is not a domain.

Theorem 11.41. Let R be a Noetherian domain. Then R is a UFD if and only if every codimension-1 prime ideal in R is principal.

If R is a UFD, the codimension-1 subvarieties are always defined by a single equation.

Proof. ($\Rightarrow$): Let R be a Noetherian UFD. Let $p \subseteq R$ be a codimension-1 prime ideal. Then $(0) \subsetneq p$ and there is no prime between them. Let $f \in p$ be nonzero, then $f = f_1 \cdots f_r$ with f_i being irreducible. So we know $f_i \in p$ for some i. Suppose we have $f_1 \in p$, then (f_1) is prime by UFD, so $0 \subsetneq (f_1) \subseteq p$, i.e. $p = (f_1)$.

($\Leftarrow$): Suppose R is Noetherian, then every codimension-1 prime is principal. First, show that every nonzero non-unit in R is a product of irreducibles. Suppose this is not the case, then we can choose some f that cannot be written be such a product. Thus, $f = gh$ where g

and h are non-units. Then either g or h is not such a product. By repeating the process, we have a sequence $(f) \subsetneq (g) \subsetneq \cdots$ of strictly increasing principal ideals. We get a contradiction because we see that every nonzero non-unit is a product of irreducibles. This only required R to be a Noetherian domain.

We know every irreducible element f generates a prime. By definition, f is not a unit so $(f) \subsetneq R$. Therefore, there is a minimal prime containing (f). By Krull's principal ideal theorem, p has codimension at most 1, but $(0) \subsetneq (f)$, so it has codimension exactly 1. Then by assumption, p is principal, then $p = (g)$, so $f = gh$. Therefore, h is a unit, and so $(f) = (g) = R$.

Using this, we have a unique factorization. Suppose $f_1 \cdots f_r = g_1 \cdots g_s$ are two irreducible factorizations. Suppose $g_1 \cdots g_s \in (f_1)$, then $g_i \in (f_i)$, and so $g_i = f_1 u$ since f_1 is prime. We cancel the term and proceed by induction. □

Remark 11.42. For any Noetherian normal domain R, we define an Abelian group $\mathbf{Cl}(R)$ as the divisor class group of R generated by codimension-1 prime ideals of R such that $\mathbf{Cl}(R) = 0$ if and only if all codimension-1 prime ideals are principal, if and only if R is a UFD.

$\mathbf{Cl}(R)$ measures failure to be a UFD. A lot of algebraic geometry is concerned with computing this group and closed related to the Picard group.

Lemma 11.43. Let R be a Noetherian local ring and $\mathfrak{m}$ be a maximal ideal. Then $\dim(R) \leq \dim_k(m/m^2)$.

Proof. Since R is Noetherian, $\mathfrak{m}$ is a finitely-generated module, then $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ is a finite-dimensional space and if $e_1, \cdots, e_n$ is a basis, then by Nakayama Lemma, we can lift them to $e_1, \cdots, e_n \in \mathfrak{m}$, and they always generate $\mathfrak{m}$. By corollary to Krull's theorem, $\dim(R) = \operatorname{codim}(\mathfrak{m}) \leq n$. □

Definition 11.44. A Noetherian local ring is regular if $\dim(R) = \dim_k(m/m^2)$.

Example 11.45. A regular local ring R of dimension 0, we have $m/m^2 = 0$, then $m = 0$ by Nakayama Lemma, so R is a field.

Note that $k[x]/(x^{10})$ is dimension 0 but not regular.

Remark 11.46. Every regular local ring is a domain.

Given the remark above, let R be regular local of dimension 1. Then R is Noetherian local domain of dimension 1. Now $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2$ has dimension 1 and these imply that R is a DVR.

Example 11.47. $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]_{(x_1,\cdots,x_n)}$ is regular local of dimension n.

Lemma 11.48. For any commutative ring A with a maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$, $k = A/\mathfrak{m}$, then $\dim(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = \dim_k(\mathfrak{m}A_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}^2A_{\mathfrak{m}})$.

Proof. We prove the statement $R/\mathfrak{m}^2 \cong R_{\mathfrak{m}}(\mathfrak{m}R_{\mathfrak{m}})^a$. Then $R/\mathfrak{m}^a$ is local. Therefore, its localization at $\mathfrak{m}$ is the same thing: elements of $R\backslash\mathfrak{m}$ are units in $R/\mathfrak{m}^a$ since it is local.

Now consider exact sequence $0 \to \mathfrak{m}^a \to R \to R/\mathfrak{m}^a \to 0$ and localize to get $\mathfrak{m}^a \otimes_R R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to R_{\mathfrak{m}} \to (R/\mathfrak{m}^a)_{\mathfrak{m}} = R/\mathfrak{m}^a \to 0$, so $R_{\mathfrak{m}}/\mathfrak{m}^aR_{\mathfrak{m}} \cong R/\mathfrak{m}^a$. □

At this point, we know all lcosed subvarieties (prime ideals in $\mathbb{C}[x,y]$) Y of $\mathbb{A}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$.

For example, we know $0 \leq \dim(Y) \leq 2$. If $\dim(Y) = 2$, then $Y = \mathbb{A}^2_{\mathbb{C}}$ corresponding to (0). If $\dim(Y) = 1$, then the codimension of prime is 1, then since $\mathbb{C}[x,y]$ is a UFD, then $p = (f)$ with $f \in \mathbb{C}[x,y]$ irreducible. If $\dim(Y) = 0$, then since $P \subseteq \mathbb{C}[x,y]$ is maximal, by Nullstellensatz, $P = (x-a, y-b)$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{C}^2$.

Lemma 11.49 (Prime Avoidance)**.** Let $n \geq 1$ and $I_1, \cdots, I_n$, J be ideals in a commutative ring R. Suppose that all but at most one of the I_a's are prime. If $J = \bigcup_{a=1}^{n} I_a$, then J is contained in I_a for some a.

Proof. Use induction on n. Then $n = 1$ case is trivial. Suppose $n \geq 2$, and the statement holds for $n-1$. We can assume I_n is prime. Also, we can assume that J is not contained in the union of any $n-1$ of the I_a's or else by induction. So for each $1 \leq a \leq n$ we can choose $x_a \in J\backslash \bigcup_{b\neq a} I_b$. Clearly, $x_a \in I_a$. Consider $y = x_1 \cdots x_{n-1} + x_n$. This is in J so it must be in some I_a. But if $1 \leq a \leq n-1$, then $x_1 \cdots x_{n-1}$ is in I_a but $x_n \notin I_a$, $y \notin I_a$. Thus, $a = n$. Therefore, $y \in I_n$, but since I_n is prime, one of $x_1, \cdots, x_{n-1} \in I_n$, contradiction. Hence, $J \subseteq I_a$ for some a. □

Lemma 11.50. Let R be a Noetherian local ring with maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}$. The dimension of R is the smallest number such that there are $f_1, \cdots, f_r \in \mathfrak{m}$ with $\mathfrak{m} = \mathbf{rad}(f_1 \cdots f_r)$.

Example 11.51. $R = \mathbb{C}[x,y]/(xy)$. It looks like $xy = 0$ cuts out closed points in $\mathbb{C}[x]/(x-y)$, but $\mathbb{C}[x,y]/(xy, x-y) \cong \mathbb{C}[x]/(x)^2$ is not $\mathbb{C}$. In R, $(x-y)$ is not maximal, but $\sqrt{(x-y)}$ is maximal.

Proof. We will make use of the corollary of Krull's principal ideal theorem. If $\mathbf{rad}(f_1, \cdots, f_r) = \mathfrak{m}$, then the codimension of $\mathfrak{m}$ is at most r, that is $\dim(R) \leq r$.

Conversely, if we let $r = \dim(R)$, we want to find r elements of $\mathfrak{m}$, and $f_1, \cdots, f_r$ such that $\mathfrak{m} = \mathbf{rad}(f_1, \cdots, ff_2)$. It (by induction) suffices to show that for any Noetherian local ring R of dimension > 0, then there is an element $f \in \mathfrak{m}$ with $\dim(R/(f)) \leq \dim(R) - 1$.

We now prove this statement. If an element $f \in \mathfrak{m}$ is not in any minimal prime ideal of R, then $\dim(R/(f)) \leq \dim(R) - 1$. Indeed, for any maximal chain of primes in R, we have $P_0 \subsetneq \cdots \subsetneq P_r$. Therefore, P_0 is minimal, so any chain of prime ideals in $R/(f)$ has length at most $r-1$. Geometrically, we can always find functions in $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ that vanishes at a point but not at an entire irreducible component of $\mathbf{Spec}(R)$ since $\dim(R) > 0$, the maximal ideal is not prime. By prime avoidance lemma, since $\mathfrak{m}$ is not contained in any minimal prime in R, so $\mathfrak{m}$ is not contained in the union of minimal primes, and therefore we can find the f required. □

Definition 11.52. A system of parameters in a Noetherian local ring R means a sequence of elements $f_1, \cdots, f_r \in \mathfrak{m}$ such that $r = \dim(R)$ and $\mathbf{rad}(f_1, \cdots, f_r) = \mathfrak{m}$.

Every local Noetherian ring has a system of parameters.

In fact, when the ring is regular, we can get $\mathfrak{m} = (f_1, \cdots, f_r)$ without the radical.

Example 11.53 (Example of Regular Local Rings)**.** Any field is a regular local ring of dimension 0.

Any DVR such as $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)}$ for a prime p, or its completion, the p-adic integers given by $\mathbb{Z}_p = \varprojlim_n \mathbb{Z}/p^n$. Then $\dim_{\mathbb{Z}/p}((p)/(p^2)) = 1$.

Example 11.54. $K[x_1, \cdots, x_n]$ is a regular local ring of dimension n, as its completion $k\left[[x_1, \cdots, x_n]\right]$, the power series ring.

Lemma 11.55. Let R be a Noetherian local ring. For any $f \in \mathfrak{m}$, $\dim(R/(f)) \geq \dim(R) - 1$. For any $f \in R$ which is not a zero divisor, $\dim(R/(f)) = \dim(R) - 1$.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathfrak{m}$, $r = \dim(R)$, $s = \dim(R)/(f)$, then we can choose a system of parameters $g_1, \cdots, g_s \in R/(f)$, then $R/(f)/(g_1, \cdots, g_s)$ is a local ring of dimension 0. Because $\mathfrak{m}$ is nilpotent, $\operatorname{rad}(f, g_1, \cdots, g_s) = \mathfrak{m}$, so $s + 1 \geq \dim(R)$, so $\dim(R/(f)) \geq \dim(R) - 1$. Now let f be a non-zero divisor. A non-zero divisor vanishes at $\mathfrak{m}$ but not any irreducible component: this shortens the chain of irreducible components. This holds if f is not contained in any minimal prime of R. Let $p_1, \cdots, p_s$ be the minimal primes in R. Suppose $f \in p_1$, we have a contradiction. For each $2 \leq j \leq s$, there is an element of p_j not in p_1 since p_1 is prime, the product of these $s-1$ elements in $p_2 \cap \cdots \cap p_s$, but not in p_1. Therefore, $fg_1 \in p_1 \cap \cdots \cap p_s = \operatorname{rad}(0) \subseteq R$, so there is a positive integer n such that $f^n g_1^n = 0$. Then f is a zero-divisor since $g_1 \neq 0$, contradiction. We conclude that f is not in a minimal prime ideal, so we $\dim(R/(f)) = \dim(R - 1)$. □

Proposition 11.56. A regular local ring is a domain.

Proof. We use induction on $r = \dim(R)$. If $r = 0$, then $\dim_K(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = \dim(R) = 0$, by Nakayama Lemma, $\mathfrak{m} = 0$, so R is a field. Now let R be regular local of dimension $r > 0$. We know that $\dim_K(\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2) = r$ and in particular $\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2 \neq 0$, so $\mathfrak{m} \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$. By prime avoidance lemma, if $\mathfrak{m}$ were contained in the union of $\mathfrak{m}^2$ and the minimal primes of R, then it would be contained in one of these ideals. This is impossible since maximal ideal cannot be contained in minimal prime if $\dim(R) > 0$. Therefore, there is an element $f \in \mathfrak{m}$ not in $\mathfrak{m}^2$ and not in any minimal prime of R. By the proof of the previous result, $\dim(R/(f)) = \dim(R) - 1$. Let $S = R/(f)$. The maximal ideal $\mathfrak{m}_s$ has $\dim_K(\mathfrak{m}_s/\mathfrak{m}_{s^2}) = r-1$ because $(\mathfrak{m}_s/\mathfrak{m}_{s^2}) = (\mathfrak{m}/\mathfrak{m}^2)/(f)$ and $f \neq 0$ in $\mathfrak{m}^2$. Hence S is regular and we can apply the inductive hypothesis. S is a domain, so (f) is prime in R. Therefore, (f) contains some minimal prime ideal $p_1 \subseteq R$, but f is not contained in any minimal prime since any element in p_1 can be written as $y = fz$, hence $z \in p_1$, so $p_1 = \mathfrak{m}p_1$ (as $f \in \mathfrak{m}$). By Nakayama Lemma, $p_1 = 0$, so R is a domain. □

Definition 11.57. A regular sequence in a commutative ring R is a sequence $f_1, \cdots, f_n \in R$ such that f_1 is not a zero divisor in R, f_2 is not a zero divisor in $R/(f_1)$, f_3 is not a zero divisor in $R/(f_1, f_2)$, and so on.

Theorem 11.58. Let R be a Noetherian local ring. Then R is regular if and only if $\mathfrak{m}$ is generated by a regular sequence.

Remark 11.59. By homological algebra, this leads to a Noetherian local ring R is regular if and only if R has finite global dimension (any finitely-generated module has a resolution of finite length).

Remark 11.60 (Serre, 1956)**.** For a regular local ring R, $p \subseteq R$ prime, then R_p is also regular.

Remark 11.61 (Auslander-Buchsbaum, 1959)**.** Every regular local ring is UFD.

12 Completion and Filtration

Let R be a domain and $p \in \mathbf{Spec}(R)$. Note $R_p \subseteq \mathrm{Frac}(R)$ and $\mathrm{Frac}(R_p) = \mathrm{Frac}(R_p)$. Now R_p remembers the whole fractional field R. One can show that if X, Y are two structures with the same fractional field, then they are very close to be isomorphic.

Definition 12.1. For M an R-module, and I is an ideal of the ring R. We say that a filtration $M = M_0 \supseteq M_1 \supseteq$ is an I-filtration if we have that $IM_n \supseteq IM_{n+1}$, and it is stable if $IM_n = M_{n+1}$ for sufficiently large n.

Lemma 12.2. A stable I-filtration on M defines the same topology on M as the I-adic one, in particular there is an integer n_0 so that $M_{n+n_0} \subseteq I^n M$ and $I^{n+n_0} M \subseteq M_n$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Definition 12.3. Given a ring R and an ideal I, we get a topology by taking $R \supseteq I \supseteq I^2 \supseteq \cdots$, this is the I-adic topology. R is a topological ring with respect to this topology, and $\hat{R}_I(\hat{R})$ is the I-adic completion of R.

Example 12.4. $\varprojlim_n \mathbb{Z}/p^n = \mathbb{Z}/p$ as the p-adics.

Remark 12.5. Given a ring R and ideal I. We form a graded ring R^* by $R^* = \sum_i I^i$. Similarly, given an R-module M with an I-filtration, we get $M^* = \sum M_n$, since $I^m M_m \supseteq M_{n+m} M^*$ is graded R^*-module.

Lemma 12.6. Let R be a Noetherian ring. I is an ideal in R, and let M be a finitely-generated R-module with an I-filtration (M_n). Then we have M^* as a finitely-generated R^*-module if and only if the filtration is stable.

Lemma 12.7 (Artin-Rees)**.** Let R be a Noetherian ring, I an ideal in R. Let M be a finitely-generated R-module with an I-stable filtration (M_n) and M' is a submodule. Then $M' \cap M_n$ is an I-stable filtration, and the I-adic topology on M' coincides with the subspace topology induced by the I-adic topology on M.

Definition 12.8. A topological Abelian group is a topological space that is an Abelian group and where composition and inversion are continuous.

Remark 12.9. The topology of a topological Abelian group G is completely determined by the neighborhood of 0 (by translation).

Lemma 12.10. Let G be a topological Abelian group and let H be the intersection of all neighborhoods of 0. Then

1. H is a subgroup.
2. H is the closure of 0.
3. G/H is Hausdorff.
4. G is Hausdorff if and only if $H = 0$.

Remark 12.11. Let G be a local base at 0 consisting of nested subgroups, i.e. $G = G_0 \supseteq G_1 \supseteq G_2 \supseteq \cdots$. A typical example is the p-adic topology on $\mathbb{Z}$. A metric on the topological space is $d(x, y) = 2^{-v_p(x-y)}$. Then a local base of 0 is $\mathbb{Z} \supseteq p\mathbb{Z} \supseteq p^2\mathbb{Z} \supseteq \cdots$, these subgroups $G_n = p^n\mathbb{Z}$ are clopen. Note that $\bigcup_{h \notin G_n} (h + G_n)$ is open and is the complement of G_n, so G_n is closed.

Definition 12.12. A Cauchy sequence is a sequence of elements $x_1, x_2, \cdots$ such that for any neighborhood U of 0, the sequence has the property that $x_n - x_m \in U$ for large enough n, m.

Take the image of the sequence in G/G_n is eventually constant, say equal to y_n, then there exists a map $G/G_{n+1} \to G/G_n$ that maps $y_{n+1} \mapsto y_n$. Taking the direct limit, we have $\varprojlim G/G_i$. In particular, we denote $\hat{G} = \varprojlim_i G/G_i$.

Corollary 12.13. Let R be a Noetherian ring. Given a finite short exact sequence $0 \to L \to M \to N \to 0$ of R-modules, then $0 \to \hat{L} \to \hat{M} \to \hat{N} \to 0$ is also a short exact sequence, and is of $\hat{R}$-modules.

Proposition 12.14. For R Noetherian, $\hat{R}$ is flat as an R-algebra.

Proposition 12.15. Let R be a Noetherian ring and I an ideal, and let $\hat{R}$ be its I-adic completion, then

1. $\hat{J} = \hat{R}J = \hat{R} \otimes_R J$.
2. $\hat{J^n} = \hat{J}^n$.
3. $\hat{I}$ is in the Jacobson radical of $\hat{R}$.

Proposition 12.16. For a ring R and a finite module M, $\varphi : \hat{R} \otimes_R M \to \hat{R} \otimes_R \hat{M}$ is surjective. In particular, if R is Noetherian, then the map is also injective.

We aim to show that if R is Noetherian, then the I-adic completion of R is also Noetherian.

Definition 12.17. Given a ring R with the I-adic filtration, we can form the associated grading ring of this filtration, defined as $G(R) = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{\infty} I_n/I_{n+1}$.

Given a module with an I-filtration, we can form the associated graded module $G(M)$, and this is a graded module over $G(R)$.

Proposition 12.18. Let R be Noetherian and I be an ideal of R. Then

1. $G(R)$ is Noetherian.
2. $G(R)$ and $G(\hat{R})$ are isomorphic as rings.
3. If M is a finite R-module and $\{M_n\}$ is a stable I-filtration, then $G(M)$ is a finite $G(R)$-module.

Lemma 12.19. Suppose $\varphi : M \to N$ to be a homomorphism of filtered modules. Then if $G(\varphi) : G(M) \to G(N)$ is injective (respectively, surjective), then the completion map $\hat{\varphi} : \hat{M} \to \hat{N}$ is injective (respectively, surjective).

Proposition 12.20. Let R be a ring and I as its ideal, and M be a R-module. Let (M_n) be an I-filtration. Suppose R is an I-adically complete and M is Hausdorff in the I-adic topology, and $G(M)$ is a finite $G(R)$-module, then M is a finite R-module.

Corollary 12.21. Under the hypotheses of the previous proposition, and suppose $G(M)$ is Noetherian as a $G(R)$-module, then M is also a Noetherian R-module.

Proof. We need to show that all submodules of M are finite. Let M' be a submodule and give it the induced filtration. Then the embedding $(M'_n) \to (M_n)$ gives the embedding $G(M') \to G(M)$, so $G(M')$ is finitely-generated $G(R)$-module and M' is complete (since M is complete), so M' is finitely-generated. □

Corollary 12.22. If R is a Noetherian ring, then $\hat{R}$ is Noetherian.

Proof. $G(\hat{R})$ is Noetherian, then apply the proposition above to the case where $R = \hat{R}$ and $M = \hat{R}$. □