

M4P55 Commutative Algebra

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0 Introduction

Why study commutative algebra? Number theory and algebraic geometry use this language. Structure of the course is

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- rings, ideals, zero divisors, nilpotents, etc,
- prime and maximal ideals,
- radicals of ideals, nilradicals and the Jacobson radicals,
- localisation,
- modules, Nakayama's lemma,
- Noetherian and Artinian rings,
- primary decomposition, and
- valuation rings and discrete valuation rings.

The following are references.

1. M Reid, Undergraduate commutative algebra, 1995
2. M Atiyah and I G Macdonald, Introduction to commutative algebra, 1969

1 Rings and ideals

Definition 1.1. A commutative **ring** with 1 is a set A with two operations $+$ and \cdot , and two elements 0 and 1 such that the following holds.

1. $(A, +)$ is a group with zero 0.
2. Multiplication is
 - (a) associative $((xy)z = x(yz)$ for all $x, y, z \in A$),
 - (b) commutative $(xy = yx$ for all $x, y \in A$), and
 - (c) distributive over addition $(x(y + z) = xy + xz$ for all $x, y, z \in A$).
3. $x \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot x = x$ for all $x \in A$.

Example. \mathbb{Z} is a ring. The set of even integers $2\mathbb{Z}$ is not a ring because it does not contain 1.

Remark 1.2. Can it happen that $0 = 1$? $x \cdot 0 = x \cdot (0 + 0) = x \cdot 0 + x \cdot 0$ gives $x \cdot 0 = 0$. But $x \cdot 1 = x$. Then $x = 0$ for all $x \in A$, so $A = \{0\}$.

Let A be a commutative ring with 1.

Definition 1.3. A **ring homomorphism** $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism of abelian groups such that $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$ for any $x, y \in A$ and $f(1) = 1$.

Proposition 1.4. A composition of homomorphisms is a homomorphism.

An **isomorphism** is a bijective homomorphism. If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is an isomorphism, we write $A \cong B$.

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Definition 1.5. A subset $I \subset A$ is called an **ideal** if I is a subgroup of $(A, +)$ and $AI = I$. Equivalently, for any $a \in A$ and any $x \in I$ we have $ax \in I$. The **quotient ring** A/I is the quotient group $\{a + I \mid a \in A\}$, which is actually a ring by $(a + I)(b + I) = ab + I$. $1 + I$ is the 1 in A/I . $f : A \rightarrow A/I$ such that $f(a) = a + I$ is a surjective ring homomorphism. An ideal $I \subset A$ is **principal** if there is $r \in A$ such that $I = rA$.

Proposition 1.6. There is a natural bijection between the ideals of A that contain a fixed ideal I and the ideals of A/I .

Proof. Suppose $J \subset A$ is an ideal containing I . Then associate to J its image $f(J) \subset A/I$. To check this, note that since $f : A \rightarrow A/I$ is surjective, for any $x \in A/I$ there is a $y \in A$ such that $f(y) = x$. Hence $xf(J) = f(y)f(J) = f(yJ) \subset f(J)$. Conversely, take an ideal $M \subset A/I$ and associate to it $f^{-1}(M) \subset A$. This is an ideal in A . To check that for all $a \in A$ we have $af^{-1}(M) \subset f^{-1}(M)$, we note that this is equivalent to $f(a)M \subset M$, which is true. These maps are inverses to each other. \square

Definition 1.7. Let $g : A \rightarrow B$ be a homomorphism of rings. The **image** is the subset $Im(g) = \{x \in B \mid \exists y \in A, g(y) = x\}$. The **kernel** is the subset $Ker(g) = \{y \in A \mid g(y) = 0\}$.

The image is a subring of $(B, +)$ but not necessarily an ideal, but the kernel is.

Example. Let $g : \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. $2\mathbb{Z}$ is an ideal in \mathbb{Z} , but not in \mathbb{Q} .

An isomorphism theorem states that $A/Ker(g) \cong Im(g) = g(A)$ by $a \mapsto a + Ker(g)$.

2 Polynomial rings

Let R be a ring. Define $R[X]$ as the ring of polynomials $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i$ with coefficients $a_i \in R$ and

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^k a_i X^i \right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^m b_j X^j \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \left(\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j \right) X^k.$$

Define $R[X_1, X_2]$ to be the ring $R[X_1][X_2]$. In general, $R[X_1, \dots, X_n] = R[X_1] \dots [X_n]$.

3 Zero-divisors, nilpotents, units

Definition 3.1. A **zero-divisor** in A is an element $x \in A$ such that there exists $y \in A$, $y \neq 0$, with the property that $xy = 0$. A ring with no non-zero zero-divisors is called an **integral domain**. A **nilpotent** is an element $x \in A$ such that $x^n = 0$ for some $n \geq 1$. A **unit** $a \in A$ is an element such that there exists $b \in A$ with the property that $ab = 1$. Such elements are also called **invertible**. b is denoted by a^{-1} . The units form a group under multiplication, denoted by A^* .

Example. In $A = \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{1, -1\}$ and \mathbb{Z} is an integral domain. In $A = \mathbb{Z}/4 = \{4\mathbb{Z}, 1 + 4\mathbb{Z}, 2 + 4\mathbb{Z}, 3 + 4\mathbb{Z}\}$, $2 + 4\mathbb{Z}$ is a zero-divisor in $\mathbb{Z}/4$ that is also nilpotent.

Definition 3.2. A **field** is a ring in which $0 \neq 1$ and every non-zero element is a unit. So if k is a field, then $k \setminus \{0\} = k^*$.

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Proposition 3.3. Let A be a non-zero ring. Then the following are equivalent.

1. A is a field.
2. The only ideals in A are $(0) = \{0\}$ and $(1) = A$.
3. Every homomorphism $A \rightarrow B$, where $B \neq 0$, is injective.

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 Let $I \subset A$ be a non-zero ideal. Then there exists $x \in I$, $x \neq 0$. Then x is a unit, i.e. there exists $y \in A$ such that $xy = 1$. For all $a \in A$, $a = a.1 = a.y.x \in (x)$. Thus $I = A$.
- 2 \implies 3 Let $f : A \rightarrow B$. $\text{Ker}(f)$ is an ideal of A . If $\text{Ker}(f) \neq \{0\}$, then $\text{Ker}(f) = A$. But then $1 \in \text{Ker}(f)$ and $f(1) = 0$ but $f(1) = 1$ so in B we have that $0 = 1$. Then $B = \{0\}$, which is a contradiction.
- 3 \implies 1 Let $x \in A$, $x \neq 0$. If $1 \in (x) = xA$, then x is a unit. If $1 \notin (x)$, then x is not a unit. If $1 \notin (x)$, then consider the map $A \rightarrow A/(x)$ sending $a \mapsto a + (x)$. Since $1 \notin (x)$, $1 + (x)$ is not zero in $A/(x)$. So this is a non-injective homomorphism to a non-zero ring. This contradicts 3.

□

4 Prime ideals and maximal ideals

Definition 4.1. An ideal $P \subset A$ is a **prime ideal** if for any $x, y \in A$, $xy \in P$ implies $x \in P$ or $y \in P$. An ideal $M \subset A$ is called **maximal** if there does not exist an ideal I in A such that $M \subsetneq I \subsetneq A$.

Lemma 4.2. An ideal $P \subset A$ is prime if and only if A/P is an integral domain. An ideal $M \subset A$ is maximal if and only if A/M is a field.

Proof. Let $x, y \in A$ such that $xy \in P$. Then $(x + P)(y + P) = xy + P = P$. If $x \notin P$ and $y \notin P$, then $x + P \neq P$ and $y + P \neq P$. These are zero-divisors in A/P . Conversely, if A/P is not an integral domain, then it has zero-divisors. So there exist $x, y \in A$ such that $(x + P)(y + P) = P$. This implies $xy \in P$. Since P is prime, $x \in P$ or $y \in P$. So one of $x + P$ and $y + P$ is zero in A/P . Recall that there is a bijection between the ideals in A containing M with the ideals in A/M . Thus $M \subset A$ is maximal if and only if the only ideals in A/M are (0) and (1) , if and only if A/M is a field. \square

Remark 4.3. Every field is an integral domain, hence every maximal ideal is prime. The converse is false. Take any integral domain which is not a field, such as \mathbb{Z} . Then $(0) \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a prime ideal which is not a maximal ideal.

Proposition 4.4. If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism of rings, and $P \subset B$ is a prime ideal, then $f^{-1}(P)$ is a prime ideal in A .

Proof. Assume that for some $x, y \in A$ we have $xy \in f^{-1}(P)$. Then $f(xy) = f(x)f(y) \in P$. Then $f(x) \in P$ or $f(y) \in P$. Then $x \in f^{-1}(P)$ or $y \in f^{-1}(P)$. \square

Remark 4.5. This does not hold for maximal ideals. Let $f : \mathbb{Z} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Q}$. $f^{-1}((0)) = (0)$, but (0) is maximal in \mathbb{Q} and not maximal in \mathbb{Z} . But if $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a surjective homomorphism of rings, then f^{-1} sends maximal ideals of B to maximal ideals of A . (Exercise)

Theorem 4.6. Every non-zero ring contains at least one maximal ideal.

We need Zorn's lemma, which belongs to set theory. A **partially ordered set** or **poset** is a set S equipped with a **partial order**. By definition it is a reflexive, transitive, antisymmetric binary relation \leq ,

$$x \leq x, \quad x \leq y, y \leq z \implies x \leq z, \quad x \leq y, y \leq x \implies x = y.$$

We don't require that for arbitrary x and y in S , we have either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. A subset $T \subset S$ is called a **chain** if for any $x \in T$, $y \in T$ we have $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. An **upper bound** for a subset $T \subset S$ is an element $x \in S$ such that for any $t \in T$ we have $t \leq x$. A **maximal element** in S is an element $x \in S$ such that if $y \in S$ and $y \geq x$, then $y = x$.

Theorem 4.7 (Zorn's lemma). If S is a non-empty partially ordered set such that every chain in S has an upper bound in S , then S contains a maximal element.

Proof of Theorem 4.6. Let A be a non-zero ring. To apply Zorn's lemma it is enough to show that every growing chain of ideals $I_1 \subset I_2 \subset \dots$, such that $1 \notin I_i$ for all i , has an upper bound which is an ideal not equal to A , so not containing 1. Then Zorn's lemma applied to the set of ideals of A not containing 1 and ordered by inclusion, implies the existence of a maximal ideal. So we have a chain I_j , where j is an element of a set J . Consider $I = \bigcup_{j \in J} I_j$. Claim that I is an ideal in A and $1 \notin I$.

1. $1 \notin I$ is clear. Because otherwise $1 \in I$ gives $1 \in I_j$ for $j \in J$, but it is a contradiction.
2. For any $a \in A$ we have $aI \subset I$, so for all $x \in I$, $ax \in I$. But then $x \in I_j$ for some j . Then $ax \in I_j \subset I$.
3. Suppose $x, y \in I$. Must show $x + y \in I$. There exists $j_1 \in J$ such that $x \in I_{j_1}$. Similarly, there exists $j_2 \in J$ such that $y \in I_{j_2}$. Recall that I_j for $j \in J$ is a chain. Hence either $j_1 \leq j_2$ or $j_2 \leq j_1$. This means that either $I_{j_1} \subset I_{j_2}$ or $I_{j_2} \subset I_{j_1}$. Without loss of generality assume that $I_{j_1} \subset I_{j_2}$. Then $x, y \in I_{j_2}$. Hence $x + y \in I_{j_2}$, hence $x + y \in I$. This proves that I is an ideal not containing 1.

\square

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Definition 4.8. A ring with a unique maximal ideal is called a **local ring**.

Corollary 4.9. Let I be an ideal of A and $I \neq A$. Then I is contained in a maximal ideal of A .

Proof. There is a bijection between the ideals of A containing I and the ideals in A/I . If $I \subset J \subset A$, then $J \mapsto J/I$. J/I is an ideal in A/I . By Theorem 4.6, A/I contains a maximal ideal, say $M \subset A/I$. Let $f : A \rightarrow A/I$ be the map sending $x \mapsto x + I$. Consider $f^{-1}(M) \subset A$. This is an ideal in A . In general, if $I \subset J \subset A$ are ideals, then f induces an isomorphism of rings $A/J \rightarrow (A/I)/(J/I)$. For additive groups, this is one of the standard isomorphisms theorems, but this respects multiplication, so is an isomorphism of rings. Now, we know that M maximal in A/I implies that (A/I) is a field. This ring is isomorphic to $A/f^{-1}(M)$. Hence $A/f^{-1}(M)$ is also a field. Therefore, $f^{-1}(M)$ is maximal in A . \square

Corollary 4.10. Every non-unit is contained in a maximal ideal.

Proof. If $x \in A$ is a non-unit, consider (x) . $1 \notin (x)$, otherwise x is a unit. By Corollary 4.9 (x) is contained in a maximal ideal of A . \square

Example.

1. Every field is a local ring. In this case (0) is a maximal ideal.
2. Let k be a field. Consider the ring of formal power series $k[[t]] = \{a_0 + a_1t + \dots \mid a_i \in k\}$, such that

$$\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i t^i\right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j t^j\right) = a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0)t + \dots$$

Then the principal ideal (t) is a maximal ideal. Indeed, $k[[t]]/(t) \cong k$ is a field. (Exercise: $k[[t]] \setminus (t) = k[[t]]^*$)

3. $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \{a/b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0, p \nmid b\}$. (Exercise: (p) is a maximal ideal and there are no other maximal ideals)

If A is a local ring with maximal ideal M , then A/M is called the **residue field** of A .

Lemma 4.11 (Prime avoidance). Let A be a ring and $P \subset A$ be a prime ideal. Suppose that I_1, \dots, I_n are ideals in A such that $\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i \subset P$. Then there exists j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, such that $I_j \subset P$. If $\bigcap_{i=1}^n I_i = P$, then there exists j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, such that $I_j = P$.

Proof. Suppose our claim is false. Then there exists $a_j \in I_j$ such that $a_j \notin P$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$. Then $a_1 \dots a_n \in \bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j \subset P$. $(a_1 \dots a_{n-1})a_n \in P$ gives $a_1 \dots a_{n-1} \in P$ or $a_n \in P$. But $a_n \notin P$, so $a_1 \dots a_{n-2} \in P$, a contradiction. The second statement follows. We know that $I_k \subset P$ for some k , $1 \leq k \leq n$, but $P = \bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j \subset I_k$. Hence $P = I_k$. \square

5 Nilradical and the Jacobson radical

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Proposition 5.1. *Let A be a ring. The set $N(A)$ of all nilpotent elements of A is an ideal in A . It is called the **nilradical** of A . The quotient ring $A/N(A)$ has no non-zero nilpotents.*

Proof. Clearly, if $x^n = 0$ and $y^n = 0$, then $(xy)^n = 0$, if $n \geq m$. $(x+y)^{n+m}$ is the sum with coefficients of monomials in which either the power of x is $\geq n$ or the power of y is $\geq m$. So this is zero. Let $a \in A$. Then $(ax)^n = 0$. Therefore, $N(A)$ is an ideal. Now let $t + N(A)$ for $t \in A$ be a nilpotent element in $A/N(A)$. For some k we have $t^k + N(A)$ is the trivial coset, that is $t^k \in N(A)$. Thus $(t^k)^l = 0$ for some $l > 0$. Hence $t \in N(A)$, so $t + N(A)$ is the zero element of $A/N(A)$. \square

Proposition 5.2. *The nilradical $N(A)$ is the intersection of all prime ideals of A .*

Proof.

$\subset N(A) \subset \bigcap_{P \subset A} P$, where P is a prime ideal of A . Take $x \in A$, $x^n = 0$. Take a prime ideal $P \subset A$. We have that $P \ni x^n = x \dots x$ gives $x \in P$.

\supset Now let $f \in A$ be a non-nilpotent element, that is $0 \notin \{f^i \mid i \geq 1\}$. Let Σ be the set of ideals of A that do not intersect $\{f^i \mid i \geq 1\}$. Σ contains the zero ideal (0) , so $\Sigma \neq \emptyset$. Order the elements of Σ by inclusion. Every chain in Σ has an upper bound. If I_j for $j \in J$ is a chain, then $\bigcup_{j \in J} I_j$ is an ideal of A . Moreover, if $f^k \in \bigcup_{j \in J} I_j$, then $f^k \in I_{j_0}$ for some $j_0 \in J$, but this is impossible. By Zorn's Lemma, we know that Σ has a maximal element. Call it P . Claim that P is a prime ideal. To prove this, assume that $x, y \in A$ such that $x, y \notin P$. We must show that $xy \notin P$. Consider $P + (x)$, all elements of the form $\alpha + rx$, where $\alpha \in P$ and $r \in A$. $x \notin P$ gives $P \neq P + (x)$. By construction, P is maximal in Σ , hence $P + \sigma$ is not in Σ , that is there exists $n \geq 1$ such that $f^n \in P + (x)$. Similarly, there exists m such that $f^m \in P + (y)$. Therefore, f^{n+m} belongs to $P + (xy)$. If $xy \in P$, then $P + (xy) = P$ but then $f^{n+m} \in P$, which is absurd because $P \in \Sigma$. Thus $xy \notin P$. This shows that P is a prime ideal and $f \notin P$. \square

What happens if we consider the intersection of all maximal ideals of A . This intersection is called the **Jacobson radical** of A . It is denoted by $J(A)$.

Proposition 5.3. *$x \in J(A)$ if and only if $1 - xy$ is a unit in A for all $y \in A$.*

Proof. Suppose that $x \in J(A)$, that is x is contained in every maximal ideal of A , but $1 - xy$ is not a unit for some $y \in A$. By Corollary 4.10 every non-unit is contained in some maximal ideal, so there exists a maximal ideal $M \subset A$ such that $1 - xy \in M$. Since $x \in M$ we conclude that $1 \in M$, which is impossible. Conversely, suppose $x \notin J(A)$, that is $x \notin M$ for some maximal ideal $M \subset A$. Consider the sum of two ideals $M + (x)$. This is an ideal in A , such that $M \subsetneq M + (x)$. Since M is maximal, we have $M + (x) = A$. Therefore $1 = m + xy$, where $m \in M$ and $y \in A$. Now $1 - xy = m \in M$ cannot be a unit. \square

Let $I \subset A$ be an ideal. The **radical** $\text{rad}(I)$ or $r(I)$ or \sqrt{I} is defined as $\{x \in A \mid \exists n \geq 1, x^n \in I\}$.

Proposition 5.4. *$r(I)$ is the intersection of all prime ideals of A that contain I .*

Proof. Use the bijection between ideals containing I and the ideals in A/I . \square

Definition 5.5. Let J be an index set. Suppose we have a ring R_j for $j \in J$. $\prod_{j \in J} R_j$ has a natural structure of a ring. 0 in $\prod_{j \in J} R_j$ is $(0, \dots, 0)$ and 1 in $\prod_{j \in J} R_j$ is defined as $(1, \dots, 1)$, and

$$(r_j)_{j \in J} + (r'_j)_{j \in J} = (r_j + r'_j)_{j \in J}, \quad (r_j)_{j \in J} \cdot (r'_j)_{j \in J} = (r_j \cdot r'_j)_{j \in J}.$$

$\prod_{j \in J} R_j$ is called the **product of rings** R_j for $j \in J$. If R is a ring equipped with homomorphisms $f_j : R \rightarrow R_j$ for each $j \in J$, then $(f_j) : R \rightarrow \prod_{j \in J} R_j$ is a homomorphism of rings.

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Recall that $N(R) = \bigcap_{P \subset R} P$, where P are prime ideals of R . Consider the product ring $\prod_{P \subset R} R/P$. Putting together the canonical surjective maps $R \rightarrow R/P$ by $x \mapsto x + P$ for all $P \subset R$ we obtain a homomorphism $f : R \rightarrow \prod_{P \subset R} R/P$. $\text{Ker}(f) = \bigcup_{P \subset R} \text{Ker}[R \rightarrow R/P] = \bigcap_{P \subset R} P = N(R)$. Hence we get an injective homomorphism $R/N(R) \rightarrow \prod_{P \subset R} R/P$. Similarly, we get an injective homomorphism $R/J(R) \rightarrow \prod_{M \subset R} R/M$, where M are maximal ideals of R and $J(R)$ is the Jacobson radical of R .

6 Localisation of rings

Localisation refers to introducing denominators.

Example. From $R = \mathbb{Z}$ to $\mathbb{Q} = \{a/b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$.

Definition 6.1. A subset $S \subset A$ is called a **multiplicative set** if $1 \in S$, $0 \notin S$, and if $a, b \in S$, then $ab \in S$, that is S is closed under multiplication.

Example.

1. Take any $a \in A$ which is not nilpotent, that is $a^n = 0$ for $n \geq 1$. Then $\{1, a, a^2, \dots\}$ is a multiplicative set.
2. Let $P \subset A$ be a prime ideal. Then $A \setminus P$ is a multiplicative set. Indeed, $x, y \notin P$ gives $xy \notin P$.
3. Let $P_j \subset A$, for $j \in J$, be a family of prime ideals of A . Then $A \setminus \bigcup_{j \in J} P_j = \bigcap_{j \in J} (A \setminus P_j)$ is a multiplicative set.
4. A^* is a multiplicative set in A .
5. The set of all non-zero-divisors of A is a multiplicative set.
6. Let $I \subset A$ be an ideal. Then $1 + I = \{1 + x \mid x \in I\}$ is a multiplicative set.

Definition 6.2. Let A be a ring with a multiplicative set S . Consider $A \times S$, that is the set of pairs of elements (a, s) , where $a \in A$ and $s \in S$. Define an equivalence relation \sim as follows. $(a, s) \sim (b, t)$ if and only if there exists $u \in S$ such that $u(at - bs) = 0$. Define $S^{-1}A$ to be the set of equivalence classes of \sim . Write the equivalence class of (a, s) as a/s . Define multiplication on $S^{-1}A$ as

$$\frac{a}{s} \cdot \frac{b}{t} = \frac{ab}{st}.$$

Define addition on $S^{-1}A$ as

$$\frac{a}{s} + \frac{b}{t} = \frac{at + bs}{st}.$$

Define 0 in $S^{-1}A$ as $0/1$ and we define 1 in $S^{-1}A$ as $1/1$.

- (Exercise: check that if $(a, s) \sim (a', s')$ and $(b, t) \sim (b', t')$, then $(ab, st) \sim (a'b', s't')$)
 (Exercise: check that if $(a, s) \sim (a', s')$ and $(b, t) \sim (b', t')$, then $(at + bs, st) \sim (a't' + b's', s't')$)
 (Exercise: with this definition $S^{-1}A$ is a ring)

Remark 6.3. \sim is indeed an equivalence relation. $(a, s) \sim (a, s)$, $(a, s) \sim (b, t)$ gives $(b, t) \sim (a, s)$. Let us check that if $(a, s) \sim (b, t)$ and $(b, t) \sim (c, r)$, then $(a, s) \sim (c, r)$. There exist $u, v \in S$ such that $u(at - bs) = 0$ and $v(br - ct) = 0$. Then $uv(atr - bsr) = 0$ and $uv(brs - cts) = 0$, so $uvt(ar - bs) = 0$.

Lemma 6.4. Let A be a ring with a multiplicative set S . Then $f : A \rightarrow S^{-1}A$ defined by $f(x) = x/1$ is a homomorphism of rings. $\text{Ker}(f) = 0$ if and only if S contains no zero-divisors.

Proof.

$$f(x + y) = \frac{x + y}{1} = \frac{x}{1} + \frac{y}{1}, \quad f(xy) = \frac{xy}{1} = \frac{x}{1} \cdot \frac{y}{1}.$$

$\text{Ker}(f) = \{x \mid \exists u \in S, ux = 0\}$ since $x/1 = 0/1$ if and only if there exists $u \in S$ such that $u(x \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot 1) = 0$. \square

Example. Let k be a field. Explore what happens when $A = k[x, y]/(xy)$ and $S = \{1, x, \dots\}$. Determine $S^{-1}A$ and $\text{Ker}(f)$.

Lecture 7 is a problem class.

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Lemma 6.5 (Universal property of localisation). *Let A be a ring with a multiplicative set $S \subset A$. Suppose $g : A \rightarrow B$ is a homomorphism such that $g(S) \subset B^*$, that is for all $s \in S$, $g(s)$ is a unit in B . Then there exists a unique homomorphism $h : S^{-1}A \rightarrow B$ such that $g = h \circ f$, where $f : A \rightarrow S^{-1}A$ is the canonical map.*

Proof. Define $h(a/s) = g(a)g(s)^{-1}$ since g invertible. Check that h is well-defined, that is if $a/s = a'/s'$, then $u(as' - a's) = 0$ for $u \in S$. Apply g and get $g(u)(g(a)g(s') - g(a')g(s)) = 0$. $g(u) \in B^*$ and $g(a)g(s') = g(a')g(s)$. Hence $g(a)g(s)^{-1} = g(a')g(s')^{-1}$. Take any $a \in A$. Then $f(a) = a/1$, hence $(h \circ f)(a) = g(a)$. Finally, let us show there is only one homomorphism $h : S^{-1}A \rightarrow B$ such that $g = h \circ f$. Suppose $h' : S^{-1}A \rightarrow B$ is such that $g = h' \circ f$, so that for any $a \in A$ we have $g(a) = h'(a)$. For any $s \in S$, s^{-1} is an element of $S^{-1}A$, and so is s . $1 = s^{-1}s$ gives $1 = h'(1) = h'(s^{-1})h'(s)$. Thus $h'(s^{-1}) = h'(s)^{-1} = g(s)^{-1}$ because h' on the image of A in $S^{-1}A$ is the same as g . Comparing this with the definition of h we see that $h' = h$. \square

Let $I \subset A$ be an ideal. Define $S^{-1}I = \{x/s \mid x \in I, s \in S\}$. This is an ideal in $S^{-1}A$. It is the ideal generated by $f(I) \subset S^{-1}A$.

Proposition 6.6. *Let A be a ring with a multiplicative set S . Let I_1, \dots, I_n be ideals in A . Then*

1. $S^{-1}(I_1 + \dots + I_n) = S^{-1}I_1 + \dots + S^{-1}I_n$,
2. $S^{-1}(I_1 \dots I_n) = S^{-1}I_1 \dots S^{-1}I_n$,
3. $S^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j\right) = \bigcap_{j=1}^n S^{-1}I_j$, and
4. $r(S^{-1}I) = S^{-1}r(I)$, where $r(I)$ is the radical of I .

Proposition 6.7. *Every ideal of $S^{-1}A$ is of the form $S^{-1}I$ for some ideal $I \subset A$.*

Proof. Start with an ideal $J \subset S^{-1}A$. Consider $f^{-1}(J) \subset A$. This is an ideal. Call it I . Claim that $J = S^{-1}I$. Pick any element $a/s \in J$. Then $a \in J$. Since $f(a) = a/1 \in J$ we have that $a \in I$. Therefore, $a/s \in S^{-1}I$. This proves $J \subset S^{-1}I$. But it is clear that $S^{-1}I \subset J$. Indeed, $x \in I$ then $x/1 \in J$. But J is an ideal, hence $x/s \in J$. \square

Theorem 6.8. *The prime ideals in $S^{-1}A$ are the ideals $S^{-1}P$, where P is a prime ideal of A such that $P \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Thus we have a bijection between the set of prime ideals in $S^{-1}A$ and the set of prime ideals in A that do not intersect S .*

Proof. Suppose that P is a prime ideal in A , $P \cap S \neq \emptyset$. Claim that $S^{-1}P$ is a prime ideal in $S^{-1}A$. If $(a/s)(b/t) \in S^{-1}P$, then $(a/s)(b/t) = c/u$, where $c \in P$, $u \in S$. This is equivalent to $v(abu - cst) = 0$ for some $v \in S$. $(ab)(vu) = c \in P$ such that $v \in P$. $vu \in S$ and $S \cap P = \emptyset$, so $vu \notin P$. But $P \subset A$ is a prime ideal, hence $ab \in P$. Thus $a \in P$ gives $a/s \in S^{-1}P$ or $b \in P$ gives $b/t \in S^{-1}P$. This proves $S^{-1}P \subset S^{-1}A$ is prime. For any ideal $J \subset S^{-1}A$, we know that $f^{-1}J$ is an ideal in S . Moreover, if J is prime, then $f^{-1}J \subset A$ is prime. Let us show that $f^{-1}J \cap S = \emptyset$. Otherwise, take $s \in S \cap f^{-1}J$, so $s/1 \in J$. But $1/s \in J^{-1}A$, hence $1 = (1/s)s \in J$, so $J = S^{-1}A$. But J is a prime ideal, so $J \neq S^{-1}A$. To show that $P \mapsto S^{-1}P$ and $J \mapsto f^{-1}J$ are the identity maps, we need to check that $P = f^{-1}(S^{-1}P)$ and $J = S^{-1}f^{-1}(J)$. $S^{-1}P = \{x/s \mid x \in P, s \in S\}$. If $y \in f^{-1}(S^{-1}P) \subset A$ is such that $f(y) = x/s$, then $y/1 = x/s$. Hence $ys = x \in P$. Since $P \cap S = \emptyset$, $s \notin P$. Therefore, $y \in P$. Hence $P = f^{-1}(S^{-1}P)$. Now let us prove that $J = S^{-1}f^{-1}(J)$. But in Proposition 6.7 we showed that there is an ideal $I \subset A$ such that $J = S^{-1}I$. In the proof of Proposition 6.7 we have taken $I = f^{-1}(J)$. So we are done. \square

7 Determinants

Lecture 9
Tuesday
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Lemma 7.1. *Let $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. If f as a function $\mathbb{Z}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is zero, that is f only takes zero values on arbitrary elements of \mathbb{Z}^n , then f is the zero polynomial.*

Proof. Induction in n . If $n = 1$, then $f(x)$ is a polynomial with infinitely many roots. So $f(x)$ is the zero polynomial, so cannot have more than $\deg(f)$ roots. Assume we know the lemma for $n - 1$ variables. Write $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=0}^N f_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) x_n^i$ for $f_j(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}]$. Fix x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} . We get a polynomial in one variable x_n , so this polynomial has zero coefficients. This implies that each $f_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$ takes only zero values. By the induction assumption, each f_i is the zero polynomial. \square

Remark 7.2. This means that if a polynomial formula with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} is true in \mathbb{Z} , this is true in an arbitrary commutative ring.

Example. $(x + y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$ is true in any ring.

The underlying fact is the existence of a canonical map $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow R$ by $1 \mapsto 1$.

Definition 7.3. Let R be a commutative ring. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be a square matrix for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$, with entries in R . Then $\det(A)$ is defined as $(-1)^{i+1} a_{i1} M_{i1} + \dots (-1)^{i+n} a_{in} M_{in}$ for i fixed. Here M_{ij} is the determinant of the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ submatrix of A obtained by removing the i -th row and the j -th column.

Proposition 7.4. $\det(A) = (-1)^{i+1} a_{i1} M_{i1} + \dots (-1)^{i+n} a_{in} M_{in}$.

Proof. This is known for matrices with entries in \mathbb{C} , so by Remark 7.2 this holds in any commutative ring. \square

Remark 7.5. The official definition is

$$\det(A) = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\pi) a_{1\pi(1)} \dots a_{n\pi(n)},$$

where $\operatorname{sgn} : S_n \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$.

Proposition 7.6. For $i \neq j$,

$$(-1)^{j+1} a_{i1} M_{j1} + \dots + (-1)^{j+n} a_{in} M_{jn} = 0,$$

$$(-1)^{j+1} a_{1i} M_{1j} + \dots + (-1)^{j+n} a_{ni} M_{nj} = 0.$$

Define the **adjacent** matrix as an $n \times n$ matrix $A_{ij}^v = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ji}$. Putting together all the previous identities we get the following.

Theorem 7.7. $A \cdot A^v = A^v \cdot A = \det(A) I_n$.

8 Modules

Lecture 10
Friday
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Definition 8.1. Let A be a ring. A **module** M over A is an abelian group $(M, 0, +)$ with an action \cdot of A on M , that is $A \times M \rightarrow M$ by $a \cdot m = am$, such that the following axioms hold.

1. $1 \cdot m = m$ for all $m \in M$ and $a \in A$.
2. $\mu \cdot (\lambda \cdot m) = (\mu\lambda) \cdot m$ $\lambda, \mu \in A$.
3. $\lambda(x + y) = \lambda x + \lambda y$ for all $\lambda \in A$ and $x, y \in M$.
4. $(\mu + \lambda)x = \mu x + \lambda x$ for all $\mu, \lambda \in A$ and $x \in M$.

Example.

1. $M = A$. More generally, consider an ideal $I \subset A$. A acts on I by $A \times I \rightarrow I$ by $a \cdot x = ax$.
2. If A is a field, then an A -module is the same as a vector space over this field.
3. Take M to be any abelian group. Take $A = \mathbb{Z}$. Define an action of \mathbb{Z} as follows. $1 \cdot m = m$ and $n \cdot m = (1 + \dots + 1) \cdot m = m + \dots + m = nm$. $0 = n + (-n) \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $0 = (n + (-n)) \cdot m = nm + (-n)m$. Hence $(-n) \cdot m = -(n \cdot m) = -(m + \dots + m)$. So, there is exactly one way to equip any abelian group with the structure of a \mathbb{Z} -module.
4. Let k be a field and let $A = k[x]$. A $k[x]$ -module is a vector space over k with extra structure $x \times M \rightarrow M$. This is a linear transformation of M . It can be arbitrary. Thus a $k[x]$ -module is a pair (M, f) , where M is a k -vector space and $f : M \rightarrow M$ is linear transformation of M .

Definition 8.2. Let M and N be A -modules. A map $f : M \rightarrow N$ is called a **homomorphism of A -modules** if f is a homomorphism of abelian groups and $f(a \cdot m) = af(m)$ for any $a \in A$ and $m \in M$. If $f : M \rightarrow N$ and $g : M \rightarrow N$ are homomorphisms of A -modules, then so is $f + g$, so we get $\text{Hom}_A(M, N)$, a group of such homomorphisms. This is also an A -module via the action $(a, f(a)) \mapsto a \cdot f(a)$.

Definition 8.3. A **submodule** $N \subset M$ is a subgroup, stable under the action of A . Then M/N is naturally an A -module with A -action inherited from M . Define $(N : M) = \{a \in A \mid raM \subset rN \subset N\}$. This is an ideal in A . In particular, can do this when $N = 0$. Note $\text{Ann}(M) = (0 : M) = \{a \in A \mid aM = 0\}$. This is called the **annihilator** of M .

Definition 8.4. If $f : M \rightarrow N$ is a homomorphism of A -modules, then $\text{Ker}(f)$ is an A -module and $\text{Im}(f) \cong M/\text{Ker}(f)$ is an isomorphism of A -modules.

Definition 8.5. An A -module M is **finitely generated** if there exist m_1, \dots, m_n in M such that $M = \{a_1 m_1 + \dots + a_n m_n \mid a_i \in A\}$.

Example. A **free** A -module of rank n is the set $A^n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A\}$ with coordinate-wise addition. $a \in A$ acts on (a_1, \dots, a_n) by sending it to (aa_1, \dots, aa_n) . If $f(1, 0, \dots, 0) = m_1$, $f : A^n \rightarrow M$ is an example of an A -module homomorphism.

Lemma 8.6. Let A be a ring. Let M be a finitely generated A -module and let $A \subset A$ be an ideal such that $JM = M$, that is sums of xm , where $x \in J$ and $m \in M$, give all of M . Then there exists $a \in J$ such that $(1 - a)M = 0$.

Proof. Let m_1, \dots, m_n be a set of generators of M . $m_i \in M = JM$, so $m_i = x_{i1}m_1 + \dots + x_{in}m_n$, where $x_{ij} \in J$. Let $X = (x_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$, so

$$(I_n - X) \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ \vdots \\ m_n \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

Let $(I_n - X)^v$ be the adjunct matrix of $I_n - X$. Then $(I_n - X)^v (I_n - X) = \det(I_n - X) I_n$. Hence

$$\det(I_n - X) \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \\ \vdots \\ m_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\det(I_n - X) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - x_{ii}) + J \equiv 1 \pmod{J}$. So $\det(I_n - X) = 1 - a$, where $a \in J$. $(1 - a)m_i = 0$ for all i gives $(1 - a)M = 0$. \square

Corollary 8.7 (Nakayama's lemma). *Let A be a ring and let M be an A -module, which is finitely generated. Let $I \subset A$ be an ideal contained in the Jacobson radical $J(A)$. Then $IM = M$ implies $M = 0$.*

Proof. Lemma 8.6 gives an $a \in I$ such that $(1 - a)M = 0$. But $a \in J(A)$. By Proposition 5.3 $1 - a \in A^*$ so that there exists $u \in A^*$ such that $u(1 - a) = 1$, so $M = 1 \cdot M = u(1 - a) \cdot M = 0$. \square

Another proof considers $M = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$. Let us call a generating set minimal, if no proper set is a generating set. Assume that m_1, \dots, m_n is a minimal generating set. $IM = M$ implies that $m_1 = a_1 m_1 + \dots + a_n m_n$, where $a_i \in I$. $(1 - a_1)m_1 = a_2 m_2 + \dots + a_n m_n$. Proposition 5.3 says that $1 - a_1 \in A^*$. Hence $m_1 = (1 - a_1)^{-1} a_2 m_2 + \dots + (1 - a_1)^{-1} a_n m_n$. This is a contradiction, because m_2, \dots, m_n is a generating set.

Lecture 11
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9 Localisation of modules

Definition 9.1. Let A be a ring with a multiplicative set S , and let M be an A -module. Define \sim on $M \times S$ by $(m, s) \sim (n, t)$ if and only if there exists $u \in S$ such that $u(tm - sn) = 0$. This is an equivalence relation. Denote the equivalence class of (m, s) by m/s . Then the set of these equivalence classes form a module denoted by $S^{-1}M$ over $S^{-1}A$. The action of $S^{-1}A$ on $S^{-1}M$ is $(a/s)(m/t) = (am/st)$. $m/s + n/t = (mt + ns)/st$. The zero in $S^{-1}M$ is $0/1$.

Definition 9.2. Let A be a ring and let $P \subset A$ be a prime ideal. Then $S = A \setminus P$ is a multiplicative set. The ring $S^{-1}A$ is denoted A_P . It is called the localisation of A at P . Recall that by Theorem 6.8 the prime ideals of A_P are of the form $S^{-1}I$, where $I \subset A$ is a prime ideal such that $I \cap (A \setminus P) = \emptyset$, if and only if $I \subset P$.

Theorem 9.3. Let A be a ring with a prime ideal P . Then $a \in A_P$ is a unit if and only if $a \notin PA_P = S^{-1}P = (A \setminus P)^{-1}P$. The ideal PA_P is the unique maximal ideal of A_P . So A_P is a local ring.

Proof. Suppose $a/s \in A_P$ is a unit. Then for some $b/t \in A_P$ we have $(a/s)(b/t) = 1$. $ab/st - 1/1 = 0$ if and only if there exists $u \in S$ such that $u(ab - st) = 0$. $uab = ust \in S = A \setminus P$. Hence $a \notin P$, so that $a/s \notin PA_P$. Conversely, if $a/s \notin PA_P$, then $a \notin P$ and $s \in S$ gives $a \in S = A \setminus P$. So a/s is a unit whose inverse is s/a . PA_P is a maximal ideal, because joining any new element will be the whole ring, as this element must be a unit. \square

Example. $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \{a/b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, (p, b) = 1\}$ and

$$p\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, p \mid a, (p, b) = 1 \right\}, \quad \mathbb{Z}_{(p)}^* = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, p \nmid a, (p, b) = 1 \right\}.$$

Do the same for $A = k[x]$ and $P = (f(x))$, where $f(x)$ is irreducible.

Proposition 9.4. Let M be an A -module. Then $M = 0$ if and only if $M_P = 0$ for all maximal ideals $P \subset A$.

Proof. Suppose $M \neq 0$. Choose $x \in M$, $x \neq 0$. Define $I = \text{Ann}(x) = \{a \in A \mid ax = 0\}$. This is an ideal in A , and $I \neq A$ because $1 \cdot x = x$, so $1 \notin I$. Let P be a maximal ideal such that $I \subset P$. Claim that $M_P \neq 0$. Consider $x/1 \in M_P$. If $M_P = 0$, then $x/0 = 0/1$, so $ux = 0$ for some $u \in A \setminus P$. $u \in I = \text{Ann}(x)$ but $u \notin P$. This is a contradiction because $I \subset P$. \square

10 Chain conditions: Noetherian and Artinian rings

Lecture 12
Tuesday
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Lemma 10.1. *Let Σ be a partially ordered set. Then the following properties are equivalent.*

1. *Every non-empty subset of Σ has a maximal element.*
2. *Every ascending chain $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots$ is stationary, that is there exists n such that for any $m \geq 0$ we have $x_{n+m} = x_n$.*

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 Any ascending chain has a maximal element, say x_n . Hence $x_{m+n} = x_n$, for all $m \geq 0$.
- 2 \implies 1 Suppose $S \subset \Sigma$ does not have a maximal element. Choose $x_1 \in S$. There exists $x_2 \in S$ such that $x_2 > x_1$. If $x_1 < \dots < x_2$ are chosen, then since x_n is not a maximal element, we can choose $x_{n+1} > x_n$. This constructs an ascending chain that is not stationary. □

Definition 10.2. A ring A is called **Noetherian** if every ascending chain of ideals in A is stationary. An A -module M is Noetherian if every chain of submodules of M is stationary. In particular, a ring A is Noetherian if it is a Noetherian module over A . A ring A is called **Artinian** if every descending chain of ideals is stationary. An A -module M is Artinian if every descending chain of submodules is stationary.

Example. Let $\mathbb{Z} \supset (n)$ is Noetherian. $(a) \subset (b)$ if and only if b divides a . $(15) \subsetneq (5) \subsetneq (1) = \mathbb{Z}$. But $(2) \supsetneq (4) \supsetneq \dots \supsetneq (2^n) \supsetneq \dots$ is an infinite descending chain of ideals so \mathbb{Z} is not Artinian. If A is a finite ring, then it is trivially both Noetherian and Artinian.

Proposition 10.3. *Let A be a ring and let M be an A -module. Then M is Noetherian if and only if every submodule of M is finitely generated.*

Proof. Suppose M is Noetherian, but $N \subset M$ is a submodule that is not finitely generated. Then take $x_1 \in N$. Since $N \neq (x_1)$, the submodule generated by x_1 , we can find $x_2 \in N \setminus (x_1)$. This gives $(x_1) \subsetneq (x_1, x_2)$ and so on. This produces an ascending chain which is not stationary, a contradiction. Now suppose that every submodule of M is f.g. Consider any ascending chain $M_1 \subset M_2 \subset \dots$. Let $N = \bigcup_{i \geq 1} M_i$. This is a submodule of M . By assumption $N = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for some $x_i \in N$. For each x_i there is an M_j in our chain such that $x_i \in M_j$. So there will be some M_l that contains x_1, \dots, x_n . Then $N = M_l$. And clearly for any $m \geq 0$ we have $M_l \subset M_{l+m} \subset N = M_l$, so $M_{l+m} = M_l$. So M is Noetherian. □

Remark 10.4. Applying this to the A -module A we see that A is Noetherian if and only if every ideal is finitely generated. Hence every principal ideal domain is Noetherian.

Example. \mathbb{Z} , $k[x]$, $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$. Hilbert's basis theorem says that if R is Noetherian, then $R[x]$ is also Noetherian.

Proposition 10.5. *Let A be a ring. Let M be an A -module and $N \subset M$ a submodule. Then M is Noetherian if and only if N and M/N are both Noetherian A -modules.*

Proof. Suppose M is Noetherian. Then clearly N is Noetherian. M/N is Noetherian too. Indeed, let L be a submodule of M/N . Let T be the inverse image of L in M . Then we have a surjective homomorphism of A -modules $T \rightarrow L$. Since T is finitely generated, so that $T = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for some $x_i \in T$. Then the images of x_1, \dots, x_n generate L . Now assume N and M/N are Noetherian. This can also be proved using ascending chains. Take any ascending chain $M_1 \subset M_2 \subset \dots$. Then $N \cap M_1 \subset N \cap M_2 \subset \dots$ is an ascending chain of submodules of N . Let $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that for all $i \geq 0$, $N \cap M_{n_1+i} = N \cap M_{n_1}$. Consider $(M_i + N)/N \subset M/N$. This is just the set of cosets $x + N$, where $x \in M_i$. In fact $(M_i + N)/N \cong M_i/M \cap N$. We obtain an ascending chain $(M_1 + N)/N \subset (M_2 + N)/N \subset \dots \subset (M_{n_2} + N)/N = (M_{n_1} + N)/N = \dots$. Take $n = \max\{n_1, n_2\}$. It works, that is $M_n = M_{n+1} = \dots$. Indeed, take any $x \in M_{n+i}$ for $i \geq 0$. Then there exists $y \in M_n$ such that $x + N = y + N$. Thus $x - y \in N \cap M_{n+i}$. But this is $N \cap M_n$. So there exists $z \in N \cap M_n$ such that $x - y = z$. Hence $x = y + z \in M_n$. □

Lecture 13 is a problem class.

(Exercise: do the same in the Artinian case)

Corollary 10.6. *Let A be a Noetherian or Artinian ring. Let M be a finitely generated A -module. Then M is Noetherian or Artinian.*

Proof. Let $M = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$ for $m_i \in M$, so

$$M = \{a_1 m_1 + \dots + a_n m_n \mid a_i \in A\}.$$

Let $A^{\oplus n} = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A\}$ be a free A -module of rank n . There is a homomorphism of A -modules $A^{\oplus n} \rightarrow M$ sending (a_1, \dots, a_n) to $a_1 m_1 + \dots + a_n m_n$. It is surjective. By Proposition 10.5 it is enough to show that $A^{\oplus n}$ is Noetherian. Prove by induction in n . Clearly, A is Noetherian. $A^{\oplus(n-1)} \subset A^{\oplus n}$. The quotient $A^{\oplus n}/A^{\oplus(n-1)} \cong A$ by $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mapsto a_n$. By Proposition 10.5 $A^{\oplus(n-1)}$ and A Noetherian implies that $A^{\oplus n}$ is Noetherian too. \square

Corollary 10.7. *Let A be a ring and let M be an A -module. Suppose that we have $0 = M_0 \subset \dots \subset M_n = M$ are A -submodules of M . Then M is Noetherian or Artinian if and only if each quotient M_{i+1}/M_i is Noetherian or Artinian.*

Proof. Use Proposition 10.5. \square

Lemma 10.8. *Let A be a Noetherian ring. Let $S \subset A$ be a multiplicative set. Then $S^{-1}A$ is Noetherian.*

Proof. Consider a non-empty set Σ of ideals of $S^{-1}A$. There is a canonical homomorphism of rings $f : A \rightarrow S^{-1}A$ by $f(a) = a/1$. If I is an ideal of $S^{-1}A$, then $f^{-1}(I)$ is an ideal in A . Then $I = S^{-1}f^{-1}(I)$. Now Σ gives a non-empty set of ideals of A under $I \mapsto f^{-1}(I)$. Let J be a maximal element of this set. Then $S^{-1}J$ is a maximal element of Σ . Hence $S^{-1}A$ is Noetherian. \square

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11 Primary decomposition

Definition 11.1. An ideal Q in a ring R not equal to R , that is a proper ideal, is called **primary** if all $x, y \in R$ such that $xy \in Q$ we have $x \in Q$ or $y^n \in Q$ for some n . Equivalently, $I \subsetneq R$ is called primary if every zero-divisor in R/I is nilpotent.

Example. Let p be a prime number. Then (p^m) for $m \geq 1$ is a primary ideal in \mathbb{Z} . $ab \in (p^m)$ if and only if $p^m \mid ab$. Consider a . If $p \nmid a$, then $p^m \nmid b$, hence $b \in (p^m)$. Otherwise $p \mid a$, then $p^m \mid a^m$, so $a^m \in (p^m)$.

Lecture 15 is a test.

Example. $(f(x)^n) \subset k[x]$ for $f(x)$ irreducible is primary.

Example. Let $R = k[x, y]$ and $I = (x^3, y^5, xy)$. Claim that I is primary. Take any $f(x, y) = f_0 + xg(x, y) + yh(x, y)$. If $f_0 = 0$, since x and y are nilpotent, when considered as elements of R/I , $f(x, y)$ is nilpotent. If $f_0 \neq 0$, $f(x, y)$ is a sum of a unit and a nilpotent, hence a unit. In particular, any zero-divisor in R/I is nilpotent.

Example. Let $R = k[x, y]$ and $I = (xy)$. $xy \in I$, but $x^n \notin I$ for all $n \geq 0$. Hence I is not a primary ideal.

Example. Even simpler, $(6) \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is not a primary ideal.

Proposition 11.2. Let $I \subset R$ be an ideal. If the radical $r(I)$ is a maximal ideal, then I is primary. In particular, any power of a maximal ideal is primary.

Proof. Consider R/I . $r(I)/I$ is the nilradical of the ring R/I , which is the intersection of all prime ideals of R/I . We are given that $r(I)$ is a maximal ideal, so $r(I)/I$ is a maximal ideal of R/I . Hence $r(I)/I$ is the unique prime ideal of R/I . If $x \notin r(I)/I$, then $x \in (R/I)^*$. Indeed, every non-unit is contained in a maximal ideal by Corollary 4.10, but there is only one maximal ideal and x is not in it. If $x \in r(I)/I$, then x is nilpotent. So all zero-divisor of R/I are nilpotent, hence I is a primary ideal of R . Now let $M \subset R$ be a maximal ideal. Then M^n is primary, since $r(M^n) = M$. Indeed, for any $x \in M$ $x^n \in M^n$, so $M \subset r(M^n)$. Since M is maximal we must have $M = r(M^n)$. \square

Example. In the example $I = (x^3, xy, y^5) \supset (x, y)^5$.

Proposition 11.3. Let $I \subset R$ be a primary ideal. Then the radical $r(I)$ is a prime ideal of R . It is the smallest prime ideal of R containing I .

Proof. Let $x, y \in R$ for $xy \in r(I)$. Then there exists n such that $x^n y^n \in I$. If $x^n \in I$, then $x \in r(I)$. Suppose $x^n \notin I$. Since I is primary, there exists m such that $(y^n)^m \in I$. Then $y \in r(I)$. This proves that $r(I)$ is prime. Note that $r(I)$ is the intersection of all prime ideals containing I . Hence if $r(I)$ is a prime ideal, it is the smallest prime ideal containing I . \square

Definition 11.4. Let $P \subset R$ be a prime ideal. An ideal $I \subset R$ is called **P -primary**, if I is a primary ideal such that $r(I) = P$.

Lemma 11.5. Let I_1, \dots, I_n be P -primary ideals in R , where P is a prime ideal. Then $\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j$ is also a P -primary ideal.

Proof. Assume $n = 2$. The general case by induction. $r(I_1) = r(I_2) = P$ and $r(I_1 \cap I_2) = r(I_1) \cap r(I_2)$. Hence $r(I_1 \cap I_2) = P$. Let us show that $I_1 \cap I_2$ is primary. Take $x, y \in R$ such that $xy \in I_1 \cap I_2 \subset I_1$. If $x \notin I_1 \cap I_2$, then, say, $x \in I_1$. We know that $y^n \in I_1$ for some $n \geq 0$. Hence $y \in r(I_1) = P = r(I_1 \cap I_2)$, so that $y^m \in I_1 \cap I_2$. \square

Warning that it is not true in general that if $r(I)$ is prime, then I is primary. True if $r(I)$ is maximal though.

Definition 11.6. Let R be a ring, and let $I \subsetneq R$ be an ideal. Call I **irreducible** if for any two ideals J and K in R such that $I = J \cap K$ we have either $J = I$ or $K = I$. I is **reducible**, that is not irreducible, if $I = J_1 \cap J_2$, where $I \subsetneq J_i$ for $i = 1, 2$.

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Note. $x \in R$, which is not a unit, is irreducible if x is not a product of two non-units.

Proposition 11.7.

1. Any prime ideal is irreducible.
2. If R is Noetherian, then any irreducible ideal is primary.

Proof.

1. Let P be a prime ideal. Suppose $P = I \cap J$. Note that $IJ \subset I \cap J$. By the prime avoidance lemma 4.11 $I \cap J \subset P$ implies that $I \subset P$ or $J \subset P$. Say, $I \subset P = I \cap J \subset I$. Thus $I = P$.
2. Let $I \subset R$ be an irreducible ideal. Go over to R/I . An equivalent statement is given that the zero ideal in a ring is irreducible, that is (0) is not the intersection of two non-zero ideals, show that $xy = 0$, $x \neq 0$ implies $y^n = 0$ for some n . So let $A = R/I$. We work in A , so $x, y \in A$. R Noetherian gives A is Noetherian. Consider $\{\alpha \in A \mid \alpha y = 0\} = \text{Ann}(y) \subset \text{Ann}(y^2) \subset \dots$. These are ideals in A . There is an $n > 0$ such that $\text{Ann}(y^n) = \text{Ann}(y^{n+1})$. We want to show that some $y^k = 0$, that is $(y^k) = (0)$. Claim that can take $k = n$. Let us prove that $0 = (x) \cap (y^n) \neq (0) \cap (y^n)$. By the irreducibility of the zero ideal, this imply $(y^n) = 0$. Suppose that there exists $a \neq 0$, $(a) \in (x) \cap (y^n)$. Then $a = rx$ for some $r \in A$. Then $ay = rxy = 0$. But $a \in (y^n)$, so $a = by^n$ for some $b \in A$. We obtain $by^{n+1} = 0$. In other words, $b \in \text{Ann}(y^{n+1}) = \text{Ann}(y^n)$ so that $by^n = 0$ so $a = 0$. We proved that $y^n = 0$. Therefore, $I \subset R$ is a primary ideal. □

Let R be a ring and let $I \subsetneq R$ be an ideal. A **primary decomposition** of I is an expression of I as an intersection of finitely many primary ideals.

Theorem 11.8 (Noether). *Any proper ideal in a Noetherian ring has a primary decomposition.*

Proof. Let $I \subsetneq R$ be an ideal. We want to prove that I is an intersection of finitely many irreducible ideals using Proposition 11.7. Suppose that this is not true. Look at all the ideals of R that cannot be written as intersections of finitely many irreducible ideals. Since R is Noetherian, this set has a maximal element, say J . By construction, J is not an irreducible ideal of R . Hence J is reducible, so $J = J_1 \cap J_2$, where $J \subsetneq J_1$ and $J \subsetneq J_2$. As J is a maximal element of our set of ideals, J_1 and J_2 are not in this set. Therefore, J_1 and J_2 each can be written as an intersection of finitely many irreducible ideals. Then $J = J_1 \cap J_2$ is also an intersection of finitely many irreducible ideals. This is a contradiction. Thus our set is empty, and so theorem is proved. □

Recall that if I and J are ideals, then $(I : J) = \{r \in R \mid rJ \subset I\}$.

Lemma 11.9. *Let R be a ring with a prime ideal P . Let $I \subset R$ be a P -primary ideal, that is $P = r(I)$. Let $x \in R$. Then*

1. $x \in I$, then $(I : (x)) = R$.
2. $x \notin I$, then $(I : (x))$ is a P -primary ideal.
3. $x \notin P$, then $(I : (x)) = I$.

Proof.

1. Obvious. $x \in I$ gives $1 \cdot x \in I$ so $1 \in (I : (x))$.
2. We want to prove the following.

(a) $r((I : (x))) = P$. Take $y \in (I : (x))$. Then $yx \in I$. We know that I is primary and $x \notin I$. Hence $y^n \in I$ for some $n \geq 1$. Therefore, $y \in r(I) = P$. We proved that $I \subset (I : (x)) \subset P$. This implies $P = r(I) \subset r((I : (x))) \subset r(P) = P$. This shows that $r((I : (x))) = P$. So 1 is proved.

- (b) $(I : (x))$ is primary. We need to show that if $yz \in (I : (x))$, so $y(xz) = xyz \in I$, and $y \notin r((I : (x)))$, so $y^n \notin (I : (x))$ for all n gives $y^n x \notin I$, then we must show $z \in (I : (x))$. But I is primary and $y^n \notin I$ for all n , by definition of primary ideals we must have $xz \in I$. Hence $z \in (I : (x))$. So 2 is proved.

Hence 2 is proved.

3. Let $y \in (I : (x))$. Then $xy \in I$. $x \notin P = r(I)$ hence no power of x is in I . Hence y must be in I .

□

We know that any ideal of a Noetherian ring has a primary decomposition $I = I_1 \cap \cdots \cap I_n$, where each $I_i \subset R$ is primary. Let us call this decomposition **minimal** if $r(I_i)$ are distinct prime ideals for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Indeed, this can be arranged with Lemma 11.5 because $\bigcap_{s=1}^n J_s$, where each J_s is a P -primary ideal, is again a P -primary ideal and we have $I_j \not\supset \bigcap_{l \neq j} I_l$, which can clearly be arranged by removing redundant ideals.

Theorem 11.10 (First uniqueness theorem). *Let $I = \bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j$ be a minimal primary decomposition. Then the prime ideals $r(I_1), \dots, r(I_n)$ are uniquely determined by I , so they do not depend on the choice of a primary decomposition.*

Proof. Consider $(I : (x))$ for $x \in R$. Look at $r((I : (x)))$ and consider the prime ideals of R that can be written as $r((I : (x)))$. Claim that such prime ideals are precisely $r(I_1), \dots, r(I_n)$. $(I : (x)) = \left(\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j : (x) \right) = \bigcap_{j=1}^n (I_j : (x))$. Hence $r((I : (x))) = \bigcap_{j=1}^n r((I_j : (x)))$. Lemma 11.9 gives

1. $x \in I_j$ gives $(I_j : (x)) = R$, so $r((I_j : (x))) = R$, and
2. $x \notin I_j$ gives $(I_j : (x))$ is P_j -primary, so $r((I_j : (x))) = P_j$.

Therefore, $r((I : (x))) = \bigcap_{x \notin I_j} P_j$. If $r((I : (x)))$ is prime, we know by the prime avoidance lemma 4.11 that $r((I : (x))) = P_j$ for some P_j . Conversely, for each j , by minimality of our primary decomposition, there exists $x_j \notin I_j$, but $x_j \in \bigcap_{l \neq j} I_l$. Then $r((I_l : (x_j))) = R$ for $l \neq j$, so $r((I_j : (x_j))) = P_j$. Hence $r((I : (x_j))) = P_j$. □

Lecture 19 is a problem class.

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12 Artinian rings and modules

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Definition 12.1. Let A be a ring and let M be a non-zero A -module. M is **simple** if and only if the only submodules of M are 0 and M . Any A -module M has a **composition series** if it contains submodules $M = M_0 \supset \cdots \supset M_n = 0$ such that the quotients M_i/M_{i+1} are simple A -modules for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$. Any such collection of submodules is called a composition series.

Proposition 12.2. For any A -module M the following are equivalent.

1. M is both Noetherian and Artinian.
2. M has a composition series.

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 Since M is Noetherian, M contains a maximal submodule. Any set of submodules of M has a maximal element. Call it M_1 . Call $M = M_0$. Then M_1/M_0 is simple by the choice of M_1 . Continue, and find $M_2 \subset M_1$ maximal submodule. We construct a decreasing chain of submodules $M = M_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq M_n = 0$ because M is Artinian. So we obtain a composition series.
- 2 \implies 1 Assume M has a composition series $M = M_0 \supsetneq M_n = 0$. Any simple module is Noetherian and Artinian. Corollary 10.7 says that if $L \subset N$ are A -modules such that L and N/L are Artinian, then N is also Artinian. The same for Noetherian. Apply this to M_{n-2}/M_{n-1} , where M_{n-1} is simple. We know that M_{n-2}/M_{n-1} is also simple. Hence M_{n-2} is Noetherian and Artinian. Then apply this to $M_{n-3} \supset M_{n-2}$.

□

Proposition 12.3. If M has a composition series of length n , then any other composition series of M will have length n .

Proof. Let $l(M)$ denote the smallest length of a composition series of M . If M has no composition series, set $l(M) = \infty$.

1. Let $N \subsetneq M$ be a proper submodule. Then $l(N) < l(M)$. Let $n = l(M)$ and suppose that $M = M_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq M_n = 0$ is a composition series. Consider $N_i = N \cap M_i$. $N = N_0 \supset \cdots \supset N_n = 0$. $N_{i+1} = N_i \cap M_{i+1}$. $N_i/N_{i+1} = N_i/(N_i \cap M_{i+1}) = (N_i + M_{i+1})/M_{i+1} \subset M_i/M_{i+1}$, which is a simple module. Hence $N_i/N_{i+1} = 0$ or $N_i/N_{i+1} = M_i/M_{i+1}$. So remove repeated terms in $N = N_0 \supset \cdots \supset N_n = 0$. We obtain a composition series for N . This proves that $l(N) \leq n = l(M)$. Assume that $N \neq M$. Let us show that $l(N) \neq l(M)$. Let us prove that if $l(N) = l(M)$, then $N = M$. We started with a composition series of length $n = l(M)$. If $l(N) = l(M)$, then there were no repetitions in $N = N_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq N_n = 0$. All inclusions here are strict. $N_n = M_n = 0$. $N_{n-1} = N \cap M_{n-1} \neq 0$ is a submodule of M_{n-1} , which is simple. Thus $N_{n-1} = M_{n-1}$. Then $N_{n-2} = N \cap M_{n-2} \neq N_{n-1} = N \cap M_{n-1}$. Therefore, $0 \neq N_{n-2}/N_{n-1} \subset M_{n-2}/M_{n-1}$ is an equality. Hence $N_{n-2} = M_{n-2}$. Continue like this. The final shows that $N_0 = M_0$, that is $N = M$.
2. Let $M = M_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq M_k = 0$ be a composition series. We have $k \geq l(M)$. 1 gives that $l(M) = l(M_0) > \cdots > l(M_k) = 0$. Hence $l(M_{k-1}) \geq 1, \dots, l(M) \geq k$. Hence $k = l(M)$.

□

Definition 12.4. If $l(M) < \infty$, then $l(M)$ is called the **length** of M .

Proposition 12.5. Let M be an A -module and let N be a submodule of M . Then N and M/N have finite length, then M has finite length and $l(M) = l(N) + l(M/N)$.

Proof. Take a composition series of M/N and pull it back to M via the map $M \rightarrow M/N$. $M = M_0 \supsetneq \cdots \supsetneq N \supsetneq \cdots$. Now take a composition series in N and combine it with the M_i 's. □

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Example.

1. Any field is an Artinian ring.
2. A finite dimensional vector space over a field k is an Artinian k -module.
3. Finite rings and finite modules are Artinian.
4. An example of a non-Artinian ring is $k[t]$.

Lemma 12.6. *An Artinian integral domain is a field.*

Proof. Let $x \in A$, $x \neq 0$. Consider $(x) \supset (x^2) \supset \dots$. This is a descending chain of ideals, hence is stationary, that is there exists n such that $(x^n) = (x^{n+k})$ for all $k \geq 0$. In particular, $(x^n) = (x^{n+1})$, hence $x^n = x^{n+1}y$ for some $y \in A$. A is an integral domain, hence $x(x^{n-1} - x^n y) = 0$ for $x \neq 0$ implies $x^{n-1} = x^n y$. Continue and obtain $1 = xy$. Hence $x \in A^*$, so A is a field. \square

Corollary 12.7. *In an Artinian ring any prime ideal is maximal.*

Proof. Let $P \subset A$ be a prime ideal. Then A/P is also an Artinian ring. A/P is an integral domain, hence a field by Lemma 12.6. So P is maximal. \square

Corollary 12.8. *In an Artinian ring the nilradical coincides with the Jacobson radical.*

Lemma 12.9. *Let A be an Artinian ring. Then A has only finitely many maximal ideals.*

Proof. For contradiction suppose we have countably many maximal ideals I_1, I_2, \dots . $I_1 \supset \dots \supset I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n = I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_{n+1} = \dots$. This implies that $I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n \subset I_{n+1}$. Since I_{n+1} is a prime ideal, there is a $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ such that $I_j \subset I_{n+1}$ by the prime avoidance lemma. But I_j is a maximal ideal, hence $I_j = I_{n+1}$, but we assumed that all the I_k 's are pairwise different. Contradiction. \square

Lemma 12.10. *The nilradical of an Artinian ring is nilpotent. In other words, there exist $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ such that $N(A)^n = 0$.*

Proof. $N(A) \supset \dots \supset N(A)^n = N(A)^{n+1} = \dots$. Such an n exists, because A is Artinian. We want to show that $N(A)^n = 0$. Let C be the set of all ideals $I \subset A$ such that $I \cdot N(A)^n \neq 0$. For contradiction we assume $N(A)^n \neq 0$. Then C is not empty, because C contains $N(A)$. Since A is Artinian, any non-empty set of ideals of A has a minimal element, say I . So we have $I \cdot N(A)^n \neq 0$. So there is an $x \in I$ such that $x \cdot N(A)^n \neq 0$. But then $(x) \cdot N(A)^n \neq 0$, so (x) is in C . Since I is minimal and $(x) \subset I$, we must have $(x) = I$. Let us observe that $0 \neq (x) \cdot N(A)^n = (x) \cdot N(A)^n \cdot N(A)^n$. This shows that the ideal $(x) \cdot N(A)^n$ is in C , but $(x) \cdot N(A)^n \subset (x) = I$, which is minimal in C . Therefore, $(x) \cdot N(A)^n = (x) \ni x$. This implies that $x = xy$, where $y \in N(A)^n \subset N(A)$. In particular, y is nilpotent, that is $y^m = 0$ for some m . $x = \dots = xy^m = 0$, so $x = 0$. Hence $I = 0$. This is a contradiction as $I \cdot N(A)^n \neq 0$. Thus $N(A)^n = 0$. \square

Lemma 12.11. *Let k be a field and let V be a vector space over k . The following are equivalent.*

1. V is finite dimensional.
2. V is a Noetherian k -module.
3. V is an Artinian k -module.

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 Trivial.
 2 \implies 3 Use the fact that V has a finite generating set.
 3 \implies 1 Trivial.

\square

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Lemma 12.12. *Let A be a ring. Suppose we have maximal ideals I_1, \dots, I_n , possibly with repetitions. If $I_1 \dots I_n = 0$, then A is Artinian if and only if A is Noetherian.*

Proof. Let $M_1 = I_1 \supset \dots \supset M_n = I_1 \dots I_n = 0$ and A be Noetherian, hence all the M_i 's are Noetherian too. Hence M_i/M_{i+1} are Noetherian A -modules for all i . Note that $M_i \cdot I_{i+1} = M_{i+1}$, hence $I_{i+1} \subset A$ acts as zero on M_i/M_{i+1} . Therefore, M_i/M_{i+1} is naturally a module for the quotient ring A/I_{i+1} . Since I_{i+1} is a maximal ideal, the ring A/I_{i+1} is a field, and M_i/M_{i+1} is a vector space over A/I_{i+1} . Since M_i/M_{i+1} is a Noetherian A -module, this is a finite dimensional vector space over A/I_{i+1} . By Lemma 12.11, M_i/M_{i+1} is also an Artinian A/I_{i+1} -module. Hence, M_i/M_{i+1} is an Artinian A -module. In particular, $M_{n-1}/M_n = M_{n-1}$ is Artinian, but M_{n-2}/M_{n-1} is also Artinian. Hence M_{n-2} is Artinian. Continue like this. Finally, prove that A is Artinian. (Exercise: converse) \square

Definition 12.13. Let A be a ring. The **Krull dimension** of A is the supremum of all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ such that A has a chain of proper prime ideals $I_0 \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq I_n$. $\dim(A)$ is a positive integer or infinity.

Example.

1. Any field has dimension zero.
2. Any principal ideal domain which is not a field has dimension one, such as \mathbb{Z} or $k[x]$, where k is a field. $(0) \subsetneq P$ for P a prime ideal. In a PID all non-zero prime ideals are maximal. An integral domain but not a field has $\dim(A) = 1$ if and only if all prime ideals are maximal.
3. $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ has this chain $(0) \subsetneq \dots \subsetneq (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. $\dim(k[x_1, \dots, x_n]) \geq n$. In fact dimension is n .

Theorem 12.14. *A ring is Artinian if and only if it is Noetherian and has dimension zero.*

Proof. Let us show that A Artinian gives A Noetherian and $\dim(A) = 0$. Corollary 12.7 says that every prime ideal is maximal, hence $\dim(A) = 0$. Lemma 12.9 says that A has only finitely many maximal ideals, call them I_1, \dots, I_n . $I_1 \dots I_n \subset I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n = J(A) = N(A)$ by Corollary 12.8. But Lemma 12.10 says $N(A)^m = 0$ for some $m \geq 1$. We conclude that $I_1^m \dots I_n^m = 0$. We can apply Lemma 12.12 and so prove that A is Noetherian. For the other implication, let us first prove that if A is Noetherian, then $N(A)^m = 0$, for some $m \geq 1$. Indeed, $N(A)$ is finitely generated, so $N(A) = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$. For each $i = 1, \dots, m$, there is a $a_i \geq 1$ such that $m_i^{a_i} = 0$. Take $a = a_1 + \dots + a_n$. Then $(m_1, \dots, m_n)^a = 0$. So $N(A)$ is a nilpotent ideal. As a consequence, we obtain that any ideal in a Noetherian ring contains some power of its radical $I \subset A$. There exists n such that $r(I)^n \subset I$ by applying the fact that the nilradical is nilpotent to A/I and $N(A/I) = r(I)/I$, so $N(A/I)^n = 0$ gives $r(I)^n \subset I$. Now (0) in A has a primary decomposition, since A is Noetherian. Write $(0) = J_1 \cap \dots \cap J_n$, where J_i are primary ideals. We know that $P = r(J_i)$ is a prime ideal of A by Proposition 11.3. Since $\dim(A) = 0$, each P_i is actually a maximal ideal. For each $i = 1, \dots, n$ there is a $k_i \geq 1$ such that $P_i^{k_i} \subset J_i$, since $P_i = r(J_i)$. Hence $(0) = J_1 \cap \dots \cap J_n \supset J_1 \dots J_n \supset P_1^{k_1} \dots P_n^{k_n}$, hence $P_1^{k_1} \dots P_n^{k_n} = 0$. By Lemma 12.12 we conclude that A is Artinian. \square

Theorem 12.15 (Structure theorem). *Any Artinian ring is isomorphic to a product of local Artinian rings.*

Recall that a ring is local if it has only one maximal ideal.

Example. Let $R = k[x]$. Let $f(x)$ be a non-zero polynomial and $A = R/(f)$. $\dim_k(A) < \infty$ so A is Artinian. $f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(x)^{m_i}$, where $f_i(x)$ are pairwise different irreducible polynomials. The ideals of A correspond to factors of $f(x)$. Maximal ideals correspond to $f_i(x)$. Chinese remainder theorem gives $A = R/(f) \cong \prod_{i=1}^n R/(f_i(x)^{m_i})$.

Definition 12.16. The ideal $I, J \subset R$ are **coprime** if $I + J = R$.

Suppose I_1, \dots, I_n are ideals of R . Consider the natural homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^n R/I_i$ by $\phi(r) = (r + I_1, \dots, r + I_n)$.

Lemma 12.17.

1. If $I_j + I_k = R$ for any $j \neq k$, then $\prod_{j=1}^n I_j = \bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j$.

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2. ϕ is surjective if and only if $I_j + I_k = R$ for any pair $j \neq k$.

3. ϕ is injective if and only if $\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j = 0$.

Proof. See problem sheet 4. □

Proof of Theorem 12.15. Recall that A is an Artinian ring. By Lemma 12.9 A has only finitely many maximal ideals, say I_1, \dots, I_n , all pairwise different. $I_1 \dots I_n \subset I_1 \cap \dots \cap I_n = J(A) = N(A)$ by Corollary 12.8. By Lemma 12.10 $N(A)^m = 0$. Hence $(I_1 \dots I_n)^m = 0$. $I_j \subsetneq I_j + I_k = R$ for $j \neq k$, where I_j is maximal. By Lemma 12.17 $\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j = \prod_{j=1}^n I_j$. Claim that if $j \neq k$, then $I_j^a + I_k^a = R$ for any $a \geq 1$. Indeed, $I_j + I_k = R$ so there exist $x \in I_j$, $y \in I_k$ such that $1 = x + y$. Hence $1^{2a} = (x + y)^{2a}$, which is a sum of a multiple of x^a and a multiple of y^a , which is in $I_j^a + I_k^a$. By Lemma 12.17 we have $\bigcap_{j=1}^n I_j^a = \prod_{j=1}^n I_j^a$. So ϕ gives an isomorphism $A / \prod_{j=1}^n I_j^a \cong \prod_{j=1}^n A / I_j^a$. It is enough to show that each A / I_j^a is a local ring. Take a large enough, say $a = m$. Then $\prod_{j=1}^n I_j^a = 0$. Note that $N(A / I_j^a) = I_j / I_j^a$. Indeed, for all $x \in I_j$ we have $x^a \in I_j^a$. Since I_j / I_j^a is a maximal ideal of A / I_j^a , this is $N(A / I_j^a)$. This is the intersection of all prime ideals of A_j^a . Thus all of them coincide with I_j / I_j^a , so are maximal. Hence, I_j / I_j^a is a unique maximal ideal of A / I_j^a . □

Lecture 24 is a test.

Lecture 25 is a problem class.

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13 Integral closure

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Theorem 13.1. *Let R be a ring. Let $A \subset R$ be a subring. Let $x \in R$. The following are equivalent.*

1. *There are $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \in A$ such that $x^n + \dots + a_n = 0$*
2. *The A -module $A[x]$ is finitely generated. Here $A[x] \subset R$ are all polynomial expressions in x with coefficients in A .*
3. *There is a subring $B \subset R$ containing A and x such that B is a finitely generated A -module.*

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 $x^n = -(a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0)$ so x^n belongs to the A -module generated by $1, \dots, x^{n-1}$. $x^{n+1} = -x(a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0) = -a_{n-1}x^n + \dots$. Clearly, $x^k \in A \cdot 1 + \dots + A \cdot x^{n-1}$. So $A[x]$ is a finitely generated A -module.
- 2 \implies 3 Trivial. Indeed, take $B = A[x]$.
- 3 \implies 1 Assume such a B exists. There exists y_1, \dots, y_n in B which generate B as an A -module. Now $x \in B$ and B is a ring, so $xy_1, \dots, xy_n \in B$. Hence $xy_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}y_j$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, where $a_{ij} \in A$. Let M be the matrix (a_{ij}) , and let $d = \det(x \cdot I - M) \in B$. By the determinant trick, we have $dy_i = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore, since $B = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$, we have $dB = 0$. But B contains one. Hence $d = 0$. If $p(t)$ is the characteristic polynomial of M , that is $p(t) = \det(t \cdot I - M) \in A[t]$ with leading coefficient one, then $p(x) = 0$. This proves 1. □

Definition 13.2. Let $A \subset R$ be rings. An element $x \in B$ is **integral** over A if the equivalent conditions of Theorem 13.1 hold. A monic polynomial $p(t) \in A[t]$ such that $p(x) = 0$ is called the **equation of integral dependence** of x over A . R is called integral over A if every element in R is integral over A .

Example.

1. Let $R = k[x] \supset k[x^2] = A$. $k[x]$ is integral over $k[x^2]$. $t^2 - x^2 = 0$, hence x is integral. (Exercise: check that all elements are integral, without using Theorem 13.1)
2. Let $\mathbb{Z}[(-1 + \sqrt{-3})/2]$ and $\zeta = (-1 + \sqrt{-3})/2$. $\zeta^2 + \zeta + 1 = 0$. $\mathbb{Z}[(-1 + \sqrt{-3})/2]$ is integral over \mathbb{Z} .
3. But $\mathbb{Z}[1/5]$ is not an integral extension of \mathbb{Z} . $1/5$ is not integral over \mathbb{Z} .

Lemma 13.3.

1. *If $A \subset B \subset C$ are rings such that B is a finitely generated B -module and B is a finitely generated A -module, then C is a finitely generated A -module.*
2. *If $A \subset B$ are rings and $x_1, \dots, x_n \in B$ are integral over A , then $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a finitely generated A -module. Hence $A[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is an integral A -algebra.*
3. *If $A \subset B \subset C$ are rings such that C is integral over B and B is integral over A , then C is integral over A .*
4. *If $A \subset B$ are rings, then the set of all elements of B integral over A is a subring B , called the **integral closure** of A in B and denoted by \tilde{A} . Then \tilde{A} is integrally closed in B , that is every element of B which is integrally closed over \tilde{A} already belongs to \tilde{A} .*

Proof.

1. Assume that $c_1, \dots, c_n \in C$ generate C as a B -module. Assume that $b_1, \dots, b_m \in B$ generate B as an A -module. Then $b_i c_j$ for all i and j generate C as an A -module.

2. By Theorem 13.1 $A[x_1]$ is a finitely generated A -module. But x_2 is integral over A , hence also over $A[x_1]$. Thus $A[x_1, x_2]$ is a finitely generated $A[x_1]$ -module. By 1 $A[x_1, x_2]$ is a finitely generated A -module. Then continue by repeating this $n - 1$ times.
3. We must show that any $c \in C$ is integral over A . Since c is integral over B , there are $b_0, \dots, b_{n-1} \in B$ such that $c^n + \dots + b_0 = 0$. But B is integral over A , hence each b_i is integral over A . Then by 2 $A[b_0, \dots, b_{n-1}]$ is a finitely generated A -module. This implies that $A[b_0, \dots, b_{n-1}, c]$ is a finitely generated A -module, using 1. Theorem 13.1 says that x is integral over A .
4. Must show that if x, y are integral elements of B , then so is $xy, x + y, -x$. Consider $A[x, y]$. By 2 this is a finitely generated A -module. This is a ring which is a finitely generated A -module, hence by Theorem 13.1 every element of this ring is integral over A . In particular, $x + y, -x, xy$ are integral. Let us show that \tilde{A} is integrally closed in B , that is for all $x \in B$ that is integral over \tilde{A} belongs to \tilde{A} . Indeed, $A \subset \tilde{A} \subset \tilde{\tilde{A}}$ are rings, and \tilde{A} is integral over A , $\tilde{\tilde{A}}$ is integral over \tilde{A} . Hence, by 3 $\tilde{\tilde{A}}$ is also integral over A . Therefore, $\tilde{\tilde{A}} = \tilde{A}$.

□

Definition 13.4. Let A be an integral domain, and let B be the field of fractions of A . In this case \tilde{A} is called the **normalisation** of A . If $\tilde{A} = A$, then A is called a **normal** ring.

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Example.

1. Any UFD is normal (Exercise), for example \mathbb{Z} is normal. $k[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a UFD, hence a normal ring.
2. Number theory examples. Let $\zeta = e^{2\pi i/n}$ for $n \geq 2$. $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is a cyclotomic field. $\mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ and $\zeta^n - 1 = 0$, hence ζ is integral over \mathbb{Z} . Assume F is a field extension of \mathbb{Q} . Define the ring of integers of F as the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in F . A fact is that the ring of integers of $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$. Another class of interesting number fields is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$ for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ square-free. What is the integral closure of \mathbb{Z} in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{a})$? Is it $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{a}]$? $\sqrt{a}^2 - a = 0$. Yes, if $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ or $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. No, if $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. It is bigger than $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{a}]$. $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3}) = \mathbb{Q}((-1 + \sqrt{3})/2) = \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_3) \supset \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]$, the normalisation of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{a}]$.
3. Normalisation in algebraic geometry. $y^2 = x^3$ has a cusp at $(0, 0)$, since $f(x, y) = x^3 - y^2$ and $((\partial f / \partial x)(0, 0), (\partial f / \partial y)(0, 0)) = (0, 0)$, a singular point. Let $A = k[x, y] / (y - x^3)$. A is the ring of functions on this curve. Is A normal? No. Let $t = y/x$. $t^2 = y^2/x^2$, so $t^2 - x = 0$ hence t is an element of the field of fractions of A , which is not in A , but is integral over A . So $A \subset k[t]$ is in the field of fractions of A . But $k[t]$ is a UFD, hence normal. Thus $k[t]$ is the normalisation of A . The map $t \mapsto (t^2, t^3)$ is a map from the affine line to our curve. It is a desingularisation of our singular curve.

14 Discrete valuation rings

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Theorem 14.1. *Let R be an integral domain. The following are equivalent.*

1. R is a UFD with only one irreducible element, up to multiplication by units.
2. R is a Noetherian local ring whose maximal ideal is principal.

Theorem 14.2. *UFD with one irreducible element if and only if a Noetherian local ring whose maximal ideal is principal.*

A ring R as in 1 is a ring where every non-unit is at^n for $a \in R^*$ and $n \geq 1$.

Proof.

- 1 \implies 2 Let t be an irreducible element of R . Every non-unit belongs to (t) . So $R \setminus (t) \subset R^*$. In fact, the elements of R not divisible by t are units. So $R^* = R \setminus (t)$. Hence (t) is a maximal ideal. Claim that all ideals of R are (t^n) for $n \geq 1$. Let I be an ideal in R . Let n be the smallest integer such that I contains at^n for $a \in R^*$. Then $(t^n) = (at^n) \subset I$. I does not contain bt^m for $b \in R^*$ and $m < n$, hence $I = (t^n)$. Hence R is a PID, so is Noetherian. It is clear that if $n \geq 2$, then $(t^n) \subsetneq (t)$. So (t) is a unique maximal ideal.
- 2 \implies 1 Let t be a generator of the maximal ideal. Then $R \setminus (t) = R^*$. Claim that $\bigcap_{n \geq 1} (t^n) = 0$, where $(t) \supset (t^2) \supset \dots$. Equivalently, for each non-zero $a \in R$ there is a largest n such that $a \in (t^n)$. If $a \in (t)$, then $a \in R^*$ and $n = 0$ so we are done. Now assume $a \in (t)$. Then $a = a_1 t$, for some $a_1 \in R$. If $a_1 \notin (t)$, that is $a_1 \in R^*$, then $a \notin (t^2)$. Indeed, otherwise $a = bt^2$, where $b \in R$. $bt^2 = a_1 t$. R is an integral domain, hence $bt = a_1$, which is a contradiction. But if $a_1 \in (t)$, then $(a) \subsetneq (a_1)$. The inclusion is strict, because otherwise there is a unit $u \in R^*$ such that $a_1 = ua = a_1 ut$, hence $ut = 1$ which is absurd, because $t \notin R^*$. This shows that if n does not exist, then there is an infinite strictly increasing chain of ideals in R . This is a contradiction because R is Noetherian.

□

Recall that a set has a total order $x < y$ if for every two elements exactly one of these holds.

$$x < y, \quad x = y, \quad x > y.$$

An abelian group G is an **ordered group** if G has a total order compatible with the group structure, that is if $x < y$ then $x + z < y + z$ for any $z \in G$.

Example. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ with the usual order.

Definition 14.3. Let K be a field. A **valuation** in K is a surjective homomorphism $v : K^* \rightarrow G$, where G is an ordered group, such that $v(x \pm y) \geq \min\{v(x), v(y)\}$. One defines $v(0) = \infty$.

(Exercise: $R = \{x \in K \mid v(x) \geq 0\}$ is a ring, called the valuation ring of v)

(Exercise: if $R^* = \{x \in K \mid v(x) = 0\}$, $R \setminus R^* = \{x \in K \mid v(x) > 0\}$ is the unique maximal ideal of R , thus every valuation ring is a local integral domain)

Definition 14.4. A ring is called a **valuation ring** if its field of fractions K has a valuation $v : K^* \rightarrow G$, for some ordered group G , such that $R = \{x \in K \mid v(x) \geq 0\}$. A valuation ring is a **discrete valuation ring** if the ordered group is \mathbb{Z} , with the usual order.

Example.

1. $\mathbb{Z}_{(p)} = \{a/b \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, (p, b) = 1\}$ is a DVR, where $K = \mathbb{Q}$. $v(p^n \cdot (c/d)) = n \in \mathbb{Z}$, where $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \nmid c, d$.
2. The ring of formal power series $k[[t]]$ is a DVR. $v(a_0 + a_1 t + \dots) = n$ such that $a_0 = \dots = a_{n-1} = 0$ and $a_n \neq 0$ for $a_i \in k$. $k((t)) = \left\{ \sum_{i \geq m} a_i t^i \mid a_i \in k, m \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$.

3. An example of a valuation ring which is not a DVR. Fix n . Puiseux series is

$$k[[t^{1/n}]] = \left\{ \sum_{i \geq n} a_i t^i \mid a_i \in k \right\}.$$

Let $R = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} k[[t^{1/n}]]$. Define v as the highest power of t dividing our element. $v : K^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by $v(at^{c/d} + \dots) = c/d$ is not a discrete valuation. Note that the power series with zero constant term form a maximal ideal of R . $t \subsetneq t^{1/2} \subsetneq \dots$. So R is not a Noetherian ring.

Theorem 14.5. *A valuation ring is Noetherian if and only if it is a DVR.*

Proof. Let R be a Noetherian valuation ring. Then I claim that the maximal ideal I is principal. Any ideal in R is finitely generated, say $I = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. By induction, it is enough to show that any ideal with two generators, say (x, y) , is generated by x or y . Consider $v(x)$ and $v(y)$. $v(x) < v(y)$, $v(x) = v(y)$, or $v(x) > v(y)$. Without loss of generality assume that $v(x) < v(y)$. Then $y \in (x)$ because $R = \{z \in K \mid v(z) \geq 0\}$. In particular, $v(y/x) = v(y) - v(x) \geq 0$ gives $y/x \in R$. \square

Theorem 14.6.

1. R is a DVR.
2. R is a UFD with only irreducible elements.
3. R is a Noetherian local ring with principal maximal ideal.
4. R is a Noetherian normal local ring of dimension one.

Proof. For contradiction, assume there exist $y \in I \setminus (t)$. It is possible that y has the additional property $Iy \subset (t)$. K is the field of fractions of R . $y/t \in K \setminus R$ and $(y/t)I \subset R$. We have $(y/t)I$ is an ideal in R .

1. $(y/t)I = R$. $1 = xy/t$ so $t = xy \in I^2$, a contradiction.
2. $(y/t)I \subset I$. Goal is try to show that $y/t \in R$. Then $y \in (t)$ will be a contradiction. R is Noetherian, hence $I = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for some $x_i \in R$.

$$\frac{y}{t}x_1 = a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n, \dots, \frac{y}{t}x_n = a_{n1}x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n,$$

for $a_{ij} \in R$. $A^v \cdot A = \det(A) \cdot I$. Let

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{y}{t} - a_{11} & \dots & -a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{n1} & \dots & \frac{y}{t} - a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

$\det(M) \cdot x_i = 0$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Without loss of generality $x_i \neq 0$. R is an integral domain. We see that $\det(M) = 0$. $\det(M) = (y/t)^n + \dots + r_0$, where $r_i \in R$. Therefore, y/t is an element of K which is integral over R . By assumption R is normal, and since $y/t \in K$ is integral over R , we must have $y/t \in R$. Then $y \in (t)$ is a contradiction. \square

Lecture 30 is a problem class.

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