Commutative Algebra 1

Labix

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Abstract

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Ideals Of a Commutative Ring

1.1 **Operations on Ideals**

Proposition 1.1.1

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I_1, \ldots, I_n be ideals of R. Let P_1, \ldots, P_k be prime ideals of

- Let *I* be an ideal of *R*. If *I* ⊆ ⋃_{i=1}^k P_i, then *I* ⊆ P_i for some *i*.
 Let *P* be an ideal of *R*. If P ⊆ ⋂_{i=1}ⁿ I_i, then I_i ⊆ P for some *i*.
 Let *P* be an ideal of *R*. If P = ⋂_{i=1}ⁿ I_i, then I_i = P for some *i*.

Proof.

• We prove the contrapositive by induction k. When k = 1, the case is clear. Suppose that $I \not\subseteq P_i$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$ implies $I \not\subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} P_i$. Suppose also that $I \not\subseteq P_k$.

Proposition 1.1.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S, T \subseteq R$ be subsets of R. Then

$$\langle S \cup T \rangle = \langle S \rangle + \langle T \rangle$$

Proposition 1.1.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I, J be ideals of R. Suppose that $I \subseteq J$. Let \overline{J} denote the ideal of R/I corresponding to J under the correspondence theorem. Then there is an isomorphism

$$\frac{R/I}{\overline{J}} \cong \frac{R}{I+J}$$

given by the formula $(r+I) + \overline{J} \mapsto r + (I+J)$.

Example 1.1.4

There is an isomorphism given by

$$\frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(x+1, x^2+2)} \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$$

Proof. Using the above propositions, we have that

$$\frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(x+1, x^2+2)} = \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(x+1) + (x^2+2)}$$
$$\cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x+1)}{(3)}$$

Indeed, the ideal (x^2+2) corresponds to the ideal (3) in $\frac{\mathbb{Z}[x]}{(x+1)}$ because the remainder of $x^2 + 2$ divided by (x + 1) is (3). Now $\mathbb{Z}[x]/(x + 1) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ by the evaluation homomorphism. Thus quotieting by the ideal (3) gives the field $\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

Some more important results from Groups and Rings and Rings and Modules include:

• If *I* and *J* are coprime, then $IJ = I \cap J$

 \bullet Chinese Remainder Theorem: If I and J are coprime, then there is an isomorphism

$$\frac{R}{I\cap J}\cong \frac{R}{I}\times \frac{R}{J}$$

1.2 The Radical of an Ideal

The radical of an ideal is a very different notion from the radical of module.

Definition 1.2.1: Radical of an Ideal

Let I be an ideal of a ring R. Define the radical of I to be

$$\sqrt{I} = \{ r \in R | r^n \in I \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N} \}$$

Proposition 1.2.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal. Then the following are true.

•
$$I \subseteq \sqrt{I}$$

$$\bullet \ \sqrt{\overline{\sqrt{I}}} = \sqrt{I}$$

•
$$\sqrt{I^m} = \sqrt{I}$$
 for all $m \ge 1$

•
$$\sqrt{I} = R$$
 if and only if $I = R$

Proof.

• Let $r \in I$. Then $r^1 \in I$ Thus by choosing n = 1 we shows that $r^n \in I$. Thus $r \in \sqrt{I}$.

• By the above, we already know that $\sqrt{I} \subseteq \sqrt{\sqrt{I}}$. So let $r \in \sqrt{\sqrt{I}}$. Then there exists some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $r^n \in \sqrt{I}$. But $r^n \in \sqrt{I}$ means that there exists some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(r^n)^m \in I$. But $nm \in \mathbb{N}$ is a natural number such that $r^{nm} \in I$. Hence $r \in \sqrt{I}$ and so we conclude.

Proposition 1.2.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I, J be ideals of R. Then the following are true.

• If
$$I \subseteq J$$
 then $\sqrt{I} \subseteq \sqrt{J}$

•
$$\sqrt{IJ} = \sqrt{I \cap J}$$

$$\bullet$$
 $\sqrt{I+J} = \sqrt{\sqrt{I} + \sqrt{J}}$

Proof.

• Let $x \in \sqrt{IJ}$. Then $x^n \in IJ$. This means that there exists $i \in I$ and $j \in J$ such that $x^n = ij$. Since I and J are two sided ideals, we can conclude that $x^n = ij \in I$, J. Hence $x^n = ij \in I \cap J$. We conclude that $x \in \sqrt{I \cap J}$. Now let $x \in \sqrt{I \cap J}$. Then there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x^n \in I \cap J$. Then $x^n \in I$ and $x^n \in J$ implies that $x^{2n} = x^n \cdot x^n \in IJ$. We conclude that $x \in \sqrt{IJ}$.

Proposition 1.2.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal. Then

$$\sqrt{I} = \bigcap_{\substack{p \text{ a prime ideal} \\ I \subseteq p \subseteq R}} p$$

Definition 1.2.5: Radical Ideals

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. We say that I is radical if

$$\sqrt{I} = I$$

In particular, by the above lemma it follows that the radical of an ideal is a radical ideal.

Lemma 1.2.6

Let R be a ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then P is radical.

We conclude that there is an inclusion of types of ideal in which each inclusion is strict:

$$\underset{ideals}{\text{Maximal}} \subset \underset{ideals}{\text{Prime}} \subset \underset{ideals}{\text{Radical}}$$

1.3 The Nilradical Ideal of Commutative Rings

Let R be a ring. Recall that an element $r \in R$ is nilpotent if $r^n = 0_R$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. When R is commutative, we can form an ideal out of nilpotent elements.

Definition 1.3.1: Nilradicals

Let R be a ring. Define the nilradical of R to be

$$N(R) = \{r \in R \mid r \text{ is nilpotent}\}$$

Note that this is different from nilpotent ideals, as nilpotency is a property of an ideal. However the Nilradical ideal is a nil ideal and every sub-ideal of the nilradical is a nil ideal.

Proposition 1.3.2

Let R be a ring and N(R) its nilradical. Then the following are true.

- N(R) is an ideal of R
- N(R/N(R)) = 0

Proof.

- Suppose that r, s are nilpotent, meaning that $r^n = 0$ and $s^m = 0$. Then $(r + s)^{n+m} = 0$. Moreover, if $t \in R$ then $t \cdot r$ is also nilpotent
- Let $r \notin N(R)$. Every element $r + N(R) \in R/N(R)$ has the property that $r^n \neq 0$. Consider $(r + N(R))^n = r^n + N(R)$. If $r^n \in N(R)$ then $r^n = u$ for some nilpotent u, which means that r^n is nilpotent and thus r is nilpotent, a contradiction. This means that $r + N(R) \notin N(R/N(R))$ for all $r \notin N(R)$ and thus N(R/N(R)) = 0

Proposition 1.3.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Then we have

$$N(R) = \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)} P$$

Proof. Let $x \in N(R)$. Let P be an arbitrary prime ideal. Since x is nilpotent, $x^n = 0$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If $x \notin P$, then $x^2 \notin P$ since P is a prime ideal. Recursively we see that $x^k \notin P$ for all $k \in N \setminus \{0\}$. But $x^n = 0 \in P$ is a contradiction. Hence $N(R) \subseteq \bigcap_{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)} P$.

Now suppose that $x \in R$ is not nilpotent. Consider the set

$$\Sigma = \{ I \le R \mid x^k \notin I \text{ for all } k \ge 1 \}$$

Notice that $(0) \in \Sigma$ and hence it is non-empty. Let $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$ be a chain in Σ . Define $I = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} I_k$. I claim that $I \in \Sigma$. First of all if $a,b \in I$ and $r \in R$, then $a \in I_m$ and $b \in I_n$ for some $m,n \geq 1$. Then $a,b \in I_{\max\{m,n\}}$ so that $a+b \in I_{\max\{m,n\}} \subseteq I$. Also $ra \in I_m \subseteq I$ since I_m is an ideal. Hence I itself is an ideal of R. Suppose for a contradiction that $x^n \in I$ for some n. Then $x^n \in I_k$ for some k. This is a contradiction since $I_k \in \Sigma$. Thus we know that $I \in \Sigma$. In particular, I is an upper bound of $I_1 \subseteq I_2 \subseteq \cdots$. By Zorn's lemma, we conclude that Σ has a maximal element, say P.

Suppose for a contradiction that P is not a prime ideal. Let $ab \in P$ and $a, b \notin P$. Then $P \subset P + (a), P + (b)$. Since P is maximal in Σ , P + (a) and P + (b) cannot be in Σ , and there exists $x^m \in P + (a)$ and $x^n \in P + (b)$ for some m, n. Then

$$x^{m+n} = x^m \cdot x^n \in (P + (a))(P + (b)) = P + (ab)$$

Hence $P+(ab)\notin \Sigma$. But $ab\in P$ implies that P+(ab)=P. We have reached a contradiction. Thus P is a prime ideal that does not contain x. We show that $x\notin N(R)$ implies $x\notin P$ for some prime ideal P. The contrapositive of this statement is $x\in P$ for all prime ideals P implies $x\in N(R)$. Hence we are done.

Example 1.3.4

Consider the ring

$$R = \frac{\mathbb{C}[x, y]}{(x^2 - y, xy)}$$

Then its nilradical is given by N(R) = (x, y).

Proof. Notice that in the ring R, $x^3=x(x^2)=xy=0$ and $y^3=x^6=(x^3)^2=0$ and hence x and y are both nilpotent elements of R. By definition of the nilradical, we conclude that $(x,y)\subseteq N(R)$. Now (x,y) is a maximal ideal of $\mathbb{C}[x,y]$ because $\mathbb{C}[x,y]/(x,y)\cong\mathbb{C}$. Also notice that $(x,y)\supseteq (x^2-y,xy)$ because for any element $f(x)(x^2-y)+g(x)(xy)\in (x^2-y,xy)$, we have that

$$f(x)(x^2 - y) + g(x)(xy) \in (x^2 - y, xy) = (xf(x))x - f(x)y + (g(x)x)y$$
$$= (xf(x))x + (xg(x) - f(x))y \in (x, y)$$

By the correspondence theorem, $(x,y)/(x^2-y)$ is an maximal ideal of R. In particular, (x,y) is also a prime ideal. But the N(R) is the intersection of all prime ideals and hence $N(R) \subseteq (x,y)$. We conclude that N(R) = (x,y).

Definition 1.3.5: Reduced Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. We say that R is reduced if N(R) = 0.

Proposition 1.3.6

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Then R/I is reduced if and only if I is a radical ideal.

So radical, prime and maximal ideals all have characterizations using the quotient ring:

- I is maximal if and only if R/I is a field.
- I is prime if and only if R/I is an integral domain.

• I is radical if and only if R/I is reduced.

1.4 The Correspondence between Ideals and the Quotient

Definition 1.4.1: Max Spectrum of a Ring

Let A be a commutative ring. Define the max spectrum of A to be

$$\max \operatorname{Spec}(A) = \{ m \subseteq A \mid m \text{ is a maximal ideal of } A \}$$

Definition 1.4.2: Spectrum of a Ring

Let A be a commutative ring. Define the spectrum of A to be

$$Spec(A) = \{ p \subseteq A \mid p \text{ is a prime ideal of } A \}$$

Example 1.4.3

Consider the following commutative rings.

- Spec($\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$) = {(2+6 \mathbb{Z}), (3+6 \mathbb{Z})}
- Spec($\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$) = $\{(2+8\mathbb{Z})\}$
- Spec($\mathbb{Z}/24\mathbb{Z}$) = {(2 + 24 \mathbb{Z}), (3 + 24 \mathbb{Z})}
- Spec($\mathbb{R}[x]$) = {(f) | f is irreducible }

Proof.

- The only ideals of $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ are $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$ and $(3+6\mathbb{Z})$. We need to find which ones are prime ideals. Now $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}\setminus(2+6\mathbb{Z})$ consists of $1+6\mathbb{Z}$, $3+6\mathbb{Z}$ and $5+6\mathbb{Z}$. No multiplication of these elements give an element of $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$. So any two elements in $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ which multiply to an element of $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$ must contain one element that lie in $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$. Hence $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$ is prime. This is similar for $(3+6\mathbb{Z})$. Hence $\operatorname{Spec}(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z})=\{(2+6\mathbb{Z}),(3+6\mathbb{Z})\}$.
- The only ideals of $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ are $(2+8\mathbb{Z})$ and $(4+8\mathbb{Z})$. A similar argument as above shows that $(2+8\mathbb{Z})$ is a prime ideal. However, $6+8\mathbb{Z}\notin (4+8\mathbb{Z})$ while $(6+8\mathbb{Z})^2=4+8\mathbb{Z}\in (4+8\mathbb{Z})$ which shows that $(4+8\mathbb{Z})$ is not a prime ideal.
- A similar proof as above ensues.
- Recall that $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is a principal ideal domain. Let I = (f) be a prime ideal of $\mathbb{R}[x]$. Then f is irreducible. Thus every prime ideal of $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is of the form (f) for f an irreducible polynomial.

Lemma 1.4.4

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f_1: R \times S \to R$ and $f_2: R \times S \to S$ denote the projection maps. Then the map

$$f_1^* \coprod f_2^* : \operatorname{Spec}(R) \coprod \operatorname{Spec}(S) \to \operatorname{Spec}(R \times S)$$

is a bijection.

Proof. The core of the proof is the fact that P is a prime ideal of $R \times S$ if and only if $P = R \times Q$ or $P = V \times S$ for either a prime ideal Q of P or a prime ideal V of S. It is clear that if Q is a prime ideal of S and S are both prime ideals of S of S are both prime ideals of S of S are both prime ideals of S.

So suppose that P is a prime ideal in $R \times S$. Let $e_1 = (1,0)$ and $e_2 = (0,1)$. Since $P \neq R$, at least one of e_1 or e_2 is not in P. Without loss of generality assume that $e_1 \notin P$. But

 $e_1e_2=0\in P$ and P being prime implies that $e_2\in P$. Since e_2 is the identity of $\{0\}\times S\cong S$, we conclude that $\{0\}\times S\subseteq P$. By the correspondence theorem, the projection map $f_1:R\times S\to R$ gives a bijection between prime ideals of $R\times S$ that contain $\{0\}\times S$ and prime ideals of R. So $f_1(P)$ is a prime ideal of R. Thus $P=f_1(P)\times S$ which is exactly what we wanted.

Now the bijection is clear. $f_1^* \coprod f_2^*$ sends a prime ideal P of R to $P \times S$ and it sends a prime ideal Q of S to $R \times Q$. This map is surjective by the above argument. It is injective by inspection.

Theorem 145

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Denote φ to be the inclusion preserving one-to-one bijection

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Ideals of } R \\ \text{containing } I \end{array} \right\} \quad \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \quad \left\{ \text{Ideals of } R/I \right\}$$

from the correspondence theorem for rings. In other words, $\varphi(A) = A/I$. Let $J \subseteq R$ be an ideal containing I. Then the following are true.

- J is a radical ideal if and only if $\varphi(J) = J/I$ is a radical ideal.
- J is a prime ideal if and only if $\varphi(J) = J/I$ is a prime ideal.
- J is a maximal ideal if and only if $\varphi(J) = J/I$ is a maximal ideal.

Proof.

• Let J be a radical ideal. Suppose that $r+I\in \sqrt{J/I}$. This means that $(r+I)^n=r^n+I\in J/I$ for some $n\in\mathbb{N}$. But this means that $r^n\in J$. This implies that $r\in \sqrt{J}=J$. Thus $r+I\in J/I$ and we conclude that $\sqrt{J/I}\subseteq J/I$. Since we also have $J/I\subseteq \sqrt{J/I}$, we conclude.

Now suppose that J/I is a radical ideal. Let $r \in \sqrt{J}$. This means that $r^n \in J$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Now $r^n + I = (r+I)^n \in J/I$ implies that $r+I \in \sqrt{J/I} = J/I$. Hence $r \in J$ and so $\sqrt{J} \subseteq J$. Since we also have that $J \subseteq \sqrt{J}$, we conclude.

- Let J be a prime ideal. Then R/J is an integral domain. By the second isomorphism theorem, we have that $R/J \cong (R/I)/(J/I)$ and hence (R/I)/(J/I) is also an integral domain. Hence J/I is a prime ideal. The converse is also true.
- Let J be a maximal ideal. Then R/J is a field. By the second isomorphism theorem, we have that $R/J \cong (R/I)/(J/I)$ and hence (R/I)/(J/I) is also a field. Hence J/I is a maximal ideal. The converse is also true.

Another way to write the bijections is via spectra:

$$\operatorname{Spec}(R/I) \ \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \ \{P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid I \subseteq P\}$$

and

$$\mathsf{maxSpec}(R/I) \ \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \ \{m \in \mathsf{maxSpec}(R) \mid I \subseteq m\}$$

1.5 Extensions and Contractions of Ideals

Definition 1.5.1: Extension of Ideals

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let I be an ideal of R. Define the extension I^e of I to S to be the ideal

$$I^e = \langle f(i) \mid i \in I \rangle$$

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Proposition 1.5.2

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let I, I_1, I_2 be an ideal of R. Then the following are true regarding the extension of ideals.

- Closed under sum: $(I_1 + I_2)^e = I_1^e + I_2^e$
- $(I_1 \cap I_2)^e \subseteq I_1^e \cap I_2^e$
- Closed under products: $(I_1I_2)^e = I_1^eI_2^e$
- $(I_1/I_2)^e \subseteq I_1^e/\hat{I}_2^e$ $\operatorname{rad}(I)^e \subseteq \operatorname{rad}(I^e)$

Definition 1.5.3: Contraction of Ideals

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let J be an ideal of S. Define the contraction J^c of J to R to be the ideal

$$J^c = f^{-1}(J)$$

Proposition 1.5.4

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let J, J_1, J_2 be an ideal of *S*. Then the following are true regarding the extension of ideals.

- $(J_1 + J_2)^e \supseteq J_1^e + J_2^e$
- Closed under intersections: $(J_1 \cap J_2)^e = J_1^e \cap J_2^e$
- $(J_1J_2)^e \supseteq J_1^e J_2^e$ $(J_1/J_2)^e \subseteq J_1^e/J_2^e$
- ullet Closed under taking radicals: $\operatorname{rad}(J)^e = \operatorname{rad}(J^e)$

Proposition 1.5.5

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $f: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let I be an ideal of R and let J be an ideal of S. Then the following are true.

- $\bullet \ \ I \subseteq I^{ec}$
- $\bullet \ \ J^{ce} \subseteq J$
- $\bullet \ \ I^e = I^{ece}$
- $\bullet \ \ J^c = J^{cec}$

1.6 Revisiting the Polynomial Ring

Proposition 1.6.1

Let R be a commutative ring. Then we have

$$N(R[x]) = N(R)[x]$$

Proof. Let $f = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k x^k \in N(R)[x]$. Then each a_k is nilpotent in R, and there exists $n_k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_k^{n_k} = 0$. This also proves that $a_k x^k$ is nilpotent. Since the sum of nilpotents is a nilpotent, we conclude that f is nilpotent.

Now suppose that $f \in N(R[x])$. We induct on the degree of f. Let $\deg(f) = 0$. Then f is nilpotent and f lies in R. Thus $f \in N(R)[x]$. Now suppose that the claim is true for $\deg(f) \leq n-1$. Let $\deg(g) = n$ with leading coefficient b_n . Since g is nilpotent in R[x], there exists $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $g^m = 0$. Then in particular, $b_n^m = 0$ so that b_n is nilpotent. Then $b_n x^n$ is also nilpotent. Now since N(R[x]) is an ideal of R[x], we have that $g - b_n x^n \in N(R[x])$. By inductive hypothesis, $g - b_n x^n \in N(R)[x]$. Since N(R) is an ideal of R[x]. So $g = (g - b_n x^n) + b_n x^n \in N(R)[x]$. Thus we are done.

Some more important results from Groups and Rings and Rings and Modules include:

- If R is an integral domain, then R[x] is an integral domain.
- R is a UFD if and only if R[x] is a UFD
- If F is a field, then F[x] is an Euclidean domain, a PID and a UFD
- If *F* is a field, then the ideal generated by *p* is maximal if and only if *p* is irreducible.

Regarding ideals of the polynomial ring, the following maybe useful:

- I[x] is an ideal of R
- $\bullet \,$ There is an isomorphism $\frac{R[x]}{I[x]}\cong \frac{R}{I}[x]$ given by the map

$$\left(f = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k x^k + I[x]\right) \mapsto \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} (a_k + I) x^k\right)$$

• If *I* is a prime ideal of R, then I[x] is a prime ideal of R[x].

2 Basic Notions of Commutative Rings

2.1 Local Rings

Definition 2.1.1: Local Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. We say that R is a local ring if it has a unique maximal ideal m. In this case, we say that R/m is the residue field of R.

Example 2.1.2

Consider the following commutative rings.

- $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ is not a local ring.
- $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ is a local ring.
- $\mathbb{Z}/24\mathbb{Z}$ is not a local ring.
- $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is not a local ring.

Proof.

- The only ideals of $\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}$ are $(2+6\mathbb{Z})$ and $(3+6\mathbb{Z})$. They do not contain each other and so they are both maximal.
- The only ideals of $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ are $(2+8\mathbb{Z})$ and $(4+8\mathbb{Z})$. But $(2+8\mathbb{Z}) \supseteq (4+8\mathbb{Z})$. Hence $\mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$ has a unique maximal ideal.
- A similar proof as above ensues.
- Any irreducible polynomial $f \in \mathbb{R}[x]$ is such that (f) is a maximal ideal. Indeed the evaluation homomorphism gives an isomorphism $\frac{\mathbb{R}[x]}{(f)} \cong \mathbb{R}$.

Proposition 2.1.3

Let R be a ring and I an ideal of R. Then I is the unique maximal ideal of R if and only if I is the set containing all non-units of R.

Proof. Let I be the unique maximal ideal of R. Clearly I does not contain any unit else I=R. Now suppose that r is a non-unit. Suppose that $r\notin I$. Define $J=\{sr|s\in R\}$ Clearly J is an ideal. It must be contained in some maximal ideal. Since I is the unique maximal ideal, $J\subseteq I$. But this means that $r\in I$, a contradiction. Thus every non-unit is in I.

Suppose that I contains all non-units of R. Let $r \notin I$. Then there exists $s \notin I$ such that rs = 1. Then (r+I)(s+I) = 1+I in R/I. This means that every element of R/I has a multiplicative inverse which means that R/I is a field and thus I is a maximal ideal. Now let $J \neq I$ be another maximal ideal. Then J contains some unit r. This implies that J = R and thus I is the unique maximal ideal.

Example 2.1.4

Let k be a field. Then the ring of power series k[[x]] is a local ring.

Proof. Let M be the set of all non-units of k[[x]]. I first show that $f \in M$ if and only if the constant term of f is non-zero. Let g be a power series. Then the nth coefficient of $f \cdot g$ is given by

$$c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$$

If the constant term of f is 0, then $c_0 = 0$ and so $f \cdot g \neq 1$. Now if the constant term of f is

 $a_0 \neq 0$, then set $b_0 = \frac{1}{a_0}$. Now we can use the formula $0 = c_n$ to deduce

$$b_n = -\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k b_{n-k}}{a_0}$$

This is such that $a_n \cdot b_n = 0$. Define $g = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k x^k$. Then $f \cdot g = 1$. Thus f is a unit.

By the above proposition, we conclude that M is the unique maximal ideal of k[[x]].

We will discuss more of local rings in the topic of localizations.

2.2 Noetherian Commutative Rings

We recall some facts about Noetherian rings. In the following, let R be a commutative ring, although they are also true if R is non-commutative if we take all modules defined below to be left (right) R-modules.

• If we have a short exact sequence of *R*-modules:

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M_2 \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

Then M_2 is Noetherian if and only if M_1 and M_3 are Noetherian.

- If M and N are R-modules, then $M \oplus N$ is Noetherian if and only if M and N are Noetherian.
- If M is an R-module and N is an R-submodule of M, then M is Noetherian if and only if N and M/N are Noetherian.
- If R is Noetherian and I is an ideal of R, then R/I is Noetherian.
- Later when once has seen localization, we can also prove that: If R is Noetherian then $S^{-1}R$ is Noetherian for any multiplicative subset S of R.

Theorem 2.2.1: Hilbert's Basis Theorem

Let R be a commutative ring. If R is Noetherian, then

$$R[x_1,\ldots,x_n]$$

is a Noetherian ring.

Proposition 2.2.2

Let $R = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{n} R_i$ be a graded ring. Then R is Noetherian if and only if R_0 is Noetherian and R is finitely generated as an R_0 -module.

2.3 Artinian Commutative Rings

We recall some facts about Artinian modules.

• If we have a short exact sequence of *R*-modules:

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M_2 \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

Then M_2 is Artinian if and only if M_1 and M_3 are Artinian.

- If M and N are R-modules, then $M \oplus N$ is Artinian if and only if M and N are Artinian.
- If M is an R-module and N is an R-submodule of M, then M is Artinian if and only if N and M/N are Artinian.

Let R be a (not necessarily commutative ring). If R is left Artinian, then the following are true.

- If I is an ideal of R, then R/I is Artinian.
- Every prime ideal of R is maximal.
- *R* only has finitely many maximal ideals.
- J(R) is a nilpotent ideal.
- \bullet *R* is Noetherian.

There are also properties of Artinian rings that only commutative rings can realize.

Proposition 2.3.1

Let R be an integral domain. Then R is Artinian if and only if R is a field.

Proof. It is clear that every field is Artinian. Conversely, let R be Artinian. Consider the following descending chain of ideals in R:

$$R \supseteq (x) \supseteq (x^2) \supseteq$$

for any $0 \neq x \in R$. Since R is Artinian, the chain terminates and $(x^n) = (x^{n+1})$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then there exists $y \in R$ such that $x^n = yx^{n+1}$. This means that $x^n(1-yx) = 0$. Since R is an integral domain, R has no nilpotents. Hence x^n is non-zero and 1 = xy. Thus x has an inverse so that R is a field. \square

Proposition 2.3.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let R be Artinian. Then every prime ideal in R is maximal.

Proof. Let P be a prime ideal. Since quotients of Artinian rings are Artinian, R/P is Artinian. Since R/P is also an integral domain, we conclude by the above that R/P is a field. Hence P is maximal.

Recall some properties of the Jacobson radical from Rings and Modules. For a (not necessarily commutative ring R),

- J(R/J(R)) = 0
- $J(R) = \bigcap_{m \in \max \operatorname{Spec}(R)} m$

Proposition 2.3.3

Let R be a commutative ring. If R is Artinian, then

$$N(R) = J(R)$$

Proof. Since every prime ideal in R is maximal, we have that

$$N(R) = \bigcap_{P \text{ a prime ideal}} P = \bigcap_{P \text{ a maximal ideal}} P = J(R)$$

and so we conclude.

Proposition 2.3.4

Let R be a commutative ring. If R is Artinian, then R has finitely many maximal ideals.

Proof. Consider the collection

$$\{m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k \mid m_1, \ldots, m_k \text{ are maximal ideals of } R\}$$

of R-submodules of R. Since R is Artinian, every collection of R-submodules of R has a minimal element. Hence this collection also has a minimal element, say $m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k$. Let m be another maximal ideal of R. Then

$$m \cap m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k \subseteq m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k$$

Since $m_1 \cap \cdots \cap m_k$ is minimal, they are equal. By prp1.1.1, we conclude that $m \supseteq m_i$ for some i. Since they are maximal, we have $m = m_i$. Hence m_1, \ldots, m_k gives the full list of distinct maximal ideals of R.

3 Modules over a Commutative Ring

Recall from Rings and Modules that a module consists of an abelian group M and a ring R such that there is a binary operation $\cdot : R \times M \to M$ that mimic the notion of a group action:

- For $r, s \in R$, $s \cdot (r \cdot m) = (sr) \cdot m$ for all $m \in M$.
- For $1_R \in R$ the multiplicative identity, $1_R \cdot m = m$ for all $m \in M$.

When R is a commutative ring, the first axiom is relaxed so that the resulting element of M makes no difference whether you apply r first or s first. This makes module act even more similarly than fields (although one still need the notion of a basis, which appears in free modules). Therefore the first section concerns transferring techniques in linear algebra such as the Cayley Hamilton theorem to module over a ring that mimic the notion of vector spaces.

3.1 Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Definition 3.1.1: Characteristic Polynomial

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(R)$ be a matrix. Define the characteristic polynomial of A to be the polynomial

$$c_A(x) = \det(A - xI)$$

Theorem 3.1.2: Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $A \in M_{n \times n}(R)$ be a matrix. Then $c_A(A) = 0$.

Corollary 3.1.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal of R. Let $\varphi \in \operatorname{End}_R(M)$. If $\varphi(M) \subseteq IM$, then there exists $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in I$ such that

$$\varphi^n + a_1 \varphi^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} \varphi + \mathrm{id}_M = 0 : M \to M$$

Proof. Suppose that M is generated by x_1,\ldots,x_n . There exists a surjective map $\rho:R^n\to M$ given by $(r_1,\ldots,r_n)\mapsto \sum_{k=1}^n r_k x_k$. Since $\varphi(M)\subseteq IM$, we havt that

$$\varphi(x_k) = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ki} x_i$$

for some $r_{ki} \in I$. Write A to be the matrix $A = (a_{ki})$. We now have a commutative diagram:

In other words, we have the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R^n & \stackrel{\rho}{----} & M \\ \downarrow^{\varphi} & & \downarrow^{\varphi} \\ R^n & \stackrel{\rho}{----} & M \end{array}$$

By Cayley-Hamilton theorem, we have that $c_A(A) = 0$ is the zero function. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have that

$$\begin{array}{l} c_A(A)(x)=0\\ c_A(Ax)=0\\ \rho(c_A(Ax))=\rho(0)\\ c_A(\rho(Ax))=0 \\ (\rho \text{ is R-linear)}\\ c_A(\varphi(\rho(x)))=0 \end{array}$$
 (Diagram is commutative)

Since ρ is surjective, we conclude that for any $m \in M$, the above calculation gives $c_A(\varphi(m)) = 0$ so that $c_A(\varphi)$ is the zero map.

3.2 Nakayama's Lemma

Lemma 3.2.1: Nakayama's Lemma I

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal of R. If IM = M, then there exists $r \in R$ such that rM = 0 and $r - 1 \in I$.

Proof. Choose $\varphi = \mathrm{id}_M$. Then φ is surjective so that $M = \varphi(M) \subseteq IM$. By crl 4.1.3, there exists $r_1, \ldots, r_n \in I$ such that $(1 + r_1 + \cdots + r_n)M = 0$. By choosing $r = 1 + r_1 + \cdots + r_n$, we see that rM = 0 and $r - 1 \in I$ so that we conclude.

Lemma 3.2.2: Nakayama's Lemma II

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J(R)$ and IM = M. Then M = 0.

Proof. By Nakayama's lemma I, there exists $r \in R$ such that rM = 0 and $r - 1 \in I \subseteq J(R)$. By 2.3.8, we have that $1 - (r - 1)(-1) = r \in R^{\times}$. This means that r is invertible. Hence rM = 0 implies $M = r^{-1}rM = 0$.

Corollary 3.2.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Let I be an ideal of R such that $I \subseteq J(R)$. Let N be an R-submodule of M. If

$$M = IM + N$$

then M = N.

Proof. Since quotients of finitely generated modules are finitely generated, we know that M/N is finitely generated. Define the map

$$\phi:IM+N\to I\frac{M}{N}$$

by $\phi(im+n)=i(m+N)$. This map is clearly surjective. Now I claim that $\ker(\phi)=N$. For any $im+n\in\ker(\phi)$, we see that i(m+N)=N means that $im\in N$. Hence $im+n\in N$. On the other hand, if $im+n\in N$ then $im\in N$. But this means that im+N=N. Hence $im+n\in\ker(\phi)$. By the first isomorphism theorem for modules, we conclude that

$$\frac{M}{N} = \frac{IM + N}{N} \cong I\frac{M}{N}$$

We can now apply Nakayama's lemma II to conclude that M/N = 0 so that M = N.

Corollary 3.2.4

Let (R,m) be a local ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Then the following are true

- M/mM is a finite dimensional vector space over R/m.
- $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in M$ generates M as an R-module if and only if $a_1 + mM, \ldots, a_n + mM$

generates M/mM as a R/m vector space.

Proof. For the first part, we already know that M/mM is an R-module. We notice that for any $k \in m$ and $t + mM \in M/mM$ we have that k(t + mM) = kt + kmM. But $kt \in m$ means that kt + kmM = mM. Hence M/mM is well defined as an R/m-module. Now suppose that M is finitely generated by the elements a_1, \ldots, a_n . Let $x + mM \in M/mM$. Then there exists $r_k \in R$ such that $x = r_1a_1 + \cdots + r_na_n$. But this means that

$$x + mM = r_1(a_1 + mM) + \dots + r_n(a_n + mM)$$

This means that M/mM is generated by $a_1 + mM, \dots, a_n + mM$. We conclude that M/mM is finite dimensional.

Suppose that $a_1,\ldots,a_n\in M$ generates M as an R-module. By the same argument as above, we can see that a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM is a set of generators for M/mM. For the other direction, suppose that a_1+mM,\ldots,a_n+mM generates M/mM as an R/m-vector space. Define $N=Ra_1+\cdots+Ra_n\leq M$. Set I=J(R)=m. We want to show that M=IM+N. It is clear that $IM+N\leq M$. If $x\in M$, then there exists $r_k\in R$ such that $x+mM=r_1(a_1+mM)+\cdots+r_n(a_n+M)$. In particular, this means that

$$x - \sum_{k=1}^{n} r_k a_k \in mM$$

Hence $x \in IM + N$. We can now apply the above corollary to deduce that $M = N = Ra_1 + \cdots + Ra_n$ so that M is generated by a_1, \ldots, a_n . And so we are done.

3.3 Change of Rings

Definition 3.3.1: Extension of Scalars

Let R, S be commutative rings. Let $\varphi: R \to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let M be an R-module. Define the extension of M to the ring S to be the S-module

$$S \otimes_R M$$

Definition 3.3.2: Restriction of Scalars

Let R,S be commutative rings. Let $\varphi:R\to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Let M be an S-module. Define the restriction of M to the ring R to be the R-module M equipped with the action

$$r \cdot_R m = \varphi(r) \cdot_S m$$

for all $r \in R$.

Theorem 3.3.3

Let R,S be commutative rings. Let $\varphi:R\to S$ be a ring homomorphism. Then there is an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, N) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$$

for any R-module M and S-module N given as follows.

• For $f \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M, N)$, define the map $f^+ \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$ by

$$f^+(m) = f(1 \otimes m)$$

• For $g \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, define the map $g^- \in \operatorname{Hom}_S(S \otimes_R M,N)$ by

$$g^-(s \otimes m) = s \cdot g(m)$$

3.4 Properties of the Hom Set

Let R be a ring. Let M, N be R-modules. Recall that in Rings and Modules that $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M, N)$ is a Z(R)-modules. When R is commutative, Z(R) = R so that the Hom set becomes an R-module.

Proposition 3.4.1

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M, N be R-modules. Then

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$$

is an *R*-module with the following binary operations.

- For $\phi, \varphi: M \to N$ two R-module homomorphisms, define $\phi + \varphi: M \to N$ by $(\phi + \varphi)(m) = \phi(m) + \varphi(m)$ for all $m \in M$
- For $\phi: M \to N$ an R-module homomorphism and rR, define $r\phi: M \to N$ by $(r\phi)(m) = r \cdot \phi(m)$ for all $m \in M$.

In particular, it is an abelian group.

Proof. We first show that the addition operation gives the structure of a group.

- ullet Since M is associative as an additive group, associativity follows
- Clearly the zero map $0 \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$ acts as the additive inverse since for any $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, we have that $\phi(m)+0=0+\phi(m)=\phi(m)$ since 0 is the additive identity for M
- For every $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$, the map taking m to $-\phi(m)$ also lies in $\operatorname{Hom}_R(M,N)$. Since $-\phi(m)$ is the inverse of $\phi(m)$ in M for each $m \in M$, we have that $-\phi$ is the inverse of ϕ

We now show that

- Let $r, s \in R$, we have that $((sr)\phi)(m) = (sr) \cdot \phi(m) = s \cdot (r \cdot \phi(m)) = s(r(\phi))(m)$ and hence we showed associativity.
- It is clear that $1_R \in R$ acts as the identity of the operation.

Thus we are done.

Proposition 3.4.2

Let R be a ring. Let I be an indexing set. Let M_i, N be R-modules for $i \in I$. Then the following are true.

• There is an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}\left(\bigoplus_{i\in I} M_i, N\right) \cong \bigoplus_{i\in I} \operatorname{Hom}(M_i, N)$$

• There is an isomorphism

$$\operatorname{Hom}\left(\prod_{i\in I}M_i,N\right)\cong\prod_{i\in I}\operatorname{Hom}(M_i,N)$$

Definition 3.4.3: Induced Map of Hom

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M_1, M_2, N be R-modules. Let $f: M_1 \to M_2$ be an R-module homomorphism. Define the induced map

$$f^*: \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_2, N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M_1, N)$$

by the formula $\varphi \mapsto \varphi \circ f$

Lemma 3.4.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M_1, M_2, N be R-modules. Let $f: M_1 \to M_2$ be an R-module homomorphism. Then the induced map

$$f^*: \operatorname{Hom}(M_2, N) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M_1, N)$$

is an R-module homomorphism.

3.5 Failure of Exactness of Hom and Tensoring

Proposition 3.5.1

Let R be a commutative ring. Let the following be an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M_2 \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

Let N be an R-module. Then the following two sequences

$$0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_3, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_2, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(M_1, N)$$

$$\operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M_1) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M_2) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Hom}_R(N, M_3) \longrightarrow 0$$

are exact.

Proof.

• We first show that g^* is injective. Let $\phi, \rho \in \operatorname{Hom}(C, G)$ such that $g^*(\phi) = g^*(\rho)$. This means that $\phi \circ g = \rho \circ g$. Let $c \in C$. Since g is surjective, there exists $b \in B$ such that g(b) = c. Then

$$\phi(c) = \phi(g(b)) = \rho(g(b)) = \rho(c)$$

Hence $\phi = \rho$.

Now we show that $\operatorname{im}(g^*) \subseteq \ker(f^*)$. Let $g^*(\phi) \in \operatorname{Hom}(B,G)$ for $\phi \in \operatorname{Hom}(C,G)$. We want to show that $f^*(g^*(\phi)) = 0$. But we have that

$$(\phi \circ g \circ f)(a) = \phi(g(f(a)) = \phi(0) = 0$$

since im(f) = ker(g). Thus we conclude.

Finally we show that $\ker(f^*)\subseteq \operatorname{im}(g^*)$. Let $f^*(\phi)=0$ for $\phi\in\operatorname{Hom}(B,G)$. This means that $\phi\circ f=0$ or in other words, $\operatorname{im}(f)\subseteq\ker(\phi)$. Since $\phi(k)=0$ for all $k\in\operatorname{im}(f)$, ϕ descends to a map $\overline{\phi}:\frac{B}{\operatorname{im}(f)}\to G$. But $\operatorname{im}(f)=\ker(g)$ hence this is equivalent to a map $\overline{\phi}:\frac{B}{\ker(g)}\to G$. But by the first isomorphism theorem and the fact that g is surjective, we conclude that $\overline{g}:\frac{B}{\ker(g)}\stackrel{g}{\cong} C$, where $b+\ker(g)\mapsto g(b)$. Thus we have constructed a map $\overline{\phi}\circ\overline{g}^{-1}:C\to G$ given by $g(b)\mapsto b+\ker(g)\mapsto \phi(b)$. But now $g^*(\overline{\phi}\circ\overline{g}^{-1})$ is the map defined by

$$b \mapsto g(b) \mapsto b + \ker(g) \mapsto \phi(b)$$

and so this map is exactly ϕ . Thus $\phi \in \text{im}(g^*)$.

Proposition 3.5.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let the following be an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$0 \, \longrightarrow \, M_1 \, \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} \, M_2 \, \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} \, M_3 \, \longrightarrow \, 0$$

Let N be an R-module. Then the following sequence

$$M_1 \otimes N \xrightarrow{f \otimes \mathrm{id}_N} M_2 \otimes N \xrightarrow{g \otimes \mathrm{id}_N} M_3 \otimes N \longrightarrow 0$$

is exact.

However, one can observe that we did not imply that $M_1 \otimes N \to M_2 \otimes N$ is injective. Indeed, this is because tensoring does not preserve injections.

4 Algebra Over a Commutative Ring

4.1 Commutative Algebras

Definition 4.1.1: Commutative Algebras

Let R be a commutative ring. A commutative R-algebra is an R-algebra A that is commutative.

Proposition 4.1.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Then the following are equivalent characterizations of a commutative R-algebra.

- A is a commutative R-algebra
- A is a commutative ring together with a ring homomorphism $f: R \to A$

Proof. Suppose that A is an R-algebra. Then define a map $f: R \to A$ by $f(r) = r \cdot 1$ where $r \cdot 1$ is the module operation on A. Then clearly this is a ring homomorphism.

Suppose that A is a commutative ring together with a ring homomorphism $f: R \to A$. Define an action $\cdot: R \times A \to A$ by $r \cdot a = f(r)a$. Then this action clearly allows A to be an R-module.

Under the correspondence of associative algebra, the above proposition gives a another correspondence between the first one.

$$\left\{ (A,R) \;\middle|\; \substack{A \text{ is a commutative} \\ R\text{-algebra}} \right\} \;\; \stackrel{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \;\; \left\{ \phi: R \to A \;\middle|\; \substack{\phi \text{ is a ring homomorphism such that } f(R) \subseteq Z(A) = A} \right\}$$

In particular, the construction above are inverses of each other so that it gives the one-to-one correspondence.

4.2 Finitely Generated Algebra

Definition 4.2.1: Finitely Generated Algebras

Let R be a commutative ring. Let A be an R-algebra. We say that A is finitely generated if there exists $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in A$ such that every element $a \in A$ can be written as a polynomial in a_1, \ldots, a_n . This means that

$$a = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_n} r_{i_1, \dots, i_n} a_1^{i_1} \cdots a_n^{i_n}$$

Finitely generated algebras are also called algebra of finite type.

Theorem 4.2.2

Let A be a commutative algebra over a ring R. Then the following are equivalent.

- A is a finitely generated algebra over R
- There exists elements $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in A$ such that the evaluation homomorphism

$$\phi: R[x_1,\ldots,x_n] \to A$$

given by $\phi(f) = f(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ is a surjection

• There is an isomorphism

$$A \cong \frac{R[x_1, \dots, x_n]}{I}$$

for some ideal I

Definition 4.2.3: Finitely Presented Algebra

Let R be a ring. Let $A = R[x_1, \dots, x_n]/I$ be a finitely generated algebra over R for some ideal I. We say that A is finitely presented if I is finitely generated.

Lemma 4.2.4

Let R be a ring, considered as an algebra over \mathbb{Z} . If R is finitely generated over \mathbb{Z} , then R is finitely presented.

Proof. Trivial since \mathbb{Z} is a principal ideal domain.

4.3 Finite Algebras

Definition 4.3.1: Finite Algebras

Let R be a commutative ring. Let A be an R-algebra. We say that A is finite if A is finitely generated as an R-module.

Example 4.3.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Then R[x] is a finitely generated algebra over R but is not a finite R-algebra.

4.4 Zariski's Lemma

Lemma 4.4.1

Let F be a field. Let $f \in F[x]$. Then the localization $F[x]_f$ is not a field.

Theorem 4.4.2: Zariski's Lemma

Let F be a field. Let K be a field that is also a finitely generated algebra over F. Then K is a finite algebra. In particular, K is a finite dimensional vector space over F.

Corollary 4.4.3

Let F be an algebraically closed field. Let K be a field that is also a finitely generated algebra over F. Then the inclusion homomorphism $F \hookrightarrow K$ is an F-algebra isomorphism.

Corollary 4.4.4

Let F be an algebraically closed field. Then every maximal ideal of $F[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is of the form $(x_1 - a_1, \ldots, x_n - a_n)$ for some $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in F$.

Localization 5

5.1 Localization of a Ring

Definition 5.1.1: Multiplicative Set

Let R be a commutative ring. $S \subseteq R$ is a multiplicative set if $1 \in S$ and S is closed under multiplication: $x, y \in S$ implies $xy \in S$

Definition 5.1.2: Localization of a Ring

Let R be a commutative ring and $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set. Define the ring of fractions of R with respect to S by

$$S^{-1}R = \left\{ \frac{r}{s} \mid r \in R, s \in S \right\} / \sim$$

where we say that $r/s \sim r'/s'$ if there exists $t \in S$ such that t(rs' - r's) = 0.

Lemma 5.1.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $f \in R$ be non-zero. Then the set $\{f^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a multiplicative set.

Definition 5.1.4: Localization at an Element

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $f \in R$ be non-zero. Define the localization of R at f to be the ring

$$R_f = \{ f^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}^{-1} R$$

It is also denoted as R[1/f].

Proposition 5.1.5

Let $S^{-1}R$ be a ring of fractions.

- ullet \sim as defined in the ring of fractions is an equivalence relation
- $(S^{-1}R,+,\times)$ is a ring $\tilde{}$ The map $k:R\to S^{-1}R$ defined by $r\mapsto r/1$ is a ring homomorphism, called the localization map.

Proof.

- Trivial
- Define addition by $\frac{r}{s} + \frac{r'}{s'} = \frac{rs' + r's}{ss'}$ and multiplication by $\frac{r}{s} \cdot \frac{r'}{s'} = \frac{rr'}{ss'}$. Clearly addition is abelian, and has identity $\frac{0}{1}$ and inverse $\frac{-r}{s}$ for any $\frac{r}{s} \in S^{-1}R$. Multiplication also has identity $\frac{1}{1}$.

Proposition 5.1.6: Universal Property

Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative set. Then $S^{-1}R$ and the localization map $k: R \to S^{-1}R$ satisfies the following universal property.

For any commutative ring B and ring homomorphism $\phi: R \to B$ such that $\phi(s) \in B^{\times}$ for all $s \in S$, there exists a unique ring homomorphism $\phi: S^{-1}R \to B$ such that the following diagram commutes:

Moreover, $S^{-1}R$ is the unique commutative ring (up to unique isomorphism) that has such a property.

Lemma 5.1.7

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S\subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset of R. If R is Noetherian, then $S^{-1}R$ is Noetherian.

Lemma 5.1.8

Let R be a ring and P a prime ideal of R. Then $R \setminus P$ is a multiplicative set.

Proof. By definition, $xy \in P$ implies $x \in P$ or $y \in P$, since $R \setminus P$ removes all these elements, we have that $x \notin P$ and $y \notin P$ implies that $xy \notin P$.

Definition 5.1.9: Localization at Prime Ideals

Let R be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal. Denote

$$R_p = (R \setminus P)^{-1}R$$

the localization of R at P.

5.2 Localization of a Module

Definition 5.2.1: Localization of a Module

Let R be a commutative ring and $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative set Let M be a R-module. Define the ring of fractions of M with respect to S by

$$S^{-1}M=\left\{\frac{m}{s}|m\in M,s\in S\right\}/\sim$$

where \sim is defined by

$$\frac{m}{s} \sim \frac{m'}{s'}$$
 if and only if $\exists v \in S$ such that $v(mu' - m'u) = 0$

If $S = \{1, f, f^2, \dots\}$ then we write

$$S^{-1}M = M_f = M[1/f]$$

Lemma 5.2.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Then $S^{-1}M$ is an $S^{-1}R$ -module with operation given by

$$\left(\frac{r}{s_1}, \frac{m}{s_2}\right) \mapsto \frac{r \cdot m}{s_1 s_2}$$

Definition 5.2.3: Induced Map of Localization

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let M, N be R-modules. Let $\phi: M \to N$ be an R-module homomorphism. Define the induced map

$$S^{-1}\phi: S^{-1}M \to S^{-1}N$$

by the formula $\frac{m}{s} \mapsto \frac{\phi(n)}{s}$.

Lemma 5.2.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let M, N be R-modules. Let $\phi: M \to N$ be an R-module homomorphism. Then the induced map

$$S^{-1}\phi: S^{-1}M \to S^{-1}N$$

is a well defined ring homomorphism.

Proposition 5.2.5

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let the following be an exact sequence of R-modules.

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M_2 \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

Then the following is an exact sequence of $S^{-1}R$ -modules.

$$0 \, \longrightarrow \, S^{-1}M_1 \, \xrightarrow{S^{-1}f} \, S^{-1}M_2 \, \xrightarrow{S^{-1}g} \, S^{-1}M_3 \, \longrightarrow \, 0$$

Corollary 5.2.6

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S\subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let M be an R-module. Then the following are true.

• If N_1, N_2 are R-submodules of M, then

$$S^{-1}(N_1 + N_2) = S^{-1}N_1 + S^{-1}N_2$$

as $S^{-1}R$ -submodules of $S^{-1}M$.

• If N_1, N_2 are R-submodules of M, then

$$S^{-1}(N_1 \cap N_2) = S^{-1}N_1 \cap S^{-1}N_2$$

as $S^{-1}R$ -submodules of $S^{-1}M$.

• If N is an R-submodule of M, then

$$S^{-1}\frac{M}{N} \cong \frac{S^{-1}M}{S^{-1}N}$$

as $S^{-1}R$ -modules.

• If *N* is an *R*-module, then

$$S^{-1}(M \oplus N) \cong S^{-1}M \oplus S^{-1}N$$

as $S^{-1}R$ -modules.

Proposition 5.2.7

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then there is an isomorphism

$$S^{-1}M \cong S^{-1}R \otimes_R M$$

of $S^{-1}R$ -modules given by $\frac{m}{s} \mapsto \frac{1}{s} \otimes m$.

Lemma 5.2.8

Let R be a commutative ring. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let M, N be R-modules. Let $\phi: M \to N$ be an R-module homomorphism. Then the following are true.

• Localization commutes with kernels:

$$S^{-1}\ker(\phi) \cong \ker(S^{-1}\phi)$$

• Localization commutes with images:

$$S^{-1}(\operatorname{im}\phi) \cong \operatorname{im}(S^{-1}\phi)$$

• Localization commutes with cokernels:

$$S^{-1}\frac{N}{\operatorname{im}(\phi)} \cong \frac{S^{-1}N}{\operatorname{im}(S^{-1}\phi)}$$

5.3 Localization of Integral Domains

Lemma 5.3.1

Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. If R is an integral domain, then then following are true.

- The localization map $R \to S^{-1}R$ is injective.
- If $0 \notin S$, then $S^{-1}R$ is an integral domain.

Proof. Suppose that $0=\frac{a}{s}\cdot\frac{b}{t}$. By the equivalence relation this is the same as saying that uab=0 for some $u\in S$. Since R is an integral domain and $0\neq S$, we conclude that $u\notin S$ so that ab=0. Again since R is an integral domain this implies that a=0 or b=0. Hence either a/s=0 or b/t=0 in $S^{-1}R$. Hence $S^{-1}R$ is an integral domain.

Proposition 5.3.2

Let R be an integral domain. Then the following are true.

- $\operatorname{Frac}(R) = R_{(0)}$
- $R = \bigcap_{m \text{ a maximal ideal}} R_m$

5.4 Ideals of a Localization

Definition 5.4.1: Ideals Closed Under Division

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. We say that I is closed under division by s if for all $s \in S$ and $a \in R$ such that $sa \in I$, we have $a \in I$.

Lemma <u>5.4.2</u>

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let $S\subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Then we have

$$I^e = S^{-1}I$$

Proposition 5.4.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then the following are true.

- $S^{-1}P$ is a prime ideal of $S^{-1}R$ if and only if $S \cap P = \emptyset$.
- $S^{-1}P = S^{-1}R$ if and only if $S \cap P \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Recall that R/P is an integral domain if P is prime. Since S^{-1} commutes with quotients, we have that

$$\frac{S^{-1}R}{S^{-1}P} \cong S^{-1}\frac{R}{P}$$

If $S \cap P = \emptyset$, then $0 \in P$ implies that $0 \notin S$. This means that $0 \notin \phi(S)$. By 5.3.1 we conclude that $S^{-1}(R/P)$ is an integral domain. Hence $S^{-1}P$ is a prime ideal. If $S \cap P \neq \emptyset$, suppose that $x \in S \cap P$. Then ??????

Theorem 5.4.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Let $\phi: R \to S^{-1}R$ denote the localization map. Then there is a one-to-one bijection

$$\{J \mid J \text{ is an ideal of } S^{-1}R\} \overset{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \{I \mid_{I \text{ is closed under division by } S}\}$$

whose map is given by $J \mapsto J^c = \phi^{-1}(J)$ and inverse is given by $I \mapsto I^e = S^{-1}I$.

Proof. We first show that our map of sets are well defined. Let J be an ideal of $S^{-1}R$. We first show that $\phi^{-1}(J)$ is closed under division by S. Suppose that $s \in S$ and $r \in R$ such that $sr \in \phi^{-1}(J)$. Then $sr/1 \in J$. Now since J is an ideal of $S^{-1}R$, we know that $1/s \cdot sr/1 \in J$. But $1/s \cdot sr/1 = r/1 = \phi(r)$. This means that $\phi(r) \in J$ and hence $r \in \phi^{-1}(J)$. Thus $\phi^{-1}(J)$ is an ideal closed under division by S.

Now let I be an ideal of R closed under division. I claim that $S^{-1}I$ is an ideal of $S^{-1}R$. Let $a/s, b/t \in S^{-1}I$. Then a/s + b/t = (at + bs)/st. Since I is an ideal, we know that $at + bs \in I$. Also since S is a multiplicative subset, $st \in S$. Hence $(at + bs)/st \in I$. Now let $a/s \in S^{-1}I$ and $r/t \in S^{-1}R$. Then $(a/s) \cdot (r/t) = ar/st$. Since I is an ideal, $ar \in I$. Thus $ar/st \in S^{-1}I$ so that I is an ideal.

It remains to show that the two maps are inverses of each other. Let J be an ideal of $S^{-1}R$. We want to show that $J=S^{-1}(\phi^{-1}(J))$. Let $a/s\in J$. Since J is an ideal, we have $\phi(a)=a/1=1/s\cdot a/s\in J$. Hence $a\in \phi^{-1}J$ so that $a/s\in S^{-1}\phi^{-1}(J)$. Thus $J\subseteq S^{-1}(\phi^{-1}(J))$. Now by 1.5.5 the extension of the contraction of J is a subset of J. Hence we conclude.

On the other hand, we also want to show that $I = \phi^{-1}(S^{-1}I)$. Again by 1.5.5 we know that $I \subseteq \phi^{-1}(S^{-1}I)$. Conversely, let $x \in \phi^{-1}(S^{-1}I)$. Then $\phi(x) = x/1 \in S^{-1}I$. This means that x/1 = b/t for some $b \in I$ and $t \in S$. Then there exists $u \in S$ such that uxt = ub. Since $b \in I$, $ub \in I$ hence $uxt \in I$. Since $ut \in S$ and I is closed under division, we have $x \in I$.

This shows that $S^{-1}(-)$ and $\phi^{-1}(-)$ are mutual inverses of each others. Thus we conclude.

Using the theorem we conclude that every ideal of $S^{-1}R$ is of the form $S^{-1}I$ for some ideal I of R such that I is closed under division by S.

Proposition 5.4.5

Let R be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of R. Let $S \subseteq R$ be a multiplicative subset. Then the above bijection restricts to the following bijection

$$\left\{J\mid J \text{ is a prime ideal of }S^{-1}R\right\} \quad \overset{1:1}{\longleftrightarrow} \quad \left\{I\mid I \text{ is a prime ideal of }R\right\}$$

Proof. Let $\phi: R \to S^{-1}R$ be the localization map. From the above we know that $Q = S^{-1}\phi^{-1}(Q)$ for any prime ideal Q of $S^{-1}R$. This implies that $S^{-1}\phi^{-1}(Q)$ is prime. By 5.4.3 this implies that $\phi^{-1}(Q) \cap S = \emptyset$. Thus the map $J \mapsto \phi^{-1}(J)$ induces a well defined map on our given sets of prime ideals.

Conversely, by 5.4.3 we know that if P is a prime ideal of R such that $S \cap P = \emptyset$, then $S^{-1}P$ is a prime ideal of $S^{-1}R$. Hence the inverse map is also well defined on our domain and codomain. By the above theorem it is already a bijection, hence we are done.

Proposition 5.4.6

Let R be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then the above bijection gives

$$\left\{J\mid J \text{ is a prime ideal of } R_P\right\} \ \stackrel{\text{1:1}}{\longleftrightarrow} \ \left\{I\mid I \text{ is a prime ideal of } R\right\}$$

Proof. Notice that the condition that $I \cap S = \emptyset$ in the above proposition translates to $I \cap (R \setminus P) = \emptyset$, which is the same as saying $I \subseteq P$.

Proposition 5.4.7

Let R be a commutative ring and let P be a prime ideal of R. Then R_P is a local ring with unique maximal ideal given by

$$PR_P = \left\{ \frac{r}{s} \mid r \in P, s \notin P \right\}$$

Proof. We show that PR_P is the only unique maximal ideal. Suppose that I is an ideal in R_P such that I is not a subset of PR_P . Then there exists $a/s \in I$ such that $a \notin P$ and $s \notin P$. It is clear that s/a is then an element of R_P . So a/s is invertible. Hence $I = R_P$.

Be wary that in general localizations does not result in a local ring. This happens only when we are localizing with respect to a prime ideal. The importance of prime ideals is not explicit in the above because only using prime ideals P can $R \setminus P$ be a multiplicative set which ultimately allows localization to make sense.

5.5 Local Properties

Definition 5.5.1: Local Properties of Modules

Let R be a commutative ring. A property of R-modules is local if for any R-modules M, the following are equivalent.

- *M* has the property
- M_P has the property for all primes ideals P
- M_m has the property for all maximal ideals m

Proposition 5.5.2: Injectivity and Surjectivity are Local Properties

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M,N be R-modules. Let $\phi:M\to N$ be an R-module homomorphism. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Then the following are equivalent.

- ϕ is injective (surjective)
- For each prime ideal P of R, the induced map $\phi_P: S^{-1}M \to S^{-1}N$ is injective (surjective)
- For each maximal ideal m of R, the induced map $\phi_m: S^{-1}M \to S^{-1}N$ is injective (surjective)

More local properties: zero, nilpotent Non-local properties: freeness, domain

Proposition 5.5.3: Exactness is Local

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M_1, M_2, M_3 be R-modules. Let $f: M_1 \to M_2$ and $g: M_2 \to M_3$ be R-module homomorphisms. Then the following conditions are equivalent.

• The following sequence is exact:

$$0 \longrightarrow M_1 \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} M_2 \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} M_3 \longrightarrow 0$$

• The following sequence is exact:

$$0 \longrightarrow (M_1)_P \xrightarrow{f_P} (M_2)_P \xrightarrow{g_P} (M_3)_P \longrightarrow 0$$

for all prime ideals P of R.

• The following sequence is exact:

$$0 \longrightarrow (M_1)_m \xrightarrow{f_m} (M_2)_m \xrightarrow{g_m} (M_3)_m \longrightarrow 0$$

for all maximal ideals m of R.

Definition 5.5.4: Local Properties of Elements

A property of an element of M is local if the following is true. $m \in M$ has the property if and only if $m \in M_P$ has the property.

6 Primary Decomposition

6.1 Support of a Module

Definition 6.1.1: Support of a Module

Let A be a commutative ring. Let M be an A-module. The support of M is the subset

$$Supp(M) = \{P \text{ a prime ideal of } A \mid M_P \neq 0\}$$

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Recall that the annihilator of an element $m \in M$ is the ideal

$$Ann_R(m) = \{ r \in R \mid r \cdot m = 0 \}$$

Moreover, we define

$$\operatorname{Ann}_R(M) = \{r \in R \mid r \cdot m = 0 \text{ for all } m \in M\} = \bigcap_{m \in M} \operatorname{Ann}_R(m)$$

Proposition 6.1.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Let P be a prime ideal of R Then $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(M)$ if and only if $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M) \subseteq P$.

6.2 Associated Prime

Definition 6.2.1: Associated Prime

Let M be an A-module. An associated prime of M is a prime ideal P of A such that

$$P = \operatorname{Ann}_A(m)$$

for some $m \in M$. Also define

 $Ass(M) = \{Pa \text{ prime ideal of } A \mid P \text{ is an associated prime of } M\}$

Proposition 6.2.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then

$$Ass(M) \subseteq Supp(M)$$

Proposition 6.2.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then the following are true.

- Ass(M) is a finite set.
- For $P \in Ass(M)$, $Ann_R(M) \subseteq P$.
- We have

 $\operatorname{Ass}(M) = \{ P \in \operatorname{Spec}(R) \mid \text{ For any prime ideal } Q \subseteq P, Q \text{ does not contain } \operatorname{Ann}_R(M) \}$

Proof.

• We have seen that every $P \in \operatorname{Supp}(M)$ is such that $\operatorname{Ann}_R(M) \subseteq P$. Since $\operatorname{Ass}(M) \subseteq \operatorname{Supp}(M)$, we are done.

Proposition 6.2.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let M be an R-module. Then

$$\bigcup_{P \in \mathrm{Ass}(M)} P = \{ m \in M \mid m \text{ is a zero divisor of } M \} \cup \{ 0 \}$$

Theorem 6.2.5: Disassembly of an R-Module

Let R be a Noetherian commutative ring. Let M be a finitely generated R-module. Then there exists a chain of R-submodules

$$0 = M_0 \subset M_1 \subset \cdots \subset M_k = M$$

such that

$$\frac{M_{i+1}}{M_i} \cong \frac{R}{P_i}$$

for some prime ideal P_i of R.

6.3 Primary Ideals

Definition 6.3.1: Primary Ideals

Let R be a commutative ring. Let Q be a proper ideal of R. We say that Q is a primary ideal of R if $fg \in Q$ implies $f \in Q$ or $g^m \in Q$ for some m > 0.

Lemma 6.3.2

Let A be a commutative ring. Let Q be a primary ideal of A. Then \sqrt{Q} is the smallest prime ideal containing Q.

Lemma 6.3.3

Let R be a Noetherian ring and I be a proper ideal that is not primary. Then

$$I=J_1\cap J_2$$

for some ideals $J_1, J_2 \neq I$.

Definition 6.3.4: P-Primary Ideals

Let A be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal. Let Q be an ideal. We say that Q is a P-primary ideal of A if

$$Q = \sqrt{P}$$

Theorem 6.3.5

Let A be a Noetherian ring and Q an ideal of A. Then Q is P-primary if and only if $Ann(A/Q) = \{P\}$.

6.4 Primary Decomposition

We want to express ideal I in R as $I = P_1^{e_1} \cdots P_n^{e_n}$ similar to a factorization of natural numbers, for some prime ideals P_1, \dots, P_n . However this notion fails and thus we have the following new type of ideal.

Definition 6.4.1: Primary Decompositions

Let A be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of A. A primary decomposition I consists of primary ideals Q_1, \ldots, Q_r of A such that

$$I = Q_1 \cap \dots \cap Q_r$$

Definition 6.4.2: Minimal Primary Decompositions

Let A be a commutative ring. Let I be an ideal of A. Let

$$I = Q_1 \cap \dots \cap Q_r$$

be a primary decomposition of I. We say that the decomposition is minimal if the following are true.

- Each $\sqrt{Q_i}$ are distinct for $1 \le i \le r$
- Removing a primary ideal changes the intersection. This means that for any i, $I \neq \bigcap_{j \neq i} Q_j$

Theorem 6.4.3

Every proper ideal in a Noetherian ring has a primary decomposition.

Lemma 6.4.4

Let $\phi:R\to S$ be a ring homomorphism and Q be a primary ideal in S. Then $\phi^{-1}(Q)$ is primary in R.

7 Integral Dependence

7.1 Integral Elements

Definition 7.1.1: Integral Elements

Let B be a commutative ring and let $A\subseteq B$ be a subring. Let $b\in B$. We say that b is integral over A if there exists a monic polynomial $p(x)=x^n+a_{n-1}x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_0\in A[x]$ such that p(b)=0.

When *A* and *B* are field, this is a familiar notion in Field and Galois theory.

Lemma 7.1.2

Let K be a field. Let $F \subseteq K$ be a subfield. Let $k \in K$. Then k is integral over F if and only if k is algebraic over F.

Proposition 7.1.3

Let *B* be a commutative ring and let $A \subseteq B$. Let $b \in B$. Then the following are equivalent.

- \bullet b is integral over A
- $A[b] \subseteq B$ is finitely generated A-submodule.
- There exists an A sub-algebra $A' \subseteq B$ such that $A[b] \subseteq A'$ and A' is finitely generated as an A-module.

Proposition 7.1.4

Let $A \subseteq B$ be commutative rings. Then B is a finitely generated A-module if and only if $B = A[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ for some $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in B$ that is integral over A.

Proposition 7.1.5

Let B be a commutative ring and let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring. Let $b_1, b_2 \in B$ be integral over A. Then $b_1 + b_2$ and b_1b_2 are both integral over A.

7.2 Integral Closure

Definition 7.2.1: Integral Closure

Let *B* be a commutative ring. Let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring. Define the subring

$$\overline{A} = \{b \in B \mid b \text{ is integral over } A\}$$

to be the integral closure of A in B.

Proposition 7.2.2

Let B be a commutative ring. Let $A\subseteq B$ be a subring. Let S be a multiplicatively closed subset of A. Then

$$\overline{S^{-1}A} = S^{-1}\overline{A}$$

Definition 7.2.3: Integral Extensions

Let B be a commutative ring and let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring. We say that B is integral over A if $\overline{A} = B$. We also say that B is the integral extension of A.

Lemma 7.2.4

Let $A \subseteq B \subseteq C$ be commutative rings. Then C is integral over B and B is integral over A if and only if C is integral over A.

Proposition 7.2.5

Let A,B be commutative rings such that $A \subset B$ is an integral extension. Let J be an ideal of B. Then $\frac{B}{J}$ is integral over $\frac{A}{J \cap A}$.

Proposition 7.2.6

Let A, B be commutative rings such that $A \subset B$ is an integral extension. Let S be a multiplicative subset of B. Then $S^{-1}B$ is integral over $S^{-1}A$.

Lemma 7.2.7

Let A, B be integral domains such that $A \subset B$ is an integral extension. Then A is a field if and only if B is a field.

Definition 7.2.8: Integrally Closed

Let B be a commutative ring. Let $A \subseteq B$ be a subring. We say that A is integrally closed in B if $\overline{A} = A$.

7.3 The Going-Up and Going-Down Theorems

We want to compare prime ideals between integral extensions.

Proposition 7.3.1

Let A, B be rings such that $A \subset B$ is an integral extension. Let Q be a prime ideal of B. Then $Q \cap A$ is a maximal ideal of A if and only if Q is a maximal ideal of B.

Proposition 7.3.2

Let A,B be rings such that $A\subset B$ is an integral extension. Let P be a prime ideal of A. Then the following are true.

- There exists a prime ideal Q of B such that $P = Q \cap A$
- If Q_1, Q_2 are prime ideals of B such that $Q_1 \cap A = P = Q_2 \cap B$ and $Q_1 \subseteq Q_2$, then $Q_1 = Q_2$.

Theorem 7.3.3: The Going-Up Theorem

Let A,B be rings such that $A\subset B$ is an integral extension. Let $0\leq m< n$. Consider the following situation

where $Q_i \cap A = P_i$ for $1 \le i \le m$. Then there exists prime ideals Q_{m+1}, \ldots, Q_n of B such that the following are true.

- $Q_{m+1} \subseteq \cdots \subseteq Q_n$
- $Q_i \cap A = P_i$ for $m+1 \le i \le n$

7.4 Normal Domains

We now concern ourselves with integral domains. Let R be an integral domain. A special fact about R is that the canonical homomorphism $R \to R_{(0)} = \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ is an injection. This means that we can we can think of R as living inside of $\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ while preserving all the structure of R.

Definition 7.4.1: Normal Domains

Let R be an integral domain. We say that R is normal if R is integrally closed in Frac(R).

Proposition 7.4.2

Let R be a normal domain. Let S be a multiplicative subset of R. Then $S^{-1}R$ is a normal domain.

Proof. We want to show that $S^{-1}R$ is integrally closed in $\operatorname{Frac}(R) = \operatorname{Frac}(S^{-1}R)$. This means that we want to show $\overline{S^{-1}R} = S^{-1}R$. It is clear that $S^{-1}R \subseteq \overline{S^{-1}R}$. So let $g \in \overline{S^{-1}R}$. Suppose that $p(x) = x^n + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k x^k \in (S^{-1}R)[x]$ such that p(g) = 0. Choose $s \in S$ such that $sa_i \in R$ for $0 \le i \le n-1$. Then notice that $sg \in S^{-1}R$ satisfies the monic polynomial

$$q(x) = x^{n} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} s^{n-k} a_{k} x^{k}$$

since $q(sg)=s^ng^n+\sum_{k\equiv 0}^{n-1}s^na_kx^k=s^np(g)=0$. But q is a polynomial in R since $s^{n-k}a_k\in R$. Thus we have that $sg\in R=R$ since R is normal. This means that $g\in S^{-1}R$ and hence we conclude.

Proposition 7.4.3

Let R be a commutative ring. If R is a UFD, then R is normal.

Proposition 7.4.4: Normal is a Local Property

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

- \bullet R is normal
- R_P is normal for all prime ideals P
- R_m is normal for all maximal ideals m.

Proof. Notice that an integral domain R is normal if and only if the canonical inclusion map $R\hookrightarrow \overline{R}$ is surjective. Since surjectivity is a local property, this map is surjective if and only if for all prime ideals P of R, $R_P\hookrightarrow \overline{R}_P$ is surjective. But $\overline{R}_P=\overline{R}_P$ by the above. Hence $R\hookrightarrow \overline{R}$ is surjective if and only if $R_P\to \overline{R}_P$ is surjective. Hence R is normal if and only if R_P is normal for all prime ideals P of R. The similar holds for all maximal ideals. \square

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Proposition 7.4.5

Let R be a normal domain. Then R[x] is a normal domain.

Proposition 7.4.6

Let R be a normal domain. Let $K/\operatorname{Frac}(R)$ be an algebraic extension. Let $f \in K$. Then f is integral over R if and only if the minimal polynomial $\min(K, f) \in R[x]$.

8 Introduction to Dimension Theory for Rings

8.1 Krull Dimension

Definition 8.1.1: Krull Dimension

Let R be a commutative ring. Define the Krull dimension of R to be

$$\dim(R) = \max\{t \in \mathbb{N} \mid p_0 \subset \cdots \subset p_t \text{ for } p_0, \ldots, p_t \text{ prime ideals}\}$$

In particular, notice that a commutative ring R has $\dim(R) = 0$ if and only if every prime ideal is maximal.

Lemma 8.1.2

Let R,S be commutative rings such that $R\subseteq S$ is an integral extension. Then $\dim(R)=\dim(S)$.

Proposition 8.1.3

Let F be a field. Let $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. Then the following are true.

- $\dim(F[x_1,\ldots,x_n])=n$.
- Every maximal chain prime ideals in $F[x_1, \ldots, x_n]$ is of length n.

Lemma 8.1.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Then the following are true.

- If R is a field, then $\dim(R) = 0$
- If R is Artinian, then $\dim(R) = 0$

Proof. Let R be a field. Then the only proper prime ideal of R is (0). In particular, (0) forms the only chain of prime ideals in R. Hence $\dim(R) = 0$.

Now let R be Artinian. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then R/P is an integral domain. Moreover, every quotient of an Artinian ring is Artinian. Hence R/P is Artinian. By prp1.3.1, we conclude that R/P is a field. Hence P is a maximal ideal. Any chain of prime ideals of R must terminate at the first prime ideal since it is maximal. Hence $\dim(R)=0$.

8.2 Height of Prime Ideals

Definition 8.2.1: Height of a Prime Ideal

Let R be a commutative ring. Let p be a prime ideal of R. Define the height of p to be

$$ht(p) = max\{t \in \mathbb{N} \mid p_0 \subset \cdots \subset p_t = p \text{ for } p_0, \ldots, p_t \text{ prime ideals } \}$$

Lemma 8.2.2

Let R be a commutative ring. Then

$$\dim(R) = \max\{\mathsf{ht}(P) \mid P \in \mathsf{Spec}(R)\}\$$

Lemma 8.2.3

Let R be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then

$$ht(P) = dim(R_P)$$

Proof. Let $\dim(R_P) = n$. Then there exists a strict chain of prime ideals of R_P of length n (and no chain of prime ideals of length > n). By prp5.4.6, prime ideals of R_P are in bijection with prime ideals of R that P contains. Hence the maximal chain of prime ideals of length n correspond to a chain of prime ideals in R that contain P, of length n. Hence $\dim(R_P) = n \le \operatorname{ht}(P)$. Conversely, let $m = \operatorname{ht}(P)$. Then there exists a strict chain of prime ideals that are subsets of P, that are of length m. By the same correspondence, the chain of prime ideals correspond to a chain of prime ideals in R_P of length m. Hence $\operatorname{ht}(P) = m \le \dim(R_P)$.

The two inequalities combine to show that $\dim(R_P) = \operatorname{ht}(P)$.

Lemma 8.2.4

Let R be a commutative ring. Let P be a prime ideal of R. Then

$$\dim(R) \ge \dim(R/P) + \operatorname{ht}_R(P)$$

Proposition 8.2.5

Let k be a field. Let A be an integral domain that is a finitely generated k-algebra. Then the following are true.

- $\dim(A) = \operatorname{trdeg}_k(\operatorname{Frac}(A))$
- For any prime ideal *P* of *A*, we have

$$\dim(A) = \dim(A/P) + \operatorname{ht}_A(P)$$

Proposition 8.2.6: Dimension is a Local Concept

Let R be a commutative ring. Then the following numbers are equal.

- The Krull dimension $\dim(R)$
- The supremum $\sup\{\dim(R_m) \mid m \text{ is a maximal ideal of } R\}$
- The supremum $\sup\{\operatorname{ht}_R(m)\mid m \text{ is a maximal ideal of } R\}$

Theorem 8.2.7: Krull's Principal Ideal Theorem

Let R be a Noetherian ring. Let I be a proper and principal ideal of R. Let p be the smallest prime ideal containing I. Then

$$ht_R(p) \leq 1$$

8.3 Length of a Module over Commutative Rings

Let R be a ring. Recall that the length of an R-module M is defined to be the supremum

$$l_R(M) = \sup\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid 0 = M_0 \subset M_1 \subset \cdots \subset M_n = M\}$$

Lemma 8.3.1

Let (A, m) be a local ring and let M be an A-module. If mM = 0, then

$$l_A(M) = \dim_{A/m}(M)$$

Proposition 8.3.2

Let R be a commutative ring and let M be an R-module. Then the following are equivalent.

- \bullet M is simple
- $l_R(M) = 1$
- $M \cong R/m$ for some maximal ideal m of R

8.4 The Hilbert Polynomial

Definition 8.4.1: The Hilbert Polynomial

Let $R = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} R_k$ be a Noetherian graded ring. Let $M = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} M_k$ be a graded R-module. Define the Hilbert function $H_M : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ of R to be the function defined by

$$H_M(n) = l_{R_0}(M_n)$$

Definition 8.4.2: The Hilbert Series

Let $R = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} R_k$ be a Noetherian graded ring. Let $M = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} M_k$ be a graded R-module. Define the Hilbert series $HS_M \in \mathbb{Z}[[t]]$ of M to be the formal series

$$HS_M(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} H_M(k) t^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} l_{R_0}(M_k) t^k$$

Proposition 8.4.3

Let $R = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} R_k$ be a Noetherian graded ring such that R_0 is Artinian. Let $M = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} M_k$ be a graded R-module. Let $\lambda : \{M_i \mid i \in I\} \to \mathbb{Z}$ be an additive function Then the function

$$g(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda(M_k) t^k$$

is a rational function and can be written in the form

$$g(t) = \frac{f(t)}{\prod_{i=1}^{r} (1 - t^{d_i})}$$

for some $f(t) \in \mathbb{Z}[t]$ and $d_i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 8.4.4: The Fundamental Theorem of Dimension Theory

Let (R, m) be a local Noetherian ring. Let I be an m-primary ideal. Then the following numbers are equal.

- Let $J = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{I^k}{I^{k+1}}$. The order of the pole at 1 of the rational function HS_J .
- \bullet The minimum number of elements of R that can generate an m-primary ideal of R
- The dimension $\dim_{R/m}(R)$

The following is a generalization of Krull's principal ideal theorem. Both of the theorems can actually be deduced directly from the fundamental theorem.

Theorem 8.4.5: Krull's Height Theorem

Let R be a Noetherian ring. Let I be a proper ideal generated by n elements. Let p be the smallest prime ideal containing I. Then

$$ht_R(p) \leq n$$

Proposition 8.4.6

Let (R, m) be a Noetherian local ring and let k = R/m be the residue field. Then

$$\dim(R) \le \dim_k(m/m^2)$$

8.5 Structure Theorem for Artinian Rings

Let R be a ring. Let M be an R-module. Recall that a composition series for M is a sequence of R-submodules

$$0 = M_0 \subset M_1 \subset \cdots \subset M_k = M$$

such that $\frac{M_{i+1}}{M_i}$ is a simple R-module for $1 \le i < k$.

Proposition 8.5.1

Let $R \neq 0$ be a commutative ring. Then R is Artinian if and only if R is Noetherian and $\dim(R) = 0$.

Proof. Let R be Artinian. In Rings and Modules, the Akizuki-Hopkins-Levitzki theorem proves that R is Noetherian. Moreover, Imm8.1.4 shows that $\dim(R) = 0$.

Now let R be Notherian and $\dim(R)=0$. This means that every prime ideal of R is maximal. Let S be the set of all ideals of R that admit a composition series. I claim that S is non-empty. Let $T=\{\operatorname{Ann}(x)\mid 0\neq x\in R\}$. Clearly T is non-empty. Let $Y_1\subseteq Y_2\subseteq \cdots$ be a chain in T. Since R is Noetherian, the chain terminates at finitely many sets with $Y=\operatorname{Ann}(x)\subseteq R$ for some $x\in R$. I claim that Y is a prime ideal. By definition $R=\operatorname{Ann}(0)\notin T$ hence $R\notin T$. This means that $Y\neq R$. Let $ab\in Y=\operatorname{Ann}(x)$. Suppose that $b\notin Y$. We know that abx=0 so $a\in\operatorname{Ann}(bx)$. Since $bx\neq 0$, we have $\operatorname{Ann}(bx)\in T$. Since R is commutative, we also have that $\operatorname{Ann}(x)\subseteq\operatorname{Ann}(bx)$. Since $\operatorname{Ann}(x)$ is maximal, we have that $\operatorname{Ann}(x)=\operatorname{Ann}(bx)$. Hence $a\in\operatorname{Ann}(x)$. Thus $\operatorname{Ann}(x)$ is prime. Since $\operatorname{dim}(R)=0$ we have $\operatorname{Ann}(x)$ is a maximal ideal. $R/\operatorname{Ann}(x)$ is a field (and hence a simple R-module). The multiplication map $r\mapsto rx$ has kernel $\operatorname{Ann}(x)$. Hence the induced map $R/\operatorname{Ann}(x)\to R$ is injective, and we can consider $R/\operatorname{Ann}(x)$ as a subring of R. Together with the fact that it is a simple R-module makes it an R-submodule with composition series length of 1. Hence S is non-empty.

Let $N_1\subseteq N_2\subseteq \cdots$ be a chain in S. Since R is Noetherian, the chain terminates with some ideal $I\in S$. If I=R, then R has a composition series. If $I\neq R$, then R/I is non-zero. Choose a prime ideal P of R such that $I\subseteq P\neq R$ (this always exists since we can choose maximal ideals). Then we have $0\neq R/P\subseteq R/I$. Let $p:R\to R/I$ be the projection map. Let $T=p^{-1}(R/P)$. Then we have that $N\subset T\subseteq M$ and $T/N\cong R/P$. Since $\dim(R)=0$, P is maximal hence R/P is a field (and a simple R-module). This proves that $T\in S$. But this contradicts the maximality of N. Hence $N=R\in T$. Thus R has a composition series. From Rings and Modules we know that this implies R is Noetherian. Hence we conclude.

Recall from Rings and Modules that we have seen that Artinian rings have finitely many maximal ideals.

Theorem 8.5.2: Structure Theorem for Commutative Artinian Rings

Let R be an Artinian commutative ring. Then R decomposes into a direct product of Artinian local rings

$$R \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k R_i$$

Moreover, the decomposition is unique up to reordering of the direct product.

Proof. Let m_1, \ldots, m_k be the full list of distinct maximal ideals of R. Then

$$\prod_{i=1}^k m_i^n = 0$$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. The ideals m_i^n and m_j^n are pairwise coprime for $i \neq j$. Hence by the Chinese Remainder Theorem we obtain ring isomorphisms

$$\begin{split} R &\cong \frac{R}{0} \\ &\cong \frac{R}{\prod_{i=1}^k m_i^n} \\ &\cong \frac{R}{\bigcap_{i=1}^k m_i^n} \\ &\cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \frac{R}{m_i^n} \end{split} \tag{(CRT)}$$

By the correspondence of maximal ideals, R/m_i^n has a unique maximal ideal m_i/m_i^n . Hence it is local. Also since R is Artinian, R/m_i^n is Artinian. Thus we are done.

9 Valuation and Valuation Rings

9.1 Valuation Rings

Definition 9.1.1: Valuation Rings

Let R be an integral domain. We say that R is a valuation ring if for all $x \in \operatorname{Frac}(R)$ and $x \neq 0$, then either x or x^{-1} is in R.

Lemma 9.1.2

Let R be a valuation ring. Then the following are true.

- R is a local ring.
- \bullet R is normal.

Proof. Let R be a valuation ring. The set of units of R are precisely $S=\{x\in\operatorname{Frac}(R)\mid x\in R \text{ and } x^{-1}\in R\}$. Let $m=R\setminus S$. Let $x\in m$ and $r\in R$. Then rx is not a unit because if arx=1, then $ar\in R$ is an inverse of x, which is a contradiction since $x\in S$. Hence $rx\in R$.

Let $x, y \in m$. If one of them are zero then their sum lies in m. If both are not zero, then xy^{-1} is an element of Frac(R). Since R is a valuation ring, either xy^{-1} or yx^{-1} is in R. In either case, we have

$$x + y = y(y^{-1}x + 1) = x(1 + x^{-1}y) \in m$$

(one factor is in m and the other in R). Hence m is an ideal. By prp2.1.3 we conclude that R is a local ring with unique maximal ideal m.

Let $x \in Frac(R)$ be integral over R. Then

$$x^{n} + r_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + r_{1}x + r_{0} = 0$$

for some $r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1} \in R$. If $x \in R$ then we are done. If $x \notin R$ then since R is a valuation ring, $x^{-1} \in R$. Then

$$x = -(r_1 + r_2 x^{-1} + \dots + r_n x^{1-n}) \in R$$

so that R is normal.

9.2 Valuations on a Field

Definition 9.2.1: Totally Ordered Group

Let G be an abelian group. We say that G is a totally ordered group if there is a total order " \leq " on G such that $a \leq b$ implies $ca \leq cb$ for all $a,b,c \in G$.

Definition 9.2.2: Valuation on a Field

Let K be a field. Let G be a totally ordered abelian group. A valuation on K with values in G is a group homomorphism $v: K^{\times} \to G$ such that for all $x, y \in K^*$, we have

- v(xy) = v(x) + v(y)
- $v(x+y) \ge \min\{v(x), v(y)\}$

We use the convention that $v(0) = \infty$.

Definition 9.2.3: Associated Valuation Ring

Let K be a field and $v:K\to\mathbb{Z}$ a discrete valuation. Define the associated valuation ring of

K to be the subring

$$R_v = \{ x \in K \mid v(x) \ge 0 \}$$

Lemma 9.2.4

Let K be a field. Let v be a discrete valuation on K. Then R_v is a valuation ring.

9.3 Discrete Valuations and Normalizations

Definition 9.3.1: Discrete Valuations

Let K be a field. A discrete valuation on K is a valuation $v: K^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$.

Definition 9.3.2: Normalized Discrete Valuations

Let (K, v) be a discrete valuation ring. We say that it is normalized if v is surjective.

Lemma 9.3.3

Let K be a field with a discrete valuation v. Then $v(K^{\times}) = n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Lemma 9.3.4: Normalization of a Discrete Valuation

Let K be a field with a discrete valuation v such that $v(K^{\times}) = n\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Define the normalization of v to be the valuation $v_N : K^{\times} \to \mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$$v_N(k) = \frac{1}{n}v(k)$$

for all $k \in K^{\times}$.

Therefore we always work on normalized discrete valuation rings.

9.4 Discrete Valuation Rings

Definition 9.4.1: Discrete Valuation Rings

Let R be a commutative ring. We say that R is a discrete valuation ring if there exists a field K and a discrete valuation v on K such that

$$R=R_v$$

is the associated valuation ring of K.

Proposition 9.4.2

Let R be a discrete valuation ring with valuation v. Let $t \in R$ be such that v(t) = 1. Then the following are true.

- A nonzero element $u \in R$ is a unit if and only if v(u) = 0
- $\dim(R) = 1$

Proof.

• Let R be a discrete valuation ring. Suppose that $x \in R$ is a unit. Then $v(x^{-1}) = -v(x)$. Then $-v(x), v(x) \ge 0$ implies v(x) = 0. Now if v(y) > 0, suppose for contradiction that

 $u \in R$ is an inverse of y, then

$$0 = v(1) = v(uy) = v(u) + v(y)$$

But v(y) > 0 implies that v(u) < 0 which implies that $u \notin R$, a contradiction.

Definition 9.4.3: Uniformizing Parameter

Let R be a discrete valuation ring with valuation v. A uniformizing parameter for R is an element $t \in R$ such that v(t) = 1.

Proposition 9.4.4

Let R be a discrete valuation ring with valuation v. Let $t \in R$ be a uniformizing parameter of R. Then the following are true.

- Every non-zero ideal of R is a principal ideal of the form (t^n) for some $n \ge 0$
- Every $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ can be written in the form $r = ut^n$ for some unit u and $n \ge 0$.

Proof.

- Let $t \in R$ such that v(t) = 1. Let $x \in m$ where v(x) = n > 0. Then $v(x) = nv(t) = v(t^n)$ means that every $x \in m$ is of the form t^n . Thus m = (t). Since every ideal I is a subset of this maximal ideal, any ideal is of the form $I = (t^n)$ for some n > 0.
- Follows from the fact that (t^n) is the unique maximal ideal.

The rest of the section devotes efforts to recognizing discrete valuation rings.

Proposition 9.4.5

Let R be a valuation ring. Then the following are equivalent.

- *R* is a discrete valuation ring.
- \bullet R is a principal ideal domain.
- \bullet *R* is Noetherian.

Proposition 9.4.6: Equivalent Characterizations of DVRs I

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

- R is a discrete valuation ring
- R is Noetherian, local, dim(R) = 1 and normal.
- R is local, a PID and not a field.
- \bullet R is a UFD with a unique irreducible element up to multiplication of a unit

Proof.

• (1) \Longrightarrow (3): We have seen that the set of non-units is precisely the set $m=\{x\in K|v(x)>0\}$. We show that this is an ideal. Clearly $x,y\in m$ implies $v(x+y)=\min\{v(x),v(y)\}>0$. Let $u\in R$. Then v(ux)=v(u)+v(x)>0 since v(x)>0 and $v(u)\geq 0$.

We have seen that every ideal is of the form (t^n) for some n>0. Thus every ascending chains of ideal must be of the form

$$(t^{n_1}) \subset (t^{n_2}) \subset \dots$$

for $n_1 > n_2 > \dots$. Since n_1, n_2, \dots is strictly decreasing, the chain must eventually stabilizes. This proves that R is Noetherian and has principal maximal ideal.

• $(1) \implies (3)$:

Proposition 9.4.7: Equivalent Characterizations of DVRs II

Let R be an integral domain that is Noetherian and local with unique maximal ideal m. Then the following are equivalent.

- *R* is a discrete valuation ring.
- $\dim(R) = 1$ and R is normal.
- $\dim(R) = 1$ and $\dim_{R/m}(m/m^2) = 1$
- R is not a field and m is principal.
- $I = m^k$ for all non-zero ideals I of R
- ullet There exists $t\in R$ and k>0 such that $I=(t^k)$ for all non-zero ideal I of R

Proof.

Proposition 9.4.8

Let R be a Noetherian integral domain and $\dim(R) = 1$. Then R is normal if and only if R_m is a discrete valuation ring for all maximal ideals m.

In summary, if R is a discrete valuation ring, then R has the following properties.

- ullet R is integrally closed and in particular is normal.
- \bullet *R* is a PID and in particular is a UFD and an integral domain.
- R is Noetherian and local
- *R* has Krull dimension 1.
- $\dim_{R/m}(m/m^2) = 1$ (these are called regular local rings as we will see in Commutative Algebra 2)
- Every ideal I of R is equal to the power m^k of the maximal ideal m. In particular if m is generated by the uniformizing parameter t, then $= I = (t^k)$ in this case.
- Such a t is an irreducible element (that is unique up to multiplication by a unit), and every element of R can be written as ut^n for u a unit and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

There is a simple diagram of relationships between DVRs and some other standard types of commutative rings.

 $DVRs \subset PIDs \subset UFDs \subset Normal Domains \subset Integral Domains$

10 Dedekind Domains

10.1 Fractional Ideals

Definition 10.1.1: Fractional Ideal

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be a R-submodule of Frac(R). We say that I is a fractional ideal of R if there exists $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ such that $rI \subseteq R$.

While I is not exactly an ideal of R, we can think of it as if it were an ideal because it is isomorphic to an actual ideal of R.

Lemma 10.1.2

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be a fractional ideal of R where $rI \subseteq R$ for some $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$. Then there is an R-module isomorphism

$$I\cong rI \subseteq R$$

given by $i \mapsto ri$.

Proof. I claim that there is an R-module isomorphism $I \cong rI$ for $rI \subseteq R$ given by $i \mapsto ri$. The kernel of this R-module homomorphism is given by $\{i \in I \mid ri = 0\}$. But ri = 0 if and only if r = 0 or i = 0. Since $r \neq 0$ we must have i = 0 so that the kernel is trivial. Moreover, this R-module homomorphism is surjective since for any $k \in rI$ it can be written as k = ri for some i. Then $i \in I$ maps to ri under the morphism. Hence $I \cong rI$ as R-modules. \square

Lemma 10.1.3

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be a fractional ideal of R. If R is Noetherian, then I is finitely generated.

Proof. Let R be Noetherian. Since I is isomorphic to rI for some non-zero $r \in R$, and rI is an ideal of R, R being Noetherian implies that rI is finitely generated and hence I is finitely generated.

10.2 Invertible Ideals

Definition 10.2.1: Invertible Ideals

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). We say that I is invertible if there exists an ideal J of R such that JI = R.

Lemma 10.2.2

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Then I is invertible if and only if $I^{-1}I = R$ where we define

$$I^{-1} = \{ s \in \operatorname{Frac}(R) \mid sI \subseteq R \}$$

Proposition 10.2.3

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be an R-submodule of Frac(R). Then the following are true.

- If *I* is a non-zero principal ideal of *R*, then *I* is invertible.
- If *I* is invertible, then *I* is fractional.

Proposition 10.2.4

Let R be an integral domain. Let I be a fractional ideal. Then I is invertible if and only if I is finitely generated, and for any maximal ideal m of R, IR_m is a principal ideal of R_m .

Proposition 10.2.5

Let R be an integral domain. Let P be a non-zero prime ideal of R. If R is Noetherian and P is invertible, then R_P is a discrete valuation ring.

Proof. Let R be a Noetherian integral domain and P a non-zero invertible prime ideal. We know that PR_P is the unique maximal ideal of the local ring R_P . By the above prp, PR_P is a principal ideal. Thus R_P is now a Noetherian local ring with principal maximal ideal. By prp10.4.6 in Commutative Algebra 1, we conclude that R_P is a discrete valuation ring.

10.3 Dedekind Domains

Definition 10.3.1: Dedekind Domains

Let R be an integral domain. We say that R is a dedekind domain if every non-zero ideal can be expressed uniquely as a direct product of finitely many prime ideals of R.

Dedekind sought for an integral domain whose ideals can be factorized uniquely as a product of primes.

Proposition 10.3.2

Let R be an integral domain that is not a field. Then the following are equivalent.

- R is a Dedekind domain.
- Every non-zero fractional ideal I of R is invertible $(I^{-1}I = R)$.
- R is Noetherian, $\dim(R) = 1$ and normal
- R is Noetherian, $\dim(R) = 1$ and for any non-zero maximal ideal m of R, R_m is a discrete valuation ring.
- R is Noetherian, $\dim(R) = 1$ and every primary ideal in R is a prime power.

Proof.

• (2) \Longrightarrow (3): Let I be an ideal of R. Since I is invertible, by 1.1.5 we conclude that I is finitely generated. Hence R is Noetherian. Let P be a prime ideal of R. By assumption, P is invertible. prp1.2.5 implies that R_P is a DVR. In particular, it is integrally closed and $\dim(R_P)=1$. This means that $\operatorname{ht}_R(P)=1$. Thus R is either a field or $\dim(R)=1$. By assumption R is not a field. Hence $\dim(R)=1$. We know that $R=\bigcap_{m \text{ a maximal ideal}} R_m$. Since prime ideals are maximal ideals in one dimensional rings, we can rewrite the intersection as

$$R = \bigcap_{P \text{ a prime ideal}} R_P$$

But each R_P is a DVR. Hence R is a DVR and we conclude that R is normal.

• (3) \implies (2): m be a maximal ideal of R. We have seen from Commutative Algebra 1 that R_m is a Noetherian local ring. By 7.4.2 in Commutative Algebra 1 we also conclude that R_m is normal. By 9.3.2 of Commutative Algebra 1 we know that $\dim(R_m) = \operatorname{ht}_R(m) = 1$. By 10.4.6 of Commutative Algebra 1, R_m is a DVR and in particular m is a principal ideal.

Let I be a fractional ideal of R. We know by 1.1.3 that I is finitely generated. Since R_m is a normal Noetherian local ring of dimension 1, the ideal I_m of R_m must be principal. By 1.1.5 we conclude that I is invertible.

- (4) \implies (3): Let m be a maximal ideal of R. We know that R_m is a DVR. In particular, it is a normal domain.

By virtue of the fourth item, we can think of Dedekind domains as a patching up of local discrete valuation rings.

Proposition 10.3.3

Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let I and J be ideals of R whose prime factorization is given

$$I = P_1^{a_1} \times \dots \times P_n^{a_n} \quad \text{ and } \quad J = P_1^{b_1} \times \dots \times P_n^{b_n}$$

for P_1,\ldots,P_n distinct prime ideals of R. Then the following are true.

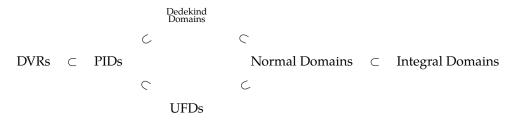
• $I+J=P_1^{\min\{a_1,b_1\}}\times\cdots\times P_n^{\min\{a_n,b_n\}}$ • $I\cap J=P_1^{\max\{a_1,b_1\}}\times\cdots\times P_n^{\max\{a_n,b_n\}}$ • $IJ=P_1^{a_1+b_1}\times\cdots\times P_n^{a_n+b_n}$

Proposition 10.3.4

Let R be a Dedekind domain. Let I be an ideal of R. Then the following are true.

- For any $a \in I$, there exists $b \in R$ such that I = (a, b).
- *I* is can be finitely generated by two elements.

We summarize the relation between Dedekind domains and other types of domains in the following diagram:



In particular, DVRs, PIDs and Dedekind domains are 1-dimensional. Moreover, notice that the only difference between DVRs and Dedekind domains is that DVRs are local rings. They both share the fact that they are Noetherian, dim(R) = 1 and normal.